

# Status Quo and future of IC technologies

## IC/semiconductors(Logic/Memory/Analog/Micro +OSD)

**3D x3D x3D**

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**High mobility/high K/FinFET**  
**PPACR (performance/power/area/  
cost/reliability)**

[Google Scholar Page](#)

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i10 index:201

# Handout content coverage

- Chapter 1 Electrons and Holes in Semiconductors
- Chapter 2 Motion and Recombination
- Chapter 4 PN and Metal-Semiconductor Junctions
- Chapter 5 MOS Capacitor
- Chapter 6 MOSFET

The slides are based on the class notes of Prof. Chenming Hu (胡正明), UC Berkely

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# Chapter 1 Electrons and Holes in Semiconductors

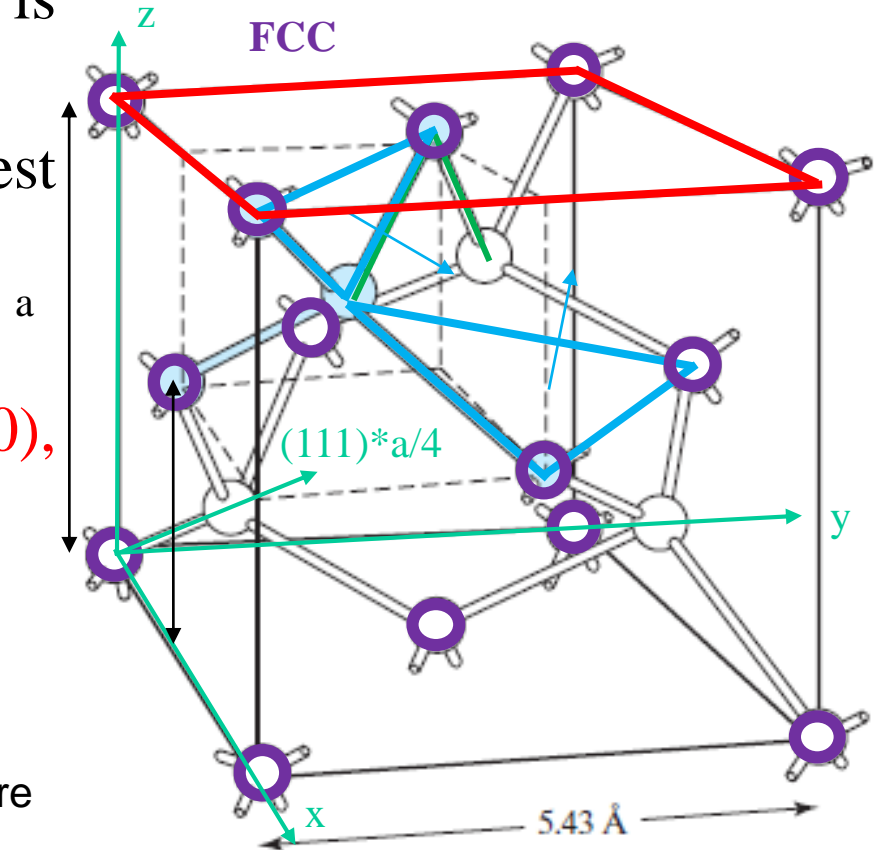
## 1.1 Silicon Crystal Structure

- *Unit cell* of silicon crystal is cubic
- Each Si atom has 4 nearest neighbors
- Monolayer =  $a/4$
- Two basis (dumbbell):  $(000)$ ,  $(111)*a/4$

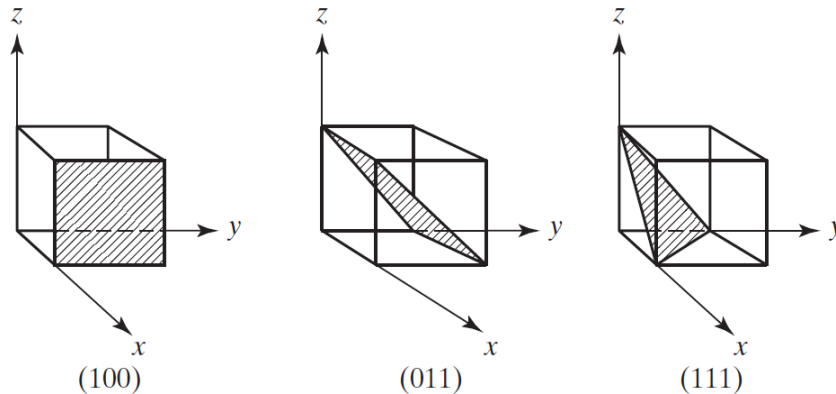
Some rotatable online Si crystal model

1. [Diamond crystal structure](#)
2. [materialsproject.org](http://materialsproject.org)
3. [sketchfab.com](http://sketchfab.com)

Practice1: draw the diamond structure

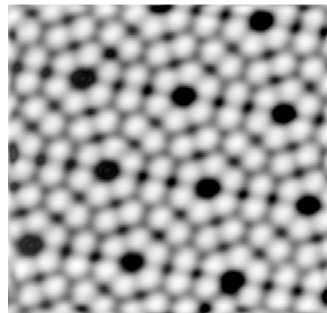
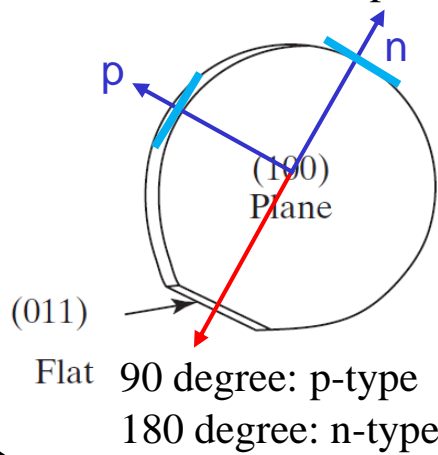


## 1.2.1 Silicon Wafers and Crystal Planes



hexagonal symmetry

Example: GaN on 111 Si substrate

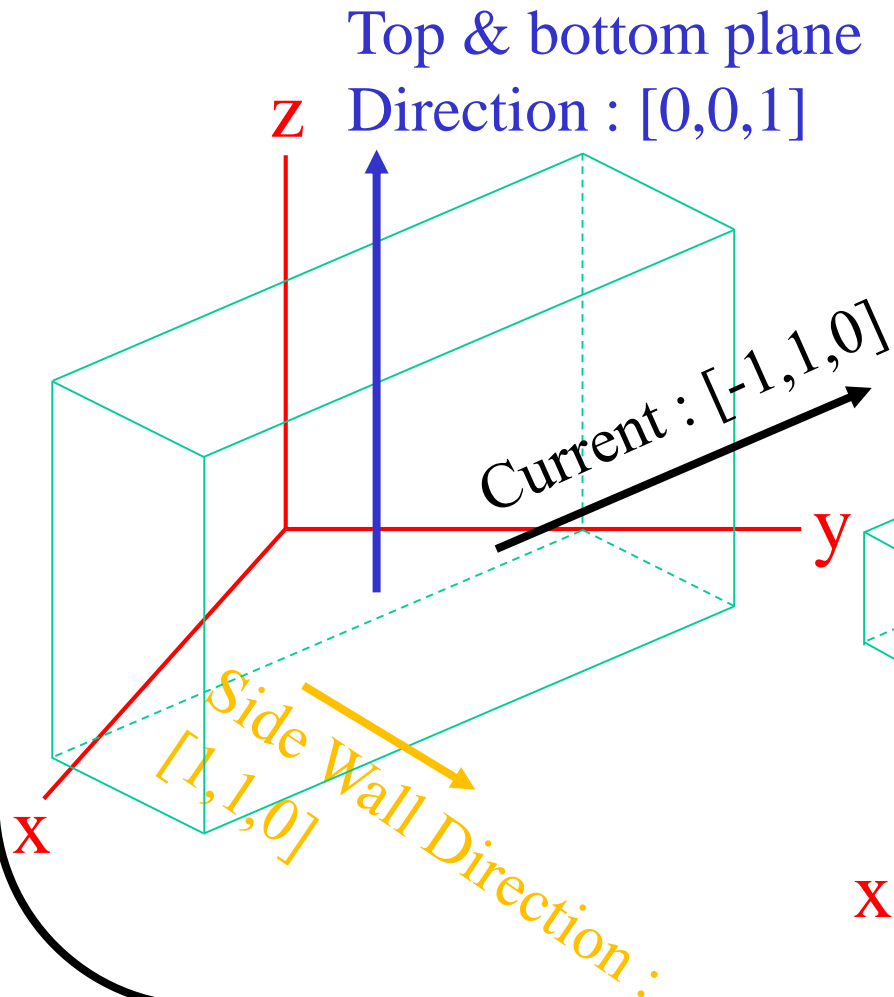


Si (111) plane

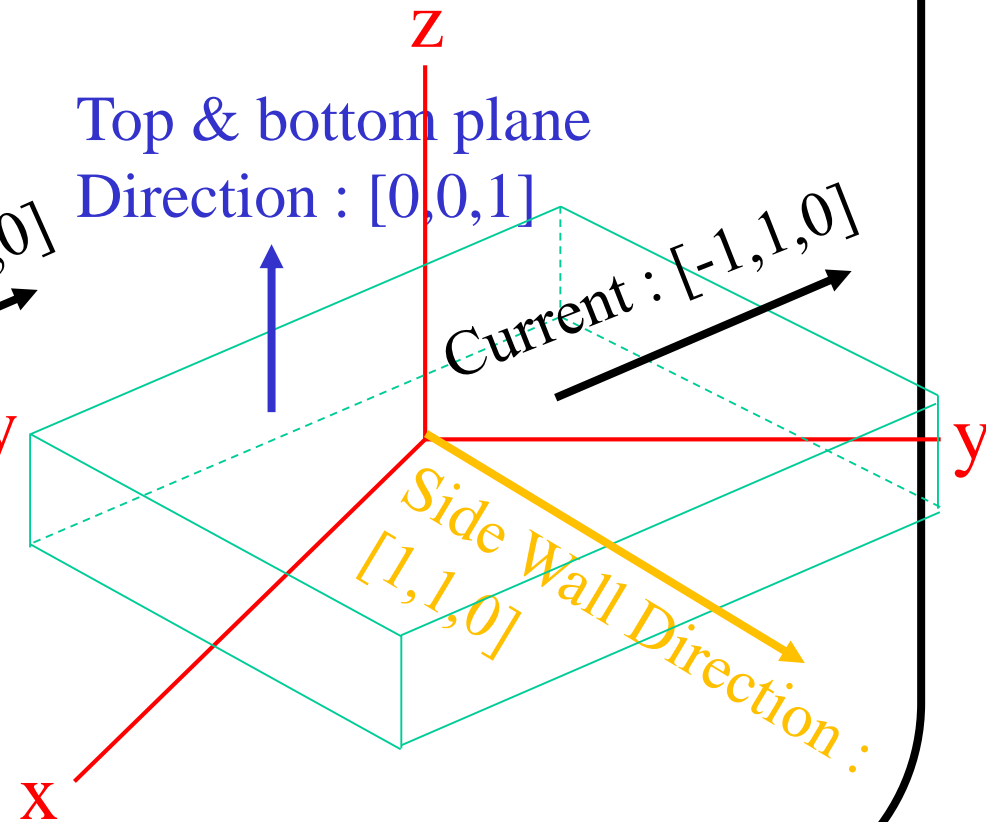
- The standard notation for crystal planes is based on the cubic unit cell.
- Silicon wafers are usually cut along the (100) plane with a flat or notch to help orient the wafer during IC fabrication.

Practice2: draw the FinFET and nanosheet channels

## FinFET

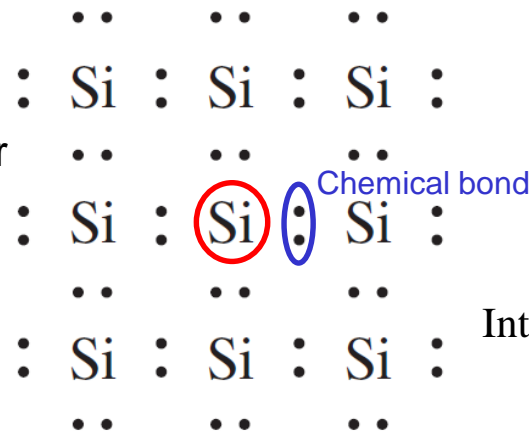


## Nanosheet



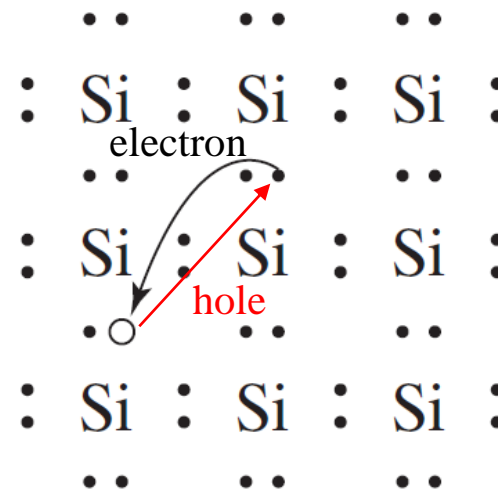
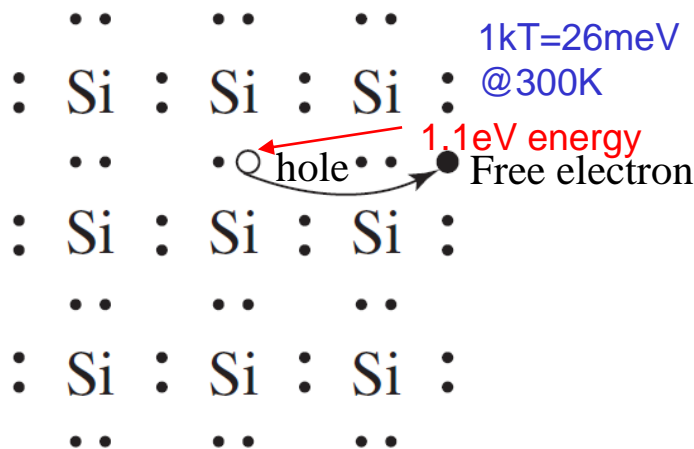
## 1.2.2 Bond Model of Electrons and Holes

Si-Si bond ~2eV  
group 4 semiconductor



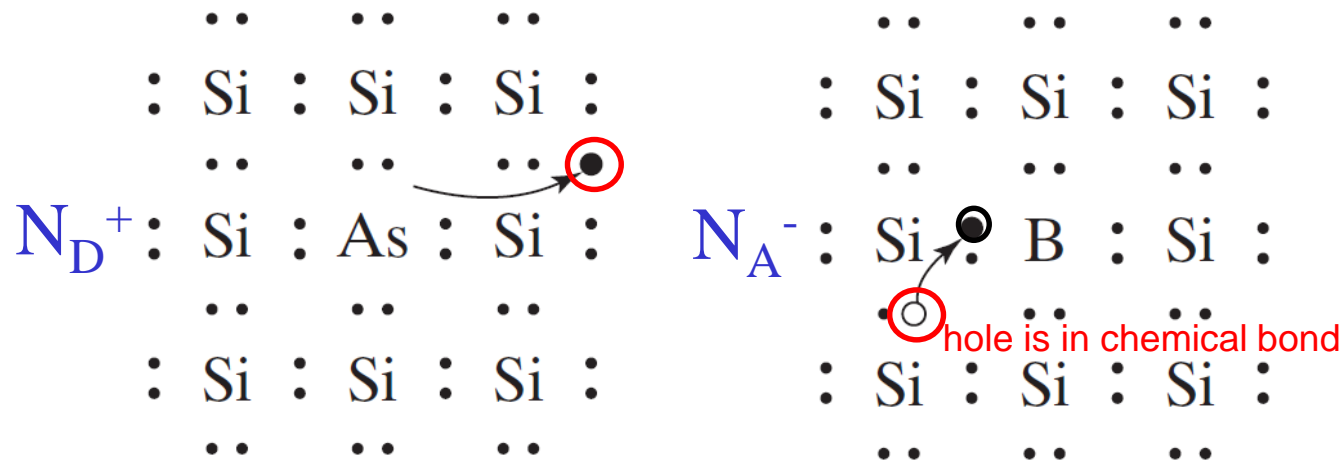
- Silicon crystal in a two-dimensional representation

Intrinsic :  $\frac{10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}}{10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3}} = 10^{-13} = \frac{1}{10^4 \text{ billion}}$



- When an electron breaks loose and becomes a *conduction electron*, a *hole* is also created

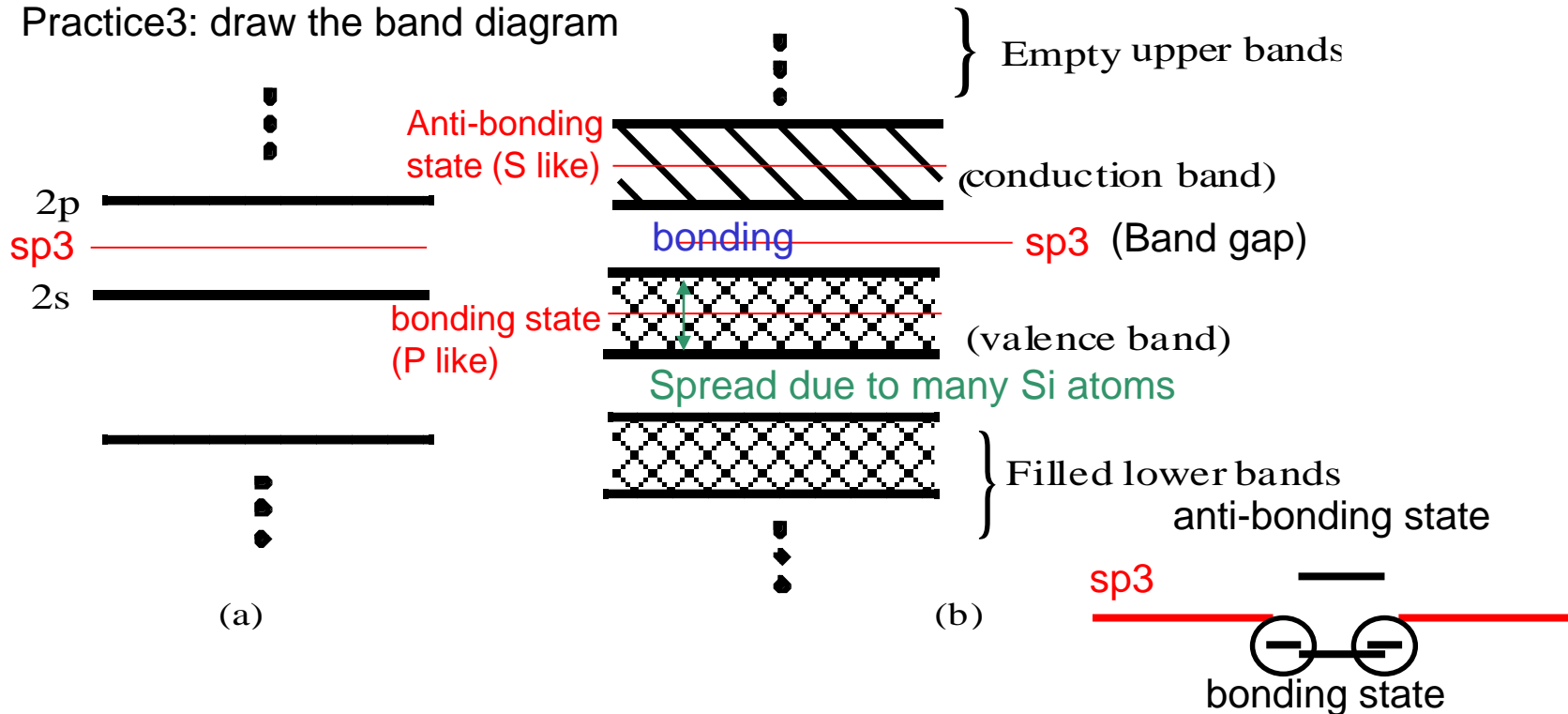
# Extrinsic Dopants in Silicon



- As, a Group V element, introduces conduction electrons and creates *N-type silicon*, and is called a *donor*.
- B, a Group III element, introduces holes and creates *P-type silicon*, and is called an *acceptor*.
- Donors and acceptors are known as dopants. Dopant ionization energy  $\sim 50\text{meV}$  (very low)

# 1.3 Energy Band Model

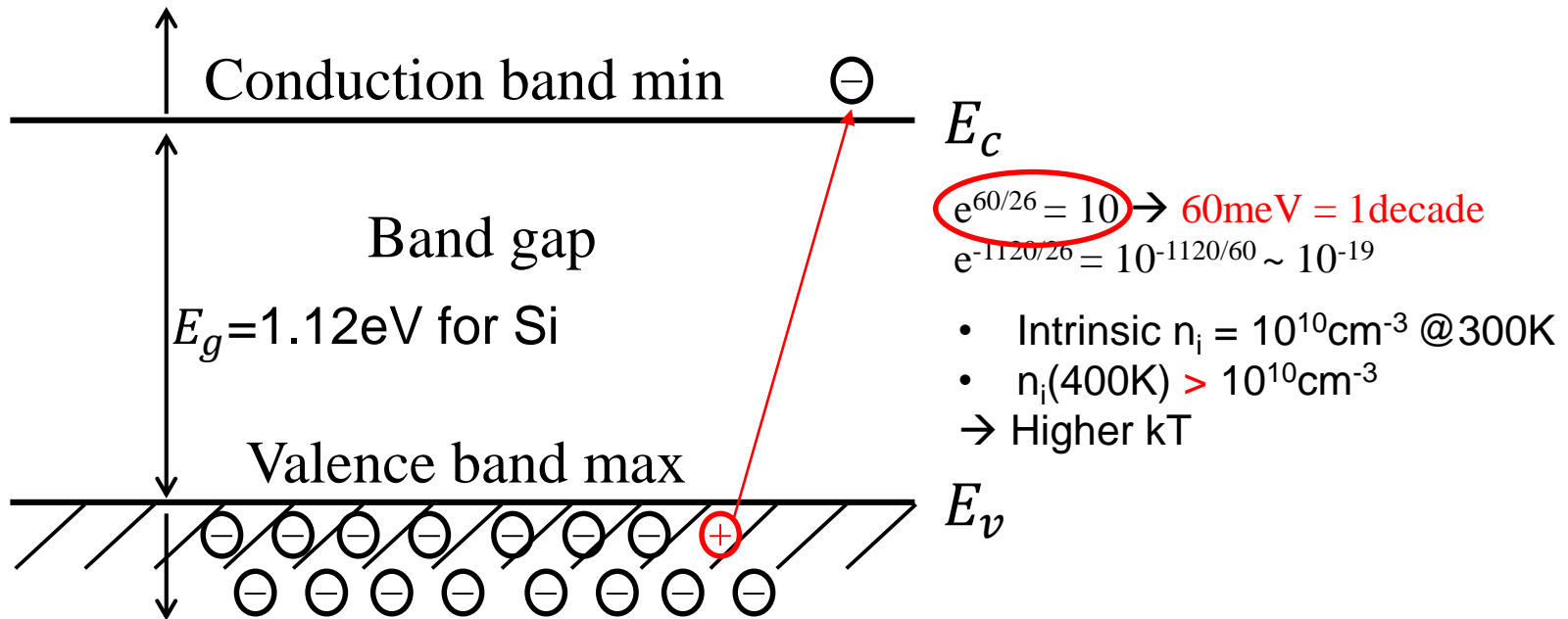
Practice3: draw the band diagram



- Energy states of Si atom (a) expand into energy bands of Si crystal (b).
- The lower bands are filled and higher bands are empty in a semiconductor.
- The highest filled band is the *valence band*.
- The lowest empty band is the *conduction band*.

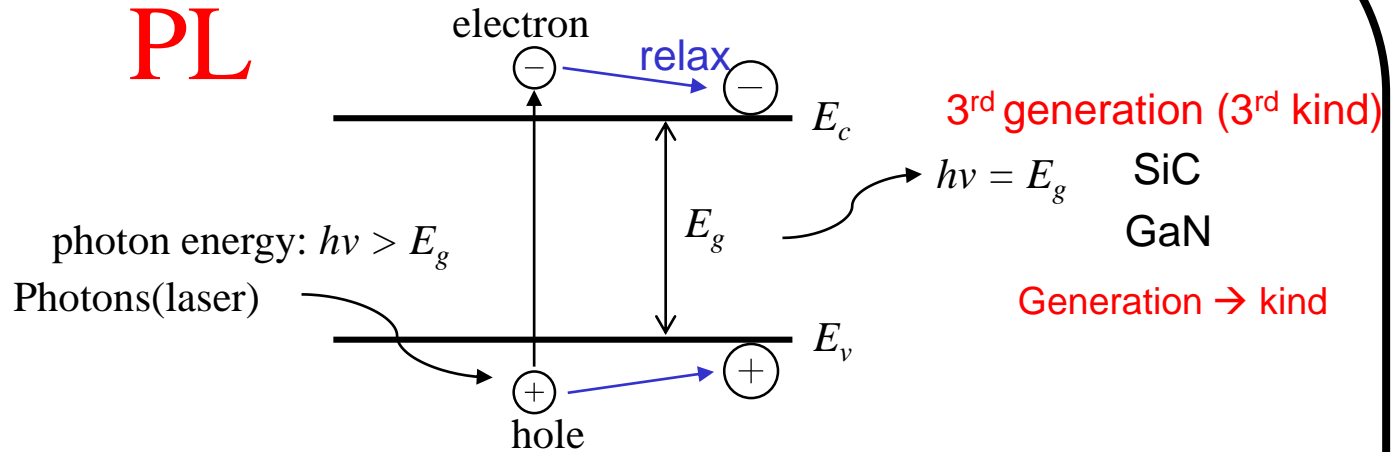


### 1.3.1 Energy Band Diagram



- **Energy band diagram** shows the bottom edge of conduction band  $E_c$ , and top edge of valence band  $E_v$ .
- $E_c$  and  $E_v$  are separated by the **band gap energy**  $E_g$ .

# Measuring the Band Gap Energy by Light Absorption



- $E_g$  can be determined from the minimum energy ( $h\nu$ ) of photons that are absorbed by the semiconductor.

Bandgap energies of selected semiconductors

Semi-conductor	InSb	Ge	Si	GaAs	GaP	ZnSe	Diamond
$E_g$ (eV)	0.18	0.66	1.12	1.42	2.25	2.7	6

1<sup>st</sup> generation (1<sup>st</sup> kind)

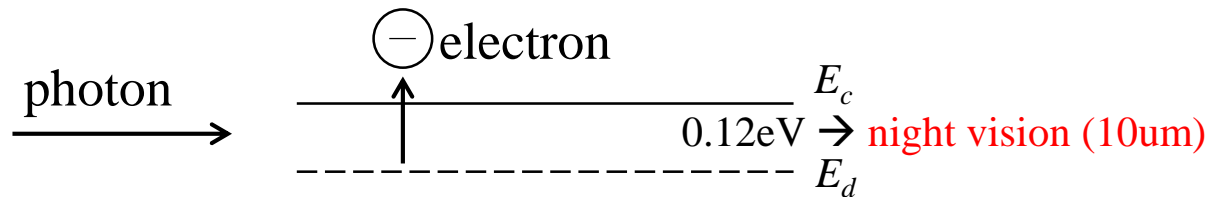
2<sup>nd</sup> generation (2<sup>nd</sup> kind)

4<sup>th</sup> generation 4<sup>th</sup> kind)

## *Infrared Detector Based on Freeze-out*

- To image the black-body radiation emitted by tumors requires a photodetector that responds to  $h\nu$ 's around 0.1 eV.
- In doped Si operating in the freeze-out mode ( $T=77\text{K}$ ), conduction electrons are created when the infrared photons provide the energy to ionized the donor atoms.

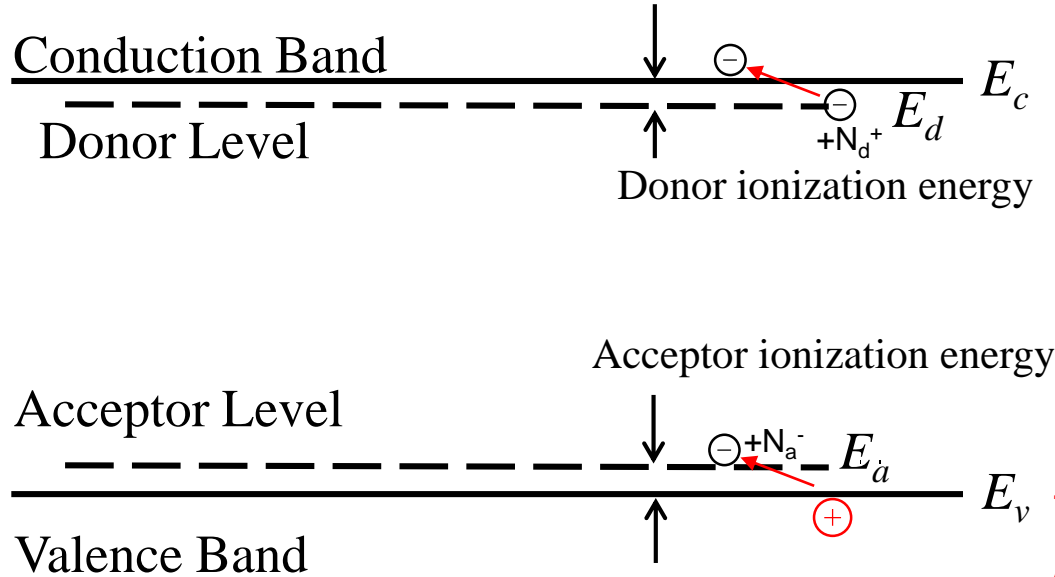
Black body radiation of human:  $\lambda = 10 \text{ um}$



$$\lambda = 1.24 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{um} / E$$

Si: inter-band transition ( $E_v \rightarrow E_c$ ),  $\lambda < 1.1 \text{ um} \rightarrow \text{CIS}$

## 1.3.2 Donor and Acceptor in the Band Model



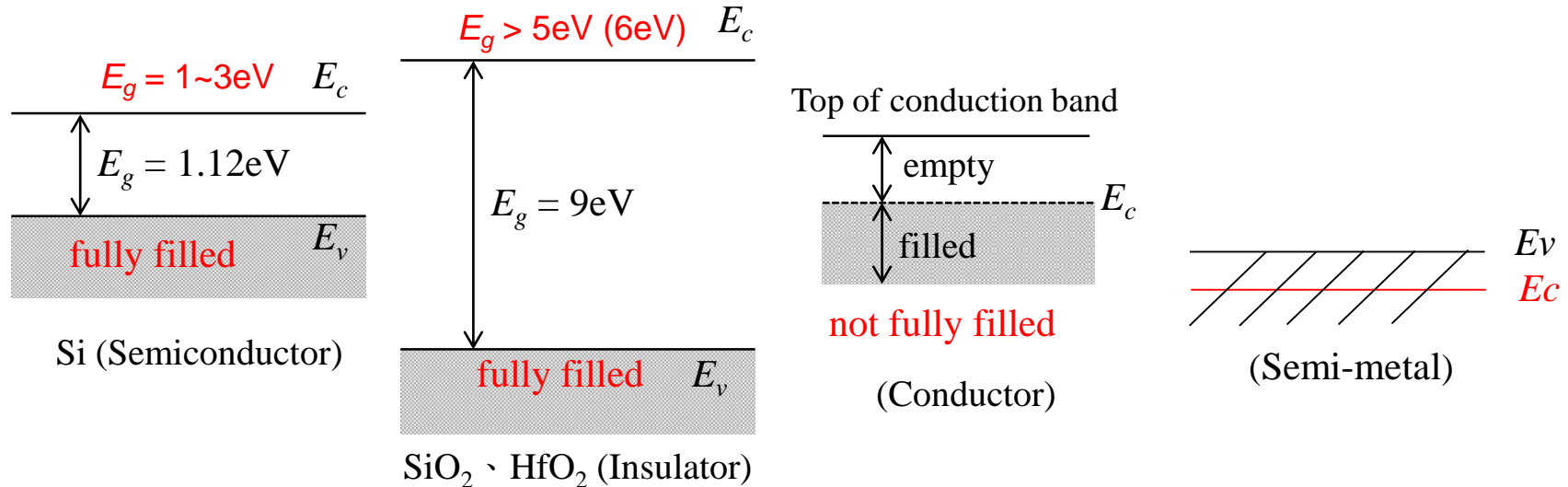
Toxic!  
AsH<sub>3</sub> is also toxic  
Asadin → As<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

### Ionization energy of selected donors and acceptors in silicon

	Donors			Acceptors		
Dopant	Sb	P	As	B	Al	In
Ionization energy, $E_c - E_d$ or $E_a - E_v$ (meV)	39	44	54	45	57	160

1kT=26meV @300K

# 1.4 Semiconductors, Insulators, Conductors, and Semi-metal



- Totally filled bands and totally empty bands do not allow current flow. (Just as there is no motion of liquid in a totally filled or totally empty bottle.)
- Metal conduction band is half-filled.
- Semiconductors have lower  $E_g$ 's than insulators and can be doped.
- $\alpha\text{-Sn} : E_C = E_V \rightarrow$  zero bandgap semiconductor, not semi-metal

# 1.5 Electrons and Holes

## 1.5.1 Effective Mass

In an electric field,  $E$ , an electron or a hole accelerates.

No scattering

$$a = \frac{-eE}{m_n} \quad \text{electrons}$$

$$a = \frac{-eE}{m_p} \quad \text{holes}$$

$$J = nev$$

$$I = J \cdot A$$

$$\tau = CV/I$$

Electron and hole effective masses

SiO<sub>2</sub> is good insulator  
and GeO<sub>2</sub> is bad

bad reliability

	Si	Ge	GaAs	InAs	AlAs
$m_n/m_0$	0.26	0.12	0.068	0.023	2
$m_p/m_0$	0.39	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3

SiGe in 5nm node

When  $n$  is small, conduction band is a circle

## 1.5.1 Effective Mass

The electron wave function is the solution of the three dimensional Schrodinger wave equation

$$-\frac{\hbar}{2m_0}\nabla^2\Psi + V(r)\Psi = E\Psi$$

Bloch's theorem  
 $\Psi = U(r)e^{\pm ik\cdot r}$

Free electron  
 $\Psi = e^{\pm ik\cdot r}$

The solution is of the form  $e^{\pm ik\cdot r}$

$k$  = wave vector =  $2\pi$ /electron wavelength

For each  $k$ , there is a corresponding

$E(k)$  (eigen energy). Band structure:  $E$

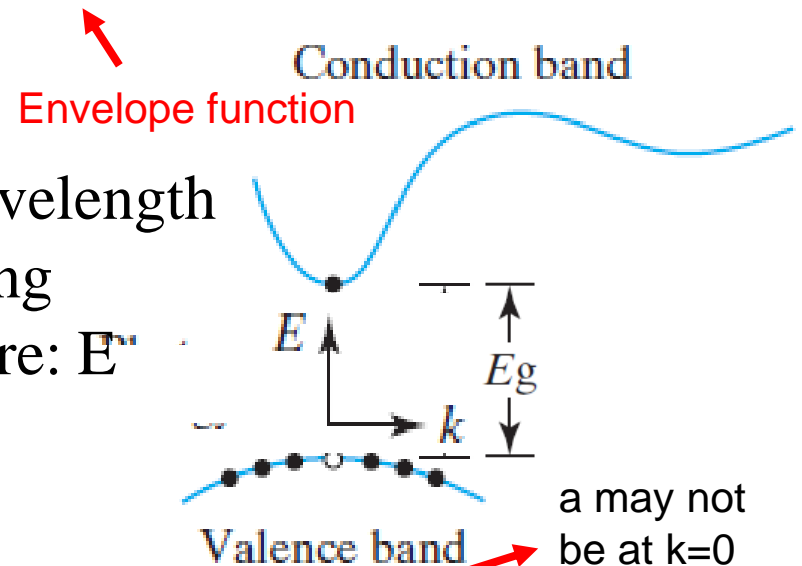
is function of  $k$ .

$$\text{Acceleration} = -\frac{q\varepsilon}{\hbar^2} \frac{d^2 E}{dk^2} = \frac{F}{m}$$

$$\text{Effective mass} \equiv \frac{\hbar^2}{d^2 E / dk^2}$$

~~$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots$$~~

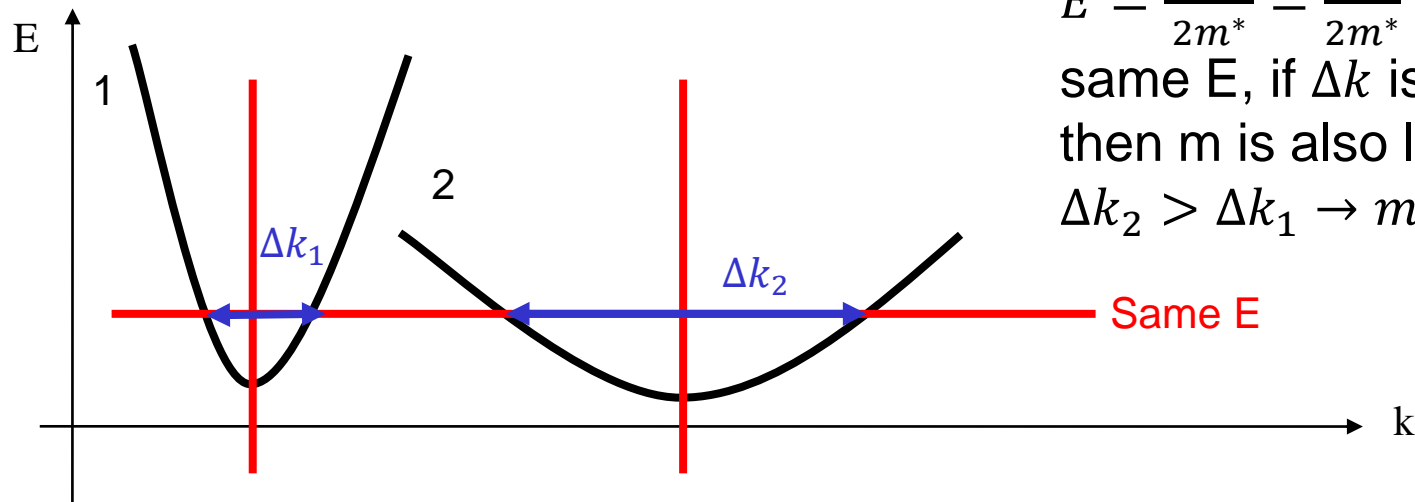
$$\text{Free electron : } E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}$$



Practice4: derive formula of effective mass

- $E = E_c + ak + bk^2 + ck^3 + dk^4 + \dots$
- Assume parabolic band:  $E = E_c + bk^2 \rightarrow E = E_c + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}$
- $\frac{d^2 E}{dk^2} = \frac{\hbar^2}{m^*} \rightarrow m^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{d^2 E / dk^2}$
- The electron's behavior near approximation point is just like an electron with effective mass  $m^*$ .

Q: Which one has larger effective mass?



$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*} = \frac{p^2}{2m^*} \rightarrow \text{For same } E, \text{ if } \Delta k \text{ is larger, then } m \text{ is also larger}$$
$$\Delta k_2 > \Delta k_1 \rightarrow m_2^* > m_1^*$$



## 1.5.2 How to Measure the Effective Mass

### Cyclotron Resonance Technique

Centripetal force = Lorentzian force

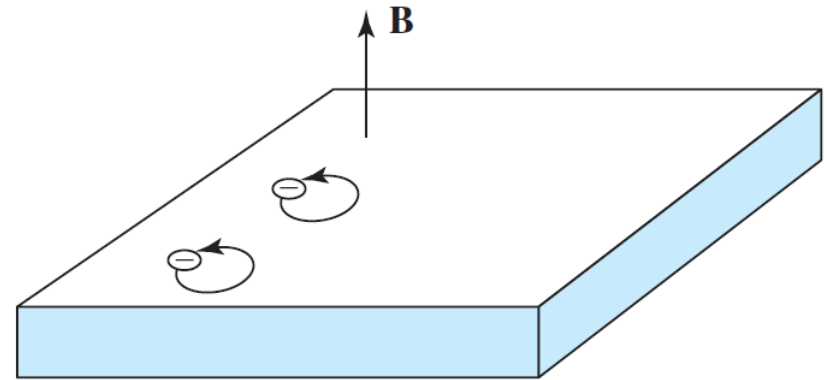
$$\frac{m_n v^2}{r} = evB$$

$$v = \frac{eBr}{m_n}$$

$$f_{cr} = \frac{v}{2\pi r} = \frac{eB}{2\pi m_n}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f_{cr} = \frac{eB}{m_n}$$

- $f_{cr}$  is the Cyclotron resonance frequency, which is independent of  $v$  and  $r$ .
- Electrons strongly absorb microwaves of that frequency.
- By measuring  $f_{cr}$ ,  $m_n$  can be found.



Quantum Computing: MRS bulletin July, 2021

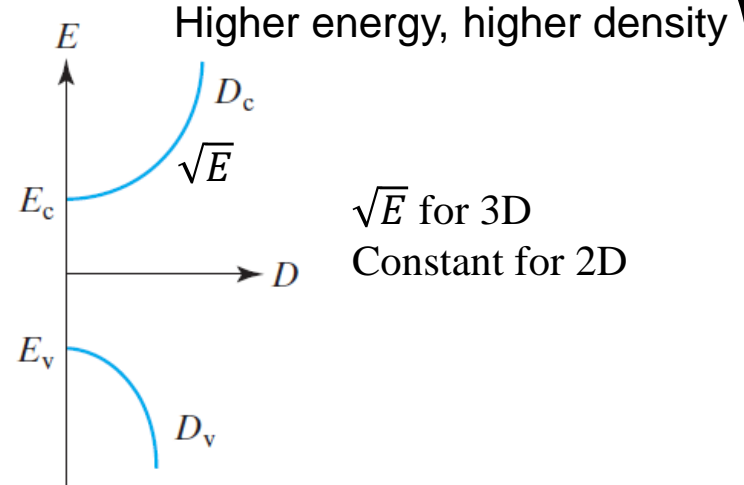
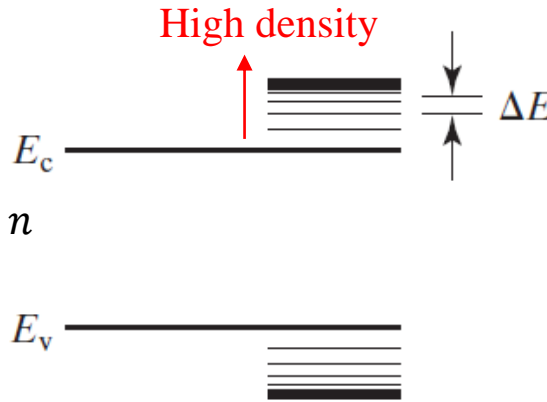
Low temperature similar to Cyclotron Resonance: < 4K

# 1.6 Density of States To determine n

Fermi-dirac distribution similar to boltzmann distribution

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}$$

$$k(k_x, k_y, k_z) = \frac{2\pi}{l} * n$$



The higher energy, the lower occupation probability

$$D_c(E) \equiv \frac{\text{number of states in } \Delta E}{\Delta E \cdot \text{volume}} \left( \frac{1}{\text{eV} \cdot \text{cm}^3} \right)$$

3D density of state

$$\propto \sqrt{m_x m_y m_z} \quad D_c(E) = \frac{8\pi m_n \sqrt{2m_n(E - E_c)}}{h^3}$$

Conduction band edge (minimum energy)

density of state effective mass

$$D_v(E) = \frac{8\pi m_p \sqrt{2m_p(E_v - E)}}{h^3}$$

# 1.7 Fermi Function–The Probability of an Energy State Being Occupied by an Electron

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{(E-E_f)/kT}}$$

$E_f$  is called the *Fermi energy* or the *Fermi level*.

Practice5: Plot  $f(E)$  and prove the area above and below fermi-level are equal and compare  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ,  $T_1 > T_2$

Boltzmann approximation:

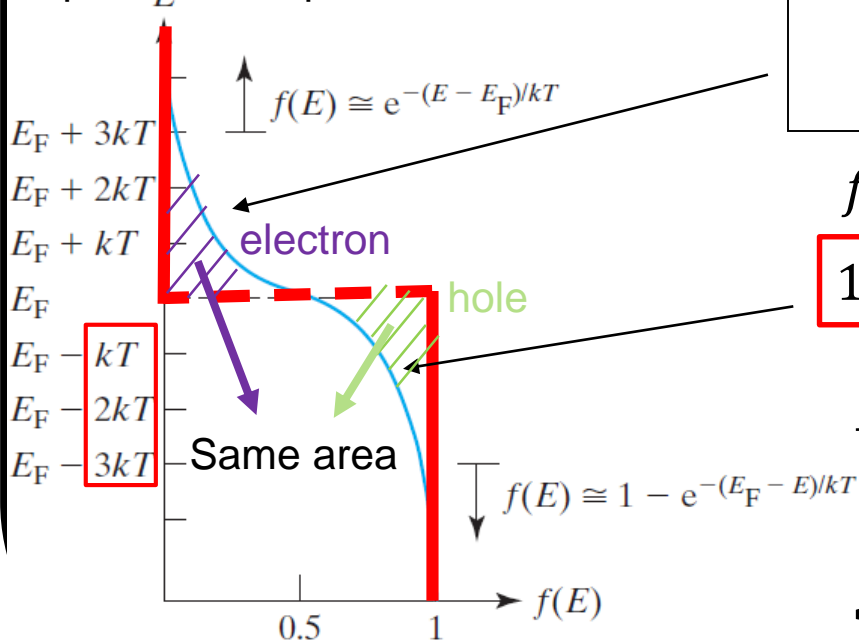
$$f(E) \sim e^{-(E-E_f)/kT}$$

$$E - E_f \gg kT$$

$$f(E) \sim 1 - e^{-(E_f-E)/kT}$$

$$E - E_f \ll -kT$$

$$1 - f(E) \sim e^{-(E_f-E)/kT} \quad \text{hole distribution}$$



# 1.8 Electron and Hole Concentrations

## 1.8.1 Derivation of $n$ and $p$ from $D(E)$ and $f(E)$

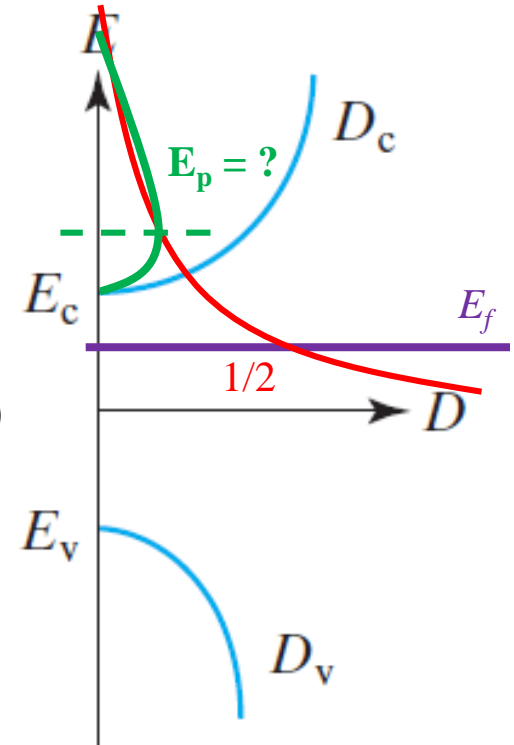
$$n = \int_{E_c}^{\text{top of conduction band}} f(E) D_c(E) dE \quad (\text{cm}^{-3})$$

$$n = \frac{8\pi m_n \sqrt{2m_n}}{h^3} \int_{E_c}^{\infty} \sqrt{E - E_c} \boxed{e^{-(E-E_f)/kT}} dE$$

Boltzmann approximation

$$= \frac{8\pi m_n \sqrt{2m_n}}{h^3} e^{-(E_c-E_f)/kT} \int_0^{\infty} \sqrt{E - E_c} e^{-(E-E_c)/kT} d(E - E_c)$$

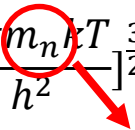
Practice6: find  $E_p$  (relative to  $E_c$ ), where  $f(E) \cdot D(E)$  is maximum.



# *Electron and Hole Concentrations*

Practice7: write function of n and p

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT}$$

$$N_c \equiv 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi m_n kT}{h^2} \right]^{\frac{3}{2}}$$


Density of state effective mass

$$p = N_v e^{-(E_f - E_v)/kT}$$

$$N_v \equiv 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi m_p kT}{h^2} \right]^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$N_c$  is called the *effective density of states of the conduction band*.

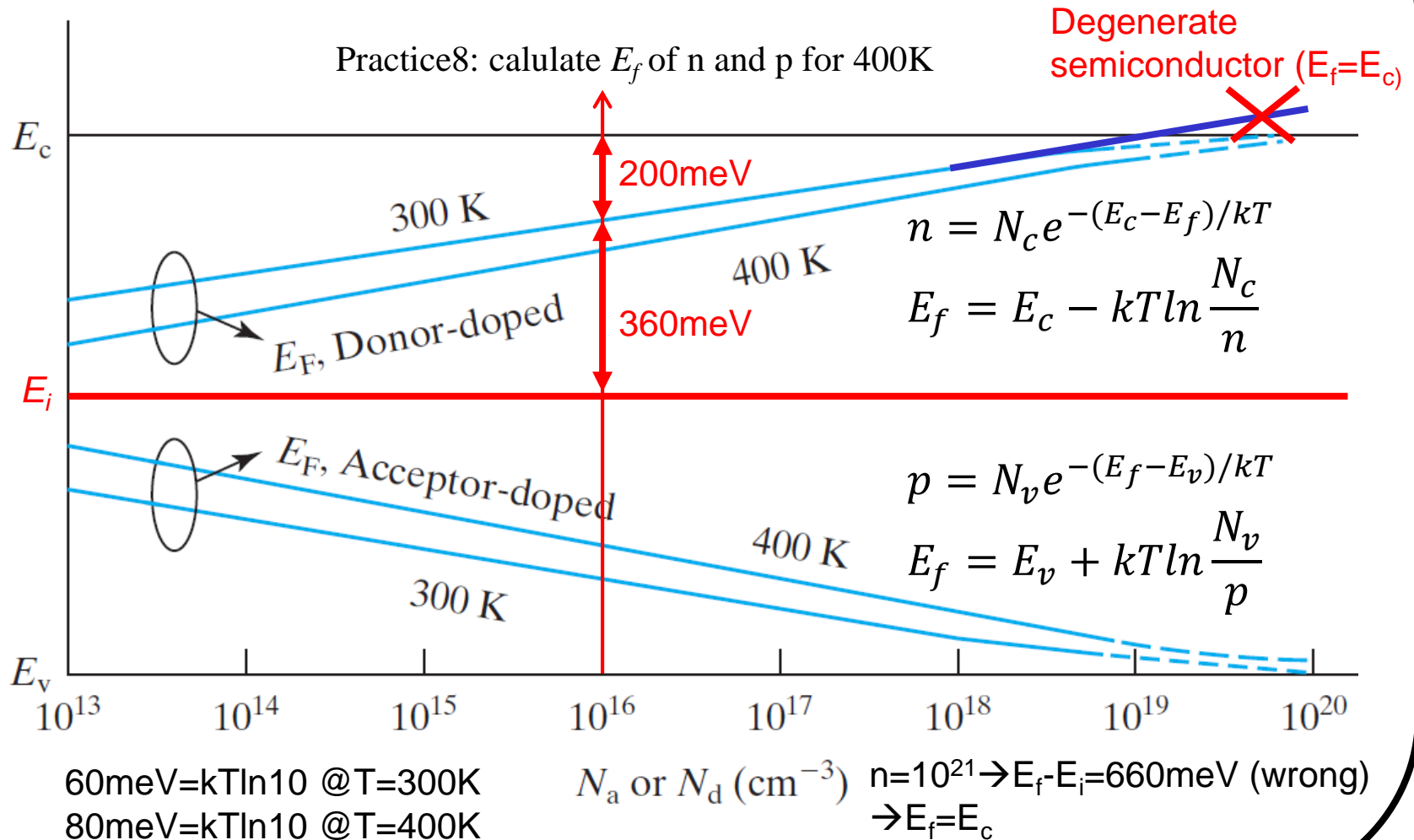
60meV  $\rightarrow$  10X concentration

$N_v$  is called the *effective density of states of the valence band*.

**Remember:** the closer  $E_f$  moves up to  $N_c$ , the larger n is; the closer  $E_f$  moves down to  $E_v$ , the larger p is.

**For Si,  $N_c = 2.8 \times 10^{19} \text{cm}^{-3}$  and  $N_v = 1.04 \times 10^{19} \text{cm}^{-3}$**

## 1.8.2 The Fermi Level and Carrier Concentrations

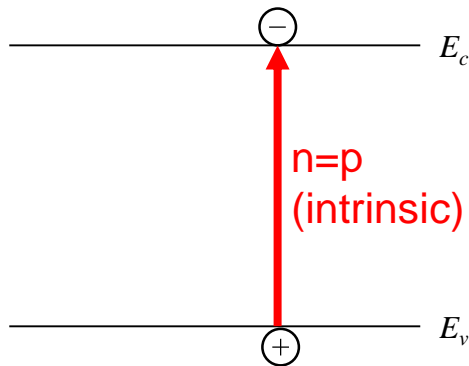


### 1.8.3 The $np$ Product and the Intrinsic Carrier Concentration

Multiply  $n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT}$  and  $p = N_v e^{-(E_f - E_v)/kT}$

$$np = N_c N_v e^{-(E_c - E_v)/kT} = N_c N_v e^{-E_g/kT}$$

Practice9: calculate the exact location of  $E_{fi}$

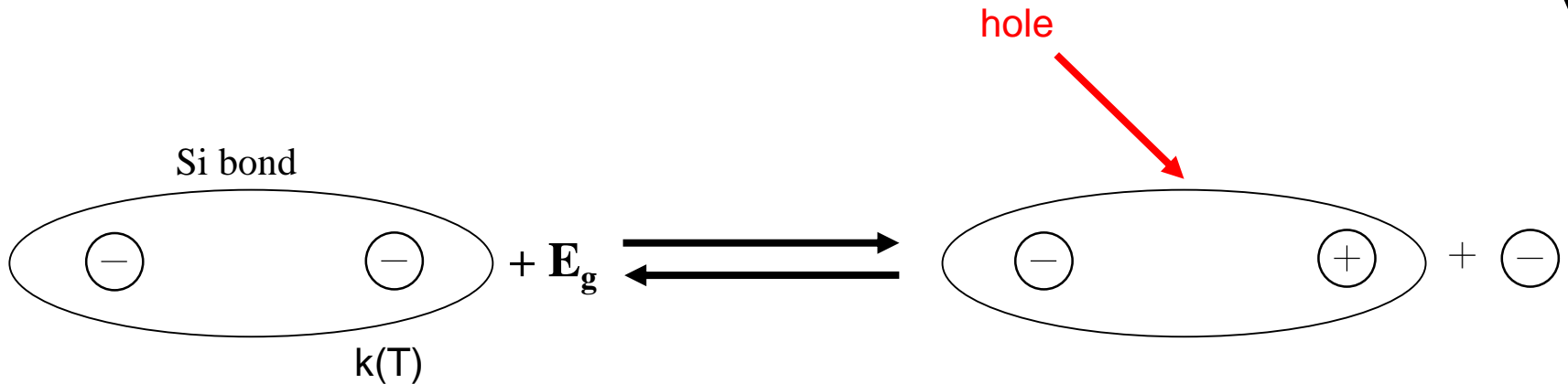


$$np = n_i^2$$

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-E_g/2kT}$$

$$n_i^2 \propto T^3 e^{-E_g/kT}$$

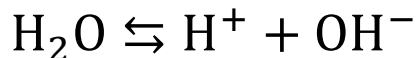
- In an intrinsic (undoped) semiconductor,  $n = p = n_i$ .
- $n_i$  is the ***intrinsic carrier concentration***,  $\sim 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for Si.



$$[A][B] = k[C] = \text{constant}$$

$$np = \text{constant} = n_i^2 = 10^{20}(\text{cm}^{-6})$$

$$n_i^2 \propto T^3 e^{-E_g/kT}$$



$$[\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-] = k[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 10^{-14}(\text{M}^2) @ 300\text{K}$$

If  $A+B \rightleftharpoons C+D$  is at equilibrium

$\rightarrow [C][D]/[A][B]$  is a constant (function of T)

Practice10: What is  $n_i$  in  $0^\circ\text{K}$

Ex:  $n_i$  @  $T=0\text{K}$ ?

$\rightarrow n_i=0$  since no energy



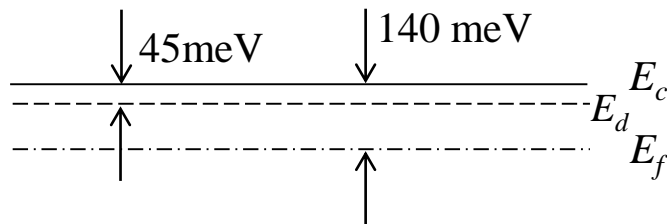
## 1.9 General Theory of $n$ and $p$

**EXAMPLE:** Complete ionization of the dopant atoms

$N_d = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . What fraction of the donors are not ionized?

**Solution:** First assume that **all** the donors **are** ionized.

$$n = N_D^+ = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow E_f = E_c - 140 \text{ meV}$$



Practice11: compare ionization rate w/ and w/o coefficient due to spin

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{(E-E_f)/kT}}$$

Probability of not being ionized  $\approx \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} e^{(E_d-E_f)/kT}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} e^{(140-45)\text{meV}/26\text{meV}}} = 0.04$

due to spin

Therefore, it is reasonable to assume complete ionization, i.e.,  $n = N_d$ .

# 1.9 General Theory of $n$ and $p$

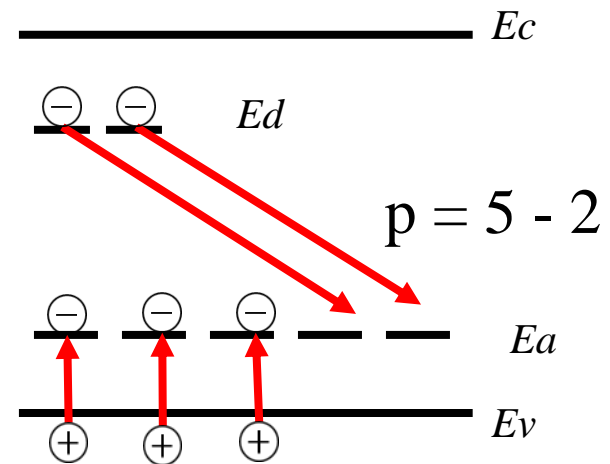
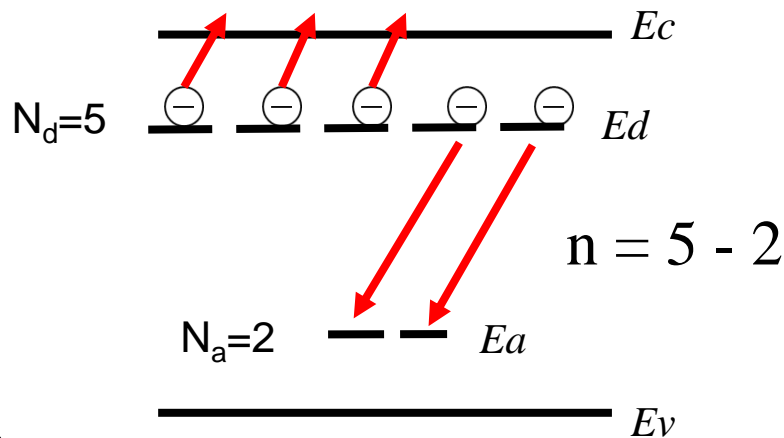
Charge neutrality:

Practice12: derive this two eq.

$$n + N_a^- = p + N_d^+ \quad np = n_i^2$$

$$p = \frac{N_a - N_d}{2} + \left[ \left( \frac{N_a - N_d}{2} \right)^2 + n_i^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} = N_a^- - N_d^+$$

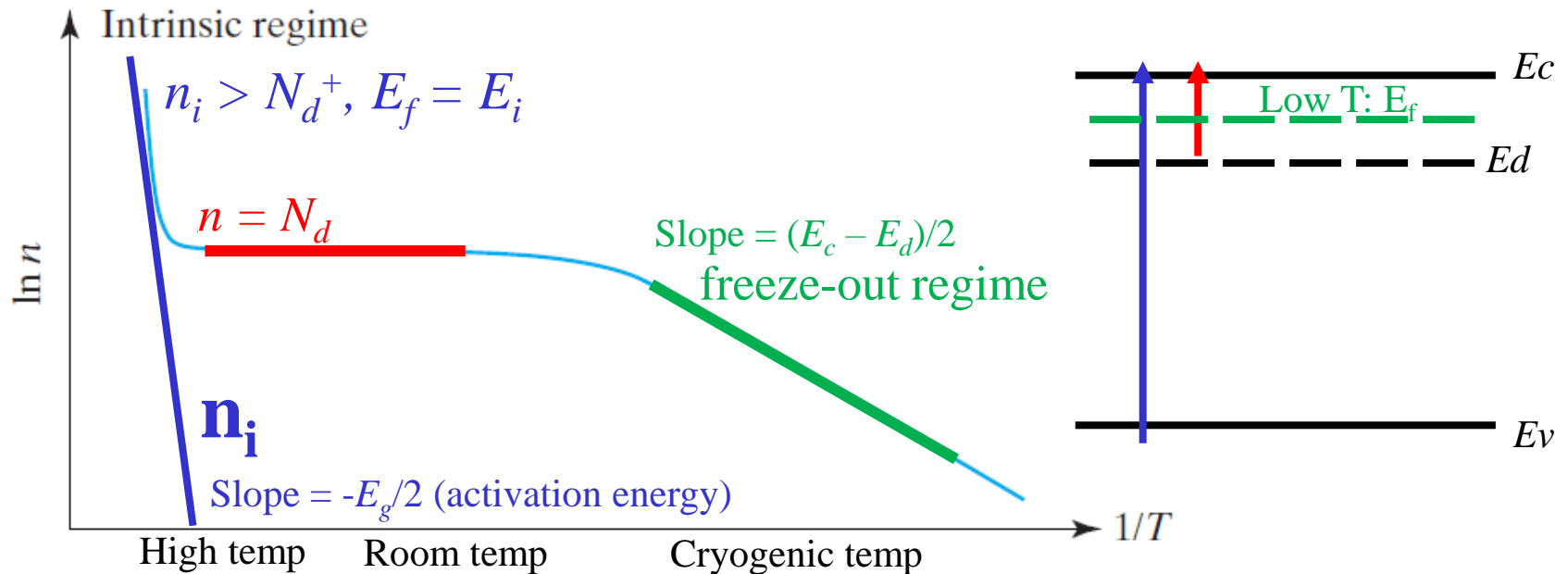
$$n = \frac{N_d - N_a}{2} + \left[ \left( \frac{N_d - N_a}{2} \right)^2 + n_i^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} = N_d^+ - N_a^-$$



# 1.10 Carrier Concentrations at Extremely High and Low Temperatures

Arrhenius plot:

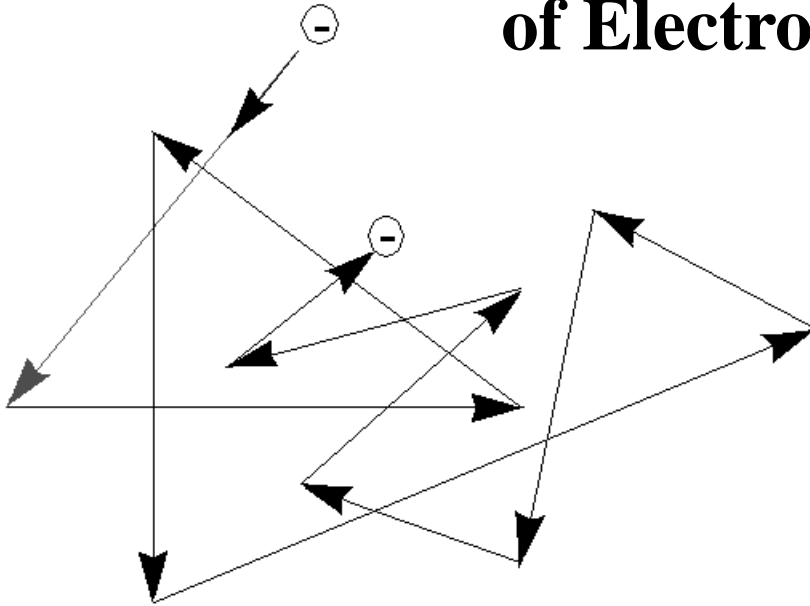
$\text{Log}_{10} y$  vs  $1/T$



$$\text{High T: } n = p = n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-E_g/2kT}$$

$$\text{Low T: } n = \left[ \frac{N_c N_d}{2} \right]^{1/2} e^{-(E_c - E_d)/2kT}$$

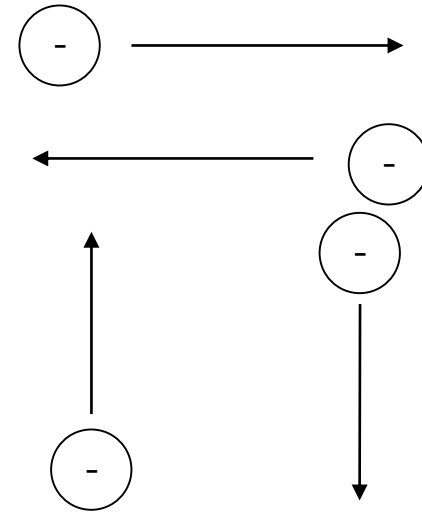
## Chapter 2 Motion and Recombination of Electrons and Holes



E change  $\rightarrow$  inelastic scattering

E not change  $\rightarrow$  elastic scattering

- Zig-zag motion is due to collisions or **scattering** with imperfections in the crystal.
- Net thermal velocity  $\langle \mathbf{V} \rangle$  is zero (**Ensemble average**).
- Mean time between collisions (Scattering time) is  $\tau_m \sim 0.1\text{ps}$



Ensemble statistic: average  $\langle V_{th} \rangle = 0$

## 2.1 Thermal Motion

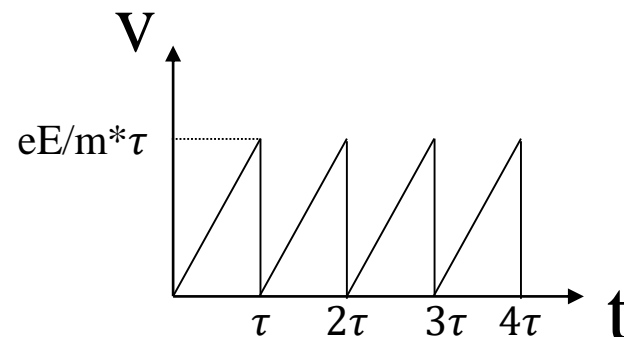
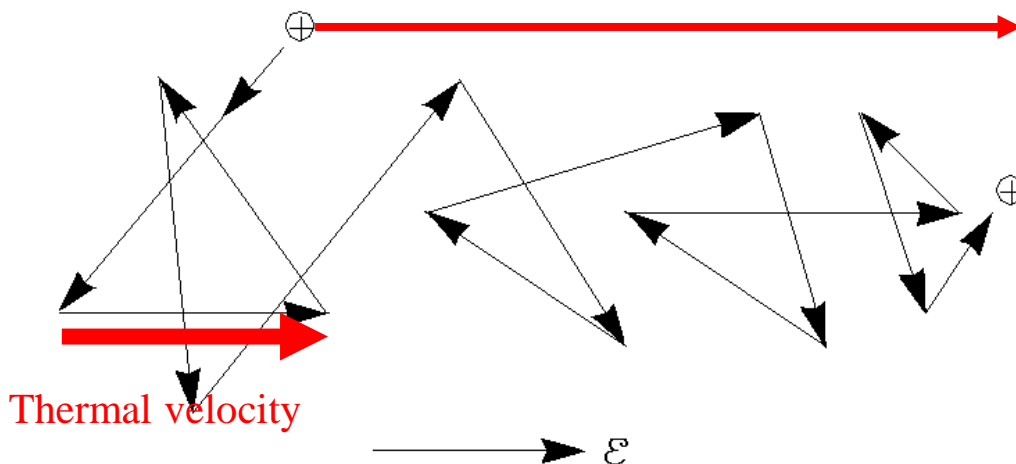
$$\text{Average electron or hole kinetic energy} = \frac{1}{2} m v_{th}^2 = \frac{3}{2} kT$$

$$v_{th} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m_{eff}}} = \sqrt{\frac{3 \times 1.38 \times 10^{-23} J K^{-1} \times 300 K}{0.26 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} kg}}$$
$$= 2.3 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s} = 2.3 \times 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$$

Saturation Velocity  $\sim 1E7$  cm/s

## 2.2 Drift velocity

Distance  $l$  in time  $t \rightarrow$  Drift velocity  $= \frac{l}{t}$



$$\langle V \rangle = V_{\text{drift}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot eE/m^* \tau = eE/m^* \tau \text{ (stochastic process)}$$

$$V_{\text{drift}} = \mu E$$

$$a = F/m = eE/m$$

$$\Delta V = a \cdot \tau = eE\tau/m$$

- **Drift** is the motion caused by an electric field.
- If  $E=0 \rightarrow \langle l \rangle = 0$  (ensemble)  $\rightarrow v_{\text{drift}} = 0$

$$\text{Real } V = V + \Delta V,$$

$$\text{Drift Velocity} = \langle V \rangle = \langle V_{\text{th}} \rangle + eE\tau/m^* = 0 + eE\tau/m^* = \mu E$$

## 2.2.1 Electron and Hole Mobilities

1<sub>st</sub> scattering  $\xrightarrow{\quad}$  2<sub>nd</sub> scattering  
 $v = 0$   $v = v_d$   
 Assume  $v_d=0$  after scattering

$$\Delta p = F\Delta t$$

$$m^*v = eE\tau_m$$

$$\mu = \frac{e\tau_m}{m^*}$$

$$v = \frac{eE\tau_m}{m^*}$$

- High mobility channel (SiGe for pFET) used in N5
- 90nm: strained Si for both nFET and pFET

$$v_n = \mu_n E$$

$$\mu_n = \frac{e\tau_{mn}}{m_n^*}$$

$$v_p = \mu_p E$$

$$\mu_p = \frac{e\tau_{mp}}{m_p^*}$$

- $\mu_p$  is the hole **mobility** and  $\mu_n$  is the electron **mobility**
- **Mobility is the most important knob**

## 2.2.1 Electron and Hole Mobilities

$$v = \mu E ; \mu \text{ has the dimension of } \frac{v}{E} \left[ \frac{\text{cm/s}}{\text{V/cm}} = \frac{\text{cm}^2}{\text{V} \cdot \text{s}} \right]$$

$$J = ne\mu E$$

### **Electron and hole mobilities of selected semiconductors**

area of pFET > area of nFET due to smaller  $\mu_p$

Due to small  $n$

	<b>Si</b>	<b>Ge</b>	<b>CaAs</b>	<b>InAs</b>
$\mu_n$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /V·s)	1400	3900	8500	30000
$\mu_p$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /V·s)	470	1900	400	500

Si is most used

→ SiO<sub>2</sub> is a good oxide

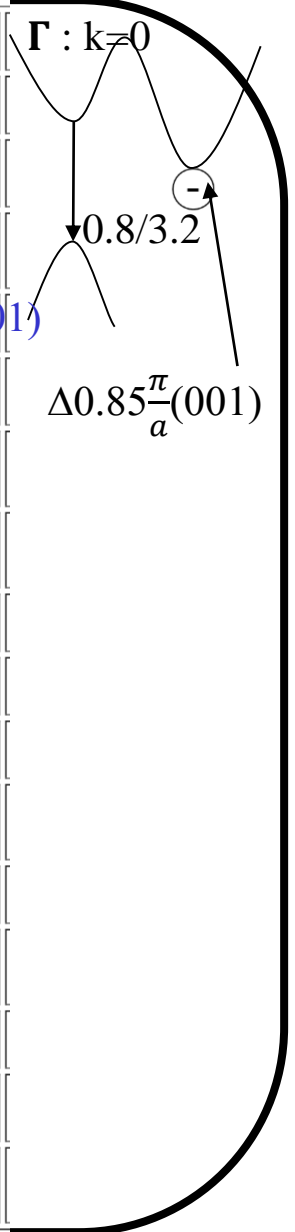
$\mu_{n,ntu} = 2,400,000$  @ <1K

Not For CMOS

Based on the above table alone, which semiconductor and which carriers (electrons or holes) are attractive for applications in high-speed devices?



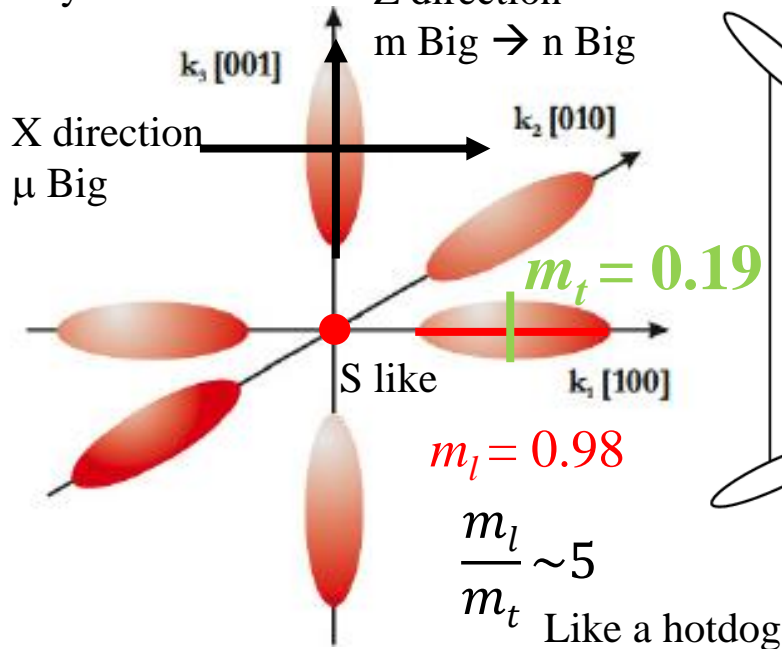
Name	Symbol	Germanium	Silicon
<b>Band minimum at <math>k = 0</math></b>			
Minimum energy	$E_{g,direct}$ [eV]	0.8	3.2
Effective mass <b>Sphere</b> ( $m_x=m_y=m_z$ )	$m_e^*/m_0$	0.041	?0.2?
<b>Band minimum <i>not</i> at <math>k = 0</math></b>		$L(111)\frac{\pi}{a}$	$\Delta 0.85\frac{\pi}{a}(001)$
Minimum energy	$E_{g,indirect}$ [eV]	0.66	1.12
Longitudinal effective mass <b>ellipsoid</b>	$m_{e,l}^*/m_0$	1.64	0.98
Transverse effective mass	$m_{e,t}^*/m_0$	0.082	0.19
Wavenumber at minimum	$k$ [1/nm]	xxx	xxx
Longitudinal direction		(111)	(100)
<b>Heavy hole valence band maximum at <math>E = k = 0</math></b>			
Effective mass	$m_{hh}^*/m_0$	0.28	0.49
<b>Light hole valence band maximum at <math>k = 0</math></b>			
Effective mass	$m_{lh}^*/m_0$	0.044	0.16
<b>Split-off hole valence band maximum at <math>k = 0</math></b>			
Split-off band valence band energy	$E_{v,so}$ [eV]	-0.028	-0.044
Effective mass	$m_{h,so}^*/m_0$	0.084	0.29



# E(k) Space: band structure

Si:  $\Delta$  point,  $0.85\frac{\pi}{a}(001)$

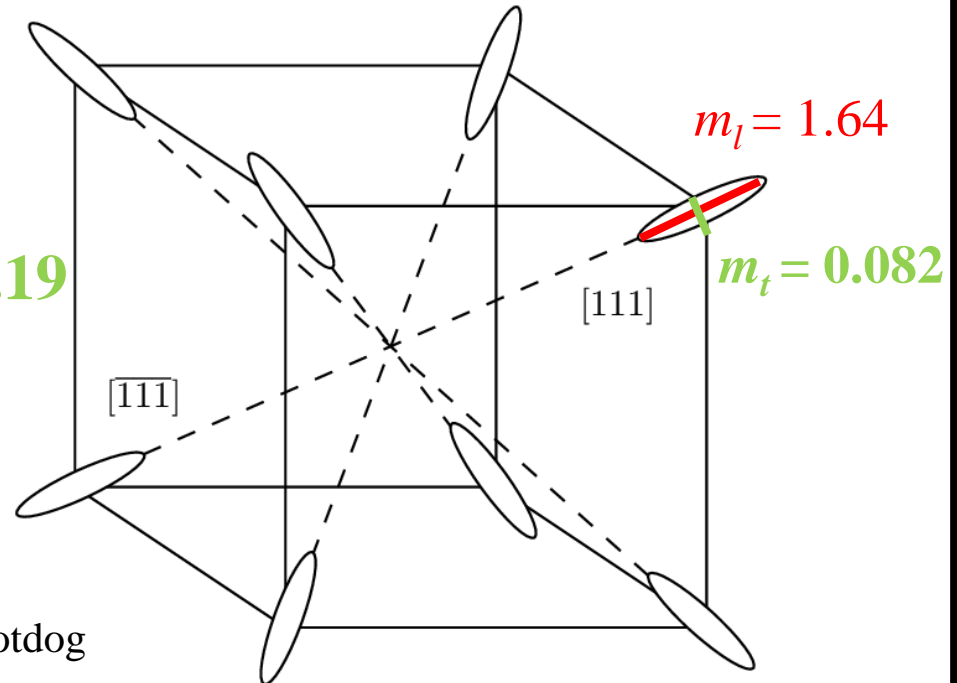
All the valleys are available



Degeneracy = 6

III-V :  $\frac{m_l}{m_t} \sim 1$  like a sphere

Ge:  $\Gamma$  point,  $\frac{\pi}{a}(111)$  Only half of the valleys can be used  
 $\rightarrow$  Share with other bw zone

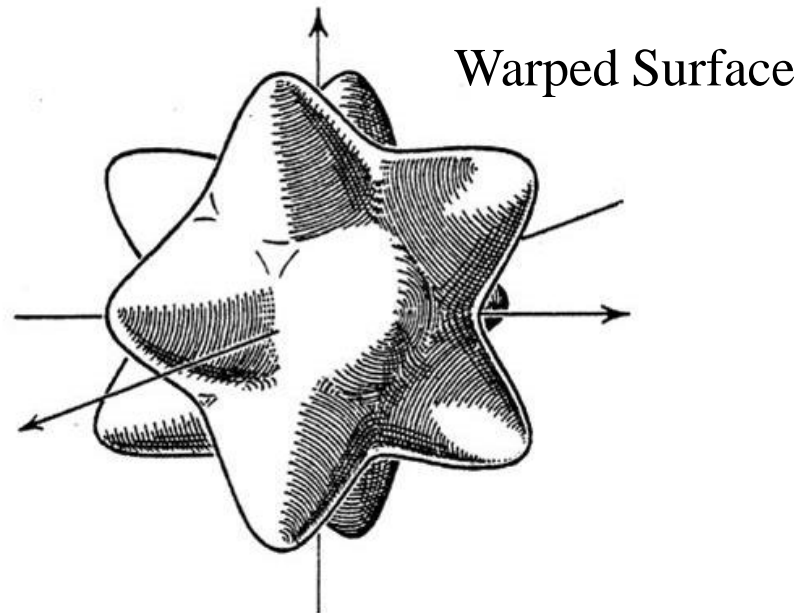
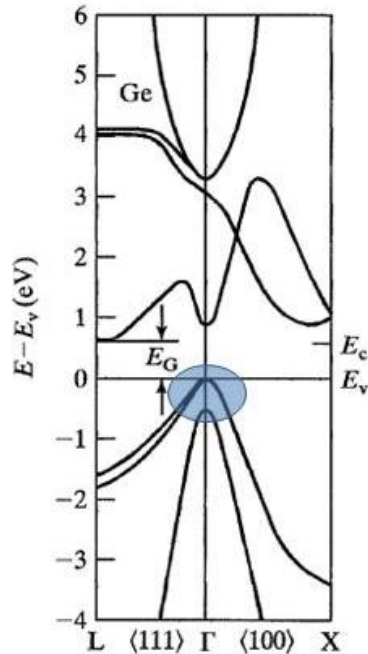


Degeneracy = 8

$\frac{m_l}{m_t} \sim 20$

Like a bamboo

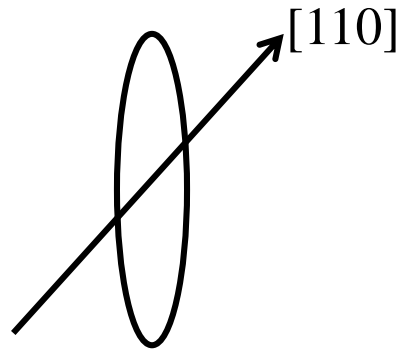
## Constant E-surface for Valence Band



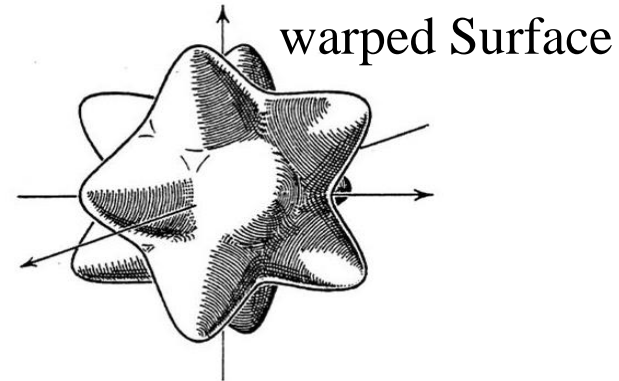
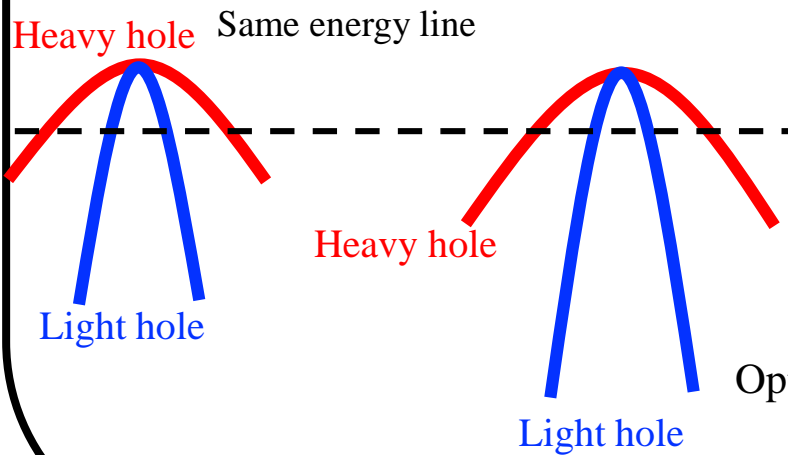
$$E = E_v - Ak^2 \mp \sqrt{[B^2k^4 + C^2(k_x^2k_y^2 + k_y^2k_z^2 + k_z^2k_x^2)]}$$

Si:  $A=4.29, B=0.68, C=4.87$ ; Ge:  $A=13.38, B=8.48, C=13.15$

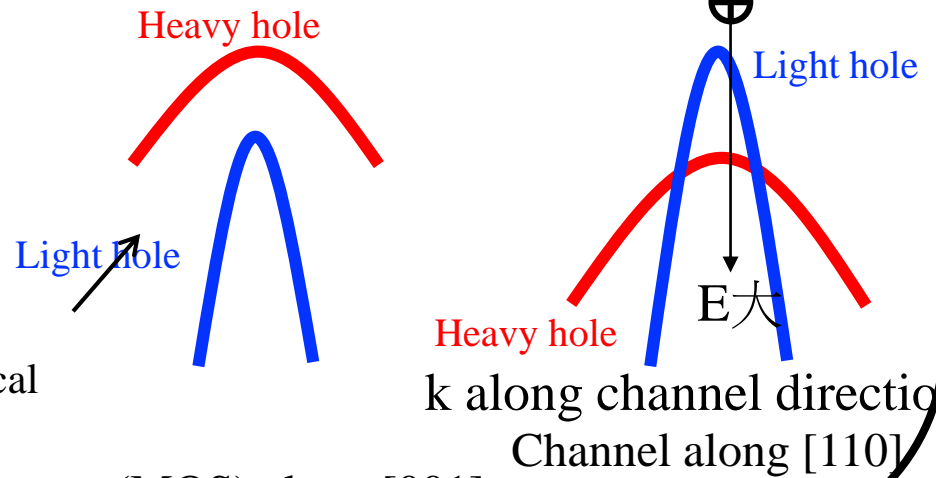
# $I_{ON}$ Improvement -- strain



Before Compressive strain along  $[110]$



Compressive strain along  $[110]$



Confinement (MOS) along  $[001]$

# $I_{ON}$ Improvement -- strain

- Channel direction transport mass:  $m^* \downarrow \rightarrow \mu \uparrow \rightarrow J \uparrow$
- In-plane confinement mass:  $m^* \uparrow \rightarrow D(E) \uparrow \rightarrow J \uparrow$
- Confinement mass  $\uparrow \rightarrow$  ground energy  $\downarrow$   
 $\rightarrow$  wavefunction more localize
- nFET(electron): *tensile strain* along channel  $\rightarrow$   $\Delta 2$  valley energy becomes lower  $\rightarrow$  transport mass =  $0.19m_0$ /confinement mass =  $0.92m_0$  😊
- pFET(hole): *compressive strain* along channel  $\rightarrow$  Light hole energy becomes higher. 😊  
 $\rightarrow$  transport mass =  $0.16m_0$ /confinement mass =  $0.49m_0$

$$J = ne\mu E$$

## 2.2.2 Mechanisms of Carrier Scattering

There are two main causes of carrier scattering:

1. Phonon Scattering
2. Ionized-Impurity (Coulombic) Scattering

**Phonon = lattice wave: T=0K minimum**

**T↑, phonon scattering ↑**

**Phonon scattering** mobility decreases when temperature rises:

$$\mu_{\text{phonon}} \propto \tau_{\text{phonon}} \propto \frac{1}{\text{phonon density} \times \text{carrier thermal velocity}} \propto \frac{1}{T \times T^{1/2}} \propto T^{-3/2}$$

Diagram illustrating the relationship between carrier mobility ( $\mu$ ) and temperature ( $T$ ) for phonon scattering:

The mobility is given by  $\mu = \frac{e\tau_m}{m^*}$ , where  $\tau_m$  is the mean free time.

The mean free time is proportional to the inverse of the product of phonon density and carrier thermal velocity:

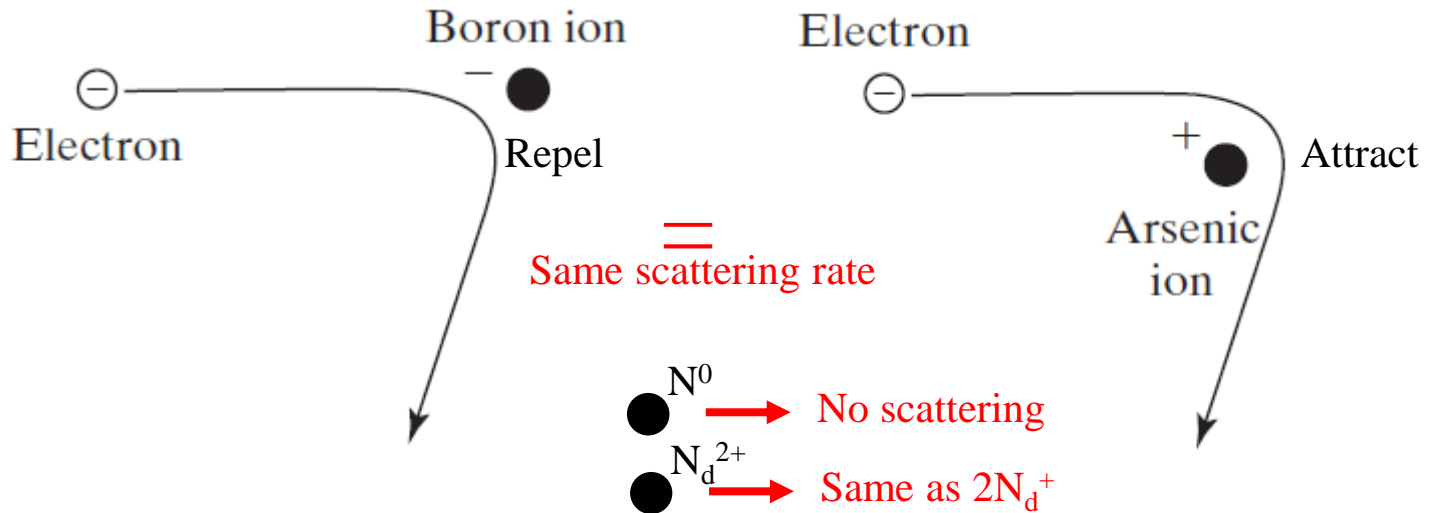
$\tau_m \propto \frac{1}{\text{phonon density} \times \text{carrier thermal velocity}}$

Phonon density is proportional to temperature:  $\propto T$

Carrier thermal velocity is proportional to  $T^{1/2}$ :  $v_{th} \propto T^{1/2}$

Combining these relationships, the mobility is proportional to  $T^{-3/2}$ .

## *Impurity (Dopant)-Ion Scattering or Coulomb Scattering*



There is less change in the direction of travel if the electron zips by the ion at a higher speed.

$$\mu_{\text{impurity}} \propto \frac{v_{th}^3}{N_a \text{ } \textcircled{+} \text{ } N_d} \propto \frac{T^{3/2}}{N_a + N_d}$$

Same scattering rate

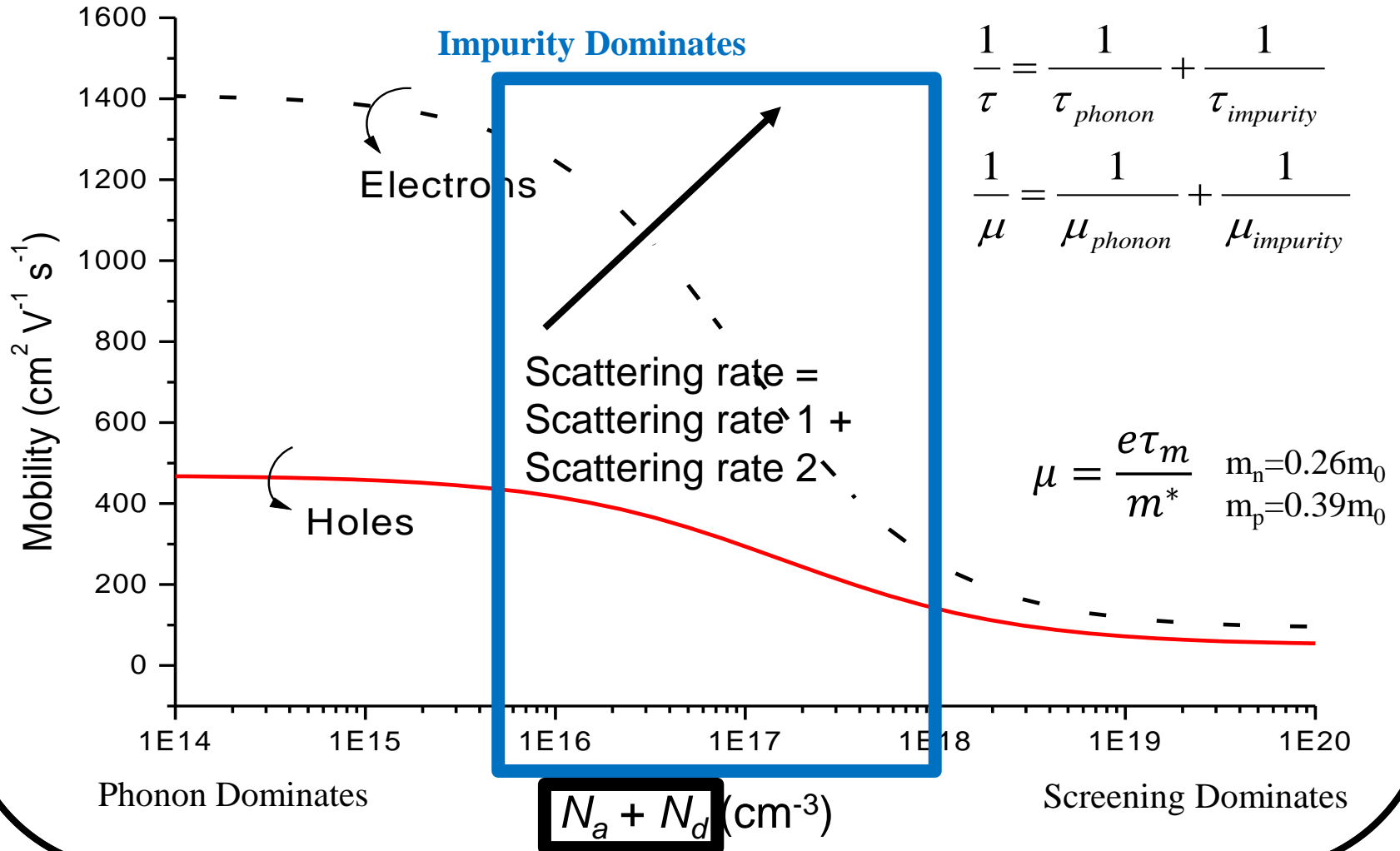
# Total Mobility

Bulk mobility: no surface roughness scattering

Matthiessen's rule

$$\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau_{phonon}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{impurity}}$$

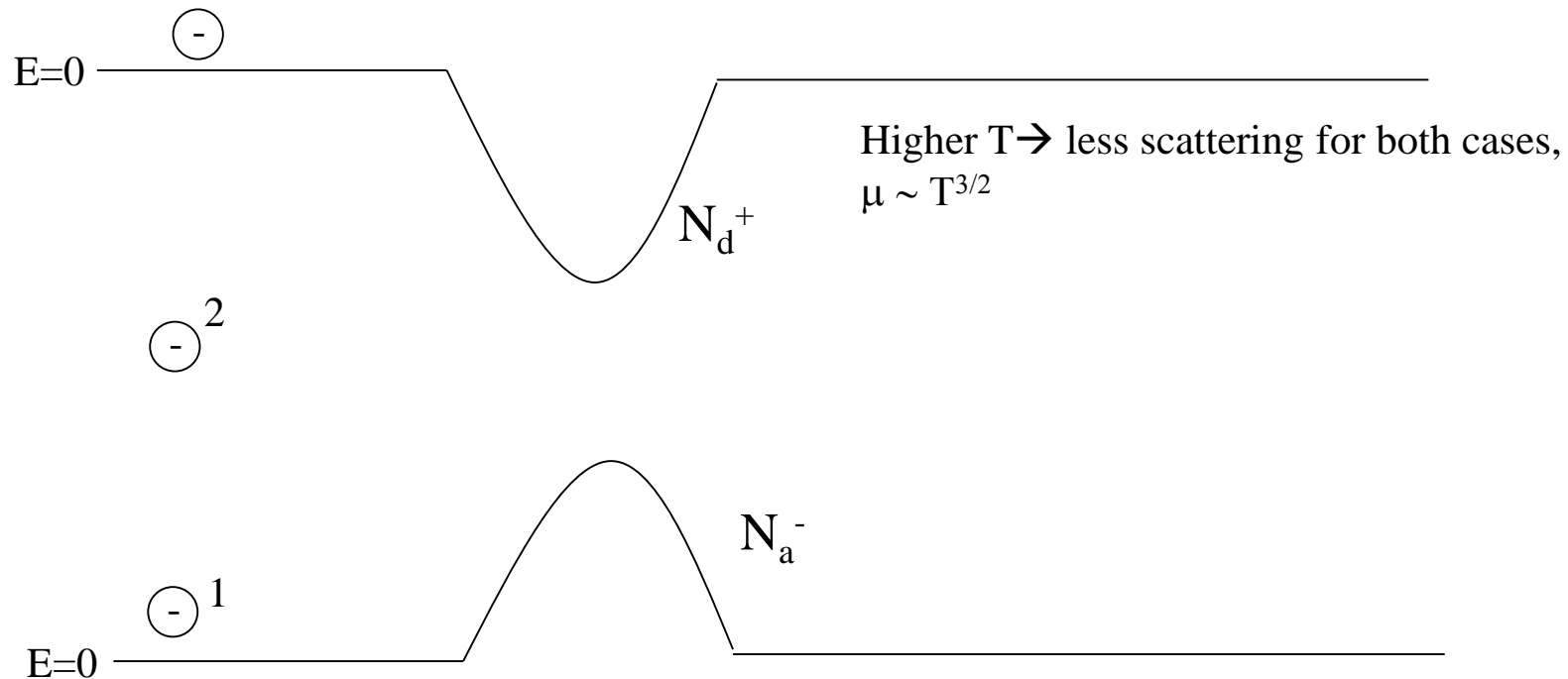
$$\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{\mu_{phonon}} + \frac{1}{\mu_{impurity}}$$





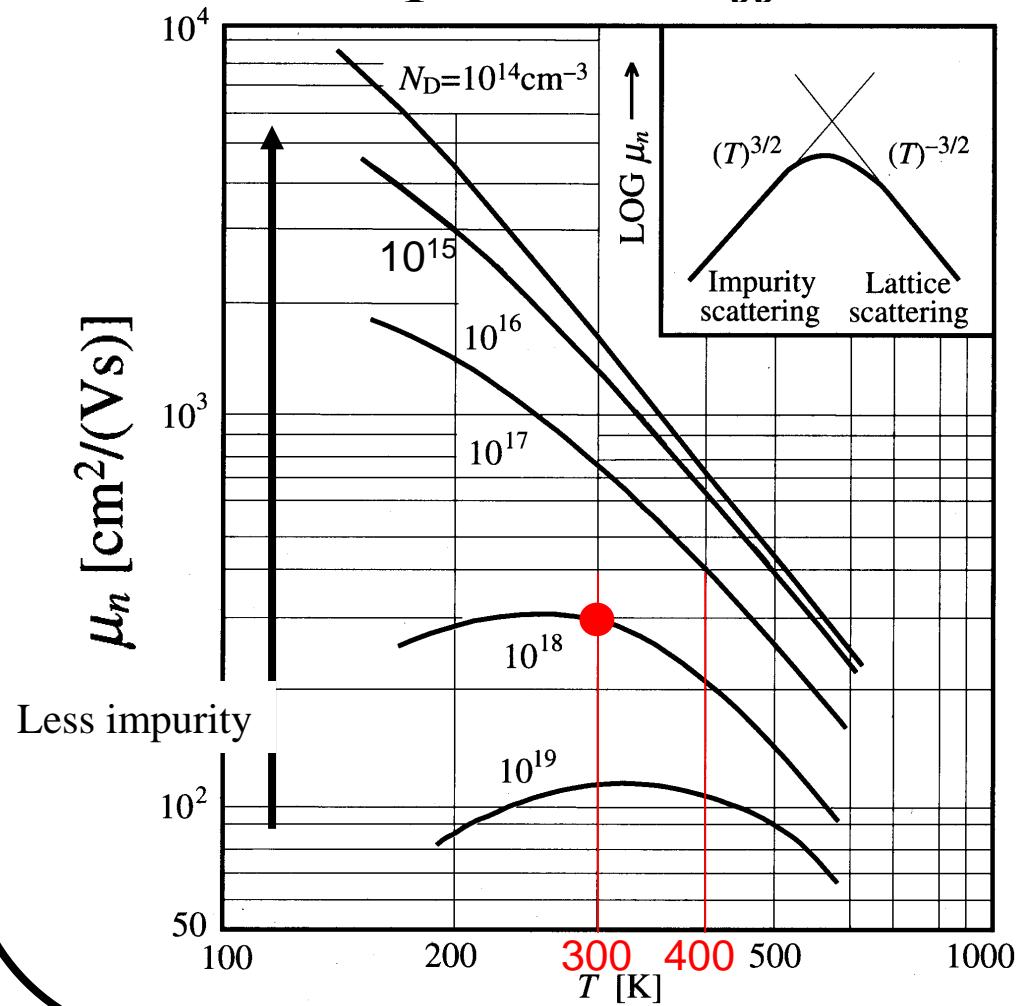
$$N_d^+ + N_a^- \quad \text{Not } N_d^+ - N_a^-$$

repulsive scattering rate = attractive scattering rate



Bulk Silicon, not MOSFET (including surface roughness scattering)

## *Temperature Effect on Mobility*



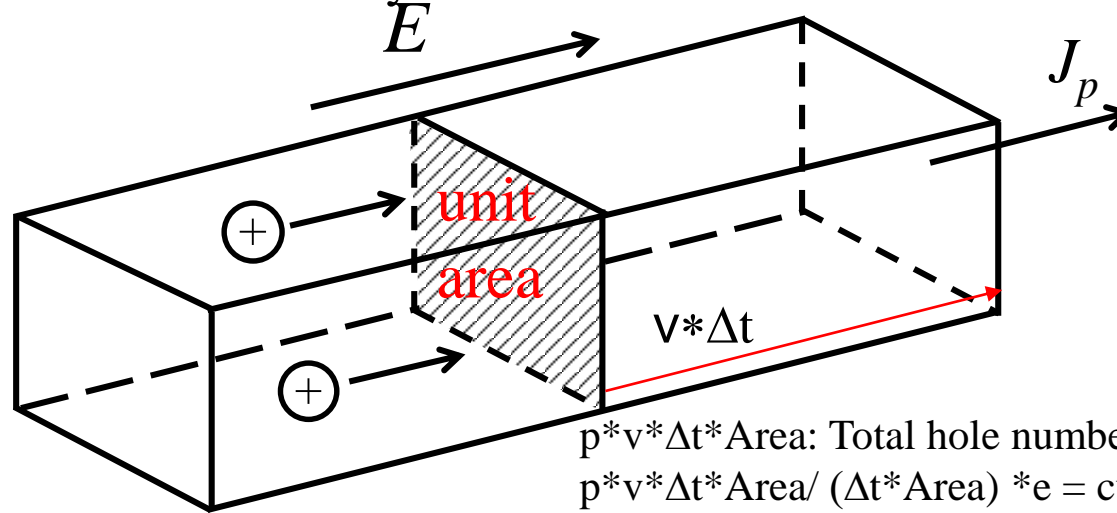
Practice13:

What  $N_d$  will make  $d\mu_n/dT = 0$  at room temperature?

Practice14: draw the bulk mobility vs  $T$

## 2.2.3 Drift Current and Conductivity

Practice15: derive current density formula.



Hole current density

$$J_p = p e v \quad \text{A/cm}^2 \text{ or } \text{C/cm}^2 \cdot \text{sec}$$

$$J_n = -n e v$$

**EXAMPLE:** If  $p = 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3}$  and  $v = 10^4 \text{cm/s}$ , then

$$J_p = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C} \times 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3} \times 10^4 \text{cm/s}$$

$$= 1.6 \text{ C/s} \cdot \text{cm}^2 = 1.6 \text{ A/cm}^2$$

### 2.2.3 Drift Current and Conductivity

$$J_{n,drift} = -nev = ne\mu_n E \quad v_n = -\mu_n E$$

$$J_{p,drift} = pev = pe\mu_p E \quad v_p = \mu_p E$$

$$J_{drift} = J_{n,drift} + J_{p,drift} = \sigma E = (ne\mu_n + pe\mu_p)E$$

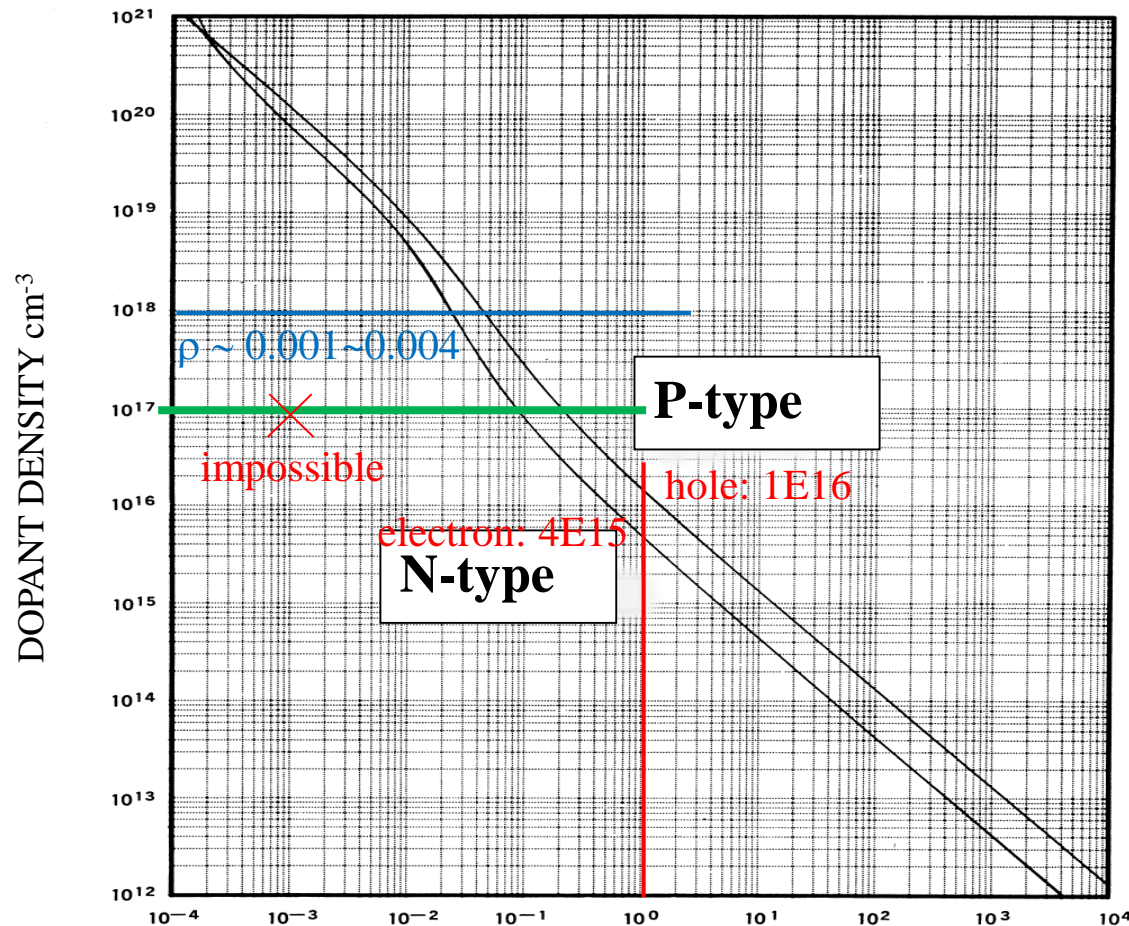
***$\therefore$  conductivity (1/ohm-cm) of a semiconductor is***

$$\sigma = ne\mu_n + pe\mu_p$$

$\rho = 1/\sigma =$  is resistivity (ohm-cm)

Wafer spec: 1~10 ohm-cm

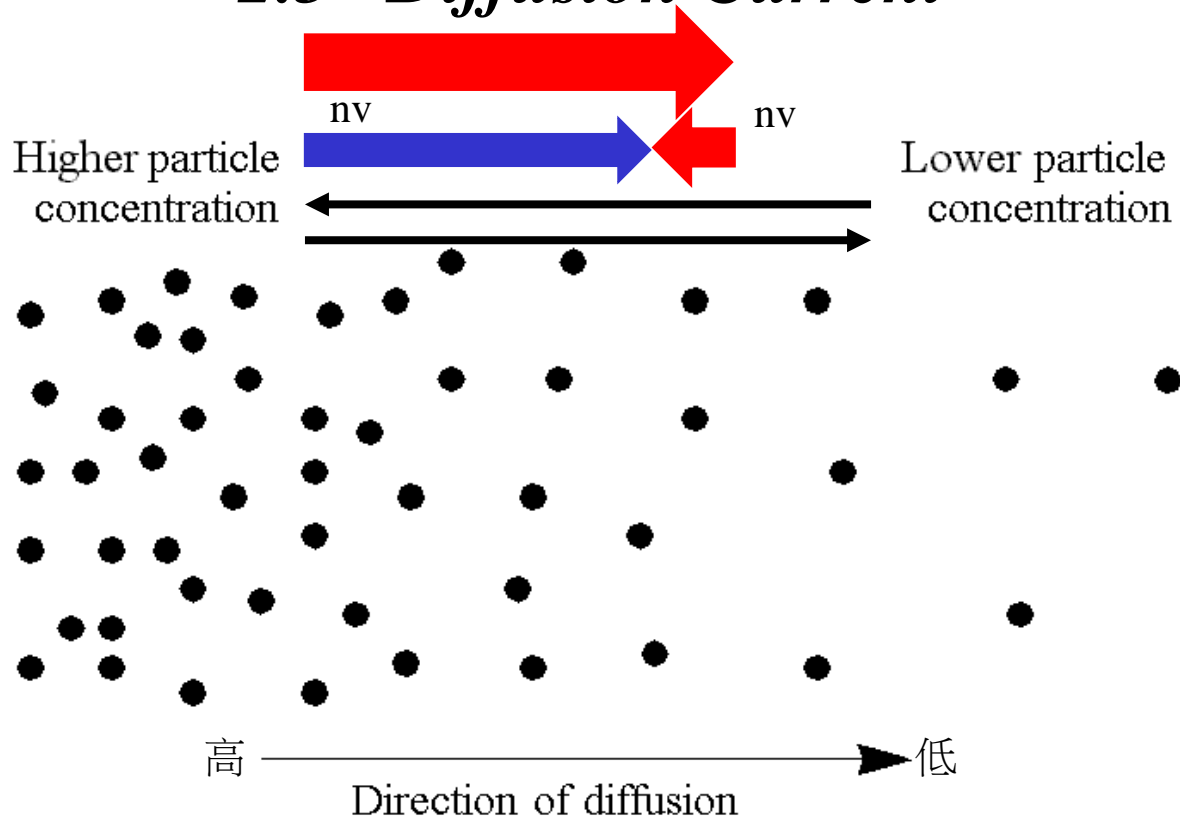
# Relationship between Resistivity and Dopant Density



$$\rho = 1/\sigma = 1/ne\mu(N_d + N_a) = \rho(N_d^+ = n) = \rho(N_d = N_d^+)$$

$$n = N_d = N_d^+$$

## 2.3 Diffusion Current

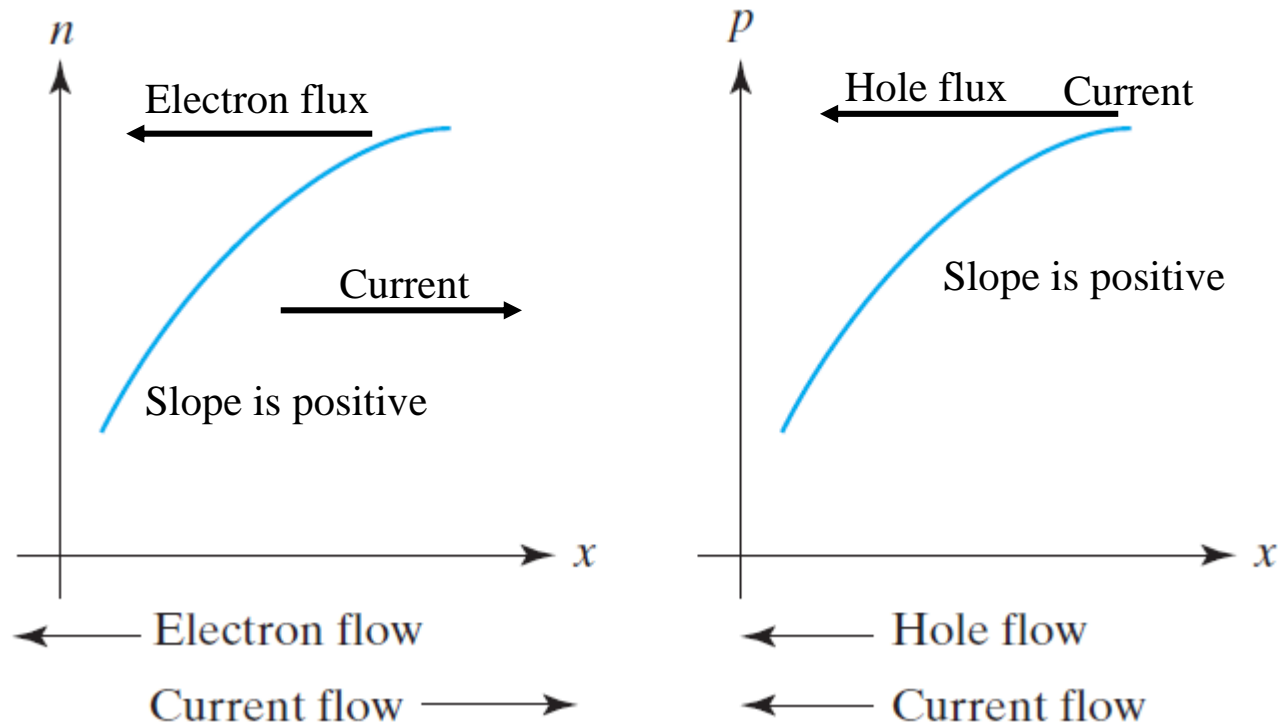


Particles diffuse from a higher-concentration location to a lower-concentration location.

## 2.3 Diffusion Current

$$J_{n,diffusion} = eD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad J_{p,diffusion} = -eD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

$D$  is called the diffusion constant. Signs explained:



## *Total Current – Review of Four Current Components*

$$J_{total} = J_n + J_p$$

$$J_n = J_{n,drift} + J_{n,diffusion} = ne\mu_n E + eD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$J_p = J_{p,drift} + J_{p,diffusion} = pe\mu_p E - eD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

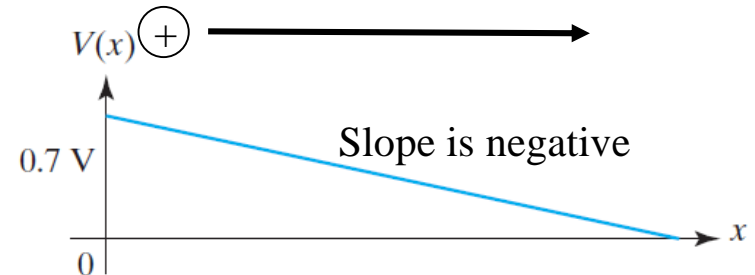
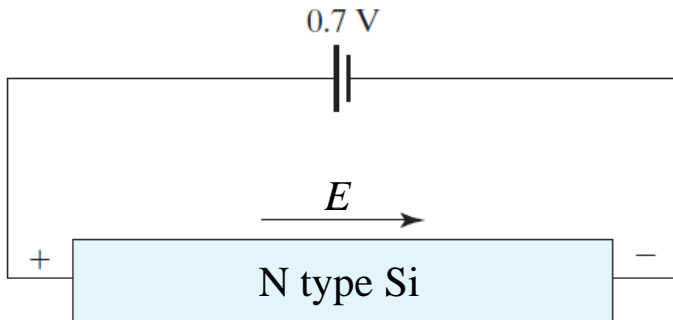
Drift current

Diffusion current

TCAD: diffusion-drift model



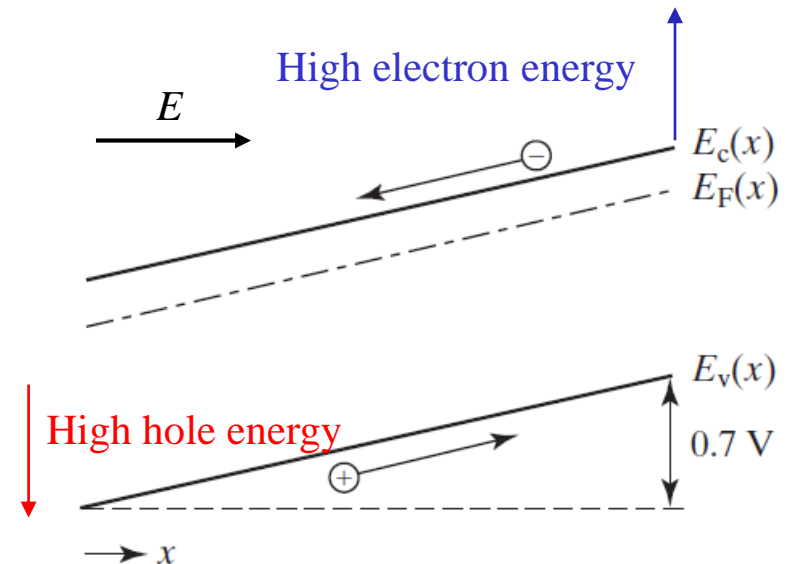
## 2.4 Relation Between the Energy Diagram and $V, E$



$E_c$  and  $E_v$  vary in the opposite direction from the voltage.  
That is,  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  are higher where the voltage is lower.

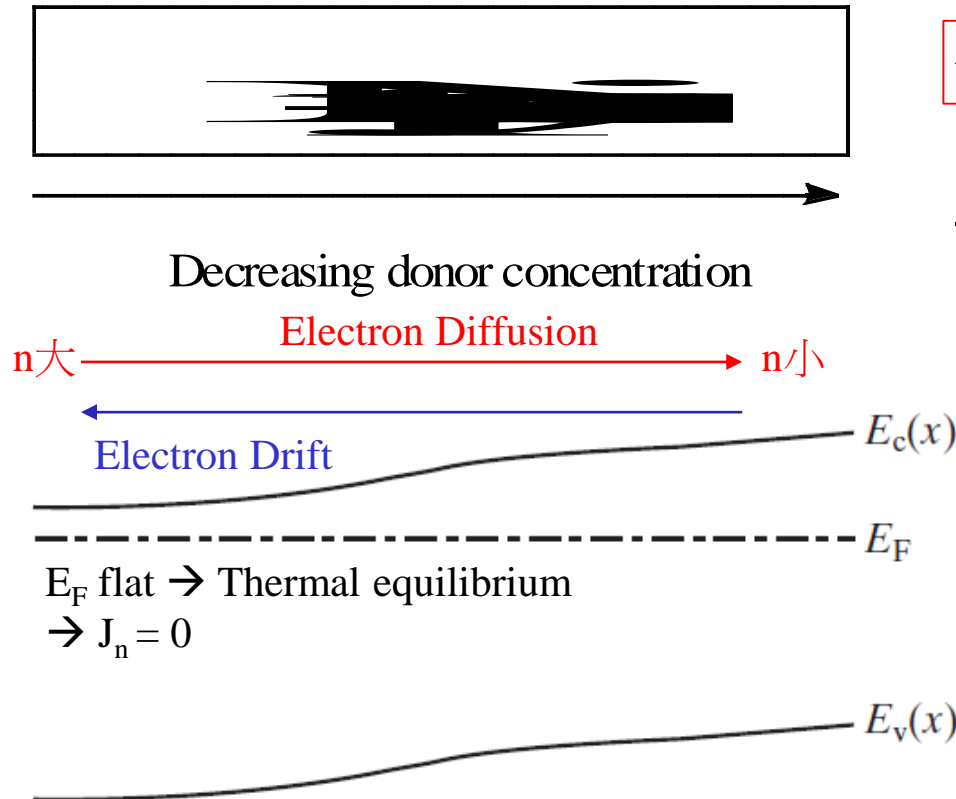
$$E(x) = -\frac{dV}{dx} = \frac{1}{e} \frac{dE_c}{dx} = \frac{1}{e} \frac{dE_v}{dx}$$

Defination



## 2.5 Einstein Relationship between $D$ and $\mu$

Consider a piece of non-uniformly doped semiconductor.



For non-degenerate

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT}$$

$$\frac{dn}{dx} = -\frac{N_c}{kT} e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT} \frac{dE_c}{dx}$$

$$= -\frac{n}{kT} \frac{dE_c}{dx}$$

$$= -\frac{n}{kT} eE$$

## 2.5 Einstein Relationship between $D$ and $\mu$

$$\frac{dn}{dx} = -\frac{n}{kT} eE$$

$J_n = ne\mu_n E + eD_n \frac{dn}{dx} = 0$  at equilibrium.

When  $i=0$

$$\rightarrow ne\mu_n E - en \frac{eD_n}{kT} E = 0$$

$$D_n = \frac{kT}{e} \mu_n$$

Similarly,

$$D_p = \frac{kT}{e} \mu_p$$

$$\frac{D}{\mu} = \frac{kT}{e}$$

Know  $\mu$  to get  $D$

*These are known as the **Einstein relationship**.*

## 2.6 *Electron-Hole Recombination*

- The equilibrium carrier concentrations are denoted with  $n_0$  and  $p_0$ .
- The total electron and hole concentrations can be different from  $n_0$  and  $p_0$ .
- The differences are called the *excess carrier concentrations*  $n'$  and  $p'$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} n \equiv n_0 + n' \\ p \equiv p_0 + p' \end{array}$$

Excess carrier can be generated  
by electrical field or light

## *Charge Neutrality*

- Charge neutrality is satisfied at equilibrium ( $n' = p' = 0$ ).  $N_d^+ + p_0 = N_a^- + n_0$
- When a non-zero  $n'$  is present, an equal  $p'$  may be assumed to be present to maintain charge equality and vice-versa.  $N_d^+ + p_0 + p' = N_a^- + n_0 + n'$
- If charge neutrality is not satisfied, the net charge will attract or repel the (majority) carriers through the drift current until neutrality is restored.

$$n' = p'$$

But  $n_0 \neq p_0$ , or  $n_0 = p_0 = n_i$

## *Recombination Lifetime*

- Assume light generates  $n'$  and  $p'$ . If the light is suddenly turned off,  $n'$  and  $p'$  decay with time until they become zero.
- The process of decay is called *recombination*.
- The time constant of decay is the *recombination time* or *carrier lifetime*,  $\tau$ .
- Recombination is nature's way of restoring equilibrium ( $n' = p' = 0$ ).

### *Rate of recombination ( $s^{-1}cm^{-3}$ )*

$$\frac{dn'}{dt} = -\frac{n'}{\tau} + g$$

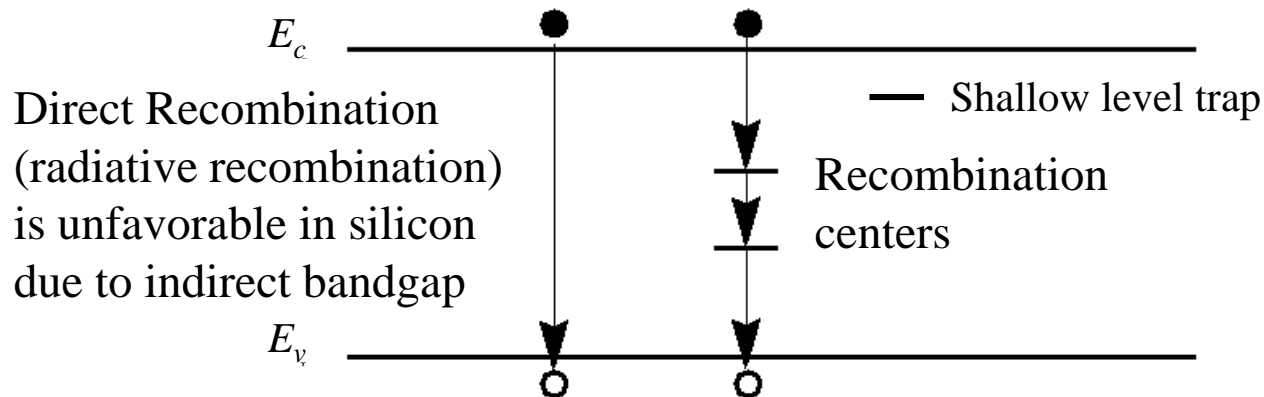
$$n' = p'$$

Steady state:  $dn'/dt = 0 \rightarrow n' = g\tau$

$$\frac{dn'}{dt} = -\frac{n'}{\tau} = -\frac{p'}{\tau} = \frac{dp'}{dt}$$

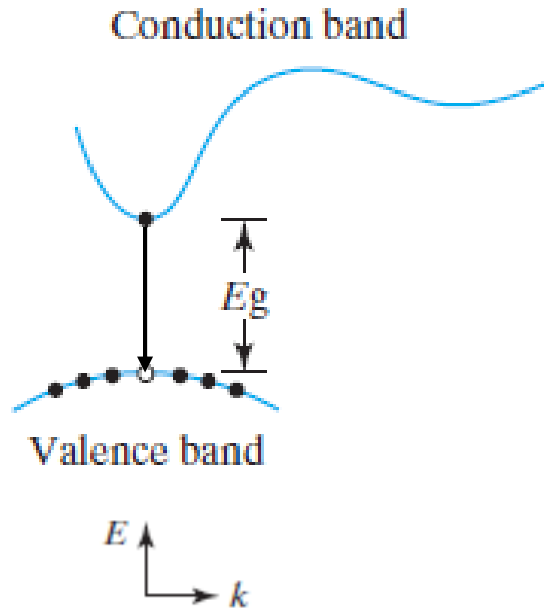
## *Recombination Lifetime*

- $\tau$  ranges from **1ns** to 1ms in Si and depends on the density of metal impurities (contaminants) such as **Au** and **Pt**.
- These *deep traps* ( $E_t$  around midgap) capture electrons and holes to facilitate recombination and are called *recombination centers*.



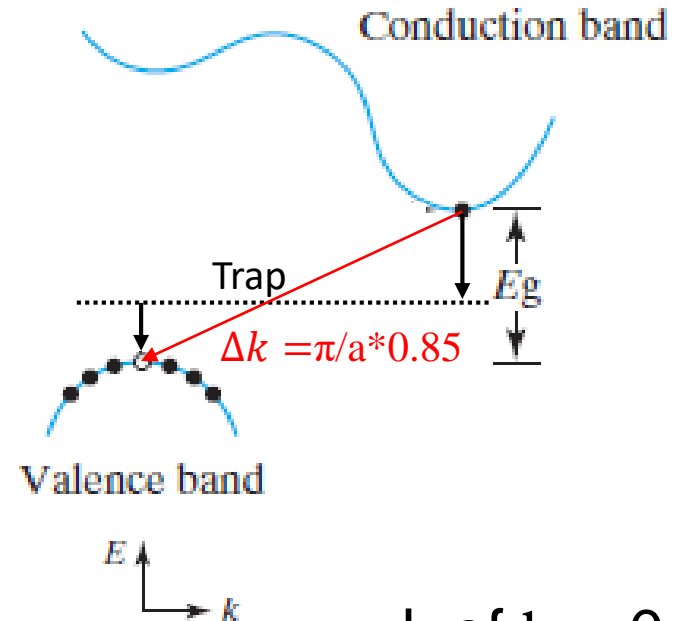
# Direct and Indirect Band Gap

Practice 16: what is  $k$  of 1.1 eV photon



Direct band gap  
Example: GaAs

Direct recombination is efficient  
as  $k$  conservation is satisfied.



Indirect band gap  
Example: Si

Direct recombination is rare as  $k$   
conservation is not satisfied

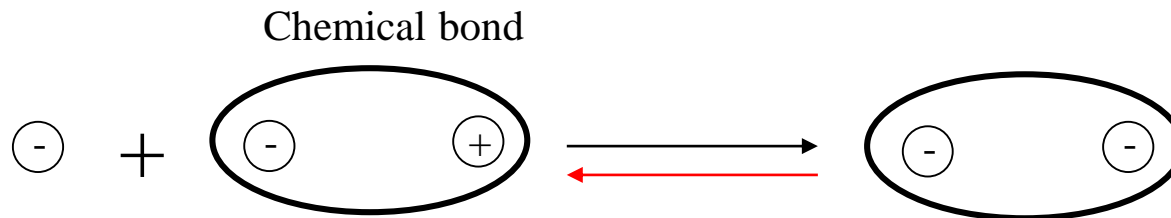
$k$  of  $h\nu=0$



## 2.7 Thermal Generation

If  $n'$  is negative, there are fewer electrons than the equilibrium value.

As a result, there is a net rate of *thermal generation* at the rate of  $|n'|/\tau$ .



$np > n_i^2 \rightarrow$  recombination  $\longrightarrow$

$np < n_i^2 \rightarrow$  generation  $\longleftarrow$

## 2.8 Quasi-equilibrium and Quasi-Fermi Levels

- Whenever  $n' = p' \neq 0$ ,  $np \neq n_i^2$ . We would like to preserve and use the simple relations:

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT}$$

$$p = N_v e^{-(E_f - E_v)/kT}$$

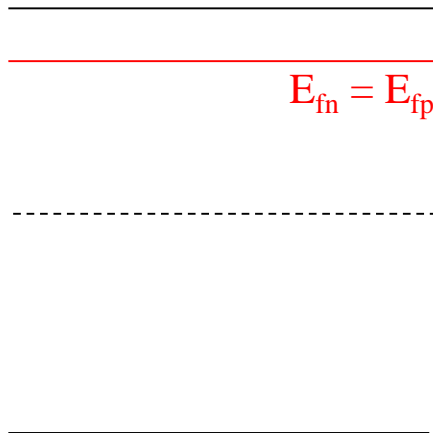
- But these equations lead to  $np = n_i^2$ . The solution is to introduce two *quasi-Fermi levels*  $E_{fn}$  and  $E_{fp}$  such that

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_{fn})/kT}$$

$$p = N_v e^{-(E_{fp} - E_v)/kT}$$

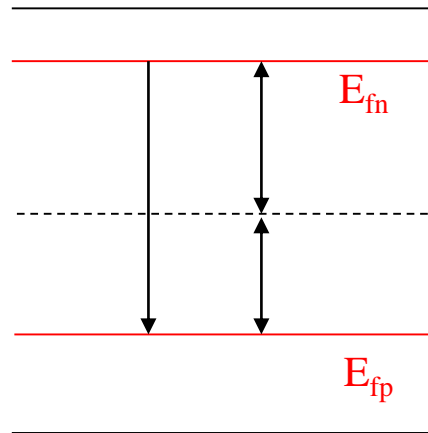
Even when electrons and holes are not at equilibrium, *within each group* the carriers can be at equilibrium. Electrons are closely linked to other electrons but only loosely to holes.

Thermal equilibrium



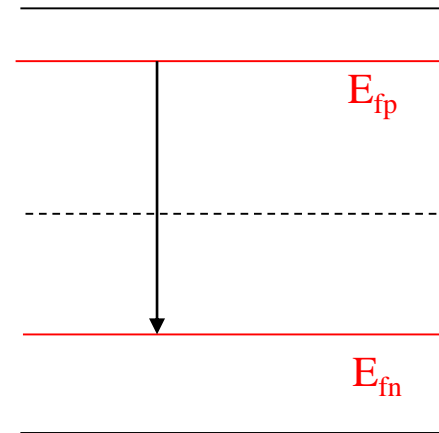
$$np = n_i^2$$

Quasi equilibrium



$np > n_i^2$   
 $\rightarrow$  recombination  
 $E_{fn}$  is above  $E_{fp}$

Quasi equilibrium



$np < n_i^2$   
 $\rightarrow$  generation  
 $E_{fn}$  is lower than  $E_{fp}$

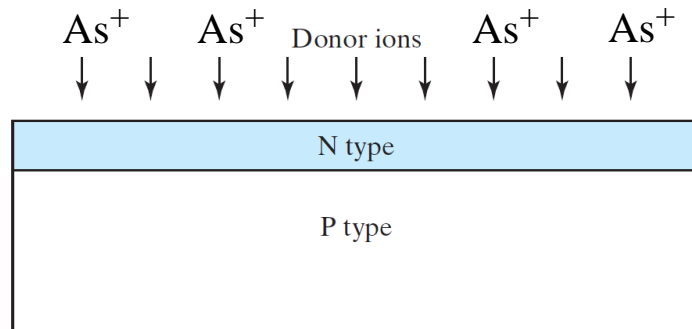
# Chapter 4 PN and Metal-Semiconductor Junctions

## 4.1 Building Blocks of the PN Junction Theory

I/I: ion implantaion

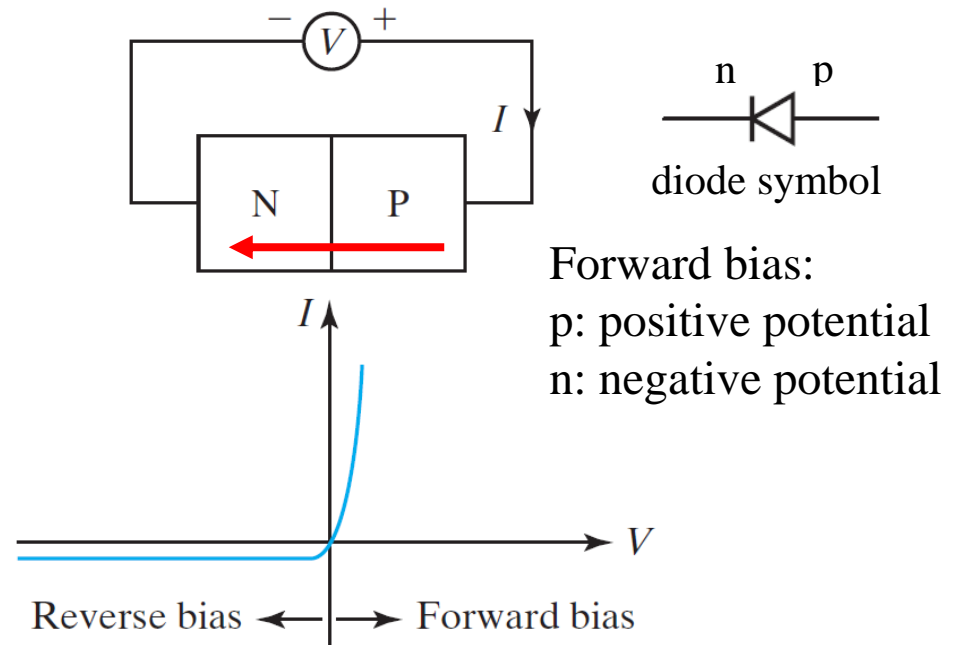
Tens of keV, I controls dose

Implant annealing afterward



Now: epi, in-situ doping

Forward bias:



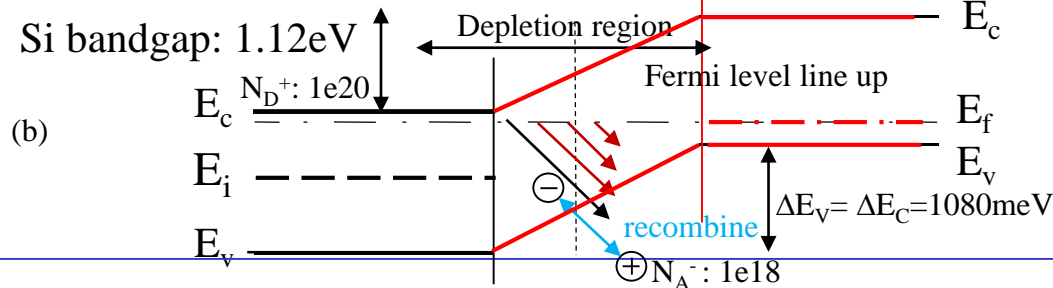
PN junction is present in perhaps every semiconductor device.

## 4.1.1 Energy Band Diagram of a PN Junction

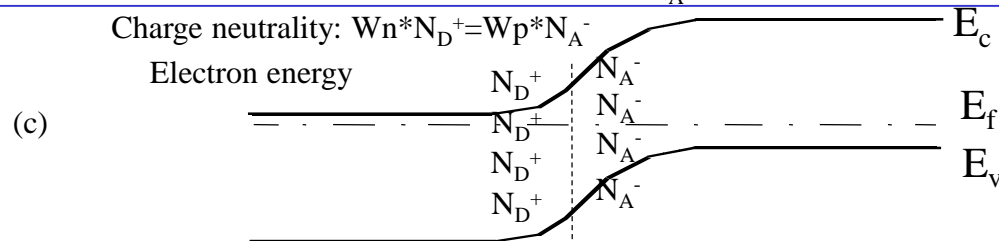
N-region ← → P-region

(a)  $E_f$  is constant at equilibrium

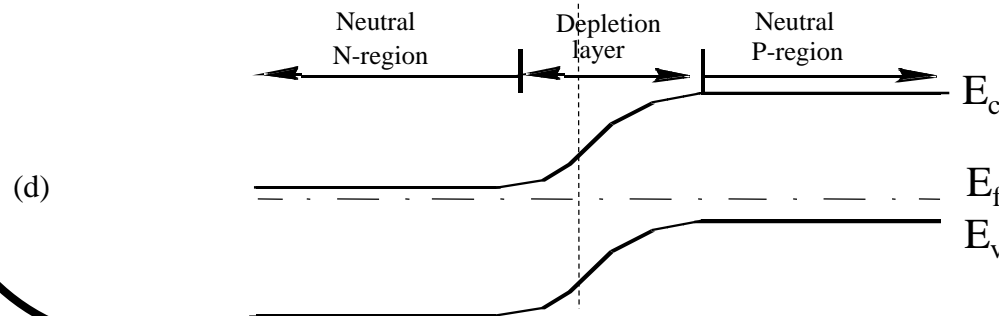
$E_f$  is constant at equilibrium



$E_c$  and  $E_v$  are known relative to  $E_f$



$E_c$  and  $E_v$  are smooth, the exact shape to be determined.



A depletion layer exists at the PN junction where  $n \approx 0$  and  $p \approx 0$ .

Not exactly 0,  $\sim 1/10 n_0$

## 4.1.2 Built-in Potential

N-region  $n = N_d = N_c e^{-eA/kT} \rightarrow A = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_c}{N_d}$

P-region  $n = \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} = N_c e^{-eB/kT} \rightarrow B = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_c N_a}{n_i^2}$

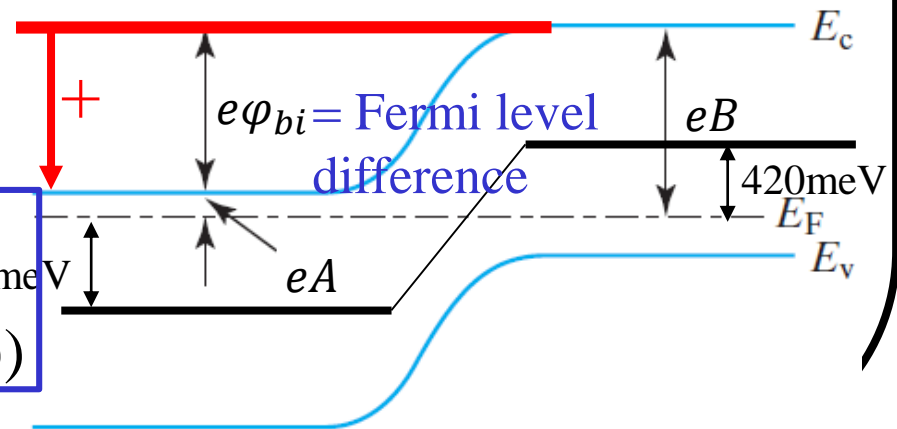
$$\phi_{bi} = B - A = \frac{kT}{e} \left( \ln \frac{N_c N_a}{n_i^2} - \ln \frac{N_c}{N_d} \right)$$

Example:  $n=10^{19}$ ,  $p=10^{17}$ , find  $\phi_{bi}$

A:  $(9 + 7) \cdot 60\text{mV} = 960\text{mV}$

$$\phi_{bi} = \frac{kT}{e} \left( \ln \frac{N_a}{n_i} + \ln \frac{N_d}{n_i} \right)$$

$$= 60\text{mV} \cdot (\log(N_a/n_i) + \log(N_d/n_i))$$



## 4.1.3 Poisson's Equation

Gauss's Law: The total of the electric flux out of a closed surface is equal to the charge enclosed divided by the permittivity.

Gauss's Law:

$$\epsilon_s E(x + \Delta x)A - \epsilon_s E(x)A = \rho \Delta x A$$

$\epsilon_s(k)$ : permittivity (dielectric constant) ( $k \sim 11.9\epsilon_0$  for Si)

$\rho$ : charge density (C/cm<sup>3</sup>)

Si:  $11.9\epsilon_0$ ,  
SiO<sub>2</sub>:  $3.9\epsilon_0$

Ge:  $16\epsilon_0$

Si bandgap: 1.12eV

SiO<sub>2</sub> bandgap: 9eV

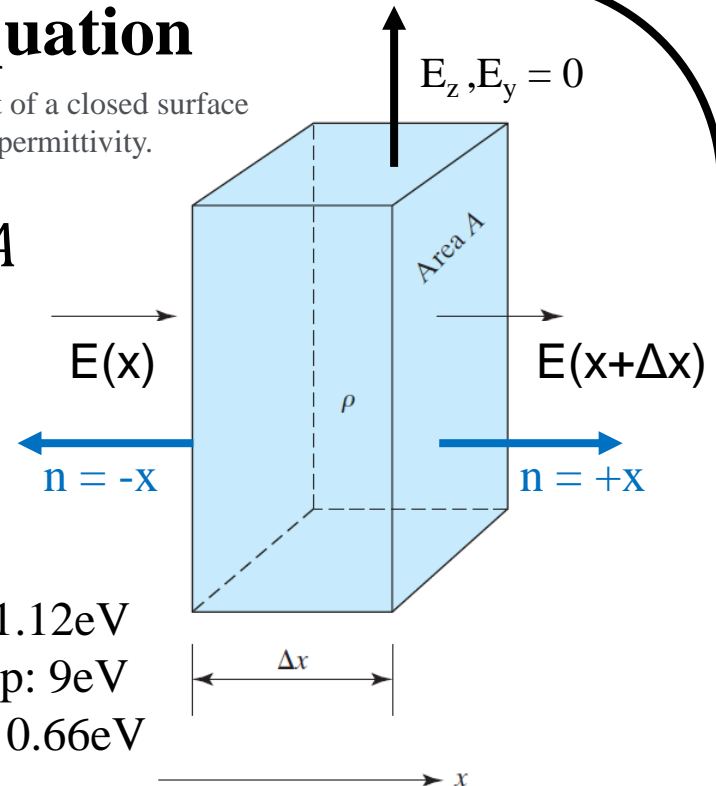
Ge bandgap: 0.66eV

$$\frac{E(x + \Delta x) - E(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s} \quad \boxed{\frac{dV}{dx} = -E}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2V}{dx^2} = -\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s}}$$

Poisson's equation



TSMC 5nm

pFET channel: SiGe (guessed)

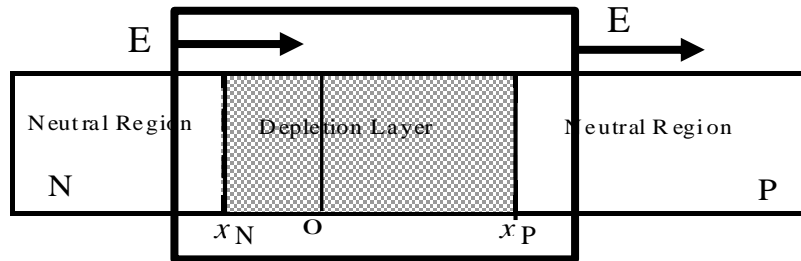
nFET channel: Si

$k$ : SiGe > Si

Practice18: derive Poisson's equation

## 4.2 Depletion-Region Model

### 4.2.1 Field and Potential in the Depletion region



On the *P-side* of the depletion region,  $\rho = -eN_a$

Total Charge = 0,  
E = 0 outside

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s} = -\frac{qN_a}{\epsilon_s} \quad E_{p,crit} = qN_a/\epsilon_s \cdot x_p$$

$$E = - \int \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s} dx$$

$$E(x) = -\frac{eN_a}{\epsilon_s} x + C = \frac{eN_a}{\epsilon_s} (x_P - x)$$

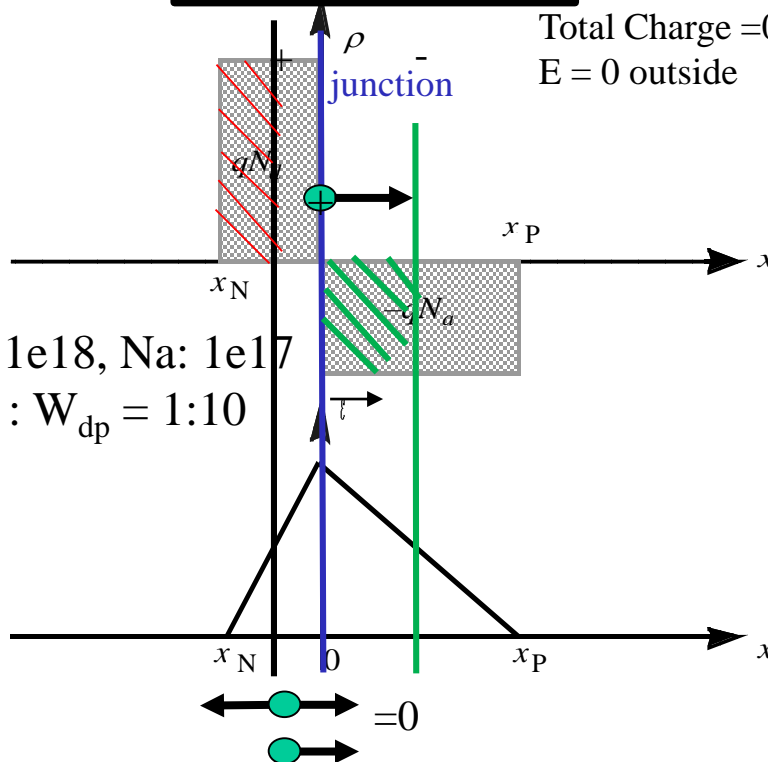
On the *N-side*,  $\rho = eN_d$

$$E(x) = \frac{eN_d}{\epsilon_s} (x - x_N)$$

$$E_{max} = E(0) = \frac{N_d^+ W_n}{\epsilon} = \frac{N_a^- W_p}{\epsilon}$$

Nd: 1e18, Na: 1e17

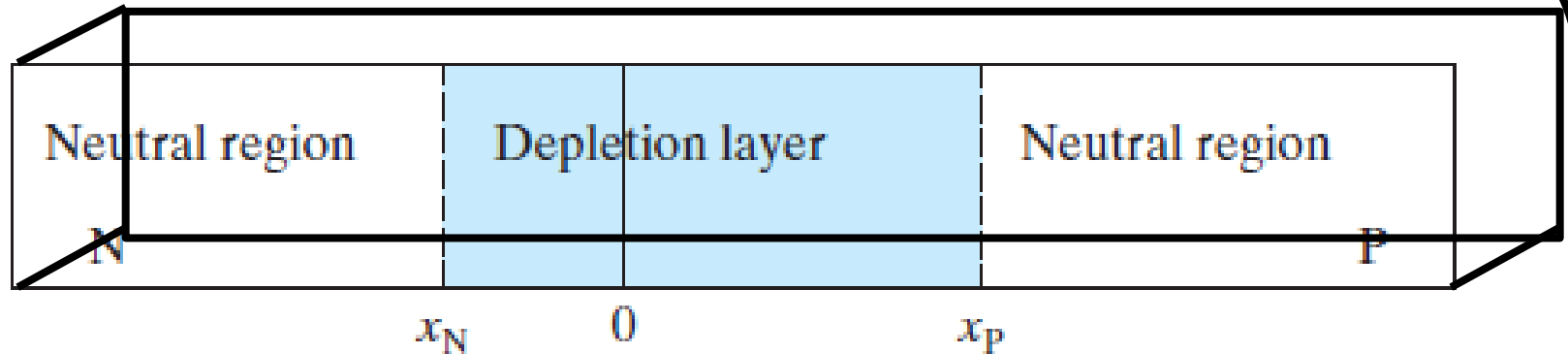
$W_{dn} : W_{dp} = 1:10$



Practice19: draw the electric field and potential vs position for PN junction



## 4.2.1 Field and Potential in the Depletion Layer



The electric field is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

*Charge neutrality*

unit:  $\text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{cm} = \text{cm}^{-2}$

$$N_a^- |x_P| = N_d^+ |x_N|$$

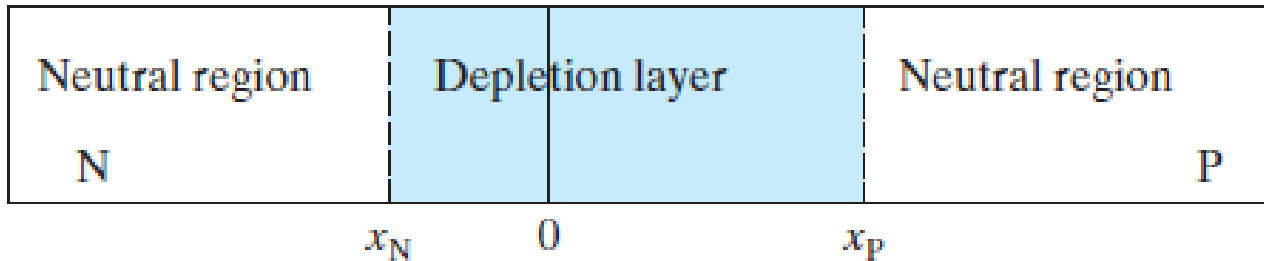
Which side of the junction is depleted more?

**One sided abrupt junction** :  $N_d^+ / N_a^-$  or  $N_a^- / N_d^+ \geq 10$

Depletion region in lower doping side

A one-sided junction is called a  $N^+P$  junction or  $P^+N$  junction

## 4.2.2 Depletion-Layer Width



$V$  is continuous at  $x = 0$

$$\rightarrow x_P - x_N = W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon_s \phi_{bi}}{e} \left( \frac{1}{N_a} + \frac{1}{N_d} \right)} \quad V_{bi} = \frac{WE_{max}}{2} = \frac{qNW^2}{2\varepsilon}$$

If  $N_a \gg N_d$ , as in a  $P^+N$  junction,

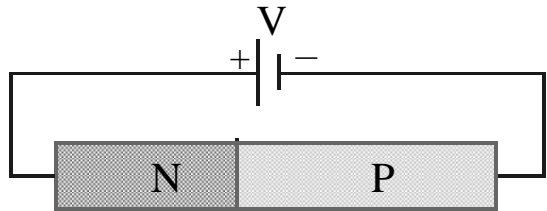
$$W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon_s \phi_{bi}}{eN_d}} \approx |x_N|$$

$$|x_P| = |x_N| \frac{N_d}{N_a} \cong 0$$

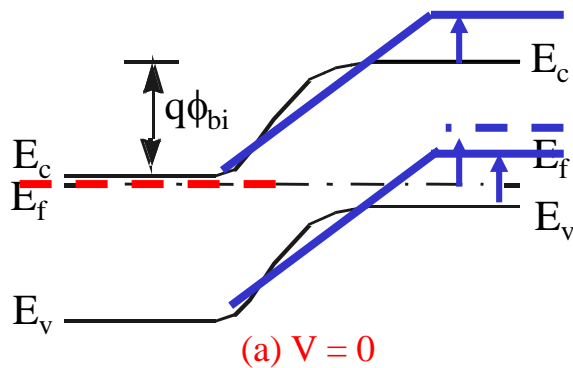
What about a  $N^+P$  junction?  $N_B = \frac{N_d^+ N_a^-}{N_d^+ + N_a^-}$  Practice20: derive  $N_B$

$$W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon_s \phi_{bi}}{eN_B}} \quad \text{where} \quad \frac{1}{N_B} = \frac{1}{N_a} + \frac{1}{N_d} \approx \frac{1}{\text{lighter dopant density}}$$

## 4.3 Reverse-Biased PN Junction

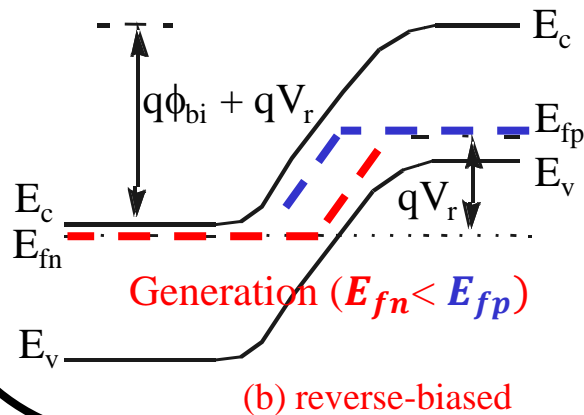


Forward: p connects with +, n connects with –  
Reverse: p connects with –, n connects with +



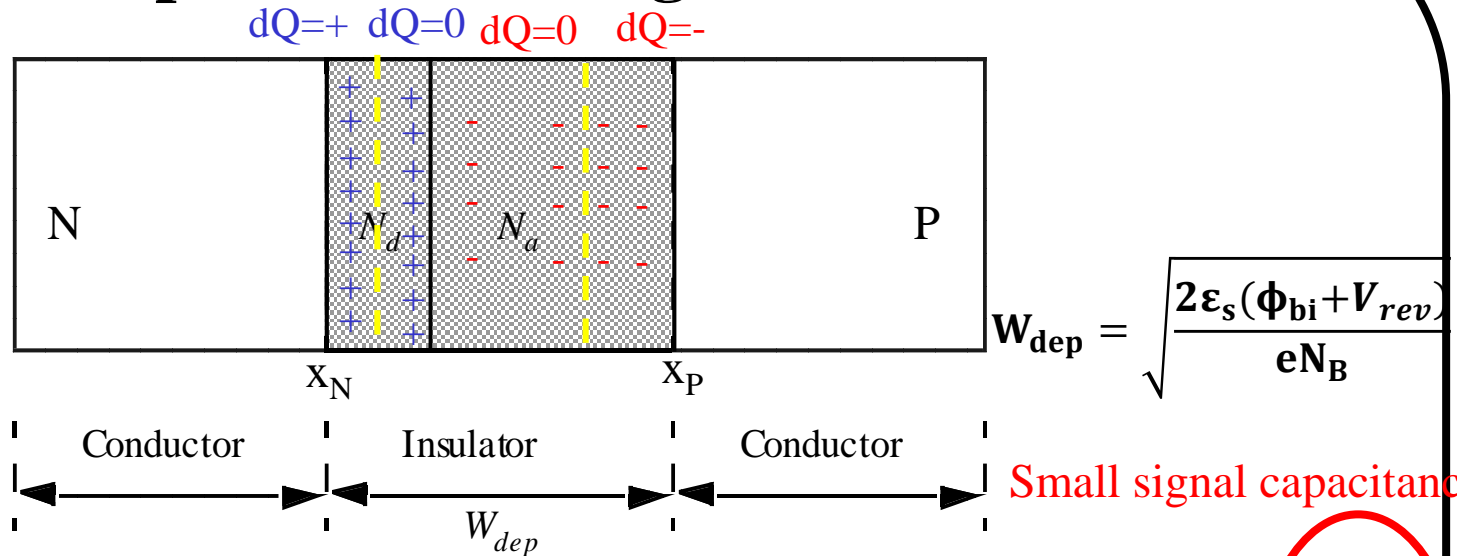
$$W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(\phi_{bi} + |V_r|)}{eN_B}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s \cdot \text{potential barrier}}{eN_B}}$$

$$\frac{1}{N_B} = \frac{1}{N_a} + \frac{1}{N_d} \approx \frac{1}{\text{lighter dopant density}}$$



***Q: Does the depletion layer widen or shrink with increasing reverse bias?***  
***A: widen***

## 4.4 Capacitance-Voltage Characteristics



Differential charges are on the edge of  $W_{\text{dep}}$

Reverse biased PN junction is a capacitor.

$$C_{dep} = \frac{\varepsilon_s A}{W_{dep}} = \frac{dQ}{dV}$$

controlled by Voltage

- Is  $C_{dep}$  a good thing? Capacitance is controlled by Voltage
  - Varactor: voltage-controlled capacitance
  - How to minimize junction capacitance?
- ⇒ Minimize  $W_d \rightarrow$  Low doping  $\sim 1e14,15$
- $$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

(the principle of adjusting the freq. of radio)

## 4.4 Capacitance-Voltage Characteristics

$$W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(\phi_{bi} + |V_r|)}{qN}}$$

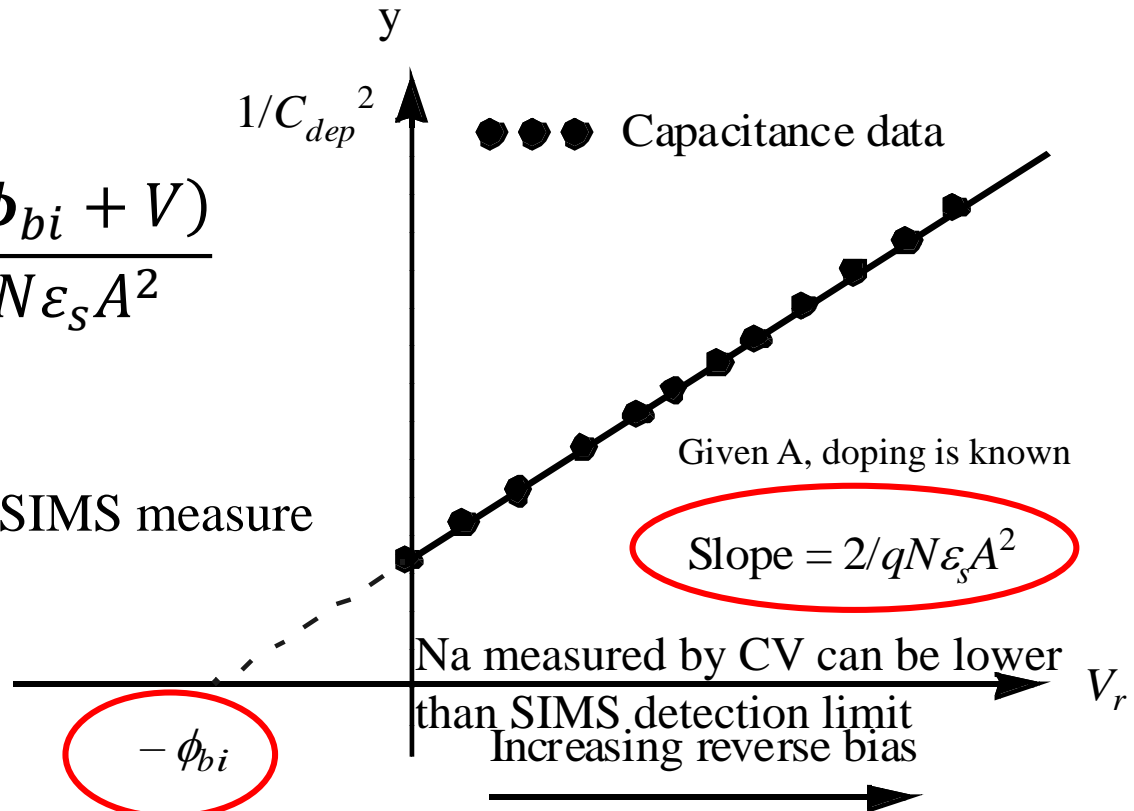
$$\frac{1}{C_{dep}^2} = \frac{W_{dep}^2}{A^2 \epsilon_s^2} = \frac{2(\phi_{bi} + V)}{qN \epsilon_s A^2}$$

Si atom density:  $5 \times 10^{22} \text{cm}^{-3}$

[B]:  $5 \times 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3} \rightarrow 10 \text{ppm} \rightarrow \text{SIMS measure}$

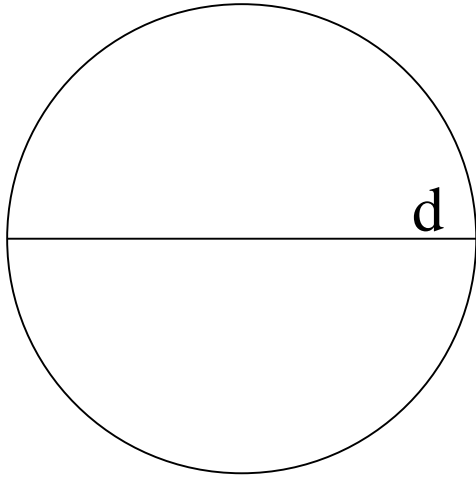
$$\Phi_{bi} \leq E_g$$

If  $V > \text{cut-in voltage (0.6V)}$ ,  
then the current is significant



- From this C-V data can  $N_a$  and  $N_d$  be determined?

## Considering variation in area measurement



**(slope is fixed)**

$$N \times A^2 = \text{const.}$$

$$N \times d^4 = \text{const.}$$

$$\ln(N) + 4\ln(d) = \text{const.}$$

$$\frac{\Delta N}{N} + 4 \frac{\Delta d}{d} = 0$$

→ length error results in 4 times doping error.

- Large area capacitance is preferred.

$\Delta d$  small,  $d$  should be “large” enough for precise measurement.

## 4.5 Junction Breakdown

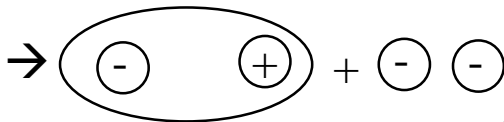
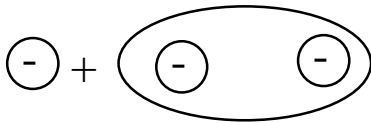
for core logic  $V_{dd}$  for advanced node  $\leq 0.7V$

$\rightarrow V_{BD}$  is not important

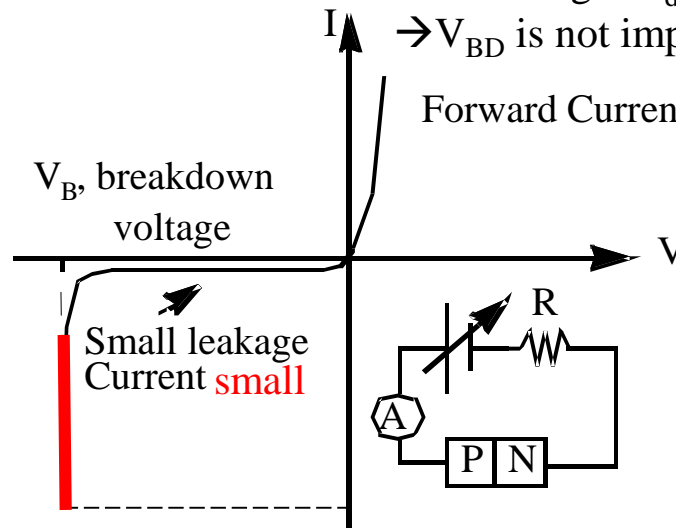
Forward Current **large**

Breakdown:

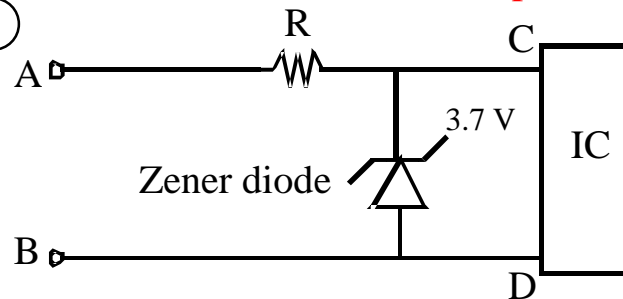
1. tunneling
2. impact ionization



Input electron energy  
 $> 1.5X E_g$



Power amplifier needs larger breakdown voltage

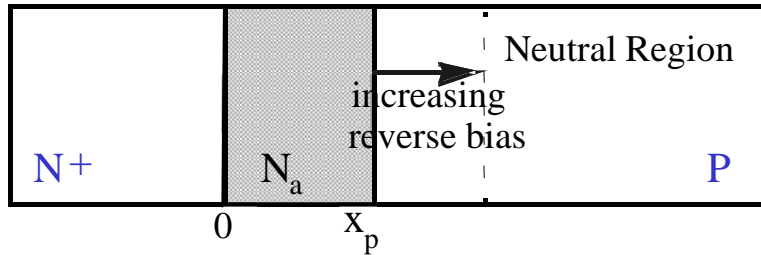


Application: regulator (voltage stabilizer)

Different current  
Same voltage

A Zener diode is designed to operate in the breakdown mode.

## 4.5.1 Peak Electric Field



One-sided junction  $\rightarrow x_p \sim W_d$

$$E_p = \frac{2(\phi_{bi} + |V_r|)}{W_d} N_a \uparrow \rightarrow E_p \uparrow$$

$$E_p = E(0) = \left[ \frac{2eN_a}{\epsilon_s} (\phi_{bi} + |V_r|) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Assume  $E_p = E_{crit}$  at breakdown

$$E_g \uparrow \rightarrow E_{crit} \uparrow \quad E_p = E_{crit} \sim 10^6 V/cm$$

$$V_B = \frac{\epsilon_s E_{crit}^2}{2eN_a} - \phi_{bi}$$

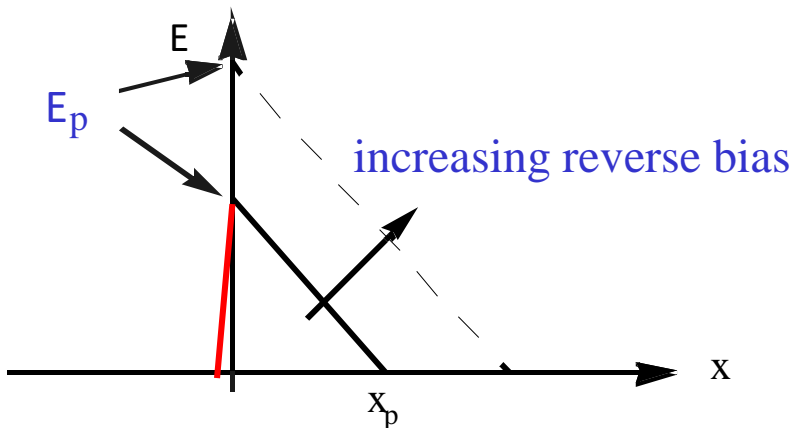
(3<sup>rd</sup> generation semiconductor)

GaN, SiC :  $E_{crit} = \text{Si } 10X$

$\rightarrow V_B = \text{Si } 100X$

$\rightarrow$  High voltage applications

$\rightarrow$  However, Si IGBT can still give high  $V_B$



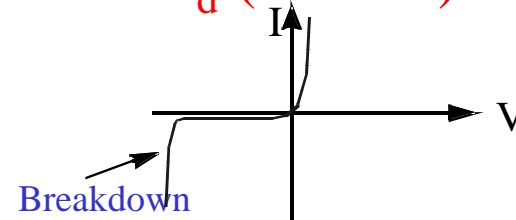
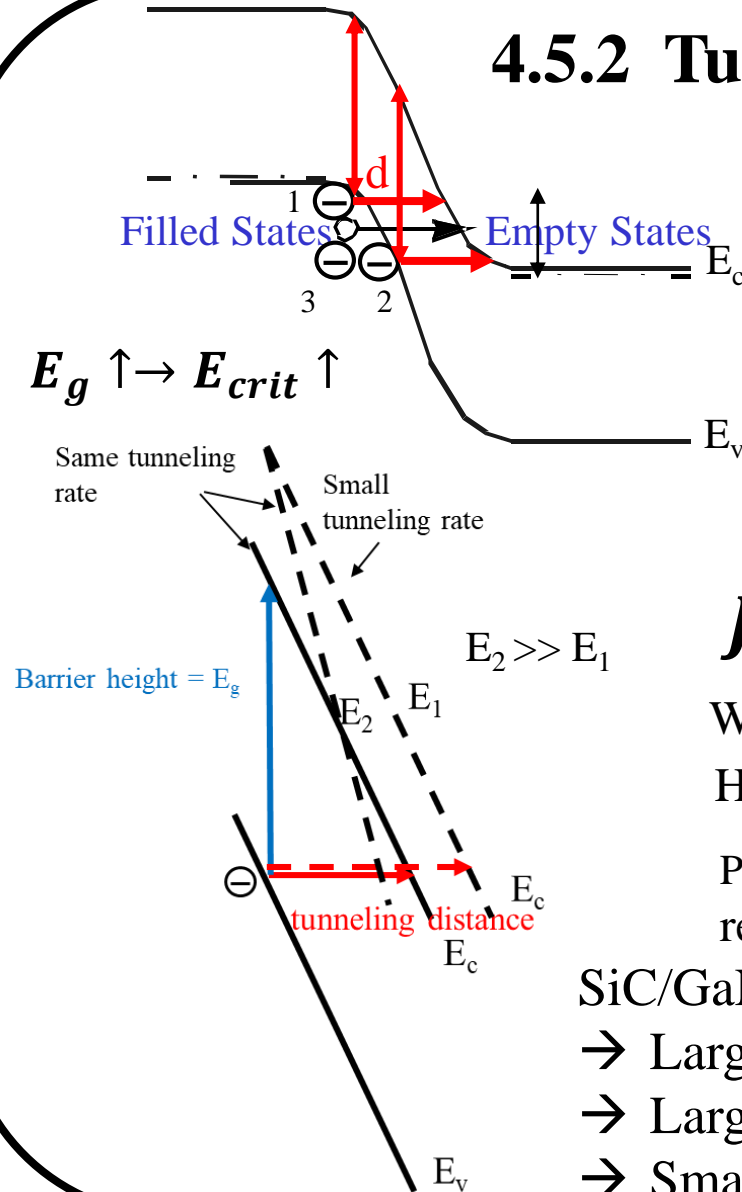
$$V_r + \phi_{bi} = \frac{1}{2} \times x_p \times E_p$$

$$W_d = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(\phi_{bi} + |V_r|)}{qN}}$$



## 4.5.2 Tunneling Breakdown

Dominant if both sides of a junction are very **heavily doped**.  
 → low  $W_d$  ( $< 10\text{nm}$ )



$$J = G \times e^{-H/E_p} \text{ (empirical formula)}$$

WKB can provide better calculation

$H$  is material dependent  $H_{\text{SiC}} > H_{\text{Si}}$

Practice21: explain why we need large enough reverse bias to have tunneling current?

SiC/GaN have large bandgap

→ Large barrier height

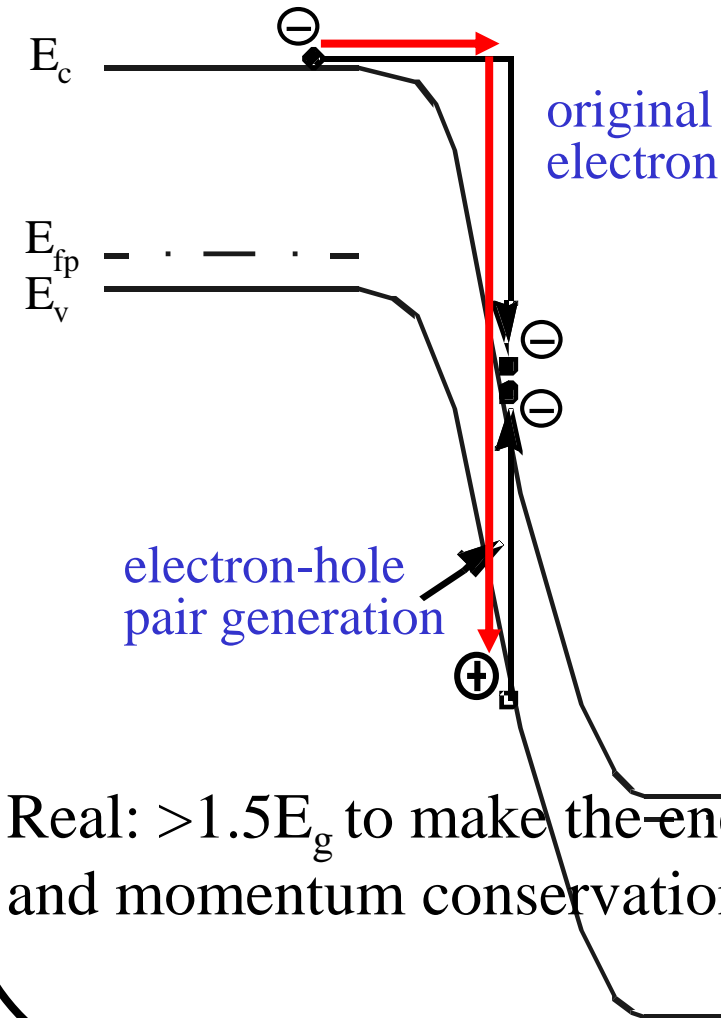
→ Large tunneling distance

→ Small tunneling rate

Tunneling distance  $< 10\text{nm}$

## 4.5.3 Avalanche Breakdown

electron (primary)  $\rightarrow$  electron (secondary) + hole



- **impact ionization**: an energetic electron generating electron and hole, which can also cause impact ionization.
- Impact ionization + positive feedback  $\rightarrow$  **avalanche breakdown**

$$V_B = \frac{\epsilon_s E_{crit}^2}{2eN}$$

$$V_B \propto \frac{1}{N} = \frac{1}{N_a} + \frac{1}{N_d}$$

Higher bandgap can have higher critical field

## 4.6 Forward Bias – Carrier Injection (dark)

Practice22: draw reverse bias band diagram and validate drift and diffusion current (bigger or smaller)

$V=0$  Short p-n

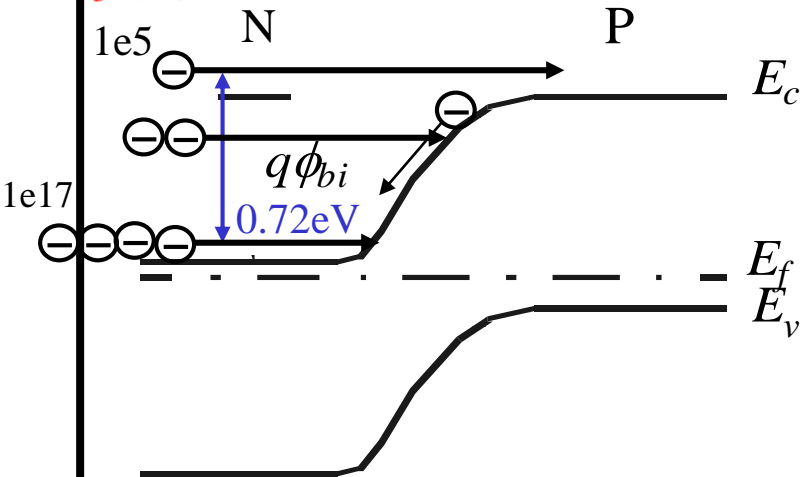
$I=0$

60meV/dec

$\uparrow 60\text{meV} \rightarrow \text{density } 0.1\text{X}$

$$J_{n,\text{drift}} = -en v = en \mu_n E$$

$$f(E) = e^{-\frac{E-E_f}{kT}}$$



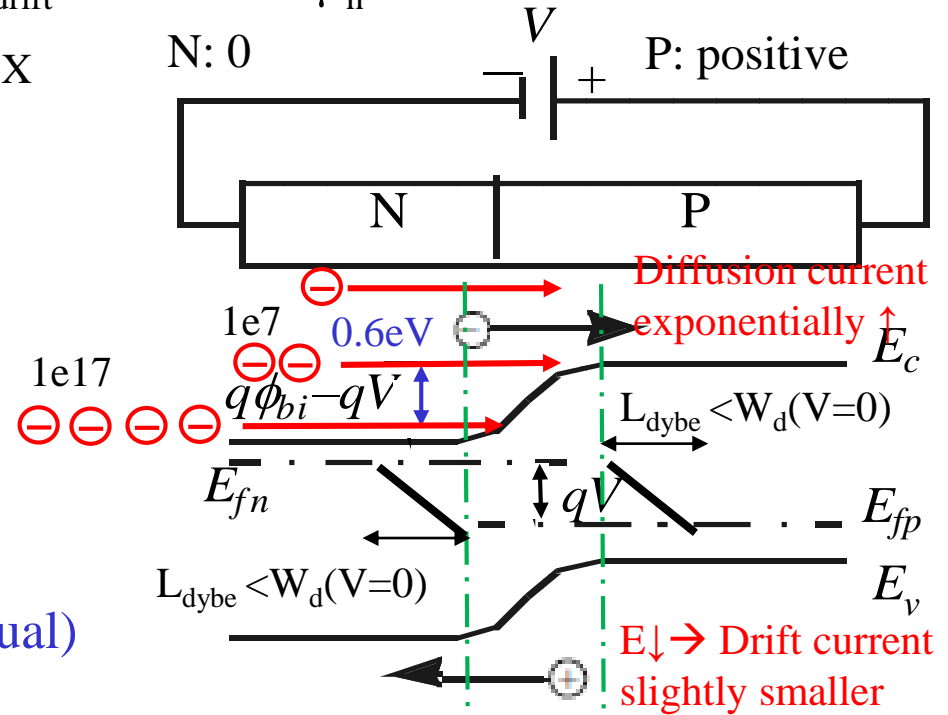
Drift and diffusion cancel out (equal)

Electron: Diffusion: electron  $n \rightarrow p$

Electron: Drift: electron  $p \rightarrow n$

Hole drift and diffusion  
current also cancel out

Forward biased



Minority carrier injection

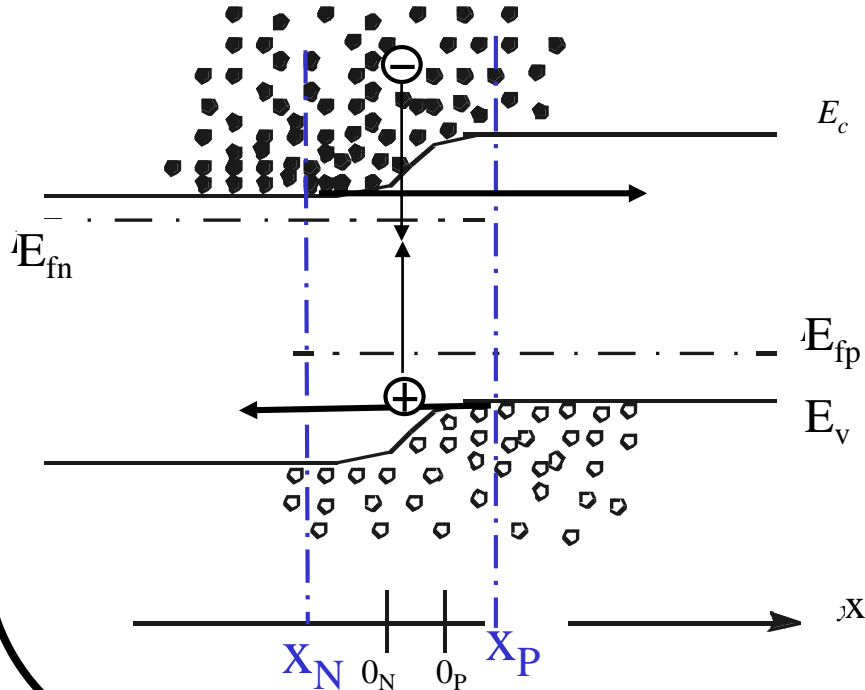
Practice23: draw the hole case

## 4.6 Forward Bias –Quasi-equilibrium Boundary Condition

Law of junction: Fermi levels are flat in depletion region

Practice24: derive  $np = n_i^2 e^{eV/kT}$  by band diagram with law of junction

$$p(x_{P+}) = p_0 \quad n(x_{P+}) = n_i^2 / p_0 * e^{eV/kT} = n_0 e^{eV/kT}$$



- The minority carrier densities are raised by  $e^{eV/kT}$
- Which side gets more carrier injection?

## 4.6 Forward Bias–Quasi-equilibrium Boundary Condition

### Law of junction (low level injection)

$$n(x_P) = n_{P0} e^{eV/kT} = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A} e^{eV/kT} \quad (\text{assume } p = N_A, n' = p' < N_A)$$

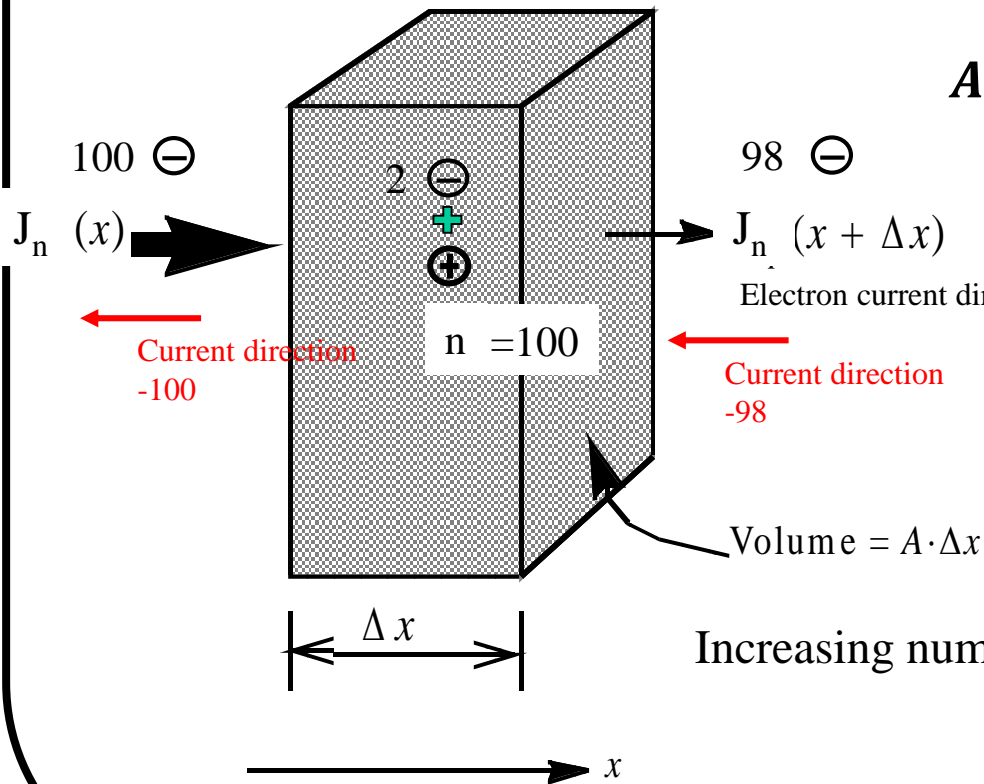
$$p(x_N) = p_{N0} e^{eV/kT} = \frac{n_i^2}{N_D} e^{eV/kT} \quad (\text{assume } n = N_D, n' = p' < N_D)$$

excess carrier ( $\Delta n = n - n_0, \Delta p = p - p_0$ )

$$n'(x_P) \equiv n(x_P) - n_{P0} = n_{P0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) \quad \text{P side}$$

$$p'(x_N) \equiv p(x_N) - p_{N0} = p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) \quad \text{N side}$$

## 4.7 Current Continuity Equation



$$A \frac{J_n(x)}{e} = A \frac{J_n(x + \Delta x)}{e} + A \Delta x \frac{n'}{\tau}$$

$$A \frac{J_n(x + \Delta x)}{e} - A \frac{J_n(x)}{e} = -A \Delta x \frac{n'}{\tau}$$

$$\frac{J_n(x + \Delta x) - J_n(x)}{\Delta x} = e \frac{n'}{\tau}$$

Electron current direction

$$\boxed{-\frac{dJ_n}{dx}} = e \frac{n'}{\tau}$$

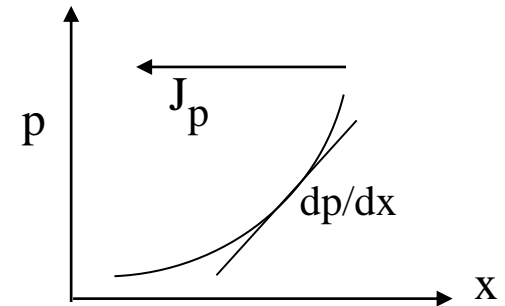
Increasing number of electron per unit time in  $\Delta x$

## 4.7 Current Continuity Equation

$$-\frac{dJ_p}{dx} = e \frac{p'}{\tau}$$

Minority drift current is negligible;  
 $\therefore J_p = -eD_p dp/dx$

$$eD_p \frac{d^2 p}{dx^2} = e \frac{p'}{\tau_p}$$



$$\frac{d^2 p'}{dx^2} = \frac{p'}{D_p \tau_p} = \frac{p'}{L_p^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2 n'}{dx^2} = \frac{n'}{L_n^2}$$

$L_p$  and  $L_n$  are the diffusion lengths

Solar cell needs large life time (ms)

VLSI small life time ( $\mu s$ )

$$L_p \equiv \sqrt{D_p \tau_p}$$

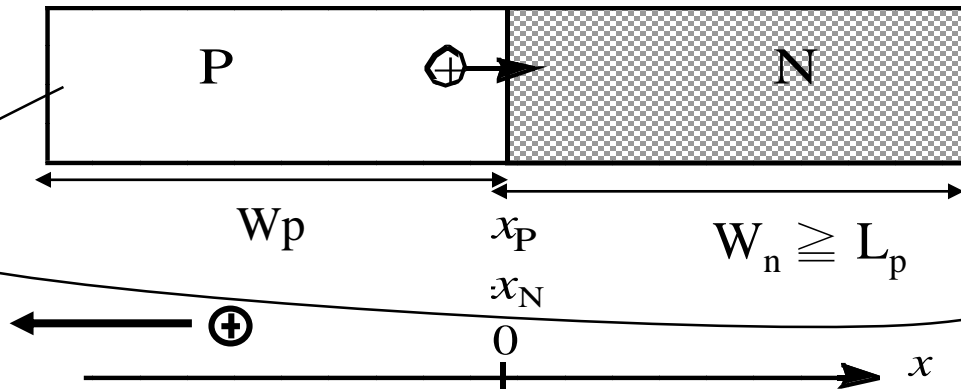
$$L_n \equiv \sqrt{D_n \tau_n}$$

## 4.8 Forward Biased Junction-- Excess Carriers

Q: electron movement

recombine

Practice25: solve the differential equation



$$\frac{d^2 p'}{dx^2} = \frac{p'}{L_p^2}$$

For solar cell, the boundary condition is different

$$p'(\infty) = 0$$

$$np = n_i^2 e^{eV/kT}$$

$$p(x_N) = \frac{n_i^2}{N_d} e^{eV/kT}$$

$$p'(x_N) = p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1)$$

$$p'(x) = A e^{x/L_p} + B e^{-x/L_p}$$

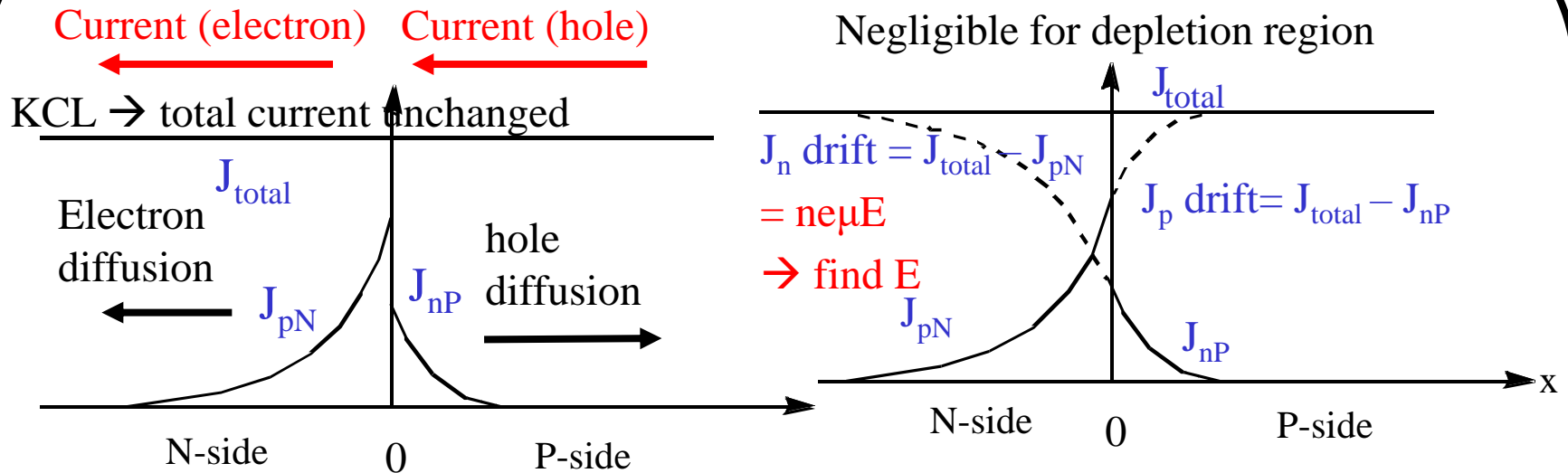
$$p'(x) = p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) e^{-(x-x_N)/L_p}, x > x_N$$

$$p'(x) = p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) e^{-(x-x_N)/L_p}, x > x_N$$

$$n'(x) = n_{P0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) e^{(x-x_P)/L_n}, x < x_P$$



## 4.9 PN Diode I-V Characteristics



$$x=x_N \quad J_{pN} = -eD_p \frac{dp'(x)}{dx} = e \frac{D_p}{L_p} p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) e^{-(x-x_N)/L_p}$$

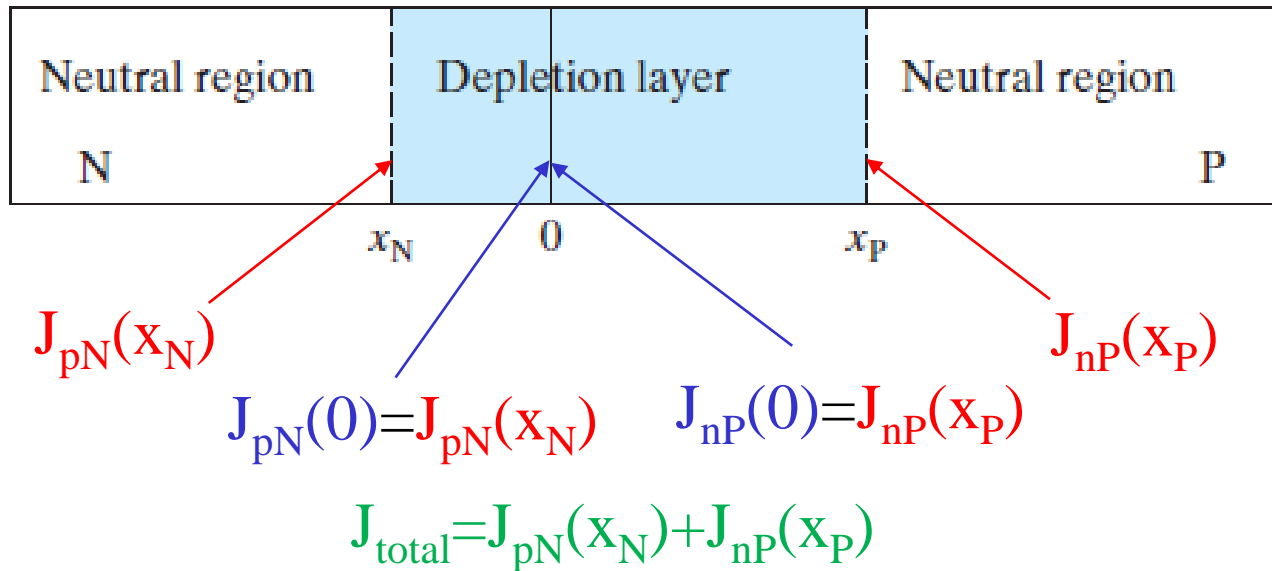
$$J_{nP} = eD_n \frac{dn'(x)}{dx} = e \frac{D_n}{L_n} n_{P0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) e^{(x-x_P)/L_n}$$

Practice26: Electric field at Neutral region =?

$$J_{\text{total}} = J_{pN}(x_N) + J_{nP}(x_P) = \left[ e \frac{D_p}{L_p} p_{N0} + e \frac{D_n}{L_n} n_{P0} \right] (e^{eV/kT} - 1)$$

$= J \text{ at all } x$

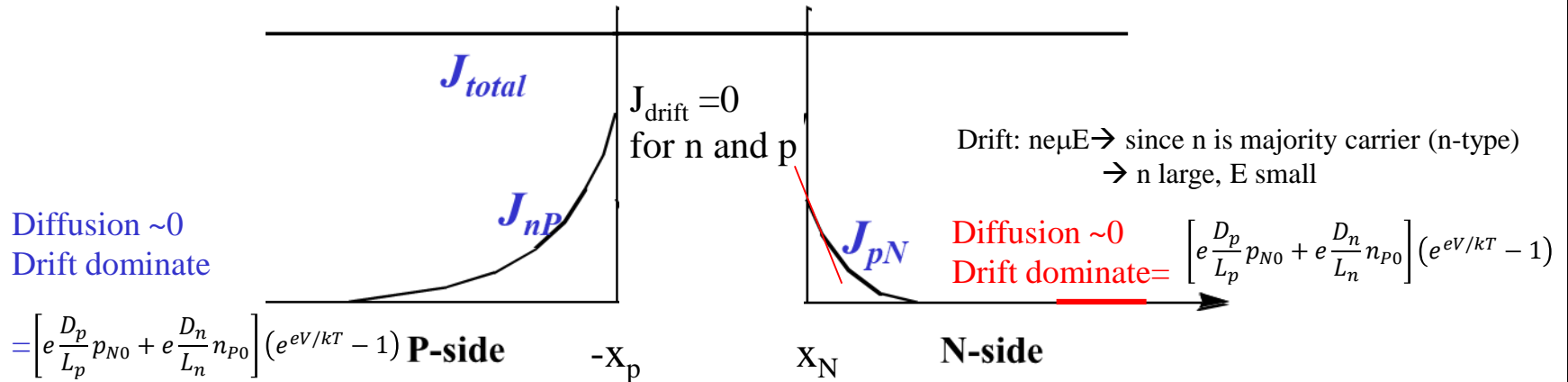
$V=0 \rightarrow I=0$



- No drift electron/hole current in the depletion region
  - No recombination in the depletion region
- diffusion current is the same inside depletion region

Q:  $x = -x_p$ : electron drift and diffusion,  
 $x = -\infty$ : electron drift and diffusion

Neutral Region has sufficient majority carrier  
 has sufficient drift current



**At  $x = x_N$  Drift:  $peV = pe\mu E \sim 0$**

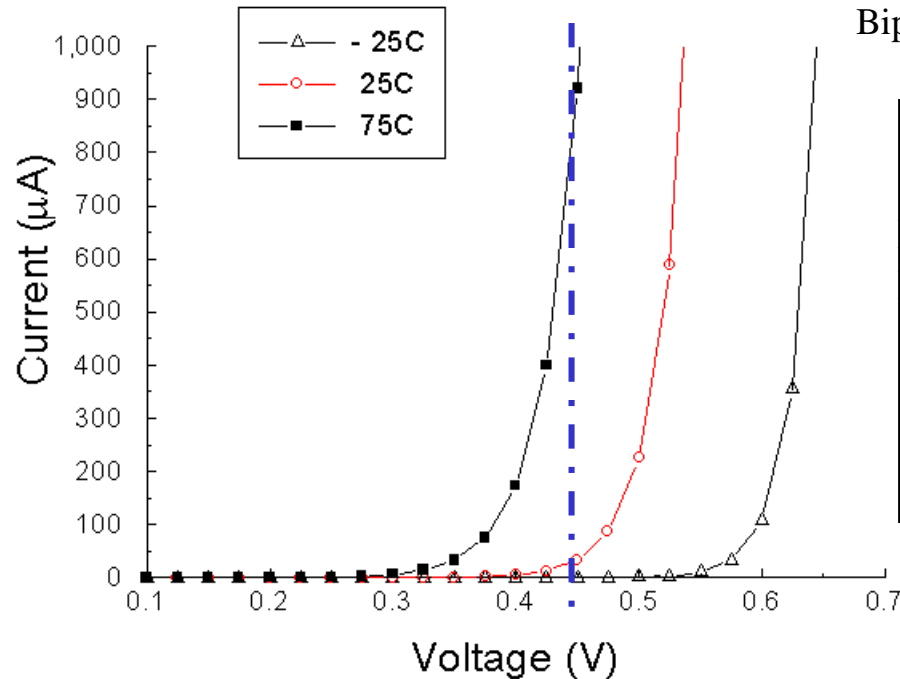
$$J_{pN} = -eD_p \frac{dp'(x)}{dx} = e \frac{D_p}{L_p} p_{N0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1)$$

$$\left[ e \frac{D_p}{L_p} p_{N0} + e \frac{D_n}{L_n} n_{p0} \right] (e^{eV/kT} - 1) \quad \text{1kT}$$

# The PN Junction as a Temperature Sensor

temperature  $\uparrow \rightarrow$  electrons are more likely jumping from  $E_v$  to  $E_c \rightarrow$  current  $\uparrow$

PN junction is not a good temperature sensor  
Bipolar is a good temperature sensor

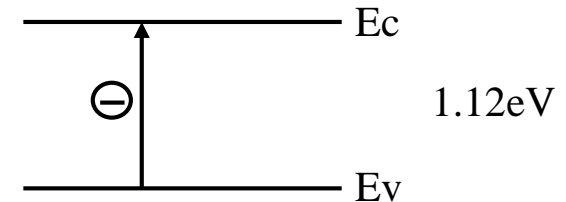


$$I = I_0 (e^{eV/kT} - 1)$$

$$L_n \ll W_p$$

$$L_p \ll W_n$$

$$I_0 = A e n_i^2 \left( \frac{D_p}{L_p N_d} + \frac{D_n}{L_n N_a} \right)$$



Practice27: What causes the IV curves to shift to lower V at higher T ?

## 4.9.1 Contributions from the Depletion Region

$$n \sim p \sim n_i e^{eV/2kT} \quad ?$$

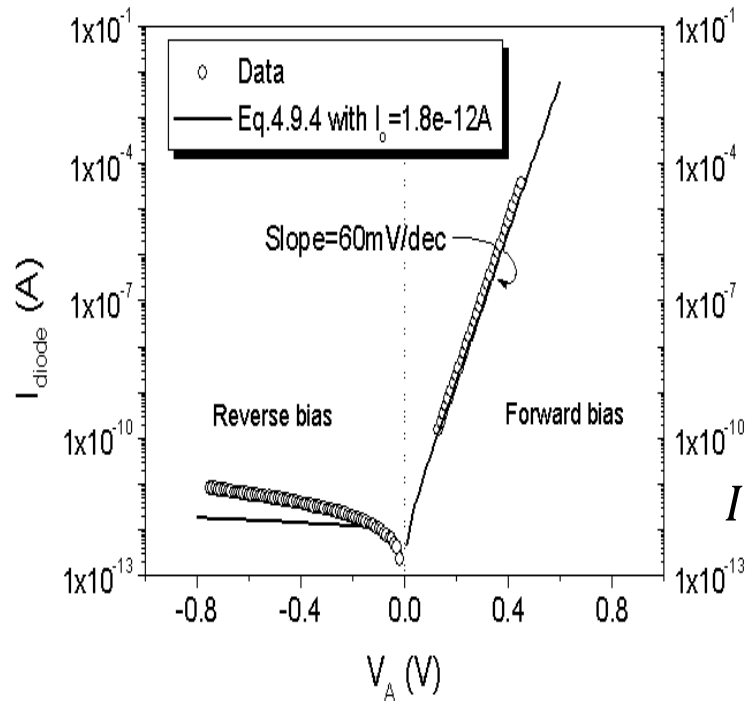
Net recombination (generation) rate:

$$\frac{n_i}{\tau_{dep}} (e^{eV/2kT} - 1)$$

Assume there are defects in  $W_{dep}$

$$I = I_0 (e^{eV/kT} - 1) + A \frac{en_i W_{dep}}{\tau_{dep}} (e^{eV/2kT} - 1)$$

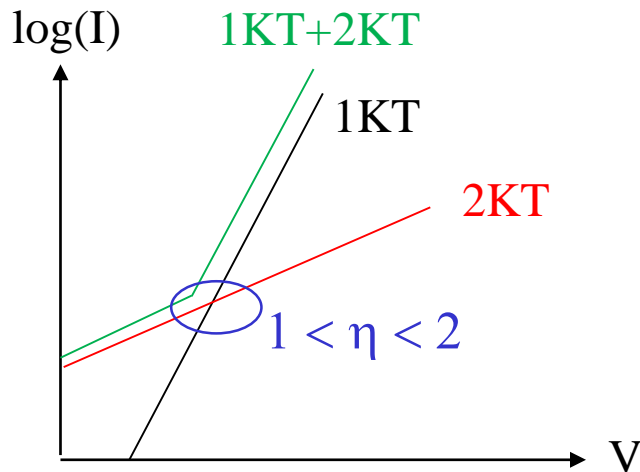
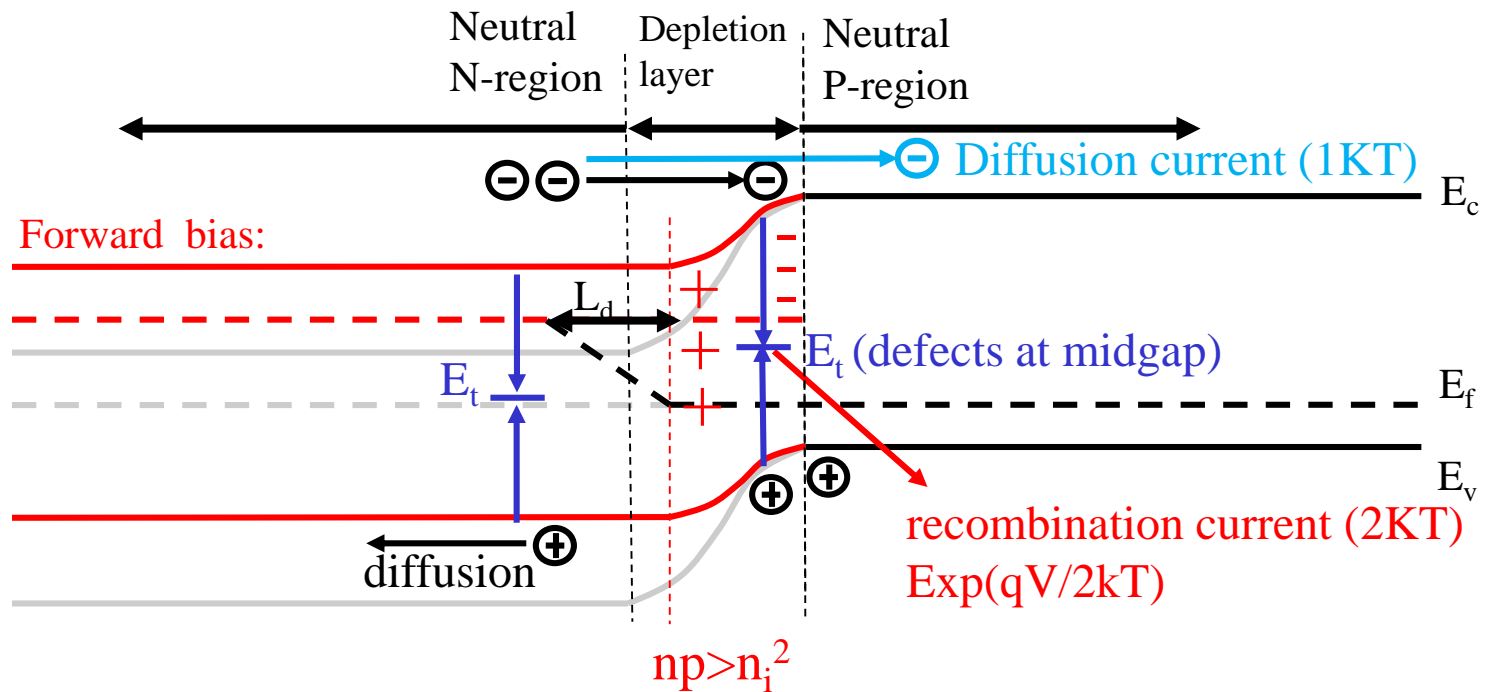
$1kT$   $2kT$   
 $\eta kT, 1 < \eta < 2$



$$I_{leakage} = I_0 + A \frac{en_i W_{dep}}{\tau_{dep}}$$

Space-Charge Region (SCR) current  
Under forward bias, SCR current is an extra current with a slope 120mV/decade

- For good device: no  $2kT$  current
- For solar cell  $\eta \gg 2$



- low current  $\rightarrow 2KT$
- $\eta = ?$  if  $E_t$  not in the midgap
- high current  $\rightarrow 1KT$

PN junction at  $V=0$ :

Electron current=0 (diffusion+drift)

Hole current =0 (diffusion+drift)

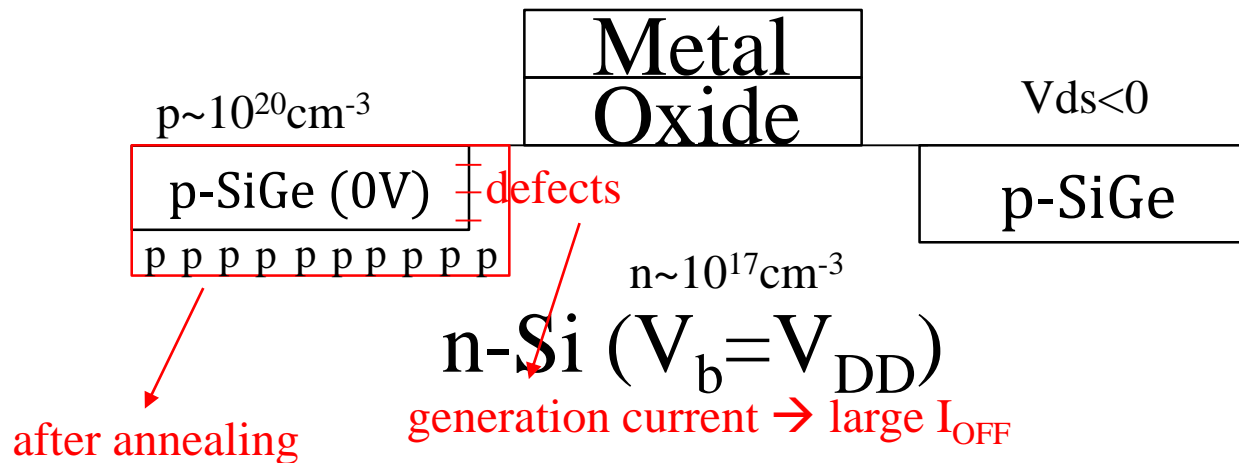
PN junction at forward biased:

Electron current + Hole current (Both diffusion)

Bipolar device: electron + hole + diffusion

FET: majority electron (NFET) or majority hole (PFET) drift (more important)

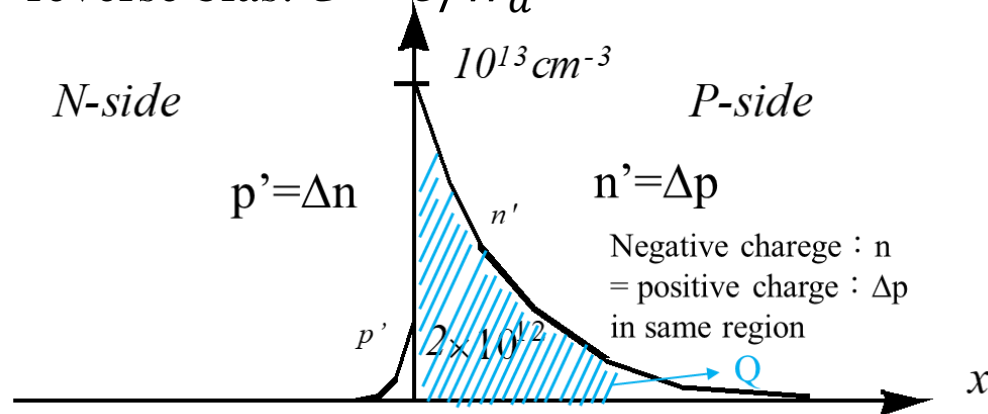
90nm node



- After annealing, the dopants of p-SiGe (B) diffuse out, the defects are no longer inside the depletion region  
 $\rightarrow$  Less recombination current

## 4.10 Charge Storage

reverse bias:  $C = \epsilon/W_d$



$$Q \propto I \quad Q = \int_0^\infty n' dx$$

$$I = Q/\tau_s$$

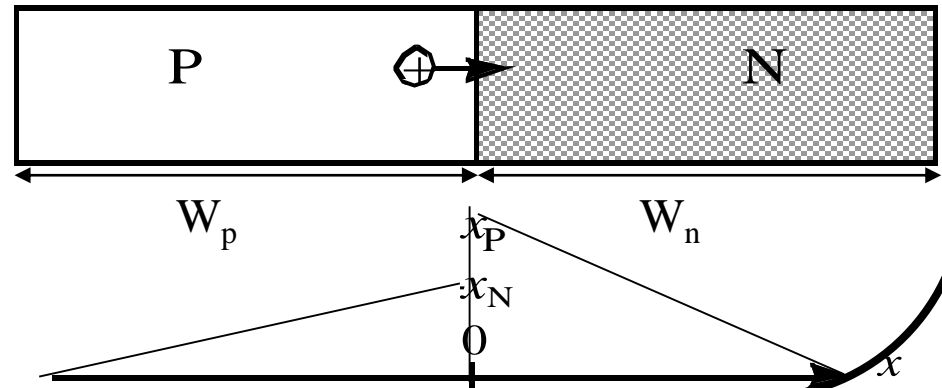
$$Q = I\tau_s$$

$$n'(x) = n_{p0} (e^{qV/kT} - 1) e^{(x-x_P)/L_n}, \quad x < x_P$$

Practice28: calculate  $\tau_s$  for long diode

Practice29: calculate  $\tau_s$  for short diode, namely physical size < diffusion length

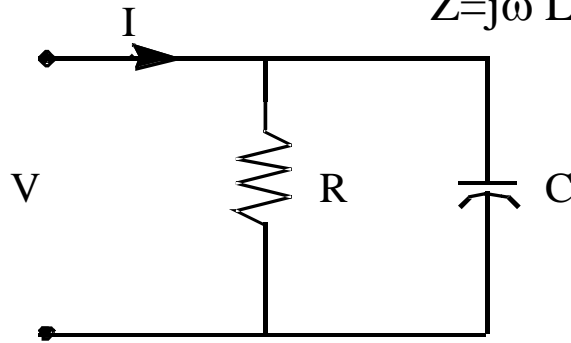
Hint:  $n'(x)$  : linear





## 4.11 Small-signal Model of the Diode

$Z = j\omega L$ ,  $\omega$  is lower 1GHz,  $L$  can be negligible



$$G \equiv \frac{1}{R} = \frac{dI}{dV} = \frac{d}{dV} I_0 (e^{eV/kT} - 1) \approx \frac{d}{dV} I_0 e^{eV/kT}$$

$$= \frac{e}{kT} I_0 e^{eV/kT} = \frac{I_{DC}}{kT/e}$$

What is  $G$  at 300K and  $I_{DC} = 1$  mA?

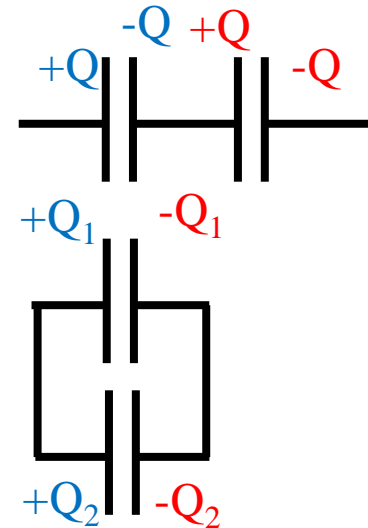
$$C_{dep} = \frac{\epsilon_s}{W_d} = \epsilon_s / \text{debye length (flat band)}$$

Diffusion Capacitance (small signal):

$$C = \frac{dQ}{dV} = \tau_s \frac{dI}{dV} = \tau_s G = \tau_s \frac{I_{DC}}{kT/e}$$

Which is larger, diffusion or depletion capacitance?

$C_{dep}$  and  $C_{diff}$  are parallel,  $C_{diff}$  larger



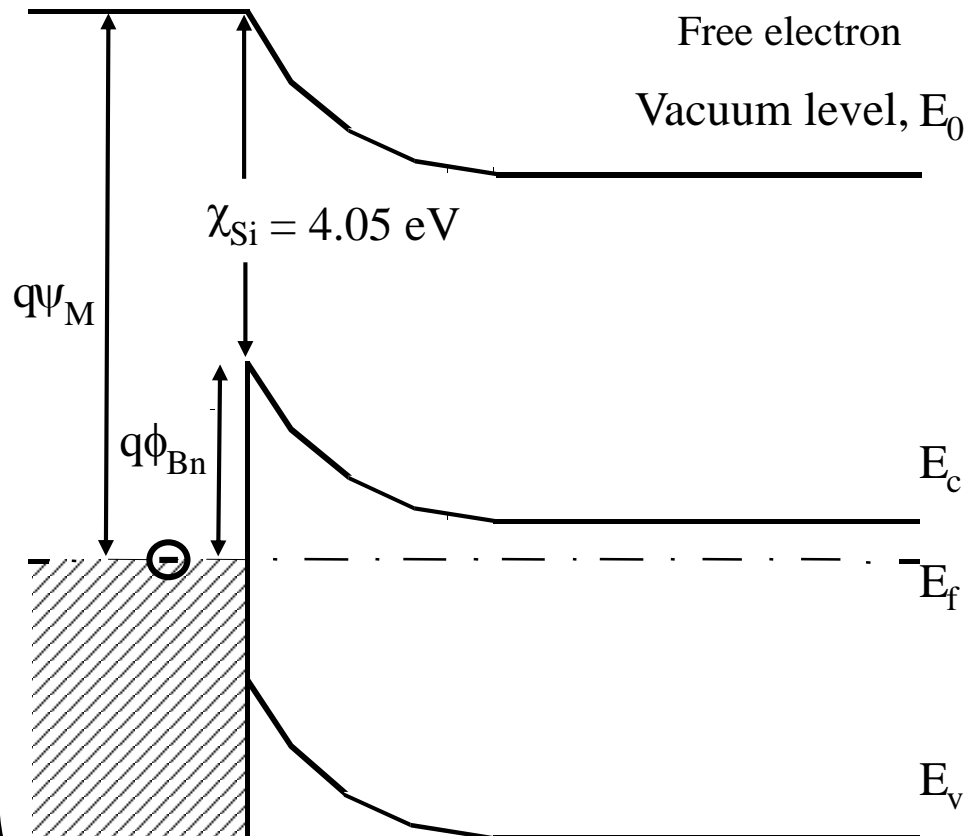
## 4.12 Metal-Semiconductor Junction

Two kinds of metal-semiconductor(MS junction) contacts:

- Rectifying **Schottky diodes**: metal on lightly doped silicon    One bias voltage has current, while the other doesn't. There is sufficient current only at forward bias
- Low-resistance **ohmic contacts**: metal on heavily doped silicon    There is sufficient current at both forward and reverse bias

Depletion region 小  $\rightarrow$  tunneling

## $\phi_{Bn}$ Increases with Increasing Metal Work Function



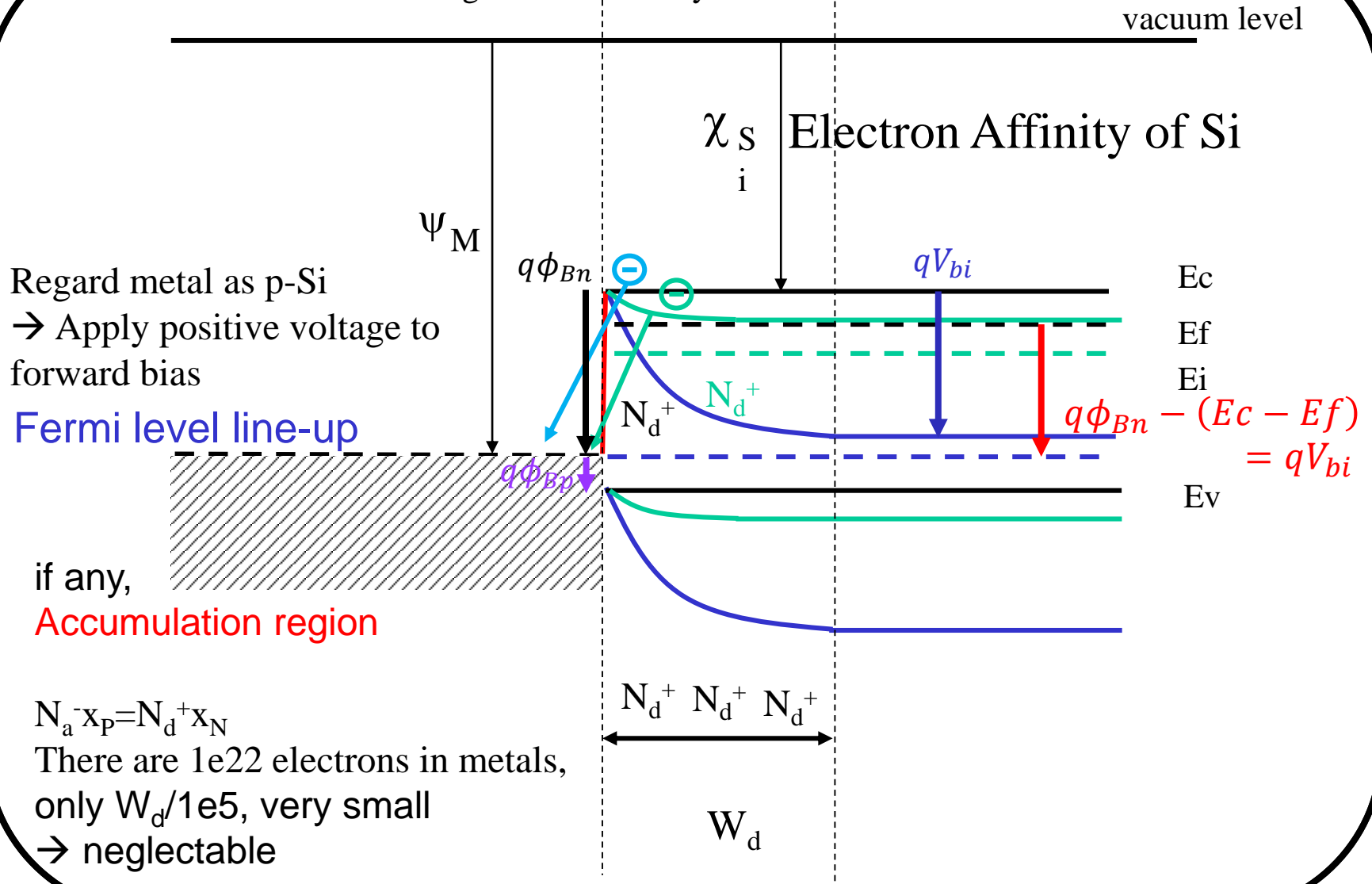
$\psi_M$ : Work Function of metal

$\chi_{Si}$ : Electron Affinity of Si

Theoretically,  $\phi_{Bn} = \psi_M - \chi_{Si}$

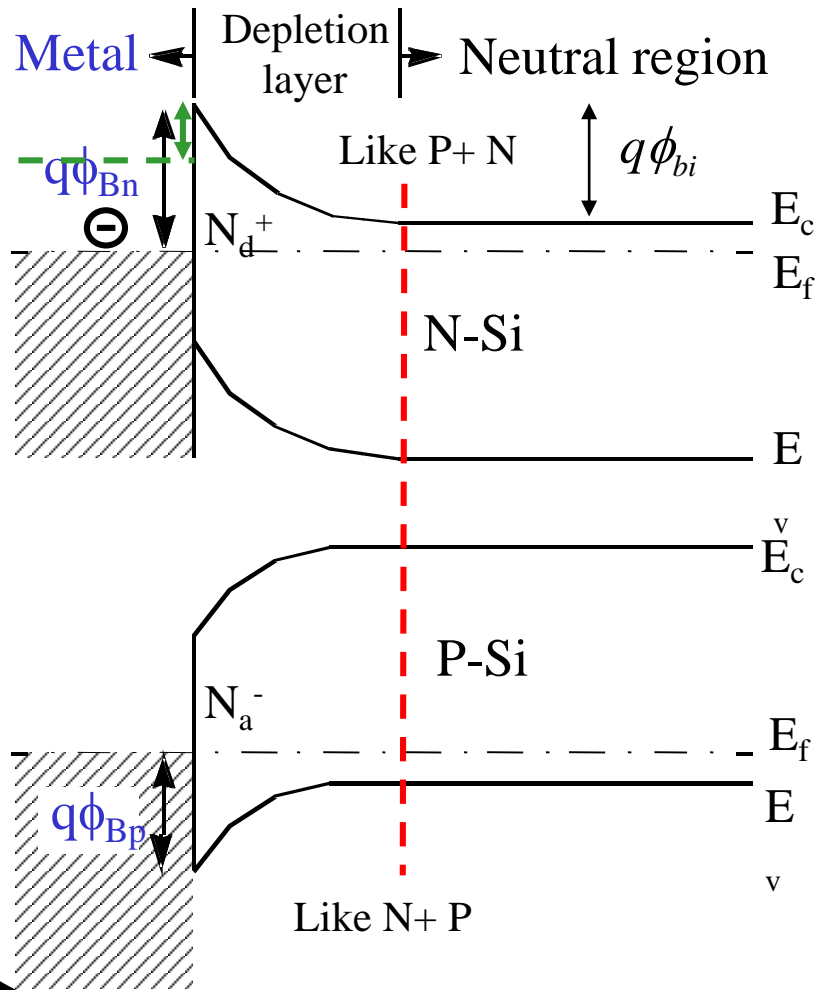
- defect/MIGS of interface are not taken into consideration (Metal Induced Gap States)
- Fermi-level pinning

# Practice30: draw the band diagram for Schottky diodes



## 4.13 Schottky Barriers

Energy Band Diagram of Schottky Contact  $q\phi_{Bn} = ?$



- Schottky barrier height,  $\phi_B$ , is a function of the metal material.
- $\phi_B$  is the most important parameter. The sum of  $q\phi_{Bn}$  and  $q\phi_{Bp}$  is equal to  $E_g$ .

## Schottky barrier heights for electrons and holes

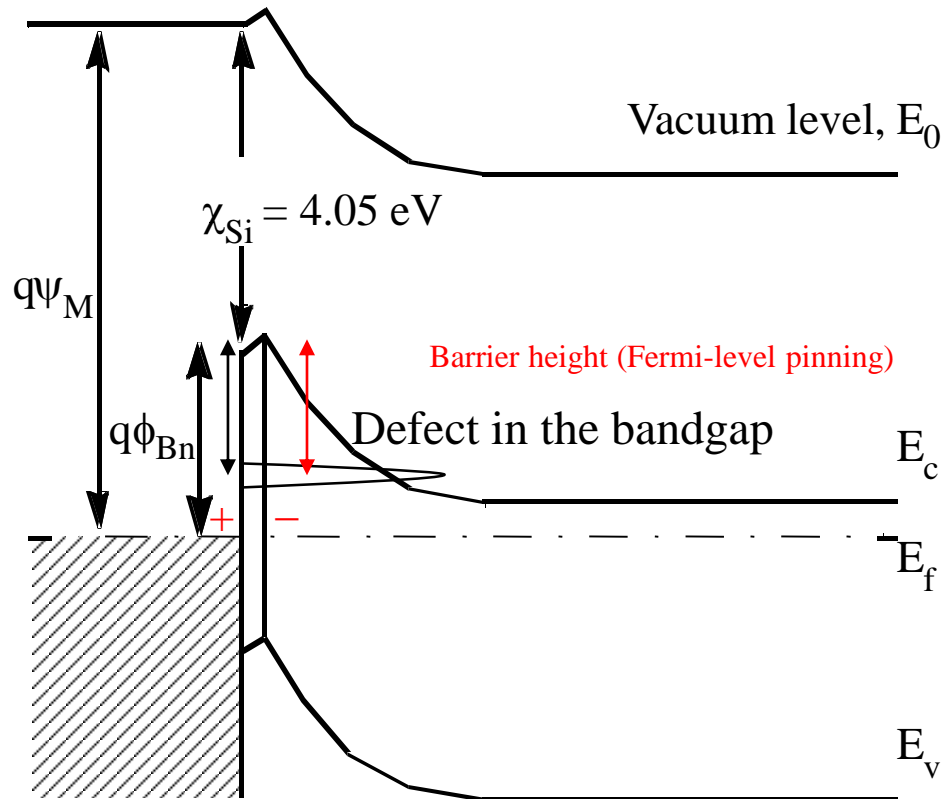
Metal	Al	Mg	Ti	Cr	W	Mo	Pd	Au	Pt	Ni
$\phi_{Bn}$ (V)		0.4	0.5	0.61	0.67	0.68	0.77	0.8	0.9	
$\phi_{Bp}$ (V)		For n and p in single silicide		0.5		0.42		0.3		
Work Function		3.7	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.6	5.1	5.1	5.7	
$\psi_m$ (V)									For p?	

$$\phi_{Bn} + \phi_{Bp} \approx E_g \text{ (even considering Fermi-level pinning)}$$

$\phi_{Bn}$  increases with increasing metal work function

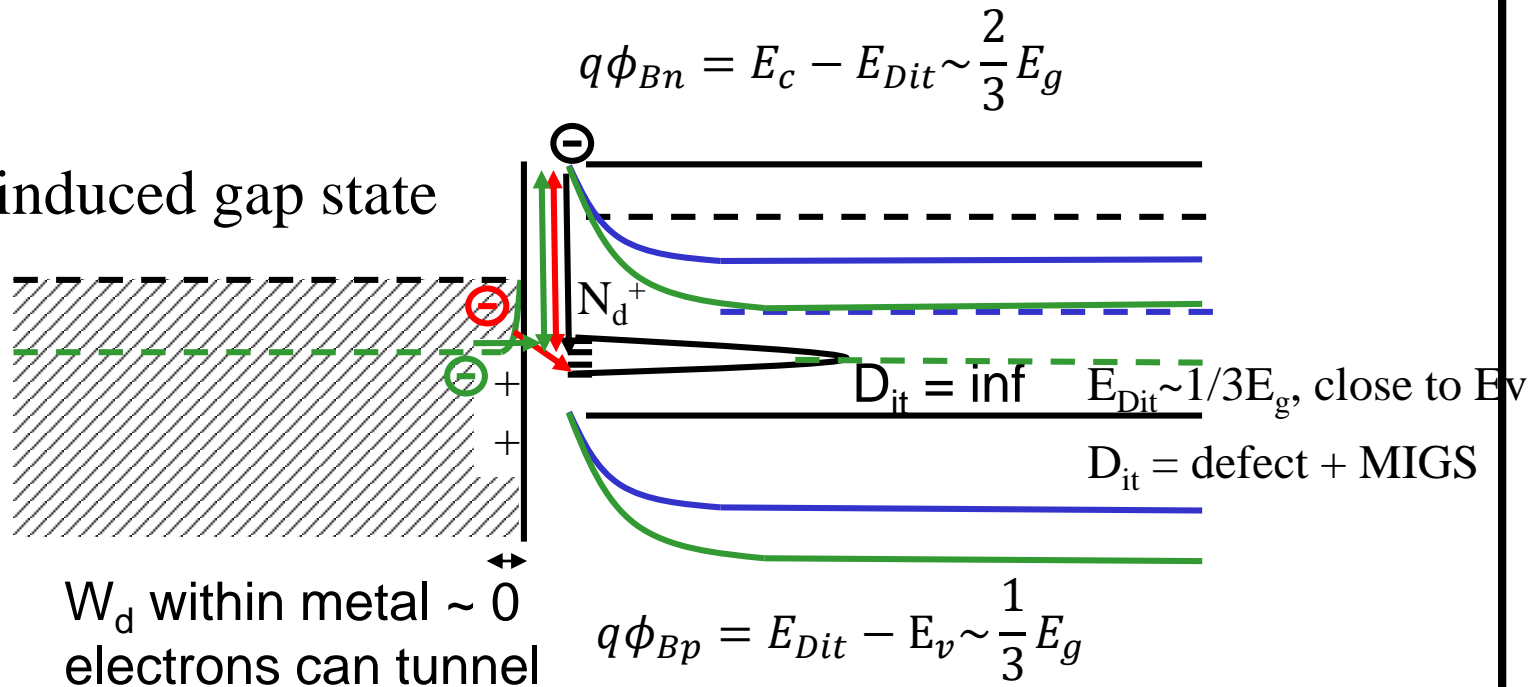
- Due to large  $D_{it}$  at M/S interface
- Small barrier height metal can be used in night vision goggles
- MOSFET needs ohmic contact (small barrier height)

# Fermi Level Pinning



- A high density of energy states in the bandgap at the metal-semiconductor interface **pins  $E_f$**  to a narrow range and  $\phi_{Bn}$  is typically 0.4 to 0.9 V
- Question: What is the typical range of  $\phi_{Bp}$ ? 0.7 to 0.2 V

Metal induced gap state



- Fermi-level pinning at  $E_{Dit}$   
→ Barrier height is independent of metal work function



# Schottky Contacts of Metal Silicide on Si

**Silicide:** A silicon and metal compound. It is conductive similar to a metal.



Planar technology: After sputtering Source/Drain anneal: 1050°C  
Silicide-Si interfaces are more stable than metal-silicon interfaces. After metal is deposited on Si, an annealing step is applied to form a silicide-Si contact. **The term metal-silicon contact includes and almost always means silicide-Si contacts.**

TiN is used for metal gate

Erbium

platinum

Silicide	ErSi <sub>1.7</sub>	HfSi	MoSi <sub>2</sub>	ZrSi <sub>2</sub>	TiSi <sub>2</sub>	CoSi <sub>2</sub>	WSi <sub>2</sub>	NiSi <sub>2</sub>	Pd <sub>2</sub> Si	PtSi
$\phi_{Bn}$ (V)	0.28	0.45	0.55	0.55	0.61	0.65	0.67	0.67	0.75	0.87
$\phi_{Bp}$ (V)			0.55	0.49	0.45	0.45	0.43	0.43	0.35	0.23

$R_c$  :contact resistance

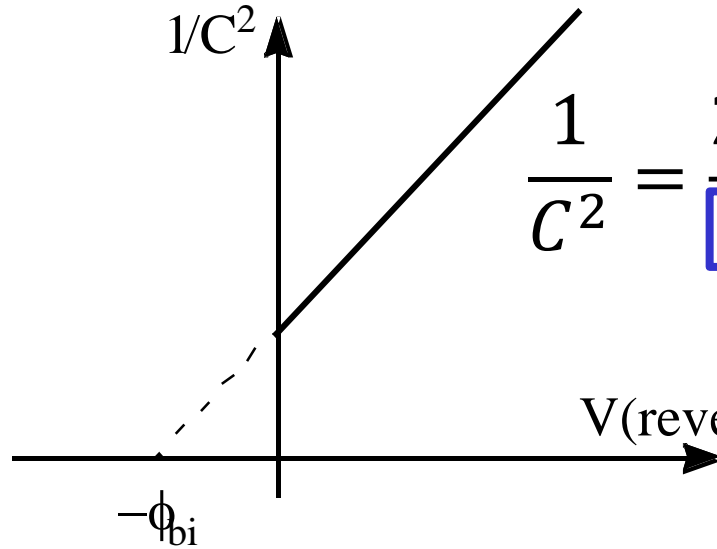
Al: workfunction  $\sim E_c$

# Using CV Data to Determine $\phi_B$

Diameter: 5%

Area: 10%

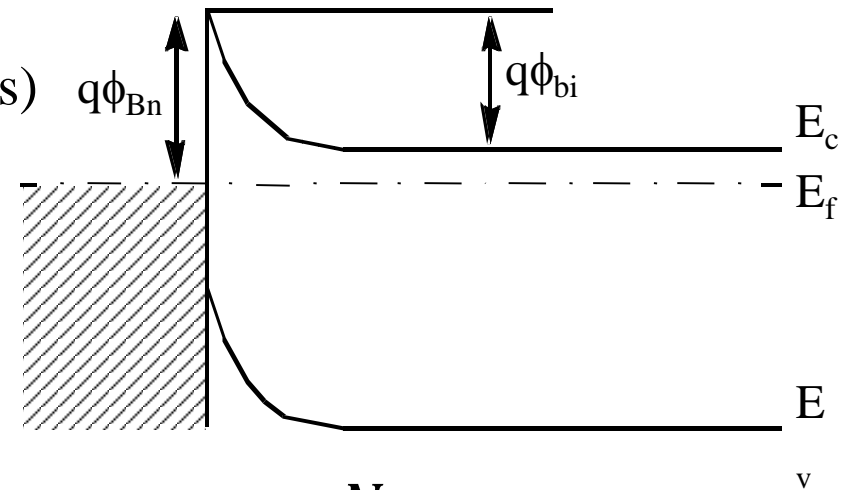
$N_D^+$ : 20%



$$\frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2(\phi_{bi} + V)}{qN_d\epsilon_s A^2}$$

Slope:  $N_D^+$

Intercept:  $\phi_{bi}$

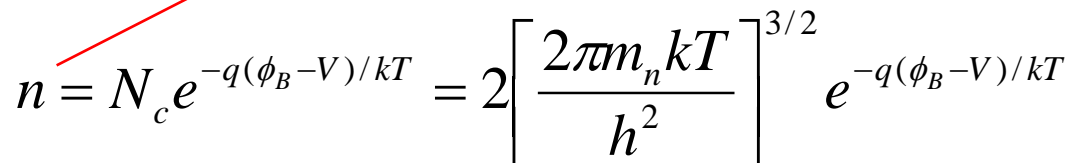


Once  $\phi_{bi}$  is known,  $\phi_B$  can be determined using

$$q\phi_{bi} = q\phi_{Bn} - (E_c - E_f) = q\phi_{Bn} - kT \ln \frac{N_c}{N_d}$$

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_{fn})/KT}$$
$$N_c e^{-(Ec-Efn)/KT} e^{-q\phi_{bi}/KT}$$

$$= N_c e^{-q\phi_B / KT}$$



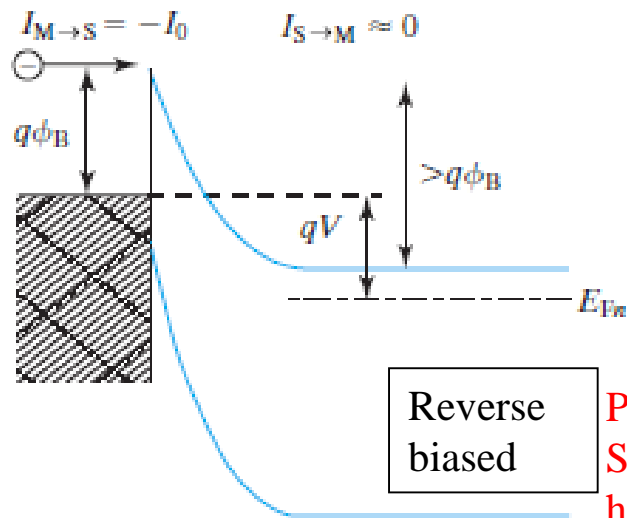
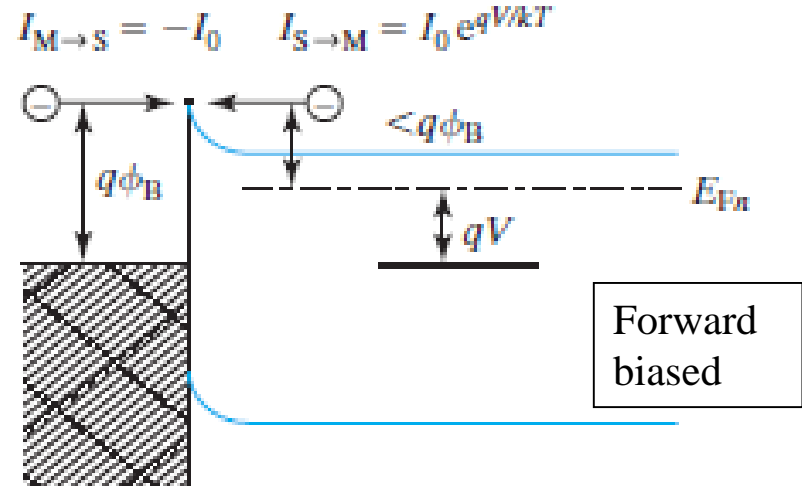
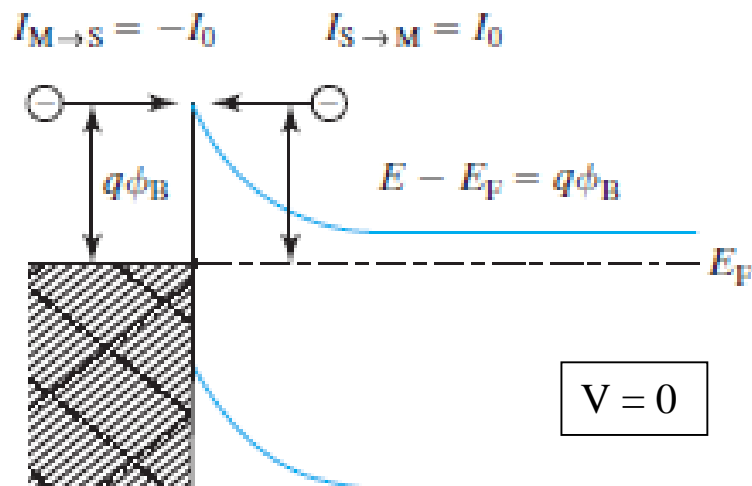
$$v_{th} = \sqrt{3kT / m_n} \quad v_{thx} = -\sqrt{2kT / \pi m_n} \quad ?$$

Half of electrons go left

$$J_{S \rightarrow M} = -\frac{1}{2} q n v_{thx} = \frac{4\pi q m_n k^2}{h^3} T^2 e^{-q\phi_B/kT} e^{qV/kT}$$

$$= J_0 e^{qV/kT}, \text{ where } J_0 \approx 100 e^{-q\phi_B/kT} \text{ A/cm}^2$$

## 4.18 Schottky Diodes



$$I_0 = AKT^2 e^{-q\phi_B/kT}$$

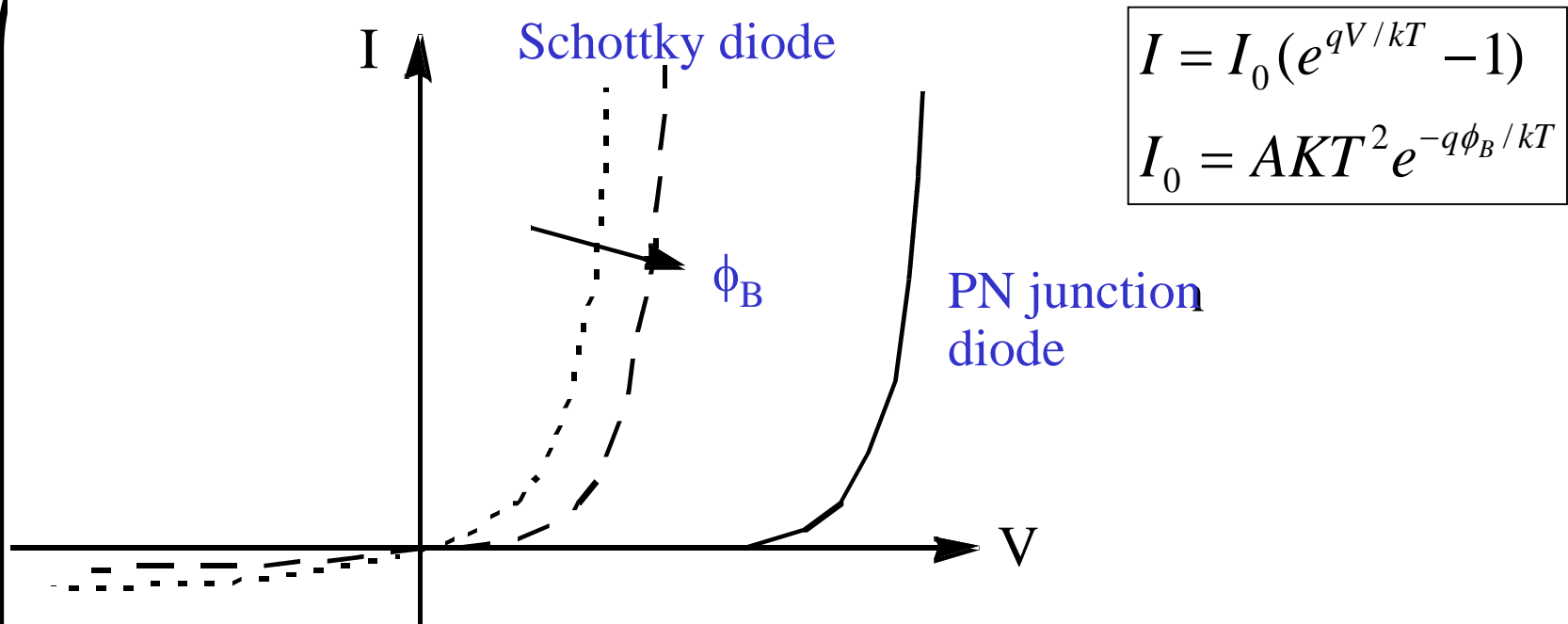
$$K = \frac{4\pi q m_n k^2}{h^3} \approx 100 \text{ A}/(\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{K}^2)$$

$$I = I_{S \rightarrow M} + I_{M \rightarrow S} = I_0 e^{qV/kT} - I_0 = I_0 (e^{qV/kT} - 1)$$

PN: diffusion (minority carrier)

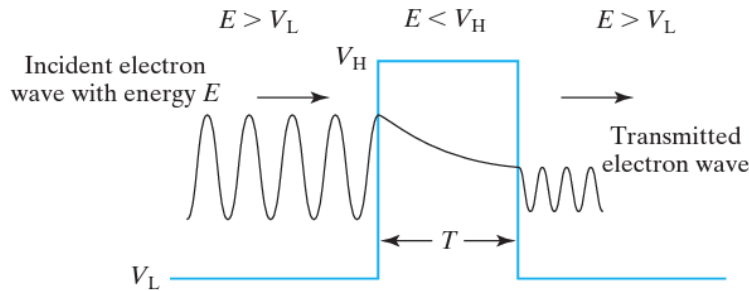
Schottky: thermionic emission (majority carrier) →  
high current, high speed

## 4.19 Applications of Schottly Diodes

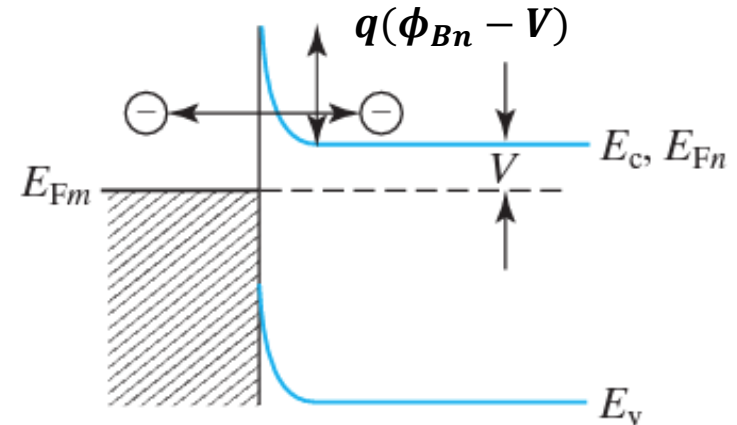


- $I_0$  of a Schottky diode is  $10^3$  to  $10^8$  times larger than a PN junction diode, depending on  $\phi_B$ . A larger  $I_0$  means a smaller forward drop V.
- A Schottky diode is the preferred rectifier in low voltage, high current applications.

## 4.20 Quantum Mechanical Tunneling



$$P \approx \exp\left(-2T \sqrt{\frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (V_H - E)}\right)$$



Small  $m$ , large  $P$

$$A = \frac{2}{\hbar} \sqrt{m\epsilon_s}$$

$$P = \exp\left(-2 \sqrt{\frac{8\pi^2 m [q(\phi_{Bn} - V)] \epsilon_s (\phi_{Bn} - V)}{h^2 2qN_d}}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{2}{\hbar} (\phi_{Bn} - V) \sqrt{\frac{m\epsilon_s}{N_d}}\right) = \exp\left(-A \frac{(\phi_{Bn} - V)}{\sqrt{N_d}}\right)$$

$$P = \exp\left(-A \frac{(\phi_{Bn} - V)}{\sqrt{N_d}}\right) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{(\phi_{Bn} - V)}{\sqrt{N_d}}\right)$$

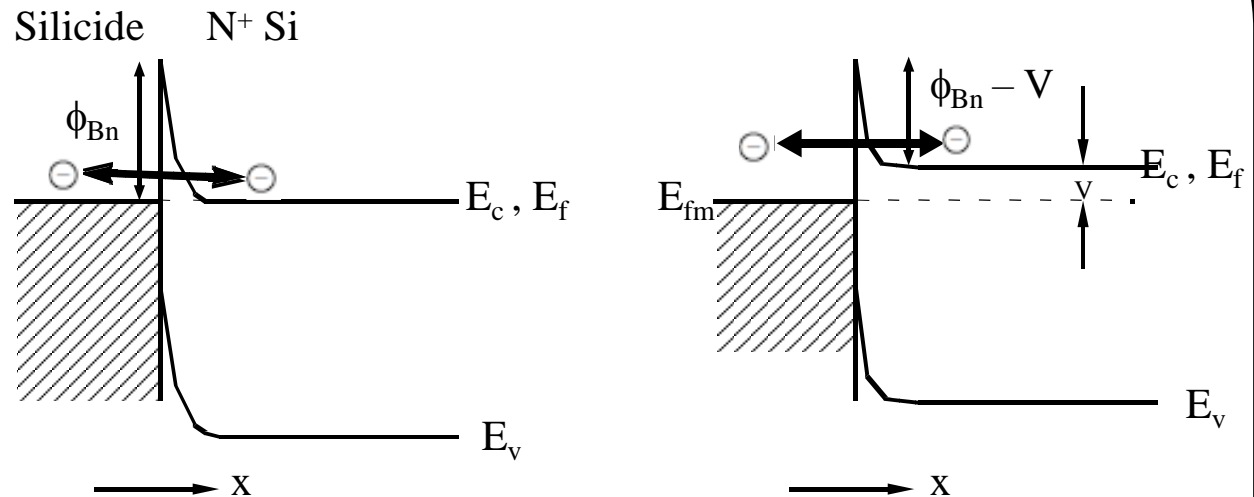
$N_d$ : Doping Concentration  
 $\phi_{Bn}$ : Barrier Height  
 $V$ : Applied Voltage

## 4.21 Ohmic Contacts

$$W_{dep} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s \phi_{Bn}}{qN_d}}$$

Tunneling probability:

$$P \approx e^{-H\phi_{Bn}/\sqrt{N_d}}$$



$$T \approx W_{dep} / 2 = \sqrt{\epsilon_s \phi_{Bn} / 2qN_d}$$

$$H = \frac{4\pi}{h} \sqrt{\epsilon_s m_n / q}$$

thermionic emission :  $E >$  barrier height  
tunneling ( $W_{dep} < 10nm$ ) :  $E <$  barrier height

tunneling current

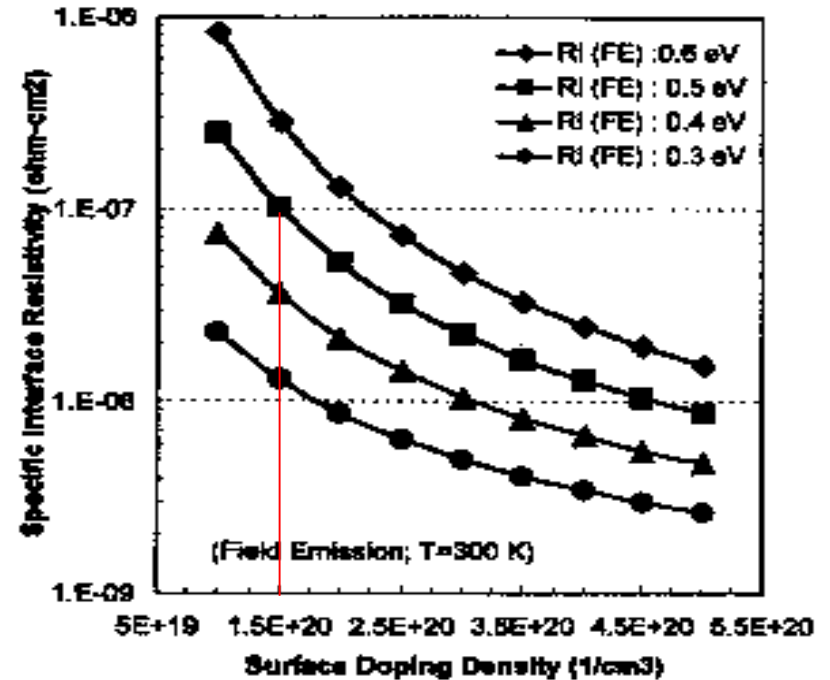
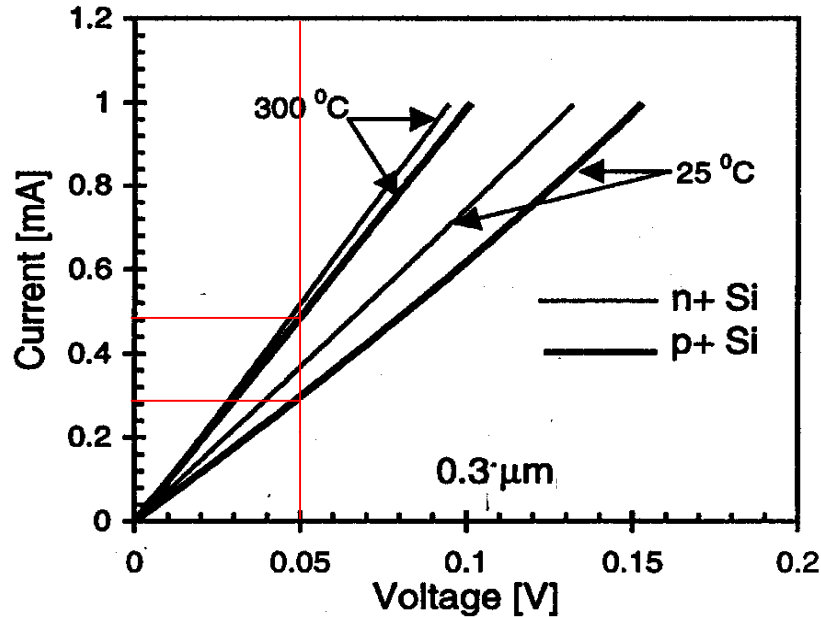
$$J_{S \rightarrow M} \approx \frac{1}{2} qN_d v_{thx} P = qN_d \sqrt{kT / 2\pi m_n} e^{-H(\phi_{Bn} - V) / \sqrt{N_d}}$$

weak dependence on temperature

## 4.21 Ohmic Contacts

$$R_c(2D) : \Omega \cdot cm$$

$R_c$  : specific contact resistivity ( $\Omega \cdot cm^2$ )



$$R_c \equiv \left( \frac{dJ_{S \rightarrow M}}{dV} \right)^{-1} = \frac{2e^{H\phi_{Bn}/\sqrt{N_d}}}{qv_{thx}H\sqrt{N_d}} \propto e^{H\phi_{Bn}/\sqrt{N_d}} \Omega \cdot cm^2$$

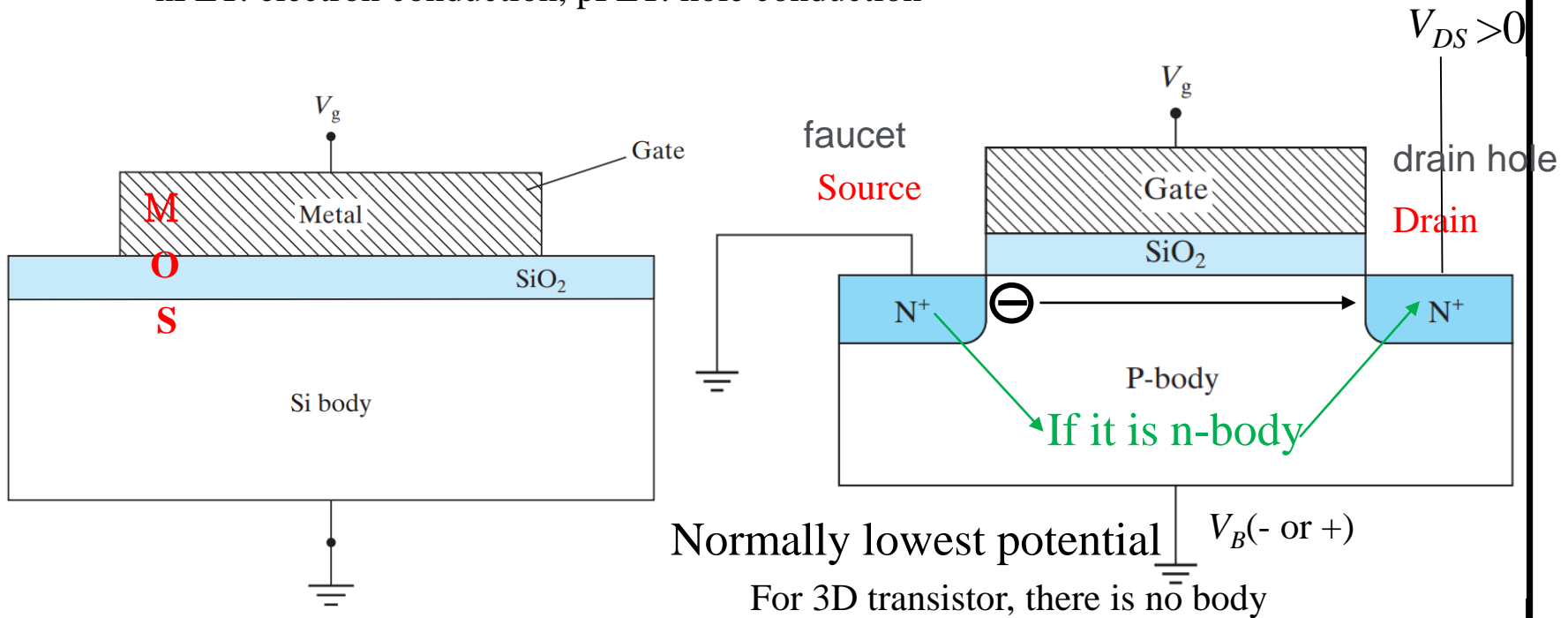
*Target:  $10^{-10}$*



# Chapter 5 MOS Capacitor

## MOS: Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor

- For bulk planar, p-body means nFET.
- nFET: electron conduction, pFET: hole conduction

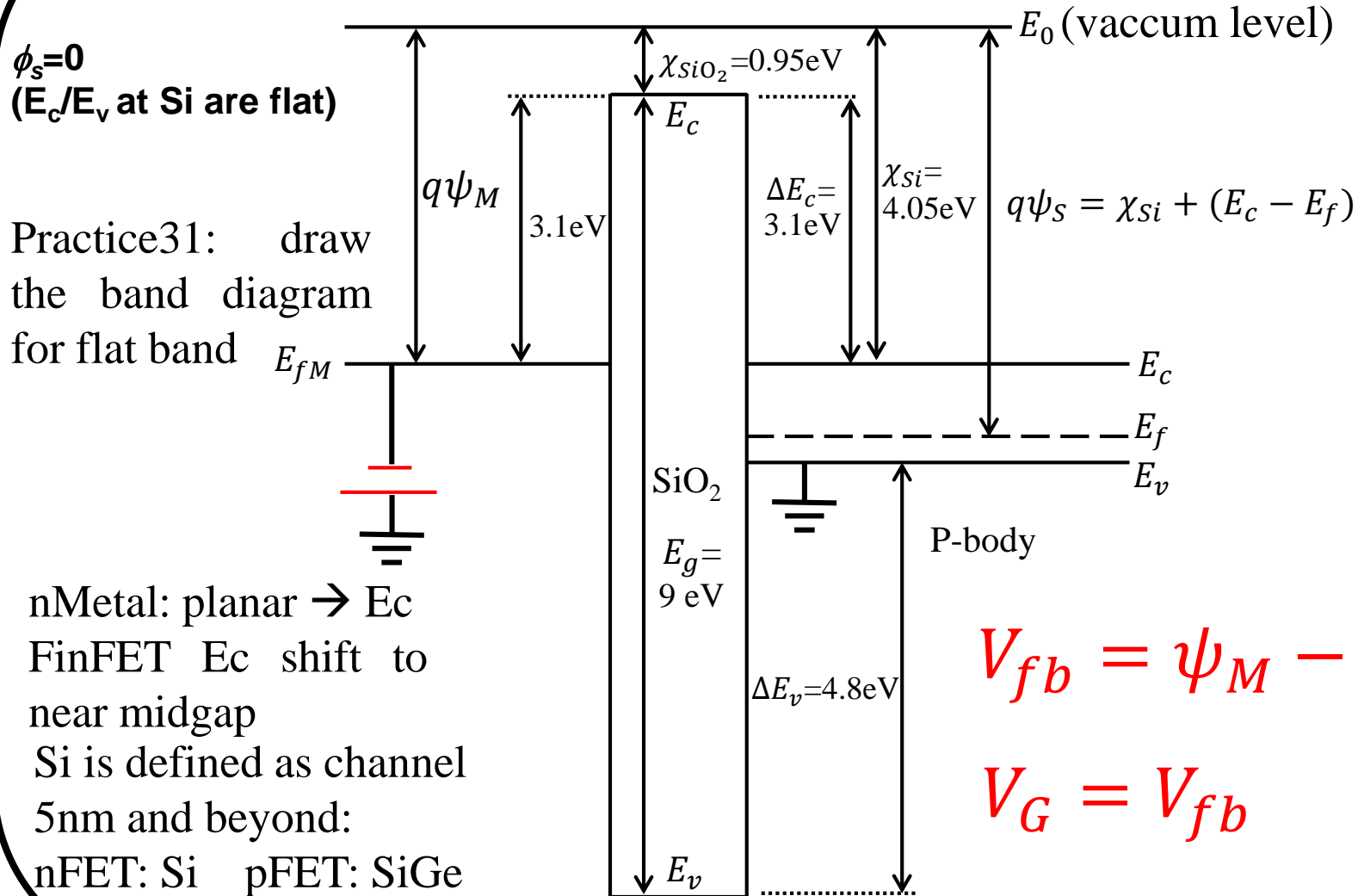


MOS capacitor : MOSCAP

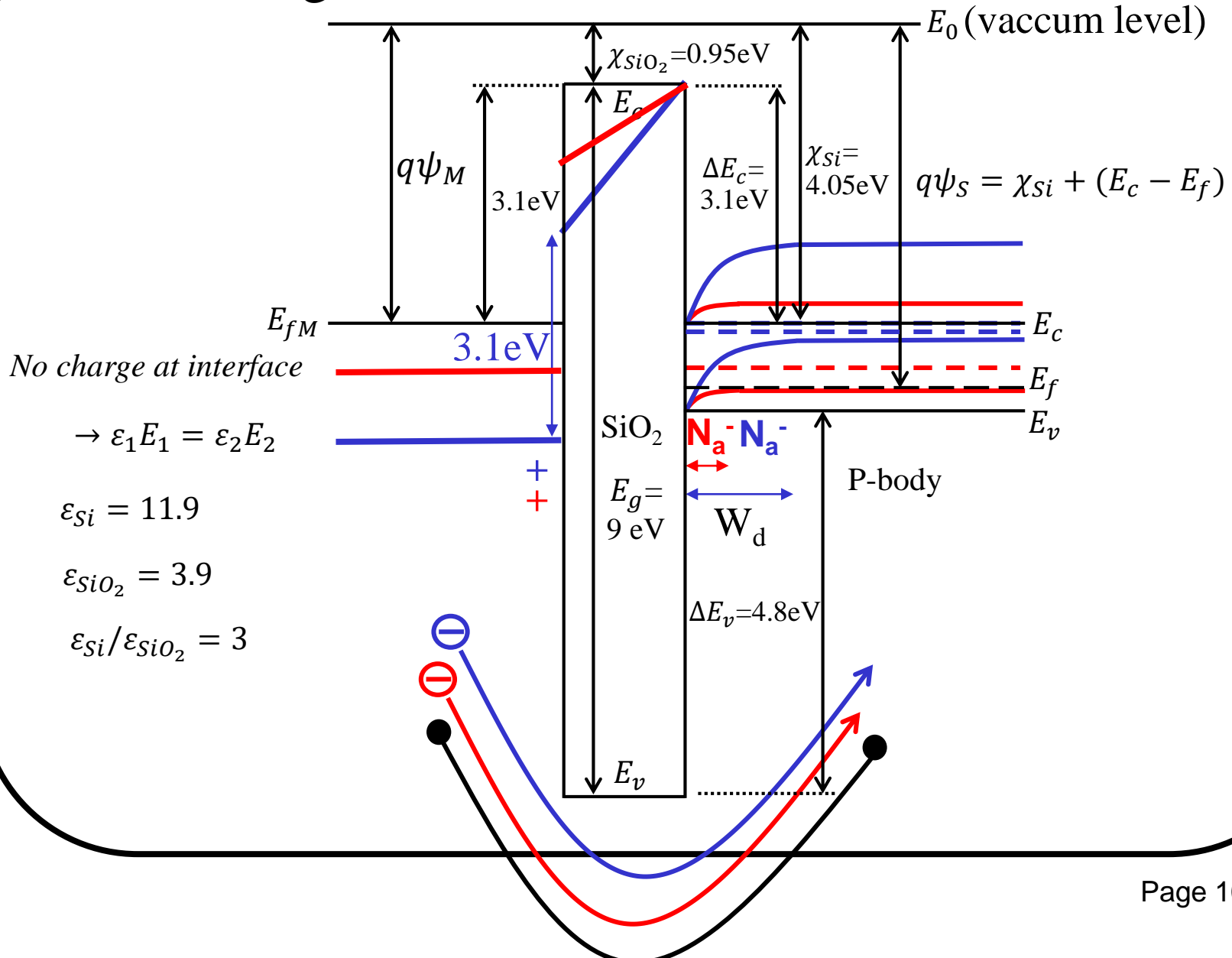
MOS transistor: MOSFET

MOSFET (**field-effect transistor**):drift current

# 5.1 Flat-band Condition and Flat-band Voltage



**Short:  $V_G = 0$**   $\chi$  : electron affinity

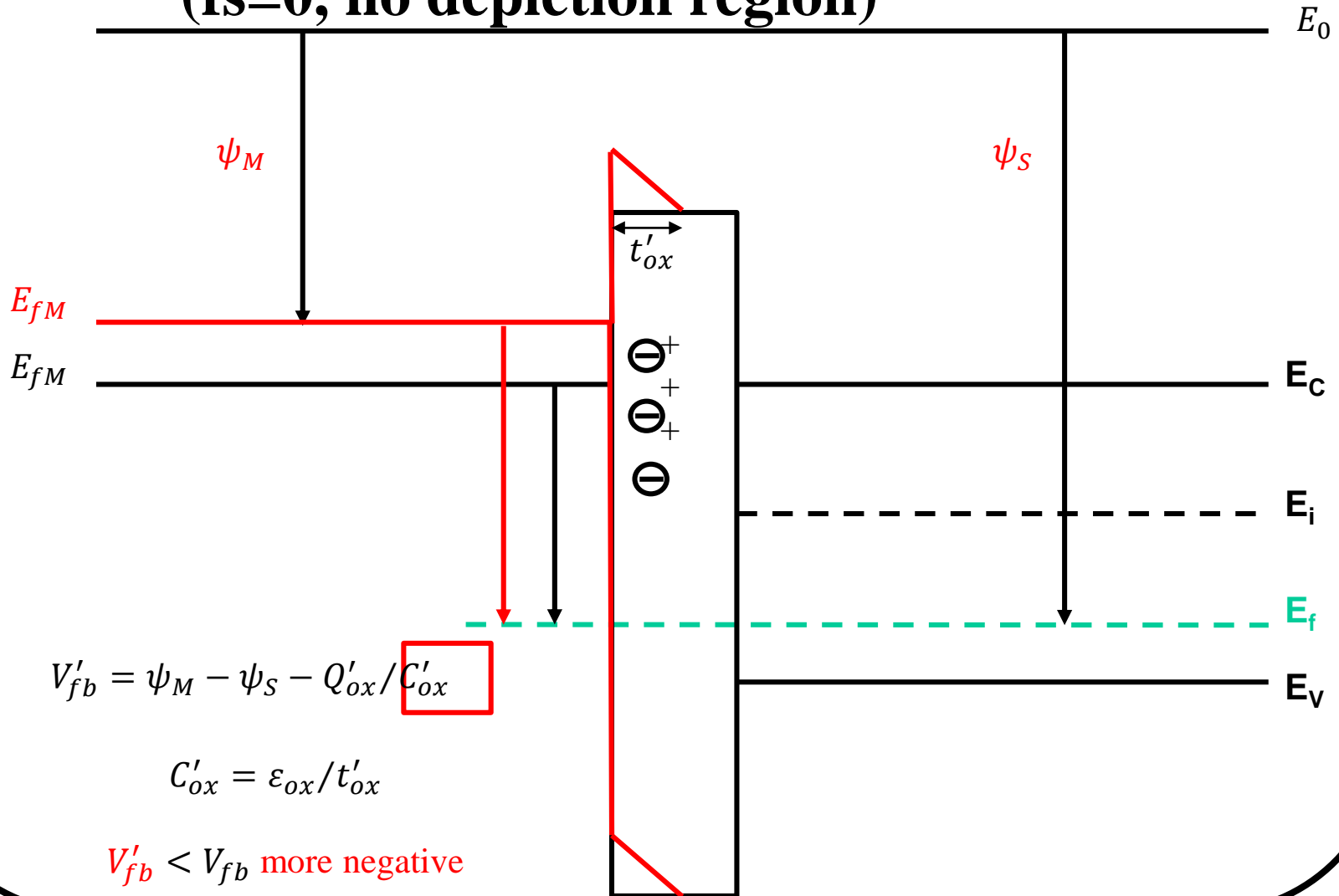


### *5.1.1 Oxide Charge—A Modification to $V_{fb}$*

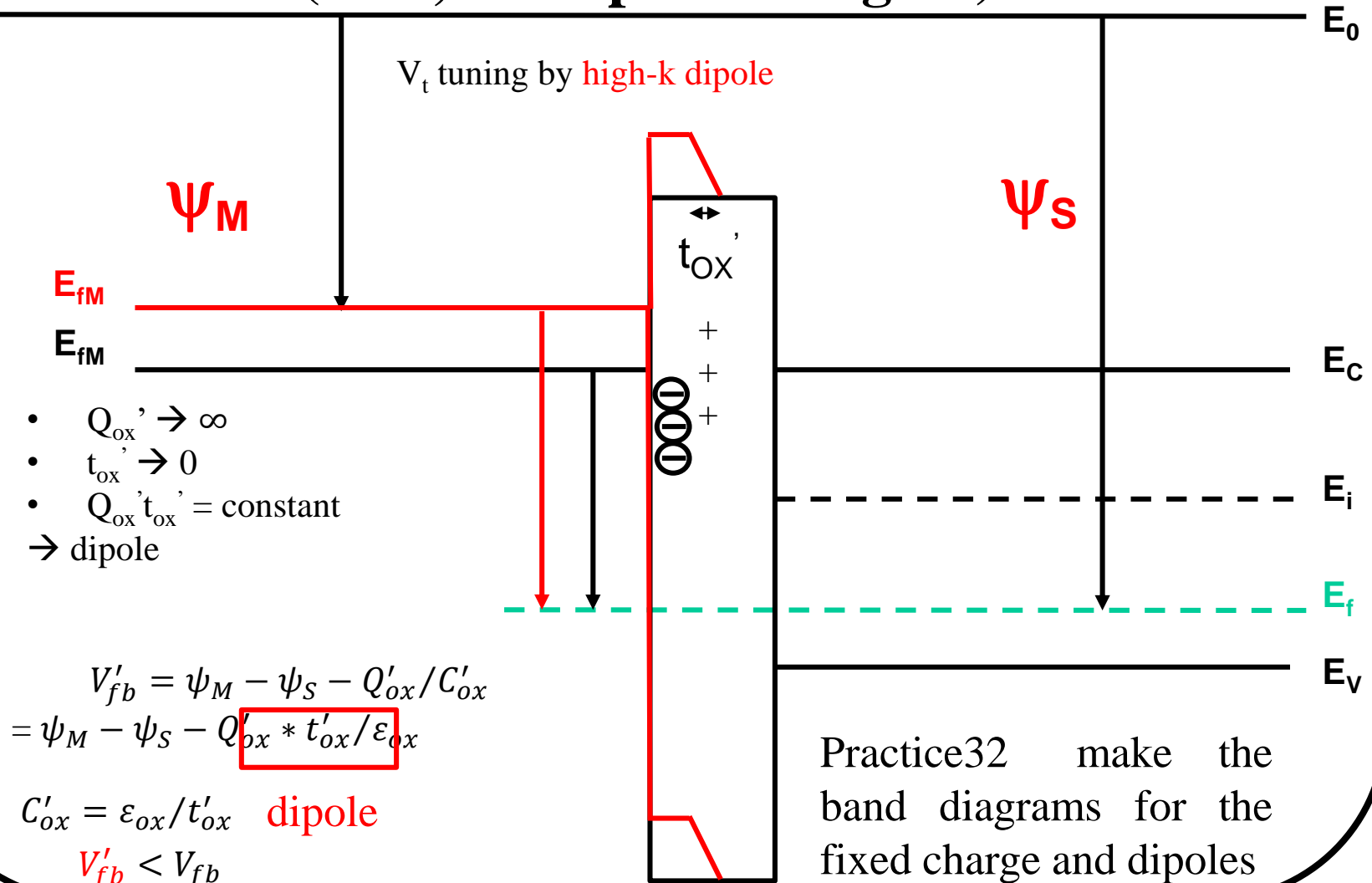
#### *Types of oxide charge:*

- Fixed oxide charge,  $\text{Si}^+$       Pure DI water:  $18\text{M}\Omega\text{-cm}$   
Due to  $\text{CO}_2$  in air  $\rightarrow 5\text{-}6\text{M}\Omega\text{-cm}$
- Mobile oxide charge, due to  $\text{Na}^+$  contamination
- Interface traps ( $D_{it}$ ), neutral or charged depending on  $V_g$ .  
Defect + electron + hole
- Voltage/temperature/current stress induced charge and traps  $\rightarrow$  a reliability issue      cause defects
  - Si cap on SiGe (5nm) solve the reliability issue

# Flat band considering fixed charge (fs=0, no depletion region)



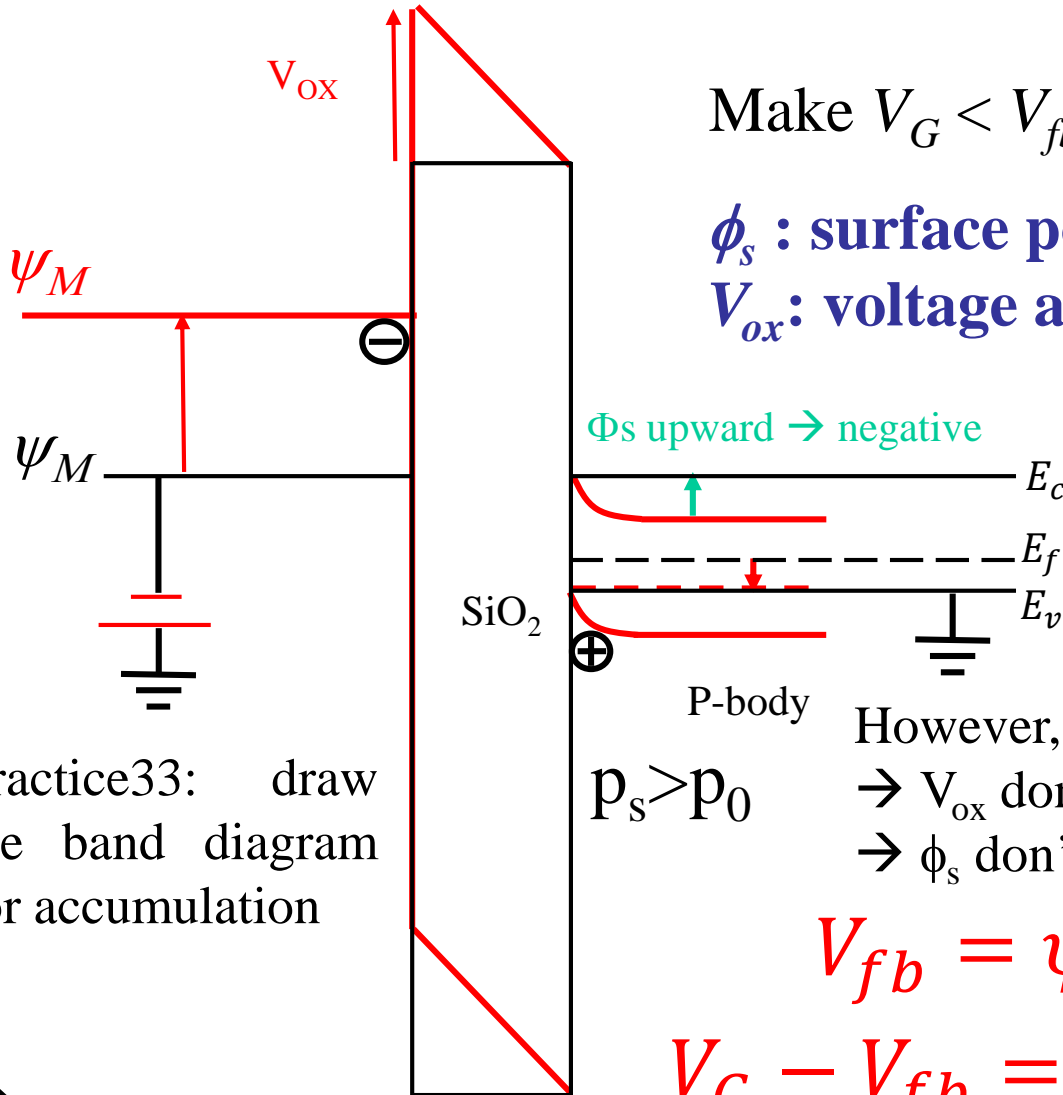
# Flat band considering dipole (fs=0, no depletion region)



## 5.2 Surface Accumulation

Make  $V_G < V_{fb}$

$\phi_s$  : surface potential, band bending  
 $V_{ox}$  : voltage across the oxide



$\phi_s$  is negligible when the surface is in accumulation.

$$p_s = p_0 e^{-q\phi_s/kT}$$

$$V_{ox} \propto e^{\phi_s/kT}$$

However,  $V_G$  don't increase exponentially.  
 $\rightarrow V_{ox}$  don't increase exponentially, either.  
 $\rightarrow \phi_s$  don't change too much.

$$V_{fb} = \psi_M - \psi_S$$

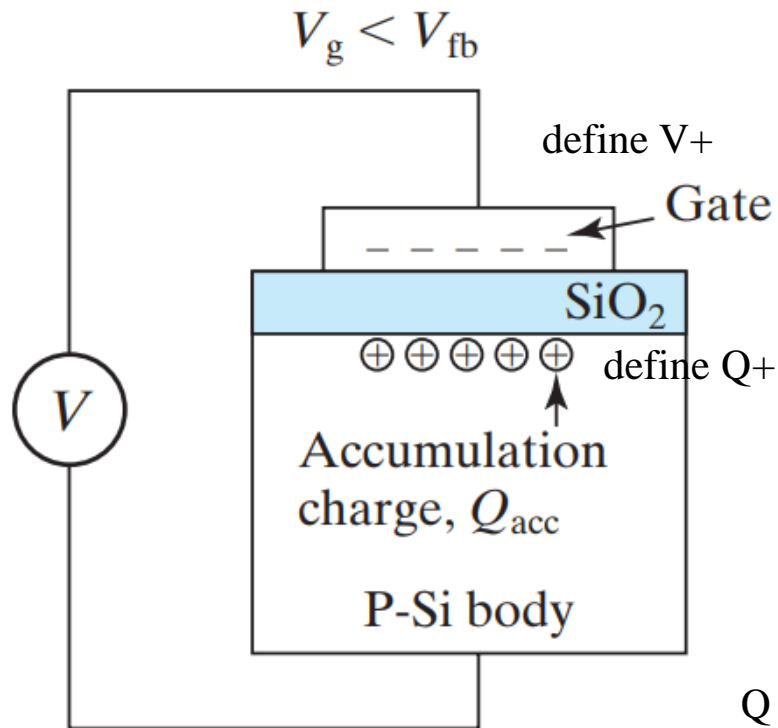
$$V_G - V_{fb} = V_{ox} + \phi_s$$

Practice33: draw the band diagram for accumulation

## 5.2 Surface Accumulation

$$V_G - V_{fb} = V_{ox} + \phi_s$$

$\phi_s$  is small, negligible  $\rightarrow V_{ox} = V_G - V_{fb}$



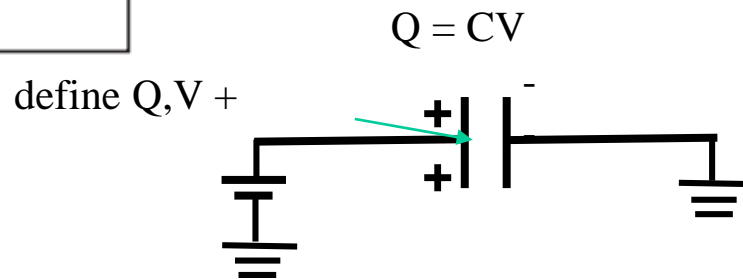
$$\text{Gauss's Law} \rightarrow V_{ox} = -\frac{Q_{acc}}{C_{ox}}$$

$$Q_{acc} = -C_{ox}(V_G - V_{fb})$$

positive (negative)

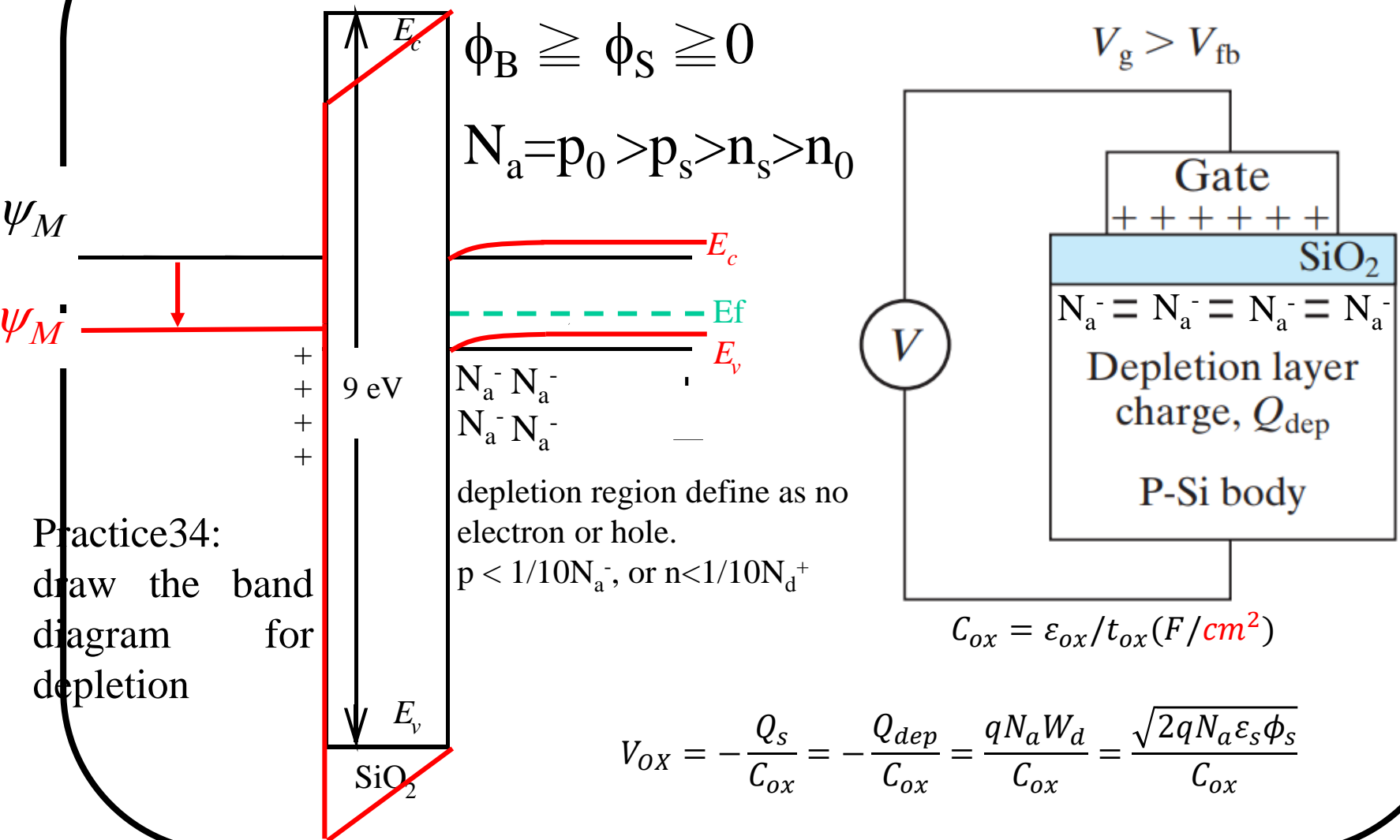
**$C_{ox}$  must be positive**

$$V_{ox} = -\frac{Q_s}{C_{ox}} \longrightarrow \text{Silicon}$$

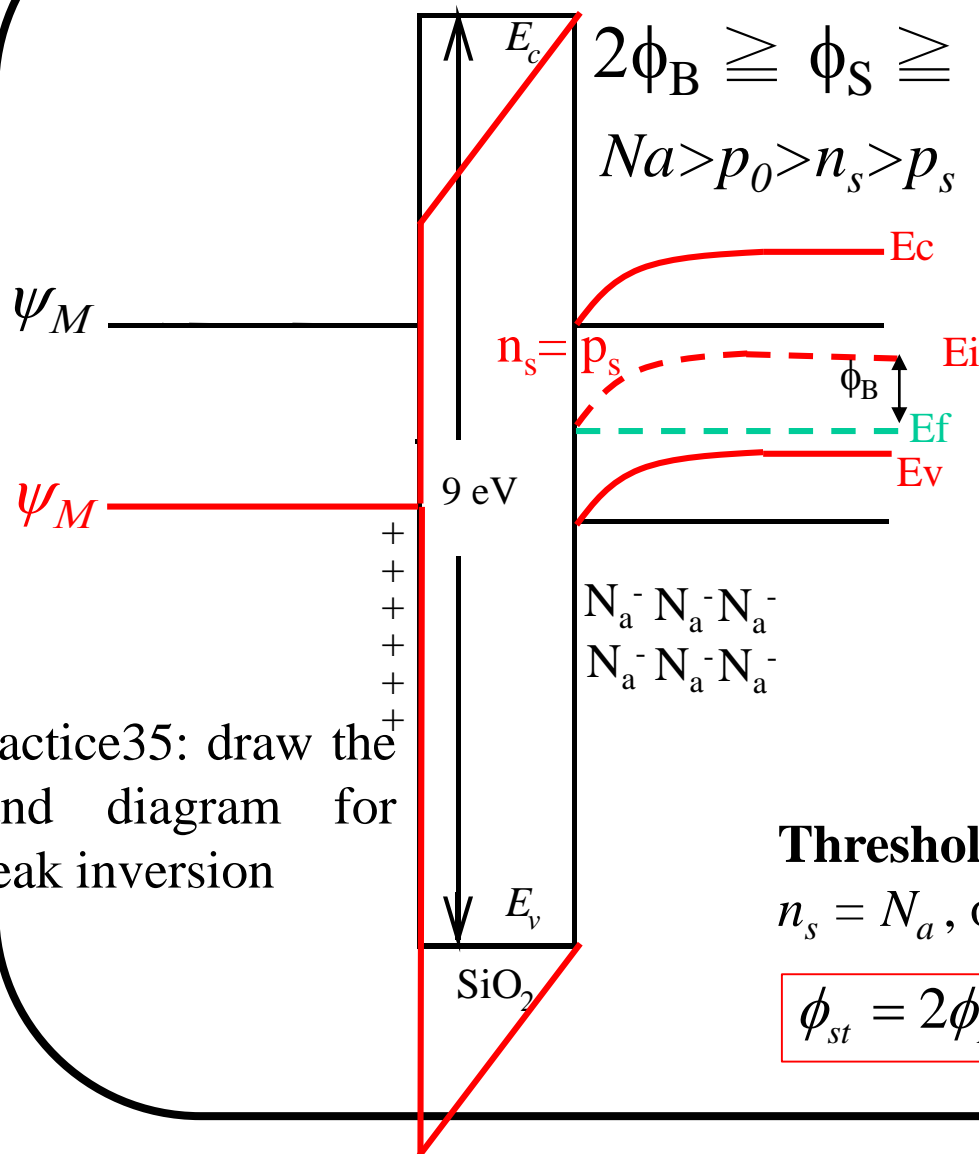




## 5.3 Surface Depletion ( $V_g > V_{fb}$ ) for Off State



## 5.4 Weak Inversion and Threshold Condition



$$2\phi_B \geq \phi_S \geq \phi_B$$

$$N_a > p_0 > n_s > p_s$$

Surface concentration can be controlled by gate voltage

$$q\phi_B = \frac{E_g}{2} - (E_f - E_v)|_{bulk}$$

$$= \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_v}{n_i}\right) - \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_v}{N_a}\right)$$

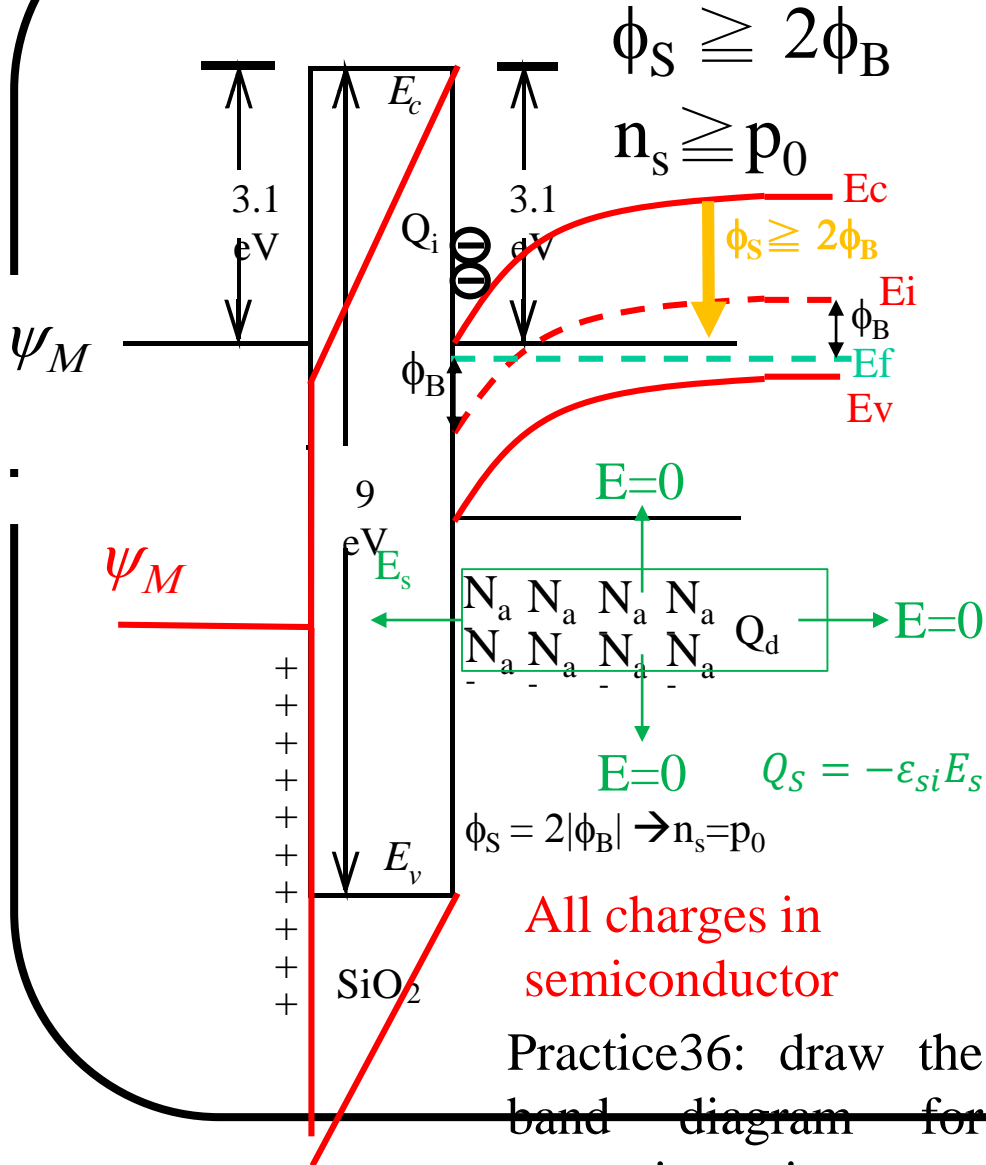
$$= \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_a}{n_i}\right)$$

**Threshold (of inversion):**

$$n_s = N_a, \text{ or}$$

$$\phi_{st} = 2\phi_B = 2 \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_a}{n_i}\right)$$

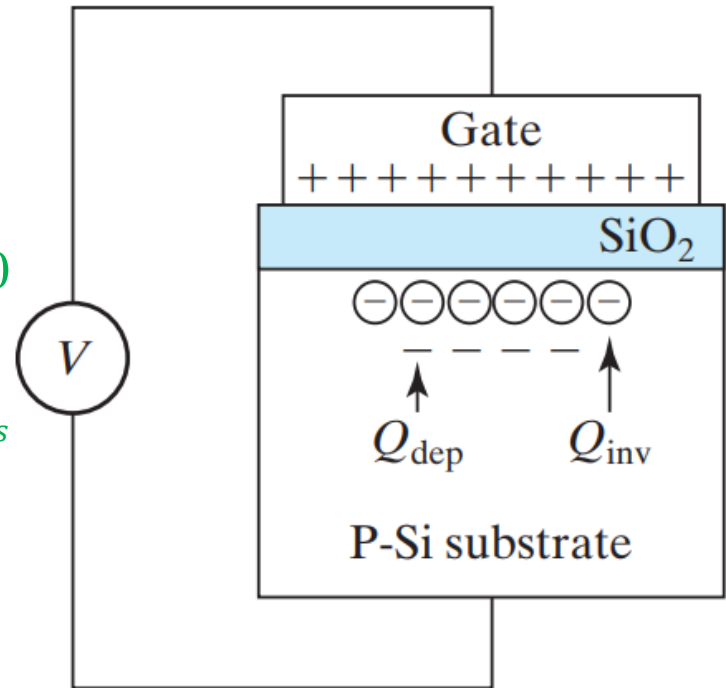
## 5.5 Strong Inversion–Beyond Threshold



$$W_{dep} = W_{dmax} = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon_s 2\phi_B}{qN_a}}$$

$$V_{ox} = V_g - V_{fb} - 2\phi_B$$

$$V_g > V_t$$



Practice36: draw the ~~band diagram for~~  
strong inversion

# Poisson's Equation

Physically not exist

$$\frac{d\phi}{dx} = -E \quad \frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} = -\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_{si}} [p(x) - n(x) + \underbrace{N_d^+(x)}_{N_d^+ = N_d} - N_a^-(x)]$$

$n_0$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s}$$

$$n(x) = n_i e^{-(E_i - E_f)/kT} = n_i e^{(E_f - E_i)/kT} = n_i e^{q(\phi(x) - \phi_B)/kT} = \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} e^{q\phi(x)/kT}$$

$$p(x) = n_i e^{(E_i - E_f)/kT} = n_i e^{q(\phi_B - \phi(x))/kT} = N_a e^{-q\phi(x)/kT}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_{si}} \left[ N_a (e^{-q\phi/kT} - 1) - \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} (e^{q\phi/kT} - 1) \right]$$

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} * \frac{d\phi}{dx} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_{si}} \left[ N_a (e^{-\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1) - \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} (e^{\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1) \right] * \frac{d\phi}{dx}$$

Practice37 : derive the Qs formula

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)^2 = 2 \frac{d\phi}{dx} \frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} * \frac{d\phi}{dx} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_{si}} \left[ N_a \left( e^{-\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1 \right) - \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} \left( e^{\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1 \right) \right] * \frac{d\phi}{dx}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)^2 = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_{si}} \left[ N_a \left( e^{-\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1 \right) - \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} \left( e^{\frac{q\phi}{kT}} - 1 \right) \right] * \frac{d\phi}{dx}$$

integration

$$E^2(x) = \left( \frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)^2 = \frac{2kTN_a}{\epsilon_{si}} \left[ \left( e^{-\frac{q\phi}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi}{kT} - 1 \right) + \frac{n_i^2}{N_a^2} \left( e^{\frac{q\phi}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi}{kT} - 1 \right) \right]$$

$$Q_S = -\epsilon_{si} E_S = \pm \sqrt{2\epsilon_{si} kTN_a} \left[ \left( e^{-\frac{q\phi_S}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi_S}{kT} - 1 \right) + \frac{n_i^2}{N_a^2} \left( e^{\frac{q\phi_S}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi_S}{kT} - 1 \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$



# Inversion Layer Charge, $Q_{inv}$ ( $C/cm^2$ )

Strong Inversion/ $I_{ON}$

$$Q_S = -\epsilon_{si}E_s = \pm \sqrt{2\epsilon_{si}kTN_a} \left[ \left( e^{-\frac{q\phi_S}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi_S}{kT} - 1 \right) + \frac{n_i^2}{N_a^2} \left( e^{\frac{q\phi_S}{kT}} + \frac{q\phi_S}{kT} - 1 \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \sim Q_{dep} + Q_{inv}$$

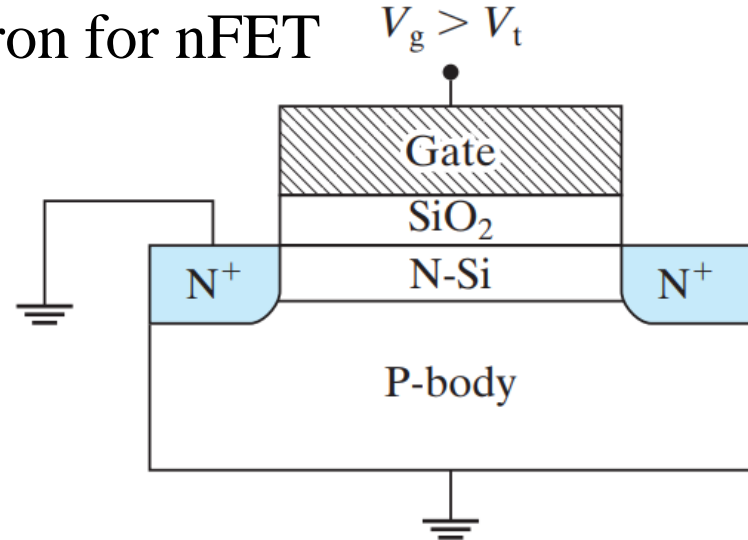
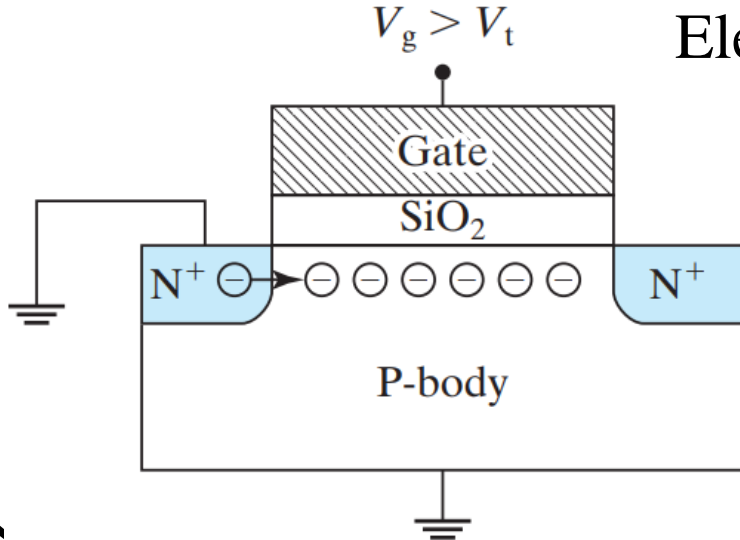
$$V_g = V_{fb} + 2\phi_B - \frac{Q_{dep}}{C_{ox}} - \frac{Q_{inv}}{C_{ox}} = V_{fb} + 2\phi_B + \frac{\sqrt{qN_a 2\epsilon_s 2\phi_B}}{C_{ox}} - \frac{Q_{inv}}{C_{ox}}$$

$$= V_t - \frac{Q_{inv}}{C_{ox}}$$

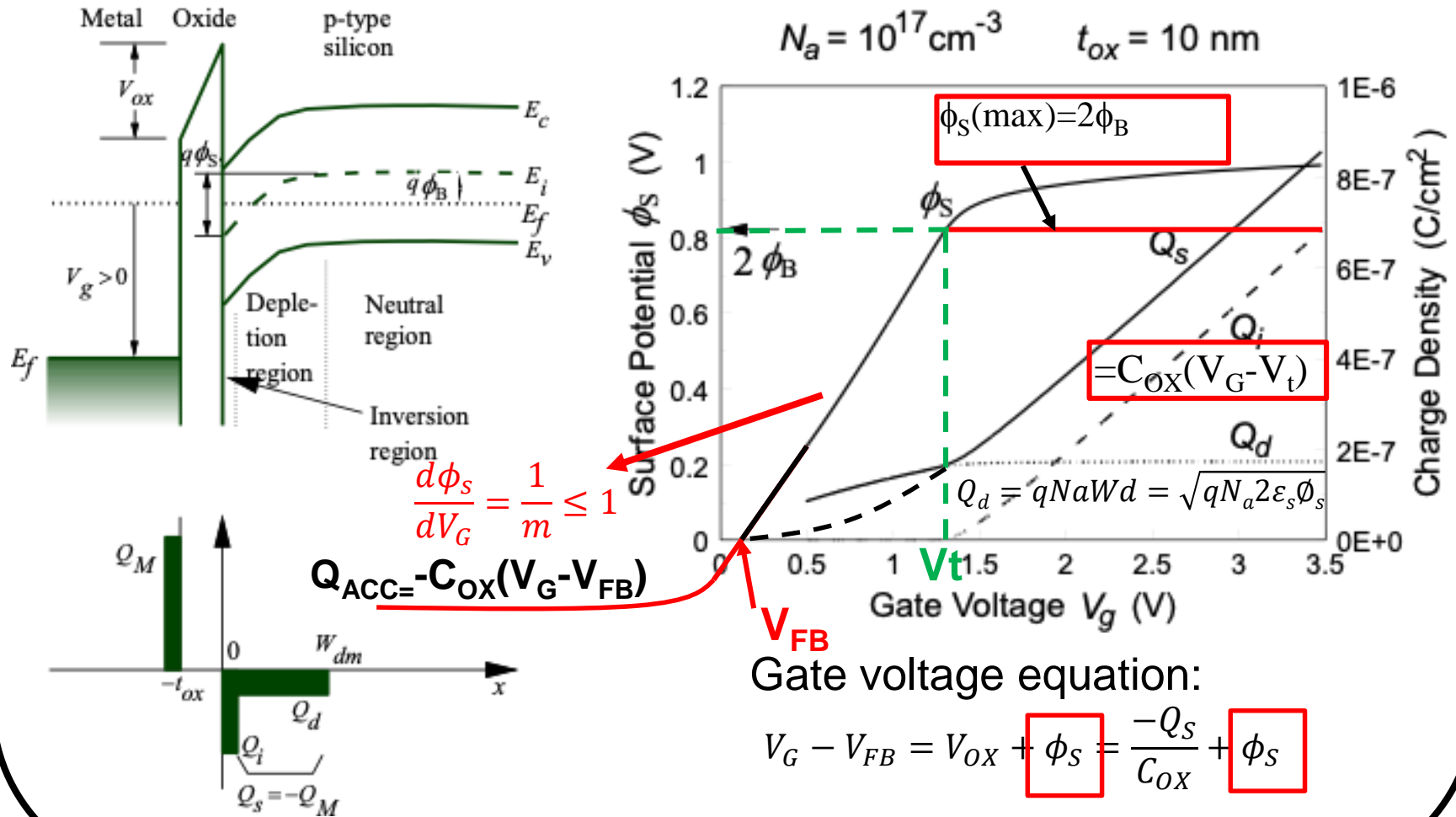
$\therefore$

$$Q_{inv} = -C_{ox} (V_g - V_t)$$

Electron for nFET



# MOSFET Charge and Potential





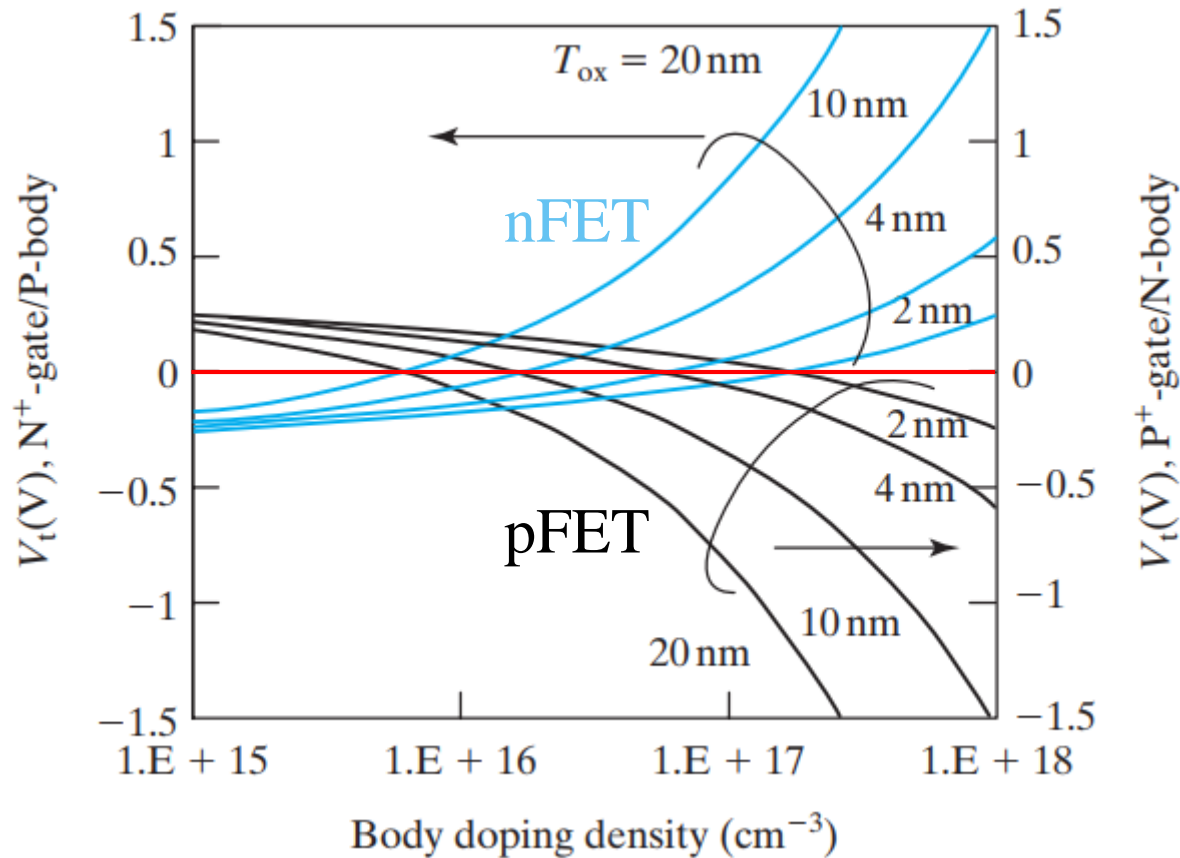
# Threshold Voltage

90nm node:

EOT=1nm

$N_B > 1E17$

$V_{tn} = -V_{tp} > 0$



$$V_t = V_{fb} \pm 2\phi_B \pm \frac{\sqrt{qN_B 2\epsilon_s 2\phi_B}}{C_{ox}} \quad \begin{array}{l} + \text{ for P-body(nFET)} \\ - \text{ for N-body(pFET)} \end{array}$$

Planar (modify doping)

$$V_t = V_{fb} + 2\phi_B - \frac{qN_B W_{dm}}{C_{ox}}$$

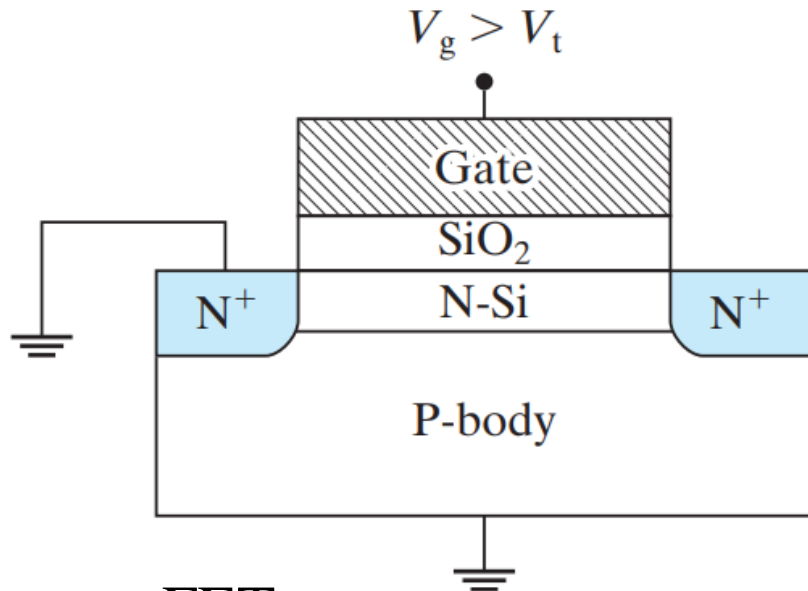
$\phi_m - \phi_s - \frac{Q_{ox}}{C_{ox}}$ 
 Multiple  $V_t$ :  
 FinFET  $\rightarrow \phi_m, Q_{ox}$  (dipole)  
 Nanosheet  $\rightarrow Q_{ox}$

$$V_{tn} = V_{FB} + \frac{qW_{dm}N_A}{C_{ox}} + 2\phi_B$$

$$V_{tp} = V_{FB} + \frac{-qW_{dm}N_d}{C_{ox}} - 2\phi_B$$

Practice38: what is the metal WF choice for n/pFET?

### 5.5.1 Choice of $V_t$ and Gate Doping Type



$V_t$  is generally set at a small positive value so that, at  $V_g = 0$ , the transistor does not have an inversion layer and current does not flow between the two  $N^+$  regions

nFET

- ~~P-body~~ is normally paired with  $N^+$ -gate to achieve a small positive threshold voltage.

nS/D, n metal (planar)

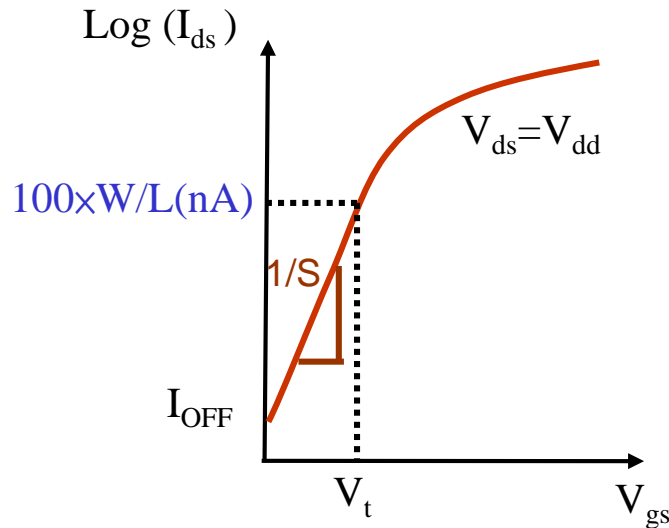
pS/D, p metal (planar)

pFET

- ~~N-body~~ is normally paired with  $P^+$ -gate to achieve a small negative threshold voltage.

- Al: work function near Si  $E_c \rightarrow$  nMetal
- Pt: work function near Si  $E_v \rightarrow$  pMetal
- For planar FET, nMetal is needed for  $V_t$  adjustment of nFET, pMetal is needed for  $V_t$  adjustment of pFET
- For FinFET, nMetal and pMetal have to move toward to midgap due to undoped channel, dual metal gate

# Constant current $V_t$ and Transconductance $V_t$



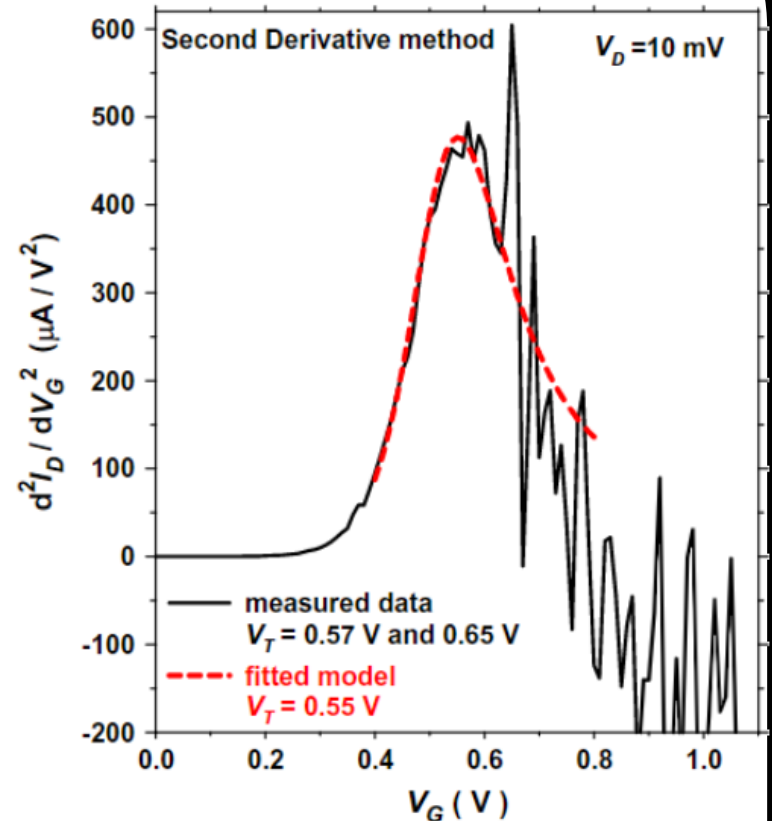
Practical definition of  $V_t$ : the  $V_{gs}$  at which  $I_{ds} = 100 \text{ nA} \times W/L$

(Const. current)

$$I_{subthreshold}(\text{nA}) \approx 100 \times \frac{W}{L} \times e^{\frac{q(V_{gs}-V_t)}{mkT}}$$

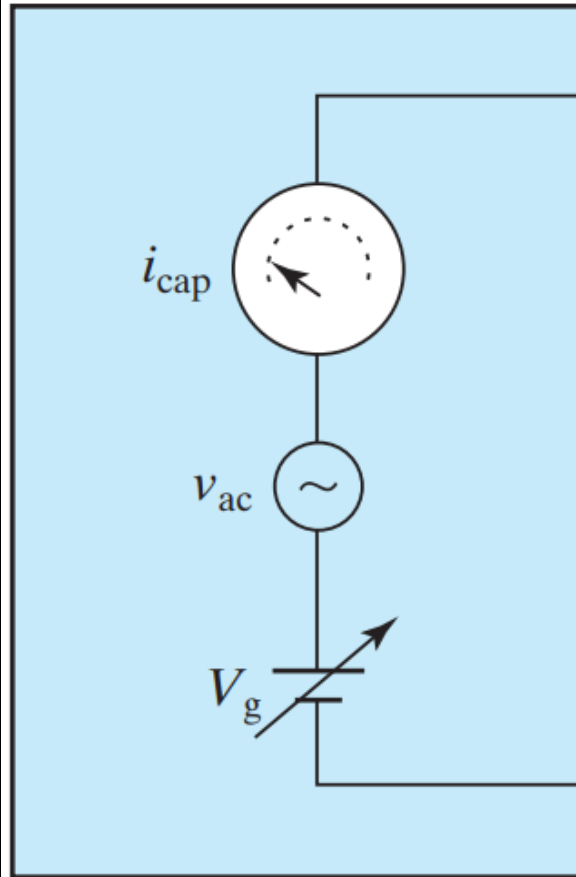
$$= 100 \times \frac{W}{L} \times 10^{(V_{gs}-V_t)/SS}$$

$$I_{OFF}(\text{nA}) = 100 \times \frac{W}{L} \times 10^{-V_t/SS}$$



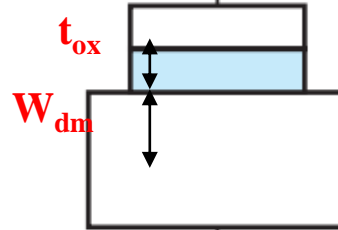
$V_t$  can be found at the maximum of  $d^2I_D/dV_G^2$

## 5.6 MOS CV Characteristics



C-V meter

CsRs vs CpRp modes



MOS capacitor

Small signal cap

$$C = \frac{dQ_g}{dV_g} = -\frac{dQ_s}{dV_g}$$

$$V_g > 0 \rightarrow Q_g > 0$$

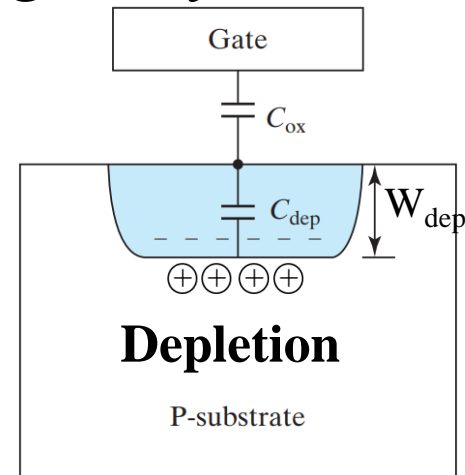
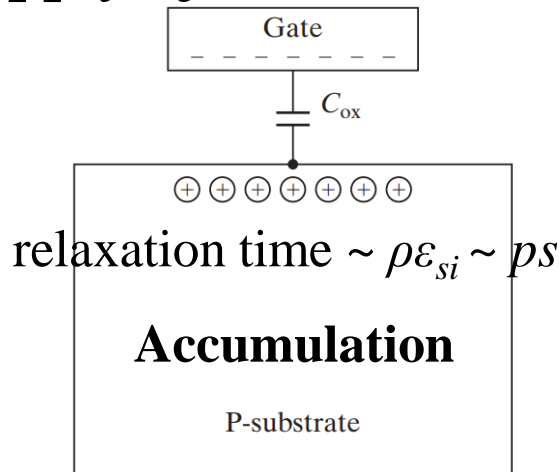
$$Q_s = -Q_g$$

$$C = dQ/dV = dQ/dt * dt/dV$$

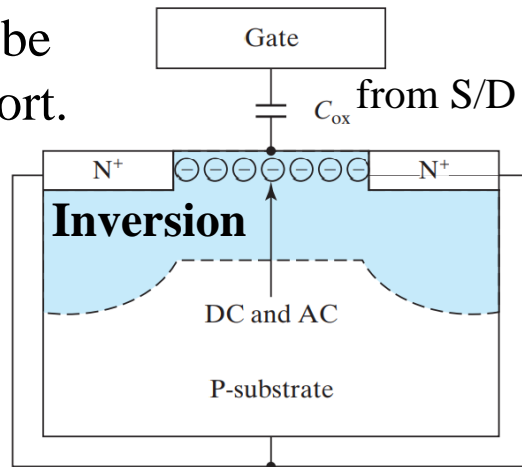
Given the AC voltage, and measure the AC current. We can find out the current has 90 degree phase difference,. In this case, we the calculate cap.

# Supply of Inversion Charge May be Limited

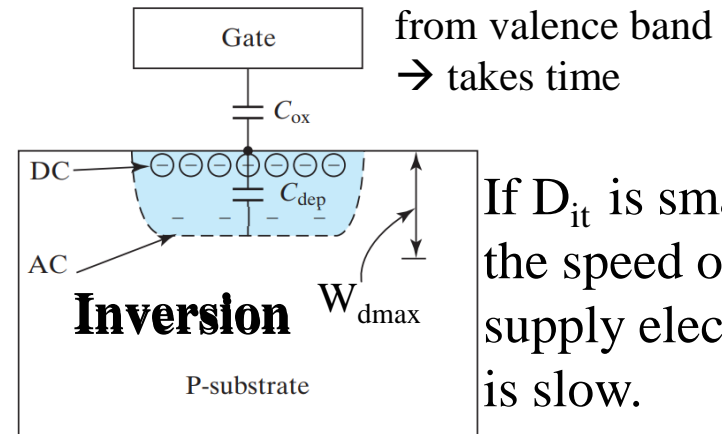
$$C = dQ/dV$$



Electrons supplied by S/D would be fast if  $L_g$  is short.



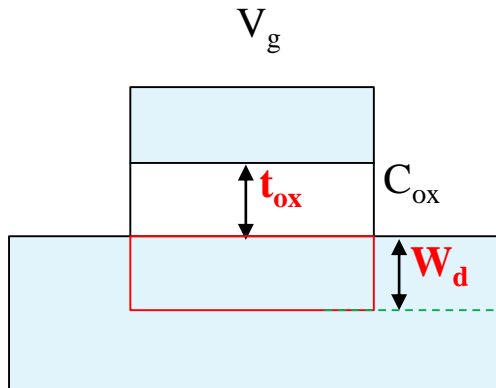
Electrons can follow AC voltage



If  $D_{it}$  is small, the speed of S/D supply electrons is slow.

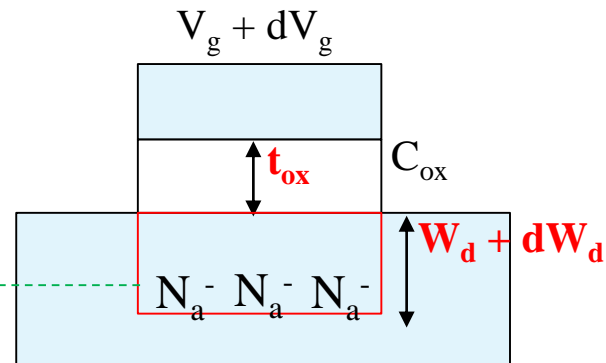
Electrons can not follow AC voltage

## Accumulation

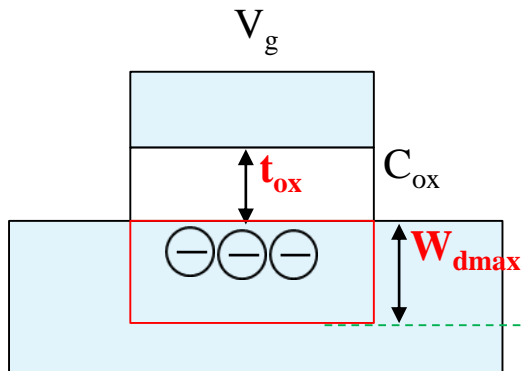


$$dQ = N_a dW_d$$

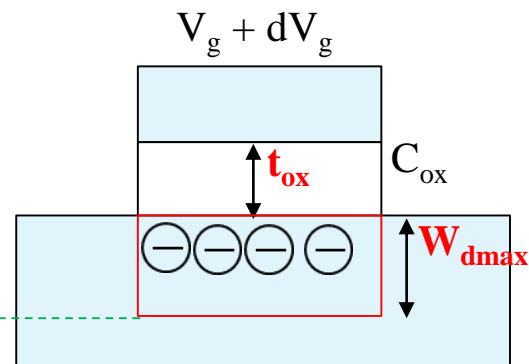
## Depletion



## Weak inversion



## Strong inversion

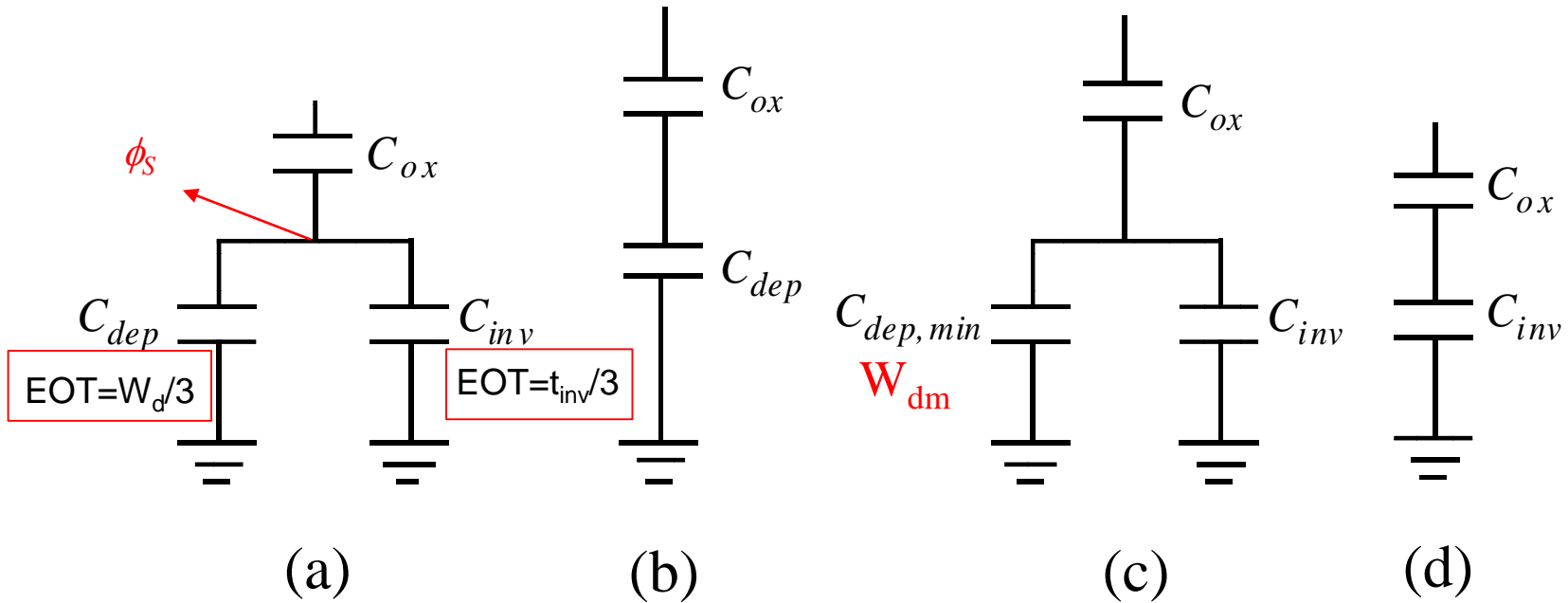


$$t_{inv} \sim 1\text{nm}$$

$$dQ = dN_a \cdot W_{dmax} = 0$$



# Equivalent circuit in the depletion and the inversion regimes



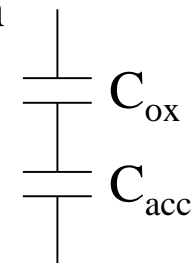
General case for both depletion and inversion regions.

In the depletion regions+ weak inversion

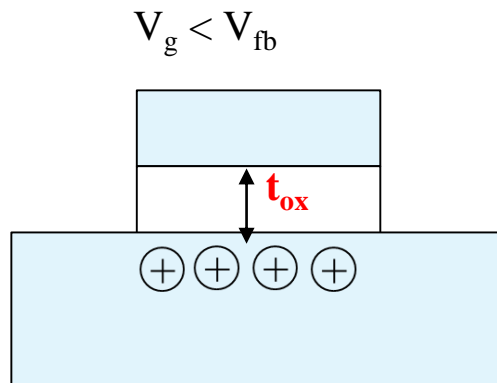
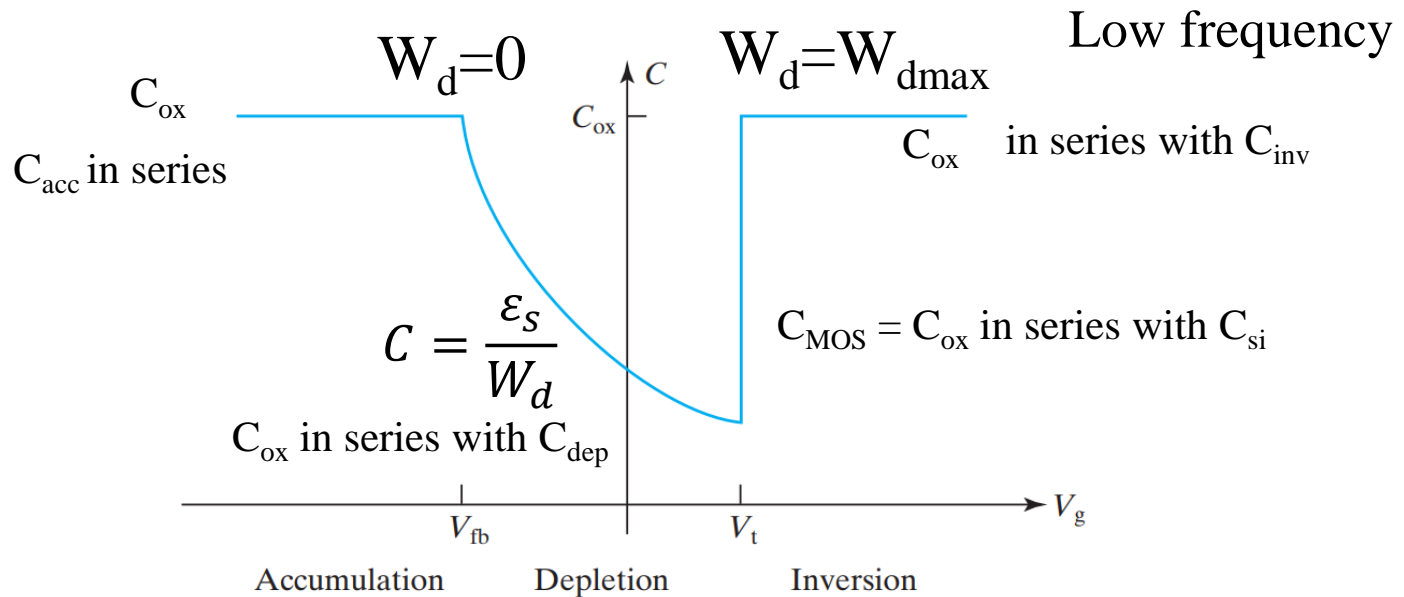
$V_g \approx V_t$

Strong inversion

(e) Accumulation



Q: what about  $C_{Dit}$  ?



$t_{acc} \sim 1.2nm$   
 $t_{ox} = 1nm$ ,  $t_{acc}$  not negligible  
 EOT=CET-0.4nm

measured

$C_{si} = C_{inv}$  in parallel with  $C_{dep}=C_{inv}(large)+C_{dep}$

Practice39: draw the CV curve for n/pFET

# Quasi-Static CV of MOS Capacitor

quasi-static: slow  $\frac{dV}{dt}$ , not phasor

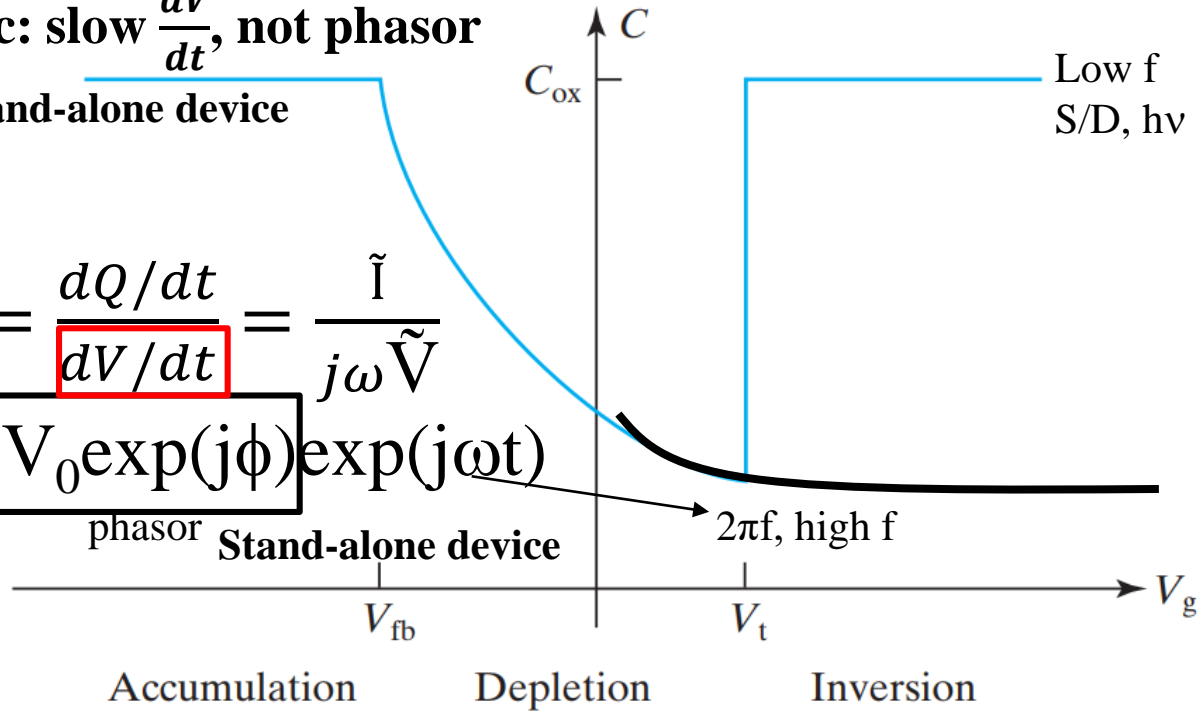
Stand-alone device

$$C = \frac{dQ}{dV} = \frac{dQ/dt}{\boxed{dV/dt}} = \frac{\tilde{I}}{j\omega\tilde{V}}$$

$$V = \tilde{V} = \boxed{V_0 \exp(j\phi) \exp(j\omega t)}$$

phasor

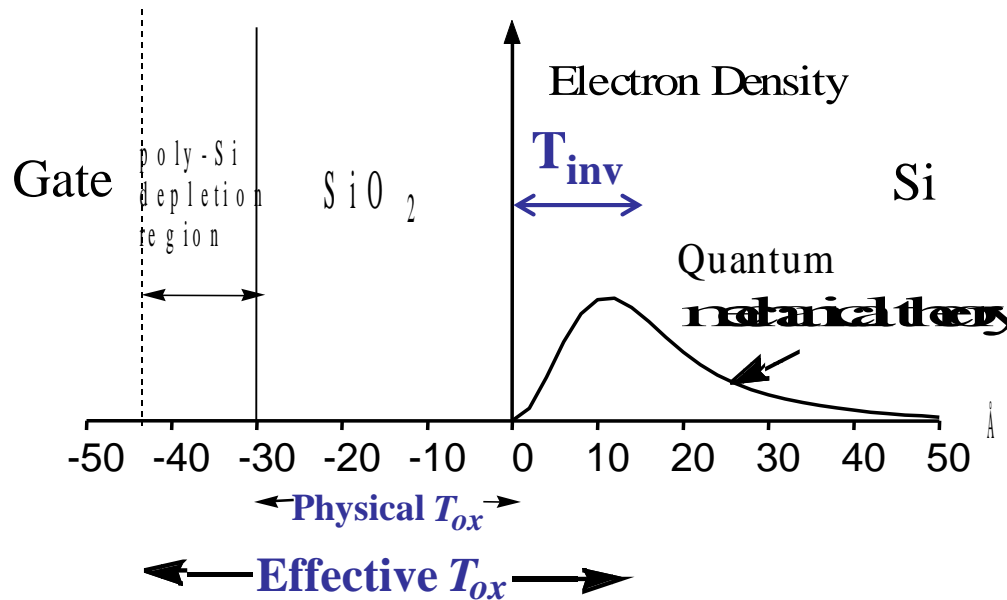
Stand-alone device



The quasi-static CV is obtained by the application of a slow linear-ramp voltage ( $< 0.1\text{V/s}$ ) to the gate, while measuring  $I_g$  with a very sensitive DC ammeter.  $C$  is calculated from  $I_g = C \cdot dV_g/dt$ . This allows sufficient time for  $Q_{inv}$  to respond to the slow-changing  $V_g$ .

## 5.9 Inversion and Accumulation Charge-Layer Thickness–Quantum Mechanical Effect

Average inversion-layer location below the Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> interface is called the *inversion-layer thickness*,  $T_{inv}$ .



$$\int T * |\Psi(x)|^2$$

$$CET = EOT + T_{inv}/3$$

$n(x)$  is determined by Schrodinger's eq., Poisson eq., and Fermi function.

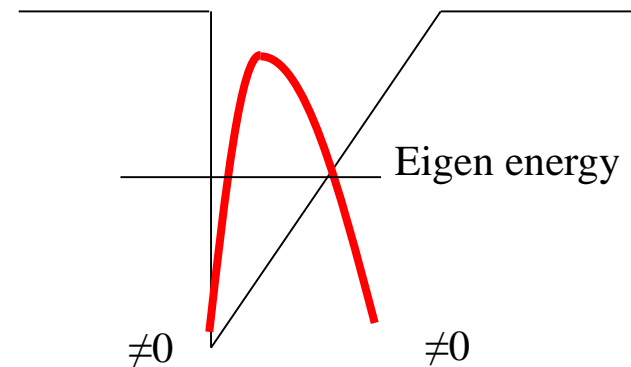
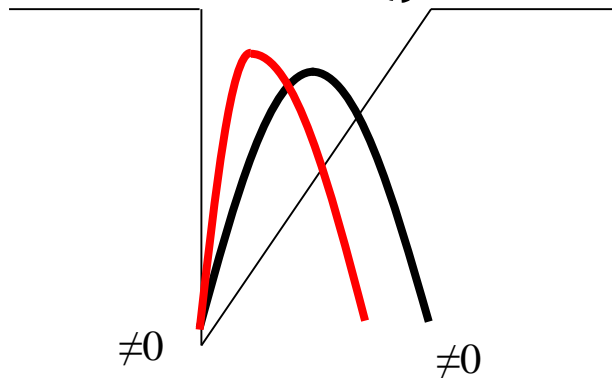
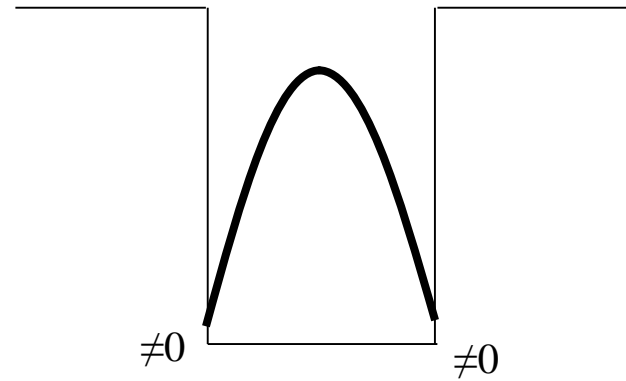
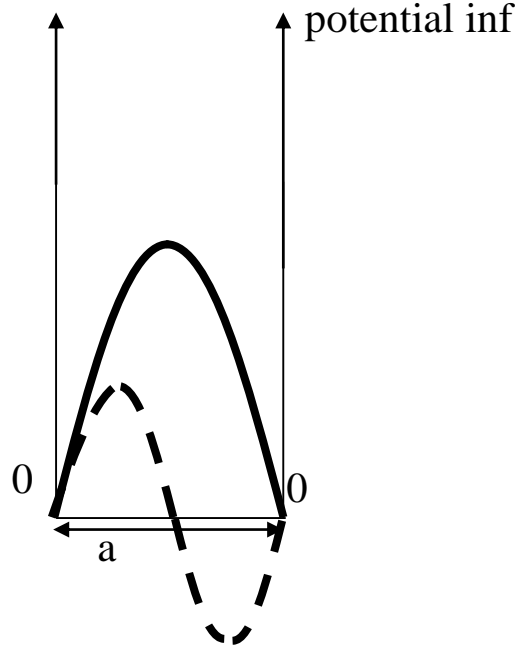
potential inf

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{\pi}{a}$$

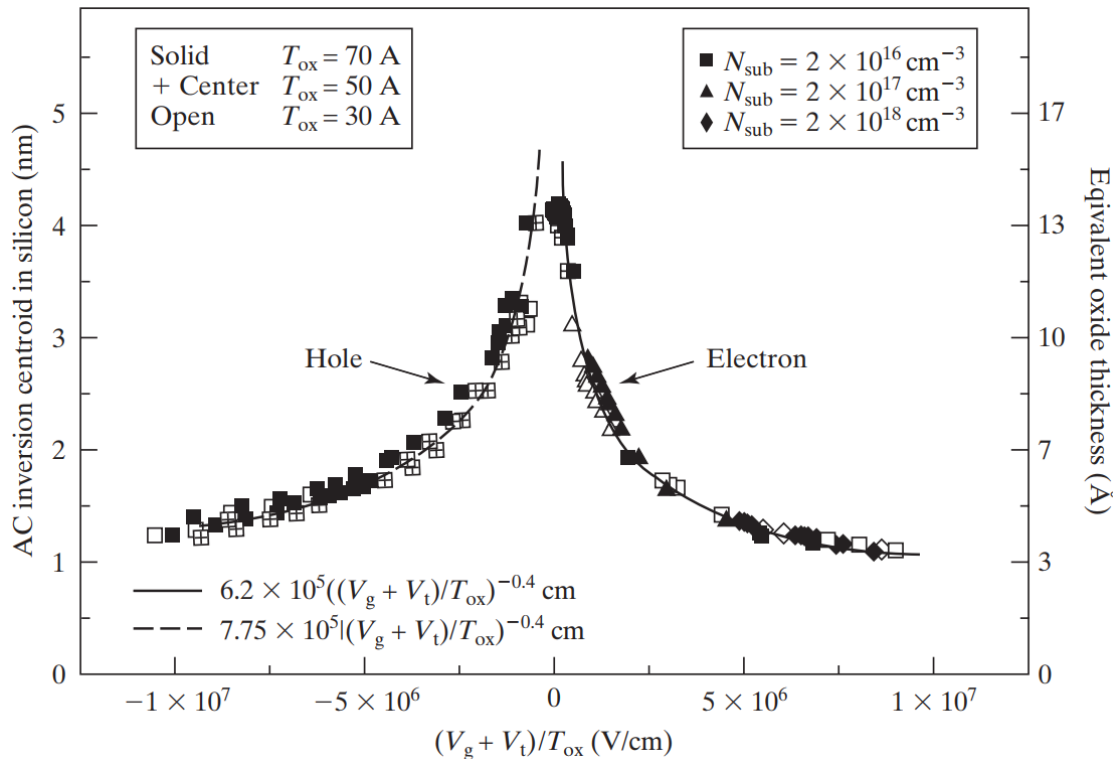
$$\lambda = 2a, a, \frac{2a}{n}$$

$$E_n = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2 n^2}{2ma^2}$$



solution: if inf potential, Airy function

## Electrical Oxide Thickness, $T_{oxe}$



- $T_{inv}$  is a function of the average electric field in the inversion layer, which is  $(V_g + V_t)/6T_{ox}$ .
- $T_{inv}$  of holes is larger than that of electrons because of difference in effective mass.
- $T_{oxe}$  is the electrical oxide thickness.

$$EOT = t_{ox} + t_{inv}/3$$

The definition is different from the previous one.

$$T_{oxe} = T_{ox} + W_{poly}/3 + T_{inv}/3 \text{ at } V_G = V_{dd}$$

## Chapter 6 MOSFET

The MOSFET (MOS Field-Effect Transistor) is the building block of Gb memory chips, GHz microprocessors, analog, and RF circuits.

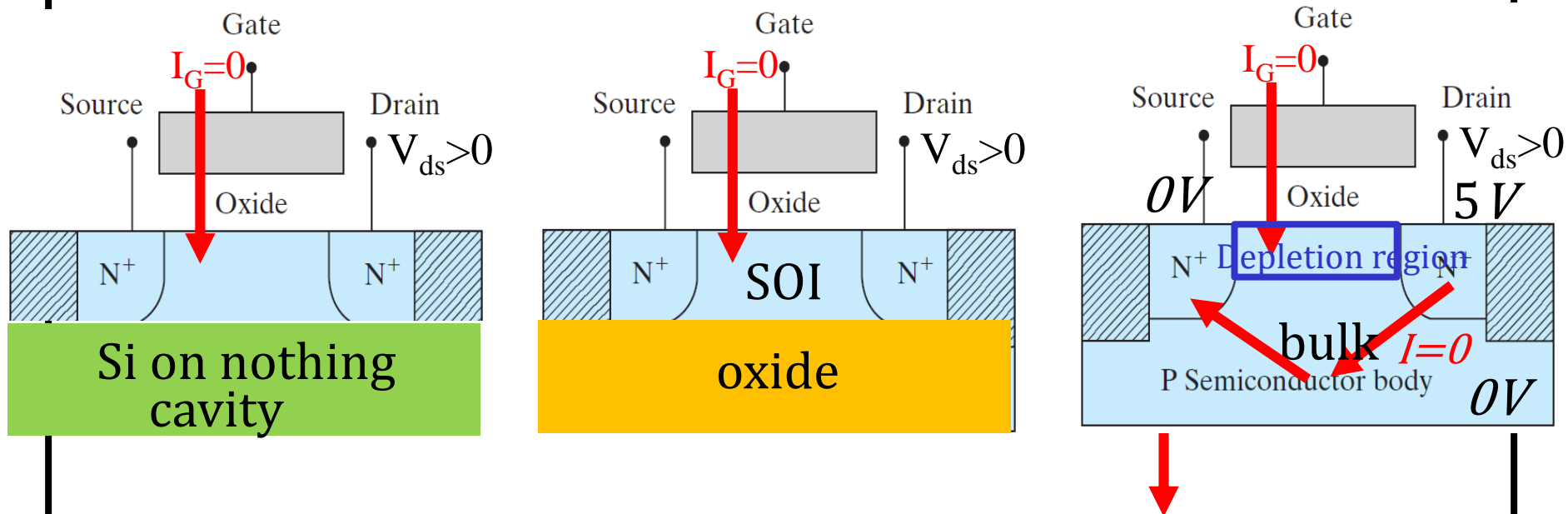
Field-Effect: inversion charge induced by gate voltage

Match the following MOSFET characteristics with their applications:

- small size
- high speed
- low power
- high gain

# 6.1 Introduction to the MOSFET

## Basic MOSFET structure and IV characteristics



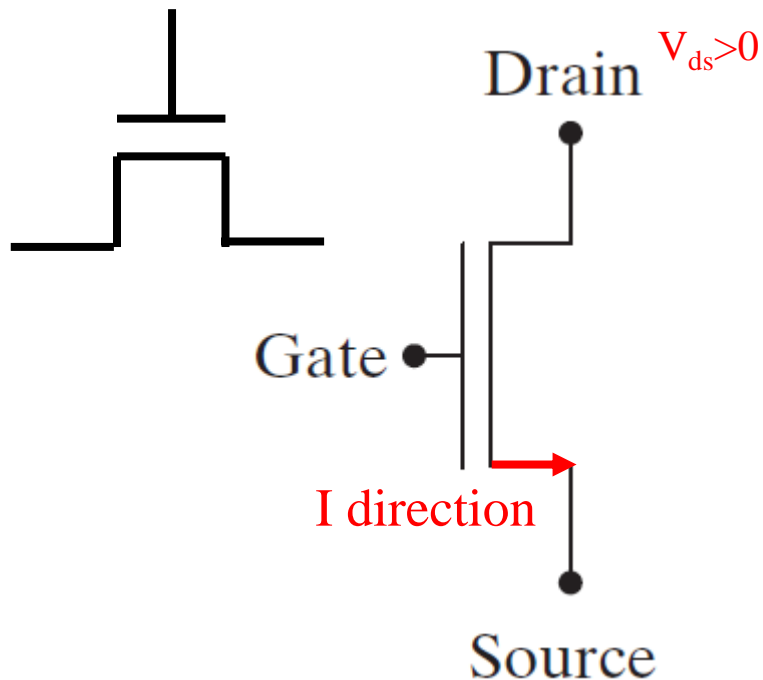
Body contact, 4 terminal device for planar  
For FinFET and GAA there is no body contact

nFET or pFET is determined by S/D, not body



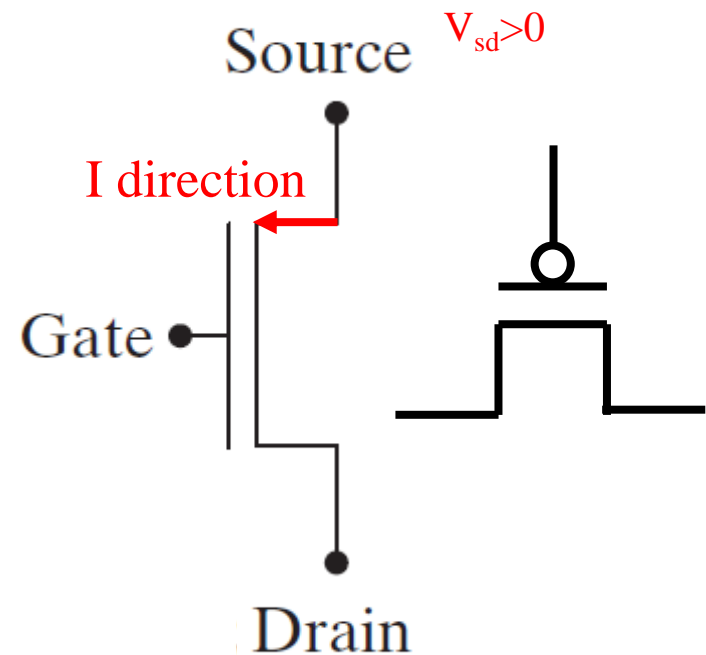
## 6.1 Introduction to the MOSFET

nFET



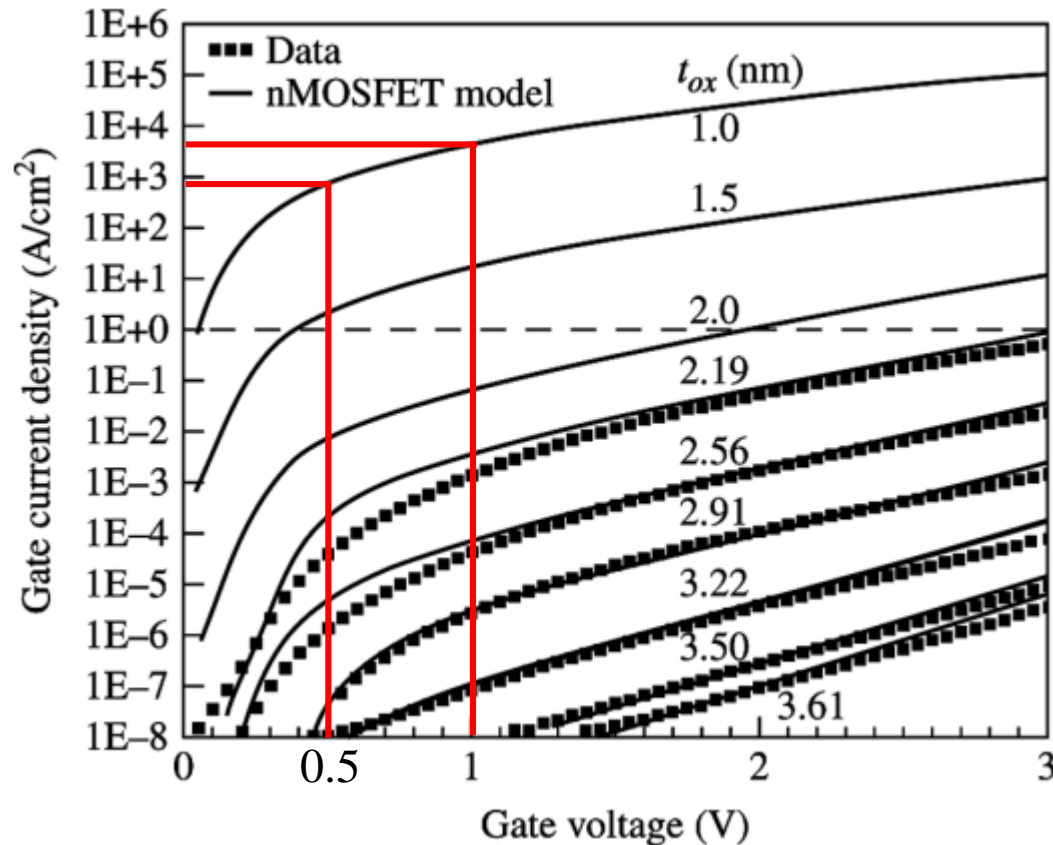
pFET

Usually high voltage is up above



- S/D is defined by circuit designer
- **DTCO**: Design Technology Co-Optimization

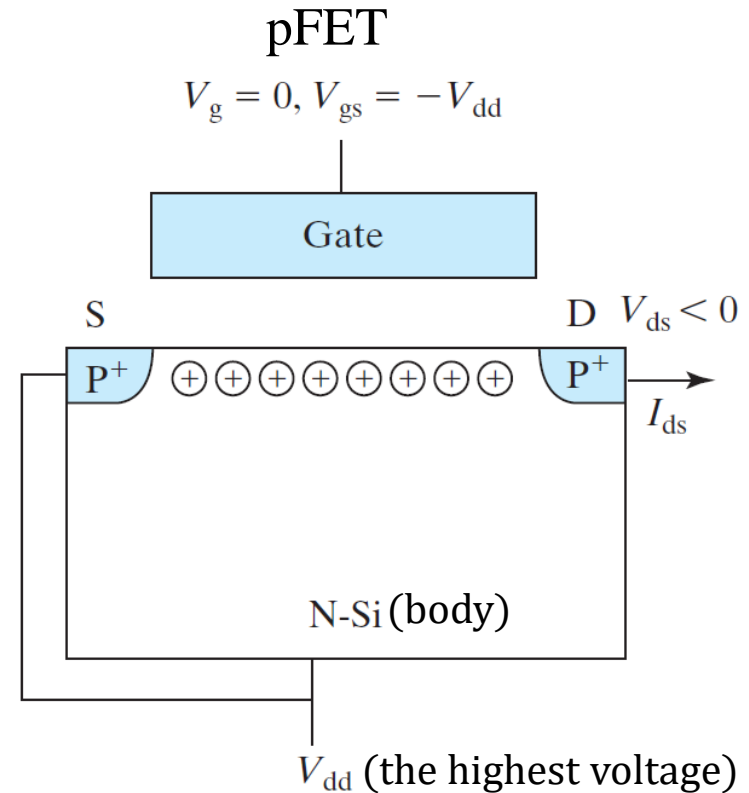
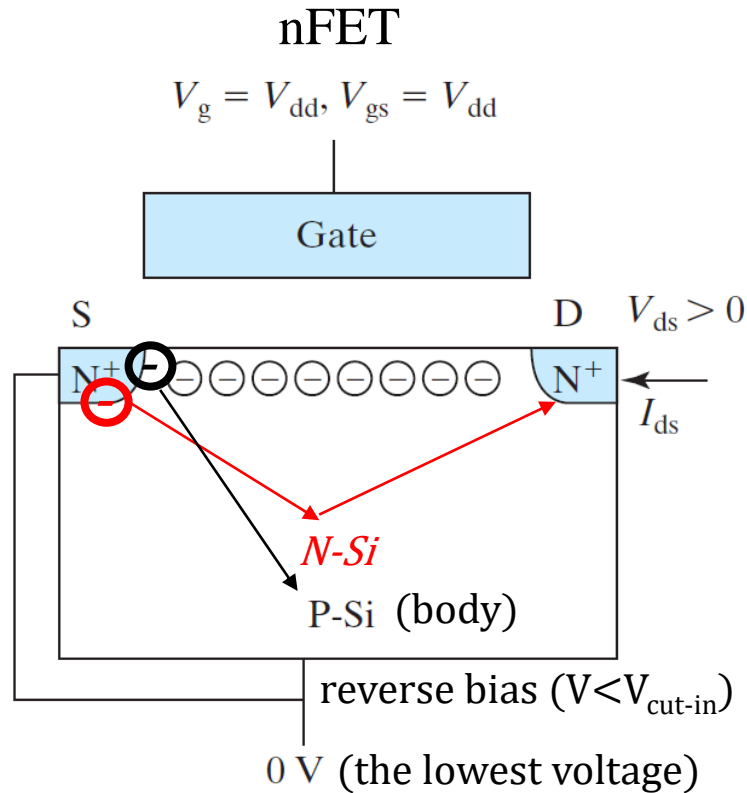
# Gate leakage current



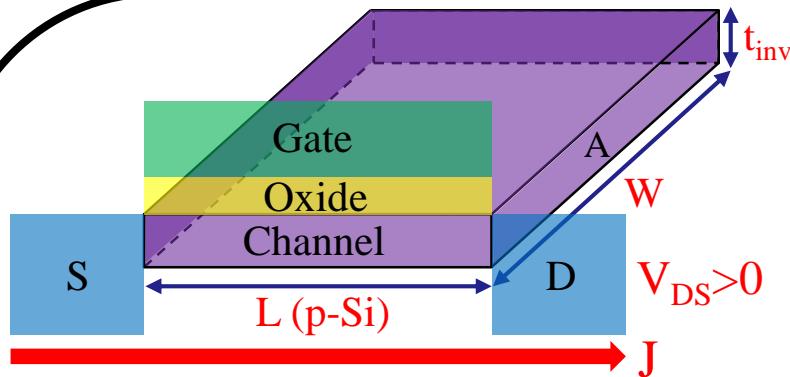
Ref : Yuan Taur

- $J_G \sim 10^3\text{ A}/\text{cm}^2$  at  $V_G = 0.5\text{V}$  and  $t_{ox} = 1\text{ nm}$ .
- $J_G \sim 10^4\text{ A}/\text{cm}^2$  at  $V_G = 1\text{V}$  and  $t_{ox} = 1\text{ nm}$ .

## 6.2 Complementary MOSFETs (CMOS) Technology



- When  $V_g = V_{dd}$ , the nFET is on and the pFET is off.
- When  $V_g = 0$ , the pFET is on and the nFET is off.
- Schottky barrier FET: Pt for pFET, Al for nFET



Practice: derive  $I_D$  formula

The unit of  $Q_{inv} = e \times n \times t_{inv}$

$t_{inv} \times t_{inv} \rightarrow C/cm^3 \times cm = C/cm^2$

$$I_D = J \times A = nev \times W t_{inv}, n: cm^{-3}, e: C, v: cm/s, J: A/cm^2$$

$$\because Q_{inv} = e \times n \times t_{inv}, v = \mu E = \mu \frac{V_{DS}}{L} \rightarrow I_D = Q_{inv} \times \mu \frac{W}{L} \times V_{DS}$$

$$\text{Also, } Q_{inv} = C_{ox}(V_{GC} - V_t), C_{ox}: F/cm^2$$

$$\because V_{GS} > V_{GD} \rightarrow Q_{inv}(S) > Q_{inv}(D) \rightarrow C_{ox}(V_{GS} - V_t) > C_{ox}(V_{GD} - V_t)$$

$$\text{Average } Q_{inv} = \frac{1}{2} [Q_{inv}(S) + Q_{inv}(D)] = \frac{1}{2} [C_{ox}(V_{GS} - V_t) + C_{ox}(V_{GD} - V_t)]$$

$$\text{Take source as ref} \rightarrow V_{GD} = V_{GS} - V_{DS} \rightarrow Q_{inv} = \frac{C_{ox}}{2} [2(V_{GS} - V_t) - V_{DS}]$$

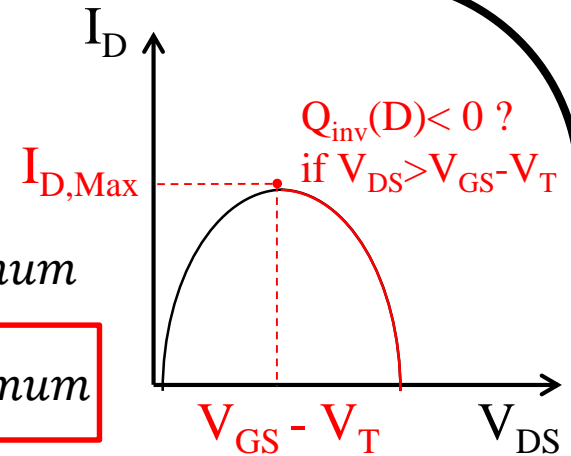
$$\therefore I_D = \frac{1}{2} \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} [2(V_{GS} - V_t)V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2] \text{ source reference (SPICE)}$$

Practice: explain saturation region and channel length modulation

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} [2(V_{GS} - V_t)V_{DS} - V_{DS}^2]$$

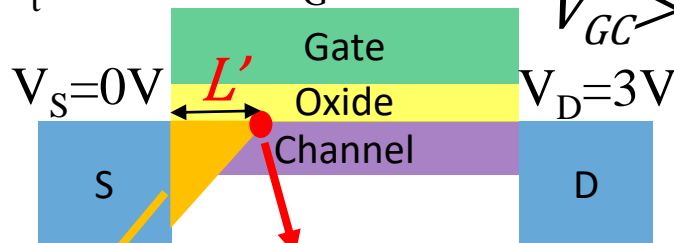
$\therefore f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c \rightarrow \text{at } x = -\frac{b}{2a}, f(x) \text{ has maximum}$

$\therefore \text{At } V_{DS} = V_{GS} - V_t, I_D = \frac{1}{2} \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L'} (V_{GS} - V_t)^2 \text{ is maximum}$



Let  $V_t = 1V$

$V_G = 2V$



$V_{GC} > V_t \rightarrow Q_{inv} \text{ exists at } V_{DS} < V_{GS} - V_t$

At source:  $V_{GC} = 2V \rightarrow Q_{inv} \text{ exists}$

At drain:  $V_{GC} = -1V \rightarrow Q_{inv} = 0 \text{ (accumulation)}$

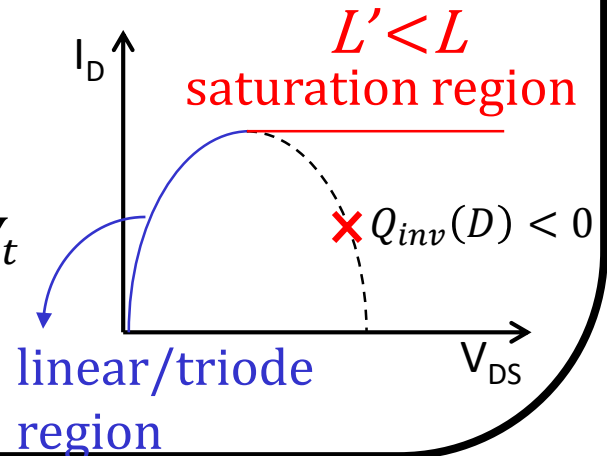
$V_{GC} = 1V = V_t \rightarrow Q_{inv} = 0$

$\therefore Q_{inv}(D) < 0 \text{ is wrong (Charge can't be } < 0)$

$\therefore I_D \text{ will keep at maximum after } V_{DS} = V_{GS} - V_t$

$V_{GS} - V_t$  is define as  $V_{ov}$  (overdrive voltage)

$V_{DC} / (L - L')$  is large enough, drift velocity is large



# I<sub>ON</sub> Improvement -- Overview

Practice40: repeat this page

$$I_d = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{gs} - V_t)^2 \times n \text{ (floor number)}$$

→ Nanosheet (N2)

FinFET (16nm) :  $2H_{FIN} + W_{FIN}$

High mobility  $\frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}} \rightarrow HK(45nm \text{ node})$

Intel : 22nm

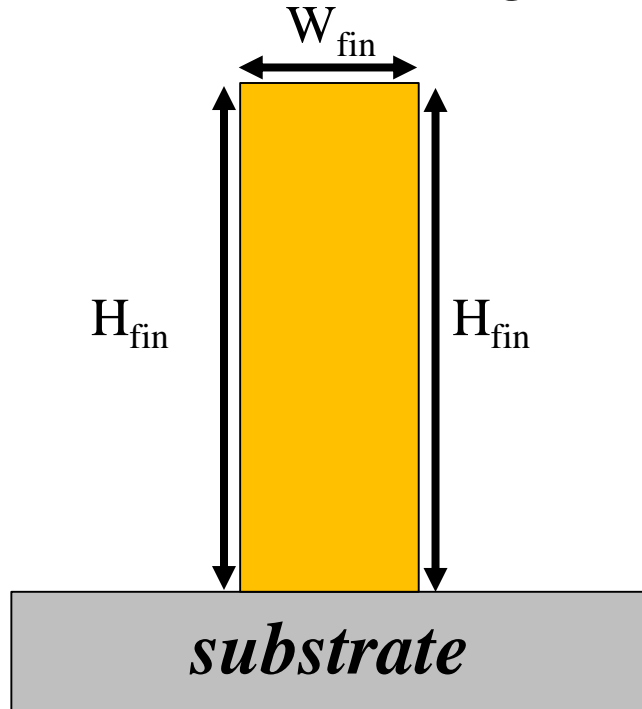
$$\frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}} = \frac{\epsilon_{HK}}{t_{HK}} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{EOT} \quad EOT = t_{HK} \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{\epsilon_{HK}} \quad \epsilon = k\epsilon_0$$

$t_{ox} > 1nm$ . Otherwise,  $I_g$  is significant

1. Strained Si (90nm)
2. High mobility channel (5nm SiGe p-channel)

## $I_{ON}$ Improvement -- $W_{eff}$

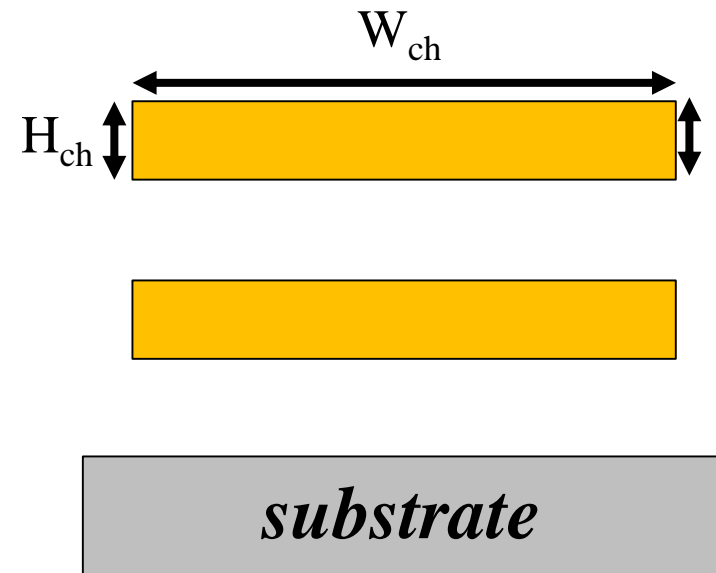
FinFET = Tri-gate



$$W_{eff} = 2H_{fin} + W_{fin}$$

$$\text{Footprint} = W_{fin} \times L$$

Nanosheet = GAA



$$W_{eff} = (2H_{ch} + 2W_{ch}) \times \text{floor number}$$

# Scaling length



$$C_{GC} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times A}{d} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L}{t_{ox}}$$

$$C_{DS} = \frac{\epsilon_{Si} \times A'}{d'} = \frac{\epsilon_{Si} \times W \times t_{Si}}{L}$$

Ref: J.-P. COLINGE, ROMJIST, Volume 11, Number 1, 2008, 3-15

$$\therefore \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L}{t_{ox}} > \frac{\epsilon_{Si} \times W \times t_{Si}}{L}$$

$$\rightarrow L^2 > \frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}$$

$\therefore$  Gate control needs to  $>$  S/D effect  
 $\rightarrow C_{GC} > C_{SD}$

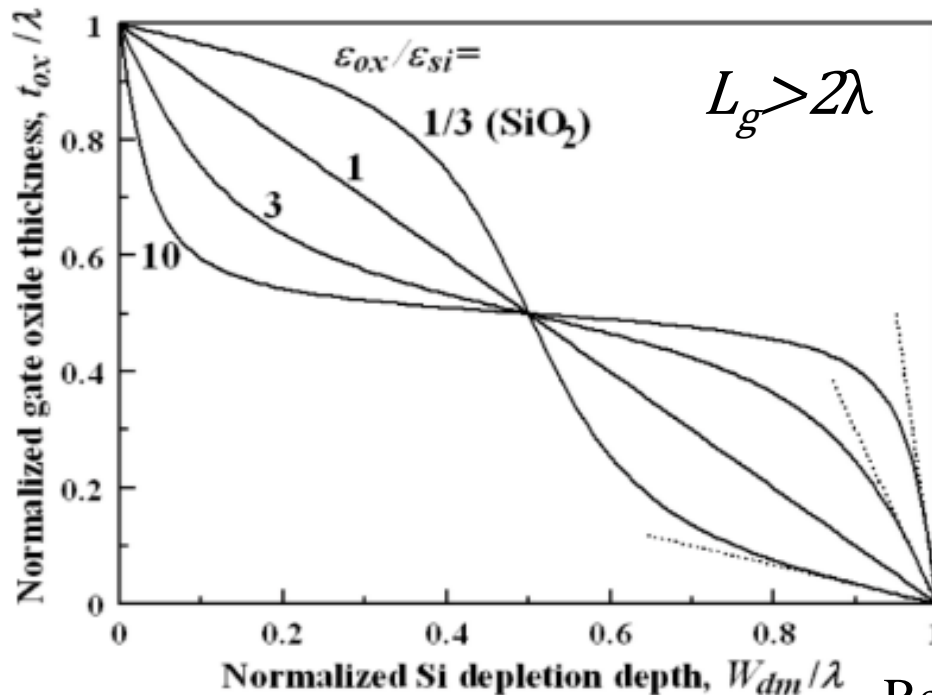
Vertical E field  $>$  Lateral E field

$$L > \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}} = l(\text{scaling length})$$

$L > l$  the more excess  $\rightarrow$  DIBL ( $\frac{\Delta V_t}{\Delta V_{DS}}$ ), SCE ( $L \downarrow \rightarrow V_t \downarrow$ ), SS (small) better



# Scaling length



$$W_{dm} = t_{si}$$

▪ In the lower right corner,  $\lambda \approx W_{dm} + (\epsilon_{si} / \epsilon_{ox}) t_{ox} = 3$

$$\lambda \approx W_{dm} + (\epsilon_{si} / \epsilon_{ox}) t_{ox}$$

So high-k gate insulator helps.

▪ But it is only valid when  $t_{ox} \ll \lambda$ .

▪  $t_{ox} / \lambda$  is limited to  $1/2$ , i.e.,  $\lambda > 2 t_{ox}$ .

Ref: Yuan Taur

$$W_{dm} = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_{si}2\phi_B}{qN_B}}$$

$$N_B = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow W_{dm} \sim 100 \text{ nm}$$

$$N_B = 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3} \rightarrow W_{dm} \sim 10 \text{ nm}$$

$N_B \uparrow \rightarrow \mu \downarrow \rightarrow \text{FinFET is undoped}$

How will the scaling length change if the channel material is Ge?

$$C_{GC} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L_{Ge}}{t_{ox}} \quad C_{SD} = \frac{\epsilon_{Ge} \times W \times t_{Ge}}{L}$$

$$\because C_{GC} > C_{SD}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L_{Ge}}{t_{ox}} > \frac{\epsilon_{Ge} \times W \times t_{Ge}}{L_{Ge}}$$

$$\rightarrow L_{Ge}^2 > \frac{\epsilon_{Ge}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Ge} \times t_{ox}$$

$$\rightarrow L_{Ge} > \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Ge}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Ge} \times t_{ox}}$$

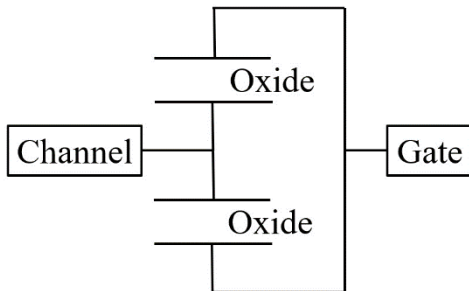
$$\because \epsilon_{Ge}(= 16) > \epsilon_{Si}(= 11.9)$$

$$L_{Ge} = \sqrt{\frac{16}{11.9}} \times L_{Si} > L_{Si}$$

$\therefore$  channel length will be *longer*

# How will the scaling length change in the double gate structure?

∴ Capacitance in parallel



$$C_{GC(double\ gate)} = \boxed{2} C_{GC(single\ gate)} = \boxed{2} \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L}{t_{ox}}$$

$$\therefore C_{GC(double\ gate)} > C_{SD}$$

$$\rightarrow 2 \times \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L_{double}}{t_{ox}} > \frac{\epsilon_{Si} \times W \times t_{Si}}{L_{double}}$$

$$\rightarrow L_{double}^2 > \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}$$

$$\rightarrow L_{double} > \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}} \sim 0.707 L_{single}$$

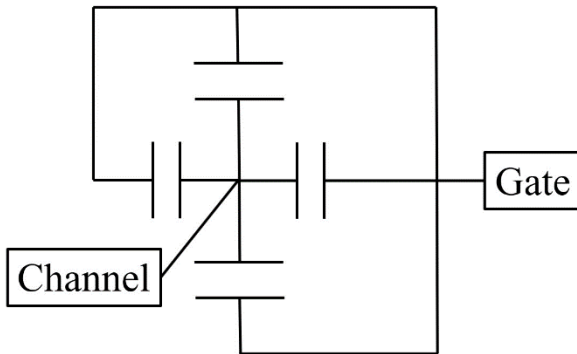
∴ channel length can be *shorter*

# How will the scaling length change in the GAA structure?

∴ *Capacitance in parallel*



Assume the four side length of the channel are equal.



$$C_{GC(GAA)} = 4C_{GC(single\ gate)} = 4 \times \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L}{t_{ox}}$$

$$\therefore C_{GC(GAA)} > C_{SD}$$

$$\rightarrow 4 \times \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \times W \times L_{GAA}}{t_{ox}} > \frac{\epsilon_{Si} \times W \times t_{Si}}{L_{GAA}}$$

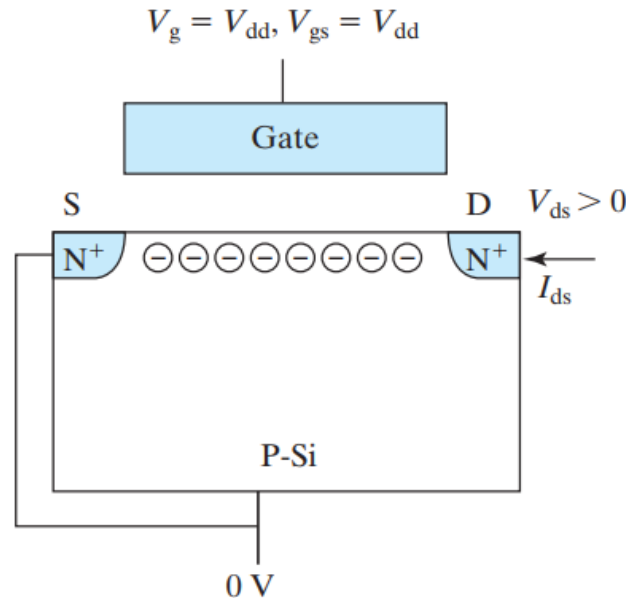
$$\rightarrow L_{GAA}^2 > \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}$$

$$\rightarrow L_{GAA} > \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}} = \frac{1}{2} l_{single}$$

∴ channel length can be **shorter**

## 6.3 Surface Mobilities and High-Mobility FETs

### 6.3.1 Surface Mobilities < Bulk mobility due to surface roughness scattering



split CV:  $J = ne\mu E = \frac{V_{ds}}{L}$

+IV

How to measure the surface mobility:

$$I_{ds} = W \times Q_{inv} \times v = W Q_{inv} \mu_{ns} E = W Q_{inv} \mu_{ns} V_{ds} / L$$

$$= W C_{oxe} (V_{gs} - V_t) \mu_{ns} V_{ds} / L$$

Field effect mobility

Mobility is a function of the average of the fields at the bottom and the top of the inversion charge layer,  $E_b$  and  $E_t$ .

From Gauss's Law,

$$E_b = -Q_{dep}/\epsilon_{si}$$

$$V_t = V_{fb} + \phi_s - Q_{dep}/C_{oxe}$$

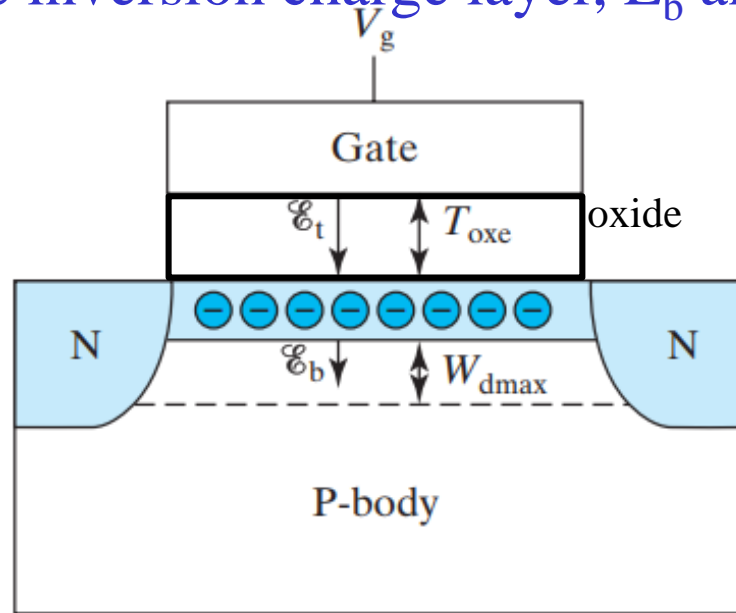
Therefore,

$$E_b = \frac{C_{ox}}{\epsilon_{si}} (V_t - V_{fb} + \phi_s)$$

$$E_t = -(Q_{dep} + Q_{inv})/\epsilon_{si}$$

$$= E_b - Q_{inv}/\epsilon_{si} = E_b + \frac{C_{ox}}{\epsilon_{si}} (V_{gs} - V_t)$$

$$= \frac{C_{ox}}{\epsilon_{si}} (V_{gs} - V_{fb} - \phi_s)$$

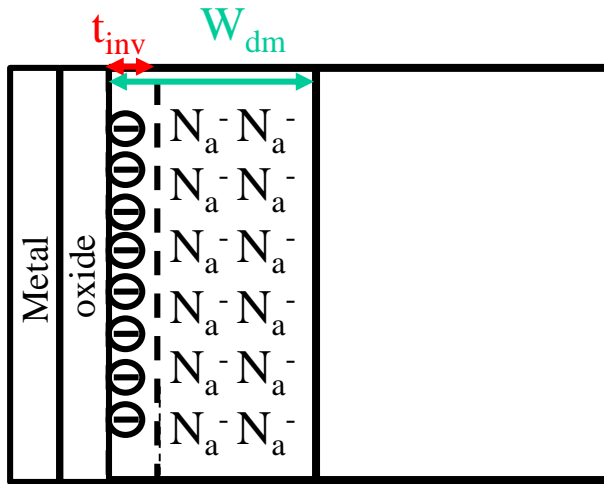


$$\therefore \frac{1}{2} (E_b + E_t) = \frac{C_{ox}}{2\epsilon_{si}} (V_{gs} + V_t - 2V_{fb} - 2\phi_s)$$

$$\approx \frac{C_{ox}}{2\epsilon_{si}} (V_{gs} + V_t + 0.2V)$$

$$= \frac{V_{gs} + V_t + 0.2V}{6t_{ox}}$$

# Simple $E_{\text{average}}$ model for On state



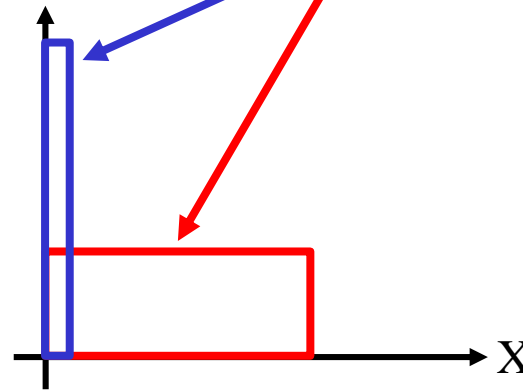
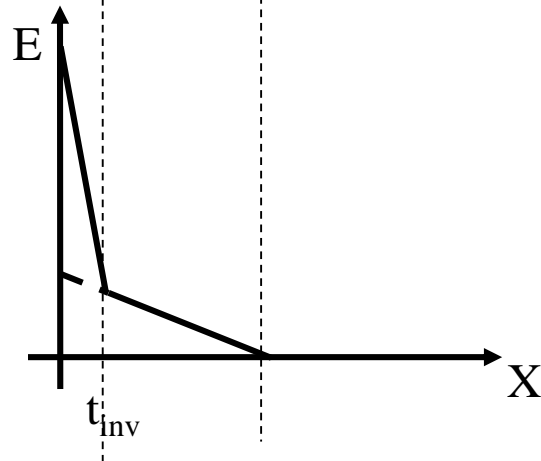
$$E(0) = (Q_{dep} + Q_{inv})/\epsilon_{si}$$

$$E(t_{inv}) = Q_{dep}/\epsilon_{si}$$

$$E_{avreage} = (E(0) + E(t_{inv}))/2$$

$$= \frac{2Q_{dep} + Q_{inv}}{2\epsilon_{si}}$$

By split CV



$$\nabla E = -\rho/\epsilon_{si} = dE/dx$$

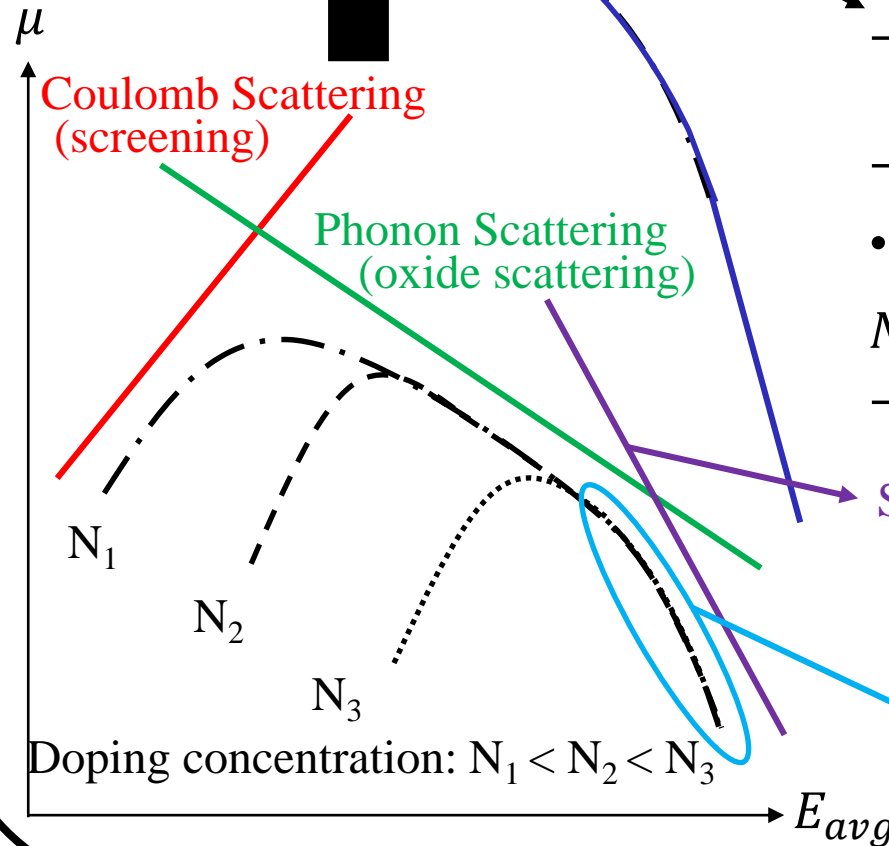
# Universal Mobility

FinFET(undoped Si)

strained Si (90nm)

nFET → tensile

pFET → compressive



- As device scaling

$$\rightarrow L > \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si}}{\epsilon_{ox}} \times t_{Si} \times t_{ox}}$$

$$\rightarrow N_B \uparrow \rightarrow W_{dm} = t_{Si} \downarrow \rightarrow L \downarrow$$

$$\bullet \quad E_{avg} = \frac{2Q_{dep} + Q_{inv}}{2\epsilon_{Si}}$$

$$N_B \uparrow \rightarrow Q_{dep} \uparrow \rightarrow E_{avg} \uparrow \mu \downarrow$$

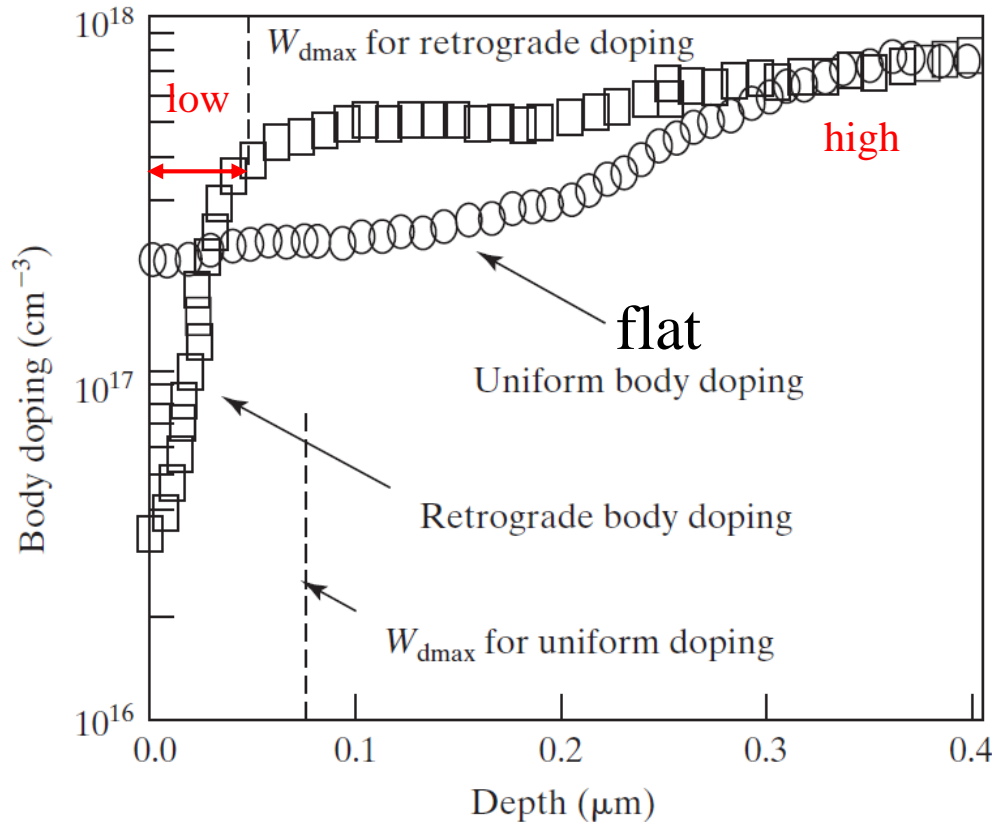
→ Using strained Si to enhance  $\mu$

Surface Roughness Scattering  
(wave function at interface)

- At high electric field, the mobility merge together  
→ Universal mobility



# Retrograde Body Doping Profiles

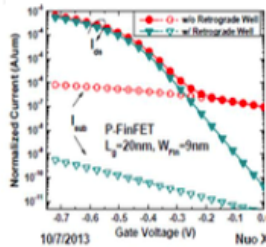
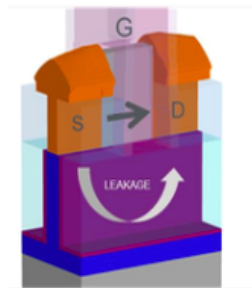


- $W_{dep}$  does not vary with  $V_{sb}$ .
- Retrograde doping is popular because it reduces off-state leakage and allows higher surface mobility.

# Sub-Fin Isolation Pathways

## Towards un-doped channels

Fin undoped by Epi growth

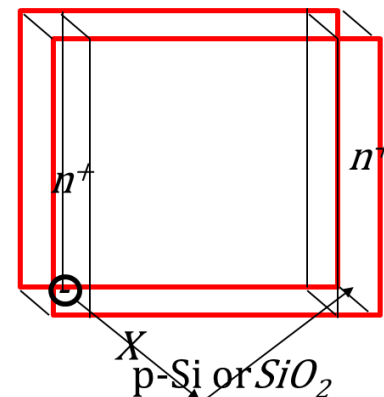
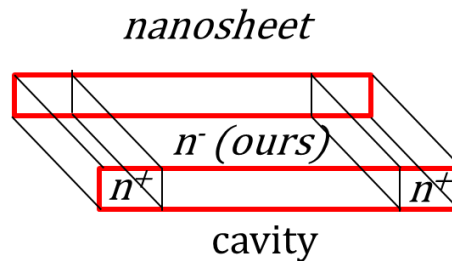


- Sub Fin leakage control critical for bulk FinFET scaling
- Doping traditional used for counter doping
- Variability strongly increases with channel doping

Option	Implant Thru Fin	Solid Source Diffusion	SSRW: Implant + Epi SSRW : Super Steep <b>R</b> etrograde Well
Details			
	(+) Easy Integration (-) Unintentional channel doping = variability (-) Damage/Leakage	(+) Self aligned (+) Undoped channel (+) Damage free (-) Non scalable (-) Integration complexity/cost	(+) Undoped channel (+) Damage free channel (+) Scalable (-) Non self aligned

Heavily doped

ion implantation/epi  
FinFET



9

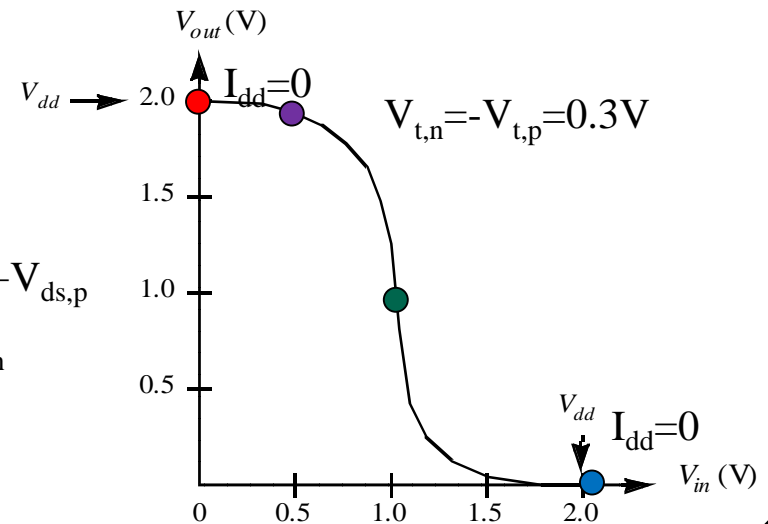
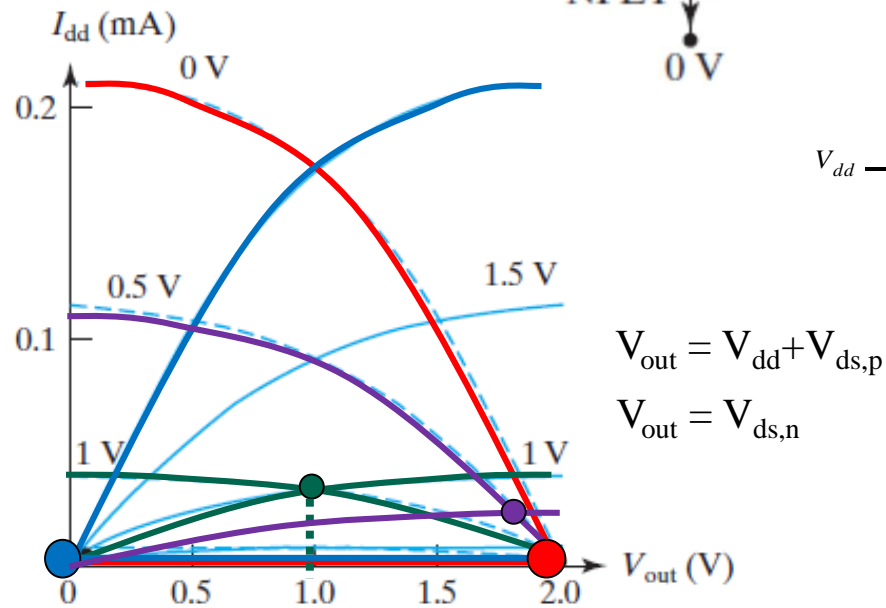
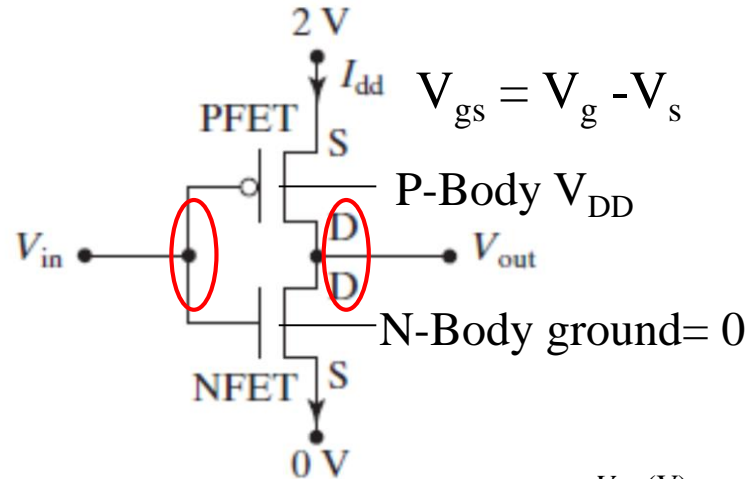
# CMOS vs CFET

- CMOS: nFET + pFET
  - Planar ( $\geq N20$ ): area pFET > nFET
    - Because hole mobility < electron mobility
  - FinFET: area pFET = nFET
    - Because of undoped channel
- CFET: pFET on nFET or nFET on pFET → 2X transistor density
- CFET are expected to use nanosheet

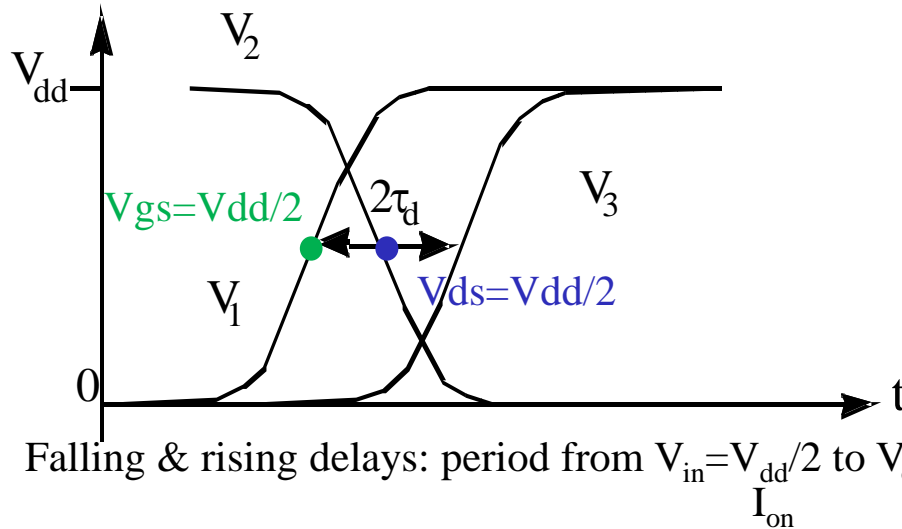
## 6.7.1 CMOS Inverter--voltage transfer curve

For 5nm FinFET,  $W_n \sim W_p$

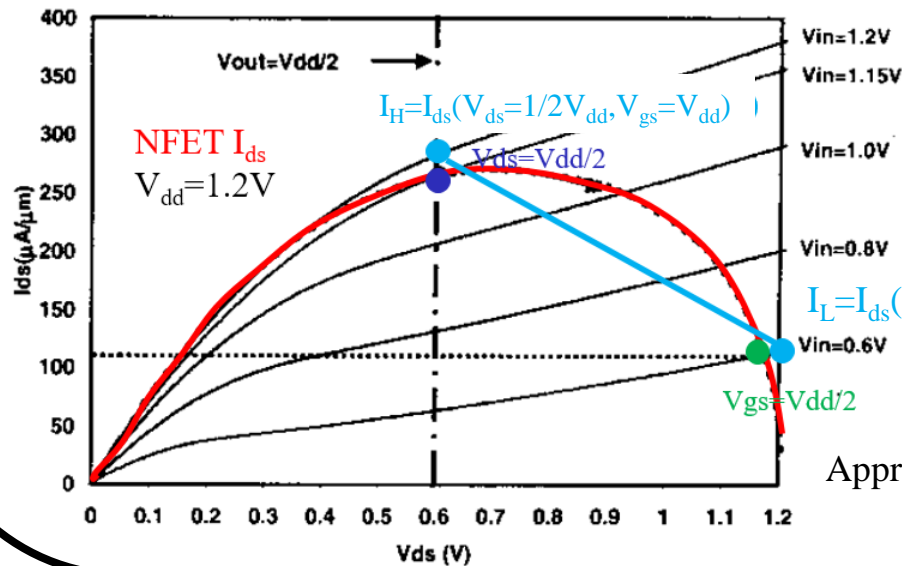
$$W_p = 2W_n$$



# The Effective Drive Current in CMOS Inverters



- Falling & rising delays: period from  $V_{in} = V_{dd}/2$  to  $V_{out} = V_{dd}/2$



$$I_{eff} = 1/2(I_L + I_H)$$

Approximate  $I_{ds}$  trajectory with linearize  $I_{ds}(V_{gs}, V_{ds})$

## 6.7.2 Inverter Speed - Impact of $I_{on}$

$$\tau_d \equiv \frac{1}{2}(\text{pull-down delay} + \text{pull-up delay})$$

$$\text{pull-up delay} \approx \frac{CV_{dd}}{2 I_{p_{eff}}}$$

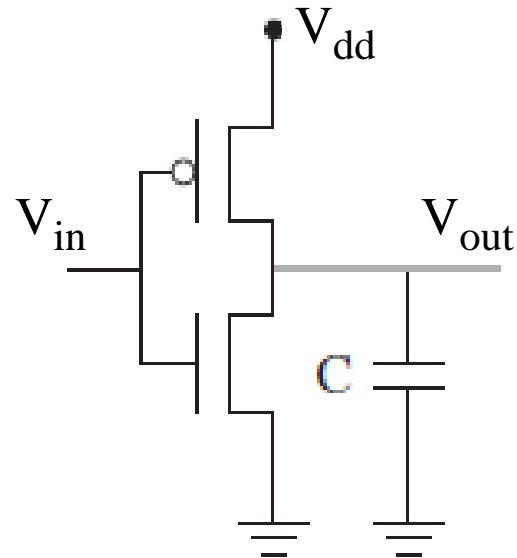
$$\text{pull-down delay} \approx \frac{CV_{dd}}{2 I_{n_{eff}}}$$

$$I_{eff} = \frac{1}{2}(I_L + I_H)$$

$$I_L = I_{ds}(V_{ds} = V_{dd}, V_{gs} = \frac{1}{2}V_{dd})$$

$$I_H = I_{ds}(V_{ds} = \frac{1}{2}V_{dd}, V_{gs} = V_{dd})$$

$$\tau_d = \text{Max}(\text{pull-up delay}, \text{pull down delay})$$



How can the speed of an inverter circuit be improved?

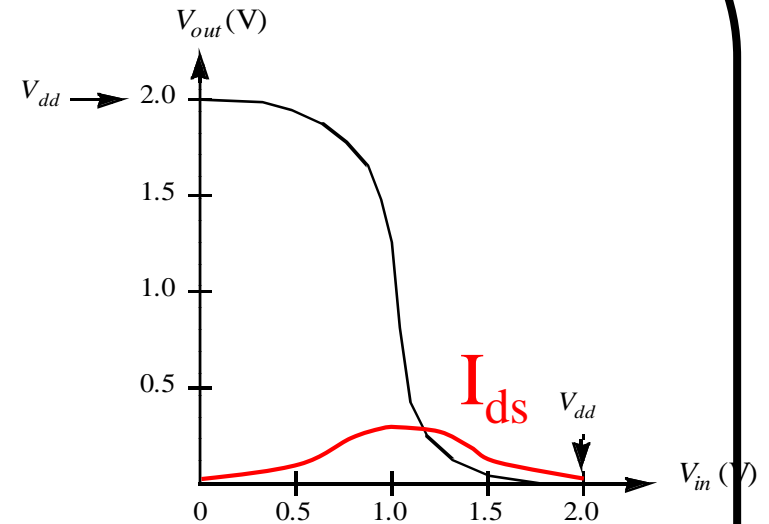
## 6.7.3 Power Consumption

$$P_{dynamic} = V_{DD} \times I_{avg} + kCV_{DD}^2f$$

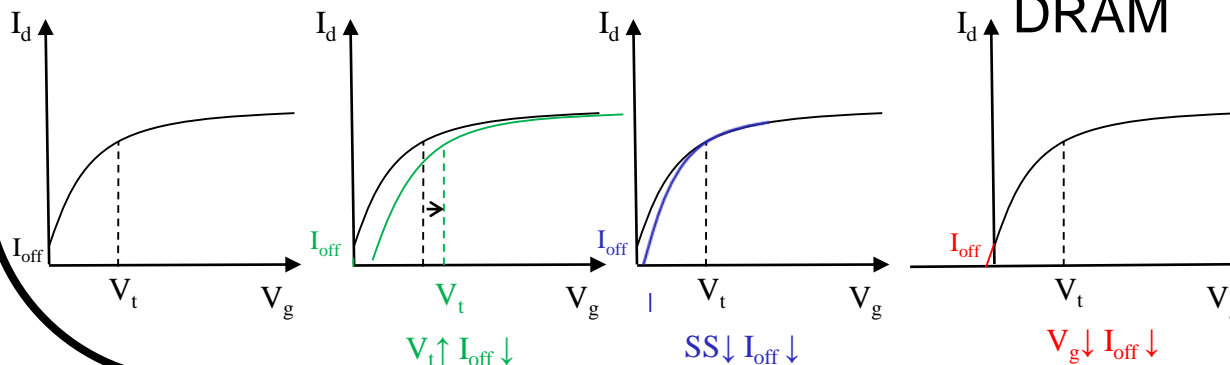
$$P_{static} = V_{DD}I_{OFF}$$

Total power consumption

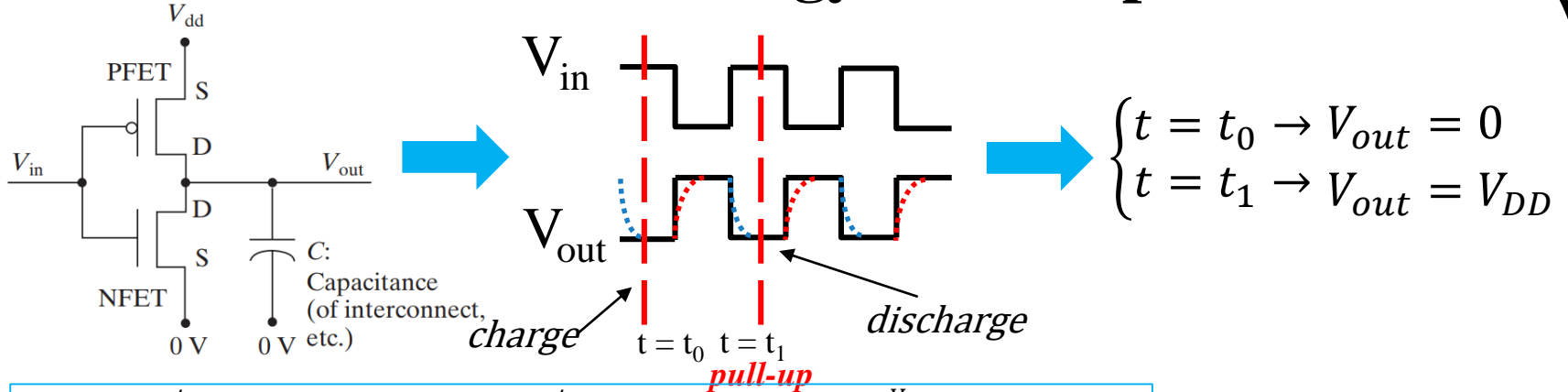
$$P_{total} = P_{dynamic} + P_{static}$$



To reduce  $I_{off}$



# RC Circuit Energy Consumption



$$E_{total} = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} I(t) \times V_{DD} \times dt = V_{DD} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} C \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} dt = CV_{DD} \int_0^{V_{DD}} dV_{out} = CV_{DD}^2$$

$$E_C = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} I(t) \times V_{out} \times dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} C \frac{dV_{out}}{dt} V_{out} dt = C \int_0^{V_{DD}} V_{out} dV_{out} = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 \quad \text{Loss} = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 \text{ (pFET)}$$

$$\because \text{Kirchhoff's law: } V = Q/C = IR \rightarrow I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{Q}{RC}$$

$$\rightarrow \int \frac{dQ}{Q} = \int \frac{dt}{RC} \rightarrow Q = qe^{t/RC} \rightarrow I = \frac{q}{RC} e^{t/RC} \quad + \quad \begin{cases} t = t_0 \rightarrow Q_C = 0 \\ t = t_1 \rightarrow Q_C = Q \end{cases}$$

$$E_R = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} I(t)^2 \times R \times dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{q^2}{R^2 C^2} e^{2t/RC} R dt = \frac{q^2}{RC^2} \left[ \frac{RC}{2} (e^{2t_1/RC} - e^{2t_0/RC}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2C} (Q_{t_0}^2 - Q_{t_1}^2) = \frac{1}{2C} Q^2 = \frac{1}{2C} C^2 V_{DD}^2 = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 = E_{total} - E_C$$

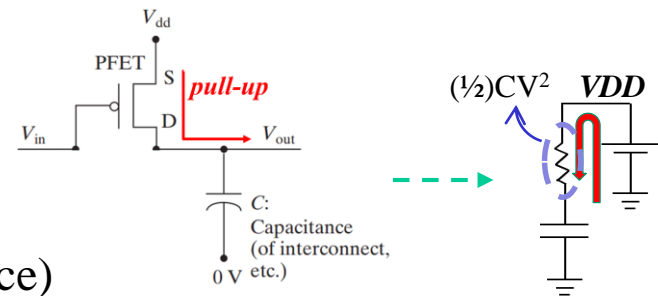


**pull-up ( $V_{out}$  from 0  $\rightarrow$   $V_{DD}$ )**

$$E_{total} = CV_{DD}^2 \quad (\text{total energy from source})$$

$$E_C = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 \quad (\text{energy stored in capacitance})$$

$$E_R = E_{total} - E_C = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 \quad (\text{energy dissipation in the pFET})$$

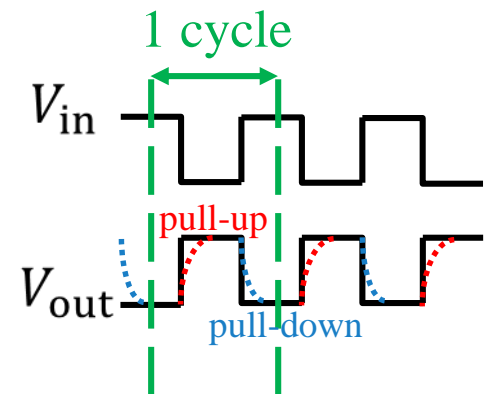
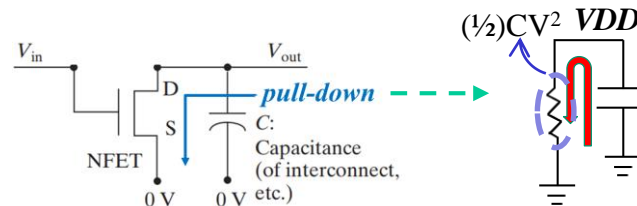


**pull-down ( $V_{out}$  from  $V_{DD}$   $\rightarrow$  0 )**

$$E_{total} = CV_{DD}^2$$

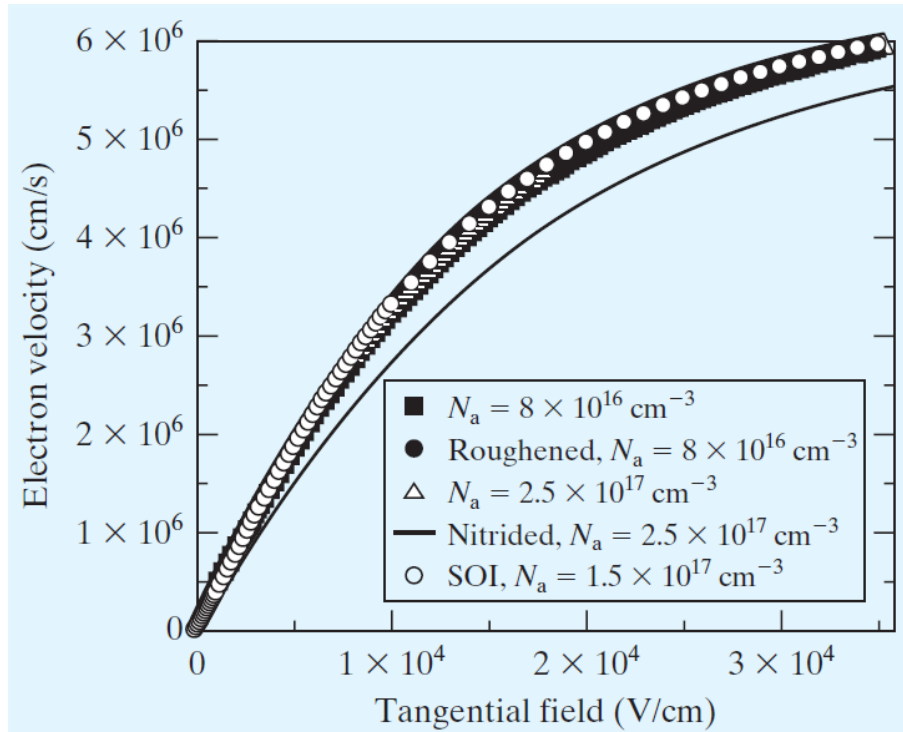
$$E_C = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2$$

$$E_R = E_{total} - E_C = \frac{1}{2} CV_{DD}^2 \quad (\text{energy dissipation in the nFET})$$



**Energy consumption of one cycle**  $= E_{R,up} + E_{R,down} = CV_{DD}^2$

## 6.8 Velocity Saturation



Along current direction

$$v = \frac{\mu_n E}{1 + E/E_{sat}}$$

$$E \ll E_{sat}: v = \mu_n E$$

$$E = E_{sat}: v_{sat} = \frac{\mu_n E_{sat}}{2}$$

$$E \gg E_{sat}: v_{sat} = \mu_n E_{sat}$$

- Velocity saturation has large and deleterious effect on the  $I_{on}$  of MOSFETS

## 6.9 MOSFET IV Model with Velocity Saturation

$$I_{ds} = W Q_{inv} v \quad v = \frac{\mu_n E}{1 + E/E_{sat}} \quad E = dV_{cs}/dx$$

$$\rightarrow I_{ds} = W C_{ox} (V_{gs} - m V_{cs} - V_t) \frac{\mu_n dV_{cs}/dx}{1 + \frac{dV_{cs}}{dx}/E_{sat}}$$

$$\rightarrow \int_0^L I_{ds} dx = \int_0^{V_{ds}} [W C_{ox} \mu_n (V_{gs} - m V_{cs} - V_t) - I_{ds}/E_{sat}] dV_{cs}$$

$$\rightarrow I_{ds} L = W C_{ox} \mu_n \left( V_{gs} - V_t - \frac{m}{2} V_{ds} \right) V_{ds} - I_{ds} V_{ds} / E_{sat}$$

## 6.9 MOSFET IV Model with Velocity Saturation

$$\text{solving } \frac{dI_{ds}}{dV_{ds}} = 0,$$

$$V_{dsat} = \frac{2(V_{gs} - V_t)/m}{1 + \sqrt{1 + 2(V_{gs} - V_t)/mE_{sat}L}}$$

A simpler and more accurate  $V_{dsat}$  is:

$$\frac{1}{V_{dsat}} = \frac{m}{V_{gs} - V_t} + \frac{1}{E_{sat}L}$$

$$E_{sat} \equiv 2v_{sat}/\mu_n$$

- No velocity saturation  $\rightarrow V_{dsat} = (V_{gs} - V_t)/m$

## $I_{dsat}$ with Velocity Saturation

Substituting  $V_{dsat}$  for  $V_{ds}$  in  $I_{ds}$  equation gives:

$$I_{dsat} = \frac{W}{2mL} C_{oxe} \mu_s \frac{(V_{gs} - V_t)^2}{1 + \frac{V_{gs} - V_t}{mE_{sat} L}} = \frac{\text{long - channel } I_{dsat}}{1 + \frac{V_{gs} - V_t}{mE_{sat} L}}$$

Very short channel case:

$$E_{sat} L \ll V_{gs} - V_t$$

$$I_{dsat} = W V_{sat} C_{oxe} (V_{gs} - V_t - m E_{sat} L)$$

$$I_{dsat} = W V_{sat} C_{oxe} (V_{gs} - V_t) \quad \text{Ballistic transport} \rightarrow I = Q_{source} V_{inj}$$

- $I_{dsat}$  is proportional to  $V_{gs} - V_t$  rather than  $(V_{gs} - V_t)^2$ ,  
not as sensitive to  $L$  as  $1/L$ .

# Saturation Current and Transconductance

- linear region, saturation region

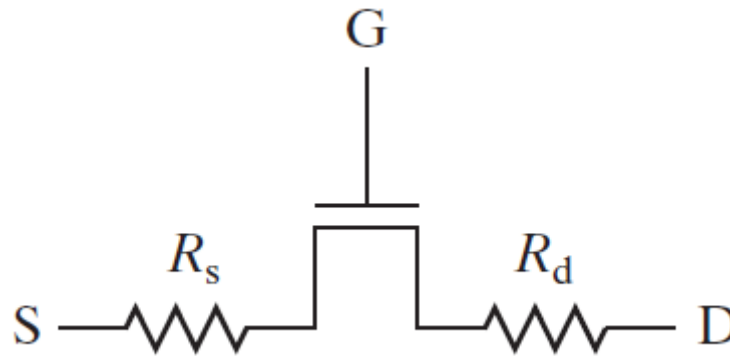
$$I_{dsat} = \frac{1}{2\alpha} \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{gs} - V_t)^\alpha$$

(short channel)  $1 < \alpha < 2$  (long channel)

- transconductance:  $g_m = dI_{ds}/dV_{gs}$

$$\rightarrow g_{msat} = \frac{\alpha}{2\alpha} \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{gs} - V_t)^{\alpha-1}$$

## 6.10 Parasitic Source-Drain Resistance

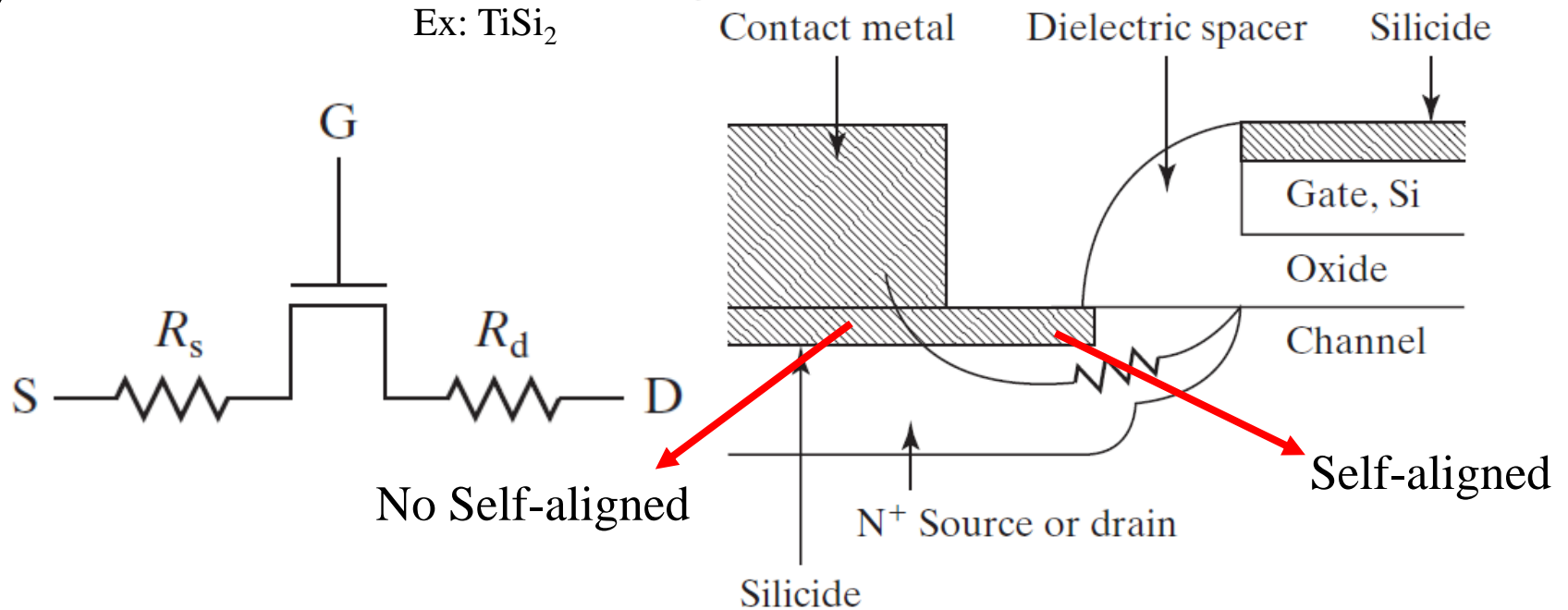


(if  $R_s$  large)

- If  $I_{dsat0} \propto V_{gs} - V_t$ , 
$$I_{dsat} = \frac{I_{dsat0}}{1 + \frac{I_{dsat0} R_s}{(V_{gs} - V_t)}} = \frac{V_{gs} - V_t}{R_s}$$
- $I_{dsat}$  can be reduced by about 15% in a  $0.1\mu\text{m}$  MOSFET. Effect is greater in shorter MOSFETs.
- $V_{dsat} = V_{dsat0} + I_{dsat} (R_s + R_d)$

# SALICIDE (Self-Aligned Silicide) Source/Drain

Ex:  $\text{TiSi}_2$

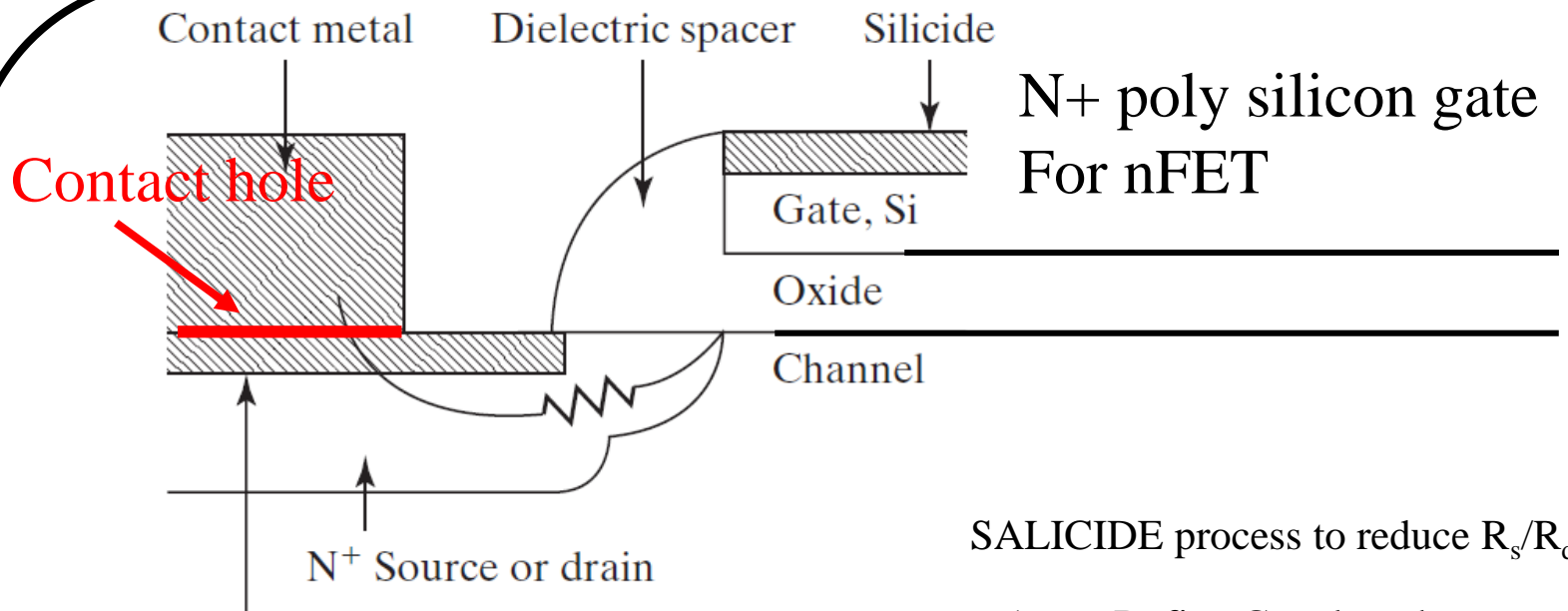


After the spacer is formed, a Ti or Mo film is deposited. Annealing causes the silicide to be formed over the source, drain, and gate. Unreacted metal (over the spacer) is removed by wet etching.

Question:

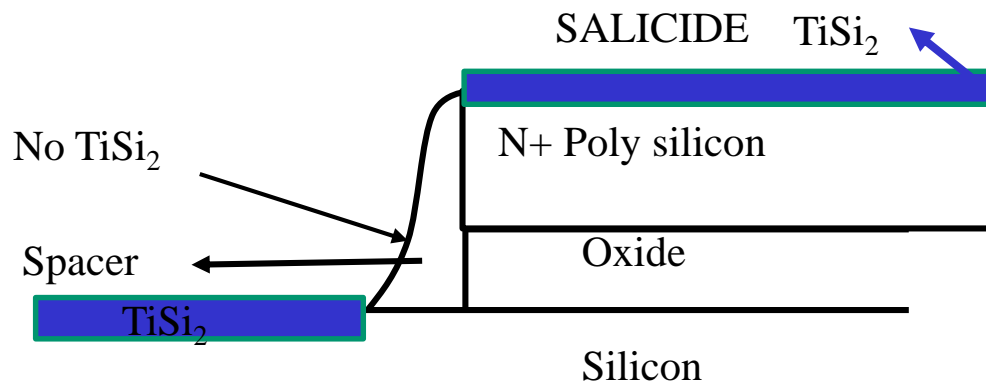
- What is the purpose of siliciding the source/drain/gate?
- What is self-aligned to what?





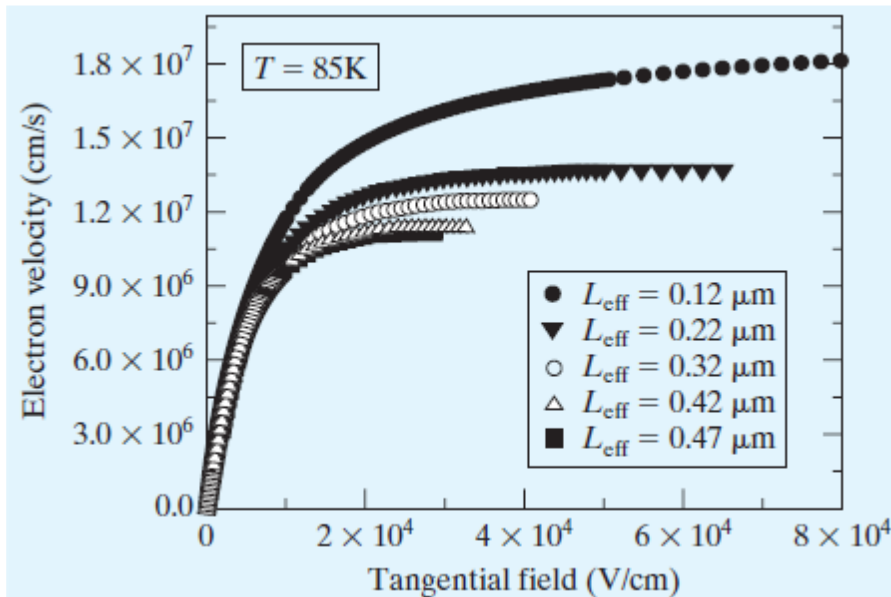
SALICIDE process to reduce  $R_s/R_d$

1. Define Gate length
2. Deposit SiO<sub>2</sub>
3. RIE SiO<sub>2</sub> (Spacer formation)
4. Deposit Ti
5. RTA to form TiSi<sub>2</sub>
6. Etching Ti



## 6.12 Velocity Overshoot

Has been replaced by injection velocity at source



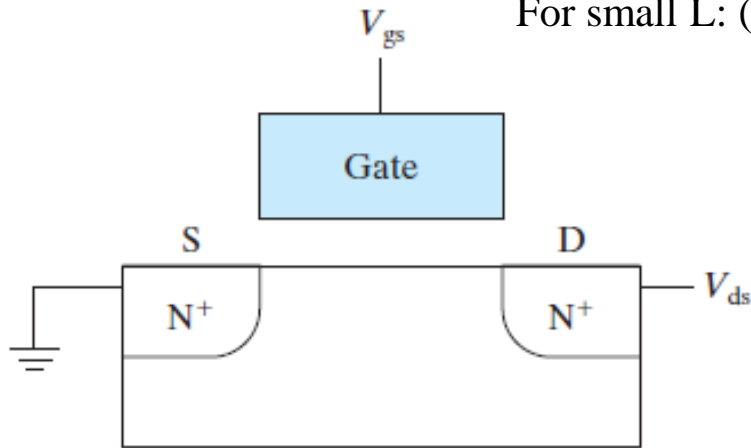
- Velocity saturation should not occur in very short MOSFETs.
- This velocity overshoot could lift the limit on  $I_{\text{ds}}$ . But...

# 6.12 Source Velocity Limit

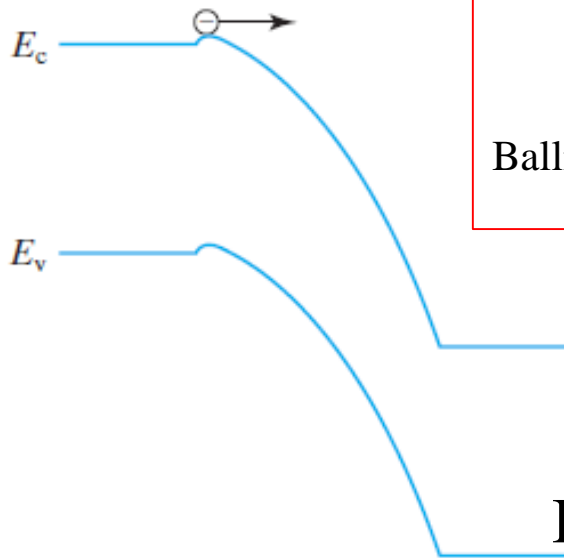
For small L: (e.g.: 10~20nm)

$$I_d = W v_{inj} C_{ox} (V_{gs} - V_t)$$

(injection velocity)



- Carrier velocity is limited by the thermal velocity with which they enter the channel from the source.



Ballistic factor

$$I_{dsat} = \overset{\text{cm}}{W} \overset{\text{cm/s}}{B} v_{thx} \overset{\text{C/cm}^2}{Q_{inv}} = WB v_{thx} C_{oxe} (V_{gs} - V_t)$$

- Similar to

$$I_{dsat} = W v_{sat} C_{oxe} (V_{gs} - V_t)$$

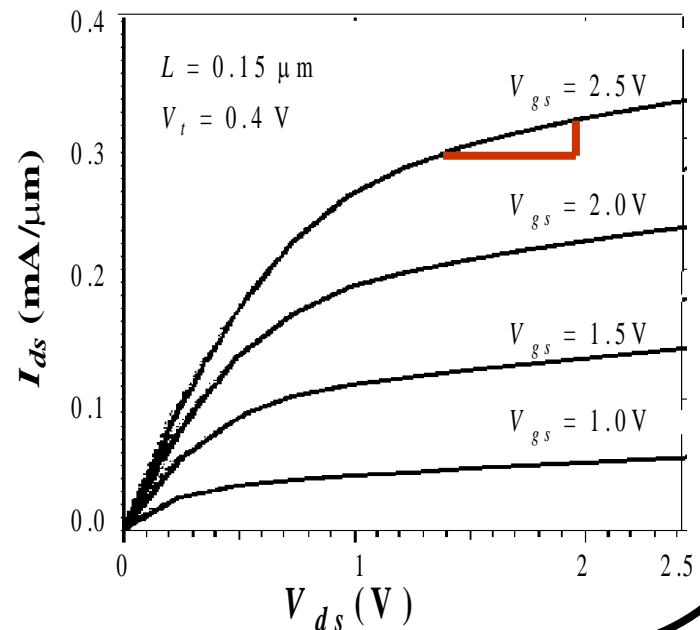
$$B * v_{thx} = \text{injection velocity at Source}$$

## 6.13 Output Conductance

- $I_{dsat}$  does NOT saturate in the saturation region, especially in short channel devices!
- The slope of the  $I_{ds}$ - $V_{ds}$  curve in the saturation region is called the output conductance ( $g_{ds}$ ),

$$g_{ds} \equiv \frac{dI_{dsat}}{dV_{ds}} = 1/r_0$$

- A smaller  $g_{ds}$  is desirable for a large voltage gain, which is beneficial to analog and digital circuit applications.



# Example of an Amplifier

- The transistor operates in the saturation region. A **small signal** input,  $v_{in}$ , is applied.

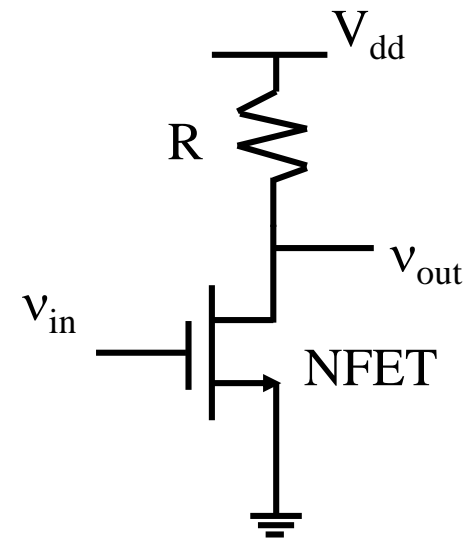
$$i_{ds} = g_{msat} \cdot v_{gs} + g_{ds} \cdot v_{ds}$$

$$= g_{msat} \cdot v_{in} + g_{ds} \cdot v_{out}$$

$$i_{ds} = -v_{out} / R.$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{out} = \frac{-g_{msat}}{(g_{ds} + 1/R)} \times v_{in}$$

- The voltage gain is  $g_{msat}/(g_{ds} + 1/R)$ .
- A smaller  $g_{ds}$  is desirable for large voltage gain.
- Maximum available gain (or intrinsic voltage gain) is  $g_{msat}/g_{ds}$   
 $r_0$  depends on channel length modulation

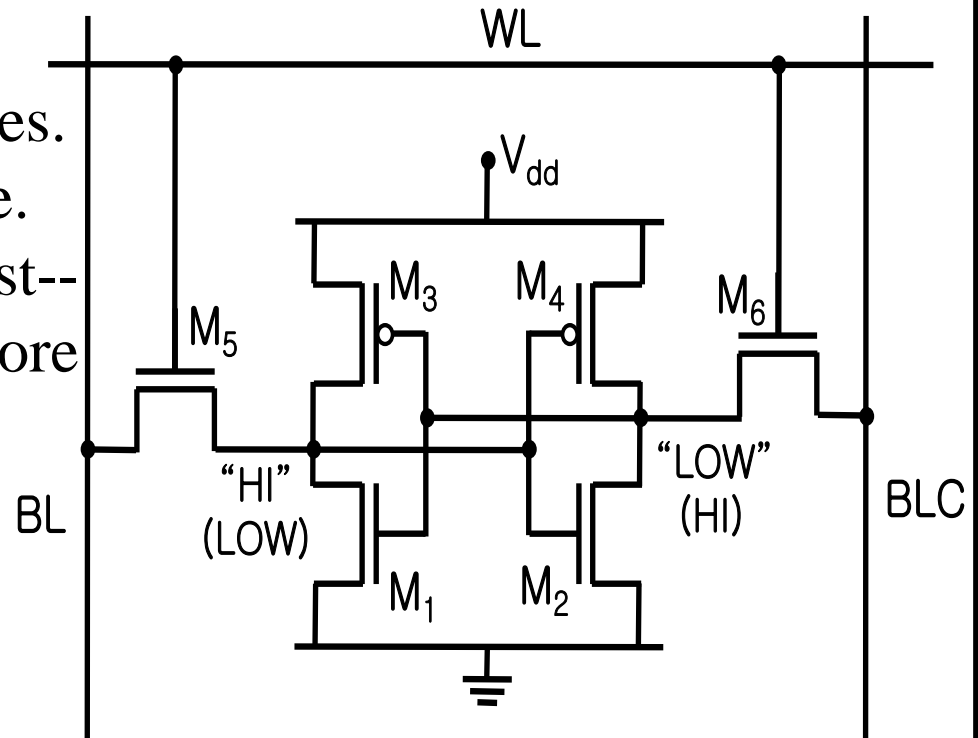
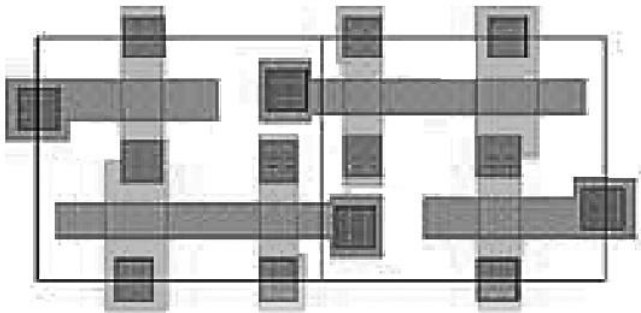


## 6.16 Memory Devices

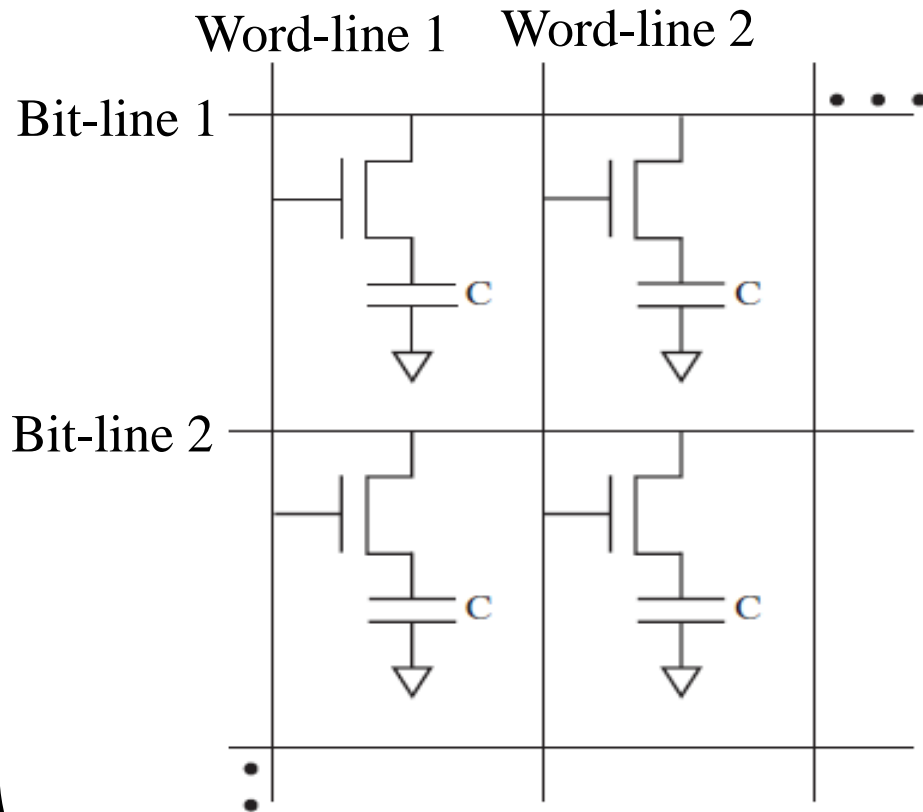
	<i>Keep data without power?</i>	<i>Cell size and cost/bit</i>	<i>Rewrite cycles</i>	<i>Write-one-byte speed</i>	<i>Compatible with basic CMOS fabrication</i>	<i>Main applications</i>
<i>SRAM</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Large</i>	<i>Unlimited</i>	<i>Fastest</i>	<i>Totally</i>	<i>Embedded in logic chips</i>
<i>DRAM</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Small</i>	<i>Unlimited</i>	<i>Fast</i>	<i>Needs modification</i>	<i>Stand-alone main memory</i>
<i>Flash memory (NVM)</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Smallest</i>	<i>Limited</i>	<i>Slow</i>	<i>Needs extensive modification</i>	<i>Nonvolatile data and code storage</i>

## 6.16.1 SRAM

- Fastest among all memories.
- Totally CMOS compatible.
- Cost per bit is the highest--uses 6 transistors to store one bit of data.



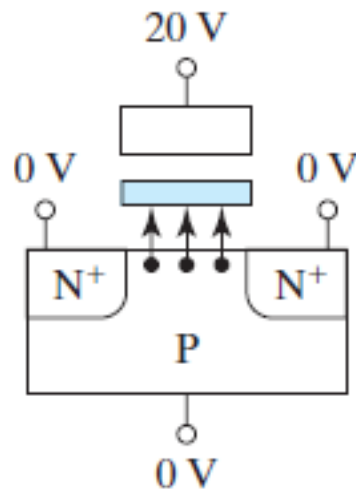
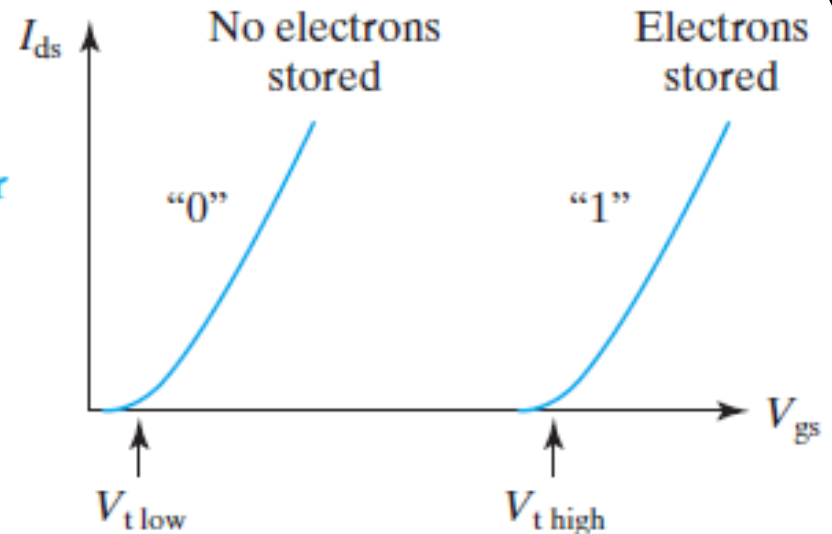
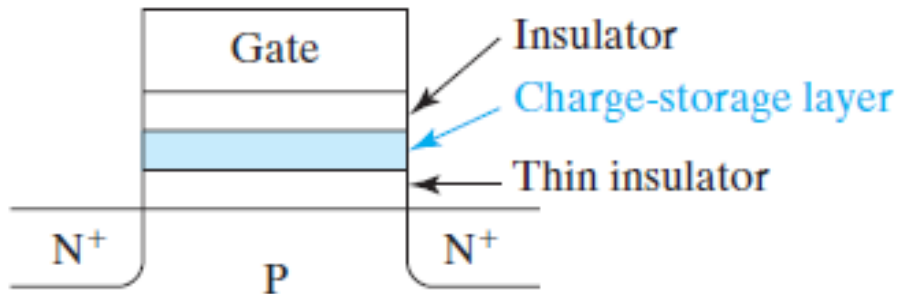
## 6.16.2 DRAM



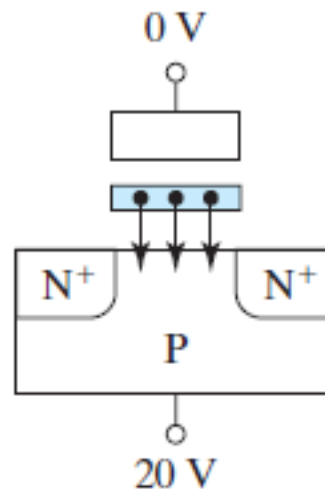
- DRAM capacitor can only hold the data (charge) for a limited time because of leakage current.
- Needs **refresh**.
- Needs  **$\sim 10\text{fF}$  C in a small and shrinking area** -- for refresh time and error rate.



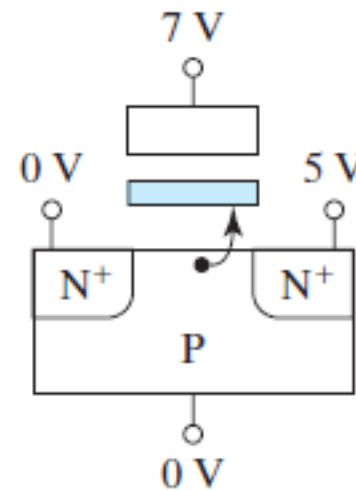
## 6.16.3 Nonvolatile (Flash) Memory



Tunneling write



Tunneling erase

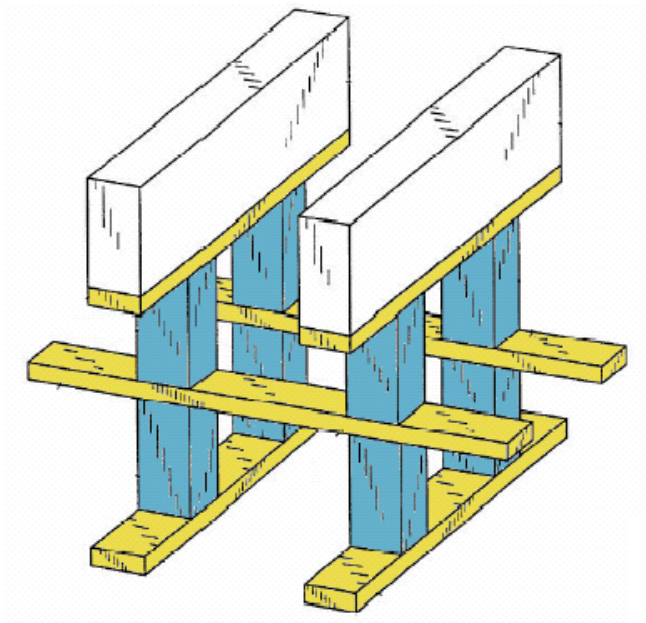


Hot-electron write

- Floating gate (poly-Si)
- Charge trap (SONOS)
- Nanocrystal

# 3D (Multi-layer) Memory

- Epitaxy from seed windows can produce Si layers.
- Ideally memory element is simple and does not need single-crystalline material.



Blue = Device

Yellow = Conductor



# 1.1 Silicon Crystal Structure

- Q1: How many atoms in FCC?

- A1:  $8 * \frac{1}{8} + 6 * \frac{1}{2} = 4$

- Q2: How many atoms in diamond structure?

- A2:  $2 * \text{FCC} = 8$

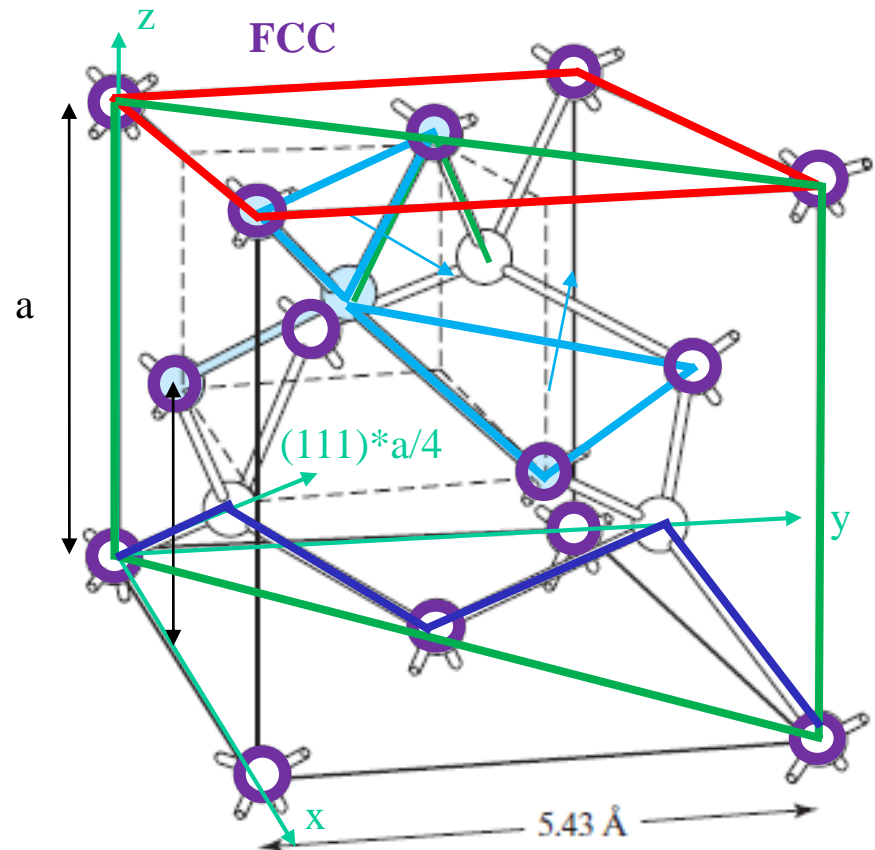
- Q3: Find out **Zigzag**

- A3: on the {110}

- Q4: What are the sidewall of nanosheet?

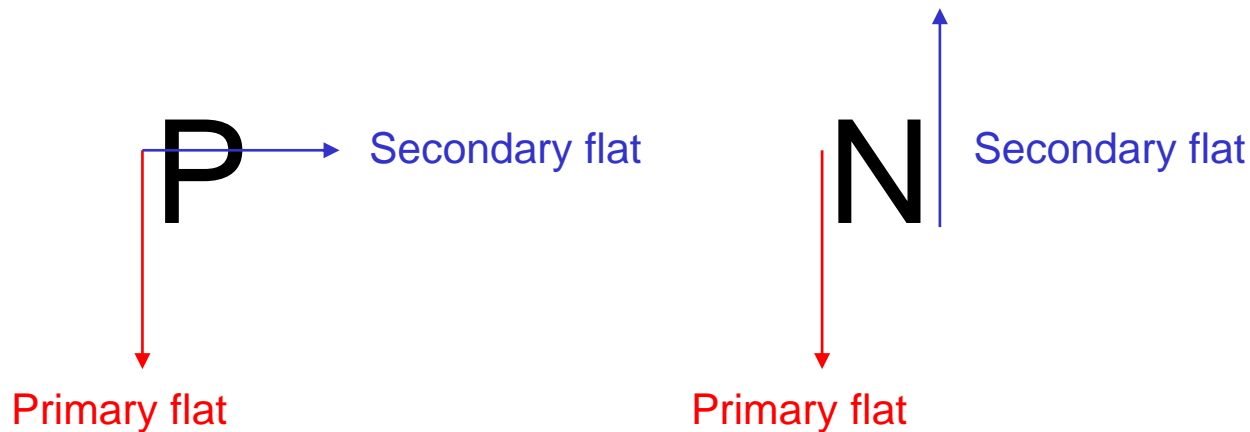
- A4: {110}

- Q5 What's the thickness of monolayer



# *1.1 Silicon Crystal Structure*

Q: How to memorize the type of Si (100) wafer by flat?



Q: How about 12 inch wafer (no flat to save area)?

How to distinguish between n and p wafer?

A: Using thermal electric experiment.

## ***EXAMPLE: Temperature Dependence of Resistance***

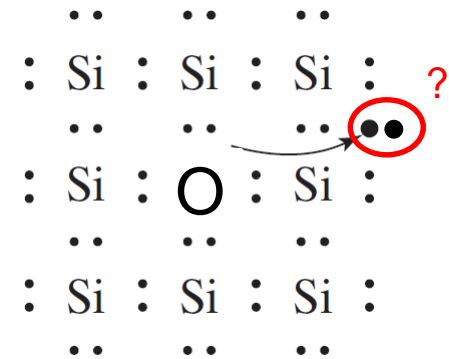
*By what factor will  $R$  increase or decrease from  $T=300\text{ K}$  to  $T=400\text{ K}$ ?*

***Solution:*** The temperature dependent factor in  $\sigma$  (and therefore  $\rho$ ) is  $\mu_n$ . From the mobility v.s. temperature curve for  $10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-3}$ , we find that  $\mu_n$  decreases from 770 at 300K to 400 at 400K. As a result,  $R$  ***increases*** by

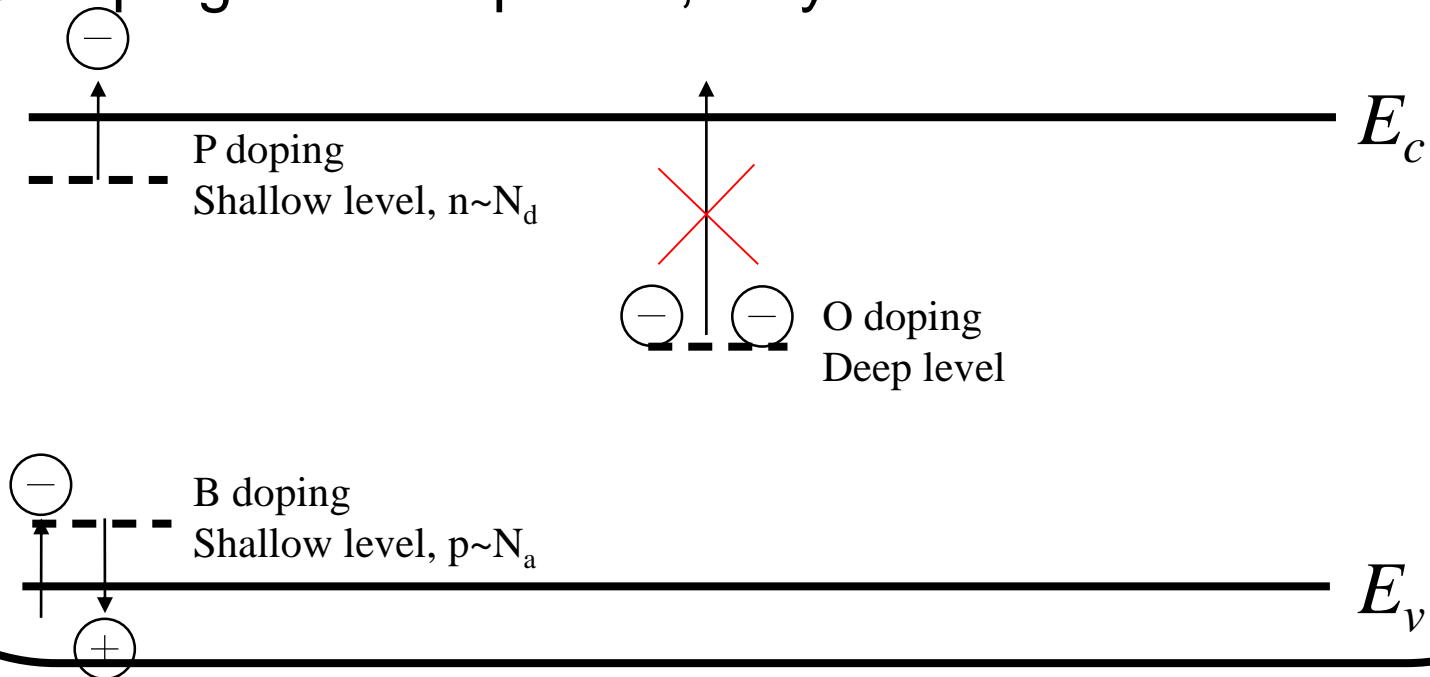
$$\frac{770}{400} = 1.93$$

# 1.3 Energy Band Model

Q: Why not use O as donor?  
There can be 2 free electrons.

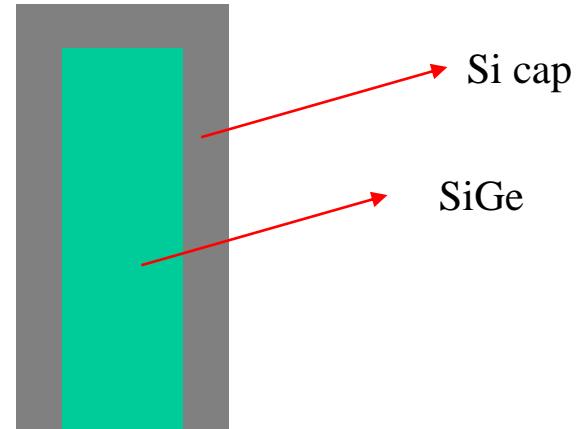


A: O doping is at deep level, only few free electrons at 300K



## *1.5 Electrons and Holes*

**Why not Ge? Ge has low effective mass for both electron and hole**  
GeO<sub>2</sub> is not good enough  
SiO<sub>2</sub> is the best

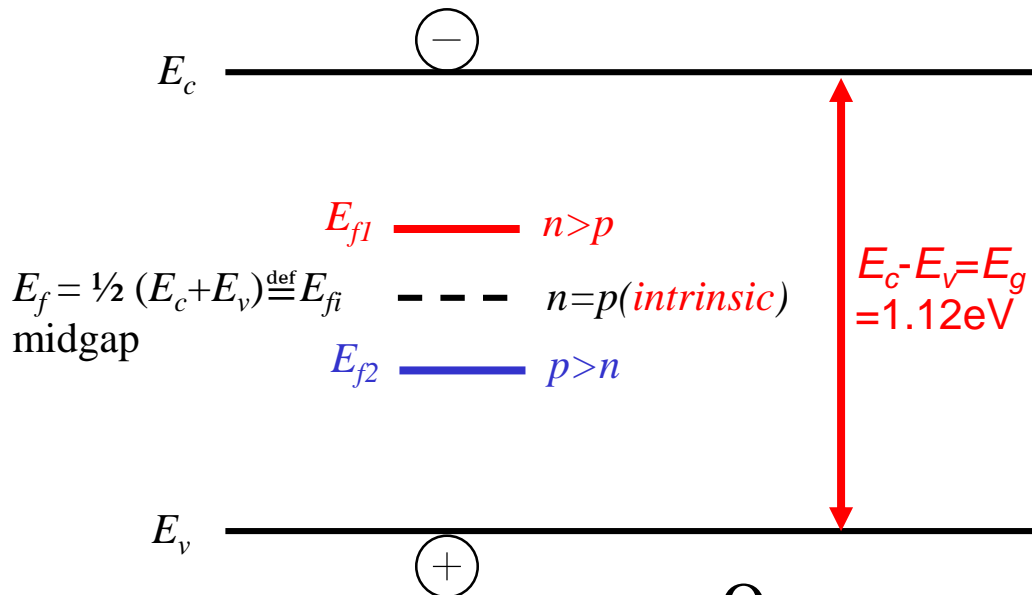


Solution: Si cap on Ge → Good compatibility with SiO<sub>2</sub>

SiGe is in production for pFET in 5nm node, but the insulator is still SiO<sub>2</sub>

# 1.8 The Fermi Level and Carrier Concentrations

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_f)/kT} \quad p = N_v e^{-(E_f - E_v)/kT}$$



- At  $E_i$ ,  $n = p = n_i = 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
 $\rightarrow n = n_i e^{(E_f - E_i)/kT}$
- At  $T=300\text{K}$ ,  $e^{60/26} \sim 10$   
 $\rightarrow 60 \text{ meV/decade}$

$N_c > N_v$ :  $E_f$  will be below  $E_i$   
 $E_f$  near  $E_v$   $p \uparrow$   
 $E_f$  near  $E_c$   $n \uparrow$

Q:  $n = p = n_i$

Assume  $N_c = N_v$ ,  $E_f = ?$

A:  $n = p = n_i$

Q: If  $N_c$  not equal  $N_v$ , where is  $E_f$ ?  
 (relative to  $E_i$ )



# 1.8 The Fermi Level and Carrier Concentrations

Where is  $E_f$  for  $n = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ? And for  $p = 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ? let  $n_i = 10^{10}$

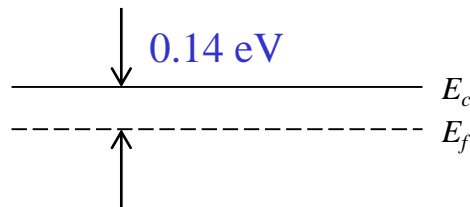
Hint : 1 decade = 60 meV

**Solution:** (a)  $n/n_i = 10^7 \rightarrow 7 \text{ decade} \rightarrow \Delta E = 7 \cdot 60 \text{ meV}$

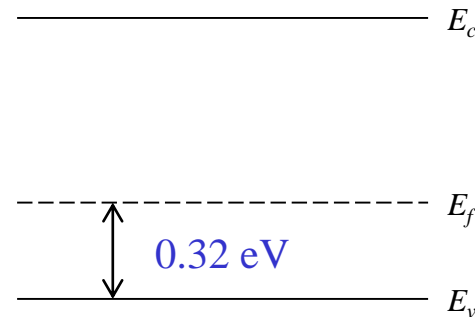
$$E_f - E_i = 0.42 \text{ eV} \rightarrow E_c - E_f = 0.56 - 0.42 = 0.14 \text{ eV}$$

(b)  $p/n_i = 10^4 \rightarrow 4 \text{ decade} \rightarrow \Delta E = 4 \cdot 60 \text{ meV}$

$$E_i - E_f = 0.24 \text{ eV} \rightarrow E_f - E_v = 0.56 - 0.24 = 0.32 \text{ eV}$$



(a)



(b)

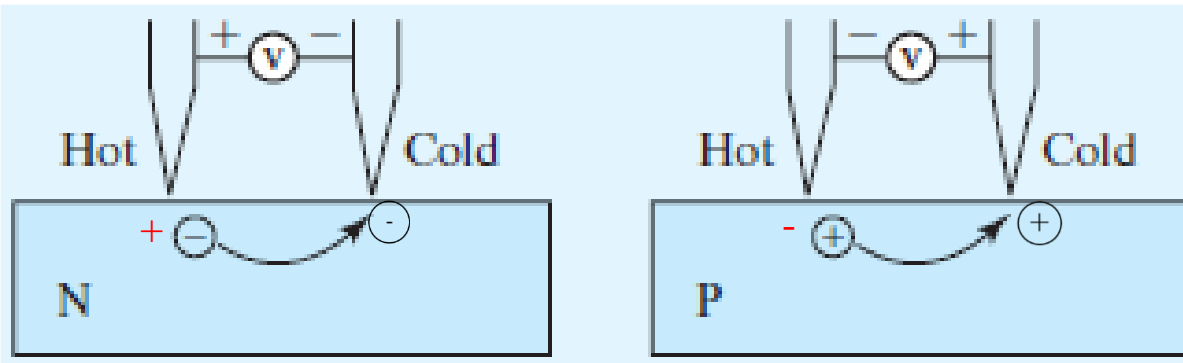
## 1.8 The Fermi Level and Carrier Concentrations

**Q: for Si,  $n_i = 1.4 \times 10^{10}$ , for Ge,  $n_i = ?$   
Bandgap: Si = 1.12eV, Ge = 0.66eV**

$$n_i^2 \propto T^3 e^{-E_g/kT}$$

**A:  $n_i^2(\text{Ge}) = 1\text{E}28$ ,  $n_i(\text{Ge}) = 1\text{E}14$**

## *Hot-point Probe can determine sample doing type*



*Hot-point Probe distinguishes N and P type semiconductors.*

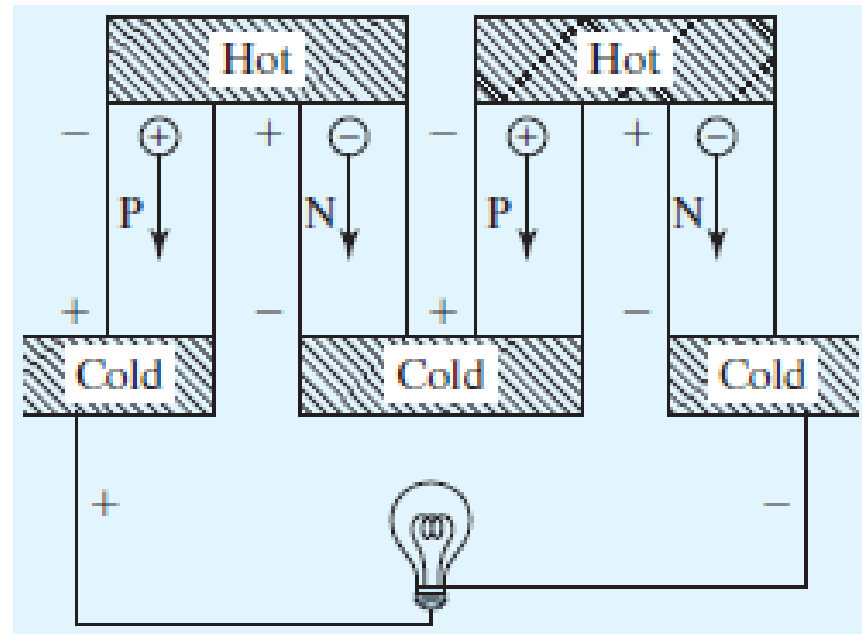
Hole is different from positron

Thermoelectric cooler:

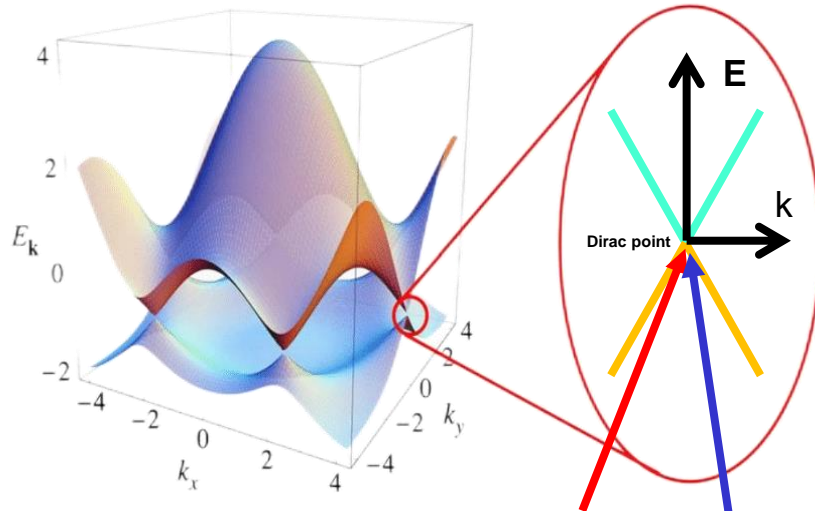
carriers go from A to B with energy

*Thermoelectric Generator  
(from heat to electricity )  
and Cooler (from  
electricity to refrigeration)*

*Thermoelectric Cooler*



# The effective mass in graphene



- Slope discontinuity at dirac point  
→ Can not apply Taylor expansion
- $E_g = 0 \rightarrow$  Large  $I_{\text{off}}$
- $E_g$  can not be widen by quantum confinement because of 2D property

2D, Graphene:  $p = mv$

- Cannot use E's second differential to calculate  $m^*$

Dirac point:

- Linear relation between E and k  $\rightarrow m^* = 0$
- GeSn has Dirac point if [Sn] is large enough

$$p = \hbar k = m^* v_g \quad (1)$$

$$v_g = \frac{1}{\hbar} \frac{dE(k)}{dk} \quad (2)$$

Substituting (1) into (2) gives the definition (3)

$$m^* = \hbar^2 k \left( \frac{dE(k)}{dk} \right)^{-1} \quad (3)$$

We write the linear dispersion (like a photon) for graphene as  $E(k) = \hbar c_g k$ , where  $c_g$  is the speed of the electrons in graphene.

$$E(k) = \hbar c_g k \quad (4)$$

Substituting (4) into (3) gives the definition (5)

$$m^* = \hbar \frac{1}{c_g} k \quad (5)$$

For  $k = 0$ ,  $m^* = 0$

## 2.2 Drift velocity

### *Drift Velocity, Mean Free Time, Mean Free Path*

**EXAMPLE:** Given  $\mu_p = 470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ , what is the hole drift velocity at  $E = 10^3 \text{ V/cm}$ ? What is  $\tau_{mp}$  and what is the distance traveled between collisions (called the **mean free path**)? Hint: When in doubt, use the MKS system of units.

**Solution:**  $v = \mu_p E = 470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s} \times 10^3 \text{ V/cm} = 4.7 \times 10^5 \text{ cm/s}$

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{mp} &= \mu_p m_p / e = 470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s} \times 0.39 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg} / 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C} \\ &= 0.047 \text{ m}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s} \times 2.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ kg/C} = 1 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s} = 0.1 \text{ ps}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{mean free path} = \tau_{mh} v_{th} \sim 1 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s} \times 2.2 \times 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$$

$$= 2.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm} = 220 \text{ \AA} = 22 \text{ nm}$$

If  $v_{\text{drift}} = v_{\text{th}}$ , the mean free path is equal

$$\text{mean free path} = \tau_{mh} v_d \sim 1 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s} \times 4.7 \times 10^5 \text{ cm/s}$$

$$= 4.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm} = 4.7 \text{ \AA} = 0.47 \text{ nm}$$

*This is smaller than the typical dimensions of devices, but getting close.*

## 2.2 Drift velocity

### **EXAMPLE: Temperature Dependence of Resistance**

(a) What is the resistivity ( $\rho$ ) of silicon doped with  $10^{17}\text{cm}^{-3}$  of arsenic?

(b) What is the resistance ( $R$ ) of a piece of this silicon material  $1\mu\text{m}$  long and  $0.1\mu\text{m}^2$  in cross-sectional area?

#### **Solution:**

(a) Using the N-type curve in the previous figure, we find that  $\rho = 0.084\ \Omega\text{-cm}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}(b) R &= \rho L/A = 0.084\ \Omega\text{-cm} \times 1\ \mu\text{m} / 0.1\ \mu\text{m}^2 \\ &= 0.084\ \Omega\text{-cm} \times 10^{-4}\ \text{cm} / 10^{-9}\ \text{cm}^2 \\ &= 8.4 \times 10^3\ \Omega\end{aligned}$$

## ***2.3 Diffusion Current***

### ***EXAMPLE: Diffusion Constant***

*What is the hole diffusion constant in a piece of silicon with  $\mu_p = 410 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$  ?*

***Solution:***

$$D_p = \frac{kT}{e} \mu_p = 26 \text{ mV} \cdot 410 \text{ cm}^2 / \text{V} \cdot \text{s} = 11 \text{ cm}^2 / \text{s}$$

***Remember:  $kT/e = 26 \text{ mV}$  at room temperature (300K).***

## ***2.6 Electron-Hole Recombination***

### ***EXAMPLE: Photoconductors***

*A bar of Si is doped with boron at  $10^{15}\text{cm}^{-3}$ . It is exposed to light such that electron-hole pairs are generated throughout the volume of the bar at the rate of  $10^{20}/\text{s}\cdot\text{cm}^3$ . The recombination lifetime is  $10\mu\text{s}$ .*

*What are (a)  $p_0$ , (b)  $n_0$ , (c)  $p'$ , (d)  $n'$ , (e)  $p$ , (f)  $n$ , and (g) the  $np$  product?*



## ***2.6 Electron-Hole Recombination***

### ***EXAMPLE: Photoconductors***

***Solution:***

*(a) What is  $p_0$ ?*

$$p_0 = N_a = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

*(b) What is  $n_0$ ?*

$$n_0 = n_i^2/p_0 = 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

*(c) What is  $p'$ ?*

*In steady-state, the rate of generation is equal to the rate of recombination.*

$$10^{20}/\text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^3 = p' / \tau$$

$$\therefore p' = 10^{20}/\text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^3 \cdot 10^{-5}\text{s} = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

## ***2.6 Electron-Hole Recombination***

### ***EXAMPLE: Photoconductors***

*(d) What is  $n'$ ?*

$$n' = p' = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

*(e) What is  $p$ ?*

$$p = p_0 + p' = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} + 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} = 2 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

*(f) What is  $n$ ?*

$$n = n_0 + n' = 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3} + 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \sim 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ since } n_0 \ll n'$$

*(g) What is  $np$ ?*

$$np \sim 2 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \cdot 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} = 2 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-6} \gg n_i^2 = 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-6}.$$

*The  $np$  product can be very different from  $n_i^2$ .*

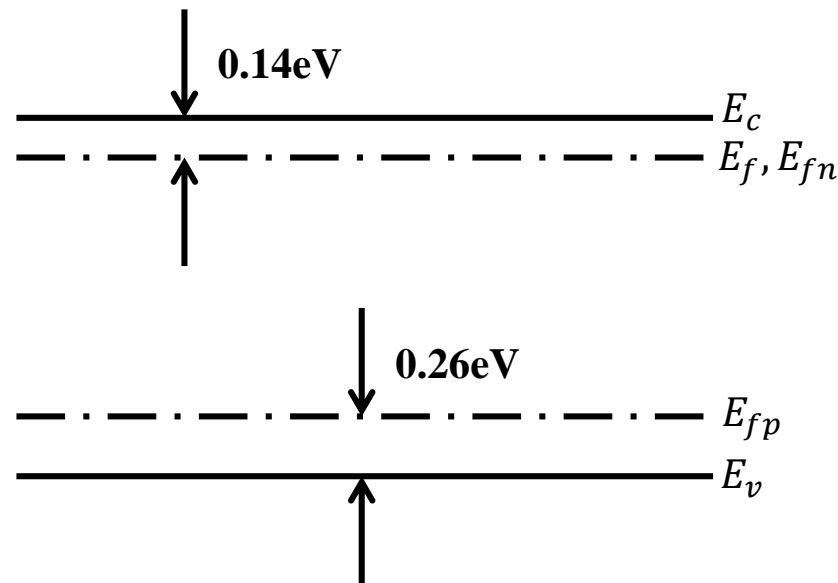
## 2.8 Quasi-equilibrium and Quasi-Fermi Levels

### *EXAMPLE: Quasi-Fermi Levels*

$$N_d = 10^{17}, n' = p' = 10^{15}$$

$$10^{15}/10^{10} = 10^5 \rightarrow 5 * 60 = 300 \text{ meV}$$

$$\therefore E_{fp} - E_v = 0.56 - 0.3 = 0.26 \text{ eV}$$



recombination

## 2.8 Quasi-equilibrium and Quasi-Fermi Levels

### **EXAMPLE: Quasi-Fermi Levels and Low-Level Injection**

Consider a Si sample with  $N_d = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .

Find out  $E_{fn}$  and  $E_{fp}$  if  $n' = p' = 10^{18}$  (high injection)

(a) Find  $E_f$ .

$$10^{17}/10^{10} = 10^7 \rightarrow 7 * 60 = 420 \text{ meV}$$

$$\therefore E_c - E_f = 0.56 - 0.42 = 0.14 \text{ eV}$$

*Note:  $n'$  and  $p'$  are much less than the majority carrier concentration. This condition is called **low-level injection**. ( $n', p' < n_0, p_0$ )*

## 2.8 Quasi-equilibrium and Quasi-Fermi Levels

### **EXAMPLE: Quasi-Fermi Levels and Low-Level Injection**

Now assume  $n' = p' = 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3}$ .

(b) Find  $E_{fn}$  and  $E_{fp}$ .

$$n = 1.01 * 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3} = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_{fn})/kT}$$

$$1.01 * 10^{17} / 10^{10} \approx 10^7 \rightarrow 7 * 60 = 420 \text{meV}$$

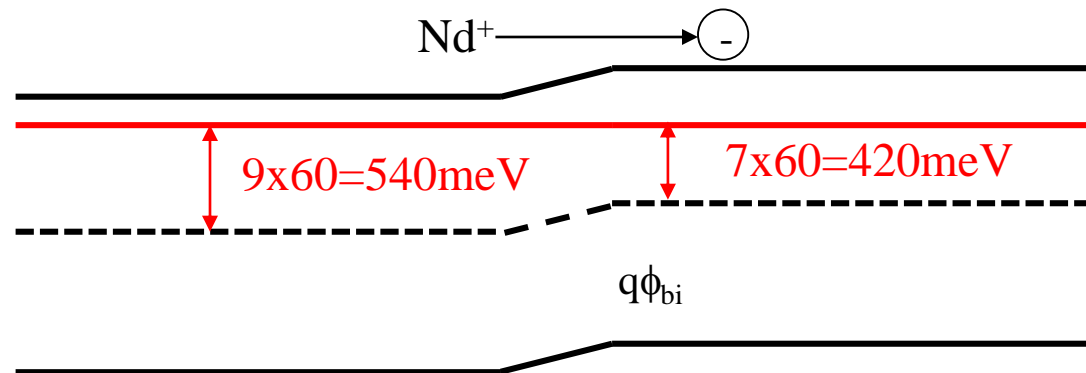
$$\therefore E_c - E_{fn} = 0.56 - 0.42 = 0.14 \text{eV}$$

$E_{fn}$  is nearly identical to  $E_f$  because  $n \approx n_0$ .

## 4.1 Building Blocks of the PN Junction Theory

### Junctionless transistor

$n^+ = 1\text{E}19$ ,  $n = 1\text{E}17$ ,  $q\phi_{bi} = ?$  Plot the band diagram



## 4.2 Depletion-Region Model

EXAMPLE: A P<sup>+</sup>N junction has  $N_a=10^{20}\text{cm}^{-3}$  and  $N_d=10^{17}\text{cm}^{-3}$ . What is its (a) built in potential, (b)  $W_{\text{dep}}$ , (c)  $x_N$ , and (d)  $x_P$  ?  $n=10^{17}, p=10^{20}$

Solution:  $\left( \log_{10} \frac{10^{17}}{10^{10}} + \log_{10} \frac{10^{20}}{10^{10}} \right) \cdot 60\text{mV} = 1020\text{mV}$

$$(a) \phi_{bi} = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_d N_a}{n_i^2} = 0.026\text{V} * \ln \frac{10^{20} * 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-6}}{10^{20} \text{cm}^{-6}} \approx 1\text{V}$$

$$\phi_{bi} = \frac{e N_a^- W_p^2}{2 \epsilon_s}$$

$$(b) W_{\text{dep}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \epsilon_s \phi_{bi}}{e N_d}} = \left( \frac{2 * 12 * 8.85 * 10^{-14} * 1}{1.6 * 10^{-19} * 10^{17}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.12 \mu\text{m} \text{ (cgs)}$$

$$(c) |x_N| \approx W_{\text{dep}} = 0.12 \mu\text{m}$$

$$1\text{E}15: W_{\text{dep}}: 1\mu\text{m}$$

$$1\text{E}17: W_{\text{dep}}: 0.1\mu\text{m} = 100\text{nm}$$

$$1\text{E}19: W_{\text{dep}}: 10\text{nm}$$

$$1\text{E}21: W_{\text{dep}}: 1\text{nm}$$

$$(d) |x_P| = |x_N| \frac{N_d}{N_a} = 1.2 * 10^{-4} \mu\text{m} \approx 0.1\text{nm}$$

By charge neutrality

## 4.3 Reverse-Biased PN Junction

EXAMPLE: If the slope of the line in the previous slide is  $2 \times 10^{23} \text{ F}^{-2} \text{ V}^{-1}$ , the intercept is  $0.84 \text{ V}$ , and  $A$  is  $1 \mu\text{m}^2$ , find the lighter and heavier doping concentrations  $N_l$  and  $N_h$ .

Solution:  $\text{slope} = \frac{2}{eN_B\epsilon_s A^2} \quad \frac{1}{N_B} = \frac{1}{N_a} + \frac{1}{N_d} \approx \frac{1}{\text{lighter dopant density}}$

$$\begin{aligned} N_B \sim N_L &= \frac{2}{\text{slope} \times e\epsilon_s A^2} \\ &= \frac{2}{2 \times 10^{23} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 12 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \times 10^{-8}} \\ &= 6 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \end{aligned}$$

60mV error  $\rightarrow N_h$  10X error

$$\phi_{bi} = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_h N_l}{n_i^2} \rightarrow N_h = \frac{n_i^2}{N_l} e^{\frac{e\phi_{bi}}{kT}} = \frac{10^{20}}{6 \times 10^{15}} e^{\frac{0.84}{0.026}} = 1.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

- Is this an accurate way to determine  $N_l$ ?  $N_h$ ?

Slope  $\rightarrow$  lightly dope

$\phi_{\text{lightly dope}} + \phi_{\text{heavily dope}} \rightarrow \phi_{bi}$



## 4.6 Forward Bias – Carrier Injection (dark)

### EXAMPLE: Carrier Injection

A PN junction has  $N_a=10^{19}\text{cm}^{-3}$  and  $N_d=10^{16}\text{cm}^{-3}$ . The applied voltage is 0.6V.

Question: What are the minority carrier concentrations at the depletion-region edges?

$$\text{Solution: } n(x_P) = n_{P0} e^{eV/kT} = \frac{10^{20}}{10^{19}} e^{0.6/0.026} = 10^{11} \text{cm}^{-3}$$

$$p(x_N) = p_{N0} e^{eV/kT} = \frac{10^{20}}{10^{16}} e^{0.6/0.026} = 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-3}$$

Question: What are the excess minority carrier concentrations?

$$\text{Solution: } n'(x_P) = n(x_P) - n_{P0} = 10^{11} - 10 = 10^{11} \text{cm}^{-3}$$

$$p'(x_N) = p(x_N) - p_{N0} = 10^{14} - 10^4 = 10^{14} \text{cm}^{-3}$$

## 4.8 Excess Carrier Distributions

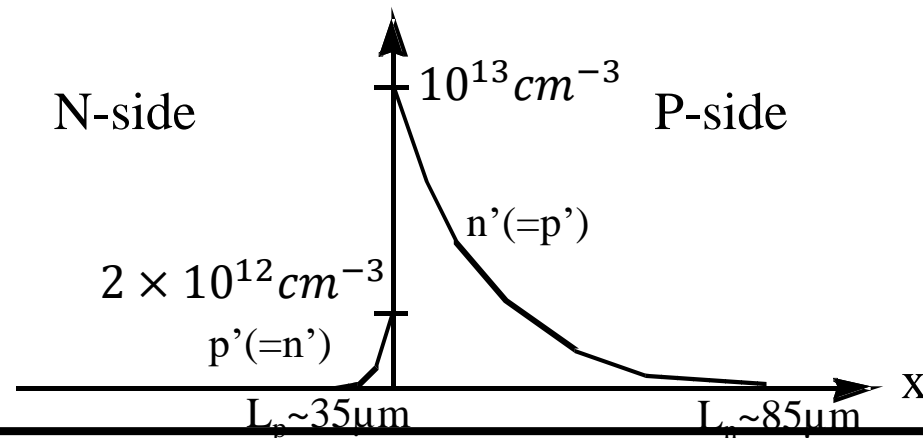
EXAMPLE: Carrier Distribution in Forward-biased PN Diode

<p>N-type</p> $N_d = 5 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ $D_p = 12 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ $\tau_p = 1 \text{ } \mu\text{s}$	<p>P-type</p> $N_a = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ $D_n = 36.4 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ $\tau_n = 2 \text{ } \mu\text{s}$
---	--

- Sketch  $n'(x)$  on the P-side.

Forward bias: 0.6V

$$n'(x_p) = n_{p0} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) = \frac{n_i^2}{N_a} (e^{eV/kT} - 1) = \frac{10^{20}}{10^{17}} (e^{0.6/0.026} - 1) = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$



## 4.8 Excess Carrier Distributions

EXAMPLE: Carrier Distribution in Forward-biased PN Diode

- How does  $L_n$  compare with a typical device size?

$$L_n = \sqrt{D_n \tau_n} = \sqrt{36 \times 2 \times 10^{-6}} = 85 \mu m$$

In VLSI, the device is in nm-size

- What is  $p'(x)$  on the P-side?

Same as  $n'(x)$

# Junction tunneling rate

occur (see Fig. 4-12b). The tunneling current density has an exponential dependence on  $1/\mathcal{E}$  [1]:

$$J = Ge^{-H/\mathcal{E}_p} \quad (4.5.3)$$

where  $G$  and  $H$  are constants for a given semiconductor. The  $IV$  characteristics are shown in Fig. 4-12c. This is known as **tunneling breakdown**. The critical electric field for tunneling breakdown is proportional to  $H$ , which is proportion to the  $3/2$  power of  $E_g$  and  $1/2$  power of the effective mass of the tunneling carrier. The critical field is about  $10^6$  V/cm for Si.  $V_B$  is given in Eq. (4.5.2). Tunneling is the dominant breakdown mechanism when  $N$  is very high and  $V_B$  is quite low (below a few volts). Avalanche breakdown, presented in the next section, is the mechanism of diode breakdown at higher  $V_B$ .

## *5.1 Flat-band Condition and Flat-band Voltage*

Q: Gate is  $n^+$  poly silicon, body is p-Si ( $N_a=1E18$ )

What is  $V_{fb}$ ? draw the band diagram

A:  $E_g/2 + E_i - E_f = 0.56 + 0.48 = 1.04V$ , negative

→  $V_{FB} = -1.04V$

Q: derive  $\phi_s$  as a function of  $V_{GS}$

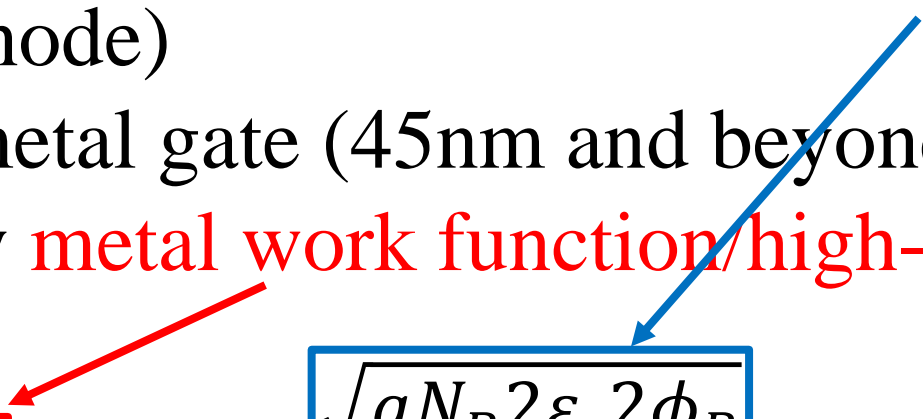
1. Depletion (including weak inversion)
2. Strong inversion
3. Accumulation

Q : For nFET(p-body) , find  $V_t$

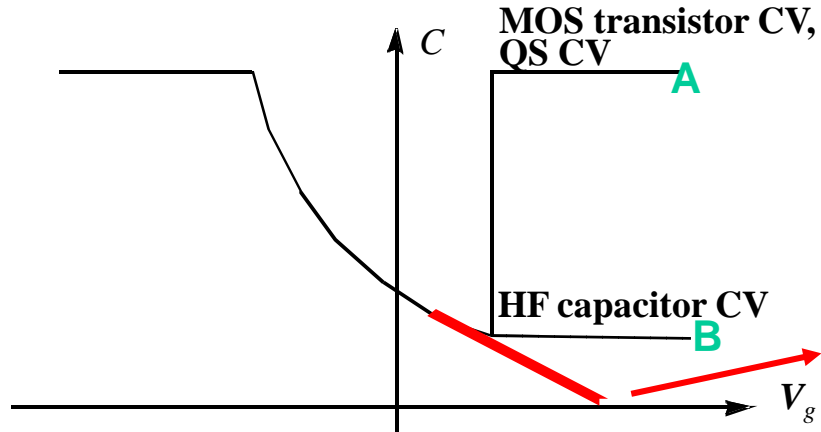
(a) if  $\psi_M = E_c$  (b) if  $\psi_M = E_v$

$t_{ox} = 1\text{nm}$  ,  $N_a = 1\text{E}18$

- PolySi:  $V_t$  tuning by **body doping** and  $t_{ox}$  (>45nm node)
- High-k metal gate (45nm and beyond) :  $V_t$  tuning by **metal work function/high-k dipole**

$$V_t = \boxed{V_{fb}} \pm 2\phi_B \pm \frac{\sqrt{qN_B 2\epsilon_s 2\phi_B}}{C_{ox}}$$


## EXAMPLE : CV of MOS Capacitor and Transistor



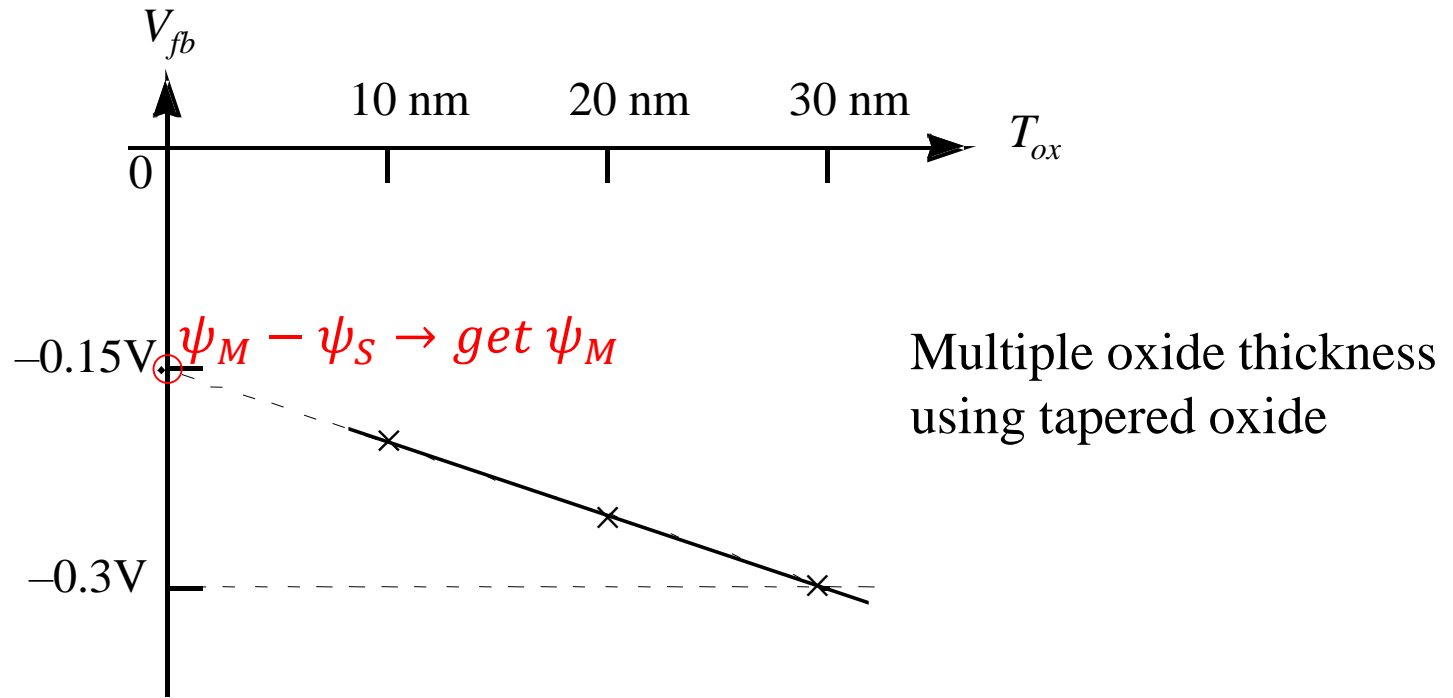
*Does the QS CV or the HF capacitor CV apply?*

**Deep depletion ( $W_d > W_{dm}$ )**  
**CCD camera**

- (1) MOS transistor, 1kHz. (Answer: A ).
- (2) MOS transistor, 2MHz. (Answer: A ).
- (3) MOS capacitor, 2MHz. (Answer: B ).
- (4) MOS capacitor, 1kHz. (Answer: A ).
- (5) MOS capacitor, slow  $V_g$  ramp. (Answer: A ).
- (6) MOS transistor, slow  $V_g$  ramp. (Answer: A ).
- (7) MOS capacitor, fast  $V_g$  ramp. (Answer: deep depletion)



**EXAMPLE:** To determine  $\psi_M$ .



What does it tell us? Body work function? Doping type? Other?

**Solution:**  $V_{fb} = \psi_M - \psi_S - Q_{ox}T_{ox}/\epsilon_{ox}$

$\swarrow$  by CV
 $\swarrow$  by doping
 $\swarrow$  by CV

# Equivalent Oxide Thickness (EOT):

$$I_d = \frac{1}{2} \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (VG - Vt)^\alpha$$

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \text{e-14 F/cm}$$

$C_{OX}$ : area capacitance (fF/ $\mu\text{m}^2$ ), (F/ $\text{cm}^2$ )

Ex1: oxide is  $\text{SiO}_2$ , 1nm,  $C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}}$ ,  $\epsilon_{ox} = 3.9\epsilon_0$   
 $C_{OX} \sim 34.5 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$

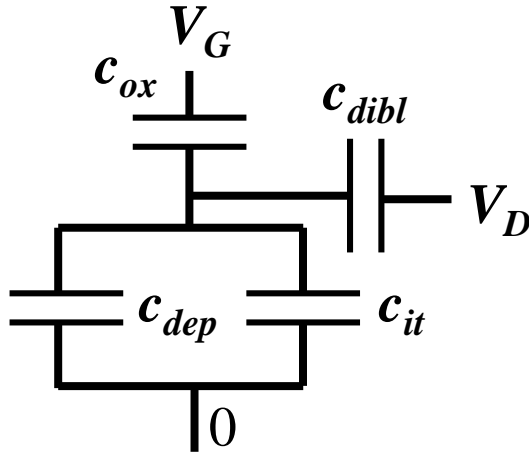
Ex:2 oxide is High K, 1nm  $C_{OX} = \frac{\epsilon_{HK}}{t_{HK}} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{EOT}$   
 $\epsilon_{HK} \geq 20\epsilon_0, EOT \geq t_{HK}/5$

Ex:3 for Silicon EOT,  $C_{OX} = \frac{\epsilon_{si}}{t_{si}} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{EOT}$   
 $\epsilon_{Si} = 11.9\epsilon_0 \sim 3\epsilon_{ox}$ ,  $EOT \sim t_{si}/3$

Ex:4  $t_{ox}=1\text{nm}$  (minimum value of oxide thickness),  $I_G=?$  (Yuan Taur)

Ex:5  $EOT=0.7\text{nm}$ ,  $\epsilon_{HK} = 20\epsilon_0$ ,  $\rightarrow t_{HK} = 3.5\text{nm}$

## How to Suppress the Short-Channel-Effects(SCE)?



1.  $C_{dibl} \propto \exp(-\frac{L_{ch}}{l})$ , characteristic length  $l \equiv \sqrt{\epsilon_s T_{ox} W_{dmax} / \epsilon_{ox}}$ ,  $\epsilon_s = 13.9$  for  $\text{In}_{0.53}\text{Ga}_{0.47}\text{As}$

$$2. \quad |\Delta V_{th}| = \frac{C_{dibl}}{C_{ox}} \times V_{DS} \propto (V_{DS} + c) \times \exp(-\frac{L_{ch}}{l})$$

$$3. SS = 60 \times \left(1 + \frac{C_{dep} + C_{dibl} + C_{it}}{C_{ox}}\right)$$

**A. Vertical Scaling :  $l \propto T_{ox}^{\frac{1}{3}} W_{dmax}^{\frac{1}{3}} X_j^{\frac{2}{3}}$  by TCAD**

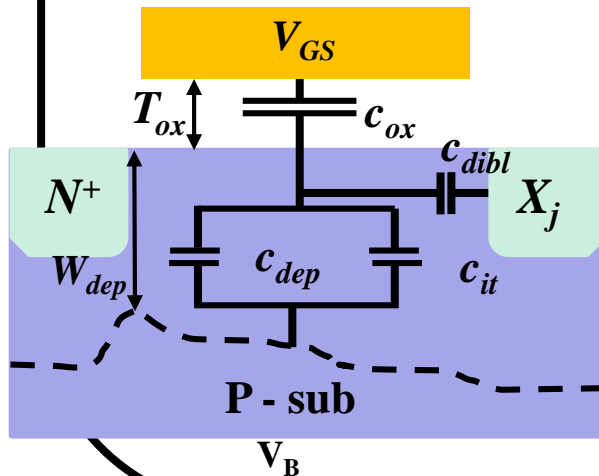
1.  $T_{ox} \downarrow$ , improve the gate controllability
2.  $X_j \downarrow$ , reduce the electric force from the drain side
3.  $W_{dmax} \downarrow (N_A \uparrow, V_B \downarrow)$ , enhance the ground plane that decrease the electric force from the drain side

### B. Reduce $D_{it}$ :

$$SS = 60 \times (1 + \frac{C_{dep} + C_{dibl} + C_{it}}{C_{ox}}),$$

$C_{it} = qD_{it} \rightarrow$  **improve oxide quality**

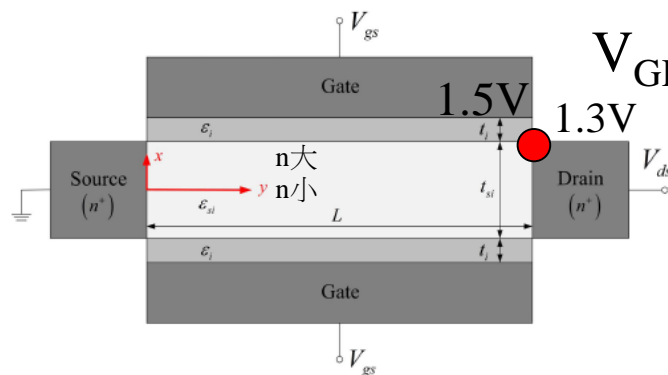
$$\mathbf{W}_{\text{dmax}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon_{si}(2\varphi_B + V_B)}{qN_A}}$$





# Modeling of DG MOSFET $I$ – $V$ Characteristics in the Saturation Region

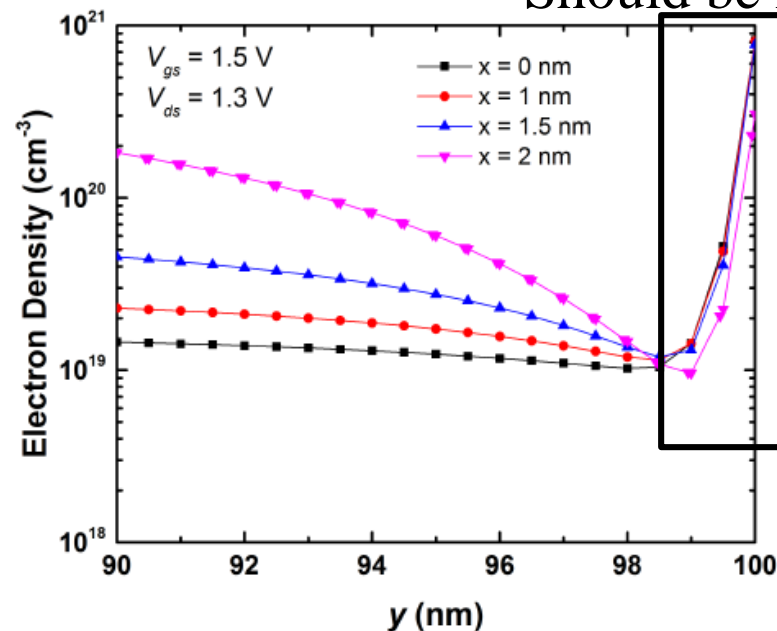
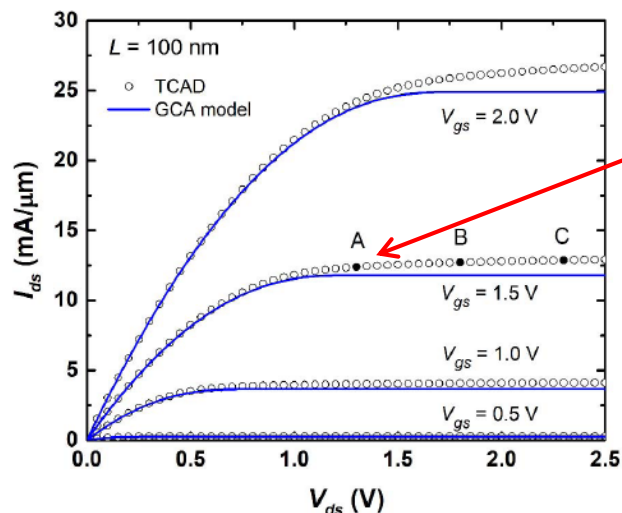
Yuan Taur<sup>1</sup>, Life Fellow, IEEE, and Huang-Hsuan Lin<sup>2</sup>, Student Member, IEEE



$$V_{GD} = 0.2\text{V} < V_{FB} \rightarrow \text{accumulation}$$

## III. "PINCHOFF"—A MYTH IN THE TEXTBOOKS

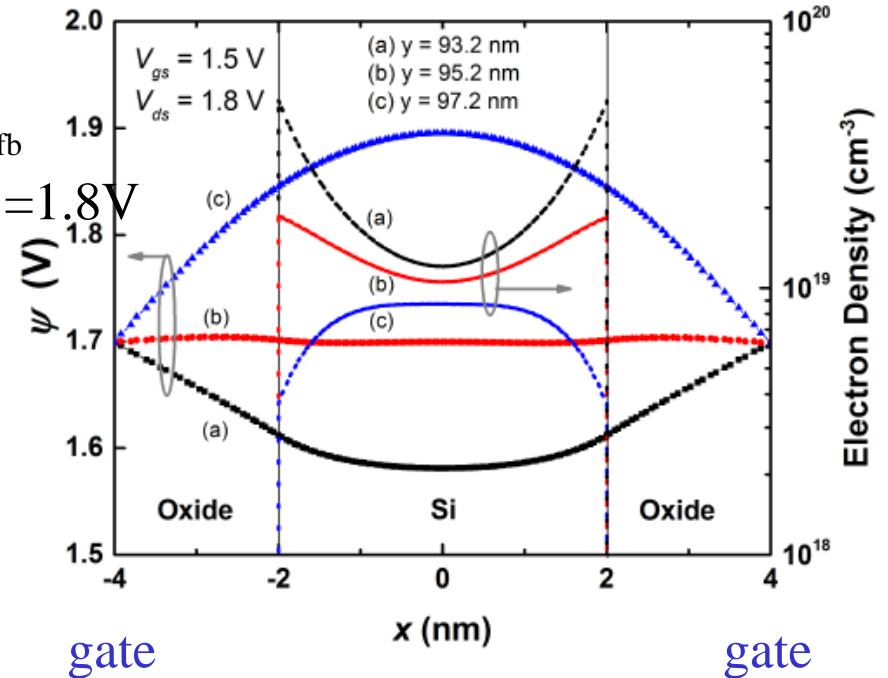
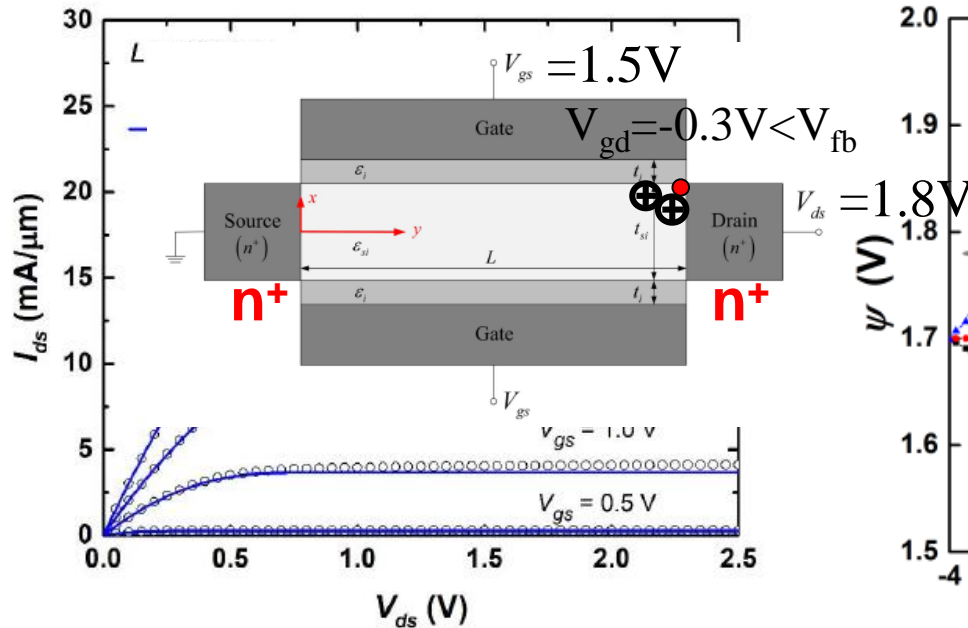
Should be hole



$$J = ne\mu E$$

$n$  of drain  $\rightarrow 0 \rightarrow E \rightarrow \text{inf.}$

# Potential and Carrier Density



- At the saturation point, what goes to zero is the field in the gate direction, not the electron density.
- Beyond the saturation point, the field in the gate direction becomes negative, so does the curvature  $\partial^2 \psi / \partial x^2$ .

**Q1:**  $I = 10^{-7} A$  at  $V_t = 0.3V$ ,  $SS = 100 mV/dec$ ,  $I_{OFF} = ?$

**A1:**  $I_{OFF} = 10^{-10} A$

**Q2:** Total  $I_{OFF}$  for 50 billion transistors = ?

**A2:** Total  $I_{OFF} = 10^{-10} A \times 50 \times 10^9 = 5A$

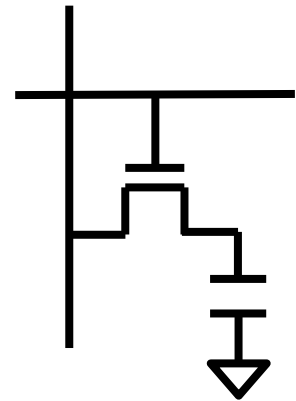
**Q3:**  $I = 10^{-7} A$  at  $V_t = 0.3V$ ,  $SS = 60 mV/dec$ ,  $I_{OFF} = ?$

**A3:**  $I_{OFF} = 10^{-12} A$ , total  $I_{OFF} = 10^{-12} A \times 50 \times 10^9 = 50mA$

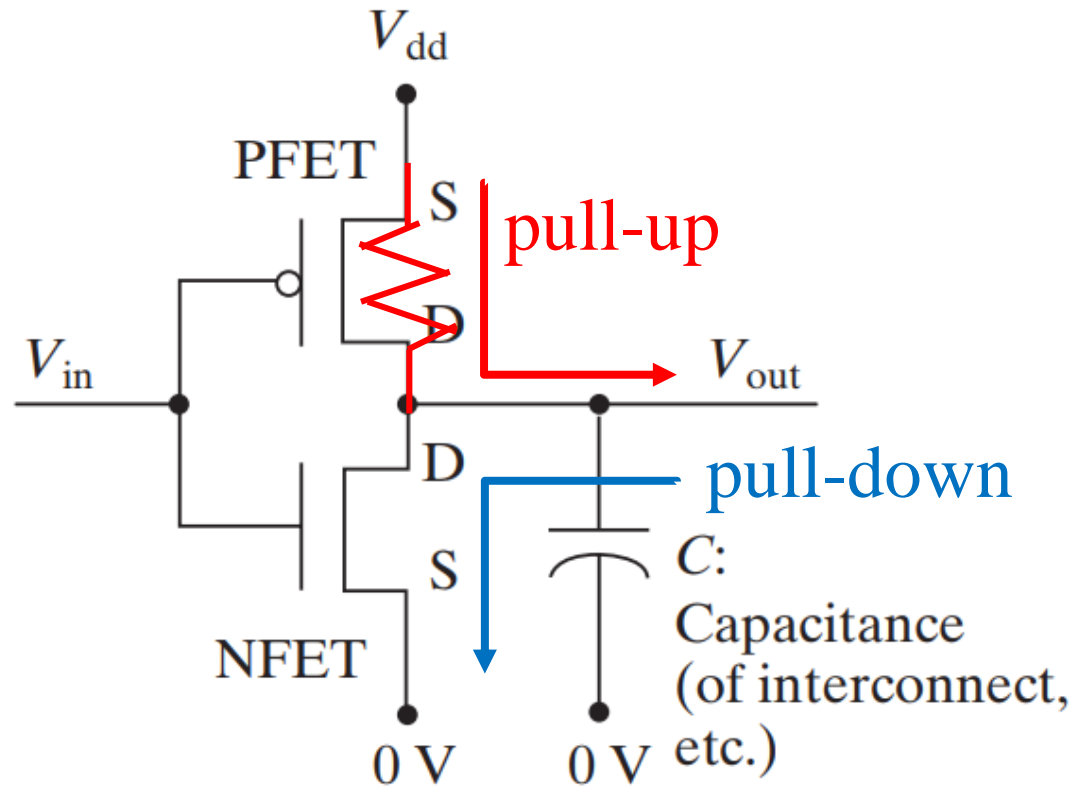
Logic:  $V = 0 \sim V_{DD}$ , DRAM:  $I_{OFF} < \text{Logic } I_{OFF}$

→ DRAM uses **negative word line** ( $-0.3 \sim 1V$ )

$V_{gs} = -0.3V$ , Repeat Q1-3



# CMOS (Complementary MOS) Inverter



A CMOS inverter is made of a pFET pull-up device and a nFET pull-down device.

Q:  $V_{out} = ?$  if  $V_{in} = 0\text{ V}$ .  $V_{out} = ?$  if  $V_{in} = V_{DD}\text{ V}$ .

## $I_{ON}$ Improvement -- $C_{ox}$

### Equivalent Oxide Thickness (EOT):

$C_{ox}$ : area capacitance (fF/ $\mu m^2$ ) or (F/cm<sup>2</sup>)

Ex1: oxide is 1nm SiO<sub>2</sub>,  $C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}}$ ,  $\epsilon_{ox} = 3.9\epsilon_0$

$$C_{ox} \sim 34.5 \text{ fF}/\mu m^2$$

Ex:2 oxide is 1nm High K,  $C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{HK}}{t_{HK}} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{EOT}$

$$\epsilon_{HK} = 20\epsilon_0 \rightarrow EOT = t_{HK}/5$$

Ex:3 for 1nm Si,  $C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{si}}{t_{si}} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{EOT}$

$$\epsilon_{si} = 11.9\epsilon_0 \sim 3\epsilon_{ox} \rightarrow EOT \sim t_{si}/3$$

Ex:4  $EOT = 0.7nm$ ,  $\epsilon_{HK} = 20\epsilon_0 \rightarrow t_{HK} = 3.5nm$

Ex:5  $t_{ox}=1nm$  (minimum oxide thickness),  $I_G=?$



EXAMPLE: What is the surface mobility at  $V_{gs}=1$  V in an N-channel MOSFET with  $V_t=0.3$  V and  $T_{oxe}=2$  nm?

*Solution:*  $(V_{gs} + V_t + 0.2)/6t_{ox}$   
 $= 1.5V/(12 \times 10^{-7}cm)$   
 $= 1.25 MV/cm$

$$E_{avg} = \frac{2Q_{dep} + Q_{inv}}{2\epsilon_{si}}$$

$$Q_{dep} = qN_B W_{dm}$$

$$Q_{inv} = C_{ox}(V_{gs} - V_t)$$

1MV =  $10^6$ V. From the mobility figure,  $\mu_{ns}=190$  cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs, which is several times smaller than the bulk mobility ( $\mu_n=1350$  cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs).

Q1: If  $V_b < 0 \rightarrow V_t$ ? more positive or more negative?

A1:  $V_t$  more positive  $\rightarrow I_{ds}$  smaller

Q2: If  $V_g > V_b > 0 \rightarrow V_t$ ? more positive or more negative?

A2:  $V_t$  more negative  $\rightarrow I_{ds}$  bigger

- Body effect can be used for multiple  $V_T$

$$V_t = V_{FB} + \frac{\sqrt{qN_B 2\epsilon_{si}(2\phi_B + V_{sb})}}{C_{ox}} + 2\phi_B$$

- Tuning  $V_{FB}$  for multiple  $V_T$

$$V_{FB} = \boxed{\phi_m} - \phi_s - \boxed{Q_{ox}}/C_{ox}$$

## EXAMPLE: Drain Saturation Voltage

Question: At  $V_{gs} = 1.8$  V, what is the  $V_{dsat}$  of an NFET with

$T_{oxe} = 3$  nm,  $V_t = 0.25$  V, and  $W_{dmax} = 45$  nm for (a)  $L = 10$   $\mu\text{m}$ , (b)  $L = 1$   $\mu\text{m}$ , (c)  $L = 0.1$   $\mu\text{m}$ , and (d)  $L = 0.05$   $\mu\text{m}$ ?

Solution: From  $V_{gs}$ ,  $V_t$ , and  $T_{oxe}$ ,  $\mu_{ns}$  is  $200 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ .

$$E_{sat} = 2V_{sat}/\mu_{ns} = 8 \times 10^4 \text{ V/cm}$$

$$m = 1 + 3T_{oxe}/W_{dmax} = 1.2$$

$$V_{dsat} = \left( \frac{m}{V_{gs} - V_t} + \frac{1}{E_{sat}L} \right)^{-1}$$

## EXAMPLE: Drain Saturation Voltage

$$V_{dsat} = \left( \frac{m}{V_{gs} - V_t} + \frac{1}{E_{sat}L} \right)^{-1}$$

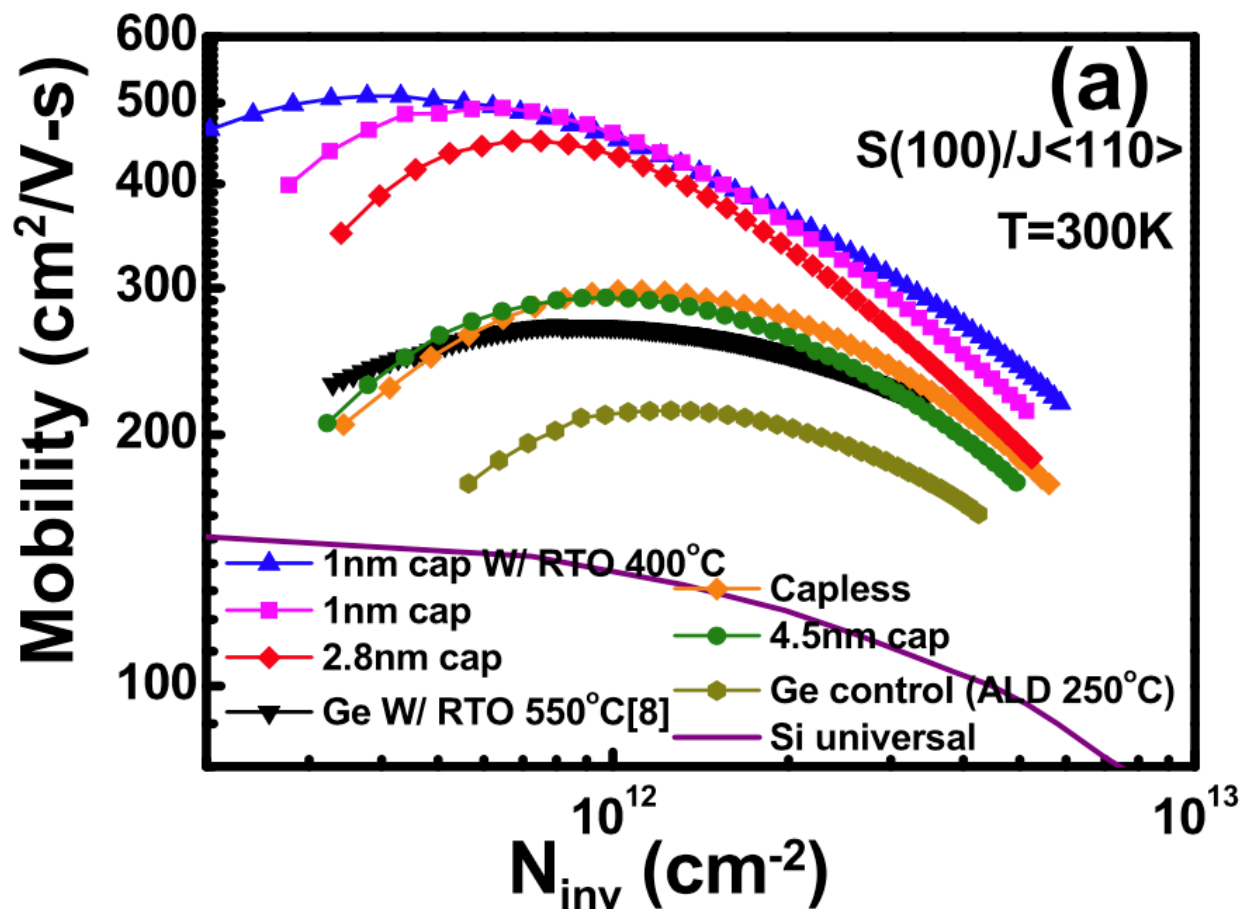
(a)  $L = 10 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ ,  $V_{dsat} = (1/1.3\text{V} + 1/80\text{V})^{-1} = 1.3 \text{ V}$

(b)  $L = 1 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ ,  $V_{dsat} = (1/1.3\text{V} + 1/8\text{V})^{-1} = 1.1 \text{ V}$

(c)  $L = 0.1 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ ,  $V_{dsat} = (1/1.3\text{V} + 1/.8\text{V})^{-1} = 0.5 \text{ V}$

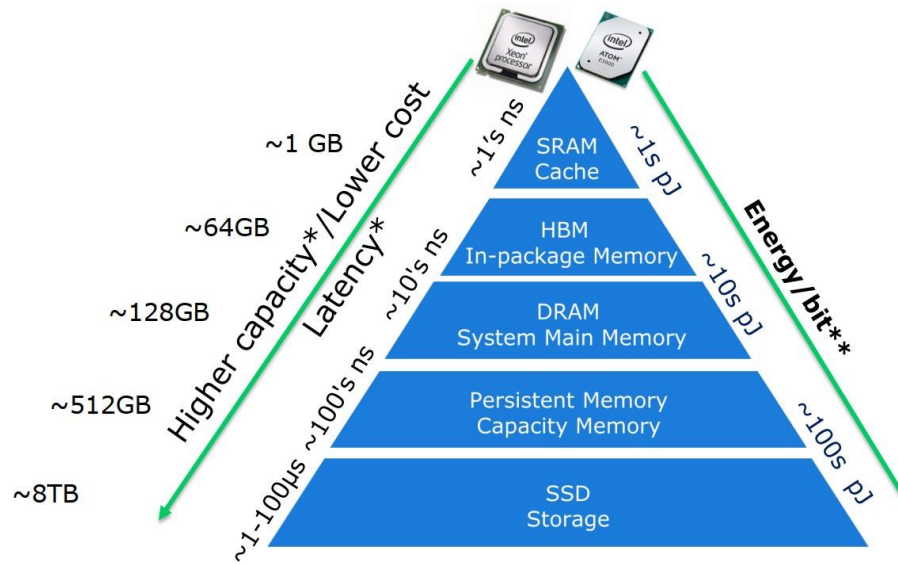
(d)  $L = 0.05 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ ,  $V_{dsat} = (1/1.3\text{V} + 1/.4\text{V})^{-1} = 0.3 \text{ V}$

# Mobility of GeSn



Ref: Y.-S. Huang, 2017, TED

# Modern Memory Hierarchy



This hierarchical organization of memory works because of the **Principle of Locality**. Programs access a relatively small portion of the address space at any moment. There are two different types of locality:

- **Temporal Locality**: If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon
- **Spatial Locality**: If an item is referenced, items whose addresses are close by tend to be referenced soon

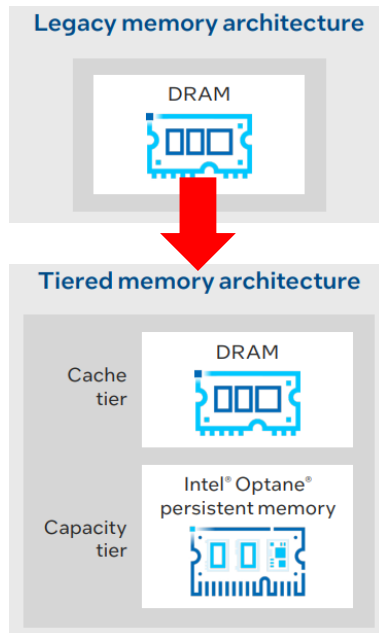
Source: Shanthi, Web

- Modern hardware relies upon temporal and spatial locality of memory accesses to create a high-capacity, high performance and energy efficient virtual memory system

E. Karl, 2023 IEEE International Solid-State Circuits Conference T7:  
Fundamentals of Ultra-Low Voltage Embedded Memory Design

# Persistent Memory

Ref: S. Yu et al., IEEE Solid-State Circuits Magazine 2016



**TABLE 1. DEVICE CHARACTERISTICS OF MAINSTREAM AND EMERGING MEMORY TECHNOLOGIES.**

	MAINSTREAM MEMORIES				EMERGING MEMORIES		
	SRAM	DRAM	FLASH		STT-MRAM	PCRAM	RRAM
			NOR	NAND			
Cell area	>100 F <sup>2</sup>	6 F <sup>2</sup>	10 F <sup>2</sup>	<4F <sup>2</sup> (3D)	6~50F <sup>2</sup>	4~30F <sup>2</sup>	4~12F <sup>2</sup>
Multibit	1	1	2	3	1	2	2
Voltage	<1 V	<1 V	>10 V	>10 V	<1.5 V	<3 V	<3 V
Read time	~1 ns	~10 ns	~50 ns	~10 μs	<10 ns	<10 ns	<10 ns
Write time	~1 ns	~10 ns	10 μs~1 ms	100 μs~1 ms	<10 ns	~50 ns	<10 ns
Retention	N/A	~64 ms	>10 y	>10 y	>10 y	>10 y	>10 y
Endurance	>1E16	>1E16	>1E5	>1E4	>1E15	>1E9	>1E6~1E12
Write energy (J/bit)	~fJ	~10fJ	~100pJ	~10fJ	~0.1pJ	~10pJ	~0.1 pJ

Notes: F: feature size of the lithography. The energy estimation is on the cell-level (not on the array-level). PCRAM and RRAM can achieve less than 4F<sup>2</sup> through 3D integration. The numbers of this table are representative (not the best or the worst cases).

- To meet the growing gap between DRAM density and demand [1]

- **Goal:**

[1] “Solve Data Challenges with Memory Tiering”  
whitepaper published on the official website of intel

- Nonvolatile and faster than flash SSDs.
- **Nearly the same speed and latency of DRAM** but cheaper than it
- Support to write data immediately to the flash when power fails.  
(NVDIMM and Intel 3D XPoint DIMMs technology)

- Candidates: RRAM, PCRAM, MRAM,

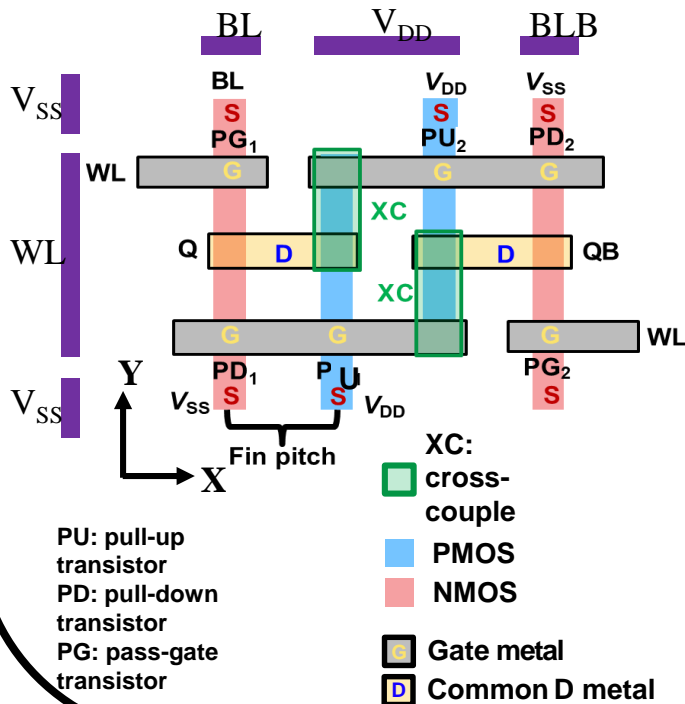
# 7nm SRAM F<sup>2</sup> calculation

- From wikichip [1], minimum metal pitch is 40nm
- F means half metal pitch=20nm
- 8T CIM SRAM [2] with bitcell area=0.053 $\mu\text{m}^2$ =53000nm<sup>2</sup>= 53000/20/20 F<sup>2</sup>= 132.5 F<sup>2</sup>
- 6T HD SRAM [3] with bitcell area=0.027 $\mu\text{m}^2$ =27000nm<sup>2</sup>= 27000/20/20 F<sup>2</sup>= 67.5 F<sup>2</sup>
- Actually, 6T HD SRAM needs 3 metal track in Y direction (BL, V<sub>DD</sub>, BLB) and 2 metal track in X direction (WL, V<sub>SS</sub>), but SRAM area is mainly limited by NP isolation.

[1] [https://en.wikichip.org/wiki/7\\_nm\\_lithography\\_process](https://en.wikichip.org/wiki/7_nm_lithography_process)

[2] Q. Dong et al., ISSCC, 2020 (TSMC)

[3] G. Yeap, et al., IEDM, 2019 (TSMC)



- Thus, designer would choose wider power rail and WL to boost SRAM performance since metal pitch is not bottleneck of SRAM area.
- The area consumption of memory implemented by single transistor (such as DRAM and FeFET) is much lower compared to SRAM.



		Baseline technologies					Prototype technologies		
		DRAM		SRAM	Flash		FeRAM	STT-MRAM	PCM
		Stand-alone	Embedded		NOR	NAND			
Memory Type		Volatile Memory			Non-volatile Memory				
Cell Elements		1T1C		6T	1T		1T1C	1(2)T-1R	1T(D)-1R
Feature size <i>F</i> , nm	2013	36	65	45	45	16	180	65	45
	2026	9	20	10	25	> 10	65	16	8
Cell Area	2013	6 F <sup>2</sup>	(12-30) F <sup>2</sup>	140 F <sup>2</sup>	10 F <sup>2</sup>	4 F <sup>2</sup>	22 F <sup>2</sup>	20 F <sup>2</sup>	4 F <sup>2</sup>
	2026	4 F <sup>2</sup>	(12-50) F <sup>2</sup>	140 F <sup>2</sup>	10 F <sup>2</sup>	4 F <sup>2</sup>	12 F <sup>2</sup>	8 F <sup>2</sup>	4 F <sup>2</sup>
Read Time	2013	< 10 ns	2 ns	0.2 ns	15 ns	0.1 ms	40 ns	35 ns	12 ns
	2026	< 10 ns	1 ns	70 ps	8 ns	0.1 ms	< 20 ns	< 10 ns	< 10 ns
W/E Time	2013	< 10 ns	2 ns	0.2 ns	1μs/10 ms	1/0.1ms	65 ns	35 ns	100 ns
	2026	< 10 ns	1 ns	70 ps	1μs/10ms	1/0.1 ms	<10 ns	<1 ns	<50 ns
Retention Time	2013	64 ms	4 ms	-	10 y	10 y	10 y	>10 y	>10 y
	2026	64 ms	1 ms	-	10 y	10 y	10 y	>10 y	>10 y
Write Cycles	2013	>1E16	>1E16	>1E16	1E5	1E5	1E14	>1E12	1E9
	2026	>1E16	>1E16	>1E16	1E5	1E5	>1E15	>1E15	1E9
Write Voltage (V)	2013	2.5	2.5	1	8-10	15-20	1.3-3.3	1.8	3
	2026	1.5	1.5	0.7	8	15	0.7-1.5	<1	<3
Read Voltage (V)	2013	1.8	1.7	1	4.5	4.5	1.3-3.3	1.8	1.2
	2026	1.5	1.5	0.7	4.5	4.5	0.7-1.5	<1	<1
T: transistor, C: capacitor, D: diode, R: resistor									

*T: transistor, C: capacitor, D: diode, R: resistor*

Ref: Writam Banerjee,  
Electronics 2020