SEMICONDUCTOR DEVICES II:
Part I - Information Processing with MEMS

Lecture #7

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A.M. Ionescu @ Semiconductor Devices II - 2019

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Outline

- **Introduction: Micro/Nano-Electro-Mechanical Systems**
- **M/NEM switches/relays for logic**
- **M/NEM resonators:**
  - Passive resonators, filters and mixers
  - Resonant gate or body transistors to amplify small signals **M/NEM inertial sensors:**
  - Accelerometers

Introduction

MEMS = Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems

(include suspended and/or movable parts)

Microfluidics   Optical   Radio Frequency   Bio   Energy scavenging

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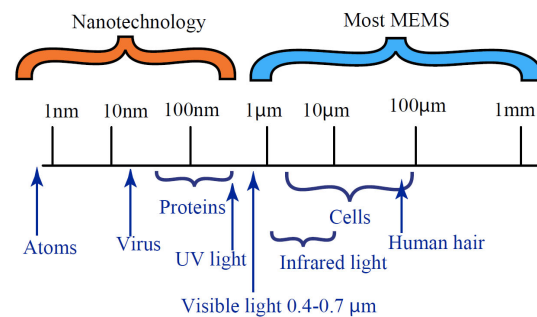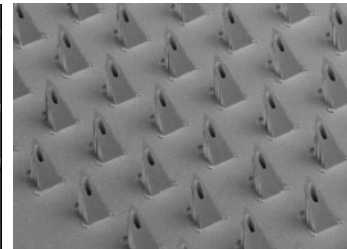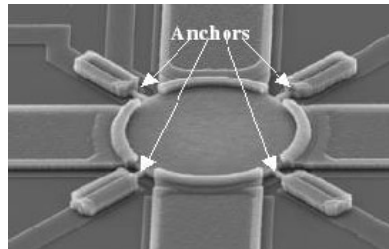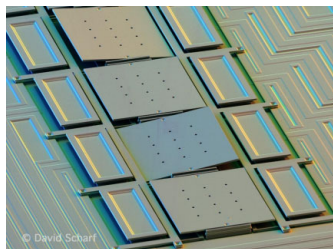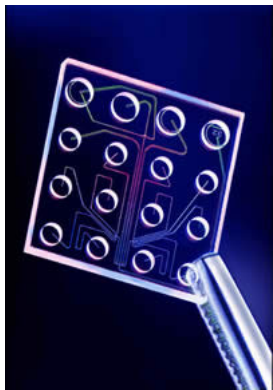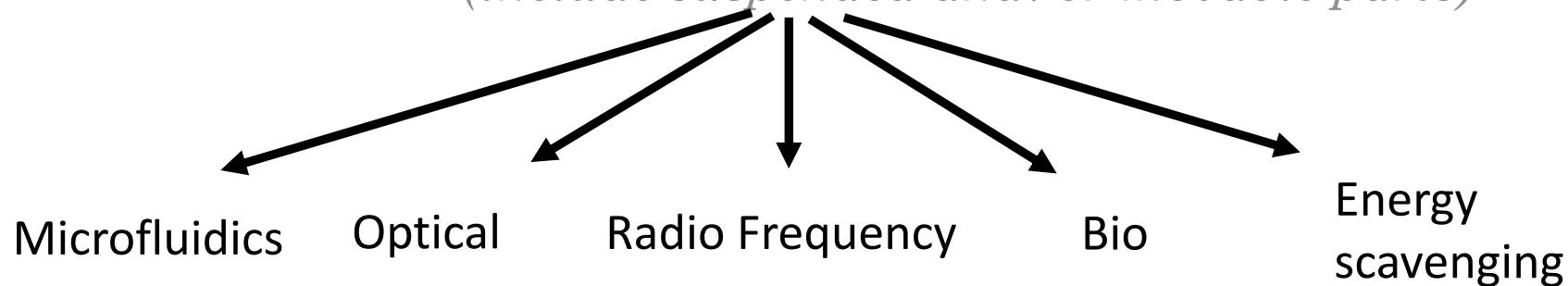
# Information processing with MEMS short history

- 1967 - Invention of **surface micromachining** (Nathanson, Resonant Gate Transistor)

- 1970 - Micromachined **silicon pressure sensor** demonstrated (Petersen)

- 1970 - First **silicon accelerometer** demonstrated (Kulite)

- 1977 - First **capacitive pressure sensor** (Stanford)

- 1984 - First **polysilicon MEMS device** (Howe, Muller)

- 1988 - Rotary **electrostatic side drive motors** (Fan, Tai, Muller)

- 1989 - Lateral **comb drive** (Tang, Nguyen, Howe)

- 1991 - Polysilicon hinges developed (Pister, Judy, Burgett, Fearing)

- 1992 - **Multi User MEMS Process** (MUMPs) is introduced by MCNC, (now MEMSCAP)

- 1993 - First **surface micromachined accelerometer** (ADXL50) sold, (Analog Devices)

- 1998 - Demonstration of **DMD (Digital Mirror Device),** (Texas Instruments)


(a)

(b)

Number of mirrors 1080 x 1920
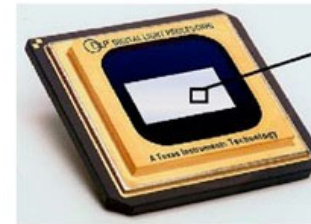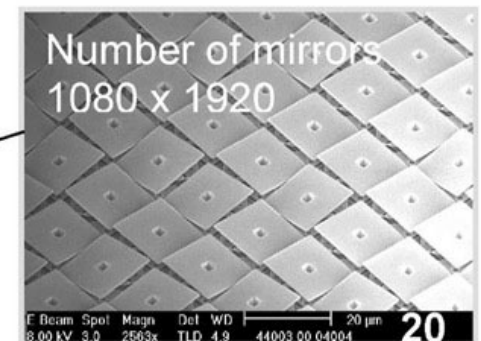
MEMS micro/nano fabrication

- MEMS are fabricated with a unique set of technologies collectively referred to as 'microfabrication' or 'micromachining'

- There are two main areas of micromachining:

❑ **Surface Micromachining**, which is based on the successive deposition and etching of thin films of material such as silicon nitride, polysilicon, silicon oxide and gold.

❑ **Bulk Micromachining**, which is based on the etching andbonding of thick sheets of material such as silicon oxides and crystalline silicon.
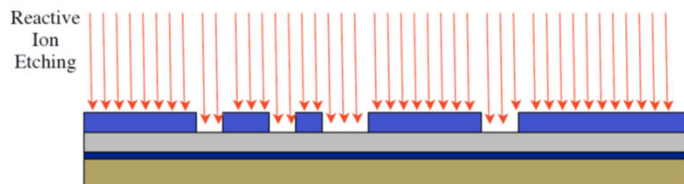
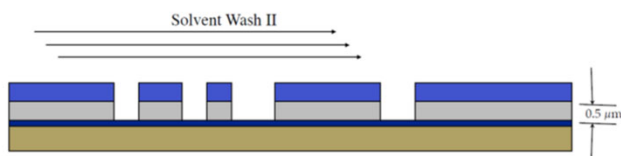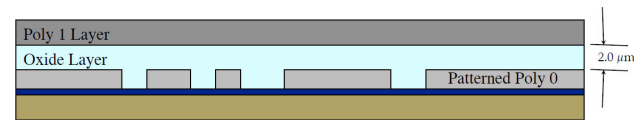# Example of surface micromachining microcantilever fabrication
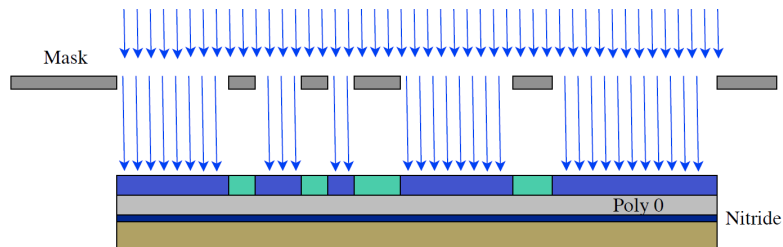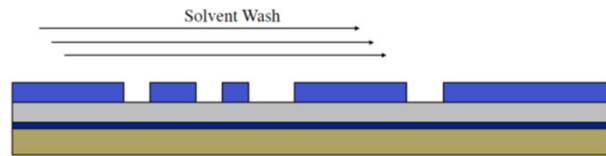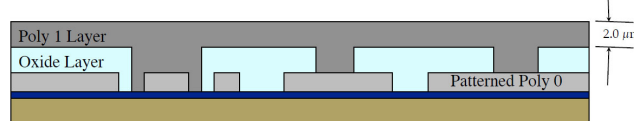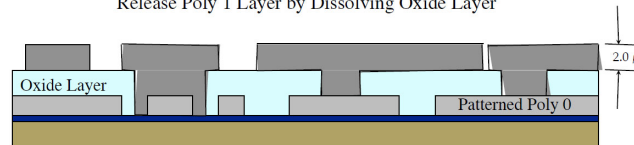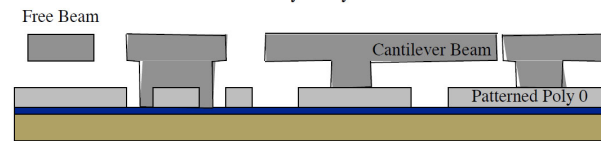
MEMS actuation mechanisms

	Voltage (V)	Current (mA)	Power (mW)	Size	Switch time (μs)	Force (contact) (μN)
Electrostatic	1-100	~0	~0	Small	1-200	50-1000
Thermal	3-5	1-100	<500	Large	300-10'000	500-5'000
Magnetic	3-5	10-100	<500	Medium	300-1'000	50-200
Piezoelectric*	3-20	~0	~0	Medium	50-500	50-200

* Recent attention to quartz, GaAs, ZnO, PZT: $Pb(Zr_xTi_{1-x})O_3$: mechanical stress polarizes the material → electrical field, works also reversely!

Table adapted after Rebeiz [1]

[1] Gabriel M. Rebeiz, RF MEMS: Theory, Design, and Technology. ISBN: 978-0-471-20169-4, Wiley, March 2003.

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MEMS Switch/Relay

Electro-mechanical information processing:

as a **multi-state logic**, with the logic states dictated by a spatial configuration of movable objects

MEM RELAY

Movable part
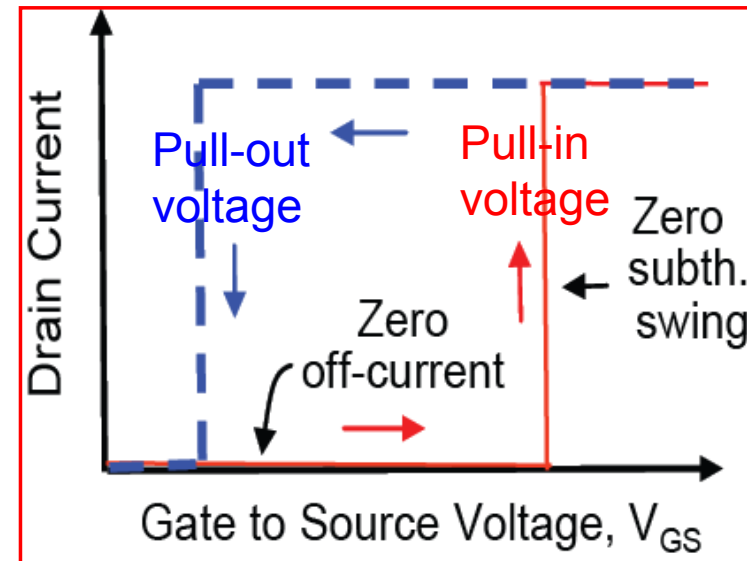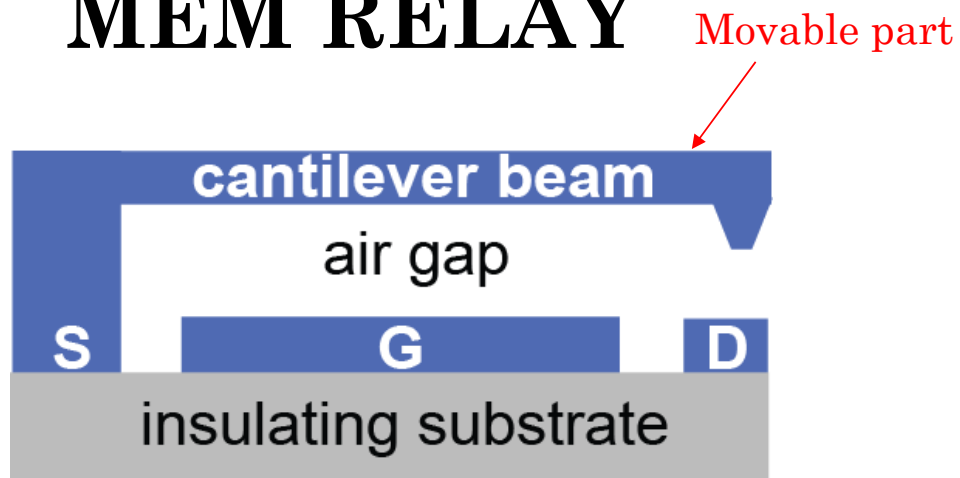
Electromechanical design of pull-in voltage

Pull-in / Pull-out electromechanical hysteresis of capacitive switch

$g_o = zero-voltage\ gap\ spacing$

$g = g_o - x$

$g_{eff} = g_o + \dfrac{g_\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_r} \approx g_o$

$F_{el} = \dfrac{\varepsilon_0 A V^2}{2g^2}$

$F_s = k(g_o - g)$

$C_{up} = C(V=0) = \varepsilon_0 \dfrac{A}{g_{eff}}$

$C_{down} = C(V > V_{PI}) = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_r \dfrac{A}{g_\varepsilon}$

$\dfrac{C_{down}}{C_{up}} = \dfrac{\varepsilon_r g_{eff}}{g_\varepsilon} \approx \dfrac{\varepsilon_r g_o}{g_\varepsilon}$
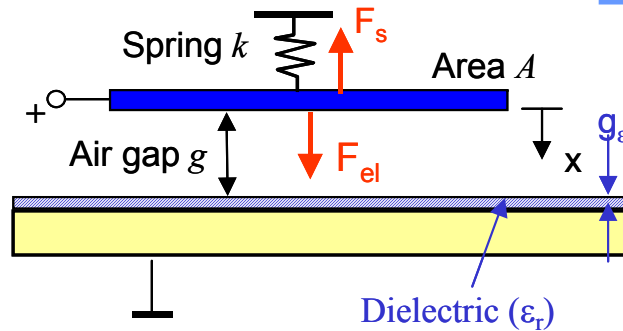
$$V_{PO} = \sqrt{\dfrac{2kg_o g_\varepsilon^2}{\varepsilon_r^2 \varepsilon_0 A}}$$

$$V_{PI} = \sqrt{\dfrac{8}{27}\dfrac{kg_{eff}^3}{\varepsilon_0 A}}$$

Pull-in @ 1/3 of the air gap!

Spring k — F_s
Area A
$+$
Air gap g — F_{el} — x — g_ε
Dielectric (ε_r)

C_{down}
V
Hysteresis
$C\ [pF]$
Pull-out voltage
Pull-in voltage
$1.5 C_{up}$
C_{up}
$V=0\ V$ — V_{PO} — V_{PI} — $V\ [V]$
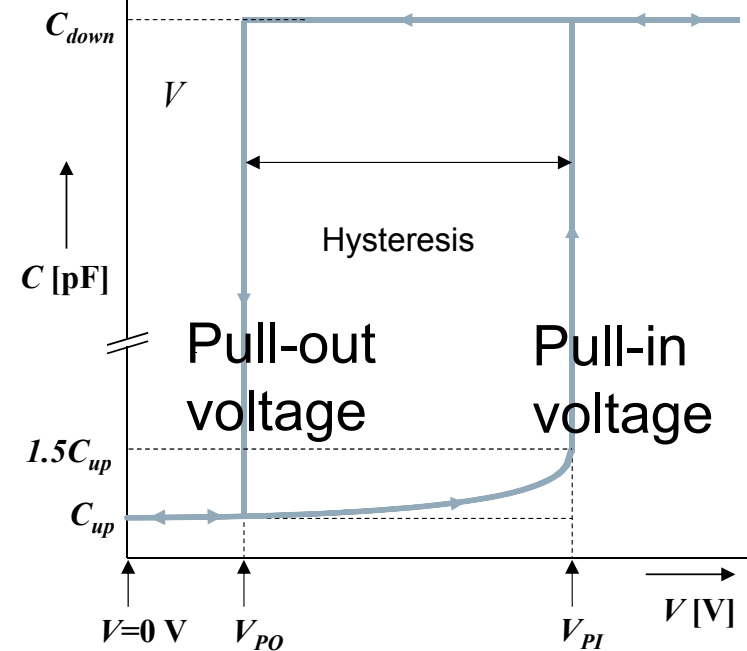
UC Berkeley's 4-terminal relay

(a) Relay schematic

(b) AA' cross-section: OFF-state

(c) AA' cross-section: ON-state
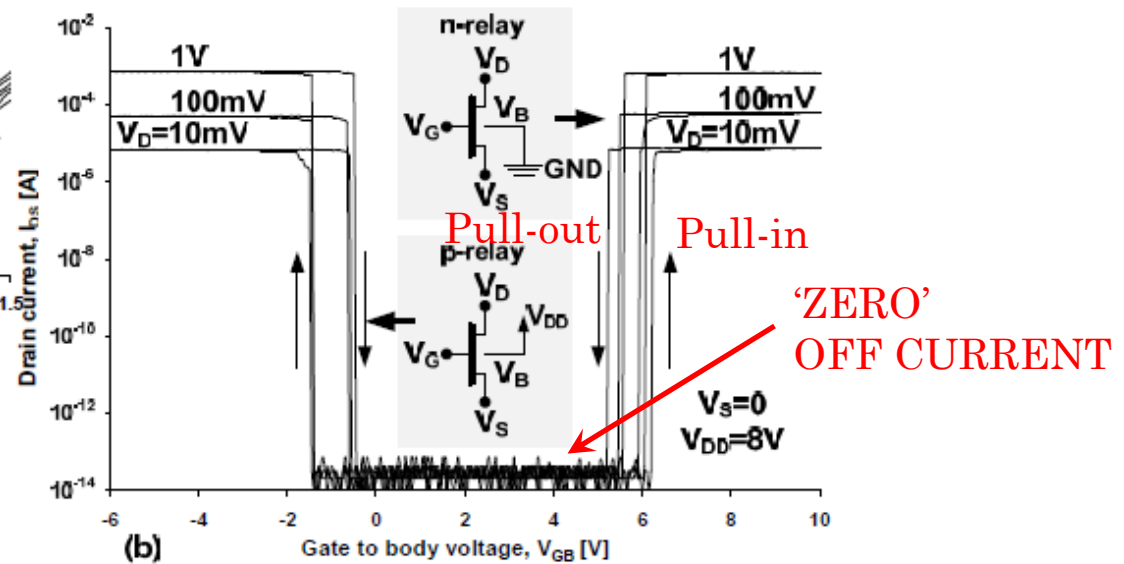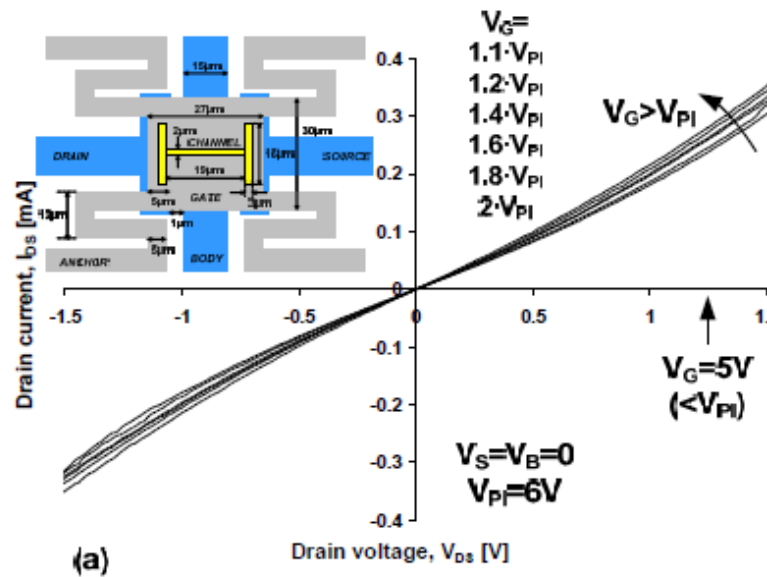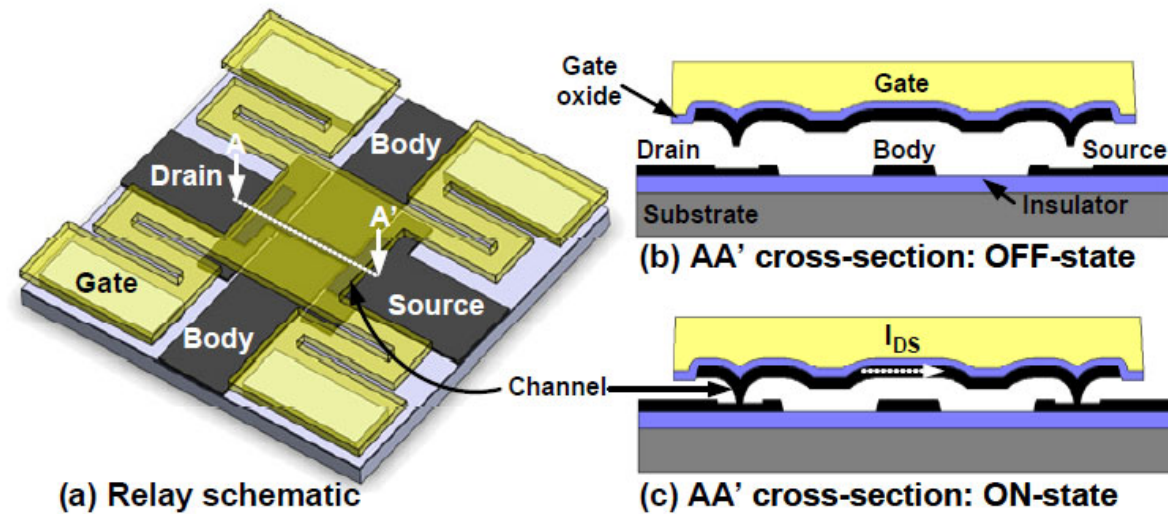
… and mechanical inverter operation

Hysteretic voltage transfer characteristic
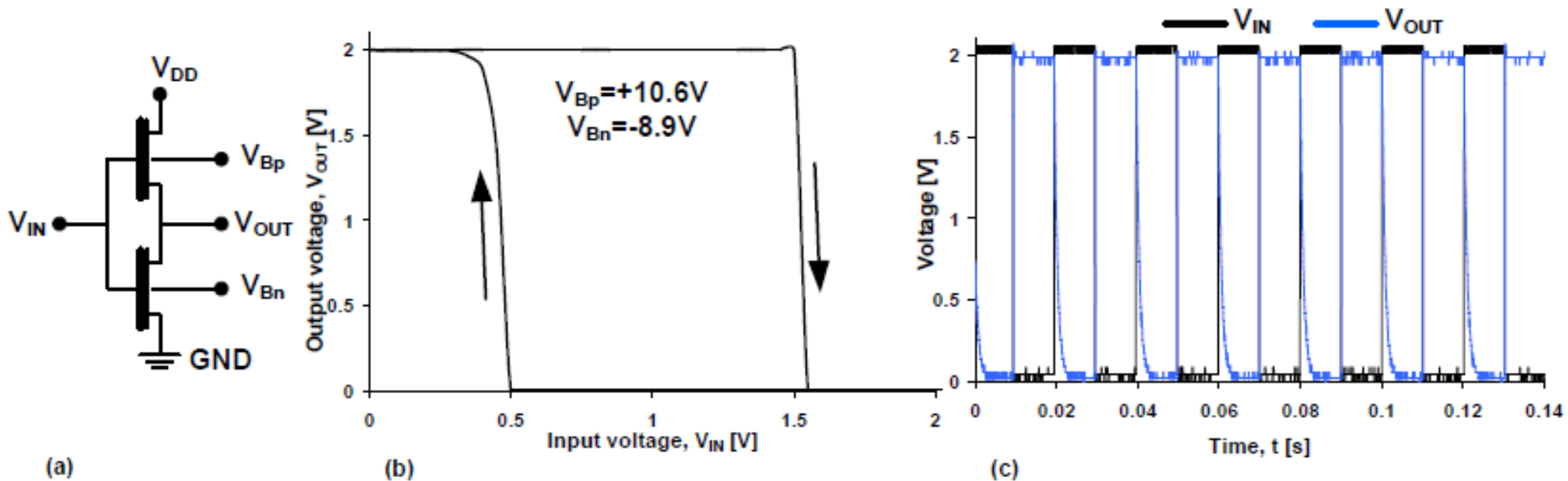
Fig. 6.18. (a) Relay inverter schematic. Two similar devices are operated in n-type and p-type modes. (b) Measured static and (c) dynamic characteristics [34]. V_{IN} is a f=50Hz square wave.

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Rationale for MEMS resonators: High Quality factor, Q

Information processing as **vibrational modes** of mechanical elements, based upon waves.

- **_Problem_**: IC's cannot achieve Q's in the thousands
  - ↳ transistors → consume too much power to get Q
  - ↳ on-chip spiral inductors → Q's no higher than ~10
  - ↳ off-chip inductors → Q's in the range of 100's
- **_Observation_**: vibrating mechanical resonances → $Q > 1,000$
- **_Example_**: quartz crystal resonators (e.g., in wristwatches)
  - ↳ extremely high Q's ~ 10,000 or higher ($Q \sim 10^6$ possible)
  - ↳ mechanically vibrates at a distinct frequency in a thickness-shear mode

Electrodes

Quartz

$\equiv$

C_o

L_x C_x R_x

$Q > 10,000$

Thickness-Shear Mode

C. T.-C. Nguyen, FCS'05 Tutorial: "MEMS for Frequency and Timing References", 8/28/05

$$Q = \frac{F_0}{F_{3dB}}$$

0dB

-3dB

Response

f_0
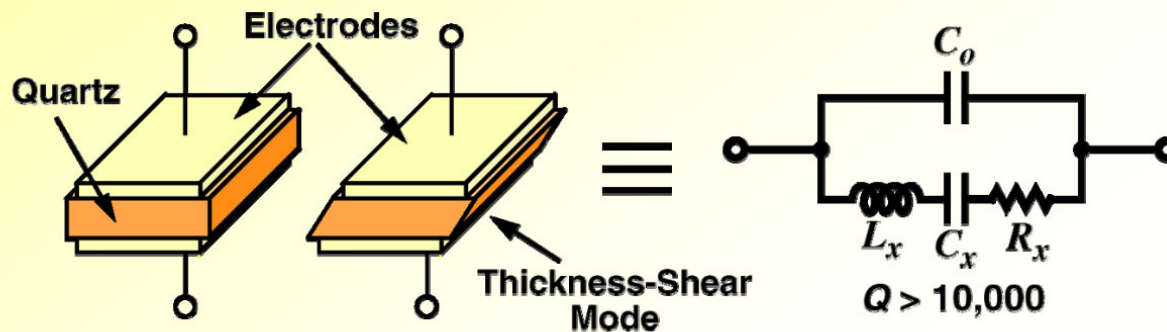
Frequency

f3dB
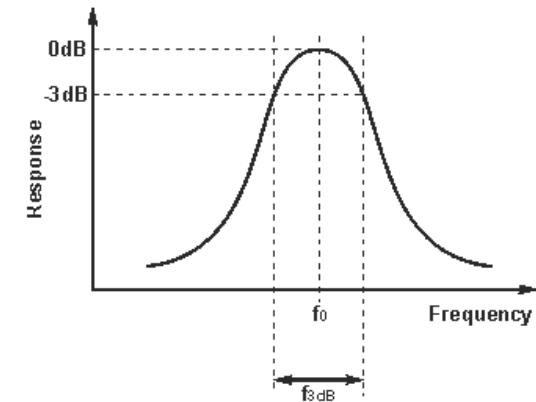
Q of a tuned circuit with respect to its bandwidth

$$Q = \frac{E_{stored}}{E_{lost\ per\ cycle}}$$

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Principle

Micro-Electro-Mechanical resonator

Resonance frequency:
$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{\frac{k_{eff}}{m_{eff}}}$$

Clamped-clamped beam

dc bias

+

-

Input:

ac signal

Electrode

Output signal:

Amplitude

Low Q

High Q
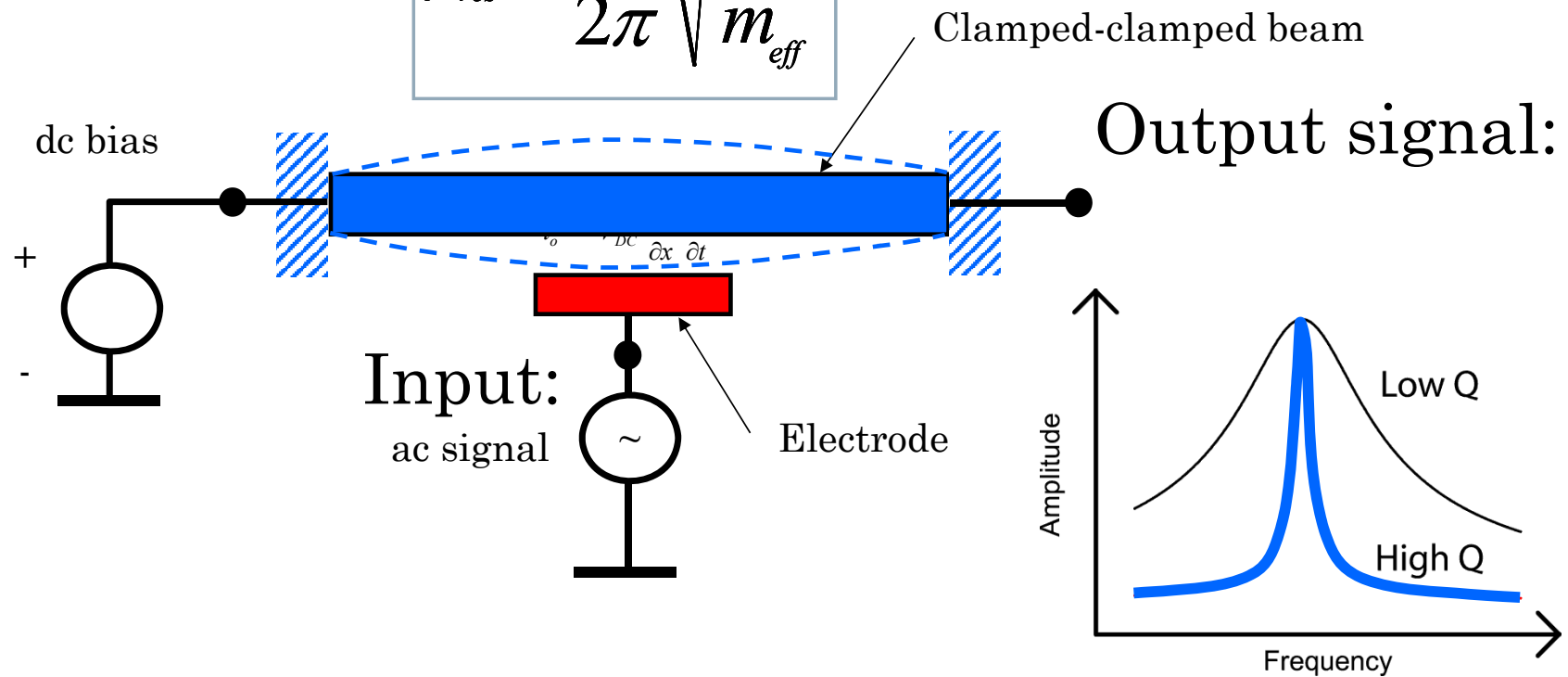
Frequency

MEM resonator is tuneable in frequency

Mechanical domain equations:

$$mx'' + bx' + kx = F$$

Electrical domain analogy:

$$Lq'' + Rq' + (1/C)q = V_i$$

Tuning the resonance frequency: stiffness!

L:
motional inductance

R:
Motional resistance

1/C:
Stiffness

C_0

C_m L_m R_m

C_1 C_1
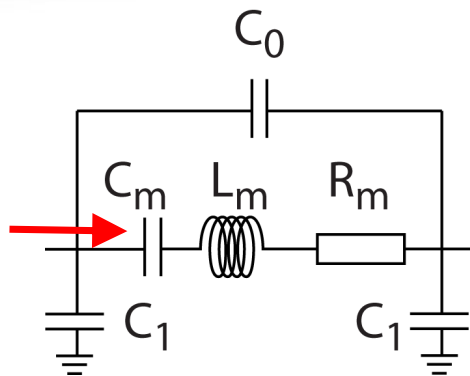
Motional to electrical equivalent parts and electrical small signal circuit

$$L_m = \frac{m_{eff}}{2V_{DC}^2\left(\dfrac{\partial C}{\partial x}\right)^2}$$

$$C_m = \frac{2V_{DC}^2\left(\dfrac{\partial C}{\partial x}\right)^2}{k_{eff}}$$

$$R_m = \frac{\omega m_{eff}}{2QV_{DC}^2\left(\dfrac{\partial C}{\partial x}\right)^2}$$
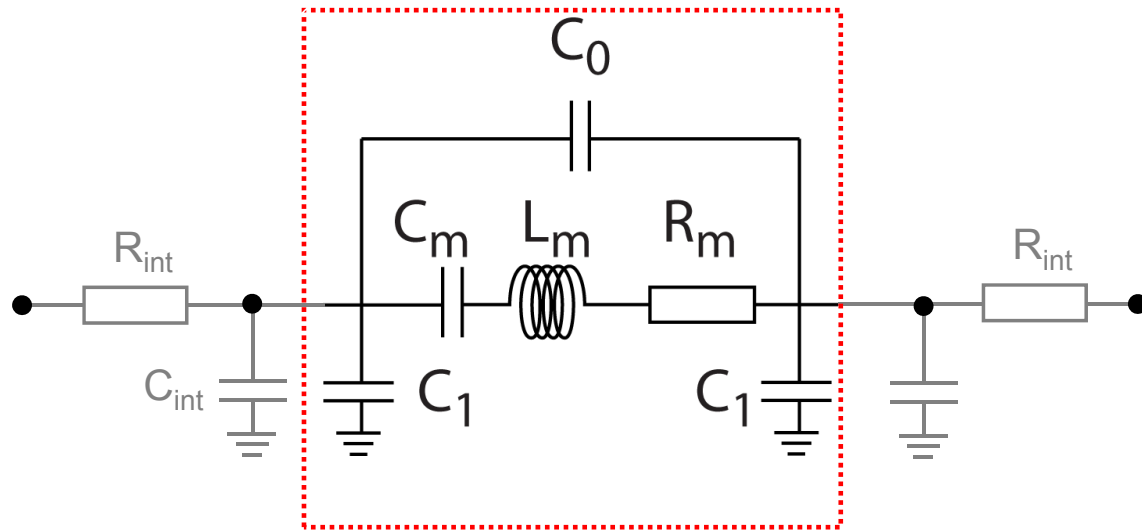
Motional resistance

$$R_m = \frac{k_{eff}\, g^4}{\varepsilon_o^2\, A^2\, \omega Q V_{DC}^2}$$

Need for low motional resistance & nanogaps

Motional resistance:

$$R_m \sim gap^4/voltage^2$$

(1/10 gap, 1/10'000 R_m)

Example:
f_{res}=31MHz, r=40um, t_{Si}=1.25um
Deep submicron gaps: 100-200nm,
Q>20'000, R_m=130kOhm

Of major interest, to minimize

$$C_0$$

$$C_m = \frac{\eta^2}{K}$$

$$R_m = \frac{\sqrt{KM}}{Q\eta^2}$$

$$L_m = \frac{M}{\eta^2}$$

Mechanical resonator
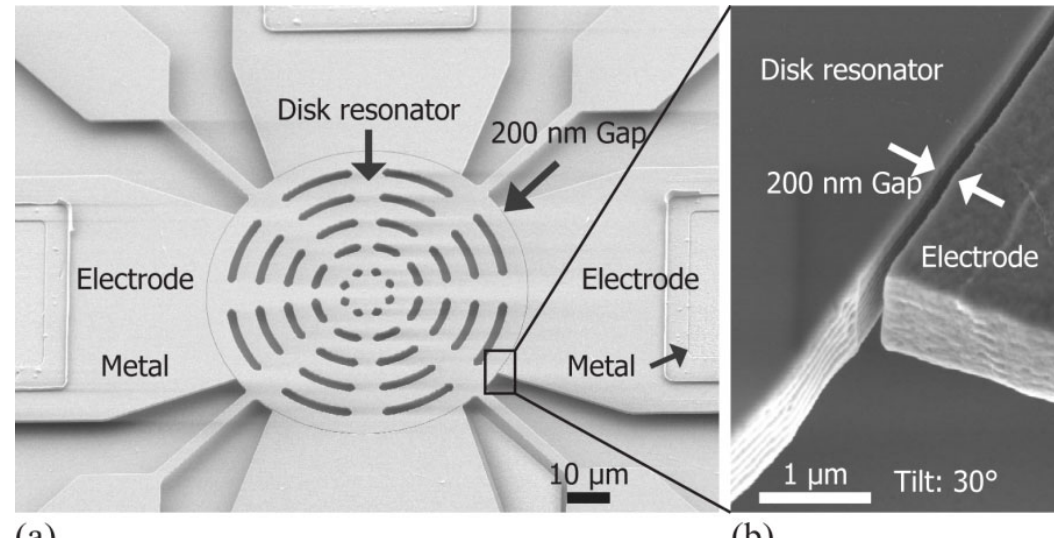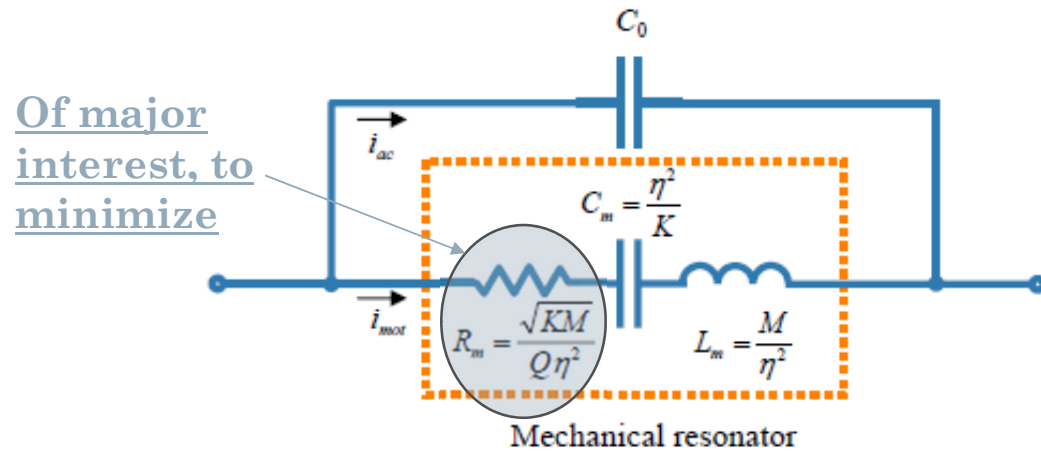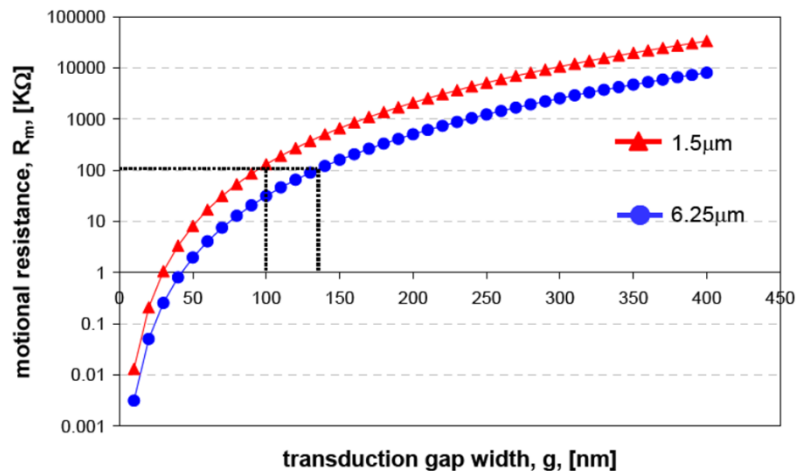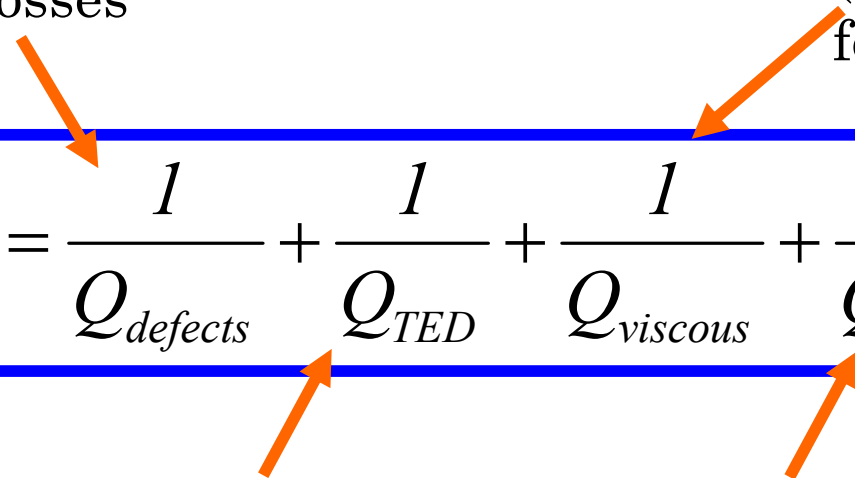
Quality factor mechanisms

$$Q \equiv \omega * \frac{\overline{Energy\ stored}}{Energy\ loss\ /\sec} \equiv \frac{\omega_o}{\Delta\omega}$$

Mechanism #1:
Material defect losses

Mechanism #3: Gas damping
(not an issue in vacuum or
for bulk resonators)

$$\frac{1}{Q} = \frac{1}{Q_{defects}} + \frac{1}{Q_{TED}} + \frac{1}{Q_{viscous}} + \frac{1}{Q_{sup\,port}}$$

Mechanism #2: Thermoelastic
damping (TED)

Mechanism #4: Anchor losses, needs
design optimization, important @
high frequency

Quality factor: impact of anchor loss

clamped **clamped**

free

free

K. Wang, A.C. Wong, C.T. Nguyen, JMEMS, Vol. 9, Sept. 2000.

Effect of energy anchor loss

MEMS filters

Resonator beam: has two electrical inputs v_e (=v_i) and v_b(=V_P)

$$F_d = \frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2}(v_e - v_b)^2 \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2}(v_e^2 - 2v_e v_b + v_b^2)\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}$$

x= beam displacement and

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = -\frac{\varepsilon W_r W_e}{d_0^2}$$

→ **filtering applications**

v_b=V_P *(dc bias)*, v_e=v_i=V_i $cos\omega_i t$

$$F_d = \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}\left(\frac{V_P^2}{2} + \frac{V_i^2}{4}\right) - V_P \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}V_i \cos \omega_i t + \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}\frac{V_i}{4}\cos 2\omega_i t$$

Off resonance dc force · Component used in filtering
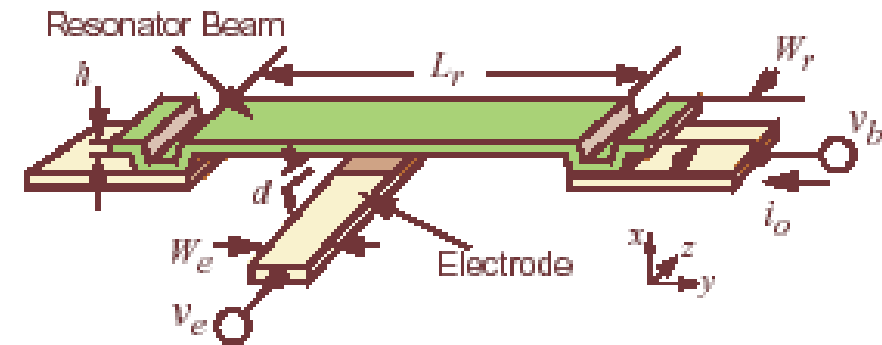
MEMS filters: examples

2-beam MEM filter
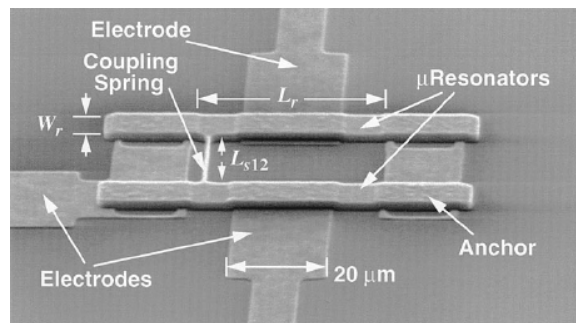
Band-pass filter
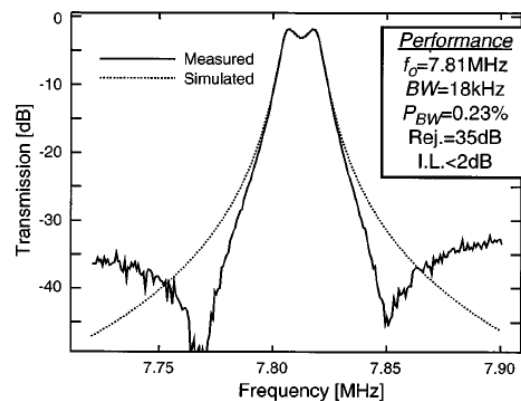
C.T.Nguyen, chapter in 'RF Technologies for Low Power Wireless Communications', Wiley, 2002.

Many coupled devices

$L_r = 16\ \mu m$
$h = 2.4\ \mu m$
$d_o = 90\ nm$

Band-pass filter

f_o=68.10MHz
Q_{fltr}=360
BW=190kHz
$I.L.$ < 2.7dB
V_P = 35V
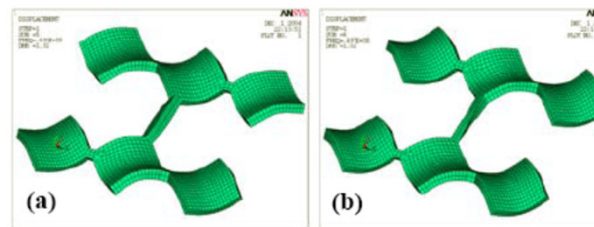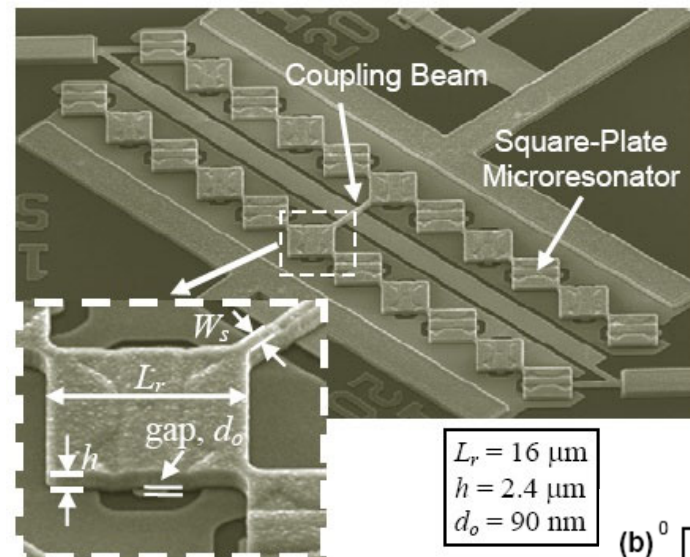
Fig. 3: ANSYS-simulated **(a)** in-phase and **(b)** out-of-phase mode shapes of the coupled-array filter of Fig. 2.
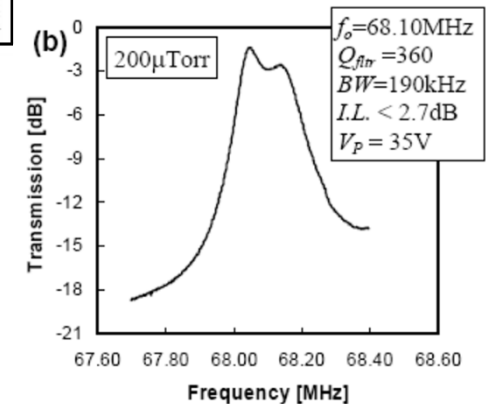
Resonant gate or body transistors: active MEMS resonators

- Dimensions reduced by more x10⁵
- Frequencies increased from 10Hz - 10kHz to 10's- 100's MHZ

A transistor in a guitar string

drain

Vibration modulates the channel charge

gate

Can potentially amplify the signal

source

Vibrating body FET

frez = 2MHz

MOSFET detection
$V_{G1} = V_{AC} + 16V$
$V_{G2} = V_{AC} - 16V$
$V_D = 1.85V$
$P_{AC} = -85dBm$
$F_{res} = 2.044MHz$
$Q = 4540$
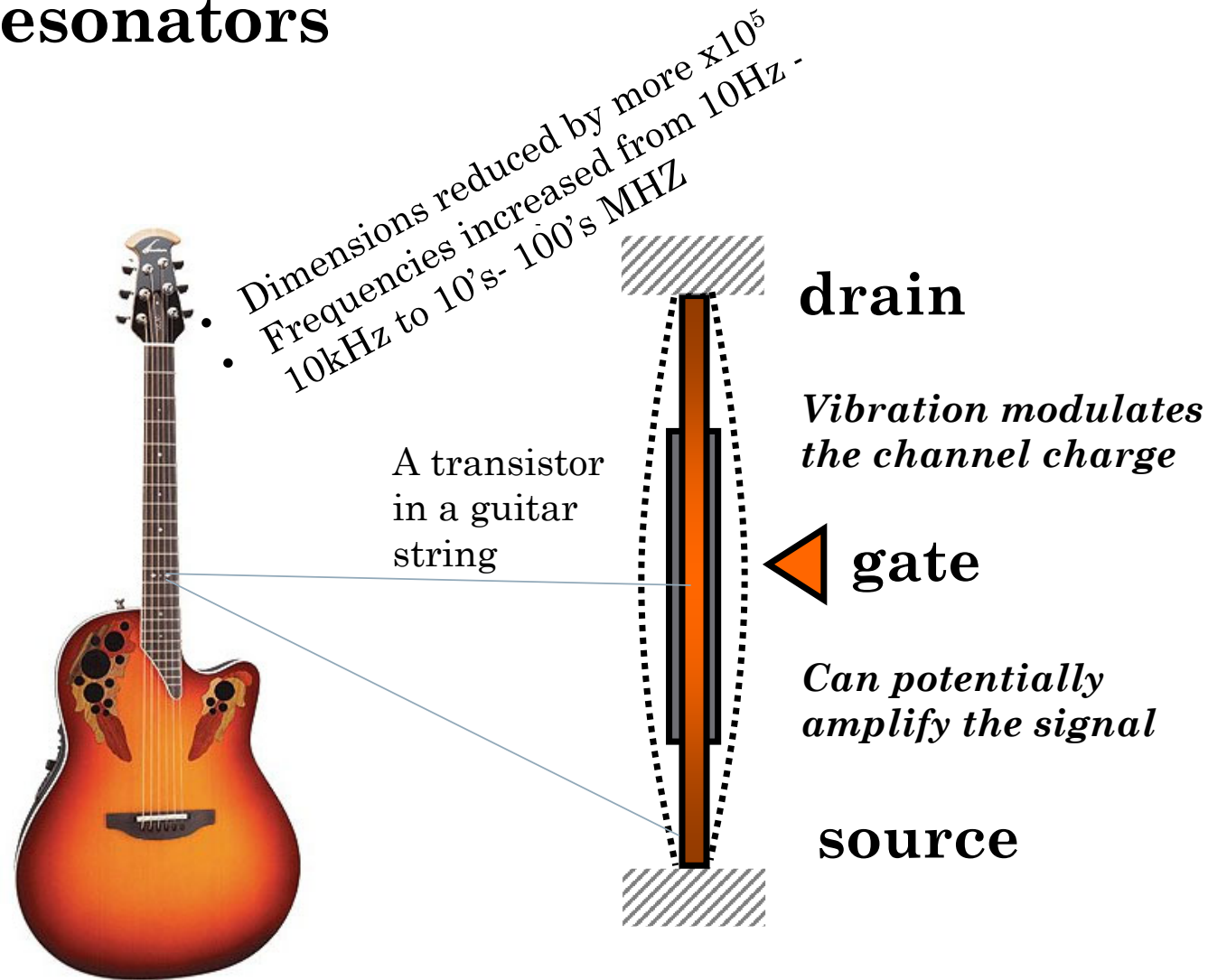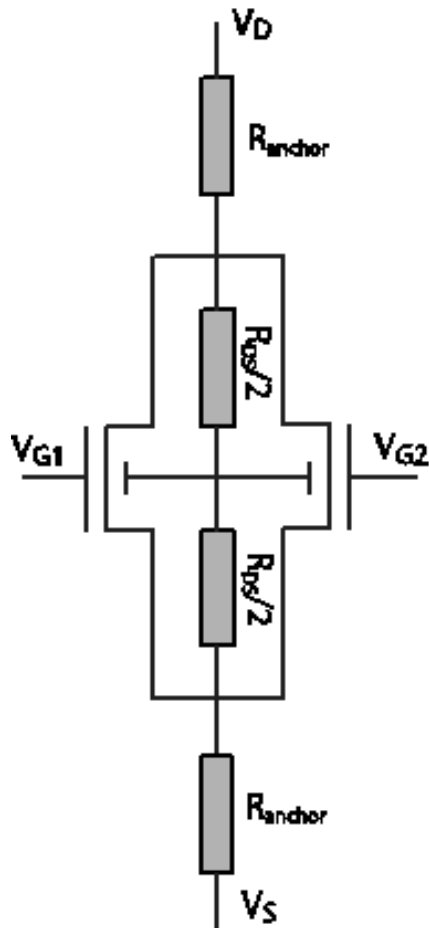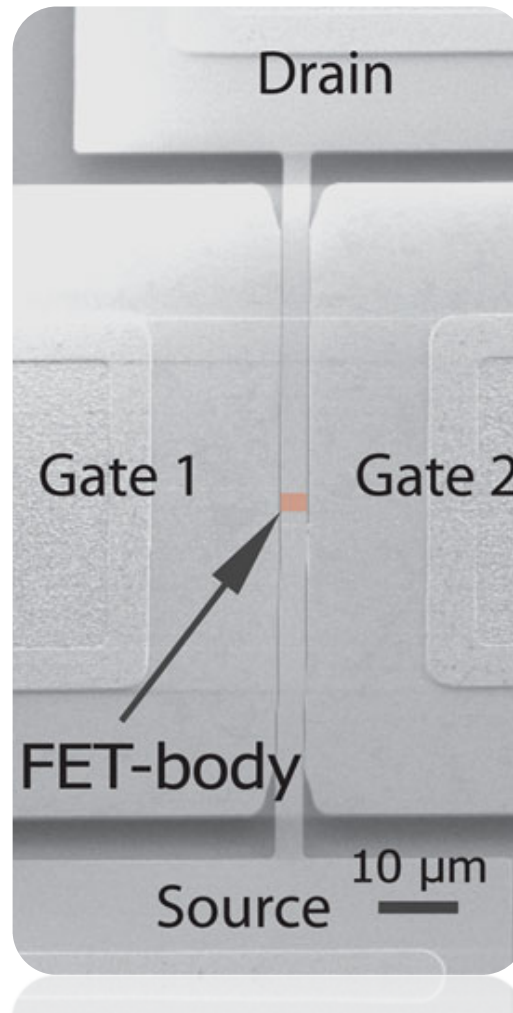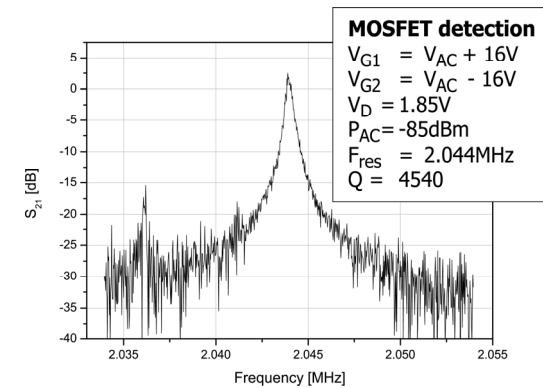
$R_m = -30\Omega$, amplifies!

Fully-depleted RB-FET:

frez = 70MHz

D. Grogg et al, IEDM 2008.
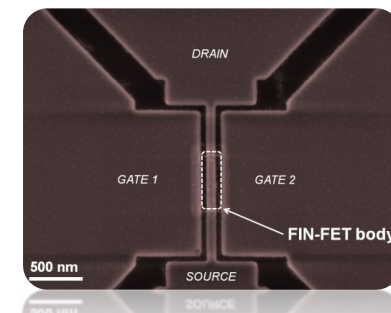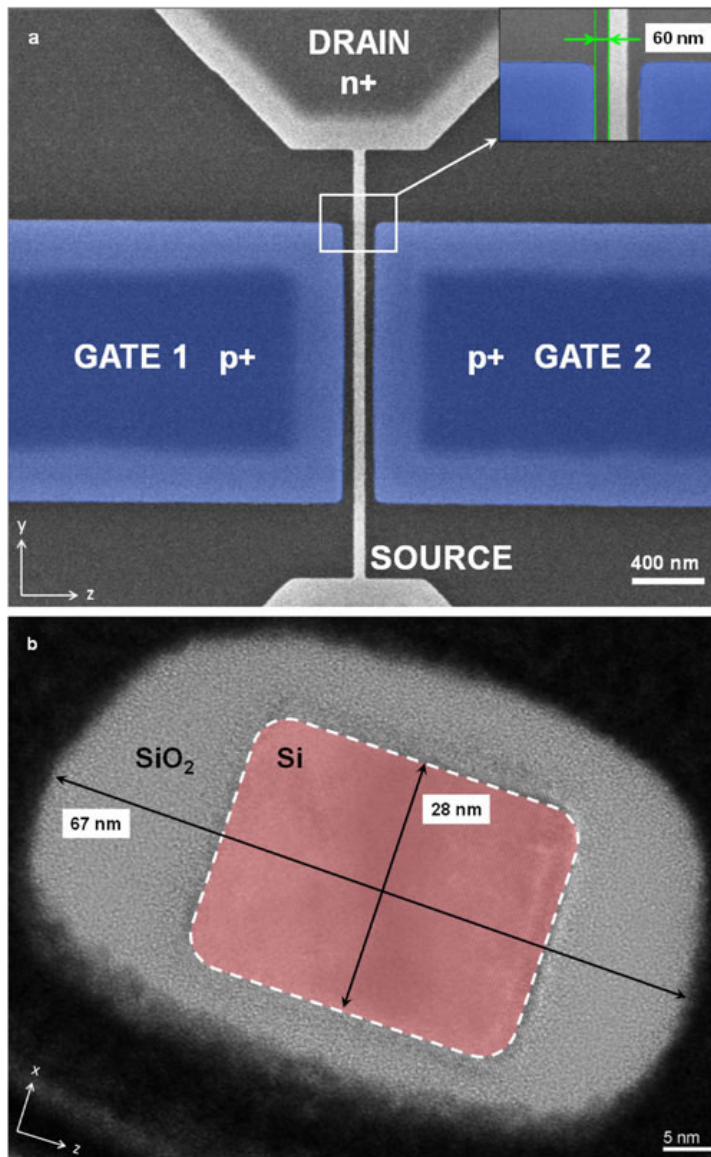
NEMS nanobalances for molecule/atom sensing

Ultra-scaled resonant transistor:
fres ~70 – 200MHz

$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi}\sqrt{\frac{k_{eff}}{m_{eff}}}$$
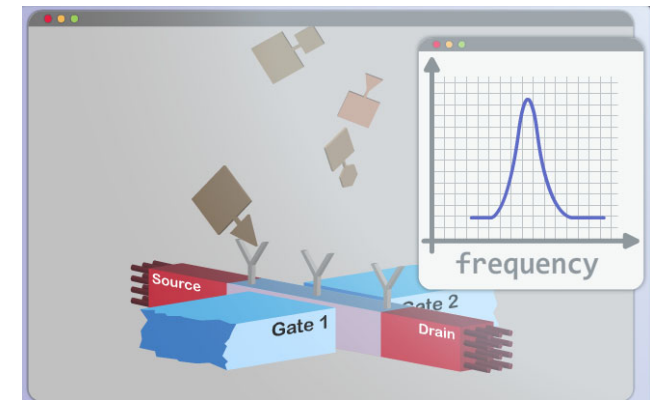
• Mass accretion of 1.3 ag (top) detected: corresponds to approx. 4000 gold atoms
• Scalable to detect ~10 atoms
• **Applications:**
  ✓ **biomarkers for early cancer detection**
  ✓ **integrated gas sensors**
  ✓ **integrated particle sensors**
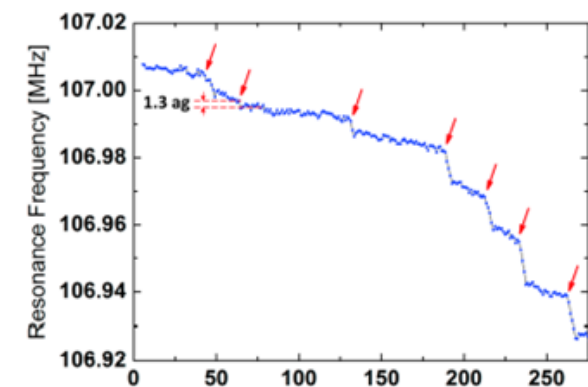
Gas sensors with NEMS (by Caltech)

NEMS Array

Cal Tech (Zeptogram Microresonators)		Achievement 8/25/07
Chemisorbing Resonator	Mass Responsivity	5 Hz/ag
	Mass Resolution	$\sim 10^{-19}$ g (100 zg)
	Operating Pressure	1 atm (760 torr)
Detector Response Time		< 20 ms
No. of Sensor Elements		25,000
Power Consumption		~100 mW
Size		< 1 cm^3
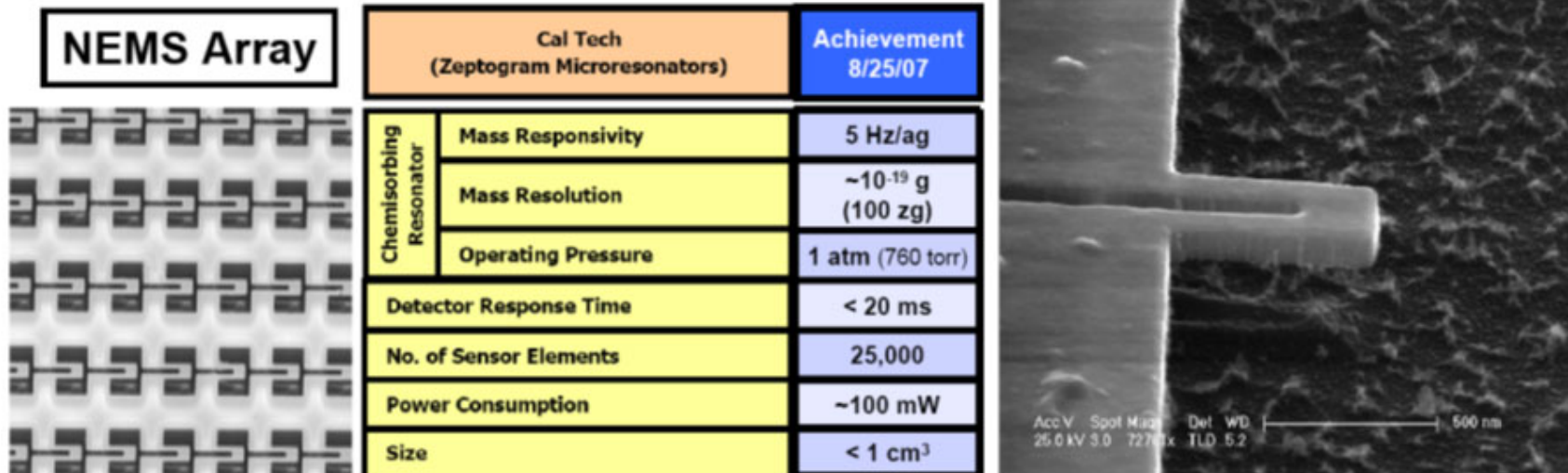
LOD – **200ppt** DIMP
(single sensor, no preconc.)

Slope ~ 8 Hz/ppb

RMS Noise ~ 1.5 Hz

Sensor Response Time
<20ms

20 msec
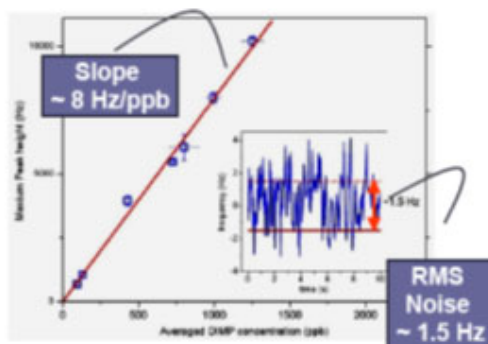
0 solvent
1 Toluene
2 Octane
3 Heptanol
4 CEES
5 DMMP
6 DCP
7 Octanol
8 DEMP
9 DNBS
10 Undecane
11 DIMP
12 DCH
13 MS
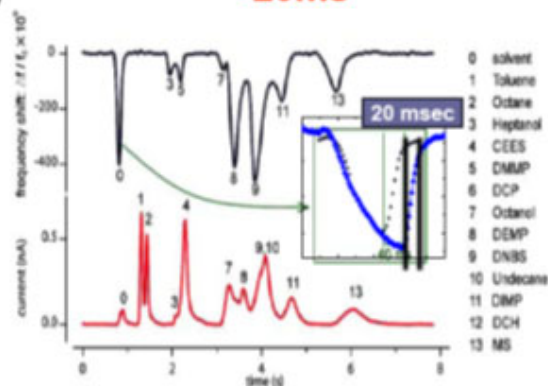
Multisensor Discrimination
of **13 Analytes**
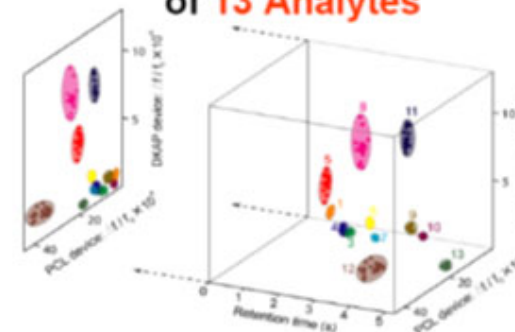
Conclusions: M/NEM resonators

- Large opportunities for **N/MEM resonators in enabling new low power analog/RF systems** (co-integration with silicon ICs) for filtering and mixing

- Future role of vibrant (resonant) FET devices for low power **integrated sensing**

- **NEM resonators**: key components for future advanced signal electro-mechanical processing, from analog/RF to sub-attogram sensing.

Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems (MEMS) Motion Sensors

Growing Market for MEMS Motion Sensors

Volume (Units)

Automotive dominates → Consumer   Wearables   IoT

1993	1994	1998	2006	2007
ADI ADXL accelerometer for airbags	Bosch DRIE process	Bosch gryo for ESC	Nintendo Wii controller	Apple iPhone

MEMS sensors in navigation systems

Accelerometers

Gyroscopes

Magnetometers

Pressure sensors

GE

Microphones

IMUs (Accel+Gyro+Mag)
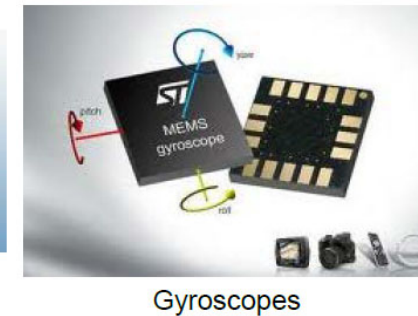
MEMS Inertial Sensors

- In any inertial system, a proof mass, m, is suspended on a mechanical frame by a spring, k_m, and responds to an input force, F, mirroring the quantity to be measured.

- The input force causes a displacement, x, of the mass, and the displacement is measured to sense the force coming from:
  - **acceleration of the mass**, as is the case in an **accelerometers**
  - from a **Coriolis acceleration**, resulting from angular rotation of the mass, as is the case in a **vibratory rate gyroscope**.

- Design optimization of inertial sensors aims at **high transduction gain**, while rejecting the effects of parasitic forces on the mass.

- The inertial MEMS sensors require analog/mixed-signal circuitry to process and digitize the sensor output.

Force transduction	Mεχhanical dynamics	Charge transduction	
S — G_F — F	$\dfrac{1}{ms^2 + b_D s + k_M + k_E}$ — X	$V_B \dfrac{\partial C_s}{\partial x}$ — Q	Sensor output

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Transduction mechanisms

Micro-Electro-Mechanical-Systems (MEMS) technology

$$\Delta Q(\Delta x) = \frac{\partial C_S(x)}{\partial x} V_B \Delta x. \qquad \Delta F(\Delta v) = \frac{\partial C_S(x)}{\partial x} V_B \Delta v.$$

		Capacitance	Charge transduction	Force transduction	Spring constant
		C(x)	$\Delta Q(\Delta x)$	$\Delta F(\Delta v)$	k_E
Parallel-plate capacitor	A: plate area	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 A}{g_0 - x}$	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 A}{g_0^2} V_B \Delta x$	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 A}{g_0^2} V_B \Delta v$	$-\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 A}{g_0^3} V_B^2$
Comb-finger capacitor	w: comb width l: comb overlap @ x=0	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 w(l + x)}{g_0}$	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 w}{g_0} V_B \Delta x$	$\dfrac{\varepsilon_0 w}{g_0} V_B \Delta v$	0
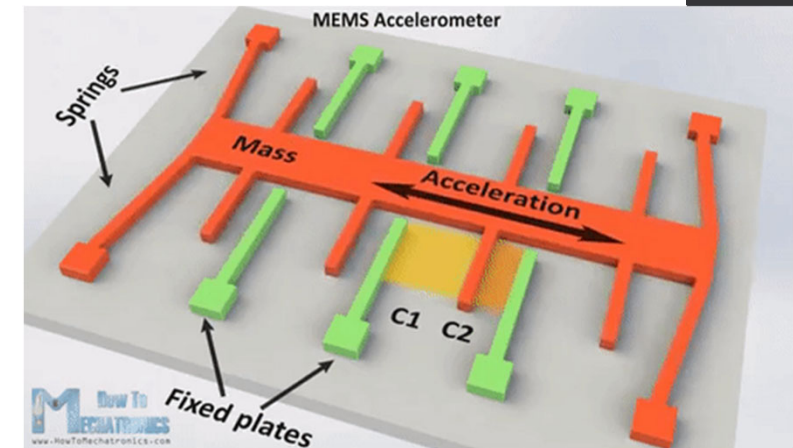
Table 1. *Charge transduction, force transduction, and electrostatic spring constant for two common capacitor types.*

Basic equations

When an acceleration (a) is applied to proof mass (m) suspended by springs with a spring constant (k), and having a damping (b), then the force ($F_{applied}$) acting on the proof mass is given by:

$$F_{applied} - F_{spring} - F_{damping} = m\ddot{x}$$

$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = F_{applied} = ma_{applied}$$

The transfer function $H(s)$ of the system is given by:

$$ms^2 x(s) + bsx(s) + kx(s) = F(s) = ma(s)$$

$$s^2 x(s) + \frac{b}{m}sx(s) + \frac{k}{m}x(s) = \frac{F(s)}{m} = a(s)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{x(s)}{a(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + \frac{b}{m}s + \frac{k}{m}} = \frac{1}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_0}{O}s + \omega_0^2}$$

Accelerometers work in the low frequency domain ($\omega \ll \omega_0$) with their mechanical sensitivity calculated by setting $s = 0$ in the transfer function $H(s)$ to get

$$\frac{x}{a} \sim \frac{m}{k} = \frac{1}{\omega_0^2}$$

acceleration ('a')

Proof mass (m)

x

b

k

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}$$

$$Q = \frac{m\omega_0}{b}$$

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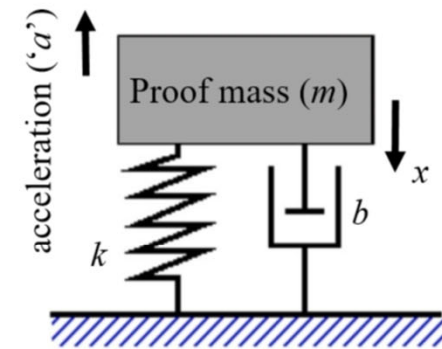
Sensitivity and cross-sensitivity

The sensitivity of an accelerometer is defined as the output voltage signal generated per unit input acceleration in 'g'. It is sometimes referred to as scale factor and denoted by 'S'. The general units are mV/g. For a triaxial accelerometer, the axial sensitivities are independent along the X, Y and Z axes are denoted by X_S, Y_S and Z_S.

$$X_S = \frac{Output\ Volage\ generated\ (mV)}{input\ acceleration\ along\ X - axis\ (g)}$$

$$(X_S)_{AY} = \frac{Output\ Volage\ generated\ (mV)}{input\ acceleration\ along\ Y - axis\ (g)}$$

$$Y_S = \frac{Output\ Volage\ generated\ (mV)}{input\ acceleration\ along\ Y - axis\ (g)}$$

$$(X_S)_{AZ} = \frac{Output\ Volage\ generated\ (mV)}{input\ acceleration\ along\ Z - axis\ (g)}$$

$$Z_S = \frac{Output\ Volage\ generated\ (mV)}{input\ acceleration\ along\ Z - axis\ (g)}$$

- Dynamic range and non-linearity

The dynamic range of the accelerometer is the maximum dynamic acceleration that can be measured accurately. It is given in '$\pm g$'.

$$\%\ Non\ linearity = \frac{Maximum\ deviation\ (g)}{Full\ scale\ range\ (g)} \times 100$$

Accelerometer system

(a)

(b)

Force transduction — Mechanical dynamics — Charge transduction

Acceleration — A — m — F — $\dfrac{1}{ms^2+b_Ds+k_M+k_E}$ — X — $V_D\dfrac{\partial C_s}{\partial x}$ — Q — Sensor output

(c)
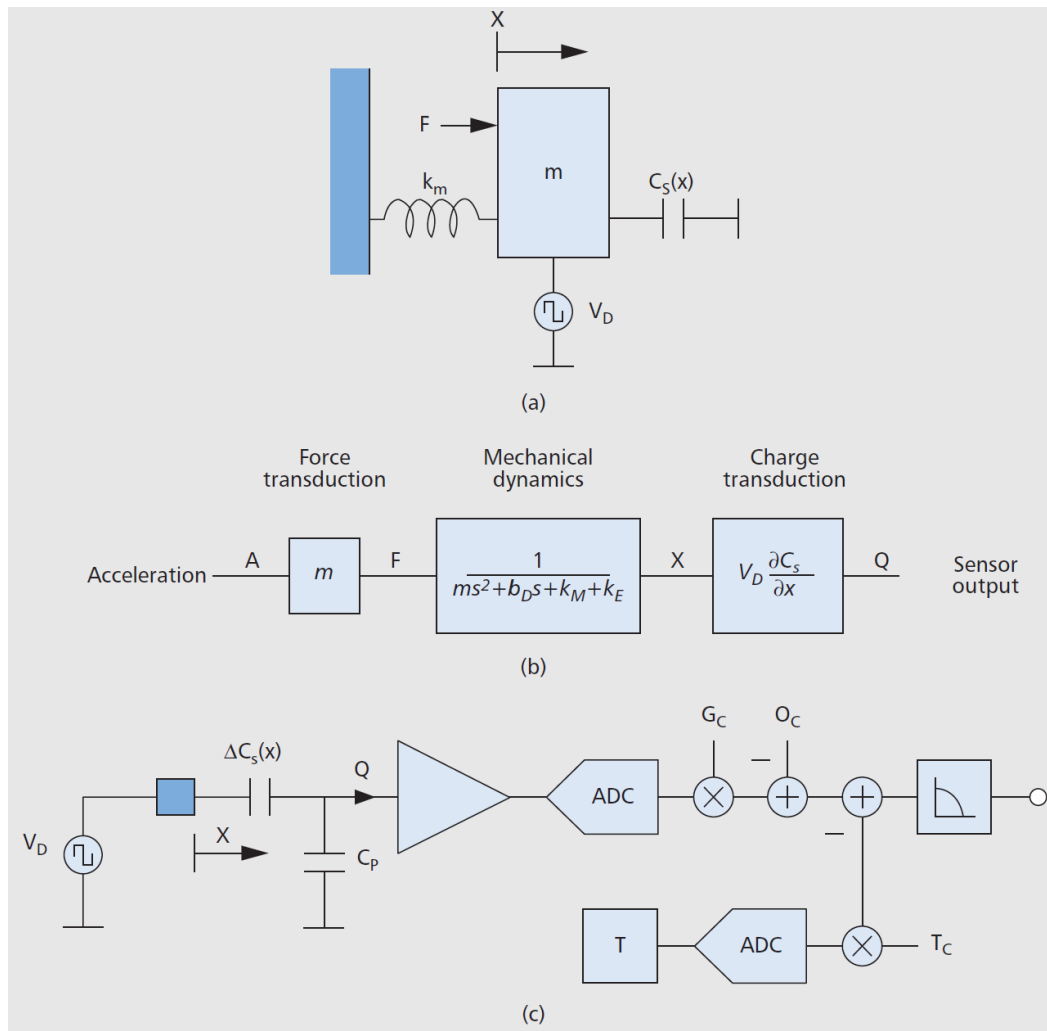
Table 1. Accelerometer Grade and Typical Application Area

Accelerometer Grade	Main Application	Bandwidth	g-Range
Consumer	Motion, static acceleration	0 Hz	1 g
Automotive	Crash/stability	100 Hz	<200 g/2 g
Industrial	Platform stability/tilt	5 Hz to 500 Hz	25 g
Tactical	Weapons/craft navigation	<1 kHz	8 g
Navigation	Submarine/craft navigation	>300 Hz	15 g

Consumer applications
• Output data rates of a few kHZ
• Full-scale ranges of 16g
• 12–16 bit resolution
• DC accuracy over temperature and lifetime:
drift ~500 ppm levels (corresponding to, e.g. 10 mg for a 16g full-scale range), which implies that sub-nanometer displacements are significant for micron-scale gaps.

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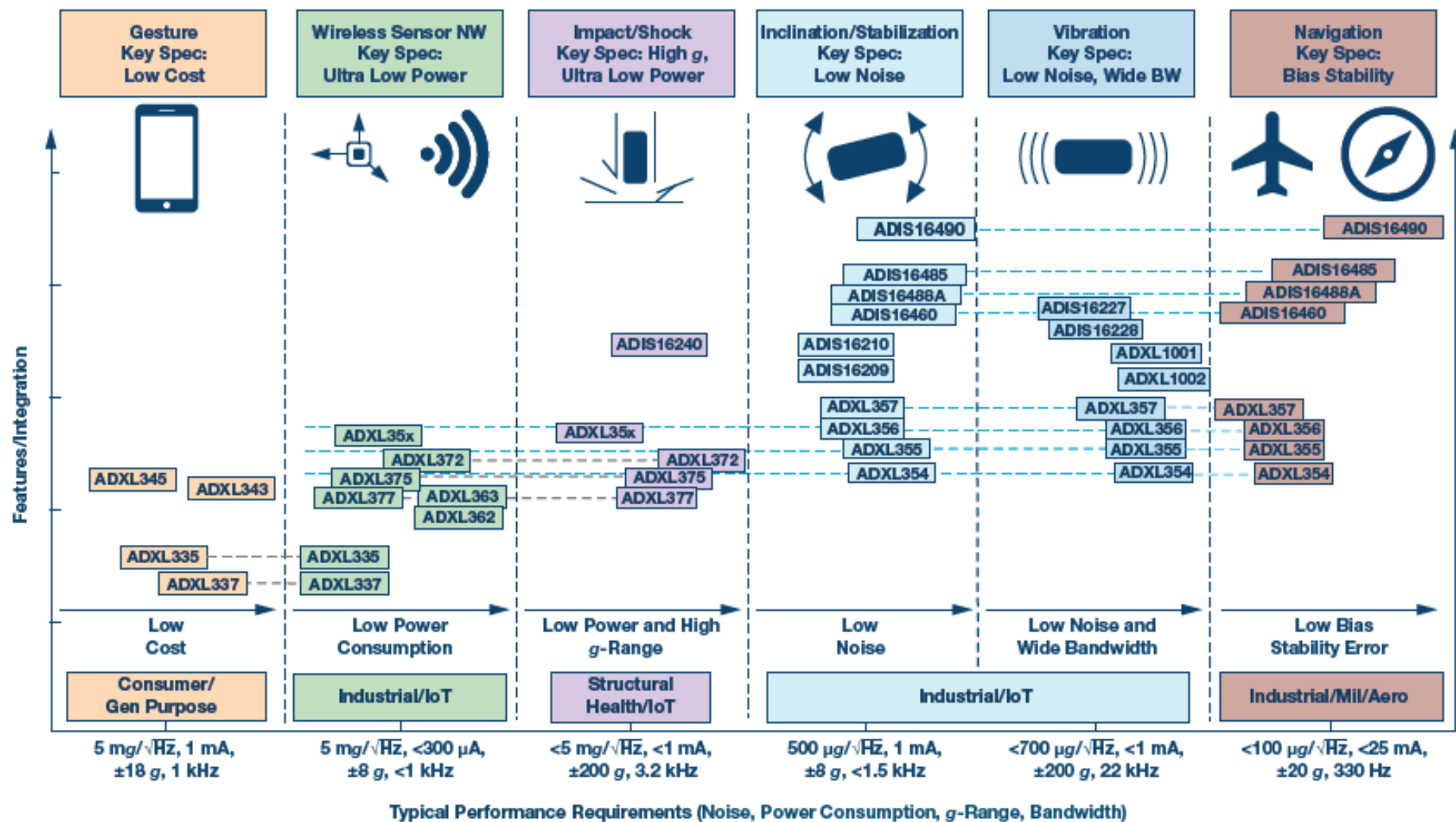
Figure 1. Application landscape for a selection of Analog Devices MEMS accelerometers.

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Case study: a capacitive MEMS accelerometer

Two approaches to measuring acceleration
- Open loop: Measure change due to acceleration
- Closed loop: A disturbance in a position control system

Quasi-static sensing
❖Mechanical resonant frequency > Frequency of acceleration
❖Measure displacement due to acceleration
❖Optical, Capacitive, Piezoresistive, Tunneling

Resonant sensing
❖Measure change in resonant frequency
❖Due to position-dependent nonlinear spring

Today's example involves a quasi-static accelerometer

Basics: displacement and acceleration

Displacement and acceleration are coupled together by a fundamental scaling law

- A higher resonant frequency implies less displacement

- high f & low sensitivity

- Measuring small accelerations requires floppier structures

- high sensitivity and low f

$$x = \frac{F}{k} = \frac{ma}{k}$$

$$\boxed{x = \frac{a}{\omega_0^2}}$$

Fundamental low Limit of detection (LoD)

- Johnson noise in the damping mechanism

$$a_{n,rms} = \sqrt{\frac{4k_B T \omega_0}{mQ}}$$

How to use a MEM capacitor?

- **Single MEM capacitors:**
  - ❖ **Capacitance is function of gap or area**
  - ❖ **Can be nonlinear**

Parallel plate

Interdigital

Fixed

Fixed
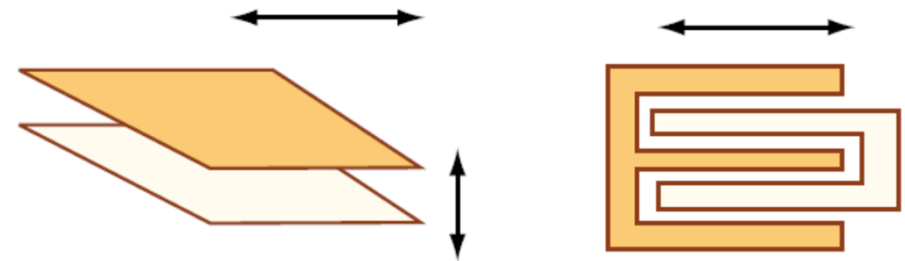
- **Differential capacitors**
  - ❖ **One capacitor increases while the other decreases**
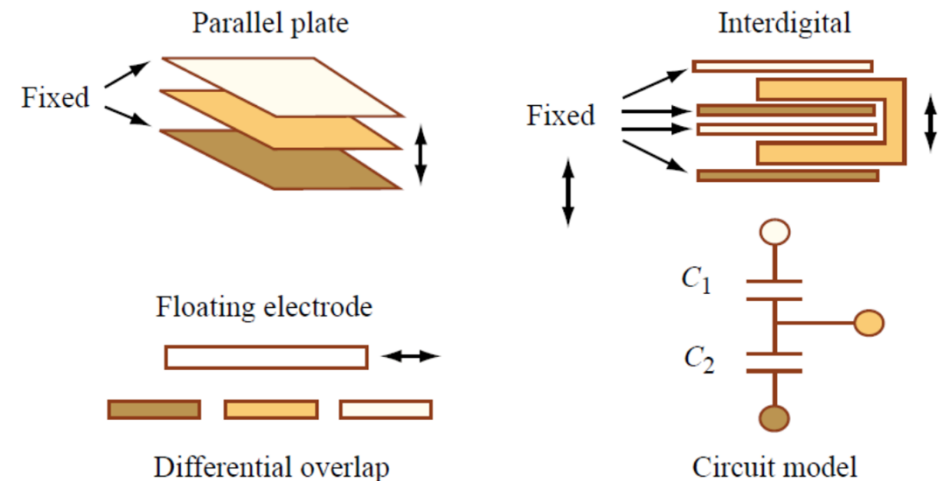
Floating electrode

C_1

C_2

Differential overlap

Circuit model

Using a differential capacitor

- Differential drive creates sense signal proportional to capacitance difference

- Gives zero output for zero change

- Output linear with gap
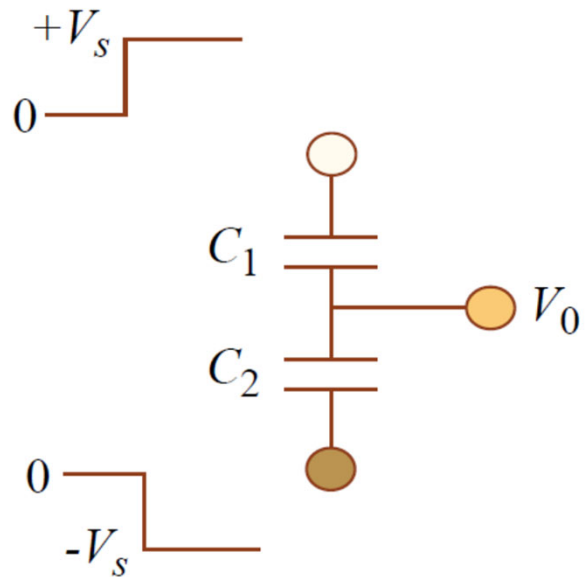
$$V_0 = -V_s + \frac{C_1}{C_1 + C_2}(2V_s) = \frac{C_1 - C_2}{C_1 + C_2}V_s$$

for parallel-plate capacitors where only g changes, this becomes

$$V_0 = \frac{g_2 - g_1}{g_1 + g_2}V_s$$

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Transimpedance circuit (1)

- **The simplest type of circuit measures the displacement current in a capacitor using a transimpedance amplifier**

- **Transimpedance converts current to voltage**

- **Nulls out parasitic capacitance**

- **If source is DC, measure velocity of motion, not really what we want…**
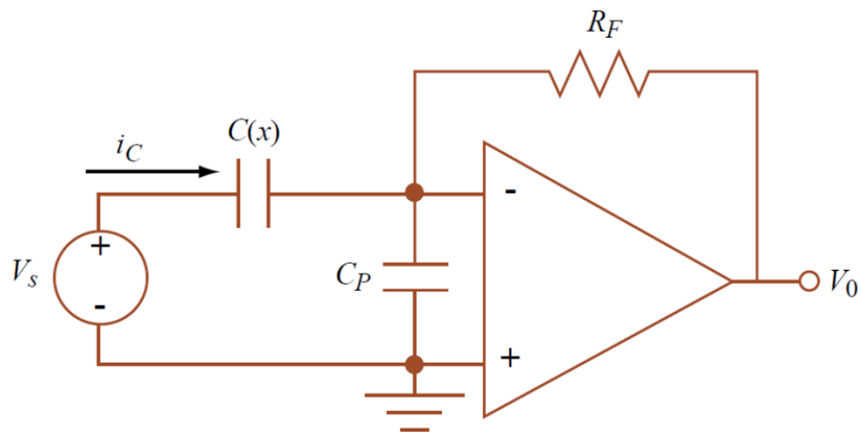
$$V_0 = -R_F V_S \left.\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}\right|_{V_S} \underbrace{\phantom{\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}}}_{\text{constant}} \frac{dx}{dt}$$

Inertial MEMS for human activity (1)

Engineering aspects:

- Design optimization of inertial sensors aims at **high transduction gain**, while rejecting the effects of parasitic forces on the mass.

- Inertial MEMS sensors require **analog/mixed-signal circuitry** to process and digitize the sensor output.

- Important aspects for the wearability: **low power consumption and the small size.**

- The energy efficiency of inertial sensors is currently evaluated by some specific figures of merit such as a power ratio of peak SNR to energy per conversion.

- Other practical aspects (packaging, cost, etc).

Inertial MEMS for human activity (2)

- **Status in MEMS for inertial measurement:**
  - major technology & package progress made by ST Microelectronics, Texas Instruments and InvenSense
  - ST Microelectronics (2014):
    - 3 Billions MEMS units, with manufacturing capacity larger than 3 Mu/day
    - include analog and digital accelerometer and gyroscope sensors with advanced power saving features for ultra-low-power applications.

Figure 6. *InvenSense silicon MEMS/CMOS fabrication technology: a) assembly; b) device cross-section.*
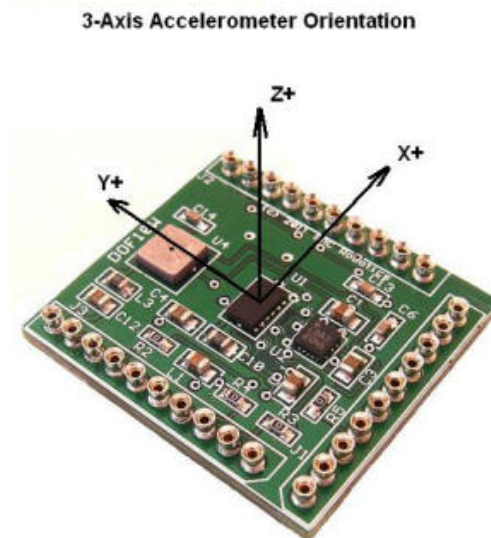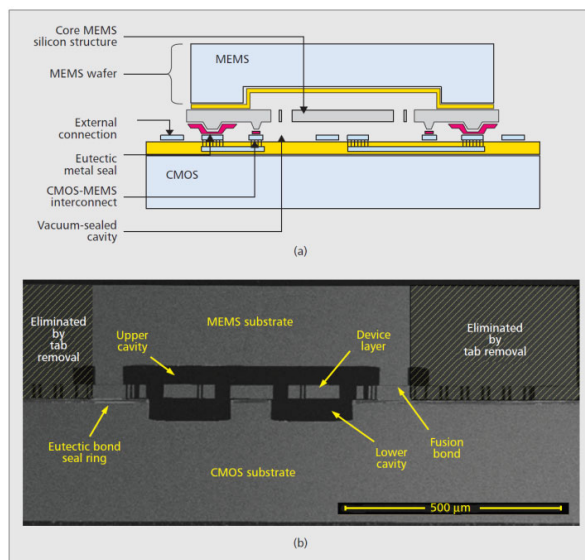
ST Microelectronics
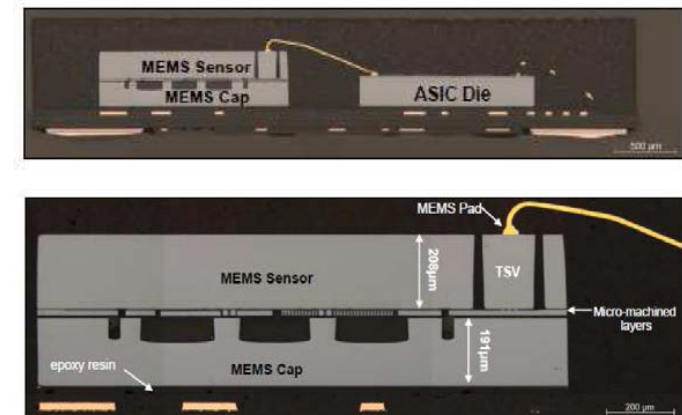
Ultra-low power NEMS-accelerometers

Applications : airbag (but no real need for miniaturisation), Ipod, videogames, mini-drones, etc.

$$I(t) = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} V$$

Micro-accelerometer

Nano-accelerometer

SEM images of micro and nano-systems fabricated at LETI-CEA (Grenoble)

Commercial MEMS IMU's

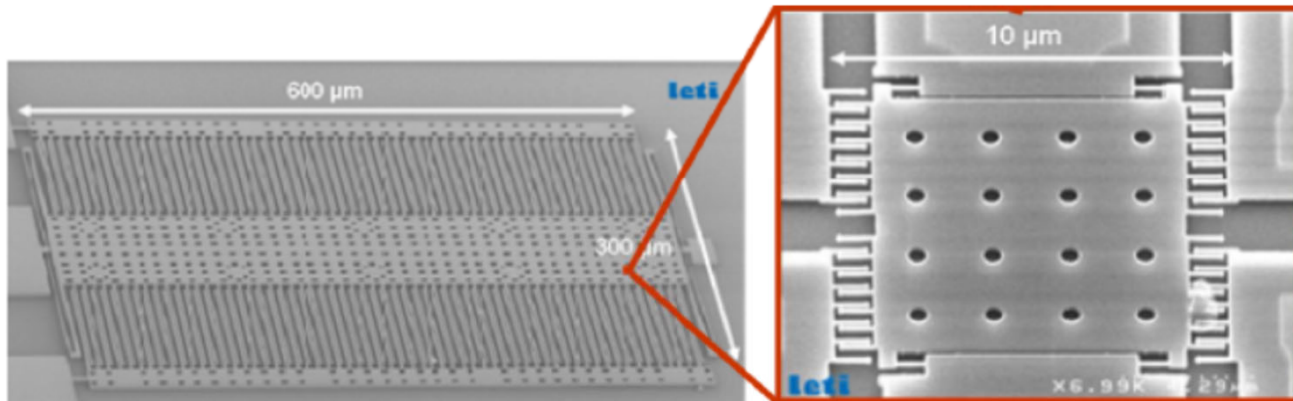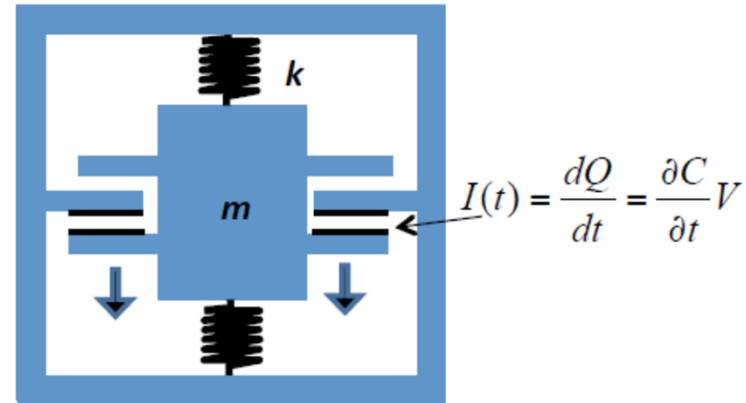Consumer MEMS success story
Continuous innovation

Timeline (2005–2018):

- **World's first indoor air quality sensor** (2015)
- **Optical microsystems** (2017)
- **Smallest high performance barometric pressure sensor** (2017)
- **World's smallest digital pressure sensor** (2006)
- **Full portfolio of acceleration and pressure sensors** (2008)
- **3x3 mm² eCompass** (2011)
- **Sensor system with μController** (2013)
- **Smart sensor hubs** (2015)

- **First acceleration sensor** (2005)
- **World's smallest digital acceleration sensor** (2007)
- **First 2x2 mm² acceleration sensor** (2010)
- **World's smallest gyroscope in 3x3 mm³** (2012)
- **Ultra low power IMU** (2014)
- **World's smallest 9-axis sensor** (2016)
- **Intelligent acceleration sensor** (2016)
- **To be continued…** (2018)

2005 2006 2007 2008 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016 2017 2018

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