

Advanced MEMS and Microsystems

Dr. Danick Briand, Prof. Guillermo Villanueva

TODAY 20 May 2025

- Lecture on PowerMEMS (2h)
- Seminar Melexis **at 12h15**

NEXT WEEK 27 May 2025

- Handle-in your answers for the seminar from Melexis
- **NO CLASS:** Quiz to be done at home

Course content and schedule

Dates	Topics	Lecturers
18.02	Introduction Transducers review: pre-recorded lectures	D. Briand / G. Villanueva
25.02	Sensors part I Exercises	D. Briand
04.03	Sensors part II Industrial seminar #1	D. Briand
11.03	Students presentations	D. Briand / G. Villanueva
18.03	Actuators and Optical MEMS Industrial seminar #2	D. Briand
25.03	Acoustic and Ultrasonic MEMS Industrial seminar #3	G. Villanueva
01.04	RF-MEMS	G. Villanueva
08.04	NEMS	G. Villanueva
15.04	Interactive session	D. Briand / G. Villanueva
29.04	Thermal and gas sensors Industrial seminar #4	D. Briand
06.05	Packaging	D. Briand
13.05	Packaging Industrial seminar #5	D. Briand
20.05	PowerMEMS Industrial seminar #6	D. Briand
27.05	Quiz at home NO CLASS	All

Advanced MEMS and Microsystems

LESSON 09 – PowerMEMS

Dr. Danick Briand

Maître d'Enseignement et de Recherche (MER)

Team leader MEMS & Printed Microsystems

EPFL-STI-LMTS

1. Introduction to PowerMEMS

2. Micro energy harvesting

- Thermal
- Vibrations

- **MEMS**
 - Mechanical sensors and actuators
- **MOEMS and Optical MEMS**
 - Sensing or manipulating optical signals at the micro-scale
- **RF-MEMS**
 - Refers to components of which moving sub-millimeter-sized parts provide RF functionality
- **BioMEMS**
 - Biological matter is manipulated to analyze and measure its activity / biological and biomedical analysis and measurements and micro total analysis systems
- **PowerMEMS**
 - Micro devices for power supply and energy scavenging and harvesting

Energy storage

- Electrochemical batteries have been a dominant form of energy storage for the past 100 years
- Batteries are probably the easiest power solution for wireless electronics because of their versatility
- *Primary* batteries irreversibly transform chemical energy to electrical energy
- *Secondary* batteries can be recharged; they can have their chemical reactions reversed by supplying electrical energy to the cell, restoring their original composition



The strongest competitor !

Super capacitor, ultracapacitor, electrochemical capacitor

- Standard capacitors can provide significantly higher power densities than batteries, energy density lower by about 2 to 3 orders
- Supercapacitor: higher energy density than standard capacitor and retain long life and short charging time
- Supercapacitor store ionic charge in an electric double layer to increase their effective capacitance

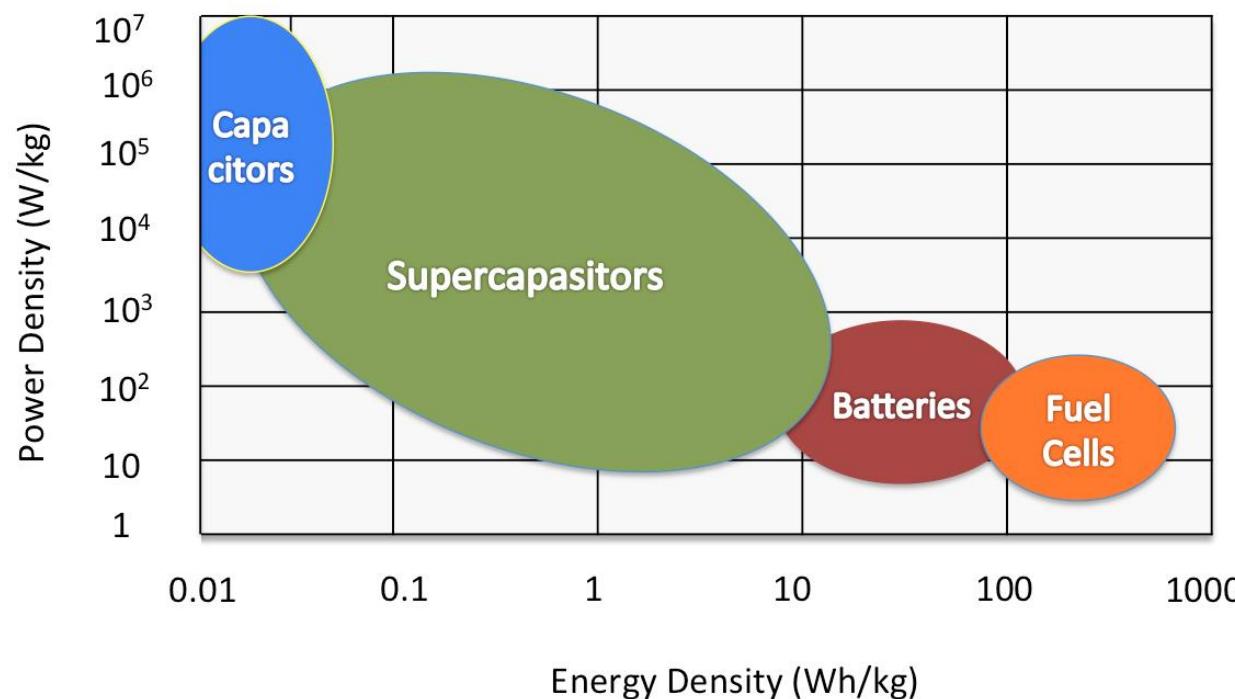
- Energy density 1 order of magnitude higher than standard capacitor and 1 to 2 orders of magnitude lower than rechargeable batteries
- Larger operating temperature range (-40 to 85 °C) than a battery
- Low impedance source for peak current loads (interesting for wireless communication)
- Several discharging and charging cycles (millions)
- However, supercaps exhibit relatively high self-discharge current



CAP-XX offers a very low profile.

Battery vs. Supercapacitors

- Comparison



Why not stick to batteries ?



10W



1W



1mW



100µW



10µW



1µW

- **Batteries**

- Storage of energy but limited in power
- Progresses are really small year by year
- Lifetime limitation
- Internal resistance variation
- Limited temperature of operation
- Volume
- Maintenance
- Environmental concerns

- **Categories of devices to power**

- Consumer goods eliminating the need to connect to the power grid (the W)
- Large scale distributed smart systems with no maintenance and reduced size (The mW and the µW)

- Improve energy density of storage systems
- Develop different methods to distribute the power to nodes
- Develop technologies that enable a system to generate or « harvest » its own power

Alternative energy sources and power devices

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Physical energy sources

- *Nuclear*
- *Radioactivity*
- *Light*
- *Heat*
- *Wind*
- *Acoustics, vibrations*
- *Geothermal*
- *Tides*

Radio frequency power distribution

- *For electronics ID tags (RFID), smart tags*
 - More effective when focused on a specific location
 - Simple model neglecting reflections and interference: power received:

$$P_r = \frac{P_0 \lambda^2}{4\pi R^2} \quad \text{Most likely in indoor environment: } 1/R^4$$

P_0 : transmitted power, λ : wavelength, R is the distance between transmitter and receiver

- Frequency in 2.4-2.485 GHz, 5 meters, 1 Watt transmitter, the power received at the node would be 50 μ W

Light / Solar cells

- *Midday sunny day: incident sun light has a power density of roughly 100 mW/cm² at the surface of the earth*
 - *Single crystal silicon solar cells exhibit efficiencies of 15 -20 % outdoor*
- *Light office: 100 µW/cm² at the surface of a desk*
 - *Thin film amorphous silicon or cadmium telluride cells indoor at 10% efficiency*
- *Power available from 15 mW/cm² outdoors to 10 µW/cm² indoors*

Power from a cadmium telluride solar cell at various distances from a 60 W incandescent bulb and under standard office lighting conditions.

Distance (cm)	20	30	45	Office light
Power (µW/cm ²)	503	236	111	7.2

Temperature gradients

- *Maximum efficiency of power conversion from a temperature difference is equal to the Carnot efficiency:*

$$\eta = \frac{T_{high} - T_{low}}{T_{high}}$$

Room temperature of 20°C:
source 5°C above = 1.6%
source 10°C above = 3.3.%

- *Amount of heat flow (power) is given by:*

$$q' = k \frac{\Delta T}{L}$$

Silicon at 140 W/mK, 5°C difference, 1 cm length:
Heat flow = 7 W/cm², at Carnot efficiency : 117 mW/cm²

k: thermal conductivity of the material

L: length of the material

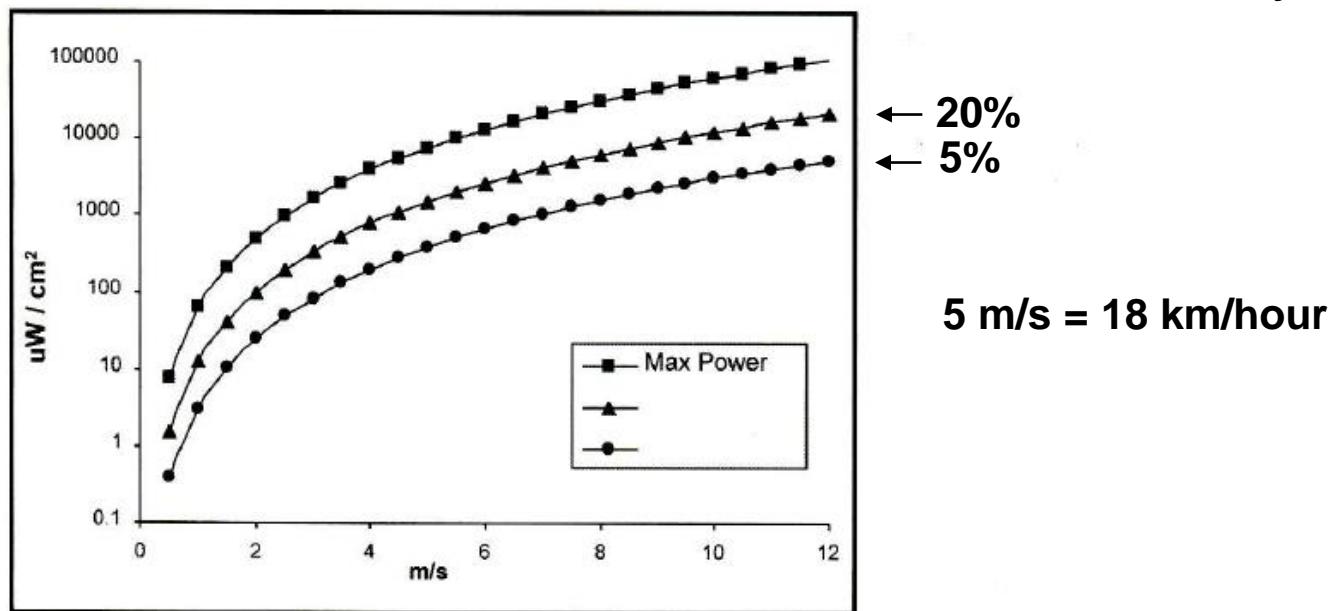
Acoustics, vibrations

- Energy in the form of acoustic waves: a sound wave of 100 dB in sound level only has a power level of $0.96 \mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$
- Low level vibrations occur in many environments:
 - Large commercial buildings, automobiles, aircrafts, ships, trains, industrial environments, machine tools...
 - Potential of $300 \mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^3$ in such environments

Wind / air flow

- Potential power from moving air is: $P = \frac{1}{2} \rho A v^3$

ρ : density of air
(1.22 kg/m³ at AtmPressure)
A: cross-sectional area
v: air velocity



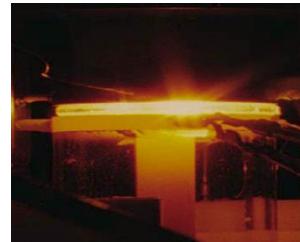
Maximum power density vs. air velocity. Power density assuming 20% and 5% conversion efficiencies are also shown [4].

Alternative power sources

Power Source	P/cm ³ (μ W/cm ³)	E/cm ³ (Whr/cm ³)	P/cm ³ /yr (μ W/cm ³ /Yr)	Secondary Storage Needed	Voltage Regulation	Comm. Available
Primary Battery	-	0,80	90	No	No	Yes
Secondary Battery	-	0,30	34	-	No	Yes
Micro-Fuel Cell	-	0,97	110	Maybe	Maybe	No
Ultra-capacitor	-	0,03	3.2	No	Yes	Yes
Heat engine	-	0,93	106	Yes	Yes	No
Radioactive(⁶³ Ni)	0.52	0,46	0.52	Yes	Yes	No
Solar (outside)	15000 *	-	-	Usually	Maybe	Yes
Solar (inside)	10 *	-	-	Usually	Maybe	Yes
Temperature	40 *	-	-	Usually	Maybe	Limited
Human Power	330	-	-	Yes	Yes	No
Air flow	350	-	-	Yes	Yes	No
Pressure Variation	17	-	-	Yes	Yes	No
Vibrations	200	-	-	Yes	Yes	Limited
Strain induced	200	-	-	Yes	Yes	Limited

Micro power devices and systems

- Two main categories:
 - Generator (batteries, micro-heat engines, fuel-cells)
 - Harvesters / scavengers (solar cells, mechanical, thermal)



MIT
Turbine



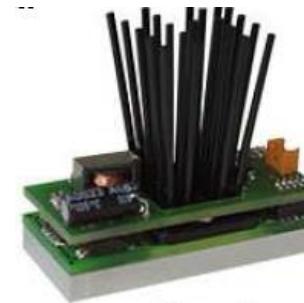
MTI fuel cell



VHF Technologies (CH)



Perpetuum (UK)



Micropelt (DE)

- Sources of energy and harvesting approaches
- Thermal energy harvesting
- Vibration energy harvesting
- Some applications
- Conclusions and perspectives

No practical power without power management

Harvesting Sources

Design, Fabrication and Testing



Photovoltaic



Vibration



Thermal

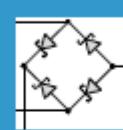


RF

Power management

IC Design and Testing

AC/DC



DC/DC



LOAD

Energy Storage Systems

Characterization and Selection

Battery



Supercap



Biofuel cell

Micropower Module

IMEC - Holst Center

Sources of energy and harvesting approaches

Power available

How much power is available ?



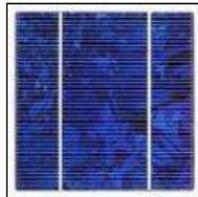
Photovoltaic

Outdoor

10 mW/cm²

Indoor

10 µW/cm²



Vibration

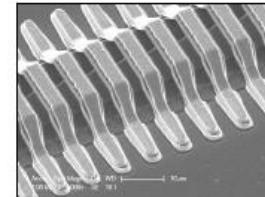
Man
4 µW/cm²
Machine

100 µW/cm²



Thermal

Man
20 µW/cm²
Machine
1-10 mW/cm²



RF

GSM
0.1 µW/cm²
WiFi



*Vullers et al, Micropower Energy Harvesting, [Solid-State Electronics](#)
[53 \(7\)](#) Pgs 684-693, DOI: 10.1016/j.sse.2008.12.011

Energy harvesters getting smaller

Vibration



KCF Technology



Perpetuum

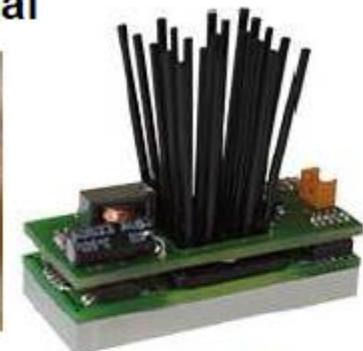


Microstrain

Thermal

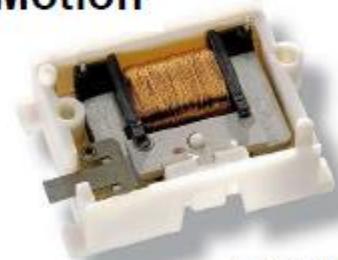


Seiko



Micropelt

Motion



EnOcean

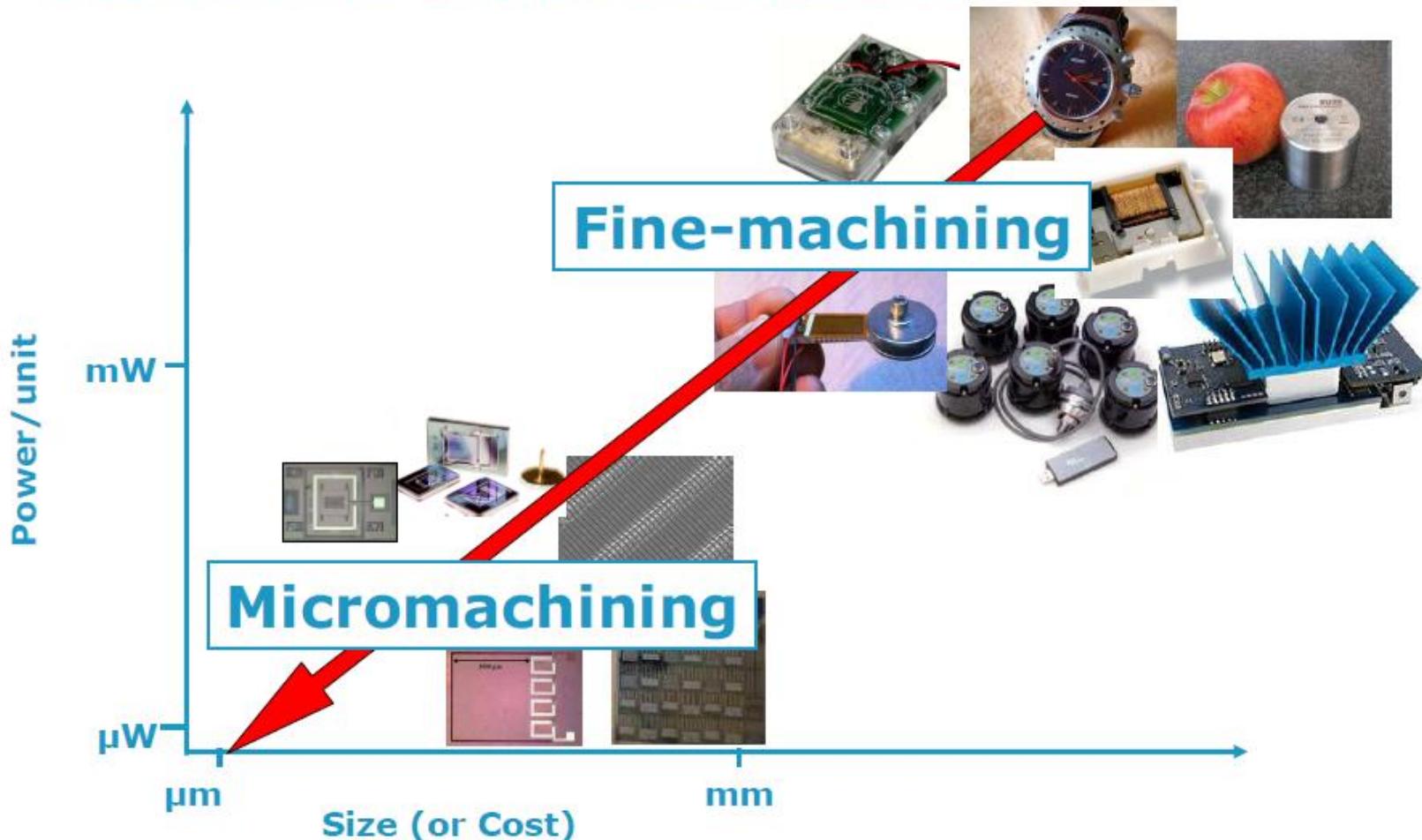
HOWEVER ... today's systems are only addressing niche applications:

- too little power generated
- or too big/heavy
- too expensive

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Towards miniaturization

Cost reduction through Miniaturization



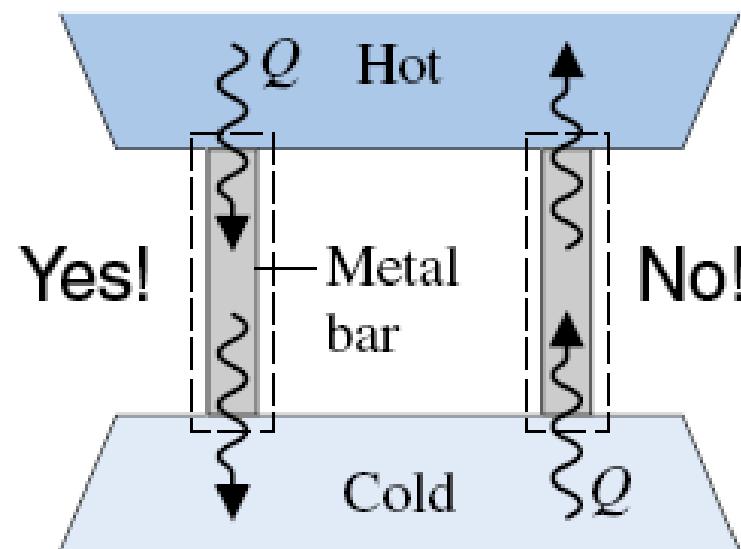
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Principles and definitions

- **Heat Transfer:** heat naturally flows from the hot to the cold region

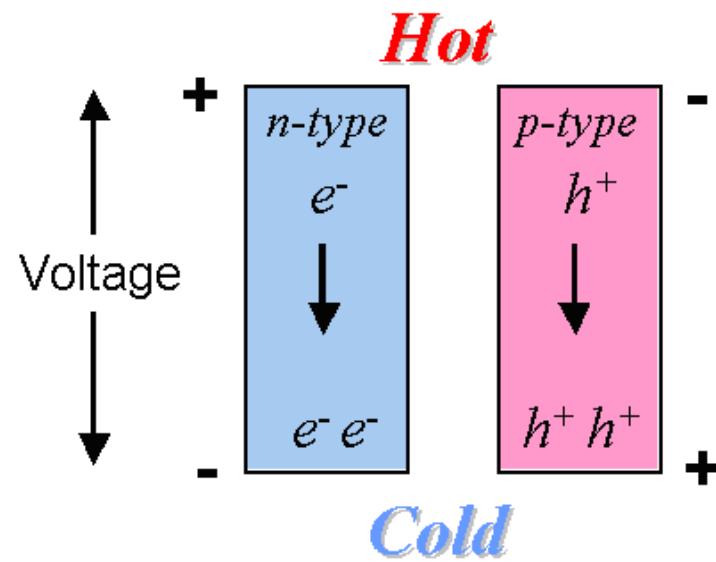
$$\dot{Q} = \Delta T / R_t$$

R_t : Thermal Resistance

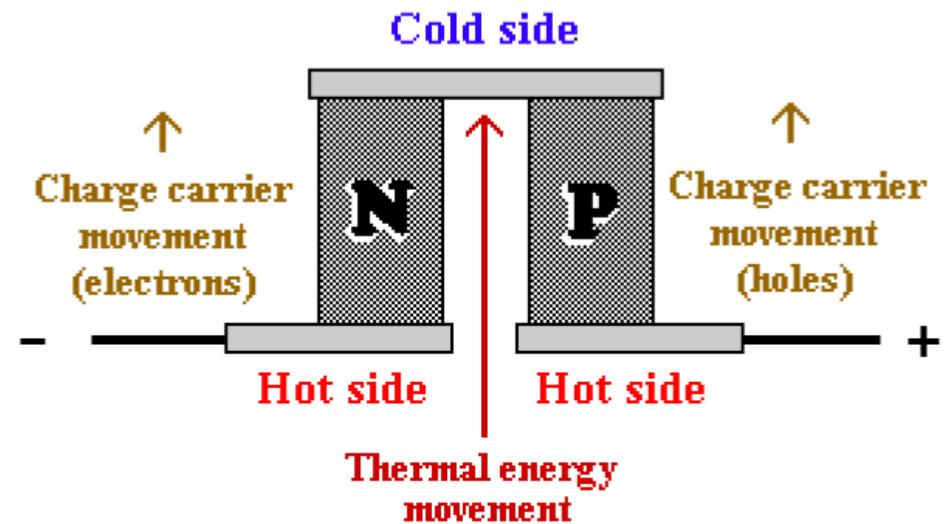


Basic principles

Seebeck Effect



Series connections

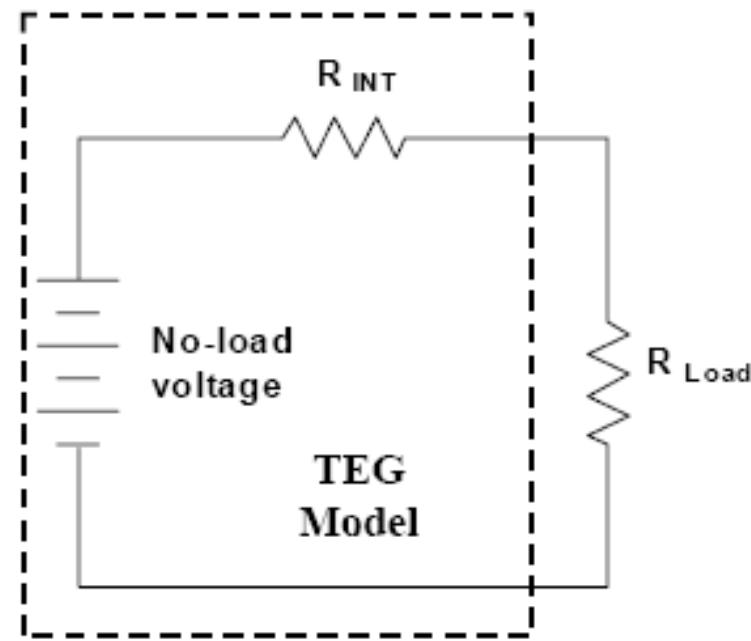
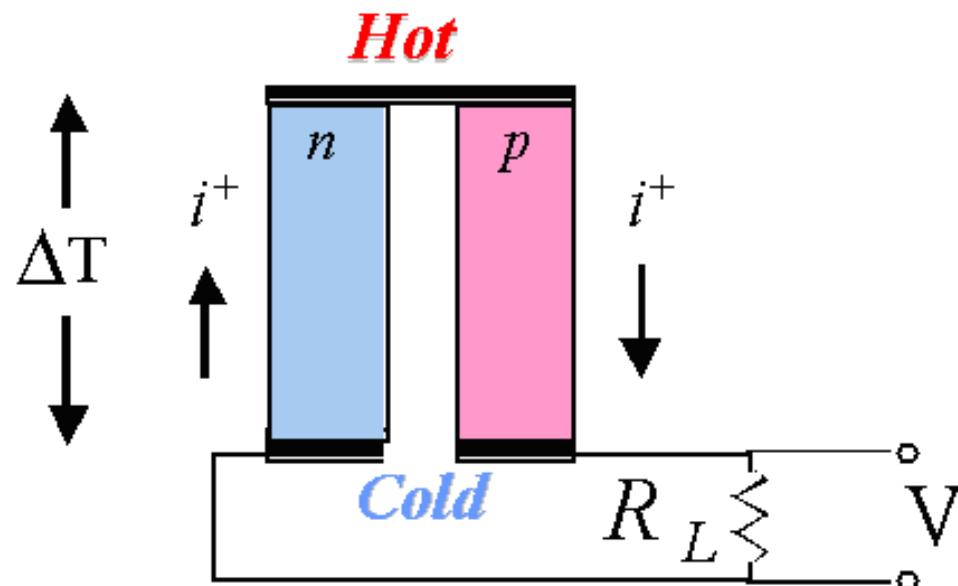


$$V = \alpha \Delta T$$

where

α : Seebeck coefficient (V/K)

Thermoelectric power generation



- **Optimum power generation when $R_L = R_{INT}$; where $R_{INT} = 1 / \sigma A$**
 σ = electrical conductivity
 A/I = Cross sectional area to length ratio of TE elements
- **Power = $I/V = V^2/R = \alpha^2 \sigma \Delta T^2 A/I$ with $V = \alpha \Delta T$**

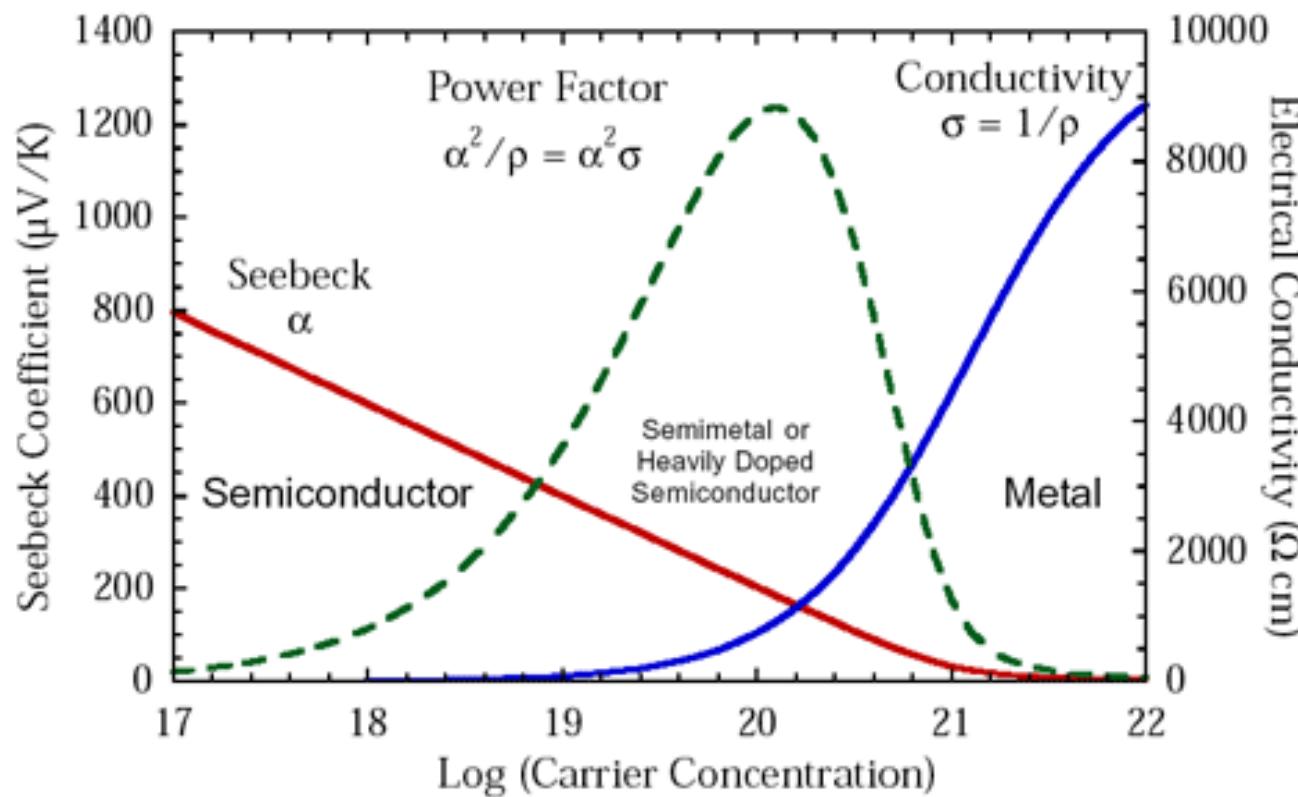
- For efficient operation, high power must be produced with a minimum of heat (Q). The thermal conductivity, k , acts as a thermal short and reduces efficiency.
- Figure of Merit:

$$zT = \frac{\alpha^2 \sigma}{k} T$$

To maximize zT , want a material with:

- High power factor: $\alpha^2 \sigma$
- Low thermal conductivity, k

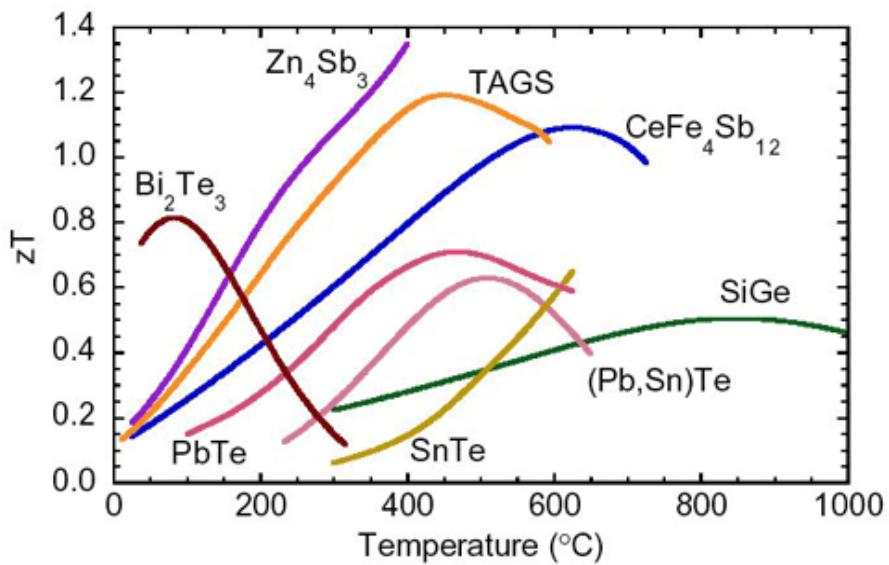
Materials selection



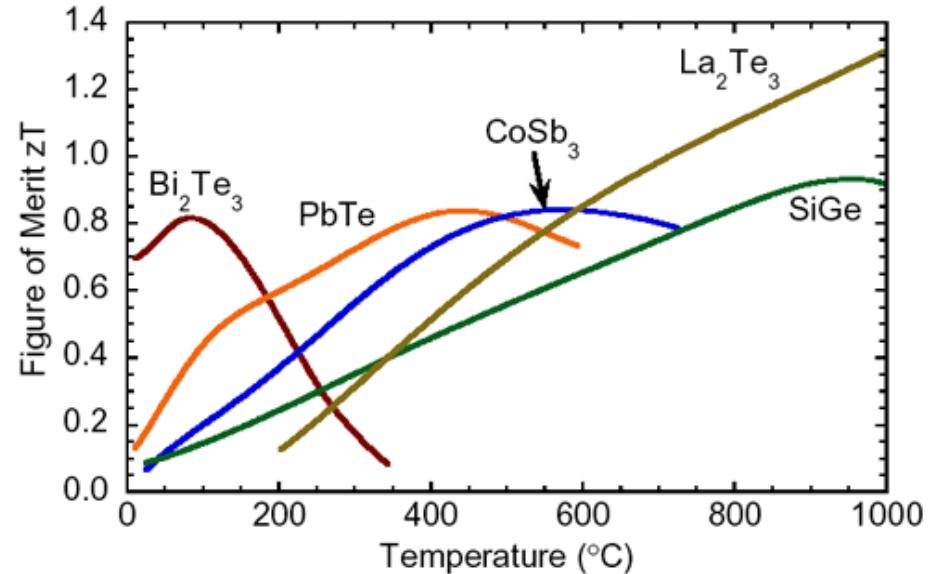
CRC Handbook of Thermoelectrics, CRC Press, 1995

Material properties

zT for p-type TE materials

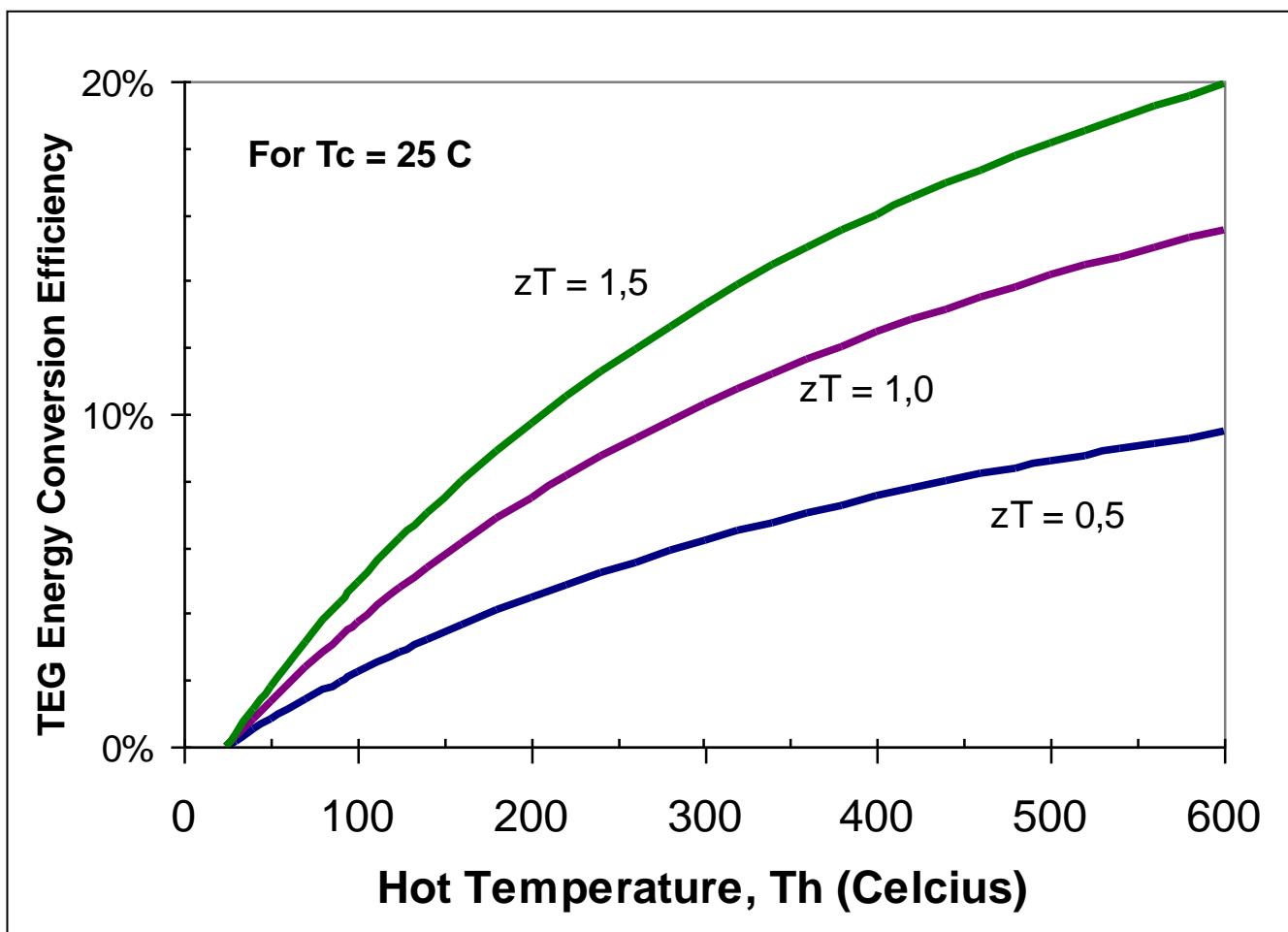


zT for n-type TE materials



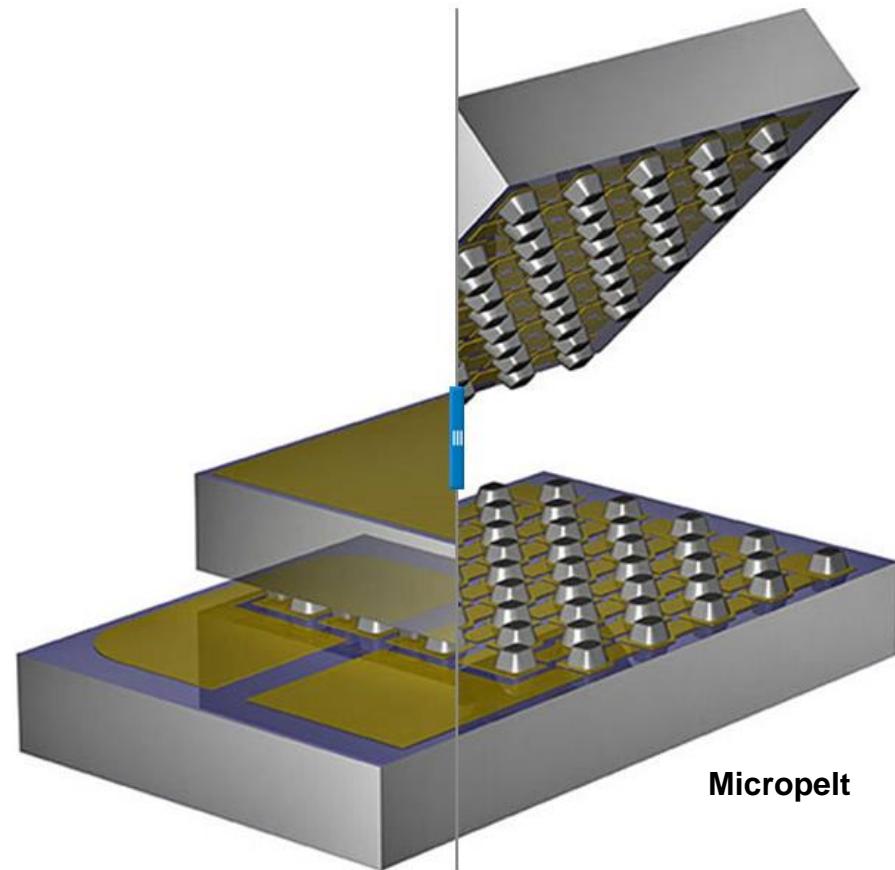
CRC Handbook of Thermoelectrics, CRC Press, 1995

Efficiency



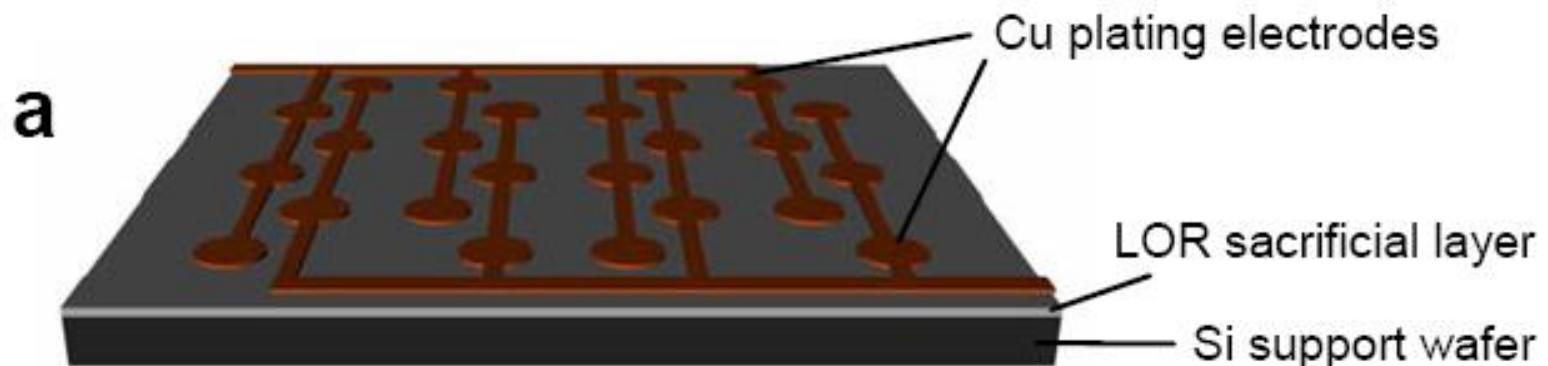
Microfabricated examples

- Thin film process with nearly a hundred leg pairs per mm^2 for a viable self-sustained energy source harvesting thermal energy
- 20 degrees over ambient can provide more than 2 V and 4 mW

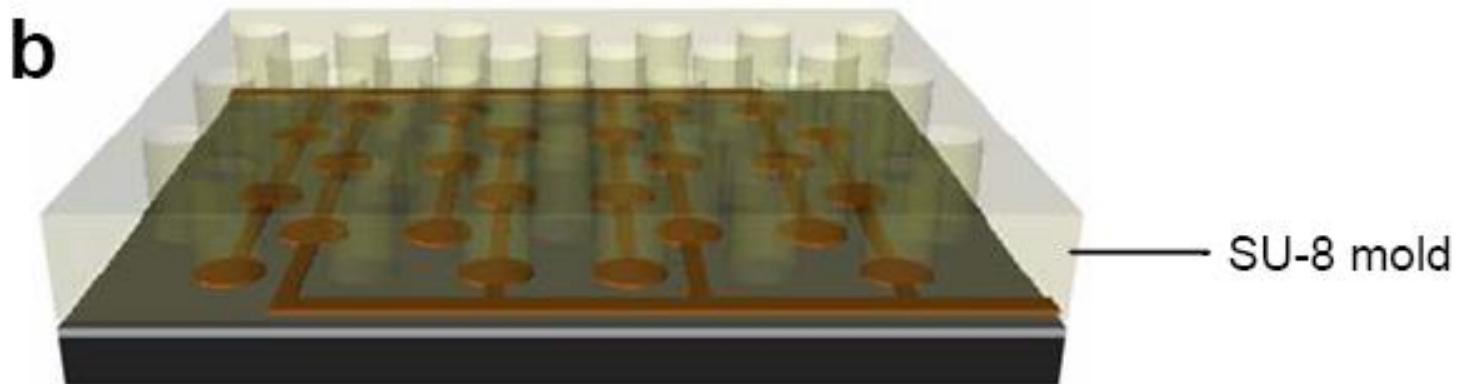


n and p type sputtered Bi_2Te_3 thick thermocouples
Assembly of the two wafers

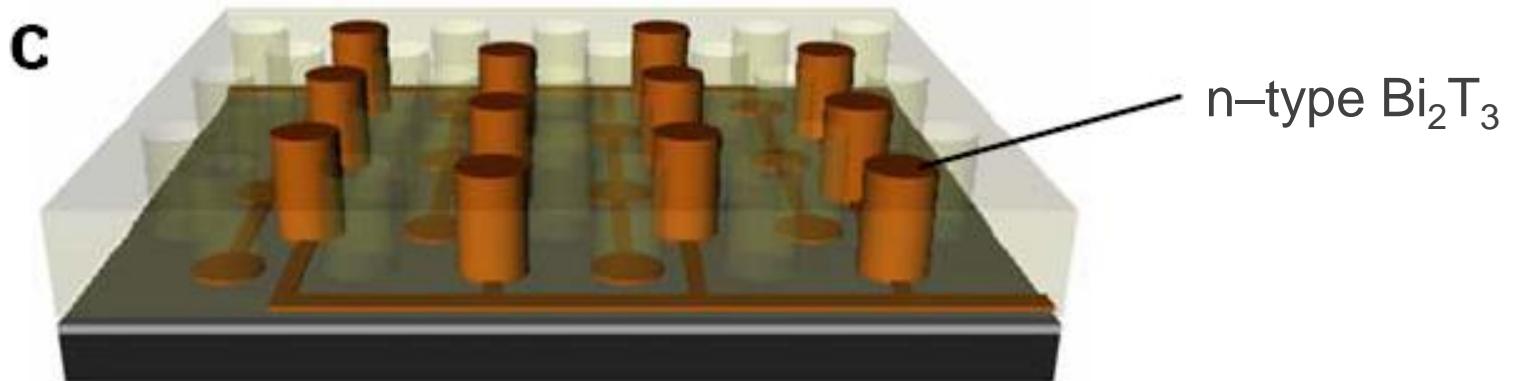
greenTEG technology



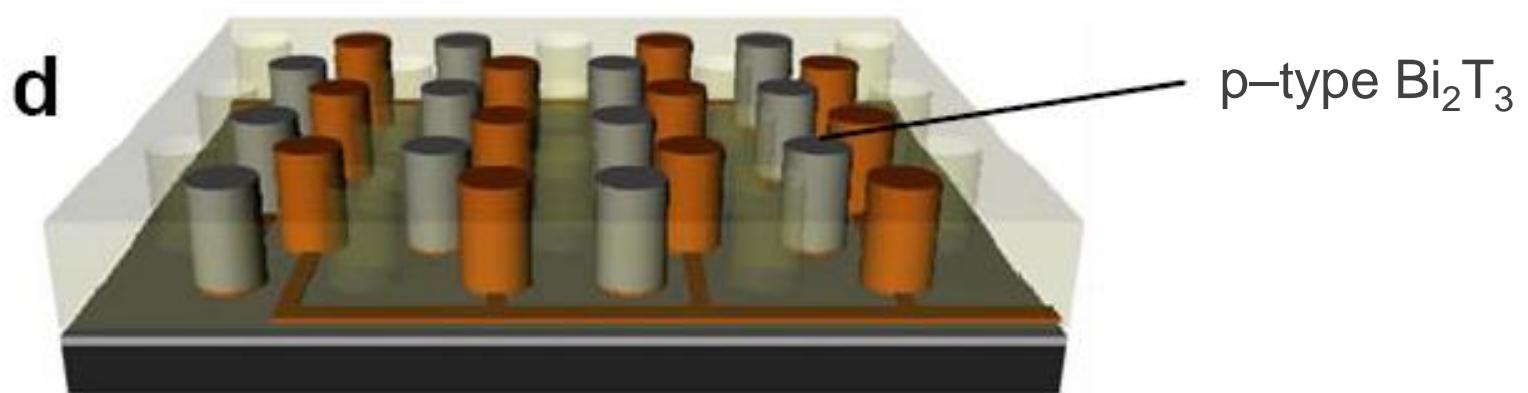
greenTEG technology



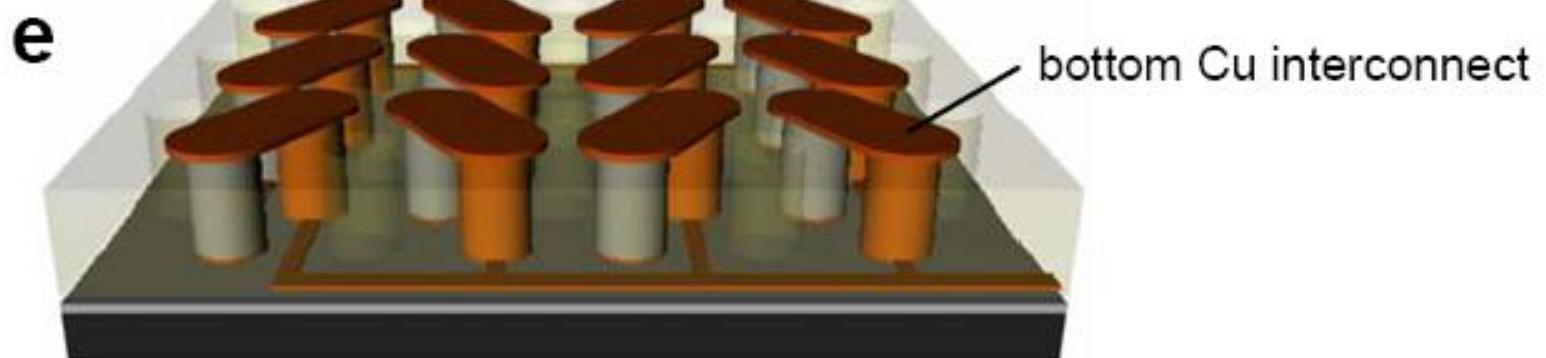
greenTEG technology



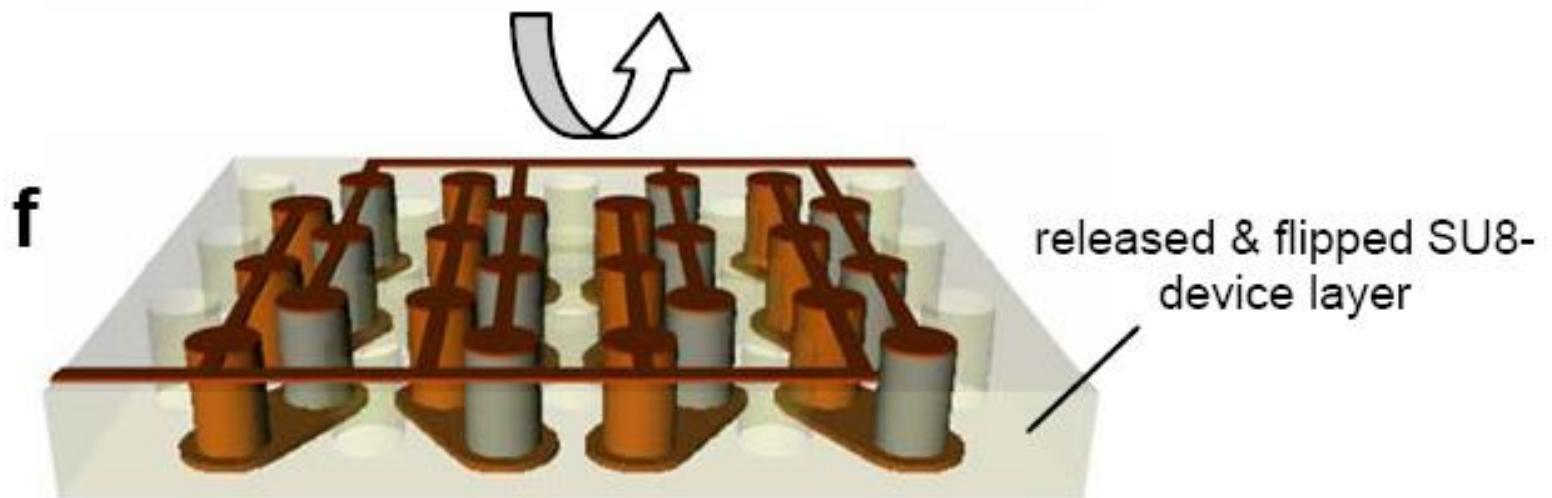
greenTEG technology



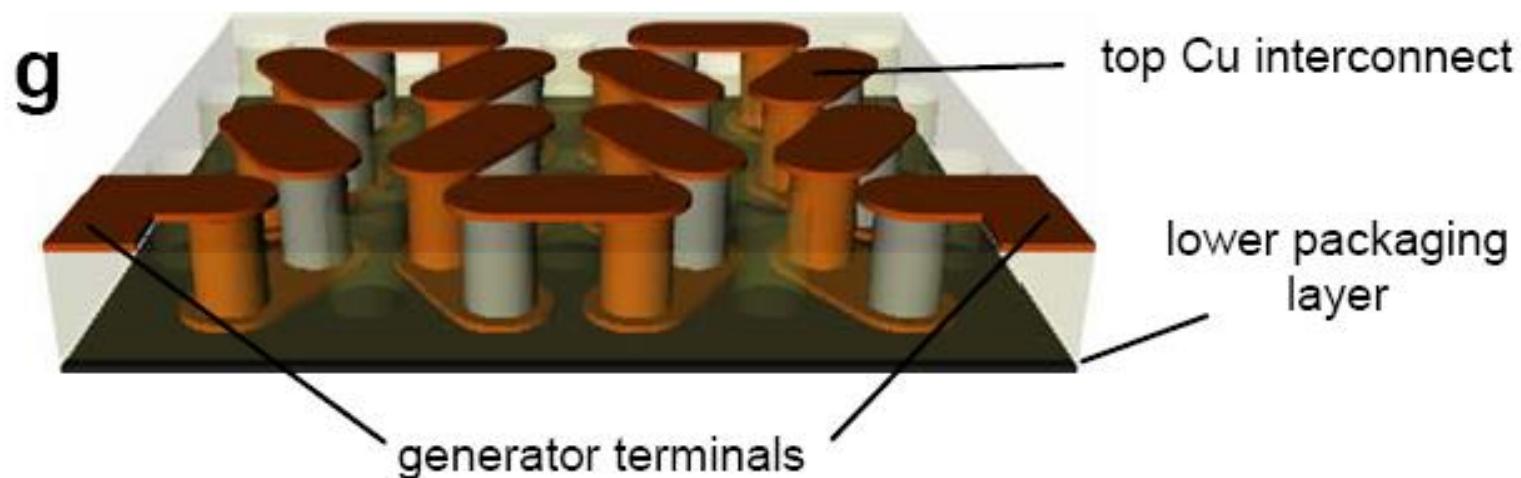
greenTEG technology



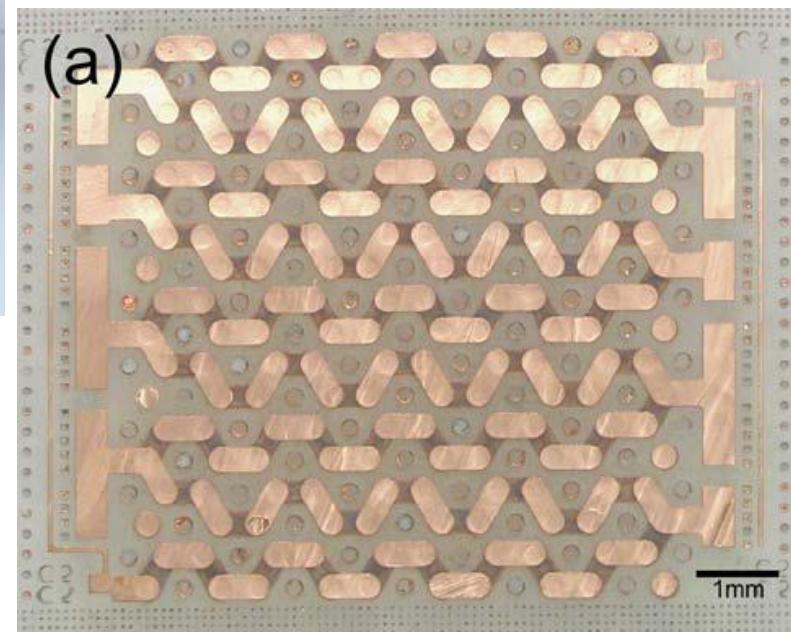
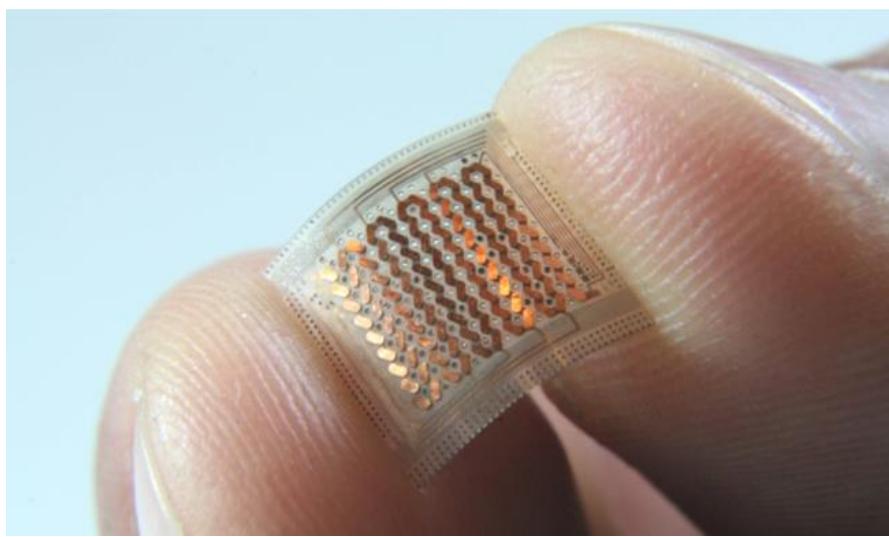
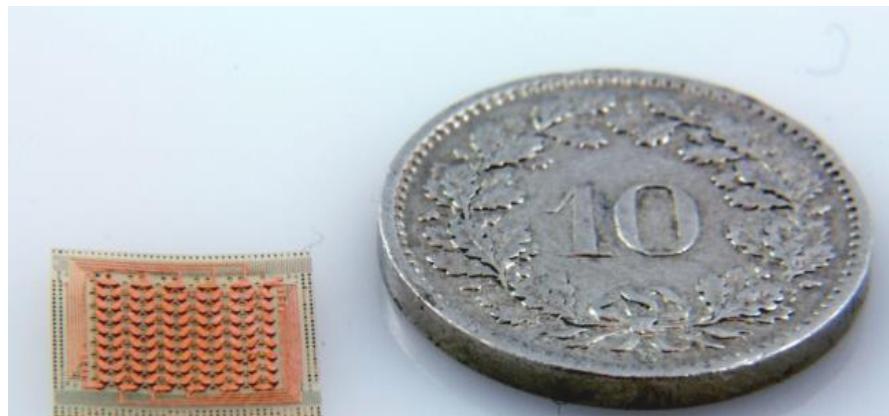
greenTEG technology



greenTEG technology



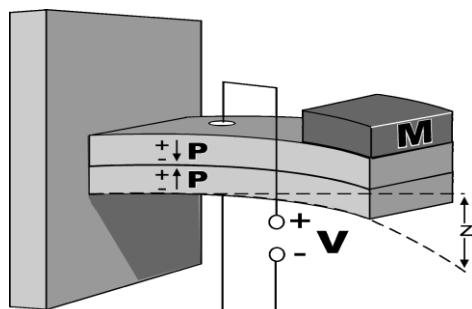
GreenTEG devices



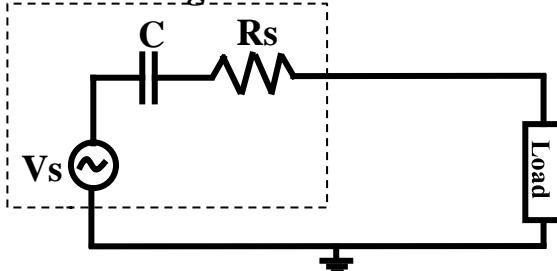
Three conversion principles to convert vibrations

Piezoelectric

Strain in piezoelectric material causes a charge separation (voltage across capacitor)

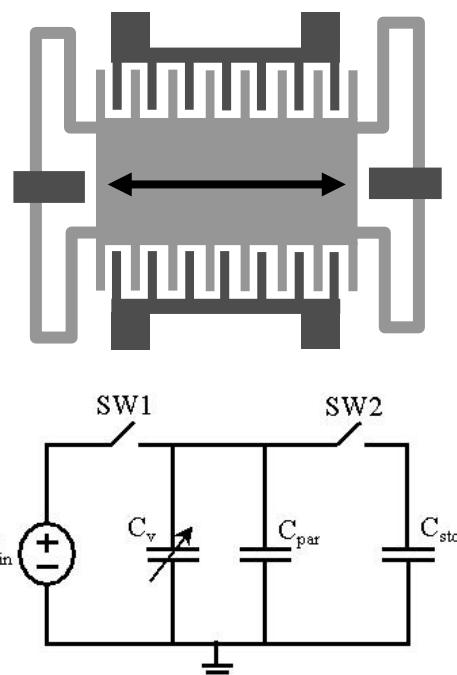


Piezoelectric generator



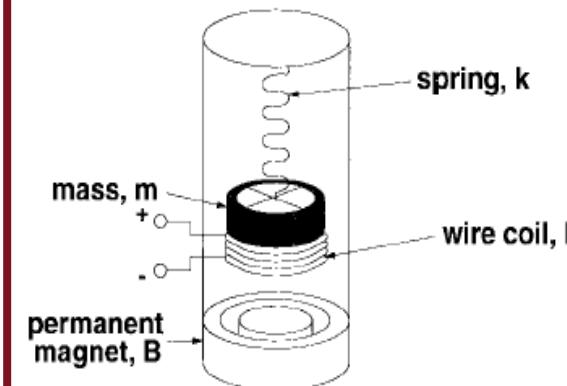
Capacitive

Change in capacitance causes either voltage or charge increase.



Inductive

Coil moves through magnetic field causing current in wire.



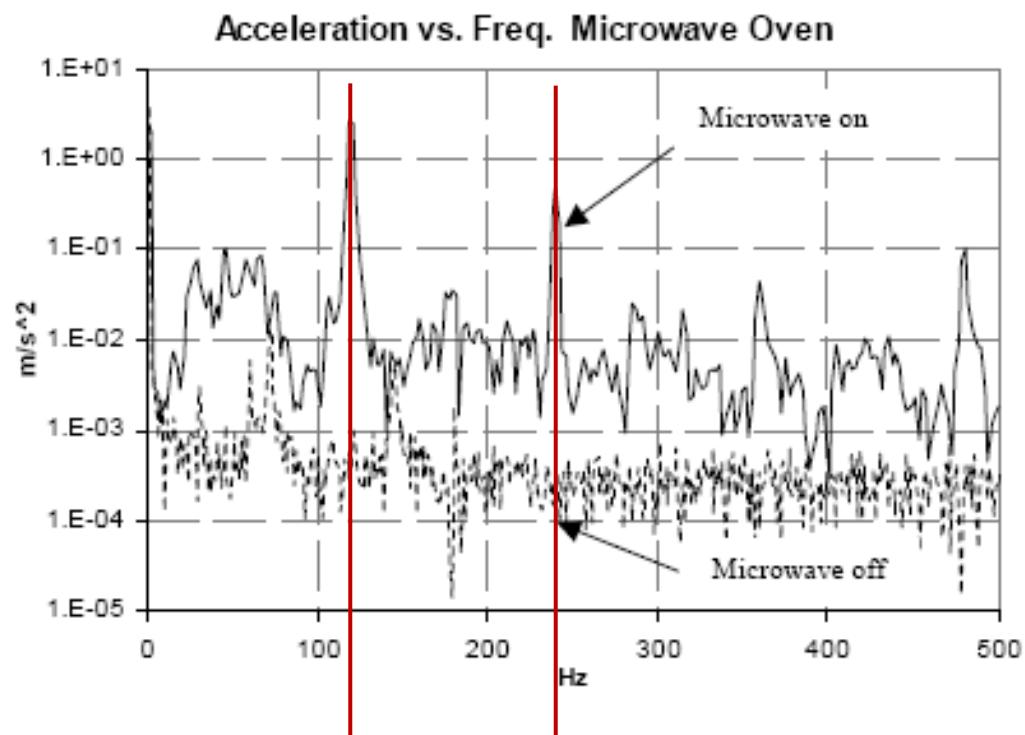
Amirtharajah et. al., 1998

Vibration energy harvesting

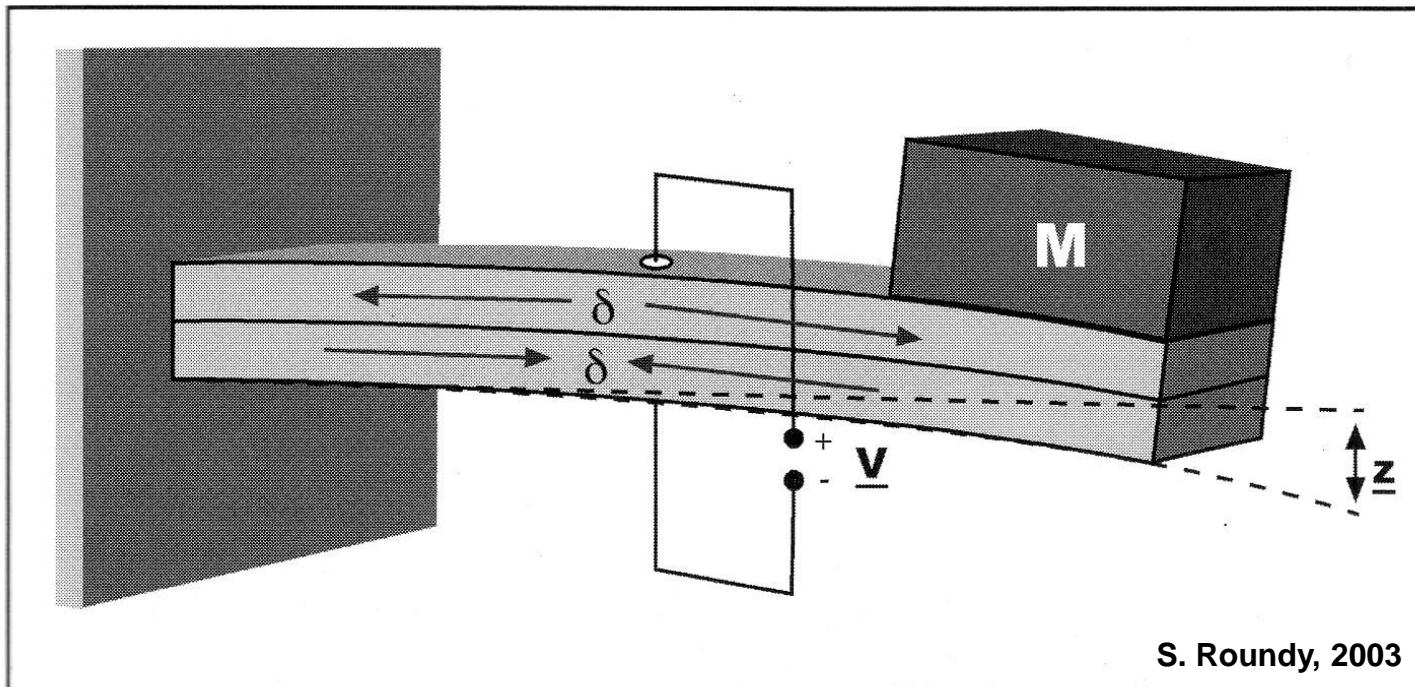
- Structural vibrations often occur at specific frequencies, that of the source or the natural frequency of the structure itself

$$\ddot{y} = |A|\omega^2 \sin(\omega t)$$

- Structural vibrations excite the energy harvester that is attached to it
- Mechanical energy is converted to electrical energy
- Electric power is provided to a collocated sensor or other distributed instrument



Piezoelectric principle

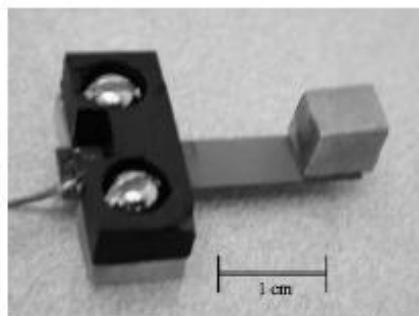


S. Roundy, 2003

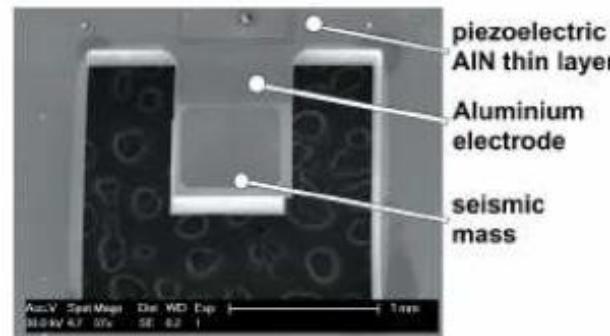
- Coupling of strain field with electric field
- Bending strain generates oscillating voltage
- Position of the neutral plane in the piezoelectric material is important to not have charges cancelation between region in compression and in tension

Piezoelectric micro-harvesters

- Micromachined devices are resonant transducers
- PZT or AlN used (high d_{31} or low ϵ)



Shad Roundy et al, Berkeley, 2003
70 μ W, 2.25 m/s² @ 100Hz, 1cm³



M. Marzenki et al, Tima Labs, 2007
2 μ W, 2g @ 840 Hz, 25mm³



Elfrink et al., 2008, IMEC
60 μ W, 2g @ 572Hz, 0.2 cm²

- Resonance frequency of device matching vibration frequency of the source in the environment
- Bilayer cantilever, piezoelectric on silicon beam, with neutral place as close as possible to the interface between the two materials
- Proof mass, high density metal (W) or silicon, included to increase stress (i.e. output power) and decrease resonance frequency

Principle

- Structural vibrations excite **the base, $y(t)$** , of a miniature spring-mass-damper system:

$$\ddot{y} = |Y| \omega^2 \sin(\omega t)$$

- Motion is imparted to the mass, m , through the spring of rigidity, k , with a force:

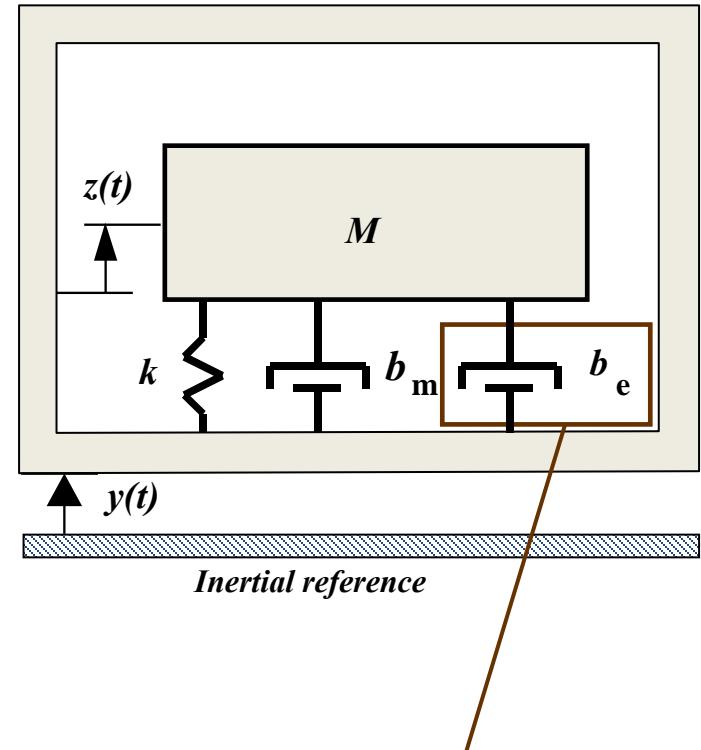
$$F_{\text{spring}} = k z(t)$$

- Motion of the mass is damped by viscous and internal friction:

$$F_{\text{mech. damp.}} = b_m \dot{z}(t) \quad [1]$$

and the electromechanical force:

$$F_{\text{electro-mech. damp.}} = b_e \dot{z}(t)$$



Electro-mechanical conversion represented as damping term

Roundy, Wright, Rabaey (2004)

Simple model: Linear second order system

Momentum conservation equation applied on the mass, M:

$$m(\ddot{z} + \ddot{y}) = \Sigma F$$

$$m(\ddot{z} + \ddot{y}) = -b_m \dot{z} - b_e \dot{z} - kz + F_{ext} (= 0) \quad [2]$$

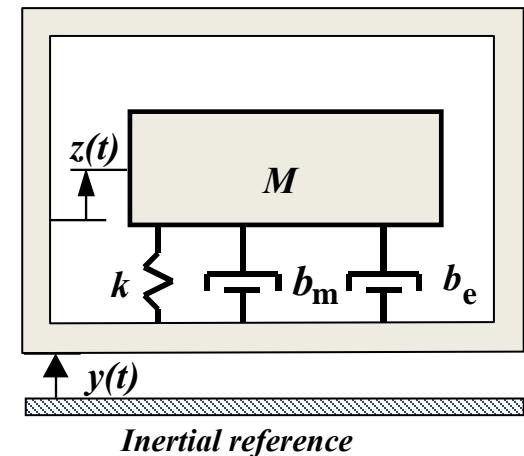
$$m\ddot{z} + (b_m + b_e)\dot{z} + kz = -m\ddot{y}$$

Defining the non-dimensional damping ratio:

$$\zeta_m = \frac{b_m}{2m\omega_n}; \zeta_e = \frac{b_e}{2m\omega_n}; \zeta_T = \zeta_m + \zeta_e$$

and natural frequency:

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad [3]$$



z = relative mass displacement
y = input displacement

Williams and Yates, 1995

Simple model: Power estimation

Harvested power can be estimated as the power dissipated in the electromechanical damper. Since power is the product of force and velocity, the harvested power over one cycle can be expressed as:

$$\dot{W}_e = \int F_e d\dot{z}$$

Recalling that the electromechanical force is (Eqn 1):

$$F_e = b_e \dot{z}$$

then:

$$\dot{W}_e = b_e \int \dot{z} d\dot{z} = \frac{1}{2} b_e \dot{z}^2 \quad [4]$$

Matching of resonant frequency with the input frequency (vibration):

$$\dot{W}_e(\omega_n) = \frac{m \zeta_e A^2}{4 \omega_n \zeta_T^2}$$

[5]

function of the amp[itude, $A=|Y/\omega^2|$, of the input acceleration (often known) :

For maximum power:

- Increase **mass**
Larger displacement
Larger stress in the piezo films
- Minimize **frequency** (for fixed acceleration amplitude, A)
Ambient vibrations: 60 to 200 Hz
- And **damping** ... (next page)

Williams and Yates, 1995

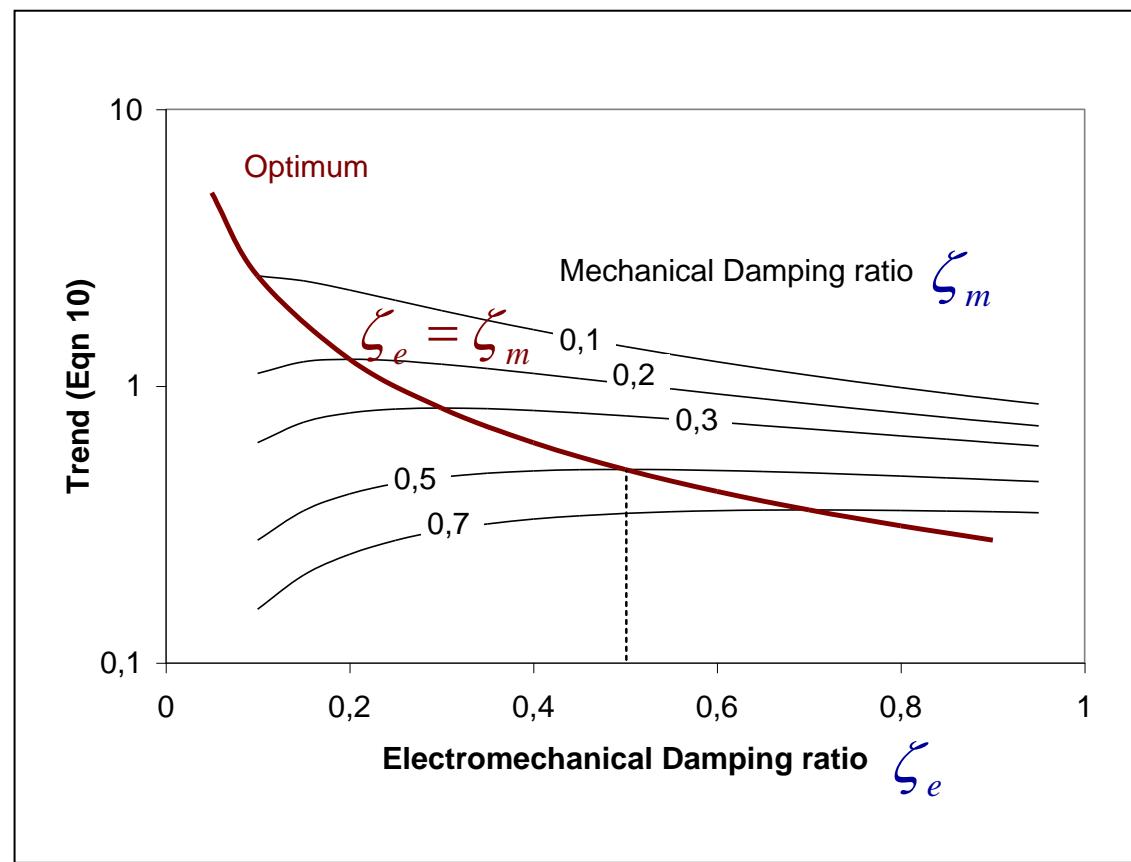
Impact of damping

The harvested power is a function of damping according to:

$$\dot{W}_e(\omega_n) \propto \frac{\zeta_e}{\zeta_T^2} = \frac{\zeta_e}{(\zeta_e + \zeta_m)^2} \quad [10]$$

- Since the *mechanical damping* appears in the denominator, it should be minimized.
- The figure shows that the power is maximized for:

$$\zeta_e = \zeta_m$$

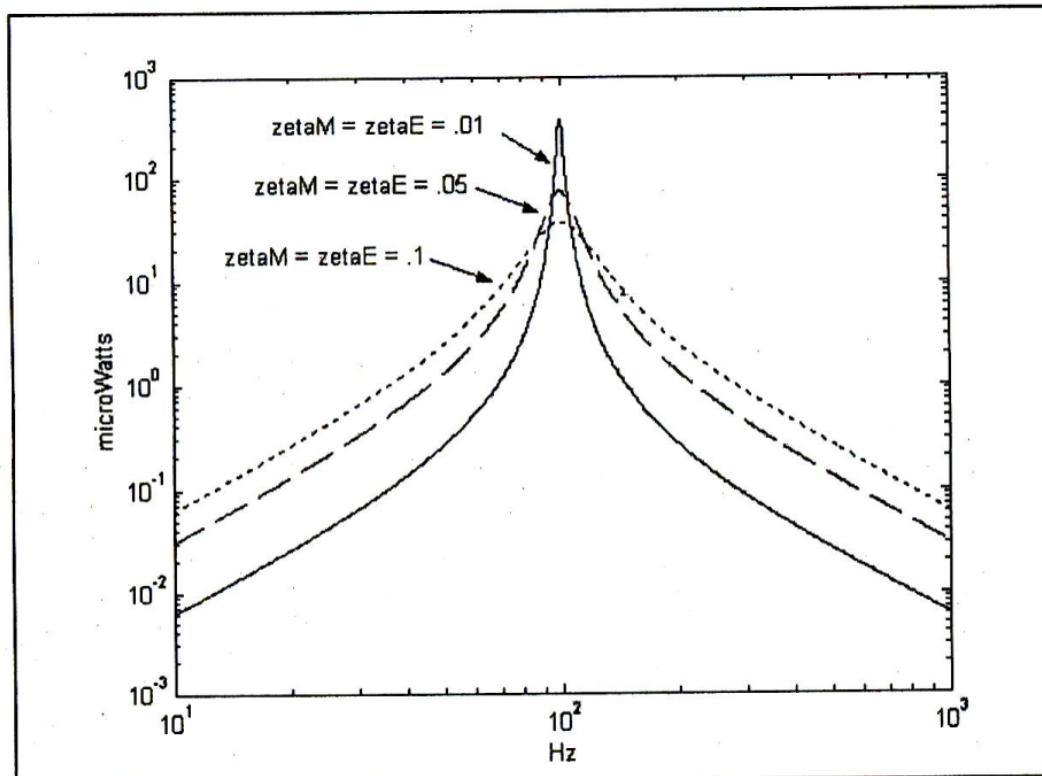


- Low damping implies:
 - High Q
 - Large displacements at resonance (z)

Fundamentally limited by stress in structures
Practically limited by the vacuum packaging

Impact of damping

- Lower damping = higher power output at resonant frequency
- But less when going away from the resonant frequency



Power output as a function of frequency for different damping levels

S. Roundy, 2003

Energy density

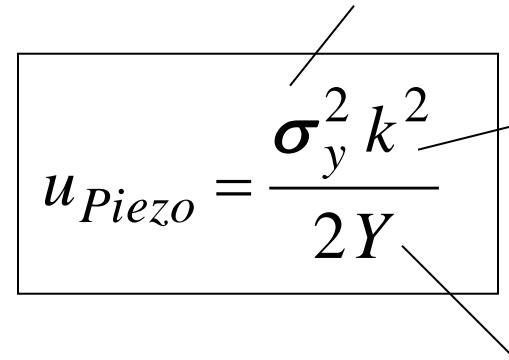
Energy density:

$$u_{Piezo} = \frac{\sigma_y^2 k^2}{2Y}$$

Yield strength

Coupling coefficient

Young's modulus



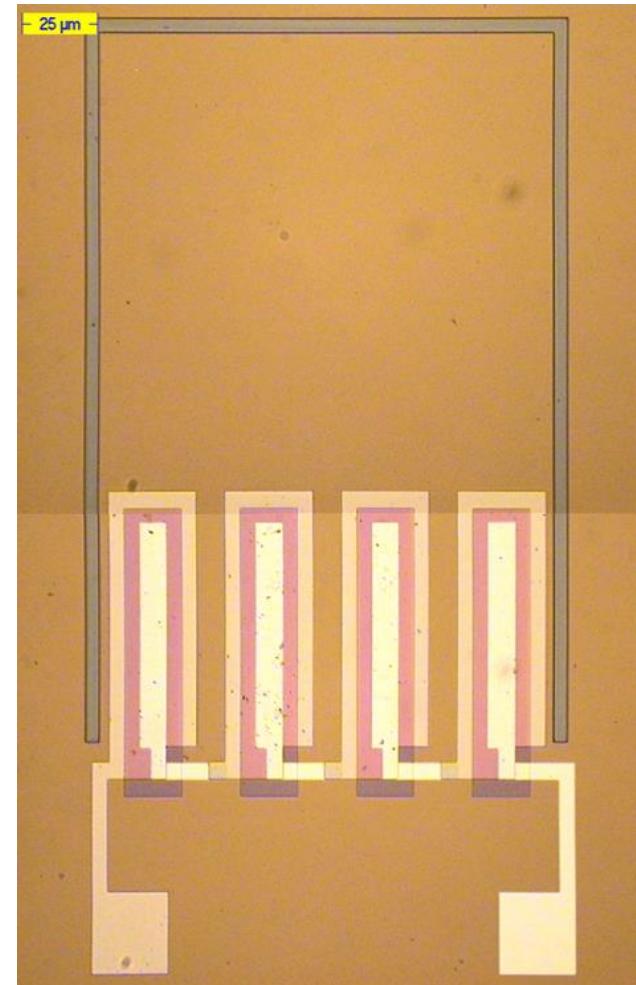
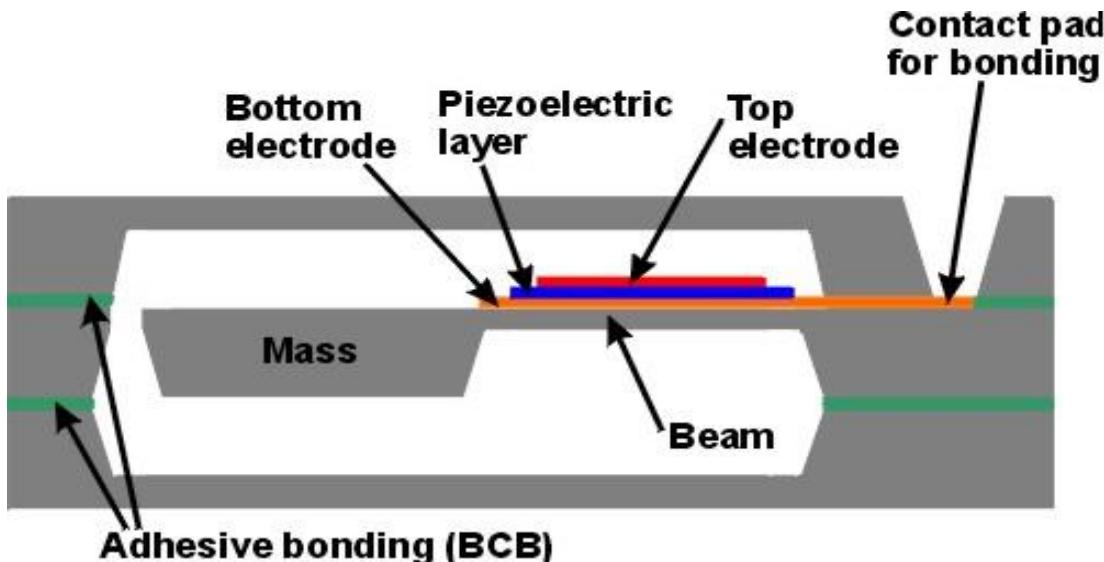
Using values for PZT: energy density $\sim 335 \text{ mJ/cm}^3$

k^2 : Electromechanical coupling coefficient is a numerical measure of the conversion efficiency between electrical and acoustic energy in piezoelectric materials

Piezoelectric vibration energy harvesting

MEMS implementations

The piezoelectric effect converts mechanical strain into electrical current or voltage. Strain causes charge separation across the device, producing an electric field and, consequently, a voltage drop which producing an irregular ac signal.



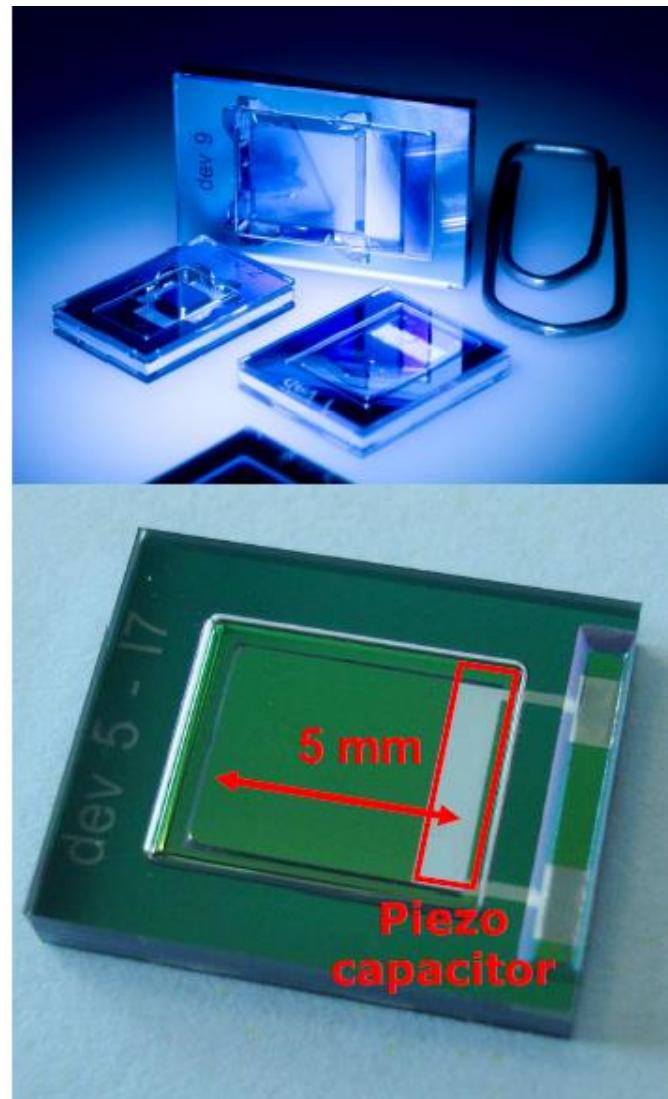
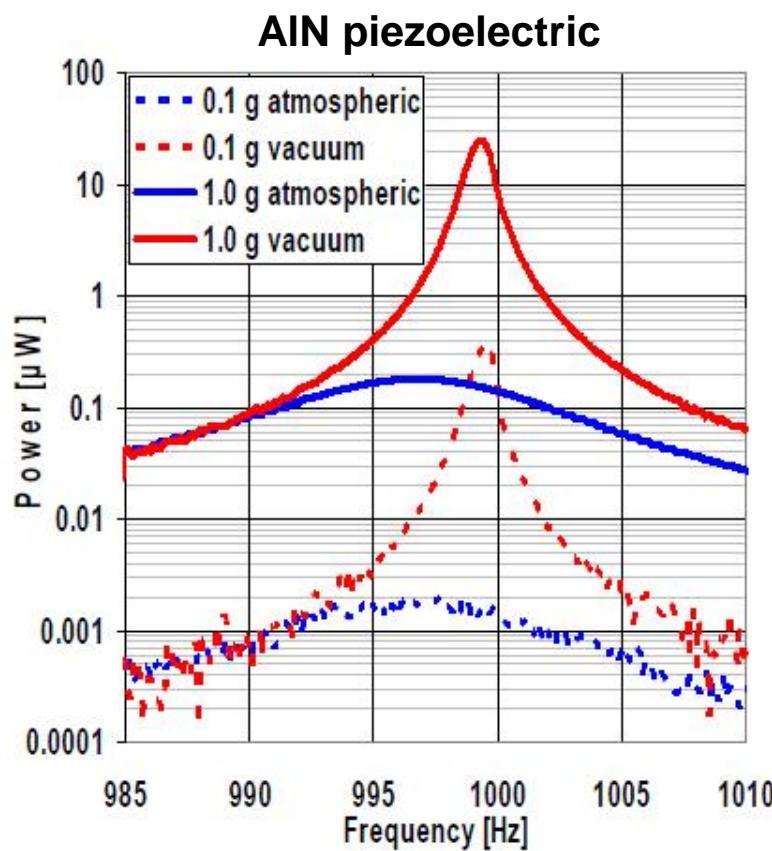
Design of wafer-bonded vibrational scavenger

Holst Centre

Piezoelectric vibration energy harvesting

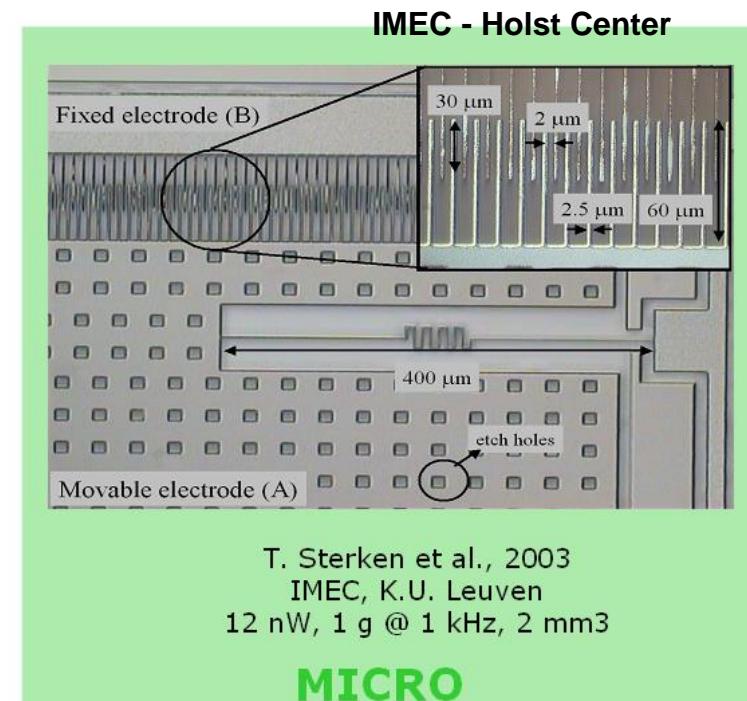
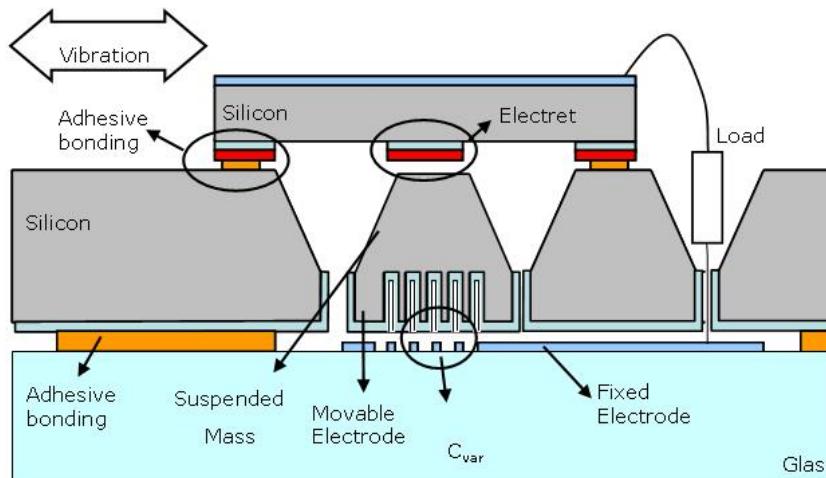
MEMS implementations

R. Elfrink @ HOLST/IMEC, IEDM2009



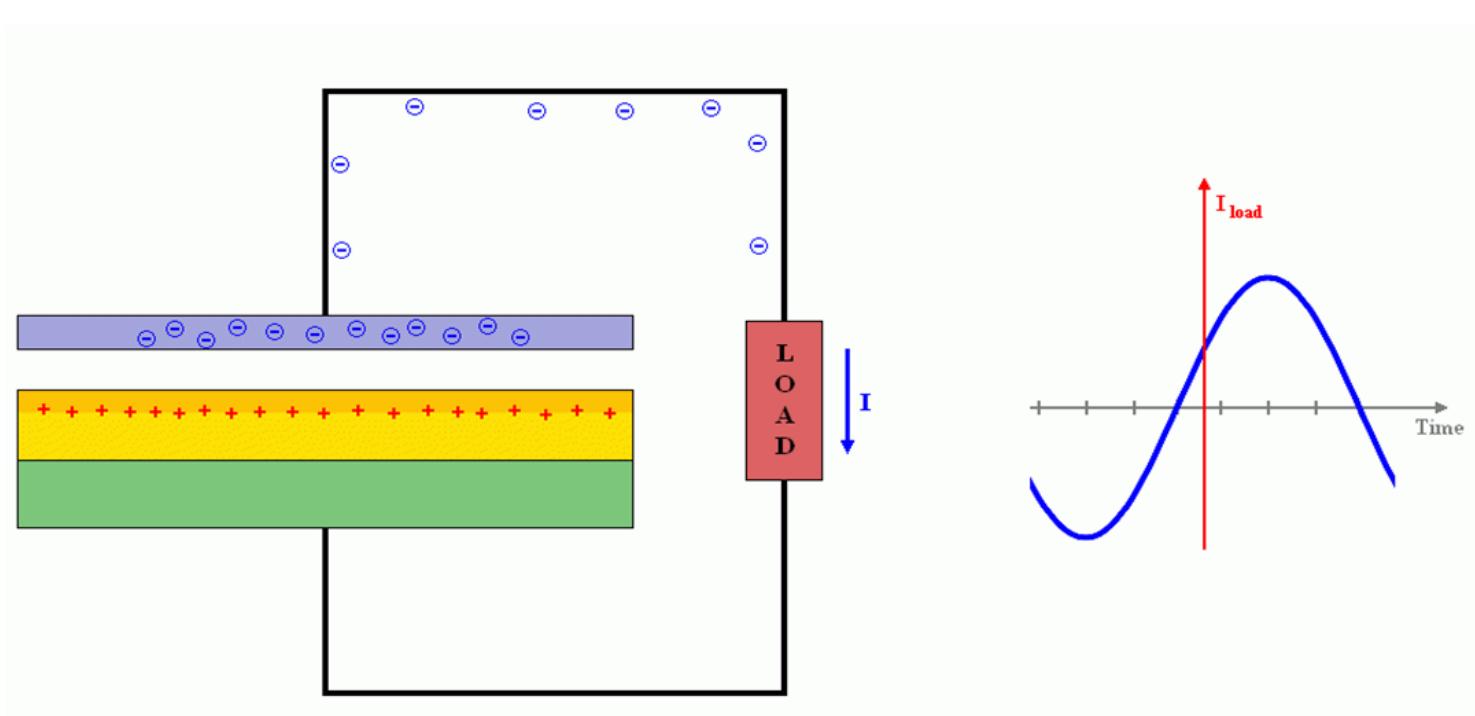
Electrostatic principle

- **Basic principle: charge and discharge of capacitor**
- **Charge or voltage constrained**
- **Miniaturization helps: larger capacitance variation**
- **First micromachined embodiment in 2003**



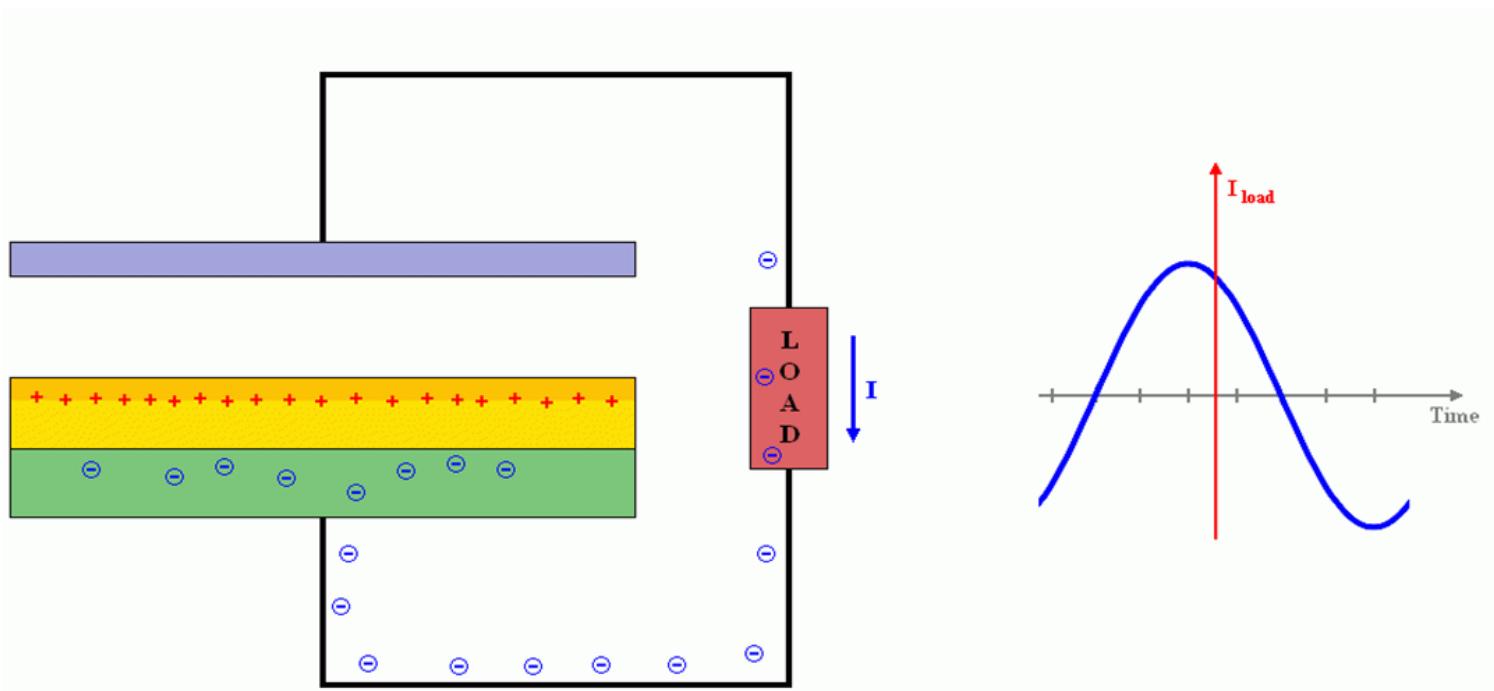
Electrostatic principle

- **Basic principle: charge and discharge of capacitor**
- **Charge or voltage constrained**
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Electrostatic principle

- **Basic principle: charge and discharge of capacitor**
- **Charge or voltage constrained**
- **Miniaturization helps: larger capacitance variation**



Principles

First, charge the device in the max. capacitance position

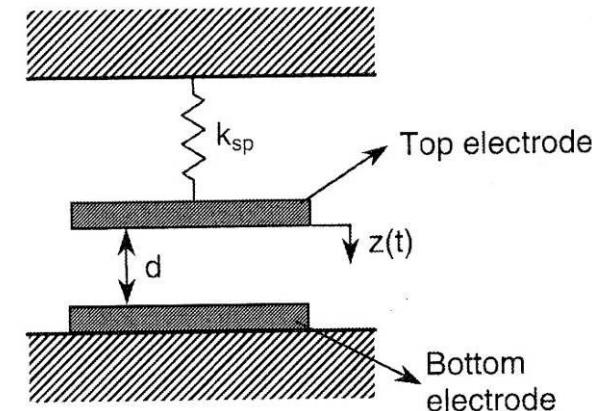
$$q = V_{in} C_{\max}$$

- Capacitance changes with gap: $C \propto \frac{1}{\text{gap}}$

- Electrical energy stored: $E_{elec} = \frac{q^2}{2C(z)}$

- Energy density (Upper bound) $u_{ES} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \mathbf{E}^2 \approx 5 \text{ mJ/cm}^3 = 1.4 \text{ mWhr/cm}^3$

for $\mathbf{E} = 30 \text{ MV/m}$ $\mathbf{V} = 60 \text{ V}$, gap = 2 μm



Basic principle:

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_o A}{d}$$

$$V = \frac{Q}{C}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} QV$$

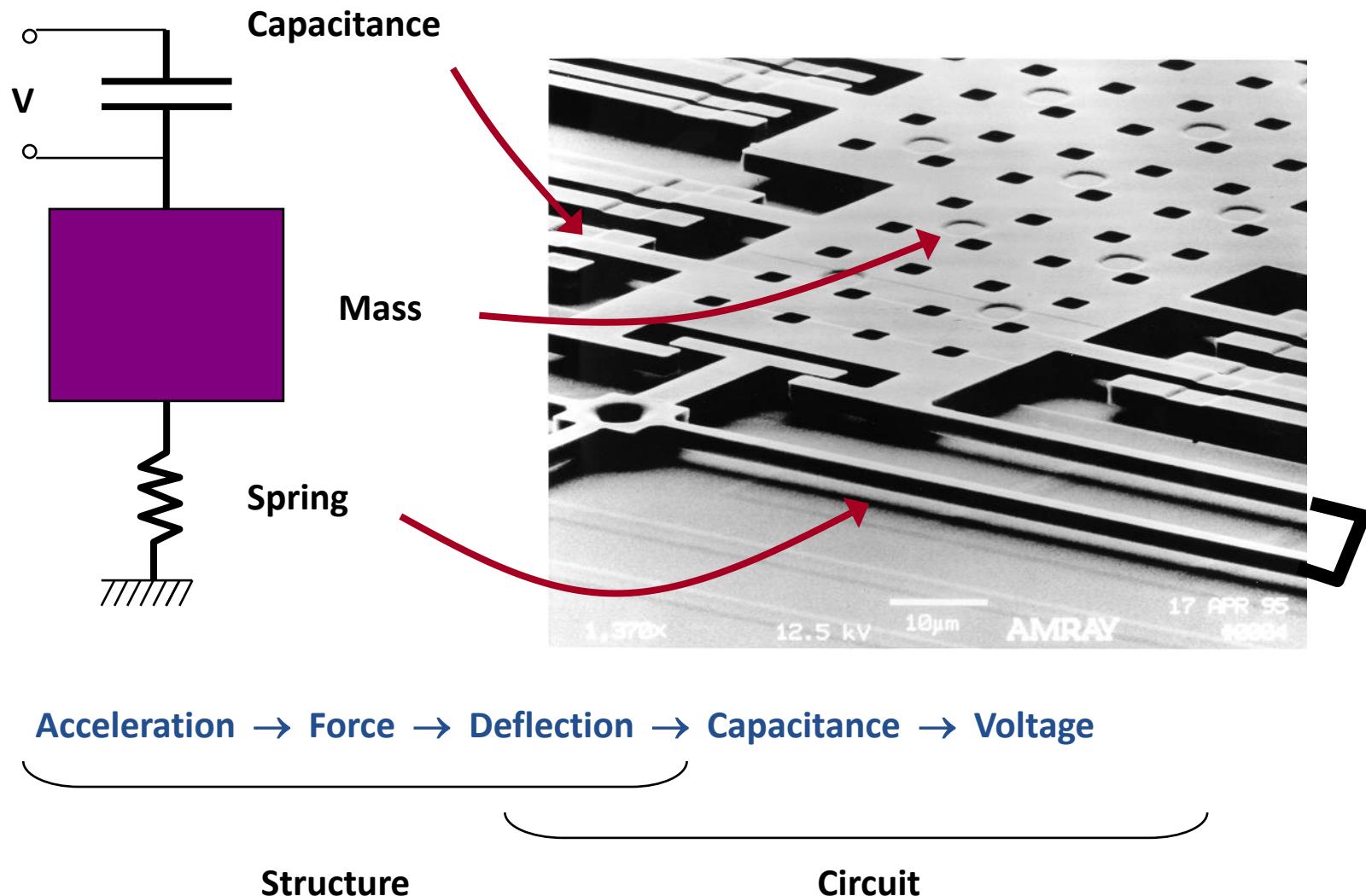
Design a variable capacitor in which A or d change when subjected to mechanical vibrations.

If Q is kept constant, V (and E) will increase according to:

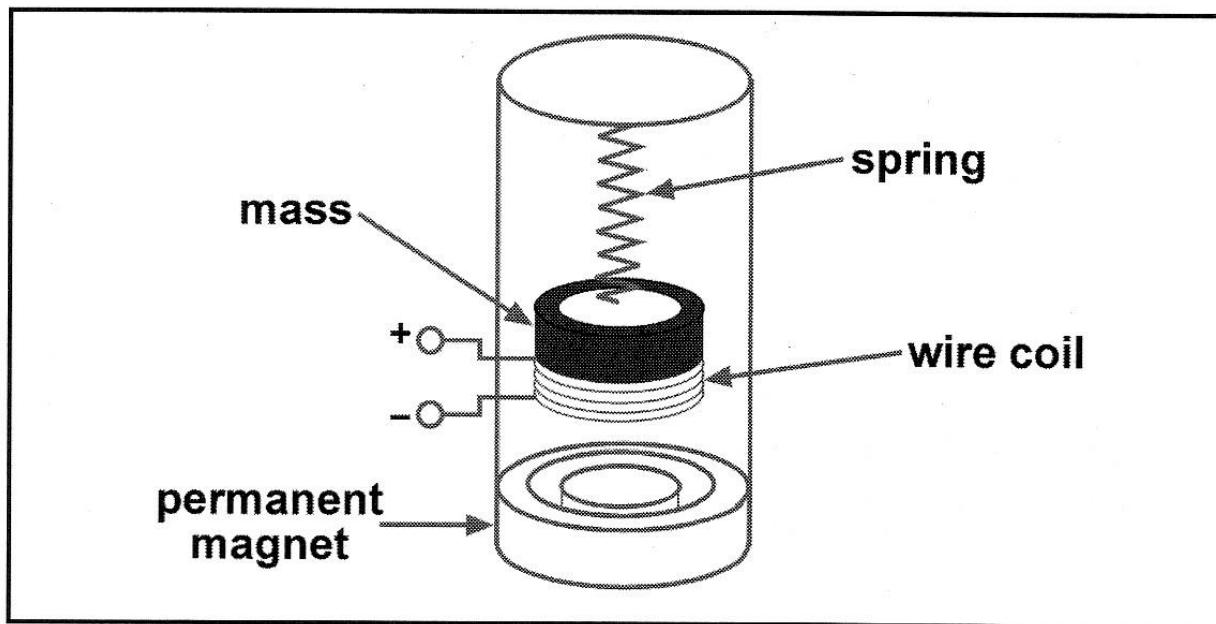
$$\frac{V_{\max}}{V_{\min}} = \frac{C_{\max} + C_{par}}{C_{\min} + C_{par}}$$

S. Roundy, 2003

Capacitive oscillator (similar to accelerometer)



Electromagnetic energy conversion



- Moving coil in magnetic field induces current

$$\text{Faraday's law: } \mathcal{E} = - \frac{d\phi_b}{dt}$$

Amritharajah & Chandrakasan (1998)

- **Energy density:** $u_{EM} = \frac{\mathbf{B}^2}{2\mu_0}$

For $\mathbf{B} = 1$ Tesla

$$u_{EM} \sim 400 \text{ mJ/cm}^3 = 111 \text{ mWh/cm}^3$$

- **A.C. Voltage**

$$V = N B l \frac{dz}{dt} \sim 30 \text{ mV}$$

- **Low voltage**
- **Voltage reduces with decreasing size**

Roundy, Wright, Rabaey (2004)

For vibrations

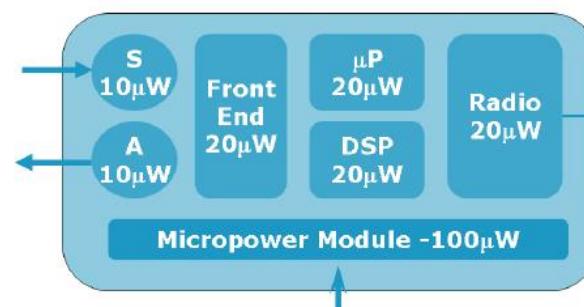
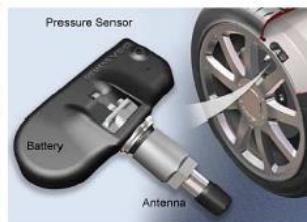
Table –3.2. Summary of maximum energy density of three types of transducers.

Type	Governing Equation	Practical Maximum	Theoretical Max.
Piezoelectric	$u = \frac{\sigma_y^2 k^2}{2Y}$	17.7 mJ/cm ³	335 mJ/cm ³
Electrostatic	$u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$	4 mJ/cm ³	44 mJ/cm ³
Electromagnetic	$u = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0}$	4 mJ/cm ³	400 mJ/cm ³

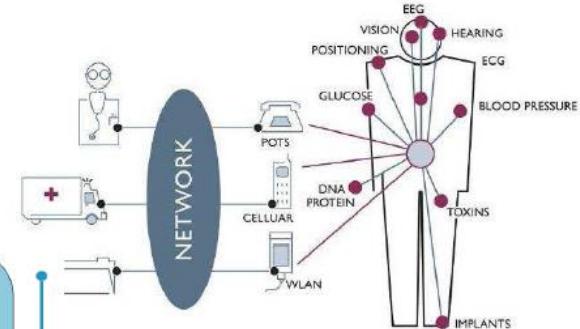
	Advantages	Limitations
Electromagnetic	No separate voltage source High energy density	Difficult to integrate Low voltages (<0.1 V)
Electrostatic	Easy to integrate Voltages of 2 – 10 V	Low energy density Need separate voltage source Mechanical stops needed
Piezoelectric	No separate voltage source Voltages of 2 –10 V High energy density	Challenge to integrate Piezo thin films with MEMS Reliability of piezoceramics

Some applications

TPMS: Tire Pressure Monitoring System



BAN: Body Area Network



Predictive Maintenance



Smart Buildings



IMEC - Holst Center

- Miniaturising is of interest but its involves a decrease of the output power level
 - Need for better harvesters (converting materials) and less consuming devices and systems
- Thermoelectric devices can be « easily » micromachined but there is a need for efficiency improvement
- Micromachined vibrations energy converters can generate μ Ws (piezoelectric providing the highest energy density) but there still relatively large and robustness unproven
- Young field with a lot of opportunities in research

- **Not one size fits all: list applications for each technology based on power level, energy sources, power density, environmental impact**
- **Reliability**
- **Challenges at the system level**
 - Electronics power management
 - Integration with electronics, sensors and other microsystems
- **List other approaches not discussed:**
 - Radioactive
 - Thermophotovoltaics
 - Biochemical
- **Role of nanotechnology (new materials)**

Questions

- Energy sources
 - The different energy sources to power microsystems
 - Energy sources available in our environment
 - Ranking in terms of power density and order of magnitudes
- Thermal energy harvesting
 - Basic principle and schematic configuration
 - How to optimize the power level generated linked to ZT factor
 - Microfabricated configuration
 - Type of materials involved
- Mechanical energy harvesting
 - Different principles to convert mechanical energy to electrical energy
 - Advantages and disadvantages of the different principles when implemented at the micro-scale
 - Principle of operation of resonant type vibration energy harvester
 - Narrow band vs wideband in relation to damping and quality factor
 - Criteria for optimum power generation
 - Implementation: architecture, materials and transducers using MEMS technologies