INF5490 RF MEMS

LN15: Summary, repetition

Spring 2010, Oddvar Søråsen Department of Informatics, UoO

Overview

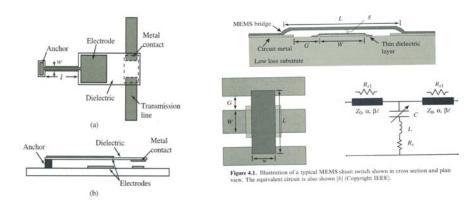
- Motivation
- Micromachining
- Modeling
- Specific features for RF systems
- Q-factor
- RF MEMS components
 - Switches
 - Phase shifters
 - Resonators
 - Micromechanical filters
 - Capacitors
 - Inductors
- Integration and packaging
- RF MEMS in wireless systems
- Conclusion and future prospects

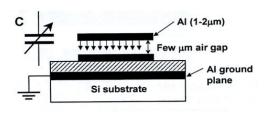
Choice of focus → RF MEMS

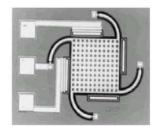
- MEMS is a <u>broad</u> field of research
 - Need of focus in NANO group → RF MEMS!
- "RF MEMS refers to the design and fabrication of dedicated MEMS for RF (integrated) circuits"
 - 1a) Components operate micromechanical and/or
 - 1b) Components fabricated using micromachining
 - 2) Components are used in RF systems

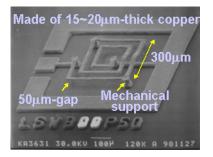
Typical RF MEMS components

- Switches
- Variable capacitors
- Inductors
- Resonators
- Micromechanical filters
- Phase shifters









Benefits of RF MEMS

- Higher performance
 - Increased selectivity: sharp filters
 - Increased Q-factor: stable "tank" frequency
 - Reduced loss
 - Higher isolation, reduced cross talk
 - Reduced signal distortion
 - Larger bandwidth
- Lower power consumption
- Reduced cost
 - Batch processing
- Circuit and system miniaturization
 - System integration (µelectronics + MEMS)
 - Packaging: Multi-chip module
 - Monolithic integration: SoC (System-on-Chip)

Micromachining

- Micromachining, definition:
 - Accurately, to define and implement any microscopic mechanical structure out of or on a material

Silicon micromachining is mature

- Si processes also used by IC industry
 - "grown out of" IC-processing
- New specific MEMS processes also developed
 - A lot of variants, few standards!

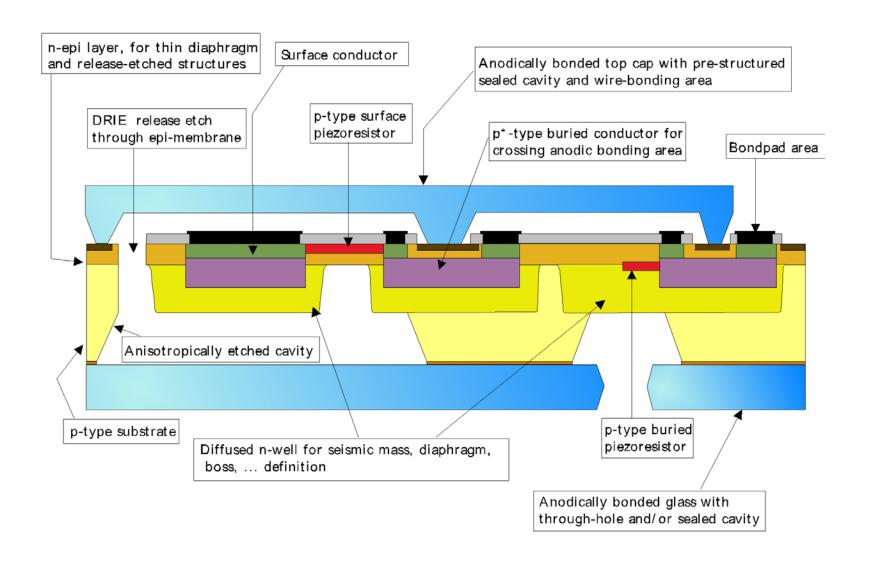
Important process steps

- Define patterns
 - Photolithography
- Modify semiconductor material properties
 - Diffusion
- Remove material
 - Ething
- Adding material build structures
 - Deposition

Bulk micromachining

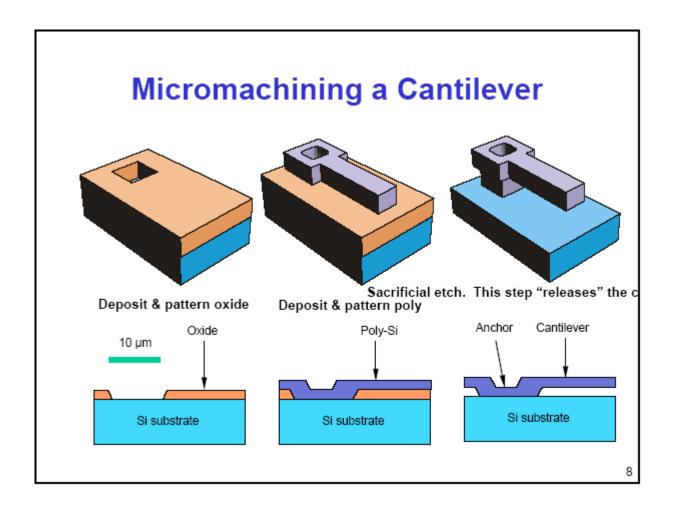
- Selective etching and diffusion into well defined areas of a substrate
 - Etching of the substrate → membranes
 - Etching from back side (wet etching: liquid is used)
 - Possibly combined with dry etching on the front side
- More mature than surface micromachining
- Typical examples
 - Pressure sensor, accelerometer
- "Wafer-bonding" may be necessary
 - Interconnect whole wafers

Cross section overview



Surface micromachining

- "Surface" micromachining
 - Deposit layers
 - Structural layer
 - Sacrificial layer = "distance-keeping" layer
 - Selective etching of structural layers
 - Removing sacrificial layers



Additive process steps

- Techniques
 - a. Epitaxial growth
 - b. Oxidation
 - c. Vaporization
 - d. CVD, Chemical Vapor Deposition
 - e. Sputtering
 - f. Moulding
- When depositing, stress may be built into the structures

Residual Stress in Thin Films

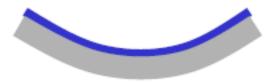
- Residual film stress
 - Microstructure
 - Thermal mismatch



Compressive vs. tensile stress



Under compressive stress, film wants to expand. Constrained to substrate, bends it in convex way.



Under tensile stress, film wants to shrink Constrained to substrate, bends it in concave way.

Removing material: Etching

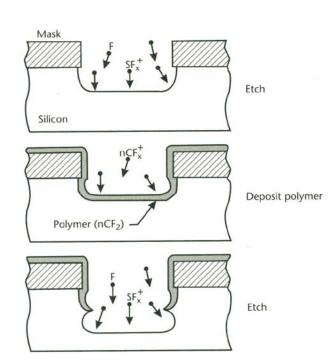
- Wet-etching or dry-etching
- Wet-etching
 - Deep etching of Si is essential in micromachining
 - Using liquids
 - Depends of:
 - Concentration of liquid, time, temperature
 - Low cost batch processing
 - Both isotropic or anisotropic

Wet-etching

- Isotropic = uniform etching in all directions
 - HF or blends are usual
 - $-0.1-100 \mu m/min$ etch speed
- Anisotropic = etching faster along some directions
 - Etch speed depends of crystal orientation
 - NaOH, KOH used
 - Silicon nitride used as mask for KOH

RIE - DRIE

- DRIE Deep Reactive Ion Etching (1995-)
 - Vertical etching
 - Can etch deep holes (> 500 µm) with almost perfect vertical sidewalls
 - Bosch-process
 - Figure →
 - High "aspect-ratio"
 - Etching and deposition every second step
 - etch: SF6, mostly at the bottom!
 - deposit: C4F8, polymer



Transducers for (RF) MEMS

- Electromechanical transducers
 - Transforming
 electrical energy ←→ mechanical energy
- Transducer principles
 - Electrostatic
 - Electromagnetic
 - Electro thermal
 - Piezoelectric

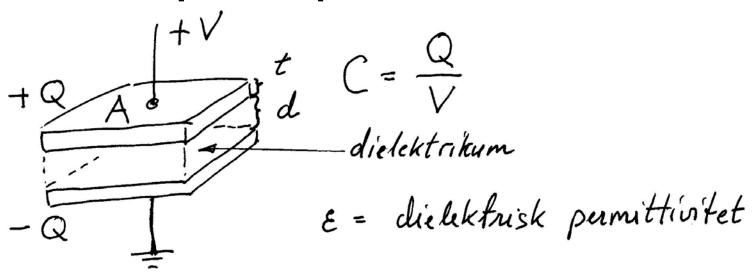
Methods for modeling RF MEMS

- 1. Simple mathematical models
 - Ex. parallel plate capacitor

2. Converting to electrical equivalents

 3. Analysis using Finite Element Methods

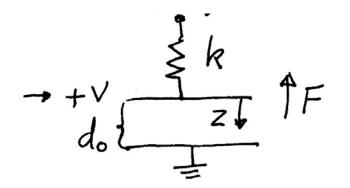
Parallel plate capacitor



Attractive force between plates

$$F = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial d} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial d} \left(\frac{\varepsilon A}{2d} V^2 \right) = \frac{\varepsilon A V^2}{2d^2}$$

Force balance



k = spring constant

deflection from start position

$$d0 = gap at 0V$$
 and zero spring strain $d = d0 - z$
 $z=d0 - d$

Force on upper plate at V and d:

$$F_{nef} = -\frac{\varepsilon A V^2}{2 d^2} + k (d_0 - d) = 0$$
 at equilibrium

Two equilibrium positions

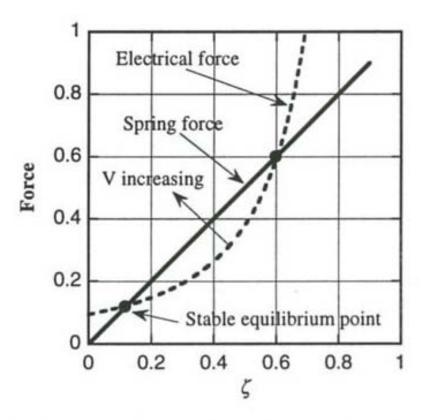


Figure 6.7. Electrical and spring forces for the voltage-controlled parallel-plate electrostatic actuator, plotted for $V/V_{PI} = 0.8$.

 $\varsigma = 1 - d/d0$

Senturia

Pull-in

Fruit = 0
$$\frac{\mathcal{E}A \ V_{PI}^{2}}{2 \ d_{PI}^{2}} = k \left(d_{o} - d_{PI} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{E}A \ V_{PI}^{2}}{d_{PI}^{3}}$$

Pull-in when:

$$d_{PI} = \frac{2}{3} d_o$$

$$V_{PI} = \sqrt{\frac{8 k d_o^3}{27 \epsilon A}}$$

2. Converting to electrical equivalents

- Mechanical behavior can be modeled using electrical circuit elements
 - Mechanical structure → simplifications → equivalent electrical circuit
 - ex. spring/mass → R, C, L
 - Possible to "interconnect" electrical and mechanical energy domains
 - Simplified modeling and co-simulation of electronic and mechanical parts of the system
 - Proper analysis-tools can be used
 - Ex. SPICE

$e \rightarrow V$ - convention

Senturia and Tilmans use the

Ex. electrical and mechanical circuits

```
– e → V (voltage) equivalent to F (force)
```

$$-q \rightarrow Q$$
 (charge) equivalent to x (position)

– e * f = "power" injected into the element

H. Tilmans, Equivalent circuit representation of electromagnetical transducers:

I. Lumped-parameter systems, J. Micromech. Microeng., Vol. 6, pp 157-176, 1996

Ex. of interconnection:

"Direct transformation"

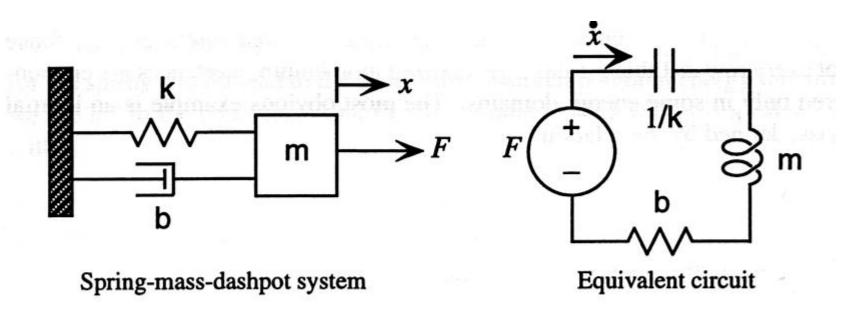
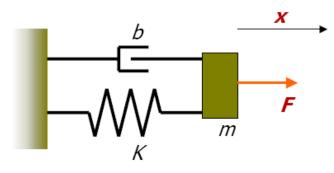
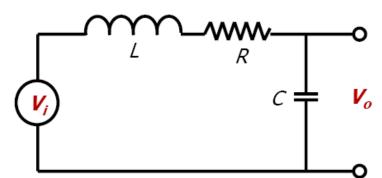


Figure 5.9. Translating mechanical to electrical representations.

Mechanical / Electrical Systems





Input: external force F

Output : displacement x

$$m\ddot{x}(t) + b\dot{x}(t) + Kx(t) = F$$

m mass, b damping, K stiffness

Transfer function:

$$H(s) = \frac{x}{F} = \frac{\frac{1}{m}}{s^2 + \frac{b}{m}s + \frac{K}{m}}$$

Input : voltage V_i

Output : voltage V_{o}

$$L\ddot{q}(t) + R\dot{q}(t) + \frac{1}{C}q(t) = V_i$$

L induct., R resist., C capacit.

Transfer function:

$$H(s) = \frac{V_o}{V_i} = \frac{\frac{1}{LC}}{s^2 + \frac{R}{L}s + \frac{1}{LC}}$$

Texas Christian University

Department of Engineering

Ed Kolesar

Resonators

- Analogy between mechanical and electrical system:
 - Mass *m* inductivity *L*
 - Spring *K* capacitance *C*
 - Damping *b* resistance *R* (depending where *R* is placed in circuit)
- Solution to 2nd order differential equation:

$$H(s) = \frac{\omega_0^2}{s^2 + \frac{\omega_0}{Q}s + \omega_0^2}$$

 $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ natural frequency

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{K}{m}}$$
 mechanical system, $\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$ electrical system

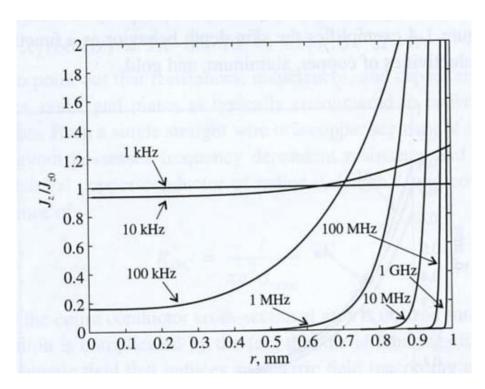
Q quality factor

Skin depth

- Resistance R increases towards centre of conductor
 - Current close to surface at increasing frequency
 - Formula: "skin-depth" →
 - Current density reduced by a factor 1/e

$$\delta = (\pi f \mu \sigma_{\rm cond})^{-1/2}$$

 What does this mean for practical designs?



Transmission line

A conductor has to be modeled as a transmission line

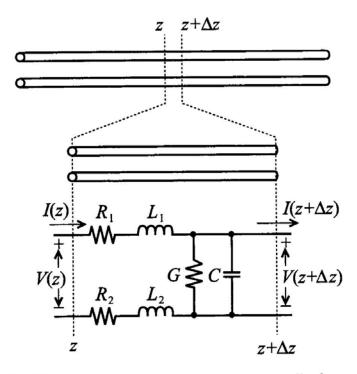


Figure 2-3 Partitioning an electric line into small elements Δz over which Kirchhoff's laws of constant voltage and current can be applied.

Solution: 2 waves

The solution is waves in a positive and negative direction

$$V(z) = V^{+}e^{-kz} + V^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.34)

$$I(z) = I^{+}e^{-kz} + I^{-}e^{+kz}$$
 (2.35)

$$I(z) = \frac{k}{(R+i\omega L)} (V^{+}e^{-kz} - V^{-}e^{+kz})$$
 (2.36) (Jmfr.2.27)

Characteristic line-impedance: $Z_0 = \frac{V^+}{I^+} = -\frac{V^-}{I^-}$

$$Z_0 = \frac{(R + j\omega L)}{k} = \sqrt{\frac{(R + j\omega L)}{(G + j\omega C)}}$$
 (2.37)

Impedance for lossless transmission line

$$Z_0 = \sqrt{L/C}$$

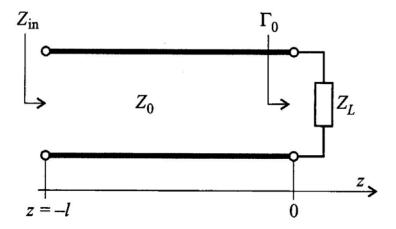


Figure 2-23 Terminated transmission line at location z = 0.

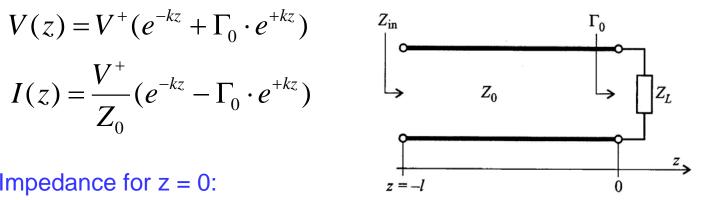
How to avoid reflections and have good signal propagation?

Reflection coefficient

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{V^-}{V^+}$$
 \leftarrow definition of reflection coefficient for z = 0

$$V(z) = V^{+}(e^{-kz} + \Gamma_{0} \cdot e^{+kz})$$

$$I(z) = \frac{V^{+}}{Z_{0}} (e^{-kz} - \Gamma_{0} \cdot e^{+kz})$$



Impedance for z = 0:

$$Z(0) = \frac{V(0)}{I(0)} = Z_0 \frac{1 + \Gamma_0}{1 - \Gamma_0} = Z_L \qquad \text{= load impedance}$$

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$

Various terminations

$$\Gamma_0 = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$

Open line

→ reflection with equal polarity

$$Z_L = \infty \Longrightarrow \Gamma_0 = 1$$

Short circuit

→ Reflection with inverse polarity

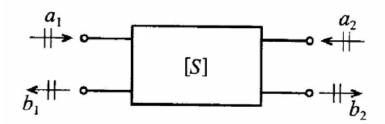
$$Z_L = 0 \Longrightarrow \Gamma_0 = -1$$

No reflection when:

$$Z_0 = Z_L \Rightarrow \Gamma_0 = 0$$

→ "MATCHING"

Interpretation of S-parameters



$$S_{11} = \frac{b_1}{a_1}\Big|_{a_2 = 0} = \frac{\text{reflected power wave at port 1}}{\text{incident power wave at port 1}}$$
 (4.42a)

$$S_{21} = \frac{b_2}{a_1} \bigg|_{a=0} \equiv \frac{\text{transmitted power wave at port 2}}{\text{incident power wave at port 1}}$$
 (4.42b)

$$S_{22} = \frac{b_2}{a_2}\Big|_{a_1 = 0} \equiv \frac{\text{reflected power wave at port 2}}{\text{incident power wave at port 2}}$$
 (4.42c)

$$S_{12} = \frac{b_1}{a_2}\Big|_{a_1 = 0} \equiv \frac{\text{transmitted power wave at port 1}}{\text{incident power wave at port 2}}$$
 (4.42d)

Q-value

- Q-factor characterizes loss due to power dissipation in elements
- Q should be as high as possible to reduce Insertion loss
 - Quality factor fundamentals (definition)

$$Q = 2\pi \frac{\text{max imum ins tan t energy stored in circuit}}{\text{energy dissipated per cycle}}$$

Characterize power loss due to dissipation mechanisms in reactive elements.

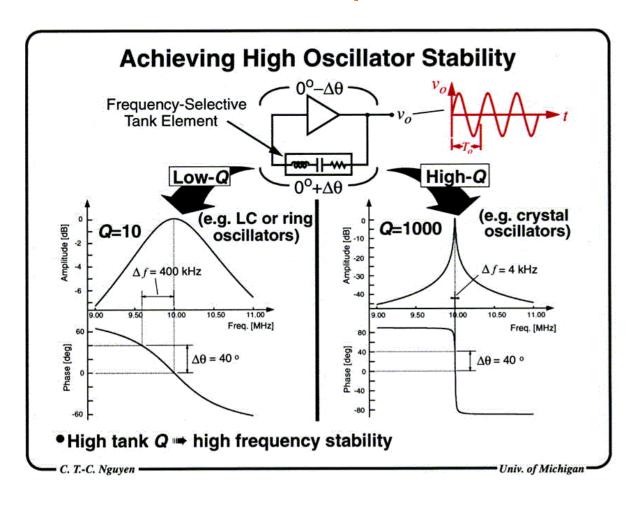
$$Q_{\text{Tuned Circuit}} = \frac{f_0}{B}$$

$$Q_{\text{Capacitor}} = \frac{\omega_0 C}{G}$$

$$Q_{\text{Inductor}} = \frac{\omega_0 L}{R}$$
Unloaded: Q (intrinsic)
Loses due to external load: Q_L
Insertion loss at resonance: IL(dB) = 20 log (1 + $\frac{Q_L}{Q}$)

Relation between Q-factor and oscillator stability

Q-factor is critical for RF circuit performance!



Benefits and typical characteristics of RF MEMS switches



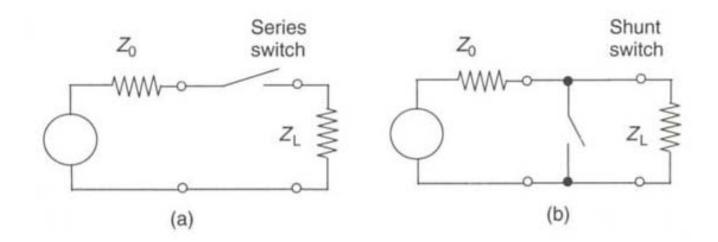
FSRM



RF MEMS switch: key advantages and issues

- + Ultra low power consumption: 10-100nW
- + Ultra-high isolation → airgap: low state C ~fF, 0.1-40GHz
- + Low insertion loss → ~ -0.1dB, 0.1-40GHz
- + Practically no intermodulation: very linear
- + Low cost ~ simple technology, integrable with RF ICs (problem → cost & performance of the full packaged structure)
- • Speed limited by mechanical nature: 1-100μs
- Power handling limited: <100mW
- Reliability: limited (today) ~10⁹-10¹⁰ cycles
 no reliable switch to handle ~few Watts
- Packaging: needs inert ambient & low humidity & low cost

Two basic switch configurations



Basic switch structures

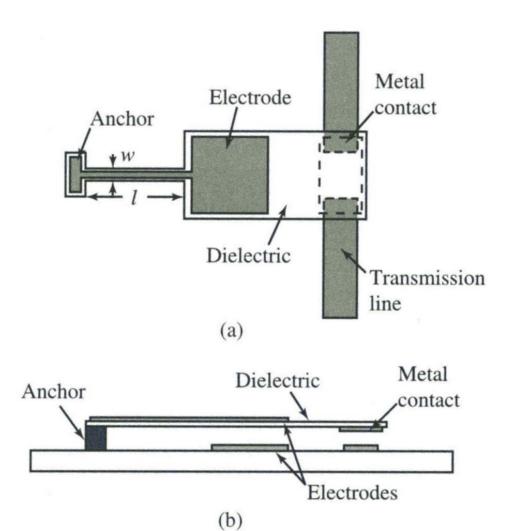
Series switch

- Contact switch, ohmic (relay) *
 - Cantilever beam
- Capacitive switch ("contact less")
 - RF-signals short-circuited via C (Z=1/jωC)
 - Impedance depends on value of C

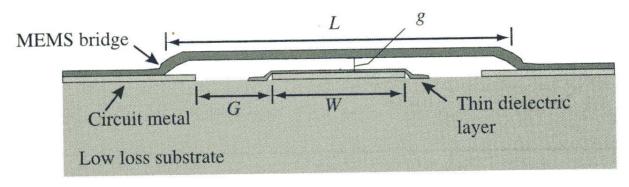
Shunt switch

- Shunt capacitive switch *
 - clamped-clamped beam (c-c beam)
- Shunt contact switch

Series switch



Typical shunt switch



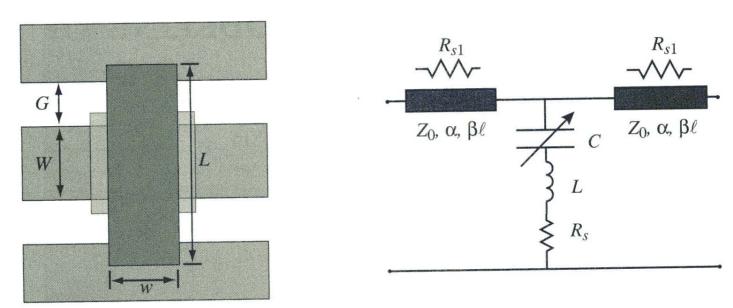


Figure 4.1. Illustration of a typical MEMS shunt switch shown in cross section and plan view. The equivalent circuit is also shown [6] (Copyright IEEE).

Electromechanical operation

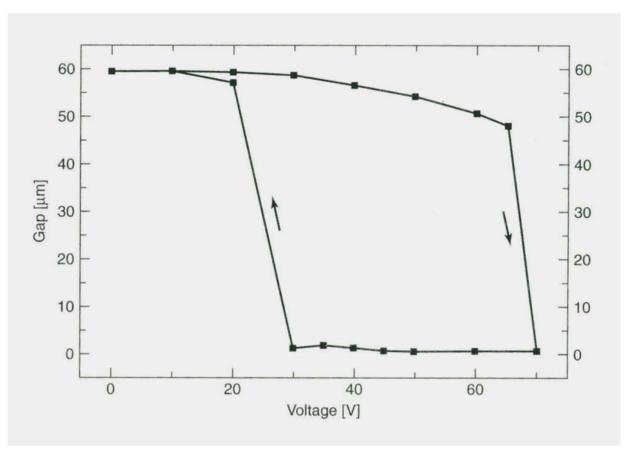
- The operation is based on the pull-in effect
 - Characteristics at pull-in
 - Membrane/beam pulls in at 1/3 of gap
 - Pull-in voltage:

$$V_{PI} = \sqrt{\frac{8K}{27\varepsilon_0 Ww}} g_0^3$$

- Definition of parameters:
 - K spring constant
 - g0 initial gap
 - $-A=W^*w = area$

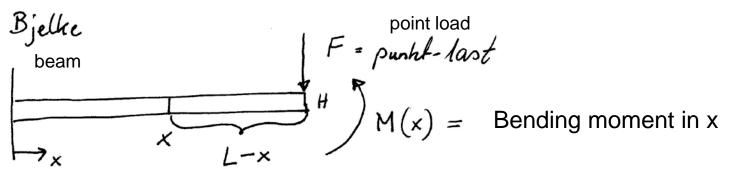
Hysteresis

 A capacitive switch shows hysteresis when being switched on/off



Deflection of beam

- Suppose the following approximations:
 - Actuation electrode is not deflected
 - Electrostatic force concentrated at the end of the flexible beam with length L



$$\frac{d^2w}{dx^2} = -\frac{M}{E \cdot I}$$

$$w(x) = \frac{FL}{2EI} x^{2} \left(1 - \frac{x}{3L}\right)$$

Max. deflection at x = L

$$w(L) = \frac{L^3}{3EI} \cdot F$$

Beam stiffness represents a spring with spring constant k_cantilever

Compare with

$$k_{\text{candilum}} = \frac{F}{w(L)} = \frac{3EI}{L^3} = \frac{1}{4} E \cdot W \left(\frac{H}{L}\right)^3$$

Switch speed and damping

- Switch speed depends of damping
 - Air, gas must be pushed/pulled
 - "squeezed-film damping"
 - Method of modeling from fluid dynamics
- How to reduce damping?
 - Operate in vacuum
 - Hermetic sealed packages
 - Make holes in membrane
 - Perforated membrane

Gap vs. Time for various Q-factors

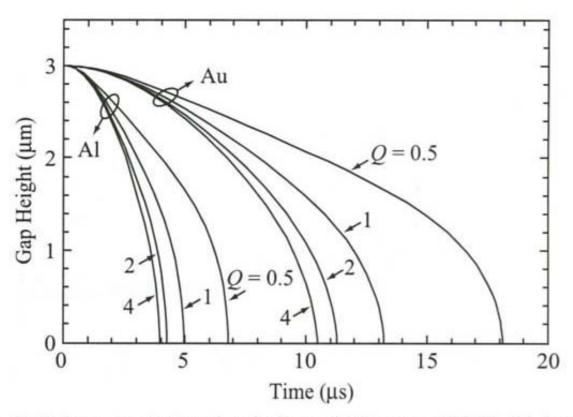


Figure 3.3. Pull-down simulations for the Au and Al beams of Table 3.1 for an applied voltage of 42 V ($V_s = 1.4V_p$).

Acceleration limited switch

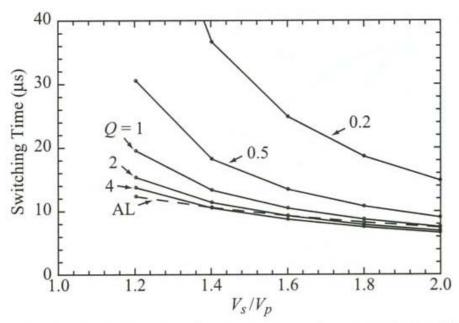


Figure 3.5. Simulated switching times for the Au beam given in Table 3.1. "AL" means acceleration-limited and is given by Eq. (3.23).

Note: The system becomes more acceleration limited when damping decreases (eg. Q-factor increases). High Vs/Vp is good.

Switch speed for increased Vs

- Switch-speed strongly depends on actuation voltage, Vs
 - Vs is usually larger than Vpi
 - Vs = const * Vpi (pullin) = ("actuation voltage")
 - Larger voltage gives larger electrostatic force
 - → increased switch speed

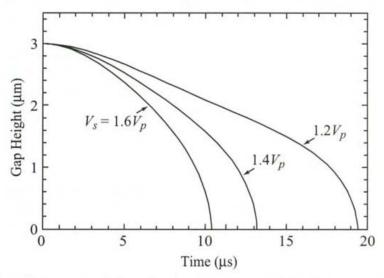
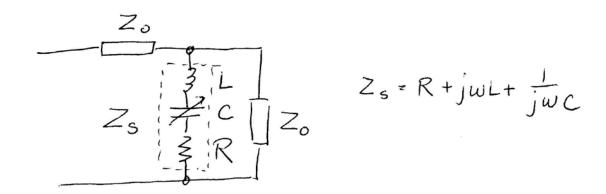


Figure 3.4. Pull-down simulations for the Au beam of Table 3.1 versus the applied voltage, and Q = 1.

RF modeling: Shunt configuration



$$S_{11} = S_{22} = 7 = \frac{Z_L - Z_o}{Z_L + Z_o} = \frac{Z_s // Z_o - Z_o}{Z_s // Z_o + Z_o} = \frac{-Z_o}{2Z_s + Z_o}$$

$$S_{12} = S_{21} = 1 + 17 = 1 + \frac{-Z_0}{2Z_s + Z_0} = \frac{2Z_s}{2Z_s + Z_0}$$

Series contact canhilever surtch OFF (up-state)

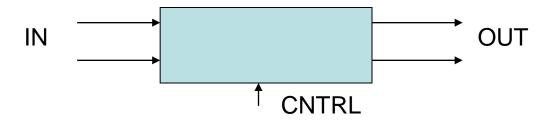
$$Z_{s} = j\omega L + \frac{1}{j\omega C}$$

$$S_{II} = S_{22} = \Pi = \frac{Z_L - Z_o}{Z_L + Z_o} = \frac{(Z_S + Z_o) - Z_o}{(Z_S + Z_o) + Z_o} = \frac{Z_S}{2Z_o + Z_S}$$

$$S_{12} = S_{21} = 1 - 1 - \frac{Z_s}{2Z_o + Z_s} = \frac{2Z_o}{2Z_o + Z_s}$$

Phase shifter

A phase shifter is a 2-port



- Output signal is delayed relative to the input signal
- The effective "path-length" of the transmission line can be changed
 - Signal propagates a longer distance → "delayed" → phase change
 - Phase difference can be controlled by a DC bias

Analog phase shifters

 Phase velocity for a transmission line

$$v_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_t \cdot C_t}}$$

- Variables are inductance and capacitance per unit length
- Idea: C-value can be controlled by a bias voltage
 - For example by shunt capacitive loaded line

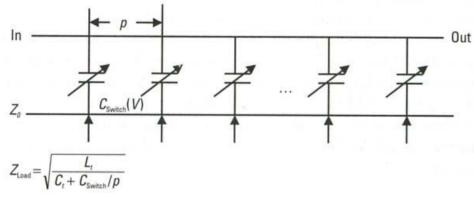
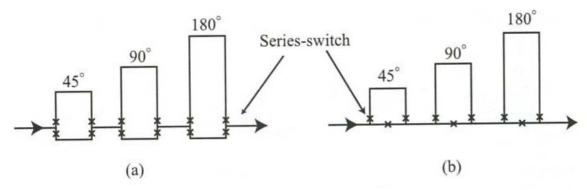


Figure 5.1 Schematic of analog phase shifter.

C_t = line capacitance

De Los Santos

Digital phase shifters with series-switches



- Working principle
 - Different line paths connected in/out
 - Interconnections through switches
- Switches for "180°, 90°, 45°, 22.5°, 11.25° -sections in a cascade arrangement
- Several bits used
 - Controlling line sections individually
 - F.ex. 3 bits: 45/90/180° give phase shift 0, 45, 90, 135, ..., 315°
 - 3 bit and 4 bit phase shifters have been demonstrated

Reflection type phase shifter, N-bit

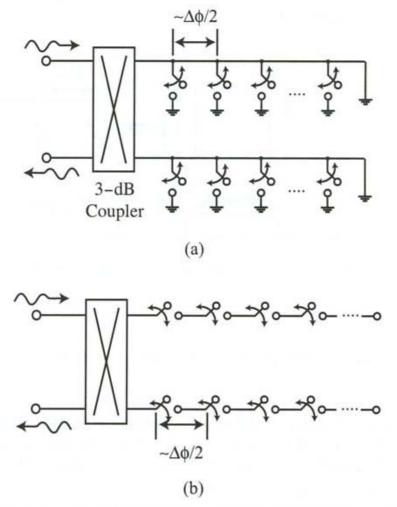


Figure 9.1. A reflect-line N-bit phase shifter using (a) shunt and (b) series switches.