2 Model equations

In the following text all equations that are actually used in the implemented model code are marked by a frame. The physical background of the equations is briefly discussed and references for more detailed explanations are provided. The model equations are discussed on the basis of a vertical npn transistor. A vertical pnp transistor requires for most processes the addition of a parasitic n-well transistor (e.g. in a subcircuit).

The presently available version of HICUM (named HICUM/Level2) includes many physical effects that are relevant for today's silicon-based processes (incl. SiGe technologies). As a consequence, its equivalent circuit is fairly complicated and not well-suited for rough analytical calculations often performed by circuit designers in the preliminary design phase. Therefore, a strongly simplified version of the model, called HICUM/Level0, is also being offered. The combination of these different levels of complexity during circuit design is expected to also save computational effort and time. The latest documentation for HICUM/Level0 is now also available on the HICUM website.

2.1 HICUM/Level2

2.1.1 Equivalent circuit

Compared to the SGPM the equivalent circuit (EC) of HICUM/Level2 contains two additional circuit nodes, namely B* and S' in Fig. 2.1.1/1. The node B*, which separates the operating point dependent internal base resistance from the operating point independent external component, is required to take into account emitter periphery effects, which can play a significant role in modern transistors. This node is also employed for an improved modelling of the distributed nature of the external base-collector (BC) region by splitting the external BC capacitance C_{BCx} over r_{Bx} in the form of a π -type equivalent circuit for the corresponding RC transmission line(s). As a further advantage of introducing the node B*, high-frequency small-signal emitter current crowding can be correctly taken into account by the capacitance C_{rBi} . An emitter-base isolation capacitance C_{BEpar} , that becomes significant for advanced technologies with thin spacer or link regions, as well as a BC oxide capacitance C_{BCpar} , which is included in the C_{BCx} element, are taken into account.

In contrast to other models, the influence of the internal collector series resistance is (partially) taken into account by the model equations for the transfer current i_T and the minority charge which is represented by the elements C_{dE} and C_{dC} in Fig. 2.1.1/1. As a consequence, the collector terminal C' of the internal transistor is (physically) located at the end of the epitaxial (or n-well) collector region. This approach not only avoids additional complicated and computationally expensive model equations for an "internal collector resistance" but also saves one node. The chosen approach has been demonstrated to be accurate for a wide range of existing bipolar technologies (cf. chapter 6).

The reliable design of high-speed circuits often requires the consideration of the coupling between the buried layer and the substrate terminal S. Since the substrate material consists of both a resistive and capacitive component, as a first (rough) approach a substrate network with a resistance r_{Su} and a capacitance C_{Su} is introduced, leading to the "internal" substrate node S*.

A possibly existing substrate transistor has been taken into account by using a simple transport model. Like in the SGPM, this can also be realized by a subcircuit (cf. Section 2.1.12) and setting r_{Su} and C_{jS} to zero in the HICUM equivalent circuit. In advanced bipolar processes, the emitter terminal of the substrate transistor (B*) moves towards the (npn) base contact (B) which makes the external realization of such a parasitic transistor by a subcircuit even easier. The substrate transistor

- if it is not avoided by proper layout measures - only turns on for operation at very low CE voltages ("very" hard saturation).

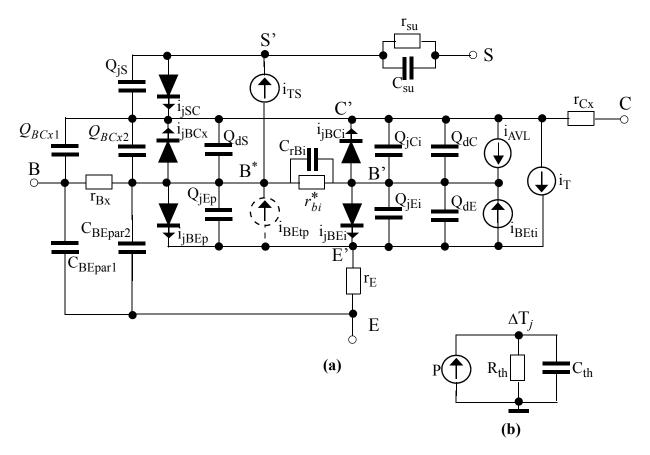


Fig. 2.1.1/1:a) Large-signal HICUM/Level2 equivalent circuit. The external BC capacitance consists of a depletion and a bias independent parasitic capacitance with the ratio $C_{BCx}^{\circ}/C_{BCx}^{\circ}$ being adjusted with respect to proper modelling of the h.f. behavior. (b) Thermal network used for self-heating calculation.

The physical meaning and modelling of all EC elements in Fig. 2.1.1/1 is discussed below in more detail. The description in the following text is given for an npn transistor, which is the most widely used type of bipolar transistors. For vertical pnp transistors, the model can be applied by interchanging the signs of terminal voltages and currents. Lateral pnp transistors can be described by a composition of HICUM/L2 models but usually a subcircuit consisting of three simple transport models (e.g. HICUM/L0) is considered to be more appropriate.

2.1.2 Quasi-static transfer current

The transfer current of a vertical homo- and hetero-junction bipolar transistor can be described by a generalized form of the ICCR that can also be extended to 2D and 3D transistor structures with narrow emitter stripes or very small contact windows. The various steps to arrive at the final equation for the transfer current i_T are outlined below, demonstrating the modular structure of the model equations. For a detailed derivation of the GICCR the reader is referred to the Appendix.

A. Basic formulation

The result of the one-dimensional (1D) GICCR is

$$i_T = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p,T}} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{V_T}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'C'}}{V_T}\right) \right]$$
 (2.1.2-1)

with the constant

$$c_{10} = (qA_E)^2 V_T \overline{\mu_{nB} n_{iB}^2} . {(2.1.2-2)}$$

As discussed in the Appendix, $v_{B'E'}$ and $v_{B'C'}$ are the (time dependent) terminal voltages of the 1D transistor if the integration leading to the modified hole charge, $Q_{p,T}$, is performed throughout the total 1D transistor, i.e. between its emitter and collector contact. The term $\overline{\mu_{nB} n_{iB}^2}$ is an average value for the base region.

 $Q_{p,T}$ consists of a weighted sum of charges,

$$Q_{p,T} = Q_{p0} + h_{jEi}Q_{jEi} + h_{jCi}Q_{jCi} + Q_{f,T} + Q_{r,T},$$
(2.1.2-3)

The charge formulations designated with the index "T" result when the transfer current is derived from the transport equation and hetero-junctions as well as current spreading are included. The hole charge at thermal equilibrium, Q_{p0} , is a model parameter. Q_{jEi} and Q_{jCi} are the depletion charges stored within the BE and BC junction. $Q_{f,T}$ and $Q_{r,T}$ are (weighted) forward and reverse minority charges stored in the total (1D) transistor [16]. The various components in the minority charges and the weighting factors will be discussed in more detail later.

The correspondence to the conventional model formulation can be maintained by realizing that the usual collector saturation current is simply given by

$$I_S = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p0}} , \qquad (2.1.2-4)$$

so that (2.1.2-1) can also be written in normalized form:

$$i_T = \frac{I_S}{Q_{p,T}/Q_{p0}} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{V_T}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'C'}}{V_T}\right) \right] . \tag{2.1.2-5}$$

Mathematically, i_T in (2.1.2-1) can be split into a "forward" component,

$$i_{Tf} = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{V_T}\right)$$
 (2.1.2-6)

and a "reverse" (better to say inverse) component,

$$i_{Tr} = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'C'}}{V_T}\right) ,$$
 (2.1.2-7)

which will be referred to in the discussion below. Physically, i_{Tf} represents the electron current flowing from emitter to collector at forward operation at $\exp(V_{C'E}/V_T) >> 1$. Analogously, i_{Tr} represents the electron current flowing from collector to emitter at inverse operation with $\exp(-V_{C'E}/V_T) >> 1$. This separation of i_T simplifies both the implementation of the solution of the non-linear transfer current formulation as well as the modelling of the minority charge components.

B. Extension to the 2D (3D) case and influence of internal base resistance

The 1D transistor structure can be transformed into a 2D or 3D structure by multiplying all area specific 1D model parameters with the emitter area of the transistor. This defines the internal transistor, i.e. the structure under the emitter window. As a result, the lateral voltage drop caused by the base current has to be taken into account for calculating $v_{B'E'}$ and $v_{B'C'}$ in (2.1.2-1). This requires an appropriate definition and model for the internal base resistance by which then $v_{B'E'}$ and $v_{B'C'}$

are becoming "averaged" terminal voltages to ensure a correct description of the electrical (terminal) characteristics of the internal transistor.

C. Emitter periphery injection

The carrier injection at the emitter periphery junction and the corresponding transfer current component through the external base can be taken into account by defining an effective electrical emitter width b_E and length l_E [4, 20, 21], which are usually larger than the emitter window dimensions. This results in an effective size for the internal transistor in the 2D and 3D case with the effective emitter area A_E . By multiplication of all area specific 1D model parameters with A_E (rather than A_{E0}) it was shown in [21], that (2.1.2-1) can then be directly applied without any loss of accuracy at low current densities. At high current densities, however, this approach can become less accurate, and another extension is usually required which will be discussed later. $v_{B'E'}$ and $v_{B'C'}$ are now the terminal voltages of the effective internal transistor (cf. Fig. 2.1.1/1), and the components Q_{iEi} and Q_{iCi} in the charge $Q_{p,T}$ are now defined for the effective internal transistor.

Besides the lateral scalability of the model, the major advantages of this approach are that (i) a single equation can be used throughout the total operating region and (ii) a single transfer current source element can be used in the EC (Fig. 2.1.1/1) to describe even transistors with strong 2D and 3D effects.

D. Heterojunction bipolar transistors (HBTs)

The generalized ICCR [36] results in the following expression for the weighted minority charge

$$Q_{f,T} = Q_{f0} + h_{fE} \Delta Q_{Ef} + \Delta Q_{Bf} + h_{fC} \Delta Q_{Cf}$$
 (2.1.2-8)

with Q_{f0} as low-current charge component, and ΔQ_{Ef} , ΔQ_{Bf} , ΔQ_{Cf} as the actual minority charges in the neutral emitter, base, collector. ΔQ_{Cf} can include bias dependent lateral current spreading (see later). The weighing factors h_{fE} and h_{fC} as well as h_{jEi} and h_{jCi} in (2.1.2-3) are given by the differences and grading of the bandgap between the various transistor regions in a HBT. Note, that $Q_{f,T}$ is generally *not equal to the stored minority charge* Q_f used during dynamic operation. The charge components of $Q_{f,T}$ are discussed in ch. 2.1.3.

Assuming a linear bandgap change in the base with the grading coefficient a_G , the model parameter h_{jci} can be expressed analytically as [7]

$$h_{jCi} \approx \exp\left(-\frac{a_G w_{B0}}{V_T}\right) \tag{2.1.2-9}$$

with w_{B0} as the neutral base width in equilibrium. The corresponding factor for the BE charge, h_{jEi} , is close to 1 for Si-based processes, but is usually larger than 1 for (SiGe) HBTs.

The weighting factors [16]

$$h_{fE} = \frac{\overline{\mu_{nB} n_{iB}^2}}{\mu_{nE} n_{iE}^2}$$
 and $h_{fC} = \frac{\overline{\mu_{nB} n_{iB}^2}}{\mu_{nC} n_{iC}^2}$ (2.1.2-10)

are model parameters that take into account the different values for effective intrinsic carrier concentration n_i and mobility μ_n of the neutral transistor regions. The factors h_{jCi} , h_{fE} , and h_{fC} are considered to be model parameters in order to make the model applicable also in cases where the doping concentrations and other physical values are unknown.

For SiGe heterojunction transistors, h_{fC} can be significantly larger than 1 while h_{jCi} is less than 1, explaining the larger Early voltages measured in those transistors. In contrast, for most homojunction transistors these parameters assume values close to 1 although they are becoming more relevant, too, in advanced homojunction transistors due to high-doping effects.

For HBTs, such as those fabricated in III-V semiconductors, that contain a significant energy difference in the conduction band, transport effects such as thermionic emission and tunneling may have to be accounted for. There are various ways of doing this which differ in complexity and, therefore, convergence rate and simulation time. For the present model, the most simple approach has been adopted by introducing a non-ideality coefficient m_{Cf} in the forward component of the transfer current:

$$i_{Tf} = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{Cf}V_T}\right).$$
 (2.1.2-11)

This approach is believed to offer sufficient flexibility for practical purposes, while keeping down additional computational burden.

E. High current densities

Earlier investigations of a variety of doping profiles have shown that (2.1.2-1) becomes less accurate at high collector current densities due to current spreading in the (epitaxial) collector [4,5]. This 2D/3D effect can also be taken into account as a physics-based expression by using the GIC-CR and by applying the same methodology as described in [21].

The previously described version of HICUM [5] contains a simplified modelling of this effect by replacing the constant c_{10} with the empirical function $c_1 = c_{10}(1 + i_T/I_{Ch})$ in which I_{Ch} is a model parameter that is (roughly) proportional to the emitter area. In the presently implemented version, the simplified description is still maintained, but a numerically more stable expression is being used:

$$c_1 = c_{10} \left(1 + \frac{i_{Tf1}}{I_{Ch}} \right) . (2.1.2-12)$$

with the 1D forward transfer current:

$$i_{Tf1} = \frac{c_{10}}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{Cf}V_T}\right) = I_S \frac{Q_{p0}}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{Cf}V_T}\right).$$
 (2.1.2-13)

For $Q_{r,T}$ the actual charge Q_r is being used.

F. Final transfer current model formulation

The "forward" component defined in (2.1.2-6) is repeated here with the modifications in (2.1.2-11) and (2.1.2-12):

$$i_{Tf} = \frac{c_1}{Q_{p,T}} \exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{Cf}V_T}\right).$$
 (2.1.2-14)

The "reverse" (better to say inverse) component remains identical to (2.1.2-7); in the latter, the influence of collector current spreading at forward operation is not included, i.e. $c_I = c_{I0}$. (2.1.2-14) can be re-arranged to give an *explicit* expression for the forward transfer current,

$$i_{Tf} = i_{Tf1} \left(1 + \frac{i_{Tf1}}{I_{Ch}} \right)$$
 (2.1.2-15)

The total transfer current is then

$$i_T = i_{Tf} - i_{Tr}$$
 (2.1.2-16)

At high reverse bias across either junction, the respective space-charge region can extend throughout the whole base region (base punch-through or reach-through effect). As a result, $Q_{p,T}$ would become zero or even less than zero which would cause numerical problems. This situation is most likely to occur at low current densities, where the (always positive) minority charge is negligible. Therefore, in HICUM the hole charge at low current densities,

$$Q_{pT,j} = Q_{p0} + h_{jEi}Q_{jEi} + h_{jCi}Q_{jCi}, \qquad (2.1.2-17)$$

is limited to a positive value $Q_{B,rt} = 0.05Q_{p0}$, using a smoothing function, and is replaced by

$$Q_{pT,low} = Q_{B,rt} \left(1 + \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + a}}{2} \right) \quad with \quad x = \frac{Q_{pT,j}}{Q_{B,rt}} - 1$$
 (2.1.2-18)

and a=1.921812 which reproduces the values of the former exponential smoothing function. Compared to version 2.1, only the exponential smoothing function in $Q_{pT,low}$ has now been replaced by a hyperbolic smoothing function. Also, the previous conditional statement, which turned on the evaluation of the smoothing function for $Q_{pT,j} < 0.6Q_{p0}$ has been removed to avoid slight inconsistencies in the calculated values and, especially, the associated derivatives. For the usual operating range with $Q_{pT,j}/Q_{p0} > 1$, the difference $Q_{pT,low}-Q_{p,j}$ is much smaller than $10^{-6}Q_{p0}$, so the smoothing and the associated computational effort could be skipped in the code.

Also note that the effect of base reach-through is extremely unlikely, so that any additional (numerical) effort to take into account the physical mechanisms occurring under these circumstances does not seem to be justified for a compact model.

In general, the GICCR is a non-linear implicit equation for either i_T or $Q_{p,T}$, respectively. Since $Q_{p,T}$ is the common variable in both current components i_{Tf} and i_{Tr} , the GICCR is solved in HICUM for $Q_{p,T}$ by employing Newton-Raphson iteration*. However, as long as $Q_{f,T}$ and Q_r are linearly varying functions of the respective current, i.e. the transit times are current *independent*, the GIC-

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^{*.}In the SGPM, the solution is obtained by significant simplifications of the minority charge terms, leading to an (explicit) quadratic equation. Such an approach is physically consistent and accurate only at low current densities.

CR reduces to a quadratic equation, with an explicit solution for $Q_{p,T}$ (assuming $c_1 = c_{10}$ at low current densities)

$$Q_{p,T} = \frac{Q_{pT,low}}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{Q_{pT,low}}{2}\right)^2 + \tau_{f0}c_{10}\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{cf}V_T}\right) + \tau_{r}c_{10}\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'C'}}{V_T}\right)}$$
(2.1.2-19)

with $Q_{p,low}$ from (2.1.2-18). Inserting the above solution into i_{Tf} and i_{Tr} and adding the minority charge terms provide quite a useful *initial guess* for the Newton iteration at higher current densities:

$$Q_{p,T,initial} = Q_{pT,low} + \tau_{f0} i_{Tf} + \tau_r i_{Tr} . {(2.1.2-20)}$$

For the practical implementation of the GICCR the reader is referred to the model code.

2.1.3 Minority charge, transit times, and diffusion capacitances

The minority charge is divided into a "forward" and a "reverse" (or inverse) component. The forward component, Q_f , is considered to be dependent on the forward transfer current, i_{Tf} , while the reverse component, Q_r , is considered to be dependent on the reverse transfer current, i_{Tr} . The large-signal charge components can be determined by integrating the respective small-signal transit times, defined as

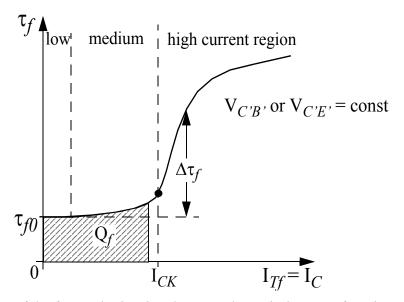
$$\tau = \frac{dQ}{dI} \tag{2.1.3-1}$$

rather than $\tau = Q/I$.

2.1.3.1 Minority charge component controlled by the forward transfer current

The operating point dependent minority charge stored in a forward biased (vertical) transistor can be determined from the transit time τ_f by simple integration (cf. Fig. 2.1.3/1),

$$Q_f = \int_0^{i_{Tf}} \tau_f \, di \quad . \tag{2.1.3-2}$$



<u>Fig. 2.1.3/1:</u> Illustration of the forward minority charge and transit time as a function of current and definition of the bias regions.

 τ_f can be extracted from the measured transit frequency vs. d.c. collector current I_C (= I_T) at forward operation for different voltages v_{CE} or v_{BC} as a parameter (cf. [23] and chapter 4). The current and voltage dependent transit time is modelled in HICUM by two components,

$$\tau_f(v_{CE'}, i_{Tf}) = \tau_{f0}(v_{B'C}) + \Delta \tau_f(v_{CE'}, i_{Tf}),$$
(2.1.3-3)

where τ_{f0} is the low-current transit time, and $\Delta \tau_f$ represents the increase of the transit time at high collector current densities. Fig. 2.1.3/2 shows the typically observed behavior of τ_f and its various components, for which physics-based equations will be given later in this chapter. It is important to note, that the sum of all physically (from carrier densities) calculated storage times, $\tau_{m\Sigma}$, equals the transit time τ_f , that is extracted from small-signal results using the measurement method.

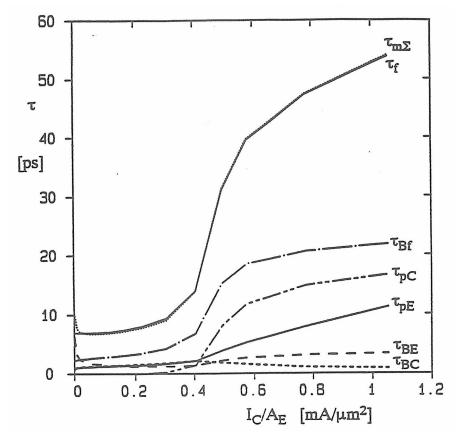


Fig. 2.1.3/2: Charge storage and transit time components vs. collector current density. The components τ_{Bf} , τ_{pC} , τ_{pE} , τ_{BE} , τ_{BC} , and $\tau_{m\Sigma}$ were calculated from 1D device simulation, while τ_{B} was extracted from small-signal simulations and f_{T} using the measurement method.

The minority charge model in HICUM uses an "effective" collector voltage

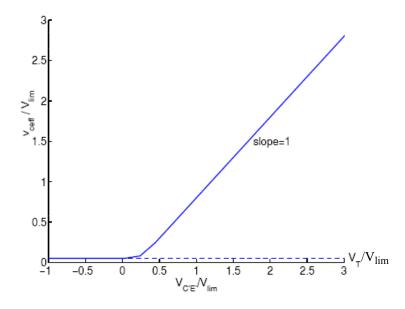
$$v_{ceff} = V_T \left[1 + \frac{u + \sqrt{u^2 + a_{vceff}}}{2} \right] \quad \text{with the argument} \quad u = \frac{v_c - V_T}{V_T}$$
 (2.1.3-4)

with

$$v_c = v_{CE} - V_{CEs} \approx V_{DCi} - v_{B'C}$$
 (2.1.3-5)

The value of the constant a_{vceff} (= 1.921812) has been adjusted to yield the same results as the exponential smoothing formulation (used in the previous version) and, thus, is not a model parameter. The internal CE saturation voltage $V_{C'E's}$ ($\approx V_{DEi}$ - V_{DCi}) is a model parameter. The smoothing function for v_{ceff} has been implemented in order to provide a smooth behavior of the critical current (see later) and the forward minority charge for very small and negative values of v_c . As Fig. 2.1.3/3 shows, v_{ceff} is equal to v_c for values larger than about $2V_{C'E's}$ and approaches the the thermal voltage V_T as the limit for negative values.

The transit time and minority charge model used in HICUM and its derivation are discussed in detail in [43]. In this text, the most important equations and their physical meaning are summarized.



<u>Fig. 2.1.3/3:</u> Normalized effective collector voltage vs. normalized (internal) collector voltage showing the behaviour of the smoothing function.

A. Low-current densities

The low-current component τ_{f0} depends on the collector-base (or collector-emitter voltage) only,

$$\tau_{f0}(v_{B'C}) = \tau_0 + \Delta \tau_{0h}(c-1) + \tau_{Bvl} \left(\frac{1}{c} - 1\right)$$
(2.1.3-6)

with the normalized internal BC depletion capacitance $I/c = C_{jCi,t}(V_{B'C'})/C_{jCi0}$. Note, that $C_{jCi,t}$ is evaluated for the same model parameters as the internal BC depletion capacitance C_{jCi} , but with infinite punch-through voltage in order to roughly take into account the impact of the bias dependent space-charge region moving into the base and buried layer beyond the punch-through voltage.

The first time constant in (2.1.3-6), τ_0 , represents the sum of voltage independent components of various transistor regions at $V_{B'C'}=0$; this condition already defines how to extract its value. The second term represents the net voltage dependent change caused by the Early-effect and the transit time through the BC space charge region: for $\Delta \tau_{0h} < 0$ the Early effect dominates while for $\Delta \tau_{0h} > 0$ the transit time increase caused by the widening of the BC space charge region at large voltages dominates. The third term takes into account the finite carrier velocity in the BC space charge region resulting in a carrier jam at low $V_{C'E'}$ voltages.

Fig. 2.1.3/4 shows two examples for the voltage dependence of the low-current transit time and its two voltage dependent components. The axis values have been normalized to the model parameters τ_0 and V_{DCi} , respectively. The upper figure (a) contains a behavior that is (more) typical for a relatively slow high-voltage transistor, which is characterized by a relatively wide and low-doped collector region under the emitter. In this case, τ_{f0} increases with increasing $V_{C'E'}$ (= $V_{B'E'}$ - $V_{B'C'}$) due to the widening of the BC space charge region. Towards very low $V_{C'E'}$ the drift velocity within the BC space charge region decreases, and the respective (third) term in (2.1.3-6) dominates the voltage dependence, which leads again to an increase of τ_{f0} and to a minimum around $V_{B'C}$ =0.

The lower figure (b) shows the typical behaviour for a high-speed transistor with, e.g., a selectively implanted collector and a thin base. With increasing reverse bias, the BC space charge region does extend noticeably also into the base, resulting in a (slightly) negative value of $\Delta \tau_{0h}$ and a decrease of the respective component. Therefore, τ_{f0} decreases with increasing $V_{C'E'}$.

The respective low-current forward minority charge is simply given by

$$Q_{f0} = \tau_{f0} i_{Tf} . {(2.1.3-7)}$$

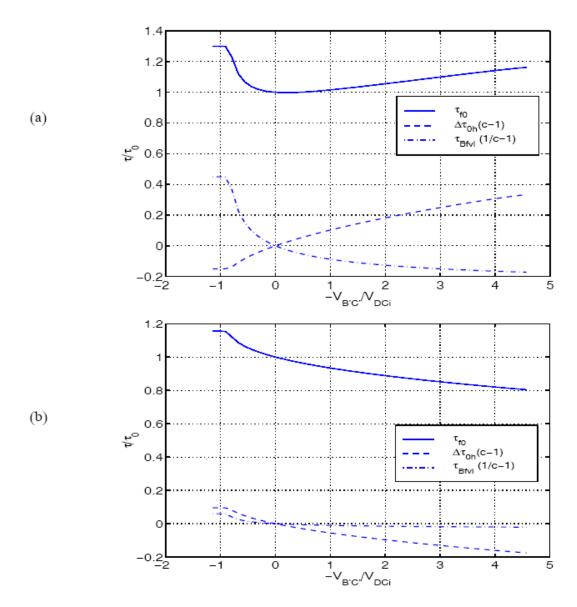


Fig. 2.1.3/4: Normalized low-current transit time and its components as a function of normalized (internal) BC voltage: (a) for a "high-voltage" transistor (τ_0 =10ps, $\Delta \tau_{0h}$ =2.5ps, τ_{Bfvl} =3ps), (b) for a "high-speed" transistor (τ_0 =2.5ps, $\Delta \tau_{0h}$ =-0.4ps, τ_{Bfvl} =0.1ps).

B. Medium and high current densities

At medium current densities, the electric field at the BC junction starts to decrease, and the BC junction region becomes quasi-neutral at high current densities. This is often called Kirk-effect [29]. In HICUM, the onset of high-current effects is characterized by the critical current [6]

$$I_{CK} = \frac{v_{ceff}}{r_{Ci0}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{v_{ceff}}{V_{lim}}\right)^2}} \left[1 + \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + a_{ickpt}}}{2}\right]$$
(2.1.3-8)

with $x = (v_{ceff} V_{lim})/V_{PT}$ in the smoothing function that connects the cases of low and high electric fields in the collector, and with the constant $a_{ickpt} = 10^{-3}$.

The other (model) parameters are the internal collector resistance at low electric fields,

$$r_{Ci0} = \frac{w_C}{q\mu_{nC0}N_{Ci}A_E} \frac{1}{f_{cs}} , \qquad (2.1.3-9)$$

the voltage defining the boundary between low and high electric fields in the collector,

$$V_{lim} = \frac{v_{sn}}{\mu_{nC0}} w_C , \qquad (2.1.3-10)$$

and the (collector) punch-through voltage

$$V_{PT} = \frac{qN_{Ci}}{2\varepsilon} w_C^2 . {(2.1.3-11)}$$

As the above relations show, I_{CK} depends on the electron saturation drift velocity, v_{sn} , and the electron low-field mobility, μ_{nC0} , as well as on width w_C and (average) doping N_{Ci} of the internal collector. The current spreading factor f_{cs} , which is discussed in chapter 2.1.16, facilitates lateral scaling [21] and is calculated by TRADICA (or any other parameter generation program). Despite their physical relationship, r_{Ci0} , V_{lim} and V_{PT} are considered to be model parameters in order to offer a more flexible parameter extraction and broader application of the model. However, their physics-based relationship is very useful for temperature and statistical modelling.

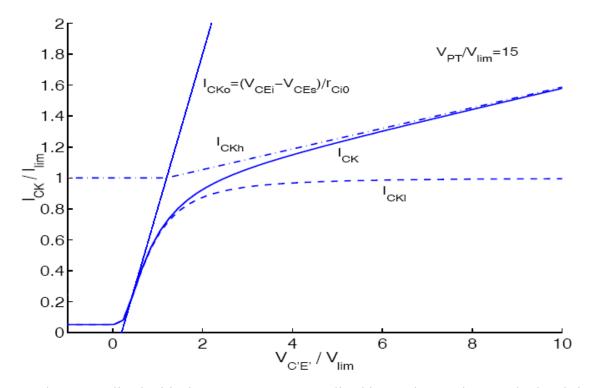


Fig. 2.1.3/5: Normalized critical current I_{CK} vs. normalized internal CE voltage and related single components: $I_{CKl} = (v_{ceff}/r_{Ci0})/\sqrt{1+(v_{ceff}/V_{lim})^2}$ from low-voltage theory; $I_{CKh} = I_{lim} \left[1+(v_{ceff}-V_{lim})/V_{PT}\right]$ from high-voltage theory with $I_{lim}=V_{lim}/r_{Ci0}$.

The consequence of the changing electric field in the BC junction at medium current densities is, first of all, an increase in the neutral base width and, therefore, in the base component of the transit time; secondly, also the transit time through the BC space charge region may increase, depending on how large the electric field is. Thirdly, the corresponding decrease of the small-signal current gain leads to an increase of the emitter component. Since the current independent part of this component has already been taken into account in τ_{10} only the change (increase) has to be modelled,

$$\Delta \tau_{Ef} = \tau_{Ef0} \left(\frac{i_{Tf}}{I_{CK}} \right)^{g_{\tau E}}$$
 (2.1.3-12)

with the model parameters $g_{\tau E}$ and the storage time

$$\tau_{Ef0} = \frac{\tau_{pE0}}{\beta_0} \approx \frac{1}{\beta_0} \left(\frac{w_E}{v_{Ke}} + \frac{w_E^2}{2\mu_{pE}V_T} \right)$$
 (2.1.3-13)

which depends on the low-frequency common-emitter small-signal current gain β_0 and the hole transit time τ_{pE0} in which w_E , μ_{pE} , and v_{Ke} are the width, hole mobility, and the effective hole contact recombination velocity of the neutral emitter, respectively. The corresponding charge stored in the neutral emitter is:

$$\Delta Q_{Ef} = \Delta \tau_{Ef} \frac{i_{Tf}}{1 + g_{\tau E}} . \qquad (2.1.3-14)$$

In the neutral collector, minority (hole) charge storage starts only at high current densities [5, 6]. Theferore, the charge difference to its negligible low-current contribution is equal to the total hole charge Q_{pC} in the collector:

$$\Delta Q_{Cf} = Q_{Cf} = Q_{pC} = \tau_{pCs} i_{Tf} w^2$$
 (2.1.3-15)

with the saturation storage time of the neutral collector,

$$\tau_{pCs} = \frac{w_C^2}{4\mu_{nC0}V_T} \ . \tag{2.1.3-16}$$

The normalized injection width,

$$w = \frac{w_i}{w_C} = \frac{i + \sqrt{i^2 + a_{hc}}}{1 + \sqrt{1 + a_{hc}}}$$
 (2.1.3-17)

is bias dependent via the variable

$$i = 1 - \frac{I_{CK}}{i_{Tf}} \tag{2.1.3-18}$$

while a_{hc} is considered to be a model parameter. By using a smoothing function for w rather than the original expression i in (2.1.3-17), the collector charge is made continuously differentiable over the whole bias region. The corresponding collector storage time is given by

$$\Delta \tau_{Cf} = \tau_{Cf} = \tau_{pC} = \frac{dQ_{pC}}{dI_{Tf}} = \tau_{pCs} w^2 \left[1 + \frac{2}{\frac{i_{Tf}}{I_{CK}} \sqrt{i^2 + a_{hc}}} \right]$$
(2.1.3-19)

Device simulations for many different processes have shown that the shape of the current dependence of the neutral base component τ_{Bf} , is very similar to that of the collector portion τ_{pC} due to the coupling of these regions by the carrier density at the BC junction. As a consequence, the bias dependent increase of the base charge at high-current densities is similarly expressed as

$$\Delta Q_{Bf} = \tau_{Bfvs} i_{Tf} w^2 \tag{2.1.3-20}$$

with the saturation storage time reached at high current densities,

$$\tau_{Bfvs} = \frac{w_{Bm}w_C}{2G_{Ci}\mu_{nC0}V_T} \ . \tag{2.1.3-21}$$

 w_{Bm} is the metallurgical base width, and $G_{\zeta i}$ (≥ 1) is a factor that depends on the drift field in the neutral base [28]. The corresponding additional base transit time reads

$$\Delta \tau_{Bf} = \frac{d\Delta Q_{Bf}}{dI_{Tf}} = \tau_{Bfvs} w^2 \left[1 + \frac{2}{\frac{i_{Tf}}{I_{CK}} \sqrt{i^2 + a_{hc}}} \right]. \tag{2.1.3-22}$$

In HICUM, the total storage time constant,

$$\tau_{hcs} = \tau_{pCs} + \tau_{Bfvs} = \frac{w_C^2}{4\mu_{nC0}V_T} + \frac{w_{Bm}w_C}{2G_{\zeta i}\mu_{nC0}V_T} , \qquad (2.1.3-23)$$

is used as a model parameter to make the model application more flexible and easy to use. As discussed in chapter 2.1.16, the accurate and physics-based description of collector current spreading and associated lateral scaling at high current densities require a partitioning between base and collector component. For this, the partitioning constant

$$f_{\tau hc} = \frac{\tau_{pCs}}{\tau_{hcs}} = \frac{w_C}{w_C + 2w_{Bm}}$$
 (2.1.3-24)

is introduced as model parameter. A value of $f_{\tau hc}$ between 0 and 1 allows a gradual partitioning, with the 1D expressions given above (i.e. no collector current spreading) being employed for $f_{\tau hc}$ = 0, while a dominating influence of the collector term (including current spreading) can be taken into account by $f_{\tau hc} \rightarrow 1$.

Fig. 2.1.3/6 shows a sketch of the current dependence of the *additional* transit time $\Delta \tau_f$ and its various components, calculated with the equations given above and using model parameters that are typical for a high-speed process.

In case of negligible collector current spreading (corresponding to 1D current flow), the collector and base component can be lumped together ($f_{\tau hc} = 0$), leading to the expression for the additionally stored minority charge in the base and collector region at high current densities,

$$\Delta Q_{fh} = \Delta Q_{Bf} + Q_{Cf} = \tau_{hcs} i_{Tf} w^{2}$$
 (2.1.3-25)

The corresponding increase of the transit time at high-current densities is then given by

$$\Delta \tau_{fh} = \Delta \tau_{Bf} + \tau_{Cf} = \tau_{hcs} w^2 \left[1 + \frac{2}{\frac{i_{Tf}}{I_{CK}} \sqrt{i^2 + a_{hc}}} \right]. \tag{2.1.3-26}$$

The 1D current flow is detected by the model if the model parameters LATB and LATL (cf. chapter 2.1.16) are zero.

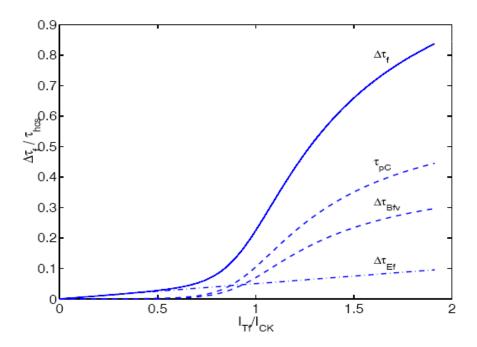


Fig. 2.1.3/6: Sketch of normalized transit time $\Delta \tau_f$ vs. normalized forward collector current I_{Tf} , including the various components: collector component τ_{pC} , additional base component $\Delta \tau_{Bf}$, and additional emitter contribution $\Delta \tau_{Ef}$.

The total minority charge in the various operating regions, that is used for transient or high-frequency analysis, is then calculated according to (2.1.3-1) and it consists of the following contributions:

$$Q_f = Q_{f0} + \Delta Q_{Ef} + \Delta Q_{fh} \tag{2.1.3-27}$$

while the total forward transit time (or storage time) is given by

$$\tau_f = \tau_{f0} + \Delta \tau_{Ef} + \Delta \tau_{fh} \quad . \tag{2.1.3-28}$$

If the lateral scaling capability is used, ΔQ_{fh} and $\Delta \tau_{fh}$ are composed of their separately calculated base and collector contribution (cf. chapter 2.1.16). The above equations contain physical and process parameters that facilitate the predictions of the electrical characteristics as a function of process variations.

2.1.3.2 Minority charge component controlled by the inverse transfer current

For forward transistor operation in high-speed applications, the portion of the minority charge which is exclusively controlled by the base-collector voltage is often negligible or only a small fraction of the total minority charge. Therefore, including this charge in Q_f causes only negligible error in transient operation of transistors in high-speed circuits. For small-signal high-frequency operation in the high-current region, which is a very unusual case, the base-collector voltage controlled charge may be taken into account by including its diffusion capacitance in the total internal base collector capacitance [11].

Alternatively, the BC diffusion charge can be modelled by the simple relation

$$Q_r = \tau_r \, i_{Tr} \tag{2.1.3-29}$$

with the inverse transit time τ_r as a model parameter.

2.1.4 Depletion charges and capacitances

Modelling of depletion charges (Q_j) and capacitances (C_j) as a function of the voltage v across the respective junction is partially based on classical theory that gives within a certain operating range

$$Q_{j} = \int_{0}^{v} C_{j} dv' = \frac{C_{j0} V_{D}}{1 - z} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{v}{V_{D}} \right)^{(1 - z)} \right]$$
 (2.1.4-1)

and

$$C_{j} = \frac{C_{j0}}{\left(1 - \frac{v}{V_{D}}\right)^{z}} . {(2.1.4-2)}$$

The zero bias capacitance C_{j0} , the diffusion (or built-in) voltage V_D as well as the exponent coefficient z are the model parameters. Due to the pole at forward bias, i.e. at $v=V_D$, however, the above formula is not yet suited for a compact model from both a numerical and physics-based point of view. The respective modification will be described for the BE depletion capacitance.

At high reverse voltages the epitaxial collector can become fully depleted up to the buried layer. This punch- (or reach-)through effect is also not included in the classical equation above (and in the SGPM). The corresponding extension will be discussed for the BC depletion capacitance.

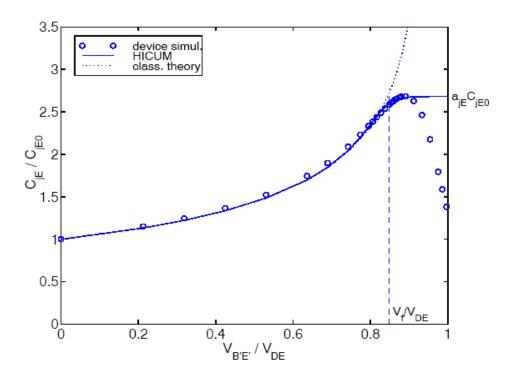
2.1.4.1 Base-emitter junction

Fig. 2.1.4/1 shows the voltage dependence of a BE depletion capacitance at forward bias. The symbols were obtained from 1D device simulation, with depletion and minority charge defined as in [30]. The depletion capacitance follows quite well the classical equation up to a certain voltage, which is close to the turn-on voltage of a transistor used for switching applications. In contrast to the classical equation, the capacitance then reaches a maximum within the "practical" operation range of a transistor. Towards very high forward bias, the capacitance even decreases to zero, since the total depletion charge has to be limited from a physical point of view.

The modified equation employed in HICUM is described below for the example of the internal BE depletion capacitance with the (classical) model parameters C_{iEi0} , V_{DEi} , z_{Ei} , and the additional

model parameter a_{jEi} . The latter is defined in Fig. 2.1.4/1 as the ratio of the maximum value to the zero-bias value and can directly be extracted from f_T measurements at low current densities (e.g. [18, 25]). As a consequence, C_{jEi} is kept at its maximum value in HICUM to maintain consistency between measurement and model. Keeping C_{jEi} constant is also justified, because at high forward bias, i.e. beyond the maximum, the diffusion capacitance becomes orders of magnitude larger than C_{jEi} . The reverse bias region of the BE depletion capacitance and charge is described by the classical equations.

For modeling the peripheral BE depletion charge and capacitance, the corresponding model parameters C_{jEp0} , V_{DEp} , z_{Ep} , a_{jEp} as well as the voltage and $v_{B^*E'}$ have to be inserted.



<u>Fig. 2.1.4/1:</u> Typical dependence of BE depletion capacitance on junction voltage at forward bias: comparison between 1D device simulation, HICUM, classical theory. In addition, characteristic variables used in the model equations have been inserted.

From Fig. 2.1.4/1, the forward bias depletion charge can be composed of a classical portion and a component for medium and large forward bias:

$$Q_{jEi} = \frac{C_{jEi0}V_{DEi}}{1 - z_{Ei}} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{v_j}{V_{DEi}}\right)^{(1 - z_{Ei})} \right] + a_{jEi}C_{jEi0}(v_{B'E} - v_j).$$
(2.1.4-3)

The arithmetic overflow at V_{DEi} is avoided by replacing the junction voltage $V_{B'E'}$ with the auxiliary voltage

$$v_j = V_f - V_T \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + a_{fj}}}{2} < V_f$$
 (2.1.4-4)

using hyperbolic smoothing and the argument

$$x = \frac{V_f - v_{B'E'}}{V_T}. (2.1.4-5)$$

 V_f is the voltage at large forward bias, at which the capacitance of the classical expression intercepts the maximum constant value (cf. Fig. 2.1.4/1):

$$V_f = V_{DEi}[1 - a_{jEi}^{-(1/z_{Ei})}]. (2.1.4-6)$$

 Q_{iEp} is calculated similarly.

The depletion capacitance is then calculated from the derivative of the charge yielding

$$C_{jEi} = \frac{C_{jEi0}}{(1 - v_j / V_{DEi})^{z_{Ei}}} \cdot \frac{dv_j}{dv_{B'E'}} + a_{jEi} C_{jEi0} \left(1 - \frac{dv_j}{dv_{B'E'}}\right)$$
(2.1.4-7)

with the derivative of v_i ,

$$\frac{dv_j}{dv_{B'E'}} = \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + a_{fj}}}{2\sqrt{x^2 + a_{fj}}}.$$
 (2.1.4-8)

The capacitance is not explicitly coded in the Verilog-A implementation. Instead the derivative of the depletion charge is calculated automatically (symbolically and numerically) where required.

In (2.1.4-8), the value of a_{fj} can be adjusted to yield results equivalent to the former formulation. If at x = 0, which corresponds to $v_{B'E'} = V_{f}$, the exponential and hyperbolic function values for v_{j} are forced to be the same, and one obtains

$$a_{fi} = 4 \ln^2(2) = 1.921812.$$
 (2.1.4-9)

This is not a model parameter, but a fixed constant within the code. Fig. 2.1.4/2 shows a comparison of the (2.1.4-4) with the old equation of version 2.1. There is no visible difference; the numerically calculated error is below 1.4% for $a_{iEi} = 3$, and below 1% for values of 2.4 or lower.

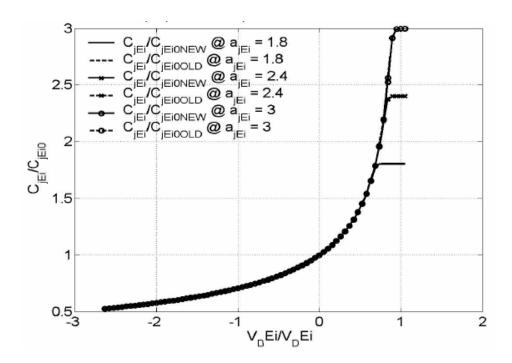


Fig. 2.1.4/2: Base-emitter depletion capacitance calculated with equation (2.1.4-4) with a_{jEi} as parameter.

2.1.4.2 Internal base-collector junction

The BC junction is usually operated at reverse bias. If the internal voltage $v_{C'B'}$ exceeds the effective punch-through voltage (see later), the epitaxial collector region becomes fully depleted. For an ideal step-like transition from the epitaxial collector to the buried-layer the corresponding capacitance would remain constant (like a plate capacitance). However, in reality the doping concentration increases with only a finite slope towards the maximum buried layer concentration. As a

consequence, C_{jCi} still decreases even beyond punch-through, but with a weaker voltage dependence.

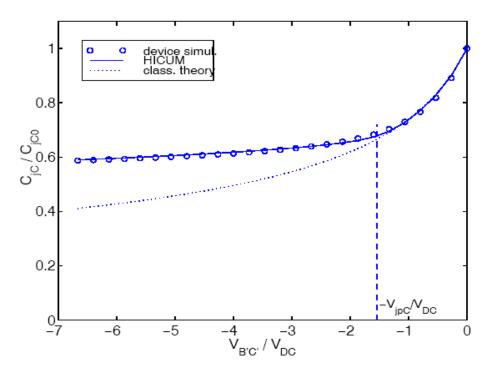


Fig. 2.1.4/3: Typical dependence of BC depletion capacitance on junction voltage at reverse bias: comparison between 1D device simulation (symbols), HICUM (solid line), classical theory (dashed line). In addition, characteristic variables used in the model equations have been inserted.

Before the capacitance equation is explained in detail, it is helpful to define a number of variables that are needed in the equations. The effective punch-through voltage is given by

$$V_{jPCi} = V_{PTCi} - V_{DCi} = \frac{qN_{Ci}}{2\varepsilon}w_{Ci}^2 - V_{DCi}$$
, (2.1.4-10)

which is shown in Fig. 2.1.4/3. For flexibility and accuracy reasons as well as in order to simplify and decouple parameter extraction, V_{PTCi} is considered as a separate model parameter rather than using V_{PT} from the I_{CK} formulation. For predictive modeling $V_{PTCi} = V_{PT}$ is certainly a good initial guess.

The voltage defining the boundary between the classical expression and the maximum (constant) value at large forward bias was already defined for the BE junction capacitance (cf. Fig. 2.1.4/1); in terms of the respective BC model parameters it reads here as:

$$V_{fCi} = V_{DCi} [1 - a_{jCi}^{-(1/z_{Ci})}] (2.1.4-11)$$

The voltage, at which the transition from medium to large reverse bias (slowly) starts, is defined as

$$V_r = 0.1 V_{jPCi} + 4 V_T (2.1.4-12)$$

In the following, "large reverse" bias is defined as $v_{BCi} \le -V_{jPCi}$, "medium" bias is defined as $V_{jPCi} < v_{BCi} < V_{fCi}$, and "large forward" bias is defined as $v_{BCi} \ge V_{fCi}$.

The depletion capacitance consists of three components,

$$C_{jCi} = C_{jCi, cl} + C_{jCi, PT} + C_{jCi, fb}, (2.1.4-13)$$

which are discussed below in more detail.

 $C_{jCi,cl}$ represents the contribution at medium bias,

$$C_{jCi,cl} = \frac{C_{jCi0}}{(1 - v_{j,m} / V_{DCi})^{z_{Ci}}} \cdot \frac{e_{j,r}}{1 + e_{j,r}} \frac{e_{j,m}}{1 + e_{j,m}}$$
(2.1.4-14)

which contains the classical equation as the first term. The last two product terms result from smoothing functions for the respective BC junction voltage, that enable a continuously differentiable transition to the two adjacent bias regions. Like for the BE depletion capacitance, the numerical overflow at large forward bias is avoided by replacing $v_{B'C'}$ with the auxiliary (smoothed) voltage, $v_{j,m}$, defined in (2.1.4.-18). To get the other two components, we need to define:

$$v_{j,r} = V_{fCi} - V_T \ln[1 + e_{j,r}]$$
 with $e_{j,r} = \exp\left(\frac{V_{fCi} - v_{B'C'}}{V_T}\right)$ (2.1.4-15)

which contains the actual junction voltage. Analogously to C_{jE} , the forward bias value (for $e(v_{i,r}) = 0$) is limited to a maximum,

$$C_{jCi,fb} = a_{jCi}C_{jCi0} \frac{1}{1 + e_{j,r}} , \qquad (2.1.4-16)$$

with a_{jCi} as constant. The last term is again a continuously differentiable function that enables a smooth transition between large forward and medium bias. Since C_{jCi} is of little practical relevance and is influenced at high forward bias, a_{jCi} is set to 2.4 in the code, rather than being a model parameter in order to keep the number of parameters as low as possible.

Finally, $C_{jCi,PT}$ represents the large reverse bias region around and beyond punch-through,

$$C_{jCi,PT} = \frac{C_{jCi0,r}}{(1 - v_{j,r} / V_{DCi})^{z_{Ci,r}}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + e_{j,m}}$$
 (2.1.4-17)

Here, the first term contains the classical voltage dependence, but now with different parameters $C_{jCi0,r}$ and $z_{Ci,r}$, which model the weak bias dependence under punch-through conditions, and will be discussed later. In this case, the auxiliary voltage is given by the smoothing function

$$v_{j,m} = -V_{jPCi} + V_r \ln[1 + e_{j,m}]$$
 with $e_{j,m} = \exp\left(\frac{V_{jPCi} + v_{j,r}}{V_r}\right)$ (2.1.4-18)

which now depends on the auxiliary voltage $v_{j,r}$ in order to enable a smooth capacitance and charge behavior over all bias regions. Note, that $v_{j,r}$ equals $v_{B'C'}$ at large reverse bias.

The corresponding depletion charge is then obtained by integration of C_{jCi} ,

$$Q_{jCi} = \underbrace{Q_{jCi,m}}_{\text{medium}} + \underbrace{Q_{jCi,r}}_{\text{reverse}} - \underbrace{Q_{jCi,c}}_{\text{correction}} + \underbrace{a_{jCi}C_{jCi0}(v_{B'C'} - v_{j,r})}_{\text{large forward}}$$
(2.1.4-19)

with the component at medium bias,

$$Q_{jCi,m} = \frac{C_{jCi0}V_{DCi}}{1 - z_{Ci}} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{v_{j,m}}{V_{DCi}}\right)^{1 - z_{Ci}} \right] , \qquad (2.1.4-20)$$

the component at large reverse bias,

$$Q_{jCi,r} = \frac{C_{jCi0,r}V_{DCi}}{1 - z_{Ci,r}} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{v_{j,r}}{V_{DCi}}\right)^{1 - z_{Ci,r}} \right] , \qquad (2.1.4-21)$$

and a "correction" component,

$$Q_{jCi,c} = \frac{C_{jCi0,r}V_{DCi}}{1 - z_{Ci,r}} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{v_{j,m}}{V_{DCi}}\right)^{1 - z_{Ci,r}} \right] , \qquad (2.1.4-22)$$

that results from the integration process. The parameters $C_{jCi0,r}$ and $z_{Ci,r}$ in the last two components are required to model the weaker voltage dependence under punch-through conditions, compared to the voltage dependence at medium bias. $C_{jCi0,r}$ can be calculated from the punch-through voltage as

$$C_{jCi0,r} = C_{jCi0} \cdot \left(\frac{V_{DCi}}{V_{PTCi}}\right)^{(z_{Ci} - z_{Ci,r})}, \qquad (2.1.4-23)$$

while $z_{Ci,r}$ is internally set to $z_{Ci}/4$. The latter turned out to be a good compromise for the investigated cases. As consequence, both $C_{jCi0,r}$ and $z_{Ci,r}$ are only internal parameters and do not have to be extracted and externally specified. If required, however, it would be sufficient to make $z_{Ci,r}$ a user model parameter.

At high current densities C_{jCi} becomes also current dependent as discussed, e.g., in [5]. The respective (smooth) expressions for both capacitance and charge require complicated expressions which can increase simulation time significantly. As discussed in [11] for small-signal applications, a pure voltage dependent model for C_{jCi} proved to be sufficient, since transistors in (small-signal) analog circuits are not operated at high current densities. For large-signal transient applications, however, the influence of a current dependent C_{jCi} is negligible, especially at higher current densities. Therefore, the current dependence of C_{iCi} is neglected in the present HICUM version.

2.1.4.3 External base-collector junction

The total BC capacitance consists of a bias dependent external depletion capacitance, C_{jCx} , and a bias independent parasitic capacitance C_{BCpar} (see also Section 2.1.7). The depletion portion in turn contains a SIC related bottom component, a background doping related bottom component and

a perimeter component, that all usually have different voltage dependence and, hence, model parameters. For a compact model, the depletion components are merged into a single element by fitting a single set of model parameters to the overall voltage dependence (e.g. using TRADICA). The resulting capacitance (and charge), $C_{BCx} = C_{jCx}(v) + C_{BCpar}$, is then partitioned across the external base resistance r_{Bx} (cf. Fig. 2.1.1/1) according to a first-order high-frequency approximation of the RC transmission line behaviour of the external base. This merging procedure, which is also required for simpler equivalent circuit structures, reduces the number of model parameters to be specified for the circuit simulator. A possible alternative is to determine the partitioning from measurements of, e.g., high-frequency S-parameters; however, it was found that such a partitioning factor (strongly) depends on the measurement method and conditions used and, therefore, can assume non-physical values.

The partitioning of the total capacitance C_{BCx} across r_{Bx} requires an additional model parameter,

$$f_{BCpar} = \frac{C_{BCx2}}{C_{BCx}} (2.1.4-24)$$

and defines the ratio of the portion at the perimeter base node ("behind" r_{Bx}) to the total capacitance. The factor f_{BCpar} depends on geometry and technology specific parameters (and can be calculated by , e.g., TRADICA). According to (2.1.4-24) the capacitances are split as follows in the present HICUM implementation (cf. Fig. 2.1.1/1):

$$C_{BCx} = C_{BCx1} + C_{BCx2} = (1 - f_{BCpar}) C_{BCx} + f_{BC} C_{BCx}$$
 (2.1.4-25)

Depending on the values for f_{BCpar} , C_{BCpar} and C_{jCx} as well as according to the nature of the capacitance components, different cases have to be distinguished. For instance, if $f_{BCpar} > C_{BCpar}/C_{BCx}$ then part of C_{BCpar} has to be connected to node B* (i.e. behind r_{Bx}). Since C_{BCpar} is closest to the base contact, usually the major portion or even its total value has to be connected to the base terminal B. The various cases are taken into account based on the zero-bias depletion capacitance rather than the voltage dependent value in order to reduce arithmetic operation count. The implementation is as shown in Fig. 2.1.4/4.

$$C_{BCx01} = (1-f_{BCpar}) C_{BCx0}$$

 $if(C_{BCx01} \ge C_{BCpar}) then$

$$C_{BCpar} = C_{BCpar}$$

$$C_{BCpar2} = 0$$

$$C_{jCx01} = C_{BCx01} - C_{BCpar}$$

$$C_{jCx02} = C_{jCx0} - C_{jCx01}$$
else
$$C_{BCpar} = C_{BCx01}$$

$$C_{BCpar2} = C_{BCpar} - C_{BCpar1}$$

$$C_{jCx01} = 0$$

$$C_{jCx02} = C_{jCx0}$$
endif

Fig. 2.1.4/4: Implementation of B-C capacitance partitioning

Since the depletion charge of the external BC junction does not depend on the transfer current, the purely voltage dependent expressions given for C_{jCi} and Q_{jCi} can be employed for C_{jCx} and Q_{jCx} by simply inserting the model parameters C_{jCx0} , V_{DCx} , z_{Cx} , and V_{PTCx} . The punch-through voltage (and capacitance) of the external collector region is usually different from that of the internal region due to their different epi widths and - in case of a selectively implanted collector - the different doping concentrations in the internal and external region.

2.1.4.4 Collector-substrate junction

The CS depletion charge and capacitance are modelled by the same type of formula as employed for the bottom part of the external BC charge and capacitance. The corresponding model parameters are C_{jS0} , V_{jS} , z_{S} , and V_{PTS} . Taking into account the punch-through effect may be necessary for technologies containing a semi-insulating substrate (layer). For most technologies, however, there is no punch-through effect at the CS junction, and V_{PTS} can be set to "infinity".

Since the CS junction is modelled by a single element, C_{jS} contains - from a physical point of view - both the bottom and peripheral portion of that junction; i.e., the model parameters result from merging the corresponding voltage dependent portions [31] (see also Fig. 2.1.16/5).

For certain applications and processes, an additional substrate coupling network in series to C_{jS} as well as a substrate transistor may be necessary. These extensions are discussed later.

2.1.5 Static base current components

The base current flowing into the emitter can be separated into a bottom and peripheral component. The bottom portion models the current injected across the (*effective*) emitter area, and the peripheral component models the current injected across the peripheral BE junction. Each of these components contains the current contributions caused by volume (SRH and Auger) recombination, by surface recombination, by tunneling, and by an (effective) interface recombination velocity at the emitter "contact". The physical modelling of all these effects, including e.g. the modulation of the neutral emitter width in advanced and heterojunction bipolar transistors, would require a complicated and computationally time expensive description as well as a significantly increased effort in parameter determination. From a practical application point of view, however, a simpler approach for most of the above mentioned components does exist that is sufficiently accurate.

The following equations describe the d.c. and quasi-static component of the base current, which are applicable also at high frequencies. Note, that at high switching speeds or frequencies, the dynamic (capacitive) component of the base current becomes much larger than the d.c./quasi-static component, so that its correct modeling is of higher importance for those applications.

The quasi-static internal base current, which represents injection across the bottom emitter area, is modelled in HICUM as

$$i_{jBEi} = I_{BEiS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{BEi}V_T}\right) - 1 \right] + I_{REiS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'E'}}{m_{REi}V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$
 (2.1.5-1)

The saturation currents I_{BEiS} and I_{REiS} as well as the non-ideality coefficients m_{BEi} and m_{REi} are model parameters. The first component in the above formula represents the current injected into the neutral emitter; a corresponding m_{BEi} >1 represents effects such as Auger recombination and the (very small) modulation of the width of the neutral emitter region. The second component represents the loss in the space charge region due to volume and surface recombination; the value of m_{REi} is usually in the range of 1.5 to 2 so that this component only plays a role at low injection. It is used to model the decrease of the current gain at low current densities.

Analogously, the quasi-static base current injected across the emitter periphery is given by

$$i_{jBEp} = I_{BEpS} \left[\exp \left(\frac{v_{B^*E}}{m_{BEp}V_T} \right) - 1 \right] + I_{REpS} \left[\exp \left(\frac{v_{B^*E}}{m_{REp}V_T} \right) - 1 \right]$$
 (2.1.5-2)

The saturation currents I_{BEpS} and I_{REpS} as well as the non-ideality factors m_{BEp} and m_{REp} are model parameters.

Since the recombination at low forward bias is more pronounced at the emitter periphery compared to the bottom, its contribution (I_{REiS} ...) to the internal base current component may often be omitted in order to simplify the model and the parameter determination.

In hard-saturation or for inverse operation the current contributions across the base-collector junction become significant. The component of the internal BC junction is

$$i_{jBCi} = I_{BCiS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B'C'}}{m_{BCi}V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$
 (2.1.5-3)

The component for the external BC junction reads correspondingly

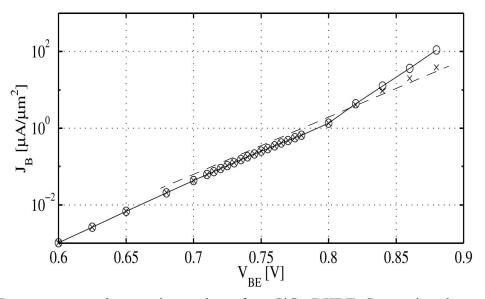
$$i_{jBCx} = I_{BCxS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B^*C}}{m_{BCx}V_T}\right) - 1 \right] . \tag{2.1.5-4}$$

In many practical cases, both components can be combined into one, i_{jBC} , between B* and C', without loss of accuracy (in, e.g., the output characteristics). This simplifies parameter extraction and reduces the number of model parameters.

In various SiGe-HBT processes, an additional base current is observable that mostly results from the additional minority charge storage in the base at the barrier caused by the Ge drop within the BC junction [32]. The typical behavior is shown in Fig. 2.1.5/1 for the base current of a SiGe-DH-BT. Triggered by the collapse of the electric field in the collector at high current densities, which can be described by the critical current I_{CK} , the conduction band barrier for electrons starts to form at about $V_{BE} = 0.8$ V for the transistor under consideration. The resulting accumulation of electrons on the base side of the BC junction is compensated by an accumulation of holes, which leads to an excess recombination rate. As a consequence, the corresponding current can be approximated to a first order by

$$i_{Bhrec} = \frac{\Delta Q_{Bf}}{\tau_{Bhrec}} \tag{2.1.5-5}$$

with ΔQ_{Bf} as the additional minority charge in the base, which increases rapidly above I_{CK} ; the corresponding recombination constant τ_{Bhrec} is a model parameter. The current has been taken into account by adding a (controlled) current source in parallel to i_{iBEi} .



<u>Fig. 2.1.5/1:</u>Base current vs. base-emitter voltage for a SiGe-DHBT. Comparison between device simulation (circles), model without additional recombination component (dashed line) and model with additional recombination component (crosses).

2.1.6 Internal base resistance

In HICUM, the internal and external base resistance are separately treated. The value of the internal base resistance r_{Bi} depends strongly on operating point, temperature, and mode of transistor operation (d.c., transient, h.f. small-signal). Especially the last mentioned dependence is a very complicated issue for high-speed large-signal switching processes.

The d.c. internal base resistance is modelled as

$$r_{Bi} = r_i \psi(\eta) \tag{2.1.6-1}$$

and is in HICUM/Level2 defined by the *effective* emitter dimensions b_E and l_E . Both the resistance r_i and the emitter current crowding function $\psi(\eta)$ are bias and geometry dependent. The effect of conductivity modulation is being discussed first.

Conductivity modulation is described by the expression [4, 24]

$$r_i = r_{Bi0} \frac{Q_0}{Q_0 + \Delta Q_p} \,, \tag{2.1.6-2}$$

with r_{Bi0} as zero-bias internal base resistance, and the bias dependent portion ΔQ_p of the stored hole charge,

$$\Delta Q_p = Q_{jEi} + Q_{jCi} + Q_f + Q_r \approx Q_{jEi} + Q_{jCi} + Q_f, \qquad (2.1.6-3)$$

 Q_r is generally very small and hence is being neglected. Q_0 is a model parameter that is physically related and often is close to the zero-bias hole charge Q_{p0} [4, 24]. Therefore, Q_0 is calculated from Q_{p0} as,

$$Q_0 = (1 + f_{DQr0})Q_{p0}$$
 (2.1.6-4)

with the factor f_{dQr0} as model parameter.

Under extreme bias conditions (such as base "reach-through" with $Q_{jEi} + Q_{jCi}$ approaching Q_{p0} or with odd combination of model parameters, (2.1.6-2) can cause a numerical instability due to division by zero or a negative resistance value, which is not physical. This can be avoided by en-

suring that the denominator remains larger than zero for all conditions. Defining the normalized charge $q_r = 1 + \Delta Q_p/Q_0$, (2.1.6-2) is rewritten as

$$r_i = r_{Bi0} \frac{1}{f(q_r)},\tag{2.1.6-5}$$

where the smoothing function

$$f(q_r) = \frac{q_r + \sqrt{q_r^2 + a_{qr}}}{2}$$
 with $a_{qr} = 0.01$, (2.1.6-6)

reaches the value 0.05 if q_r approaches -1. In a real transistor, reverse depletion charges lower than $-Q_{p0}$ (> $-Q_0$) are not impossible but extremely unlikely. Although this case is not avoided in the model for the charges themselves, the corresponding instability in r_i is avoided.

Fig. 2.1.6/1 shows the typical bias dependence of the (normalized) internal base sheet resistance due to conductivity modulation; the ratio r_{SBi}/r_{SBi0} is proportional to r_i/r_{Bi0} .

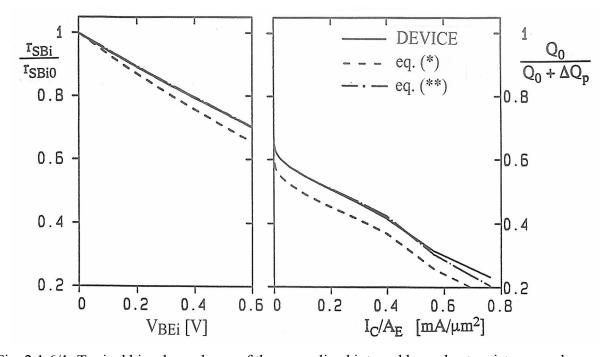


Fig. 2.1.6/1: Typical bias dependence of the normalized internal base sheet resistance and comparison to eq. (2.1.6-2) with f_{dQr0} =0 (labeled eq. (*)) and f_{dQr0} >0 (labeled eq. (**)) [28]. DEVICE corresponds to (1D) numerical device simulation; $(V_{BEi}=V_{B'E'})$.

The zero-bias resistance r_{Bi0} is a model parameter which can be calculated (e.g., by TRADICA) as a function of emitter geometry and zero-bias internal base sheet resistance r_{SBi0} . For a transistor with n_E emitter contacts (or stripes) and arbitrary aspect ratio $l_E/b_E \ge 1$:

$$r_{Bi0} = r_{SBi0} \frac{b_E}{l_E n_E} g_i {2.1.6-7}$$

with the geometry function [3, 9] for n_E+1 base contacts

$$g_i = \frac{1}{12} - \left(\frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{28.6}\right) \frac{b_E}{l_E} . \tag{2.1.6-8}$$

The effect of emitter current crowding is described for all aspect ratios $l_E/b_E \ge 1$ by the function [3, 9, 7]

$$\psi(\eta) = \frac{\ln(1+\eta)}{\eta} \tag{2.1.6-9}$$

with the current crowding factor

$$\eta = f_{geo} \frac{r_i i_{jBEi}}{V_T} \quad . \tag{2.1.6-10}$$

The factor f_{geo} is a model parameter which takes into account the geometry dependence of emitter current crowding (cf. Chapter 2.1.16). Hence, the final expression for the internal base resistance is

$$r_{Bi} = r_i \cdot \frac{\ln(1+\eta)}{\eta}$$
 (2.1.6-11)

For transistors with narrow emitter contacts (or stripes) the influence of the charge storage at the emitter periphery on the dynamic transistor behaviour can significantly increase. In order to obtain acceptable computation times and to keep the extraction effort reasonable, the HICUM/LEVEL2 equivalent circuit does not contain a complete peripheral transistor element. Therefore, the peripheral charge has to be taken into account by modifying existing elements. The internal base impedance seen between the terminals B*-E' is decreased by the (effective) peripheral charge Q_{fp} to

$$r_{Bi}^* = r_{Bi} \frac{\Delta Q_i}{\Delta Q_p} = r_{Bi} \frac{\Delta Q_i}{\Delta Q_i + Q_{fp}}$$
 (2.1.6-12)

 ΔQ_i is the change of the hole charge in the internal transistor during a switching process. For model implementation, however, ΔQ_i is approximated by the change of only the *major* charge contributions w.r.t. equilibrium,

$$\Delta Q_i = Q_{jEi} + Q_{fi} \tag{2.1.6-13}$$

with Q_{fi} as the internal *minority* charge. The latter as well as the peripheral minority charge Q_{fp} can be calculated from the total minority charge Q_f , that is analytically described in the model, using the model parameter f_{Oi} ,

$$Q_{fi} = f_{Qi}Q_f$$
 and $Q_{fp} = (1 - f_{Qi})Q_f$ (2.1.6-14)

The parameter f_{Qi} depends on geometry and can be determined from the transit time of transistors with, e.g., different emitter widths. Note, the denominator of (2.1.6-12) contains Q_f directly so that Q_{fp} is not required to be explicitly known or calculated. Previous versions contained also the internal BC depletion charge in (2.1.6-12), which had to be dropped though to avoid potential division by zero for large BC reverse voltages and unfavorable combinations of model parameters. Thus, the implemented equation reads

$$r_{Bi}^* = r_{Bi} \frac{Q_{jEi} + f_{Qi}Q_f}{Q_{jEi} + Q_f}$$
 (2.1.6-15)

For the (high-frequency) small-signal case a similar expression can be derived [11],

$$r_{Bi}^* = r_{Bi} \frac{C_i}{C_i + C_{dEp}} (2.1.6-16)$$

with $C_{dEp} = C_{dE}(1-f_{Qi})$ as the peripheral diffusion capacitance and

$$C_i = C_{jEi} + C_{dEi} (2.1.6-17)$$

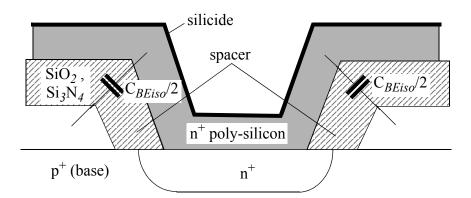
as the total capacitance connected to the *internal* base node B'. The use of r_{Bi}^* from (2.1.6-12) gives for slow transients or low frequencies a (small) difference compared to the actual d.c. value of r_{Bi} . However, that deviation is usually insignificant because the influence of the peripheral charge or capacitance is large only for narrow emitter stripes where the d.c. internal base resistance is comparatively small. Note again, that for calculating the denominator of (2.1.6-16) C_{dEp} does not need to be known explicitly, but only C_{dE} . Thus, the implemented equation reads

$$r_{Bi}^* = r_{Bi} \frac{C_{jEi} + f_{Qi}C_{dE}}{C_{jEi} + C_{dE}}.$$
 (2.1.6-18)

2.1.7 External (parasitic) bias independent capacitances

In addition to junction and diffusion capacitances, that are both operating point dependent, there may exist constant parasitic capacitances between base and emitter as well as base and collector. The parasitic base-emitter capacitance C_{BEpar} is caused by the spacer region and overlap of emitter poly over base poly. The parasitic base collector capacitance C_{BCpar} is caused by the overlap of base poly and contact region over the buried layer (or the epi collector). The significance of theses capacitances depends on the technology considered. In order to make HICUM applicable for an as large as possible variety of technologies, two parasitic capacitances are included in the equivalent circuit of Fig. 2.1.1/1.

 C_{BEpar} takes into account the overlap of emitter and base connection, e.g., n^+ poly-silicon separated from p^+ poly-silicon by the thin spacer (cf. Fig. 2.1.7/1) as well as the (metal) capacitance caused by the proximity of the via studs on top of the contacts, which is required to connect the latter to a metal layer.



<u>Fig. 2.1.7/1:</u> Physical origin of the BE isolation capacitance C_{BEiso} , which is part of the C_{BEpar} .

Physically, the BE isolation capacitance C_{BEiso} , which is caused by the base-emitter spacer region, and the external base resistance may have a distributed character, as shown in Fig. 2.1.7/2(a). Moreover, in advanced processes, the isolation capacitance increases due to a smaller spacer thickness, while the base-emitter perimeter junction capacitance C_{jEp} , represented by its charge element charge Q_{jEp} in Fig. 2.1.7/2(b), is decreasing due to shallower emitter junction depths. The exact representation of these elements in a compact model for an accurate high-frequency description depends on the contributions of the various base resistance and capacitance portions and the geometry of the BE spacer isolation region. In addition to the BE spacer related capacitance C_{BEiso} , the par-

asitic capacitance $C_{BE,metal}$ (and its associated charge $Q_{BE,metal}$) from the metal contact studs on top of the base and emitter poly-silicon increases with shrinking design rules. This capacitance, which belongs to the layout (p-cell) and thus to the transistor model, is connected directly between the base and emitter terminals.

For a compact model, a lumped representation of both the external base resistance and the parasitic capacitances is required. For this, a p-equivalent circuit is the best first-order compromise (cf. Fig. 2.1.7/2(b)) that allows an improved high-frequency modeling. Therefore, the distributed isolation capacitance is partitioned between the perimeter and external base node to make the model more flexible for a larger variety of processes. For instance, if the resistance contribution of the spacer region to the total external base resistance dominates, most of C_{BEiso} needs to be assigned to the internal base node ($C_{BEiso,2}$). The partitioning of C_{BEiso} in form of a π -equivalent circuit also allows to include the metal capacitance without any additional effort.

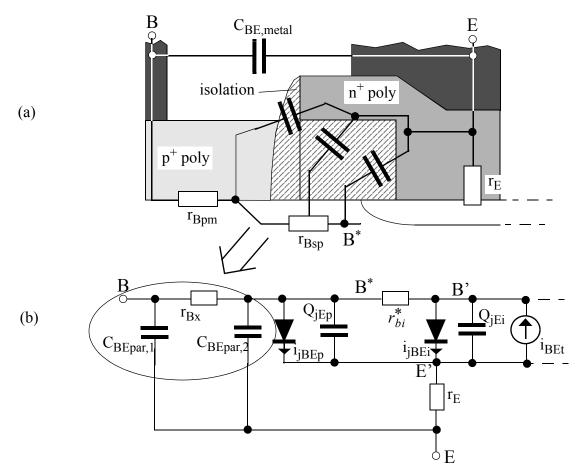
The partitioning option requires as model parameters the specification of either the partial capacitance components at each node or the total parasitic BE capacitance,

$$C_{BEpar} = C_{BEiso} + C_{BE, metal} (2.1.7-1)$$

and a partitioning factor. The latter option is more convenient from a user's point of view and, hence, employed in HICUM. The respective model parameter

$$f_{BEpar} = \frac{C_{BEpar, 2}}{C_{BEpar}} = \frac{C_{BEiso, 2} + C_{BE, metal}}{C_{BEiso} + C_{BE, metal}}$$
(2.1.7-2)

is defined as the ratio of the "inner" to the total (measured) parasitic capacitance. Thus, the value $f_{BEpar} = 0$ indicates that the whole parasitic capacitance is connected between the transistor terminals.



<u>Fig. 2.1.7/2:</u> External and internal base-emitter region: (a) schematic cross-section of left half of base-emitter region with physical series resistance and distributed isolation capacitance components; (b) equivalent circuit with lumped isolation charge (and capacitance) partitioning.

In many modern bipolar technologies the base contact is located on a field oxide and causes an additional isolation capacitance C_{BCpar} between base and collector terminal (cf. Fig. 2.1.7/3). This capacitance is included in the equivalent circuit within C_{BCx} since its partitioning across r_{Bx} depends on the technology. The parameter f_{BCpar} determines the actual partitioning of C_{BCpar} , too, as was shown earlier in Fig. 2.1.4/3.

Both the parasitic capacitances are strongly geometry dependent and either have to be measured using proper test structures or can be calculated by TRADICA.

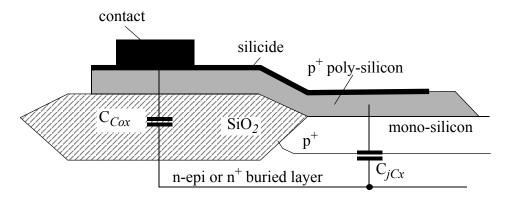


Fig. 2.1.7/3: Physical origin of BC isolation (overlap) capacitance C_{Cox} , which is part of C_{BCpar} .

2.1.8 External series resistances

The resistive regions of the external transistor and the emitter contact are represented in the equivalent circuit of Fig. 2.1.1/1 by bias independent series resistances. The reason for including a substrate resistance in the equivalent circuit will be discussed in Section 2.1.11.

A. External base resistance

Fig. 2.1.8/1 contains a cross section through the external base region of a double-poly selfaligned bipolar transistor. The external base resistance r_{Bx} consists of the following components:

- base contact resistance, r_{KB} ;
- resistance of the poly-silicon on the field oxide, r_{po} ;
- resistance of the poly-silicon on the mono-silicon, r_{pm} ;
- (link) resistance under the spacer, r_{sp} .

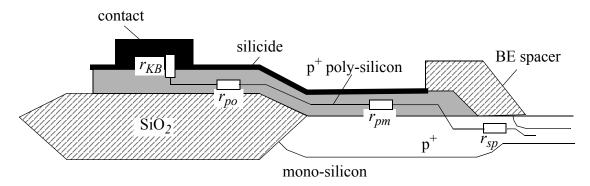


Fig. 2.1.8/1: The various components of the external base resistance.

The value of each of these components depends on the dimensions of the region and the corresponding sheet resistance or specific resistivity [34, 35]. The external base resistance is then given by:

$$\mathbf{r}_{Bx} = \mathbf{r}_{KB} + \mathbf{r}_{po} + \mathbf{r}_{pm} + \mathbf{r}_{sp} \tag{2.1.8-1}$$

Many advanced processes use a silicide with a sheet resistance of typically 2...8 Ω /sq. As a consequence, r_{po} and a portion of r_{pm} are significantly reduced and become small compared to the contact and, especially, the link resistance.

For short emitters and transistors with a one-sided base contact only, 3D effects become important that are taken into account by TRADICA's resistance calculations according to [34, 35].

B. External collector resistance

Fig. 2.1.8/2 contains a cross section through the buried layer and collector region of a bipolar transistor. The external collector resistance r_{Cx} consists of the following components:

- collector contact resistance, r_{KC} ;
- resistance of the sinker region, r_{sink} , connecting contact and buried layer;
- resistance of the buried layer, r_{hl} .

The value of each of these components depends on the dimensions of the region and the corresponding sheet resistance or specific resistivity [31]. The external collector resistance is then given by:

$$r_{Cx} = r_{KC} + r_{sink} + r_{bl} (2.1.8-2)$$

The external collector resistance does not contain any resistance component from the epitaxial layer under the emitter. If r_{KC} is determined by the poly-mono-silicon interface resistance, it would be about the same as the emitter contact resistance.

The distributed collector current flow in multi-emitter transistors as well as a different number and location of collector stripes (or contacts) is taken into account in TRADICA by using special formulas. Also, for short emitter (and collector) stripes, current spreading in the buried layer is included in the resistance calculations.

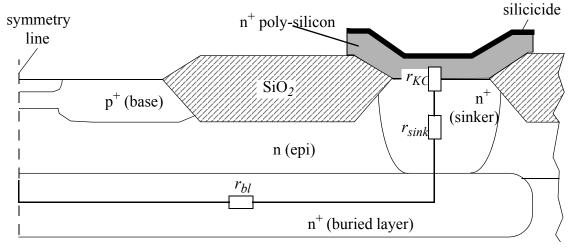


Fig. 2.1.8/2: The various components of the external collector resistance.

C. Emitter resistance

The emitter resistance r_E consists of the following (major) components:

- metallization resistance, r_{Em} ;
- poly-silicon resistance, r_{Ep} ;
- resistance of the interface between poly-silicon and mono-silicon, r_{Ei} ;
- resistance of the mono-silicon bulk region, r_{Eb} .

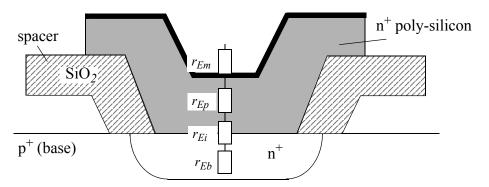


Fig. 2.1.8/3: The various components of the emitter resistance.

For many processes, measurements have been showing a direct proportionality of r_E with the reciprocal emitter window area. As a consequence, it is assumed that the emitter resistance for technologies with poly-silicon emitter is mainly determined by the resistance r_i at the interface between poly- and mono-silicon, and that contributions from the other regions are of minor importance. However, this has to be verified for each particular process.

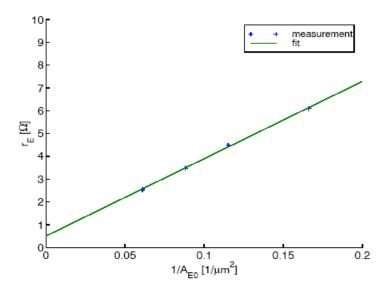


Fig. 2.1.8/4: Measured emitter resistance vs. reciprocal emitter window area and comparison to the scaling equation $r_E = \bar{r}_E/A_E + r_0$ with \bar{r}_E as area specific emitter resistance in $[\Omega \mu m^2]$ and r_0 as residual (parasitic) probe resistance.

2.1.9 Non-quasi-static effects

Non-quasi-static (NQS) effects are occurring at high-frequencies or fast switching processes. Note, that the designation "high" or "fast" is relative and depends on the technology employed. NQS effects exist in both vertical and lateral spatial direction.

a) Vertical direction

It is well-known from "classical" transistor theory that at high frequencies the minority charge Q_f and the transfer current i_T are reacting delayed w.r.t. the voltages across both pn-junction (e.g. [33]). This effect is taken into account in HICUM by introducing additional delay times for both Q_f and I_{Tf} . These additional delay times are modelled as a function of bias by relating them to the transit time [11]:

$$\tau_2 = \alpha_{Qf} \tau_f$$
 and $\tau_m = \alpha_{iT} \tau_f$. (2.1.9-1)

The factors α_{Qf} and α_{iT} are model parameters. The assumption of a stiff coupling between the additional delay times and the transit time has to be regarded as a first order approximation, especially at high current densities where a certain current dependence of α_{Qf} and α_{iT} has been observed [12]. However, it is questionable whether a more complicated modelling of τ_2 and τ_m is justified from an application point of view [11]. Note, that the SGPM only allows τ_m to be specified for *one* (fixed) operating point. Fig. 2.1.9/1 shows the NQS delay times as a function of collector current density for.

The additional time "delay", which results mostly in an excess phase in the frequency domain, is implemented in HICUM using a second order Bessel polynomial [34] for *both time and frequency domain analysis* in order to maintain consistency of the respective results. The ideal delay proposed in [33] is only a crude approximation of the actual physics-based solution would and, in addition, cause implementation problems in a circuit simulator for time domain analysis. The use of a Bessel polynomial avoids those problems and leads to the same results in the frequency range of practical interest.

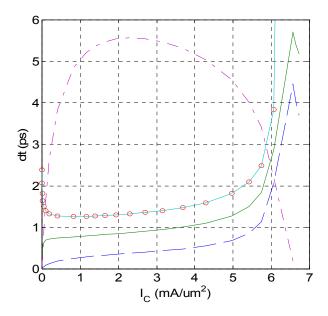


Fig. 2.1.9/1: NQS delay times τ_{IT} (solid green line) and τ_{Qf} (dashed blue line) vs. bias current for the CED HBT. For reference, the accumulated transit time $\tau_{m\Sigma}$ (line with circles) from Regional Analysis as well as f_T (dash-dotted red line) have been inserted.

Up to version 2.1 NQS effects were implemented using Weil's approach [33]. However, a Verilog-A based implementation does not allow access to the previous internal time steps of the simulator. The alternative of realizing the second-order differential equation is through an LCR adjunct network. But unlike in other compact models, HICUM takes into account the bias dependence of the delay times. To avoid undesired derivatives generated that were shown by device simulation to be non-physical, the adjunct network is implemented with a normalization to the transit time [35, 36]. It was shown this approach accurately matches the small-signal results obtained from the Bessel polynomial in version 2.1 (and earlier ones). This implementation is briefly described in the appendix.

b) Lateral direction

Dynamic emitter current crowding causes at high frequencies (or fast transients) a reduction of the impedance seen into the internal base node compared to d.c. or low-frequency conditions.

For the small-signal case, the distributed character of the internal base region can be modelled by shunting an adequate capacitance C_{rBi} in parallel to the d.c. resistance r_{Bi} . An analytical treatment

of the small-signal input impedance of a stripe emitter transistor with $l_E/b_E>>1$ results for not too high frequencies in

$$\overline{C_{rBi} = f_{CrBi}C_i} \tag{2.1.9-2}$$

with C_i as the total capacitance connected to the internal base node B',

$$C_i = C_{jEi} + C_{jci} + C_{dE} + C_{dC} (2.1.9-3)$$

From theory $f_{CrBi} = 0.2$ for a long rectangular emitter stripe [22]. In general though, f_{CrBi} depends on the emitter geometry; for instance, it increases (slightly) for smaller emitter aspect ratios. Therefore and to provide maximum flexibility, f_{CrBi} is considered as a model parameter.

The derivation of (2.1.9-2) is based on the assumption of negligible emitter current crowding. Therefore, if this assumption is violated, (2.1.9-2) must not be used. Note, that for fast large-signal transient applications, where lateral NQS effects are most pronounced, generally strong transient current emitter crowding occurs. Furthermore, the theory leading to (2.1.9-2) is entirely based on a small-signal consideration and does not provide any clue regarding the charge stored on the capacitor. In fact, due to the bias dependence of C_{rBi} according to (2.1.9-3), there is no simple charge representation in time domain that would produce just the parallel capacitor across r_{Bi} without any additional derivatives (i.e. transcapacitances).

As a consequence, it is strongly recommended **not** to use C_{rBi} for any type of *transient* analyis and to consider C_{rBi} only as a means for improving the model for *small-signal* circuit design. If for time-domain simulation, the associated charge needs to be implemented, it is given by

$$Q_{rBi} = C_{rBi} V_{B^*B'} (2.1.9-4)$$

and not by $Q_{rBi} = f_{CrBi}(Q_{jEi} + Q_{jCi} + Q_f + Q_r)$, which yields a completely different current.

For more detail of implementation part, please see appendix.

2.1.10 Breakdown

2.1.10.1 Collector-Base Breakdown

HICUM contains a breakdown model for the base-collector junction that is valid for a weak avalanche effect and a planar breakdown occurring in the internal transistor, i.e. below the emitter. The latter is a reasonable assumption because published measurements for (self-aligned) poly-silicon emitter transistors show such a planar breakdown rather than a breakdown at the periphery of the external BC-junction. The model, which is described also in [38], is intended to indicate the onset of breakdown. In how far, however, it is suited for a simulation and design of circuits somewhat within the breakdown regime depends partially also on the numerical robustness of the particular circuit simulator. Also, the present model does not include breakdown at high current densities, where the maximum electric field occurs at the buried layer rather than at the BC junction. The related instabilities (such as snap-back) would cause convergence problems for most circuit simulators.

The model equation for the element I_{AVL} in Fig. 2.1.1/1 is based on the well-known relationship

$$i_{AVL} = I_{Tf} \int_{0}^{w_{BC}} a_n \exp(-b_n/|E|) dx$$
 (2.1.10-1)

The ionization rate a_n and the field b_n are coefficients describing the Avalanche process, E is the electric field within the junction region, x is the ordinate in vertical direction, and w_{BC} is the width of the BC depletion region. From this, the avalanche generation current can be approximated by

$$i_{AVL} = i_{Tf} f_{AVL} (V_{DCi} - v_{B'C'}) \exp\left(-\frac{q_{AVL}}{C_{jCi} (V_{DCi} - v_{B'C'})}\right)$$
 (2.1.10-2)

with the model parameters

$$f_{AVL} = 2a_n/b_n$$
 , (2.1.10-3)

$$q_{AVL} = b_n \varepsilon A_E / 2 , \qquad (2.1.10-4)$$

which depend on emitter area, physical data and temperature (via a_n and b_n).

The possible numerical instability in (2.1.10-2) at $v_{B'C'}=V_{DCi}$ can be avoided by replacing the term $(V_{DCi}-v_{B'C'})$ by $V_{DCi}c^{1/z_{Ci}}$, in which $I/c = C_{jCit}(v_{B'C'})/C_{jCi0}$ is the normalized depletion capacitance with an infinite V_{PTCi} value as also used in τ_{f0} . This leads to the expression

$$i_{AVL} = I_{Tf} f_{AVL} V_{DCi} c^{1/z_{Ci}} \exp\left(-\frac{q_{AVL}}{C_{jCi} V_{DCi} c^{1/z_{Ci}}}\right),$$
 (2.1.10-5)

that is continuously differentiable at forward bias $V_{B'C'}$. The terms $f_{AVL}V_{DCi}$ and q_{AVL}/V_{DCi} are not merged into single parameters due to their different temperature dependence. From a computational point of view, i_{AVL} can simply be set to zero for $v_{B'C'} \ge 0$. At large reverse bias $v_{B'C'} < -q_{AVL}/C_{jCi0}$, i_{AVL} is linearized to avoid convergence problems.

Fig. 2.1.10/1 shows the ratio i_{AVL}/I_T , which is proportional to the multiplication factor, as function of the normalized BC voltage for different values of the exponent coefficient $q_{AVL}/(C_{jCi0}V_{DCi})$.

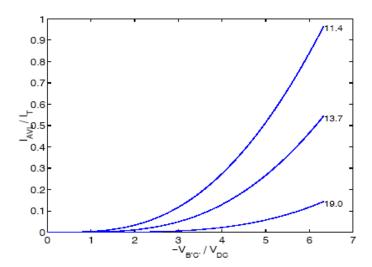


Fig. 2.1.10/1: Avalanche current i_{AVL} , normalized to I_T (= I_{Tf}), as a function of the normalized BC voltage for various values of the exponent coefficient $q_{AVL}/(C_{jCi0}V_{DCi})$ (see labels). Model parameters used: C_{iCi0} =0.56fF/ μ m², V_{DCi} =0.79V, z_{Ci} =0.307.

2.1.10.2 Emitter-base breakdown

In advanced bipolar transistors the EB breakdown voltage is usually around 1...3V due to the high doping concentrations. As a result, the breakdown effect in advanced (high-speed) transistors corresponds to a tunnelling mechanism.

The model equation employed in HICUM (cf. [38]) is based on the expression for the tunnelling current density [48]

$$J_{BEt} = \frac{\sqrt{2m^*/E_G} q^3(-V)}{h^2} E_{BEj} \exp\left[-\frac{8\pi\sqrt{2m^*E_G}E_G}{3qhE_{BEj}}\right] . \tag{2.1.10-6}$$

Here E_G is the bandgap energy, m^* is the effective electron mass, h is the Planck constant, and V is the voltage across the respective BE junction; i.e. $V=V_{B^*E^*}$ for the bottom junction or $V=V_{B^*E^*}$ for the perimeter junction. E_{BEj} is the electric field at the junction which - according to the theory of abrupt junctions - can be expressed as

$$E_{BEj} = 2\frac{V_{DE} - V}{w_{BE}} (2.1.10-7)$$

with V_{DE} as the built-in voltage of the respective junction. w_{BE} is the space charge region width of that junction and is given by

$$w_{BE} = w_{BE0} (1 - V/V_{DE})^{z_E} (2.1.10-8)$$

with the zero-bias value

$$w_{BE0} = \begin{cases} \varepsilon_{Si} A_{E0} / C_{jEi0} & \text{, bottom junction} \\ \varepsilon_{Si} P_{E0} \left(0.8 \frac{\pi}{2} x_{je} \right) / C_{jEp0} & \text{, perimeter junction} \end{cases}$$
 (2.1.10-9)

 P_{E0} and A_{E0} are the emitter window perimeter and area, respectively, and x_{je} is the vertical junction depth. C_{jEi0} and C_{jEp0} are the zero-bias depletion capacitance of the bottom and perimeter junction, respectively. The factor $0.8(\pi/2)x_{je}$ approximates the perimeter junction curvature caused by lateral

outdiffusion of the emitter doping. Inserting (2.1.10-7 to 2.1.10-9) back into (2.1.10-6), defining a normalized voltage $V_e = V/V_{DE}$, and multiplying with the respective area yields for the tunnelling current

$$i_{BEt} = I_{BEtS}(-V_e)(1-V_e)^{1-z_E} \exp\left[-a_{BEt}(1-V_e)^{z_E-1}\right]$$
 (2.1.10-10)

For numerical reasons, the 1- V_e terms are converted to terms that contain the respective normalized bias dependent depletion capacitance $C_e = C_{jE}(v)/C_{jE0}$, which has been made numerically stable at $V_e = 1$. Using the classical $C_{jE}(v)$ relationship which is valid at the reverse bias of interest,

$$(1-V_e)^{1-z_E} = C_e^{1-1/z_E} , (2.1.10-11)$$

leads to the final formulation

$$i_{BEt} = I_{BEtS}(-V_e)C_e^{1 - 1/z_E} \exp[-a_{BEt}C_e^{1/z_E - 1}]$$
 (2.1.10-12)

The "saturation" current

$$I_{BEtS} = 2\frac{\sqrt{2m^*/E_G} q^3 V_{DE}^2}{h^2 \varepsilon_{Si}} C_{jE0}$$
 (2.1.10-13)

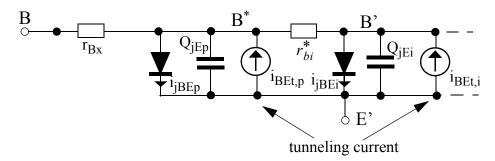
and the coefficient

$$a_{BEt} = \frac{8\pi\sqrt{2m^*E_G}E_G}{3qh} \frac{w_{BE0}}{2V_{DE}}$$
 (2.1.10-14)

are model parameters, that depend on physical and process data as well as on geometry. Note that i_{BEt} is a continuously differentiable expression since the depletion capacitance is continuously differentiable. The above equation is based on a description of band-to-band tunneling, which dominates at reverse bias and becomes less accurate for a forward biased junction, i.e. if trap-assisted tunneling dominates.

In most processes, the breakdown effect occurs first at the peripheral emitter junction, because the doping concentrations are highest there, and due to the curvature of that junction which leads

to a narrower space-charge region and, thus, to a higher electric field. In this case, C_{jE0} , V_{DE} , z_{E} , and V_{e} in the above equations have to be replaced by C_{jEp0} , V_{DEp} , z_{Ep} and v_{B^*E} , V_{DEp} . However, in most SiGe (and also III-V) processes, the tunnelling occurs at the internal (bottom) BE junction. In this case, C_{jEi0} , V_{DEi} , z_{Ei} and v_{B^*E} , V_{DEi} , respectively, need to be inserted instead. Also, the tunnelling current source in the HICUM equivalent circuit needs to be connected to either the perimeter or internal base node as shown in Fig. 2.1.10/2. Thus, in order to provide a flexible description within HICUM and, also, to also allow proper geometry scaling, the parameter TUNODE has been introduced that defines the (base) node at which the tunneling current source is supposed to be connected. Note, that the current source has to be connected either to the internal base node (TUNODE = 0) or to the perimeter base node (TUNODE = 1), but not to both. This modification is downwards compatible to version 2.1.



<u>Fig. 2.1.10/2:</u> Possible locations of the BE tunnelling current source: $i_{BEt,p}$ or $i_{BEt,i}$.

2.1.11 Substrate network

The substrate contact of a transistor may be at the bottom of the wafer only or, more preferably, at the surface. But even the surface contact is usually located relatively far away from the CS junction, so that a significant resistance r_{Su} may exist in series to the CS depletion capacitance, due to the usually quite high substrate resistivity ρ_{Su} . In addition, the high permittivity of silicon, ε_{Si} , leads to a capacitance C_{Su} in parallel to r_{Su} that becomes important at high operating speed. Physically, the connection between the substrate contact and the CS depletion capacitance can be partitioned into a bulk (or bottom) and a periphery RC network [37] (cf. also Fig. 2.1.16/5), each of which having the time constant $\tau_{Si} = \rho_{Su} \varepsilon_{Si}$. For practical applications in a compact model, however, a simplified network is employed that combines bottom and periphery components into one RC equivalent circuit (cf. Fig. 2.1.1/1). The values of r_{Su} and C_{Su} are strongly geometry dependent.

Fig. 2.1.11/1 shows the impact of the substrate coupling on the frequency dependent output conductance of a 25GHz process (see also [26]).

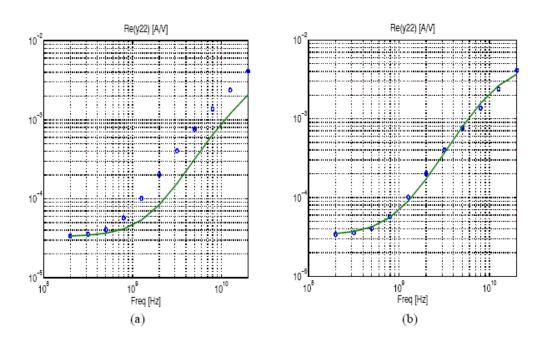


Fig. 2.1.11/1: Impact of intra-device substrate-coupling on transistor output conductance (real part of y_{22}) as function of frequency. Comparison of measurements (symbols) and HICUM (lines): (a) model without substrate network r_{su} , C_{su} ; (b) model with substrate network. Emitter size: $0.4*14\mu m^2$; bias point: $I_C/A_E=0.22 \text{ mA}/\mu m^2$, $V_{CE}=0.8V$.

2.1.12 Parasitic substrate transistor

Under certain electrical circumstances, the parasitic substrate transistor can be turned on, depending also upon the processes and layout of the transistor. First of all, one can distinguish between a bulk substrate transistor given by the buried layer area and - dependent on the process - a peripheral substrate transistor. The most likely electrical condition for turning on the substrate transistor is a forward-biased BC junction which occurs either at high current densities under the emitter (internal BC junction) or if the transistor is operated in hard saturation (external and internal BC junction). An example for this are power amplifiers, in which the transistor is operated in hard saturation with $V_{CE} \rightarrow V_{CEs}$ and strongly forward biased V_{BC} . Another condition for turning on the substrate transistor is a forward biased CS junction caused by voltage drops in the substrate (latchup).

Since the bulk substrate transistor usually has a current gain of less than 1 due to the highly doped and wide buried layer, its influence is negligible and needs not to be considered at high collector current densities. Device simulations confirmed this for an advanced bipolar process. A peripheral substrate transistor action can be avoided by a surrounding collector sinker with high enough doping concentration at the buried layer depth. Also, this peripheral transistor does not exist at all in trench-isolated processes.

In (npn) transistors without surrounding collector sinker, however, the epitaxial collector acts as a lightly doped base between the external base (now the emitter) and the substrate (now the collector), resulting in a pnp transistor with considerable current gain that may be required to be modelled in addition to the vertical npn transistor. HICUM contains a simplified substrate transistor model in order to take the corresponding effects into account.

The parasitic substrate transistor consists of the elements i_{Ts} , i_{SC} , C_{jS} , i_{BCx} and C_{BCx} in the equivalent circuit of Fig. 2.1.1/1. While C_{jS} , i_{BCx} and C_{BCx} already belong to the standard HICUM equivalent circuit, a substrate *transistor* action requires the addition of a substrate transfer current source. Since substrate transistor action is considered as second order effect, a simplified model has been chosen for i_{Ts} :

$$i_{TS} = I_{TSf} - I_{TSr} = I_{TSS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{B*C}}{m_{Sf}V_T}\right) - \exp\left(\frac{v_{SC}}{m_{Sr}V_T}\right) \right]$$
(2.1.12-1)

with the saturation current I_{TSS} and the emission coefficients m_{Sf} and m_{Sr} as model parameters. The second term is only relevant if the SC junction becomes forward biased which of little practical importance; therefore, to reduce the number of model parameters, $m_{Sr} = m_{Sf}$ is assumed.

In case of a forward biased SC junction, also a "base" current component exists, that is modelled by the diode equation:

$$i_{jSC} = I_{SCS} \left[\exp\left(\frac{v_{SC}}{m_{SC}V_T}\right) - 1 \right]$$
 (2.1.12-2)

with the saturation current I_{SCS} and the emission coefficient m_{SC} as model parameters. Although this current (and its derivative) are usually of little practical relevance it is generally useful for simulator convergence.

The minority charge storage in the epitaxial region under the external base is taken into account by a diffusion charge

$$Q_{dS} = \tau_{Sf} i_{TSf} \tag{2.1.12-3}$$

with the forward transit time τ_{Sf} as a model parameter of the substrate transistor. τ_{Sf} depends on the average current path (neutral base width) under the external base and at the buried layer periphery. So far, the classical base transit time expression turned out to be a good approximation for estimating the value of τ_{Sf} . Also, device simulations have shown that for high-speed processes the stored charge represented by Q_{dS} has only negligible effect on transistor switching out of hard saturation.

Note, that in advanced bipolar processes the emitter terminal of the substrate transistor (B*) moves towards the (npn) base contact (B), which makes the external realization of such a parasitic transistor by a subcircuit even easier.

2.1.13 Noise model

The noise behaviour is modelled by employing the small-signal equivalent circuit and adding to all series resistances, diodes, and to the transfer current source their corresponding equivalent noise current sources. Compared to the SGPM, the more sophisticated equivalent circuit and more accurate model equations of HICUM/L2 allow a more accurate overall description of the noise behaviour, especially at high frequencies (e.g. [73]). Fig 2.1.13.0/1 shows the different noise sources in HICUM. The red arrows indicate the correlation between base and collector shot noise sources. The various noise sources and the correlation are described in more detail below.

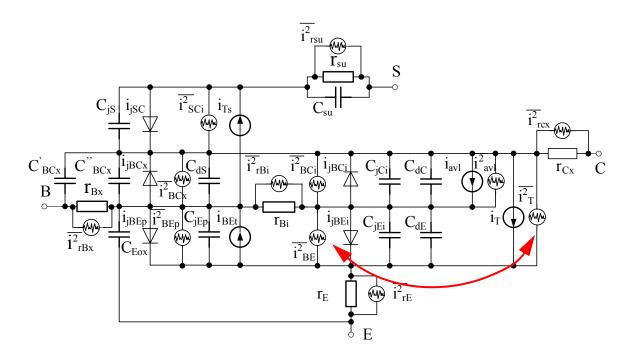


Fig. 2.1.13.0/1: Equivalent circuit of HICUM/L2 showing the noise sources.

In ohmic resistances thermal noise is taken into account by an equivalent noise current source

$$\overline{I_r^2} = \frac{4k_B T \Delta f}{r} \tag{2.1.13-1}$$

with $r = r_E$, r_{Cx} , r_{Bx} , or r_{Bi} . k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the device temperature, and Δf is the frequency interval. Investigations have shown that for certain processes a distributed model of the

internal base yields an improved description of the high-frequency noise behaviour, which can only be achieved with a multi-transistor model.

Shot noise is assumed for transfer currents, such as

$$\overline{I_T^2} = 2qI_T \Delta f, \qquad (2.1.13-2)$$

as well as for the avalanche current I_{AVL} and for currents across junctions (diode currents),

$$\overline{I_{j \, diode}^2} = 2qI_{jdiode} \, \Delta f \, , \qquad (2.1.13-3)$$

with the index $diode = \{BEi, BCi, BEp, BCx, SC\}$. Note that eq. (2.1.13-3) is only a rough approximation.

Investigations of flicker noise in polysilicon-emitter bipolar transistors seem to indicate that the flicker noise is generated by traps at the polysilicon to monosilicon interface. This corresponds to a strong correlation between the bottom and perimeter component, which is simply modelled as

$$\overline{I_{BE}^2} = k_F \left(I_{jBEi} + I_{jBEp} \right)^{a_F} \frac{\Delta f}{f} \,. \tag{2.1.13-4}$$

According to the version 2.1 documentation the above noise contribution is allocated to the internal base node. However, some simulators seem to have the noise connected to the perimeter base node. For flexibility and backward compatibility, a flag is introduced into the present version to allocate the correlated flicker noise to either the internal base node (CFBE = -1) or the perimeter base node (CFBE = -2). The default value is -1 for compatibility with version 2.1. The value range [0,1] is reserved for a correlation factor in a possible future implementation.

2.1.13.1 Correlation between base and collector noise

For advanced HBTs, correlation between the shot noise of the back-injection current component of the base current and the transfer current becomes important at frequencies below peak f_T and can lead to, e.g., a significant reduction of the minimum noise figure. According to [41], the complex valued correlation factor \underline{t}_{21} is given by

$$t_{21} = \frac{\underline{S}_{i_{n}c^{i}_{nb}}}{S_{i_{nb}}} = -j\omega \frac{\tau_{Bf}}{3} \frac{I_{T}}{I_{iBEi}}.$$
 (2.1.13.1-1)

Here, I_{jBEi} is the d.c. base current from emitter backinjection (intrinsic base emitter diode), I_T is the d.c. transfer current, τ_{Bf} is base transit time,

$$\underline{S}_{i_{nc}i_{nb}} \approx -2qI_{T}\left(j\omega\frac{\tau_{Bf}}{3}\right) , \qquad (2.1.13.1-2)$$

is the collector current noise spectral density related to the base current noise, and

$$S_{i_{nb}} = 2qI_{iBEi} , (2.1.13.1-3)$$

the base shot noise spectral density.

The negative sign in t_{21} makes the realization of the correlation in Verilog-AMS difficult to implement since in SPICE-like simulators the noise PSD is a squared quantity, leading to a cancellation of the negative sign. Hence, the following approximation is used,

$$S_{\overline{i_{nc}}} = S_{i_{nc}} \left(1 - \frac{B_f}{2} \left(\omega \frac{\tau_{Bf}}{3} \right)^2 \right)^2 = S_{i_{nc}} - \left| t_{21} \right|^2 S_{i_{nb}} + \underbrace{\frac{\left| t_{21} \right|^4}{4B_f} S_{i_{nb}}}_{\text{error term}}, \qquad (2.1.13.1-4)$$

with B_f as d.c. gain, and the collector shot noise spectral density

$$S_{i_{nc}} = 2qI_T (2.1.13.1-5)$$

The implementation of the above equations in HICUM are discussed in the appendix. The simulation results, compared with the measured data have been shown there also.

The high frequency behaviour of the correlated noise implementation has been investigated through simulation as no measured data at such high frequency is available. The simulations have been done with different values of the model parameter "alit" instead of the factor 1/3 in the equation (2.1.13.1-3).

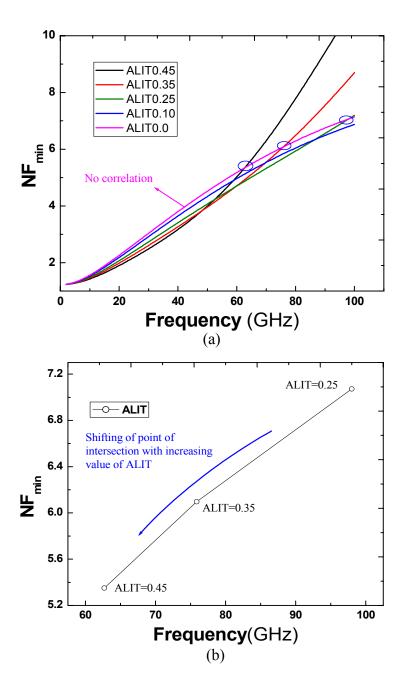


Fig. 2.1.13/1: Variation of noise figure (NF_{min}) with different values of alit.

The above Fig 2.1.13/1 (a) shows the variation of NF_{min} when *alit* is taking different values. The blue intersections indicate its intersection with non-correlated plot (alit = 0). With the increasing value of *alit* the point of intersection gradually comes to the lower frequency side. This has been shown in the second plot (b). The two figures clearly demonstrate the influence of 4th-order error terms which increases with *alit* (i.e. delay).

The 4th order term in the equation (2.1.13.1-4) actually limits the validity at high frequency operation. Suitable implementation of correlated high frequency noise without error term is, presently under investigation.

2.1.14 Temperature dependence

Temperature dependence is described in HICUM via those model parameters that are related to physical quantities like intrinsic carrier density or mobility. In the following formulas, T_0 is the reference temperature (e.g. 300K) for which the model parameters have been determined. The validity range of the equations depends somewhat on the technology considered. A more detailed description of the physical background of certain formulas employed in HICUM is given in [5, 6].

In most circuit simulators a linear dependence of bandgap with temperature is assumed for the saturation currents, which are most sensitive to temperature changes, while for the built-in voltages often a more complicated function $V_G(T)$ is used (e.g. [42]), which is valid down to quite low temperatures. This was also the case for HICUm up to version 2.1. From version 2.2 on a nonlinear temperature dependence of the bandgap voltage has been employed for various reasons (see later). Note though, that specific low-temperature effects such as freeze-out are not taken into account, and it is not recommended to use the model below about 250K unless its parameters have been extracted or at least verified specifically for that temperature range.

For numerical reasons (over- or underflow), some of the theoretical equations have to be modified, mostly towards extreme temperatures. The respective smoothing functions to be used for circuit simulator implementation are given below. It is assumed though that every circuit simulator prevents negative or zero temperature. Furthermore, relative temperature coefficients (TCs) are designated by the symbol α and temperature factors (without unit) are designated by ζ .

2.1.14.1 Temperature dependent bandgap voltage

In order to allow simulations of devices fabricated in different materials and to make the model simulator-independent, a temperature dependent bandgap voltage has been added to the model equations. The formulation suggested in [43] has been selected,

$$V_g(T) = V_g(0) + K_1 T \ln(T) + K_2 T$$
 (2.1.14-1)

due to the following advantages:

- a higher accuracy w.r.t. measured data in the relevant temperature range compared to the classical formulation, and
- compatibility with existing temperature dependent current formulations in compact models that are based on the assumption of a simple linear temperature dependence $V_g(T) = V_{g,cl}(0) a_g T$, but higher accuracy at the same time.

Note, that in (2.1.14-1) the temperature T decreases faster towards zero than ln(T) increases towards infinity, so that the equation assumes the finite value $V_g(0)$ at T = 0. The original coefficient values are given in Table 2.1.14/1; the second row contains an improved set of parameters which is more accurate both at low temperatures and with respect to the classical formulation:

$$V_g(T) = V_{g,cq}(0) - \frac{\alpha_g T^2}{T + T_g}$$
 (2.1.14-2)

Parameter	K ₁ [V/K]	K ₂ [V/K]	V _g (0) [V]
[65]	-8.459 10 ⁻⁵	3.042 10 ⁻⁴	1.1774
[66]	-1.02377 10 ⁻⁴	4.3215 10 ⁻⁴	1.170

Table 2.1.14/1Coefficients for calculating the bandgap voltage in *silicon* as a function of temperature from (2.1.14-1). In the range from 250 to 400K, a smaller error can be obtained by simply setting $V_g(0)=1.1777V$ in the original parameter set.

For compact model and application purposes, it is sometimes more convenient to re-write above equation in terms of a reference temperature T_0 (e.g. for parameter extraction), which gives

$$V_g(T) = V_g(T_0) + k_1 \frac{T}{T_0} \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) + k_2 \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)$$
 (2.1.14-3)

with the definitions

$$k_1 = K_1 T_0$$
 $k_2 = K_2 T_0 + k_1 \ln(T_0)$ (2.1.14-4)

and the bandgap voltage at the measurement reference temperature,

$$V_{\sigma}(T_0) = k_2 + V_{\sigma}(0) \tag{2.1.14-5}$$

Fig. 2.1.14/1 shows the temperature dependent bandgap voltage according to (2.1.14-1) compared to the most popular conventional formulations.

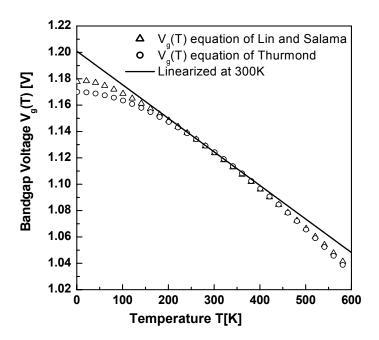


Fig. 2.1.14/1: Comparison of bandgap voltage approximations. The parameters used for (2.1.14-2) are $V_g(0) = 1.170 \text{ V}$, $\alpha_g = 4.73 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ V/K}$, $T_g = 636 \text{ K}$. The parameters for the (at T_0) linearized equation are $V_g(0) = 1.2009 \text{ V}$, $\alpha_g = 2.5461 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ V/K}$.

The choice of the bandgap description also influences the formulation of the effective intrinsic carrier density, which now reads

$$n_{ie}^{2}(T) = n_{ie}^{2}(T_{0}) \left(\frac{T}{T_{0}}\right)^{m_{g}} \exp\left[\frac{V_{geff}(0)}{V_{T}} \left(\frac{T}{T_{0}} - 1\right)\right]$$
(2.1.14-6)

with the constant

$$m_g = 3 - \frac{k_1}{V_{T0}} = 3 - \frac{qK_1}{k_B} \tag{2.1.14-7}$$

and K_1 from the bandgap voltage equation (2.1.14-1). Using the values in Table 2.1.14/1 for Si gives m_g =4.188.

2.1.14.2 Transfer current

The transfer current is strongly temperature dependent via the intrinsic carrier density n_i . Up to v2.1, in the temperature dependent expression of the model parameter c_{10} (and the associated saturation current) so far a constant value 3 has been used in the n_i prefactor $(T/T_0)^3$. Since the value 3 is an approximation, assuming a cancellation of the temperature dependence of the diffusivity (in a sufficiently highly doped base region), a more flexible representation is to replace 3 by the parameter ζ_{CT} ,

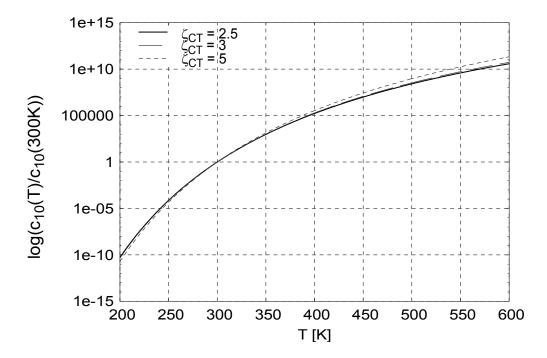
$$c_{10}(T) = c_{10}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{CT}} \exp\left[\frac{V_{gBeff}(0)}{V_T(T)} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right], \tag{2.1.14-8}$$

with the physics-based value given by

$$\zeta_{CT} = m_g + 1 - \zeta_{\mu mB}, \qquad (2.1.14-9)$$

where $\zeta_{\mu mB}$ is the exponent factor of the mobility temperature dependence for the minority carriers in the base region. The default value is $\zeta_{CT} = 3$. The above model parameter c_{10} is shown in Fig. 2.1.14/2 as a function of temperature for various values of ζ_{CT} . Obviously, the impact of ζ_{CT} is quite small, although the selected values already cover more than the physically meaningful range. Note that V_{Gb} can assume values smaller than in Fig. 2.1.14/1 due to high doping effects in the base region.

The above description with ζ_{CT} as parameter provides a higher flexibility in modeling the temperature dependence of the transfer current characteristic for designing bandgap-reference circuits; a more detailed study [31] has shown though, that only very large and non-physical values of ζ_{CT} do have an impact on the temperature dependent output voltage of bandgap reference circuits (in circuit simulation only, of course), and that such non-physical values of ζ_{CT} were usually accompanied with non-physical values for the bandgap voltage itself as well.



<u>Fig. 2.1.14/2:</u> Normalized ICCR constant vs normalized temperature with a_{CT} as parameter and fixed value of $V_{gBeff} = 1.17V$.

2.1.14.3 Zero-bias hole charge

Fig. 2.1.14/3 shows an example for the temperature dependence of Q_{p0} , obtained directly from 1D device simulation. The zero-bias hole charge Q_{p0} is only weakly temperature dependent via the influence of base width change with temperature that is mainly caused by the change in depletion width of the BE junction. The temperature dependence can be approximated by the simple expression

$$Q_{p0}(T) = Q_{p0}(T_0) \left[2 - \left(\frac{V_{DEi}(T)}{V_{DEi}(T_0)} \right)^{z_{Ei}} \right]$$
 (2.1.14-10)

which requires no additional model parameters. As Fig. 2.1.14/3 shows, above equation (2.1.14-10) yields excellent agreement over a large temperature range. Also, for typical values of V_{DEi} in the order of V_{Gb} the value of Q_{p0} will remain positive up to extremely high temperatures. Therefore, a smoothing function is omitted here to keep the computational effort minimal, particularly

during self-heating calculations. The temperature derivative in the code is directly given by the already available derivative dV_{DEi}/dT .

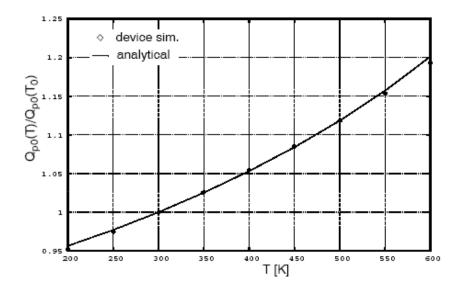


Fig. 2.1.14/3: Temperature dependence of Q_{p0} from 1D device simulation (symbols) compared to (2.1.14-10) (solid line) using existing model parameters to calculate the temperature dependence of the built-in voltage. The required internal BE depletion capacitance parameters V_{DEi} and z_{Ei} were obtained from a simple C-V fit.

2.1.14.4 Base (junction) current components

Since in HICUM not the current gain but the physically independent base current is described, the respective saturation currents are modelled as a function of temperature. The saturation current of the internal base-emitter diode is given by

$$I_{BEiS}(T) = I_{BEiS}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{BET}} \exp\left[\frac{V_{gEeff}(0)}{V_T} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right]$$
 (2.1.14-11)

with the new model parameters ζ_{BET} and the effective bandgap voltage $V_{gEeff}(0)$ in the emitter, which includes, e.g., high-doping effects. An estimate for $V_{gEeff}(0)$ can be calculated from the known effective bandgap voltage in the base and the measured relative TC α_{Bf} of the current gain:

$$V_{gEeff}(0) = V_{gBeff}(0) - \alpha_{Bf}T_0 V_{T0}$$
 (2.1.14-12)

This estimate can be used as default or preliminary value, e.g., when converting the HICUM v2.1 parameter α_{Bf} to $V_{gEeff}(0)$. In HICUM v2.2, α_{Bf} will be phased out as a model parameter in favour of the separate model parameters ζ_{BET} and $V_{gEeff}(0)$ in an equation form that is the same for all junction components (see below). Although defining the temperature dependence of the current gain at given collector bias current is more useful for circuit design than defining a bandgap voltage from a $V_{B'E'} = 0$ extrapolated characteristic, the latter approach will be used in HICUM, starting from version 2.2 on in order to

- provide a more flexible description of the current gain temperature dependence,
- be consistent with the independent modeling of the bias dependence of the base current components, and
- provide a clear definition of how to extract the corresponding model parameters.

As a consequence, HICUM employs for all junction related current components, except the transfer current, equations of the form

$$I_j = I_{jS} \exp\left(\frac{V}{mV_T}\right) \tag{2.1.14-13}$$

with the generic temperature dependent saturation current formulation

$$I_{jS}(T) = I_{jS}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_T} \exp\left[\frac{V_{geff}(0)}{V_T} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right]$$
 (2.1.14-14)

The corresponding variables that are inserted into above equation for each junction component are listed in Table 2.1.14/2. For the BE recombination components, the average value

$$V_{gBEeff} = \frac{V_{gBeff} + V_{gEeff}}{2}$$
 (2.1.14-15)

that is already being used for the BE depletion capacitance components, is inserted. The temperature dependence of base-emitter recombination current components is given by n_i (rather than n_i^2 as for the injection components), the SCR width and an effective lifetime τ_{eq} . The temperature dependence of τ_{eq} and of the SCR width are very small compared to the T-dependence of n_i and also partially compensate each other. Thus, the T-dependent recombination saturation currents read:

$$I_{jRS}(T) = I_{jRS}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_T/2} \exp\left[\frac{V_{geff}(0)}{2V_T} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right]$$
(2.1.14-16)

component I	V	I_S	т	$V_{\it geff}$	ζ_T
I_{jBEi}	$V_{B'E'}$	I_{BEiS}	m_{BEi}	V_{gEeff}	ζ_{BET}
I_{jBEp}	V_{B^*E} ,	I_{BEpS}	m_{BEp}	V_{gEeff}	ζ_{BET}
I_{jBCi}	$V_{B'C'}$	I_{BCiS}	m_{BCi}	V_{gCeff}	ζ_{BCiT}
I_{jBCx}	V_{B^*C}	I _{BCxS}	m_{BCx}	V_{gCeff}	ζ_{BCxT}
I_{jSC}	$V_{S'C'}$	I _{SCS}	m_{SC}	V_{gSeff}	ζ _{SCT}
I_{jREi}	$V_{B'E'}$	I_{REiS}	m_{REi}	V_{gBEeff}	m_g
I_{jREp}	V_{B^*E} ,	I_{REpS}	m_{REp}	V_{gBEeff}	m_g

Table 2.1.14/2 Junction current components and their corresponding parameters and controlling voltages

Commercially implemented SGP models contain the components I_{jBEi} , I_{jBCi} (or I_{jBCx}) and I_{jSC} . In some variants, each of these components is assigned a different set (V_{geff} , ζ_T) of parameters. Extending this to the additional components in HICUM would increase the number of parameters without significantly increasing accuracy and flexibility, or in other words: it is questionable from a practical application point of view for a compact model whether introducing separate model parameters for those base current components, that are of *little importance* for *circuit design* makes sense. Therefore, to keep the model as simple as possible (in terms of parameter determination), currents associated with same regions have been assigned the same parameters in Table 2.1.14/2. Furthermore, since the mobility exponent factor ζ_{Ci} of the internal collector region, defined by

$$\mu_{Ci}(T) = \mu_{Ci}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-\zeta_{Ci}}$$
(2.1.14-17)

is already available as a model parameter, the respective exponent factor for I_{jBCi} can be expressed as

$$\zeta_{BCiT} = m_g + 1 - \zeta_{Ci} \tag{2.1.14-18}$$

with m_g from (2.1.14-7). Hence, ζ_{BCiT} does not need to be added as model parameter and is calculated internally. Similarly, the factor for the external collector current I_{iBCx} reads

$$\zeta_{BCxT} = m_g + 1 - \zeta_{Cx} \tag{2.1.14-19}$$

with the mobility factor ζ_{Cx} of the external collector (epi-)region that is also being used for modeling the temperature dependence of the minority storage time of the parasitic substrate transistor.

Since the substrate doping is fairly low, the mobility exponent factor $\zeta_{\mu p S} = 2.5$ can be assumed as a good approximation, yielding

$$\zeta_{SCT} = m_g + 1 - \zeta_{\mu pS} \tag{2.1.14-20}$$

leaving the bandgap voltages as the only new model parameters for these regions. For silicon, the values of the above constants are: $m_g = 4.188$, $\zeta_{BCT} = 5.188 - \zeta_{Ci}$, $\zeta_{SCT} = 2.69$.

2.1.14.5 Transit time and minority charge

The critical current density I_{CK}/A_E depends on temperature via physical parameters like mobility of the epitaxial collector and saturation velocity. The internal collector resistance contains the low-field electron mobility and reads

$$r_{Ci}(T) = r_{Ci}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{Ci}}$$
 (2.1.14-21)

The model parameter ζ_{Ci} is a function of the collector doping concentration (e.g., [5, 28]). The voltage V_{lim} contains both collector mobility and saturation velocity,

$$V_{lim}(T) = \frac{v_s(T)}{\mu_{nCi0}(T)}$$
 (2.1.14-22)

According to [45], experimental results of the saturation velocity for $T \ge 250 K$ can be approximated by

$$v_s(T) = v_{s0}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{-a_{vs}}$$
 (2.1.14-23)

with $T_0 = 300$ K, $v_s(T_0) = 1.071*10^7$ cm/s and $a_{vs} = 0.87$. The relation between a_{vs} and the existing HICUM model parameter a_{vs} , which is the relative TC, can be calculated from the derivative of (2.1.14-23) at T_0 and is given by

$$a_{vs} = \alpha_{vs} T_0 \tag{2.1.14-24}$$

Inserting the temperature dependence of the collector electron mobility and (2.1.14-23) into (2.1.14-22) gives the physics-based formulation

$$V_{lim}(T) = V_{lim}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{Ci} - a_{vs}}$$
 (2.1.14-25)

which is simple and numerically stable, and does not require any additional model parameters. The equation is valid up to about 600K, which is the highest temperature of available experimental data for mobility and saturation velocity.

The CE saturation voltage can be modelled as a linear function of temperature,

$$V_{CEs}(T) = V_{CEs}(T_0)[1 + \alpha_{CEs}\Delta T]$$
, (2.1.14-26)

with α_{CEs} as a model parameter. Its value can be estimated from the difference between the respective relative temperature coefficients of the built-in voltages V_{DEi} and V_{DCi} .

The temperature dependence of the transit time model is given in [28]. Except for the low-current transit time, no additional model parameters are required. The low-current portion of the transit time, τ_{f0} , as a function of temperature is mainly determined by the quadratic temperature dependence of the parameter τ_0 :

$$\tau_0(T) = \tau_0(T_0)[1 + \alpha_{\tau 0}\Delta T + k_{\tau 0}\Delta T^2]$$
 (2.1.14-27)

The model parameters $\alpha_{\tau 0}$ and $k_{\tau 0}$ can be expressed by physical quantities.

The time constants τ_{Bfvs} and τ_{pCs} depend on temperature via the same diffusivity (of the collector) and, therefore, the temperature dependence of the composite parameter τ_{hcs} can be expressed as

$$\tau_{hcs}(T) = \tau_{hcs}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{(\zeta_{Ci}-1)}.$$
(2.1.14-28)

The emitter time constant τ_{Ef0} depends on temperature via mainly the hole diffusivity in the neutral emitter and the current gain. Assuming a large emitter concentration with a negligible temperature dependence of the mobility (exponent coefficient ≈ 0.5), the following expression can be obtained:

$$\tau_{Ef0}(T) \cong \tau_{Ef0}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{\tau Ef}} \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta V_{geff}(0)}{V_T} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right]$$
(2.1.14-29)

which is also numerically stable for all temperatures. Furthermore, above equation does not require any additional model parameters, since the bandgap difference (between base and emitter region) and exponent coefficient can be calculated from already existing model parameters,

$$\Delta V_{geff}(0) = V_{gBeff}(0) - V_{gEeff}(0)$$
 (2.1.14-30)

and

$$\zeta_{\tau Ef} = \zeta_{BET} - \zeta_{CT} - 0.5 \tag{2.1.14-31}$$

The temperature dependence of the minority charge and of the additional delay times, that model vertical NQS effects, follows automatically from that of the transit time using (2.1.3-2) and (2.1.9-1), respectively.

2.1.14.6 Temperature dependence of built-in voltages

In order to avoid the built-in voltages becoming negative at high temperatures, an empirical smoothing function was included in v2.1. This function has been replaced in v2.2 by a physics-based formulation, that can be derived from the behavior of the intrinsic carrier density at high temperatures [44].

At first, an auxiliary voltage is calculated at the reference temperature from the model parameter V_D given at the reference (or nominal) temperature T_0

$$V_{Dj}(T_0) = 2V_{T0} \ln \left[\exp\left(\frac{V_D(T_0)}{2V_{T0}}\right) - \exp\left(-\frac{V_D(T_0)}{2V_{T0}}\right) \right]$$
 (2.1.14-32)

with the thermal voltage $V_{T0} = k_B T_0/q$. Then, the respective value at the actual temperature is calculated using the temperature dependent effective bandgap voltage of the respective junction, resulting in

$$V_{Dj}(T) = V_{Dj}(T_0) \frac{T}{T_0} - 3V_T \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) + V_{geff}(T) - V_{geff}(T_0) \frac{T}{T_0}$$
(2.1.14-33)

For the bandgap voltage formulation (2.1.14-1), above equation reads

$$V_{Dj}(T) = V_{Dj}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) - m_g V_T \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) - V_{geff}(0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)$$
(2.1.14-34)

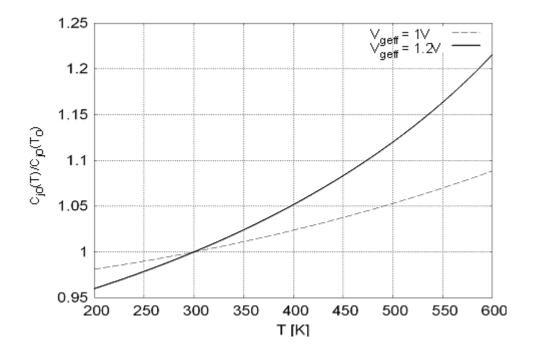
which reduces to the classical equation (that assumes a linear temperature dependence of V_{geff}) if $m_g = 3$. Finally, the built-in voltage is calculated as

$$V_D(T) = V_{Dj}(T) + 2V_T \ln \left(\frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \sqrt{1 + 4 \exp\left(-\frac{V_{Dj}(T)}{V_T}\right)} \right] \right)$$
 (2.1.14-35)

Since V_D is associated with the junction region, an average effective value is used for V_g , which is given by, e.g.,

$$V_{geff} \rightarrow V_{g(x,y)eff} = \frac{V_{gxeff} + V_{gyeff}}{2}$$
 (2.1.14-36)

with (x,y) = (B,E), (B,C), (C,S). The temperature dependence of the built-in voltages enters the zero-bias capacitance relations. Fig. 2.1.14/4 shows the impact of the choice of the V_g value on the temperature dependence of the zero-bias capacitance.



<u>Fig. 2.1.14/4:</u>Impact of bandgap values on the temperature dependence of the zero-bias depletion capacitance.

For electro-thermal simulations as well as for calculating the temperature coefficient of $Q_{p0}(T)$, the temperature derivative of the built-in voltage at the (parameter) reference temperature is required. In the code, the full expression for dV_D/dT as derived from (2.1.14-34) is used. However, since for $Q_{p0}(T)$ only its value at the reference (extraction) temperature T_0 is needed, the following expression can be used for parameter extraction:

$$\left. \frac{dV_D(T)}{dT} \right|_{T_0} \cong \left. \frac{dV_{Dj}(T)}{dT} \right|_{T_0} \tag{2.1.14-37}$$

Using the expression (2.1.14-1) for the bandgap voltage gives

$$\left. \frac{dV_{Dj}(T)}{dT} \right|_{T_0} = \frac{V_{Dj}(T_0) - V_{geff}(0) - m_g V_{T0}}{T_0}$$
(2.1.14-38)

As Fig. 2.1.14/5 shows, above equation is an excellent approximation for any reasonable extraction temperature.

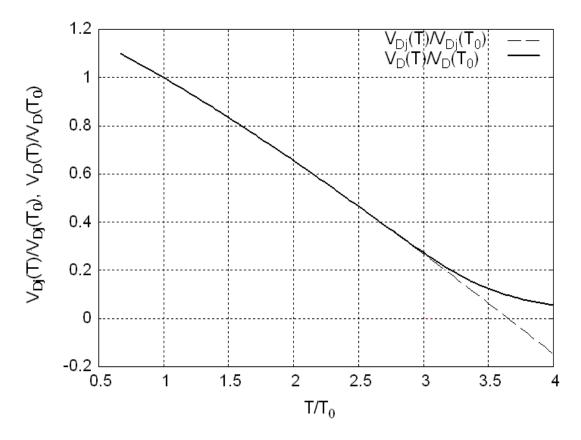


Fig. 2.1.14/5: Normalized built-in voltage vs normalized temperature (range $200 \le T/K \le 1200$); parameter $m_g = 3$.

2.1.14.7 Depletion charges and capacitances

The key parameter for the temperature dependence of the depletion charges and capacitances is the diffusion (or built-in) voltage, temperature dependence of which is formulated in the previous section.

The zero-bias junction capacitance can be expressed generally as $C_{j0} \sim V_D^{-z}$ so that its temperature dependence can be directly calculated from that of V_D :

$$C_{j0}(T) = C_{j0}(T_0) \left(\frac{V_D(T_0)}{V_D(T)}\right)^z$$
 (2.1.14-39)

The temperature dependence of the depletion charge follows automatically from (2.1.4-1) by applying the above formulas and assuming that the exponent-factor z does not depend on temperature.

The parameter α_j determining the maximum value of a depletion capacitance at forward bias decreases with increasing temperature and is (empirically) modified as follows:

$$a_j(T) = a_j(T_0) \frac{V_D(T)}{V_D(T_0)}.$$
(2.1.14-40)

As can be seen in Fig. 2.1.14/6, the zero-bias capacitance increases, while the voltage at the maximum and the maximum itself decrease with increasing temperature.

The parameter C_{BEpar} , f_{BEpar} and f_{BCpar} do not depend on temperature.

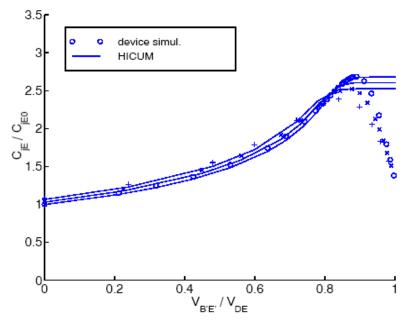


Fig. 2.1.14/6: Temperature dependence of the base-emitter depletion capacitance, normalized to its zero-bias value at 300K, vs. normalized applied voltage: comparison between 1D device simulation (symbols) and model equation (lines). The curves are for the temperatures T/K = 300 (o), 350 (*), 400 (+).

2.1.14.8 Series resistances

The internal base resistance depends on temperature mainly via the mobility in the neutral base region, which is contained in the internal base sheet resistance. Thus, the zero-bias resistance is described as

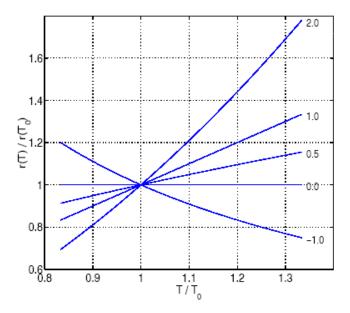
$$r_{Bi0}(T) = r_{Bi0}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{rBi}}$$
 (2.1.14-41)

The model parameter ζ_{rBi} is a function of the (average) base doping concentration (cf. $r_{Ci0}(T)$). Conductivity modulation and emitter current crowding in r_{Bi} are automatically described as a function of T by the corresponding charges and currents. The shunt capacitance C_{rBi} is temperature dependent via the capacitances of the internal transistor.

External base resistance r_{Bx} , external collector resistance r_{Cx} , and emitter series resistance follow a similar relationship as r_{Bi0} . This requires the model parameters ζ_{rBx} , ζ_{rCx} and ζ_{rE} which are a function of the (average) doping concentrations within the corresponding regions.

Fig. 2.1.14/7 shows the various types of temperature dependence that can be modelled with the above equation.

The temperature dependence of the substrate coupling resistance r_{su} is presently not modeled but can easily be included employing the same formulation as (2.1.14-41) and the mobility factor $\zeta_{rsu} = 2.5$.



<u>Fig. 2.1.14/7:</u> Normalized resistance as a function of temperature according to eq. (2.1.14-41) for different values of ζ (= ζ_{Ci} , ζ_{rBi} , ζ_{rBx} , ζ_{rCx} or ζ_{rE}) as parameter.

2.1.14.9 Breakdown

A. Base-collector junction (avalanche effect)

The temperature dependence of the coefficients describing avalanche breakdown can be described as [47]

$$a_n(T) = a_n(T_0) \exp(\alpha_{na} \Delta T)$$
, (2.1.14-42)

$$b_n(T) = b_n(T_0) \exp(\alpha_{nb} \Delta T)$$
 (2.1.14-43)

with $\Delta T = T - T_0$ and the temperature coefficients α_{na} and α_{nb} . Insertion of these equations into (2.1.10-3,4) gives for the model parameters

$$f_{AVL}(T) = f_{AVL}(T_0) \exp(\alpha_{fav} \Delta T) \quad \text{and} \quad q_{AVL}(T) = q_{AVL}(T_0) \exp(\alpha_{qav} \Delta T) \quad (2.1.14-44)$$

with the temperature coefficients $\alpha_{fav} = \alpha_{na}$ - α_{nb} and $\alpha_{qav} = \alpha_{nb}$ which are considered as model parameters. According to a more recent study in [48], the temperature dependence of the parameter a_n is negligible while only b_n varies slightly with temperature. Therefore, the exp-function reduces to (or can be approximated by) its first series terms, i.e. $\exp(\alpha_{nb}\Delta T) \approx 1 + \alpha_{nb}\Delta T$.

B. Base-emitter junction (tunnelling effect)

The temperature dependence of the parameters describing BE tunnelling is mainly determined by the bandgap's temperature dependence. The saturation current is then given by [38]

$$I_{BEtS}(T) = I_{BEtS}(T_0) \sqrt{\frac{V_G(T_0)}{V_G(T)}} \left(\frac{V_{DE}(T)}{V_{DE}(T_0)} \right)^2 \frac{C_{jE0}(T)}{C_{jE0}(T_0)}$$
(2.1.14-45)

The exponent-coefficient as a function of temperature reads:

$$a_{BEt}(T) = a_{BEt}(T_0) \left(\frac{V_g(T)}{V_g(T_0)}\right)^{3/2} \frac{V_{DE}(T_0)}{V_{DE}(T)} \frac{C_{jE0}(T_0)}{C_{jE0}(T)}$$
(2.1.14-46)

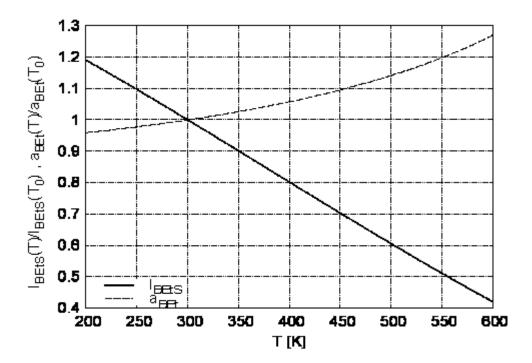
where either internal or perimeter related parameters have to be inserted for V_{DE} and C_{jE0} , according to the node assignment of the tunnelling current source.

In the above equations, no additional model parameters are required since the model internal band-gap voltage (cf. eq. (2.1.15-1)) can be used. Employing the model internal band-gap voltage also enables the evaluation of the above parameters for different materials. Since the tunneling current is associated with the BE junction region, physically the bandgap voltage corresponds to the average value of the base and emitter bandgap voltage,

$$V_g(T) = V_{gBEeff}(T) = \frac{V_{gBeff}(T) + V_{gEeff}(T)}{2}$$
 (2.1.14-47)

which is already available from the calculation of the BE depletion capacitance and junction saturation current component. However, only the ratio of the bandgap voltages enters the equations (2.1.15-44) and (2.1.15-45).

Fig. 2.1.14/8 shows an example for the temperature dependence of the model parameters calculated from (2.1.14-45) and (2.1.14-46).



<u>Fig. 2.1.14/8:</u>Example for the temperature dependence of tunnelling current parameters, normalized to their values at 300K.

2.1.14.10 Parasitic substrate transistor

The temperature dependence of the transfer current of the parasitic substrate transistor is given by

$$I_{TS}(T) = I_{TSS}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{\zeta_{BCxT}} \exp\left[\frac{V_{gCeff}(0)}{V_T} \left(\frac{T}{T_0} - 1\right)\right]$$
 (2.1.14-48)

with the factor ζ_{BCxT} from (2.1.5-18).

In section 2.1.15-3, one can get the temperature dependence of the current across CS junction. The transit time of the parasitic substrate transistor is described as a function of temperature similar to (2.1.14-28),

$$\tau_{Sf}(T) = \tau_{Sf}(T_0) \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{(\zeta_{Cx}-1)},$$
(2.1.14-49)

with the temperature factor ζ_{Cx} as additional model parameter, that can be determined from the mobility in the external collector region.

Note, that substrate transistor action can generally be avoided by a surrounding collector sinker.

2.1.15 Self-heating

The increase of the transistor's "junction" temperature T_j caused by self-heating is calculated using a thermal network as shown in Fig. 2.1.1/1b. The current source corresponds to the power dissipated in the device, and the node voltage corresponds to the junction temperature. The calculation requires the thermal resistance, R_{th} , and thermal capacitance, C_{th} , (of the particular transistor) as model parameters. The thermal network is solved together with each transistor model (provided $R_{th}>0$ and FLSH(model parameter used as a flag for self-heating calculation) !=0) for d.c. and transient operation. The node voltage is passed on to the model routine in order to calculate the temperature dependent model parameters.

The power dissipation is generally caused by all dissipative elements in the equivalent circuit (i.e. excluding any energy storage elements). If FLSH = 2, the power in the model is calculated including all the relevant elements in the equivalent circuit as follows,

$$P = I_T V_{CE} + \sum_{jd} I_{jd} V_{diode} + I_{AVL} (V_{DCi} - V_{B'C}) + \sum_{jd} \frac{\Delta V_n^2}{r_n} , \qquad (2.1.15-1)$$

with $d=\{BEi,BCi,BEp,BCx,SC\}$, V_{diode} as respective diode voltage, r_n as (non-zero) series resistance ($n=\{Bi,Bx,E,Cx\}$) and ΔV_n as the corresponding voltage drop across those resistances.

However, since not only the accuracy of the single-pole network and, in particular, of the determination (and geometry scaling) of R_{th} and C_{th} are fairly limited, but also the consideration of *all* dissipative elements generates elaborate expressions for the derivatives in the Jacobian, only the most relevant dissipative elements are included in the power calculation for FLSH = 1:

$$P = I_T V_{C'E'} + I_{AVL} (V_{DCi} V_{B'C'})$$
(2.1.15-2)

The purpose of this measure is to reduce the computational effort without sacrificing convergence.

Note that only *self*-heating is presently taken into account but not the thermal coupling between different devices on the chip, which is a much more complicated topic and does not belong directly into a transistor model formulation. However, the already existing temperature node of the model can be used for modelling thermal coupling in a circuit, like in HICUM/L4 [49].

2.1.16 Lateral scaling

This chapter contains a brief description of the geometry scaling used for HICUM in order to explain the general idea. An extensive set of scaling formulas for a variety of technologies is implemented in the program TRADICA [31] which is used to generate model parameters for a given transistor configuration (cf. chapter 4). The description of the full set of lateral scaling equations is beyond the scope of this text. Note, that due to many different processes the geometry scaling of bipolar transistors is generally much more complicated than for MOS transistors. However, during TRADICA's use over more than 15 years, a quite general way of geometry scaling has been developed, that has proved to be applicable to a large variety of processes.

2.1.16.1 Transfer current

The geometry dependence of the parameters of the transfer current is given by the proportionalities

$$c_{10} \sim A_E^2$$
, $Q_{p0} \sim A_E$, $I_{Ch} \sim A_E$

with A_E as the effective emitter area which is defined in [20, 21].

2.1.16.2 Base current components

The base current components can be split into a bottom and a periphery contribution. For the BE junction, the bottom component is scaled proportional to the effective emitter area. As a consequence, the periphery component has to be corrected by the amount of current already taken into account by widening the emitter to an effective area in order to keep the total BE base current same.

The base current across the internal base collector junction is scaled with the effective emitter area, while the current across the external BC junction is scaled with the external BC area minus the effective emitter area.

2.1.16.3 Minority charge and transit times

The formulas given in Chapter 2.1.3 for τ_{f0} , $\Delta \tau_{fh}$ and the corresponding charge Q_f were derived from one-dimensional (1D) considerations and can be employed if transistors with a fixed emitter width b_E are used, which is assumed to be much smaller than the emitter length l_E . However, for narrow or short emitter stripes, 2D and 3D effects occur that will result in less physical values for

some of the parameters (such as r_{Ci0}) as well as in different "shapes" of the bias dependence of the transit time. Furthermore, if variable emitter widths and lengths down to the minimum allowed dimensions have to be modelled, the 1D equations would require a different set of model parameters for every size or at least for a certain set of sizes ("binning"). As a consequence, a scalable transit time model is preferred which is given below [21].

A. Low current densities

The transit time at low current densities can be expressed as a function of emitter dimensions through its model parameter

$$\tau_0 = \tau_{f0i} \frac{1 + (\tau_{f0p} / \tau_{f0i}) \gamma_C P_{E0} / A_{E0}}{1 + \gamma_C P_{E0} / A_{E0}} = \frac{\tau_{f0i}}{f_{Oi}}$$
(2.1.16-1)

with P_{E0} and A_{E0} , respectively, as emitter window perimeter-length and area, respectively. The transit time τ_{f0i} of the bottom transistor as well as the ratio of the transit time of the peripheral transistor to that of the bottom transistor, τ_{f0p}/τ_{f0i} , are TRADICA input parameters.

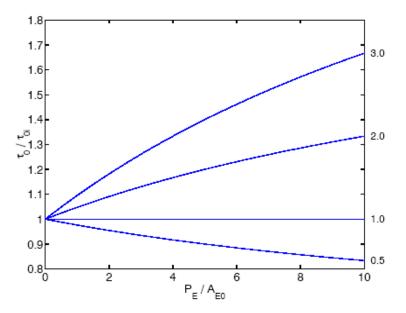


Fig. 2.1.16/1: Normalized low-current transit time as a function of emitter geometry for various ratios of τ_{f0p}/τ_{f0i} . Model parameter used: $\gamma_C = 0.05 \mu m$.

B. Critical current (density)

Collector current spreading leads to a lower effective current density and, as a result, a larger critical current density than the one scaled by the emitter area only. This can be described by

$$I_{CK} = I_{CK, 1D} f_{cs} (2.1.16-2)$$

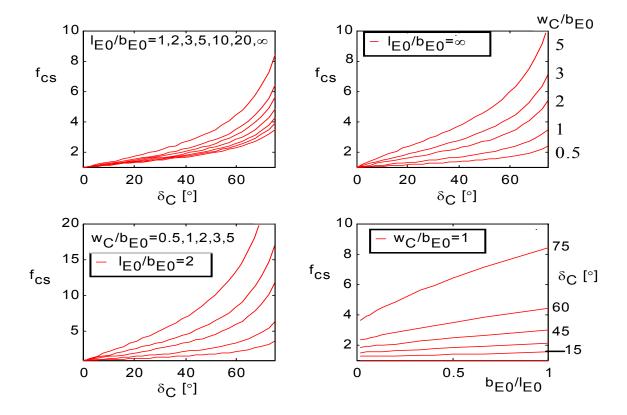
with the collector current spreading factor

$$f_{cs} = \begin{cases} \frac{\zeta_b - \zeta_l}{\ln[(1 + \zeta_b)/(1 + \zeta_l)]} &, \quad l_{E0} > b_{E0} & (\zeta_b > \zeta_l) \\ 1 + \zeta_b &, \quad l_{E0} = b_{E0} & (\zeta_l = \zeta_b) \end{cases}$$
(2.1.16-3)

which becomes larger than 1 if current spreading occurs. The model parameters that also determine the bias dependent lateral scaling (see below) are

$$\zeta_b = 2\frac{w_C}{b_E} \tan \delta_C$$
 and $\zeta_l = 2\frac{w_C}{l_E} \tan \delta_C$. (2.1.16-4)

They depend on the collector current spreading angle δ_C which is a TRADICA parameter. The corresponding HICUM model parameters names are LATB (= ζ_b) and LATL (= ζ_l). Since the factor f_{cs} can be incorporated into the model parameter r_{Ci0} (cf. eq. (2.1.3-9)), it does not appear as additional parameter for HICUM. Fig. 2.1.16/2 shows the factor f_{cs} as a function of various parameters.



<u>Fig. 2.1.16/2:</u> Collector current spreading factor vs current spreading angle and ratio of emitter width to length, respectively, for a variety of parameters; upper left: emitter aspect ratio variation; upper right: variation of epi to emitter width for a long stripe transistor; lower left: same a before, but for a short transistor; lower right: variation of angle (in degrees).

The analytical formulation for 3D collector current spreading consists of a bias dependent portion, that has been available in version 2.1 code, and a bias independent portion that can be obtained from pre-processing the internal collector resistance in I_{CK} (e.g. using TRADICA). If the collector current spreading effect in version 2.1 is turned on by setting either one of the parameters LATB and LATL to a value greater than zero, the corresponding bias dependent equations in some cases seem to have added significant computational effort to the overall model execution time. Therefore, an alternative is proposed below, that reduces the computational effort while maintaining sufficient accuracy in the bias region of interest. The principle of the proposed solution is based on a shift of data processing from within the simulator to a preprocessing and corresponding model parameter modifications.

During the preprocessing, the complete set of 3D collector current spreading equations used so far (if LATB > 0 and/or LATL > 0) is exercised only at $I_{Tf} = I_{CK}$, resulting in the transit time $\tau_f(I_{CK})$. The latter is supposed to closely match the reference (i.e. measurements), since the transit time model parameters have been extracted from that same reference. In addition, evaluating the corresponding 1D equations with only the current spreading factor included in I_{CK} (i.e. same I_{CK} as in the 3D case), gives the (generally higher) transit time $\tau_{f,1D}(I_{CK})$. From these two time constants, a correction factor can be found,

$$f_{ccs} = \frac{\tau_f(I_{CK}) - \tau_{f0}}{\tau_{f, 1D}(I_{CK}) - \tau_{f0}},$$
(2.1.16-5)

which is then used to multiply the collector transit time of the 1D equations. Fig. 2.1.16/3 shows a comparison of the various curves for an extreme example with large current spreading angle (i.e. large current spreading) and a large relative contribution of the collector transit time. The corrected curves match the reference extremely well especially the region of the increase below and up to the critical current I_{CK} , and still quite well beyond I_{CK} . As a consequence, the computationally more expensive 3D current spreading calculations can be replaced in most cases, and especially for SiGe HBTs, by exercising the simpler 1D equations, in which the 3D I_{CK} values are still being used and a model parameter τ_{hcs} has been modified. The corresponding correction factor can be easily included in the modified saturation transit time:

$$\tau_{hcs} = f_{ccs}\tau_{pCs} + \tau_{Bfvs} = f_{ccs}\frac{w_C^2}{4\mu_{nC0}V_T} + \frac{w_{Bm}w_C}{2G_{\zeta_i}\mu_{nC0}V_T}.$$
 (2.1.16-6)

In practice, the original model parameter τ_{hes} will be extracted from measurements together with the partitioning factor

$$f_{thc} = \frac{\tau_{pCs}}{\tau_{hcs, r}} \,. \tag{2.1.16-7}$$

Thus, during preprocessing for model card generation the modified extracted time constant

$$\tau_{hcs} = (1 - f_{thc})\tau_{hcs,x} + f_{ccs}\tau_{pCs} = [(1 - f_{thc}) + f_{ccs}f_{thc}]\tau_{hcs,x}$$
(2.1.16-8)

is calculated and used as model parameter.

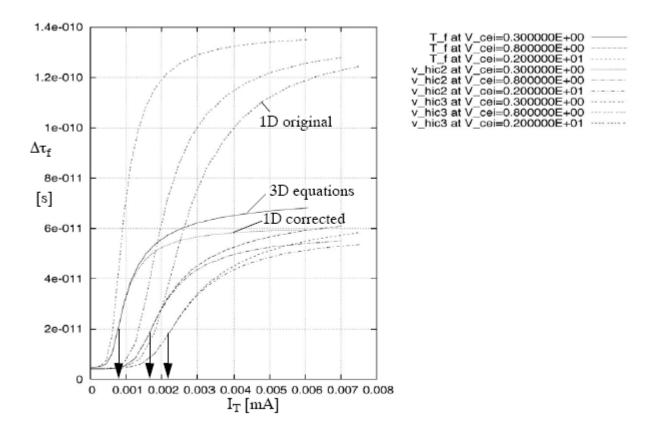


Fig. 2.1.16/3: Transit time vs. transfer current (1D test transistor) for different internal CE voltages: 3D collector current spreading equations with LATB=5.55 and LATL=0.55 ("T_f"); 1D equations with $I_{CK}(f_{cs})$ and correction factor ("v_hic2"); the emitter transit time was turned of in this example.

C. High current densities

If the transistor enters the high-current region, minority charge is stored in the collector within the injection zone w_i which is strongly bias dependent. This width also depends on the collector current spreading angle and can be calculated in normalized from as

$$\frac{w_{i}}{w_{C}} = \begin{cases}
\frac{\kappa - 1}{\zeta_{l} - \kappa \zeta_{b}}, & l_{E0} > b_{E0} \\
\frac{1}{\zeta_{b}} \left[\frac{1 + \zeta_{b}}{1 + i_{ck} \zeta_{b}} - 1 \right], & l_{E0} = b_{E0}
\end{cases}$$
(2.1.16-9)

with

$$\kappa = \frac{1 + \zeta_l}{1 + \zeta_b} \exp\left[i_{ck} \ln\left(\frac{1 + \zeta_b}{1 + \zeta_l}\right)\right] = \left(\frac{1 + \zeta_b}{1 + \zeta_l}\right)^{i_{ck} - 1}$$
(2.1.16-10)

and the normalized current

$$i_{ck} = 1 - \frac{i + \sqrt{i^2 + a_{hc}}}{1 + \sqrt{1 + a_{hc}}}$$
 with $i = 1 - \frac{I_{CK}}{I_{Tf}}$ (2.1.16-11)

Fig. 2.1.16/4 shows the normalized injection width as a function of normalized (forward) collector current with the current spreading angle δ_C as a parameter. δ_C =0 corresponds to the 1D case; with increasing spreading angle, the current density in the collector is reduced and, therefore, the extension of the injection width decreases relative to the 1D case. Compared to long transistors (Fig. (a)), which correspond to the 2D case with $l_E >> b_E$, the impact of current spreading is smaller than for a square-emitter transistor (Fig. (b)), since in the latter current spreading in all four lateral directions becomes significant.

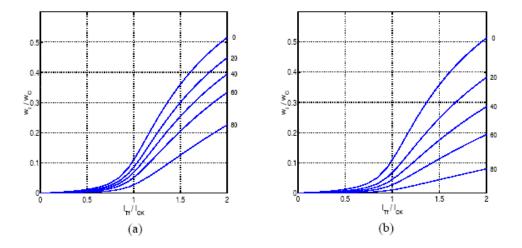


Fig. 2.1.16/4: Normalized injection width as a function of normalized (forward) collector current for various current spreading angles δ_C : (a) long emitter $l_E >> b_E$; (b) square-emitter $l_E = b_E$. Parameters: $w_C/b_E = 1$, $a_{hc} = 0.05$, $w_C/l_E = 0.01$ for (a) and $w_C/l_E = 1$ for (b).

Also, the equations for τ_{fC} and Q_{fC} have to be extended in order to be able to describe the bias dependence of the occurring 2D and 3D current spreading effects [21]:

$$Q_{Cf} = \tau_{pCS} I_{Tf} \begin{cases} 2 \frac{f_{Ci} \ln\left(\frac{1+\zeta_b w}{1+\zeta_l w}\right) - f_{Cb} + f_{Cl}}{\zeta_b - \zeta_l} &, l_{E0} > b_{E0} \\ \frac{1+\zeta_b w/3}{1+\zeta_b w} w^2 &, l_{E0} = b_{E0} \end{cases}$$
(2.1.16-12)

with $\tau_{pCS} = f_{\tau hc} \tau_{hcs}$, and the auxiliary (bias dependent) functions

$$f_{Ci} = w + \frac{\zeta_b + \zeta_l}{2} w^2 + \frac{\zeta_b \zeta_l}{3} w^3 , \qquad (2.1.16-13)$$

$$f_{Cb} = \frac{1}{\zeta_b} \left(1 - \frac{\zeta_l}{\zeta_b} \right) \left[\frac{x^2 [2 \ln x - 1] + 1}{4} \right] + \frac{1}{\zeta_b} \frac{\zeta_l}{\zeta_b} \left[\frac{x^3 [3 \ln x - 1] + 1}{9} \right]$$
(2.1.16-14)

with $x = 1 + \zeta_b w$ and

$$f_{Cl} = f_{Cb}(\zeta_b \leftrightarrow \zeta_l) , \qquad (2.1.16-15)$$

i.e. f_{Cl} has the same form as f_{Cb} but with ζ_b and ζ_l interchanged.

In the implementation of these equations, potential divisions by zero, that could occur for $\zeta_b = 0$ or $\zeta_l = 0$ or $\zeta_b = \zeta_l = 0$ (1D case), have been taken into account by appropriate series expansions, which then also include the 1D theory described before. For the 2D/3D case discussed above, the transit time is calculated as:

$$\tau_{Cf} = \frac{dQ_{Cf}}{dI_{Tf}}\Big|_{V_{CE}}$$
(2.1.16-16)

The base charge component at high current densities, ΔQ_{Bf} , is still calculated without current spreading, using the saturation storage time $\tau_{Bfvs} = \tau_{hcs}(1-f_{\tau hc})$ and the analytical expression of the corresponding transit time $\Delta \tau_{Bf}$, while in (2.1.16-12) $\tau_{pCs} = f_{\tau hc} \tau_{hcs}$.

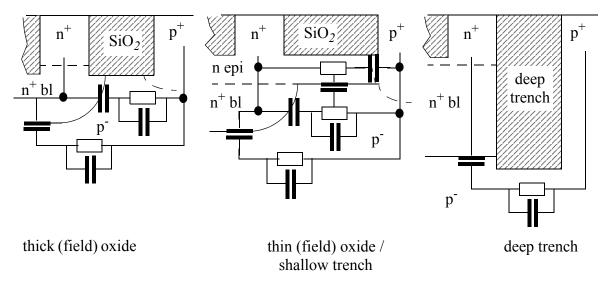
2.1.16.4 Depletion charges and capacitances

Internal capacitances and charges are scaled with the effective emitter area.

Scaling of external capacitances and charges depends on their physical origin:

- The geometry dependent peripheral BE depletion capacitance is calculated from the difference between the total and "effective" internal BE capacitance.
- The various components of the external BC depletion capacitance are calculated from the corresponding capacitance per area or perimeter ("specific" values) times the respective area or perimeter, with the latter one including corner contributions as well.
- The CS capacitance components are calculated from their respective specific values and the buried layer bottom area as well as from the dimensions of the peripheral substrate junction. Fig. 2.1.16/5 shows the various components that contribute to the peripheral CS depletion capacitance of a junction isolated bipolar transistor.

Also, BC and CS capacitance values can be predicted by TRADICA based on collector doping and specific substrate resistance.



<u>Fig. 2.1.16/5:</u> Process variants of the CS junction, including components for modelling the depletion capacitance and intra-device substrate coupling.

2.1.16.5 Series resistances

The series resistances of a bipolar transistor depend strongly on geometry and contact configuration of the respective transistor. The geometry scaling of the internal and external base resistance is described in [3, 7, 9]. The model parameter f_{geo} occurring in the current crowding factor is given by

$$f_{geo} = \frac{1}{g_i g_n} \tag{2.1.16-17}$$

in which the geometry functions

$$g_{\eta} = 18.3 - \left[12.2 \frac{b_E}{l_E} - 19.6 \left(\frac{b_E}{l_E}\right)^2\right]$$
 and $g_i = \frac{1}{12} - \left(\frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{28.6}\right) \frac{b_E}{l_E}$ (2.1.16-18)

depend on the emitter dimensions only and describe a smooth transition from long to short emitter windows. The variable f_{Oi} in (2.1.6-14) is given by (2.1.16-1).

The external series resistances r_E and r_{Cx} can be calculated by TRADICA from specific resistances, sheet resistances and design rules, taking into account various transistor configurations. This method, which allows an independent determination of series resistances, is believed to be more accurate and flexible than ("direct") extraction from measurements since reliable methods for measuring these resistances do not exist. Most measurement methods are either applicable to a particular process, a certain bias range, or a certain transistor operation (d.c. or small-signal), and validity limits are often unknown or difficult to assess.

2.1.16.6 Breakdown

The avalanche effect formulation contains only q_{AVL} as directly area-dependent parameter, besides variables such as transfer current and the internal BC capacitance, scaling of which is already being taken care of.

Under the assumption that in a modern bipolar transistor tunnelling occurs at the emitter periphery junction, the geometry dependence is given by the perimeter P_E of the emitter.

2.1.16.7 Parasitic substrate transistor

Since it is assumed that for most bipolar processes the substrate transistor is determined by its peripheral component, all current related parameters are presently scaled by the CS perimeter length. The CS depletion capacitance was already discussed before. The transit time scales vertically with the distance between the epi-substrate and the BC junction.

2.1.16.8 Self-heating

The most simple scaling of R_{th} and C_{th} with the effective emitter dimensions is as follows,

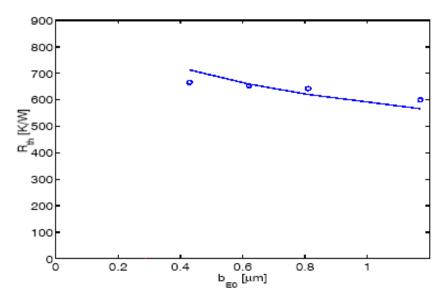
$$R_{th} = r_{th} f_{th}$$
 and $C_{th} = c_{th} / f_{th}$, (2.1.16-19)

with the geometry function [12]

$$f_{th} = \frac{\ln(4l_E/b_E)}{l_E} \ . \tag{2.1.16-20}$$

 r_{th} and c_{th} are TRADICA parameters, that are defined for a *reference* structure with $b_{E,ref}$ and $l_{E,ref}$. This scaling rule is certainly a rough approximation and has to be verified for a given process.

Fig. 2.1.16/6 shows the dependence of the thermal resistance on emitter width for constant emitter length. The variation is quite small and could also be described by a simple linear function. More measurement results are needed to establish a reliable geometry scaling rule for the thermal elements.



<u>Fig. 2.1.16/6:</u> Thermal resistance as a function of emitter width at constant emitter length: comparison between measurements (symbols) and analytical equation (line).