

Volume Change for a Uniaxial Stress

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Stresses acting on a differential volume element

Given an x-directed uniaxial stress, σ_x :

$$\Delta x \rightarrow \Delta x(1 + \epsilon_x)$$

$$\Delta y \rightarrow \Delta y(1 - \nu\epsilon_x)$$

$$\Delta z \rightarrow \Delta z(1 - \nu\epsilon_x)$$

The resulting change in volume ΔV

$$\Delta V = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z (1 + \epsilon_x)(1 - \nu\epsilon_x)^2 - \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

$$= \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z [(1 + \epsilon_x)(1 - \nu\epsilon_x)^2 - 1]$$

Assume small strains $\Rightarrow \Delta V = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z [(1 + \epsilon_x)(1 - 2\nu\epsilon_x) - 1]$ *negl.*
 $[(1 + m\epsilon)^2 \approx 1 + 2m\epsilon] \Rightarrow \approx \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z [1 + \epsilon_x - 2\nu\epsilon_x - 2\nu\epsilon_x^2]$

$\Delta V \approx \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z (1 - 2\nu)\epsilon_x$ For $\nu = 0.5$ (rubber) \rightarrow no $\Delta V!$
 $\nu < 0.5 \rightarrow$ finite ΔV

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Isotropic Elasticity in 3D

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- Isotropic = same in all directions
- The complete stress-strain relations for an isotropic elastic solid in 3D: (i.e., a generalized Hooke's Law)

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + \sigma_z)] \quad \gamma_{xy} = \frac{1}{G} \tau_{xy}$$

$$\epsilon_y = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_z + \sigma_x)] \quad \gamma_{yz} = \frac{1}{G} \tau_{yz}$$

$$\epsilon_z = \frac{1}{E} [\sigma_z - \nu(\sigma_x + \sigma_y)] \quad \gamma_{zx} = \frac{1}{G} \tau_{zx}$$

Basically, add in off-axis strains from normal stresses in other directions

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Important Case: Plane Stress

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- **Common case:** very thin film coating a thin, relatively rigid substrate (e.g., a silicon wafer)

- At regions more than 3 thicknesses from edges, the top surface is stress-free $\rightarrow \sigma_z = 0$
- Get two components of in-plane stress:

$$\epsilon_x = (1/E)[\sigma_x - \nu(\sigma_y + 0)]$$

$$\epsilon_y = (1/E)[\sigma_y - \nu(\sigma_x + 0)]$$

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Important Case: Plane Stress (cont.)

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- Symmetry in the xy-plane $\rightarrow \sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma$
- Thus, the in-plane strain components are: $\epsilon_x = \epsilon_y = \epsilon$ where

$$\epsilon_x = (1/E)[\sigma - \nu\sigma] = \frac{\sigma}{[E/(1-\nu)]} = \frac{\sigma}{E'}$$

and where

$$\text{Biaxial Modulus } \triangleq E' = \frac{E}{1-\nu}$$

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Edge Region of a Tensile ($\sigma > 0$) Film

Net non-zero in-plane force (that we just analyzed)

At free edge, in-plane force must be zero

Film must be bent back, here

There's no Poisson contraction, so the film is slightly thicker, here

Shear stresses

$F \neq 0$

$F = 0$

Extra peel force

Discontinuity of stress at the attached corner → stress concentration

Peel forces that can peel the film off the surface

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Linear Thermal Expansion

- As temperature increases, most solids expand in volume
- Definition:** linear thermal expansion coefficient

$$\text{Linear thermal expansion coefficient} \left. \right\} \triangleq \alpha_T = \frac{d\varepsilon_x}{dT} \quad [\text{Kelvin}^{-1}]$$

Remarks:

- α_T values tend to be in the 10^{-6} to 10^{-7} range
- Can capture the 10^{-6} by using dimensions of $\mu\text{strain/K}$, where $10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1} = 1 \mu\text{strain/K}$
- In 3D, get volume thermal expansion coefficient $\rightarrow \frac{\Delta V}{V} = 3\alpha_T \Delta T$
- For moderate temperature excursions, α_T can be treated as a constant of the material, but in actuality, it is a function of temperature

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α_T As a Function of Temperature

[Madou, Fundamentals of Microfabrication, CRC Press, 1998]

- Cubic symmetry implies that α is independent of direction

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Thin-Film Thermal Stress

- Assume film is deposited stress-free at a temperature T_r , then the whole thing is cooled to room temperature T_r
- Substrate much thicker than thin film \rightarrow substrate dictates the amount of contraction for both it and the thin film

Thermal strain of the substrate: (in one in-plane dimension)

$$\varepsilon_s = -\alpha_{Ts} \Delta T, \text{ where } \Delta T = T_d - T_r$$

If the film were not attached to the substrate: $\varepsilon_{f, \text{free}} = -\alpha_{Tf} \Delta T$ \curvearrowright over

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Linear Thermal Expansion

But the film is attached to the substrate, so the actual strain in the film is the same as that in the substrate.

$$\epsilon_{f, \text{attached}} = -\alpha_{Ts} \Delta T$$

Thus:

$$\text{Thermal Mismatch Strain} = \epsilon_{f, \text{mismatch}} = (\alpha_{Tf} - \alpha_{Ts}) \Delta T$$

Note that this is *biaxial* strain
↳ it can only be developed by an in-plane biaxial stress:

$$\sigma_{f, \text{mismatch}} = \left(\frac{E}{1-\nu} \right) \epsilon_{f, \text{mismatch}}$$

Ex. Thin-film is polyimide → $\alpha_{Tf} = 70 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$, $E = 4.6 \text{ GPa}$
deposited @ 250°C , then cooked to RT = 25°C → $\Delta T = 225 \text{ K}$ e.g., SiO_2

$$\epsilon_{f, \text{mismatch}} = (70 - 2.8) \mu(225) = 1.5 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$\sigma_{f, \text{mismatch}} = (4.6)(1.5 \times 10^{-2}) = 60.5 \text{ MPa}$$

← stress is (+), ∴ tensile
[-1 would be compressive]

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MEMS Material Properties

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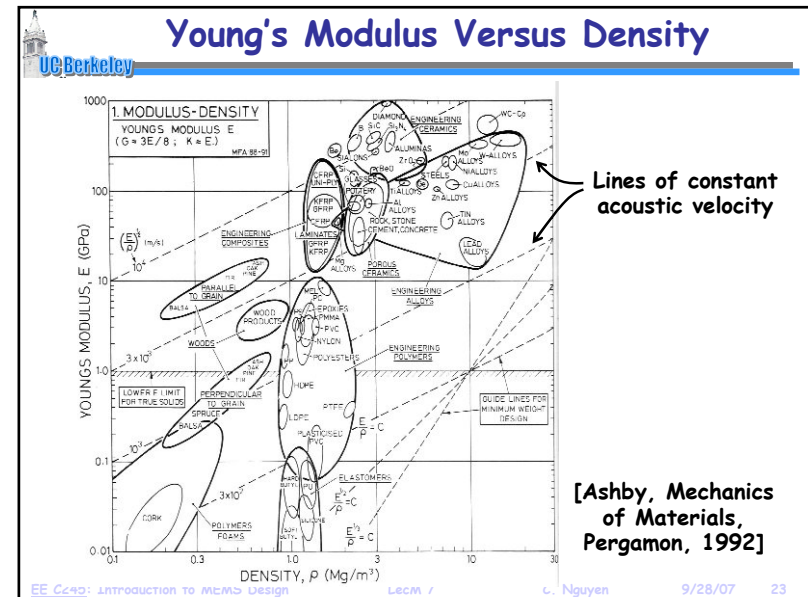
Material Properties for MEMS

Material	Density, ρ , Kg/m ³	Modulus, E, GPa	E/ρ GN/kg-m
Silicon	2330	165	72
Silicon Oxide	2200	73	36
Silicon Nitride	3300	304	92
Nickel	8900	207	23
Aluminum	2710	69	25
Aluminum Oxide	3970	393	99
Silicon Carbide	3300	430	130
Diamond	3510	1035	295

Units: (m/s)²
↓
 $\sqrt{E/\rho}$ is acoustic velocity

[Mark Spearing, MIT]

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Yield Strength

- Definition:** the stress at which a material experiences significant plastic deformation (defined at 0.2% offset pt.)
- Below the yield point:** material deforms elastically → returns to its original shape when the applied stress is removed
- Beyond the yield point:** some fraction of the deformation is permanent and non-reversible

Yield Strength: defined at 0.2% offset pt.

Elastic Limit: stress at which permanent deformation begins

Proportionality Limit: point at which curve goes nonlinear

True Elastic Limit: lowest stress at which dislocations move

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Yield Strength (cont.)

- Below:** typical stress vs. strain curves for brittle (e.g., Si) and ductile (e.g. steel) materials

Tensile Strength

Stress

Strain

Proportional Limit

Fracture

Ductile (Mild Steel)

Brittle (Si)

(Si @ T=30°C)

(or Si @ T>900°C)

[Maluf]

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Young's Modulus and Useful Strength

Stored mechanical energy

Material	Modulus, E, GPa	Useful Strength*, σ_f , MPa	$\frac{\sigma_f}{E}$, (-) x 10 ⁻³	$\frac{\sigma_f^2}{E}$, MJ/m ³
Silicon	165	4000	24	97
Silicon Oxide	73	1000	13	14
Silicon Nitride	304	1000	3	4
Nickel	207	500	2	1.2
Aluminum	69	300	4	1.3
Aluminum Oxide	393	2000	5	10
Silicon Carbide	430	2000	4	9.3
Diamond	1035	1000	1	0.9

From Mark Spearing, MIT, *Future of MEMS Workshop*, Cambridge, England, May 2003

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Young's Modulus Versus Strength

4. MODULUS-STRENGTH

METALS AND POLYMERS: YIELD STRENGTH
CERAMICS AND GLASSES: COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH
ELASTOMERS: TEAR STRENGTH
COMPOSITES: TENSILE STRENGTH

Lines of constant maximum strain

DESIGN GUIDE LINES

MAX ENERGY STORAGE PER UNIT VOLUME BEFORE YIELDING

MAX ENERGY STORAGE PER UNIT VOLUME BEFORE YIELDING

[Ashby, *Mechanics of Materials*, Pergamon, 1992]

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Quality Factor (or Q)

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Clamped-Clamped Beam μ Resonator

Frequency:
Stiffness Young's Modulus

$$f_o = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k_r}{m_r}} = 1.03 \sqrt{\frac{E h}{\rho L_r^2}}$$

Density

Mass \Rightarrow (e.g., $m_r = 10^{-13}$ kg) \Rightarrow **Smaller mass \Rightarrow higher freq. range and lower series R_x**

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Quality Factor (or Q)

- Measure of the frequency selectivity of a tuned circuit
- Definition:**

$$Q = \frac{\text{Total Energy Per Cycle}}{\text{Energy Lost Per Cycle}} = \frac{f_o}{BW_{3dB}}$$
- Example: series LCR circuit**

$$Q = \frac{\text{Im}(Z)}{\text{Re}(Z)} = \frac{\omega_o L}{R} = \frac{1}{\omega_o C R}$$
- Example: parallel LCR circuit**

$$Q = \frac{\text{Im}(Y)}{\text{Re}(Y)} = \frac{\omega_o C}{G} = \frac{1}{\omega_o L G}$$

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Selective Low-Loss Filters: Need Q

General BPF Implementation: Resonator Tank - Coupler - Resonator Tank - Coupler - Resonator Tank

Typical LC Implementation:

In resonator-based filters: high tank Q \Leftrightarrow low insertion loss

At right: a 0.1% bandwidth, 3-res filter @ 1 GHz (simulated)
 \Rightarrow heavy insertion loss for resonator Q < 10,000

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Oscillator: Need for High Q

- Main Function:** provide a stable output frequency
- Difficulty:** superposed noise degrades frequency stability

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Attaining High Q

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

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Energy Dissipation and Resonator Q

$$\frac{1}{Q} = \frac{1}{Q_{\text{defects}}} + \frac{1}{Q_{\text{TED}}} + \frac{1}{Q_{\text{viscous}}} + \frac{1}{Q_{\text{support}}}$$

At high frequency, this is our big problem!

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Thermoelastic Damping (TED)

- Occurs when heat moves from compressed parts to tensioned parts \rightarrow heat flux = energy loss

$$\zeta = \Gamma(T)\Omega(f) = \frac{1}{2Q}$$

$$\Gamma(T) = \frac{\alpha^2 TE}{4\rho C_p}$$

$$\Omega(f_o) = 2 \left[\frac{f_{\text{TED}} f}{f_{\text{TED}}^2 + f^2} \right]$$

$$f_{\text{TED}} = \frac{\pi K}{2\rho C_p h^2}$$

ζ = thermoelastic damping factor
 α = thermal expansion coefficient
 T = beam temperature
 E = elastic modulus
 ρ = material density
 C_p = heat capacity at const. pressure
 K = thermal conductivity
 f = beam frequency
 h = beam thickness
 f_{TED} = characteristic TED frequency

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TED Characteristic Frequency

$$f_{TED} = \frac{\pi K}{2\rho C_p h^2}$$

ρ = material density
 C_p = heat capacity at const. pressure
 K = thermal conductivity
 h = beam thickness
 f_{TED} = characteristic TED frequency

• Governed by
 ↳ Resonator dimensions
 ↳ Material properties

Peak where Q is minimized

[from Roszhart, Hilton Head 1990]

Property	Silicon	Quartz	Units
Thermal expansion	2.60	13.70	ppm/°K
Elastic modulus	1.70	0.78	10 ¹² dyne/cm ²
Material density	2.33	2.60	g/cm ³
Heat capacity	0.70	0.75	J/g/°K
Thermal conductivity	1.50	0.10	10 ⁷ dyne/°K/s
Peak damping @ 300°K	1.06	11.34	10 ⁻⁴

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Q vs. Temperature

Quartz Crystal

Mechanism for Q increase with decreasing temperature thought to be linked to less hysteretic motion of material defects ⇒ less energy loss per cycle

Aluminum Vibrating Resonator

Even aluminum achieves exceptional Q's at cryogenic temperatures

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Polysilicon Wine-Glass Disk Resonator

Compound Mode (2,1)

Input Output Anchor Support Beams

Wine Glass Disk Resonator
R = 32 μm

$f_o = 61.37$ MHz
 $Q = 145,780$

Unmatched Transmission [dB]

Frequency [MHz]

Resonator Data

R = 32 μm, h = 3 μm
d = 80 nm, V_p = 3 V

[Y.-W. Lin, Nguyen, JSSC Dec. '04]

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1.51-GHz, Q=11,555 Nanocrystalline Diamond Disk μMechanical Resonator

Polysilicon Stem (Impedance Mismatched to Diamond Disk)

Polysilicon Electrode

CVD Diamond μMechanical Disk Resonator

Ground Plane

• Impedance-mismatched stem for reduced anchor dissipation

• Operated in the 2nd radial-contour mode

• Q ~11,555 (vacuum); Q ~10,100 (air)

• Below: 20 μm diameter disk

Design/Performance:

R=10μm, t=2.2μm, d=800Å, V_p=7V
f_o=1.51 GHz (2nd mode), Q=11,555

Mixed Amplitude [dB]

Frequency [MHz]

$f_o = 1.51$ GHz
 $Q = 11,555$ (vac)
 $Q = 10,100$ (air)

Q = 10,100 (air)

[Wang, Butler, Nguyen MEMS'04]

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Disk Resonator Loss Mechanisms

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MEMS Material Property Test Structures

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Stress Measurement Via Wafer Curvature

- Compressively stressed film → bends a wafer into a convex shape
- Tensile stressed film → bends a wafer into a concave shape
- Can optically measure the deflection of the wafer before and after the film is deposited
- Determine the radius of curvature R , then apply:

$$\sigma = \frac{E'h^2}{6Rt}$$

σ = film stress [Pa]
 $E' = E/(1-\nu)$ = biaxial elastic modulus [Pa]
 h = substrate thickness [m]
 t = film thickness
 R = substrate radius of curvature [m]

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MEMS Stress Test Structure

- Simple Approach:** use a clamped-clamped beam
 - Compressive stress causes buckling
 - Arrays with increasing length are used to determine the critical buckling load, where

$$\sigma_{critical} = -\frac{\pi^2 E h^2}{3 L^2}$$

E = Young's modulus [Pa]
 $I = (1/12)Wh^3$ = moment of inertia
 L, W, h indicated in the figure

- Limitation:** Only compressive stress is measurable

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More Effective Stress Diagnostic

- Single structure measures both compressive and tensile stress
- Expansion or contraction of test beam → deflection of pointer
- Vernier movement indicates type and magnitude of stress

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Q Measurement Using Resonators

Resonator Data
 $R = 32 \mu\text{m}$, $h = 3 \mu\text{m}$
 $d = 80 \text{ nm}$, $V_p = 3 \text{ V}$

[Y.-W. Lin, Nguyen, JSSC Dec. 04]

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Folded-Beam Comb-Driven Resonator

- Issue w/ Wine-Glass Resonator: non-standard fab process
- Solution: use a folded-beam comb-drive resonator

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Comb-Drive Resonator in Action

- Below: fully integrated micromechanical resonator oscillator using a MEMS-last integration approach

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Folded-Beam Comb-Drive Resonator

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- Issue w/ Wine-Glass Resonator: non-standard fab process
- Solution: use a folded-beam comb-drive resonator

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Measurement of Young's Modulus

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- Use micromechanical resonators
- Resonance frequency depends on E
- For a folded-beam resonator:

$$\text{Resonance Frequency} = f_o = \left[\frac{4Eh(W/L)^3}{M_{eq}} \right]^{1/2}$$

h = thickness
 W = width
 L = length
 M_{eq} = Equivalent mass

- Extract E from measured frequency f_o
- Measure f_o for several resonators with varying dimensions
- Use multiple data points to remove uncertainty in some parameters

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