

## 2.1 FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS

Nanoelectronics refer to the use of nanotechnology in electronic components. It covers a diverse set of devices and materials with the common characteristic that they are so small that inter-atomic interactions and quantum mechanical properties need to be studied extensively. Some of these candidates include: hybrid molecular/semiconductor electronics, nanowires, carbon nanotubes/nanowires, or advanced molecular electronics. Recent silicon CMOS technology generations, such as the 22 nm node, are already within this range. They are considered as disruptive technology, very different from traditional transistors.

# CHAPTER 2

## Nanoelectronics

In 1965, Gordon Moore originally observed that silicon transistors were undergoing a continual process of scaling downward, an observation which was later codified as Moore's Law. Since his observation transistor minimum feature sizes have decreased from 10 micrometers to the 28-22 nm range in 2011. The field of nanoelectronics aims to enable the continued realization of this law by using new methods and materials to build electronic devices with feature sizes on the nanoscale. The volume of an object decreases as the third power of its linear dimensions, but the surface area only decreases as its second power. This somewhat subtle and unavoidable principle has huge ramifications. For example, the power of a drill (or any other machine) is proportional to the volume, while the friction of the drill's bearings and gear is proportional to their surface area. For a normal sized drill, the power of the device is enough to handily overcome any friction.

However, scaling its length down by a factor of 1000, for example, decreases its power by 1000 (a factor of a billion) while reducing the friction by only 1000 (a factor of only a million). Proportionally, it has 1000 times less power per unit friction than the original drill. If the original friction-to-power ratio was, say, 1:4, this implies the smaller drill will have 10 times as much friction as power, the drill is useless. For this reason, while super miniature electronic integrated circuits are fully functional, the same technology cannot be used to make working mechanical devices beyond the scales where frictional forces start to exceed the available power. So, even though you may see microphotographs of delicately etched silicon gears, such devices are currently little more than curiosities with limited real world applications, for example, in moving mirrors and shutters [1]. Surface tension increases in much the same way, thus magnifying the tendency for very small objects to stick together. This could possibly make any kind of 'micro factories'

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Nanoelectronics refer to the use of nanotechnology in electronic components. It covers a diverse set of devices and materials, with the common characteristic that they are so small that inter atomic interactions and quantum mechanical properties need to be studied extensively. Some of these candidates include: hybrid molecular/semiconductor electronics, one dimensional nanotubes/nanowires, or advanced molecular electronics. Recent, silicon CMOS technology generations, such as the 22 nm node, are already within this regime. Nanoelectronics are sometimes considered as disruptive technology because present candidates are significantly different from traditional transistors.

In 1965, Gordon Moore [25] had observed that silicon transistors were undergoing a continual process of scaling downward, an observation which was later codified as Moore's Law. Since his observation transistor minimum feature sizes have decreased from 10 micrometers to the 28-22 nm range in 2011. The field of nanoelectronics aims to enable the continued realization of this law by using new methods and materials to build electronic devices with feature sizes on the nanoscale. The volume of an object decreases as the third power of its linear dimensions, but the surface area only decreases as its second power. This somewhat subtle and unavoidable principle has huge ramifications. For example, the power of a drill (or any other machine) is proportional to the volume, while the friction of the drill's bearings and gears is proportional to their surface area. For a normal sized drill, the power of the device is enough to handily overcome any friction.

However, scaling its length down by a factor of 1000, for example, decreases its power by 1000<sup>3</sup> (a factor of a billion) while reducing the friction by only 1000<sup>2</sup> (a factor of only a million). Proportionally, it has 1000 times less power per unit friction than the original drill. If the original friction-to-power ratio was, say, 1%, that implies the smaller drill will have 10 times as much friction as power; the drill is useless. For this reason, while super miniature electronic integrated circuits are fully functional, the same technology cannot be used to make working mechanical devices beyond the scales where frictional forces start to exceed the available power. So, even though you may see microphotographs of delicately etched silicon gears, such devices are currently little more than curiosities with limited real world applications, for example, in moving mirrors and shutters [1]. Surface tension increases in much the same way, thus magnifying the tendency for very small objects to stick together. This could possibly make any kind of 'micro factory'

impractical: even if robotic arms and hands could be scaled down, anything they pick up will tend to be impossible to put down. The above being said, molecular evolution has resulted in working cilia, flagella, muscle fibers and rotary motors in aqueous environments, all on the nanoscale. These machines exploit the increased frictional forces found at the micro or nanoscale. Unlike a paddle or a propeller which depends on normal frictional forces (the frictional forces perpendicular to the surface) to achieve propulsion, cilia develop motion from the exaggerated drag or laminar forces (frictional forces parallel to the surface) present at micro and nano dimensions. To build meaningful 'machines' at the nanoscale, the relevant forces need to be considered. We are faced with the development and design of intrinsically pertinent machines rather than the simple reproductions of macroscopic ones. All scaling issues therefore need to be assessed thoroughly when evaluating nanotechnology for practical applications.

## 2.1.1 Memory Storage

Electronic memory designs in the past have largely relied on the formation of transistors. However, research into crossbar switch based electronics; have offered an alternative using reconfigurable interconnections between vertical and horizontal wiring arrays to create ultra-high density memories. Two leaders in this area are Nantero which has developed a carbon nanotube based crossbar memory called Nano-RAM and Hewlett-Packard which has proposed the use of memristor material as a future replacement of Flash memory [26].

An example of such novel devices is based on spintronic. The dependence of the resistance of a material (due to the spin of the electrons) on an external field is called magnetoresistance. This effect can be significantly amplified Giant Magneto Resistance (GMR) for Nano sized objects, for example when two ferromagnetic layers are separated by a nonmagnetic layer, which is several nanometers thick (e.g. Co-Cu-Co). The GMR effect has led to a strong increase in the data storage density of hard disks and made the gigabyte range possible. The so called Tunneling Magneto Resistance (TMR) is very similar to GMR and based on the spin dependent tunneling of electrons through adjacent ferromagnetic layers. Both GMR and TMR effects can be used to create a non-volatile main memory for computers, such as the so-called magnetic random access memory or MRAM.