

source voltages, at which the lateral electric field in the drain end of the channel accelerates the electrons. The electrons arriving at the Si-SiO₂ interface with enough kinetic energy to surmount the surface potential barrier are injected into the oxide. Electrons and holes generated by impact ionization also contribute to the charge injection. Note that the channel hot-electron current and the subsequent damage in the gate oxide are localized near the drain junction (Fig. 3.27).

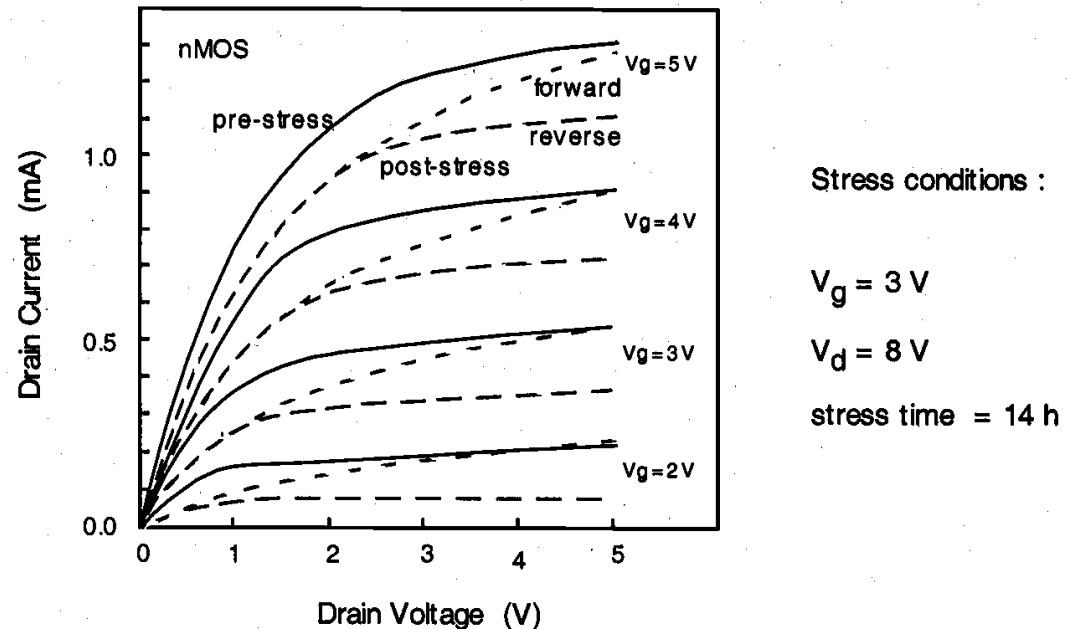


Figure 3.28. Typical drain current vs. drain voltage characteristics of an n-channel MOS transistor before and after hot-carrier induced oxide damage.

The hot-carrier induced damage in nMOS transistors has been found to result in either trapping of carriers on defect sites in the oxide or the creation of interface states at the silicon-oxide interface, or both. The damage caused by hot-carrier injection affects the transistor characteristics by causing a degradation in transconductance, a shift in the threshold voltage, and a general decrease in the drain current capability (Fig. 3.28). This performance degradation in the devices leads to the degradation of circuit performance over time. Hence, new MOSFET technologies based on smaller device dimensions must carefully account for the hot-carrier effects and also ensure reliable long-term operation of the devices.

Other reliability concerns for small-geometry devices include interconnect damage through electromigration, electrostatic discharge (ESD) and electrical over-stress (EOS).

3.6. MOSFET Capacitances

The majority of the topics covered in this chapter has been related to the steady-state behavior of the MOS transistor. The current-voltage characteristics investigated here can be applied for investigating the DC response of MOS circuits under various operating conditions. In order to examine the transient (AC) response of MOSFETs and digital

circuits consisting of MOSFETs, on the other hand, we have to determine the nature and the amount of parasitic capacitances associated with the MOS transistor.

The on-chip capacitances found in MOS circuits are in general complicated functions of the layout geometries and the manufacturing processes. Most of these capacitances are not lumped, but *distributed*, and their exact calculations would usually require complex, three-dimensional nonlinear charge-voltage models. In the following, we will develop simple approximations for the on-chip MOSFET capacitances that can be used in most hand calculations. These capacitance models are sufficiently accurate to represent the crucial characteristics of MOSFET charge-voltage behavior, and the equations are all based on fundamental semiconductor device theory, which should be familiar to most readers. We will also stress the distinction between the device-related capacitances and the interconnect capacitances. The capacitive contribution of metal interconnections between various devices is a very important component of the total parasitic capacitance observed in digital circuits. The estimation of this interconnect capacitance will be handled in Chapter 6.

Figure 3.29 shows the cross-sectional view and the top view (mask view) of a typical n-channel MOSFET. Until now, we concentrated on the cross-sectional view of the device, since we were primarily concerned with the flow of carriers within the MOSFET. As we study the parasitic device capacitances, we will have to become more familiar with the top view of the MOSFET. In this figure, the *mask length* (drawn length) of the gate is indicated by L_M , and the actual channel length is indicated by L . The extent of both the gate-source and the gate-drain overlap are L_D ; thus, the channel length is given by

$$L = L_M - 2 \cdot L_D \quad (3.93)$$

Note that the source and drain overlap region lengths are usually equal to each other because of the symmetry of the MOSFET structure. Typically, L_D is on the order of 0.1 μm . Both the source and the drain diffusion regions have a width of W . The typical diffusion region length is denoted by Y . Note that both the source diffusion region and the drain diffusion region are surrounded by a p^+ doped region, also called the channel-stop implant. As the name indicates, the purpose of this additional p^+ region is to prevent the formation of any unwanted (parasitic) channels between two neighboring n^+ diffusion regions, i.e., to ensure that the surface between two such regions cannot be inverted. Hence, the p^+ channel-stop implants act to electrically isolate neighboring devices built on the same substrate.

We will identify the parasitic capacitances associated with this typical MOSFET structure as lumped equivalent capacitances *observed* between the device terminals (Fig. 3.30), since such a lumped representation can be easily used to analyze the dynamic transient behavior of the device. The reader must always be reminded, however, that in reality most parasitic device capacitances are due to three-dimensional, distributed charge-voltage relations within the device structure. Based on their physical origins, the parasitic device capacitances can be classified into two major groups: *oxide-related capacitances* and *junction capacitances*. First, the oxide-related capacitances will be considered.

MOS Transistor

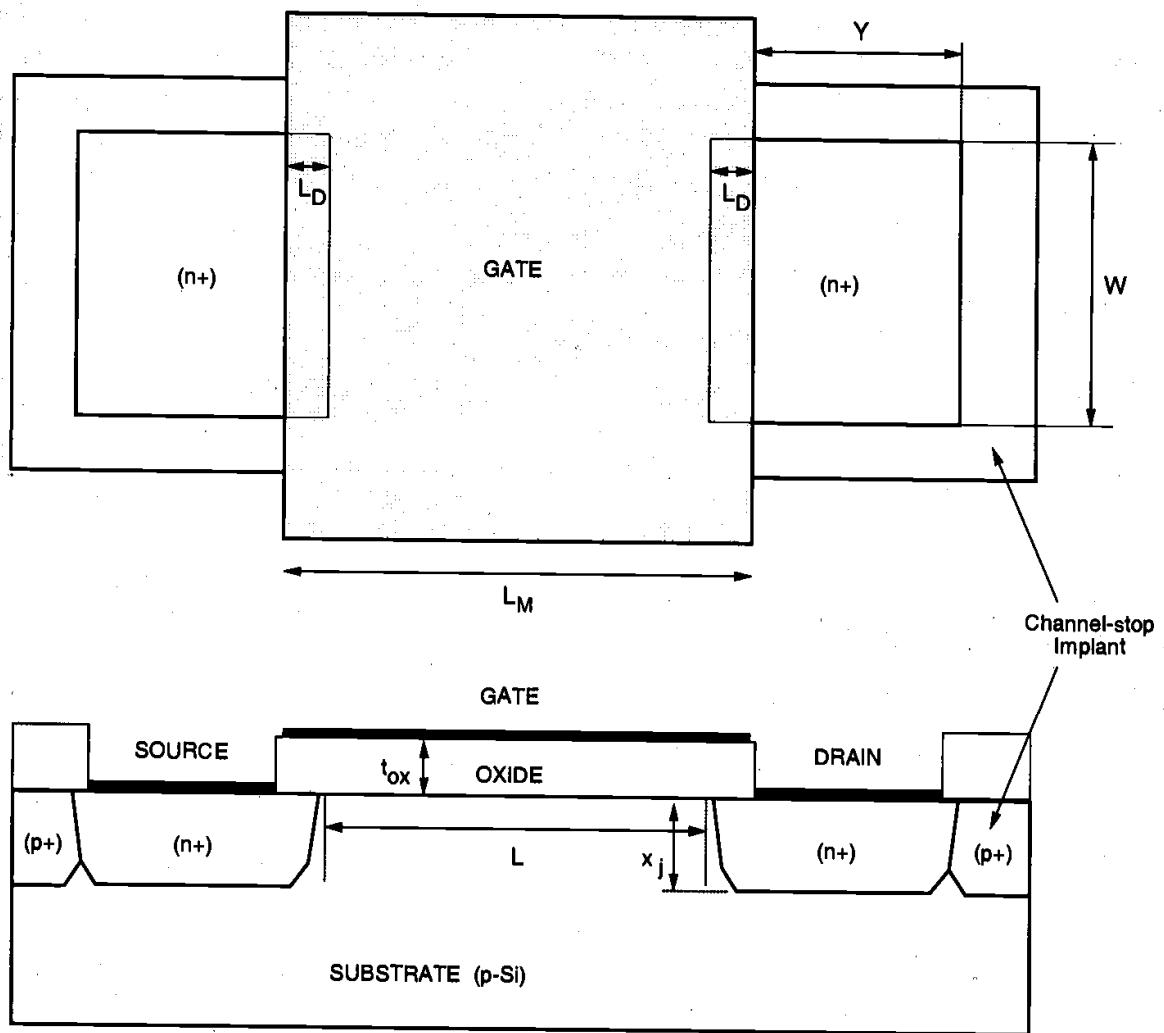


Figure 3.29. Cross-sectional view and top view (mask view) of a typical n-channel MOSFET.

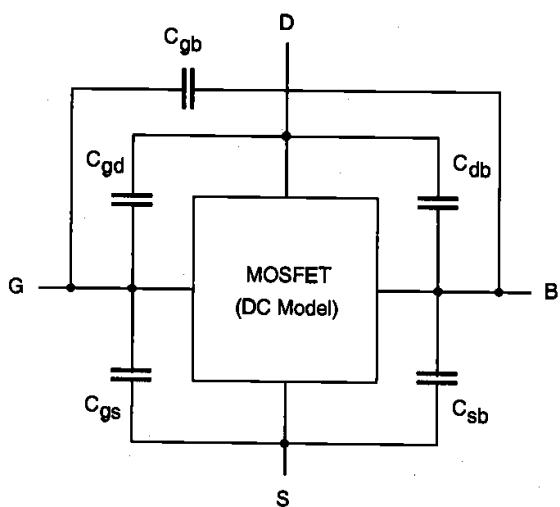


Figure 3.30. Lumped representation of the parasitic MOSFET capacitances.

It was shown earlier that the gate electrode overlaps both the source region and the drain region at the edges. The two overlap capacitances that arise as a result of this structural arrangement are called $C_{GD}(\text{overlap})$ and $C_{GS}(\text{overlap})$, respectively. Assuming that both the source and the drain diffusion regions have the same width W , the overlap capacitances can be found as

$$\begin{aligned} C_{GS}(\text{overlap}) &= C_{ox} \cdot W \cdot L_D \\ C_{GD}(\text{overlap}) &= C_{ox} \cdot W \cdot L_D \end{aligned} \quad (3.94)$$

with

$$C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox}} \quad (3.95)$$

Note that both of these overlap capacitances do not depend on the bias conditions, i.e., they are voltage-independent.

Now consider the capacitances which result from the interaction between the gate voltage and the channel charge. Since the channel region is connected to the source, the drain, and the substrate, we can identify three capacitances between the gate and these regions, i.e., C_{gs} , C_{gd} , and C_{gb} , respectively. Notice that in reality, the gate-to-channel capacitance is distributed and voltage-dependent. Then, the gate-to-source capacitance C_{gs} is actually the gate-to-channel capacitance *seen* between the gate and the source terminals; the gate-to-drain capacitance C_{gd} is actually the gate-to-channel capacitance *seen* between the gate and the drain terminals. A simplified view of their bias-dependence can be obtained by observing the conditions in the channel region during cut-off, linear, and saturation modes.

In cut-off mode (Fig. 3.31(a)), the surface is not inverted. Consequently, there is no conducting channel that links the surface to the source and to the drain. Therefore, the gate-to-source and the gate-to-drain capacitances are both equal to zero: $C_{gs} = C_{gd} = 0$. The gate-to-substrate capacitance can be approximated by

$$C_{gb} = C_{ox} \cdot W \cdot L \quad (3.96)$$

In linear-mode operation, the inverted channel extends across the MOSFET, between the source and the drain (Fig. 3.31(b)). This conducting inversion layer on the surface effectively shields the substrate from the gate electric field; thus, $C_{gb} = 0$. In this case, the distributed gate-to-channel capacitance may be viewed as being shared equally between the source and the drain, yielding

$$C_{gs} \equiv C_{gd} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \cdot C_{ox} \cdot W \cdot L \quad (3.97)$$

When the MOSFET is operating in saturation mode, the inversion layer on the surface does not extend to the drain, but it is pinched off (Fig. 3.31(c)). The gate-to-drain

capacitance component is therefore equal to zero ($C_{gd} = 0$). Since the source is still linked to the conducting channel, its shielding effect also forces the gate-to-substrate capacitance to be zero, $C_{gb} = 0$. Finally, the distributed gate-to-channel capacitance as seen between the gate and the source can be approximated by

$$C_{gs} \approx \frac{2}{3} \cdot C_{ox} \cdot W \cdot L \quad (3.98)$$

Table 3.6 lists a summary of the approximate oxide capacitance values in three different operating modes of the MOSFET. The variation of the distributed parasitic oxide capacitances as functions of the gate-to-source voltage V_{GS} is also shown in Fig. 3.32.

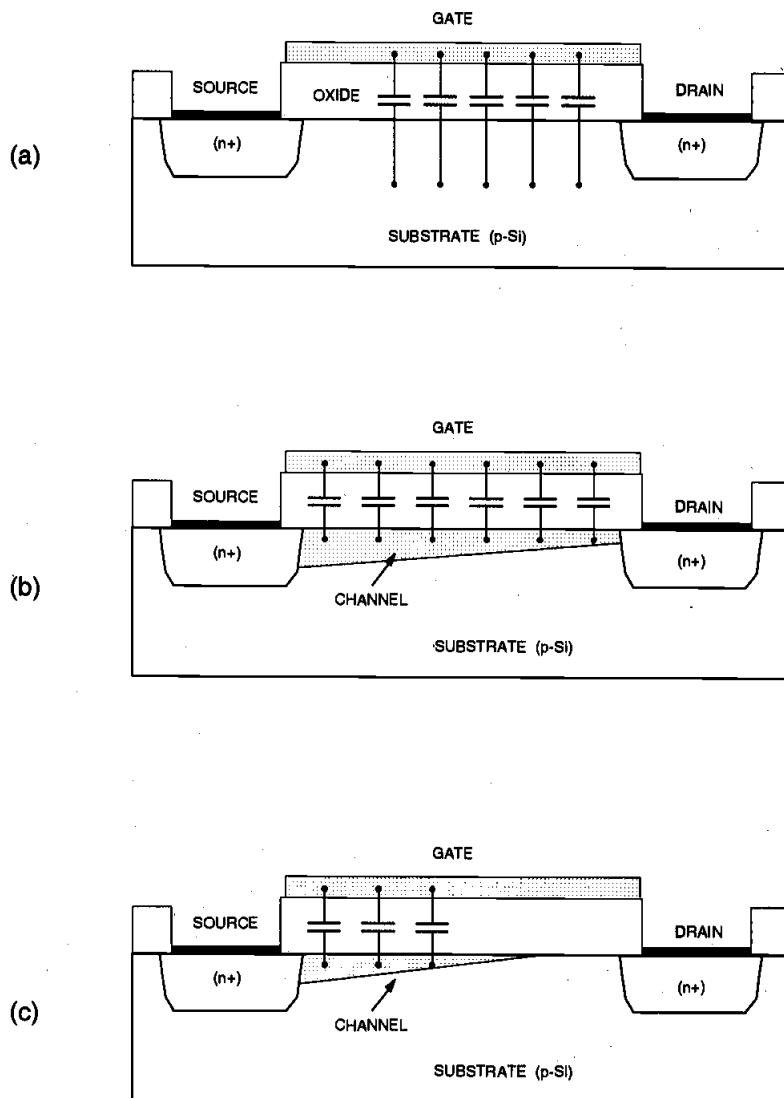


Figure 3.31. Schematic representation of MOSFET oxide capacitances during (a) cut-off, (b) linear, and (c) saturation modes.

Obviously, we have to combine the distributed C_{gs} and C_{gd} values found here with the relevant overlap capacitance values, in order to calculate the total capacitance between the external device terminals. It is also worth mentioning that the sum of all three voltage-dependent (distributed) gate oxide capacitances ($C_{gb} + C_{gs} + C_{gd}$) has a minimum value of $0.66 C_{ox} WL$ (in saturation mode) and a maximum value of $C_{ox} WL$ (in cut-off and linear modes). For simple hand calculations where all three capacitances can be considered to be connected in parallel, a constant worst-case value of $C_{ox} W(L+2L_D)$ can be used for the sum of MOSFET gate oxide capacitances.

Capacitance	Cut-off	Linear	Saturation
C_{gb} (total)	$C_{ox} WL$	0	0
C_{gd} (total)	$C_{ox} WL_D$	$\frac{1}{2} C_{ox} WL + C_{ox} WL_D$	$C_{ox} WL_D$
C_{gs} (total)	$C_{ox} WL_D$	$\frac{1}{2} C_{ox} WL + C_{ox} WL_D$	$\frac{2}{3} C_{ox} WL + C_{ox} WL_D$

Table 3.6. Approximate oxide capacitance values for three operating modes of the MOS transistor.

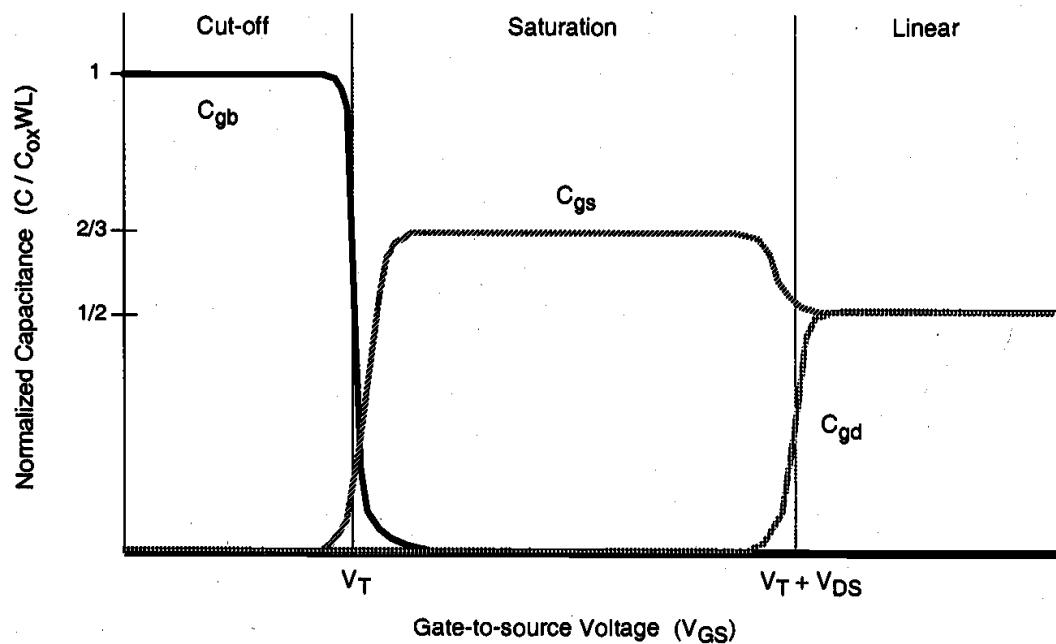


Figure 3.32. Variation of the distributed (gate-to-channel) oxide capacitances as functions of gate-to-source voltage V_{GS} .

Now we consider the voltage-dependent source-substrate and drain-substrate junction capacitances, C_{sb} and C_{db} , respectively. Both of these capacitances are due to the depletion charge surrounding the respective source or drain diffusion regions embedded in the substrate. The calculation of the associated junction capacitances is complicated by the three-dimensional shape of the diffusion regions that form the source-substrate and the drain-substrate junctions. Note that both of these junctions are reverse-biased under normal operating conditions of the MOSFET and that the amount of junction capacitance is a function of the applied terminal voltages. Figure 3.33 shows the simplified, partial geometry of a typical n-channel enhancement MOSFET, focusing on the n-type diffusion region within the p-type substrate. The analysis to be carried out in the following will apply to both n-channel and p-channel MOS transistors.

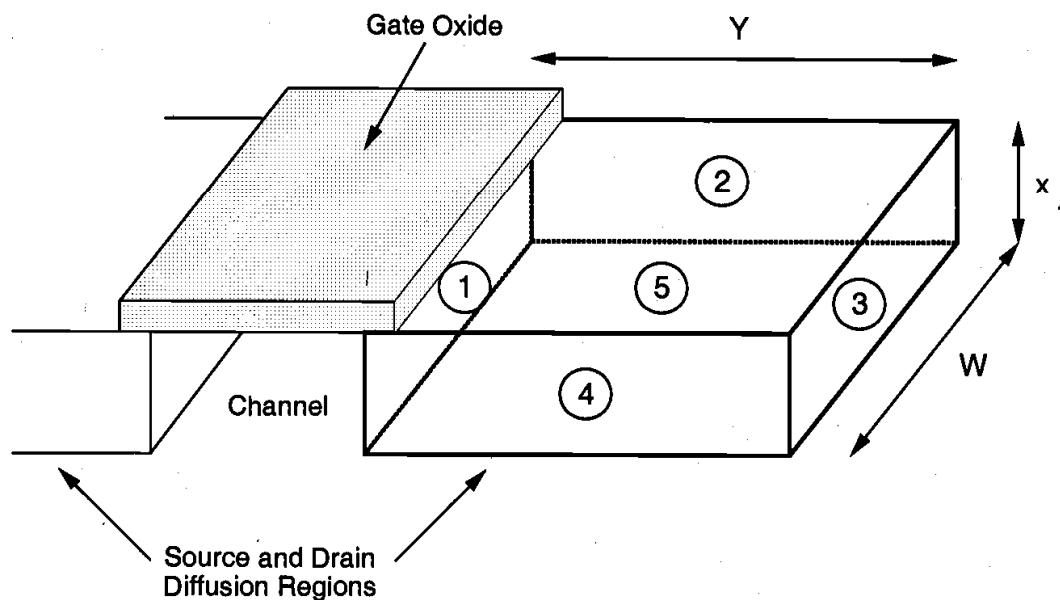


Figure 3.33. Three-dimensional view of the n⁺ diffusion region within the p-type substrate.

As seen in Fig. 3.33, the n⁺ diffusion region forms a number of planar pn-junctions with the surrounding p-type substrate, indicated here with 1 through 5. The dimensions of the rectangular box representing the diffusion region are given as W , Y , and x_j . Abrupt (step) pn-junction profiles will be assumed for all junctions for simplicity. Also, comparing this three-dimensional view with Fig. 3.29, we recognize that three of the five planar junctions shown here (2, 3, and 4) are actually surrounded by the p⁺ channel-stop implant. The junction labeled (1) is facing the channel, and the bottom junction (5) is facing the p-type substrate, which has a doping density of N_A . Since the p⁺ channel-stop implant density is usually about $10N_A$, the junction capacitances associated with these sidewalls will be different from the other junction capacitances (see Table 3.7). Note that in general, the actual shape of the diffusion regions as well as the doping profiles are much

more complicated. However, this simplified analysis provides sufficient insight for the first-order estimation of junction-related capacitances.

Junction	Area	Type
1	$W \cdot x_j$	n ⁺ /p
2	$Y \cdot x_j$	n ⁺ /p ⁺
3	$W \cdot x_j$	n ⁺ /p ⁺
4	$Y \cdot x_j$	n ⁺ /p ⁺
5	$W \cdot Y$	n ⁺ /p

Table 3.7. Types and areas of the pn-junctions shown in Figure 3.33.

To calculate the depletion capacitance of a reverse-biased abrupt pn-junction, consider first the depletion region thickness, x_d . Assuming that the n-type and p-type doping densities are given by N_D and N_A , respectively, and that the reverse bias voltage is given by V (negative), the depletion region thickness can be found as follows:

$$x_d = \sqrt{\frac{2 \cdot \epsilon_{Si}}{q} \cdot \frac{N_A + N_D}{N_A \cdot N_D} \cdot (\phi_0 - V)} \quad (3.99)$$

where the built-in junction potential is calculated as

$$\phi_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{n_i^2}\right) \quad (3.100)$$

Note that the junction is forward-biased for a *positive* bias voltage V , and reverse-biased for a *negative* bias voltage. The depletion-region charge stored in this area can be written in terms of the depletion region thickness, x_d .

$$Q_j = A \cdot q \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right) \cdot x_d = A \sqrt{2 \cdot \epsilon_{Si} \cdot q \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right) \cdot (\phi_0 - V)} \quad (3.101)$$

Here, A indicates the junction area. The junction capacitance associated with the depletion region is defined as

$$C_j = \left| \frac{dQ_j}{dV} \right| \quad (3.102)$$

By differentiating (3.101) with respect to the bias voltage V , we can now obtain the expression for the junction capacitance as follows.

$$C_j(V) = A \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right)} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\phi_0 - V}} \quad (3.103)$$

This expression can be rewritten in a more general form, to account for the junction grading.

$$C_j(V) = \frac{A \cdot C_{j0}}{\left(1 - \frac{V}{\phi_0} \right)^m} \quad (3.104)$$

The parameter m in (3.104) is called the *grading coefficient*. Its value is equal to 1/2 for an abrupt junction profile, and 1/3 for a linearly graded junction profile. Obviously, for an abrupt pn-junction profile, i.e., for $m = 1/2$, the equations (3.103) and (3.104) become identical. The zero-bias junction capacitance per unit area C_{j0} is defined as

$$C_{j0} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_0}} \quad (3.105)$$

Note that the value of the junction capacitance C_j given by (3.104) ultimately depends on the external bias voltage that is applied across the pn-junction. Since the terminal voltages of a MOSFET will change during dynamic operation, accurate estimation of the junction capacitances under transient conditions is quite complicated; the instantaneous values of all junction capacitances will also change accordingly. The problem of estimating capacitance values under changing bias conditions can be simplified, if we calculate a large-signal average (linear) junction capacitance instead, which, by definition, is independent of the bias potential. This *equivalent large-signal capacitance* can be defined as follows:

$$C_{eq} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta V} = \frac{Q_j(V_2) - Q_j(V_1)}{V_2 - V_1} = \frac{1}{V_2 - V_1} \cdot \int_{V_1}^{V_2} C_j(V) dV \quad (3.106)$$

Here, the reverse bias voltage across the pn-junction is assumed to change from V_1 to V_2 . Hence, the equivalent capacitance C_{eq} is always calculated for a *transition between two known voltage levels*. By substituting (3.104) into (3.106), we obtain

$$C_{eq} = - \frac{A \cdot C_{j0} \cdot \phi_0}{(V_2 - V_1) \cdot (1 - m)} \cdot \left[\left(1 - \frac{V_2}{\phi_0} \right)^{1-m} - \left(1 - \frac{V_1}{\phi_0} \right)^{1-m} \right] \quad (3.107)$$

For the special case of abrupt pn-junctions, equation (3.107) becomes

CHAPTER 3

$$C_{eq} = -\frac{2 \cdot A \cdot C_{j0} \cdot \phi_0}{(V_2 - V_1)} \cdot \left[\sqrt{1 - \frac{V_2}{\phi_0}} - \sqrt{1 - \frac{V_1}{\phi_0}} \right] \quad (3.108)$$

This equation can be rewritten in a simpler form by defining a dimensionless coefficient K_{eq} , as follows:

$$C_{eq} = A \cdot C_{j0} \cdot K_{eq} \quad (3.109)$$

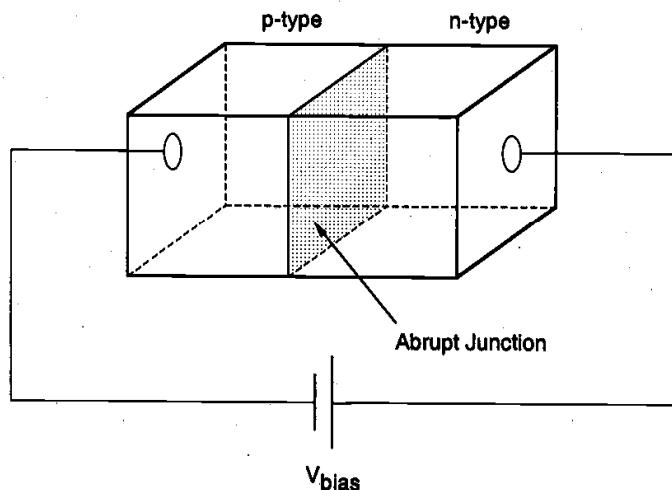
$$K_{eq} = -\frac{2\sqrt{\phi_0}}{V_2 - V_1} \cdot \left(\sqrt{\phi_0 - V_2} - \sqrt{\phi_0 - V_1} \right) \quad (3.110)$$

where K_{eq} is the *voltage equivalence factor* (note that $0 < K_{eq} < 1$). Thus, the coefficient K_{eq} allows us to take into account the voltage-dependent variations of the junction capacitance. The accuracy of the large-signal equivalent junction capacitance C_{eq} found by using (3.109) and (3.110) is usually sufficient for most first-order hand calculations. Practical applications of the capacitance calculation methods discussed here will be illustrated in the following examples.

Example 3.7.

Consider a simple abrupt pn-junction, which is reverse-biased with a voltage V_{bias} . The doping density of the n-type region is $N_D = 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, and the doping density of the p-type region is given as $N_A = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The junction area is $A = 20 \mu\text{m} \times 20 \mu\text{m}$.

First, we will calculate the zero-bias junction capacitance per unit area, C_{j0} , for this structure. The built-in junction potential is found as



$$\phi_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{n_i^2}\right) = 0.026 \text{ V} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{10^{16} \cdot 10^{19}}{2.1 \times 10^{20}}\right) = 0.88 \text{ V}$$

Using (3.105), we can calculate the zero-bias junction capacitance :

$$\begin{aligned} C_{j0} &= \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_0}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{11.7 \cdot 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm} \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{10^{16} \cdot 10^{19}}{10^{16} + 10^{19}} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{0.88 \text{ V}}} \\ &= 3.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Next, find the equivalent large-signal junction capacitance assuming that the reverse bias voltage changes from $V_1 = 0$ to $V_2 = -5$ V. The voltage equivalence factor for this transition can be found as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} K_{eq} &= -\frac{2\sqrt{\phi_0}}{V_2 - V_1} \cdot (\sqrt{\phi_0 - V_2} - \sqrt{\phi_0 - V_1}) \\ &= -\frac{2\sqrt{0.88}}{-5} \cdot (\sqrt{0.88 - (-5)} - \sqrt{0.88}) = 0.56 \end{aligned}$$

Then, the average junction capacitance can be found simply by using (3.109).

$$C_{eq} = A \cdot C_{j0} \cdot K_{eq} = 400 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot 3.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \cdot 0.56 = 69 \text{ fF}$$

It was shown in Fig. 3.29 and Fig. 3.33 that the sidewalls of a typical MOSFET source or drain diffusion region are surrounded by a p⁺ channel-stop implant, with a higher doping density than the substrate doping density N_A . Consequently, the sidewall zero-bias capacitance C_{j0sw} , as well as the sidewall voltage equivalence factor $K_{eq(sw)}$ will be different from those of the bottom junction. Assuming that the sidewall doping density is given by $N_A(sw)$, the zero-bias capacitance per unit area can be found as follows:

$$C_{j0sw} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A(sw) \cdot N_D}{N_A(sw) + N_D} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_{0sw}}} \quad (3.111)$$

where ϕ_{0sw} is the built-in potential of the sidewall junctions. Since all sidewalls in a typical diffusion structure have approximately the same depth of x_j , we can define a zero-bias sidewall junction capacitance per unit length.

$$C_{jsw} = C_{j0sw} \cdot x_j \quad (3.112)$$

The sidewall voltage equivalence factor $K_{eq(sw)}$ for a voltage swing between V_1 and V_2 is defined as follows:

$$K_{eq(sw)} = -\frac{2\sqrt{\phi_{0sw}}}{V_2 - V_1} \cdot \left(\sqrt{\phi_{0sw} - V_2} - \sqrt{\phi_{0sw} - V_1} \right) \quad (3.113)$$

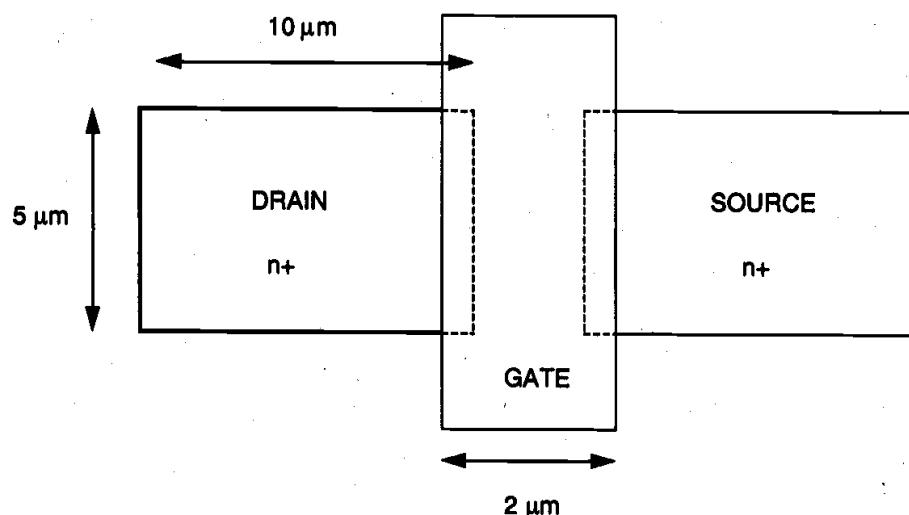
Combining the equations (3.111) through (3.113), the equivalent large-signal junction capacitance $C_{eq(sw)}$ for a sidewall of length (perimeter) P can be calculated as

$$C_{eq(sw)} = P \cdot C_{jsw} \cdot K_{eq(sw)} \quad (3.114)$$

Example 3.8.

Consider the n-channel enhancement-type MOSFET shown below. The process parameters are given as follows:

Substrate doping	$N_A = 2 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
Source / drain doping	$N_D = 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
Sidewall (p+) doping	$N_{A(sw)} = 4 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
Gate oxide thickness	$t_{ox} = 45 \text{ nm}$
Junction depth	$x_j = 1.0 \mu\text{m}$



Note that both the source and the drain diffusion regions are surrounded by p⁺ channel-stop diffusion. The substrate is biased at 0 V. Assuming that the drain voltage is changing from 0.5 V to 5 V, find the average drain-substrate junction capacitance C_{db} .

First, we recognize that three sidewalls of the rectangular drain diffusion structure form n⁺/p⁺ junctions with the p⁺ channel-stop implant, while the bottom area and the sidewall facing the channel form n⁺/p junctions. Start by calculating the built-in potentials for both types of junctions.

$$\phi_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{n_i^2}\right) = 0.026 \text{ V} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{2 \times 10^{15} \cdot 10^{19}}{2.1 \times 10^{20}}\right) = 0.837 \text{ V}$$

$$\phi_{0sw} = \frac{kT}{q} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{N_A(sw) \cdot N_D}{n_i^2}\right) = 0.026 \text{ V} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{4 \times 10^{16} \cdot 10^{19}}{2.1 \times 10^{20}}\right) = 0.915 \text{ V}$$

Next, we calculate the zero-bias junction capacitances per unit area:

$$\begin{aligned} C_{j0} &= \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A \cdot N_D}{N_A + N_D}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_0}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{11.7 \cdot 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm} \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{2 \times 10^{15} \cdot 10^{19}}{2 \times 10^{15} + 10^{19}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{0.837 \text{ V}}} \\ &= 1.41 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_{j0sw} &= \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{Si} \cdot q}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{N_A(sw) \cdot N_D}{N_A(sw) + N_D}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{\phi_{0sw}}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{11.7 \cdot 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm} \cdot 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{4 \times 10^{16} \cdot 10^{19}}{4 \times 10^{16} + 10^{19}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{0.915 \text{ V}}} \\ &= 6.01 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

The zero-bias sidewall junction capacitance per unit length can also be found as follows.

$$C_{jsw} = C_{j0sw} \cdot x_j = 6.01 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} = 6.01 \text{ pF/cm}$$

In order to take the given drain voltage variation into account, we must now calculate the voltage equivalence factors, K_{eq} and $K_{eq}(sw)$, for both types of junctions. This will allow us to find the average large-signal capacitance values.

$$K_{eq} = -\frac{2\sqrt{0.837}}{-5 - (-0.5)} \cdot (\sqrt{0.837 + 5} - \sqrt{0.837 + 0.5}) = 0.51$$

$$K_{eq}(sw) = -\frac{2\sqrt{0.915}}{-5 - (-0.5)} \cdot (\sqrt{0.915 + 5} - \sqrt{0.915 + 0.5}) = 0.53 \equiv K_{eq}$$

The total area of the n⁺/p junctions is calculated as the sum of the bottom area and the sidewall area facing the channel region.

$$A = (10 \times 5) \mu\text{m}^2 + (5 \times 1) \mu\text{m}^2 = 55 \mu\text{m}^2$$

The total length of the n⁺/p⁺ junction perimeter, on the other hand, is equal to the sum of three sides of the drain diffusion area. Thus, the combined equivalent (average) drain-substrate junction capacitance can be found as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle C_{db} \rangle &= A \cdot C_{j0} \cdot K_{eq} + P \cdot C_{jsw} \cdot K_{eq}(sw) \\ &= 55 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \cdot 1.41 \times 10^{-8} \text{ F/cm}^2 \cdot 0.51 \\ &\quad + 25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot 6.01 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/cm} \cdot 0.53 = 11.9 \times 10^{-15} \text{ F} = \underline{\underline{11.9 \text{ fF}}}\end{aligned}$$

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