# A Monolithic Electronic-Photonic Platform in Conventional Silicon Photonics Processes

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Abstract—We present the design methodology to make any active silicon photonics node, a monolithic platform. The approach is based on the usage of the waveguide and complementary dopant to create MOSFETs and digital gates allowing the inclusion of basic on-chip processing and specialized analog circuitry.

Index Terms—Silicon photonics, Monolithic integrated circuit, electronic-photonic co-design, CMOS integrated circuits

## I. INTRODUCTION

State-of-the art silicon monolithic electronic-silicon photonics processes are a monumental advancement in the codesign of electronic and photonics circuits. For high speed applications, sharing the same substrate has its advantages: no interconnection needed reducing the parasitic load, integrated simulation environment and simpler mechanical assembly of the integrated circuit (IC) into more complex systems. Although, at the moment, even the best monolithic processes struggle to compete with recent CMOS nodes in terms of maximum frequency of operation for digital signal processing or the driving power needed for optical modulators. For lower speed applications that do not need these higher speeds or driving power, monolithic nodes seems to be an enticing solution for its ease of use, embedded testing capabilities and easier physical assembly. Nevertheless, since monolithic nodes are usually build upon an existing CMOS node and modified to fit the less strainuous fabrication of the photonics, they tend to exceed the price per area of similar CMOS processes [1].

Integrating CMOS capabilities in a zero-change silicon photonics node, although possible, is relatively new [1], [2]. It grants researchers and industry access to a monolithic node without the high entry price at the price of poorer electrical performances than equivalent CMOS and has no foundry supplied electronic libraries. Nevertheless, it has recently been used in power monitoring and signal multiplexing applications [3], [4].

In this paper, we aim to reduce the gap between commercial monolithic nodes and a enhanced silicon photonics node by showcasing a digital core, proposing improvements on the transistor design and discussing the limitations of the current implementation and tooling.

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#### II. IMPLEMENTATION

A digital core can be used for many thing as it's logic is dictated by behavioral code like Verilog. One proposed application for such a core would be to handle the DC bias setting points of the photonics structure. Instead of having roughly two external pads for each structure, the core propose a fixed number of pads (10). It's 16 bits word can either read (0) or write (1) onto one of the eight structures (3-bits adress) a 12-bits value. The length of the word, the width of the adress and the precision are all fixed by the designer at the behavioral level. The Fig.1.A shows the proposed architecture along with the supporting mixed or analog circuits that can be made of the same transistors. The Fig.1.B shows how the core is built inside, as well as it's inputs and outputs in relation with Fig.1.C where all the connections are routed to pads instead of supportings circuits. The placement and routing of the 5800 transistors of this core were made automatically by the opensource tool OpenROAD [5] with the appropriate technology files and gate drawings, made by the GDSFactory python tool. Fig.1.D shows a close-up of a NMOS transistor, an essential building block of the gates. Compared to the transistors used in analog circuits, digital transistors aim to be the smallest and the fastest they can while having the best transconductance gain. As such, a modeling of it's parameters that affect both the maximum frequency of operation and the gain will be presented in the next section.

## III. FUNDAMENTALS AND PRINCIPLE

The small signal gain  $(g_m)$  and the cut-off frequency  $(F_t)$  of the transistor is both important in digital and analog circuits. A higher small signal gain means that the analog circuitery requires less transistors for the same amplification factor, shrinking the circuits and parasitics. The increase of the small signal gain also increases the current output strength of digital gates, helping in the charge and discharge of capacitive loads, such as gates or PN junctions. The other parameter, the cutoff frequency of the transistor, is a measurment of how fast a single transistor can switch. Improving the cut-off frequency of the transistor opens up the design area for analog and digital circuitry as it represents the upper limit at which a circuit can run in a parasitic-less environment. The saturation region small signal gain is the measurment of how much the drain current  $(I_D)$  changes in relation with the gate-to-source voltage  $(V_{GS})$ in a specific condition of the drain-to-source voltage  $(v_{DS})$ .

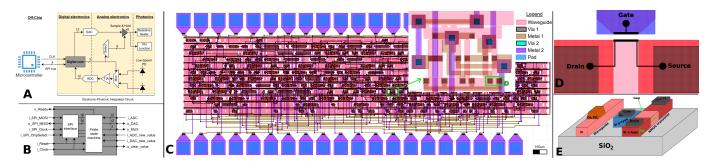


Fig. 1. A. The proposed digital core schematic, B. The digital core in a photonics system, C. Layout of the digital Core, the inlet shows the detail of a singular digital gate, D. A zoomed view of a single NMOS transistor and E. The 3D-view of a NMOS transistor beside a waveguide. The waveguide has a germanium photodetector on top.

$$g_m = \left. \frac{\delta I_D}{\delta V_{GS}} \right|_{v_{DS}} = \mu_x C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_T) (1 + \lambda v_{DS}) \quad (1)$$

In 1,  $\mu_x$  is the mobility of the charges,  $C_{ox}$  is the oxide capacitance per unit area, W and L are the size of the gate,  $V_T$  is the threshold voltage and  $\lambda$  is the channel-length modulation parameter. The length of the transistor is controllable by the distance between two tubs of the same type of doping (Fig.1.D, in red) and the length of the gate while the width is fixed by the waveguide layer height (see the W and L on Fig.1.E). Depending on the foundry, the minimal L distance can vary and is subject to mask alignment precision but should be used for maximum  $g_m$  value. As for maximizing  $C_{ox}$ , reducing the gap between the channel and the gate to the foundry's limit is the way to go, as one cannot easily change the material used between silicon waveguides.

The second metric, the cut-off frequency  $F_T$ , is defined by the small-signal gain over it's gate-source  $(C_{GS})$  and gate-drain capacitance  $(C_{GD})$ .

$$F_t = \frac{g_m}{2\pi(C_{GS} + C_{GD})} = \frac{\mu_x(V_{GS} - V_t)}{2\pi(\frac{2}{3}L^2 + 2L_{ov}L)},$$
 (2)

where  $L_{ov}$  the overlap length between the gate and the source or drain area. Together with the diminution of the L value, one could theoretically increase the maximum frequency of operation up to [Missing Value] the  $g_m$  up to [Missing Value] as shown in Fig. [Missing Figure].

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Advancements towards a fully electronics-photonics monolithic node were demonstrated by improving of the fundamental building block, the MOSFET, permitting the building of a digital electronics library. This library was then used with open-source tooling to produce a digital core with SPI capabilities showing that the implementation of a digital library was successful albeit some restrictions and barriers are still in place. First is a file we were not able to provide to the automated router is the timing library of the gates, which can either be simulated by parasitic extraction simulations or constructed via a measurment campaign. Nevertheless, not having the exact timing of the gate influences the maximum

clock frequency of the circuit, not its logics, as the circuit will still be capable to compute at a lower speed. Second challenge encountered was the routing density. As photonic nodes are not geared toward complex and dense metalic routing (i.e. limited number of metal levels, vias do not stack, wide metals only), the automated router was not finding solution to the maze problem when the density of the circuit was over 70%. Hence, the size of the core is dictated not only by the size of the gates themselves but also the metal routing rules given the foundry.

To continue, the next steps of this endavour are varied. The supporting components in Fig.1.A are yet to be built, in part because they are mixed or analog circuits and they need a reliable simulation environment supported by measurment of an array of sizes of L and gap values. Once done, the timing library should be generated and given to the automated router in order to complete a monolithic electronic-photonic platform in a conventionnal silicon photonic process.

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