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# An Integrated Circuit Design for Silicon-Nanowire

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# Abstract



# 中 文 摘 要

關鍵詞：



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Abstract

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Motivation

Poly-silicon nanowire(SiNW) is an interesting and promising one-dimensional nano-structures. Many research of fabrication and electrical properties have been conducted [4]. It was first introduced to the biosensor field in 2001[3] and has become a promising candidate for various features such as high surface-to-volume ratio, ultra sensitivity, label-free electrical detection and real-time measurement.

Although there has been some great advances on nanowire structure design [6], the work of systems-level engineering is still insufficient. Systems designed for specific purpose can help the device to meet practical needs such as noise reduction, real-time measuring and conversion to digital output. Moreover, there are still several challenges that may be overcome through a better signal acquisition system [6].

One of the challenges is that the mass production of robust nanowire is still improbable. Element disparity may be a main reason among others. This problem also happens to the measurement of our own nanowire (Fig. 3.5). The nanowire we use is made by Professor Yang's team (National Chiao Tung University). And according to them, the nanowire use thick gate dielectric and have non-regular cross-sectional shape, which result in uncertainties of fabrication [8].



## 1.2 Introduction

In this project, we design a nanowire readout circuit with two modes that perform large signal (DC) and small signal (AC) measurement. The DC mode do DC sweep. It bias nanowire under a drain current ( $I_d$ ) and finds corresponding gate-to-source voltage ( $V_{gs}$ ). The AC mode detects and amplifies the current variance of nanowire. We also combines these two function to try a method for solving the disparity problem.

### Method for solving the disparity problem

It base on two assumptions.

1. The nanowire transconductance is proportional to the drain-to-source current ( $I_d$ ).
2. The changing of the concentration of targeted biomolecule can be viewed as a voltage signal input to the gate end of a transistor.

The first assumption implies one can control the nanowire transconductance by the biasing  $I_d$ . The second assumption means that as long as different nanowire elements have a same transconductance, the output current induced by a concentration difference should be same. We testify these assumption in chapter 3.

We implement the method through our read-out circuit with large signal mode (LS) and small signal mode (SS). In the beginning of each measurement event, we applied the LS mode to initialized the drain current and gate voltage of nanowire. This is to standardize the transconductance of every nanowire. With nanowire biased under these  $I_d$  and  $V_{gs}$ , the circuit turn to the SS.

Some minutiae is reviewed in chapter 5. Currently the operation in the first mode is fully manual. In the future work this needs to be modified and may requires digital circuit assistance.

## 1.3 Design Flow and Chapter Layout

There are six chapters in this thesis, which are sorted according to the design flow.

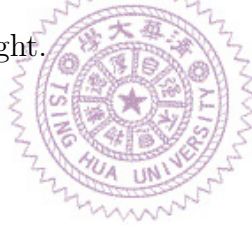
Chapter 2 are divided into two part. The first part is the literature review. ... The other is the analysis of measurement data from Yang's team. Most of those are the drain current of nanowire sweeping along the gate voltage ( $I_d$ - $V_g$  curves). We present some of the raw data and the analysis results in this part.

Chapter 3 gives a brief description of nanowire structure. It is then followed by our own nanowire measurement based on the information in the previous chapter. The measurement includes:

1. Comparison between front gate and back gate
2. Nanowire transconductance
3. Nanowire drain-to-source resistance ( $R_{NW}$ )

Chapter 4 is an “accessory”. We construct an discrete circuit which was designed for ion-sensitive field-effect transistor (ISFET) [10]. The purpose of this process is to practice the constant current method. The outcomes are deficient and it is its reference value which we spotlight.

Chapter 5



None

Figure 1.1: Design Flow

## 1.4 Contribution to Knowledge

Our

# Chapter 2

## Literature Review &

As previously mentioned in the introduction section, the read-out circuit we proposed has two operation mode (DC and AC). The DC mode is for drain current biasing while the AC mode is for current variance measurement. Each of them references different sources.

### 2.1 DC Sweep and Source Follower

In this section, we review the knowledge and an article that is related to our design of large signal mode (DC).

#### 2.1.1 Id-Vg Sweep

A common method for examining nanowire electrical properties is to perform DC sweep. In [5], two typical dc sweep experiments of nanowire at room temperature are given:  $I_d$ - $V_d$  and  $I_d$ - $V_g$ . From the direct observation of the experiment results, nanowire seems to be more “sensitive” to  $V-g$  than  $V_d$  because changing  $V_g$  induces more  $I_d$  variance than changing  $V_d$ . This corresponds to a general knowledge that in most of time, the transconductance ( $g_m = \frac{\partial I_d}{\partial V_g}$ ) of a transistor is larger than its drain conductance ( $g_d = \frac{\partial I_d}{\partial V_d}$ ). By the MOSFET model of weak and strong

inversion, we have the  $I_d$ - $V_g$  equation:

$$\text{strong inversion: } I_d = \mu C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} ((V_{gs} - V_t)V_{ds} - \frac{V_{ds}^2}{2}) \quad (2.1)$$

$$\text{weak inversion: } I_d = I_0 e^{\kappa V_{gs}/\phi_t} (1 - e^{-V_{ds}/\phi_t}) \quad (2.2)$$

We can derive the equation for  $g_m$  and  $g_d$ :

### 2.1.2 Source Follower

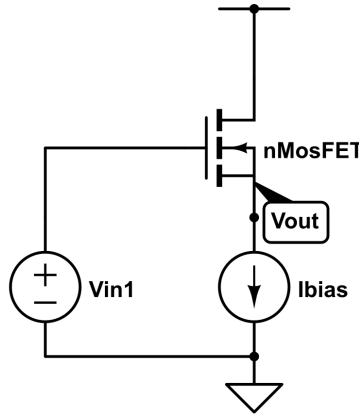


Figure 2.1: Source Follower

As one of the basic single stage amplifier, source follower (common drain) are employed to transfer voltage signal from gate to source while keeping drain current constant. The transfer function can be derived as:

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{r_{ds}g_m}{1 + r_{ds}g_m} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\approx 1 \quad \text{for } r_{ds}g_m \gg 1 \quad (2.4)$$

$g_m$  is the transconductance ( $\frac{\partial I_d}{\partial V_{gs}}$ ) and  $r_{ds}$  is the drain-to-source resistance. Although we haven't seen it is applied to nanowire, there have been several applications in the read-out circuits of ISFET (Ion-sensitive Field-effect Transistor)[10, 12] for a long time.

In [10], ISFET is applied as a biological transducer that convert detected bio-signal into it's input signal on the gate-end, which is resemble to our biosensor of nanowire. An read-out circuit of source follower is served as the analog front-end.

The bio-signal induced voltage difference at the ISFET gate-end are converted to the source-end. There is no need for an extra current-to-voltage converter which may import more signal fluctuation such as shot noise or flicker noise. But on the other hand, the circuit requires a biasing current source. This current source may have to be stable, noiseless or wide-range on demand. And since the current value are usually under micro-scale even nano-scale, it is impractical to merely use external current source. The article use two resistors and an op-amp to design a current scale down circuit. Bias current decreases in proportional to the resistance ratio (N) of one resistor to another. Moreover, by keeping  $V_{ds}$  at a constant value (0.5v), the circuit also removes the channel affect which is a factor that may effect linearity of the results. It is showed in the schematic below that two op-amp based unit gain buffer are added to force the voltage at drain-end follows the source-end.

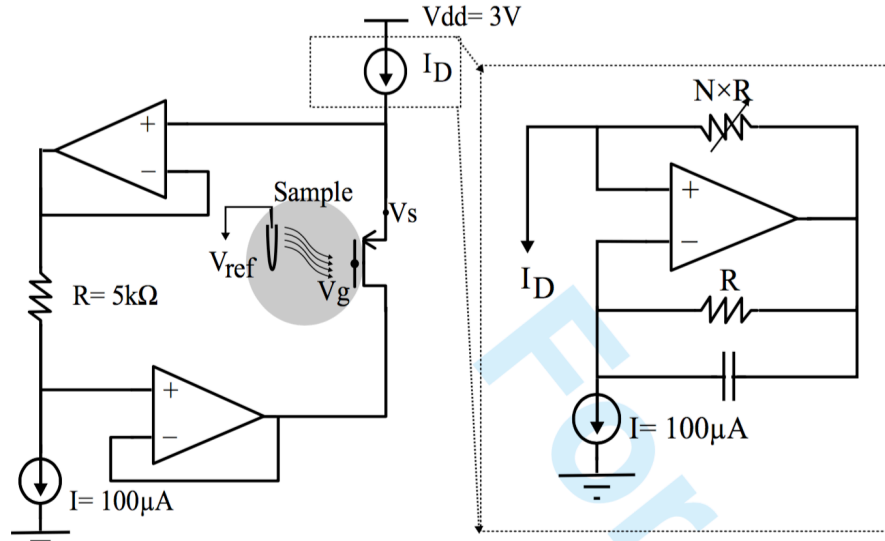


Figure 2.2: ISFET readout circuit in [10]

An issue need to be noticed is the impedance matching between the element and the current source circuit. It is known that the output impedance of current source should be much larger than the input impedance of the biased element. The equation for the output impedance of source follower is:

$$\frac{r_{ds}}{1 + g_m r_{ds}} \quad (2.5)$$

This equation can be simplified as:

$$\frac{1}{g_m} \quad \text{for} \quad g_m r_{ds} \gg 1 \quad (2.6)$$

We also compute the output impedance of the current source circuit:

$$N \times R_i \quad (2.7)$$

$R_i$  is the impedance of the right-bottom current source in Fig.2.2. In the integrated circuit,  $R_i$  is not ideal but usually close to the  $r_{ds}$  of a single MOSFET.

As mentioned, Eq.2.7 should be far larger than Eq.2.6. However,  $g_m$  is proportional to the  $I_d$ , which means Eq.2.6 is inversely proportional to  $N$ . When the bias current decreases, the output impedance decreases while the input impedance at the ISFET source-end increases. This creates a lower boundary of the bias current.

The source follower structure provides a direct signal transition method. It is a good candidate for the read-out circuit with the aim of detecting transconductance or threshold voltage variance. Nevertheless, post-processing such as amplification and filtering are necessary. The experiment results in the article are untreated. Some strong signal attenuation exist, which are mainly caused by low-frequency noise and ISFET drift [9]. The drift problem are dealt with through some signal processing techniques while noise problems are left untreated.

We constructed this circuit with discrete elements and applied it to our nanowire. The results are presented in chapter 4.

## 2.2 Small Signal (AC) Measurement Method Review

In previous section, the source follower we mentioned exhibited compelling advantages as a signal processing structure of nano-device. However, the structure overcomes obstacles when being applied to the small signal detection. Parasitic capacitors and resistors can severely influence the results.

As in figure 2.3 where the parasitic elements are included, we modified the transfer

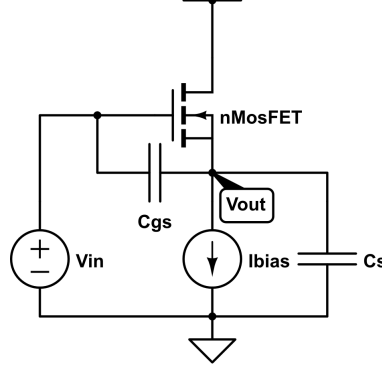


Figure 2.3: Sorce Follower with parasitic capacitance

function Eq.2.4

$$\frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{r_{ds}(sC_{gs} + gm)}{1 + r_{ds}(gm + s(C_{gs} + C_s))} \quad (2.8)$$

The equation can be similar to Eq.2.4 which roughly equals to 1 as long as  $C_s$  is far more smaller than  $C_{gs}$ . Unfortunately,  $C_s$  can be large since the output end of source follower usually connects to the next stage input or a pad. In that case, the parasitic capacitors may attenuate the signal.

We want to build another circuit structure that can not only performs ac signal measurement but also immunes from parasitic capacitance affect. This is achieved by reviewing those works that try to measure the parasitic capacitance first. Below, the works from two teams aims to measure drain-to-source resistance ( $R_{NW}$ ) and drain-to-source capacitance ( $C_{NW}$ ). Base on the reviews, we adopted and modified the method from one of it (2.2.2). This will be described briefly in section 2.2.3 and thoroughly in chapter 5.

### 2.2.1 RC Time Delay Measuring

The measurement system for ZnO-nanowire based sensor array from [1] applies the Time-over-Threshold techniques to its read-out circuit (Fig.2.4). The circuit alternatively charges an on-chip capacitor ( $C_{int}$ ) with a constant current and discharges it through the nano-material resistance (nanowire). An inverter with its output switches from on to off when the capacitor is charged to its input threshold voltage, and vice versa. This behavior convert information of nanowire such as capacitance

and resistance into time information. Both  $C_{int}$  and  $C_{NW}$  effect charging time and together with the  $R_{NW}$  effect the discharging time.

The work presented in [1] doesn't have enough explanation about how do they interpret the capacitance and resistance information. It simply mentioned that a microcontroller is responsible for these calculation. Besides, the work lacks simulation and experiment of using complex elements as measure target. Most of the results are measurement of using concrete resistor as the substitute for nanowire and regard the  $C_{NW}$  as 0p. The only nanowire experiment given at last doesn't has good performance. It seems that the design may only be applied to a complete-resistor or complete-capacitor element.

The recent publicans [2] by the team is more elaborate and have measurement of complex element (An element composed of both resistor and capacitor). In Fig.2.5, nanowire append between point A and B. The charging current is able to be applied from Mp1 or Mp2, which is determined by the "sel" signal with the aid from the MUXs. This is simply mean to perform a reverse measurement and we ignore it by assume  $sel = 1$  and point B is virtually ground. Now, we can see that the circuit design concept is actually same. The current charge both  $C_{int}$  and  $C_{NW}$ . When the voltage at A exceed the threshold voltage, the output switches to off and feedback to turn off the Mp1. (To be noted that the inverter at the output satge in [1] is replaced by a schmitt trigger.) Then the capacitor discharges through nanowire ( $r_{ds}$ ). The right-bottom plot in Fig.2.5 defines  $T_0$  as the charging time and  $T_1$  as the discharging time. The derivation of the  $R_{NW}$  and  $C_{NW}$  in the work can be simplified as:

$$C_{NW} = T_0 - C_{base} \quad (2.9)$$

$$R_{NW} = \frac{T_1 R_{par}}{(C_{NW} + C_{base}) R_{par} - T_1} \quad (2.10)$$

$$\text{where } R_{NW} || R_{par} = \frac{T_1}{C_{NW} + C_{base}} \quad (2.11)$$

$C_{base}$  are the  $C_{int}$  plus parasitic capacitance and  $R_{par}$  the parasitic resistance. These parasitic elements comes from the transistor in the integrated circuit block such as MUX and Mp. It must be noted that owing to simplicity, we doesn't concern the hysteresis of the schmitt trigger here.



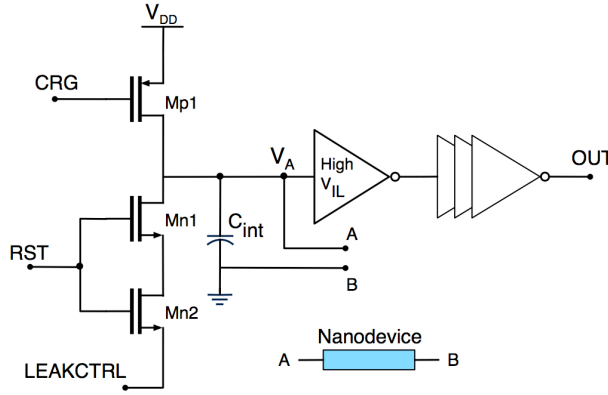


Figure 2.4: (a) Schematic of [1]

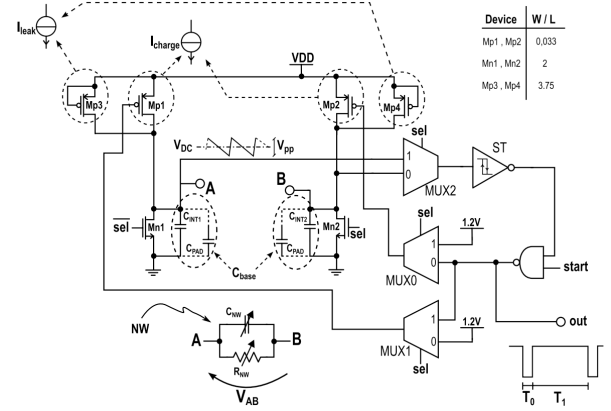


Figure 2.5: (b) Schematic of [2]

None

Figure 2.6: Draw mos with  $(C_{gd} + C_d)$  and  $r_{ds}$  is modeled by  $R_{nw}$  and  $C_{nw}$

## 2.2.2 Complex Impedance Solving

The nanowire-based hydrogen sensor measurement system from [13] adopt another method. It use a lock-in amplifier to realize both resistive and capacitive impedance measurement.

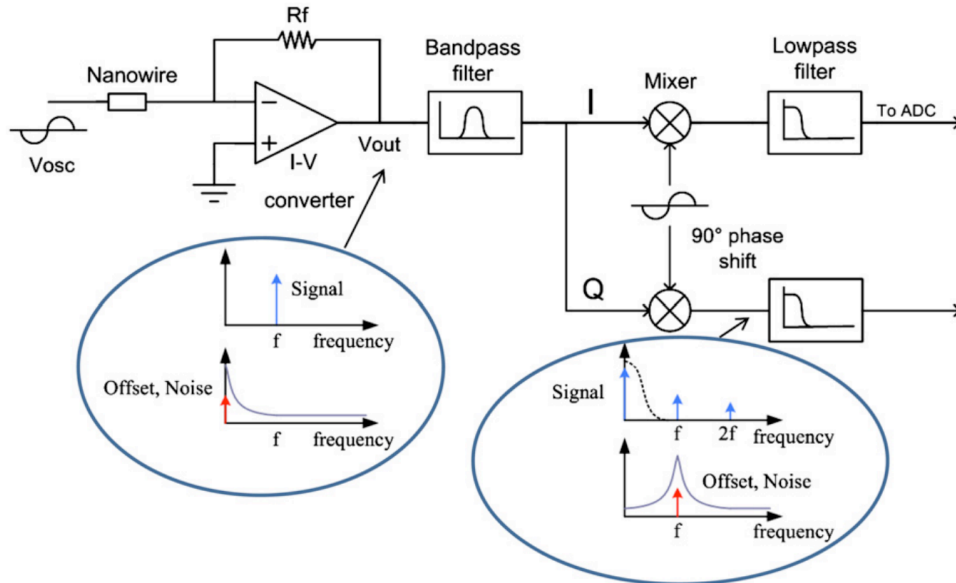


Figure 2.7: (b) Block diagram of the lock-in amplifier in [13]

The system started by supplying nanowire with a sinusoidal voltage signal to one end while the other end is grounded virtually by a transimpedance amplifier (TIA).

The TIA then converts the output current of nanowire into voltage signal which contains complex impedance information. The resistance is in the real part while the capacitance is in the virtual part

$$V_{out} = I_{NW} R_{TIA} \quad (2.12)$$

$$I_{NW} = V_{in} \left( \frac{1}{R_{NW}} + j2\pi f C_{NW} \right) \quad (2.13)$$

$f$  is the frequency of input signal.

After remove high-order harmonic interferences by a controllable bandpass filter, the signal is demodulated. The resistive and capacitive impedance values are resolved through channel I and Q with phase different by 90 degree. The mixer is a linear multiplier that use for demodulation. With a radio frequency (RF) input and the input local oscillator (LO) input, it produce an output signal that consists of signals with frequencies  $f_{RF} + f_{LO}$  and  $f_{RF} - f_{LO}$ . Incidentally, the signal are immune from the perturbation of low frequency noise which is a common problem for biosensor.

### 2.2.3 Comparison and Conclusion

We compare method 1 (Sec.2.2.1) and method 2 (Sec.2.2.2) here. Both of them focus on detecting the  $R_{NW}$  difference. According to the comparison table below (2.2.3), we can see the resistor measurement range of method 1 is different from 2 by a large extent. This may because the minimum bias current of nanowire provided by the circuits are different. The minimum current in method 1 is limited by the pmos(I charge) and the leakage current. In method 2, it is limited by the TIA. Since our method adopt this TIA block, we will discuss this problem in chapter 5.

As for the  $C_{NW}$  detection, the measure range is much worse. Reason

Method 2 perform well when it comes to noise suppression. In fact, the circuit in method 1 doesn't provide noise reduction ability. The special structure it use (The article [1] mentioned it as M4N approach) is the one responsible for that.

Method 1 has a lower power consumption. However, it is under estimated since the microcontroller power is not included.

	[2]	[13]
R meas range	1M - 1G	10 - 40k
R meas error	< 2.5%	< 2%
C meas range	100fF - 1uF	0.5 - 1.8nF
C meas error	< 3%	< 3%
SNR	> 45dB	-
Input refered noise	-	190 nV/sqrt(Hz) @ 5 kHz
CMOS Technology	0.13um	0.18um
Power consumption	14.82uW	2mW

Table 2.1: Specification Summary

In our project, capacitance measurement is not our object. But we will still need to consider the parasitic capacitor effect in our circuit design. Method 1 convert the resistance information into time (frequency) information. If one want to avoid the affect from parasitic capacitor, he should apply a  $C_{int}$  that is much larger than  $C_{NW}$ . However, it is not practical in integrated design because the chip size is limited.

Method 2 uses a TIA to measure resistance and capacitance together first and then resolve the complex value. We notice that the capacitance value is much larger than the resistance value. This difference may be revised downward in our silicon nanowire case. The resistance can be more than 100M. However, since  $C_{NW}$  is parallel to  $R_{NW}$ , we wonder the C value can be ignored. Besides, our circuit measure the  $g_m$  instead of  $R_{NW}$ . The value can be smaller than  $R_{NW}$ . In fact, we can even control the  $I_d$  of nanowire to lower the  $g_m$  further.

Another reason that make method 2 more attractive is because the method is more flexible. One can simply add other analog blocks such as noise filter or amplifier to it.

Overall, method 1 has advantage in detecting range and accuracy while method 2 has better noise suppression and flexibility.

# Chapter 3

## Nanowire Structure and Measurement

### 3.1 Brief Description of Nanowire Structure

The nanowire we use is made by Prof. Yang's team (National Chiao Tung University)[7]. A sectional view of the nanowire structure is given below. The fabrication process is based on the poly-silicon sidewall spacer technique. The n-Type doped poly-SiNW FET has 2 to 10 poly-silicon channels. Each channel is 80nm in width and 2 $\mu$ m in length. Large portion of the channel surface is exposed to environment. The exposed region, through several post-process, capture the DNA probe and serve as the sensing site for DNA molecules.[7, 8]

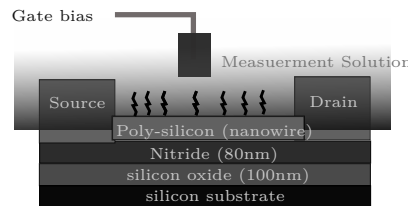


Figure 3.1: Nanowire Structure

### 3.2 Measurement

This section presents the results.

## Front Gate and Back Gate

Two gates are available: floating gate (liquid gate) and back-gate. We choose floating gate as the operation gate in spite of some advantages that back-gate has. One of them is the ability to lower the  $1/f$  noise [14, 11]. However, this only happens in a very high gate voltage, which is not practical in the integrated circuit design. Moreover, the floating gate induces larger drain-current. In other words, it has higher transconductance. And a high transconductance leads to a stronger feedback ability in our design.

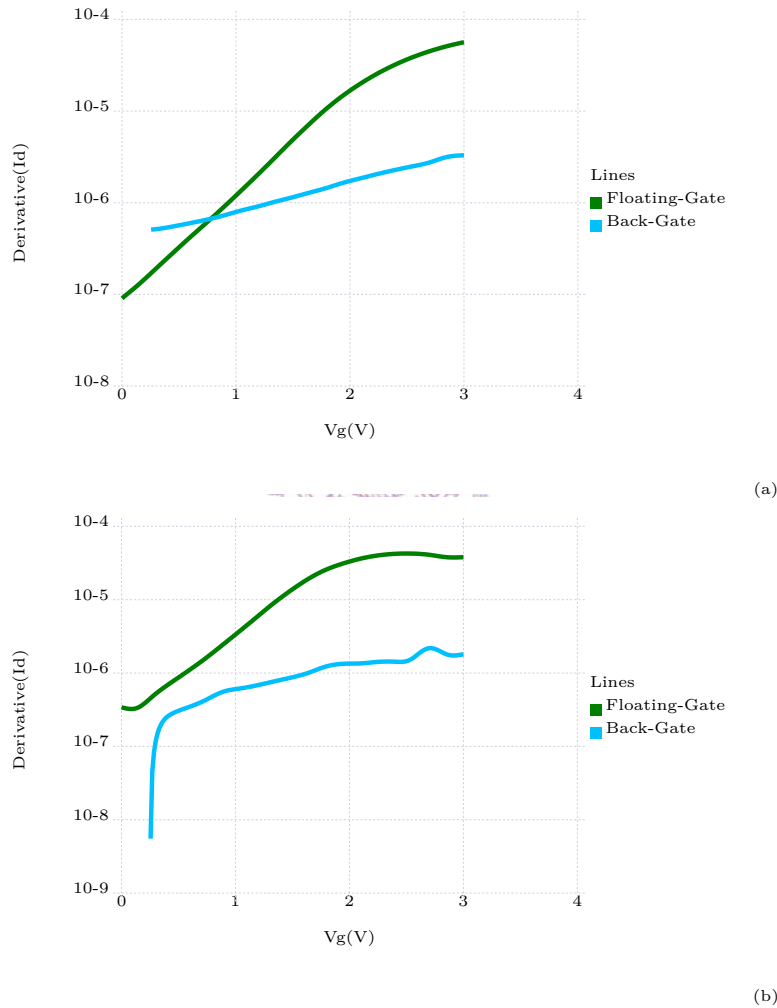


Figure 3.2:

### 3.2.1 Parameters

The most crucial parameter for our circuit design is the transconductance (gm). The gm is acquired by finding the relation between drain-to-source current ( $I_d$ ) and gate-source voltage ( $V_g$ ), and perform differentiation:  $\frac{\partial I_d}{\partial V_g}$ . use standard PBS as

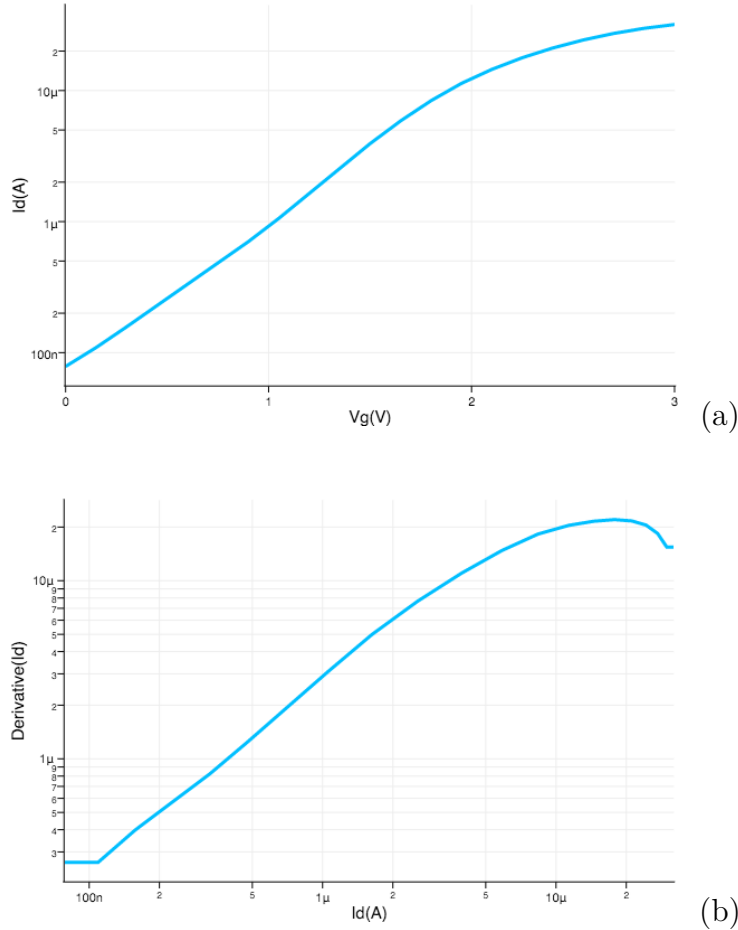


Figure 3.3:

The  $I_d$ -Derivative figures indicates there is a “linear region” where gm is proportional to  $I_d$ . This property implies the transconductance can be controlled in simple way. As mentioned in introduction, we may find specific bias  $I_d$  for distinct elements and adjust their transconductance to a same value.

We also prove that the transconductance under this region is unaffected by the drain-source voltage variance.

By measuring two nanowire element which lie on the same wafer and are immersed

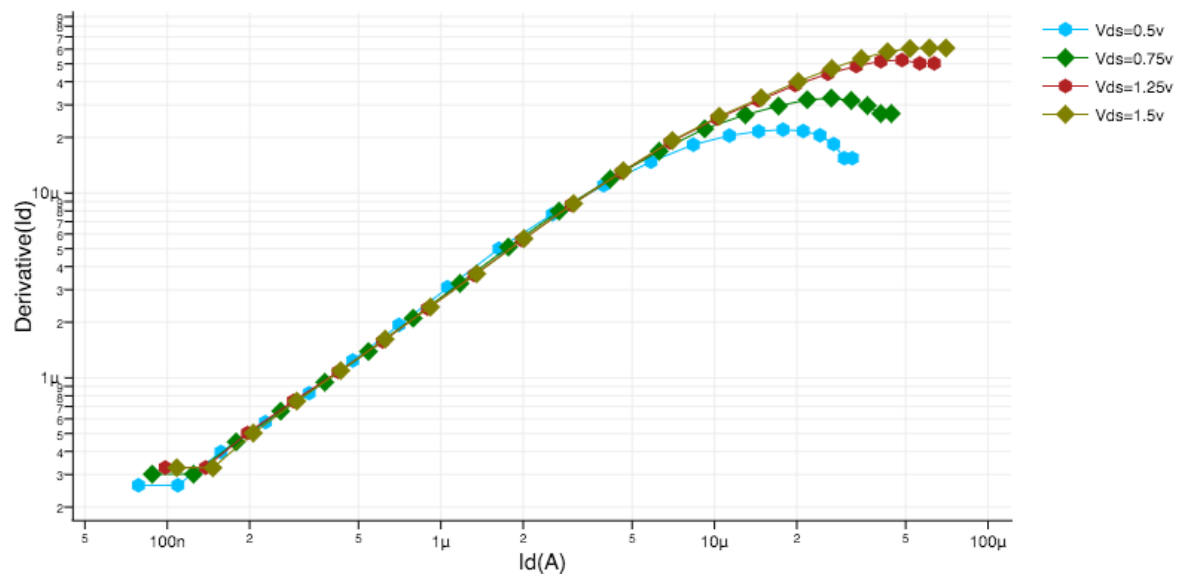


Figure 3.4: Id-transconductance with Vds variance

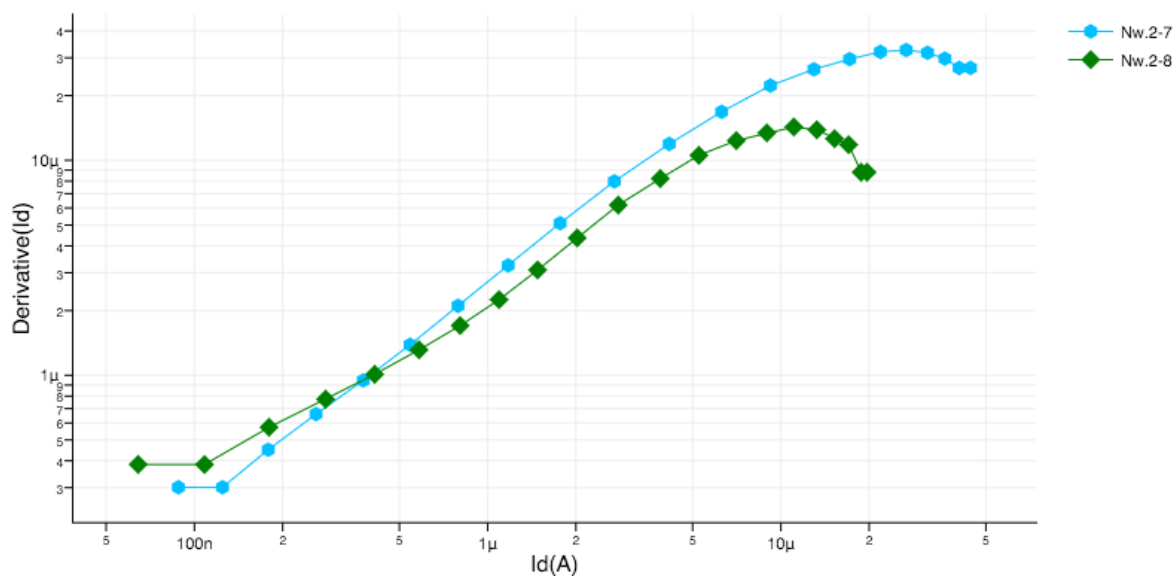


Figure 3.5: Distinct element with a line indicate they have same transconductance



with the same testing PBS solution



# Chapter 4

## Discrete Circuitry Design



# Chapter 5

## Integrated Circuitry Design

### 5.1 Signal Acquisition Method



# Chapter 6

## Discussion and Conclusions



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