

Nanoelectronics

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Abstract:

Nano electronics examines the electronic and magnetic properties of systems at the nanoscale. Its subfields include hybrid inorganic-organic electronics, spin electronics and quantum electronics. The specialization in Nano electronics comprises the study of the electronic and magnetic properties of systems with critical dimensions at the nanoscale, i.e. sub ~10 nm. Its key areas include hybrid inorganic-organic electronics, spin electronics and quantum electronics and it combines aspects of Electrical Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Materials Science, and Nanotechnology.

Increasing miniaturization of devices, component and integrated systems requires development in the capacity to measure, organize and manipulate matter at the nanoscale. This report is a comprehensive, interdisciplinary account of the technology and science that underpin nano electronics covering the underlying physics, nanostructures, nano materials and nano devices.

1. Introduction

Nano electronics refers to the use of nanotechnology in electronic components. The term 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 (e.g. silicon nano wires or carbon nano tubes) or advanced molecular electronics.

Nano electronics devices have critical dimensions with size range between 1 nm and 100 nm. Recent silicon MOSFET (metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor, or MOS transistor) technology generations are already within this regime, including 22 nanometer CMOS (complementary MOS) nodes and succeeding 14 nm, 10 nm and 7 nm FET (field-effect transistor) generations. Nano electronics are some times considered as disruptive technology because present candidates are significantly different from traditional transistors. Nanoelectronics promises to improve, amplify, and partially substitute for the well-known field of micro electronics. The prefix micro denotes one millionth and, as applied to electronics, it is used to indicate that the characteristic sizes of the smallest features of a conventional electronic device have length scales of approximately a micrometer. The prefix nano denotes one billionth. Thus, in nano electronics the dimensions of the devices should be as many as at least a thousand times smaller than those of microelectronics.

Such a revolutionary advance toward miniaturization of electronics is based on the recently developed ability to measure, manipulate, and organize matter on the nanoscale 1 to 100 nanometers, i.e., 1 to 100 billionths of a meter. At the nanoscale, physics, chemistry, biology, materials science, and engineering converge toward the same principles and tools, and form new and broad branches of science and technology that can be called nanoscience and nanotechnology.

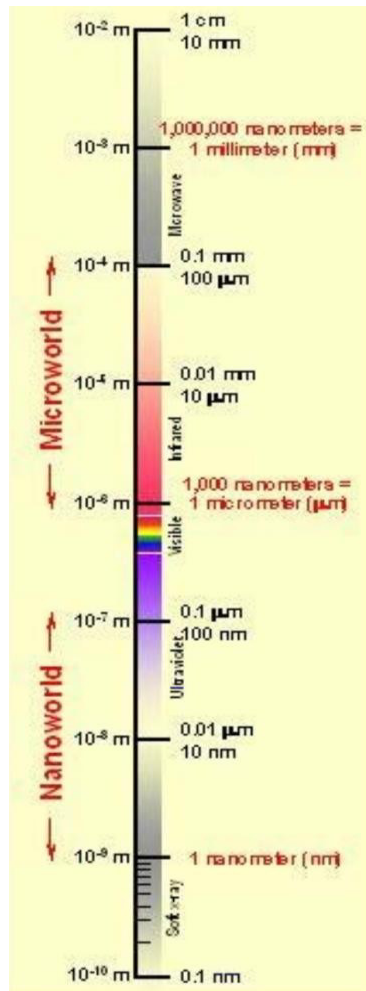
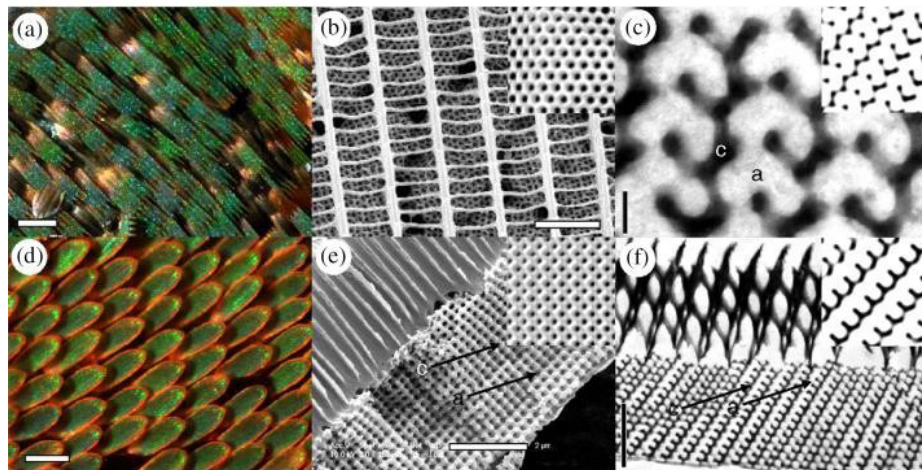


Fig.1. Micro scale to nano scale measurement

Advancing to then an oscale is not just a step toward miniaturization, but requires he introduction and consideration of many additional phenomena. At the nanoscale, most phenomena and processes are dominated by quantum physics and they exhibit unique behavior. Fund a mental scientific advances are expected to be achieved as knowledge in nanoscience increases. In turn, this will lead to dramatic changes in the ways materials, devices, and systems are understood and created. Innovative nanoscale properties and functions will be achieved through the control of matter at the level of its building blocks: atom-by-atom, molecule-by-molecule, and nanostructure-by-nanostructure. The molecular building blocks of life – proteins, nucleic acids, carbohydrates – are examples of materials that possess impressive properties determined by their size, geometrical folding, and patterns at the nanoscale. Nanotechnology includes the integration of man made nanostructures into larger material components and systems. Importantly, within these larger-scale systems, the active elements of the system will remain at then an

oscaleificantly different from traditional transistors.

Fig2.Structural colour-producing nano structure in lycaenid(a)-(c)and papilionid(d)-(f)butter flies.



However, the tinier electronic components become, the harder they are to manufacture. Nanoelectronics covers a diverse set of devices and materials, with the common characteristic that they are so small that physical effects alter the material's properties on a nanoscale – inter-atomic interactions and quantum mechanical properties play a significant role in the workings of these devices. At then an oscale, new phenomena take precedence over those that holds way in the macro-world. Quantum effects such as tunneling and atomistic disorder dominate the characteristics of these nano scale devices.

The first transistors built in 1947 were over 1 centimeter in size; the smallest working transistor today is 7 nanometers long – over 1.4 million times smaller (1 cm equals 10 million nanometers). The result of these efforts are billion-transistor processors where, once industry embraces 7nm manufacturing techniques, 20 billion transistor-based circuits are integrated into a single chip.

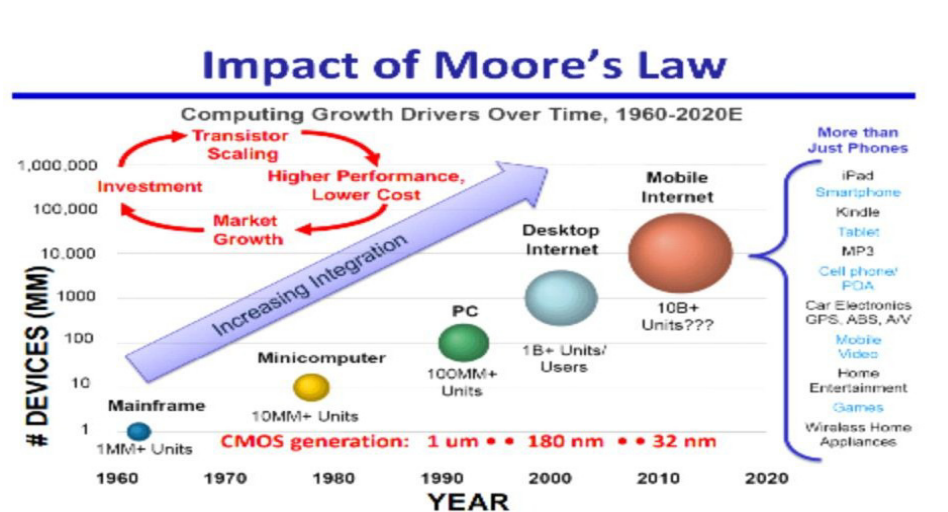
2. Fundamental concepts:-

In 1965, Gordon Moore observed that silicon transistors were under going a continual process of scaling down ward, an observation which was later codified as Moore's law. Since his observation, transistor minimum feature sizes have decreased from 10 micrometers to the 10nm range as of 2019. Note that the technology node doesn't directly represent the minimum feature size. The field of nano electronics aims to enable the continued realization of this law by using new methods and materials to build electronic devices with feature sizes on then an oscale.

2.1 Moore's Law :-

Moore's law is a 1965 observation made by Intel co-founder Gordon E. Moore that the number of transistors placed in an integrated circuit (IC) or chip doubles approximately every two years. Because Moore's observation has been frequently cited and used for research and development by multiple organizations, and it has been proven repeatedly, it is known as Moore's law.

The observation is named after Gordon Moore, the co-founder of Fairchild Semiconductor and CEO and co-founder of Intel, who in 1965 posited a doubling every year in the number of components per integrated circuit, projected this rate of growth would continue for at least another decade. In 1975, looking forward to the next decade, he revised the forecast to doubling every two years, a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 41%. While Moore did not use empirical evidence in forecasting that the



historical trend would continue, his prediction held since 1975 and has since become known as a "law."

Fig3. Impact of Moore's Law on devices

Moore's law has been a driving force for technological innovation and social change in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. Moore's law is an observation and projection of a historical trend. Rather than a law of physics, it is an empirical relationship linked to gains from experience in production. Moore's prediction has been used in the semiconductor industry to guide long-term planning and to set targets for research and development, thus functioning a bit like a self-fulfilling prophecy. Advancements in digital electronics, such as the reduction in quality-adjusted microprocessor prices, the increase in memory capacity (RAM and flash), the improvement of sensors, and even the number and size of pixels in digital cameras, are strongly linked to Moore's law. These step changes in digital electronics have been a driving force of technological and social change, productivity, and economic growth. Industry experts have not reached a consensus on exactly when Moore's law will cease to apply. Microprocessor architects report that semiconductor advancement has slowed industry-wide since around 2010, below the predicted by Moore's law. However, as of 2018, leading semiconductor manufacturers have developed IC fabrication processes in mass production which are claimed to keep pace with Moore's law.

3. History:-

In 1960, Egyptian engineer Mohamed Atalla and Korean engineer Dawon Kahng at Bell Labs fabricated the first MOSFET (metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor) with a gate oxide thickness of 100nm, along with a gate length of 20 μm. In 1962, Atalla and Kahng fabricated a nano layer-base metal-semiconductor junction transistor that used gold (Au) thin films with a thickness of 10 nm. In 1987, Iranian engineer Bijan Davari led an IBM research team that demonstrated the first MOSFET with a 10 nm gate oxide thickness, using tungsten-gate technology.

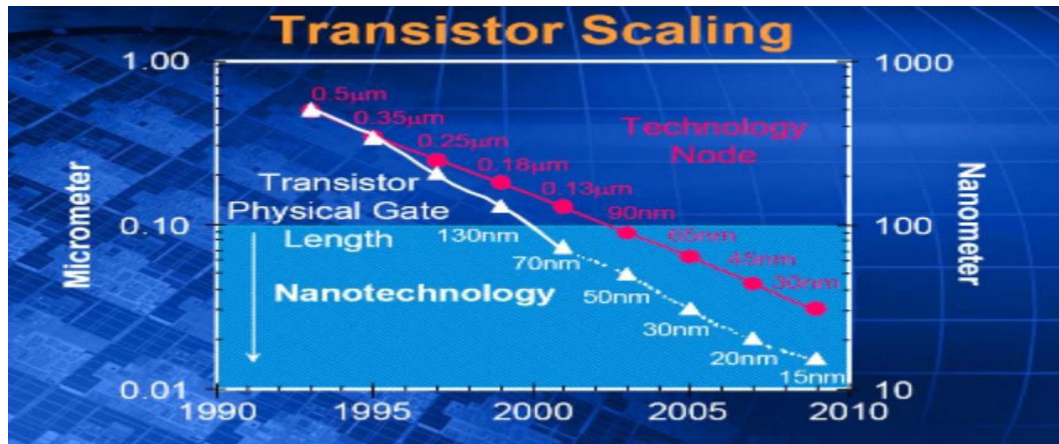


Fig4. Transistor scaling from micrometer to nanometer

In 1999, a CMOS transistor developed at the Laboratory for Electronics and Information Technology in Grenoble, France, tested the limits of the principles of the MOSFET transistor with a diameter of 18 nm (approximately 70 atoms placed side by side). It enabled the theoretical integration of seven billion junctions on a €1 coin. However, the CMOS transistor was not a simple research experiment to study how CMOS technology functions, but rather a demonstration of how this technology functions now that we ourselves are getting ever closer to working on a molecular scale. According to Jean-Baptiste Waldner in 2007, it would be impossible to master the coordinated assembly of a large number of these transistors on a circuit and it would also be impossible to create this on an industrial level.

In 2006, a team of Korean researchers from the Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST) and the National Nano Fab Center developed a 3 nm MOSFET, the world's smallest nano electronic device. It was based on gate-all-around (GAA) Fin FET technology.

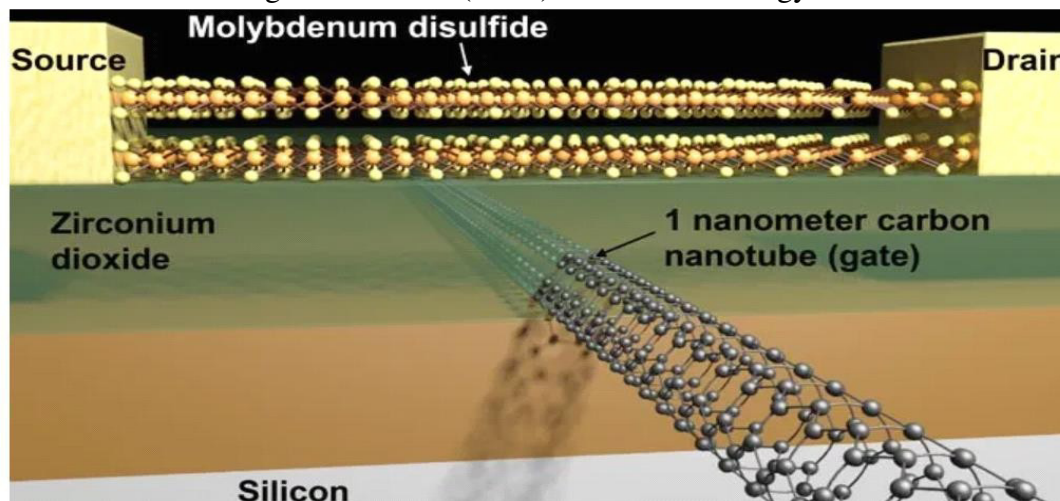


Fig.5. World's smallest transistor till date

Commercial production of nanoelectronic semiconductor devices began in the 2010s. In 2013, SK Hynix began commercial mass-production of a 16 nm process, TSMC began production of a 16 nm FinFET process, and Samsung Electronics began production of a 10 nm class process. TSMC began production of a 7 nm process in 2017, and Samsung began production of a 5 nm process in 2018.

4. Nano scale Components:-

Nano scale components consist the various components used in the field of Nanoelectronics. Then an oscale components used in nano electronics fallin to two major categories:

1. Inorganic nano crystals
2. Organic molecular components

4.1 Inorganic Nanocrystals :-

The fundamental element of any nano electronic circuitis the devices used to buildit.ForcurrentVLSI systemstheseinclude silicon transistors and copper wires. For nanoelectronics, it appears that the copper wires will be replacedby either carbon nanotubes(CNT) or silicon nanowires (SNW). The move to CNT or SNW is because they can bechemically assembled at much smaller sizes than copper wires can be patterned with lithography. There are anumberoftechnologiesthatcouldreplacethetransistorasthebasiclogicdevice,theseincludenegative differenti alresistors,nanowireorcarbonnanotubetransistors,quantumcellularautomata,andreconfigurableswitches.T hesedevices offer sizesofafewn nanometers, canbeself-assembled.

4.1.1 Carbon Nano tubes :-

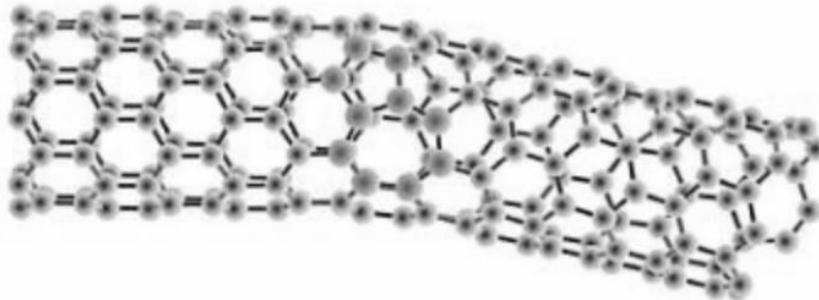


Fig.6. A single wall carbon nanotube

Carbon nanotubes (CNT) are cylindrical carbon molecules (Figure 6) that exhibit unique properties, making them potentially useful in areas including nanoelectronics, materials, and optics. Their structure gives the nanotubes extraordinary strength, which is attractive for materials use, and can also increase the that make them attractive as nano-electronics wires and devices: they can behave as metallic wires or as semiconductors, depending on their structures.

4.1.2 Semiconductingnanowires:-

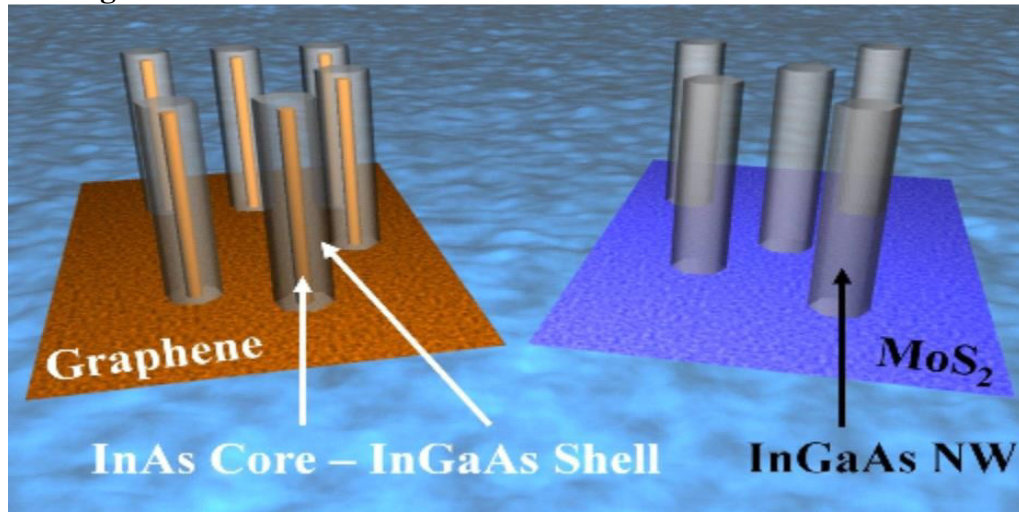


Fig.7. Different semiconductor nanowires

(NWs), like CNTs, can be used as interconnect wires to carry signals as well as be used as an active device. While one CNT is either an active device or a wire, a single NW can be both an active device and an interconnect wire. NWs are long thin wires made up of semiconducting materials, such as silicon or germanium that have been fabricated with a diameter as small as 3nm and a length of up to hundreds of micrometers. The diameter is about eight times smaller than lithographic-based fabrication methods will likely ever be able to achieve.

4.2 Organic Molecular Components:-

Organic molecular components like molecular wires, single molecule, molecular monolayers, and supramolecules with different schemes are the contenders from other classes. Organic molecular components are prepared by amalgamation, and therefore less variation is probable in chemical composition and structural parameters. There are a large number of molecular species prevailing, possibly personalized for various device applications using surface molecular engineering. Single or a few electron transports or transfers include extremely low-energy logic switching or data storage. Molecular nanocomponents have great prospective in manufacturing low-power, ultradense, and low-cost computing chips.

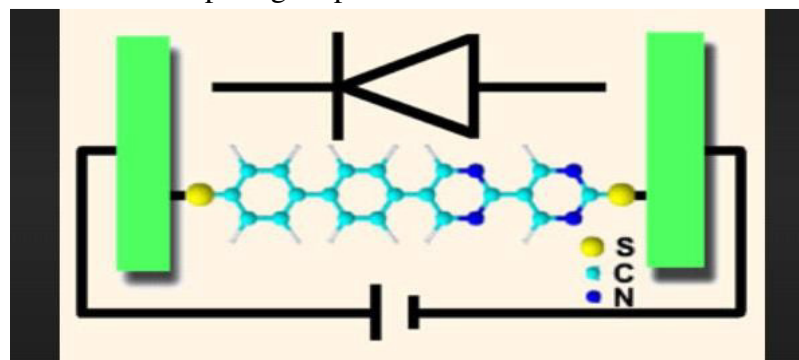


Fig.8. Molecular Diode

Even though NWs and CNTs can be used as active devices as well as wires in nanoelectronics, there is also a set of molecules that could be used as the active devices. These molecules behave as diodes or programmable switches that can make up the programmable connections between wires. Chemists have designed these carbon-based molecules to have electrical properties similar to their solid-state counterparts. Molecular devices have one huge advantage over solid-state devices: their size. Thousands of molecules can be sandwiched between two crossing micro-scale wires to create an active device that takes up very little area. These molecules behave as diode or switches that makes connection between wires. Current VLSI crosspoints made of pass transistors are 40-100 times larger than a wire crossing or via. Since molecular devices fit between the wires, large area savings could be achieved. For example, it has been estimated that the use of nanowires and molecular switches could reduce the area of an FPGA by 70% over a traditional SRAM based design at a 22nm process. In addition to being very small, molecular devices tend to be nonvolatile: the configuration of the molecules remains stable in the absence of electrical stimulation. In the presence of electrical stimulation, programmable molecular device can be turned "on" and "off", which can be used to perform logic.

4.3 Quantum Dots:-

Quantum dots (QDs) are semiconductor particles a few nanometres in size, having optical and electronic properties that differ from larger particles due to quantum mechanics. They are a central topic in nano electronics. When the quantum dots are illuminated by UV light, an electron in the quantum dot can be excited to a state of higher energy. In the case of a semiconducting quantum dot, this process corresponds to the transition of an electron from the valence band to the conduction band. The excited electron can drop back to the valence band releasing its energy by the emission of light. This light emission. The color of that light depends on the energy difference between the conduction band and the valence band.

5. Nanomaterials:-

These are the material with any external dimension in the nanoscale or having internal structure or surface structure in the nanoscale, with nanoscale defined as the length range approximately from 1nm to 100nm. They are classified into three categories:-

- 1- Zero-dimensional material
- 2- One – dimensional material
- 3- Two-dimensional materials

5.1 Zero-dimensional materials:-

Nanomaterials confined in all three dimensions are called nanoparticles, and if they retain their crystal structure they are called nanocrystals. The spatial confinement of electronic states leads to modifications in band structure and energy levels that are unique to nanoparticles. Although these particles have only been well understood in recent decades, their use in artistic pursuits is ancient. Metal nanoparticles were used to lend colour to glass, as in the Lycurgus Cup crafted in Rome during the 4th Century which is green when light is shone on the cup from outside and reflected back (reflective light) but red when illuminated from within or behind (transmitted light), a phenomenon known as the dichroic effect. Many stained-glass windows also incorporate metal

nanoparticles, whose free electrons have a resonant interaction with incident light at certain wavelengths. Controllable and reproducible synthesis of nanocrystals can be achieved either via a 'top-down' method of carving nanocrystals out of larger bulk materials, or a 'bottom-up' method of chemical assembly one atom at a time. Top-down methods include lithography and electrical migration, but these can have major problems with surface roughness and distortion of the crystal lattice. There are many bottom up methods to create nanocrystals, including chemical synthesis, vapour deposition and sol-gel methods. Some of these synthesis methods may deposit a layer on the surface of the synthesized nanomaterials, which often acts as a passivation layer preventing further aggregation and helping to keep the nanoparticles in colloidal suspension. The passivation layer is chemically useful and can be tuned to enhance the chemical functionalization of the nanomaterial, adding sensitivity to specific molecules. However, the passivation layer can also act as a significant barrier to charge transfer.

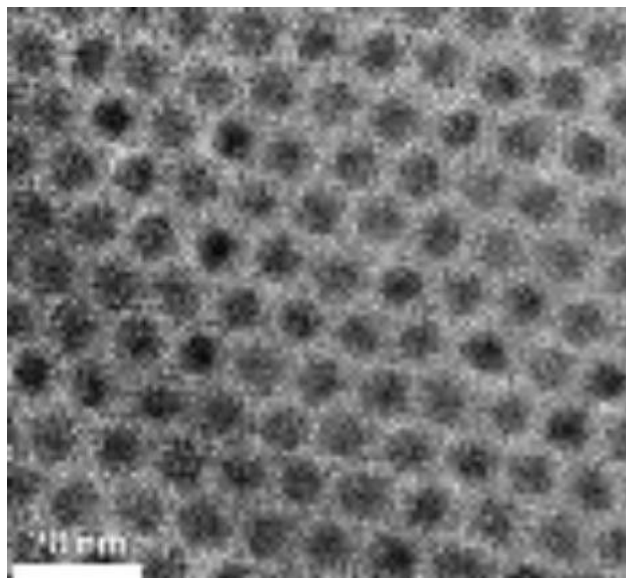


Fig.9. Lead telluride nano crystals in an array, where then anocrystals appears dark

Figure shows nanocrystals which have self-assembled into an array imaged using transmission electron microscopy, where each individual nanocrystal appears dark. Some nanocrystals appear darker than others because their crystal lattices have differing orientations in the film. The unique traits of nanocrystals enable many useful applications. The wavelength selectivity of nanocrystals makes them excellent optical tags for biological studies. Nanocrystals are small enough to enter cells and subcellular processes, and can then be stimulated to fluoresce by external light. They can also be used to convert light to electricity or vice versa as light emitting diodes, lasers or solar cells.

5.2 One-dimensional materials:-

Nanomaterials confined in two of the three spatial dimensions retain some quantized properties but also have a bulk dimension. One example is nanowires. These structures can be comprised of metals, semiconductors,

insulators or even polymers or other organic materials. How they are fabricated is strongly material dependent, but similar to nanoparticles, nanowires can either be defined via a top-down lithographic process or assembled in a bottom-up process. Chemical synthesis, vapour-liquid-solid deposition and chemical vapour deposition are the most common bottom-up methods for synthesis. Similar to nanocrystal synthesis. Transmission electron micrograph of lead telluride nanocrystals in an array, where the nanocrystals appear dark of these nanowire synthesis methods can deposit a surface passivation layer which affects both the chemical and electronic properties of the nanowires. In addition to nanowires, which are effectively bulk crystals that are nanoscale along two axes and macroscale along one axis, another form of one-dimensional nanostructure is the carbon nanotube. Carbon nanotubes, consist of a sheet of hexagonally bonded carbon rolled up into a hollow cylinder. Single-walled carbon nanotubes have only a single layer, and multi-walled carbon nanotubes (which are considerably easier to synthesize) have multiple nested layers of carbon. Nanotubes can be created via several bottom-up processes, such as arc discharge, chemical vapour deposition and high-pressure carbon monoxide disproportionation. The sp² bonding structure of carbon nanotubes results in extraordinary mechanical strength and high thermal conductivity. Electrically, carbon nanotubes can be either metallic or semiconducting along the tubular axis, depending on the angle of the crystal lattice with respect to that axis. Because of confinement in two dimensions, they exhibit ballistic conduction which leads to very high current densities.

Nanotube type can be determined spectroscopically, by examining the fluorescence and Raman signature of the nanotubes. Control of nanotube type has been a major focus of research, but there are currently many industrially available high-quality nanotubes of various types, and they are making their way into more and more applications.

One-dimensional nanostructures such as nanotubes and nanowires are useful for a variety of applications, such as adding mechanical strength to composites. They can also be used as photonic waveguides and collectors in optoelectronic generators and collectors. However, they are extremely interesting as electrical components. Nanowires and nanotubes can be individually contacted electrically to create circuit elements that can be used to probe basic transport physics in a single dimension. They can also be combined to act as networks of elements, exploring percolation thresholds and network topology as they relate to conductivity. A network of nanowires that has been electrically contacted in a scanning electron. Since the image was taken using charge carriers, the technique of passive voltage contrast causes the nanowires connected to ground and the probes to appear dark, highlighting the exact current path through the material. Because one-dimensional nanostructures such as nanowires and nanotubes have one non-confined axis, they provide better conductivity than nanocrystal-based networks, although somewhat less optical tunability.

5.3 Two-dimensional materials:-

Nanomaterials confined in only one spatial dimension are sheet-like structures that are effectively two-dimensional. Graphene, a sheet of hexagonally bonded carbon, was the first two-dimensional nanomaterial to emerge, having been accidentally produced for decades before being officially 'discovered' in 2004 by Andre Geim and Konstantin Novoselov. The crystal lattice structure of graphene is shown in figure 10. A slew of other two-dimensional nanomaterials have now emerged, based on materials such as molybdenum disulphide (MoS_2), molybdenum diselenide (MoSe_2), silicon (Si), germanium (Ge) and boron nitride (BN). Although these materials are effectively two-dimensional, they can also be deformed or functionalized in the third dimension.

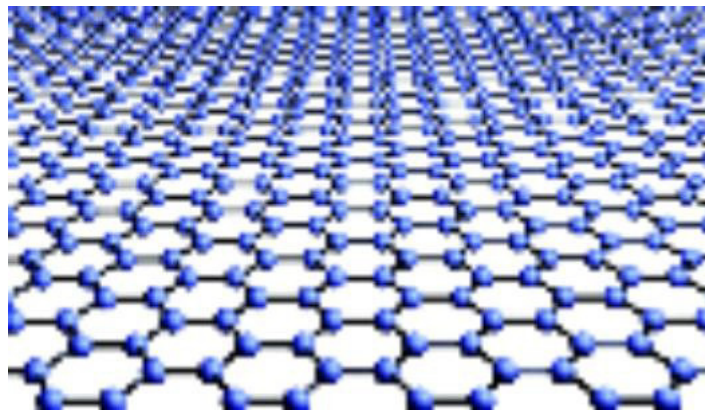


Fig.10.Hexagonal crystal lattice structure of Graphene

Graphene has a very high mechanical strength, much like carbon nanotubes, as well as good thermal conductivity and a high resistance to gas transfer through its confined axis. Electrically, it has a very unusual band structure, acting as a gapless semiconductor with very high electron mobility but no gap between the conduction and valence bands, and hence limited optical response. Other two-dimensional materials have bandgaps, enabling optical interactions, but lower electrical conductivity. These materials can be produced using a variety of methods, such as exfoliation from bulk, chemical vapour deposition, and sonication and centrifugation in suspension. Many are optically transparent and thus useful for transparent conductor applications such as graphical displays. They can also be combined into layered composites, with other two-dimensional materials or with one or zero dimensional nanostructures to exploit the properties of each. Each dimensionality has distinct features, but they all obey different physical laws due to their nanoscale.

6. Nanoelectronic devices:-

Current high-technology production processes are based on traditional top-down strategies, where nanotechnology has already been introduced silently. The critical length scale of integrated circuits is already at the nanoscale (50nm and below) regarding the gate length of transistors in CPU or RAM devices.

6.1 Computers:-

Nanoelectronicsholdsthepromiseofmakingcomputerprocessorsmorepowerfulthanarepossiblewithconventional semiconductor fabrication techniques. A number of approaches are currently being researched,including new forms of nanolithography, as well as the use of nanomaterials such as nanowires or small moleculesinplace oftraditionalCMOScomponents.

Field effect transistors have been made using both semiconducting carbon nanotubes and with heterostructuredsemiconductor nanowires(SiNWs).

6.2 Memory storage :-

Electronic memory designs in the past have largely relied on the formation of transistors. However, research intocrossbar switch based electronics have offered an alternative using reconfigurable interconnectionsbetweenvertical and horizontal wiring arrays to create ultra high density memories. Two leaders in this area are Nanterowhich has developed a carbon nanotube based crossbar memory called Nano-RAM and Hewlett-Packard which hasproposedtheuse ofmemristormaterialasafuture replacementofFlashmemory.

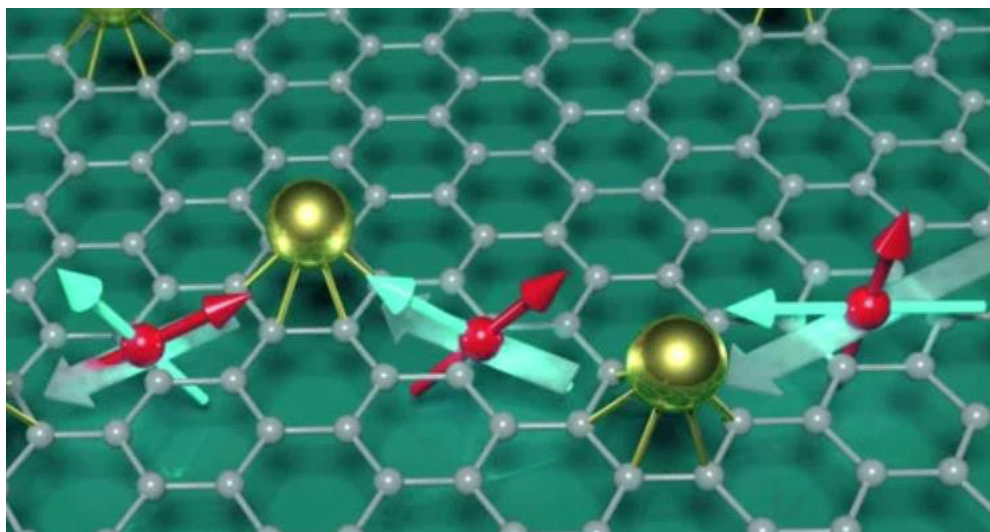


Fig.11.IllustrationofelectronspininaGraphenelattice

An example of such novel devices is based on spintronics. The dependence of the resistance of a material (due tothespinoftheelectrons)onanexternalfieldiscalledmagnetoresistance.This effectcanbesignificantly amplified for nanosized objects, for example when two ferromagnetic layers are separated by a nonmagnetic layer, which is several nanometers thick (e.g. Co-Cu-Co), that has led to a strong increase in the data storage density of hard disksandmadethegigabyte range possible.

6.3 Novel optoelectronic devices:-

In the modern communication technology traditional analog electrical devices are increasingly replaced by optical or optoelectronic devices due to their enormous bandwidth and capacity, respectively. Two promising examples are photonic crystals and quantum dots. Photonic crystals are materials with a periodic variation in the refractive index with a lattice constant that is half the wavelength of the light used. They offer a selectable band gap for the propagation of a certain wavelength, thus they resemble a semiconductor, but for light or photons instead of electrons.

Quantum dots are nanoscale objects, which can be used, among many other things, for the construction of lasers. The advantage of a quantum dot laser over the traditional semiconductor laser is that their emitted wavelength depends on the diameter of the dot. Quantum dot lasers are cheaper and offer a higher beam quality than conventional laser diodes.

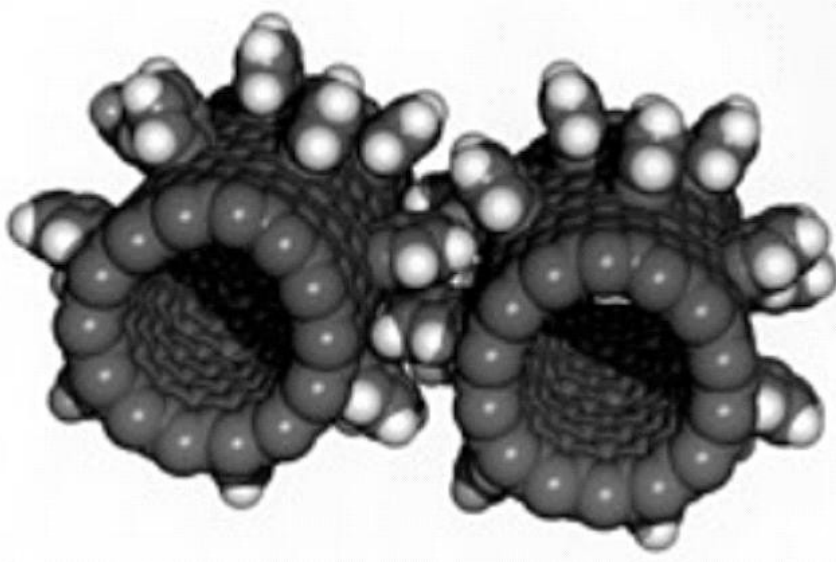


Fig.12. Structure of Quantum Dots

6.4 Displays :-

The production of displays with low energy consumption might be accomplished using carbon nanotubes (CNT) or Silicon nanowires. Such nanostructures are electrically conductive and due to their small diameter of several nanometers, they can be used as field emitters with extremely high efficiency for field emission displays (FED). The principle of operation resembles that of the cathode ray tube, but on a much smaller length scale.

6.5 Quantum computers:-

Entirely new approaches for computing exploit the laws of quantum mechanics for novel quantum computers, which enable the use of fast quantum algorithms. The Quantum computer has quantum bit memory space termed Qubit for several computations at the same time. This facility may improve the performance of the older systems.

6.6 Radios :-

Nanoradios have been developed structured around carbon nanotubes.

6.7 Energy production:-

Research is ongoing to use nanowires and other nanostructured materials with the hope to create cheaper and more efficient solar cells than are possible with conventional planar silicon solar cells. It is believed that the invention of more efficient solar energy would have a great effect on satisfying global energy needs.

There is also research into energy production for devices that would operate in vivo, called bio-nano generators. A bio-nano generator is a nanoscale electrochemical device, like a fuel cell or galvanic cell, but drawing power from blood glucose in a living body, much the same as how the body generates energy from food. To achieve the effect, an enzyme is used that is capable of stripping glucose of its electrons, freeing them for use in electrical devices. The average person's body could, theoretically, generate 100 watts of electricity (about 2000 food calories per day) using a bio-nano generator. However, this estimate is only true if all food was converted to electricity, and the human body needs some energy consistently, so possible power generated is likely much lower. The electricity generated by such a device could power devices embedded in the body (such as pacemakers), or sugar fed nanorobots. Much of the research done on bio-nano generators is still experimental, with Panasonic's Nanotechnology Research Laboratory among those at the forefront.

6.8 Medical diagnostics :-

There is great interest in constructing nanoelectronic devices that could detect the concentrations of biomolecules in real time for use as medical diagnostics, thus falling into the category of nanomedicine. A parallel line of research seeks to create nanoelectronic devices which could interact with single cells for use in basic biological research. These devices are called nanosensors. Such miniaturization on nanoelectronics towards in vivo proteomic sensing should enable new approaches for health monitoring, surveillance, and defense technology.

6.9 Wearable, flexible electronics:-

The age of wearable electronics is upon us as witnessed by the fast growing array of smart watches, fitness bands and other advanced, next-generation health monitoring devices such as electronic stick-on tattoos.

If current research is an indicator, wearable electronics will go far beyond just very small electronic devices or wearable, flexible computers. Not only will these devices be embedded in textile substrates but an electronics device or system could ultimately become the fabric itself. Electronic textiles (e-textiles) will allow the design and production of a new generation of garments with distributed sensors and electronic functions. Such e-textiles will have the revolutionary ability to sense, act, store, emit, and move – think biomedical monitoring functions or new man-machine interfaces – while ideally leveraging an existing low-cost textile manufacturing infrastructure.

7. Nanoelectronics in VLSI :-

In the past decades, VLSI industries constantly shrank the size of transistors, so that more and more transistors

can be built into the same chip area to make VLSI more and more powerful in its functions. As the typical feature size of CMOS VLSI is shrunk into deep submicron domain, nanoelectronics is the next step in order to maintain Moore's law for several more decades. Nanoelectronics not only further improves the resolution in traditional photolithography process, but also introduces many brand-new fabrication strategies. Nanoelectronics is also enabling many novel devices and circuit architectures which are totally different from current microelectronics circuits, such as quantum computing, nanowire crossbar circuits, spinelectronics, etc. Nanotechnology is bringing another technology revolution to traditional CMOS VLSI technology.

In the past decades, VLSI technology has achieved tremendous progress. Based on VLSI technology, computers and information technology have greatly changed the lifestyle of our modern human society. In the VLSI industry, there has been a constant drive to shrink the size of transistors. In this way, more and more transistors can be integrated into the same chip area to make VLSI circuit more and more powerful. According to Moore's law, the amount of transistors in the same chip area is approximately doubled in every 12~18 months. Moore's law has been proved to govern the VLSI industry very well in the past decades. The transistor size has been shrunk into deep submicron or even nanometer domain. Nowadays a state-of-the-art Intel Xeon Microprocessor based on 45nm technology contains 1.90 billion transistors. This has enabled computers to be much faster and more powerful than before. As the transistor size continues to shrink, nowadays it is already approaching the bottom physical limit of traditional optical photolithography process. The minimum line width of modern microelectronic fabrication process is now comparable to the optical wavelength of the exposure light used in the photolithography. As a result, nowadays VLSI industry is facing a bottleneck to continue shrinking the size of transistors. In order to maintain Moore's law for another several decades, a brand new technology—nanoelectronics, must be introduced into VLSI industry.

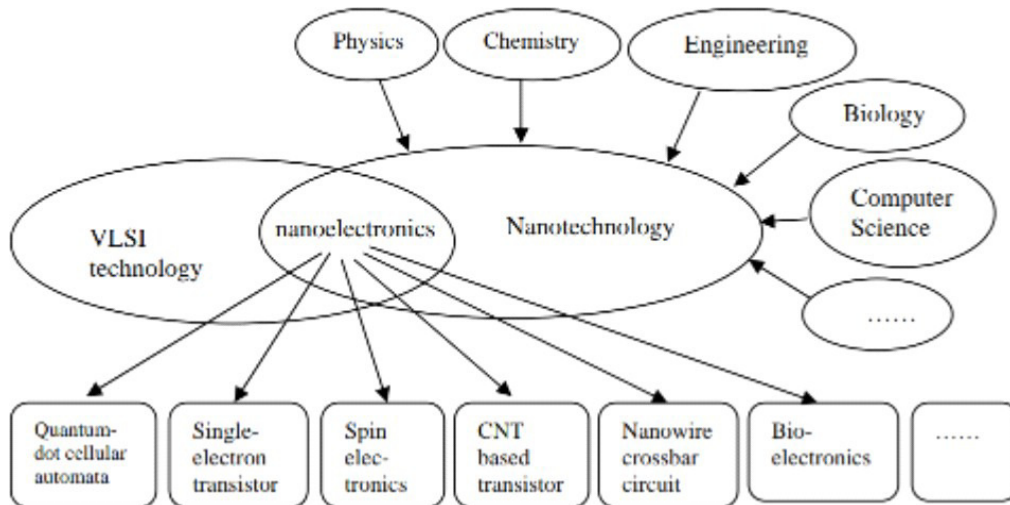


Fig.13. Interdisciplinary fields in Nanoelectronics

As an interdisciplinary technology, nanotechnology requires knowledge and skills from many different fields, such as physics, chemistry, biology, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, computer science, etc. Nanoelectronics is an interdisciplinary field between VLSI technology and nanotechnology. Nanotechnology is expected to bring a technical revolution to the current microelectronic VLSI industry. There are many different strategies for future nanoelectronics. For example, nanolithography technologies can be used for the line patterning in VLSI fabrication to achieve resolution in nanometer range. But this strategy still belongs to traditional top-down fabrication strategy. Another category of nanofabrication utilizes individual atoms and molecules to construct nanoelectronics circuits, which belongs to a brand new bottom-up self-assembly strategy. For example, dip-pen nanolithography (DPN) uses nano-ink with individual atoms in it to directly draw pattern on substrate. Other new transistors structures and nanoelectronics circuits based on quantum-dot cellular automata, spin electronics, carbon-nanotube (CNT) based transistors, nanowire cross-bar nanoelectronics circuits, bioelectronics have also been proposed. The fundamental element of any nanoelectronic circuit is the devices used to build it. For current VLSI systems these include silicon transistors and copper wires. For nanoelectronics, it appears that the copper wires will be replaced by either carbon nanotubes (CNT) or silicon nanowires (SNW). The move to CNT or SNW is because they can be chemically assembled at much smaller sizes than copper wires can be patterned with lithography. There are a number of technologies that could replace the transistor as the basic logic device, these include negative differential resistors, nanowire or carbon nanotube transistors, quantum cellular automata, and reconfigurable switches. These devices offer sizes of a few nanometers, can be self-assembled. Nanoelectronics may use totally different architecture from traditional microelectronics circuits, and their working principle may be totally different from current VLSI circuits. Nanoelectronics is bringing another technology revolution to current VLSI industry. As a result, nanoelectronics is bringing new challenges to researchers and the industry will need a large amount of trained engineers to meet the demand for next-generation nanoelectronics. The two emerging technologies in the field of memory storage are spintronics and twistrionics. Spintronics is one of the emerging fields for the next-generation nanoelectronic devices to reduce their power consumption and to increase their memory and processing capabilities. Such devices utilise the spin degree of freedom of electrons and/or holes, which can also interact with their orbital moments. In these devices, the spin polarisation is controlled either by magnetic layers used as spin-polarisers or analysers or via spin-orbit coupling. Spin waves can also be used to carry spin. Twistrionics is study of how the angle between layers of two dimensional materials can change their electrical properties.

Advantages:-

- Advanced properties of semiconductors can be determined.
- scale Nanoelectronics is also known as “the next step” in the miniaturization of electronic devices, with latest electronics theory and research in the field of nanoelectronics, it is possible to explore the diverse properties of molecules.
- Extreme fabrication also supports the multiple use of single machine. Parallel processing is also empowered by Nanoelectronics.
- Increasing process variability and expected physical and reliability limitations of devices and interconnects.
- Interface and system integration technologies on a single chip and/or integration of different types of chips and devices in a single package.
- Used to produce smaller and faster components.
- Computers consume less energy.
- High speed and high capacity memory.

8. Disadvantages:-

- Allowscircuitstobemoreaccurateontheatomiclevel.Quantumandcoherenceeffects,highelectricfield screatingavalanchediectricbreakdowns,heatdissipationproblemsincloselypackedstructuresaswell asthe non-uniformity of dopant atoms and the relevance of single atom defects are all roadblocks along thecurrentroadofminiaturization.
- Carriermobilitydecreasesaschannellengthdecreaseandverticalelectricfieldsincrease.
- Wattage/Areaincreasesasdensityincreases.
- Presently,nanoelectronicisveryexpensiveanddevelopingitcancostyoualot.
- Difficulttomanufactureduetonanosize.

9. FutureAspects:-

- Stretchableelectronicsorflexibleelectronics islikely tobethefutureofmobileelectronics.
- Potentialapplicationsincludewearableelectronicdevices,biomedicaluses,compactportabledevice s,androbotic devices.
- Inthefuture,it islikelythatgraphenewillbecomeadominantmaterialinflexibleelectronics.Grapheneis nothing but an allotrope of carbon that has superb electrical conductivity, flexibility, and physicalstrength.
- Application basedonspintronics.Spintronicsisthestudy of intrinsicspinof electronandit'sassociated magnetic moment.
- Application based on twistronics.Twistronics is study of angle between two semiconductors

layers.

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