Optimizing Semiconductor Devices by Self-organizing Particle Swarm

Abstract - A self-organizing particle swarm is presented. It works in dissipative state by employing the small inertia weight, according to experimental analysis on a simplified model, which with fast convergence. Then by recognizing and replacing inactive particles according to the process deviation information of device parameters, the fluctuation is introduced so as to driving the irreversible evolution process with better fitness. The testing on benchmark functions and an application example for device optimization with designed fitness function indicates it improves the performance effectively.

I. INTRODUCTION

From the deep sub-micrometer to nanoscale devices, the technology CAD (TCAD) tools provide a better insight than measurement techniques and have become indispensable in the new device creation [4]. Technology development, however, requires substantially more than measurement techniques and have become indispensable in the new device creation [4]. Technology development requires substantially more than only measurement techniques and have become indispensable in the new device creation. 

As the first step in technology synthesis [6, 8], device optimization problem is to finding some feasible device designables in the design space (S) in order to satisfying the requirements on the device electrical performance. Each device designable \( x = (x_1, ..., x_d) \in S \) is a possible combination of design parameters (xd) that specify the device topography and channel impurity concentrations associated with a semiconductor device. Typical design parameters are physical gate length, oxide thickness, etc. The D-dimensional design space (S) is a Cartesian product of domains of device parameters. Device performance is evaluated from the electrical responses of the device. Examples are on and off currents, threshold voltage, output resistance, etc. for MOS devices. 

For short channel MOS devices, the response surfaces of device performance are often highly nonlinearly. For scaled devices, such surfaces can be even highly rugged due to the disturbance from the mesh adjustment of device simulations, such as PISCES [22]. Moreover, the highly sophisticated novel semiconductor devices involve many design parameters, which increase the dimension of design space. For handling with such complex cases, the global search techniques, such as genetic algorithm (GA) [10], particle swarm optimization (PSO) [5, 7], etc., have been employed in a modeling and optimization system [21] for finding the feasible devices.

The number of evaluation times is crucially for device optimization since each device simulation is time-consuming. As a novel stochastic algorithm, PSO [5, 7] is inspired by social behavior of swarms. Studies [1] showed that although PSO discovered reasonable quality solutions much faster than other evolutionary algorithms (EAs), however, it did not possess the ability to improve upon the quality of the solutions as evolution goes on.

Structures of increasing complexity in self-organizing dissipative systems based on energy exchanges with the environment were developed into a general concept of dissipative structures (DS) by Prigogine [10, 12], which allows adaptation to the prevailing environment with extraordinarily flexible and robust. The self-organization of DS was implemented in a dissipative PSO (DPSO) model [19] with some good results. However, the DPSO model also introduces additional control parameters to be adjusted by hand, which cannot be very easily determined.

In this paper, the particle swarm is worked in dissipative state with the control parameters according to the experimental convergence analysis results from a simplified model. Instead of introducing additional parameters, the process deviations of device parameters are employed for recognizing inactive particles. Then the negative entropy is introduced to stimulate the model of PSO operating as a DS, which is realized by replacing inactive particles with fresh particles. The variant of particle swarm, termed self-organizing PSO (SOPSO), removes the additional parameters. The performance of the self-organizing PSO is studied on three benchmark functions and an application for a Focused-Ion-Beamed MOSFET (FIBMOS) [13] with designed fitness function, by comparing with some existing algorithms [9, 14, 19].

II. PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION

In particle swarm, the location of the \( i \)th (\( 1 \leq i \leq N \), \( i \in \mathbb{Z} \)) particle is a potential solution in \( \mathbb{S} \) represented as \( \mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, ..., x_{id}) \). The best previous position (with the best fitness value) of the \( i \)th particle is recorded and represented as \( \mathbf{p}_i = (p_{i1}, ..., p_{id}) \), which is also called pbest. The index of the best pbest among all the particles is represented by the symbol \( g \). The \( \mathbf{p}_g \) (or \( \mathbf{g} \)) is also called gbest. The velocity for the \( i \)th particle is \( \mathbf{v}_i = (v_{i1}, ..., v_{id}) \). At each time step, the \( i \)th particle is manipulated according to the following equations [14]:

\[ x_{im}^{(t+1)} = \min \left\{ \max \left\{ x_{im}^{(t)} + v_{im}^{(t)}, a_{i0} \right\}, a_{i1} \right\} \]

where \( a_{i0} \) and \( a_{i1} \) are upper and lower limits, respectively.
\[ v_i = w \cdot v_i + c_1 \cdot U_1 (p_i - x_i) + c_2 \cdot U_2 (g - x_i) \quad (1a) \]
\[ x_i = x_i + v_i \quad (1b) \]

where \( w \) is inertia weight, \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \) are acceleration constants, \( U() \) are random values between 0 and 1.

III. EXPERIMENTAL CONVERGENCE ANALYSIS

The convergence analysis can be done on a single dimension without loss of generality since there is no interaction between the different dimensions in equations (1), so that the subscript \( d \) is dropped. And the analysis is simplified even more for a single particle, then the subscript \( i \) is dropped, i.e.,
\[ v = w \cdot v + c_1 \cdot U (p - x) + c_2 \cdot U (g - x) \quad (2a) \]
\[ x = x + v \quad (2b) \]

Here just consider a special case \( |p - g| \rightarrow 0 \), which can be encountered by every particle. By transforming the coordinate origin to \( g \), i.e. \( p \approx g = 0 \), equation (2a) can be simplified as:
\[ v = w \cdot v - C \cdot x \quad (3) \]
where \( C = c_1 \cdot U + c_2 \cdot U \).

Several researchers have analyzed theoretically for the cases when \( C \) is fixed [2, 16, 17]. However, it still has great difficulty to analyze the cases when \( C \) is stochastically varied. Without loss of generality, here we suppose the \( g \) is in a local minimum, i.e. is not changed in the following generations. Fig. 1 gives the average \( \log(|x|) \) value of 1E6 experimental trails in 100 generations, where \( \log() \) is the logarithmic operator, the initial \( x(0) = U() \), the initial \( v(0) = U() \), \( c_1 = c_2 = 2 \). Besides, a special setting that in constriction factor (CF) [2] is also demonstrated in Fig.1 as a dash line, which with \( w = 0.729 \) and \( c_1 = c_2 = 1.494 \). Here it can be seen that the average \( \log(|x|) \) varied linearly as generation \( t \) is increasing. Besides, the CF version lies between \( w = 0.6 \sim 0.8 \) (about 0.65) in the normal version.

IV. SELF-ORGANIZING PARTICLE SWARM

To converge fast with considerable performance, a self-organizing PSO (SOPSO) based on the principle of DS is presented, as shown in Fig. 3.

Firstly, as a prerequisite of DS [10, 12], small \( w \), which is much less than \( w_{th} \), is adopted to induce the dissipative processes into the particle swarm, i.e. to reduce the average energy of swarm during evolution according to the nonlinear interactions among particles.

Secondly, the self-organization requires a system consisting of multiple elements in which nonlinear interactions between system elements are present [10]. In PSO, the equation (1) ensures nonlinear relations of positive and negative feedback between particles.
The total fitness function $F(\bar{x})$ is defined as:

$$F(\bar{x}) = F_{\text{OBJ}}(\bar{x}), F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}) > 0$$

where $F_{\text{OBJ}}(\bar{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{OBJ}}} w_j f_j(\bar{x})$ and $F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n_{\text{CON}}} G_k(\bar{x})$ are the fitness functions for objectives and constraints, respectively, where $w_k$ are positive weight constants, which default values are equal to 1, and

$$G_k(\bar{x}) = \begin{cases} 
0 & g_k(\bar{x}) \in [c_{k,1}, c_{k,2}] \\
(c_{k,1} - g_k(\bar{x}))/A_k & g_k(\bar{x}) < c_{k,1} \\
(g_k(\bar{x}) - c_{k,2})/B_k & g_k(\bar{x}) > c_{k,2} 
\end{cases}$$

where $A_k = \begin{cases} 1 & c_{k,1} \neq 0 \\
1 & c_{k,2} \neq 0 \end{cases}$ and $B_k = \begin{cases} 1 & c_{k,1} \neq 0 \\
1 & c_{k,2} \neq 0 \end{cases}$ are used for normalizing the large differences in the magnitude of the constraint values for device performance.

In order to avoid the difficulty to adjusting penalty coefficient in penalty function methods [9], the fitness evaluation is realized by directly comparison between any two points $\bar{x}_j, \bar{x}_k$, i.e. $F(\bar{x}_j) \leq F(\bar{x}_k)$ when $\{F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}_j) < F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}_k)\}$ OR $\{F_{\text{OBJ}}(\bar{x}_j) \leq F_{\text{OBJ}}(\bar{x}_k), F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}_j) = F_{\text{CON}}(\bar{x}_k)\}$.

If $F_{\text{CON}} = 0$, then the particle is feasible. It is also following the Deb’s criteria [3]: a) any $\bar{x} \in S_p$ is preferred to any $\bar{x} \notin S_p$; b) among two feasible solutions, the one having better $F_{\text{OBJ}}$ is preferred; c) among two infeasible solutions, the one having smaller $F_{\text{CON}}$ is preferred.

The device simulator may also be failed to calculate the responses for some designables when meets with inappropriate mesh settings. Then for such wrong cases, $F_{\text{OBJ}} = F_{\text{CON}} = +\infty$.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Benchmark functions

For comparison, three unconstrained benchmark functions that are commonly used in the evolutionary computation literature [14] are used. It can be done loss of generality, since the $F(\bar{x})$ of constrained function can be seemed as an unconstrained function. All functions have same minimum value, which are equal to zero.

The function $f_1$ is the Rosenbrock function:

$$f_1(\bar{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{DIM}}} (100(\bar{x}_{j+1} - \bar{x}_j^2) + (x_j - 1)^2)$$

The function $f_2$ is the generalized Rastrigrin function:

$$f_2(\bar{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{DIM}}} (\bar{x}_j^2 - 10\cos(2\pi\bar{x}_j) + 10)$$

The function $f_3$ is the generalized Griewank function:

$$f_3(\bar{x}) = \frac{1}{4000} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{\text{DIM}}} \bar{x}_j^2 - \prod_{j=1}^{n_{\text{DIM}}} \cos\left(\frac{x_j}{\sqrt{n_{\text{DIM}}}}\right) + 1$$
For $d$th dimension, $x_{\text{max,}d}=100$ for $f_1$, $x_{\text{max,}d}=10$ for $f_2$, $x_{\text{max,}d}=600$ for $f_3$. Acceleration constants $c_1=c_2=2$. The fitness value is set as function value. We had 500 trial runs for every instance.

Table 1 lists the initialization ranges. Table 2 gives the additional test conditions. FPSO give the results of fuzzy adaptive PSO [14]. DPSO give the results of PSO version in which $c_1=0$, $c_2=0.001$ [19]. For SOPSO, $w=0.4$, and $\sigma_d=0.01$ for the $d$th dimension of all functions. In order to investigate whether the SOPSO scales well or not, different numbers of particles ($N$) are used for each function which different dimensions. The numbers of particles $N$ are 20, 40 and 80. The maximum generations $T$ is set as 1000, 1500 and 2000 generations corresponding to the dimensions 10, 20 and 30, respectively.

### Table 1. Initialization Ranges

| Function | Asymmetric | Symmetric |
|----------|------------|-----------|
| $f_1$    | (15,30)    | (-100, 100) |
| $f_2$    | (2.56,5.12) | (-10,10)  |
| $f_3$    | (300,600)  | (-600,600) |

### Table 2. Test Conditions for Different PSO Versions

| PSO Type | FPSO [14] | DPSO [19] | SOPSO |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-------|
| Initialization $w$ | Asymmetric | Symmetric | Symmetric |
| Fuzzy | 0.4 | 0.4 |

### Table 3. The Mean Fitness Values for the Rosenbrock Function

| $N$ | $D$ | $T$ | FPSO [14] | DPSO | SOPSO |
|-----|-----|-----|-----------|------|-------|
| 20  | 10  | 1000 | 66.01409  | 35.7352 | 21.7764 |
| 20  | 1500 | 108.2865 | 78.5368 | 47.1619 |
| 30  | 2000 | 183.8037 | 132.1512 | 72.1907 |
| 40  | 10  | 1000 | 48.76523  | 17.0553 | 13.4052 |
| 20  | 1500 | 63.88408  | 43.8963 | 29.2476 |
| 30  | 2000 | 175.0093  | 82.7209 | 52.2661 |
| 80  | 10  | 1000 | 14.81645  | 17.7516 | 11.9570 |
| 20  | 1500 | 45.99998  | 32.2961 | 26.5855 |
| 30  | 2000 | 124.4184  | 57.2802 | 46.9986 |

### Table 4. The Mean Fitness Values for the Rastrigrin Function

| $N$ | $D$ | $T$ | FPSO [14] | DPSO | SOPSO |
|-----|-----|-----|-----------|------|-------|
| 20  | 10  | 1000 | 4.955165  | 0.4707 | 1.0079 |
| 20  | 1500 | 23.27334  | 2.5729 | 6.8493 |
| 30  | 2000 | 48.47555  | 7.3258 | 17.7011 |
| 40  | 10  | 1000 | 3.283368  | 0.0762 | 0.1576 |
| 20  | 1500 | 15.04448  | 1.3088 | 3.2670 |
| 30  | 2000 | 35.20146  | 6.2107 | 9.5294 |
| 80  | 10  | 1000 | 2.328207  | 0.0080 | 0.0086 |
| 20  | 1500 | 10.86099  | 0.7496 | 1.3517 |
| 30  | 2000 | 22.52393  | 4.2265 | 4.9781 |

Table 3 to 5 lists the mean fitness values for three functions. It is easy to see that SOPSO have better results than FPSO [14] for almost all cases. By compare it with the results of DPSO [15], SOPSO also performs better for all the cases of Rosenbrock function, and better than most cases of Griewank function slightly, although it performs worse for the cases of Rastrigrin function.

### B. Device Optimization Example

The performance of SOPSO was also demonstrated on a double-implantation focused-ion-beam MOSFETs [13, 21], as shown in Fig. 5. A device simulator PISCES-2ET [22] is used to calculate the device characteristics. Here most parameters are fixed. The effective channel length ($L_{\text{eff}}$) is 0.25µm; the oxide thickness ($T_{\text{ox}}$) is 0.01µm. For source and drain, the junction depth ($X_j$) is 0.1µm, doping concentration ($N_{SD}$) is 7.0E20cm $^{-3}$. For both of the P+ implant peaks in the channel, there have same implant energy as 10keV.

![Device schematic](image)

**Figure 5.** Schematic of 0.25µm double-implantation MOS device.

### Table 5. The Mean Fitness Values for the Griewank Function

| $N$ | $D$ | $T$ | FPSO [14] | DPSO [19] | SOPSO |
|-----|-----|-----|-----------|-----------|-------|
| 20  | 10  | 1000 | 0.091623  | 0.06506 | 0.06100 |
| 20  | 1500 | 0.027275 | 0.02215 | 0.02365 |
| 30  | 2000 | 0.021586 | 0.01793 | 0.02326 |
| 40  | 10  | 1000 | 0.075674  | 0.05673 | 0.05251 |
| 20  | 1500 | 0.031232 | 0.02150 | 0.01783 |
| 30  | 2000 | 0.014926 | 0.01356 | 0.01271 |
| 80  | 10  | 1000 | 0.068323  | 0.05266 | 0.04659 |
| 20  | 1500 | 0.025956 | 0.02029 | 0.01932 |
| 30  | 2000 | 0.014945 | 0.01190 | 0.01034 |

The design parameters include lateral implantation position that start from source side of channel for peak 1.
for each parameter, which includes almost all the possible implantation states in the device channel.

Table 7 lists the objectives, which includes drive current ($I_{on}$) and output conductance ($G_{out}$) at $V_{ds}=1.5\,V$, $V_{gs}=1.5\,V$; and off current ($I_{off}$) at $V_{gs}=1.5\,V$ and $V_{gs}=0\,V$.

| Name  | Objective | Unit       |
|-------|-----------|------------|
| $I_{on}$ | maximize    | $A/\mu m$  |
| $I_{off}$ | $\leq 1E^{-14}$ | $A/\mu m$  |
| $G_{out}$ | $\leq 8E^{-6}$ | $1/\Omega$ |

Several algorithm settings are tested. GENOCOP is a real-value genetic algorithm (GA) with multiply genetic operators [9], which had applied for optimizing device successfully [8, 21]. Here its population size is set as $N_{pop}=50$. For each generation, it has $N_{w}=10-12$ children individuals, the selection pressure $q=0.01$. For standard PSO, $w$ is fixed as 1 [7], 0.4, and a linearly decreasing $w$ which from 0.9 to 0.4 [14], respectively. For SOPSO, $w$ is fixed as 0.4. The number of particles $N=10$ for all the PSO versions. We had 20 trial runs for every instance.

![Graph](image)

Figure 6. Relative mean fitness $F_3$ of device optimization results.

Fig. 6 shows the relative mean performance $F_3=|F_{opt}-F_B|$ during 100 generations for different algorithms. Where $F_B$ is the mean fitness value of the best particle found in current generation that found by algorithm, and $F_{opt}=1.1641E-4A/\mu m$ is the optimum value for $I_{on}$ when satisfying the constraints on $I_{off}$ and $G_{out}$. For all the PSO versions, the total evaluation times is $T=1000$, which is a little less than that of GENOCOP (about 1650~1250). It shows that the original PSO version with $w=1$ [7], performed worst in all cases since it is worked in chaotic state. However, all the other PSO versions perform better than GENOCOP. The PSO version with $w=0.4$ converged fastly and stagnated at the last stage of evolution, since it is worked in dissipative state. The PSO version with a linearly decreasing $w$ which from 0.9 to 0.4 performed better than the PSO version with $w=0.4$ at last which converged slowly at the early stage while fastly at the last stage. Moreover, the SOPSO performed as the best in all cases, which evolving sustainable when the evolution of PSO with same $w$ is going to be stagnated. In addition, SOPSO costed only 24 generations to achieve the performance of GENOCOP, and only 46 generations to achieve the performance of PSO with $w=0.4$.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a self-organizing PSO was presented by simulating the self-organization. The particle swarm is worked in dissipative condition by employing a small $w$, based on experimental analysis for a simplified model, which with fast convergence. Then the negative entropy is introduced, which is realized by recognizing and replacing inactive particles according to the existing information of the problem, i.e. the process deviations of design parameters, so as to driving the irreversible evolution process with better fitness, while removes the additional control parameters.

The testing of three benchmark functions indicates the SOPSO has good performance. Then the testing results on a FIBMOS device illustate that the SOPSO has fast optimization capability from the early searching stage, which is crucially for device optimization since each evaluation by device simulation is time-consumption.

REFERENCES

[1] Angeline P J. Evolutionary optimization versus particle swarm optimization: philosophy and performance difference. Annual Conf. on Evolutionary Programming, San Diego, CA, USA, 1998: 601-610

[2] Clerc M, Kennedy J. The particle swarm - explosion, stability, and convergence in a multidimensional complex space. IEEE Trans. Evolutionary Computation, 2002, 6(1): 58-73

[3] Deb K. An efficient constraint handling method for genetic algorithms. Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering, 2000, 186(2-4): 311-338

[4] Dutton R W, Strojwas A J. Perspectives on technology and technology-driven CAD. IEEE Trans. Computer-aided Design of Integrated Circuits and Systems, 2000, 19(12): 1544-1560

[5] Eberhart R C, Kennedy J. A new optimizer using particle swarm theory. Int. Symposium on Micro Machine and Human Science, Nagoya, Japan, 1995: 39-43

[6] Hosack H H, Mozumder P K, and Pollack G P. Recent advances in process synthesis for semi-conductor devices. IEEE Trans. Electron Devices, 1998, 45 (3): 626 – 633

[7] Kennedy J, Eberhart R. Particle swarm optimization. Proc. IEEE Int. Conf. on Neural Networks, Perth, Australia, 1995: 1942-1948
[8] Li Z, Xie X F, Zhang W J, et al. Realization of semiconductor device synthesis with the parallel genetic algorithm. Asia and South Pacific Design Automation Conference, Yokohama, Japan, 2001: 45-49

[9] Michalewicz Z. Genetic algorithms + Data structures = Evolution programs, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1994

[10] Nicolis G, Prigogine I. Self-organization in nonequilibrium systems: from dissipative systems to order through fluctuations, John Wiley, New York, 1977

[11] Parsopoulos K E, Vrahatis M N. Recent approaches to global optimization problems through particle swarm optimization. Natural Computing, 2002 (1): 235-306

[12] Prigogine I. Introduction to thermodynamics of irreversible processes. John Wiley, New York, 1967

[13] Shen C C, Murguia J, Goldman N, et al. Use of focused-ion-beam and modeling to optimize submicron MOSFET characteristics. IEEE Trans. Electron Devices, 1998, 45(2): 453-459

[14] Shi Y H, Eberhart R C. Empirical study of particle swarm optimization. Congress on Evolutionary Computation, Washington DC, USA, 1999: 1945-1950

[15] Shi Y H, Eberhart R C. Fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization, IEEE Int. Conf. on Evolutionary Computation, Seoul, Korea, 2001: 101-106

[16] Trelea I C. The particle swarm optimization algorithm: convergence analysis and parameter selection. Information Processing Letters, 2003, 85(6): 317–325

[17] van den Bergh F. An Analysis of Particle Swarm Optimizers, Ph.D thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa, 2001

[18] Wolpert D H, Macready W G. No free lunch theorems for optimization. IEEE Trans. Evolutionary Computation, 1997, 1(1): 67-82

[19] Xie X F, Zhang W J, Yang Z L. A dissipative particle swarm optimization. Congress on Evolutionary Computation, Honolulu, HI, USA, 2002: 1456-1461

[20] Xie X F, Zhang W J, Yang Z L. Adaptive particle swarm optimization on individual level. Int. Conf. on Signal Processing, Beijing, China, 2002: 1215-1218

[21] Xie X F, Zhang W J, Lu Y, et al. Modeling and optimization system for semiconductor devices. Chinese J. Semiconductors, 2003, 24(3): 327-331 (In Chinese)

[22] Yu Z P, Chen D, So L, Dutton R W. PISCES-2ET manual. Integrated Circuits Laboratory, Stanford University, 1994