



length, 50  $\mu\text{m}$  width, and 3  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness, which result in a mechanical spring constant of 0.08 N/m, which is upto 100 $\times$  below commercial probes. The bolometer, which has Cr/Ni at the tip and Cr/Au leads, is  $\approx 45 \Omega$ .

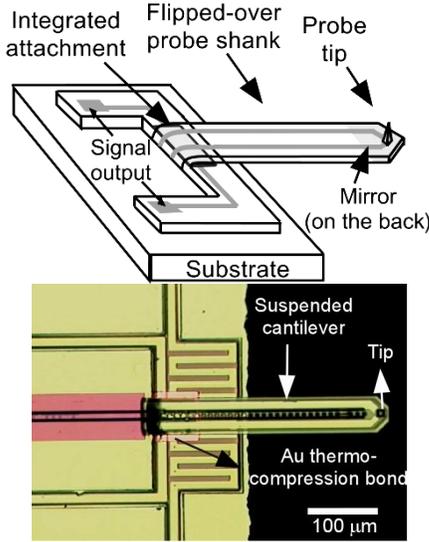


Fig. 2: Schematic and optical micrograph of a fabricated probe.

### B. Interface Circuit

The bolometer readout is through a Wheatstone bridge, which is commonly used for piezoresistive pressure sensors, strain gauges, etc. It is well suited for microfabrication and allows a differential measurement that offers a higher common-mode noise rejection than a single-element measurement. Historically, the conversion of bridge resistance to current or voltage for readout has suffered from non-linearity and restricted dynamic range [Yo00]. Additionally, in DC mode the signal is subject not only to thermal noise from the resistor bridge, but also 1/f flicker noise from the electronics. To overcome these challenges, many efforts have been made to convert resistance variation to frequency [Mo95, Hu87, Gi76], to duty cycle/time [Ci90, Go93], and to both of them [Fe97]. Some require components such as a pulsed bridge supply current, or an input amplifier with very low offset and drift [Gi76]. Furthermore, these approaches are constrained by switching delays causing non-linearity between frequency (or pulse width) and resistance change, are expensive to implement, and most importantly cannot be applied directly to operating the microbolometer or anemometer in a constant temperature mode.

The system used in this effort (Fig. 1) utilizes two separate feedback loops: electrical and optomechanical. As the probe (Fig. 2) scans the sample surface, topography is mapped by detecting the laser signal reflected off a mirror located near the tip and using this in a mechanical feedback loop to maintain constant contact force. Since variations in heat loss through the probe tip cause variations in the probe resistance, this quantity maps the temperature or thermal conductance of the sample.

When both a DC and an AC signal (at  $\omega_0$ ) are applied to the bridge (Fig. 1), the bolometer is modulated by the square of  $V_{DC} + V_{AC}\cos(\omega_0 t + \theta)$ , and its resistance changes proportional to:

$$\Delta R_p \propto V_{DC}^2 + 2V_{DC}V_{AC}\cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) + V_{AC}^2 \cos^2(\omega_0 t + \theta) \quad (1)$$

Therefore, bolometer resistance is approximately represented as:

$$R_p \approx R_{pDC} + R_{pAC}\cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) \text{ if } V_{AC}^2 \ll 2 \cdot V_{DC} \cdot V_{AC} \quad (2)$$

making  $\omega_0$  the dominant resistance-modulation frequency. The output of the bridge voltage difference amplifier is:

$$\Delta V_{out} = 0.5 \cdot I_{AC} R_{pAC} \cos(2\omega_0 t + \theta) + I_{DC} R_{pAC} \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) \quad (3)$$

If the  $2\omega_0$  term (second harmonic) of the voltage-modulation frequency is selected, the impact of 1/f flicker noise can be reduced. In addition, better signal-to-noise ratio is expected as  $I_{AC}$  becomes high to a certain extent. In the selected implementation,  $V_{DC}$  was 5 V and  $V_{AC}$  was 0.8 V.

The interface circuit includes a PI controller (which is comprised of an integrator and an inverting amplifier), and a simple homodyne demodulator (Fig. 1), in which the input signal is multiplied by in-phase local oscillator and then low pass filtered (Fig. 3). The PI controller has integral gain of  $10^4$  and proportional gain of 1, showing settling time  $< 10$  msec. This demodulation technique (Method A) is applicable when phase change in the input signal is negligibly small compared to change in its magnitude. The Method A is simple to implement and does not have mismatch problems which are faced in quadrature homodyne demodulation (Method B). In Method B, in-phase (I signal) and quadrature (Q signal) signals are generated, low pass filtered, and root mean squared. Problems are caused by mismatches between the amplitude of I and Q signals and errors in the nominally  $90^\circ$  phase shift. Method A is consequently preferred. According to our previous investigations [Li01], the -3 dB frequency of thermal response of the probe is about 0.5 kHz with an open-loop interface circuit. It is somewhat higher with a closed loop interface circuit because external power is used to increase effective thermal conductance of the probe [Sa93]. Consequently, for this project a 1 kHz dither is selected, and scan speeds are set to provide a measured data bandwidth  $< 50$  Hz. The bridge output voltage is band pass filtered at the second harmonic 2 kHz, and multiplied by the frequency doubled output of the dither oscillator (Fig. 3). The phase of the local oscillator is synchronized with that of input carrier signal to avoid signal distortion. The final output is obtained by low pass filtering. The Q factor of band pass filter and -3 dB frequency of low pass filter are based on the dither frequency and data bandwidth, but adjusted for low frequency noise near the band edge of scan data. Bi-quad band pass filters and bi-quad low pass filters are used because of their excellent tuning features and good stability. The gain, quality factor, and salient frequencies of the filters can be independently controlled.

### III. SYSTEM MODELING AND SIMULATION

The simulation of the whole sensing subsystem provides an understanding of the interaction between thermal behavior of the probe and electrical behavior of the interface circuit. It is accomplished using electrical parameters of the Simulink tool within MatLab<sup>TM</sup>. Figure 4 shows the state diagram for the combined subsystem. Using this, it is demonstrated how the demodulator achieves noise reduction compared to a non-dithered DC closed loop interface circuit.

A challenge in modeling the subsystem is how to transform a thermal probe into electrical parameters. The dotted block in bottom left of Fig. 4 represents the thermal probe model. The three inputs shown are used to mimic the time variation of thermal conductance encountered during a scan of photoresist lines on a Si substrate. Thermal conductance changes smoothly in a real scan, but the variation should have a non-zero and finite bandwidth to test the circuit for signal distortion. The sum of these inputs is multiplied by the temperature bias of the tip to calculate the power variation in the probe. This variation, which would otherwise modulate the bolometer, is instantly compensated by the interface circuit which keeps the probe temperature constant.

An important optimization parameter for simulations is the ratio of  $V_{DC}$  to  $V_{AC}$  in eqn. (1). As  $V_{AC}$  increases, modulation of

probe resistance by the second harmonic of applied power cannot be ignored. Additionally, simulations show that the PI controller loses its feedback control, even though the signal-to-noise at the output of demodulator becomes better in a certain range of  $V_{AC}$ . The probe temperature is supposed to be almost constant despite small AC temperature variations introduced for dither operation by the PI controller. However, as  $V_{AC}$  increases, power supplied by the AC component becomes comparable to DC power, causing the tip temperature to fluctuate significantly. Now the PI controller receives a significant AC signal in addition to the DC signal that is the differential output from the resistor bridge. The output of PI controller thus contains not only DC compensation power but also a significant amount of unnecessary AC power, which derails the PI feedback control. A low pass filter can be placed between bridge circuit and PI controller to avoid this problem. However, it is only useful when the dither frequency is much higher than bandwidth of the scan signal from the bridge. In the simulated system the mimicked signal at the input of the system contains frequency components at higher frequencies than the dithering signal.

Figure 4(a) represents a noiseless input to the system. When low frequency noise exists at 100 Hz, with a 20% variation in bolometer resistance the bridge output is deteriorated in the absence of electrical dithering (Fig. 4(b)). In contrast, the output of demodulator (Fig. 4(c)), which is used with electrical dithering, shows a much better signal-to-noise ratio. However, the output of demodulator can be distorted because high-frequency components of the input signal can be inadvertently screened by band pass filters with high quality factor. This motivates the use of the highest dither frequency (and thus a fast thermal response) to secure the maximum signal bandwidth.

#### IV. MEASUREMENT

Insets in Fig. 3 show frequency spectra at various circuit nodes taken while scanning a photoresist sample at a tip temperature of 45°C. Figure 3(a) shows that at the output of the bridge circuit, where the second harmonic contains the pursued power-modulated thermal signal, the amplitude ratio of the first harmonic to the second is 24.6, which is very close to the theoretical value of 25 obtained from eqn. (3). This demonstrates that the bandwidth of the thermal probe can be wider than 2 kHz and the 2 kHz-dithered signal is not distorted by thermal delay. Figure 3(b) shows that the band pass filtered signal has a dominant second harmonic. Filters with higher Q-factor can be used to suppress other harmonics, but could cause signal distortion due to reduced bandwidth. Figure 3(c) shows the output of the frequency doubling circuit, which serves as the local oscillator in demodulation. The dominant 2 kHz harmonic is obtained using a high Q-factor band pass filter. Figure 3(d) shows the multiplier output, where the DC component contains demodulated thermal signal. The output of the low pass filter shows that other harmonics can be effectively removed (Fig. 3(e)).

Figure 5 is a comparison of the thermal image with the topographic image obtained using closed loop interface circuit during measurements shown in Fig. 3. The sample was 350 nm thick, developed Shipley UV6™ photoresist, with a 1 μm pitch. The similarity between the two images is self-evident. The somewhat flatter top seen for the ridges in the thermal image is as expected because of the thermal diffusivity of the sample. According to a line scan across the photoresist patterns of Fig.5, the noise-limited minimum detectable thermal conductance change is  $\approx 29$  pW/K.

#### V. CONCLUSION

A scanning thermal imager with micromachined bolometer type probes and a custom interface circuit was described. Unified simulation of the transducer and circuit permits the components to be optimized together. The probe temperature can be precisely controlled by a PI controller while electrical dithering provides relative immunity to thermal bridge noise even for sub-μV low-frequency signals. Scanning thermal images obtained showed a high signal-to-noise ratio of 6 for 350nm UV photoresist in which the minimum detectable thermal conductance change was  $\approx 29$  pW/K.

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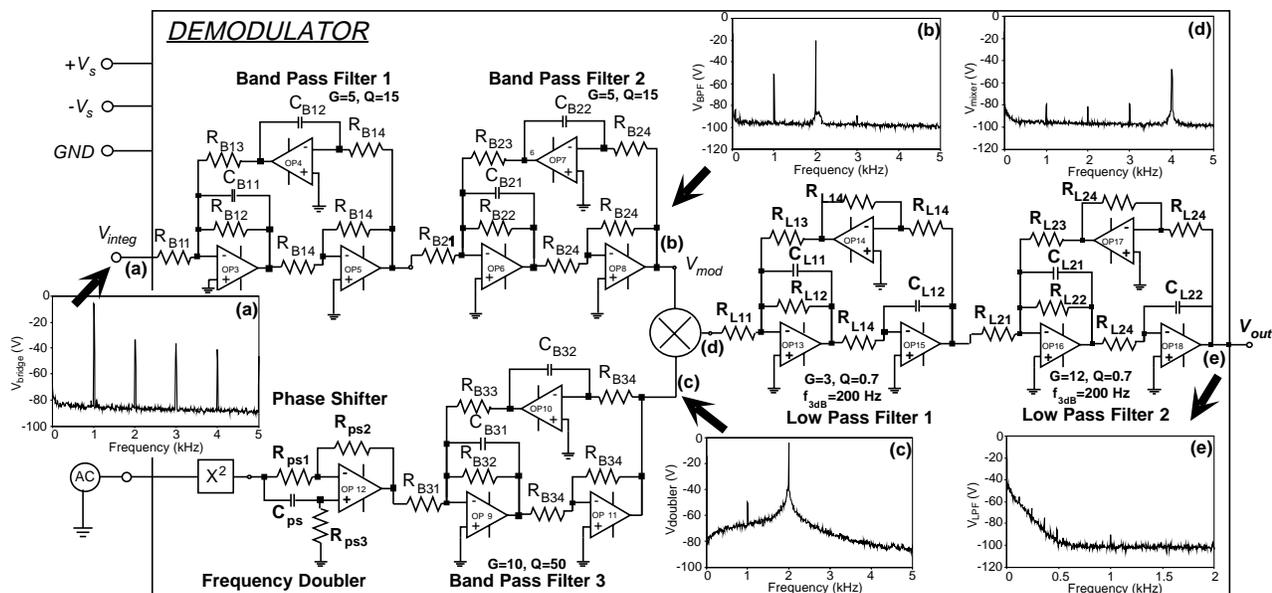


Fig. 3: Demodulator section of the interface circuit in Fig. 1. Embedded frequency spectra were obtained while scanning a real sample, not in a test mode. The scan results are present in Fig. 5.

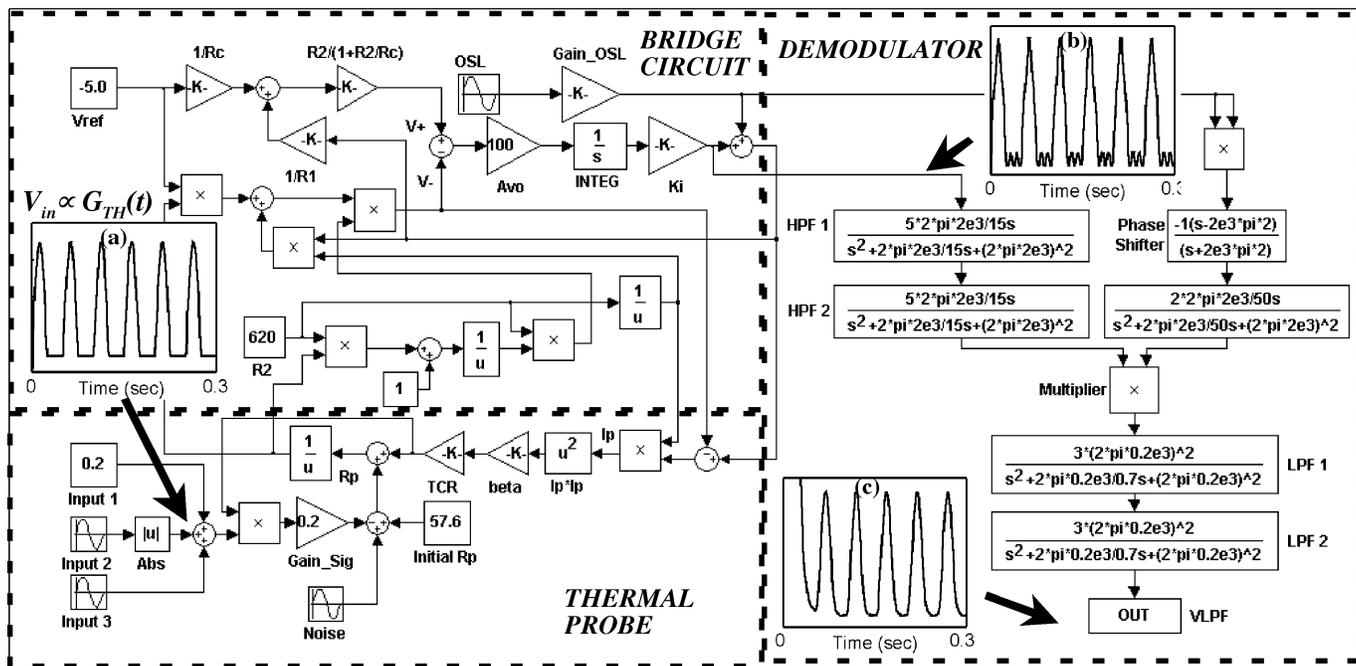


Fig. 4: State diagram for the scanning thermal microscopy system including thermal response of the probe and the electrical behavior of the circuit. The MatLab™ Simulink tool is used to optimize the circuit and evaluate overall performance, including noise immunity.

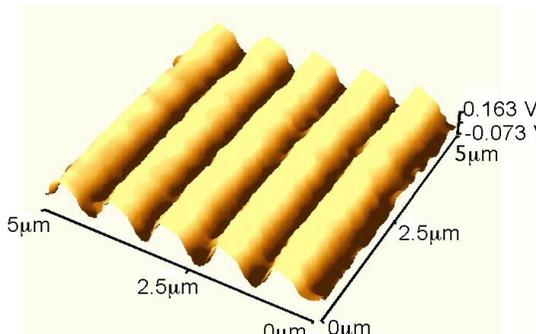
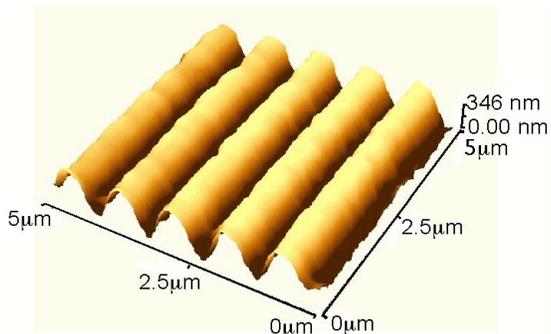


Fig. 5: Topographic (left) and thermal (right) images of developed 350 nm thick UV6™ photoresist scanned at 45°C tip temperature.  $\Delta G = 1.5 \times 10^{-7}$  (W/K)