# **A multi-timescale synaptic weight based on ferroelectric hafnium zirconium oxide**

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## **Supplementary Information**

#### **Supplementary Note 1. Passive pseudo-crossbar operation**

In a passive crossbar (**Supplementary Figure 1**), it is beneficial to have a gate resistance that compares to the channel resistance. In this schematic, the gate of device 11 is addressed: A parallel path (yellow dots) exists. If the channel resistances r12, r22 and r21 are small compared to the resistance of the gate R12, the gate of device 12 also sees a difference of potential equal to VG.





### **Supplementary Note 2. Structural analysis**

Grazing-Incidence X-Ray Diffraction (GIXRD) scan, taken after the crystallization of HZO and the extra WO<sub>x</sub> oxidation in a Rapid Thermal Annealer (RTA), is shown in **Supplementary Figure 3(a)** and confirms the ferroelectric orthorhombic phase of HZO. No monoclinic phase is observed, confirming the effectiveness of our Back-End-Of-Line (BEOL) compatible crystallization[1]. Further, the analysis indicates that the  $WO_x$  stayed amorphous during the RTA oxidation step as the characteristic peaks are missing. For comparison, a GIXRD scan of a crystallized  $WO_x$ (ICSD86144)[2] is shown in **Supplementary Figure 3 (a)**.

Bright-Field Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (BF-STEM) analysis displays the expected layer thicknesses and an amorphous WOx (**Supplementary Figure 3 (b)**). The rough topography of the W gate, originating from its columnar growth (**Supplementary Figure 3 (d)**), results in a projection effect (overlapping of measured elements) at layer boundaries as seen in the Energy-Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS) line profile in **Figure 1(b)**. Although the projection effect creates some uncertainty in the interpretation of the EDS data, two observations can be made: First, at the HZO/TiN interface a TiON layer was formed, possibly during the HZO growth by Atomic Layer Deposition (ALD). Second, Al diffusion into the WO<sub>x</sub> is measured (more pronounced than the artificial mixing by the projection effect). This is interesting as Al is expected to promote the reduction of  $WO_x[3]$ . (By reducing  $WO_3$  to  $WO_{3-x}$ , oxygen vacancies not only donate delocalized electrons to the conduction band but also modify the band structure [4], [5] near the Fermi level. Somewhere between  $x = 0.167$  and  $x = 0.2$ , the Fermi level moves up into the conduction band while the density of states in the valence band is reduced and a structural phase transition occurs ( $W_{20}O_{58}$  to  $W_{18}O_{49}$ [6]).

**Supplementary Figure 3 (c,d)** show Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) images taken in a Focused Ion Beam (FIB) system. The cross-sectional view shows the result of the Mechanical Chemical Polishing (CMP) step that was performed to remove the topography after M2. Clearly, the passivation has the same height as the W metal lines.

**Supplementary Figure 3 (e,f)** show a cross-sectional BF-STEM image of a crystallized HZO grain and the corresponding fast Fourier transform.



#### **Supplementary Note 3. Gate capacitance and resistance**

Devices with a channel length and width from 300  $nm$  to 2  $\mu m$  were fabricated to capture the geometrical influence on the device performance. In our design the gate (G) fully overlaps with the source (S) and the (D). The channel length is defined as the distance between the S and D contacts. First, the gate capacitance was measured across 30 FeFETs of different sizes and normalized by the gate area: A typical butterfly shaped capacitance dependence on the gate voltage ( $V_G$ ) was observed with  $C_G = 24 fF \cdot \mu m^{-2}$  at  $V_G = 0V$  (**Supplementary Figure 4(a)**). This is in good agreement with previous studies[7].

The gate resistance ( $R_G$ ) was measured on the same 30 FeFETs by applying a  $V_G$  from 1 V to 5 while grounding source and drain (**Supplementary Figure 4(b)**). At 1 the gate resistance is 740  $G\Omega \cdot \mu m^2$ , while at 5 V it decreases to 39  $G\Omega \cdot \mu m^2$ . Both values are high impedance and allow for low power writing. In addition, decreasing the device size reduces the power dissipation even more.



#### **Supplementary Note 4. Ferroelectric Polarization – PUND**

Ferroelectric properties of the HZO layer were analyzed by measuring positive-up negativedown (PUND) characteristics on a  $40x40 \mu m^2$  TiN/HZO/WO<sub>x</sub>/W (MFSM) capacitor on the same sample as the FeFETs (**Supplementary Figure 5**), resulting in a positive (negative) remanent polarization +P<sub>r</sub> = 17.7 μC/cm<sup>2</sup> (-P<sub>r</sub> = 11.2 μC/cm<sup>2</sup>) and a positive (negative) coercive field  $V_{c+}$  = 2.0 V ( $V_{\rm c}$  = 2.57 V). The asymmetric coercive field is due to asymmetric electrode workfunctions (WO<sub>3</sub>: 6.8 eV[8], W<sub>18</sub>O<sub>49</sub>: 6.4 eV[8], TiN: 4.55 eV[9]) that result in a build-in field. The reduced negative remanent polarization ( $-P_r = 11.2 \ \mu C \cdot cm^2$ ) as compared to the positive one (+ $P_r = 17.7 \mu C \cdot cm^2$ ) is an indication of partially switched domains due to incomplete screening by the depleted WO<sub>x</sub> layer and the thereby resulting depolarization field[10] across HZO. FeFETs with low hole-density channels show partial switching due to incomplete screening (charge balance requirements[11], [12]).



**Supplementary Note 5. Time and channel length dependent dynamic range**



channel length  $0.4 \mu m$  increases the slope.

The infulence of the write pulse width  $(t_w)$  on the dynamic range (DR) was obtained by measuing potentiation and depression ( $V_w \pm 6 V$ ) on 120 FeFETs with a channel width  $W_{ch}$ of 600  $nm$  and variyng channel length  $L_{ch}$  from 300 nm to 2  $\mu$ m. Repeating the same measuremnt for a  $t_w$  of 500  $\mu s$  (Figure 1(b)) and 500  $ms$  (Supplementary Figure 6 (a)) showed a clear dynamic range increase with increasing  $t_w$ . **Supplementary Figure 6(b)** shows the factor by which the dynamic range increased by increasing  $t_w$  as a function of the channel length. There is a small dependence on the channel length.



We can now define the total source-to-drain resistance as  $R_{\rm SD} = R_{\rm ch} + 2 R_{\rm c}$ , where  $R_{\rm ch} = \frac{\rho}{\rm t} \cdot \frac{\rm L}{\rm w}$ is the resistance of the WOx channel without the contact resistance (2Rc).

Plotting the LRS and HRS as a function of the channel length (**Supplementary Figure 7(a)**) is similar to transmission line measurements (TLM) and allows to extract the contact resistance  $(2R_c)$  at the y-intercept and the resistivity of the channel (ρ) from the slope of the linear regression. The extracted values for  $t_w = 500 \,\mu s$  and  $t_w = 500 \, ms$  are summarized in **Supplementary Table 1.** Multiple observations can be made: First, the  $R_c$  modulation has a greater influence on the DR than the  $\rho$  modulation. The same conclusion holds when comparing the DR by increasing  $t_w$ : The effect is more pronounced for  $R_c$  than for  $\rho$ .



**Supplementary Figure 7(b)** shows the LRS and HRS for  $t_w = 500 \,\mu s$  and  $t_w = 500 \,\text{ms}$  with  $2R_c$  subtracted and scaled by the channel dimensions as a function of the channel length  $(R_{\text{scaled}} = \frac{(R_{\text{SD}} - 2R_{\text{c}})W_{\text{ch}}}{L_{\text{ch}}}$ ). The fact that the linear regression has almost no slope shows that  $R_{\rm ch}$  scales with the geometry of the channel and that there is very little dependence of the  $DR_{R_{ch}}$ on the channel length. The dependence of the DR on the channel length must originate from the difference in the ratio of  $DR_{R_{ch}}$  and  $DR_{R_c}$  for different channel lengths.

## **Supplementary Note 6. Oxygen movement**

The ferroelectric effect is field-dependent and the polarization is supposed to saturate as soon as all domains have switched. In a FeFET this should translate into a saturation of the channel resistance as soon as the entire ferroelectric layer has switched. **Supplementary Figure 9** shows a non-saturating channel resistance when applying 90 identical pulses with  $V_w = 6 V$ and  $t_w = 100$  ms, indicating that there is a second effect like oxygen movement involved in the modulation.



#### **Supplementary Note 7. Temperature dependent conduction measurements**

Temperature dependent current measurements of the channel were conducted for two reasons: on one hand to characterize the  $WO<sub>x</sub>$  channels conduction mechanism. On the other hand, to further prove that two different effects are contributing to the resistance modulation of the channel at different timescales. The experiment was conducted as follows. At each temperature, the device was first set to its HRS, then the channel current ( $I_{DS}$ ) was measured by applying an I-V sweep from  $V_{SD} = -200 \ mV$  to  $V_{SD} = 200 \ mV$ . Then the same was repeated for the LRS. After the I-V measurements were conducted, the temperature was increased. To stabilize the temperature, we waited 10 min before starting with the next I-V sweeps. The following equation describes the ohmic conduction:

$$
J_{\rm SD} = \sigma E = \mu q N_{\rm C} \exp\left[\frac{-(E_{\rm C}-E_{\rm F})}{kT}\right] \frac{V_{\rm SD}}{L_{\rm ch}},
$$
  
\n
$$
\triangleq
$$
  
\n
$$
Log(J_{\rm SD}) = Log\left(\frac{\mu q N_{\rm C}}{L}\right) + \frac{-(E_{\rm C}-E_{\rm F})}{k} \times \frac{1}{T} + Log(V_{\rm SD})
$$
\n(2)

where  $J_{SD}$  is the current density,  $\sigma$  the electrical conductivity,  $\mu$  the electron mobility,  $q$  is the electronic charge,  $N_c$  the carrier concentration,  $(E_c - E_F)$  the energy difference between the conduction band and the Fermi level,  $k$  the Boltzmann constant,  $T$  the absolute temperature,  $V_{SD}$  the source-drain voltage and  $L_{ch}$  the length of the channel. **Supplementary Figure 8** shows temperature dependent current measurements of the channel. **Supplementary Figure 8(a)** shows the channel current density (*J*) as a Log(*J*)-Log( $|V|$ ) plot for the HRS and LRS at different temperatures. Here, the HRS was set by a short pulse of  $t_w = 500 \,\mu s$  and  $V_w = -6 V$  to stay in a regime where the ferroelectric effect is dominant. All the currents were well fitted by a line with  $slope = 1$ , a characteristic of ohmic conduction. **Supplementary Figure 8(b)** shows the Arrhenius plot of the y-intercepts from the linear regression of **Supplementary Figure 8(a)** as a function of 1/T. According to **Equation (2)** we can extract  $(E_C - E_F)$  from the slope (slope =  $\frac{-(E_C-E_F)}{E}$ ). This then allows to use **Equation (1)** to determine the  $\mu N_C$  product, under the assumption that  $\mu N_c$  is temperature independent [13]. The dynamic range became smaller with increasing temperature as shown in **Supplementary Figure 8(c).** This effect could be due to a phase transition from the orthorhombic ferroelectric phase of HZO to the tetragonal, antiferroelectric phase at elevated temperatures, as observed in  $ZrO_2[14]$  and  $Si:HO_2[15]$ . The same experiment was repeated where the HRS was set by 90 pulses of  $t_w = 100$  ms and  $V_w =$ 6 V, representing a much longer timescale (Supplementary Figure 8(d)). As can be seen in **Supplementary Figure 9**, a complete saturation of the HRS was usually not reached. Again, the current can be fitted with a linear regression with  $slope = 1$ . The corresponding Arrhenius plot (**Supplementary Figure 8(e)**) is used to extract  $E_C - E_F$  and  $\mu N_C$ . Since the HRS does not saturate, it is difficult to argue that at each temperature the same state is reached and hence also explains why the conduction in **Supplementary Figure 8(e)** does not linearly depend on  $1/T$ . In other words, using the same pulses to set the HRS at different temperatures will result in a different oxidation state of the  $WO<sub>x</sub>$  for each temperature. The extracted parameters are summarized in **Supplementary Table 2** where the values for the HRS should be treated with caution as explained above. Finally, **Supplementary Figure 8(f)** shows a dynamic range that increases with temperature, exactly what we expect if the resistance modulation is dominated by oxygen movement: the mobility of oxygen increases with temperature which leads to an enhanced oxidation and reduction of the channel.

In summary, this experiment clearly shows the ohmic nature of our  $WO<sub>x</sub>$  channel at read voltages ( $V_{SD} = \pm 200 \, \text{mV}$ ) for both the LRS and HRS. Especially by looking at the dynamic range dependence on temperature we can further prove that two different mechanisms resistance at two different timescales modulate the channel resistance.



**Supplementary Figure 9: Temperature dependent channel current (IDS) analysis. (a)** Log(*J*)-Log(|*V*|) plot of the channel current at different temperatures for the HRS and the LRS state. The HRS was set with a short pulse of  $t_w = 500 \mu s$  and  $V_w = -6$  V. (b) Arrhenius plot with the y-intercept from (a) as a function of 1/T. (c) The dynamic range as a function of temperature. **(d),(e),(f)** Same as (a), (b), (c) but the HRS was set by 90 long pulses of  $t_w = 100$  ms and  $V_w = -6$  V, trying to saturate the HRS.



## **Supplementary Note 8. Modification of the MLP+NeuroSimV3.0**[16] **code**

In the original code, the conductance variation from device-to-device was equally applied to all weights in the network. This is because the random generators seed is the current time in seconds (original L3:  $std::time(0)$ ), which produces the same output for an entire second. The initialisation of all the devices usually happens faster than a second and thus all devices get the same variation or at most two different variations. Since we want to encode a device-to-device conductance variation, the code was slightly adapted (modified L2:  $rd()$ instead of  $std:time(0)$  ) to generate a random variation for each device as follows:

- L8: Calculate the dynamic range OnOff.
- L9-L10: Calculate the conductance variation for minConductance and OnOff.
- L13-L14: Gaussian distribution functions with minConductanceVar and OnOffVar around 0.
- L17-L20: Define min and max variations measured on samples.
- L25-L30: Draw a random sample from the Gaussian distribution function of the conductance variation.
	- L31: Add the random conductance variation to the minConductance
- L35-L40: Draw a random sample from the Gaussian distribution function of the dynamic range variation.
	- L41: Add the random dynamic range variation to the dynamic range  $OnOff$ .
	- L43: Multiply minConductance with the random dynamic range to get the maxConductance

This way we can account for the variation in conductance and dynamic range. If a random variation from far into the gaussian tail is picked, which is higher or lower than the maximum or minimum variation measured on the devices, the process is repeated and a new variation is picked until it is within the boundaries. The resulting distributions are shown in **Figure 5**.

#### **Original code:**

```
//It's OK not to use the external gen, since here the device-to-device vairation is a
\mathbf{r}\leftrightarrow one-time deal
     std::mt19937 localGen;
\overline{2}localGen. seed(stat:time(0));\overline{3}\overline{4}/* Conductance range variation */5^{\circ}\boldsymbol{6}conductanceRangeVar = false; //Consider variation of conductance range or not
     maxConductanceVar = 0; //Sigma of maxConductance variation (S)\overline{7}8
     minConductanceVar = 0; //Sigma of minConductance variation (S)gaussian_dist_maxConductance = new std::normal_distribution<double>(0, maxConductanceVar);
\overline{9}10
     gaussian_dist_minConductance = new std::normal_distribution<double>(0, minConductanceVar);
11
     if (conductanceRangeVar) {
12maxConductance += (*gaussian_dist_maxConductance)(localGen);
13
       minConductance += (*gaussian_dist_minConductance) (localGen);
14
15
16
       // Conductance variation check
       if (minConductance >= maxConductance || maxConductance < \theta || minConductance < \theta )
17
18
       \mathcal{F}puts("[Error] Conductance variation check not passed. The variation may be too large.");
19
20exit(-1);21\mathbf{r}// Use the code below instead for re-choosing the variation if the check is not passed
22//do {23
       // maxConductance = avgMaxConductance + (*gaussian_dist_maxConductance)(localGen);
24
       // minConductance = avgMinConductance + (*gaussian_dist_minConductance)(localGen);
25
       //} while (minConductance >= maxConductance || maxConductance < 0 || minConductance < 0);
26
27
     €
```
#### **Modified code:**

```
std::random_device rd{};
\taustd::mt19937 localGen(rd()); //Change to rd() to create a random seed for every device
\overline{\phantom{a}}\overline{3}/* Conductance range variation *///=Variation of HRS and LRS from device-to-device
\overline{A}conductanceRangeVar = true; //Consider variation of conductance range or not
\mathbf{R}if (conductanceRangeVar)
\overline{6}\mathcal{F}\overline{7}OnOff = maxConductance / minConductance;8
       minConductanceVar = 0.39 * minConductance; //Sigma of minConductance variables variation (S)
\mathbf{Q}OnOffVar = 0.29 * OnOff; //Sigma of OnOff variation
10
11
       //create gaussian distribution function around 0
12
       gaussian\_dist\_minCond = new std::normal\_distribution < double>(0, minConductanceVar);13gaussian_dist_0n0ffVar = new std::normal_d distribution <double</a> (0, 0n0ffVar);14
15
       //max and min values in all devices measured in % of the mean
16
       double minCond_clip_max = 1.88;
17double minCond_clip_min = 0.38;
18
       double OnOffVar\_clip\_max = 1.43;19
       double OnOffVar_{clip\_min} = 0.48;2021/*If random sample from gaussian distribution is more/less than the max/min device
22measured, repeat if this is not done, sometimes a random sample is so far in the
23tail of the gaussian, that it makes the resulting conductance negative*/
24double minCondChange = 0;
25
       do{
26minCondChange = (*gaussian\_dist\_minCond) (localGen);27
28}while((minConductance + minCondChange) <= (minConductance * minCondVar_clip_min)
29
            \vert\vert (minConductance + minCondChange) >= (minConductance * minCondVar_clip_max));
30minConductance += minCondChange;3132/*Multiply minConductance by a 0n0ff value from a gaussian distribution around the
33
       mean. Repeat if OnOff is too far in the tale*/
34double OnOffChange = 0;
35
       do{
36OnOffChange = (*gaussian_dist_OnOffVar)(localGen);
37
38}while((OnOff + OnOffChange) <= (OnOff * OnOffVar_clip_min)
39
            || (OnOff + OnOffChange) >= (OnOff * OnOffVar_clip_max));
40
       OnOff += OnOffChange;
41
42
       maxConductance = minConductance * OnOff;43
       printf("conductance=%.4e / %.4e / %f\n", minConductance, maxConductance, OnOff);
44
45
       // Conductance variation check
46if (minConductance >= maxConductance || maxConductance < \theta || minConductance < \theta )
47
48\overline{A}puts ("[Error] Conductance variation check not passed. The variation may be too large.");
49
         exit(-1);50
51
       \mathbf{r}\mathbf{r}52
```


**Supplementary Figure 10: Channel-resistance modulation effects.** Schematic diagram illustrating the resistive switching mechanism. (a) Only electrostatic effects are represented. When the polarization points towards (resp. outwards) the ntype, WO<sub>x</sub> channel, carriers accumulate (resp. deplete) in the channel. The electrostatic, ferroelectric field-effect is responsible of the Source (S) - Drain (D) modulation at every timescale. (b) A programming pulse of duration  $t_w$  is applied on the gate. The ferroelectric domains anti-parallel to the field switch (white arrow). If  $t_w$  is long enough, an additional mechanism occurs: the WO<sub>x</sub> channel is reduced by the HZO (red arrows). (c) as a result, the oxygen vacancies in the WO<sub>x</sub> channel further decrease the  $R_{SD}$  resistance. As the field is applied in the opposite direction, the oxygen atoms are pushed back from the HZO to the  $WO<sub>x</sub>$  channel (not represented).



**Supplementary Table 3: Comparison to state-of-the-art FeFETs.** Benchmarking of the proposed FeFET for ANNs. The online learning accuracy is estimated using NeuroSim MLP platform, before correction.

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