



# Ion-gated tungsten oxide based electrochemical transistors with subthreshold slopes approaching the thermodynamic limit

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## Abstract

Electrochemical transistors (ECTs) are switches that are controlled by ionic gating, and find emerging applications in electronic devices and chemical sensors. In this paper, we fabricate microscale tungsten oxide ( $\text{WO}_x$ ) ECTs and study their subthreshold characteristics. We optimize the film deposition process to produce  $\text{WO}_x$  films with various oxygen concentrations, and investigate their physical and chemical properties. We employ transparent amorphous  $\text{WO}_3$  films as the channel material for ECTs, and experimentally investigate their subthreshold behaviors by injecting different metal ions in electrolytes. In addition, we explore the dynamic response of the  $\text{WO}_3$  ECT. Gated by cation intercalation, we find that these  $\text{WO}_3$  ECTs can obtain a subthreshold slope as low as 60 mV/dec at room temperature, approaching the same thermodynamic limit as field-effect transistors. The material and device strategies provide a route to realizing future computing and sensing devices.

**Keywords** Electrochemical transistor · Subthreshold slope · Tungsten oxide · Ion intercalation

## 1 Introduction

Since their invention, silicon-based complementary metal–oxide–semiconductor (CMOS) transistors, or metal–oxide–semiconductor field-effect transistors (MOSFETs), have been serving as the cornerstone of modern integrated circuits. In the past few decades, the integrated circuit industry began to take the highway of production and application from scientific research. The evolution of MOSFETs has been following the Moore's law [1], which predicts that the transistors continue to be smaller, faster, and more energy efficient, providing computing systems with higher capacity and efficacy [2–4]. To further scale down the transistors and improve the circuit performance, new device architectures have been continuously developed. Representative examples include fin field-effect transistors (FinFETs) [5, 6] and gate-all-around field-effect transistors (GAAFETs) [7, 8]. Nowadays, state-of-the-art CMOS

transistors have geometries scaled down to the nanometer scale and approaching the physical limit [9], and device concepts based on novel channel semiconductors like 2D materials have been proposed to further reduce the device footprint [10].

On the other hand, electrochemical transistors (ECTs) have semiconductor channels whose conductivity is modulated by ions rather than electrons. In these ECTs, external electrical fields are applied in an electrolyte, inject mobile metallic cations into the channels, dope the channel material and alter its conductance [11, 12]. The channel components comprise organic compounds like poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) polystyrene sulfonate (PEDOT:PSS) [13] or inorganic materials including tungsten oxide ( $\text{WO}_x$ ) and molybdenum oxide [14]. Their intercalation based operation mechanism is fundamentally different from that of conventional field-effect transistors (FETs), and has drawn considerable attention in areas like neuromorphic computing, chemical and biological sensing [15–20]. Similar to traditional FETs, the subthreshold slope ( $SS$ ) of ECTs should be above  $kT \cdot \ln 10 / q \approx 60$  mV/dec at room temperature ( $T = 300$  K), dictated by the Boltzmann limit [21]. However, few works have investigated the subthreshold behaviors of these ECT devices, and most works merely focus on the linear and saturation regions of ECTs, with lithium ( $\text{Li}^+$ ) as the injected cation [22–25]. A recent study reports a

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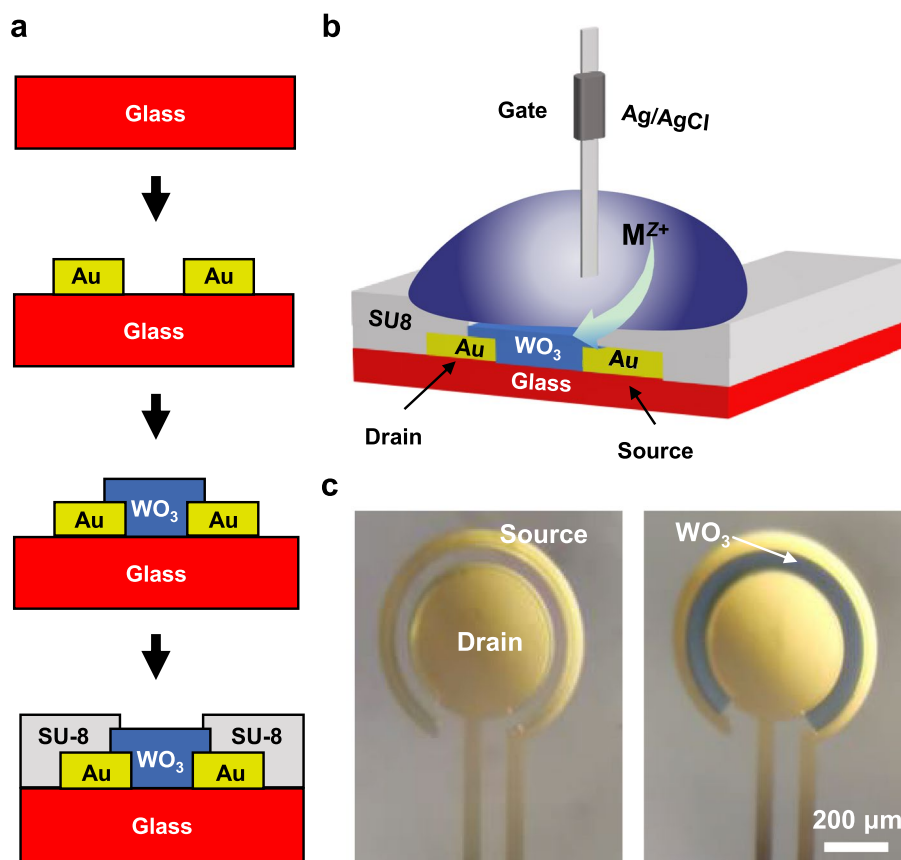
well-designed organic ECT based on a special organic channel can have an  $SS$  approaching 60 mV/dec [26]. Nevertheless, subthreshold characteristics of inorganic based ECTs have not yet been systematically investigated. In addition, most reported intercalation processes in inorganic ECTs are based on  $\text{Li}^+$  cation, but subthreshold behaviors of these devices injected with different ions remain unexplored, either. We envision that studying the subthreshold properties of inorganic ECTs would create vast opportunities in the development of novel sensing and computing devices.

In this work, we exploit the subthreshold behaviors of a  $\text{WO}_x$  based ECT, under the injection of different metallic cations. We lithographically define microscale  $\text{WO}_x$  ECTs, and experimentally investigate their physical and chemical characteristics. In particular, we systematically measure the subthreshold properties of the  $\text{WO}_x$  ECT intercalated with various ions, and find that the designed device has an  $SS$  approaching 60 mV/dec at room temperature. Finally, we examine the temporal response of the device.

## 2 Materials and methods

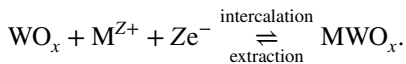
Figure 1a illustrates the structure and fabrication process to produce the  $\text{WO}_x$ -based ECT devices. First, glass substrates are immersed in a mixture of ammonia and hydrogen peroxide in deionized (DI) water (1:1:5) solution at 70 °C for cleaning for 10 min, and then washed with acetone, isopropyl alcohol and DI water, respectively. Subsequently, a photoresist layer (AZ nLof 2070, Microchemicals) is spin-coated on the cleaned glass substrate. After baking the solvent, ultraviolet light (365 nm i-Line) exposes the photoresist through a chrome photomask, and the electrode pattern of the device is obtained by immersing the sample in the alkaline developer (MIF-300). Under the condition of argon (Ar) (power 32 W, pressure 0.25 Pa, Ar flow 40 sccm, deposition rate 10 nm/min), chrome/gold (Cr/Au) films with thicknesses of about 10 nm/100 nm are deposited by DC magnetron sputtering. After lifting off the photoresist in acetone, patterned Cr/Au films are obtained as the source and drain electrodes. A similar process is applied to fabricate patterned  $\text{WO}_x$  films on top of Cr/Au electrodes. Specifically, a  $\text{WO}_x$  film (thickness ~ 100 nm) is grown by DC magnetron sputtering with a pure tungsten (W) target in a mixture of argon (Ar) and oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ ) gases (power 60 W, pressure 2.5 Pa, Ar flow

**Fig. 1** **a** Schematic illustration of the process flow to fabricate the  $\text{WO}_x$  based electrochemical transistor (ECT) devices. **b** 3D cartoon illustration of the intercalation process for the ECT in an aqueous solution containing cations ( $\text{M}^{Z+}$ ), with a Ag/AgCl wire as the gate electrode. **c** Microscopic photos showing an ECT before (top) and after (bottom) cation intercalation



40 sccm, O<sub>2</sub> flow varying from 0 to 40 sccm, deposition rate ~ 10 nm/min). Finally, an epoxy layer (thickness ~ 5 μm, SU-8 3005, Microchemicals) is lithographically patterned and protects the Cr/Au electrode film against the electrolyte.

Shown in Fig. 1b, the WO<sub>x</sub> ECT is operated when immersed into a liquid electrolyte made of a propylene carbonate (PC) solution containing different metal cations (M<sup>Z+</sup>). A silver/silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) wire inserts into the electrolyte as the gate electrode. Under an applied bias voltage (V<sub>g</sub>), metal ions are intercalated into or extracted from the WO<sub>x</sub> channel and alter the channel conductance, via the redox reaction [27, 28]:



Following the reaction, the valence state of W varies between the high level W<sup>6+</sup> and the low level W<sup>5+</sup>, resulting in the WO<sub>x</sub> channel's color change between the transparent state and the blue state, as shown in captured photos (Fig. 1c). Shown in Fig. 1c, the WO<sub>x</sub> ECT has a channel length of about 50 μm, and a circular shaped WO<sub>x</sub> channel layer is designed to increase the channel width to more than 1 mm, thereby increase the channel conductance.

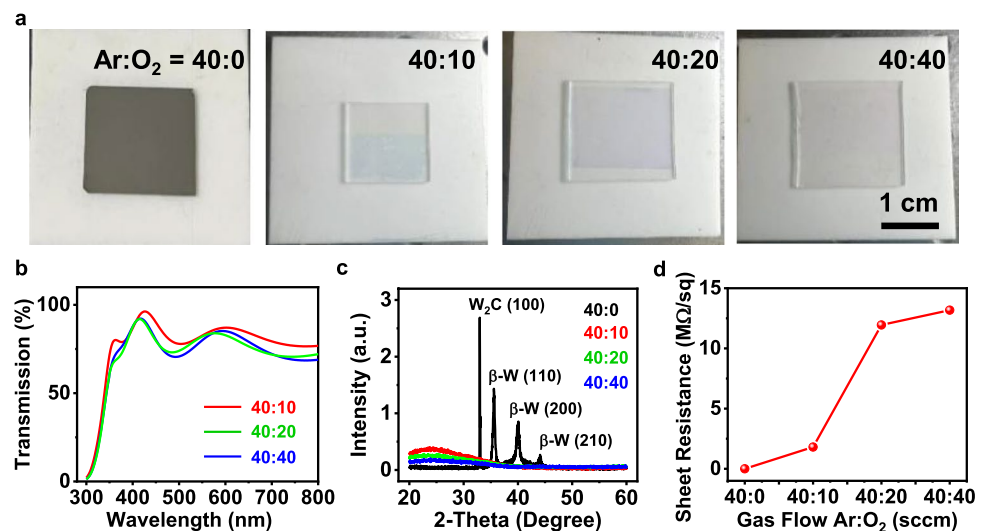
### 3 Results

We further characterize physical and chemical properties of the as-deposited WO<sub>x</sub> film under different conditions. Different WO<sub>x</sub> films are formed by sputtering a pure W target in different gas environments. During the sputtering process, the flow of Ar gas is fixed at 40 sccm, while the flow of O<sub>2</sub> gas is adjusted from 0 to 40 sccm to vary the valence state of W. Figure 2a shows WO<sub>x</sub> films deposited on glass under different Ar:O<sub>2</sub> ratios (40:0, 40:10, 40:20 and 40:40, in the unit

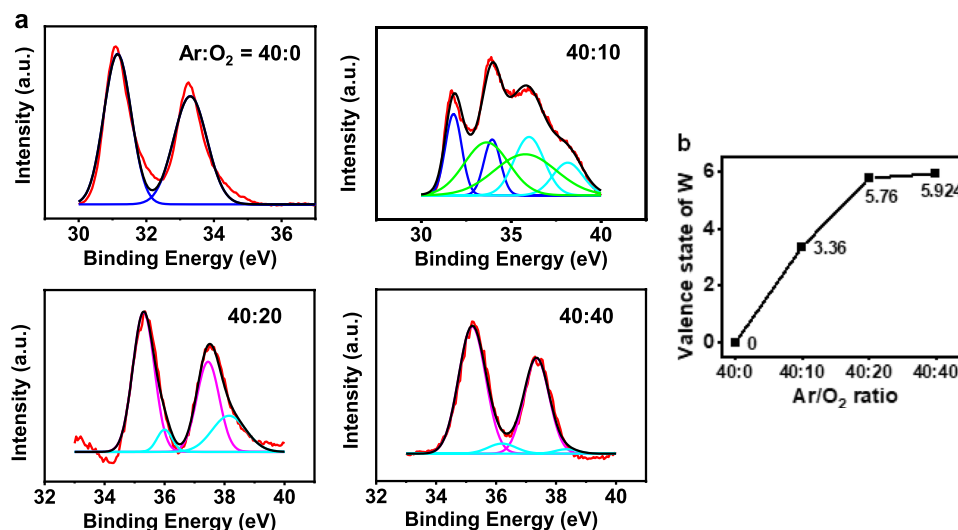
of sccm). Sputtering with pure Ar gas (Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:0) produces a pure and opaque metallic W film. The addition of O<sub>2</sub> gas causes the oxidation of W (forms WO<sub>x</sub>) and enhances the film transparency in the visible range (Fig. 2b). The optical transmittance spectra for these different W and WO<sub>x</sub> films are characterized from 300 to 800 nm at normal incidence, by using a ultraviolet–visible–infrared spectrometer (CARY 5000, Agilent). The band gap energy of these WO<sub>x</sub> films is determined by the Tauc-plot method and around 3.58 eV, consistent with reported data [29]. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns in Fig. 2c reveal β-phase W (for Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:0) and amorphous states of WO<sub>x</sub> films (for Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:10, 40:20 and 40:40). The measured sheet resistances for these four samples in Fig. 2a are 27 × 10<sup>-9</sup>, 1.8, 12 and 13 MΩ/sq, respectively (Fig. 2d). As demonstrated in the subsequent section, the gas flow of Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:40 creates the WO<sub>x</sub> film with the highest valence state (approaching 6+) for W, which has the highest transparency in the visible spectral range, as well as the lowest electrical conductivity. As shown in Fig. 1c, through the intercalation process by applying a forward bias through the electrolyte, metallic cations like Li<sup>+</sup> can be injected into the WO<sub>x</sub> film, reducing its transparency and increasing its electrical conductivity, both due to the generation of extra free carriers in the intercalated WO<sub>x</sub> film.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic (XPS) measurements further reveal the chemical state of WO<sub>x</sub> films (Fig. 3). Figure 3a plots the W 4f core-level XPS results for four different samples. The measured spectra (red curves) are fitted using four different colored curves, of which blue, green, cyan and purple ones represent elementary W, W<sup>4+</sup>, W<sup>5+</sup> and W<sup>6+</sup> ionic states, respectively [30]. Associated binding energy peaks are 31.6 eV and 33.8 eV for W, 33.1 eV and 35.3 eV for W<sup>4+</sup>, 36.1 eV and 38.3 eV for W<sup>5+</sup>, 35.4 eV and 37.6 eV for W<sup>6+</sup>. Black curves present the overall fitting results that match the experimental data (red curves).

**Fig. 2** **a** Photographs showing sputtered WO<sub>x</sub> films with different gas flows. From left to right, flow of Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:0, 40:10, 40:20, 40:40 (unit: sccm). **b** Optical transmission spectra of WO<sub>x</sub> deposited with different O ratio. Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:10 (red), 40:20 (green), 40:40 (blue). **c** XRD spectra for WO<sub>x</sub> deposited with different O ratio. Ar:O<sub>2</sub> = 40:0 (black), 40:10 (red), 40:20 (green), 40:40 (blue). The W<sub>2</sub>C (100) peak is probably originated from the carbon contamination in the W film [31]. **d** Measured sheet resistance for WO<sub>x</sub> deposited with different O ratio



**Fig. 3** **a** XPS  $W_{4f}$  wide angle spectra of  $WO_x$  deposited with different  $O_2$  ratio. Ar: $O_2$ =40:0, 40:10, 40:20, 40:40. Red and black curves are for the original data and fitting results, respectively. Blue, green, cyan and purple curves correspond to W,  $W^{4+}$ ,  $W^{5+}$  and  $W^{6+}$ , respectively. **b** Valence state of W at different sputtering conditions

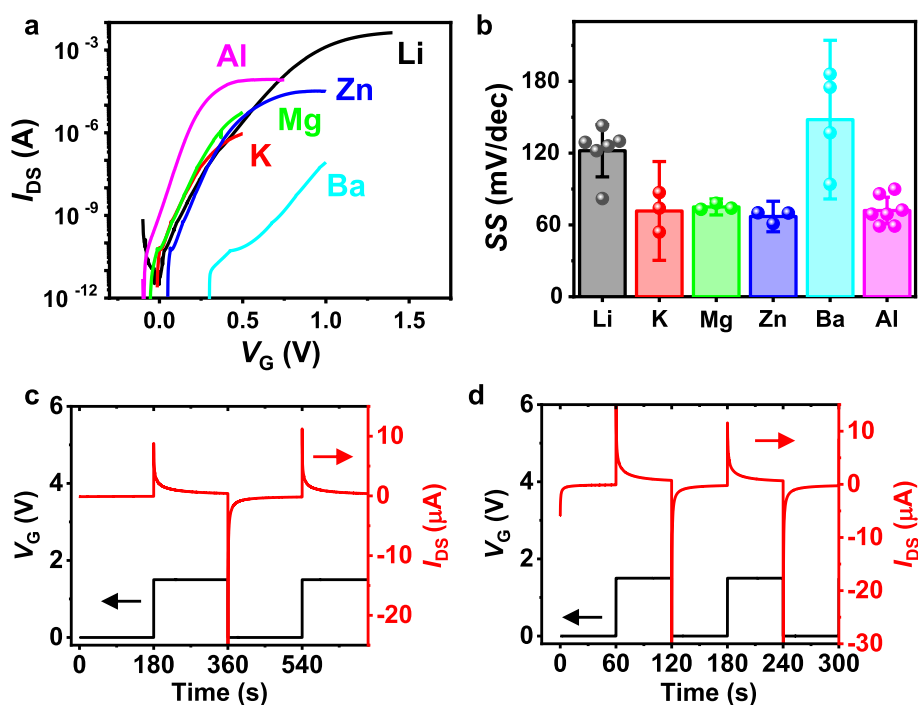


Based on the fitting data, corresponding valence states of W for different films are calculated by weighting the integral of different peaks, and plotted in Fig. 3b. First, the film deposited without  $O_2$  gas only contains peaks for elementary W. The W valence state increases associated with the additional  $O_2$  gas during sputtering. The  $WO_x$  film deposited at Ar: $O_2$ =40:10 contains W,  $W^{4+}$  and  $W^{5+}$ , with a W valence state of 3.36. At Ar: $O_2$ =40:20, metallic W and  $W^{4+}$  disappear, and only  $W^{5+}$  and  $W^{6+}$  remain in the film (valence state = 5.76). At Ar: $O_2$ =40:40, almost all the W atoms are completely oxidized and become  $W^{6+}$  (valence state = 5.924), resulting a tungsten trioxide ( $WO_3$ )

film with the highest transparency and the lowest electrical conductance among all the samples.

The fully oxidized  $WO_3$  film, which exhibit the highest visible transparency and electrical resistivity, is utilized to form the channel of the ECT device shown in Fig. 1. In Fig. 4a, b, we study its subthreshold behaviors during intercalation. While similar  $WO_3$  or other metal oxides based ECT devices have been reported previously, their SS parameters have not been analyzed. Here, different metallic cations ( $Li^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$ ,  $Ba^{2+}$ , or  $Al^{3+}$ ) are mixed into the PC electrolyte with the same concentration of 1 mol/L. A droplet of electrolyte is placed on the ECT, and

**Fig. 4** **a** Transfer characteristics of a typical  $WO_3$  ECT with the intercalation of different cations:  $Li^+$  (black),  $K^+$  (red),  $Mg^{2+}$  (green),  $Zn^{2+}$  (blue),  $Ba^{2+}$  (cyan) and  $Al^{3+}$  (purple). **b** Measured subthreshold slopes (SS) for the  $WO_x$  ECT with the intercalation with different metal ions. Sample numbers are  $n=6, 3, 3, 3, 4$  and  $7$  for Li, K, Mg, Zn, Ba and Al, respectively. **c, d** Dynamic response of drain–source current ( $I_{DS}$ ) for the  $WO_x$  ECT under a cyclic gate voltage ( $V_G=0$  or  $1.5$  V) with a period of **c** 180 s and **d** 60 s. Here the drain–source voltage ( $V_{DS}$ ) is kept at 0.5 V



the gate voltage ( $V_G$ ) is supplied with a Ag/AgCl electrode. Via a semiconductor parameter analyzer (Keithley 4200A-SCS, Tektronix),  $V_G$  is scanned from  $-0.5$  to  $+1.5$  V at a sweeping rate of  $1$  mV/s, and the supplied voltage between the drain and source electrodes ( $V_{DS}$ ) is set to  $0.5$  V. Figure 4a plots transfer characteristics of the  $WO_3$  ECT when injected by different metal ions at room temperature. Around  $V_G = 0$  V, the measured drain–source current ( $I_{DS}$ ) follows a classical logarithmic function of  $V_G$ . The SS results of the ECT are calculated based on  $I_{DS}$  in the range between  $10^{-9}$  and  $10^{-3}$  A. In Fig. 4b, statistical analyses based on multiple repetitive measurements show that obtained SS are  $122 \pm 20$ ,  $72 \pm 20$ ,  $75 \pm 3$ ,  $67 \pm 6$ ,  $148 \pm 50$ , and  $72 \pm 18$  mV/dec, for the intercalation of  $Li^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$ ,  $Ba^{2+}$  and  $Al^{3+}$ , respectively. We can clearly see that the SS of microscale  $WO_3$  ECT can approach the thermodynamic limit ( $kT \cdot \ln 10 / q \approx 60$  mV/dec) when intercalated with cations like  $K^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$  or  $Al^{3+}$ . Conventionally,  $Li^+$  is commonly used for intercalation in ECTs, because of its small atomic size and fast dynamics in ionic solids. However, here we find that the SS of microscale  $WO_3$  ECT is relatively large ( $122 \pm 20$  mV/dec) when intercalated with  $Li^+$ , which is likely due to the fact that  $Li^+$  can lead to a large leakage current by ion insertion [32]. Additionally, devices injected with  $Ba^{2+}$  also possess a relatively high SS ( $148 \pm 50$  mV/dec) and a large variance, and this is because that compared to other ions, the large size of  $Ba^{2+}$  makes it difficult to be inserted into the  $WO_3$  [33]. Furthermore, the large size of  $Ba^{2+}$  also causes a positive offset (around  $+0.3$  V) of the turn-on voltage compared to other ions.

We further explore the dynamic response of the  $WO_3$  ECT under cyclic  $Li^+$  intercalation and extraction. At  $V_{DS} = 0.5$  V,  $I_{DS}$  is measured by applying a square-wave  $V_G$  signal voltage of  $0$  V and  $1.5$  V at the minimum and the maximum. Figures 4c, d plot recorded temporal  $I_{DS}$  signals with wave periods of  $360$  s and  $120$  s, respectively. When  $V_G$  is switched from  $0$  to  $1.5$  V or vice versa, the device experience a prompt  $I_{DS}$  increase or decrease, which is probably associated with the capacitive charge or discharge within the electrolyte. Due to the poor conductivity of the solvent PC, the operating current was reversed when the VG was suddenly switched to a high voltage. After nearly 1 min of stability,  $I_{DS}$  gradually falls back to the stable state, and the current at this time is larger than that in the low-voltage region.  $I_{DS}$  stabilizes after charging for about 1 min, when the  $Li^+$  intercalation reaches a saturation state. The temporal response of the  $WO_3$  ECT is much slower than that of PEDOT:PSS organic ECT operated in an aqueous solution [34], due to the slow diffusion of cations in the PC electrolyte and  $WO_3$ . Its dynamic performance can be further improved by introducing electrolytes with higher cation diffusivities or optimizing the structure of the  $WO_3$  channel.

## 4 Conclusion

In this work, we design and fabricate microscale  $WO_3$  ECT devices and characterize their subthreshold performance. The physical and chemical properties of  $WO_x$  films are analyzed and optimized under different deposition conditions. Their behaviors under injection with different cations are systematically exploited. We demonstrate that these devices can approach SS of  $60$  mV/dec when intercalated with certain cations (for example,  $K^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Zn^{2+}$  and  $Al^{3+}$ ). While  $Li^+$  is the most commonly used cation for intercalation in  $WO_x$  because of its better reversibility and switching speed, its SS is not optimal due to the large leakage. Therefore, one must consider the trade-offs between the SS and other operational device characteristics. The current device has limited dynamic response (timescale of a few seconds), which is inferior to that of the organic (for example, PEDOT:PSS) based ECT (with a response time of micro- to milli-seconds). The device dynamic response can be further improved by optimizing the device geometry and structure, for example, by the design of nano-structured channel layer. In addition, solid-based electrolyte can be implemented to realize fully integrated solid-state ECT devices. Although there are still challenges associated with the device application, including its switching speed, reversibility and stability, our results show that these ion gated devices are constrained by the same thermodynamic limit as classical transistors, and implicate potentials in the future logic and sensing devices.

**Author contributions** Conceptualization, KZ and XS; methodology, KZ, WZ and XS; writing—original draft preparation, KZ; writing—review and editing, XS; supervision, XS; project administration, XS; funding acquisition, XS. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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**Data availability** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author (Xing Sheng) upon reasonable request.

## Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript; or in the decision to publish the results.

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