

# Noise Modeling and SiGe Profile Design Tradeoffs for RF Applications

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**Abstract**—This paper investigates SiGe profile design tradeoffs for low-noise RF applications at a given technology generation (i.e., fixed minimum feature size and thermal cycle). An intuitive model relating structural parameters and biases to noise parameters is used to identify the noise limiting factors in a given technology. The noise performance can be improved by pushing more Ge into the base and creating a larger Ge gradient in the base. To maintain the SiGe film stability, the retrograding of the Ge into the collector has to be reduced, leading to a stronger  $f_T - I_C$  roll-off at high injection. Two low-noise profiles were designed and fabricated explicitly for improving minimum noise figure ( $NF_{min}$ ) without sacrificing gain, linearity, frequency response, or the stability of the SiGe strained layer. A 0.2 dB  $NF_{min}$  was achieved at 2.0 GHz with an associated gain ( $G_{assoc}$ ) of 13 dB.

**Index Terms**—Bipolar technology, device simulation, film stability, HBT, linearity, modeling, noise, RF circuits, SiGe.

## I. INTRODUCTION

RF APPLICATIONS generally impose more serious device design constraints than digital applications. SiGe HBT technology, because it has higher intrinsic performance than Si BJT technology at similar process complexity and delivers better cost-performance than GaAs technology, has recently emerged as a contender for the RF market. Existing SiGe profile design points are typically optimized for high  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  at high current densities [1]. RF transceiver building blocks such as LNA's and mixers, however, often require very low broad-band noise, high RF gain, and excellent RF linearity, thus complicating the device design. The purpose of this work is to investigate the SiGe profile design tradeoffs associated with RF circuit applications. An intuitive noise model is introduced and used to identify the dominant noise sources for the control profile design point. The input of the noise model is the transistor

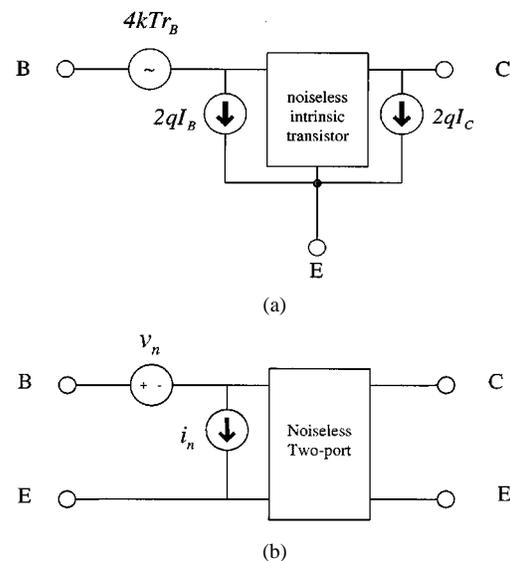


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic of the noise sources in a bipolar transistor and (b) its chain noisy two-port representation.

$y$ -parameters, which can be either simulated or converted from measured  $s$ -parameters. We then examine the key issues related to the calibration of dc and ac two-dimensional (2-D) device simulation. SiGe profiles are designed to explicitly improve noise performance without sacrificing film stability and other key performance metrics. The tradeoffs between suppressing high injection barrier effect and improving noise performance are discussed. Finally, experimental results are presented.

## II. NOISE MODELING

### A. $Y$ -Parameter Based Noise Model

At high frequencies, the major noise sources in a bipolar transistor include the base resistance-induced thermal noise, the base current shot noise, and the collector shot noise, as shown in Fig. 1(a). We have neglected the effects of space-charge generated currents [2] because the devices used in this work have nearly ideal current–voltage ( $I$ – $V$ ) characteristics. High injection effects [3] were also neglected because low-noise amplifiers typically operate at low current densities (as low as  $10 \times$  below the current density where we reach peak  $f_T$ ).

The traditional approach to noise modeling is to derive the noise figure equation using an equivalent circuit [4], [5]. The resulting equations depend on the specific equivalent circuit used. The equivalent circuit parameters need to be extracted

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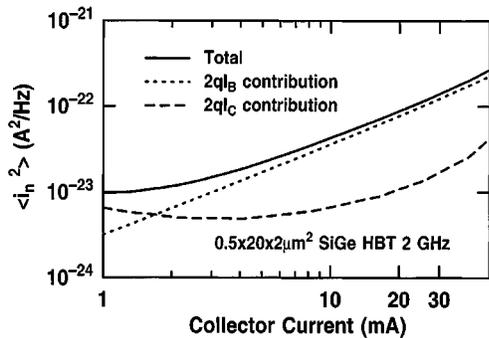


Fig. 2. Spectral density of the equivalent input current noise as a function of collector current at 2 GHz calculated from measured  $y$ -parameters using (1).

to obtain noise figure. To overcome these difficulties, we use here a different approach that is based on the circuit theory for linear noisy two-ports [6] and the  $y$ -parameters of the transistor [7]–[9]. In this way, the noise figure can be directly obtained from measured or simulated  $y$ -parameters.

According to circuit theory [6], any linear noisy two-port can be represented by its noiseless counterpart, an input current noise source  $i_n$ , and an input voltage noise source  $v_n$ , as shown in Fig. 1(b). The minimum noise figure  $NF_{min}$ , the optimum source admittance,  $Y_{opt}$ , and the noise resistance  $R_n$  can all be expressed explicitly as a function of  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$ ,  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ , and  $\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle$ . The general expressions can be found in [6].

For a bipolar transistor,  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$ ,  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ , and  $\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle$  can be derived using the chain representation of the noisy two-port in Fig. 1(b) as [9], [10]

$$\frac{\langle i_n^2 \rangle}{B} = 2qI_B + \frac{2qI_C}{|h_{21}|^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\langle v_n^2 \rangle}{B} = 4kTr_B + \frac{2qI_C}{|y_{21}|^2} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle}{B} = \frac{2qI_C y_{11}^*}{|y_{21}|^2} \quad (3)$$

where

- $y_{11}$  input admittance;
- $B$  measurement bandwidth;
- $y_{21}$  transfer admittance;
- $h_{21}$  = ac current gain.
- $y_{21}/y_{11}$

Physically,  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  is contributed by the base current shot noise ( $2qI_B$ ) and the collector current shot noise ( $2qI_C/|h_{21}|^2$ ).  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  is contributed by the base resistance-induced thermal noise ( $4kTr_B$ ) and the collector current shot noise ( $2qI_C/|y_{21}|^2$ ).  $2qI_C$  contributes to both  $v_n$  and  $i_n$ , and thus determines  $\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle$ .  $NF_{min}$  can be decreased by reducing either  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  or  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  [6]. For completeness, we have included the cross-correlation  $\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle$  in all of the simulations.

### B. Input Noise Current Limiting Factors

Fig. 2 shows  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  versus  $I_C$  at 2 GHz for a 0.5 (emitter width)  $\times$  20 (emitter length)  $\times$  2 (stripe number)  $\mu\text{m}^2$  SiGe HBT. Details of the fabrication process can be found in [1]. The data was calculated using (1) from  $y$ -parameters that were converted from measured  $s$ -parameters. The biasing current dependence

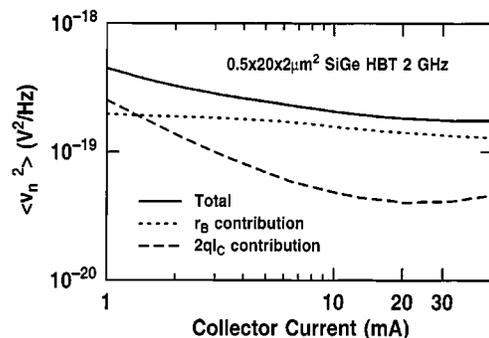


Fig. 3. Spectral density of the equivalent input voltage noise as a function of collector current at 2 GHz calculated from measured  $y$ -parameters using (2).

of the contribution of  $2qI_C$  to  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  (i.e.,  $2qI_C/|h_{21}|^2$ ) has two factors. First,  $|h_{21}|$  at the frequency of interest, which appears in the denominator, increases with increasing  $I_C$  because of increasing  $f_T$ . Such an increase, however, saturates when  $f_T$  becomes much higher than the frequency under question (2 GHz in our case). The typical frequency dependence of  $|h_{21}|$  is that  $|h_{21}|$  is constant at low frequencies, and decreases at higher frequencies, at a slope of  $-20$  dB/decade. Second,  $2qI_C$ , which appears in the numerator, increases monotonically with increasing  $I_C$ . As a result, the ratio  $2qI_C/|h_{21}|^2$  decreases with increasing  $I_C$  first when the increase of  $|h_{21}|^2$  dominates over the increase of  $I_C$ . At higher currents, when the increase of  $I_C$  dominates over the increase of  $|h_{21}|^2$ , the ratio  $2qI_C/|h_{21}|^2$  starts to increase again. For most of the current range,  $2qI_B$  dominates  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ , implying that a higher  $\beta$  is desired to reduce  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ . For an ideal transistor with infinite current gain and infinite  $f_T$  ( $h_{21}$ ),  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  would be zero.

### C. Input Noise Voltage Limiting Factors

Fig. 3 shows  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  versus  $I_C$  at 2 GHz calculated from  $y$ -parameters using (2). Before the high injection  $f_T$  roll-off,  $|y_{21}|$  can be approximated by  $qI_C/kT$ . Therefore, the contribution of  $2qI_C$  to  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  is solely determined by  $1/I_C$  prior to the  $f_T$  roll-off  $I_C$ , and is thus independent of any other transistor parameters, as follows:

$$\langle v_n^2 \rangle |_{\text{contributed by } 2qI_C} = \frac{2qI_C}{|y_{21}|^2} = \frac{2(kT)^2}{qI_C} \quad (4)$$

where  $y_{21} = qI_C/kT$  was used. Equation (4) has significant design implications because it sets the fundamental limit of the noise performance of a bipolar transistor at a given  $I_C$  for zero base resistance, infinite  $\beta$ , and infinite  $f_T$  ( $h_{21}$ ). This fundamental limit only depends on the bias current and temperature, and is independent of technology (III–V or Si or SiGe). The  $1/I_C$  functional form results from the fundamental exponential  $I_C$ – $V_{BE}$  characteristics that determines  $y_{21} = qI_C/kT$ , and is corroborated by the data prior to high injection in Fig. 3. For the devices under discussion [1], the contribution of  $r_B$  dominates over most of the bias current range, as shown in Fig. 3. Therefore, significant improvement of noise performance can be expected by increasing the base doping and decreasing the emitter width in future technology generations. Because  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  is dominated by the thermal noise  $4kTr_B$  and  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  is dominated

by the base current shot noise  $2qI_B$ , the cross-correlation term  $\langle v_n i_n^* \rangle$  can be neglected for these devices.

#### D. Approaches to Noise Improvement

To improve transistor noise performance, we need to reduce  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  and  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ . According to the above analysis,  $r_B$  needs to be reduced to reduce  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$ . It has to be remarked here that we need to normalize  $r_B$  with respect to the emitter length when comparing devices with different emitter lengths. For similar reasons, noise figure comparison should be made at the same current density. A simple increase of the emitter length reduces  $r_B$ , but does not improve the noise capability, because of the corresponding increase of capacitances by the same factor. However, the emitter length (or the number of unit cells) can be optimized to minimize the losses in the passive matching network by making the optimum source impedance close to the characteristic impedance (for instance,  $50 \Omega$ ) [8].

At a given technology generation, the minimum emitter width is determined by the minimum feature size, and the parasitic CB capacitances. The base sheet resistance is determined by the amount of boron dopants that can be kept in place, which is limited by the thermal cycle. Therefore,  $r_B$  and  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  are fixed. In other words, the input noise voltage can only be reduced by lateral and vertical scaling, the reduction of thermal cycle, or the use of carbon doping [11] in a more advanced technology. There is no room for further reduction of  $\langle v_n^2 \rangle$  at a given technology generation.

The input noise current  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$ , however, can be reduced by increasing  $\beta$  (to reduce  $I_B$ ) and increasing  $f_T$  (to increase  $h_{21}$ ) according to (1). In particular, at relatively high current where the RF power gain is large,  $2qI_B$  dominates  $\langle i_n^2 \rangle$  in these devices. Therefore, significant noise improvement can only be achieved through an increase of  $\beta$  at relatively high biasing currents.

The approaches to improving noise performance at a given technology generation are now clear. The SiGe profiles need to be optimized for higher  $\beta$  and  $f_T$  under the fundamental constraint of SiGe film stability. Next, we simulated the noise parameters for various SiGe profiles at constant film stability (integrated Ge content) to determine the optimum profiles for low noise. To produce sensible results, the 2-D device structure for the standard control SiGe HBT was first calibrated to measured  $y$ -parameters. Issues related to the calibration are discussed in the following section.

### III. CALIBRATION OF 2-D DEVICE SIMULATION

MEDICI [12] was used to simulate the dc and high frequency  $y$ -parameters using measured SIMS profiles. The first step is to determine the profiles based on the SIMS data. The base pinch sheet resistance can be used to calibrate the base doping profile, and determine the EB and CB junction locations. The base doping and Ge profiles also set the  $I_C$ - $V_{BE}$  characteristics. The measurement should be made on very long emitter devices to avoid three-dimensional (3-D) effects. The carrier lifetime in the emitter can be adjusted to reproduce the  $I_B$ - $V_{BE}$  characteristics. Bandgap narrowing (BGN) parameters can be adjusted to shift the simulated  $I_C$ ,  $I_B$ - $V_{BE}$  curves toward the measured

curves. For state-of-the-art bipolar transistors with narrow emitters, the shallow-trench isolation and extrinsic CB capacitances can often be comparable to the intrinsic CB capacitance, and are therefore nonnegligible. For accurate  $y$ -parameter simulation, all of the 2-D lateral structures must be included. The base resistance, EB and CB capacitances were extracted from measured and simulated  $y$ -parameters using a set of analytical equations [13], and then plotted as a function of  $\log(I_C)$ . By comparing the simulated and measured  $r_B$ ,  $C_{BE}$ , and  $C_{BC}$ , one can identify the dominant factors of simulation-measurement discrepancy, and adjust the lateral doping extension accordingly. The diffusion capacitance component of  $C_{BE}$  is proportional to  $I_C$  at relatively lower currents, and can be distinguished from the depletion capacitance component. By simulating and measuring devices with different emitter widths, the contribution of the extrinsic and intrinsic elements can be distinguished.

Another important aspect is to select a proper set of physical models and coefficients. For instance, incomplete ionization, though recommended explicitly by users' manuals, often leads to an overestimation of the base resistance. At concentrations higher than  $10^{18} / \text{cm}^3$ , the semiconductor-metal (Mott) transition occurs, and the dopants are completely ionized. To the authors' knowledge, this, however, is not modeled correctly in today's commercial device simulators. Therefore, we intentionally used complete ionization in order to accurately simulate the base resistance, since it is of great importance for noise modeling. The mobility model was critical in determining the  $f_T$  roll-off  $I_C$ , and in our experience the Philips unified mobility model (PHUMOB) was found to be the most accurate.

### IV. SiGe PROFILE DESIGN

For constant film stability, at a given geometry and doping, a higher  $f_T$  and higher  $\beta$  can only be realized in practice by pushing the edge of the Ge retrograde in the collector significantly closer to the EB junction (surface). The additional Ge can then be used to reduce the effective Gummel number in the neutral base for higher  $\beta$ , and increase the Ge grading for higher  $f_T$  [14], [15]. We are thus forced to trade high- $J_C$   $f_T$  roll-off performance for improved  $NF_{min}$ . Under high injection, the minority carrier charges are sufficient to compensate for the ionized depletion charges in the collector-base space charge region, thus exposing the hetero-interface between the collector and the base, which was originally masked by the band bending in the depletion region. In SiGe HBTs, since most of the bandgap offset occurs in the valence band, the collapse of the original collector-base electric field at the heterointerface reveals the valence band barrier, which opposes the hole injection into the collector under base push-out [16], [17]. The piling up of holes further induces a potential barrier in the conduction band profile, which retards the flow of electrons into the collector, and thus decreasing the cut-off frequency [17]. Fig. 4 illustrates the SiGe profile design tradeoffs. The solid profile and the dash profile have the same integrated Ge content, the upper limit of which is set by the SiGe film stability constraint [18]. The dashed profile has a larger Ge content and a higher Ge gradient in the base, and therefore higher  $\beta$  and  $f_T$ , and hence lower noise. The solid profile has deeper Ge retrograding into

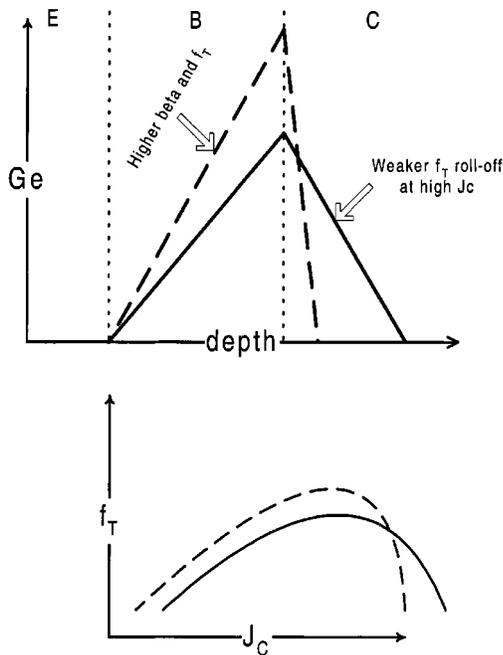


Fig. 4. Schematic of the SiGe profile design tradeoffs between improving  $f_T$  and  $\beta$  at low injection and suppressing the  $f_T$  roll-off at high injection.

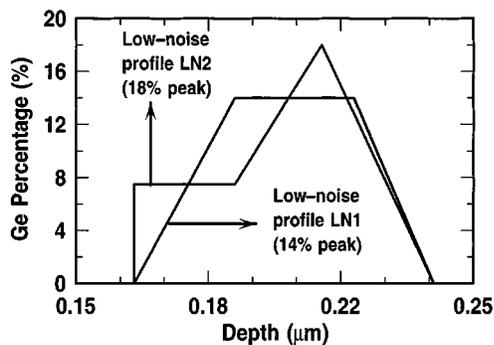


Fig. 5. Schematic of the two optimized low-noise profiles that are both unconditionally stable.

the collector, and therefore a better (weaker)  $f_T$  roll-off at high injection.

Obviously, there are numerous possibilities of SiGe profiles to choose from for a given integrated Ge content. Extensive numerical simulations were performed to determine the optimum profiles for lowest noise. The key here is to achieve noise performance improvements while minimizing the  $f_T$  degradation at high injection. Our goal is to maintain the peak  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  comparable to the control profile design point in the presence of a worsened high-injection barrier effect. Fig. 5 shows two such low-noise Ge profiles (LN1 and LN2) which maintain the stability, the peak  $f_T$  and peak  $f_{max}$  of the SiGe control profile, but have significantly lower  $NF_{min}$  in simulation (by 0.2 dB). All of the SiGe profiles are unconditionally stable to defect generation [18], [1] by design, as shown in Fig. 6. The linearity of the Si BJT and SiGe control devices are expected to be retained in the two low-noise profiles, because the linearity of bipolar transistors is relatively insensitive to the diffusion capacitance (base transit time) [19].

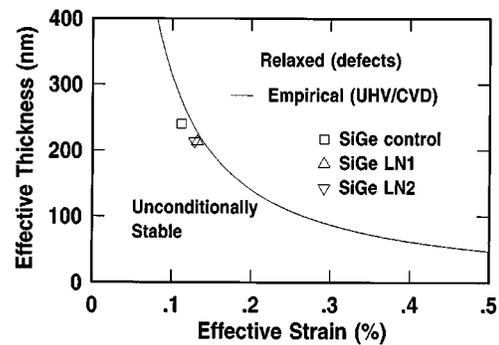


Fig. 6. Stability of the SiGe control design point and the two low noise profiles. All of these profiles are unconditionally stable [18].

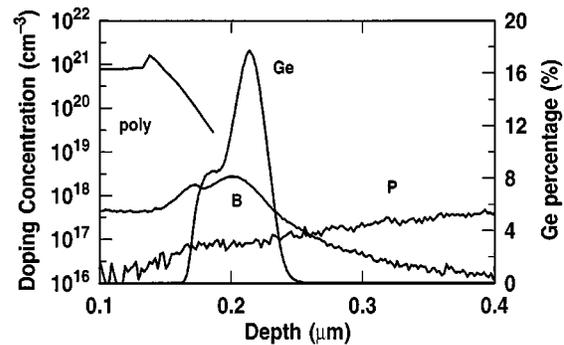


Fig. 7. Measured SIMS doping and Ge profiles for the fabricated SiGe low noise profile LN2.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

### A. Device Fabrication and Measurement

For unambiguous comparisons, the two low-noise profiles, the SiGe control profile, and a Si control profile were fabricated in the same wafer lot in a state-of-the-art  $0.50 \mu\text{m}$  SiGe HBT technology [1] using UHV/CVD growth and identical processing conditions. Fig. 7 shows the doping and Ge profiles for the 18% peak Ge low-noise profile LN2 measured by SIMS. To within the SIMS resolution, the designed Ge shape is basically reproduced.

DC characteristics were measured using an HP4155.  $S$ -parameters were measured using a HP8510C vector network analyzer from 2 to 40 GHz, from which  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  were extracted. Noise parameters were measured from 2–18 GHz using an NP-5 on-wafer measurement system from ATN Microwave Inc. Two-tone load-pull measurements were made at 1.9 GHz with 1 MHz tone spacing.

### B. Experimental Design Tradeoffs

Table I summarizes the measured transistor parameters of the four fabricated profiles. The penalty in  $BV_{CEO}$  over the SiGe control for LN1 and LN2 is due to the higher  $\beta$ , and should only have a small impact on LNA designs, which see a finite source impedance (i.e., not an “open”). The measured  $\beta - I_C$  and curves of a  $20 \mu\text{m}^2$  ( $0.5 \times 20 \times 2 \mu\text{m}^2$  stripe) unit cell device are shown in Fig. 8. The corresponding  $f_T - I_C$  and  $f_{max} - I_C$  curves are shown in Fig. 9. The experimental results confirm the expected high injection design trade-off discussed above. The two low-noise profiles, LN1 and LN2, have a higher  $\beta$  and  $f_T$

TABLE I  
 SUMMARY OF DEVICE ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Performance	Si BJT	SiGe control	SiGe LN1	SiGe LN2
$\beta$ at $V_{BE}=0.7V$	67	114	350	261
$V_A(V)$	19	60	58	113
$BV_{CEO}(V)$	3.5	3.2	2.7	2.7
$R_{Bi}$ ( $k\Omega/\square$ )	12.8	9.8	10.3	10.7
peak $f_T$ (GHz)	38	52	52	57
peak $f_{max}$ (GHz)	57	64	62	67

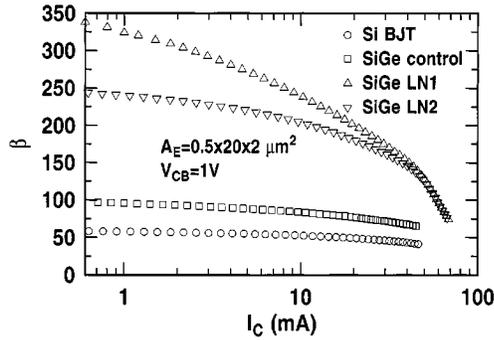
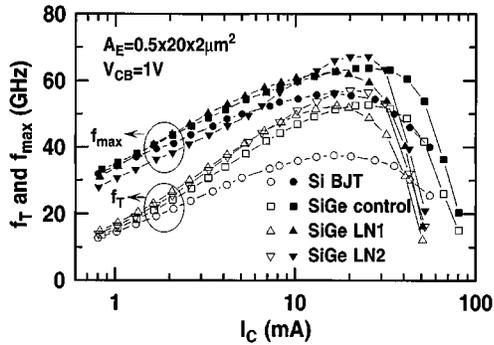


Fig. 8. Measured dc current gain versus collector current of the fabricated Si BJT, SiGe control, and the SiGe low noise profiles.


 Fig. 9. Measured  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  versus collector current of the fabricated Si BJT, SiGe control, and the SiGe low noise profiles.

at low  $J_C$  because of a higher total Ge content and higher Ge gradient in the neutral base. On the other hand, the SiGe control and Si BJT devices have a weaker (better)  $f_T$  roll-off at high  $J_C$ , because of the deeper Ge grading into the collector-base junction in SiGe profile design. In circuit applications, the upper biasing current limit of these devices is set by the minimum  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  requirements. For instance, the upper collector current limit for meeting a requirement of  $f_{max} > 30$  GHz is 50 mA for the two low-noise profiles. We have also achieved the goal of maintaining the peak  $f_T$  and peak  $f_{max}$  of the SiGe control design point, despite the worsened high-injection barrier effects in the two low-noise profiles. In fact, the peak  $f_T$  and peak  $f_{max}$  values in LN2 are higher than in the SiGe control, as can be seen from Table I. The  $f_{max}$  of the two low-noise profiles are comparable to that of the SiGe control indicating that the high power gain in the control design point is retained.

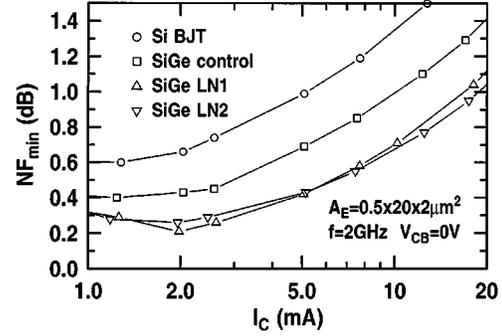
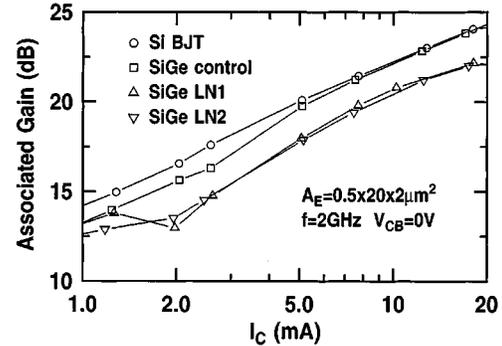

 Fig. 10. Measured minimum noise figure ( $NF_{min}$ ) versus collector current at 2 GHz for the fabricated Si BJT, SiGe control, and the SiGe low noise profiles.


Fig. 11. Measured associated gain versus collector current at 2 GHz for the fabricated Si BJT, SiGe control, and the SiGe low noise profiles.

### C. Noise Improvements

The above improvements of  $\beta$  and  $f_T$  translate into a significant improvement of the  $NF_{min}$  over the Si BJT and SiGe control profiles across the range of  $J_C$  that is of interest to LNA and mixer circuits, as shown by the measured 2 GHz  $NF_{min}$  data in Fig. 10. The LN1 profile achieves an impressive  $NF_{min}$  of 0.2 dB at 2 mA, 0.2 dB lower than the SiGe control profile. The measured noise figure improvements between profiles are consistent with our simulations. The associated gain at noise matching is still above 13 dB at  $NF_{min}$  for all of the profiles, as can be seen from Fig. 11. Similar improvement is achieved at higher frequencies for the same bias current. For instance, a 0.3 dB  $NF_{min}$  improvement is obtained at  $f = 10$  GHz and  $I_C = 5$  mA.

### D. Linearity

To determine the device linearity, two-tone load-pull measurements were performed at 1.9 GHz with 1.0 MHz tone spacing on the  $20 \mu m^2$  ( $0.5 \times 20 \times 2$  stripe) unit cell device. The input third order intermodulation intercept point (IIP3) [20] for a two-tone input is used as a figure-of-merit. IIP3 was extracted in the low input power region where the third order intermodulation slope is 3:1. A larger number of IIP3 implies better linearity. IIP3 can be related to more robust distortion metrics such as adjacent-channel power ratio (ACPR) in modern digital mobile communications through compact formulas [21], [22].

Fig. 12 shows the measured output power versus input power characteristics for the four profiles at  $I_C = 30$  mA and  $V_{CE} =$

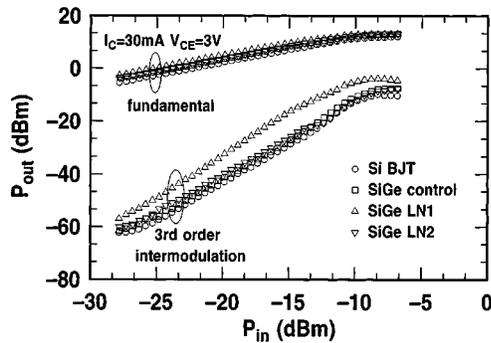


Fig. 12. Measured output power versus input power for all the profiles at  $I_C = 30$  mA and  $V_{CE} = 3$  V. The source and load terminations are  $50 \Omega$ .

3 V. The source and load impedance used is  $50 \Omega$ . The performance does not differ substantially between the various profiles. The IIP3 values are: 2.7 dBm for Si BJT, 3.0 dBm for SiGe control,  $-1.5$  dBm for SiGe LN1, and 2.5 dBm for SiGe LN2. The power gain values are: 22.4 dB for Si BJT, 23.4 dB for SiGe control, 25.0 dB for SiGe LN1, and 24.0 dB for SiGe LN2. Small differences are attributed to the fact that IIP3 strongly depends on the load condition, and maximum IIP3 occurs at different load states for different profiles [23]. The maximum linearity efficiency ( $OIP3/P_{DC}$ ) achieved is in the range of 7 to 10, and is comparable to GaAs HEMT (10) and GaAs HBT technology (11) [24]. Linearity efficiency is defined as  $OIP3/P_{DC}$  to account for the differing load states at maximum gain and maximum IIP3 [24]. Preliminary measurements on RF subharmonic mixers fabricated with the identical low-noise profiles (LN1 and LN2) also show improved noise over the SiGe control profile, indicating that these device improvements translate to the circuit level [25].

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

A unified approach to the modeling of transistor noise was presented, and used to identify the limiting factors of noise performance for a given SiGe HBT technology. Key issues related to a successful calibration of 2-D device simulation to measurement were also discussed. A higher dc current gain and a higher  $f_T$  at relatively lower current are shown to be critically important for reducing  $NF_{min}$  for a given transistor geometry and doping. By applying careful SiGe profile optimization, significant improvement in RF performance can be achieved. Using the noise model-simulation approach, new SiGe profiles were designed explicitly for improving minimum noise figure ( $NF_{min}$ ) without sacrificing gain, linearity, frequency response, or the stability of the SiGe strained layer. A measured  $NF_{min}$  of 0.2 dB at 2.0 GHz with an associated gain ( $G_{assoc}$ ) of 13 dB at noise matching, was obtained for the best low-noise profile, all of which represent substantial improvements in RF performance over the Si BJT and control SiGe HBT design point, and were accomplished without sacrificing SiGe film stability.

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