

STEEPER

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¹ R = Report, P = Prototype, D = Demonstrator, O = Other

² PU = Public, PP = Restricted to other programme participants (including the Commission Services), RE = Restricted to a group specified by the consortium (including the Commission Services), CO = Confidential, only for the members of the consortium (including the Commission Services)

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Table of Contents

1. Energy efficiency in digital circuits	3
2. Device structures and simulation approach.....	4
3. Simulation of FO4 inverter chains	7
4. Power-speed trade off: technology boosters	10
4.1 Power - Delay Trade-off.....	10
4.2. Device Parameters and Simulation Methodology	11
4.3. Results	12
References:	15

1. Energy efficiency in digital circuits

The average energy dissipated by a digital gate per clock cycle time can be roughly partitioned in a dynamic and a standby or leakage contribution. The dynamic component E_{DIN} can be written as:

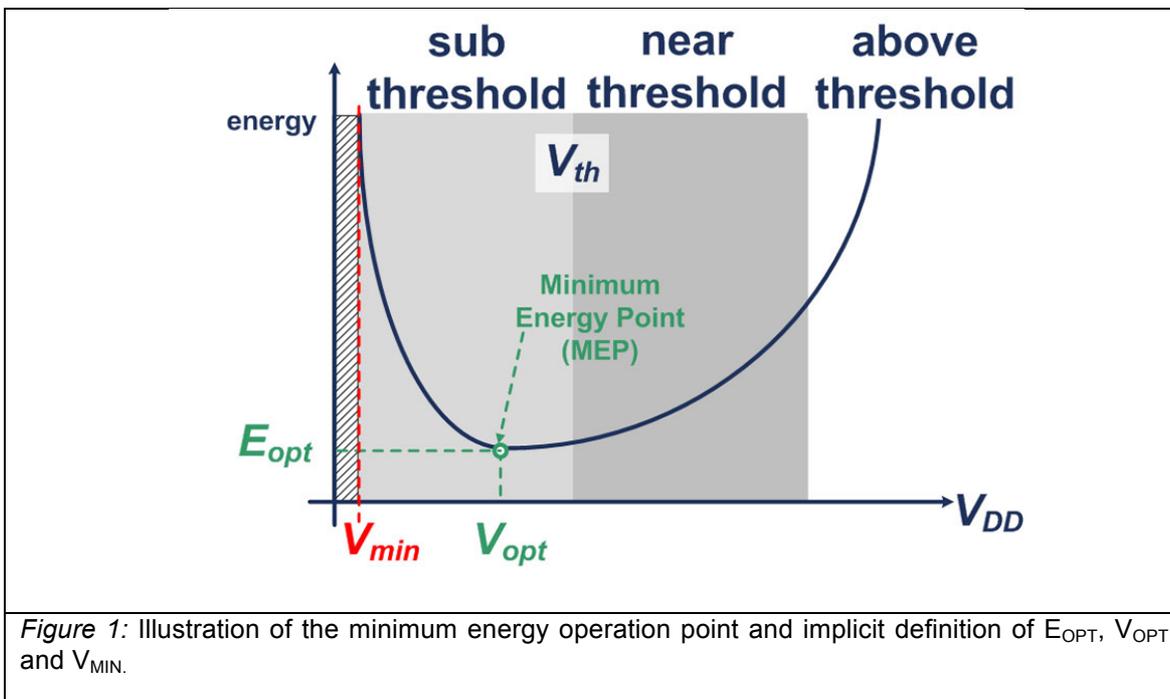
$$E_{DIN} = \alpha Q_{SW} V_{DD} \quad (1)$$

Where α is the activity factor, Q_{SW} is the effective charge switched at the output node and V_{DD} is the supply voltage. The energy E_{LEAK} dissipated in a clock cycle time T_{CLK} can be written as:

$$E_{LEAK} = N_{tp} t_p I_{LEAK} V_{DD} \quad (2)$$

Where I_{LEAK} is the leakage current of the gate in the standby condition. The cycle time T_{CLK} has been here written as $(N_{tp} t_p)$, where t_p is the delay of the gate and N_{tp} is the ratio (T_{CLK}/t_p) . In a typical digital system the clock time can be, for instance, from some tens up to more than a hundred times the t_p of the inverters in a ring-oscillator.

The scaling of the supply voltage, V_{DD} , is the most powerful measure to scale energy, and it has been used extensively in the last 20 years. In particular, for ambient intelligent applications the design of microprocessors and DSPs has focused on the minimum possible energy per operation, which lead to the demonstration of fast-Fourier transform DSPs with only 155nJ per operation [Wan05] and of processors achieving 1pJ per instruction [Han08,Han082]. The existence of a minimum energy condition can be explained as follows [Wan05]: for an assigned CMOS technology with a given transistor threshold voltage V_T , when the V_{DD} is reduced the switching energy decreases but the clock frequency also decreases, which enlarges the clock cycle. Since the leakage energy is proportional to the cycle time, below a given V_{DD} the leakage energy becomes dominant, so that a further V_{DD} reduction increases the overall energy per operation. It has been repeatedly reported that the V_{DD} for minimum energy is smaller than V_T , that results in sub-threshold digital circuits working at clock frequencies as low as hundreds of kHz [Wan05,Han08,Han082]. The minimum energy condition is illustrated in Fig.1.



In our contribution to Deliverable 3.4 we have studied the tradeoff between delay and energy consumption for three transistor technologies, namely bulk MOSFETs, ultra-thin body SOI (UTB-SOI) MOSFETs and Tunnel FETs realized in an SOI device structure. The delay, leakage energy and dynamic energy is studied as a function of V_{DD}

2. Device structures and simulation approach

All the transistors considered in our study have a gate length of 30nm. Fig.2(left)reports a sketch of the double-gate SOI structure used both for UTB-SOI MOSFETs and for Tunnel FETs. The device structure can be considered a scaled version of the single-gate UTB Tunnel FETs defined in the Milestone 3.2. The semiconductor thickness is 10nm and the equivalent oxide thickness is 1.1nm. The doping in the semiconductor film is $N_{SOI}=10^{17}cm^{-3}$.

In order to improve the on current with respect to unstrained silicon transistors, for the n-type Tunnel FETs we employed a $Si_{0.6}Ge_{0.4}$ source, and, furthermore, an *n+ halo* at source-channel junction with $N_{halo}= 1 \times 10^{19} cm^{-3}$. The $Si_{0.6}Ge_{0.4}$ source mainly raises the valence band with respect to a silicon source, whereas the shift of the conduction band is negligible, consequently it is not a viable technology booster for the improvement of the on current of p-type Tunnel FETs. Thus, in order to improve the on-current of p-type Tunnel FET we resorted to a large tensile uniaxial strain (+3GPa) throughout the device channel. The corresponding shift of the conduction band was calculated according to [Ung07], while for the valence band we used a six band k-p model [DeM07]; more details about these calculations can be found in [Ess11]. The resulting bandgap for the strained silicon is about 1.004eV. The effect of the strain is accounted for in the SENTAURUS simulations by simply reducing the silicon bandgap to 1.004eV, which remarkably increases the on-current of the p-type Tunnel FETs.

To compare the performance of Tunnel FETs with conventional MOS transistor, we also designed bulk MOSFETs representative of a 32nm bulk CMOS technology. Fig.2(right) shows a sketch of the device structure for the bulk MOSFETs. The equivalent oxide thickness for these transistors is 1.16nm. The channel doping concentration is $1.2 \times 10^{18} cm^{-3}$ and, in order to improve the electrostatic integrity, we also used source-drain pockets featuring a peak doping concentration $N_{halo}= 1.3 \times 10^{19} cm^{-3}$.

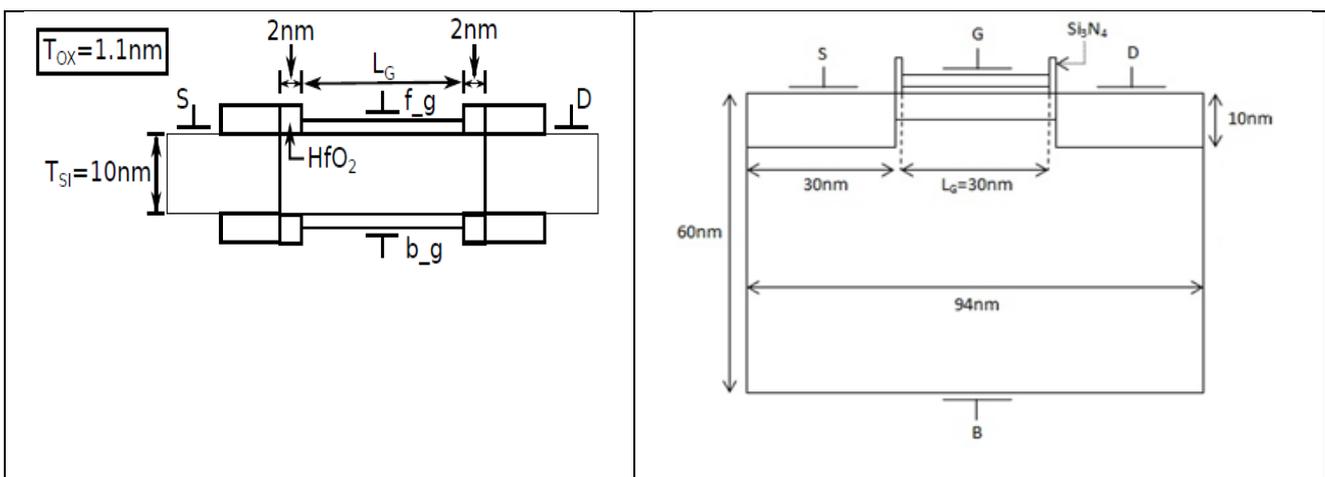


Figure 2: Sketch of the double-gate SOI structure used both for SOI MOSFETs and for Tunnel FETs (left) and of the device structure used for the bulk MOSFETs.

All the simulations were performed by using the DESSIS SENTAURUS TCAD tool. The non-local band-to-band-tunneling (BTBT) model was used for the Tunnel FETs. As discussed in Deliverable 3.2, the BTBT parameters for silicon were calibrated against some of the experimental data for tunneling diodes reported in [Sol07].

Fig.3 reports a comparison of the I_{DS} versus V_{GS} characteristics for the n-type and p-type transistors used in our study and for $V_{DS}=0.5V$. The work-function of the devices was adjusted in order to have an off-current, I_{OFF} , of approximately $10pA/\mu m$ for all the transistors; such I_{OFF} corresponds to the ITRS specification for low standby power (LSTB) applications. The work-functions stemming from this design of the transistors are reported in Tab.1.

As it can be seen the average inverse sub-threshold slope (SS) of Tunnel FETs is significantly smaller than $60mV/dec$ for I_{DS} ranging in the three decades from $I_{OFF}=10pA/\mu m$ to roughly $10nA/mm$. The SOI MOSFETs have an essentially ideal SS value of $60mV/dec$, whereas the SS of bulk MOSFETs is about $82mV/dec$. The threshold voltage V_T of bulk MOSFETs is quite large in magnitude to allow for $I_{OFF}=10pA/mm$, which enforced the use of a relatively high work-function for n-type and a relatively low work-function for p-type transistors. The different SS of the devices result in Tunnel FETs that have larger on currents I_{ON} than bulk MOSFETs essentially in the entire V_{DD} range below $0.6V$ explored below for the digital circuits. The crossover between the on-currents of Tunnel FETs and SOI MOSFETs, instead, occurs for V_{DD} around $0.35V$.

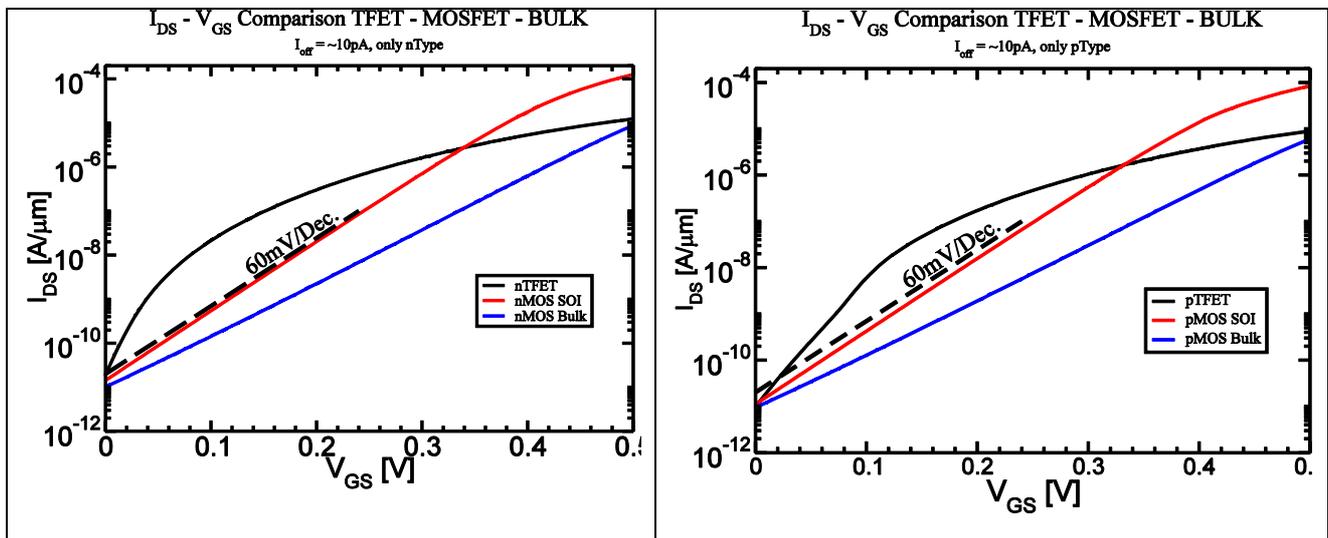


Figure 3: Simulated I_{DS} versus V_{GS} characteristics of the n-type (left) and p-type (right) transistors and for $V_{DS}=0.5V$. The UTB-SOI MOSFETs and the Tunnel FETs have the device structure in Fig.2, while bulk MOSFETs are depicted in Fig.3. The x-axis reports the absolute value of the gate to source voltage for both n-type and p-type transistors.

	n-type bulk MOSFET	p-type bulk MOSFET	n-type SOI MOSFET	p-type SOI MOSFET	n-type Tunnel FET	p-type Tunnel FET
Workfunction [V]	4.55	4.72	4.61	4.69	4.04	5.11

Table1: Gate work-function for the simulated transistors

Fig.4 reports the simulated gate capacitance C_G versus V_{GS} characteristics for the n-type transistors and for $V_{DS}=0V$ or $0.5V$, where some interesting trends can be identified. The capacitance of the bulk-MOSFET essentially coincides with the parasitic component, in fact for V_{GS}

up to 0.5V the transistor is still off and the intrinsic, channel capacitance is negligible. The SOI MOSFETs, instead, because of the smaller V_T show a start of the onset of strong inversion in the channel, which results in a C_G increase at the largest V_{GS} illustrated in Fig.4. The C_G characteristics of Tunnel-FETs are markedly different with respect to MOSFETs and, in particular, the C_G is larger especially for $V_{DS}=0V$. Fig.5 illustrates the gate-drain capacitance C_G versus V_{GS} characteristics for the n-type transistors and reveals that, as expected, the large C_G of Tunnel FETs is essentially due to the gate-drain capacitance C_{GD} . This can be understood considering the low work-function 4.04V used for n-type Tunnel FETs (see Tab.1), that results in a negative threshold voltage for the MOS capacitor formed by the gate and the n+ drain region. The overall larger gate capacitance of Tunnel FETs has significant implications for the delays of the digital circuits, as illustrated below.

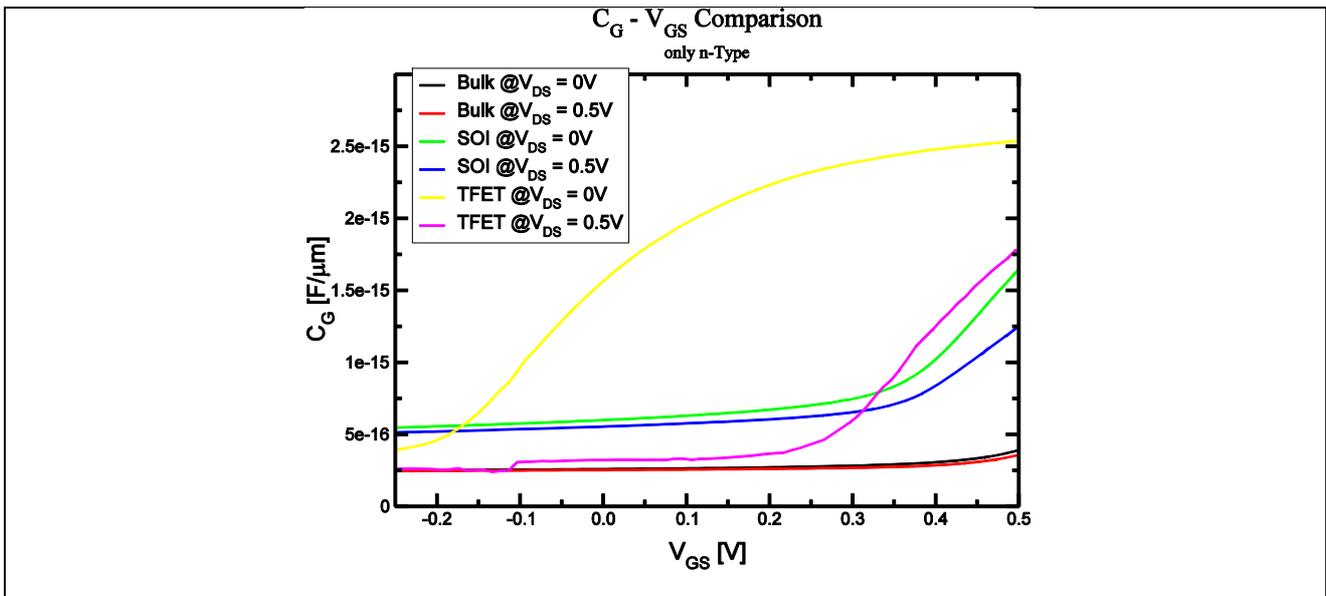


Figure 4: Simulated gate capacitance C_G versus V_{GS} characteristics for the n-type transistors.

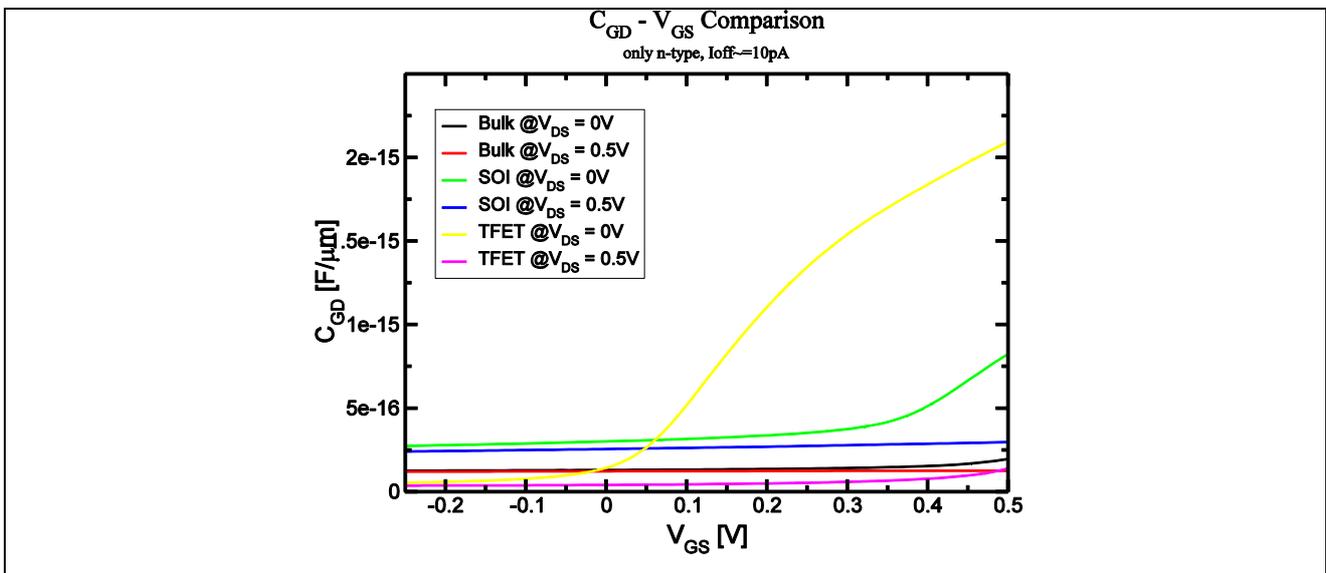


Figure 5: Simulated gate-drain capacitance C_{GD} versus V_{GS} characteristics for the n-type transistors.

3. Simulation of FO4 inverter chains

The current and capacitance characteristics illustrated in the previous section clearly show that the MOS transistors work in the sub-threshold regime for digital circuits operating at V_{DD} below approximately 0.5V. We have studied the delay, dynamic and leakage energy in series of fan-out-four (FO4) inverters, whose sizing is increased by four at each stage in order to have approximately the same delay per stage. The circuit is sketched in Fig.6 for a four stage circuit, where the sizing of the first stage is $S_n=1$. The analysis of the circuits was carried out by using the mixed device-circuit simulation mode of the SENTAURUS TCAD environment.

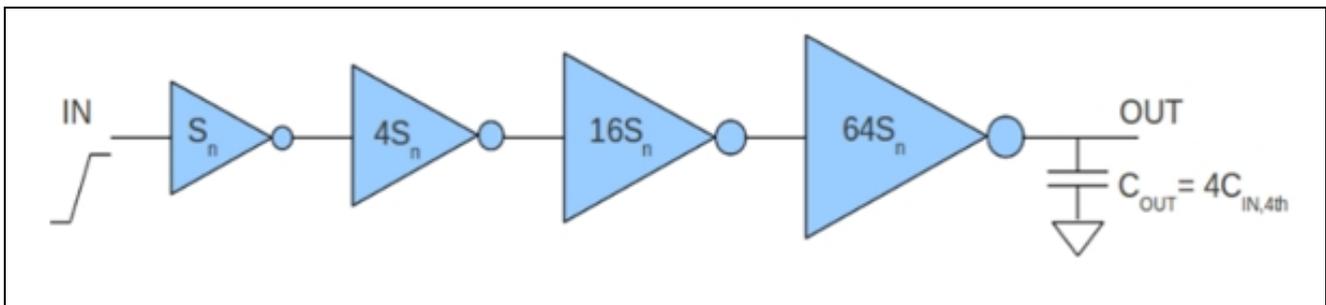


Figure 6: Sketch of four stages, FO4 inverter chain studied in the circuit simulations.

Fig.7 illustrates the static characteristic at $V_{DD}=0.6V$ for the three different transistor types. The logic threshold V_{LT} is close to $0.5V_{DD}$ for the devices and the static characteristic is well behaved. Thanks to a very large ratio between transconductance and output conductance the SOI MOSFETs are the devices yielding the largest voltage gain at the logic threshold. Fig.8 reports a sample of transient wave-forms at the output of the four inverters for either bulk MOSFETs or Tunnel FETs and for $V_{DD}=0.4V$. The propagation delay of an inverter in the FO4 circuit has been determined as the propagation delay of the third inverter in the chain, defined as the delay from the time when the input is at half the transition to the time when the output is at half the corresponding transition.

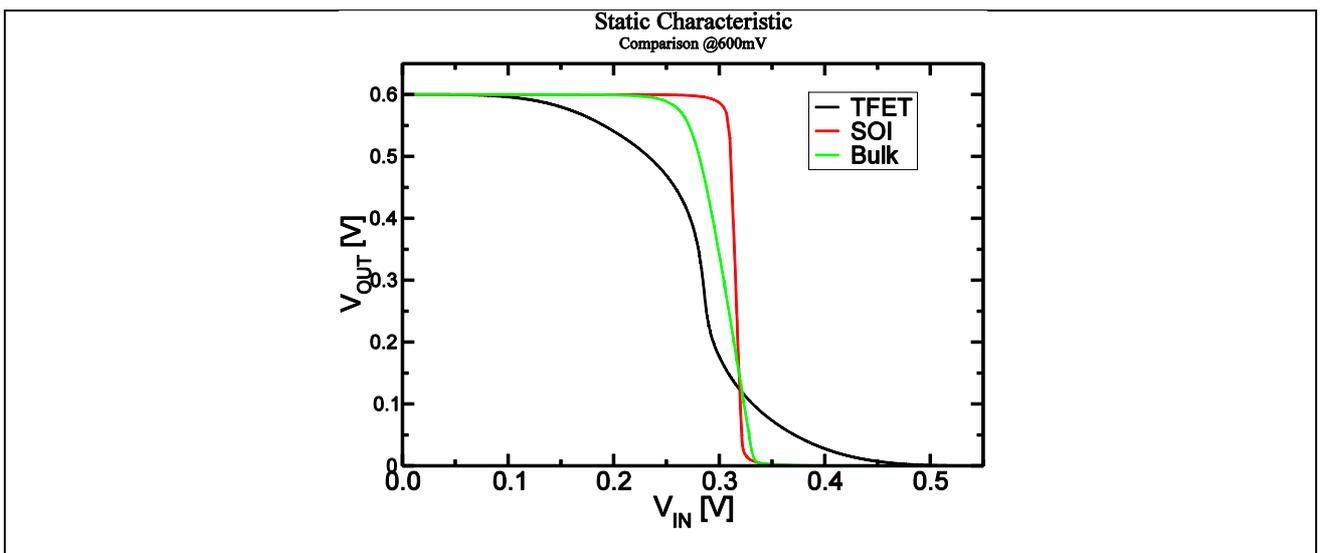


Figure 7: Simulated static characteristics of an inverter obtained by using bulk MOSFETs, SOI MOSFETs or Tunnel FETs. Both n-type and p-type transistors have a unitary sizing for all the technologies.

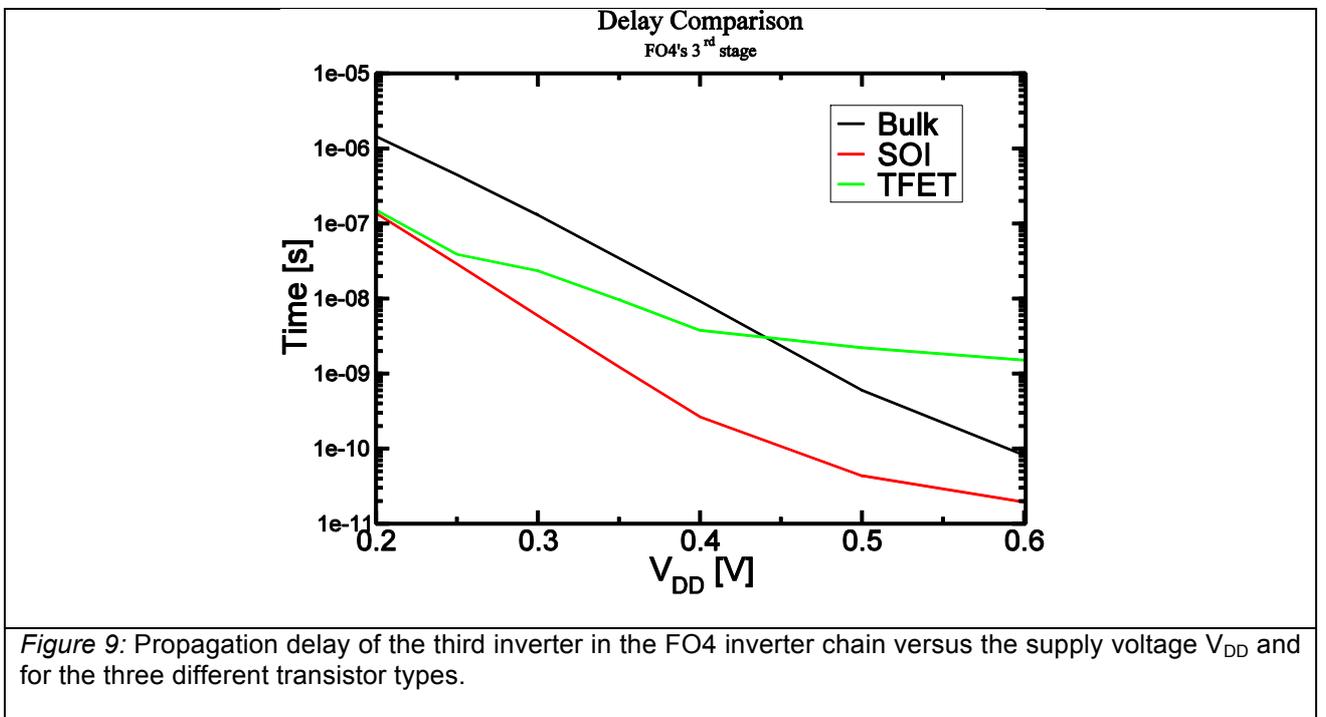
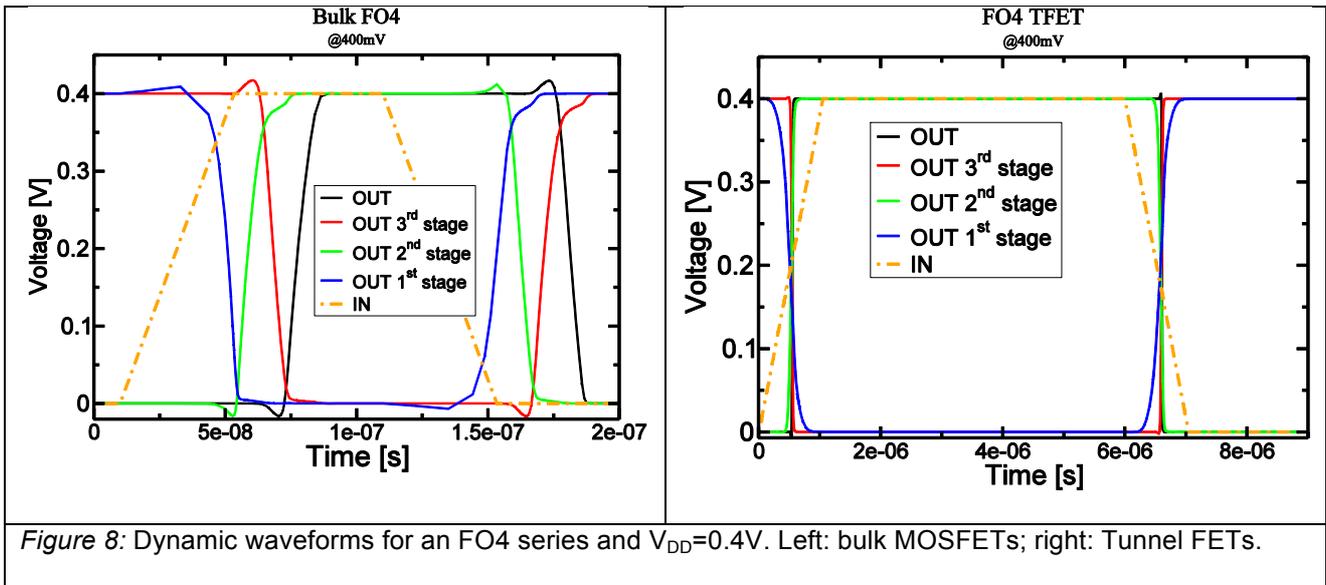
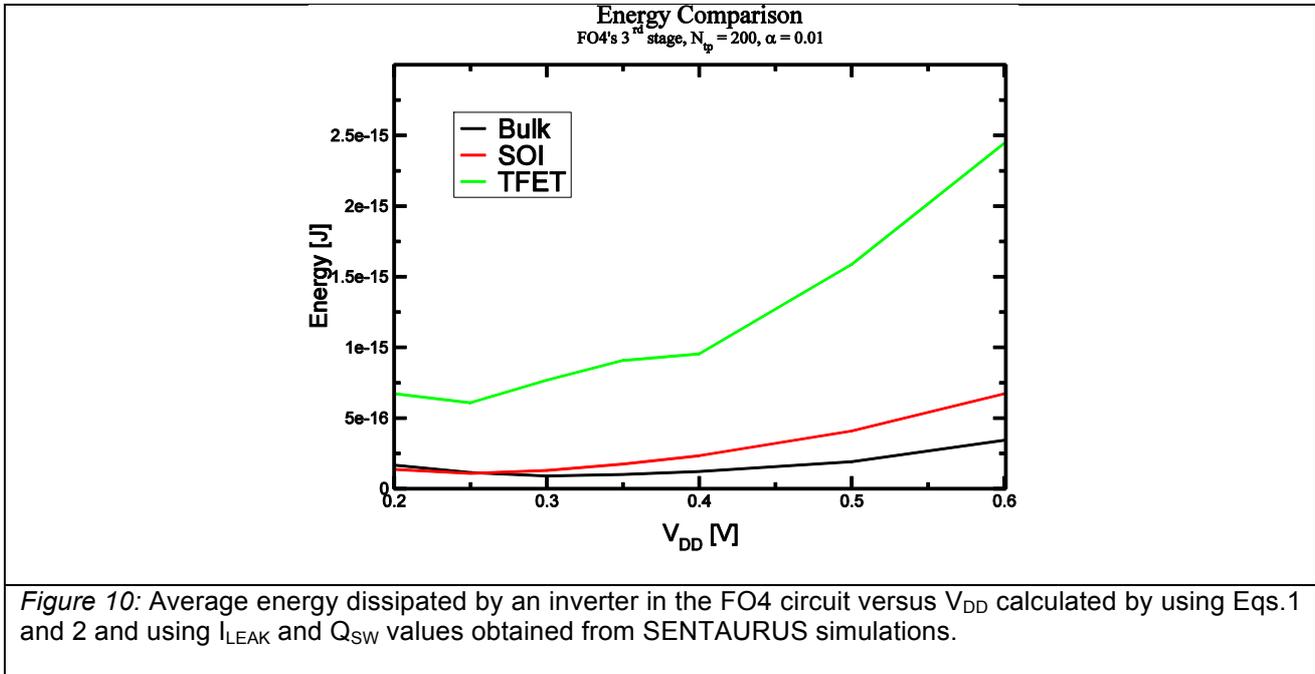


Fig.9 reports the propagation delay versus the supply voltage V_{DD} for bulk MOSFETs, SOI MOSFETs and Tunnel FETs. As V_{DD} decreases from 0.5V to 0.25V the degradation of the delay is larger for MOSFETs than for Tunnel FETs, because these latter do not work in the steep subthreshold region, as it can be seen in Fig.3. As a result the Tunnel FETs inverters become faster than the bulk MOSFETs circuits for V_{DD} below 0.45V and the delay of Tunnel FETs and SOI MOSFETs is comparable for V_{DD} below approximately 0.3V.

Besides the delay, we also analyzed the leakage and dynamic energy of the FO4 inverter chains by using Eqs.1 and 2. To this purpose the leakage current was determined from the simulation of the static characteristics of the inverter, whereas the charge Q_{SW} switched during the transients was obtained by using a direct integration of the current absorbed from the supply voltage during the circuit operation. As it can be seen in Eqs.1 and 2, the average E_{DIN} and the E_{LEAK} in a clock cycle depends on the activity factor α and on $N_{tp}=(T_{CLK}/t_p)$, where N_{tp} is the ratio between the clock time and the V_{DD} dependent delay t_p of the inverters.

Fig.10 illustrates the total average energy per cycle for the three transistors and versus V_{DD} . In these calculations for the energy we used a low activity factor $\alpha=0.01$ and $N_{tp}=(T_{CLK}/t_p)=200$. With these parameters we can observe a minimum energy operation for V_{DD} between 0.3V and 0.2V. As it can be seen the minimum energy for Tunnel FETs is observed at $V_{DD}=0.25V$ and it is roughly 0.5fJ, however the minimum energy for the MOSFETs is smaller than for Tunnel FETs. This is mainly ascribed to the larger capacitance of the Tunnel FETs illustrated in Figs.4 and 5 and it is a difference between MOSFETs and Tunnel FETs that deserves further investigation.



4. Power-speed trade off: technology boosters

In this chapter of the deliverable, we examine the power-speed trade-off in digital circuitries built with tunnel-FETs and the impact of the device capacitances on the dynamic performance. To this purpose a complementary modeling approach will be used with respect to that considered by the IUNET partner. In particular we will use TCAD to compute the IV and CV curves of the devices and circuit simulations based on look-up table models for the circuit level analysis.

4.1 Power - Delay Trade-off

The circuit power dissipation can be expressed as

$$P = KCV_{DD}^2 f + I_{OFF} V_{DD}$$

where K is the switching activity, C is the total equivalent capacitance being charged and discharged in a clock cycle, and f is the clock frequency. The first term gives the switching or active power, and the second term is leakage or standby power.

One of the simplest means to calculate the intrinsic delay of a device which is adopted by ITRS as well is $C_{GG}V_{DD}/I_{ON}$; I_{ON} being the drain current when $V_{GS}=V_{DS}=V_{DD}$ and C_{GG} is the total gate capacitance including fringing capacitance at $V_{GS}=V_{DS}$ [Taur98]. More recently, some effort have been devoted to redefine the capacitance and current such that the same metric can be used to predict the inverter delay by examining dynamic switching events and trajectories of capacitance and current and by approximation of equivalent values for the nonlinear changes [Na02]. For TFETs no such study has been done yet. Therefore only simulation results are presented for the inverter characteristics.

Among the device delay and power, one of the most common circuit design trade-off manifests itself. The higher the supply voltage, the smaller the delay gets since as compared to C_{GG} , the increase in I_{ON} is markedly larger and follows a super-linear (exponential in the sub-threshold region) trend. That is the reason why the highest frequency that the circuit can be clocked increases with V_{DD} . This performance boost comes at an expense of elevation both in the total power consumption and switching energy as explained in the previous chapter. In this three dimensional power-delay- V_{DD} design problem, the choice of threshold voltage gives the solution space resulting in different standby power consumption. The application requirements identify where the optimization should be performed. Therefore it is fairly common to have transistors with various threshold voltages in the design kits aiming to address wide range of applications (high performance: high V_{DD} & low V_{TH} , low power: low V_{DD} & low V_{TH} , and low standby power: low V_{DD} & high V_{TH}).

In this section of the deliverable we do not consider the choice of the threshold voltage but focus on the device level optimization, targeting an absolute improvement in the delay without perturbing the leakage power and somewhat break the power delay trade-off for tunnel-FETs. In this context, the device capacitance plays a key role. If it were possible to reduce the capacitance without degrading the control of the gate and thus the drain current, it would create more room for voltage scaling maintaining certain speed and therefore reduce the active power by twofold impact (C , V_{DD}). From an alternative perspective; higher speed can be achieved for the similar power consumption values.

4.2. Device Parameters and Simulation Methodology

Circuit design considerations given in 4.1, encourages working on the device capacitance optimization.

Therefore we compare in this section the two TFET structures given in Fig. 11, namely a conventional double gate p-i-n/n-i-p hetero-junction TFET with high-k gate oxide (HeTFET, Fig. 11-top), and an optimized TFET design (HKLKTFET, Fig. 11-bottom) that features a tandem of high-k/low-k oxides. The source materials for n- and p-type TFETs are Germanium ($N_D=1e19cm^{-3}$) and IndiumArsenide ($N_A=2e18cm^{-3}$) respectively. The intrinsic Silicon region is p-doped ($N_A=5e15cm^{-3}$) and abrupt junctions have been assumed.

The main idea of the optimized structure is that a large gate coupling between the gate terminal and the underlying channel is only needed in the restricted region where the carrier injection mechanism (that is the BTBT) takes place. The remaining part of the channel, where the carrier transport is mainly dictated by the diffusion mechanism, does not need extremely large coupling, thus a gate oxide with a lower dielectric constant can be used without any loose of device performance.

To this purpose, HfO_2 has been used as high-k material ($\epsilon_r=22$), while common SiO_2 ($\epsilon_r=3.9$) has been used as low-k oxide.

Also in this case, the device-level simulations were performed using Synopsys Sentaurus Device2010.12 with a non-local band-to-band tunneling model that dynamically determines the tunneling path direction based on the valence band gradient. The Shockley-Read-Hall recombination model has been activated to account for the trap-assisted tunneling under the high electric field, present in the tunnel junction during device operation.

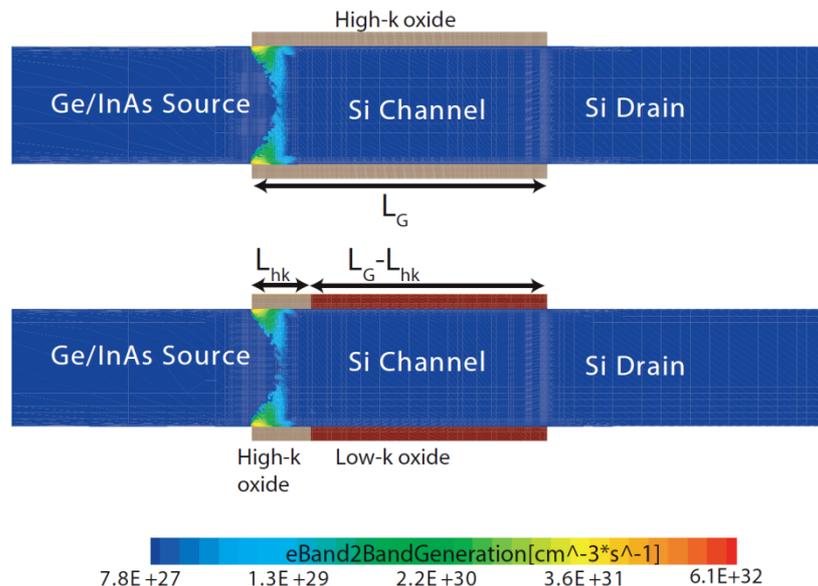


Figure 11: Top: the conventional heterojunction TFET (HeTFET) and the optimized high-k/low-k architecture (HKLKTFET), bottom, compared in this section. Both devices feature a gate oxide thickness $t_{ox}=2.5nm$, a Silicon thickness $t_{si}=20nm$, and a gate length $L_G=50nm$. The metal gate workfunctions are 4.04eV and 5.07eV for n- and p-type respectively.

Transient simulations are conducted by MMSIM 7.2 with the look-up table based models implemented in VerilogA. The look-up table solution is a two steps approach; the first being quasi-stationary simulations with TCAD (or device measurements) to build the multi-dimensional tables of current and charge with respect to bias voltages and the second step being utilization of these tables by a SPICE-like simulator. The first step must be repeated for any modification in the technology parameter set which makes this approach inflexible. However, once the device parameters are set, table-based models allow simulating complex circuits with a reasonable accuracy and speed. For transient simulations it is possible to replace the charge tables with the capacitance tables which can be extracted by TCAD AC-simulations. This improves the convergence properties which are likely to be poorer with charge tables unless their differentiability and continuous derivatives are guaranteed.

The dynamic current is expressed as

$$I_{xt} = I_{DC,x}(V_{GS}, V_{DS}) + \partial Q_x \partial V_d \partial V_d \partial t + \partial Q_x \partial V_g \partial V_g \partial t + \partial Q_x \partial V_s \partial V_s \partial t$$

$$= I_{DC,x}(V_{GS}, V_{DS}) + C_{xd} \partial V_d \partial t + C_{xg} \partial V_g \partial t + C_{xs} \partial V_s \partial t$$

where x refers to one of the device terminals.

4.3. Results

The major advantages of the HKLKFET are shown in Fig. 12. In particular, Fig. 12-top shows the progressive reduction of the small signal total gate (C_{gg}) and gate-to-drain (C_{gd}) capacitances obtained by reducing the high-k oxide length L_{HK} .

While in MOSFET operating in the linear region, the total gate capacitance is known to be equally distributed between the source and drain terminals, the reverse biased junction at the source channel interface of TFET devices makes the entire gate capacitance to fall upon the drain terminal, causing much higher C_{gd} ($\approx C_{gg}$) components [Mookerjea09].

Figure 13 shows the improvements in terms of the subthreshold slope resulting from a more favorable electrostatic configuration, as explained in [Alper12]. It should be observed that the restriction of the high-k oxide to the sole narrow region where the BTBT generation takes place does not degrade the on-current level of the device.

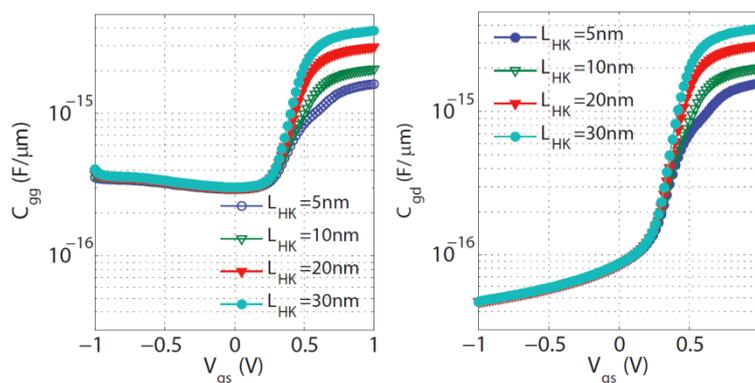


Figure12: total gate capacitance (left) and gate-to-drain capacitance (right) for the HKLKFET as a function of the gate voltage, for different high-k lengths.

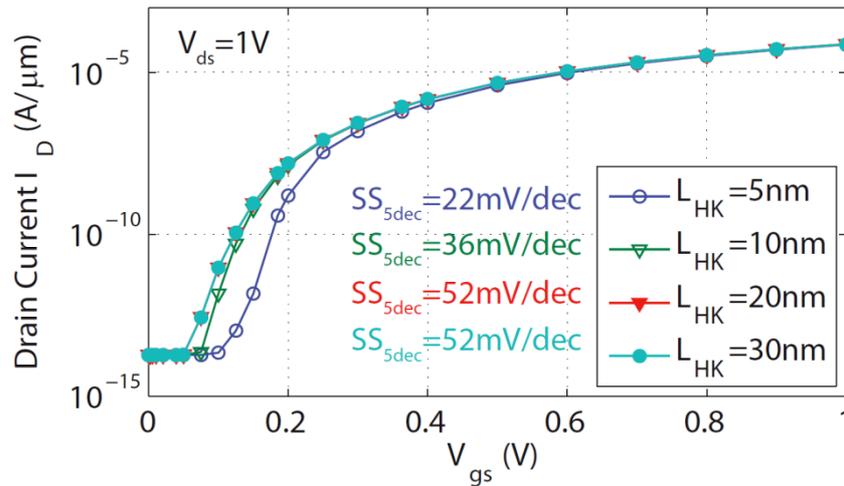


Figure13: transfer characteristics for different high-k length. It can be observed that the restriction of the high-k oxide to the BTBT region does not degrade the on current level and it offers at the same time an improved subthreshold slope.

The intrinsic delay versus supply voltage curve is given in Figure 14. As expected from the device characteristics, intrinsic delay has been reduced by factor of ~2 for the entire V_{dd} range of interest by optimization of the gate oxide.

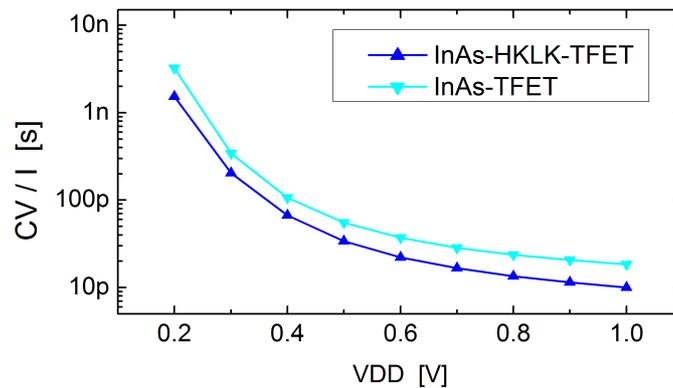


Figure14: Intrinsic Delay of the InAs tunnel-FET with and without Low-K region

To predict the circuit level benefits of the technology booster presented here, an inverter chain composed of 3 identical inverter stages is simulated at frequency of 1MHz. The variation of the F01 delay which corresponds to the delay of the middle stage is given in Figure 15. With the non-uniform gate oxide, the improvement on circuit delay is around factor ~2.5 inside the entire range of supply voltages simulated.

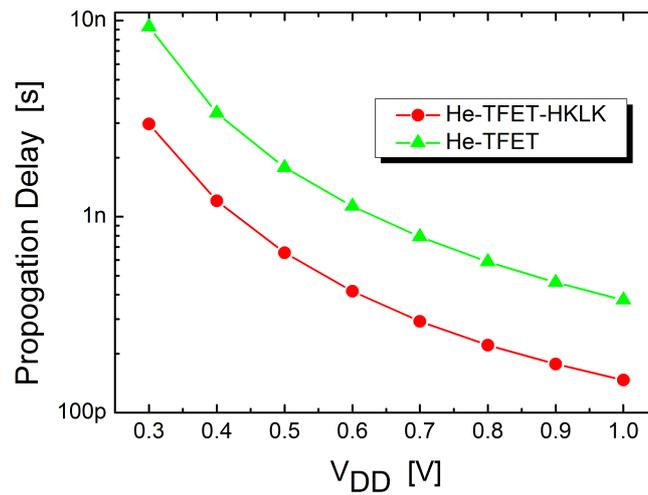


Figure 15: Fan-out 1 delay of the inverters based on tunnel-FETs with and without Low-K region

Figure 16 shows the variation of the switching energy with respect to VDD of the inverter in the middle of the chain.

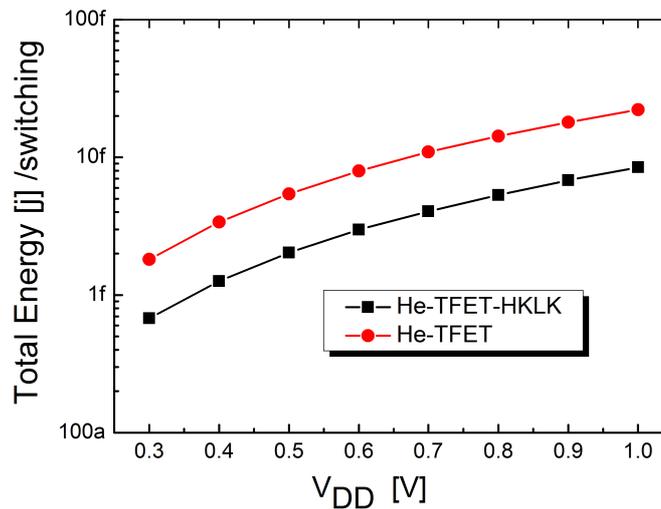


Figure 16: Total energy with respect to the supply voltage of the inverters based on tunnel-FETs with and without Low-K region at 1MHz

As final remark, the gate capacitance optimization holds an important potential to push up the performances of the tunnel-FETs. In particular, to achieve 1ns of FO1 delay, He-TFET without low-K region requires ~600mV whereas for the HKLKTFET only ~450mV of supply voltage are needed. This corresponds to a 25% amelioration in leakage power and approximately 66% reduction in energy consumption.

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