

A Overview of Quantum Tunneling in MOSFETs and its Contributions to MOSFET Scaling

Lawrence Liu

*Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering,
University of California–Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90095, USA*

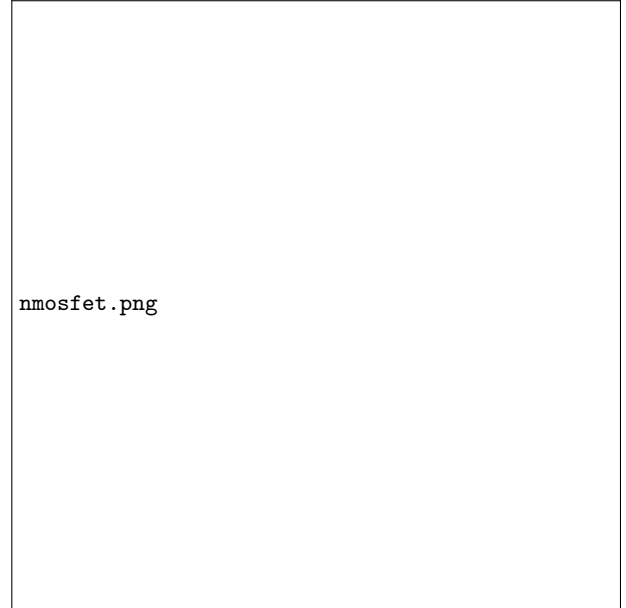
I. INTRODUCTION

Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistors (MOSFETs) are the most common type of transistor used in modern electronics. Let us start by briefly discussing the basic operation of a MOSFETs and a common application of MOSFETs in Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS) logic gates.

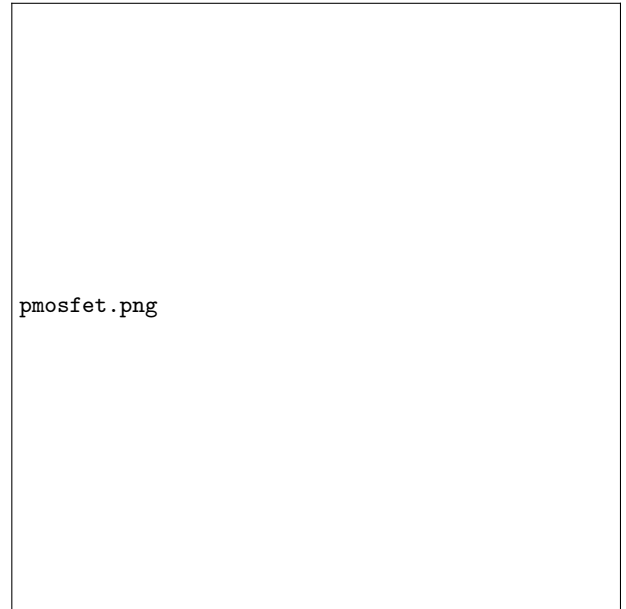
Basic MOSFET Structure

The MOSFET is based around a Metal Oxide Semiconductor (MOS) capacitor. Historically this was a gate made out of a metal plate on top of a semiconductor substrate, which was separated by an insulating layer of oxide, however modern MOSFETs use a polysilicon gate instead of a metal gate.

Now to make a MOSFET we add a source and drain silicon regions to the silicon substrate. The source and drain regions are doped with impurities to be the opposite type to that of the base silicon substrate. For example, if the base silicon substrate is p-type, then the source and drain regions are n-type, and vice versa. We call the MOSFET with n-type source and drain regions an nMOSFET, and the MOSFET with p-type source and drain regions. We have drawn both an nMOSFET and a pMOSFET in Figure ?? along with their respective circuit symbols.



(a) nMOSFET



(b) pMOSFET

FIG. 1: MOSFETs and their circuit symbols.

Let us define V_{ds} as the voltage between the drain and source, and V_{gs} as the voltage between the gate and source.

MOSFET Operation

Now let us consider the operation of a nMOSFET in a qualitative sense. If we apply a positive voltage to the gate, then the holes in the p-type substrate will be pushed away from the gate, or more accurately, the minority electrons will be drawn to the gate. If enough are drawn to the gate, then an inversion layer of n-type Silicon will form at the surface of the substrate since enough electrons will be present to become the majority carrier. This inversion layer will form a conductive channel between the source and drain, allowing current to flow between the source and drain. Therefore in a very rough sense, we can see that a MOSFET acts as a voltage controlled switch.

In a more rigorous sense, what happens is that the gate voltage "bends" the energy bands in the p-type substrate lower. Once these bands bend to the degree that near the surface of the substrate, the conduction band is closer to the Fermi level than the valence band, then the inversion layer will form. This threshold is given by

$$V_T = V_{FB} + 2\phi_B + \frac{Q_{SS}}{C_{OX}} \quad (1)$$

Where V_{FB} is the flatband voltage, ie the difference in the work functions of the gate and the substrate, ϕ_B is the difference between the Fermi level and the intrinsic Fermi level divided by the electron charge, $Q_{SS} = \sqrt{2\epsilon_s q N_a (2\phi_B)}$ where N_a is the doping concentration of the substrate, and C_{OX} is the capacitance of the oxide layer.

We can see that the opposite happens for a pMOSFET. If we apply a negative voltage to the gate, then since the electrons are pushed away and the holes are drawn to the gate, then an inversion layer of p-type Silicon will form at the surface of the substrate. Or from a bands perspective, the bands will be "bended" upwards to the degree that the valence band is closer to the Fermi level than the conduction band. We have that this threshold is given by

$$V_T = V_{FB} - 2\phi_B - \frac{2\epsilon_s q N_d (2\phi_B)}{C_{OX}} \quad (2)$$

Where N_d is the doping concentration of the substrate.

Thus when we apply a voltage greater or less than the threshold voltage for the nMOSFET and pMOSFET respectively, then the inversion layer will form. We can view this layer as effectively a resistor between the source and drain. However as we increase the current across the drain and the source V_{DS} , we will start to experience "pinch off" where the inversion layer will start to narrow. Once the voltage is high enough, the inversion layer will pinch off completely,

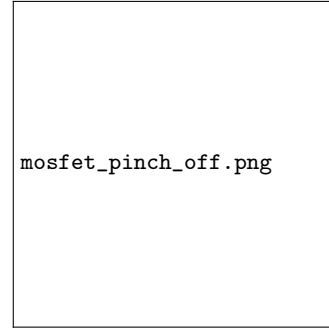


FIG. 2: Pinch off in a MOSFET.

and no longer connect the source and drain. This is depicted in Figure ???. This will cause the MOSFET to no longer act as a voltage controlled resistor between the source and drain, and instead act as a voltage controlled current source. We call this operation region the "saturation" region as opposed the "Ohmic" region where the MOSFET acts as a voltage controlled resistor.

The threshold for V_{DS} at which the MOSFET enters the saturation region can be approximated by

$$V_{DS,sat} = V_{GS} - V_T \quad (3)$$

The current in the saturation region therefore can be approximated by

$$I_{D,sat} = \frac{1}{2} C_{OX} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_T)^2 \quad (4)$$

Where W is the width of the MOSFET and L is the length of the MOSFET.

Examples of MOSFET based circuits

CMOS Inverter

By connecting a pMOSFET and a nMOSFET in series, we can create a CMOS inverter. This is depicted in Figure ??.

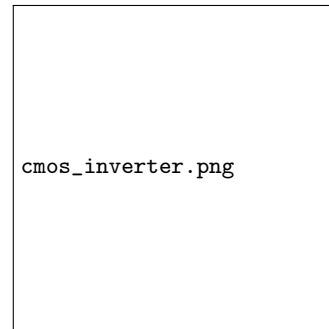


FIG. 3: CMOS inverter.

To understand this circuit let us consider two cases when the input is "low" and when the input is "high". Let us assume that we have biased the circuit such that the threshold voltage of the nMOSFET is equal to the threshold voltage of the pMOSFET. Then in the case where the input is low, then the nMOSFET will be effectively an open circuit, and the pMOSFET will be effectively a closed circuit. Therefore the output will be high. Conversely, if the input is high, then the nMOSFET will be effectively a closed circuit, and the pMOSFET will be effectively an open circuit. Therefore the output will be low. Thus we can see that this circuit acts as an inverter.

CMOS NOR GATE

We can make a NOR gate by connecting two nMOSFETs in parallel, this is depicted in Figure ??.

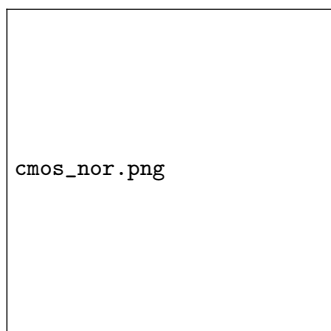


FIG. 4: CMOS NOR gate.

As we can see, if any of the inputs are high, then there will be a connection between the output and ground. Thus the output will be low. Conversely, if all of the inputs are low, then there will be no connection between the output and ground. Thus the output will be high. Thus we can see that this circuit acts as a NOR gate. This is important because a NOR gate is algebraically complete, meaning that any boolean function can be implemented using only NOR gates.

Speed

In our previous discussion about MOSFETs we neglected to include the parasitic capacitances that exist in the MOSFET when we view it from the source. These capacitances can come from the wires connecting the MOSFET, and the capacitance that is formed in the PN

junction between the source and drain and the substrate. These capacitances resist changes in voltage, and thus slow down the MOSFET. We have that:

$$\tau \propto \frac{C}{I_{on}} V_{DD} \quad (5)$$

MOSFET SIZING

Now armed with the knowledge of how MOSFETs work, let us examine how the size of a MOSFET can affect its performance, and why it is beneficial to have a smaller MOSFET. The most intuitive reason is that a smaller MOSFET will allow us to fit more MOSFETs on a single chip. However, there are other reasons as well.

Let us consider the capacitance of the Oxide layer of a MOSFET. We have that if the Oxide has a thickness of t_{ox} , an area of A , and a dielectric constant of ϵ_{ox} , then the capacitance of the oxide layer is given by

$$C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox} A}{t_{ox}} \quad (6)$$

Now if we scale the entire MOSFET by a factor of α , then we have that the capacitance of the oxide layer is given by

$$C_{ox} = \frac{\epsilon_{ox} \alpha^2 A}{\alpha t_{ox}} = \frac{\alpha \epsilon_{ox} A}{t_{ox}} \quad (7)$$

Therefore we can see that the capacitance of the oxide layer is inversely proportional to the size of the MOSFET. Now if we return to equations (??) and (??), we can see that the threshold voltage is varies inversely proportional to the capacitance of the oxide layer. Thus a smaller MOSFET will have a lower threshold voltage. This is important because a lower threshold voltage means that the MOSFET will require less voltage, and therefore at a same current, will dissipate less power.

This will also affect the speed of the MOSFET by increasing the on current. We have that the on current given by equation (??) is proportional to $(V_{GS} - V_T)^2$. Therefore a lower threshold voltage will result in a higher on current. Now if we recall that the switch time of a MOSFET is proportional to $\frac{1}{I_{on}}$. Therefore a smaller threshold voltage will result in a faster switch time, or alternatively a lower power dissipation for the same switching time.

Thus the benefits of a smaller MOSFET from a very high level are that it will allow our chips to be more computationally powerful, faster, and more energy efficient per MOSFET.

Issues with MOSFET Scaling

Then what would stop us from making our MOSFETs smaller and smaller? Well, there will be several issues that will arise as we make our MOSFETs smaller. Of course the most obvious issue is that it will be harder to manufacture smaller MOSFETs. Furthermore, as we make our MOSFETs smaller, the behaviour of the MOSFET will be less dependent on the Classical Physics that the pervious equations were derived from. As an example, we will examine how scaling down the MOS capacitor will cause Quantum Tunneling to become a significant factor in the behaviour of the MOSFET. We will then examine how this will affect the behaviour of the MOSFET and how we can mitigate this effect.

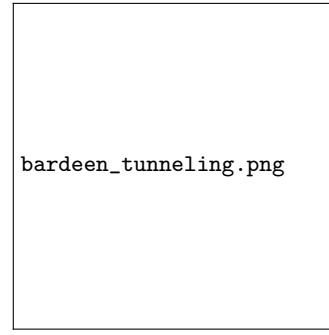


FIG. 5: Potential wells and wavefunctions.

As we depicted, let us assume that both of these potential wells are symmetric around their own origins, and thus the potential outside the well is the same, which we defined in figure (??) to be V_0 . Then we have that the potential is given by

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} V_l(x) & x < x_1 \\ V_r(x) & x \geq x_1 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

Where $V_l(x)$ is the potential function for the left well, and $V_r(x)$ is the potential function for the right well, and x_1 is some arbitrary point $x_l < x_1 < x_r$. We can see that we can express this as:

$$V(x) = V_l(x) - \Theta(x - x_1)(V_0 - V_r(x)) \quad (9)$$

Where $\Theta(x)$ is the Heaviside step function. Therefore we can see that we can write the hamiltonian for this system as:

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V_l(x) - \Theta(x - x_1)(V_0 - V_r(x)) \quad (10)$$

We can see that if we define H_l as the hamiltonian of a system consisting solely of the left well, and $H' = \theta(x - x_1)(V_0 - V_r(x))$, then we can write the hamiltonian as:

$$H = H_l + H' \quad (11)$$

Therefore we can see the that the tunneling rate can be modeled by with Fermi's Golden Rule, with H' as the perturbation that turns on at $t = 0$. If we make the key assumption that the energy of the left well is approximately equal to the energy of the right well, ie $E_l \approx E_r = E$. We have that the transition rate is given by:

$$\Gamma_{l \rightarrow r} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} r H' l^2 \rho(E) \quad (12)$$

BARDEEN TUNNELING THEORY

Let us start by briefly summarizing Bardeen Tunneling Theory. Let us consider a quantum mechanical system as depicted in Figure ?? consisting of two potential wells separated by a barrier: