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Résumé

Depuis environ une dizaine d'années, la poursuite de la miniaturisation des dispositifs microélectroniques silicium se heurte au problème de l'augmentation de la densité de puissance consommée dans les dispositifs car la réduction de la tension d'alimentation n'a pas suivi celle des dimensions. Cela est inhérent au mécanisme thermo-ionique d'injection des porteurs dans les transistors de type MOSFET et conduit à envisager un mécanisme d'injection des porteurs différent, basé sur l'effet tunnel. Pour être efficace, ce type d'injection doit s'accompagner de l'introduction de semi-conducteurs III-V à faible masse effective et petite bande interdite. Parmi ces derniers, l'hétérojonction (Al)GaSb/InAs semble prometteuse grâce à la faible masse effective des électrons dans InAs et à la possibilité de passer d'un alignement des bandes de type 'échelon' à 'brisé'.

Ce travail de thèse porte sur la fabrication de transistors à effet tunnel (TFETs) à base d'héterostructures (Al)GaSb/InAs élaborées par épitaxie par jets moléculaires. L'influence des paramètres matériaux et géométriques sur les performances du transistor a été évaluée à l'aide des simulations utilisant le logiciel Silvaco. Un procédé technologique complet de fabrication de diodes et transistors verticaux de taille nanométrique a ensuite été développé et a conduit à la réalisation d'un transistor vertical à effet tunnel sur substrat GaAs. La caractérisation électrique de ce dispositif a révélé un courant dans l'état ON de 433 μ A/ μ m à V_{DS} = V_{GS} = 0.5 V. A basse température, une pente sous le seuil de 71 mV/décade et un rapport ON/OFF de 6 décades ont été obtenus. Ce compromis à l'état de l'art entre courant ON et capacité de commutation démontre que le TFET à base de l'hétérojonction (Al)GaSb/InAs pourrait constituer une alternative de choix pour les technologies futures après optimisation de l'empilement de grille.

Abstract

Silicon microelectronics is facing a power consumption crisis for around ten years since the scaling of the supply voltage has not followed that of the transistor dimensions. This is mainly due to the inherent limits of the silicon MOSFETs, based on the thermionic injection mechanism of the carriers. Going to a tunneling injection mechanism is therefore very appealing but, to be efficient, this should go along with the introduction of low effective mass and small bang gap III-V semiconductors. Among them, the (Al)GaSb/InAs heterojunction is very attractive due to the low electron effective mass in InAs and the ability to tune the band alignment from staggered to broken gap which eventually results in large tunneling current densities.

In this PhD work, the fabrication of tunnel field effect transistors (TFETs) based on AlGaSb/InAs heterostructures grown by molecular beam epitaxy is investigated. First the impact of the basic material and geometrical parameters on the device performances has been simulated using Silvaco TCAD software. A complete technological process for the fabrication of nanoscale vertical tunnel diodes and tunneling transistors has then been developed and has led to the achievement of a vertical TFET on a GaAs substrate. The electrical characterization of this device has been carried out exhibiting an ON-current of 433 μ A/ μ m at V_{DS} = V_{GS} = 0.5 V. At low temperature, a subthreshold swing of 71 mV/decade and a 6 decade ON/OFF ratio at 0.1 V are demonstrated. This state-of-the-art trade-off between ON current and switching properties indicates that the (Al)GaSb/InAs TFET may be a valuable solution for beyond CMOS technology after further improvement of the gate stack process.

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Abbreviation List

ALD	Atomic Layer Deposition
BG	Broken-Gap Semiconductor
BGN	Band Gap Narrowing
BTBT	Band-to-Band Tunneling
CMOS	Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor
CNT	Carbon Nano-Tune
CVD	Chemical Vapor Deposition
DC	Direct Current
DOS	Density of States
DI	De-Ionized
EBL	Electron Beam Lithography
EOT	Equivalent Oxide Thickness
FG	Forming Gas
IC	Integrated Circuit
IPA	Isopropyl Alcohol
MBE	Molecular Beam Epitaxy
MOSFET	Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor
NDR	Negative Differential Resistance
NW	Nanowire
PMMA	Poly (Methyl Methacrylate)
PVCR	Peak-to-Valley Current Ratio
RTA	Rapid Thermal Anneal
RIE	Reactive-Ion Etch
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscope
SOI	Silicon-on-Insulator
SRH	Shockley-Read-Hall
SS	Sub-threshold slope
ТАТ	Trap-Assisted Tunneling
TCAD	Technology Computer-Aided Design

TDD	Threading Dislocation Density
TD	Tunnel diode
TEM	Transmission Electron Microscope
TFET	Tunnel Field-Effect Transistor
WKB	Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin

Introduction

Historically, the most commonly used transistor in integrated circuits (ICs) is the Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor (MOSFET), based on silicon technology. Complementary MOS (CMOS) circuits use a combination of p-type and n-type MOSFETs to implement digital circuits found in all electronic equipment. The three terminal MOSFET consisting in the gate, drain and source was first fabricated at BELL labs by D. Kahng and M.M. Atalla in 1960 [1] and commercially available in 1964.



Figure 1: Scaling of transistor over the years following the famous Moore's law, roughly doubling the number of transistors per chip for every 24 months [2].

Scaling of CMOS has achieved an unprecedented success since its invention in 1960 at Bell labs. For more than five decades, MOSFET has been continuously scaled to improve the performances and to add functionalities to the IC. Over the last three decades transistor scaling followed Dennard's voltage scaling principle, which states that all the device dimensions be scaled by 1/k factor while the doping of source and drain regions increased by a factor k [3]. As a result, MOSFET scaling improved the circuit speed and

density along with the addition of more functionalities. With the scaling progressing at an exponential rate, more and more transistors in a given area have been added lowering the manufacturing cost per transistor. Figure 1 shows this trend. However, an emerging problem associated to the scaling of the supply voltage V_{DD} has appeared. The graph in *Figure 2* shows that V_{DD} scaling did not follow the trend of Dennard's scaling law with the technology generation node. Indeed, scaling of V_{DD} and of the threshold voltage V_{TH} have adverse effects (decrease of the gate over drive and on the on-state current, decrease of the Ion/Ioff ratio) due to the carrier transport mechanism based on the thermionic emission principle, leading to limitations of the electrostatic control of the gate over the current flow. This non-scaled V_{DD} leads to the power dissipation problem in the recent technology nodes. One way to address this power consumption problem without sacrificing performance is to increase the switching efficiency, which implies a subthreshold slope (SS) of the device steeper than 60 mV/dec at room temperature, which is a physical limit of the conventional MOSFETs.



Figure 2: The trend of Power (W/chip) and supply voltage VDD Vs year of a CMOS technology node. (Source: IMEC [4])

There are many alternatives to the MOSFETs to achieve steep SS, which are currently studied. The focus of this work will be on one of them: changing the thermionic injection mechanism of charges into the channel by a tunnel injection mechanism independent of the temperature. This is the working principle of the Tunnel Field Effect Transistor (TFET) in which the carrier transport mechanism is fundamentally different from that in MOSFET and for which a SS lower than 60mV/dec can be expected. The realization of a complete transistor involves many parameters and that is why, as a first step, we will investigate tunnel diodes (TDs) to evaluate material properties.

This manuscript is organized along four chapters.

<u>Chapter 1</u> provides the motivation for this work, based on the limitations currently being experienced by the MOSFETs in terms of SS. Possible post-MOSFET devices with lower values of swing are discussed and state-of-the-art on the TFETs fabricated within various material systems and architecture is presented. *At the end we present the main objective of this work, which is to realize a vertical n-TFET in the AlGaSb/InAs material system*.

<u>**Chapter 2**</u> presents the operation principles and basic simulation of TFET using the Silvaco software. The parameters such as materials, effective barrier height (E_{beff}) at the tunnel junction, doping variations at source and drain, single and double gate configurations, channel body thickness, effective oxide thickness are varied to get a better insight into the device working.

<u>Chapter 3</u> details the fabrication process flow for diodes and TFETs that have been developed entirely in the framework of this study.

<u>Chapter 4</u> discusses the results obtained on the fabricated Tunnel diodes (TDs) and different TFET generations.

Finally, the conclusion suggests some recommendations for future work.

Chapter 1 – Literature review

1.1 Subthreshold Swing of transistor: CMOS limit

The conventional scaling in CMOS technology faced major problems for sub-50nm gate length (L_g), because the operation voltage reduction degrades the sub-threshold leakage current. Figure 3 illustrates that the transition from OFF-state to ON-state is not abrupt and I_{OFF} is not zero in the subthreshold region (V_{GS} < V_{TH}). This leads to a leakage or subthreshold current in the OFF-state. In practice, low V_{TH} is desirable to obtain high ON-current while reducing V_{DD}, but high V_{TH} is needed for low OFF-current. This sub-threshold leakage effect slowed down the scaling of the threshold voltage and eventually supply voltage (V_{DD}).



Figure 3: I-V characteristics showing for the MOSFET (blue), TFET (green) in comparison with ideal (orange) I-V characteristics of a transistor.

The subthreshold swing of a MOSFET is defined as the value of the gate voltage (V_G) swing needed for one decade change of the drain current (I_D) , usually expressed in millivolts per decade (mV/dec). In Figure 3, the region below the drain current saturation is called subthreshold region. The subthreshold swing (SS) is the inverse of the subthreshold slope of log (I_D) vs V_{GS} and is expressed as [16]:

$$SS = \frac{dV_G}{d(\log_{10} I_D)} = \ln(10) \frac{k_B T}{q} \left(1 + \frac{C_{dep}}{Cox}\right)$$
(1.1)
$$= \left(\ln(10) \frac{k_B T}{q}\right) (m)$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, C_{dep} is the depletion capacitance, Cox is the gate oxide capacitance and m is called the body factor. Due to the thermionic nature of the drain current, SS is always limited to $2.3k_BT/q$ (=60 mV/decade) at room temperature. Since the SS is purely dependent on the transport mechanism of the carriers in the subthreshold regime, achieving steep SS lower than 60 mV/decade requires changing the way electrons flow in the device. This is the primary motivation behind Impactionization MOSFETS (IMOS), Micro/Nano-Electro-Mechanical FETs (NEMFETs) and Tunnel field effect transistors (TFETs) where the transport mechanism is different from classical silicon based MOSFETs. On the other hand, S. Salahudhin *et al.* [5] proposed a theory on the negative capacitance to increase the surface potential (m<1) in the channel with respect to what is possible in the MOSFET.

1.2 Alternative small Swing devices: Subthreshold slope below 60mV/decade

1.2.1 Impact-ionization MOSFET (I-MOS)

Impact-ionization MOS (I-MOS) is one of the potential electronic device that employs avalanche breakdown to achieve a SS below 10 mV/decade. I-MOS is a gated p^+ i-n⁺ structure with a gate partially covering the intrinsic region as shown in Figure 4. Applying a positive gate bias greater than the threshold voltage (Vt) results in an increase of the charge carrier energy. Under the influence of the high electric field the atoms in the lattice are impacted thereby creating more electron-hole pairs. Avalanche breakdown occurs when each carrier produces an electron-hole pair. Since impact-ionization phenomenon is a strong function of the electric field, I-MOS can have a very small subthreshold swing and a high-on current [6].



Figure 4: (a) Schematic of a typical I-MOS structure in which the gate only partially covers the right side of the intrinsic region. (b) Transfer characteristics I_{DS} - V_{GS} of Si and heterostructure SiGe I-MOS with a SS of less than 5 mV/dec for left n-channel I-MOS and right p-channel I-MOS, where source was biased at 4.8V. The above device schematic and characteristics were taken from [7].

The biggest challenge for the I-MOS is the reduction of the breakdown voltage to enable further scaling of the supply voltage (V_{DD}). Gopalakrishnan *et al.* proposed the use of low band gap materials such as Ge, to lower the breakdown voltage, but experimental demonstration is still lacking [8]. While the supply voltage of 'Si' I-MOS is still higher than for current MOSFETs, Y. Lechaux (Anode group) at IEMN is currently studying III-V based heterojunction I-MOS to lower the supply voltage. Since impact-ionization itself creates hot carriers, this is a matter of concern for repeatability and reliability because hot carriers can go under the gate (into the gate oxide) resulting in threshold voltage shifts and also SS increase of the device. Another major challenge for I-MOS using low band gap materials is the tunneling current.

1.2.2 M/NEMFET (Micro/Nano-Electro-Mechanical FET)

Micro/Nano-electro-mechanical (MEMS/NEMS) relays utilize electrostatic actuation to switch the device from OFF to ON state. The switching behavior is very abrupt and believed to be an excellent choice where the reduction of static power is the main concern. While some MEMS switches are just 2-terminals (2T), which are easy to design

and operate but are limited in terms of applications in circuits, others are 3-terminal (3T) devices. There are many designs available for the 3T relay switch. One of the design is to use a cantilever beam [9] electrostatically "pulled-in" and "pulled-out" as shown in Figure 5 (a). Another possibility is to use a typical MOSFET layout as developed by EPFL. Rhesa *et al.* [10] developed a 4-Terminal (4T) relay to address the shortcomings of 2T and 3T in circuits [11]. In 4T design as shown in Figure 5 (b), the actuated structure is the gate, whose position is controlled by the applied gate-to-body voltage (V_{GB}), as opposed to the gate-to-source (V_{GS}) in the 3T design.



Figure 5: (a) Schematic showing the operation of cantilever based 3T NEMS switch with source, drain and gate terminals in the OFF state and ON state taken from [9]. (b) Schematic of 4T relay in OFF and ON states where the gate structure is actuated by V_{GB} and (c) corresponding I_{DS} - V_{GB} of the 4T relay showing SS less than 1mV/decade taken from [11].

3-Terminal (3T) Relay

MEMS and NEMS are interesting because of their nearly zero leakage current in the OFF state, abrupt SS and very high I_{ON} . Their main disadvantages include speed and mechanical reliability where millions of switches should be electrostatically operated thousands or millions of times without failure and also high parasitic capacitance at high frequencies [12].

1.2.3 Ferroelectric gate dielectric FET

Another possibility to reduce the subthreshold swing below 60 mV/decade is by using a ferroelectric insulator in place of the conventional gate oxide insulator [5], because a ferroelectric insulator provides an effective negative capacitance (NC) which allows overcoming the Boltzmann limit. The negative capacitance phenomenon can be explained by considering the first term of the equation (1.1), which is denoted as m.

$$m = 1 + \frac{C_{Dep}}{C_{ins}} \tag{1.2}$$

The body-factor (m) is always larger than 1 in MOSFETs, because of the voltage divider rule in conventional capacitors. Thus SS cannot be less than 60 mV/decade in MOSFETs. However, if 'm' could be made less than one, that will lead to an overall SS less than 60 mV/decade [13]. To achieve this, a negative capacitance insulator (ferroelectric) is connected in series with the semiconductor capacitor as shown in Figure 6. However, these ferroelectric-gate transistors suffer from low field effect mobility and further research has to be conducted [14].



Figure 6: A conventional FET structure with the gate insulator replaced by a ferroelectric insulator, this means channel see a larger voltage than the actual due to the negative capacitance. Next to the FET structure is the schematic showing the insulator (ferroelectric) capacitor and the semiconductor capacitor connected in series like in a MOSFET. The above picture is taken from [5].

1.3 Introduction to the Tunnel Field effect transistor

The tunnel FET also called TFET, is also considered as a potential device for MOSFET replacement for low-power applications. As the carriers tunnel through the barrier, they offer a potential for steep subthreshold swing at a very low OFF state current. Since the tunneling takes place in a very small region of less than 5nm, the gate lengths can be scaled to a distance of tunneling barrier width, which is less than 5nm for III-V materials. The drain current in TFET is independent of the kT/q thermal factor unlike in MOSFET, which makes it possible to achieve subthreshold swing lower than 60 mV/dec.

In theory, TFETs make use of band-to-band-tunneling (BTBT) to establish current flow. BTBT of carriers will occur when a heavily doped p-n junction is polarized under reverse bias and the electric field is high enough of the order of 10^6 V/cm. Under reverse bias, available electrons on the source (p) side tunnel through the narrow barrier and fill the available states in the conduction band of the drain (n) side resulting in a Zener current flow.



Figure 7: (a), (b) Schematic of a three terminal TFET and MOSFET device structure, (c), (d) Scheme showing the barriers that carriers see for a TFET and MOSFET in Off state and (e),(f) Scheme showing the carrier injection mechanism of a TFET and MOSFET in On state [15].

So, TFETs are gated p^+ -i-n⁺ diodes operated in reverse bias with a gate aligned with the intrinsic zone. With almost similar 3-terminals like in an nMOSFET, an nTFET consists of a p^+ -region as source, an i-region as channel, and a n⁺-region acting as the drain. Like in a MOSFET, the gate voltage (V_{GS}) controls the charge in the channel by modulating the height of the barrier. In MOSFETs, charge carriers go over the barrier, while in TFETs they pass through the barrier as shown in Figure 7. When no V_{GS} is applied, the tunneling barrier width is wide enough to impede carrier tunneling: this is the OFF-state. When a positive V_{GS} is applied on the gate, the intrinsic zone bands are pushed down, and the tunneling barrier width starts to become thinner, thus allowing the majority charge carriers available on the source side to pass through it towards the empty states in the conduction band of the intrinsic zone. As V_{GS} is further increased, the tunneling probability increases which results in a maximum tunneling current, defining the ON state of the TFET. For nTFET, the majority charge carriers are electrons, with the electrons passing from the p⁺ source to the ichannel and drained through the n⁺ drain. Conversely, for pTFET, n⁺ source allows for injection of holes into the channel. Negative V_{GS} and V_{DS} are applied to turn the pTFET 'ON'.

The principle of operation of a TFET is Zener tunneling. As shown in Figure 7 when a V_{GS} is applied to the gate, the channel bands are pushed down, which reduces the tunneling barrier width and thus allowing the tunneling of carriers from source p+ side to the intrinsic region. The tunneling barrier width is the most important parameter that determines the tunneling current i.e. the drain current of the TFET I_D. The tunneling of electrons is formally understood by the transmission tunneling probability of electron through a potential barrier. Careful examination of Figure 8(a) indicates that the potential barrier is of triangular shape as shown in Figure 8 (b).



Figure 8: (a) Band-to-band-tunneling mechanism under reverse bias and (b) a triangular potential profile [16].

The transmission tunneling probability across a triangular potential barrier can be analytically solved using the WKB (Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin) approximation [17], which is obtained as

$$T_t \approx exp - \left(\frac{4\sqrt{2m^*} E_g^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3q\hbar\varepsilon}\right)$$
(1.3)

where m^* is the effective carrier mass, E_g is the band gap of the material, ε is the electric field at the junction.

Equation 1.3 is a general expression for BTBT transmission. When it comes to the tunneling transistors, I_{BTBT} (I_D) can be obtained with the aid of Figure 9. In a tunneling transistor, at a constant V_D and with the increase/decrease of the gate voltage (V_G), the energetic difference ($\Delta \varphi$) between the conduction band on one side and the valence band on the other side decreases/increases along with λ , since the slope of the energy bands are changed under the influence of the gate electric field. The electric field (ϵ) in Eq. 1.3 can be replaced with ($\Delta \varphi + Eg$)/ λ , which gives

$$I_{BTBT} \alpha T_t \approx exp - \left(\frac{4\lambda\sqrt{2m^*} E_g^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3q\hbar(\Delta \phi + E_g)}\right)$$
(1.4)

 $\Delta \phi$ is the energy window over which tunneling takes place, E_g is the band gap of the material, λ is a tunneling screening length and m^* is the effective carrier mass.

From the above equation, two important material parameters allow increasing the transmission tunneling probability: a low carrier effective mass and a small semiconductor bandgap.



Figure 9: Energy band cross section of a TFET showing a triangular barrier [18].

1.4 TFET State-of-the-art

1.4.1 Material systems

1.4.1a Si/SiGe TFETs

The main objective of the TFET is to outperform CMOS transistors in terms of I_{ON} at low V_{DD} with SS below 60 mV/decade and a large I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio. The TFET with sub-60mV/decade on Si was first experimentally demonstrated by Choi *et al.* with an OFFcurrent in the pA/µm range and an ON-current of 12.1 µA/µm [19]. It has been later showed that BTBT current is significantly enhanced by using strained Si [20] and SiGe [21], because the strain induced heterojunction reduces the band gap. Although significant improvements were seen using band gap engineered Si, SiGe [22], high-k metal gate stack, dopant segregated tunneling junctions [23] and nanowire scaling (NW) to improve electrostatics [24], the ON-current (without degrading the OFF-current) values obtained are far from the desired values compared to MOSFETs. The low ON-current in Si is attributed to the large and indirect band gap, which leads to a wide tunneling barrier for the carriers.

1.4.1b III-V TFETs

Because of the limitation of Si-based TFETs to achieve large drive currents to compete with CMOS, III-V semiconductors have been considered due to their smaller and direct band gaps, low effective-mass and possibility of band alignment engineering to increase BTBT. To date, there have been many III-V combinations investigated using

different architectures. This section reviews the experimental III-V-based TFETs that had been already demonstrated by various groups.

Homo-junction TFETs

Homojunction TFETs consist of a similar semiconductor material for the source, channel and drain. The most experimentally demonstrated III-V homojunction TFET is based on the $In_xGa_{1-x}As$ ternary alloy with 'x' varying from 0.53 to 1 and the corresponding band gap (Eg) from 0.74 eV (x=0.53) to 0.35 eV (x=1). The first $In_{0.53}Ga_{0.47}As$ TFET published by Mookerjea *et al.* with a vertical mesa structure, achieved an ON-current of 20 μ A. μ m⁻¹ with a minimum SS (SS_{min}) of 150mV per decade [25]. Later Zhao *et al.* improved the ON-current to 50 μ A. μ m⁻¹ with a SS_{min} around 90mV per decade by inserting an $In_{0.7}Ga_{0.3}As$ (Eg = 0.59 eV) pocket at the source-channel interface [26], [27]. Recently, Noguchi *et al.* [28] and Alian *et al.* [29] achieved a SS of 60 mV per decade on planar InGaAs TFETs, which are the best SS achieved on III-V-based homo-junction TFETs. Table 1 summarizes some of the best experimental results in the literature based on III-V homojunctions.

	HOMOJUNCTION N-TFETs					
Ref.	P ⁺⁺ / i	architecture	High-k	$I_{ON}(\mu A/\mu m)$	ION	SS
			(EOT nm)		/IOFF	(mV/dec)
[25]	In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	mesa	Al ₂ O ₃	20	>10 ³	153
			(2.25nm)	$V_{GS}=2.5V;$		
				$V_{DS} = 0.75V$		
[28]	In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	Planar	Al ₂ O ₃	10	$>10^{6}$	64
		('Zn' dopant	(1.4nm)	$V_{GS}=1V;$		
		diffusion)		$V_{DS} = 1V$		
[29]	In _{0.7} Ga _{0.3} As	Planar	Al ₂ O ₃ /HfO ₂	7	$>10^{6}$	60
		('Zn' dopant	(1.2nm)	$V_{GS} = 1.0V;$		
		diffusion)		$V_{DS}=0.2V$		
	POCKET HOMOJUNCTION N-TFETs					
[30]	In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As/	mesa	Al ₂ O ₃	8	>10 ⁴	60
	In _{0.7} Ga _{0.3} As		(1.45nm)	$V_{GS} = 1.0V;$		
	(pocket)			$V_{DS} = 0.75V$		
[26]	In _{0.7} Ga _{0.3} As/	mesa	HfO ₂	50	>104	93
	In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As		(1.2nm)	$V_{GS}=2V;$		
				$V_{DS}=1.05V$		

<i>Iable 1: III-V-based homojunction N-IFEI</i>	pased homojunction N-TFETs
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From the Table 1, it is noteworthy that a thin intrinsic $In_{0.7}Ga_{0.3}As$ as a pocket improves the tunneling probability and also SS compared to the homojunction TFET. Although, III-V homojunction TFETs with pockets exhibit lower SS and higher drive current compared to Si or even SiGe, the drive current has to be further improved to compete with standard CMOS.

Hetero-junction TFETs

Another strategy to further increase the *ON*-current is to use a heterostructure at the tunneling junction. Heterojunction, where the source material is different from the channel and drain, allows for a variety of tunnel barriers to be engineered. There are three types of band alignments possible with the heterojunction: Straddling gap (type I), staggered gap (type II) and broken gap (type III) (Figure 10). Different types of heterojunction TFETs fabricated by various groups are highlighted in Table 2.



Figure 10: Schematics of heterojunctions. (a) straddling gap (type-I), (b) staggered gap (type-II), and (c) broken gap (type-III).

Material system	Heterojunction type	Reference
InP/In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	Straddled	[31]
GaAs _{0.51} Sb _{0.49} /In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	staggered	[32]
GaAs _{0.5} Sb _{0.5} /In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	staggered	[33]
GaAs _{0.4} Sb _{0.6} /In _{0.65} Ga _{0.35} As	staggered	[34], [35]
GaAs _{0.35} Sb _{0.65} /In _{0.7} Ga _{0.3} As	staggered	[36]
Al _{0.45} Ga _{0.55} Sb/InAs	staggered	[37]
InAs/Si	staggered	[38], [39], [40]
GaSb/InAs	Broken	[41]

Table 2: Types of Heterojunction band alignments formed using various material systems
1.4.2 TFET Device architectures

Like for any other device, the electrical characteristics differ widely by the architecture and the fabrication methodologies used for the fabrication of TFETs.

1.4.2a Vertical mesa



Figure 11: Cross-section schematics of a vertical mesa TFET fabricated by (a) the University of Texas [43], (b)Penn state [25], (c) Intel [30]. In the vertical mesa TFET, the gate is placed on the channel (i) sidewall of an etched mesa.

1.4.2b TFETs with Tunneling Normal to the Gate



Figure 12: Cross-section schematics of the $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb/InAs$ based TFET fabricated at Notre dame University: (a) Air bridge structure with tunneling in-line with the gate field [37], (b) another design with heavily doped drain contact [41].

1.4.2c Nanowire TFETs



Figure 13: Schematics and a SEM image of a fabricated nanowire processed in (a) bottomup approach (nanowire growth) [44], (b) top-down approach (digital dry-etch technique)
[45]. Very small diameter has been achieved in both cases, but the quality and processing conditions are yet to be optimized.

1.4.2d Lateral TFETs



Figure 14: Cross sectional schematic of a lateral TFET with the source regions formed by 'Zn' diffusion developed at (a) the University of Tokyo [28], (b) IMEC [29].

1.4.3 Overview of Heterojunction TFETs

HETEOJUNCTION N-TFETs									
Ref.	P++/i	architecture	High-k (EOT nm)	I _{ON} (μΑ/ μm)	I _{ON} /I _{OFF}	SS _{min} (mV/dec)			
[46]	InP/In _x Ga _{1-x} As		Al ₂ O ₃ /HfO ₂	20	>106	93			
	(x->1.0-0.53)		(1.3nm)	$V_{GS}=1V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
[47]	Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb/InAs		Al ₂ O ₃ /HfO ₂	78	>10 ³	125			
			(1.6nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.5V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
[41]	GaSb/InAs		Al_2O_3/HfO_2	180	>10 ³	200			
			(1.3nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.5V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
[48]	GaSb/AlSb/InAs		10nm-	16	10^{3}	194			
	(quantum well)		ZrO2	$V_{GS} = 0.4V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.4V$					
[34]	GaAs _{0.35} Sb _{0.65} /	Mesa	Al_2O_3/HfO_2	135	$>10^{4}$	169			
	$In_{0.7}Ga_{0.3}As$		(1.75nm)	$V_{GS}=2.0V;$					
	(High HetroJ)			$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
[49]	GaAs _{0.18} Sb _{0.82} /In _{0.9} Ga	mesa	Al_2O_3/HfO_2	740	10^{2}	>500			
	0.1AS		(2nm)	$V_{GS}=2.0V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
[35]	GaAs _{0.4} Sb _{0.6} /In _{0.65} Ga ₀	mesa	HfO ₂	130	>105	105			
	.35As		(1.2nm)	$V_{GS}=2.0V;$					
				$V_{DS}=0.5V$					
NANOWIRE HETEROJUNCTION N-TFETs									
		diameter							

Table 3: Heterojunction TFETs

[45]	InGaAs/InAs	50nm	Al ₂ O ₃	0.27	>10 ²	75
		(top-down	(1.2nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.3V;$		
		approach)		$V_{DS}=0.3V$		
[50]	GaSb/InAs (Sb)	70nm	Al_2O_3	140	10 ²	320
		(bottom-up	(1.3nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.3V;$		
		approach)		$V_{DS}=0.5V$		
[51]	GaSb/InAs	45nm	Al ₂ O ₃ /HfO ₂	5	10 ²	130
		(bottom-up	(1.4nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.5V;$		
		approach)		$V_{DS}=0.5V$		
[44]	GaSb/InAs	20nm	Al ₂ O ₃ /HfO ₂	35	>10 ²	68
		(bottom-up	(1.4nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.5V;$		
		approach)		$V_{DS}=0.5V$		
[40]	Si/InAs	30nm	$Hf_{0.8}Al_{0.2}O_x$	1	>106	21
		(bottom-up	(1.4nm)	$V_{GS} = 0.5V;$		
		approach)		$V_{DS}=1.0V$		

1.4.4 Complementary TFETs



Figure 15: (a) Schematic of a complementary p-TFET and n-TFET on a common metamorphic buffer and TEM image [54]. (b) Schematic of a C-TFET inverter proposed in the context of the SAMBA project with the selective area epitaxial technology [52].

1.5. Conclusion

Chapter 2: N-TFET device design and optimization



Figure 16: Device schematic of the double gate n-TFET used in this study.

2.1 Simulation framework



Figure 17: (a) Flat band profiles for the proposed n-TFET for different 'Al' mole fraction of the Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb/InAs heterojunction. (b) and (c) Energy band diagrams of the InAs/Al_{0.45}Ga_{0.55}Sb heterojunction (E_{beff} is 40 meV) in the OFF and ON states respectively [60].

2.2 Material Engineering

2.2.1 Comparison of Homojunction and Heterojunction TFETs



Figure 18: (a) I_D-V_{DS} characteristics, (b) band alignment in reverse bias, (c) equilibrium,
(d) peak point (Ip), (e) valley point (Iv), and (f) thermionic diffusion of the InAs
homojunction TFET shown in Figure 15.

 barrier thinning (DIBT) (Figure 18g). The DIBT effect can be reduced by increasing the



Figure 19: I_D-V_{GS} transfer curve of InAs homojunction TFET at a varying V_{DS}.



Figure 20: Band profiles showing the ambipolar effect with increasing gate voltage $V_{GS.}$



Figure 21: (a) Simulated Drain current (I_D) versus gate voltage (V_{GS}) transfer characteristics of a two-sided gate InAs/AlGaSb Heterojunction TFET with an effective barrier (E_{beff}) height of 55 meV and (b) Comparison showing the difference between a homojunction TFET and a heterojunction TFET and how heterojunction boosts I_{ON} .

2.2.2 Tunneling barrier width ('Al' mole fraction impact in the Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb/InAs system)



Figure 22: I_D -V_{GS} curve for different effective barrier heights (E_{beff}) at the InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb heterojunction.

2.2.3 Impact of the source and drain region doping



Figure 23: (a) n-TFET simulated I_D -V_{GS} transfer curves for various source doping levels at a constant drain doping of 1 x 10¹⁸ cm⁻³ and (b) n-TFET simulated I_D -V_{GS} transfer curves for various drain doping levels at a constant source doping of 1 x 10¹⁹ cm⁻³.

Figure 23b shows the simulated curves of n-TFETs with different drain doping 10^{19} cm⁻³. From the I_D-V_{GS} characteristics, the I_D is about 1.7 mA/µm at V_{GS}=V_{DS}= 0.5V
and is almost the same for all the drain doping concentrations. The effect of the drain the ambipolarity significantly is reduced improving the overall $I_{ON}(V_{GS}=0.5V)/I_{OFF}(V_{GS}=0V)$ ratio.



Figure 24: Energy band variations at $V_{GS} = -0.25V$ and $V_{DS} = 0.5$ V when increasing the source doping level while the drain doping one is kept constant at $1x10^{18}$ cm⁻³.

2.3 Geometry Engineering

2.3.1 Gate dielectric and thickness



Figure 25: Drain current (I_D) versus gate voltage (V_{GS}) transfer characteristics of a vertical two-sided gate InAs/Al_{0.25}Ga_{0.75}Sb Heterojunction TFET at V_{DS}=0.5V with an effective oxide thickness (EOT) of 0.15 nm, 0.43 nm, 0.87 nm and 1.73 nm respectively. For all the devices the gate is aligned to the intrinsic channel thickness of 100 nm and the body thickness is 100nm.

2.3.2 Single & Double gate



Figure 26: n-TFET simulated I_D -V_{GS} transfer curves of an InAs/AlGaSb (E_{beff} =170 meV) heterojunction TFET comparing the single gate and double gate configurations for two body thickness (T_{body}) of 10 nm and 100 nm.

2.3.3 Body thickness (T_{body})



Figure 27: n-TFET simulated I_D-V_{GS} transfer curve for different body thickness (T_{body}) of 10 nm, 20 nm, 30 nm, 50 nm and 100 nm respectively while all other parameters of the devices are kept constant.



Figure 28: Simulated energy band diagram at $V_{GS} = 1$ V and $V_{DS} = 0.5$ V across the channel, 10nm distance from the gate, for a two-sided gate n-TFET with a T_{body} thicknesses of (a) 100 nm and (b) 20 nm respectively.

2.3.4 Intrinsic channel length (L)



Figure 29: n-TFET simulated I_D - V_{GS} transfer curves of an InAs/AlGaSb (E_{beff} : 55meV) heterojunction TFET showing the influence of the intrinsic channel length.

2.3.5 Gate-Drain overlap



Figure 30: Schematic of (a) 40 nm gate underlapped to channel, (b) gate aligned to channel, and (c) 40 nm gate overlapped to drain.



Figure 31: (a) n-TFET simulated I_D-V_{GS} transfer curves of InAs/AlGaSb heterojunction TFET with different gate alignment with the channel, (b)-(d) Impact on the band profiles under the influence of gate induced electric field at the channel-drain junction.

2.4 Beyond simulation

In principle, n-TFET operation relies on BTBT mechanism i.e. carriers tunnel from the valence band on the source side (p+) to the conduction band of the intrinsic channel. The quality of the interface between the source and the channel is the key point to get a steep SS. In general, I_{ON} , I_{OFF} and SS are limited by material and technological issues, which have been neglected in our simulation and are discussed hereafter.

2.4.1 Material Issues



Figure 32: Cross section TEM image of InAs grown on GaSb showing dislocations originating from the interface due to the lattice mismatch between InAs and GaSb. Picture taken from [69].



Figure 33: Schematics showing the SRH and TAT leakage mechanisms, taken from [71].

To achieve a high interband tunnel current, heavy doping is required to induce the high electric fields at the junction [72]. Heavy doping is generally associated with tails of



Figure 34: Schematics showing the band-edges and band-tails [74]

2.4.2 Technological Issues

Thin channel widths with high aspect ratio is ideal for high performance [77]. But **u** sing wet etching, a V-shape profile is obtained in the [110] orientation and a A-shape one **i**n the [1-10] orientation. The details of the wet etching and related orientations will be 膙ջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջջ 35c) and compared it to the electric field map inside a device having a reversed shape (Λ -
shape) (Figure 35b and Figure 35d), which are the two different shapes that are obtained <br / call and profiles for ON-state (VGS=0.5V) and OFF-state (VGS=-1V), for concentration induced by the V-shape leads to a reduced tunneling distance in the middle of <tb colspace<tr>tunneling distance (DIBT) at the source channel interface. Increasing further the channel middle of the mesa also enlarges the tunneling distance between channel and drain, we mainly focus on the realization and comparison of V-shape and Λ -shape mesa profile TFET devices.



Figure 35:Vertical electric field mapping inside the heterostructure for a V-shaped device at V_{DS}=V_{GS}=0.5V (a) or V_{DS}=0.5V and V_{GS}=-1V (c). Vertical electric field mapping inside the heterostructure for a Λ-shaped device at V_{DS}=V_{GS}=0.5V (b) or V_{DS}=0.5V and V_{GS}=-1V (d). The two shapes are reversed and exhibit a width of 80 nm at respectively the source to channel interface (for the V-shape) or channel to drain interface (for the Λ-shape). The band lines-up resulting from this electric field are extracted along a cutline near the InAs/Al₂O₃ interface (e and g) or along a cutline in the center of the mesa (f and h) for both kind of shape.

Chapter 3: Fabrication process flow of Tunnel diodes and Tunnel FETs

3.1 Introduction



Figure 36: Schematic of the Tunnel Diode and TFET structures used to explain the fabrication process.

3.2 Tunnel Diode processing

3.2.1 Tunnel Diode Mask Layout

Scaling device geometries to very small dimensions will reduce the number of defects present within the device, thereby increasing the peak to valley ratio (PVCR) of a defects present within the device, thereby increasing the peak to valley as 0.15µm is impossible with optical lithography, so the electron beam lithography (EBL) technique is used to pattern these small dimensions.

3.2.2 Tunnel Diode Process Flow

The TD process has been developed to study the influence of material properties of the tunnel junction on the electrical characteristics. A tunnel diode is a degenerately doped p-n junction with an i-intrinsic layer sandwiched between p⁺ and n⁺ forming a p⁺-i-n⁺

<b structure. The electrical characteristics of a TD provide information on the peak current density user the electrical characteristics of a TD provide information on the peak current density densities densities information on the electrical characteristics of a TD provide to the transition on the electrical densities of a three metal to the electricate the transition. Since there is no gate-oxide and there are no parasitic leakage paths, hence the SS extracted from the absolute conductance is directly related to the tunnel junction quality [81].

A simple TD process has been implemented to assert the heterojunction quality. In process parameters can be found in Appendix I. Figure 37 shows the schematic of the TD defined using EBL with varying drain metal length and width ranging from $1\mu m \propto 4\mu m$ to $0.25\mu m \times 1\mu m$ as described in the mask section. Based on wet chemistry and using the drain contact as a hard mask, $InAs(n^+)$ and InAs(i) were anisotropically etched down to the source layer (p^+) . After the wet etching, SiO₂ was deposited by plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) at 300°C. Contact windows (vias) were opened in SiO_2 by a reactive ion etching (RIE) plasma in the top and bottom contact areas as shown in Figure 37 (e). Since the $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ surface is known to readily oxidize in the environment [82], this AlGaSb layer was wet etched until the GaSb buffer layer in a diluted ammonia solution. Finally metal pads were e-beam evaporated to form the contact on the GaSb buffer and the top contact as shown in Figure 37 (f). Note that the final metal pads were evaporated by tilting the sample to 20° with respect to the metal crucible to make sure the top contacts are properly connected to large contact pads.



3.3 Tunnel Field Effect Transistor processing

3.3.1 Tunnel Field Effect Transistor Mask layout

With the additional gate terminal, the TFET mask consists of 5 EBL steps to pattern all the three terminals and 2 EBL steps for patterning the final large contact pads. These final contact pads have been designed to be compatible with the RF characterization tool. Similar to the TD mask design, the TFET mask consists in different drain contact sizes to access at very low tunnel junction widths.



Figure 38: TFET-EBL mask layout. Top view of the mask showing vertical and horizontal devices of different lengths.

3.3.2 Tunnel Field Effect Transistor Process Flow

He TFET fabrication process flow (see Appendix II) is schematically shown in Figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests flow (see Appendix II) is schematically shown in Figure 38 (a) and (b). Drain cortests flow (see Appendix II) is schematically schematicated in the Figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests flow (see Appendix II) is schematically schematicated in the Figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests flow (see Appendix II) is schematically schematically in Figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests flow (see Appendix II) of (see Appendix II) is schematically in the Figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests (see Appendix II) of (see Appendix II) is schematically in the figure 39 (a) and (b). Drain contests (see Appendix II) of (see Appendix II) of

after opening the $Al_2O_3/AlGaSb$ source layer with plasma etching. The process was completed by the mesa isolation and the realization of air bridges connecting drain, source and gate to large pads deposited on the GaAs SI substrate.



Figure 39: TFET cross-sectional schematic and process flow steps.

3.4 Wet Chemical etching

The wet chemical etching to define the channel is the most critical step to fabricate a The wet chemical etching to define the channel is the most critical step to the fabricate the first of the chemical etching to define the channel is used instead of a dry etching process. Since the epitaxial layer design used here consists of an Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb/InAs heterojunction, it is important to control the etchant. Hence, a selective etchant that etches only InAs but to selective the selective t
not $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ is highly desirable. Therefore, wet etching must be stopped exactly at the InAs/AlGaSb source heterojunction to place a gate metal around the junction. For this channel definition step, different etching chemistries were compared and optimized.

3.4.1 Phosphoric acid based solution

Phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) and hydrochloric acid (HCl) based etchants have been used in the literature to etch InAs [83]. Hence, a mixture of H₃PO₄/H₂O₂/H₂O (2/1/4) was first studied to find out its feasibility to etch InAs over Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb selectively. A 400nm thick InAs layer grown by MBE over a 50 nm thick Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb layer was used as a test sample for this study. Phosphoric acid based solution (PABS) with a volume ratio of [H₃PO₄: H₂O₂: H₂O = 2: 1: 4] was prepared, which resulted in etching 400 nm of InAs in 15 sec. As shown in Figure 40 (a) and (b), PABS etches both InAs and Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb. The little under etching observed at the InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb hetero-interface is not suitable for proper gate alignment at the junction [84]. Slight under-etching at the heterojunction of the source (Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb) could result in a poor gate control of the carriers in the channel.



Figure 40: Wet etched mesa profile using PABS solution along the [1-10] direction for a drain contact size of (a) 0.35µm and (b) 1 µm.

3.4.2 Citric acid based solution

Selective wet etching of InAs over $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ with a citric acid-based solution (CABS) has been reported in [85]. CABS was prepared from anhydrous citric acid (C₆H₈O₇) powder dissolved in deionized water (DI water) to get 1 mole/liter. 1 ml of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) was added shortly before etching, in a 1 ml citric acid solution. An etch rate value of about 1.4 nm/s was found, very close to those reported by De Salvo *et al.* [86]. It can be seen from Figure 41 that the mesa and Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb surfaces are very smooth with no evidence of undercut at the hetero-interface. However, the undercut at the drain metal contact/n⁺- InAs junction is large enough and hence, makes it difficult to place a gate over the entire channel. Gate underlapping increases the channel resistance for the carriers and eventually reduces I_{ON} as discussed in chapter 2.



Figure 41: Wet etched mesa profile using CABS solution along the [1-10] direction for a 0.35µm drain contact size.

3.4.3 Phosphoric and Citric acid based solutions

Benefitting from the respective advantages of the two above-mentioned studies, a combination of the two etchants was tried to define the channel mesa.

In the first step a PABS was used to etch InAs until there was 30nm left followed by a second step of CABS used for a soft landing on the $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ layer. PABS solution reduces the under-cut at the drain metal contact/n⁺ (InAs) and CABS solution achieves good selectivity over $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$. As the wet etching follows the crystalline orientation of the material, the etch rate and the profiles obtained are different for different orientations. Figure 42 (a) and (b) show that the anisotropic wet etch yields V-shape and Λ -shape profiles for the drain metal contact oriented along [110] and [1-10] directions respectively after etching with PABS+CABS solutions.



Figure 42: Wet etched mesa profile using PABS + CABS solutions oriented along (a) [110] and (b) [1-10].

As discussed in the mask design section different drain metal widths have been used to access at the smallest hetero-interface junction possible. Tomioka *et al.* [87] reported a SS value of 25 mV/decade for a nanowire with a diameter of 30 nm, thanks to a very good gate electrostatics. There are several factors like epitaxial layer thickness, drain contact metal width, orientation of the device, etch time and material composition that influence the final hetero-interface junction width. Figure 43 shows some of the profiles obtained for various InAs thickness. TDs (GaSb and S.I. GaAs substrates) require no intrinsic zone and no gate terminal, so the wet etching of InAs results in a foot width of 10nm and a height around 63nm, as shown in Figure 43 (d). The results reported are on structures fabricated without the need to use critical point drying (CPD). These results show that, scalability is not an issue by using this process to obtain very narrow channel widths down to 10nm.



Figure 43: Wet etched mesa profiles obtained on different heterostructuress achieving a tunnel junction width of (a) 200nm (b) 50nm (c) 60 nm (d) 10nm.

3.5 Gate Oxide deposition

A large value of SS in experimental TFET is often due to the high concentration of oxide-semiconductor interface defects (D_{it}) which reduces the gate control over the channel charge [88]. For this purpose, a gate dielectric allowing low D_{it} at the channel semiconductor/oxide interface is highly desirable. Therefore, the sample was first treated with HCl based solution prior to the gate oxide deposition to remove any native oxide,

followed by rinsing in IPA [89]. The IPA beaker containing the sample was then transferred to the ALD chamber (less than 10 min) to avoid any kind of contamination.

The ALD system was first seasoned with Al_2O_3 by running the process recipe for 25 cycles. The sample in the IPA beaker was blow dried with N₂ and loaded in the ALD system. The time between drying and loading was kept below 1 min to reduce the native oxide formation. Deposition of Al_2O_3 has been done by delivering 0.015s Trimethylaluminum (TMA) and 0.025s water vapor (H₂O) pulses into the chamber in alternating cycles. Between TMA pulse and H₂O pulse, N₂ gas is purged to clean the non-stacked atoms from the surface. The schematic of the complete cycle is shown in Figure 44. Both TMA and H₂O were unheated and the liquid source temperature is maintained at 20° C.



Figure 44: Schematic representation of the atomic layer deposition (ALD) process. By alternating Trimethylaluminum (TMA) and H₂O pulses, thin conformal Al₂O₃ films can be grown with atomic thickness resolution.

For all the samples processed during this work, the substrate temperature was held at 300°C during the oxide film growth, and 40 alternating cycles of TMA and H₂O exposure were completed, resulting in a conformal deposition of 7 nm (TFET-I, see chapter 4) or 4 nm (TFET-II and III, see chapter 4) Al_2O_3 dielectric film as confirmed by ellipsometry. Since the material system used here is $InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$, few pretreatments were investigated to observe the impact of the surface preparation.

3.5.1 Ammonia Treatment

Ammonia sulfide treatment is very popular among III-V materials for sulfur passivation before dielectric deposition [90]. We have first investigated with dilute ammonia, but this leads to an over etching of $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ as shown in Figure 45. The resulting undercut would eventually impact the gate alignment over the hetero-interface.



Figure 45: Dilute ammonia pre-treatment test. (a) SEM image showing the undercut at the tunnel junction. (b) STEM imaging showing the impact of the pre-treatment.

3.5.2 Dilute HCl treatment

Dilute HCl treatment is also well known for InAs surface treatment prior to gate oxide deposition [89]. Figure 46 shows that a smooth surface without under or over etching of $Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb$ is obtained. Therefore, all the TFETs fabricated during this work have been pre-treated with a dilute HCl solution (1:10).



Figure 46: Dilute HCl pre-treatment.

3.6 Dry etching of Oxide on Drain and Source regions

Since the ALD deposition of Al_2O_3 is conformal and distributed on the whole substrate, it is necessary to open this oxide on the drain and source regions to contact them before gate metallization. Although HF-based solution is popular for selective removal of ALD deposited Al_2O_3 , the obtained result was unexpected. It can be seen in Figure 47 that the HF solution creeps under the gate and also etches InAs damaging the device. To circumvent this problem, we have adopted a plasma etching process using BCl₃ chemistry to etch 4nm Al_2O_3 using a RIE-ICP tool. This is realized by defining vias through PMMA as shown in Figure 48.



Figure 47: Cross-sectional STEM images showing the impact of using a HF solution to etch Al_2O_3 oxide. (a) Full device and (b) zoom under the gate.



Figure 48: Process flow of window opening on source and drain areas to etch Al₂O₃ defined by Electron beam lithography (EBL). (a) Window opening defined by EBL. (b) Plasma etching using BCl₃. (c) Lift-off.

Interestingly, BCl₃ chemistry also etches 'Sb' based compounds as shown in Figure 49. This is especially advantageous to make contact on the GaSb contact layer because AlGaSb-based compounds quickly oxidize when exposed to air resulting in poor ohmic contacts. Figure 49 reveals that sharp profiles can be achieved by plasma etching. This result indicates that a vertical nanowire kind of profile with high aspect ratio could be obtained and leads to a valuable solution for TFET to switch device abruptly with good electrostatic control over the channel [91].



Figure 49: Cross-sectional SEM image showing 'Sb' based material etch using BCl₃ chemistry.

3.7 Gate Patterning

After plasma oxide etching through vias defined by EBL, the next step is the gate patterning. An efficient gate control of the charge in the channel requires gate metal to be placed accurately over the tunnel junction, to ensure abrupt switching.

Contrarily to the Λ -shaped device, the gate metal deposition for the V-shaped device is not straight forward as the junction widths are 25nm - 80nm, which is difficult to access while still covering the entire channel. So, the evaporation of the gate metal for V-shaped devices has been done in multiple steps. To access junction widths as low as 25nm - 80nm, the sample was tilted to 60^0 and rotated continuously with respect to the metal crucible to deposit the metal over the entire channel. However, upon lifting-off, the gate metal was shorted with the drain contact as shown in Figure 50 (a) and (b).



Figure 50: (a) Cross-sectional SEM image showing that the gate metal is shorted with the drain contact when the sample is tilted to 60° . (b) Top-view SEM image showing the metal residue around the corners of the gate metallization resulted from poor-lift-off process.

It is clear from Figure 50 (b) that metal residue around the gate metallization is due to the insufficient development of the bottom layer of the resist stack (copolymer+PMMA). This result is principally due to the angle necessary for the metallization. Poor lift-off process resulted in shorting of the drain and gate contacts. To avoid this, the bilayer is

treated additionally with methanol/IPA solvent to get an over development of the bottom resist layer as shown in Figure 51 (c). Methanol/IPA solvent is highly selective to develop copolymer without further developing PMMA. Then, the metallization is performed with a 60° tilt angle, to avoid metal deposition on the sidewall of the copolymer as shown in Figure 51 (d).



Figure 51: Schematic showing the optimized Process flow to metallize the gate at 60°. (a) EBL exposure. (b) Resist Development. (c) Methanol/IPA treatment. (d) Metallization with a 60° tilt (zoom on the device region).

Figure 52 shows the cross-sectional SEM images of the gate metallization resulting from the optimized lift-off process. It is clear from the SEM picture that there is no shorting

between the gate and drain contacts, and the lift-off process is very appealing as there is no residue around the corners of the gate metallization as shown in Figure 52 (c).



Figure 52: SEM images of gate metallization for devices oriented in (a) [1-10] and (b) [110] and (c) top view showing the gate metallization and drain.

STEM imaging is done to accurately measure the gate overlap and underlap to the channel. Figure 53 (a) and (c) show that for the Λ -shaped device the gate metallization completely overlaps the channel and the n⁺ drain. While for the V-shaped device, the gate metallization slightly underlaps the channel (Figure 53 (b) and (d) respectively).

Underlapping of the channel is due to the large under-cut observed at the drain/ n^+ interface, which can be engineered to achieve total overlapping of the gate metal over the channel.





Figure 53: Cross-sectional STEM image of a fabricated vertical TFET device (a), (c) A-shape in [1-10] and (b), (d) V-shape in [110] direction.

3.8 Source contact

Normal lift off technique is used to pattern the source contacts. But prior to metal deposition, TDs and TFETs were always treated in chemical solution to wet etch the top surface of the buffer layer to achieve good ohmic contacts. Wet etching solution varies depending on the type of contact layer used to accommodate the mismatch.

For instance, the optimized epitaxy includes an n^+ -InAs buffer layer that forms an additional tunnel junction with the p^+ -source. Detailed electrical behavior characteristics explaining the impact of the ohmic contact and the influence of the buffer material will be discussed in chapter 4. Figure 54 shows the top view SEM image taken after the source contact formation.



Figure 54: SEM image showing the source contact formation

3.9 Insulation of devices

On semi-insulating substrates, to hinder any leakage current from device to device through the substrate, insulation is done for both tunnel diodes and TFETs. On conductive substrates, SiO_2 deposition is used for contact insulation.

For TDs (on GaSb and S.I. GaAs substrates) grown on GaSb and GaAs substrate, the insulation is done by SiO₂ deposition over the entire substrate using plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD). SiO₂ acts as an interlayer dielectric (ILD) providing insulation between the source contact and drain contacts. Compared to the LPCVD technique, high quality oxide can be deposited at much lower temperatures ($300^{\circ}C - 400^{\circ}C$) by PECVD. In our case, $30nm SiO_2$ was deposited at $300^{\circ}C$. After the deposition, vias on top of the drain and source regions are defined by EBL and etched back using reactive ion beam etching (RIE) up to the contacts to prepare the sample for large contact pads.

For TFETs on GaSb (TFET-I will be discussed in chapter 4), insulation with PECVD deposited SiO₂ is not the best solution since the gate metal used is degraded upon high temperature treatment, leading eventually to device failure. That is why for TFETs on GaAs (TFET-II and III discussed in chapter 4), insulation has been done by patterning a negative resist (SAL 601) defined by EBL as a protective mask for etching the buffer layer down to the substrate. Refer to the Appendix I for a detailed process flow on SAL 601. The Al₂O₃ covering the entire surface was first dry plasma etched using BCl₃ chemistry followed by a wet chemical treatment to etch the buffer down to the substrate. When the GaSb buffer was etched with HF and HCl based solutions, the etch time was 3' and 5' respectively to etch about 650 nm and the observed undercut was very large as shown in Figure 55 (a) and (b). In order to reduce the large undercut of the GaSb buffer due to the HF and HCl based solutions (Figure 55 (c)), a tartaric acid based solution was used [85]. The etch time of the GaSb layer was also reduced from 5 to 2 mins. Figure 56 shows the mesa insulation performed using tartaric acid based solution.





Figure 55: SEM images showing the etching of 650nm GaSb buffer using (a) a HF solution (b) a HCl solution and (c) under etching impact.

It can be seen clearly from Figure 55 (c) that the epitaxial layers (TFET on GaAssub with GaSb buffer) are not perfect. Wet etching of the mesa reveals the presence of dislocations in the epilayer. On the mesa sidewall the dislocation density is higher near the GaAs substrate/GaSb buffer interface, as can be observed in figure 54. These dislocations might cause trap assisted tunneling (TAT) thereby increasing the OFF current of the TFET. For TFET-III in chapter 4, an InAs buffer layer was used to avoid relaxation of the thick InAs channel. Etching of the InAs buffer is almost similar to the wet etching of the channel mesa. The influence of the dislocation density on the electrical characteristics will be discussed in detail in chapter 4.



Figure 56: Wet mesa etching of GaSb buffer using a tartaric acid solution. (a), (b) cross section SEM image and (c) top view after mesa isolation.

3.10 Large contact pads

3.10.1 Tunnel Diodes

As described in section 3.1, TD process is kept simple, so after insulation with $SiO_{2,}$ large openings are defined by EBL and metallization is done by tilting the sample at 20° to avoid disconnection.

3.10.2 Tunnel FETs

For TFETs, as the contacts are small, placing the tips to perform electrical characterization is difficult. Dedicated air bridges are patterned to connect Gate, Drain and Source contacts to the large contact pads simultaneously.

Two resist patterns are needed to finish the air bridges. In the first level, the PMMA resist is patterned, which acts as a supporting layer to allow the bridge resting in air. An additional reflow step at 170° C is performed to smooth the corners and sidewalls of the resist. The influence of the reflow of resist can be seen in Figure 57, where the corners of the device were rounded reducing the risks of disconnection.





Figure 57: SEM images showing the via opening and post exposure bake to fabricate the air bridges. (a) After the EBL exposure without baking. (b) Round corners obtained after baking at $170^{\circ}C$. (c) Round corners at source and drain openings.

The second resist pattern is the opening for the metallization and is composed of a bi-layer resist stack for lift-off process. The bi-layer stack containing copolymer and ZEP is carefully chosen and the mask design is also optimized. Figure 58 (a) and (b) show that the ZEP in the bi-layer is cracked due to the over dose within short distance, which could result in shorting of the drain, source and gate if metallized. To avoid this problem, the mask design has been changed to increase the distance between the openings, and as a result cracks in ZEP can be avoided.



Figure 58: SEM images showing cracks seen after developing ZEP. (a) Cracks obtained between drain and source. (b) Cracks obtained between drain and gate.

It can be seen from Figure 59 that there are no cracks with the optimized mask design and the development is very efficient. The fabrication process ends by metallizing the sample and lifting off. Figure 60 shows the fabricated vertical device with the contact pads connecting via the air-bridge process.



Figure 59: (a), (b) and (c) SEM images taken after development of the second bridge lithography level. There are no cracks seen in ZEP with the optimized mask design.



Figure 60: SEM images of (a) channel. (b) Air bridge zoomed at drain contact. (c) Top view of the air-bridge. (d) Tilted view.

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter we present the electrical characterization of tunnel diodes and transistors in the InAs/(Al)GaSb system. We first report the results on the diodes fabricated on a lattice matched GaSb substrate to study the influence of the heterostructure design on the conductance properties of the heterojunction. The extraction of the conductance curves from the diode electrical characteristics has then been helpful to analyze the impact of defects when the diodes are fabricated on a highly mismatched GaAs substrate. From the insights gained from this study, we then present the characterization of different generations of TFET based on this heterojunction.

This chapter is therefore divided in two sections: diodes and TFETs. In each section, we start with describing the epitaxial structure used and the related band diagram generated with the TCAD Silvaco software. To this end we have used a modified value of the electron affinity (EA) in InAs (EA=5.1) to make the band alignments between (Al)GaSb and InAs consistent with the literature and experimental results. With the help of the electrical characteristics, each section details how we have enhanced the performance of the diodes and TFETs. Finally, the results of tunnel diodes and TFETs have been benchmarked separately with the results of the literature.

4.2 Diode Results

In this section we present the electrical results obtained on diodes fabricated using the process detailed in chapter 3. Different tunneling interfaces in the InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb material system are studied in order to optimize the TFET performance. For this, we target the largest possible ON-conductance with the minimum leakage current and the steepest slope to pass from the ON to OFF state. The peak to valley current ratio is also a useful parameter to compare the quality of similar diodes with different dimensions or substrate.

4.2.1 Interface Optimization

Different InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb based TDs grown on GaSb substrate have been studied to optimize the heterostructure design and reach the desired properties. We present here four different structures explaining our progression. These epitaxial structures, named TDI, TDII, TDIII and TDIV, and the associated band diagrams are displayed in Figure 61, Figure 62, Figure 63 and Figure 64 respectively. The effective band gap (E_{beff}) at the tunneling interface is progressively increased by moving from TD-I to TD-IV by increasing the Al content in (Al)GaSb. P+ and n+ regions of all the structures were doped with 'Si' with a doping concentration of $1x10^{19}$ cm⁻³ for p-type GaSb and n-type InAs. To minimize the impact of Si dopant in the tunneling process, 3nm-i-InAs and 3nm-i-anode type layer have been introduced before and after the tunneling interface for all the TD structures except for TD-III.



Figure 61: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TD-I.

The InAs/GaSb forms a type-III broken band alignment at the interface. A valence band offset of 0.47 eV is assumed corresponding to an $E_{beff} = -110$ meV separation between the InAs conduction and GaSb valence band edges. Due to the broken band alignment, this

material design is thought to be ideal to achieve a large current density for TFET application. However, it is equally important to minimize the OFF state conductance, which is a big challenge with the broken gap alignment at the interface [92]. Therefore, it may be advantageous to insert a thin barrier in between to block the electron flow in the off-state regime.

For TDII, a 3nm-i-Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb layer has been inserted between InAs and GaSb. A 40% 'Al' content is chosen to align the 3nm-i-Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb valence band and the InAs conduction band edges in an attempt to cut-down the flow of electrons in the off-state regime



Figure 62: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TD-II.

To increase further the effective tunneling barrier height (E_{beff}), TDIII is grown with an 'Al' composition of 50%. We get a type-II (staggered) band alignment with an E_{beff} height of 70 meV at the junction. It is evident from Figure 63 that increasing the Al content leads to a valence band edge spike between GaSb and Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}Sb, which could degrade the electrical performance of the diode. To smooth this offset, we introduce a graded 'Al' composition in TDIV, increasing the Al content from 20% to 60% before the tunneling interface.



Figure 63: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TD-III.



Figure 64: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TD-IV.

Figure 65 compares the I-V electrical characteristics of the above detailed epitaxial structures. All the curves (Figure 65a) show an Esaki diode behavior. Negative differential resistance (NDR) can be observed for all the TDs, which is a signature of BTBT transport of carriers. As expected, the broken band alignment (TD-I) results in the highest peak current density of 159 kA.cm⁻² compared to TD-II, TD-III and TD-IV (table I). For the

same size $(0.5x1 \ \mu m^2)$ and same orientation of the drain contact, the valley current of TD-II is lower than that of the other designed structures. This can be attributed to the 3nmintrinsic AlGaSb layer. Comparing TD-I, TD-III and TD-IV, the excess valley current and the peak current gradually decrease with the increase of the effective barrier height (E_{beff}) at the junction (Table 4). This indicates that E_{beff} is the main parameter determining the tunneling properties of the TDs.

The conductance curves for all the TDs are extracted from the I-V characteristics and compared in Figure 65b. It is evident from Figure 65b that there is a major improvement in the steepness of the conductance slope as the E_{beff} height at the interface is tuned from broken to staggered band alignment. Additionally, the minimum conductance decreases significantly for TD-II with the insertion of 3nm-i-Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb. This is an indication that employing a staggered band alignment at the interface minimizes the offconductance. However, the on-conductance is much lower in this case because the intrinsic AlGaSb layer fixes the tunneling distance at 3 nm between the valence band of GaSb and the conduction band of InAs whereas for other samples, the tunneling distance can be reduced with the backward voltage. A steep conductance is obtained for TD-IV thanks to the smoothing of the valence band edge between GaSb and AlGaSb.

Similar I-V measurements were performed on a wide range of devices varying the tunnel junction area. Figure 65c and Figure 65d show the plot of the peak current (Ip) and valley current (Iv) versus the tunnel junction area. Ip and Iv increase linearly with the junction area indicating a constant tunneling current density while the size is reduced from $4 \ \mu m^2$ to 0.01 μm^2 . Only a small deviation is observed due to process variations over the entire wafer. This indicates that the leakage originating from the sidewalls of the mesa is quite small.



Figure 65: (a) I-V curves showing the difference in peak and valley currents, (b) absolute conductance-voltage curves, measured $I_P(c)$ and $I_V(d)$ versus the tunnel junction area of the epitaxial structures shown in Figure 60-63.

Epitaxial Structure	J _P	VP	Vv	PVCR	Max.	Min.	ON/	Cond.
	(kA.cm ⁻²)	(V)	(V)		cond.	cond.	OFF	slope
					(kS.cm ⁻²)	(kS.cm ⁻²)	ratio	(mV/dec)
InAs/3nm-i-	159	0.288	0.409	1.35	2192	270	8	420
GaSb/GaSb (TD-I)								
InAs/3nm-i-	7.6	0.186	0.341	3.07	330	9	37	184
Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb/GaSb								
(TD-II)								
InAs/Al _{0.5} Ga _{0.5} Sb	52	0.17	0.39	4.74	1200	27	44	167
(TD-III)								
InAs/3nm-i-	16	0.15	0.36	2.6	2225	16	139	188
Al _{0.6} Ga _{0.4} Sb/								
Al _x Ga _{1-x} Sb								
(0.2 <x<0.6) (td-<="" td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></x<0.6)>								
IV)								

Table 4: Summary of the electrical results for the tunnel diodes fabricated in this study.

Table 4, summarizes the electrical characteristics of all the TDs used in this study. Table- 4 clearly shows that the transition from type-III to type-II band alignment offers an improvement in conductance steepness. Although the current density of TD-I is the highest, this design is not well suited for TFET applications due to the large minimum conductance and high slope. The TD-III design is more suitable to get minimum conductance slope while TD-IV design exhibits the best trade-off between maximum/minimum conductance and slope.

4.2.2 Comparison of Tunnel diodes with the literature

In this section we compare the conductance properties of the tunnel diodes on different material systems available in the literature. The results in Table 5 show several interesting points. As the band gap of the material changes from indirect band gap (Si) to direct (III-V), TDs show a continuous improvement in terms of maximum conductance. Thanks to the low E_{beff} height at the tunnel junction, the ON-conductance is enhanced significantly while moving from homojunction to heterojunction. From the results GaAs-I, II and InAs-I, II, it is evident that doping does have a large impact on the conductance. Even if a high doping is necessary to obtain a large conductance, the conductance slope drastically increases from 180 mV/dec to 570 mV/dec when the donor concentration in InAs is increased from 3×10^{18} to 1×10^{19} cm⁻³. The same phenomenon can be observed in the case of low-doped In_{0.9}Ga_{0.1}As/GaAs_{0.21}Sb_{0.79}, in which a minimum conductance slope of 76 mV/dec can be achieved but with only a 4 kS/cm² maximum conductance. Therefore, to optimize the TFET performance, it seems more interesting to improve the maximum conductance by using a small effective barrier at the tunneling interface instead of using large band gap materials with degenerate doping. As demonstrated by Agarwal et al., this degenerate doping leads to band tails in the band gap that reduce the steepness of the conductance variation [93]. In our case (TD-IV), the trade-off between the on-conductance, the ON/OFF ratio and slope compares rather well with all these results and seems very promising for TFET applications.

Ref.	Material system	N _D (cm ⁻³)	N _A (cm ⁻³)	Max. Conduc.	Min. conductance	ON/OFF ratio	Cond. slope (mV/dec)
[94]	Si	1×10^{20}	$1x10^{20}$	20 S/cm ²	0.06 S/cm ²	333	140
[93]	Ge		-	-	-		90
[95]	GaAs-I	3x10 ¹⁹	1x10 ¹⁹	60 S/cm ²	0.01 S/cm ²	6000	130
[95]	GaAs-II	3x10 ¹⁹	5x10 ¹⁹	2 kS/cm ²	10 S/cm ²	200	165
[96]	In _{0.53} Ga _{0.47} As	5x10 ¹⁹	1×10^{20}	0.02 mS/ μm	0.7 μS/μm	20	165
[95]	InAs-I	3x10 ¹⁸	1.8×10^{19}	100 kS/cm ²	10 kS/cm^2	10	180
[95]	InAs-II	1×10^{19}	1.8×10^{19}	0.7 MS/cm^2	0.2 MS/cm^2	3.5	570
[95]	InAs/	1x10 ¹⁹	2x10 ¹⁹	40 MS/cm ²	0.56 MS/cm ²	71	-
	GaSb	(Si)	(Be)				
[97]	InAs/	1x10 ¹⁹	5x10 ¹⁸	1.3MS/cm ²	220 kS/cm ²	5	268
	GaSb	(Te)	(Be)				
[98]	InAs/	1x10 ¹⁷	1x10 ¹⁷	300 kS/cm ²	30 kS/cm^2	10	160
	GaSb	(Si)	(Si)				
[99]	In _{0.9} Ga _{0.1} As/	1x10 ¹⁷	1x10 ¹⁷	4 kS/cm ²	0.04 kS/cm ²	100	76
	GaAs _{0.21} Sb _{0.79}	(Si)	(Si)				
This	InAs/	1x10 ¹⁹	1x10 ¹⁹	2.2 MS/cm ²	16 kS/cm ²	139	188
study	Al _{0.6} Ga _{0.6} Sb	(Si)	(Si)				
	(TD-IV)						

Table 5: Summary of the electrical results for TDs using different material systems

4.2.3 Influence of the substrate (GaSb versus GaAs)

In the above-studied structures, the intrinsic zone is very thin (a few nm) which is not the case in a TFET. We have then studied a specific structure with a thicker intrinsic zone. Moreover, in this case we have compared the influence of the substrate, GaSb versus GaAs. To avoid plastic relaxation due to the lattice mismatch between GaSb and InAs, we introduce 9% Sb in InAs so that the InAsSb channel alloy is lattice matched to GaSb. In this way, we are only sensitive to defects coming from the buffer layer and avoid strain relaxation between the channel and source. The epitaxial structure shown in Figure 66 has been grown on both lattice matched GaSb and lattice mismatched GaAs substrates. A metamorphic buffer has been used for the epitaxy grown on GaAs to accommodate the strain caused by the mismatch. The electrical characteristics shown in Figure 67 compare the I-V performance of TD-V, grown on GaSb (black) and GaAs (pink) substrates. A PVCR of 1.16 can be observed for the epitaxy grown on a GaAs substrate whereas a PVCR of 2.24 is achieved for the epitaxy on a GaSb substrate. This is primarily due to the excess leakage current that can be attributed to the threading dislocation density coming from the large mismatch accommodation between GaSb and the GaAs substrate. In addition, the less steep conductance slope for the device grown on GaAs (Figure 67b) confirms the impact of the metamorphic buffer.



Figure 66: Epitaxial structure of TD-V and its band diagram generated using Silvaco TCAD tool.



Figure 67: (a) I-V characteristics and (b) conductance slope of TD-V.

4.3 TFET Results

We have developed 3 different generations of TFETs. From generation to generation, the epitaxial structure and technology is changed to increase the overall performance. The improvements were made based on the understanding gained from the I-V characteristics. The layer structure and related I-V characteristics will be detailed for each generation. As we have optimized the technology for diodes and TFETs in parallel, the first transistor (TFET-I, shown in Figure 68) was fabricated using the TD-V layer grown on a GaSb substrate. From generation-I (TFET-I) to generation-II (TFET-II), we show that aggressively scaling the channel width at the interface enhances the gate electrostatic control over the channel. We show from the electrical characteristics of generation-III (TFET-III) that increasing the E_{beff} at the junction and increasing the InAs channel thickness has drastic effects on the performance. Using low temperature measurements, the origin of the different leakage mechanisms are discussed. Finally, the performance of a V-shaped transistor are compared with the results in the literature using staggered band aligned material systems to fabricate TFETs.

<u>**TFET-I :**</u>



Figure 68: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TFET-I.

The three TFET structures (Table-6) used in this study were grown and fabricated using the process flow detailed in chapter 3. For TFET-I and TFET-II, the band alignment at the source/channel interface is nearly at the limit from staggered to broken gap with a very low effective barrier (E_{beff}) of 28 meV. The TFET-III structure has an E_{beff} height of 70 meV. All p+ and n+ layers are doped with 'Si' with a doping concentration of 1x10¹⁹ cm⁻³.

4.3.1 Electrical results of TFET-I (InAs_{0.91}Sb_{0.09}/Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb)

Figure 69b displays the output characteristics of the device (size: $0.35x4 \ \mu m^2$) presented in Figure 69a. As can be seen in backward regime, the NDR evidences a tunnel injection mechanism. The small E_{beff} height at the interface leads to a drain current (I_D) larger than 1200 μ A/ μ m at V_{DS}=0.5V. The small E_{beff} height at the tunnel junction results in a high conductance in both ON and OFF state regimes. Another reason could be that the width of the channel (350 nm) at the junction is so large that the gate cannot control the charge in the center of the channel. Thus, the high conductance together with the poor gate coupling over the channel charge result in a weak variation of I_D. As has been mentioned in chapter 3, PECVD deposited SiO₂ at 300⁰ C for 30 min might have degraded the gate stack

quality. Furthermore, the FIB-STEM image in Figure 69a suggests that the gate does not overlap the entire channel which leads to an increased resistance, reducing I_D .

Layer	Buffer	Heterojunction	Doping	Expected
name	(thickness)	n++/i/p++	n++/i/p++	(E _{beff})
(Sub)		(thickness in nm)	(cm ⁻³)	
TFET-I	GaSb	InAsSb/InAsSb/Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb	$1x10^{19}/1x10^{16}/1x10^{19}$	28 meV
(GaSb)	(1000nm)	(50nm)/(80nm)/(50nm)		
TFET-II	GaSb	InAs/InAs/Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb	$1x10^{19}/1x10^{16}/1x10^{19}$	28 meV
(GaAs)	(600nm)	(50nm)/(80nm)/(50nm)		
TFET-	InAs	InAs/InAs/Al _{0.5} Ga _{0.5} Sb	$1x10^{19}/1x10^{16}/1x10^{19}$	70 meV
III	(600nm)	(50nm)/(200nm)/(50nm)		
(GaAs)				

Table 6: Epitaxial structures used in this study to fabricate TFET



Figure 69: (a) Cross-sectional FIB-STEM image of A-shaped device fabricated on TFET-I epitaxial layer and (b) I_{DS}-V_{DS} characteristics of device in (a) at different gate voltages (V_{GS})(Inset: logscale).

4.3.2 Electrical results of TFET-II (InAs/Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb)

From the observations extracted from the electrical characteristics of TFET-I, InAs_{0.91}Sb_{0.09} has been replaced by InAs for TFET-II (Figure 70) and the structure has been grown on a S.I. GaAs substrate since the insulation of devices made on a conductive GaSb substrate is quite impossible. When using a PECVD SiO₂ layer deposited at 300°C to insulate the contacts from the conductive substrate, the gate metal diffusion eventually degraded the overall gate stack quality as was the case for TFET-I. However, when using S.I. GaAs substrate, the lattice mismatch between GaSb and GaAs (7.8%) leads to the generation of threading dislocations. A 600nm-GaSb metamorphic buffer has been grown on the GaAs substrate has been already optimized by El Kazzi *et al.* at IEMN [100]. The conductive GaSb buffer layer is insulated by dry etching followed by wet etching and large metal pads deposited on the GaAs substrate are connected to the device contacts through air bridges as described in chapter 3.

In addition to that, we used InAs as a channel material to improve the channel/Al₂O₃ interface that reduces the intrinsic doping in the channel. Doping is maintained at the same level with a concentration of 1×10^{19} cm⁻³ for both p+ and n+ layers.





Figure 70: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TFET-II.

Figure 71 shows the electrical I_{DS}-V_{DS} characteristics of TFET-II for Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices. The insets in Figure 71a and b show the FIB-STEM images of the Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices taken from the same wafer and resulting from the different orientations of the device with respect to the crystallographic azimuths. From the FIB-STEM images, the channel width of the Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices is calculated to be 250 nm and 50 nm respectively. First, the observed NDR at negative V_{DS} is larger than for TFET-I. At V_{DS}=V_{GS}=0.5V, the Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices exhibit a drain current (I_D or I_{ON}) of about 320 μ A/ μ m and 100 μ A/ μ m and an I_{OFF} of about 294 μ A/ μ m and 75 μ A/ μ m respectively. The large I_{ON} for the Λ -shaped device is due to the large tunneling area at the interface. The gate control (Figure 71) is somewhat better for the V-shaped device, probably due to the reduced channel width at the junction.

Note that here no post deposition annealing (PDA) after oxide deposition or post process annealing (PPA) after technology has been performed so far in this process. It has been shown in the literature that forming gas (5% $H_2/95\%$ N₂) annealing significantly lowers the D_{it} and improves the C-V dispersion curve [101]. Also, PPA annealing can improve the ohmic contact formation, especially for GaSb because it is well known that 'Sb' based compounds are readily oxidized in the environment [102]. This PPA will eventually increase the drain current (I_D).



Figure 71: I_{DS} - V_{DS} characteristics of a (a) Λ -shaped device and (b) V-shaped device of area $0.25x4 \ \mu m^2$ at different gate voltages (V_{GS}). Inset: FIB-Cross sectional image.

In order to test the impact of an annealing, we have performed PPA at 200 °C in the forming gas for 10 minutes. Figure 72 shows the electrical characteristics of the Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices respectively, for a drain contact area of 0.25x2 μ m². A drastic improvement in terms of ON-state and OFF-state currents is visible. For the Λ -shaped device I_{ON} increases from 320 μ A/ μ m to 1180 μ A/ μ m and for the V-shaped device I_{ON} increases from 100 μ A/ μ m to 285 μ A/ μ m. Similarly, for the Λ -shaped device I_{OFF} increases
from 294 μ A/ μ m (V_{GS}=-2.0V) to 585 μ A/ μ m (V_{GS}=-1.5V) and for the V-shaped device I_{OFF} increases from 75 μ A/ μ m (V_{GS}=-2.5V) to 24 μ A/ μ m (V_{GS}=-1.5V). The I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio for the Λ -shaped device raises from 1.1 to 2 whereas for the V-shaped one, it raises from 1.3 to 12. The larger I_{ON} value is attributed to a better contact resistance whereas the enhancement of the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is related to the improvement of the Al₂O₃-InAs interface quality [101]. The I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio for Λ -shaped and V-shaped devices after annealing is 2 and 12 respectively. The better I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio for the V-shaped device is due to the improved gate efficiency, as the channel width is smaller in this geometry.

Although an I_{ON} current of 285 μ A/ μ m is better than those found in the literature so far on this material system, the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio remains still very poor [103]–[105]. The high I_{OFF} can be due to the small E_{beff} height at the junction and poor gate efficiency contributing to a large OFF-state current. The poor gate control on the channel may contribute to the short channel effect (SCE) called drain induced barrier thinning (DIBT). The other reason could be the problem of mismatch when replacing InAsSb (in TFET-I) by InAs (in TFET-II). The critical thickness of InAs (about 100 nm) is slightly overpassed in TFET-II so InAs is partially relaxed which may cause the formation of defects at the tunneling interface. Furthermore, the pinch-off is difficult to obtain even for the V-shaped device. One way to further boost the performance is to increase the E_{beff} height, which is possible by increasing the 'Al' composition. The other way as described in section 2.3.4, is to increase the channel length to reduce the DIBT.



Figure 72: (a), (b) I_{DS} - V_{DS} characteristics of the Λ -shaped device of area 0.25x2 μm^2 and (c), (d) I_{DS} - V_{DS} characteristics of the V-shaped device of area 0.25x2 μm^2 .

Layer name (Sub)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{\Lambda-shape}\\ \textbf{Ion } \mu A / \mu m\\ (V_{GS} = V_{DS} = V)\textbf{;}\\ \textbf{Ioff } \mu A / \mu m\\ (V_{GS} = V_{DS} = V)\textbf{;} \end{array}$	$\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
TFET-I	I _{ON} =1200 μA/μm	-
(GaSb)	$(\mathbf{V}_{GS}=\mathbf{V}_{DS}=\mathbf{0.5V})$	
TFET-II	I_{ON} =320 μ A/ μ m	I_{ON} =100 μ A/ μ m
(GaAs)	$(V_{GS}=V_{DS}=0.5V);$	$(V_{GS}=V_{DS}=0.5V);$
	$I_{OFF}=294 \ \mu A/\mu m$	$I_{OFF}=75 \ \mu A/\mu m$
	$(V_{GS}=-2.0V; V_{DS}=0.5V)$	(V _{GS} = -2.5V; V _{DS} =0.5V)
TFET-II	I _{ON} =1180 μA/μm	I _{ON} =285 μA/μm
(GaAs)	$(V_{GS}=V_{DS}=0.5V);$	(V _{GS} = V _{DS} =0.5V);
After	I_{OFF} =585 $\mu A/\mu m$	$I_{OFF}=24 \ \mu A/\mu m$
annealing	(V _{GS} = -1.5V; V _{DS} =0.5V)	(V _{GS} = -1.5V; V _{DS} =0.5V)

Table 7: Summary of the electrical results for the tunnel FETs

Figure 73 shows the drain current variations with the width of the mesa at the tunneling interface. I_{OFF} (<25 μ A/ μ m) is substantially reduced for a drain contact width of 0.25 μ m combined with a V-shape resulting in a width of 50 nm at the tunneling interface. In this configuration, I_{ON}/I_{OFF} is improved and reaches more than one decade. This indicates that further scaling down of the mesa width is necessary to improve the electrostatic control on the tunneling current. Table 7 summarizes the best results obtained in TFET-I and TFET-II (before and after annealing).



Figure 73: Drain current (I_D) variation with the width of the tunnel junction (black curves, left axis) and resulting ratio between the On state and OFF state currents (red curve, right axis).

4.3.3 Electrical characterization of TFET-III (InAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}Sb)

Results obtained from TFET-II (table 7) suggest that increasing the effective barrier (E_{beff}) at the tunneling interface by increasing the 'Al' composition reduces the OFF-state current. However, increasing the 'Al' composition also limits the ON-state current because of a larger E_{beff} height and a higher spike in the valence band between GaSb and AlGaSb. From the knowledge gained from the TD-IV results, compositional grading in the source improves the ON-conductance of the device as the valence band edge is smoothened. The epitaxial structure with valence band edge smoothing is shown in Figure 74.

<u>TFET-III:</u>



Figure 74: Epitaxial structure and band diagram of TFET-III.

By increasing the 'Al' composition to 50%, E_{beff} at the tunnel junction reaches 70 meV. Furthermore, the InAs channel thickness (nid) has been increased from 80 nm for TFET-II to 200 nm for TFET-III to reduce the short channel effects (SCEs). As this layer is now much thicker than the critical value for plastic deformation of InAs on GaSb, the metamorphic buffer matched to the lattice constant of GaSb (in TFET-II) has been replaced with a buffer lattice matched to InAs and composed of a thin 30 nm not fully relaxed GaSb layer and a 1 μ m thick InAs layer in the TFET-III structure. This is now the GaSb/AlGaSb source layer which is compressively strained but with a layer thickness below the critical one for plastic relaxation (<100nm). For the technological process, Pd/Ti/Au was evaporated to form the source ohmic contact on the InAs buffer layer after opening the oxide and AlGaSb/GaSb source layers using dry plasma etching. The high conductance of the InAs:n+/GaSb:p+ broken gap interface (Figure 73) ensures the contact to the GaSb source layer of the transistor [106].

Figure 75 shows the variations of I_{ON} and I_{OFF} when varying the tunnel junction width. Pinching of the device can be achieved when reducing the tunnel junction width. The I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is significantly improved for small widths, reaching 9.84x10² for the narrowest mesa width (80nm). This is a significant improvement from what has been observed previously in the case of TFET-II for which the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is only 12. This

result shows that the scaling of the channel width together with a high aspect ratio is highly beneficial for improving TFET performance.



Figure 75: Plot showing the variation of I_{ON} and I_{OFF} w.r.t the width (W) of the tunnel junction for the V-shaped device at $V_{DS}=0.5V$.

The room temperature characteristics of the narrowest device (W=80nm) are shown in Figure 76. The Esaki diode behavior evidenced by the negative differential resistance (causing some ringing) in backward regime (Figure 76a) confirms a band-to-band tunneling injection mechanism. In forward regime (Figure 76b), the device exhibits a maximum ONcurrent of 433 μ A. μ m⁻¹ at V_{DS}=V_{GS}=0.5V. The transfer and the transconductance characteristics Figure 76c and Figure 76d respectively in show an $I_{ON}(V_{GS}=0.5V)/I_{OFF}(V_{GS}=-2.5V)$ ratio larger than 9.8×10^2 and a maximum transconductance of about 500 μ S/ μ m for V_{DS}=0.5V. However, a subthreshold slope larger than 500 mV/decade is obtained even for a reduced drain voltage of 0.1V. This result may be due to a high defect density at the $InAs/Al_2O_3$ interface. As shown by Mookerjea *et al*, a field-enhanced thermal excitation of carriers from these trap states can strongly degrade the slope of the transfer characteristics in the subthreshold regime at room temperature [42].



Figure 76: 300K I_{DS} - V_{DS} characteristics of the InAs/AlGaSb V-shape TFET in backward (a) and forward regime (b). (c) Transfer characteristics of the device for different V_{DS} and corresponding gate current density, (d) Transconductance curve for V_{DS} =0.5V (black squares) and transfer characteristics for V_{DS} =0.5V in linear scale (red line).

The TFET performance is also dependent on the density of defects in the gate oxide. In most cases the large storage time of charges by these defects results in an hysteresis effect in the I_D -V_{GS} characteristics [107]. That is indeed what we observe when the gate voltage (V_{GS}) bias has been swept in two directions with a few minutes between the up and down sweeps (Figure 77). The charge built up by the traps in the oxide results in a shift of 1 V in the threshold voltage (ΔV_T). From this value, the effective fixed oxide charge density in the oxide can be estimated to about $1.1 \times 10^{13} \text{ eV}^{-1}$.cm⁻² [108]. The effective fixed oxide charge density comprises the fixed charges in the oxide and the fixed interface traps between alumina and InAs. Usually, high frequency capacitance measurements are performed to get insight in the origin of the different charge and traps. However, due to the large gate/source overlap (inset Figure 77) in our design, the parasitic capacitance prevents us to perform such measurements.



Figure 77: (a) Hysteresis observed in the transfer characteristics for the V-shaped device when the gate voltage is swept in two directions at $V_{DS}=0.5V$. Inset: Top view SEM image showing the gate/source overlap.

4.3.4 Low temperature measurements for TFET-III

To further understand the influence of traps, we measured the transfer characteristics of the device varying the temperature from 300K to 77K. As can be seen on

Figure 78a showing the results for $V_{DS}=0.1V$, the subthreshold regime is strongly dependent on the temperature. Whereas the minimum switching slope is larger than 500 mV/decade at room temperature, it is improved to 71 mV/decade at 77K (Figure 78b).



Figure 78: Low temperature characterization of the device: (a) transfer characteristics versus temperature for $V_{DS}=0.1V$ and (b) Subthreshold slope versus drain current extracted from (a).

The Arrhenius plots of Figure 79 evidence the different conduction mechanisms involved for four different V_{GS} corresponding to three different operation modes. For V_{GS}=-2.2 (Figure 79a), whereas the leakage floor is dominated by tunneling at low temperature, a Shockley-Read-Hall (SRH) generation-recombination current prevails when the temperature exceeds 150K. The activation energy that can be deduced from the slope between 300K and 150K is roughly equal to half of the bandgap of InAs (0.17 eV). This means that the thermal activation of traps (probably located at the Al₂O₃/InAs interface) provides a large density of carriers in the InAs channel. The impact of these traps is also confirmed when the variation of the subthreshold current at V_{GS} =-1.8V with the temperature is investigated (Figure 79b). For V_{DS} =0.1V, the linear variation of ln(I_D) vs 1/k_BT evidences a trap-assisted tunneling phenomenon (Poole-Frenkel (PF) mechanism). At larger V_{DS} (0.5V), we observe the same limitation above 200K, but a constant leakage

below 150K expresses a band to band tunneling (BTBT) mechanism. Eventualy, for V_{GS} =-0.5V (Figure 79c) and V_{GS} =0V (Figure 79d), the drain current is independent of the temperature showing a gated BTBT operation.



Figure 79 : Arrhenius plot of drain current for V_{GS} =-2.2V showing that the OFF current is dominated at room temperature by a SRH generation-recombination mechanism in InAs (a). For V_{GS} =-1.8V, a Poole-Frenkel (PF) mechanism can be deduced for low V_{DS} (red points) whereas a BTBT phenomenon prevails for large V_{DS} and T<150K (b). For V_{GS} =0.5V (c) and V_{GS} =0V (d), temperature independent drain current evidences a BTBT current domination.

The 77K I_{DS} - V_{DS} characteristics in Figure 80 (backward voltage) reveals a slight improvement of the peak to valley current ratio from 2.23 (RT) to 3.75 (77K) for V_{GS} =0V. This is mainly due to a lower excess current at low temperature as thermally assisted leakage current is reduced. However, in the forward regime, the improvement in the I_{ON}/I_{OFF} ratio is very dependent on the drain voltage whereas the low leakage floor (I_{OFF} <50 pA.µm⁻¹) and a still high ON-current (I_{ON} =40 µA.µm⁻¹) lead to an ON/OFF current ratio larger than six decades at V_{DS} =0.1V. A little more than three decades are obtained for V_{DS} =0.5V. Considering the 77K transfer characteristic evolution with the drain voltage (Figure 80b), one can observe that the leakage floor for V_{GS} < -2V exhibits a gate voltage dependency characteristic of an ambipolar effect coming from the tunneling at the drain to channel interface. This current corresponds to the temperature independent leakage floor observed on Figure 79a for a temperature below 150K. On the other hand, at V_{GS} =-1.8V (Figure 80b) and for V_{DS} =0.5V, the subthreshold slope is still limited by band to band tunneling at the AlGaSb/InAs interface due to drain induced barrier thinning (DIBT). The 77K DIBT estimated considering the variation of the gate voltage needed to keep a constant drain current at 10⁻⁷ A/µm while varying the drain voltage from 0.1V to 0.5V is about 1 V/V. At V_{GS} =-2V, the overlap existing between these two phenomena (DIBT and ambipolar tunneling current at the drain to channel interface) indicates that a non-uniform band profile near the AlGaSb/InAs interface probably exists within the width of the channel.



Figure 80: 77K characterization of the device: (a) I_{DS} - V_{DS} , (b) transfer characteristics for $V_{DS}=0.1V$ to 0.5V.

4.4 Benchmarking

A benchmark of our V-shaped n-TFET with other n-TFETs based on near broken heterostructure is proposed in Table 7 and shows a good trade-off between the ON/OFF ratio, maximum ON-current and switching efficiency at low bias. Furthermore, the proposed configuration consisting in a vertical device with side gates makes this solution compatible with a large-scale integration on a CMOS platform. Vertical nanowire with gate all around (GAA) based on InAs/GaSb (broken gap) is attractive in terms of SS_{min}. However growing nanowires on a Si (001) or GaAs (001) substrate is still very challenging.

Table 7: Benchmarking of the V-shaped n-TFET with other broken and near brokenheterostructure TFETs available in the literature.

Ref.	Device type	Subs.	Materials	Body thick. (nm)	L _G (nm)	E O T (nm)	Ion @V _{DS} = 0.5V (μΑ/ μm)	Ion/Ioff for Vds=0.5V (Vgs(on) - Vgs(off))	SSmin (mV/ dec) 300K V _{DS} = 0.5 V	SS _{min} (mV/ dec) 77K V _{DS} = 0.1V
[109]	T-shape	GaSb (001)	InAs/GaSb (broken gap)	6	40000	1.3	180	6,000 (1.5V)	200	50
[110]	NW with Ω-gate	GaAs (111)	InAs(Sb)/ GaSb (broken gap)	45	290	1.3	62	143 @ V _{DS} =0.3V (3V)	320	17 @4.2K
[105]	Vertical NW with GAA	Si (111)	InAs/GaSb (broken gap)	20	100	1.4	35	5,000 (1V)	82	NA
[111]	Λ-shape	InP (001)	In _{0.9} Ga _{0.1} As/ GaAs _{0.18} Sb _{0.82} (near-broken gap)	600	200	2	740	60 (3V)	>500	150
[112]	Λ-shape	InP (001)	In _{0.65} Ga _{0.35} As/ GaAs _{0.4} Sb _{0.6} (highly staggered)	700	150	0.4	110	1.3X10 ⁵ (1.5V)	130	NA
This work	V-shape	GaAs (001)	InAs/ Al0.5Ga0.5Sb (near- broken)	80	200	1.8	433	9.8x10 ² (3V)	530	71

Conclusion and Perspectives

In this thesis an entire fabrication process flow to fabricate tunnel diodes (TDs) and tunnel FETs (TFETs) from (Al)GaSb/InAs heterojunctions has been developed and optimized. The band alignment of this material system can be tuned from broken to staggered gap. Although the process for TD is direct, the process for TFET is quite challenging, especially when the junction widths are within the 25-80nm range. At first, two terminal Esaki tunnel diodes were used to optimize the epitaxial structure. We have shown a strong dependence of the maximum conductance and its variation steepness on the Al composition in the (Al)GaSb/InAs material system. The electrical characterization of InAs_{0.91}Sb_{0.09}/Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb and InAs/Al_{0.4}Ga_{0.6}Sb TFETs has shown that aggressively scaling the channel width at the tunneling interface is necessary to enhance the gate electrostatic control over the channel. We show from the electrical characteristics of InAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}Sb TFETs that increasing the E_{beff} at the junction and increasing the thickness of the InAs channel layer has a drastic effect on the performance. In this latter case, the vertical architecture together with a V-shaped mesa etching of the InAs channel down to 80 nm at the tunneling interface has been achieved and resulted in a large I_{ON} of 433 μ A/um at V_{DS}=V_{GS}=0.5V. This is the highest value so far reported in the literature within the InAs/Al_xGa_{1-x}Sb material system. At room temperature, a high trap density in the gate oxide and at the semiconductor/oxide interface degrades the SS value. However, low temperature measurements limiting the influence of traps show a minimum SS of 71 mV/decade together with a 40 $\mu A.\mu m^{\text{-1}}$ ON current at $V_{\text{DS}}=0.1$ V. These results indicate that further improvements of the gate-oxide/semiconductor interface could lead to a valuable solution in terms of ultra-low power logic.

The primary goal of this study was to develop a process flow for TFET fabrication in the (Al)GaSb/InAs system grown on a substrate. Further improvement in device performance in terms of SS and Ion/Ioff ratio at room temperature can be foreseen. For instance, pre- and post-ALD treatments or annealing have not been carried out. In the same way, the rather important DIBT at large V_{DS} could also been reduced by further increasing the gate electrostatic control with a larger aspect ratio between the channel body thickness and the gate length. As described in chapter 3, it is difficult to achieve steep sidewall profiles with the chemical based wet etching technique defining the mesa width. Hence a dry plasma etch technique for InAs has to be developed. A FIB-STEM image of a TFET based on this dry etching technique is presented in Figure 81 demonstrating the possibility to reach sub-20 nm channel body thickness over more than 100 nm channel length. Large improvement of the gate electrostatic control over the channel could be expected with such a high aspect ratio technology.





Figure 81: (a) SEM image of 25nm mesa width and (b) FIB-STEM image of 40 nm mesa width defined dry plasma etch technique.

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Appendix

Appendix I: Diode process

1. Marker & Drain level

1.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5) Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=12'' PMMA 4% 950K Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=10'' 170°C baking for 3' after each coating
1.2 E-beam Lithography (mask layer 1,2)	Resolution=0.020 ;Current : 20nA ; Dose=220µC/cm ²
1.3 Resist development	$ \begin{array}{l} \text{MIBK/IPA (70ml/70ml)} \\ \approx 1'45'' + 3' \text{ IPA cleaning} \end{array} $
1.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au/Ti : 100/800/100 Å; etch: 1'30''; 150eV
1.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; RPM=300; TEMP=80°C ≈ 30'

2. Device Mesa Wet etching

*2.1 Deoxydation	HCL/H20 (1/10) TIME: 1min
*2.2 Phosphoric acid	H3PO4/H2O2/H20 (2/1/6) time: 8 Sec
*2.3 Citric acid	Citric acid/H2O (1/1) TIME: 1 MIN

* The above process is used to etch a 200 nm-thick InAs layer. The process is modified according to the epi-layer and its thickness.

3. SiO2 deposition all over the wafer

30 nm at 300° C

4. SiO2 opening of apertures in source and drain pad regions (RIE Dry etch + HF treatment)

4.1 Spin coating of PMMA	PMMA 4% 950K Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=10'' 170°C baking for 3' after each coating
4.2 E-beam Lithography (mask layer 5,13)	Mask layer 13: Resolution=0.010 ;Current : 10nA ; Dose=220µC/cm ² Mask layer 5 : Resolution=0.025 ;Current : 20nA ; Dose=220µC/cm ²

4.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (70ml/70ml)
	$\approx 3' + 3'$ IPA cleaning
4.4 Dry etch + HF/H2O(1/4)	RIE dry etch (2'30'') + 15''

5. Ammonia/tartric acid treatment 50nm-AlGaSb (\approx 3') + HF (5%)/H2O (20/80ml) 15''

6. Metallization for drain & source pads

6.1 Spin coating of PMMA	Copo ARP 33 % Speed=1500;acc=1000;time=12'' ~6000Å PMMA 4% 950K Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=10''
	170°C baking for 3' after each coating
6.2 E-beam Lithography (mask layer 5,15)	Resolution=0.025 ;Current : 20nA ;
	$Dose=220\mu C/cm^2$
6.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (70ml/70ml)
	$\approx 3' + 3'$ IPA cleaning
	+
	Methanol/ipa (1/3) 3'
6.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au : 1000/2000 Å (tilt 30° rotation)
	+ Au: 3000 Å; Ar etching : 2'; 150eV ;
6.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; RPM=300; TEMP=80°C
	≈ 2 hrs

Appendix II: TFET process

TFET-I 3 50nm InAs n ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) 80nm InAs n ⁺ (intrinsic) 50nm Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) 600nm GaSb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) 600nm GaSb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) S.I. GaAs substrate	Substrate: GaSb-Sub Drain contact: Ti/Au/Ti (20/100/10 nm) Gate contact: Ni (80nm) Gate Oxide: 7 nm- Al ₂ O ₃ Source contact: Ti/Au (20/170 nm)
<u>1. Defining Marker & drain contact</u> 1.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5); 2000/1000/12'' ≈220 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' ≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
1.2 E-beam Lithography	Resolution: 20 nm ; Current: 20nA ; Dose: 220 μ C/cm ²
1.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈1'45'' + 3' IPA cleaning
1.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au/Ti : 20/100/10 nm
1.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; Temp=70°C \approx 2 hrs
<u>2. Wet mesa etching</u>2.1 Wet mesa etching of InAs	HCl/H ₂ O (1/10) : 1 min H ₃ PO ₄ /H ₂ O ₂ /H ₂ O (2/1/6) : 4 sec C ₆ H ₈ O ₇ /H ₂ O ₂ (1/1) : 25 sec
3. Gate Oxide deposition	
3.1 Pre-treatment	HCl/H ₂ O (1/10) : 30 sec Stopant: IPA
3.2 Gate oxide deposition	4 nm- Al ₂ O ₃ Thermal mode; temperature: 300 ⁰ C; 40 cycles
 <u>4. Contact window opening of Al₂O₃ on</u> <u>drain and source regions</u> (ICP dry plasma etching) 4.1 Spin coating of PMMA 	PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10''~220 nm (opening of drain & source contact to etch Al_2O_3)
4.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.010; Current : 10 nA; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
4.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1): 2' of development time is

	ideal
4.4 Dry plasma etching	To etch 4 nm Al ₂ O ₃ RIE = 50; BCl ₃ = 30 sccm; ICP = 200 W; time = 1 '30''; Pressure = 2m Torr; temp/precision He = 10° C/5 torr
4.5 Cleaning	SVC-14 @ 70 °C for ≈ 2 hrs
5.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	Copo ARP 33%/ Ethyl lactate (1/0.5) 2600/1000/12"≈120 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10"≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
5.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.010; Current: 10 nA ; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
5.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 1'40'' Methanol/IPA (1/3) ≈ 2'30''
5.4 Gate metallization	Ni: 80 nm @ 60° tilt; rotation
5.5 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 10'-20'
<u>6. Isolation of devices</u> 6.1 30 nm SiO ₂ at 300° C by PECVD	
6.2 SiO_2 opening of aperture in source and	PMMA 4% 950K
drain pad regions (RIE Dry etch + HF treatment)	Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=10''
	170°C baking for 3' after each coating
7. Metallization of drain and source pads	
7.1 Spin coating of PMMA	Copo ARP 33 % Speed=1500;acc=1000;time=12'' ~6000Å PMMA 4% 950K Speed=2500;acc=1000;time=10'' 170°C baking for 3' after each coating

7.2 E-beam Lithography (mask layer 5,15)	Resolution=0.025 ;Current : 20nA ; Dose=220µC/cm ²
7.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (70ml/70ml)
	$\approx 3' + 3'$ IPA cleaning
	+
	Methanol/ipa (1/3) 3'
7.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au : 1000/2000 Å (tilt 30° rotation) + Au: 3000 Å; Ar etching : 2'; 150eV ;
7.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; RPM=300; TEMP=80°C ≈ 2 hrs

TFET-II 3 50nm InAs n ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ⁻¹) 80nm InAs n ⁺ (intrinsic) 50nm Al _{0.4} Ga _{0.6} Sb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) 600nm GaSb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) S.I. GaAs substrate	Substrate: GaAs-Sub Drain contact: Ti/Au/Ti (20/100/10 nm) Gate contact: Ni (80nm) Gate Oxide: 4 nm- Al ₂ O ₃ Source contact: Ti/Au (20/170 nm)
<u>1. Defining Marker & drain contact</u> 1.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5); 2000/1000/12'' ≈220 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' ≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
1.2 E-beam Lithography	Resolution: 20 nm ; Current: 20nA ; Dose: 220 μ C/cm ²
1.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈1'45'' + 3' IPA cleaning
1.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au/Ti : 20/100/10 nm
1.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; Temp=70°C \approx 2 hrs
<u>2. Wet mesa etching</u>2.1 Wet mesa etching of InAs	HCl/H ₂ O (1/10) : 1 min H ₃ PO ₄ /H ₂ O ₂ /H ₂ O (2/1/6) : 4 sec C ₆ H ₈ O ₇ /H ₂ O ₂ (1/1) : 25 sec
3.1 Pre-treatment	HCl/H ₂ O $(1/10)$: 30 sec Stopant: IPA
3.2 Gate oxide deposition	4 nm- Al ₂ O ₃ Thermal mode; temperature: 300 ⁰ C; 40 cycles
 <u>4. Contact window opening of Al₂O₃ on</u> <u>drain and source regions</u> (ICP dry plasma etching) 4.1 Spin coating of PMMA 	PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10''~220 nm (opening of drain & source contact to etch Al_2O_3)
4.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.010; Current : 10 nA; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
4.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1): 2' of development time is ideal

4.4 Dry plasma etching	To etch 4 nm Al ₂ O ₃ RIE = 50; BCl ₃ = 30 sccm; ICP = 200 W; time = 1 '30''; Pressure = 2m Torr; temp/precision He = 10° C/5 torr
4.5 Cleaning	SVC-14 @ 70 °C for ≈ 2 hrs
5.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	Copo ARP 33%/ Ethyl lactate (1/0.5) 2600/1000/12"≈120 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10"≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
5.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.010; Current: 10 nA ; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
5.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 1'40'' Methanol/IPA (1/3) ≈ 2'30''
5.4 Gate metallization	Ni: 80 nm @ 60° tilt; rotation
5.5 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 10'-20'
<u>6. Source contact patterning</u> 6.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5); 1500/1000/12'' ≈220 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' ≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
6.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.020; Current : 20 nA ; Dose = $220\mu C/cm^2$
6.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 1'40''
6.4 Source contact metallization	Ti/Au : 20/170 nm
6.5 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 2 hrs
<u>7. Isolation of devices</u> 7.1 Spin coating of HMDS & SAL601	 Clean with IPA Dehydration @ 200°C for 10 minutes Blow N2 air for 1 min to cool down Prepare HMDS 3000/1000/12" Immediately SAL 601 1500/1000/12"
7.2 E-beam lithography	Current:100pA ; Dose = 5μ C/cm ²
7.3 Resist development	Prebake @ 115 °C for 3 min Development: MF $322 \approx 1'30''$
7.4 Etching of buffer	Dry etch : GaSb Buffer RIE = 50; BCl ₃ = 30 sccm; ICP = 200 W;

	time = 1'30'';
	Pressure = 2m Torr; temp/precision He =
	10°C/5 torr
	Etch depth: 300 nm
	Wet etch:
	1. Tartaric acid = 10 g : DI H2O = 100 m :
	37% HCl = 80 ml: Stirred continuously for 1
	hour to cool down to 20° C
	2 Add $H_2O_2 = 7$ ml just before performing
	etch
	Etch rate is $\approx 310-320$ nm
	\approx 45-50 " to 310-320 nm
7.5 Cleaning	SVC-14 @ 70 °C for \approx 2 hrs
/ ie croming	
8. 2-Step bridge process for air-bridge	
<u>Step-1</u>	
8.1.1 Spin coating PMMA	PMMA 5 % 950 K; 1750/1000/10'' ≈
	500nm
	Baked @ 180 ° C for 1'30''
8.1.2 E-beam Lithography	Res: 0.010 ; current = 10 nA ; dose = 250
	μ C/cm ²
	Contact area (large contact region)
	Res: 0.025 ; current = 70 nA; dose = 270
	μ C/cm ²
8.1.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 2'
8.1.4 Reflow	45 "+ 15 " @ 170 ° C
Sten_2	
8 2 1 Spin coat Copo ARP 33% (2 µm)	2100/1000/12"
	$@ 140 \circ C$ for 2' to get ≈ 2 µm thick
8 2 2 spin coat ZEP 520A	2500/1000/8"
0.2.2 spin cout 2En 3201	$@ 140 \circ C$ for 2' to get ≈ 370 nm thick
8.2.3 E-beam lithography	Device region
0.2.5 E bouin nulography	Res: 0.010 : current: $6nA$: Dose = 160
	$\mu C/cm^2$
	Large contact region
	Res: 0.025 : current: 40 nA: Dose = 160
	$\mu C/cm^2$
8.2.4 Development	Zn50 for ZEP \approx 30 [*] Etchant stoppant · DI
r	H ₂ O
	Methanol/IPA $(1/3) \approx 45$ ''stoppant: IPA
8.2.5 Metallization	1000/7000 Å (Ti/Au)
8.2.6 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 2 hrs

TFET-III 3 50nm InAs n ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) 200nm InAs n ⁺ (intrinsic) 50nm Al _{0.5} Ga _{0.5} Sb p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) (Linearly graded 0.2->0.5) 600nm InAs p ⁺ Si-(1x10 ¹⁹ /cm ³) S.I. GaAs substrate	Substrate: GaAs-Sub Drain contact: Ti/Au/Ti (20/100/10 nm) Gate contact: Ni (80nm) Gate Oxide: 4 nm- Al ₂ O ₃ Source contact: Ti/Au (20/170 nm)
<u>1. Defining Marker & drain contact</u> 1.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5); 2000/1000/12'' ≈220 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' ≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
1.2 E-beam Lithography	Resolution: 20 nm ; Current: 20nA ; Dose: 220 $\mu C/cm^2$
1.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈1'45'' + 3' IPA cleaning
1.4 metal deposition	Ti/Au/Ti : 20/100/10 nm
1.5 Metal lift off	SVC-14; Temp=70°C \approx 2 hrs
2.1 Wet mesa etching of InAs	HCl/H ₂ O (1/10) : 1 min H ₃ PO ₄ /H ₂ O ₂ /H ₂ O (2/1/6) : 6 sec C ₆ H ₈ O ₇ /H ₂ O ₂ (1/1) : 20 sec
3. Gate Oxide deposition	
3.1 Pre-treatment	HCl/H ₂ O $(1/10)$: 30 sec Stopant: IPA
3.2 Gate oxide deposition	4 nm- Al_2O_3 Thermal mode; temperature: 300^0 C; 40 cycles
 4. Contact window opening of Al₂O₃ on drain and source regions (ICP dry plasma etching) 4.1 Spin coating of PMMA 	PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' \approx 220 nm (opening of drain & source contact to etch Al ₂ O ₃)
4.2 E-beam htnography	Resolution: 0.010; Current : 10 nA; Dose = 220μ C/cm ²
4.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1): 2' of development time is ideal
4.4 Dry plasma etching	To etch 4 nm Al_2O_3 RIE = 50; BCl ₃ = 30 sccm; ICP = 200 W; time = 1 '30'';

	Pressure = 2m Torr; temp/precision He = 10°C/5 torr
4.5 Cleaning	SVC-14 @ 70 °C for ≈2 hrs
5.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	Copo ARP 33%/ Ethyl lactate (1/0.5) 2600/1000/12"≈120 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10"≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
5.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.010; Current: 10 nA ; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
5.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA $(1/1) \approx 1'40''$ Methanol/IPA $(1/3) \approx 2'30''$
5.4 Gate metallization	Ni: 80 nm @ 60° tilt; rotation
5.5 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 10'-20'
6. Source contact patterning	
6.1 Spin coating of Co-polymer & PMMA	EL 6% (MAA 8.5); 1500/1000/12'' ≈220 nm PMMA 4% 950K; 2500/1000/10'' ≈220 nm 180°C baking for 3' after each coating
6.2 E-beam lithography	Resolution: 0.020; Current : 20 nA ; Dose = 220µC/cm ²
6.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 1'40''
6.4 Source contact metallization	Ti/Au : 20/170 nm
6.5 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 2 hrs
7. Isolation of devices 7.1 Spin coating of HMDS & SAL601	 Clean with IPA Dehydration @ 200°C for 10 minutes Blow N2 air for 1 min to cool down Prepare HMDS 3000/1000/12" Immediately SAL 601 1500/1000/12"
7.2 E-beam lithography	Current:100pA ; Dose = 5μ C/cm ²
7.3 Resist development	Prebake @ 115 °C for 3 min Development: MF $322 \approx 1'30''$
7.4 Etching of buffer	Dry etch : InAs Buffer Wet etch : H ₃ PO ₄ /H ₂ O ₂ /H ₂ O (2/1/6) : 20 sec C ₆ H ₈ O ₇ /H ₂ O ₂ (1/1) : 60 sec

7.5 Cleaning of resist	SVC-14 @ 70 °C for \approx 2 hrs
8. 2-Step bridge process for air-bridge <u>Step-1</u> 8.1.1 Spin coating PMMA	PMMA 5 % 950 K; 1750/1000/10'' ≈
	500nm Baked @ 180 ° C for 1'30''
8.1.2 E-beam Lithography	Res: 0.010; current = 10 nA; dose = 250 μ C/cm ² Contact area (large contact region)
	Res: 0.025; current = 70 nA; dose = 270 μ C/cm ²
8.1.3 Resist development	MIBK/IPA (1/1) ≈ 2'
8.1.4 Reflow	45''+15'' @ 170 ° C
<u>Step-2</u> 8.2.1 Spin coat Copo ARP 33% (2 μm)	2100/1000/12'' @ 140 ° C for 2' to get ≈ 2 μm thick 2500/1000/8''
8.2.2 spin coat ZEF 520A	@ 140 ° C for 2 ' to get \approx 370 nm thick
8.2.3 E-beam lithography	Device region Res: 0.010; current: 6nA; Dose = 160 μ C/cm ² Large contact region Res: 0.025; current: 40nA; Dose = 160 μ C/cm ²
8.2.4 Development	Zn50 for ZEP \approx 30 [*] Etchant stoppant : DI H ₂ O Methanol/IPA (1/3) \approx 45 [*] stoppant: IPA
8.2.5 Metallization	1000/7000 Å (Ti/Au)
8.2.6 Lift-off	SVC-14 @ 70 °C ≈ 2 hrs
List of Publications

1. L. Desplanque, M. Fahed, X. Han, V. K. Chinni, D. Troadec, M.-P. Chauvat, P. Ruterana, and X. Wallart, "Influence of nanoscale faceting on the tunneling properties of near broken gap InAs/AlGaSb heterojunctions grown by selective area epitaxy," *Nanotechnology*, vol. 25, no. 46, p. 465302, Nov. 2014.

2. **V.K. Chinni**, L. Desplanque, M. Zaknoune and X. Wallart, "V-shaped InAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}Sb VerticalTunnel FET on GaAs (001) Substrate with I_{ON} =433 μ A. μ m⁻¹ at V_{DS}= 0.5V," IEEE *Journal of the electron devices society (JEDS)*, Vol. 5, No. 1, January 2017.

International conferences:

1. L. Desplanque, X.L. Han, M. Fahed, **V.K. Chinni**, D. Troadec, M.P. Chauvat, P. Ruterana, X. Wallart, "InAs/AlGaSb Esaki tunnel diodes grown by selective area epitaxy on GaSb (001) substrate," *IPRM 2014*, Montpellier, France, 11-15 May 2014.

2. L. Desplanque, X.L. Han, M. Fahed, **V.K. Chinni**, D. Troadec, M.P. Chauvat, P. Ruterana, X. Wallart, "Selective area epitaxy of InAs/AlGaSb heterostructures on GaSb (001) substrate for tunnel diode applications," *18th MBE 2014*, Flagstaff, AZ, USA, 7-12 September 2014.

3. **V.K. Chinni**, L. Desplanque, M. Zaknoune and X. Wallart, "V-shaped InAs/A_{10.5}G_{a0.5}Sb Vertical Tunnel FET on GaAs Substrate," *IPRM 2016*, Toyama, Japan,

26-30 June 2016.

National conferences:

1. V.K. Chinni, L. Desplanque, M. Zaknoune and X. Wallart, "InAs based Esaki tunnel diodes," *JNRDM 2014*, Lille, France, 26-28 May 2014.

2. **V.K. Chinni**, M. Zaknoune, C. Coinon, X. Wallart and L. Desplanque,"Fabrication and characterization of InAs/Al_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}Sb vertical tunnel FET on GaAs substrate," *JNMO 2016*, Les Issambres, France, 30 May- 1 June 2016.

3. Y. Lechaux, **V.K. Chinni**, V. Talbo, M. Pastorek, N. Wichmann, S. Bollaert," Fabrication et caractérisation de diodes PIN GaSb pour la réalisation de transistors I-MOSFETs," *JNMO 2016*, Les Issambres, France, 30 May- 1 June 2016.