

# Perspectives of UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs for Analog and RF Applications

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**Abstract** Ultra-thin body and buried oxide (UTBB) fully depleted (FD) silicon-on-insulator (SOI) MOSFETs are widely recognized as a promising candidate for 20 nm technology node and beyond, due to outstanding electrostatic control of short channel effects (SCE). Introduction of a highly-doped layer underneath thin buried oxide (BOX), so called ground-plane (GP), targets suppression of detrimental parasitic substrate coupling and opens multi-threshold voltage ( $V_{Th}$ ) and dynamic- $V_{Th}$  opportunities within the same process as well as the use of back-gate control schemes [1, 2]. Electrostatics, scalability and variability issues in UTBB MOSFETs as well as their perspectives for low power digital applications are widely discussed in the literature [1–5]. At the same time assessment of UTBB FD SOI for analog and RF applications received less attention. This *chapter* will discuss Figures of Merit (FoM) of UTBB MOSFETs of interest for further analog/RF applications summarizing our original research over the last years [6–15]. Device analog/RF performance is assessed through the key parameters such as the transconductance,  $g_m$ , the output conductance,  $g_d$ , the intrinsic gain,  $A_v$  and the cut-off frequencies,  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$ . Particular attention is paid to (1) a wide-frequency band assessment, the only approach that allows fair performance prediction for analog/RF applications; (2) the effect of parasitic elements, whose impact on the device performance increases enormously in deeply downscaled devices, in which they can even dominate device performance. Whenever possible, we will compare FoM achievable in UTBB FD SOI devices with those reported for other advanced devices.

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## 1 Introduction

Enormous progress of the semiconductor technology during the last decade is mostly driven by the continuous demand for the increase of the operation speed and the integration density of complex digital circuits. In order to be able to continue device scaling down to 20 nm and beyond, both new materials and new device architectures are unavoidably employed. Therefore, nowadays we deal not simply with proportional shrinking of respective device dimensions, but as well as with new architectures and materials in both channel and gate oxide. Both these factors will evidently affect analog/RF device features. From the device architecture point of view, two main contenders clearly appear as able to satisfy ITRS requirements for device downscaling: planar FD SOI with ultra-thin body and ultra-thin BOX (so-called UTBB, or UTBOX, or UT2B or ETSOI) and multiple-gate devices or MuGFET.

Focus of this chapter is UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs, while some benchmarking with other devices is provided whenever possible. Main features which allow UTBB FD SOI withstanding ITRS requirements for 20 nm-node and beyond are the following:

- outstanding electrostatic integrity;
- effective suppression of fringing fields through the BOX (by BOX thinning);
- ease of heat exhaust through the thin BOX and thus attenuated self-heating (SH) is expected;
- possibility of back-gate control schemes implementation.

However, lateral coupling of source and drain through the substrate is enhanced in the case of thin-BOX devices. This calls for realization of highly-doped layer just under the BOX, or so-called Ground Plane (GP), which screens or prevents electric field lines penetration into the substrate and thus coupling through the substrate. Furthermore, GP opens a practical way for multi- $V_{th}$  and back-gate biasing schemes realization.

Technological aspects, electrostatics, scalability and variability issues in UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs as well as their perspectives for low power digital applications are widely discussed and shown to be excellent [1–5]. However, till now almost no attention has been paid to analog and RF performance of these devices. Similarly, UTBB MOSFET small-signal behavior in a wide frequency range is rarely discussed except in our works issued during last 3 years [6–15].

## 2 Devices

UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs discussed in this chapter have been processed at CEA-Leti on UNIBOND<sup>TM</sup> SOI wafers with either 25 or 10 nm-thick BOX. Wafers without GP, with n- and p-type GP are considered. The Si film in the channel region is thinned down to 7–8 nm, depending on the wafer, and left undoped. Elevated source-drain structures are employed to reduce parasitic resistance. The

gate stack is formed by a HfSiON dielectric with the equivalent oxide thickness of  $\sim 1.3$  nm and a TiN electrode. More process details can be found e.g. in [1, 2].

The studied devices are n-channel MOSFETs with the gate length  $L$  ranging from 30 nm to 10  $\mu$ m and the channel width  $W$  from 80 nm to 10  $\mu$ m. Multi-fingers devices are used and embedded in coplanar waveguide access pads for performing RF characterization.

### 3 MOSFET's Key Parameters and Methodology Applied

It is worth firstly to list the key device parameters and FoM of interest for analog/ RF applications and describe the methodological approach, which allows a fair comparison of different devices under different bias conditions.

Main key-factors of any MOSFET are: cut-off frequencies ( $f_T$  and  $f_{\max}$ ) and intrinsic voltage gain ( $A_{v0}$ ), which itself varies in a frequency range (as will be discussed in Sect. 5):

$$f_T = \frac{g_m}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot C_{gg}}, \quad (1)$$

$$A_{v0} = \frac{g_m}{g_d} = \frac{g_m}{I_d} \cdot V_{EA} \neq \text{const}(f) \quad (2)$$

These key factors in turn depend on such device parameters as transconductance ( $g_m$ ), drive/drain current ( $I_d$ ), output conductance ( $g_d$ ), Early voltage ( $V_{EA} = I_d/g_d$ ),  $g_m/I_d$ , gate capacitance ( $C_{gg}$ ), etc. One should not forget as well about parasitic capacitance and resistance elements (as will be discussed below).

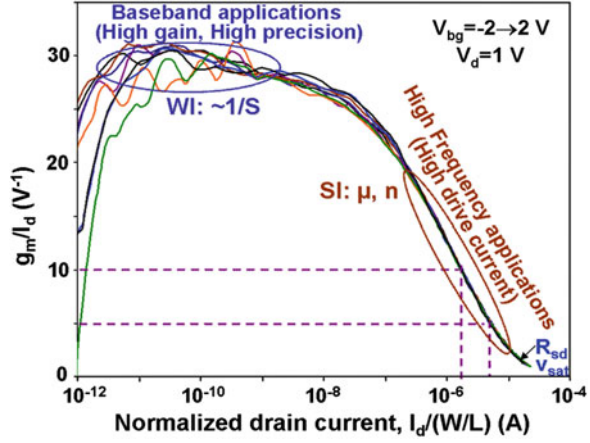
If one considers the application circuit level (e.g. amplifier), then it involves gain bandwidth product,  $GBW$ , which depends in turn on the same device parameters ( $g_m/I_d$  and  $I_d$ ):

$$GBW = \frac{g_m}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot C_L} = \frac{g_m}{I_d} \cdot \frac{I_d}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot C_L}, \quad (3)$$

where  $C_L$  is load capacitance.

From methodological point of view, a very useful approach for analog performance assessment of different devices is calculating  $g_m/I_d$  as a function of normalized drain current [16, 17]. Firstly, because such plot gives a complete picture of studied device, which is valid for different applications: from base-band applications, where high gain, high precision is needed, to high frequency application where high drive current is requested (Fig. 1). Secondly, as  $g_m/I_d$  is inversely proportional to the subthreshold swing,  $S$  in weak inversion regime and proportional to  $\mu \cdot C_{ox}/n$  (where  $\mu$  is mobility,  $C_{ox}$  is oxide capacitance and  $n$  is body factor) in strong inversion, such plot is independent of threshold voltage,  $V_{Th}$ , of substrate/back gate (or body) bias,  $V_{bg}$  and to the first order is also independent of

**Fig. 1**  $g_m/I_d$  versus  $I_d/(W/L)$  curves for 28 nm-long UTBB FD SOI nMOSFET measured at different  $V_{bg}$  from  $-2$  to  $2$  V.  $V_d = 1$  V. Dashed lines are drawn to represent  $I_d/(W/L)$  extraction approach at a fixed  $g_m/I_d = 10$  or  $5$   $V^{-1}$



$L$ . In practice, one may fix  $g_m/I_d$  value and extract corresponding  $I_d/(W/L)$  values as shown in Fig. 1. This allows assessment of device performance purely related to physical parameters as  $\mu$  or body factor, thus providing a fair comparison of devices issued from different technologies, featuring different dimensions and operated at different conditions.

Figure 2 presents the complete small-signal equivalent circuit of a MOSFET. It is important to clearly distinguish between intrinsic elements, i.e. related to the device itself and extrinsic (or parasitic) elements, as access resistances, fringing and overlap capacitances. Parasitic capacitive components (for instance, capacitive coupling between source and drain through the BOX and substrate, fringing gate-to-source and gate-to-drain coupling, etc.) attain particular importance at high/RF frequencies.

With device length scaling down, importance of parasitic components increases enormously. Parasitic elements can even dominate the device performance (as will be shown in Sect. 6). Thus, ability of separate extraction of “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” elements in advanced nowadays technologies becomes crucial. Firstly, this allows for predicting “intrinsically” achievable idealistic or target values one can reach with optimization of parasitics. Secondly, for the process/configuration optimization, it is important to know wherefrom the problem comes (either intrinsic or extrinsic part). Indeed, if extrinsic part limits device performance, any innovations introduced to boost intrinsic performance (e.g. strain, orientation, etc.) will give negligible improvement to the final device performance.

Considering equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 2, MOSFET expressions for cut-off frequencies (Eq. 1) become more complex, accounting for parasitic elements and clearly reflecting SCE (through  $C_{gs}/C_{gd}$  ratio):

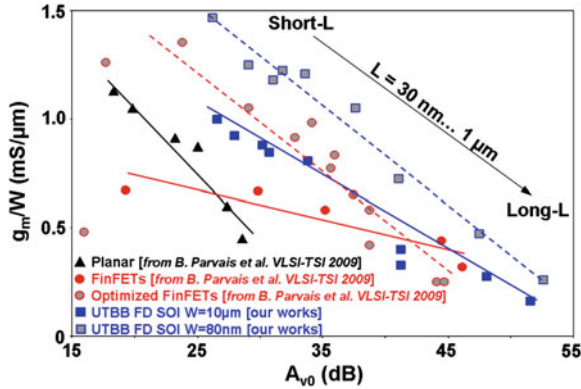
$$f_T \approx \frac{g_m}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot C_{gs}} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{C_{gd}}{C_{gs}}\right) + (R_s + R_d) \cdot \left(\frac{C_{gd}}{C_{gs}} \cdot (g_m + g_d) + g_d\right)} \quad (4a)$$



**Table 1** Main analog FoM for different devices

	$g_m$ max, ( $\mu\text{S}/\mu\text{m}$ )	$I_d/(W/L) \ g_m/I_d =$ $10 \text{ V}^{-1}$ ( $\mu\text{A}$ )	$I_d/(W/L) \ g_m/I_d =$ $5 \text{ V}^{-1}$ ( $\mu\text{A}$ )	$V_{EA} \ V_g \sim V_{Th}$ (V)	$V_{EA} \ V_g \sim 1 \text{ V}$ (V)	$A_{v0\_max}$ (dB)
<b>L = 30 nm</b>						
FinFET	1,050	1.2	5.1	1.2	5.1	33.5
strained FinFET	1,410	1.3	6.4	1.5	6	34
UTBB FD SOI W = 10 $\mu\text{m}$	1,015	1.74	5.4	3.4	11	36
UTBB FD SOI W = 80 nm	1,510	2.3	7.2	5.5	10	38
strained UTBB FD SOI W = 10 $\mu\text{m}$	1,375		8			
<b>L = 100 nm</b>						
FinFET	700	3.1	10.8	4	12	40
strained FinFET	1,050	4.7	16.6	5	18	43
UTBB FD SOI W = 10 $\mu\text{m}$	810	4	13	8	20	46
UTBB FD SOI W = 80 nm	1,220	6	20	15	20	51
strained UTBB FD SOI W = 10 $\mu\text{m}$	985	5.6	17	5.5	16	40.5

$V_d = 1 \text{ V}$ .  $V_{sub} = 0 \text{ V}$



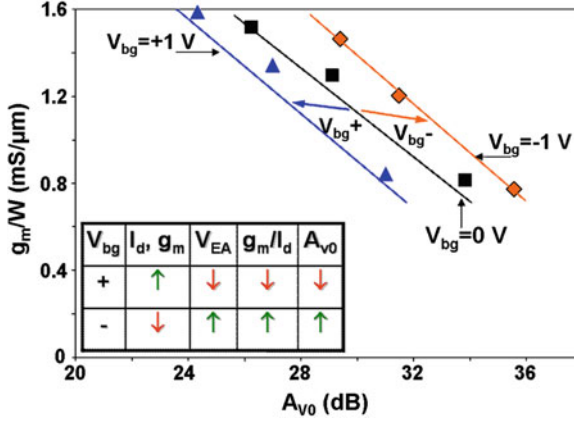
**Fig. 3**  $g_m/W$  as a function of  $A_{vo}$  for different devices and processes.  $V_d$  is in saturation (1 V in our works and 1.1 V in [19]).  $V_g = V_{Th} + 0.6$  V,  $V_{bg} = 0$  V.  $L = 30$  nm–1  $\mu$ m for UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs.  $L = 45$  nm–1  $\mu$ m for FinFETs. Lines are intended to guide eyes

advanced architecture as FinFET. This becomes more visible in  $g_m/W$  versus  $A_{vo}$  metric plotted in Fig. 3 for various device architectures with different gate lengths. It reveals that UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs clearly outperform planar MOSFETs and non-optimized FinFETs. UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs are also very close and can even outperform optimized FinFETs particularly if narrow channel devices (offered simultaneously higher  $g_m/W$  and higher  $A_{vo}$ ) are used.

It would be important to point out that UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs maintain their excellent performance in a wide temperature range, with very limited degradation of main parameters [6]. For instance, only 5 dB reduction of  $A_{vo}$  was observed over 200 °C. This makes UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs particularly attractive for high-precision analog circuits. Furthermore,  $A_{vo}$  was demonstrated [6] to be maximized in the moderate inversion regime (at  $\sim V_{Th}$ ), which is beneficial for low-power applications.

## 4.2 Effect of GP and Back Gate Bias

A unique feature of UTBB FD SOI architecture is related to the possibility of back-gate biasing. In order to implement this back-gate biasing scheme, a highly-doped region, or ground plane, should be formed just below the BOX. Realization of GP region requires heavy implantation through the Si film and hence one can think about possible  $\mu$  degradation. Next to that, GP suppresses substrate depletion, which means that there is no “BOX thickening” (provided by substrate depletion region) and hence body factor might be higher comparing to the no-GP case. Therefore, the question is “how these two facts affect Analog FoM?” Answering this question, [3, 8] demonstrate that  $g_{m\_max}$  and  $I_d$  values stay almost unaffected. In the same time [8] reveals the sensitivity of the intrinsic gain to GP realization and hence a special



**Fig. 4**  $g_m/W$  as a function of  $A_{v0}$  for different  $V_{bg}$ .  $V_d = 1$  V.  $V_g = V_{Th} + 0.6$  V.  $L = 30\text{--}100$  nm. Lines are intended to guide eyes. Inset-table summarizes effect of back-gate bias polarity on main analog FoM

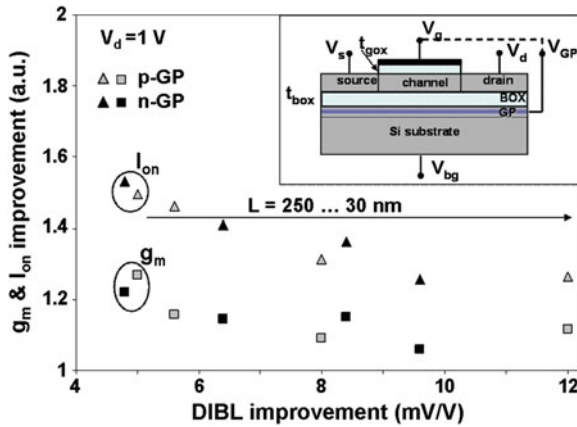
care has to be taken in order to assure high doping level just under the BOX. If the GP implantation is not well adjusted some reduction of intrinsic gain may appear (due to *DIBL* and related  $V_{EA}$  degradation) [8].

Effect of back-gate biasing on electrostatic and digital figures have been widely studied [3–5]. In this section we discuss how back-gate bias application affects analog FoM. From one side, negative back-gate bias results in  $V_{Th}$  increase and hence on-current  $I_{on}$  reduction, but in the same time it provides  $S$  and *DIBL* decrease (i.e. improvement). From another side, application of positive  $V_{bg}$  pushes channel centroid [5] to the bottom Si/BOX interface and hence higher  $g_m$  and  $I_{on}$  (due to higher  $\mu$  values [20]) might be expected. These two trends give a clear trade-off for analog FoM. [6] demonstrates that 5–10 % enhancement of  $I_d$  and  $g_m$  may be achieved by application of positive  $V_{bg}$  and that 5–10 dB higher  $A_{v0}$  is reached in the case of negative  $V_{bg}$ . Thus, trends in  $I_d$  and  $A_{v0}$  dependence on the back-gate bias are opposite and hence the choice of “positive” or “negative” bias application for performance boosting finally depends on the target application (either high  $I_d$  or  $A_{v0}$ ) (Fig. 4).

Another way to boost the device performance available in UTBB devices with GP is realization of so-called asymmetric double-gate (ADG) regime, i.e. gate to GP connection  $V_g = V_{bg}$  (inset in Fig. 5), similar to DTMOS regime in PDSOI devices. [2, 8] reveals that such regime does not only allow improved SCE control, but also  $\sim 20$  % performance enhancement in terms of  $I_d$  and  $g_m$  (Fig. 5). This evidently results into improved  $g_m$  versus  $A_{v0}$  metric; more details can be found in [8].

Even further performance boost can be expected in the case of so-called quasi-double gate (QDG) realization, i.e. simultaneous sweep of top and back gates with a certain coefficient  $k$  ( $k > 1$ )  $V_g = k \cdot V_{bg}$  [12, 14]. Possibility of  $V_{Th}$  modulation together with improved SCE control accompanied by improved  $I_{on}$  and constant  $I_{off}$  achieved in QDG mode can be exploited for digital applications. Higher  $g_m$  and





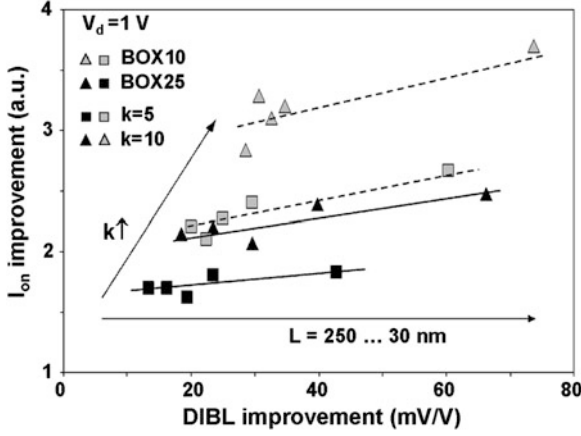
**Fig. 5**  $g_m$  and  $I_{on}$  improvement in ADG mode comparing to a standard single-gate (SG) mode (calculated as  $g_{m\_ADG}/g_{m\_SG}$  and  $I_{on\_ADG}/I_{on\_SG}$ ) as a function of DIBL improvement in ADG mode ( $=DIBL_{SG} - DIBL_{ADG}$ ). Insert schematically shows ADG regime.  $g_m$  is taken at  $V_g = V_{Th} + 0.6$  V and  $V_d = 1$  V.  $I_{on}$  is taken at  $V_g = V_d = 1$  V.  $L = 30$ – $250$  nm. BOX thickness,  $T_{BOX} = 10$  nm

$I_d$  combined with a lower DIBL (and hence higher  $A_{v0}$ ) (Fig. 6) can potentially be exploited for analog applications. Thinner BOX evidently appears more promising for QDG realization [14], allowing lower  $k$  values for the same performance boost level (Fig. 6). More details on advantages of QDG mode and its exploitation for boosting the sleep transistor performances in the practical use case of a power-gated processor can be found in [13, 14].

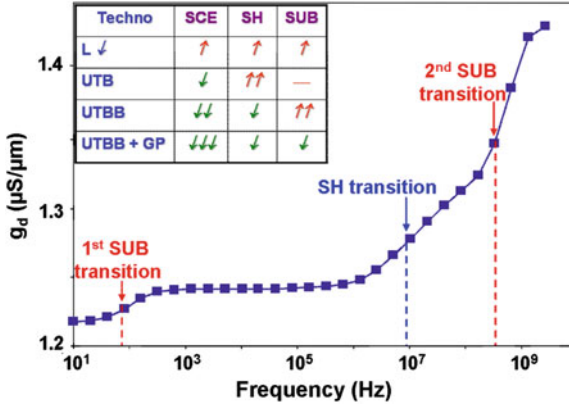
## 5 Wide Frequency Band Assessment

This section points out an importance of the wide-frequency band assessment. Indeed, above-discussion was built on DC results but cited figures of merit vary over frequency. Figure 7 quasi-schematically shows simulated  $g_d$  variation as a function of frequency in FD SOI MOSFET. Increase of output conductance with frequency results in turn into decrease/degradation of intrinsic gain. This graph points out that solely DC and/or RF based extractions are not sufficient to reproduce and predict device behavior at different frequencies. Usual DC-based extractions give overestimated performance, whereas purely RF-based one, done in GHz range, underestimates device performance in MHz region. Only wide frequency band measurements allow a complete picture and thus fair analysis and comparison of different devices.

Different effects contribute to  $g_d$  variation with frequency.



**Fig. 6**  $I_{on}$  improvement in ADG mode comparing to a SG mode (calculated as  $I_{on\_QDG}/I_{on\_SG}$ ) as a function of DIBL improvement in ADG mode ( $=DIBL_{SG} - DIBL_{QDG}$ ). BOX thicknesses of 10 and 25 nm are considered.  $I_{on}$  is taken at  $V_g \cong V_{Th}$ .  $V_d = 1$  V.  $L = 30$ –250 nm



**Fig. 7** Simulated  $g_d$  variation with frequency in FD SOI nMOSFET. Dashed lines schematically indicate transitions related to self-heating (SH) and substrate (SUB) effects. Inset-table summarizes evolution of these effects with technology advances

$$g_d(f) = g_{d\_in} + \Delta g_{d\_FB}(f) + \Delta g_{d\_SH}(f) + \Delta g_{d\_SUB}(f) \quad (5)$$

The frequency independent intrinsic term  $g_{d\_in}$  is related to channel length modulation and DIBL. The second term,  $\Delta g_{d\_FB}$  related to the floating body effect can be for the first order neglected in thin-film FD SOI MOSFETs under standard operation conditions. Two main reasons for  $g_d$  variation with frequency in advanced FD SOI devices are related to self-heating,  $\Delta g_{d\_SH}$  and source-to-drain coupling through the substrate,  $\Delta g_{d\_SUB}$ . Self-heating effect and its increased

importance in SOI-based devices are widely known [21, 22]. Less known, substrate-related frequency dependent effect [23, 24] appears as a result of a substrate capacitance,  $C_{sub}$  variation with frequency resulting in the variation of the potential at the SUB-BOX interface, which then through  $g_m$  is translated into  $g_d$  variation [23]:

$$\Delta g_{d\_SUB} = (n - 1) \cdot g_m \cdot \frac{v_{BGS}}{v_{DS}}, \quad (6a)$$

$$v_{BGS} \cong \frac{C_{BGD}}{C_{BGD} + C_{SBG} + C_{GBG} + C_{sub}} \cdot v_{DS} \quad (6b)$$

Frequency dependence of  $C_{sub}$  can be represented in a first order by two RC networks related to majority and minority carriers response [23, 24]. With frequency increase, first minority (in tens-hundreds Hz range) and then majority carriers (in a 100 MHz range) become unable to follow AC excitation so that  $C_{sub}$  decreases. Thus, two substrate-related transitions appear in  $g_d$  versus frequency curve.

Inset-Table in Fig. 7 schematically summarizes how the main effects which degrade output conductance evolve with technology advances.

Technology progress is mostly motivated by the need of SCE control and thus, first UTB, then UTBB and finally UTBB with GP were introduced.

Considering SH behavior with device downsizing and related technology advances, one can expect that

1. With *channel length reduction* phonon boundary scattering increases, thermal capacitance decreases, density of the current passing through the device increases and moreover SOI-like structures, known to suffer from enhanced self-heating start to be widely employed. All these facts contribute to the self-heating enhancement.
2. With *thinning of the Si film* (i.e. UTB devices) interface proximity enhances interface scattering resulting in thermal conductivity reduction [25] and hence thermal resistance  $R_{th}$  increase confirmed by simulations (see e.g. [26, 27]). Thus, self-heating is expected to increase with Si film thinning.
3. With *BOX thinning* one expects reduction of self-heating due to thinner thermal barrier and therefore easier heat exhaust from the channel. This assumption was also confirmed by simulations [26, 27].
4. Finally, GP introduction is not expected, in a first order, to modify SH.

Considering evolution of substrate-related effect with device downsizing and related technology advances, one can expect that

1. With *channel length shortening* source and drain become closer to each other thus naturally enhancing coupling through the substrate. Therefore, substrate-related degradation is expected to increase [28, 29].
2. There is almost no effect of *Si film thinning* on the substrate-related effect in a first order.

3. With *BOX thinning* electric field lines penetrate stronger in the substrate. Thus, coupling through the substrate is naturally expected to be enhanced. 2D simulations performed in [28, 29], indeed, confirm this hypothesis.
4. Finally, as GP acts as screen layer preventing substrate depletion and electric lines penetration, thus, coupling through the substrate and related  $g_d$  variation with frequency are expected to strongly reduced.

Figure 8 gives an example of experimental  $g_d$  variation with frequency in 30 nm long UTBB FD SOI device without GP under different bias conditions.

Firstly, one can see that both SH- and substrate-related transitions clearly appear in  $g_d$  frequency response. Secondly, it would be important to point out that  $g_d$  variation over the frequency range is very strong: low-frequency values are about three times lower than those at high frequency. Thirdly, such curves allow extracting temperature rise in the device [22]:

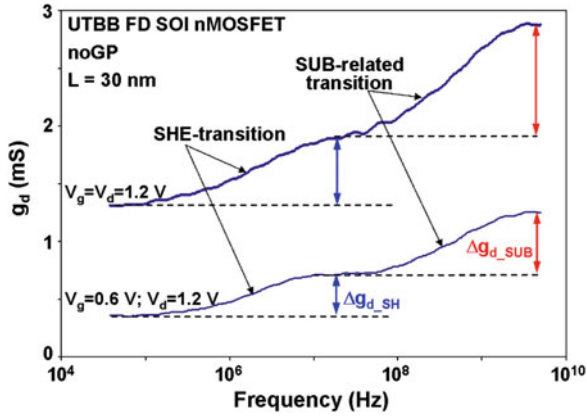
$$\Delta T = R_{th} \cdot I_d \cdot V_d, \text{ where } R_{th} = \frac{\Delta g_{d\_SH}}{(I_d + g_{LF} \cdot V_d) \cdot dI_d/dT_a} \quad (7)$$

Makovejev et al. [7] reveals that despite the use of ultra-thin BOX, device temperature in UTBB MOSFETs can reach about 100 °C at high  $V_g$  and  $V_d$ . The temperature rise results in 5–7 %  $I_d$  degradation [11]. However, the main problem caused by SH in advanced UTBB devices is  $g_d$  degradation which is an important issue for analog applications. Finally, it is important to emphasize that in UTBB devices without GP, substrate-related degradation exceeds SH-related one. This gives an additional motivation for GP introduction.

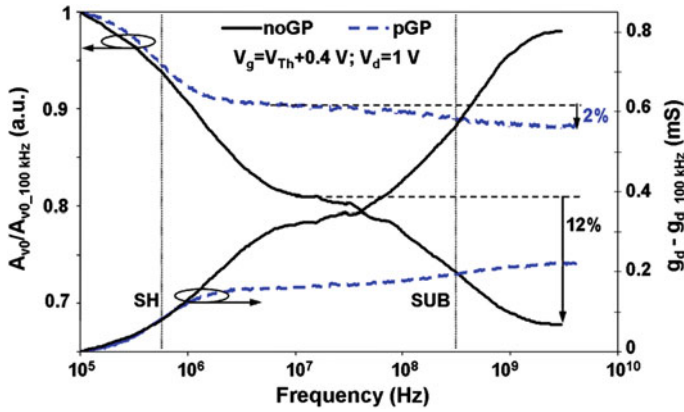
Makovejev et al. [10], indeed, demonstrates that p-GP implementation allows efficient reduction of substrate-related  $g_d$  transition (Fig. 9) thanks to suppression of source-to-drain coupling through the substrate. This in turn results in significantly smaller  $A_{v0}$  reduction at high frequencies (Fig. 9) [10].

Nowadays UTBB FD SOI devices employ BOX with thickness of either 25 or 10 nm. Makovejev et al. [11] compares them in terms of SH and its effect on the Analog FoM degradation. It reveals that while temperature rise is indeed stronger in devices with 25 nm-thick BOX (see inset table in Fig. 10), there is almost no difference in  $g_d$  and  $I_d$  degradation caused by device heating in 10 and 25 nm-thick BOX devices at fixed bias conditions (Fig. 10) [11]. This suggests that thicker BOX might be used to reduce e.g. coupling through the substrate, without having much impact on the  $I_d$  and  $g_d$  degradation caused by thermal effects.

Finally, comparing  $A_{v0}$  reduction at high frequencies in FinFETs and UTBB MOSFETs with GP (Fig. 11), one can conclude that  $A_{v0}$  reduction level is very similar ( $\sim 12$ – $15$  %) for these two main approaches for deeply downscaled MOSFET realization. While both SH and substrate-related effects are present in both types of devices, SH appears as a main source of  $A_{v0}$  variation ( $\sim 10$  %). Therefore, further developments should be focused on the optimization of device configuration/materials to ease the heat evacuation.



**Fig. 8** The experimental  $g_d$  frequency response at  $V_g = 0.6$  and  $1.2$  V,  $V_d = 1.2$  V in the UTBB FD SOI MOSFET without GP.  $L = 30$  nm.  $W_{tot} = W \times N_f = 0.25 \times 80$   $\mu\text{m}$ .  $T_{BOX} = 10$  nm

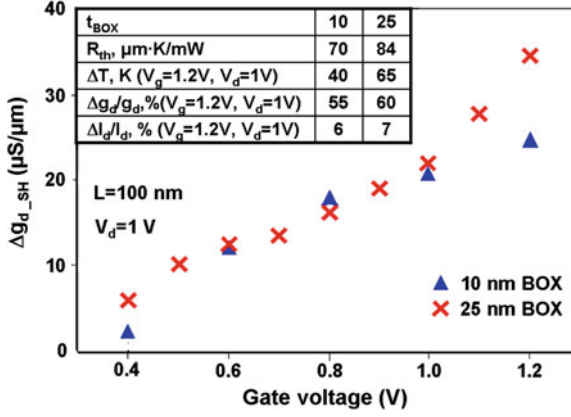


**Fig. 9**  $g_d$  and  $A_{v0}$  variations with frequency with respect to their values at 100 kHz at  $V_g = V_{Th} + 0.4$  V,  $V_d = 1$  V in the devices with (dashed lines) and without GP (solid lines).  $L = 100$  nm.  $W_{tot} = W \times N_f = 1 \times 30$   $\mu\text{m}$ .  $T_{BOX} = 10$  nm

## 6 UTBB FD SOI MOSFETS RF FOM

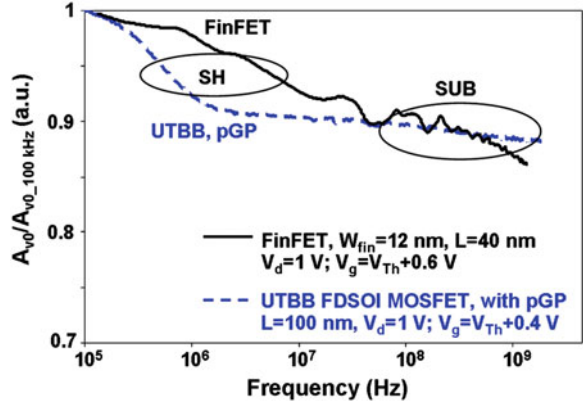
### 6.1 Length and Width Dependence

This section discusses the evolution of UTBB FD SOI MOSFET RF FoM with  $L$  and  $W$  shrinking down. Thanks to the outstanding SCE control in UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs  $g_m/g_d$  and  $C_{gs}/C_{gd}$  ratios (see Eq. 4a, 4b for their effect on  $f_T, f_{max}$ ) stay higher than in other technologies [9] thus allowing relatively high  $f_T, f_{max}$  (particularly for the process/devices which were not optimized for RF applications) (Fig. 12).

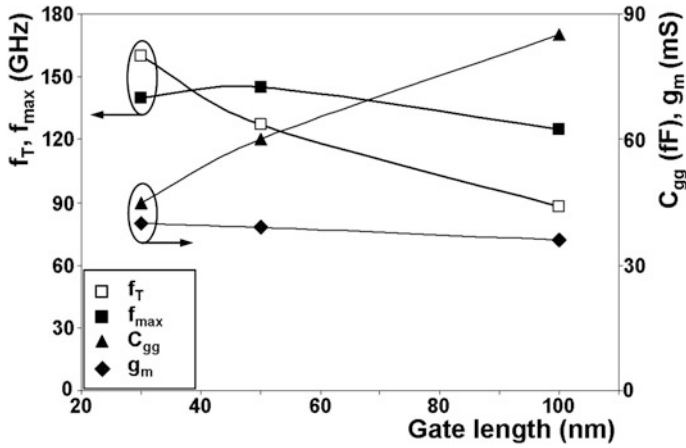


**Fig. 10** Amplitude of SH-related  $g_d$  transition as a function of  $V_g$  for UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs with BOX thickness of 10 nm (triangles) and 25 nm (crosses).  $L = 100$  nm. Inset table gives respective thermal resistance, temperature rise and SH-related analog FoM degradation taken at  $V_g = 1.2$  V,  $V_d = 1$  V

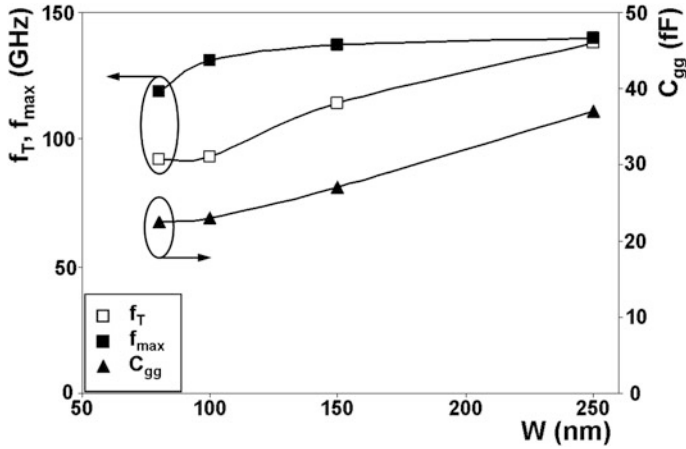
**Fig. 11** Variation of the intrinsic gain with frequency with respect to its value at 100 kHz in FinFET (solid line) and UTBB FD SOI MOSFET (dashed line) with pGP



As was discussed above, ‘intrinsic’ cut-off frequencies are expected to increase with  $L$  scaling down and be independent of  $W$  provided that effect of parasitic elements is not strong. [9] studies  $L$  and  $W$  dependences of cut-off frequencies and different parasitic elements. It reveals that while  $f_T$  increases with length shrinking (Fig. 12), this increase is smaller than one could expect from Eq. 1. Analysis of  $C_{gg}$  and  $g_m$  dependence on  $L$  allows for concluding that  $f_T$  dependence is dominated by  $C_{gg}$  reduction (which is nevertheless lower than expected), while  $g_m$  stays almost constant. Another interesting observation to be pointed out is that, contrarily to general expectations and results for previous technology generations, in advanced devices  $f_T$  may become higher than  $f_{max}$  as a result of strong  $R_g$  effect.



**Fig. 12**  $f_T$ ,  $f_{max}$ ,  $C_{gg}$  and  $g_m$  as a function of gate length in UTBB FD SOI nMOSFET without GP.  $T_{BOX} = 10$  nm.  $W_{tot} = W \times N_f = 0.5 \times 80 \mu\text{m}$ .  $C_{gg}$  is the total gate capacitance ( $C_{gg} = C_{gs} + C_{gd}$ )



**Fig. 13**  $f_T$ ,  $f_{max}$  and  $C_{gg}$  as a function of gate width in UTBB FD SOI nMOSFET without GP.  $L = 30$  nm.  $T_{BOX} = 10$  nm.  $N_f = 120$

Furthermore, [9] demonstrates that expected  $W$  independence of  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  is not maintained in UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs. Indeed, both  $f_T$  and  $f_{max}$  degrade with  $W$  reduction. It is important noting that this trend is opposite to the one obtained from DC measurements (see e.g. Figs. 3 and 13) thus indicating the role of parasitic elements which degrade RF performance. Effect of parasitic elements is indeed confirmed by the equivalent circuit extraction performed in [9, 15].  $W$  reduction was

demonstrated to result in sub-linear  $C_{gg}$  decrease (whereas  $g_m$  scales down almost linearly) suggesting strong fringing field effect at the perimeter.

Next section details effect of parasitic elements and distinguishes between ‘extrinsic’ and ‘intrinsic’ values.

## 6.2 Harmful Effect of Parasitic Elements on FoM

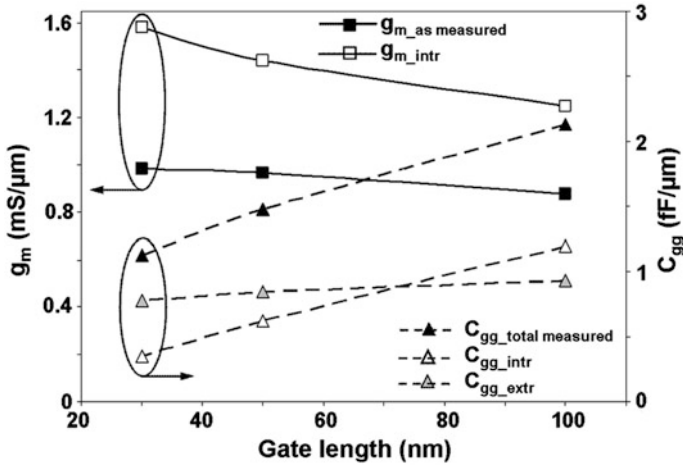
Md Arshad et al. [15] decomposes total (or as measured)  $C_{gg}$  in ‘intrinsic’  $C_{gg\_intr}$  (i.e. related to ‘useful’ device) and ‘extrinsic’  $C_{gg\_extr}$  (i.e. related to parasitics) parts (Fig. 14),  $C_{gg} = C_{gg\_intr} + C_{gg\_extr}$ . It is interesting to note that ‘extrinsic’ part is smaller than ‘intrinsic’ one in 100 nm-long devices, but it dominates in the case of 50 and 30 nm long ones. In fact,  $C_{gg\_extr}$  stays almost constant independently of the device length. As a result total measured  $C_{gg}$  does not scale proportionally to  $L$ .

Next to that, [15] clarifies effect of  $R_{sd}$  on  $g_m$  extracting both ‘as measured’ and ‘intrinsic’/ideally achievable (i.e. free from  $R_{sd}$ )  $g_m$  values. With  $L$  reduction impact of  $R_{sd}$  increases and while intrinsic  $g_m$  continues to grow, ‘as measured’ one stays almost invariable (Fig. 14).

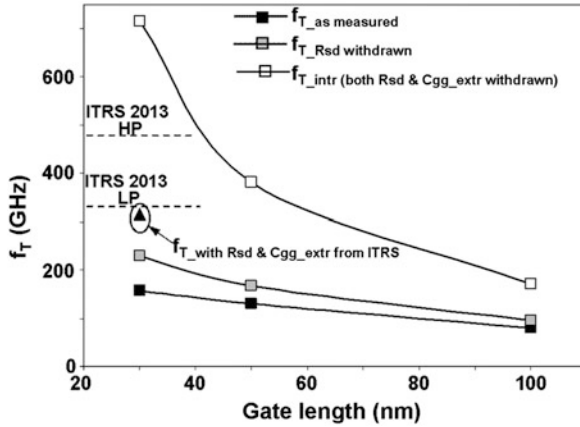
Finally both these above-described effects affect cut-off frequency. [15] distinguishes ‘as measured’  $f_T$  and ‘intrinsic’ one when first  $R_{sd}$  and then both  $C_{gg\_extr}$  and  $R_{sd}$  effects are withdrawn. ‘As measured’  $f_T$  is seen to be strongly degraded comparing to the intrinsically achievable one, particularly in the shortest device (Fig. 15). One can see that while ‘intrinsic’  $f_T$  (with  $R_{sd}$  and  $C_{gg\_extr}$  withdrawn) continues to grow strongly with  $L$  reduction, ‘as measured’  $f_T$  slows down. It is worth to point out again that the process was not optimized for RF applications and specific approaches used for reduction of extrinsic  $C_{gg}$  and  $R_{sd}$  lowering were not employed. From another side ‘intrinsic’  $f_T$  with  $R_{sd}$  and  $C_{gg\_extr}$  withdrawn is evidently over-estimated comparing to the really achievable one as parasitic elements are unavoidably present in real devices. Therefore, [15] goes further and calculates  $f_T$  which one could achieve in the case  $R_{sd}$  and  $C_{gg\_extr}$  requirements imposed by ITRS are respected. It demonstrates that in this case  $f_T$  values of 310 GHz are achievable in 30 nm-long device, i.e. as high as requested by ITRS for LP applications.

Therefore, future work should be focused on the optimization (i.e. minimization) of the parasitics. There are indeed some works devoted to the optimization of parasitic elements. For example, “faceted Source/Drain” was demonstrated to be of interest for the fringing capacitance reduction [30, 31]. Thicker and/or low- $k$  capping layer, thicker gate, etc. are also discussed as a potential solution for  $C_{gg\_extr}$  reduction [32, 33]. Different silicides, both conventional ones (as NiSi, CoSi, etc.) and emerging ones (e.g. platinum, erbium or ytterbium) are studied as potential materials allowing for  $R_{sd}$  reduction [34–36]. Furthermore, different possibilities of performance improvement by geometry and overlap/underlap optimization are considered [37, 38]. However, this is a subject of separate discussion which is out of scope of this chapter. More detailed information can be found e.g. in [15].





**Fig. 14** Measured and intrinsic  $g_m$  ( $g_{m\_as\ measured}$  and  $g_{m\_intr}$ ) (squares) as well as total measured, extrinsic and intrinsic  $C_{gg}$  ( $C_{gg\_total\ measured}$ ,  $C_{gg\_intr}$ ,  $C_{gg\_extr}$ , respectively) (triangles) as a function of gate length for UTBB FD SOI nMOSFET, without GP.  $T_{BOX} = 10\text{ nm}$ .  $W_{tot} = W \times N_f = 0.5 \times 80\text{ }\mu\text{m}$



**Fig. 15** Measured  $f_T$ ,  $f_T$  with  $R_{sd}$  withdrawn and intrinsic  $f_T$  with both  $R_{sd}$  and  $C_{gg\_extr}$  withdrawn as a function of gate length for UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs without GP. Triangle gives  $f_T$  estimation in the case of  $R_{sd}$  and  $C_{gg\_extr}$  values from ITRS.  $T_{BOX} = 10\text{ nm}$ . ITRS requirements based on 27 nm technology node FD-SOI targeted high performance (HP,  $L = 22\text{ nm}$ ) and low power (LP,  $L = 24\text{ nm}$ ) applications are indicated by dashed lines

## 7 Conclusions

There are two main conclusions which one should keep from this chapter:

1. First conclusion concerns *UTBB FD SOI MOSFET performance*. This device architecture features promising performance for analog/RF applications, which is comparable or even outperform other technologies, particularly in the cases when combination of high frequency with LOP/LSTP feature is needed. Furthermore, UTBB FD SOI MOSFETs possess potential for further performance improvement through the optimization of parasitics. This suggests UTBB FD SOI as a good contender for mobile/wireless applications with LOP/LSTP options.
2. Second conclusion concerns *importance of wide frequency band characterization*. We have shown that performance prediction based on DC data exclusively may be inaccurate and device benchmarking may appear even misleading. Next to that, impact of parasitics on device performance enormously increases with  $L$  downscaling and hence separation of “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” elements and related performances becomes mandatory in nowadays advanced devices. These two points call for the wide frequency band analysis for a fair FoM assessment. Therefore, adequate structures with RF access pads should be included in the layout from the very beginning of the technology development.

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