Impact of Effective Mass on the Scaling Behavior of the f_T and f_{max} of III–V High-Electron-Mobility Transistors

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Abstract—Among the contenders for applications at terahertz frequencies are III-V high-electron-mobility transistors (HEMTs). In this paper, we report on a tendency for III-V devices with low effective-mass channel materials to exhibit a saturation in their unity-current-gain and unity-power-gain cutoff frequencies (f_T) and $f_{\rm max}$) with a downscaling of gate length. We focus on InGaAs and GaN HEMTs and examine gate lengths from 50 nm down to 10 nm. A self-consistent, quantum-mechanical solver based on the method of nonequilibrium Green's functions is used to quasistatically extract the f_T for intrinsic III–V devices. This model is then combined with the series resistances of the heterostructure stack and the parasitic resistances and capacitances of the metal contacts to develop a complete extrinsic model, and to extract the extrinsic f_T and \bar{f}_{\max} . It is shown that the f_T and f_{\max} of III–V devices will saturate, i.e., attain a maximum value that ceases to increase as the gate length is scaled down, and that the saturation is caused by the low effective mass of III-V materials. It is also shown that the InGaAs HEMTs have faster f_T at long gate lengths, but as a consequence of their lower effective mass, they experience a more rapid f_T saturation than the GaN HEMTs, such that the two devices have a comparable f_T at very short gate lengths (~10 nm). On the other hand, due to favorable parasitics, it is shown that the InGaAs HEMTs have a higher f_{max} at all the gate lengths considered in this paper.

Index Terms—Barrier collapse, drain-induced barrier lowering (DIBL), equivalent circuit, GaN, high-electron-mobility transistor (HEMT), InGaAs, nonequilibrium Green's functions (NEGF), parasitic capacitance, parasitic resistance, subband.

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I. INTRODUCTION

H IGH-ELECTRON-MOBILITY transistors (HEMTs) fabricated with III–V materials are among the leading candidates for terahertz radio-frequency (RF) applications [1]. Of principle interest in assessing the ultimate potential of these devices is the behavior of their unity-current-gain and unity-power-gain cutoff frequencies (f_T and f_{max}) as the device gate length is scaled down. To date, the scaling behavior has not been extensively studied or explained, with conflicting data and comments on the expected behavior of f_T and f_{max} with scaling, and on the relative performance of the different types of HEMTs.

Regarding the gate-length scaling, in a recent review of RF transistors for terahertz applications, and based on experimental data reported in the literature, Schwierz and Liou [1, Fig. 10] observed a tendency for the f_T of III–V HEMTs to saturate at very short gate lengths, i.e., to show no further increase with decreasing gate length once the gate length is sufficiently small; they also commented on the importance of considering the impact of a low density of states near the bottom of the conduction band in assessing the potential of III-V transistors, as originally discussed in [2] and [3] and as recently discussed in [4] and [5], but they did not connect the low density of states to the gatelength scaling behavior. On the other hand, in contrast to the observation of Schwierz and Liou, the simulations of Ayubi-Moak et al. [6] and Akis et al. [7] displayed no saturation in f_T versus gate length; their work was based on a semiclassical Monte Carlo approach that included electron scattering and that scaled InGaAs HEMTs down to 10 nm.

Regarding the relative performance of different III–V HEMTs, according to the 2009 International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors (ITRS) [8], InGaAs and GaN devices are among the most important for RF and analog/mixedsignal technology. The InGaAs HEMTs have very high f_T and f_{max} [1], [9]–[11], an outcome of the very high electron mobility in the channel [1], [9], [10]. The GaN HEMTs have emerged as interesting candidates, because they offer not only high f_T and f_{max} [12]–[14] but also the ability to operate at high voltages and high powers, owing to the large bandgap and breakdown field in nitride-based materials [15], [16]. However, it is not clear how these HEMTs will perform in comparison with each other as the gate length is scaled down. Some researchers are confident that the InGaAs HEMTs are faster [1], [9], [10], [14] whereas the 2009 ITRS requires the GaN HEMTs to be as fast [8].

In this paper, we examine the gate-length scaling behavior of the f_T and f_{max} of III–V HEMTs, with the primary aim of clarifying the connection between the effective mass (and hence density of states) of the channel material and the scaling behavior. We focus on InGaAs and GaN HEMTs, and we use a fully quantum-mechanical approach based on the method of nonequilibrium Green's functions (NEGF). The primary outcome of our study is a demonstration that devices constructed using low effective-mass channel materials can indeed be expected to experience a saturation in their f_T and f_{max} with gate-length scaling, as observed by Schwierz and Liou [1, Fig. 10], along with a careful explanation of why the saturation occurs. Hence, we show that there is an inherent tradeoff in III-V devices: a low effective mass yields high electron velocity and mobility, but also leads to diminishing speed improvements with scaling at small gate lengths.

To date, the simulation work carried out for predicting the f_T and f_{max} in III–V HEMTs has utilized a semiclassical framework [6], [7], [14]. While semiclassical approaches are amenable to the inclusion of electron scattering, they require the use of an effective potential profile to model the quantum well defining the channel [17], [18]. However, as will be shown in this paper, a proper prediction of the scaling behavior requires a precise modeling of the quantum well and the associated subbands, which can only be accomplished by a fully quantum-mechanical approach; electron scattering is less important at short gate lengths (< 50 nm), as shown in [19] by the good agreement between ballistic simulations and experiment, such that a ballistic quantum-mechanical approach is sufficient for a first-order study.

This paper is organized as follows. Section II briefly explains the NEGF simulation approach and then presents results for the intrinsic f_T of III–V HEMTs. The bias dependence of the intrinsic f_T at various gate lengths is first examined, and these results are then used to help explain the gate-length scaling behavior of the peak f_T by investigating the scaling behavior of the corresponding transconductance g_m and the gate capacitance $C_{\rm gg}$, where $f_T = g_m / (2\pi C_{\rm gg})$. Short gate lengths of 10, 20, 30, and 50 nm are considered and the insulator thickness is fixed at 3 nm. The insulator is not scaled with the gate length since it was observed in [19] that scaling the insulator from 3.8 to 3 nm has a negligible effect on device performance. Section III then discusses the construction of a complete device model by way of an equivalent circuit that adds external parasitics to the intrinsic model; the parasitics include the series resistances arising from the heterostructure stack and metal contacts, and the external pad capacitances, which are computed from COMSOL [20] using an open-device model. The complete circuit is used to extract the extrinsic f_T and f_{max} and to examine their behavior versus gate-length scaling. Section IV summarizes the conclusions.

II. INTRINSIC f_T

A. Simulation Approach

To extract the intrinsic f_T of III–V HEMTs, we employ a 2-D NEGF-Poisson solver and use the same simulation structure as in [19], shown in Fig. 1. The HEMT has a channel-layer

Fig. 1. III–V HEMT structure used in this paper.

thickness of 15 nm along the z-direction, and the upper and lower insulators (wide-bandgap layers) have thicknesses of 3 and 500 nm, respectively. As in [9], [12], [13], [19], and [21], InAlAs is the insulator for the InGaAs HEMTs, while AlGaN is used for the (wurtzite) GaN HEMT. The channel region is undoped, while the n^+ and n^{++} regions are electrostatically doped by means of a δ -layer having physical doping densities of 2×10^{12} cm⁻² and 1×10^{13} cm⁻², respectively, consistent with [19]. The value for the n^{++} regions is higher than that realized in practice, but it aids in numerical stability and otherwise does not affect the device [19].

The 2-D ballistic quantum transport in the channel, n^+ , n^{++} , and upper insulator regions is described by the NEGF approach within the effective-mass approximation. The width W is assumed to be sufficiently large for the potential to be translationally invariant along the y-direction in Fig. 1. The effectivemass Hamiltonian of the device h(x, z) is discretized in the 2-D (x, z) space, as outlined in [22], and the quantum open boundary conditions for transport at the source and drain terminals are modeled through the self-energies Σ_S and Σ_D , respectively [23]. The retarded Green's function [22] can then be written as $G[E(k_x, k_z)] = [E(k_x, k_z)I - h(x, z) - \Sigma_S - \Sigma_D]^{-1}$, where $E(k_x, k_z) \equiv E - E_{k_y}$ is the in-plane energy, E_{k_y} is the plane-wave energy along the width direction y, and E is the total electron energy. The Green's function $G[E(k_x, k_z)]$ can be used to evaluate the electron density n(x, z) and ballistic current following the usual approach [22]–[25].

The electrostatic potential V(x, z) is obtained by solving the 2-D Poisson equation $\nabla \cdot [\varepsilon_r(x, z)\nabla V(x, z)] = -\rho_V(x, z)/\varepsilon_0$, where ε_0 is the permittivity of free space, $\varepsilon_r(x, z)$ is the relative permittivity, and $\rho_V(x, z) = q [N_D(x, z) - n(x, z)]$ is the volume charge density, with $N_D(x, z)$ being the doping density and q being the magnitude of the electronic charge. Holes are presumed to be negligible in comparison to $N_D(x, z)$ and n(x, z) and are hence ignored. The potential V(x, z) is taken to be the vacuum potential $V(x, z) = -E_{\text{vac}}(x, z)/q$, and the conduction-band edge is defined by $E_C(x, z) = E_{\text{vac}}(x, z) - q\chi_{\text{aff}}$, where χ_{aff} is the electron affinity. Dirichlet boundary conditions are used at the gate, whereas homogeneous Neumann boundary conditions are applied at all other boundary points.

The NEGF-Poisson system was solved self-consistently using well-established methods [22]–[25], and the solution was validated by comparing the current–voltage characteristics of



an InGaAs HEMT having a gate length $L_q = 60$ nm with the

Fig. 2. Intrinsic unity-current-gain frequency f_T versus dc gate voltage V_G of an InGaAs HEMT having the structure shown in Fig. 1. The insulator thickness

is $t_{ins} = 3$ nm and results are shown for three different gate lengths L_g . The dc

B. Results

results of [19].

drain voltage V_D is held at 0.5 V.

Results for the intrinsic f_T are discussed in this section. For the convenience of the reader, where appropriate, we have summarized the key results from the detailed discussions; the reader may find the italicized statements near the ends of Sections II-B1(a), II-B4(e), II-B5, and II-B6 to be particularly useful.

1) Bias Dependence of Intrinsic f_T : The intrinsic f_T can be obtained from the NEGF-Poisson results using the well-known expression

$$f_T = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{dI_D}{dQ_G} \tag{1}$$

where dI_D and dQ_G are the changes in the current and the magnitude of gate-electrode (or channel) charge, respectively, that result from a small change dV_G in gate voltage while the drain voltage is held fixed and the source is taken as the reference.

Fig. 2 shows the intrinsic f_T as a function of dc gate voltage V_G for an InGaAs HEMT at three different gate lengths equal to 10, 20, and 30 nm, and with the insulator thickness fixed at $t_{ins} = 3$ nm. The drain bias V_D is held constant at 0.5 V, which is a typical bias voltage for HEMTs [26], [27, ch. 3], [28], [29]; HEMTs are required to operate at voltages substantially below 1 V in order to compete with Si CMOS technology [30] and to reduce the active power dissipation of the device [27, ch. 10].

Two important features of the bias dependence of the intrinsic f_T can be discerned from Fig. 2. First, for a fixed gate length L_g , i.e., for a given curve in Fig. 2, the f_T shows a significant variation with V_G , including a well-defined peak. Second, a comparison of the three curves in Fig. 2 reveals that the gate bias V_G at which the f_T peaks depends on the gate length L_g . We will now discuss each of these features in turn, and later refer back to the discussion (in Sections II-B2 and II-B5 below) to help explain the scaling behavior of the *peak* f_T .

a) Variation of f_T with V_G : The variation of f_T with V_G (at a fixed L_q , i.e., for a given curve in Fig. 2) can be understood

by first writing $f_T = g_m/(2\pi C_{gg})$, where $g_m = dI_D/dV_G$ is the transconductance and $C_{gg} = dQ_G/dV_G$ is the total intrinsic gate capacitance. Fig. 3(a) plots g_m and C_{gg} for the $L_g = 30$ nm case from Fig. 2. As shown, after reaching a maximum, both C_{gg} and g_m decrease with increasing V_G , but g_m degrades more rapidly, such that g_m controls the peaking in f_T . The trends in g_m and C_{gg} can be explained by analyzing the effect of gate voltage on the conduction-band edge in the channel, as depicted in Fig. 3(b) for the $L_g = 30$ nm case.

Fig. 3(b) shows the simulated conduction-band profile in the channel at different gate-bias voltages; here and elsewhere, the term "conduction-band profile in the channel" refers to $E_C(x, z_{\rm ch})$ versus x, where $z_{\rm ch}$ is a depth just below the insulator-channel interface, near the tip of the quantum well defining the channel, as marked in Fig. 1 [and Figs. 10(a) and 12 further below]. Initially, changes in the gate bias V_G are effective in pushing down the barrier at the n^+ -channel junction, and correspondingly, incremental changes dV_G in gate voltage are effective in introducing more electrons into the channel. However, once the gate bias has pushed the conduction-band edge to the point of "barrier collapse," i.e., to the point where the band edge in the channel reaches the same level as that in the n^+ region near the source, as shown by the dashed curve $(V_G = 0.53 \text{ V})$ in Fig. 3(b), an incremental change in gate voltage dV_G can only weakly modulate the $n^{++} - n^+$ junction [19]; the incremental change dV_G thus loses the ability to introduce new electrons into the channel. The resulting increments in channel charge dQ_G and channel current dI_D arising from dV_G are hence diminished, leading to values of $g_m = dI_D/dV_G$ and $C_{\rm gg} = dQ_G/dV_G$ that decrease beyond the point of barrier collapse.

Overall, the results in Fig. 3(a) and (b) establish that, for a fixed gate length L_g , peak f_T occurs at the gate bias corresponding to the onset of barrier collapse.

b) Variation in V_G for Peak f_T : The variation in the gate bias V_G at which the f_T peaks (as L_g changes, i.e., between curves in Fig. 2) can be understood to be a result of draininduced barrier lowering (DIBL). As the gate length is scaled down, it is well known that the effect of the drain potential on the barrier gets stronger, acting as an additional source of barrier lowering [26], [27, ch. 10], [31, ch. 6]. Thus, for the same gate bias V_G , the devices with shorter gate lengths will have lower barriers, as shown by the simulation results in Fig. 4. Therefore, the scenario of barrier collapse leading to peak f_T is achieved with smaller gate bias voltages at shorter gate lengths, which explains why the locations of the peaks in Fig. 2 shift to the left as L_q is reduced.

2) Gate-Length Scaling of Intrinsic f_T : To study the scaling behavior, the intrinsic peak f_T is plotted as a function of the gate length in Fig. 5. It is evident that the peak f_T of III–V HEMTs shows a signature saturation as the gate length L_g is scaled down, an outcome that can also be discerned from the experimental results collected by Schwierz and Liou [1, Fig. 10]. The saturation can be explained by analyzing the scaling behavior of the intrinsic g_m and C_{gg} [since $f_T = g_m/(2\pi C_{gg})$], where the relevant values of g_m and C_{gg} are those at the gate bias corresponding to the onset of barrier





Fig. 3. (a) Transconductance g_m and gate capacitance C_{gg} versus gate bias V_G . (b) Conduction-band profile in the channel, i.e., $E_C(x, z_{ch})$ versus x, at different gate-bias voltages for the InGaAs HEMT with $L_g = 30$ nm considered in Fig. 2. Dashed lines are used in part (a) for gate voltages above the value causing barrier collapse.



Fig. 4. Conduction-band profile, i.e., $E_C(x, z_{ch})$ versus x, of the InGaAs HEMTs considered in Fig. 2 at $V_G = 0.3$ V, illustrating the impact of DIBL.

collapse, i.e., those leading to the peak f_T at each L_g , as discussed in the previous section. In what follows, we first establish the capacitive input equivalent circuit seen looking into the gate, and then examine the scaling behavior of g_m and C_{gg} , referring to the circuit as an aid when appropriate; the observations are then used to explain the relative scaling behavior of InGaAs and GaN HEMTs, based on the difference in the effective mass of these materials.

3) Input Equivalent Circuit: Consider first the input equivalent circuit seen from the gate under the conditions of a perturbation in gate voltage dV_G , as sketched in the different parts of Fig. 6, where the top terminal is the gate and the bottom terminal is the shorted source and drain combination, taken here as the reference, since both terminals are at ac ground under the conditions needed for an f_T extraction. In its simplest form, the input circuit is just the total input capacitance $C_{gg} = dQ_G/dV_G$, as shown in Fig. 6(a). However, it is well known that C_{gg} can be modeled as a series combination of insulator capacitance

Fig. 5. Intrinsic peak f_T versus gate length L_g for the III–V HEMTs considered in this paper. The lines have been drawn as guides for the eye.

 C_{ins} and the so-called inversion-layer capacitance¹ C_{inv} [27, ch. 3], [32], with C_{ins} and C_{inv} each being found as an integrated value of a change in charge with respect to potential along the channel:

$$C_{\rm ins} = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{dQ_G(x)}{[dV_G + (1/q) \, dE_C(x, z_{\rm ch})]} dx \qquad (2)$$

and

$$C_{\rm inv} = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \frac{dQ_G(x)}{-(1/q) \, dE_C(x, z_{\rm ch})} dx \tag{3}$$

where $dQ_G(x)$ and $dE_C(x, z_{ch})$ represent the changes (due to dV_G) in gate-electrode charge and conduction-band edge, respectively, at each point x, and L is the total length of the

¹It is worth noting that the term "inversion-layer capacitance" used in the context of HEMTs is equivalent to the term "quantum capacitance" used in the context of emerging transistors [35, ch. 7], [53], [54]. With HEMTs, the term "quantum capacitance" is used in a different way [32].

Fig. 6. Input equivalent circuit of the HEMTs. (a) Overall input circuit, which is just the input capacitance C_{gg} . (b) Separation of C_{gg} into the series combination of insulator and inversion-layer capacitances, C_{ins} and C_{inv} . (c) Further subdivision of C_{inv} into contributions arising from each subband, where C_{invi} is the contribution from the *i*th subband.

device from the source to the drain, as depicted in Fig. 1. A simple representation of $C_{\rm gg}$ is then given by the circuit in Fig. 6(b), where $dE_{C\,\rm top}$ is the change in the conduction-band edge at the *top* of the n^+ -channel barrier [33], located at a point $(x, z) = (x_{\rm top}, z_{\rm ch})$; this circuit applies in a lumped model of a ballistic device even when the conduction-band edge is not flat across the channel [34]. An alternative representation is provided in Fig. 6(c), where $C_{\rm inv}$ is further subdivided into a parallel combination of capacitances arising from the occupied subbands, with $C_{\rm invi}$ representing the inversion-layer capacitance from the *i*th subband, and where the subbands themselves arise due to vertical confinement within the channel (i.e., in the *z*-direction of Fig. 1).

4) Gate-Length Scaling of g_m :

a) Expression for g_m : Consider now the scaling behavior of the transconductance g_m at peak f_T . From its definition, and utilizing the expression for current within the NEGF formalism [22], the intrinsic g_m can be written as

$$g_{m} = \frac{dI_{D}}{dV_{G}} = \frac{d}{dV_{G}} \left(\frac{q}{\hbar^{2}} \sqrt{\frac{m^{*}k_{B}T}{2\pi^{3}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T\left[E(k_{x}, k_{z}) \right] \\ \times \left\{ F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_{S} - E(k_{x}, k_{z}) \right] - F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_{D} - E(k_{x}, k_{z}) \right] \right\} dE(k_{x}, k_{z}) \right\}$$
(4)

where m^* is the electron effective mass, $T[E(k_x, k_z)]$ is the total transmission function at an in-plane energy $E(k_x, k_z), \mu_S$ is the source Fermi level, μ_D is the drain Fermi level, $F_{-(1/2)}$ is the Fermi–Dirac integral of order -1/2,

$$F_{-(1/2)}(\theta) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\eta^{-1/2}}{1 + \exp[\eta - (\theta/k_B T)]} d\eta$$
 (5)

and it is to be understood that the right side of (4) and all subsequent expressions in this discussion should be evaluated at the gate bias corresponding to peak f_T .

For the purpose of examining the scaling behavior, the circuit in Fig. 6(b) can be exploited to substitute $dV_G =$

 $\left[\left(C_{\text{ins}}+C_{\text{inv}}\right)/C_{\text{ins}}\right]\left(-1/q\right)dE_{C\,\text{top}}$ into (4), yielding

$$g_{m} = \frac{C_{\text{ins}}}{C_{\text{ins}} + C_{\text{inv}}} \times \frac{d}{(-1/q)dE_{C \text{top}}} \\ \left(\frac{q}{\hbar^{2}}\sqrt{\frac{m^{*}k_{B}T}{2\pi^{3}}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T\left[E\left(k_{x}, k_{z}\right)\right] \\ \times \left\{F_{-(1/2)}\left[\mu_{S} - E\left(k_{x}, k_{z}\right)\right] \\ -F_{-(1/2)}\left[\mu_{D} - E\left(k_{x}, k_{z}\right)\right]\right\} dE\left(k_{x}, k_{z}\right)\right\}.$$
(6)

Equation (6) then reveals that the scaling behavior of the transconductance depends on the scaling behavior of two quantities. The first is the capacitance ratio $C_{ins}/(C_{ins} + C_{inv})$, which reflects (through voltage division) the ability of a perturbation in gate voltage dV_G to move the conduction-band edge at the top of the barrier by an amount $dE_{C \text{top}}$. The second is the change in the integrated electron current for a given change $dE_{C \text{top}}$, as specified by the remaining factor, i.e., the derivative in (6); the key elements in this derivative are the transmission function $T [E (k_x, k_z)]$, which reflects the likelihood that an electron incident from the source with an in-plane energy $E (k_x, k_z)$ will be able to reach the drain, and the difference in Fermi-Dirac integrals, which reflects the "difference in agenda" [35, ch. 1] between the source and drain contacts at each in-plane energy $E (k_x, k_z)$.

To gain further insight from (6), we note that under ballistic transport, the transmission function can be approximated as a sum of unit-step functions, with the steps occurring at those energies corresponding to the subband edges at the top of the barrier:

$$T\left[E\left(k_{x},k_{z}\right)\right] = \sum_{i} u\left[E\left(k_{x},k_{z}\right) - E_{C \operatorname{top}} - \Delta_{i}\right] \quad (7)$$

where Δ_i is the bottom edge of subband *i* with respect to $E_{C \text{top}}$. The use of (7) in (6) then leads to the following result for g_m :

Fig. 7. Total spectral function $A_S[x, z_{ch}, E(k_x, k_z)] + A_D[x, z_{ch}, E(k_x, k_z)]$ displayed as intensity versus $E(k_x, k_z)$ and x, along with the positions of the Fermi levels μ_S and μ_D , for the InGaAs HEMT with (a) $L_g = 50$ nm and (b) $L_g = 10$ nm, showing that at the shorter gate length, the subband edges at peak f_T are lower in position with respect to the source Fermi level.

$$g_{m} = \frac{q^{2}}{\hbar^{2}} \sqrt{\frac{m^{*}k_{B}T}{2\pi^{3}}} \frac{C_{\text{ins}}}{C_{\text{ins}} + C_{\text{inv}}} \sum_{i} \left\{ F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_{S} - E_{C \text{ top}} - \Delta_{i} \right] - \Delta_{i} \right] - F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_{D} - E_{C \text{ top}} - \Delta_{i} \right] \right\}.$$
(8)

According to (8), the scaling behavior of g_m thus ultimately depends on the scaling behavior of the capacitance ratio $C_{\rm ins}/(C_{\rm ins} + C_{\rm inv})$, which describes the ability of the gate to modulate the top of the barrier, and on the difference in Fermi–Dirac integrals *evaluated at each subband edge* $\varepsilon_i \equiv E_{C \rm top} + \Delta_i$, which describes the "difference in agenda" of the source and drain contacts. As we now discuss, the capacitance ratio and the difference in Fermi–Dirac integrals at peak f_T change only weakly with scaling and in opposition to each other, such that the corresponding g_m remains relatively insensitive to scaling.

b) Position of subband edges: To describe this outcome, it is necessary to follow the relative positions of the subband edges at peak f_T as the gate length is scaled down. While a detailed explanation of the phenomenon will be provided in Section II-B5, for the present discussion, it suffices to note that the edges of the first few subbands at peak f_T will be located further below the source Fermi level as the gate length is scaled down. This result can be discerned from the plots of the spectral functions in Fig. 7. The figure shows the total spectral function in the channel versus in-plane energy and position, i.e., $A_S[x, z_{ch}, E(k_x, k_z)] + A_D[x, z_{ch}, E(k_x, k_z)]$ displayed as an intensity versus $E(k_x, k_z)$ and x, for the two extreme gatelength InGaAs devices, i.e., the 10- and 50-nm devices, at the gate bias corresponding to peak f_T . An inspection of the plots reveals that the subband edges (indicated by the brightly shaded regions) under the gate do indeed move down with respect to μ_S as the gate length is scaled from 50 to 10 nm.

c) Impact on Fermi–Dirac integrals: The impact of a change in the relative positions of the subband edges on the Fermi–Dirac integrals in (8) is shown in Fig. 8(a), where the subband edges at the top of the barrier and at the gate bias corresponding to peak f_T are superimposed on a sketch of the difference $\{F_{-(1/2)} | \mu_S - E(k_x, k_z)] - F_{-(1/2)} | \mu_D - E(k_x, k_z)]\}$. The shift in the positions of the subband swith downscaling causes an enhanced contribution to the difference in the Fermi–Dirac integrals evaluated at each subband edge, i.e., there is a greater difference in agenda between the source and drain contacts at peak f_T for each subband as the gate length is scaled down, and this will tend to increase g_m .

d) Impact on capacitance ratio: By contrast, as the gate length is scaled down, the lower position of the subband edges causes the capacitance ratio $C_{\rm ins} / (C_{\rm ins} + C_{\rm inv})$ to decrease, which will tend to decrease g_m . The decrease in the capacitance ratio can be understood by noting that $C_{\rm ins}$ is primarily determined by the insulator thickness, which is fixed in this paper, causing $C_{\rm ins}$ to scale linearly with gate length, while $C_{\rm inv}$ is larger at each gate length than would be expected from a purely linear dependence on L_q .

To understand the behavior of C_{inv} , we note that the charge at node (x, z) from the NEGF formalism [22] can be represented as an appropriate integral (over energy) of $F_{-(1/2)}$ times the source and drain spectral functions (local densities of states):

$$q \times n(x,z) = \frac{q}{ab} \sqrt{\frac{m^* k_B T}{2\pi^3 \hbar^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_S - E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right] \\ \times A_S \left[x, z, E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right] + F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_D - E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right] \\ \times A_D \left[x, z, E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right] \} dE\left(k_x, k_z\right)$$
(9a)
$$\approx \frac{q}{c_L} \sqrt{\frac{m^* k_B T}{2\pi^3 \hbar^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{-(1/2)} \left[\mu_S - E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right]$$

$$\sum_{ab} \sqrt{-2\pi^{3}\hbar^{2}} \int_{-\infty} \sum_{r=(1/2)} [\mu_{S} - E(\kappa_{x}, \kappa_{z})]$$

$$\times A_{S} [x, z, E(k_{x}, k_{z})] dE(k_{x}, k_{z})$$
(9b)

where a and b are the grid sizes along the x- and z-directions, respectively, A_S and A_D are the spectral functions due to the

Fig. 8. (a) Difference in the Fermi–Dirac integrals $\left\{F_{-(1/2)}\left[\mu_S - E(k_x, k_z)\right] - F_{-(1/2)}\left[\mu_D - E(k_x, k_z)\right]\right\}$, along with the positions of the occupied subband edges at the top of the barrier, $(x, z) = (x_{top}, z_{ch})$. (b) Source Fermi-Dirac integral $F_{-(1/2)}[\mu_S - E(k_x, k_z)]$ and source spectral function $A_S[x_{top}, z_{ch}, E(k_x, k_z)]$ versus in-plane energy $E(k_x, k_z)$ for the InGaAs HEMT with gate lengths $L_g = 10$ and 50 nm; the source Fermi level is $\mu_S \equiv 0$, and the conduction-band edge E_C is marked.

source and drain contacts, respectively, and μ_D is assumed to lie sufficiently below μ_S for the second term in the integrand of (9a) to be neglected in comparison with the first at all points xwithin the channel to yield (9b) (which will be true at typical drain bias voltages). The inversion capacitance C_{inv} is then given by the prescription in (3), where $dQ_G(x)$ is equal to the right side of (9b) integrated over z in the channel. Rather than integrate over z, it is more instructive to examine the trends in the charge located at the single point corresponding to the top of the barrier, i.e., the point $(x, z) = (x_{top}, z_{ch})$, which will be representative of the trends in $dQ_G(x)$. Fig. 8(b) shows plots of the key factors of (9b) found in this way, at peak f_T and for the same InGaAs device and gate lengths considered in Fig. 7.

Plotted in Fig. 8(b) are hence the Fermi-Dirac integral $F_{-(1/2)}\left[\mu_S - E\left(k_x, k_z\right)\right]$ and the spectral function $A_{S}[x_{top}, z_{ch}, E(k_{x}, k_{z})]$; the Fermi–Dirac integral looks the same at both gate lengths, with $\mu_S \equiv 0$ taken as the reference, so that the only difference is in the spectral function. As expected, the spectral function shows a sequence of $1/\sqrt{E(k_x,k_z)}$ dependencies that are consistent with the existence of a sequence of 1-D subbands arising from confinement in the z-direction, i.e., consistent with a dispersion relation of the form $E(k_x,k_z) = \varepsilon_n + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*}k_x^2$; the subband edges are marked in the figure. In each case, the charge $q \times n(x_{top}, z_{ch})$ is given by the area under the *overlap* of the Fermi–Dirac integral and the spectral function; more importantly, under dynamic conditions, i.e., under a modulation dE_C in E_C , which can be visualized as shifting the spectral functions, the incremental overlap and hence the *incremental* charge is greater in the shorter gatelength device. This result is not immediately obvious, but it can be discerned from the figure for two reasons: 1) the incremental charge will be greater in the first two subbands of the shorter gate-length device, since they are further below the source Fermi level and hence experience a greater population modulation (since the Fermi-Dirac integral is greater); and 2)

Fig. 9. Capacitance ratio $C_{ins}/(C_{ins} + C_{inv})$, total difference in Fermi-Dirac integrals ("difference in agenda"), i.e., the result of the summation in (8), and the transconductance q_m (at peak f_T) versus gate length L_q for the InGaAs HEMT. The actual values have been normalized with respect to the value of each component at the gate length $L_q = 50$ nm in order to illustrate the scaling behavior, and the lines have been drawn as guides for the eye.

20

GATE LENGTH [nm]

30

40

50

the third subband will participate in the shorter gate-length device, whereas in the longer gate-length device, it is too far above the source Fermi level to hold any charge or to participate in charge modulation, i.e., the associated states are always empty. As a result of the greater charge modulation with a modulation dE_C in E_C , the capacitance C_{inv} is larger in the smaller device than would be expected from a purely linear dependence on gate length, and the capacitance ratio $C_{\rm ins}/(C_{\rm ins}+C_{\rm inv})$ thus decreases with a downscaling of gate length.

e) Overall scaling of g_m : Overall, the capacitance ratio and the difference in Fermi-Dirac integrals in (8) thus act in opposition to each other as the gate length is scaled down, as shown in Fig. 9, leading to a g_m (at peak f_T) that does not scale significantly with gate length, as also shown in Fig. 9. In

Fig. 10. (a) Conduction-band profiles at peak f_T along the depth of the channel, i.e., $E_C(x_{top}, z)$ versus z, for the InGaAs HEMTs with $L_g = 10$ and 50 nm; also shown are the positions of the occupied subband edges at $(x, z) = (x_{top}, z_{ch})$, illustrating that the subbands are lower in position with respect to the source Fermi level for the shorter gate-length device. (b) Charge modulation along the transport direction (i.e., the x-direction) for the InGaAs HEMTs with $L_g = 10$ and 50 nm; the results show a relatively greater charge modulation (under the gate) in the first three subbands of the shorter gate-length device.

essence, as the gate length is scaled down, the subband positions at peak f_T move lower in energy with respect to the source Fermi level, causing the difference in agenda between the source and drain contacts to increase for each subband (reflected by the greater difference in Fermi–Dirac integrals) but with this increase being offset by a weaker control of the channel barrier by the gate (reflected by the decreased capacitance ratio). It is worth mentioning that a similar trend in g_m was experimentally observed in [36, Fig. 6] for an InAs HEMT with $t_{ins} =$ 4 nm, where scaling the gate length below 90 nm resulted in an insignificant improvement (by only a few percent) in g_m .

Two points are worth adding regarding the insensitivity of g_m to gate-length scaling. First, we found the same outcome even when the insulator thickness was scaled (from 3 nm down to 2 nm) with gate length, where the g_m improved only slightly (by a few percent) and where the same tradeoffs occurred. Second, while we have used the InGaAs devices to illustrate the result, a similar trend in g_m can be expected irrespective of the material, i.e., irrespective of the precise value of the effective mass; this follows because the compensating increase and decrease leading to an insensitivity of g_m to gate length will always occur, with only the extent of the increase and decrease varying between materials.

Since the g_m is relatively constant with gate length, the scaling behavior of $f_T = g_m / (2\pi C_{gg})$ is determined by the scaling behavior of C_{gg} .

5) Gate-Length Scaling of C_{gg} : In contrast to the behavior of g_m , the total gate capacitance C_{gg} at peak f_T is significantly affected by the scaling of gate length.

As previously illustrated in Fig. 6(b), C_{gg} can be modeled as a series combination of insulator and inversion capacitance:

$$C_{\rm gg} = \frac{C_{\rm ins}C_{\rm inv}}{C_{\rm ins} + C_{\rm inv}}.$$
 (10)

Since III–V materials have a relatively low density of states (due to a relatively small electron effective mass) and are fabri-

cated with very thin, high-k insulators, then $C_{\rm inv}$ is significantly smaller than $C_{\rm ins}$; for example, the ratio $C_{\rm inv}/C_{\rm ins}$ ranged from 0.05 to 0.26 for the InGaAs and 0.25 to 0.39 for the GaN device when the gate length was scaled from 50 to 10 nm. Hence, to a first approximation, $C_{\rm gg} \sim C_{\rm inv}$, and $C_{\rm inv}$ controls the scaling behavior of $C_{\rm gg}$.

As explained earlier, DIBL causes the peak f_T to occur at a smaller gate bias V_G for the shorter gate-length devices. As a consequence, the channel charge is less tightly held near the insulator interface by V_G , or equivalently, the quantum well defining the channel is *less sharp*; this can be observed from the plot of conduction-band profiles along the depth of the channel (along the z-direction) at $x = x_{top}$, i.e., from a plot of $E_C(x_{top}, z)$ versus z, as illustrated in Fig. 10(a), which shows results for the same InGaAs device and gate lengths considered in Fig. 7. For the shorter gate length, the triangular shape of the well is less pronounced, i.e., there is reduced quantum confinement, and hence the subbands lie closer to the conduction-band edge at the tip of the well [37, ch. 1], i.e., closer to $E_C(x_{top}, z_{ch})$. Since the position of $E_C(x_{top}, z_{ch})$ relative to μ_S at peak f_T is fixed, which follows because the latter always occurs at the onset of barrier collapse, i.e., when E_C in the channel aligns with that in the n^+ region near the source [see Fig. 3(b)], it then follows that the subbands at peak f_T are lower in position with respect to μ_S at shorter gate lengths. This result, already mentioned previously in Section II-B4, is readily seen from the data in Fig. 10(a). Since the subband positions are lower with respect to μ_S at shorter gate lengths, then as already discussed in conjunction with Fig. 8(b), a modulation dE_C in E_C leads to a relatively larger charge modulation (at each point x under the gate) in the first three subbands. This outcome is illustrated in Fig. 10(b) for the same InGaAs devices considered in Fig. 7.

Therefore, at shorter gate lengths, there is a relatively larger overall charge modulation than would be expected from a purely linear dependence on gate length, causing C_{inv} to be larger

Fig. 11. (a) Reciprocal of inversion-layer capacitance $1/C_{inv}$ and (b) reciprocal of total gate capacitance $1/C_{gg}$ versus gate length L_g for the HEMTs. The lines have been drawn as guides for the eye, and to emphasize the saturating behavior at short gate lengths, additional lines are shown to illustrate the expected behavior based on linear scaling with L_g , extrapolated to lower gate lengths from $L_g \sim 35$ nm.

than would be expected from a purely linear dependence on gate length. This behavior of $C_{\rm inv}$ with scaling is illustrated in Fig. 11(a), where we have plotted $1/C_{\rm inv}$; as shown, the larger than expected values of $C_{\rm inv}$ cause the behavior of $1/C_{\rm inv}$ to saturate at short gate lengths. In turn, $1/C_{\rm gg} \sim 1/C_{\rm inv}$ behaves in a similar manner, as shown in Fig. 11(b).

Since $1/C_{gg}$ saturates, while the corresponding g_m remains almost constant (Section II-B4), the peak $f_T = g_m/(2\pi C_{gg})$ in III–V materials will exhibit a signature saturation with a downscaling of gate length, as we depicted in Fig. 5 and as originally observed by Schwierz and Liou [1, Fig. 10].

6) Impact of Channel-Material Effective Mass: Among the HEMT channel materials considered in this paper, InGaAs has the smaller effective mass in comparison to wurtzite GaN $(0.048 \times m_0 \ [19]$ versus $0.2 \times m_0 \ [38]$, [39], where m_0 is the electron rest mass). While many factors can impact the relative positions of the subbands at the point of barrier collapse and hence at peak f_T , we note that when comparing materials, the most important consideration is the requirement that E_C in the channel be aligned with that in the n^+ region near the source; this requirement then implies that the charge at the top of the barrier (integrated over the extent of the channel in the z-direction) be equal (to first order) to that in the n^+ region near the source [19], where the latter is determined by the doping concentration and is hence the same for the two HEMTs under consideration.

To accommodate the required charge at the top of the barrier, the subband edges in InGaAs—which has the lower effective mass and hence the lower density of states—must move further below the source Fermi level than those in GaN; this outcome is illustrated in the plot of conduction-band profiles along the z-direction at $x = x_{top}$ in Fig. 12 for the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs having a gate length $L_g = 10$ nm. For reasons already discussed previously in Sections II-B4 and II-B5, the inversion capacitance C_{inv} in InGaAs, and hence the total gate capacitance $C_{gg} \sim C_{inv}$ in InGaAs, will thus exhibit a greater deviation from purely linear gate-length scaling than in GaN;

equivalently, the reciprocal capacitances $1/C_{inv}$ and $1/C_{gg}$ will experience a more pronounced saturation at shorter gate lengths in InGaAs versus GaN, as depicted in the two parts of Fig. 11. Since the saturation of $1/C_{gg}$ is more pronounced in the lighter mass material, the peak $f_T = g_m/(2\pi C_{gg})$ experiences a more pronounced saturation, as shown in Fig. 5. More generally, these results illustrate that *devices with a small effective mass will suffer from a more rapid saturation in peak* f_T *with a downscaling of gate length in comparison with devices having a heavy effective mass.*

III. COMPLETE DEVICE

To examine the scaling behavior of the *extrinsic* RF metrics, the NEGF-Poisson solver was utilized to find the components of a small-signal equivalent circuit for the intrinsic device, which was then combined with the parasitic elements to develop a complete (extrinsic) device model. This model was then used to extract the device y-parameters and subsequently the extrinsic f_T and f_{max} .

A. Small-Signal Equivalent Circuit

The small-signal equivalent circuit for an intrinsic III–V HEMT is the classical circuit usually used for field-effect transistors [31, Fig. 9.5], shown here in Fig. 13(a), with the definitions of the elements (which have their usual meanings) provided in Fig. 13(b). The source/drain charge partitioning factor χ is not critical to the results of interest in this paper; for completeness, we have chosen $\chi = 0.4$, which is the value suggested in [40] and a value that is also commonly used for MOSFETs. The values of all the other parameters, for both the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs, are provided in Table I; values are listed for the $L_q = 30$ nm case as a representative example.

B. Modeling of Parasitics

Fig. 14 shows the device structure used to extract the parasitic resistances and capacitances; the structure is consistent with those reported in [19], [21], [41], and [42]. The source and

Fig. 12. Conduction-band profiles at peak f_T along the depth of the channel, i.e., $E_C(x_{top}, z)$ versus z, for the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs with $L_g = 10$ nm; the subbands for the InGaAs device are lower in position with respect to the source Fermi level.

Fig. 13. (a) Small-signal equivalent circuit of an intrinsic III–V HEMT from [31, Fig. 9.5]. (b) Circuit elements, to be evaluated at the dc operating point; the symbols bear their usual meanings.

 $C_{\rm gs}$ [F/m] g_{sd} [S/m] C_{gd} [F/m] C_m [F/m] C_{sd} [F/m] g_m [S/m] 1.08 0.15 3.30 1.20 InGaAs 0.46 $imes 10^{-10}$ $\times 10^{-10}$ \times 10⁻¹⁰ \times 10⁻¹⁰ $imes 10^3$ HEMT $\times 10^2$ 1.14 0.47 0.17 0.28 2.78 1.25 GaN $\times 10^{-10}$ $\times 10^{-10}$ \times 10⁻¹⁰ $\times 10^{-10}$ $\times 10^3$ $imes 10^2$ HEMT

TABLE IELEMENT VALUES FOR THE CIRCUIT OF FIG. 13 WHEN $L_q = 30 \text{ nm}$

drain metal contacts are 50 nm in both length and height, and they are placed 1 μ m apart on InGaAs/InAlAs and GaN/InGaN heterostructure stacks for the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs, respectively, with each stack having a thickness of 15 nm. The height of the gate metal is 150 nm, with the lower and upper parts having lengths of L_g and L_g+300 nm, respectively, where L_g varies

Fig. 14. Full device structure of the HEMTs.

Fig. 15. Complete device model of the III–V HEMTs. The intrinsic device is represented by the small-signal circuit of Fig. 13.

from 50 to 10 nm with scaling. The extent of the intrinsic device is indicated in the figure, and the width W in the y-direction is considered to be 1 μ m in this study.

The gate resistance R_g arising from the gate metal is considered to be distributed in nature, similar to MOSFETs, and it is modeled by a single lumped and effective resistance in series with the gate lead, as in [43]. Ni/Au and Ti/Pt/Au are assumed to be the gate metals for the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs, as in [44] and [45], respectively. Although very small, the source and drain metal resistances, R_s and R_d , respectively, are also considered in the complete device; Ni/Ge/Au and Ti/Al are used as the source and drain contact metals, as in [21] and [45], for the InGaAs and the GaN HEMTs, respectively. In each case, instead of modeling the multilayer nature of the contact metals, only the lowermost metal layer is considered to represent the entire contact; this assumption can be justified by the fact that the lowermost metal layer is the material that sets the work function and thus controls the overall behavior of the contact.

The parasitic capacitances between the contact metals are extracted by designing an "open-device" model [46] for the HEMTs, where the structure is exactly like the actual device but with zero charge in the intrinsic portion, and then using COMSOL as outlined in [43]. These parasitic capacitances are represented as $C_{\rm gs\ par}, C_{\rm gd\ par}$, and $C_{\rm sd\ par}$ in the complete device model, the topology of which is based on [31, Fig. 8.30] and which is shown in Fig. 15.

TABLE II Parasitic Element Values of the HEMTs (for $W=1\,\mu{
m m}$)

	C _{gs par} [F]	C _{gd par} [F]	C _{sd par} [F]	$R_g [\text{for } L_g \\ = 30 \text{ nm}] \\ [\Omega]$	<i>R</i> _s [Ω]	R_d [Ω]	R _{s stack} [Ω]	R _{d stack} [Ω]
InGaAs HEMT	3.41 ×10 ⁻¹⁷	3.37 ×10 ⁻¹⁷	9.29 ×10 ⁻¹⁸	3.69	0.072	0.072	200	200
GaN HEMT	2.56 ×10 ⁻¹⁷	2.53 ×10 ⁻¹⁷	6.27 ×10 ⁻¹⁸	20.51	0.4	0.4	400	400

Fig. 16. Current gain $|h_{21}|$, unilateral power gain U, and extrapolated f_T and f_{\max} of the InGaAs HEMT at $L_g = 30$ nm.

Apart from the aforementioned parasitic elements, the heterostructure stacks at the source and drain can also impact the performance of the HEMTs. This effect can be modeled simply by two series resistances, $R_{s \text{ stack}}$ and $R_{d \text{ stack}}$, connected at the two ends of the intrinsic model [19], [26], [27, ch. 3]. These are considered to be $200 \Omega \cdot \mu m/W$ for the InGaAs HEMTs [19], [27, ch. 3] and $400 \Omega \cdot \mu m/W$ for the GaN HEMTs [47].

The values of the parasitic elements are listed in Table II for both the InGaAs and GaN HEMTs; the values do not scale with gate length except for R_g , which is listed for the $L_g = 30$ nm case as a representative example. With these values, the model of Fig. 15 was utilized to generate the overall y-parameters and hence to find the extrinsic f_T and f_{max} .

C. Results

We focus on the scaling behavior of the extrinsic f_T and f_{max} , where for each gate length, the bias point was chosen to be that for peak f_T of the intrinsic device. The current gain $|h_{21}| = |y_{21}/y_{11}|$ [48] and the unilateral power gain U [49], calculated from the overall y-parameters, are extrapolated to obtain the extrinsic f_T and f_{max} , respectively; sample plots of $|h_{21}|$ and U are provided in Fig. 16.

Fig. 17, which plots the extrinsic f_T versus gate length L_g , shows that the extrinsic f_T exhibits the same saturation at short gate lengths that was discussed for the intrinsic f_T . Moreover, as expected, the InGaAs HEMT exhibits a more pronounced saturation, given its lower effective mass. As a result of the

Fig. 17. Extrinsic and intrinsic f_T of the HEMTs considered in this paper, and the reported f_T of InGaAs HEMTs [1, Fig. 10], versus L_g . The lines have been drawn as guides for the eye.

Fig. 18. Extrinsic f_{\max} of the HEMTs versus L_g . The lines have been drawn as guides for the eye.

rapid saturation in the f_T of the InGaAs HEMTs, the GaN HEMTs have comparable values of extrinsic f_T at short gate lengths. We have also shown experimental data for the f_T of InGaAs HEMTs in Fig. 17, as collected in [1, Fig. 10], and they exhibit the same trend as our simulations.

Regarding the $f_{\rm max}$, it is well known that, to a first approximation, $f_{\rm max} \propto \sqrt{f_T/(RC)_{\rm eff}}$ [50]–[52] for RF transistors, where $(RC)_{\rm eff}$ refers to an effective charging time. While the scaling behavior of the $f_{\rm max}$ based on such a relationship can be involved due to the involved nature of $(RC)_{\rm eff}$, it is clear that the saturating behavior of the f_T at short gate lengths will also tend to saturate the $f_{\rm max}$, as depicted in Fig. 18. In addition, among the HEMTs under consideration, the GaN devices suffer from substantially larger parasitic resistances in the gate, source, and drain leads, as indicated by the higher values of the associated resistances in Table II, and this will tend to degrade the $f_{\rm max}$ through a larger value of $(RC)_{\rm eff}$; thus, although the two HEMTs have comparable extrinsic f_T at short gate lengths, the GaN HEMTs have a lower $f_{\rm max}$ at all gate lengths, as shown in Fig. 18.

It should be mentioned that apart from the effective mass, other effects can contribute to the diminishing enhancement of the extrinsic f_T and f_{\max} at short gate lengths. For example, while not an issue for the devices studied in this paper, parasitic resistances and capacitances that do not scale with gate length at the same rate as the elements of the intrinsic device can exacerbate the saturating behavior of the extrinsic figures of merit.

IV. CONCLUSION

The following conclusions can be drawn from this study of the impact of effective mass on the gate-length scaling behavior of the f_T and f_{max} of III–V HEMTs.

- 1) The intrinsic peak f_T occurs at gate voltages corresponding to the point of barrier collapse, beyond which the f_T degrades significantly.
- 2) At shorter gate lengths, DIBL causes the barrier to collapse at lower gate bias voltages, such that the intrinsic peak f_T occurs at lower gate voltages.
- 3) For a given channel material, with a downscaling of gate length, the transconductance g_m at the gate bias corresponding to peak f_T remains relatively insensitive to scaling. On the other hand, the low effective mass causes the intrinsic gate capacitance $C_{\rm gg}$ to roughly equal the inversion capacitance C_{inv} , which scales slower than would be expected from a purely linear dependence on gate length; the slower scaling is an outcome of the peak f_T occurring at lower gate biases at shorter gate lengths (due to DIBL), which reduces the sharpness of the potential well defining the channel and thereby lowers the position of the conduction subbands with respect to the source Fermi level, leading to a larger than expected charge modulation and hence a larger than expected capacitance. The intrinsic peak $f_T = g_m / (2\pi C_{gg})$ thus exhibits a saturating behavior when the gate length is scaled down, i.e., it shows no further increase with decreasing gate length once the gate length is sufficiently small; our results (see Figs. 11 and 17) show this to occur for gate lengths below approximately 30 nm.
- 4) In comparing channel materials, the material with lower effective mass will exhibit a more pronounced saturation in its peak f_T as the gate length is scaled down; this occurs because the subbands in the lighter mass material must move further below the source Fermi level to accommodate the required charge at the top of the barrier at peak f_T (as set by the doping in the n^+ region), and the lower positioning of the subbands accentuates the larger than expected gate capacitance as the gate length is scaled down.
- 5) The extrinsic peak f_T of HEMTs reflects the saturating behavior of the intrinsic f_T . In comparing HEMTs, the InGaAs HEMTs have a more pronounced saturation in their f_T due to their lower effective mass, such that the f_T of the two HEMTs are comparable at short gate lengths.
- 6) The saturating behavior of the f_T of III–V HEMTs at short gate lengths will contribute to the saturating behavior

of the f_{max} . In comparing HEMTs, the larger parasitic resistances of GaN HEMTs cause them to have a lower f_{max} than the InGaAs HEMTs at all gate lengths.

Overall, the most important outcome of this paper is the connection between the effective mass and the scaling behavior of RF performance. While a low effective mass is desirable for high mobility and potentially high-speed operation, it leads to diminishing improvements in the peak f_T and f_{max} as the gate length is scaled down.

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