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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank M. Baranov, F. Schreck, G. Bruun, N. Davidson, and R. Folman for stimulating discussions. Supported by NSF through a grant for ITAMP at Harvard University and the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory (R.S.); the Technical University of Munich-Institute for Advanced Study, funded by the German Excellence Initiative and the European Union FP7 under grant agreement 291763 (M.K.): the Harvard-MIT Center for Ultracold Atoms, NSF grant DMR-1308435, the Air Force Office of Scientific Research Quantum Simulation Multidisciplinary University Research Initiative (MURI), the Army Research Office MURI on Atomtronics, M. Rössler, the Walter Haefner Foundation, the ETH Foundation, and the Simons Foundation (E.D.); and the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) within the SFB FoQuS (F4004-N23) and within the DK ALM (W1259-N27).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

www.sciencemag.org/content/354/6308/96/suppl/DC1 Materials and Methods Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S11 Table S1 References (34–56) 20 February 2016; accepted 6 September 2016 10.1126/science.aaf5134

DEVICE TECHNOLOGY

MoS₂ transistors with 1-nanometer gate lengths

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Scaling of silicon (Si) transistors is predicted to fail below 5-nanometer (nm) gate lengths because of severe short channel effects. As an alternative to Si, certain layered semiconductors are attractive for their atomically uniform thickness down to a monolayer, lower dielectric constants, larger band gaps, and heavier carrier effective mass. Here, we demonstrate molybdenum disulfide (MoS_2) transistors with a 1-nm physical gate length using a single-walled carbon nanotube as the gate electrode. These ultrashort devices exhibit excellent switching characteristics with near ideal subthreshold swing of ~65 millivolts per decade and an On/Off current ratio of ~10⁶. Simulations show an effective channel length of ~3.9 nm in the Off state and ~1 nm in the On state.

s Si transistors rapidly approach their projected scaling limit of ~5-nm gate lengths, exploration of new channel materials and device architectures is of utmost interest (I-3). This scaling limit arises from short channel effects (4). Direct source-to-drain tunneling and the loss of gate electrostatic control on the channel severely degrade the Off state leakage currents, thus limiting the scaling of Si transistors (5, 6). Certain semiconductor properties dictate the magnitude of these effects for a given gate length. Heavier carrier effective mass, larger band gap, and lower in-plane dielectric constant yield lower direct source-to-drain tunneling currents (7). Uniform and atomically thin semicon-

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ductors with low in-plane dielectric constants are desirable for enhanced electrostatic control of the gate. Thus, investigation and introduction of semiconductors that have more ideal properties than Si could lead to further scaling of transistor dimensions with lower Off state dissipation power.

Transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) are layered two-dimensional (2D) semiconductors that have been widely explored as a potential channel material replacement for Si (*8–11*), and each material exhibits different band structures and properties (*12–16*). The layered nature of TMDs allows uniform thickness control with atomic-level precision down to the monolayer limit. This thickness scaling feature of TMDs is highly desirable for well-controlled electrostatics in ultrashort transistors (*3*). For example, monolayer and few-layer MoS₂ have been shown theoretically to be superior to Si at the sub-5-nm scaling limit (*17, 18*).

The scaling characteristics of MOS_2 and Si transistors as a function of channel thickness and gate length are summarized in Fig. 1. We calculated

direct source-to-drain tunneling currents $(I_{\text{SD-LEAK}})$ in the Off state for different channel lengths and thicknesses using a dual-gate device structure (fig. S1) as a means to compare the two materials. MOS_2 shows more than two orders of magnitude reduction in $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ relative to Si mainly because of its larger electron effective mass along the transport direction $(m_n^* \sim 0.55m_0 \text{ for MoS}_2 \text{ versus})$ $m_n^{\bar{}}\sim 0.19m_0$ for Si [100]) (19), with a trade-off resulting in lower ballistic On current. Notably, $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ does not limit the scaling of monolayer MoS₂ even down to the ~1-nm gate length, presenting a major advantage over Si [see more details about calculations in the supplementary materials (20)]. Finally, few-layer MoS₂ exhibits a lower in-plane dielectric constant (~4) compared with bulk Si (~11.7), Ge (~16.2), and GaAs (~12.9), resulting in a shorter electrostatic characteristic length (λ) as depicted in fig. S2 (21).

The above qualities collectively make MoS₂ a strong candidate for the channel material of future transistors at the sub-5-nm scaling limit. However, to date, TMD transistors at such small gate lengths have not been experimentally explored. Here, we demonstrate 1D gated, 2D semiconductor field-effect transistors (1D2D-FETs) with a single-walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT) gate, a MoS_2 channel, and physical gate lengths of ~1 nm. The 1D2D-FETs exhibit near ideal switching characteristics, including a subthreshold swing (SS) of ~65 mV per decade at room temperature and high On/Off current ratios. The SWCNT diameter $d \sim$ 1 nm for the gate electrode (22) minimized parasitic gate to source-drain capacitance, which is characteristic of lithographically patterned tall gate structures. The ~1-nm gate length of the SWCNT also allowed for the experimental exploration of the device physics and properties of MoS₂ transistors as a function of semiconductor thickness (i.e., number of layers) at the ultimate gate-length scaling limit.

The experimental device structure of the 1D2D-FET (Fig. 2A) consists of a MoS_2 channel (number of layers vary), a ZrO_2 gate dielectric, and a SWCNT gate on a 50-nm SiO₂/Si substrate with a physical gate length ($L_G \sim d$) of ~1 nm. Long, aligned SWCNTs grown by chemical vapor deposition

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Fig. 1. Direct source-to-drain tunneling leakage current. (**A**) Normalized direct source-to-drain tunneling leakage current ($I_{SD-LEAK}$), calculated using the WKB (Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin) approximation as a function of channel thickness T_{CH} for Si and MoS₂ in the Off state. $V_{DS} = V_{DD} = 0.43$ V from the International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors (ITRS) 2026 technology node. (**B**) $I_{SD-LEAK}$ as a function of gate length L_G for different thicknesses of Si and MoS₂ for the same Off state conditions as Fig. 1A. The dotted line in Fig. 1, A and B represents the low operating power limit for the 2026 technology node as specified by the ITRS.



Fig. 2. 1D2D-FET device structure and characterization. (**A**) Schematic of 1D2D-FET with a MoS_2 channel and SWCNT gate. (**B**) Optical image of a representative device shows the MoS_2 flake, gate (G), source (S), and drain (D) electrodes. (**C**) False-colored SEM image of the device showing the SWCNT (blue), ZrO_2 gate dielectric (green), MoS_2 channel (orange), and the Ni source and drain electrodes (yellow). (**D**) Cross-sectional TEM image of a representative sample showing the SWCNT gate, ZrO_2 gate dielectric, and bilayer MoS_2 channel. (**E**) EELS map showing spatial distribution of carbon, zirconium, and sulfur in the device region, confirming the location of the SWCNT, MoS_2 flake, and ZrO_2 dielectric.

were transferred onto a n^+ Si/SiO₂ substrate (50-nm-thick SiO₂) (23), located with a scanning electron microscope (SEM), and contacted with palladium via lithography and metallization. These steps were followed by atomic layer deposition (ALD) of ZrO₂ and pick-and-place dry transfer of MoS₂ onto the SWCNT covered by ZrO₂ (14). Nickel source and drain contacts were made to MoS₂ to complete the device. The detailed process flow and discussion about device fabrication is provided in fig. S3.

Figure 2B shows the optical image of a representative 1D2D-FET capturing the MoS₂ flake, the source and drain contacts to MoS₂, and the gate contacts to the SWCNT. The SWCNT and the MoS₂ flake can be identified in the false-colored SEM image of a representative sample (Fig. 2C). The 1D2D-FET consists of four electrical terminals; source (S), drain (D), SWCNT gate (G), and the n^+ Si substrate back gate (B). The SWCNT gate underlaps the S/D contacts. These underlapped regions were electrostatically doped by the Si back gate during the electrical measurements, thereby serving as n^+ extension contact regions. The device effectively operated like a junctionless transistor (24), where the SWCNT gate locally depleted the n^+ MoS₂ channel after applying a negative voltage, thus turning Off the device.

A cross-sectional transmission electron microscope (TEM) image of a representative 1D2D-FET (Fig. 2D) shows the SWCNT gate, ZrO2 gate dielectric (thickness T_{OX} ~5.8 nm), and the bilayer MoS₂ channel. The topography of ZrO₂ surrounding the SWCNT and the MoS₂ flake on top of the gate oxide was flat, as seen in the TEM image. This geometry is consistent with ALD nucleation initiating on the SiO₂ substrate surrounding the SWCNT and eventually covering it completely as the thickness of deposited ZrO2 exceeds the SWCNT diameter d (25). The spatial distribution of carbon. zirconium, and sulfur was observed in the electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) map of the device region (Fig. 2E), thus confirming the location of the SWCNT, ZrO₂, and MoS₂ in the device (fig. S4) (20).

The electrical characteristics for a 1D2D-FET with a bilayer MoS2 channel (Fig. 3) show that the MoS₂ extension regions (the underlapped regions between the SWCNT gate and S/D contacts) could be heavily inverted (i.e., n^+ state) by applying a positive back-gate voltage of $V_{\rm BS}$ = 5 V to the Si substrate. The $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm BS}$ characteristics (fig. S5) indicate that the MoS₂ flake was strongly inverted by the back gate at $V_{\rm BS}$ = 5 V. The $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm GS}$ characteristics for the device at $V_{\rm BS}$ = 5 V and $V_{\rm DS}$ = 50 mV and 1 V (Fig. 3A) demonstrate the ability of the ~1-nm SWCNT gate to deplete the MoS2 channel and turn Off the device. The 1D2D-FET exhibited excellent subthreshold characteristics with a near ideal SS of ~65 mV per decade at room temperature and On/Off current ratio of $\sim 10^6$. The drain-induced barrier lowering (DIBL) was ~290 mV/V. Leakage currents through the SWCNT gate $(I_{\rm G})$ and the n^+ Si back gate $(I_{\rm B})$ are at the measurement noise level (Fig. 3A). The interface trap density (D_{TT}) of the ZrO_2 -MoS₂ interface estimated from SS was $\sim 1.7 \times 10^{12}$ cm⁻² eV⁻¹,

which is typical for transferred MoS_2 flakes (26) because of the absence of surface dangling bonds (20).

Figure 3B shows the $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm DS}$ characteristics at different $V_{\rm GS}$ values and fixed $V_{\rm BS}$ = 5 V. The $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm GS}$ characteristics depended strongly on the value of $V_{\rm BS}$, which affects the extension region resistance. The inversion of the extension regions increased with increasing $V_{\rm BS}$, thus reducing the series resistance and contact resistance and led to an increase in the On current and an improvement in the SS. At more positive values of $V_{\rm BS}$, $V_{\rm GS}$ had to be more negative in order to deplete the MoS₂ channel, which in turn made the threshold voltage ($V_{\rm T}$) more negative. Above $V_{\rm BS}$ = 1 V, the SS and $I_{\rm On}$ did not improve any further, and the extension regions were strongly inverted (Fig. 3C). Thus, the 1D2D-FET operated as a short-channel device.

We performed detailed simulations using Sentaurus TCAD to understand the electrostatics of the 1D2D-FET. The Off and On state conditions correspond to $(V_{\rm GS}-V_{\rm T})$ of -0.3 V and 1.5 V, respectively (which give an On/Off current ratio of ~10⁶). The electric field contour plot (Fig. 3D) in the Off state has a region of low electric field in the MoS₂ channel near the SWCNT, indicating that it is depleted. The reduced electron density in the MoS₂ channel (Fig. 3E), and the presence of an energy barrier to electrons in the conduction band (fig. S6A) are also consistent with the Off state of the device. The extension regions are still under inversion because of the positive backgate voltage. The electron density of the MoS_2 channel in the depletion region can be used to define the effective channel length $(L_{\rm EFF})$ of the 1D2D-FET, which is the region of channel controlled by the SWCNT gate (27-29). The channel is considered to be depleted if the electron density falls below a defined threshold ($n_{\text{threshold}}$). The Off state $L_{\rm EFF}$, defined as the region of MoS_2 with electron density $n < n_{\rm threshold}$ ($n_{\rm threshold}$ = 1.3 × 10^5 cm⁻²), for this simulated 1D2D-FET is $L_{\rm EFF} \sim$ 3.9 nm (Fig. 3E). $L_{\rm EFF}$ is dependent on $V_{\rm GS}$ and the value of $n_{\text{threshold}}$ (fig. S7).

As the device is turned Off, the fringing electric fields from the SWCNT (Fig. 3D) deplete farther regions of the MoS₂ channel and thus increase L_{EFF} . The short height of the naturally defined SWCNT gate prevents large fringing fields from controlling the channel and hence achieves a smaller L_{EFF} compared with lithographically patterned gates (fig. S8). The electric field and electron density contours for the device in the On state confirm the strong inversion of the channel region near the SWCNT (Fig. 3, F and G) with $L_{\rm EFF} \sim L_{\rm G} = 1$ nm. The energy bands in this case are flat in the entire channel region (fig. S6B), with the On state current being limited by the resistance of the extension regions and mainly the contacts. Doped S/D contacts along with shorter extension regions will result in increased On current.

The effect of $T_{\rm OX}$ scaling on short-channel effects like DIBL was also studied using simulations (fig. S9). The electrostatics of the device improves, and the influence of the drain on the channel reduces, as $T_{\rm OX}$ is scaled down to values



Fig. 3. Electrical characterization and TCAD simulations of 1D2D-FET. (A) I_D - V_{GS} characteristics of a bilayer MoS₂ channel SWCNT gated FET at $V_{BS} = 5 V$ and $V_{DS} = 50$ mV and 1 V. The positive V_{BS} voltage electrostatically dopes the extension regions n^+ . (B) I_D - V_{DS} characteristic for the device at $V_{BS} = 5 V$ and varying V_{GS} . (C) I_D - V_{GS} characteristics at $V_{DS} = 1 V$ and varying V_{BS} illustrating the effect of back-gate bias on the extension region resistance, SS, On current, and device characteristics. Electric field contour plots for a simulated bilayer MoS₂ device using TCAD in the (D) Off and (F) On state. Electron density plots for the simulated device using TCAD in the (E) Off and (G) On state. The electron density in the depletion region is used to define the L_{EFF} . $L_{EFF} \sim d \sim L_G$ in the On state and $L_{EFF} > L_G$ in the Off state because of the frigging electric fields from the SWCNT gate.



Fig. 4. MoS₂ **thickness dependence.** (**A**) Dependence of MoS₂ channel thickness on the performance of 1D2D-FET. SS increases with increasing MoS₂ channel thickness. (**B**) Extracted SS from experimental curves and TCAD simulations show increasing SS as channel thickness T_{CH} increases.

commensurate with $L_{\rm G}$. This effect is seen by the strong dependence of DIBL on T_{OX} , thus demonstrating the need for $T_{\rm OX}$ scaling and high- κ (dielectric constant) 2D dielectrics to further enhance the device performance.

The effect of MoS₂ thickness on the device characteristics was systematically explored. At the scaling limit of the gate length, the semiconductor channel thickness must also be scaled down aggressively, as described earlier. The electrostatic control of the SWCNT gate on the MoS_2 channel decreased with increasing distance from the ZrO2-MoS₂ interface. Thus, as the MoS₂ flake thickness was increased, the channel could not be completely depleted by applying a negative V_{GS} . Because of this effect, the SS for a 12-nm-thick MoS₂ device (~170 mV per decade) was much larger than that of bilayer MoS_2 (~65 mV per decade), and as the thickness of MoS2 was increased to ~31 nm, the device could no longer be turned off (Fig. 4A). The experimental SS as a function of MoS₂ thickness was qualitatively consistent with the TCAD simulations (Fig. 4B and S10), showing an increasing trend with increasing channel thickness. The unwanted variations in device performance caused by channel thickness fluctuations (Fig. 4B and fig. S10), and the need for low Off state current at short channel lengths (Figs. 1 and 3), thus justify the need for layered semiconductors like TMDs at the scaling limit.

TMDs offer the ultimate scaling of thickness with atomic-level control, and the 1D2D-FET structure enables the study of their physics and electrostatics at short channel lengths by using the natural dimensions of a SWCNT, removing the need for any lithography or patterning processes that are challenging at these scale lengths. However, large-scale processing and manufacturing of TMD devices down to such small gate lengths are existing challenges requiring future innovations. For instance, research on developing process-stable, low-resistance ohmic contacts to TMDs, and scaling of the gate dielectric by using high- κ 2D insulators is essential to further enhance device performance. Wafer-scale growth of high-quality films (30) is another challenge toward achieving very-large-scale integration of TMDs in integrated circuits. Finally, fabrication of electrodes at such small scale lengths over large areas requires considerable advances in lithographic techniques. Nevertheless, the work here provides new insight into the ultimate scaling of gate lengths for a FET by surpassing the 5-nm limit (3-7) often associated with Si technology.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

S.B.D. and A.J. were supported by the Electronics Materials program funded by the Director, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, Materials Sciences and Engineering Division of the U.S. Department of Energy under contract DE-AC02-05CH11231. A.B.S. was funded by Applied Materials, Inc., and Entegris, Inc., under the I-RiCE program. J.P.L. and J.B. were supported in part by the Office of Naval Research BRC program. J.P.L. acknowledges a Berkeley Fellowship for Graduate Studies and the NSF Graduate Fellowship Program. Q.W. and M.J.K. were supported by the NRI SWAN Center and Chinese Academy of Sciences President's International Fellowship Initiative (2015VTA031). G.P. and H.-S.P.W. were supported in part by the SONIC Research Center, one of six centers supported by the STARnet phase of the Focus Center Research Program (FCRP) a Semiconductor Research Corporation program sponsored by MARCO and DARPA. A.J., H.-S.P.W., and J.B. acknowledge the NSF Center for Energy Efficient Electronics Science (E³S). A.J. acknowledges support from Samsung. The authors acknowledge the Molecular Foundry, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory for access to the scanning electron microscope. The authors acknowledge H. Fahad for useful discussions about the analytical modeling. All data are reported in the main text and supplementary materials.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

10.1126/science.aah4698

www.sciencemag.org/content/354/6308/99/suppl/DC1 Materials and Methods Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S10 Table S1 References (31-44) 30 June 2016; accepted 7 September 2016

BIOCATALYSIS

An artificial metalloenzyme with the kinetics of native enzymes

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Natural enzymes contain highly evolved active sites that lead to fast rates and high selectivities. Although artificial metalloenzymes have been developed that catalyze abiological transformations with high stereoselectivity, the activities of these artificial enzymes are much lower than those of natural enzymes. Here, we report a reconstituted artificial metalloenzyme containing an iridium porphyrin that exhibits kinetic parameters similar to those of natural enzymes. In particular, variants of the P450 enzyme CYP119 containing iridium in place of iron catalyze insertions of carbenes into C-H bonds with up to 98% enantiomeric excess, 35,000 turnovers, and 2550 hours⁻¹ turnover frequency. This activity leads to intramolecular carbene insertions into unactivated C-H bonds and intermolecular carbene insertions into C–H bonds. These results lift the restrictions on merging chemical catalysis and biocatalysis to create highly active, productive, and selective metalloenzymes for abiological reactions.

he catalytic activity of a metalloenzyme is determined by both the primary coordination sphere of the metal and the surrounding protein scaffold. In some cases, laboratory evolution has been used to develop variants of native metalloenzymes for selective reactions of unnatural substrates (1, 2). Yet with few exceptions (3), the classes of reactions that such enzymes undergo are limited to those of biological transformations. To combine the favorable qualities of enzymes with the diverse reactivity of synthetic transition-metal catalysts, abiological transition-metal centers or cofactors have been incorporated into native proteins. The resulting artificial metalloenzymes catalyze classes of reactions for which there is no known enzyme (abiological transformations) (3, 4).

Although the reactivity of these artificial systems is new for an enzyme, the rates of these reactions have been much slower and the

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Supplementary Materials for

MoS₂ transistors with 1-nanometer gate lengths

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Published 30 September 2016, *Science* **354**, 99 (2016) DOI: 10.1126/science.aah4698

This PDF file includes:

Materials and Methods Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S10 Table S1 References

Materials and methods

(1) SWCNT growth on quartz: Aligned SWCNTs were grown according to a process similar to (23) modified to deliver a low aligned SWCNT density. 4" ST-cut quartz wafers were purchased from Hoffman Materials, Inc. then annealed at 900°C for 8.5 hours to repair the surface crystal. A \approx 3.66 Å film of iron (99.95% pure) was evaporated using electron-beam evaporation onto 4µm wide stripes defined using photo-lithography at a rate of 0.33 Å/s. This was followed by metal liftoff and resist removal. The sample was grown in a 5" diameter FirstNano EasyTube 3000 CNT CVD furnace. The temperature was ramped to 610 °C in O₂ for calcination, then to 865 °C in 120 sccm H₂ at 315 Torr for reduction of the iron catalyst. After stabilizing temperature for 10 minutes, 1 SLM of CH₄ was introduced to the chamber to begin growth. After one hour, the sample was cooled in H₂ ambient. The SWCNT density as measured by SEM was 1 SWCNT per 15 µm across the wafer.

(2) SEM (scanning electron microscopy) imaging was performed using a Zeiss Gemini Ultra-55 field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM). A ~ 1 kV accelerating voltage was used for imaging the devices and to register the locations of the SWCNTs with respect to prepatterned lithography markers.

(3) AFM (atomic force microscopy) was performed using a Digital Instruments Nanoscope Dimension 3100 AFM. The AFM was done in the tapping mode using ~ 300 kHz resonance frequency, Budget sensors Tap300-G tapping mode tips.

(4) TEM (transmission electron microscopy) / STEM (scanning transmission electron microscopy): High resolution TEM/STEM imaging was performed using a probe-corrected JEM-ARM200F (JEOL USA, Inc.) operated at 200 kV. HAADF-STEM imaging was carried out with a 24 mrad convergence semi-angle electron beam and the collection angle for the ADF detector was set to 90-370 mrad.

(5) Elemental Mapping: Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping was performed with a Gatan Enfina spectrometer and X-MaxN 100TLE detector (Oxford Instruments), respectively. The collection angle for the EELS spectrum was set to be 31 mrad. The spatial resolution of the mapping is 0.27 nm/pixel and the collection time is 0.4 s/pixel.

(6) Electrical characterization: Electrical measurements were performed under vacuum (~ 10^{-5} mbar) in Lakeshore vacuum probe station using Agilent Technologies B1500A Semiconductor Device Analyzer.

Supplementary text

(1) Analytical 2D electrostatics model for Dual Gate Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor (DGMOS-FET) (21, 31)

A symmetric DGMOS-FET structure is assumed as shown in Fig. S1. An analytical solution to the 2D Poisson equation is derived assuming a channel material with anisotropic dielectric constant using the approach taken in reference (21).

 $\nabla . D = \rho \dots (1)$

$$Dx \qquad \varepsilon x \qquad 0 \qquad 0 \qquad Ex Dy = 0 \qquad \varepsilon y \qquad 0 \qquad Ey \qquad \dots (2) Dz \qquad 0 \qquad 0 \qquad \varepsilon z \qquad Ez \varepsilon_x \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} + \varepsilon_y \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial y^2} = q N_A \qquad \dots (3)$$

Equation 3 is Poisson's equation in 2D considering an anisotropic dielectric constant. Here the axes of transport X and Y (Fig. S1) are assumed to coincide with the crystal axes of the material. Thus the electric permittivity tensor is diagonal. To solve the differential equation 3 and get an analytical expression for the electric potential, we assume the first term on the left hand side to be much smaller than the second term (quasi-2D approximation). The 2D electric potential in the channel region is then computed similar to the procedure in reference (21).

$$\varphi x, y = \frac{y^2 \varepsilon_{OX,y} v_{GS} - v_{FB} - \varphi_s(x)}{\varepsilon_{CH,y} \tau_{CH} \tau_{OX}} - \frac{y \varepsilon_{OX,y} v_{GS} - v_{FB} - \varphi_s x}{\varepsilon_{CH,y} \tau_{OX}} + \varphi_s(x) \dots (4)$$

Here $\varphi_s(x)$ is the surface potential.

Equation 4 is evaluated at the center of the channel to give $\varphi_C x = \varphi(x, \frac{T_{CH}}{2})$ and is then expressed in terms of $\varphi_C x$ by replacing $\varphi_s x \cdot \varphi x, y$ which is expressed in terms of $\varphi_C(x)$ must satisfy equation 3. After substitution into equation 3 and simplification we get,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \varphi_C(x)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \quad V_{GS} - V_{FB} - \varphi_C(x) - \frac{q N_A \lambda^2}{\varepsilon_{CH,x}} = 0 \dots (5)$$

where λ is the characteristic length of the device.

$$\lambda = \frac{\varepsilon_{CH,x}T_{CH}T_{OX}}{2\varepsilon_{OX,y}} \quad 1 + \frac{\varepsilon_{OX,y}T_{CH}}{4\varepsilon_{CH,y}T_{OX}} \quad \dots \quad (6)$$

From the above equation we see that the characteristic length depends on the dielectric constant along both x and y. The larger the dielectric constant along y, the more the influence of gate voltage and smaller the characteristic length and short channel effects. On the other hand, a large dielectric constant along x means the influence of drain voltage on the channel increases and short channel effects such as DIBL become more prominent. The boundary conditions for solving equation 5 are $\varphi_C(0) = V_{bi}$ and $\varphi_C L_G = V_{bi} + V_{DS}$. Considering the case of very light to no doping in the channel i.e. $N_A \sim 0$ (hence $V_{bi} = \frac{E_g}{2q}$), and solving equation 5 with the above boundary conditions we get,

$$\varphi_{C} x = V_{GS} - V_{FB} \quad 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}} + V_{bi}e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}} - \frac{\sinh\frac{x}{\lambda}}{\sinh\frac{L}{\lambda}} \quad V_{GS} - V_{FB} - V_{bi} \quad 1 - e^{-\frac{L}{\lambda}} + V_{DS}\frac{\sinh\frac{x}{\lambda}}{\sinh\frac{L}{\lambda}}$$
... (7)

Using $\varphi_c(x)$ as found above, the potential at the surfaces $\varphi_s(x)$ and the 2D potential in the entire channel $\varphi(x, y)$ can also be computed using equation 4. The barrier between the source and drain in the OFF-state is dependent on V_{bi} and hence the bandgap (E_g) of the semiconductor. The larger the bandgap, the larger is the OFF-state barrier between source and drain. λ determines the shape of the barrier between source and drain. The quasi-2D model provides a good qualitative analysis of the electrostatics in a DGMOS-FET for comparing different channel materials. For more accurate analysis, first principle calculations and self-consistent solutions of the Schrodinger-Poisson equations are essential.

(2) Direct source-to-drain tunneling leakage

A qualitative estimate of the amount of direct source-to-drain tunneling in a material in the OFF-state can be obtained using the electrostatic model derived above. The WKB approximation (equation 8) is used to compute the probability of tunneling across the energy barrier, and the Landauer relation (equation 9) is used to calculate the leakage current due to tunneling (32, 33).

$$T E = e^{-\frac{2}{h} \frac{x_o}{x_i}} \frac{2m^* E_C x - E dx}{2m^* E_C x - E dx} \dots (8)$$

$$I_{SD-LEAK} = \frac{2q}{h} \frac{E_{C,max}}{E_S} M E T E f E, E_{F,S} - f E, E_{F,D} dE \dots (9)$$

$$M(E) = \frac{W \ \overline{2m^*(E-E_S)}}{\pi h} \dots (10)$$

The parameter values used for the calculations in Fig. 1 are given in table S1.

In equation 8, T(E) is the tunneling probability through the energy barrier at energy level *E*. x_o and x_i indicate the extent of the barrier. $E_C(x)$ is the conduction band profile between the source and drain from x_i to x_0 . m^* is the effective mass of the carriers tunneling through the barrier.

In equation 9, $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ is the direct source to drain leakage current. M(E) is the number of ballistic modes of transport at energy E (equation 10) (32), E_{S} is the energy level of the source

(reference) and $E_{C,max}$ is the top of the conduction band profile between the source and drain. f(E) is the Fermi-Dirac distribution and $E_{F,S}$ and $E_{F,D}$ are the Fermi levels in source and drain respectively.

TMDCs have a higher effective mass along the direction of transport (e.g. $m_n^* \sim 0.55m_0$ for MoS₂ versus $m_n^* \sim 0.19m_0$ for Si [100]) (*19, 34*) which reduces the tunneling probability and therefore $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$. Figure 1 discusses the impact of effective mass on transistor scaling using the example of a symmetric double-gate MOSFET (DGMOS-FET) structure (Fig. S1). Figure 1A shows normalized $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ as a function of channel thickness for Si and MoS₂. The channel conduction band profile required to calculate $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ is derived using the analytical 2D DGMOS-FET electrostatic model proposed in ref (*21*). The parameter values used in the calculations (table S1) account for quantum mechanical effects on the bandgap, dielectric constant and effective mass at ultra-thin channel thicknesses (*19, 35-39*). MoS₂ shows more than two orders reduction in $I_{\text{SD-LEAK}}$ on L_G . The dotted lines in Fig. 1A and 1B represent the Low Operating Power (LOP) limit for the 2026 technology node as specified by the international technology roadmap for semiconductors (ITRS) (*40*). Figure 1B reveals that for similar channel thickness, MoS₂ transistors can be scaled to shorter gate lengths as compared to Si.

(3) Calculation of $D_{\rm IT}$

$$SS = \frac{kT ln \ 10}{q} \left(1 + \frac{C_D + C_{IT}}{C_{OX}}\right) \dots (11)$$

Equation 11 relates SS to the interface trap density for the device (41). Here k is the Boltzmann constant, T is temperature in Kelvin and q is the charge of an electron. For the 1D2D-FET

structure, $C_{\rm D}$ (depletion capacitance) ~ 0, $C_{\rm IT}$ (interface trap capacitance) = $qD_{\rm IT}$ and $C_{\rm OX}$ (oxide capacitance) = $\varepsilon_{\rm OX}/T_{\rm OX}$. $\varepsilon_{\rm OX}$ is the permittivity of the gate oxide (ZrO₂ dielectric constant ~ 25 (42)) and T_{OX} is the oxide thickness (~ 5.8 nm) measured from TEM in Fig. 2D.

(4) Analytical derivation of parasitic capacitance from fringing electric fields

Figure S8 shows the fringing electric field lines in an underlap transistor. The fringing electric field lines lead to parasitic capacitance ($C_{\text{parasitic}}$) and a larger effective channel length (L_{EFF}).

$$C_{OX} = \frac{L_G W \varepsilon_{OX}}{T_{OX}} \dots (12)$$

$$C_{parasitic} \approx \frac{T_{ZrO2}}{T_{OX}} \frac{2W \varepsilon_{OX}}{\pi y} dy = \frac{2W \varepsilon_{OX}}{\pi} \ln \frac{T_{ZrO2}}{T_{OX}} = \frac{2W \varepsilon_{OX}}{\pi} \ln 1 + \frac{T_G}{T_{OX}} \dots (13)$$

Equation 12 gives the capacitance C_{OX} for the parallel electric field lines from the gate electrode to the channel. ε_{OX} is the electric permittivity of the gate dielectric, *W* is the width and L_G is the physical gate length. $T_{OX} = (T_{ZrO2} - T_G)$ is kept constant for devices of different gate heights (T_G) . Equation 13 calculates the parasitic capacitance due to the fringing electric field lines from the gate electrode and is dependent on T_G . Larger the height of the electrode, higher is the parasitic capacitance. The natural short height of a SWCNT helps achieve small L_{EFF} and small $C_{parasitic}$ compared to lithographically patterned tall gate structures. The above simplistic analytical derivation for $C_{parasitic}$ assumes the fringing electric field lines to be circular (Fig. S8) and underestimates the capacitance. For accurate analysis, simulation of the 2D electrostatics in the device is essential.



Figure S1: Schematic of dual-gated metal-oxide-semiconductor-field-effect-transistor. Schematic of a symmetric dual-gated metal-oxide-semiconductor-field-effect-transistor (DGMOS-FET) used to study impact of channel material properties on the scaling limit of transistors in Fig. 1.



Figure S2: Dependence of characteristic length on channel thickness. Device electrostatic characteristic length (λ) as a function of channel thickness (T_{CH}) for Si and MoS₂.

A: SWCNT transfer process



Figure S3: Detailed process flow for SWCNT gated MoS₂ FET

7.5

10.0

12.5

un

5.0

2'5

Figure S3 shows the detailed process flow for the device fabrication. The first step of the process involves the transfer of grown SWCNT from the growth substrate (quartz) to the target 50 nm SiO_2 / Si substrate using gold as the transfer layer (23) (Fig. S3A). The target substrate is prepatterned with 0.5/30 nm Cr/Pt alignment markers. These alignment markers are used to relatively locate the transferred SWCNT in a scanning electron microscope (SEM) image (Fig. S3B). Care is taken to ensure the SWCNTs are not damaged during the SEM by minimizing the exposure time under the electron-beam. Gate electrodes are then patterned using electron-beam lithography followed by 30 nm Pd evaporation and liftoff process (Fig. S3C). $I_{\rm S}$ - $V_{\rm BS}$ measurements of the SWCNT devices help to identify the metallic or semiconducting nature of the SWCNT (Fig. S3D). After the measurement, the SWCNT devices are mapped with an atomic force microscope (AFM) to find the relative location of the SWCNT with respect to the gate electrodes (Fig. S3E). Post the AFM map, ZrO₂ gate dielectric is deposited using atomic layer deposition (ALD) and the MoS₂ flake is transferred on top using a dry pick and transfer method (14) using poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) as the transfer medium (Fig. S3F). The AFM map taken prior to the ALD is then used as a mask for a second electron-beam lithography step, to pattern the source and drain electrodes (Ni 40 nm) as shown in Fig. S3G, thus completing the device fabrication.



Figure S4: EELS map. EELS mapping of the 1D2D-FET showing the spatial location of the different elements (EDS map is shown for Mo). Carbon mapping clearly indicates the position of the SWCNT under the ZrO_2 gate dielectric and the MoS_2 flake on top of it. Carbon seen on top of the ZrO_2 can be attributed to organic residue like PMMA and contaminants from processing steps and dry transfer of MoS_2 .



Figure S5: $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm BS}$ characteristics obtained by varying the n^+ Si back gate. $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm BS}$

characteristics for the device in Fig. 3A-C. The MoS_2 extensions regions are completely inverted using the Si back gate at $V_{BS} = 5$ V.



Figure S6: Energy band diagrams in ON and OFF-states. Energy band diagrams corresponding to the TCAD simulations in Fig. 3D-G. $V_{BS} = 5$ V, $V_{DS} = 50$ mV, $(V_{GS} - V_T) = 1.5$ V (ON) and $(V_{GS} - V_T) = -0.3$ V (OFF), for the 2L MoS₂ device. In the OFF-state the bias applied to the SWCNT creates a barrier which opposes the flow of carriers from source to drain. In the ON-state no barrier exists to the flow of electrons from the source to drain and the ON-current is limited by the series resistance of the extension regions.

MoS₂ OFF e density (cm⁻²) $L_{EFF} \sim 3.9 \text{ nm}$ ZrO_2 SWCNT 2.1 x 10⁹ SiO₂ 4 nm 1.3 x 10⁵

A: $(V_{GS}-V_T) = -0.3 \text{ V}, \text{ n}_{\text{threshold}} = 1.3 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2}$

B: $(V_{GS}-V_T) = -0.3 \text{ V}, \text{ } n_{\text{threshold}} = 6.5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-2}$



Figure S7: Electron density contour plots. Dependence of L_{EFF} on the definition of OFF-state and $n_{thershold}$ (electron density below which the channel is considered depleted) for $V_{BS} = 5$ V, $V_{DS} = 50$ mV (27-29). The OFF-state corresponds to ($V_{GS} - V_T$) = -0.3 V and ON-state corresponds to ($V_{GS} - V_T$) = 1.5 V (or an ON/OFF current ratio of ~ 10⁶). L_{EFF} is of the order of 5 nm as seen from the simulations. The 2D electron density is obtained by multiplying the 3D density obtained from simulations with T_{CH} , by assuming uniform distribution along the thickness of MoS₂.



Figure S8: Parasitic capacitance and dependence on gate height. Effective channel length $(L_{EFF}) >$ physical gate length (L_G) due to fringing electric field. L_{EFF} and $C_{parasitic}$ increase as the height of the gate (T_G) increases, for the same value of T_{OX} ($T_{ZrO2} - T_G$). L_{EFF} and $C_{parasitic}$ are small for a SWCNT gate as compared to lithographically defined gates because of the naturally short height of a SWCNT, and hence less fringing electric field lines coupling to the channel (43).



Figure S9: Dependence of DIBL on gate oxide thickness. Drain-induced barrier-lowering (DIBL) as a function of the ZrO_2 thickness calculated using simulations. Effective oxide thickness (EOT) scaling helps improve the electrostatics in the device and reduce DIBL.



Figure S10: Thickness dependence of MoS₂. I_{DS} - V_{GS} curves for several different channel thicknesses from TCAD simulations used to calculate SS in Fig. 4B. The TCAD results qualitatively match the experimental trends. Doping of MoS₂ (N_D) is assumed to be 10¹⁷ cm⁻³, and the dielectric constant of ZrO₂ = 25 (42). Electron affinity of MoS₂ is assumed to be 4 eV (44). All other values are as specified in table S1. For more quantitative comparison, the analysis must involve simulation of the 2D density of states for MoS₂, correction for contact resistance, oxide and interface traps, along with using more accurate values for m^* , E_G , N_D , etc.

MoS2				Si			
$T_{\rm CH}$ (nm)	ε (relative) (35)	$E_{\rm G}^{\rm (38)}$	m _e * (19)	$T_{\rm CH}$ (nm)	ε (relative) (36)	$E_{\rm G}^{\rm (37)}$	m _e * (39)
0.65	3.93	1.88	~ 0.55	0.5431	4.39		~ 0.22
1.3	4.71	1.59	~ 0.55	1.0862	6.62	1.90	~ 0.22
1.95	4.90	1.47	~ 0.55	1.6293	7.66	1.46	~ 0.22
2.6	6.24	1.44	~ 0.55	2.1724	8.70	1.31	~ 0.22
3.25	7.71	1.42	~ 0.55	2.7155	9.73	1.23	~ 0.22
10.4	~ 10	~ 1.3	~ 0.55	3.2586	10.32	1.19	~ 0.22
31.2	~ 10.5	~ 1.3	~ 0.55				

Table S1: Parameter values used for calculations in Fig. 1 and Fig. S2. Values have been extracted from references (*19*, *35-39*). The effects of quantum confinement at atomic-scale channel thicknesses on parameter values like bandgap, dielectric constant and effective mass are considered for more accurate analysis. The bandgap values for MoS_2 correspond to the optical bandgap from photoluminescence spectra. The bandgap of Si is obtained from optical absorption spectra.

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