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Linear Work Function Modulation Using Hf-Mo Binary Metallic

Alloys for Nanometer Device Application

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鉿-鉬二元合金之線性功函數調變在奈米元件之應用 Linear Work Function Modulation Using Hf-Mo Binary Metallic Alloys for Nanometer Device Application

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鉿-鉬二元合金之線性功函數調變在奈米元件之應用

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摘 要

當金氧半場效電晶體的閘極長度微縮到100nm以下,閘極氧化層厚度 同時變得極薄時,多晶矽空乏效應及高閘極電阻等問題將日益嚴重,而使 用金屬做為閘極則可避免這些問題。本次實驗是利用同時濺鍍的方式沉積 鉿-鉬二元合金當金屬閘極,藉由改變對鉿及鉬的濺鍍功率,改變鉿-鉬二 元合金的組成比例變化,以達到功函數的調變。

在實驗中我們分別選用給及鉬來取代傳統的多晶矽閘極,但是給的熱 穩定性很差,並不算是好的閘極材料;相對的,鉬的熱穩定則十分優異。藉 由鉬較佳的熱穩定性,我們期望沉積出具有較佳熱穩定性之鉿-鉬合金以取 代鉿電極。75% 鉿-鉬二元合金被驗證具有較鉿為佳的熱穩定性,且其功函 數(~4.15 eV)更接近N型多晶矽閘極,故可被用來取代鉿做為閘極之用。 此外,在實驗中發現鉿-鉬二元合金的功函數有線性調變的特性,比起非線 性調變而言,對於調變效率和製程變異能夠取得折衷。在奈米元件應用方 面,因為所需的功函數值在N型場效電晶體介於4.4~4.6 電子伏特,而在 P型場效電晶體則是4.8~5.0 電子伏特。因為所需的功函數值並不是固定 的,因此功函數的調變更顯得重要。利用鉿-鉬二元合金的功函數線性調變 之特性,免去通道掺雜的步驟,使得奈米元件能有較低且對稱的臨限電壓 以符合未來低功率操作的目標。

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ABSTRACT

With the downscaling of CMOS gate length to 100 nm regime as well as the drastic thinning of gate oxide thickness, poly depletion effect and high gate resistance encountered in poly-silicon gates will be more pronounced. Metal gates can eliminate poly depletion effect and have lower gate resistance. In our experiment, $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ films were deposited by co-sputtering to be observed as gate electrodes. The sputtering power of each target was varied to modulated the composition of alloy and then the metal work function.

In this work, we select Hf and Mo to replace n^+ and p^+ poly-silicon, respectively, but the thermal stability of Hf is too poor to be served as gate electrode. Because Mo has excellent thermal stability, the use of Hf_xMo_(1-x) alloy is expected to provide better thermal stability as well as to replace Hf gate electrode. Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25} alloy provide suitable work function value (~ 4.15 eV) and better thermal stability (up to 400 °C) so that the combination of Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25} / Mo may be a new candidate for dual work function metal gate bulk CMOS technology in gate-last process. Furthermore, the linear work function modulation using binary alloy Hf_xMo_(1-x) was achieved. Compared with non-linear Φ_m modulation, linear modulation behavior is a compromise between modulation efficiency and immunity to process variation. For nanometer devices, the required work function to be applied to low voltage application are $4.4 \sim 4.6$ eV and $4.8 \sim 5.0$ eV for N- and P-MOSFET, respectively. Linear work function modulation technique can be used to obtain appropriate work function values for nanometer devices threshold voltage control without implanting additional channel doping.



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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

As MOSFET gate lengths are scaled down to 0.1um regime and the equivalent gate-oxide thickness in MOS devices are downscaled into sub-2nm region, considerable challenges are encountered for higher integrated circuit density and performance. The problems of poly-silicon gate depletion, high gate resistance, high gate tunneling leakage current, and boron penetration into the channel region become more severe as the channel length and gate-oxide thickness are aggressively reduced [1]-[3]. The poly-silicon gate depletion adds 3-5Å to the equivalent oxide thickness (EOT) of the gate dielectric, exacerbating the challenge of achieving sub–10Å EOT. High gate resistance results in larger RC time delay, so it may be a show stopper for the high speed devices. In addition, poly-silicon was found to have poor thermodynamic stability on metal-oxide dielectrics which are being investigated to replace SiO₂ as the gate dielectric [4]-[6]. Therefore, there is great interest in metal gates.

The use of metal gates can not only eliminate the inherent drawback of poly-silicon but also drastically reduce the sheet resistance of gate electrode. The early approach of metal gate technology employs single metal with mid-gap work function for both NMOSFET and PMOSFET [7]. The drawbacks are that the threshold voltages would be too large to be applied to low voltage-low power applications. Counter channel doping can lower the threshold voltage while the short-channel and turn-off characteristics will be degraded. Therefore, an approach analogous to the established dual-poly-silicon gate technology, i.e., a dual-metal gate technology, would be preferred. For bulk CMOS devices, metals with work functions (Φ_m) near the silicon conduction and valence band edges, i.e., ~4eV and ~5.1eV, are needed for NMOS and PMOS devices, respectively (**Fig. 1.1**) [8].

When device scales down to the physical limit, new structures will be necessary such as the symmetric double-gate (DG) MOSFET, FinFET and/or ultra-thin body (UTB) MOSFET shown in **Fig. 1.2**. The gate controlling ability to the channel for the new structures are better than the conventional bulk MOSFET. The required work function for the new device structures would not be ~4eV or ~5eV [9]. As shown in **Fig. 1.3**, to achieve low and symmetric threshold voltage, the required work functions for N- and P-channel devices will be increased and decreased, respectively, compared to those for bulk devices. It is also worth to note that the values of required metal work functions depend on body thickness. Therefore, the required metal work functions would be about $4.4 \sim 4.6$ eV and $4.8 \sim 5.0$ eV for N- and P-channel devices, respectively.

In this work, we propose dual work function metal gate technology using the binary metallic alloys $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$. Linear work function modulation of binary alloys could be achieved.

For bulk MOSFET, dual metal gates with $Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25}$ (~ 4.15 eV) and Mo (~ 4.95 eV) are applied to NMOS and PMOS devices to replace poly-silicon gates. For nanometer devices, body thickness variation results in the threshold voltage shift. We require adjustable work function to optimize threshold voltage for low power operation. Linear work function modulation using $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ binary metallic alloys can solve this problems.

1.2 Organization of the Thesis

The dissertation is divided into five chapters.

In chapter 2, we review some metal gate technologies and discuss their advantages and drawbacks. Midgap work function of TiN, dual work function metal gate using Ti and Mo, dual work function by Ni-Ti interdiffusion, work function adjustment of the single metal gate by nitrogen implantation, work function adjustment of the single metal gate by full silicidation and adjustable metal work function of binary metallic alloys are introduced.

In chapter 3, the detailed process flow will be described such as LOCOS isolation, gate oxide growth, metal gate deposition by co-sputtering, electrical characteristics measurement, and material analysis. The method of metal work function extraction will also be illustrated.

Chapter 4 focuses on electrical characteristics and thermal stability of Hf or Mo single metal and Hf-Mo binary alloy gates. Different RTA conditions are performed to estimate the thermal stability. The results of the material analysis such as X-ray Diffraction Analysis (XRD), Rutherford Backscattering Spectrometer (RBS), and Auger Electron Spectrometer (AES) are also shown.

In chapter 5, the conclusions with a summary of experimental results will be addressed.



Chapter 2

Review of Atate-of-the-Art Metal Gate Technology

2.1 Several approaches to the metal gate process

Here, we introduce several approaches to the metal gate process such as mid-gap work function of TiN gate, dual work function metal gate using Ti and Mo, dual work function by Ni-Ti interdiffusion, work function adjustment of the single metal gate by nitrogen implantation, work function adjustment of the single metal gate by full silicidation, and adjustable metal work function of binary metallic alloys.

2.1.1 Mid-gap Work Function of TiN gate

In order to eliminate the poly depletion we choose metal gates to replace poly-silicon gates. TiN gate was applied to the CMOS technology. When CMOS devices used TiN as metal gate, symmetric threshold voltages were attained due to its mid-gap work function but the values were too large for low-voltage operation. Therefore, in view of the device performance and scaling, dual work function metal gate technology would be preferable to single metal with mid-gap work function.

2.1.2 Dual Work Function Metal Gate Using Ti and Mo

A straightforward way to implement a dual-work function metal gate CMOS technology is shows in **Fig. 2.1**. Where Ti metal gate is used in the NMOS region and Mo metal gate is used in the PMOS region. After blanket deposition, the first metal Ti ($\Phi_m \sim 4eV$) is removed with a RCA solution (NH₄OH:H₂O₂:H₂O mixed in the proportion of 1:2:5) from the PMOS region and then a second metal Mo ($\Phi_m \sim 5eV$) with a different work function is deposited [10]. Unfortunately, this entails exposing the gate dielectric to the metal etchant, which causes undesirable thinning and potential dielectric reliability problems.

2.1.3 Dual Work Function by Ni-Ti interdiffsion

Alternative approach is proposed that the dual work function gates can be fabricated without exposing the gate dielectric to the metal etchant [11]-[12]. First, a thin layer of Ti (Φ_m ~3.9eV)was deposited over the entire wafer; then Ni was deposited over the entire wafer. Ni ($\Phi_m \sim 5eV$) was then selectively removed from the NMOS region while the PMOS regions are protected by photoresist (**Fig. 2.2**). Since the low work function metal Ti is the only metal remaining metals on top of the NMOS dielectric, it will clearly determine the NMOSFET threshold voltage. A 400°C anneal was then applied in order to interdiffuse the Ti and Ni layers in the PMOS region. Due to the high diffusivity of Ni in Ti, this low thermal budget is sufficient to ensure that Ni diffuses through the Ti layer to the dielectric interface. **Fig. 2.3** shows that Ni

has diffused to SiO_2 interface. It is a pity that the higher gate leakage current seen in the PMOS device is likely due to Ti reaction with the gate oxide during the interdiffusion anneal. It can not be applied to conventional CMOS technology because the thermal stability is poor.

2.1.4 Work Function Adjustment of the Single Metal Gate by Nitrogen Implantation

Except for the above two approaches to obtaining the dual work function, one can also use a single metal gate material for both NMOSFET and PMOSFET while still enabling separate work function control. Here we introduce two methods of adjustable work function for the single metal gate. One is the use of nitrogen implantation, and the other is the full silicidation of poly-silicon gate.

The implementation of this single metal gate concept requires a viable gate work function adjustment technique. Recently, Mo has been demonstrated as a gate metal for PMOSFET, compatible with several post-SiO₂ gate dielectrics [13]. It has also been shown that the work function of Mo can be modulated by nitrogen implantation [14]. An n-well CMOS process with LOCOS isolation was used. Gate SiO₂ deposition was followed by sputter deposition of 650Å Mo. The PMOSFET were then masked with photoresist while NMOSFET gates received a nitrogen implant (dose $5x10^{15}$ cm⁻², energy 29keV). **Fig. 2.4** shows the cross-sectional view of CMOS device processes [15]. A gate work function reduction of 0.42eV was achieved for the NMOSFET. However, the magnitude of work function modulation is not large enough [16]. For the ultra thin body application, the threshold voltage of NMOSFET will still be too large.

2.1.5 Work Function Adjustment of the Single Metal Gate by Full Silicidation

Self-aligned silicide (SALICIDE) technology has been used in advanced CMOS process [17], in which only partial poly-silicon gets silicided. The extension of existing SALICIDE technology into fully silicided gates has several advantages from a processing point of view, and its low temperature formation is CMOS compatible. Thick oxide capacitor data with fully silicided poly-silicon gates has been recently reported for NiSi where two different work functions were found for n⁺ and p⁺ poly [18]. Conventional CMOS transistors with 1.7nm equivalent oxide thickness nitride/oxide dielectric stack and poly-silicon gates were built. No channel doping was utilized. Poly-silicon gates were doped with B and As for PMOS and 411111 NMOS, respectively. From electrical results, it is estimated that NMOS work function is ~4.5eV and PMOS ~4.9eV. The change of metal work function in NMOS side may be attributed to As piled-up at the top of gate dielectric interface. In PMOS region, there is much less of B accumulation at the gate dielectric/electrode interface (Fig. 2.5). For the NMOSFET, the work function is still too large to obtain low threshold voltage, and the channel doping will still be needed for threshold voltage control.

2.1.6 Adjustable Metal Work Function of Binary Metallic Alloys

Recently, metal alloys were proposed for work function modulation [19]-[20]. Binary metallic alloys of Ru and Ta have been proposed as candidates for CMOS gate electrodes. Ru_xTa_y films were co-sputtered on thermal grown SiO₂ from Ru and Ta targets. The sputtering power of Ta and Ru was varied to modulate the composition. **Fig. 2.6** shows the work function extraction for various compositions of Ru_xTa_y alloys. Non-linear work function modulation behavior is observed. New alloy phase forms (Ta content between 40% and 64%) and results in the Φ_m dropping abruptly (**Fig. 2.7**). The work functions between 4.6eV and 4.9eV needed for FinFET and/or UTB-SOI devices may not be available.

For reasons mentioned above, dual work function is essential for advanced CMOS techniques. In this work, we choose the binary metallic alloys to replace the conventional poly-silicon gate. The linear work function modulation using binary metallic alloys of Hf and Mo have been achieved successfully, and it will be discussed particularly later.

2.2 Metal Film Deposition with the Sputter System

There are two methods to deposit the metal film by using chemical vapor deposition (CVD) and physical vapor deposition (PVD). Take TiN gate for example, CVD-TiN prepared by metalorganic precursors introduced high carbon impurity and reliability problems, while the film by TiCl₄ and NH₃ generated unstable capacitance equivalent thickness variation and reliability degradation due to high chlorine content [21]. Sputtering deposition of the metal gate

electrode is favorable than Chemical Vapor Deposition, because the impurity contained in the metal deposited by CVD may degrade the gate dielectric reliability during high temperature annealing processes. Sputtering is a term used to describe the mechanism in which atoms are ejected from the surface of a material when that surface is struck by sufficiently energetic particles. It has become the dominant technique for depositing a variety of metallic films in VLSI and ULSI fabrication. In our experiment, the binary alloy films are deposited by co-sputtering. The DC power applied into the target is modulated to vary the composition of binary metallic alloys. Different contents of Hf and Mo in the binary metallic alloys will result in dissimilar work function values.



2.3 Gate Last Technology-Replacement and Damascene Gate Process

In conventional metal gate designs, the source/drain annealing temperature must be limited to prevent degradation of the gate insulator integrity and metal film stability. It is well-known that the metal gates are easily degraded by high temperature process in term of structural stability, moreover, underneath gate oxide is more susceptible to plasma charging damage originated in the source/drain implantation and the gate reactive ion (RIE) processed. The replacement gate design has the unique advantage that the annealing of the source/drain implants is performed prior to the gate insulator formation. Therefore, annealing temperatures higher than 1000 $^{\circ}$ C can be employed to fully active the source/drain dopants without thermal

stability concerning, and the processing temperature after gate formation can be further reduced to as low as 400 $^{\circ}C$.

The replacement gate process was proposed to employ the low resistance and depletion-free properties of metal gates in trying to achieve superior high-speed transistors. In this processes, poly-silicon dummy gates are replaced by metal gate after high temperature process for source/drain activation. However, this process is suffering some drawbacks of complexity and compatibility. For example, these metal gate should be patterned by an additional lithography and defined by using the reactive ion etching (RIE) process as T-shape gate, requiring some difficult process step for the precise mask alignment of the metal gate to the dummy gate and the plug to the metal gate.

On the other hand, in order to overcome the incurring complexity in replacement gate process, metal wiring can be fabricated by chemical mechanical polishing (CMP), which is widely used in multilevel interconnection. This type of metal wiring process utilizing CMP is referred to as the damascene process. This novel gate formation process can further prevent deteriorating the gate electrodes and the gate oxides reliability from the plasma and thermal damage.

In the damascene process, the gate insulator and gate electrodes are deposited after ion implantation and high temperature annealing (about 1000 $^{\circ}$ C) for source/drain formation, and then the gate electrodes are fabricated by CMP of gate material deposited in grooves. Metal

gates and high dielectric constant gate insulators are applicable to the MOSFET, since the processing temperature after gate formation can be much lower than those in conventional CMOS processes. The process damage on gate insulators can also be minimized because there is no plasma-related process involved.



Chapter 3

Experiments and Measurements

3.1 Process Flow of the Binary Metallic Alloys Gated Capacitor

The binary metallic alloys gated capacitors were fabricated on 6-inch p-type (100) 15 - 25 Ω -cm silicon wafers. The detailed fabrication process steps are described as follows and the process flow chart is shown in **Table 3.1**. The detailed process flow diagram is shown in **Fig.**

3.1.

Zero mark alignment: An initial alignment key was formed at wafer surface for each mask alignment afterward.

• LOCOS isolation: A wafer with a bare silicon surface was cleaned and a 35 nm oxide was thermally grown in the horizontal furnace at 950 $^{\circ}$ C on the surface. The function of this layer, called a pad or buffer oxide, was to cushion the transition of stresses between the silicon substrate and the subsequently deposited nitride. Next, a 150 nm thick layer of LPCVD silicon nitride at 780 $^{\circ}$ C which functions as an oxidation mask was deposited. Silicon nitride was effective in this role because oxygen and water vapor diffused very slowly through it, preventing oxidizing species from reaching the silicon surface under the nitride. In addition, the nitride itself oxidized very slowly as the field oxide was grown. The active regions were now

defined with a photolithographic step. A photoresist pattern is normally used to protect all of the areas where active devices would be formed. The nitride layer was etched by TEL 5000, and then the photoresist was stripped. After active regions definition, the field oxide 550 nm was thermally grown by means of wet oxidation at 980 °C. Following field oxidation, the masking layer was removed. Since 20-30 nm of the top of the nitride was converted to SiO₂ during the field oxidation, this layer must be etched off first by BOE dipping for 15 seconds. The remaining nitride and pad oxide were then etched. Nitride was removed by H₃PO₄ at 165 °C for 65 minutes and pad oxide was removed by HF. A 35 nm sacrificial oxide was grown at 925 °C to remove any dry-etch induced damage or unwanted nitride. And then, using the HF solution removed the sacrificial oxide. Finally, sacrificial oxide was grown again to protect the active region before gate oxide growing.

• *Gate oxide deposition*: First, sacrificial oxide was removed using HF-dip and gate oxide was thermally grown by dry oxidation using the vertical furnace at 800 $^{\circ}$ C. To decouple the contribution of fixed charge, three different oxide thicknesses, i.e., 3 nm, 6 nm, and 8 nm were deposited.

• *Metal Gate deposition*: After the growth of gate oxide, metal films were deposited on the top of it. Two control samples gated by single metal were fabricated. One was gated by 50 nm pure Hf and the other was gated by 50 nm pure Mo. On the other hand, samples gated by binary metallic alloy $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ were also fabricated. The $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ films were deposited by

co-sputtering with 50 nm thickness. The sputtering power was modulated to vary the composition of binary metallic alloys (List in **Table 3.2**). The gate electrodes were then patterned by reactive ion etching (RIE) using Cl₂ based chemistry.

• *Metal Rapid Thermal Anneal*: Samples were then subjected to different RTA conditions from 400 $^{\circ}$ C to 1000 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 seconds to evaluate the possible thermal cycle in conventional CMOS process.

3.2 Measurement Techniques

In this section, the characteristics of the devices were performed on metal gate capacitor test devices using an HP 4284 capacitance-voltage measurement system and KEITHLEY 4200.

3.2.1 Thickness Measurement of Ultra-Thin Gate Oxide

Two techniques were used to determine the physical gate oxide thickness, one is ellipsometer and the other is n & k analyzer. Before n & k analyzer measurement, a baseline wafer is used to calibrate. Some thin oxide may be formed on the baseline wafer for a long time. When the thin film we wanted to measure is thinner than the oxide on the baseline wafer, we can not know the thickness because the value is zero. Ultra-thin films under 10 nm had better be measured with ellipsometer. The film over 10 nm is often measured with n & k analyzer. Therefore, the physical oxide thickness was determined by ellipsometer in our experiment.

3.2.2 Capacitance-Voltage Measurement

The C-V techniques can be used to analyze process, product and reliability, etc. We can benefit from C-V data, such as equivalent oxide thickness and capacitance, etc. We can estimate the flat-band capacitor from C-V data, and then find out the flat-band voltage V_{FB} . In the C-V theory, the flat-band capacitance is expressed as:

$$C_{FB} = \frac{\varepsilon_{ox}}{t_{ox} + (\frac{\varepsilon_{ox}}{\varepsilon_s})\sqrt{(\frac{kT}{e})(\frac{\varepsilon_s}{eNa})}}$$

where t_{ox} is the effective oxide thickness, Na is the substrate doping, and ε_{ox} and ε_{s} are the dielectric constant of oxide and silicon substrate, respectively. From effective oxide thickness and flat-band voltage, the metal gate work function can be extracted. In our experiment, the flat-band voltage and effective oxide thickness may vary due to the different thermal treatment. The capacitance of the metal gate capacitor may increase or decrease and the flat-band voltage may shift under high temperature annealing. The C-V measurement is a powerful tool to inspect those changes in capacitances and the flat band voltage shift.

3.2.3 X-ray Diffraction Analysis (XRD)

The microstructure of metal film is examined by XRD. The specimen is mounted in the center of the diffractometer and rotated by an angle θ around an axis in the film place. The counter is attached to an arm rotating around the same axis by angles 2θ twice as large as those of the specimen rotation. It can be seen that the diameter of the focusing circle continuous

by shrink with increasing diffraction angle. Only (hkl) plans parallel to the film place contribute to the diffraction from the pattern of specific diffraction peak, the crystalline of films can be characterized.

3.2.4 Auger Electron Spectrometer (AES)

Auger electron spectrometer techniques can be used to analyze the depth distribution of the concentration of the composite elements in the sample from surface to inner. The analyst excited the auger electrons by electronic beams and the same time sputtered the sample by ionic beams to generate the new surface of the sample. From the auger electron spectroscopy, the concentration of the composite elements in different depth can be attained.

3.2.5 Rutherford Backscattering Spectrometer (RBS)

Rutherford backscattering spectrometer uses low energy α particle (2 – 3 MeV) to bombard the device under test. The α particle is generated by Van de Graaff Accelerator. The surface barrier semiconductor detector collected scattering α particle and sent to the amplifier and multiple channel analyzer and finally analyzed by the personal computer. From RBS, the composition and percentage of elements can be attained.

3.3 Work Function Extraction

There are two methods to extract the metal gate work function. One is comparing the flat-band voltage shift between metal gate devices and that with known work function value such as n^+ poly-silicon in the same process runs. From the known work function of n^+ poly-silicon and flat-band voltage difference between n^+ poly-silicon and metal, the metal work function can be estimated. But the value of the work function is less precise. The other approach bases on the expression of flat-band voltage:

$$V_{FB} = \Phi_{MS} - \frac{Q_i}{\varepsilon_{ox}} t_{ox}$$

where Qi is the density of fixed oxide charges, ε_{ox} is the dielectric constant of the oxide, and t_{ox} is the thickness of oxide. In order to decouple the effect of fixed oxide charge from the work function, C-V measurement on several oxide thickness were used to generate a V_{FB} vs. EOT curve. The y-intercept of this curve indicated the Φ_{MS} value. Since Qi must be constant in order to obtain meaningful values for Φ_{MS} , we have prepared different oxides on the same wafer to ensure that Qi is the same. This method is more precise than the earlier one so in our calculation the second method is used.

Chapter 4

Characteristics and Thermal Stability of Hf and Mo Single and Binary Alloy Gate

4.1 Introduction

As MOS technology scales toward sub-0.1um regime, the poly-silicon gate depletion effect, caused by insufficient dopant activation near the poly-silicon/SiO₂ interface, becomes increasingly intolerable. To overcome this problem, the replacement of conventional poly-silicon gate by refractory metals, such as TiN or WN, has recently been proposed [24]-[25]. However, the use of metal gate itself could create many new issues such as process 41111 compatibility, metal penetration, and threshold voltage variation, etc. More efforts are thus required to improve the control of the processes as well as the device performance. In order to optimize threshold voltages in high performance devices, the metal gate need tunable work function for NMOS and PMOS devices in CMOS process similar to present poly-silicon gate technology. When transistor scales down to the physical limit, new structures will be necessary such as the symmetric double-gate (DG) MOSFET, FinFET and/or ultra-thin body (UTB) MOSFET. The required work function for the new device structures would not be ~4eV or ~5eV. To achieve low and symmetric threshold voltage, the required work functions for N- and

P-channel devices will be increased and decreased, respectively, compared to those for bulk devices. It is also worth to note that the values of required metal work functions depend on body thickness. Therefore, the required metal work functions would be about $4.4 \sim 4.6$ eV and $4.8 \sim 5.0$ eV for N- and P-channel devices, respectively.

This study investigated the metal gate work function modulation using binary metallic alloys $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ on the NMOS capacitor. Rapid thermal anneal (RTA) was employed in this work to estimate the thermal stability of the binary metallic alloys $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$. Impact of the high-temperature treatment on gate oxide was characterized and discussed.

4.2 Experimental Procedures

NMOS capacitors with Hf or Mo single metal and Hf-Mo binary alloy gate electrodes were fabricated on 6-in. p-type silicon wafers with conventional LOCOS isolation process. Briefly, three oxide thickness (3 nm, 6 nm, and 8 nm) were grown in the vertical furnace at 800 $^{\circ}$ C, followed by the gate electrodes deposition. 50-nm-thick single metal films Hf_xMo_(1-x) were deposited by sputtering and 50-nm-thick binary metallic alloys films of Hf and Mo deposited by co-sputtering in argon ambient. Here, the sputtering power of Hf and Mo were split into nine conditions as shown in **Table 4.2**. Gate electrodes of all samples were etched in a Cl₂-based helicon-type plasma etcher, followed by photoresist stripping in a down-stream O₂ plasma asher. The devices were then split to receive rapid thermal annealing (RTA) at various temperatures. Specifically, the annealing conditions are 400 - 1000 °C for 30 seconds.

4.3 The Work Function of Binary Metallic Alloys System

We first introduce the approximate equation of the binary metallic alloys proposed by

AgAu [24]. The work function of an A_xB_{1-x} alloy can be approximately expressed as

$$\Phi_{m} = x\Phi_{m,A} + (1-x)\Phi_{m,B} + x(1-x)\left[\frac{(\Phi_{m,A} - \Phi_{m,B})(\rho_{A} - \rho_{B})}{x\rho_{A} + (1-x)\rho_{B}}\right]$$
$$= x\Phi_{m,A} + (1-x)\Phi_{m,B} + x(1-x)\left[\frac{(\Phi_{m,A} - \Phi_{m,B})(\frac{\rho_{A}}{\rho_{B}} - 1)}{x\frac{\rho_{A}}{\rho_{B}} + (1-x)}\right]$$

where $\Phi_{m,A}$ and $\Phi_{m,B}$ are the work functions of pure A and B metals, respectively, and ρ_A and ρ_B are the Fermi-level density of states. The density of states at Fermi energy $\rho(\varepsilon_F)$ is proportional to electronic specific heat constant $Ce = \frac{1}{3}\pi^2 \rho(\varepsilon_F)k_B^2 T = \gamma T$ [25], where k_B is Boltzmen constant, T is temperature, and γ is called Sommerfeld parameter. The electronic term is linear in T and is dominant at sufficiently low temperatures. Therefore, we can obtain $\frac{\rho_A}{\rho_B} = \frac{\gamma_A}{\gamma_B}$. In the caes of $\rho_A / \rho_B \sim 1$, the Φ_m changes with x linearly as $\Phi_m = x \Phi_{m,A} + (1-x) \Phi_{m,B}$. The γ values of Hf and Mo are about 2.16 and 2.0 mJ/mole/K², respectively. Since the γ values of Hf and Mo are very close, a nearly linear work function modulation can be expected. Fig. 4.1 shows the comparison between non-linear with linear behavior on work function modulation. Linear work function modulation is a compromise between modulation efficiency and immunity to process variation.

4.4 Characteristics and Thermal Stability of Hf and Mo Single Gate

Fig. 4.2 shows the C-V characteristic of as-deposited Hf and Mo single metal gated capacitors. **Fig. 4.3** shows the wok function extraction of Hf and Mo. We use work function extraction to obtain the work function of Hf is 3.95eV and the work function of Mo is 4.95eV. XRD spectra of Hf and Mo are shown in **Fig. 4.4**. From XRD figures, we can find the peak corresponding the metal phase from the JCPDS information. Comparing work function values of Hf and Mo extracted in this work with reported data, good agreement was obtained.

It seems that Hf and Mo can be applied to dual work function metal gate technology, since work function values of Hf and Mo are suitable for gate electrodes of N- and P-MOSFET bulk devices, respectively. Unfortunately, thermal stability of Hf was found to be poor. From C-V curves, the equivalent oxide thickness of post 400°C annealing Hf gated capacitor changes as show in **Fig. 4.5**. Therefore, Hf is not a good gate candidate even for gate-last process. The equivalent oxide thickness change is likely due to Hf reaction with the oxide. Because Hf has high oxygen solubility, it will form Hf-O bonds in Hf and oxide interface. By contrast, the thermal stability of Mo is excellent until 900°C as shown in **Fig. 4.6**. Whether the Hf_xMo_(1-x) alloy provides any advantage of improvement of thermal stability will be discussed later.

4.5 Characteristics and Thermal Stability of Binary Metallic Alloys Hf_xMo_(1-x)

Fig. 4.7 shows C-V characteristics of binary metallic alloys $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$. The flat-band voltage shift may be due to the variation of Hf content in Hf-Mo alloy with the sputtering power. When the ratio of the sputtering power of Hf is increased, the Hf atomic fraction in Hf-Mo alloy becomes larger. The electrical characteristic of alloy will become more Hf-like, and flat-band voltage will shift toward left. From C-V curves, we can obtain the V_{FB} and EOT values of $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy needed for work function extraction as shown in **Fig. 4.8**. The extracted work function values of $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloys are listed in **Table 4.1**. Comparison between the experimental and calculated work function values in the case of $\rho_{Mo} / \rho_{Hf} = 0.926$ is shown in **Fig. 4.9**. From this figure, we can see the experimental result exhibited linear work function modulation behavior as we expected. The difference between theoretical value and experimental value may be attributed to the deposition rate difference between Hf and Mo.

Fig. 4.10 shows the XRD spectra of 50 % Hf power ratio sample. There is no peak found after high temperature annealing. To put it plainly the alloy film is amorphous. **Fig. 4.11** shows the Mo-Hf phase diagram [26]. In our experiment, the highest annealing temperature is lower than 1000 $^{\circ}$ C so no specific compound will be formed, which maybe result in work function decreasing abruptly. Process quality was demonstrated in **Fig. 4.12**, since the 50% Hf power ratio sample suffering maximum power summation still exhibits negligible hysteresis.

Thermal annealing from 400 °C to 1000 °C for 30 seconds was used to estimate the thermal stability of $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy. **Fig. 4.13** shows the EOT variation versus Hf power ration as a

function of the annealing temperature. Experimental results were then rearranged as shown in **Fig. 4.14**. It can be observed that the increase of Hf power ratio leads to larger Hf atomic fraction in alloy and then poorer thermal stability. For example, the thermal stability of 75% Hf power ratio sample was as low as 400 $^{\circ}$ C.

As mentioned above, the thermal stability of Hf is too low to be suitable for gate electrode candidate for bulk NMOSFET. By contrast, the $Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25}$ alloy have been demonstrated to provide suitable work function value (~ 4.15 eV) and better thermal stability (up to 400 °C) so that the combination of $Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25}$ / Mo may be a new candidate for dual work function metal gate bulk CMOS technology in gate-last process.

Auger depth profiles of post 600 °C annealing 50% Hf power ratio sample is shown in **Fig. 4.15**. Uniform composition throughout the film and abrupt interface can be observed. Hf does not pile up in oxide interface and no obvious metal atom penetration into gate oxide. The RBS depth profile shown in **Fig. 4.16** exhibits the same result.

The C-V curves of post 400 °C annealing samples are shown in **Fig. 4.17**. The work function extraction from V_{FB}-EOT figure is shown in **Fig. 4.18** and extracted Φ_m value are listed in **Table 4.2**. **Fig. 4.19** shows the comparison between Φ_m extraction of as-deposited samples and that of post 400 °C annealing samples. We can see that the work function values of Hf_xMo_(1-x) alloys have no obvious change after 400 °C annealing as shown **Fig. 4.20**.

In sum, Hf_xMo_(1-x) binary alloys exhibit electrical characteristics between Mo and Hf. The
$\Phi_{\rm m}$ modulation using Hf_xMo_(1-x) exhibits nearly linear behavior. On the other hand, thermal stabilities of Hf_xMo_(1-x) decrease with increasing of Hf atomic fraction x. Fortunately, thermal stabilities of Hf_xMo_(1-x) can be still higher than 400 °C which may be the only thermal cycle after gate electrode deposition in gate-last process. Therefore, this proposed linear work function modulation technique exhibits great potential on gate work function engineering.



Chapter 5

Conclusion

As gate length downscales to 0.1um region, metal gate will be highly desired to replace conventional poly-silicon gate. Binary metallic alloys using $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ were studied for gate electrode applications. Linear work function modulation using $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ binary metallic alloys was achieved successfully in our experiment. For bulk NMOSFET, the metal work function needed is 4 ~ 4.2 eV, and $Hf_{0.75}Mo_{0.25}$ (~ 4.15eV) can be used to replace n⁺ poly-silicon gate.

For nanometer devices such as the symmetric double-gate (DG) MOSFET, FinFET and/or ultra-thin body (UTB) MOSFET, the required metal work functions depend on the body thickness and gate numbers. Conventional threshold voltage control using channel doping will inherently lead to carrier mobility degradation. So the role of metal work function engineering will be more pronounced. Work function modulation can be distinguished into non-linear and linear behaviors. Linear work function modulation is a compromise between modulation efficiency and immunity to process variation. Linear work function modulation can be used to obtain the appropriate metal work function value for nanometer device threshold voltage control without implanting additional channel doping.

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Table 3.1 MOS capacitor Fabrication Process.

- ◎ Isolation (Fox=550 nm)
- ◎ SiO2 formation at 3 nm ,6 nm and 8nm
- \bigcirc Hf or Mo (50 nm) deposition by sputtering

 $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ deposition (50 nm) by co-sputtering

- © Electrode pattering
- \bigcirc RTA: 400°C -1000°C for 30seconds



Hf Power ratio	Hf	Мо
	Sputtering	Sputtering
	Power	Power
12.8%	22W	150W
25%	50W	150W
37.5%	90W	150W
50%	150W	150W
62.5%	150W	90W
75%	150W	50W
87.2%	150W	22W
0%	0W	150W
100%	150W	0W

Table 3.2 List of Power conditions.



Hf power	Work
percent	Function
12.8%	4.732eV
25%	4.585eV
37.5%	4.484eV
50%	4.350eV
62.5%	4.202eV
75%	4.150eV
87.5%	4.061eV

Table 4.1 The work function extraction of as-deposited $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy.



Hf power	Work
percent	Function
12.8%	4.730eV
37.5%	4.460eV
62.5%	4.181eV
75%	4.156eV

Table 4.2 The work function extraction of post 400C annealing $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy.





Fig. 1.1 Band diagram of silicon conduction and valence band.



(b)

Fig. 1.2 (a)Double-Gate (DG), and (b) Ultra-Thin-Body (UTB) MOSFET structure cross-sections.



Fig. 1.3 Using a single gate material for both NMOS and PMOS devices can yield symmetric but large threshold voltages. Achieving low and symmetric threshold voltages will require two different midgap gate materials.





Fig. 2.1 Cross sections illustrating the dual-metal gate process, after etching TiN/Ti and before deposition of Mo and TiN (top), and after the gate etch and source-drain implantation to show the gate stack (bottom).



Fig. 2.2 Schematic illustration of the process flow. (a) CMOS structure after second metal has been removed from the n-MOS side. (b) CMOS structure after annealing shows that the metals on the p-MOS side have interdiffused, and second metal has segregated to the dielectric interface.



Fig. 2.3 XPS depth profile for Ti/Ni gate electrode after the 400C, 30 min interdiffusion anneal. A large concentration of Ni is present at the SiO₂ interface.



Fig. 2.4 Cross-sectional view of CMOS device during processing after Mo deposition (a), and after gate etching (b).



Fig. 2.5 (a)Auger profile of As, Ni, Si, and O. Full silicidation of the n^+ poly gate and significant pile-up of As on the top of gate dielectric is evident. (b)Auger profile of B, Ni, Si, and O. Full silicidation of the p^+ poly gate and significant pile-up of B on the top of gate dielectric is evident.



Fig. 2.6 Work function extracted from C-V curves for various composition for Ru-Ta alloys. Non-linear behavior as a function of content is observed.





Fig. 2.7 XRD peaks of Ru-Ta alloys annealed at 900C RTA in Argon.



Fig. 3.1 The detailed metal gate capacitor process flow diagram.



Fig. 4.1 The work function modulation as a function of Hf power ratio in non-linear and linear behaviors.



Fig. 4.2 High frequency C-V characteristics of Hf and Mo.



Fig. 4.3 The work function extractions of Hf and Mo.



Fig. 4.4 XRD spectra of Hf and Mo.



Fig. 4.5 High frequency C-V characteristics of as-deposited and post 400C annealing Hf gate.



Fig. 4.6 The difference of equivalent oxide thickness as a function of annealing temperature.



Fig. 4.7 High frequency C-V characteristics of the $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy with 3-nm-thick , 6-nm-thick and 8-nm-thick oxide.



Fig. 4.8 The work function extractions of $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy.



Fig. 4.9 The work function in the theoretical and experimental value as a function of Hf power ratio.



Fig. 4.10 XRD spectra of 50% Hf power ratio sample after high temperature annealing.



Fig. 4.11 Phase diagram of Mo-Hf binary alloy.



Fig. 4.12 Hysteresis of 50% Hf power ratio sample.



Fig. 4.13 The difference of equivalent oxide thickness as a function of the Hf power ratio.



Fig. 4.14 The difference of equivalent oxide thickness as a function of annealing temperature.



Fig. 4.15 Auger depth profile of post 600C annealing 50% Hf power ratio sample.



Fig. 4.16 RBS depth profile of as-deposited and post 600C annealing 50% Hf power ration sample.



Fig. 4.17 High frequency C-V of post 400C annealing $Hf_xMo_{(1-x)}$ alloy with 3-nm-thick , 6-nm-thick and 8-nm-thick oxide.



Fig. 4.18 The work function extractions of post 400C annealing sample.


Fig. 4.19 The work function extractions of as-deposited and post 400C annealing sample.



Fig. 4.20 The work function difference as a function of post 400C annealing sample.

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