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雙重電漿處理對二氧化鉿金屬-絕緣層-半導體 結構電特性之改善研究 Improvement on electrical characteristics of HfO₂

MIS capacitor with dual plasma treatment

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Improvement on electrical characteristics of HfO2 MIS capacitor

with dual plasma treatment

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雙重電漿處理對二氧化鉿金屬-絕緣層-半導體結構電特性

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摘要

過去的三十多年來,在 MOS-based 的結構裡閘極介電質選擇使用 二氧化矽。而隨著金氧半場效電晶體的微縮,傳統使用二氧化矽當作 開極介電層將面臨到物理和電性的限制。當閘極的長度小於70奈米, 89 則閘極氧化層厚度必須要小於 1.5 奈米,此時的氧化層只有兩到三個 原子的厚度,這會導致很大的閘極漏電流。使用氧化鉿是目前以及未 來最為推廣的材料,但是 high-k 閘極介電層在 C-V 曲線中被發現有 遲滯現象,此現象會導致 MOS 元件中平帶電壓飄移以及臨界電壓的不 穩定。本研究製造了Al/Ti/HfO2/Si 金屬絕緣層矽(MIS)結構之電容, 作為分析的樣品。首先,在二氧化鈴薄膜上,使用不同氣體(氮氣、 氧化氮和氨氣)做不同時間下的電漿處理,並且從這些不同條件中挑 選最佳的電漿處理條件。然後,在矽基板上,使用四氯化碳做不同時

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間的電漿處理,並且從這些不同條件中選擇最佳的電漿處理條件。接 著,在金屬絕緣層矽結構之電容中,結合電漿氟化作用和電漿氮化作 用,這種方法稱做雙重電漿處理。最後,利用測量電容一電壓曲線、 漏電流一電壓和磁滯曲線去探討介電質薄膜在不同電漿處理的條件 下的基本特性。這結果可以發現經過電漿處理後的介電質薄膜,可以 得到較高的電容密度、較低的漏電流以及較小的磁滯現象。這是因為 電漿源中的氟原子可以抑制介電層和矽之間的氧化層成長並且修復 介電質中的缺陷,氮原子可以修補介電層的缺陷。因此經由電漿處理 過後的金屬絕緣層矽結構之電容漏電流較低,而且電荷較容易累積使 得電容值提高。 \mathbf{R}

Improvement on electrical characteristics of $HfO₂ MIS$ capacitor

with dual plasma treatment

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ABSTRACT

For more than 30 years, $SiO₂$ films have been the preferred material for gate dielectric in MOS-based structure. The aggressive scaling of MOS devices is almost reaching the fundamental and electric limits of convention $SiO₂$ as the gate insulator. When the gate length is below 70nm will need an oxide thickness of less than 1.5 nm, which corresponds to two or three layers of silicon dioxide atoms. The oxide of using Hafnium-based is a most promising material for future MOSFET gate oxide applications. Unfortunately, for high-k gate dielectrics, there is a hysteresis phenomenon in its capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics. This hysteresis induces a flatband voltage shift, and threshold voltage instability when it is applied to MOSFETs. In this study, we fabricated Al-Ti-HfO₂-Si MIS capacitor as our analysis device. First, the HfO₂ film were treated in different source gas $(N_2, N_2O,$ and $NH_3)$ for different time, and we selected the best conditions among these conditions. Second, Si surface were treated in CF_4 plasma for different time, and we selected the

best conditions among these conditions. Third, the MIS capacitors combined plasma fluorination with plasma nitridation, which the method called dual plasma treatment. Final, the electrical characteristics of the film under different plasma conditions were discussed by C-V, J-V, and hysteresis curves. After plasma treatment, the results show higher capacitance, lower leakage current density, and lower hysteresis voltage. It might be that fluorine could suppress the formation of interfacial layer between the $HfO₂/Si$ interface, the nitrogen also can repair defects at bulk dielectric to decrease the leakage current. Moreover, the films after nitridation will more easier accumulate charges, the capacity values will

be more higher.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

The semiconductor industry has continued to prosper and also to foster the growth of multiple industries since the early 70s and has become a global industry in the 90s, as many semiconductor suppliers have established manufacturing or assembly facilities in multiple regions of the world. The Semiconductor Industry Association (SIA) in the United States extrapolates Moore's law into the future to create a roadmap the predicts future developments in microelectronics based on silicon devices. The roadmap sets yearly targets for the performance of integrated circuits (IC) and defines the advances in semiconductor technology required to reach those goals. According th the "Moore's Law" which can see in Fig. 1-1, proposed by Gordon Moore in 1965, which states that "the number of components per chip doubles every 18 months", pursuing better performance with lower cost in needed. The most significant trend for society is in decreasing cost-per-function, which has led to an enormous growth in the market for integrated circuits over the past forty years. Along with for dozens of year semiconductor industry vigorous development, the modern age consume the conformity electric circuit's intense demand regarding the high denseness as well as the low electricity.

Silicon-based microelectronic devices have revolutionized our world in the past three decades. Integrated circuits (IC), built up from many

silicon devices (such as transistors and diodes) on a single chip. It can produce the cheaper electronic memory, and faster and more powerful processors. The semiconductor industry has been driven by constantly increasing transistor counts and performance per integrated circuit (IC). The single biggest driver has been continually shrinking linewidths that allowed more and more transistors to fit into the same area and simultaneously improve performance. Historically linewidths have shrunk every three years, and recently linewidths have been shrinking every two years. In Metal-Oxide-silicon (MOS), the gate oxide thickness will affect the MOS processing speed. In order to increase the devices speed, therefore reduced thickness is necessary.

The silicon industry has been scaling silicon dioxide $(SiO₂)$ aggressively for the past 15 years for low-power, high performance Complementary Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor (CMOS) transistor applications. Although metal-oxide-semiconductor(MOS) basic structure and the principle do not have the too big change until now, but the technology already advances mature 32 nanometer technology and gate oxide below 100 nanometer thickness from 70 age's 10um gate width and several hundred meter gate dielectric layer thickness. In the scaling of MOS, reducing the thickness of gate stack with lower leakage current plays an important role. Although the leakage current of the devices with the same gate dielectric reduces with the scaling gate length and width, that leakage current density increases with the scaling of gate dielectrics. Therefore, the gate leakage current increases as the device size decreases and causes higher power consumption and degrade the reliability of the devices.

For more than 30 years, $SiO₂$ films have been the preferred material for gate dielectric in MOS-based structures. A traditional Si-based MOS structure is obtained by growing a layer of silicon dioxide $(SiO₂)$ on top of silicon substrate and depositing a layer of metal or polycrystalline silicon. Silicon dioxide is a good candidate for gate because it has many advantages in IC technology. For example, it has good stability, high-quality $Si/SiO₂$ interface, and outstanding isolation properties. $SiO₂$ is an almost perfect insulator with a resistivity in excess of 10^{16} Ω cm. The insulating films of $SiO₂$ grown on silicon are smooth and coherent with no holes in a thickness range down to single atomic layers. The interface with silicon is abrupt and there are very few electrically active defects at the interface.

MOSFET gate oxide scaling limits are examined with respect to time-dependent breakdown, defects, plasma process damage, mobility degradation, poly-gate depletion inversion later thickness m tunneling leakage, charge trapping, and gate delay. The formation of ultrathin high-quality gate dielectric has become one of most critical challenges for further downscaling of a device's dimension. The challenges including two important reasons exist, first, the penetration and accumulation of boron into oxide critically degrades the intrinsic oxide reliability [1]. To solve this problem, it has been proposed to have a relatively high nitrogen concentration on the top poly/dielectric interface to block the boron diffusion. Second problem is excessive gate leakage current in ultrathin oxide. According to the SIA(Semiconductor Industry Association)

roadmap, CMOS with gate length below 70nm will need an oxide thickness of less than 1.5nm, which corresponds to two or three layers of silicon dioxide atoms which shows in Fig. 1-2 [2]. Direct tunneling current density at approximately 2nm thickness are about 10^{-2} A/cm². Further reduction in thickness will increase tunneling current exponentially.The resulting gate leakage current will increase the power dissipation and will deteriorate the device performance and circuit stability for VLSI circuits. The gate oxide must be reduced in turn, from 25 silicon atoms today to 5 atoms in 2012 to achieve the roadmap goal. In Fig. 1-3, it shows there must be a limit to this scaling down because the gate-oxide thickness will eventually reach zero [3]. For this reason, a global search for medium-and/or high-k materials for gate dielectric is necessary. The use of high-k materials makes the dielectric film physically thicker resulting in reduced gate leakage with respect to pure $SiO₂$ film with same electrical thickness.

1.2 Scaling down of gate dielectric thickness

In terms of the first order current-voltage relation , the driving current of a MOSFET can be given as

$$
I_{d,sat} = \frac{1}{2} C_g \mu_n \frac{W}{L_{eff}} (V_{GS} - V_t)^2
$$
 (1.1)

$$
C_g = \kappa \varepsilon_0 \frac{A}{t_{inv}} \tag{1.2}
$$

Where L_{eff} is the effective channel length, W is the channel width, V_{GS} is the applied gate to source, V_T the threshold voltage, μ_n is the mobility for electrons, ε_0 is the permittivity of free space, C_g is the gate

capacitance. Form (1.1) [4], we know that with smaller L_{eff} (effective channel length), reduced V_T(threshold voltages), and increased C_g(gate capacitance) as well as gate-to-source voltage, the device can achieve better current driving ability (increasing on-current). In addition, it can also have higher device density, which means a better performance and much more transistors on the chip. The gate oxide thickness required for good MOSFET control actually depends on the capacitance of the film. Capacitance is given by (1.2) [4], where κ is the dielectric constant, A is the area and t_{inv} is the electrical film thickness. So a bigger C_g and shorter L_{eff} will be needed to maintain device performance.

Over the past 30 years, $SiO₂$ has been an perfect candidate for gate dielectric , and has been scaled down from a thickness of 100nm to 1.2nm at 90nm process technology node today, in order to gain a large C_g and a higher density. Unfortunately, the use of the traditional $SiO₂$ gate dielectric has become questionable for sub-0.25 km ULSI devices [5-8]. Increasing problems with dopant (boron) penetration through ultrathin $SiO₂$ layers and direct tunneling for ultrathin (<2nm, which correspond to two or three layers of silicon dioxide atom) oxide films dictate the search for and aggressive exploration of new materials to solve these problems for future gate dielectric.

 There are the several kinds of conduction mechanisms of the leakage current passing through the oxide layer, which contain hot carrier injection, Fowler-Nordheim tunneling and direct tunneling which shows in Fig.1-4. Reducing the thickness of silicon dioxide is less than 2 nm, the dominant leakage mechanism is direct tunneling. The resulting of direct tunneling current will increase the power dissipation and decrease the device performance and circuit stability. We can see the machine from (1.3)

$$
I_{DT} \propto \exp\left(\sqrt{\frac{2mq\phi}{\left(\frac{h}{2\pi}\right)^2}}T_{phys}\right) \tag{1.3}
$$

`We can see form Fig.1-5 [9] to find that the gate oxide can be scaled down to 2nm before exceeding the limit of $1A/cm²$ from the tolerant power consuming. Inversion channel charge loss caused by high gate leakage will degrade the device performance. The high gate leakage also increases standby power consumption.

1.3 The need to use High-k Dielectric

The recent downsizing of the Si device has significantly reduced the gate dielectric film thickness, so that the higher gate leakage on conventional $SiO₂$ dielectrics has become serious. As use $SiO₂$ to gate dielectric is less than 2 nm, the leakage current become unacceptable. We can see (1.4) which be rewritten by (1.2).

$$
t_{\rm high-k} = \frac{k_{\rm high-k}}{k_{\rm ox}} t_{\rm eq} = \frac{k_{\rm high-k}}{3.9} t_{\rm eq}
$$
 (1.4)

Recently, high-k gate dielectrics as an alternative to conventional $SiO₂$ gate oxides are widely investigated for their capability to reduce gate leakage current for the same electrical capacitance [10]-[13]. From (1.4) the direct way to reduce the leakage current is to make the oxide thickness thicker, which can repress the direct tunneling current. We can see (1.5) which be rewritten by (1.4)

$$
EOT = \frac{k_{ox} \times t_{\text{high}-k}}{k_{\text{high}-k}} \tag{1.5}
$$

From (1.5), we use high-k material to be the gate dielectric which can maintain the same Equivalent oxide thickness (EOT) with thicker physical thickness, and is therefore expected drastically reduced the probability of direct tunneling current, and hence, reduces the amount of off-state leakage current density that we can see in Fig.1-6 [14]. The material with higher dielectric constant than 3.9 is called high-k material. In the last few years, high-k material has attracted a great deal of attention because of their promising for replacing $SiO₂$ as gate dielectric in MOSFETs. Nevertheless, the metal-gate electrode has also attracted attention as a solution to the polydepletion effect that appears under gate inversion conditions in poly-Si gates, as well as the incompatibility between some high-k materials and poly-Si [15].

1.4 Why choose HfO²

High-k materials have several advantages, such as being amorphous phase through the whole integration processing, high quality interface and good thermal stability. So, an ideal gate dielectric should meet the following requirements below :

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Physical properties :

1. Gate material compatibility

Materials such as metal gate, and metals have been considered for better controllability and better performance.

2. Wide bandgap with conduction band offset > 1 eV

It is found that most of the high-k materials do not have

wide enough bandgap. In contact with silicon and gate electrode, the bandgap is closely related to the barrier height for carrier transport. Low bandgap will lead to intolerably high gate leakage (leakage current \sim exp($-\Delta$ Ec)).

3. Suitable high-k value (12~60)

A suitable k value is indispensable. Those with not enough high k value could not satisfy (1.3) to lower the leakage by increasing physical thickness. While those with too high k value, in general, would suffer from thermal stability issues and larger fringing field.

- 4. Film morphology(amorphous) and stable process compatibility In the VLSI process, the thermal budget is an important issue since high temperature changes dielectric phase. Once the gate dielectric material has transformed to polycrystalline from amorphous phase, the large grain boundaries would serve as leakage path, and induce large leakage current.
- 5. Thermodynamic stability in direct contact with silicon Preserve capacitance of gate stack after processing.

Electrical Properties

1. Low interface state density (Dit< $5x10^{10}$ /cm⁻² $^{-1}$), and SiO2-like mobility, the interface would affect the carrier mobility in the channel, and from (1.2), mobility degradation is related to poor current drivability. In high-k, there are so many sources that would reduce mobility, such as fixed charge, remote phonon, interfacial dipoles, remote surface roughness, surface roughness and phase separation crystallization. And most of them can be avoided by improving process technology.

- 2. No C-V dispersion
- 3. V_{FB} and hysteresis < 20mV
- 4. J<10 A/cm^2 @ VDD
- 5. T_{inv} < 1nm
- 6. Reliability issue

To serve as a new gate dielectric, we must also take into consideration electrical reliabilities, such as stress-induced leakage current (SILC), time dependent dielectric breakdown (TDDB), hot carrier aging, bias temperature instability and charge trapping issues [16].

There are many promising candidates for replacing $SiO₂$, such as HfO₂, ZrO_2 , Al_2O_3 , Y_2O_3 , Ta_2O_3 and Ti_2O_3 etc. In Table 1-2 lists basic characteristics of several high-k dielectrics. Unfortunately, many high-k materials such as $SrTiO₃$, $TiO₂$, $Ta₂O₅$ and $BaSrTiO₃$ are thermally unstable when directly contacted with silicon [17] and need an additional barrier layer which may add process complexity and impose thickness scaling limit. Also, materials with too low or too high dielectric constant may not be adequate choice for alternative gate dielectric application. Ultra high-k material such as STO or BST may cause fringing field induced barrier lowering effect [18]. Materials with relatively low dielectric constant such as Al_2O_3 and Y_2O_3 do not provide sufficient advantages over $SiO₂$ or $Si₃N₄$ [19]. Among the medium-k materials compatible with silicon, oxides of Zr and Hf are attracting much attention

recently. Especially, Hf forms the most stable oxide with the highest heat of formation ($\Delta Hf = 27l$ Kcal/mol) among the elements in IVA group of the periodic table (i.e. Ti, Zr, Hf). Unlike other silicides, the silicide of Hf can be easily oxidized $[20]$. HfO₂ possesses a dielectric constant of up to 25 [21], a large bandgap of 5.7 eV with sufficient band offset of larger than 1.5 eV [22], and well thermal stability in contact with silicon [23]. Fig.1-7 [24] shows $HfO₂$ is the most suitable material about the struggle between dielectric constant and bandgap. $HfO₂$ is very resistive to impurity diffusion and intermixing at the interface because of its high density (9.68 g/cm³) [25]. In addition, $HfO₂$ is the first high-k material showing compatibility with polysilicon gate process [26]. Therefore, among the high-k dielectrics being studied, $HfO₂$ appears promising due to its relatively high dielectric constant (-25) as compared to $Si₃N₄$ and Al_2O_3 [27], its relatively high free energy of reaction with Si (47.6Kcal/mole at 727° C) as compared to $\overline{110}_2$ and $\overline{1a}_2O_5$ [28], and its relatively large bandgap (\sim 5.8eV) [29]. These properties make HfO₂ to be one of the most promising candidates for alternative gate dielectric application.

1.5 Challenges of High-k Material

The high-k material has attracted a great deal of attention because of their potential for replacing $SiO₂$ as gate dielectric in MOSFETs. But there are many problems to use high-k material practically. The issues for choosing a high-k material may include :

(1) Degradation of carrier mobility

- (2) Thermal stability
- (3) Poly interface and poly gate electrode
- (4) Shift of threshold voltage
- (5) Low dielectric constant interfacial layer between substrate and high-k material.
- (6) Boron penetration prevention
- (7) Compatibility with traditional CMOS process.

Table 1-1 shows the reliability challenges of high-k gate dielectrics, metal gate and copper/low-k interconnects. The main reliability issues include :

- (1) Dielectric breakdown characteristic(hard and soft breakdown)
- (2) Influence of charge trapping and NBTI(Negative Bias Temperature Instability) on threshold voltage stability.
- (3) Stability and unmber of fixed charges All the issus mentioned above still need more effort to overcome .

Recently, HfO₂-based insulator become promising candidates for the gate dielectric , there still remain many challenges :

- (1) Extra interfacial layer growing lower the C value
- (2) The degradation of mobility [30]
- (3) Threshold voltage instability and hysteresis issue [31] [32]
- (4) Charge-trapping issue [33]
- (5) Thermal stability problem [35]

Therefore, high-k dielectrics although provide a low leakage current and satisfied capacitance, but the reliability issues can not be ignorable.

So, it needs some treatments to overcome these problems.

1.6 Charge trapping in HfO²

Even if $HfO₂$ (and other high-k candidates) have several advantages, such as being amorphous phase through the whole integration processing, high quality interface and good thermal stability , but there is still a number of fundamental issues, such as fixed charge, reduced channel mobility and trapped charge, which have to be understood and solved for successful high-k intergration into the Si CMOS technology [36][37].

Charge trapping in high-k gate stacks is known to be more severe compared to conventional SiO₂-based gate dielectrics and due to cold tunneling (i.e., from carriers assisted by the gate insulator field) can be characterized by followed by measurement of the shift in flatband or threshold voltage [37]. During device operation, some charge may be trapped as it passes through the gate stack causing device instabilities such as threshold voltage shifts and drive current degradation. Compared to $SiO₂$, charge trapping in high-k is much more severe. We can see Fig. 1-8 [38], electron transport in high-k gate dielectrics will instead be governed by trap-assisted mechanism, such as Frenkel-Poole (F-P) conduction or hopping conduction, due to the charge-trapping phenomenon. In order to explain higher current density traps in the band gap of the high-k dielectrics, charge trapping has to be assumed. In order to explain higher current density traps in the band gap of the high-k dielectrics, charge trapping has to be assumed. In the known trap-assisted tunneling (TAT) models and the F-P conduction mechanism, the current

density only linearly depends on the trap concentration [39]-[41]. The charging is believed to be mostly due to trapping on preexisting defects in the high-k layer and/or its interfaces.

1.7 Thesis Organization

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Following chapters in the thesis are primarily organized as follow :

In chapter 2, we describe the motivation for this thesis.

In chapter 3, we make a description of experimental details. Metal Organic Deposition system is used to deposit $HfO₂$ on silicon surface.

In chapter 4, we discuss the electrical characteristics of $HfO₂$ insulator by Metal Insulator Semiconductor (MIS) capacitors.

In chapter 5, we make the conclusions for this thesis and provide some suggestions for future work.

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Chapter 2

Motivations

2.1 Forward

For more than 30 years, $SiO₂$ films have been the preferred material for gate dielectric in MOS-based structures, but the gate oxide scaling limits are examined with respect to time-dependent breakdown, defects, plasma process damage, mobility degradation, poly-gate depletion inversion later thickness m tunneling leakage, charge trapping, and gate delay. The recent downsizing of the Si device has significantly reduced the gate dielectric film thickness, so that the higher gate leakage on conventional $SiO₂$ dielectrics has become serious. As use $SiO₂$ to gate dielectric is less than 2 nm, the leakage current become unacceptable.

In the last few years, high-k material has attracted a great deal of attention because of their promising for replacing $SiO₂$ as gate dielectric in MOSFETs. Using hafnium oxide based materials are under intense investigation and optimization due to their high dielectric constant, wide band gap/barrier height and good thermal stability. While $HfO₂$ (and other high-k candidates) show the desired effect of significantly reducing gate tunneling (leakage) current. Therefore, to search for high dielectric constant (high-k) materials for near-future gate dielectrics in MOS ULSI devices is currently an enormous materials and technological challenge.

2.2 Plasma nitridaion

According to traditional view of improving $SiO₂$ device performance, we could find that nitridation is a common method to improve the interface [42]. Property with the result that there is often N_i or D_i in the interface, imperfect bonding of interface usually makes the characteristic of the device deteriorate. For example, charge will be trapped by the defects of the interface, it produces flat band voltage shift and also reduces the carrier mobility. Another shortcoming is that these damgling bonds will easily bond with oxygen atoms in the following high temperature environment. The extra chemical reaction will let the interfacial oxide growth, and it will reduce the capacitance because of the lower dielectric constant. In addition, the quality of interfacial layer formed by oxidation is worse and there still will be the more problems of charge trapping. 1896

In order to solve these problems, nitridation treatment could let the atom of nitrogen bond with these dangling bonds and fix it while entering the interface layer, and then improve the stability and reliability of interface. Therefore, nitridation treatment is a workable solution to improve interface quality. As note before m the problem about using high-k materials to replace $SiO₂$ is that there are too many defects in the interface to cause reliability degradation. Therefore, when we use high-k materials, it considers that nitridation treatment is a more suitable way to improve reliability and thermal stability of the device. There are several kind of treatment methods [43][44]. According to [45], we can understand that the effect of plasma nitridation is better than thermal nitridation because high-k material are afraid of high temperature. As long as the temperature reaches certain degree, we can see phenomenon of crystallization. The crystallization of dielectric will raise leakage current substantially, because it offers the path of leakage current. On the other hand, the meaning of plasma nitridation is to activate the gas source first. The high activation energy of radical will provide better recovery which is better than thermal nitridation. For all these reasons, we adopt plasma nitridation to improve reliability in present experience.

2.3 Plasma fluorination

Threshold voltage instability and device degradation are still major concerns for MOSFETs using high-k gate dielectrics due to high interface and bulk density. Hydrogen (H) and deuterium (D) anneals have been found to help passivate these traps with significantly improved device performance [46]. But the bonding between high-k dielectric (or Si) and H is still not significantly stable to meet the requirement of reliability.

Recently, fluorinated gate dielectrics have been shown to improve the high-k (or Si)/Si interface [47][48]. The beneficial effects of fluorine for attaining more robust oxide have been attributed to its possible ability to improve the interfacial region by terminating the Si dangling bonds, strain relaxation due to breakup of highly strained Si-O-Si bonds by F [49][50], a higher bond strength of the Si-F bond (5.81eV) [51] compared to the Si-H bond (3.6eV) [52]. Thus, the pileup of F at the interface that replaces the Si-H bond by a stronger Si-F bond provides higher interfacial robustness. At the interface, where there are many Si damgling bonds, F is effective in replacing weaker bonds. Therefore, for fluorination, fluorine can passivate the gap states of $HfO₂$ completely. It has been found that silicon incorporated $HfO₂$ can enlarge the band gap, improve the thermal stability performance, and suppress the crystallization.

2.4 Dual Plasma treatment

 In this experiment, we expects to obtain the advantages that combined plasma fluorination with plasma nitridation. The method that combined plasma fluorination with plasma nitridation calls dual plasma treatment.

Chapter 3

Experiments of Al/Ti/HfO2/Si MIS capacitor

3.1 Use MOCVD to prepare high-k thin film

 There are several methods to prepare high-k film , such as chemical vapar deposition (i.e. ALCVD MOCVD PECVD etc.) [53]-[55] and physical vapor deposition (i.e. PLD , Sputtering , E-gun etc.)[56][57]. Table 2-1 is the comparison of deposition techniques which have been used. MOCVD has many advantages including high deposition rate, high crystallization without post annealing, large-area deposition, high throughput, excellent uniformity, excellent step coverage on three-dimensional complex geometries, flexibility for large-scale processing, and a simple experimental system compared to physical vapor deposition which requires high-vacuum equipments. Therefore, we used the MOCVD methods to prepare high-k film below.

 MOCVD (Metal-Organic Chemical Vapor Deposition) is a widely used technology for depositing a variety of thin films, including metal oxide silicate films, for high-k gate dielectric applications. The basic steps in MOCVD deposition method are as follows :

- 1. MO precursor in company with N_2 process gas and O_2 process gas are injected into the reactor.
- 2. The sources are mixed inside the reactor and transferred to the deposition process chamber.
- 3. At the deposition process chamber, high temperature results in the decomposition of sources and other gas-phase reactions, forming the film precursors that are useful for film growth and byproducts.
- 4. The film precursors transport to the growth surface.
- 5. The film precursors are absorbed on the growth surface.
- 6. The film precursors diffuse to the growth site.
- 7. At the surface, film atoms incorporate into the growing film through surface reaction.
- 8. The byproducts of the surface reactions desorb from the surface.
- 9. The byproducts transport to the main gas flow region away from the deposition area toward the reaction. Then the wafer exits.

3.2 Rapid thermal annealing system

METAL RTA-AG 610 was a single-wafer lamp-heated and computer controlled rapid thermal processing (RTP) system. Water and compressed dry air (CDA) cooling system were used to cool down the quartz chamber. High intensity visible radiation heating and cold-heating chamber walls allow fast wafer heating and cooling rate. The tungsten halogen lamps were distinguished into five groups, and the relative percentage of lamp intensity can be adjusted individually for each group to achieve uniform temperature distribution. Temperature was obtained from pyrometer and precise controlled by computer. Two gas lines were used in the system which can be switched between Ar and N_2 . Before RTA process started, one minute N_2 gas purge was performed to minimize the water vapor introduced during wafer loading and also swept unwanted particles induced during process. A fast heating rate of 100℃/s was chosen in this work. When anneal was complete, chamber temperature was quickly cooled down from 900°C to 500°C by N_2 purge 30 seconds. Then, the chamber was slowly cooled down to 280 without N_2 purge to avoid creaking of films. After five minutes later, wafers can be taken out from the chamber. Films' creak can be avoided by two-steps-cooling method.

3.3 Plasma treatment system

In this experiment, we use plasma pre-treatment (before $HfO₂$ film deposition) Si surface after RCA clean to improve the High-k/Si interface quality. When the PDA (Post-Deposition-Annealing) was finished, some samples also were subjected to an additional plasma treatment in order to improve the electrical properties of gate dielectric. There were various source gas (N_2, N_2O, NH_3, CF_4) and process time (10~120 seconds) as the experiment conditions. Fig 2-1 illustrates that PECVD (Plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition) is a process used to deposit thin films from a [gas](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gas) state [\(vapor\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vapor) to a [solid](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solid) state on a [substrate.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Substrate_(materials_science)) [Chemical reactions](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chemical_reaction) are involved in the process, which occur after creation of [plasma](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plasma_(physics)) of the reacting gases. The [plasma](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plasma_(physics)) is generally created by [RF](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radio_frequency) [\(AC\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alternating_current) frequency or [DC](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Direct_current) discharge between two [electrodes,](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Electrode) the space between which is filled with the reacting gases.

 The PECVD system in this experiment which is a Samco model PD-220N. This is a CVD system designed for low temperature (typically \sim 200-400°C) depositon of silicon based materials. It's also provides the
capacity to process five 3["] wafers, three 4["] wafers, or one 8" wafer per cycle.

3.4 E-gun system

After plasma treatment and PNA, we deposited Ti and Al as electrical by E-gun. And finished all manufacturing process, we used E-gun deposited Al as back electrical too. Figure 2-2 shows E-gun work theorem, the system is always in vacuity, and the materials which we wanted to deposited was in the boat. We melt down the materials by heating, and using the electron-beam to bombard the materials to proceed evaporation. The chamber pressure was 10⁻⁶ mTorr when we deposited. After the deposited Ti and Al we could proceed lithography and etching.

3.5 MIS capacitors fabrication process

For the purposes of this research, MOS capacitors were fabricated. The silicon wafer used in this experiment were four inch (100) orientated p-type wafer. It was on side polished and its resistivity 5~10 ohm-cm.

3.5.1 The experiment of plasma fluorination treatment

 After standard initial RCA clean, wafers were put into chamber of the PECVD and plasma fluorination treats the Si surface. The plasma fluorination treatment conditions were in pure CF_4 gas for 10 sec, 20 sec, 30 sec, and 40 sec respectively and the flow rate were 100 sccm and bias 20W in the 300℃ environment.

After the plasma treatment were finished, the wafers were put into chamber and grew $HfO₂$ layer with MOCVD. After the thin films were deposited, most samples were annealed in a N_2 ambient for 30 sec at 600℃ after deposition (PDA , Post-Deposition Anneal) by rapid thermal annealing (RTA). Pure titanic was deposited on the $HfO₂$ layer by e-gun evaporation system and aluminum films were evaporated on the top side of wafers. Mask defined the top electrode. Then, we used wet etching to etch undefined Al and Ti films. After patterning, backside native oxide was stripped with diluted HF solution, and Al was deposited as bottom electrode. The detailed fabrication process flow was listed as follows

- 1. As shown in Fig 2-3
	- (1)Si substrate RCA clean
	- (2)Plasma fluorination treatment
	- (3)Annealing by RTA
- 1896 2. As shown in Fig 2-4 (1)4nm HfO₂ was deposited on the sub-Si by MOCVD. (2)PDA by RTA
- 3. As shown in Fig 2-6 20nm Ti was deposited on the HfO₂ layer by E-gun evaporation

system.

4. As shown in Fig 2-7

400nm Al was deposited on the Ti layer as top electrode by E-gun evaporation system.

5. As shown in Fig 2-8

Undefined Al was removed by wet etching.

6. As shown in Fig 2-9

Undefined Ti was removed by wet etching (1%HF).

7. As shown in Fig 2-10

Al was depodited on the back side of sub-Si as bottom electrode by E-gun evaporation system.

3.5.2 The experiment of plasma nitridation treatment

After standard initial RCA clean, wafers were put into chamber and grew $HfO₂$ layer with MOCVD system. After the thin film were deposited, some samples were annealed by rapid thermal annealing (RTA) and then we used the PECVD to plasma nitridation treat the high-k surface. The plasma treatment conditions were in pure N_2 , NH_3 , and N_2O gas for 120 sec respectively and the flow rate were 100 sccm and bias 20W in the 300 $^{\circ}$ C environment. Pure titanic was deposited on the HfO₂ layer by e-gun evaporation system and aluminum films were evaporated on the top side of wafers. Mask defined the top electrode. Then, we used wet etching to etch undefined Al and Ti films. After patterning, backside native oxide was stripped with diluted HF solution, and Al was deposited as bottom electrode. The detailed fabrication process flow was listed as follows.

- 1. As shown in Fig 2-4
	- (1)Si substrate RCA clean
	- (2) 4nm HfO₂ was deposited on the sub-Si by MOCVD.
	- (3)PDA by RTA
- 2. As shown in Fig 2-5
- (1) Plasma nitridation treatment
- (2) PNA by RTA
- 3. As shown in Fig 2-6

20nm Ti was deposited on the $HfO₂$ layer by E-gun evaporation system.

4. As shown in Fig 2-7

400nm Al was deposited on the Ti layer as top electrode by E-gun evaporation system.

- 5. As shown in Fig 2-8 Undefined Al was removed by wet etching.
- 6. As shown in Fig 2-9 Undefined Ti was removed by wet etching (1%HF).
- 7. As shown in Fig 2-10 Al was deposited on the back side of sub-Si as bottom electrode by E-gun evaporation system..

3.5.3 Dual plasma treatment for MIS capacitors

 After standard initial RCA clean, wafers were put into chamber of the PECVD and plasma fluorination treats the Si surface. The plasma fluorination treatment conditions were in pure CF_4 gas for 10 sec, 20 sec, 30 sec, and 40 sec respectively and the flow rate were 100 sccm and bias 20W in the 300℃ environment. After the plasma treatment were finished, the wafers were put into chamber and grew $HfO₂$ layer with MOCVD. After the thin films were deposited, most samples were annealed in a N_2

ambient for 30 sec at 600℃ after deposition (PDA, Post-Deposition Anneal) by rapid thermal annealing (RTA). Then, we used the PECVD again to plasma nitridation treat the high-k surface. The plasma treatment conditions were in pure N_2 , NH_3 , and N_2O gas for 120 sec, and respectively and the flow rate were 100 sccm and bias 20W in the 300℃ environment. Pure titanic was deposited on the $HfO₂$ layer by e-gun evaporation system and aluminum films were evaporated on the top side of wafers. Mask defined the top electrode. Then, we used wet etching to etch undefined Al and Ti films. After patterning, backside native oxide was stripped with diluted HF solution, and Al was deposited as bottom electrode. The detailed fabrication process flow was listed as follows.

- 1. As shown in Fig 2-3
	- (1) Si substrate RCA clean
	- (2) Plasma fluorination treatment
	- (3) Annealing by RTA
- 2. As shown in Fig 2-4
	- (1) 4nm $HfO₂$ was deposited on the sub-Si by MOCVD.
	- (2) PDA by RTA
- 3. As shown in Fig 2-5
	- (1) Plasma nitridation treatment
	- (2) PNA by RTA
- 4. As shown in Fig 2-6

20nm Ti was deposited on the HfO₂ layer by E-gun evaporation system.

5. As shown in Fig 2-7

400nm Al was deposited on the Ti layer as top electrode by E-gun evaporation system.

6. As shown in Fig 2-8

Undefined Al was removed by wet etching.

7. As shown in Fig 2-9

Undefined Ti was removed by wet etching (1%HF).

8. As shown in Fig 2-10

Al was depodited on the back side of sub-Si as bottom electrode by
E-gun evaporation system.

E-gun evaporation system.

3.6 The MIS Capacitors measurement

After the Al/Ti/ HfO2 /Si MIS capacitors were prepared, we used semiconductor parameter analyzer (HP4156C) and C-V measurement (HP4284) to analysis electric characteristics (i.e. I-V, C-V, EOT, leakage current density etc.). **THEFT**

Chapter 4

Electrical characteristics of Al/Ti/HfO2/Si MIS capacitors

In order to measure the C-V characteristics of our MIS capacitors, we used HP 4284A precision LCR meter in our experiments. We swept the gate bias from inversion region to accumulation region to obtain the curve at the frequency of 50 kHz from -2V to 1V. And the leakage current of our MIS capacitors were analyzed from the current-voltage (I-V) characteristics measured by an HP4156A semiconductor parameter analyzer. There are four kinds of plasma treatment with different souce gas (i.e. N_2 , N_2O , NH_3) for different process time (i.e. 0 sec, 30sec, 60sec, 90sec, 120sec, 150sec, 180sec) and CF_4 plasma treatment for different process time (i.e. 0sec , 10sec , 20sec, 30sec , 40sec). Finally, we combine the two plasma process to obtain the optimal condition. Hence, the relationship of difference process time with $CF₄$ in one kinds of plasma treatment will be discussed.

 The hysteresis will also be discussed in this experiment. The name of Hysteresis was borrowed from electromagnetic. It is means that when a ferromagnetic material is magnetized in one direction, it will not relax back to zero magnetization when the applied magnetizing field is removed. It must be driven back to zero by the additional opposite direction magnetic field. If an alternating magnetic field is applied to the material, its magnetization will trace out a loop called a hysteresis loop [58]. The hysteresis phenomenon is similar to the C-V curve in the MIS capacitor device. When we apply a voltage in reverse, it will not fit the original C-V curve measured previously. It is due to the interface traps which can trap charges to have impact on the flat band voltage and C-V curve. The C-V characteristics for hysteresis extraction were measured by sweeping the voltage from accumulation to inversion $(-2V\rightarrow 1V)$ and then sweeping back ($1V\rightarrow -2V$) at a frequency of 50kHz.

4.1 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with nitridation

WWW.

plasma treatment

 There are three kinds of plasma treatment with different source gas (i.e. N_2 , N_2O , NH_3) and they were treated for different process time (i.e. 30 sec, 60sec, 90sec, 120sec, 150sec and 180sec).

4.1.1 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with N2 plasma F **treatment for different process time**

Fig. 4-1 reveals the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $N₂$ plasma and DC bias 50W for different process time. The capacitor treated in N_2 for 120 sec shows the maximum capacitance density among these samples with different process time. In addition, other samples which treated in N_2 plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma nitridation process. This phenomenon indicates that the N_2 plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance. The factor of improvement might be from that the PDA process and the nitrogen incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics,

which could enhance the electronic polarization as well as the ionic polarization, so the dielectric constant of the $HfO₂$ thin films increases just as Hf-silicate thin film and $SiO₂$ thin film. Besides, the capacitance density of the samples treated in N_2 plasma for 150 sec and 180 sec are degraded. The reason could be the damage caused by the N_2 plasma.

The J-V characteristics of the HfO₂ capacitors treated by N_2 plasma and DC bias 50W with different process time from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-2. It can be observed that the samples which treated in N_2 plasma all present the smaller leakage current density than the leakage current density without whole plasma nitridation process. The gate leakage current density treated in N_2 for 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma nitridaiton. In Fig. 4-1 and Fig. 4-2, it appears that the samples treated in N_2 plasma for 120 sec display the most excellent value. While the nitridation process time is longer than 120 sec, the plasma damage from the plasma nitridation could cause the increase of the gate leakage density.

The hysteresis of C-V characteristics are shown in Figs. 4-3, 4-4, 4-5, 4-6, 4-7, 4-8, and 4-9 for the samples without treatment, and with 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 sec N_2 plasma treatment, respectively. The hysteresis phenomenon of the C-V curves can be observed for all samples, which is caused by the existence of negative charges trapped in the dielectric defect states when the capacitors are stressed. The hysteresis characteristic could be improved by various plasma nitridation process. In Figs.4-3, 4-4, and 4-5, the hysteresis was a slightly reduced after N_2

plasma treatment because the nitrogen incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics and reduced the interface trap state, thus improving hysteresis. In Fig.4-6, 4-7, 4-8, and 4-9, the hysteresis was a slightly enhanced more than other samples with N_2 plasma treatment due to plasma damage. However, these hysteresis voltage are very close to each other and can be acceptable.

4.1.2 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with N2O plasma treatment for different process time

Fig4-10 reveals the capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treats in N_2O plasma and DC bias 40W for different process time. The capacitor treated in N_2O 10 sec shows the maximum capacitance among these samples with different process time, just like the group of N_2 plasma treatment. In addition, other samples which treated in N2O plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma nitridation process. This phenomenon indicates that the N2O plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance. The factor of improvement might be from that the PDA process and the nitrogen incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics, which could enhance the electronic polarization as well as the ionic polarization, so the dielectric constant of the $HfO₂$ thin films increases just as Hf-silicate thin film and SiO2 thin film. Besides, the capacitance density of the samples treated in N₂O plasma for 150 sec and 180 sec are degraded. The reason could be the damage caused by the N_2 plasma.

The J-V characteristics of the HfO₂ capacitors treated by N_2O plasma and DC bias 40W with different process time from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-11. It can be observed that the samples which treated in N_2 plasma all present the smaller leakage current density than the leakage current density without whole plasma nitridation process. The gate leakage current density treated in N_2O for 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma nitridaiton. In Fig. 4-10 and Fig. 4-11, it appears that the samples treated in N2O plasma for 120 sec display the most excellent value. While the nitridation process time is longer than 120 sec, the plasma damage from the plasma nitridation could cause the increase of the gate leakage density.

The hysteresis of C-V characteristics are shown in Figs. 4-12, 4-13, 4-14, 4-15, 4-16, and 4-17 for the samples without treatment, and with 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 sec N_2 plasma treatment respectively. The hysteresis phenomenon of the C-V curves can be observed for all samples, which is caused by the existence of negative charges trapped in the dielectric defect states when the capacitors are stressed. The hysteresis characteristic could be improved by various plasma nitridation process.

It can be observed that the samples which treated in N_2O plasma all present the smaller values than the leakage current density without whole plasma nitridation process. The hysteresis was a slightly reduced after N_2 plasma treatment because the nitrogen incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics and reduced the interface trap state, thus improving hysteresis. However, these hysteresis voltage are very close to each other and can be acceptable.

4.1.3 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with NH3 plasma treatment for different process time

Fig. 4-18 shows the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$ plasma and DC bias 40W for different process time. The capacitor treated in $NH₃$ for 120sec shows the maximum capacitance density among these samples with different process times. In addition, other samples which treated in NH₃ plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma nitridation process. This phenomenon indicates that the NH₃ plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance. The factor of improvement might be from that the PDA process and the nitrogen incorporation in the HfO_2 dielectrics, which could enhance the electronic polarization as well as the ionic polarization, so the dielectric constant of the HfO₂ thin films increases just as Hf-silicate thin film and $SiO₂$ thin film. Besides, the capacitance density of the samples treated in $NH₃$ plasma for 150 sec and 180 sec are degraded. The reason could be the damage caused by the NH₃ plasma.

The J-V characteristics of the $HfO₂$ capacitors treated by $NH₃$ plasma and DC bias 40W with different process time from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-19. It can be observed that the samples which treated in N_2 plasma all present the smaller leakage current density than the leakage current density without whole plasma nitridation process. The gate leakage current density treated in $NH₃$ for 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma nitridaiton. In Fig. 4-18 and Fig. 4-19, it appears that the samples treated in $NH₃$ plasma for 120 sec display the most excellent value. While the nitridation process time is longer than 120 sec, the plasma damage from the plasma nitridation could cause the increase of the gate leakage density.

The hysteresis of C-V characteristics are shown in Figs. 4-20, 4-21, 4-22, 4-23, 4-24, and 4-25 for the samples without treatment, and with 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 sec NH3 plasma treatment respectively. The hysteresis phenomenon of the C-V curves can be observed for all samples, which is caused by the existence of negative charges trapped in the dielectric defect states when the capacitors are stressed. The hysteresis characteristic could be improved by various plasma nitridation process.

In Figs. 4-20, 4-21, and 4-22, the hysteresis of NH_3 plasma treatment for 60 sec and 90 sec were both larger than the sample of no plasma treatment. The reason possibly was the plasma process times not enough. In Figs.4-23, 4-24, and 4-25, the hysteresis was a slightly reduced after $NH₃$ plasma treatment because the nitrogen incorporation in the HfO₂ dielectrics and reduced the interface trap state, thus improving hysteresis. However, these hysteresis voltage are very close to each other and can be acceptable.

4.1.4 Short summary

Fig. 4-26 shows the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of HfO₂ gate dielectrics treated in N_2 , N_2O , and NH_3 plasma at optimal condition. It is indicated that the capacitance treated in N_2 plasma for 120 sec shows the most excellent value.

The J-V characteristics of the HfO₂ capacitors treated in N_2 , N_2O , and NH_3 plasma at optimal condition in Fig. 4-27. It is indicated that the capacitance treated in N_2O plasma for 120 sec shows the most excellent **ATTLE 18** value.

By the compare of the samples which has the best capacitance in their own gas, we can realize the most suitable treatment condition which both has the best capacitance and lower leakage current. Hence, we significantly find a relative optimal condition among above discussion. It is proved that without thick oxidation layer, it can also reach the smallest leakage current when there is suitable time treatment.

4.2 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with fluorination plasma treatment

Fig. 4-28 shows the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of Si surface (before $HfO₂$ film deposited) treated in $CF₄$ plasma and DC bias 20W for different process time. It indicated that the capacitance increases along with the time of plasma treatment. The capacitor treated in CF_4 for 60 sec shows the maximum capacitance density among these samples with different process time. In addition, other samples which treated in

 CF_4 plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma fluorination process. This phenomenon indicates that the CF_4 plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance.

The factor of improvement might be from that the PDA process and the fluorine incorporation at the interface.

The J-V characteristics of the HfO₂ capacitors treated by CF_4 plasma and DC bias 20W with different process time from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-29. Compared with the control sample, the gate leakage current was decreased for the samples with CF_4 plasma treated in 10 sec and 20 sec. The gate leakage current density treated in CF_4 for 10 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma fluorination. However, there is a non-ideal result that the gate leakage current increased for the sample with CF_4 plasma treated in 30 sec and 40 sec. The reason for this phenomenon may be plasma damage and resulting in higher leakage current.

4.3 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with dual plasma

treatment for different process time

 There are three kinds of plasma treatment with different source gas (i.e. CF_4 , N_2 , NH_3) and they were treated for different process time (i.e. 10 sec, 20sec, 30sec, 40sec, and 120sec).

4.3.1 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with N2 plasma

treatment 120 sec and CF4 plasma treatment for different process time

Fig. 4-30 reveals the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitor treated in CF_4 for different time and N_2 plasma at optimal condition. The capacitor treated in CF_4 for 10 sec and N₂ for 120 sec shows the maximum capacitance density among these samples with different process times. In addition, other samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and N_2 plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma process. This phenomenon indicates that dual plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance. The factor of improvement might be from that the fluorine and nitrogen can repair defect and dangling bonds.

The J-V characteristics of MIS capacitor treated in CF_4 for different time and N_2 plasma at optimal condition from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-31. The gate leakage current density treated N_2 plasma 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma nitridaiton. However, there is a non-ideal result that the gate leakage current increased for the sample with CF_4 plasma treated longer than 10 sec. The reason for this phenomenon may be plasma damage and resulting in higher leakage current.

The hysteresis of C-V characteristics are shown in Figs. 4-32, 4-33, 4-34, 4-35, and 4-36 for the samples without treatment, and with 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 sec N_2 plasma treatment, respectively. The hysteresis phenomenon of the C-V curves can be observed for all samples,

which is caused by the existence of negative charges trapped in the dielectric defect states when the capacitors are stressed. The hysteresis characteristic could be improved by various plasma nitridation process.

It can be observed that the samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and N_2 plasma all present the smaller values than the leakage current density without whole plasma process. The hysteresis was a slightly reduced after dual plasma treatment because the nitrogen and fluorine incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics and reduced the interface trap state, thus improving hysteresis. However, these hysteresis voltage are very close to each other and can be acceptable.

4.3.2 Electrical characteristics for HfO2 with NH3 plasma treatment 120 sec and CF4 plasma treatment for different process time 1896

Fig. 4-37 reveals the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitor treated in CF_4 for different time and NH_3 plasma at optimal condition. The capacitor treated in CF_4 for 10 sec and NH_3 for 120 sec shows the maximum capacitance density among these samples with different process times. In addition, other samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and NH_3 plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma process. This phenomenon indicates that dual plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance. The factor of improvement might be from that the fluorine and nitrogen can repair defect and dangling bonds.

The J-V characteristics of MIS capacitor treated in CF_4 for different times and N_2 plasma at optimal condition from 0V to -2V are described in Fig. 4-38. The gate leakage current density treated $NH₃$ plasma 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions. The lower leakage shows that the weak structure of interface must be fixed by the plasma nitridaiton. However, there is a non-ideal result that the gate leakage current increased for the sample with CF_4 plasma treated longer than 10 sec. The reason for this phenomenon may be plasma damage and resulting in higher leakage current.

The hysteresis of C-V characteristics are shown in Figs. 4-39, 4-40, 4-41, 4-42, and 4-43 for the samples without treatment, and with 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 sec NH3 plasma treatment respectively. The hysteresis phenomenon of the C-V curves can be observed for all samples, which is caused by the existence of negative charges trapped in the dielectric defect states when the capacitors are stressed. The hysteresis characteristic could be improved by various plasma nitridation process. It can be observed that the samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and NH_3 plasma all present the smaller values than the leakage current density without whole plasma process. The hysteresis was a slightly reduced after dual plasma treatment because the nitrogen and fluorine incorporation in the $HfO₂$ dielectrics and reduced the interface trap state, thus improving hysteresis. However, these hysteresis voltage are very close to each other and can be acceptable.

4.3.3 Short summary

Fig. 4-44 shows the capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitors combined CF_4 plasma treatment with N_2 or NH_3 plasma treatment at optimal condition. It is indicated that the capacitance treated in CF_4 plasma for 10 sec and NH₃ plasma for 120 sec shows the most excellent value among these samples. In addition, these samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and NH_3 plasma all present the larger values than the capacitors without whole plasma process.

The J-V characteristics of MIS capacitors combined CF_4 plasma treatment with N_2 or NH_3 plasma treatment at optimal condition in Fig. 4-45. It can be observed that the samples which treated in CF_4 plasma and NH3 plasma all present the smaller leakage current density than the leakage current density without whole plasma nitridation process. The gate leakage current density treated in CF_4 plasma 10 sec and N_2 plasma 120 sec shows the minimum current density among these conditions.

Most of the plasma treatment samples can promote the electrical characteristics and reliability until the plasma damage or the growth of interfacial layer happened. Among these treatments, the samples that combined CF_4 10 sec plasma treatment with N_2 or NH_3 plasma treatment represent significantly great improvement, such as good capacitance, reduced leakage current.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and future work

5.1 Conclusions

In thesis, characteristics of MIS capacitors that combine CF_4 plasma treatment with N_2 (or NH_3) plasma treatment have been investigated. These methods could be improved that the quality of $HfO₂$ thin film and $Si/HfO₂$ interface. The plasma treatment conditions are N₂ and NH₃ plasma for 120 sec plus CF_4 plasma for 10sec, 20sec, 30sec, and 40 sec respectively. Several important phenomena were observed and summarized as follows.

First, there are three kinds of plasma treatment with different source gas (i.e. N_2 , N_2 O, NH_3) and they were treated for different process time (i.e. 30 sec, 60sec, 90sec, 120sec, 150sec, and 180sec). It observed that the samples with plasma nitridation all present the better values than the capacitors without whole plasma nitridation process. The reason for this phenomenon might the nitrogen incorporation be the method to reduce the leakage current, and it also can obtain larger capacitance after nitridation plasma. This phenomenon indicates that the plasma nitridation was workable to improve the capacitance and leakage current.

Second, the capacitors treated in CF_4 plasma for different times before $HfO₂$ film deposition. It observed that the samples with plasma fluorination all present the better values than the capacitors without whole plasma nitridation process. This phenomenon indicates that the CF_4 plasma treatment was workable to improve the capacitance and leakage

current. The factor of improvement that fluorinated $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics show thinner effective oxide thickness, smaller C-V- hysteresis, low leakage current density, good distribution of electrical performance, and less charge trapping.

Third, the experiment expects to obtain the advantages that combined plasma fluorination with plasma nitridation. The method that combined plasma fluorination with plasma nitridation calls dual plasma treatment. It observed that the samples with dual plasma treatment all present the better values than the capacitors without whole plasma process.

In summary, the MIS capacitor treated in CF_4 plasma for 10 sec and N_2 (or NH₃) plasma for 120 sec was the optimal condition. It improved the $HfO₂$ film and $Si/HfO₂$ interface quality, result in thinner effective oxide thickness, smaller C-V hysteresis, low gate leakage current density, less charge trapping, and good distribution of electrical performance. Thus, the improvement on electrical charateristics of HfO2 MIS capacitor with dual plasma treatment is more efficiency than single plasma treatment.

5.2 Future work

1. The mechanism of leakage current :

We might have to understand the mechanism of leakage current of thin film and thick film individually. The mechanism of the generation of the defects in the high-k bulk or interface still needs to be solved.

2. Material Analysis :

We can use some material analysis methods such as TEM, SIMS, AFM to know the thin film composition precisely and verify the phenomenon observed from C-V and J-V curve, SILC, CVS etc.

3. Devices fabrication with the above results :

The optimum condition will be used to manufacture MOS or TFT device in the future.

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Figure Captions

Fig. 1-1 Illustration of Moore's law: number of transistors integrated in the different generations of Intel's microprocessors vs. the production year of these circuits.

Fig. 1-2 Transistor physical gate length will reach \sim 15nm before end of this decade and ~ 10nm early next decade.

Fig. 1-3 With the marching of technology nodes, gate dielectric has to be shrunk and five silicon atoms thick of gate dielectric is predicted for

Fig. 1-4 Conduction mechanism in oxide for the MOS structure.

Fig. 1-5 Measured and simulated I_g-V_g characteristics under inversion condition for nMOSFETs. The dotted line indicates the 1A/cm² limit for the leakage current [9].

Fig. 1-6 Power consumption and gate leakage current density comparing to the potential reduction in leakage current by an alternative dielectric exhibiting the same equivalent oxide thickness.

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Fig.1-8 Inner-interface trapping model of hafnium dielectrics for (a) sweeping from inversion ($V_g = 0 \nabla$) and (b) sweeping from accumulation $(V_g = -3.0V)$ [41].

Fig. 2-2 The E-gun system that was used in this experiment.

Fig. 2-4 (1) 4nm HfO₂ was deposited on the sub-Si by MOCVD (2) PDA by RTA

Fig. 2-5 (1) Plasma nitridation treatment (2) PNA by RTA.

Fig. 2-6 20nm Ti was deposited on the $HfO₂$ layer by E-gun evaporation system.

Fig. 2-7 400nm Al was deposited on the Ti layer as top electrode by E-gun evaporation system.

Fig. 2-8 Undefined Al was removed by wet etching.

Fig. 2-9 Undefined Ti was removed by wet etching (1%HF).

Fig. 2-10 Al was depodited on the back side of sub-Si as bottom electrode by E-gun evaporation system .

Fig. 4-1 The capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N₂ phasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-2 The J-V characteristics of p-type $HfO₂$ capacitors treated in $N₂$ plasma for different process time from 0V~-2V.

Fig. 4-3 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics without treatment.

Fig. 4-4 The hysteresis of p-type HfO₂ gate dielectrics treated in N_2 plasma treatment 30 sec.

Fig. 4-5 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $N₂$

Fig. 4-6 The hysteresis of p-type HfO₂ gate dielectrics treated in N_2 plasma treatment 90 sec.

Fig. 4-7 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $N₂$

Fig. 4-8 The hysteresis of p-type HfO₂ gate dielectrics treated in N_2 plasma treatment 150 sec.

Fig. 4-9 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $N₂$

Fig. 4-10 The capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N2O phasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-11 The J-V characteristics of p-type $HfO₂$ capacitors treated in

 N_2 O plasma for different process time from $0V \sim 2V$

Fig. 4-12 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics without treatment.

Fig. 4-13 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N₂O

Fig. 4-14 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated with N₂O plasma treatment 90 sec.

Fig. 4-15 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N₂O

Fig. 4-16 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N₂O plasma treatment 150 sec .

Fig. 4-17 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in N₂O

Fig. 4-18 The capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in NH3 plasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-19 The J-V characteristics of p-type $HfO₂$ capacitors treated in

NH₃ plasma for different process time from 0V~-2V

Fig. 4-20 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics without treatment.

Fig. 4-21 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$

Fig. 4-22 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$ plasma treatment 90 sec.

Fig. 4-23 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$

Fig. 4-24 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$ plasma treatment 150 sec.

Fig. 4-25 The hysteresis of p-type $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in $NH₃$

Fig 4-26 The capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of HfO₂ gate dielectrics treated in N_2 plasma treatment, NH₃ plasma treatment, and N2O plasma treatment at optimal condition.

Fig. 4-27 The J-V characteristics of p-type $HfO₂$ capacitors treated in $N₂$ plasma treatment, NH₃ plasma treatment, and N₂O plasma treatment at optimal condition from $0V$ --2V.

Fig. 4-28 The capacitance-voltage $(C-V)$ characteristics of $HfO₂$ gate dielectrics treated in CF₄ plasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-29 The J-V characteristics of p-type $HfO₂$ capacitors treated in $CF₄$

Fig. 4-30 The capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec and CF_4 plasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-31 The J-V characteristics of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma for different process time from 0V~-2V.

Fig. 4-32 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors without treatment.

Fig. 4-33 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec

Fig. 4-34 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma 20 sec.

Fig. 4-35 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec

Fig. 4-36 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma 40 sec.

Fig. 4-37 The capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitors treated in NH_3 plasma 120 sec and CF_4 plasma for different process time.

Fig. 4-38 The J-V characteristics of p-type MIS capacitors treated in N_2 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma for different process time from 0V~-2V.

Fig. 4-39 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors without treatment.

Fig. 4-40 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in NH3 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma 10 sec.

Fig. 4-41 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in NH₃ plasma 120 sec

Fig. 4-42 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in NH3 plasma 120 sec and CF₄ plasma 30 sec.

Fig. 4-43 The hysteresis of MIS capacitors treated in NH₃ plasma 120 sec

Fig. 4-44 The capacitance-voltage (C-V) characteristics of MIS capacitors combined CF_4 plasma treatment with N_2 or NH_3 plasma treatment at optimal condition.

Fig. 4-45 The J-V characteristics of MIS capacitors combined CF₄ plasma treatment with N_2 or NH_3 plasma treatment at optimal condition from $0V$ \sim $-2V$.

Table

Reliability Difficult Challenges						
Difficult	Summary of Issues					
Challenges						
High-k Gate	Dielectric breakdown characteristics(hard and soft breakdown) 1.					
Dielectrics	2. Influence of charge trapping and NBTI on thresholk voltage stability					
	Stability and number of fixed charges					
Metal Gate	Impact of metal-ion drift and/or diffusion on gate dielectric reliability. 1.					
	Work function control and stability 2.					
	Metal susceptibility to oxidation 3.					
	Thremo-mechanical issues due to large thermal expansion mismatch 4.					
	Impact of omplantation 5.					
Copper/Low-k	Stress migration of Cu vias and lines \mathbf{r}					
Interconnets	Cu via and line electromigration performance 2.					
	Thermal-mechanical stability of the interfaces between metals, barriers 3.					
	and interlevel dielectrics and resulting line-to-line leakage					
	4. Time Dependent Dielectric Breakdown(TDDB) of the Cu/low-k SYSTEM					
	5. Reliability impact of lower thermal conductivity of low-k dielectric					
	Reliability issues due to the porous mature of the low-k dielectrics and 6.					
	moisture					

Table 1-1 Reliability difficult challenges. (ITRS : 2004 update)

Materiale	Dielectric	Energy band	$\triangle E_{\rm g}$ (eV) to Si \cdot	∆‼t"
	constant (k)₽	gap E _s (eV)+		(eV/O atom)↩
SiO_{2}	$3.9 -$	$8.9\degree$	$3.2 +$	$-4.68 +$
Si ₃ N ₄	7₽	5.1e	2₽	$\vec{+}$
Al ₂ O ₃	9₽	$8.7\cdot$	$2.3\cdot$	-5.76
Y_2O_{3}	15e	$5.6\cdot$	$2.3\cdot$	$-4.93 \div$
CeO_{2}	26e	5.5 _o	Le	$-5.02e$
$Ta_2O_{3^+}$	26 _e	4.5₽	$1 - 1.5 +$	$-2.09 +$
La ₂ O ₃	30 _°	4₽	2.3 _e	$-6.62 \div$
TiO_{2}	$80-$	3.5 ₀	1.2σ	$-4.86 \div$
HfO_{2}	25 _e	8 5.7ϕ	9 1.5σ	$-5.77e$
$ZrO_{2^{\phi}}$	25₽	7.8∉	1.4 _e \blacktriangleright	-5.66
$HfSi_xO_{\mu}$	$15 - 25$	~6₽	1.5e	-5.24
$ZrSi_xO_{x^*}$	$12 - 25 +$	$6.5\cdot$	1.5e	$-5.21e$

Table 1-2 Basic characteristics of various high-k materials.

Table 2-1 Comparison of deposition techniques : PVD , ALCVD and MOCVD.