

國立交通大學

電子工程學系 電子研究所

碩 士 論 文

利用實驗驗證場效電晶體之汲極與源極之
遠距庫倫效應

**Experimental Evidence for MOSFET S/D
Long-Range Coulomb Effects**

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指導教授：陳明哲 博士 Prof. Ming-Jer Chen

中華民國 一〇一年 十 月

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摘要

由近年研究得知，元件尺寸縮減時電子遷移率會伴隨遞減，這也指出了有額外的碰撞機制存在，並且此機制會對下一世代的元件造成很大的影響。因此本篇論文主旨係利用實驗萃取額外遷移率之溫度係數，進而探討N型超短通道場效電晶體下的散射機制。研究內容主要為我們第一次提出實驗證據對於當元件實際通道長度小於 40 奈米會被存在於高濃度的源極與汲極的電漿電子所造成的遠距庫倫散射機制所影響。這一系列的的研究方法為透過載子遷移率的溫度效應以及利用二維模擬器對元件建立的模型來取得重要參數。此外，我們也提供了另一項證據，是我們在大汲極電壓下量測到的轉導值與文獻中考慮遠距庫倫效應下的模擬值相符。

Experimental Evidence for MOSFET S/D Long-Range Coulomb Effects

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Abstract

Electron mobility degradation is currently encountered in highly scaled devices. This means that additional scattering mechanisms exist and will become profoundly important in next generation of devices. The aim of this work is to, for first time, present experimental evidence for the existence of long-range Coulomb effects due to plasmons (collective behaviors of fluctuating dipoles) in high-density source/drain (S/D) of MOSFETs, particularly for the metallurgical channel length less than about 40 nm. This is obtained through temperature-dependent mobilities via TCAD-based inverse modeling. Other evidence is further produced in terms of the measured transconductance at high drain voltage, which is comparable with that of sophisticated simulations in the literature taking into account long-range Coulomb interactions.

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感謝所有曾經幫助我的所有人。



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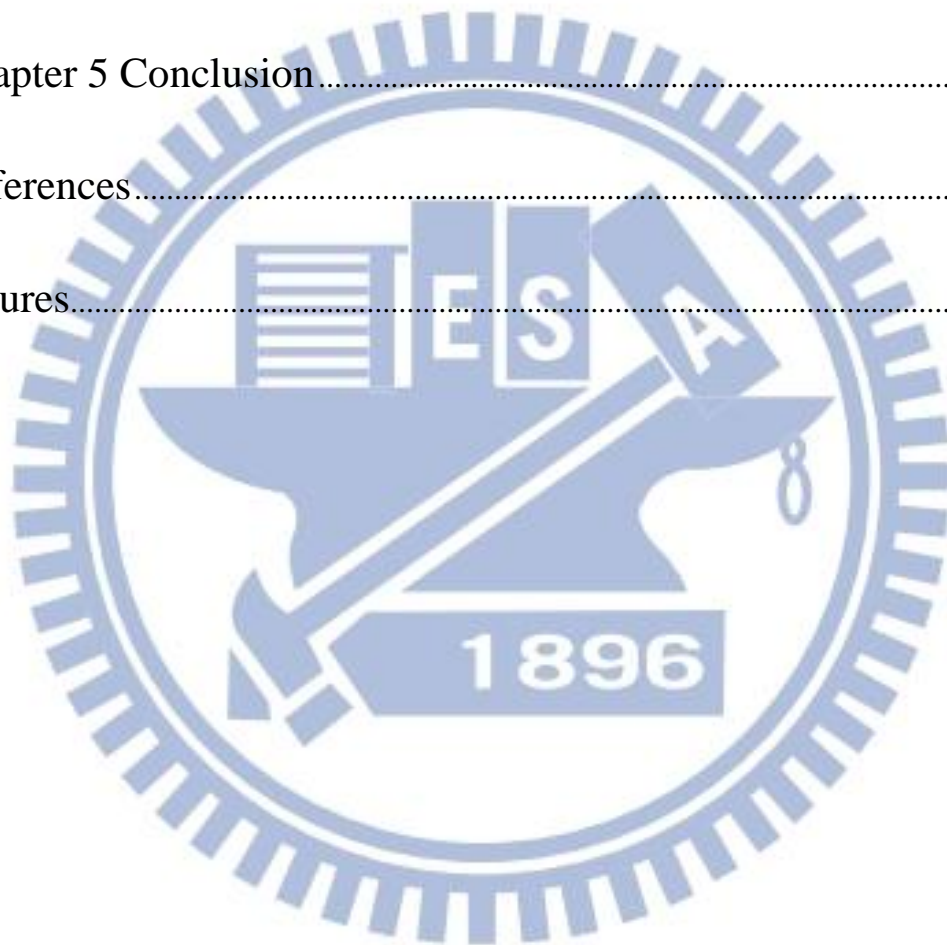


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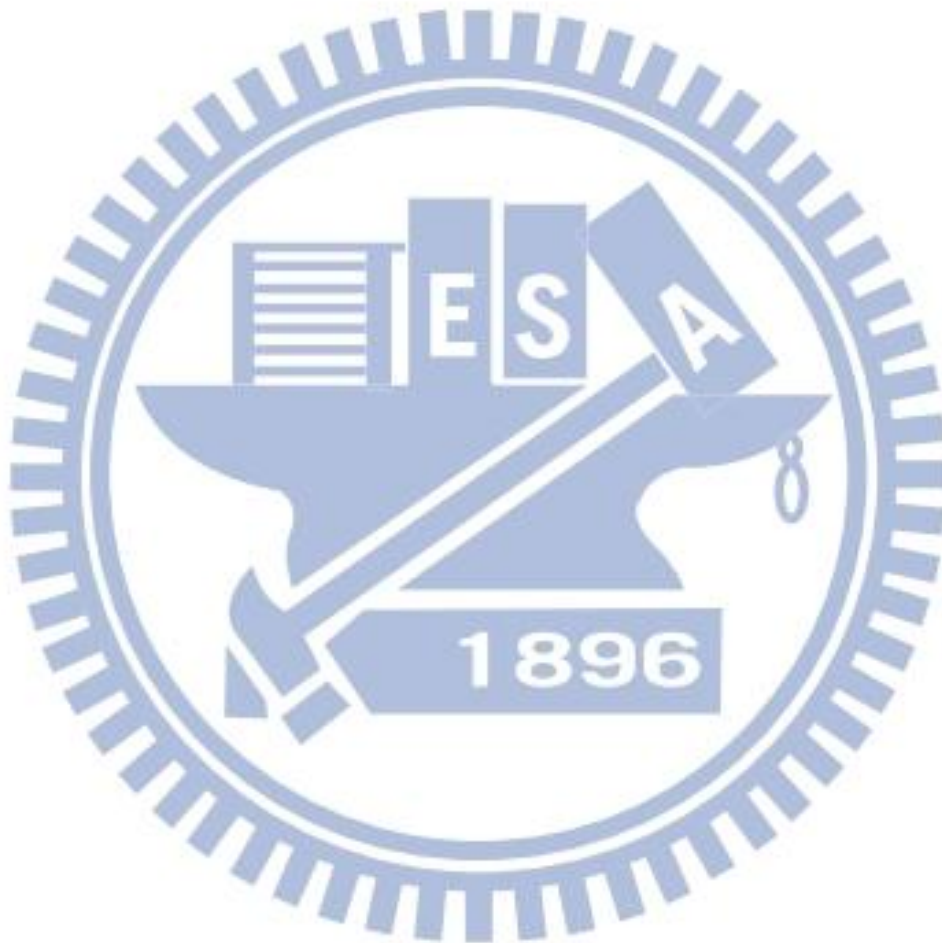
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Chapter 1

Introduction

It is well known that the inversion layer mobility of nMOSFETs can be limited to three primary scattering mechanisms: (1) Coulomb impurity scattering due to ionized impurity atoms in substrate depletion region; (2) acoustic and optical phonon scattering in inversion channel region; and (3) surface roughness scattering at the SiO₂/Si interface. However, owing to the measured effective mobility degradation in highly scaled devices, this means that additional scattering mechanisms exist. Additional scatterings can be generalized in terms of remote surface roughness, fixed oxide charge, remote Coulomb scattering, short-range Coulomb centers due to halo implant or pockets and/or defects near S/D, and remote phonon scattering due to surface optical (SO) phonons. In spite of so many additional scattering mechanisms, we only need to consider specific scattering mechanisms in short-channel device, which are absent in long-channel device since scattering coming from gate dielectrics above channel should be all the same for both devices.

So far, in the open literature dedicated to short-channel nMOSFETs, the origins of mobility degradation remained controversial. While channel length is shrunk into the region of Thomas-Fermi screening length (like sub-40 nm device), electron interactions near highly doped source/drain (S/D) - channel interface can be viewed as the dynamic screening, resulting in the excitation plasmons emission or absorption, which in turn transfer the momentum to affect the current indirectly according to the published simulation results [1],[2]. In addition, since the channel doping concentration is significantly higher in deep submicron devices compared to long-channel devices due to the presence of halo doping, it is expected to result in higher transversal fields and degraded mobility in short-channel devices [3]. Besides,

the mobility degradation of short-channel device is also attributed to process-induced defects located near the source and drain junctions [4],[5]. Moreover, 2D charge sharing from S/D is also not neglected in short-channel device [3],[6], but it can be excluded in this work because the halo implant is used in our device sample under study.

Of degradation mechanisms mentioned above, the most challenging stems from long-range Coulomb interactions between electrons in channel and plasmons in such high-density regions as gate, source, and drain [1],[7]. However, in the past, the understanding of such long-range effects was primarily through sophisticated simulations [1],[7]. Only recently, we experimentally separated gate-plasmon-limited mobility [8], which can provide evidence for the interaction between channel electrons and gate plasmons.

In this work, we further present experimental evidence for another interaction between channel electrons and S/D plasmons (see Figure 1.1). The methodology is shown in Figure 1.2.

Chapter 2

Experiment

N-channel devices under study were fabricated in a conventional manufacturing process with different channel width (W) and length (L) of $W/L=1/1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $W/L=1/0.065\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $W/L=1/0.05\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. In this process, SiO_2 film was thermally grown on (001) surface, followed by NO annealing. Figure 2.1 to Figure 2.3 show I-V characteristics of device measured at $V_d=0.05\text{V}$ for different temperatures ($T = 292, 330, 360, \text{ and } 380\text{K}$).

2.1 C-V Fitting

We used ICS software to control HP4284 while measuring C-V characteristics. The C-V measurement was performed on a $10\mu\text{m}\times 1\mu\text{m}$ device. Corresponding process parameters can essentially be obtained by fitting the measured gate capacitance versus gate voltage (C_g-V_g) as shown in Figure 2.4. This was realized with the use of a self-consistent Schrödinger and Poisson's equations solver. Two such solvers were cited: one named Schred [9] and the other in the team's work [10]. Obviously, the two sources [9],[10] are consistent each other in the data fitting. Although C_g-V_g data at high gate voltages were seriously distorted due to the use of ultrathin gate oxide where the direct tunneling current is pronouncedly large, the fitting was successfully done in the remaining regions, leading to n^+ polysilicon doping concentration = $1\times 10^{20}\text{ cm}^{-3}$, gate oxide (SiO_2) physical thickness = 1.27 nm , and p-type substrate doping concentration = $4\times 10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-3}$. In addition, the TEM of the device also shows gate oxide (SiO_2) thickness of around 1.3nm as shown in Figure 2. 5.

2.2 Measurement Method and Experimentally Assessed Effective Inversion-Layer Mobility

In the measurement method, the conventional inversion-layer mobility is usually extracted according to

$$\mu_{eff}(V_g) = \frac{L}{W} \times \frac{I_d(V_g)}{V_d} \times \frac{I}{qN_{inv}(V_g)} \quad (2.1)$$

$$G_d = \frac{I_d(V_g)}{V_d} \quad (2.2)$$

where G_d is drain conductance. When I_g is small sufficiently, G_d can be presented by $\frac{I_{ch}}{V_d}$, and the channel current (I_{ch}) should be the same as drain current (I_d) and source current (I_s). However, while gate oxides are thin enough to encounter direct tunneling current in long channel device, high gate leakage current would affect the accurate determination of drain conductance (G_d). Hence, the G_d is difficult to define simply by $\frac{I_s}{V_d}$ or $\frac{I_d}{V_d}$.

By following the experimental work by Takagi, et al. [11], we can know that while gate oxide thicknesses are quite thin, the amount of gate current (I_g) affects source current (I_s) and drain current (I_d), giving rise to the opposite sign. The schematic diagram of current flow in MOSFETs with high gate leakage current is shown in Figure 2.6 and I_s and I_d can be written as

$$I_s = I_{channel} + I_{GS} \quad (2.3)$$

$$I_d = I_{channel} - I_{GD} \quad (2.4)$$

where I_{GS} and I_{GD} are the current from the source to the gate and the current from the drain to gate, besides $I_s < 0$ and $I_d > 0$. Figure 2.6 illustrated that I_s is larger than the current from the source into the channel (I_{ch}) due to the current flows from source to

gate(I_{GS}), but I_d is smaller than the current from channel to gate (I_{ch}) because the current tunnels from drain into gate (I_{GD}). When V_d is sufficiently small, the I_{GS} must

be the same as the I_{GD} , hence the channel current can be defined as $I_{channel} = \frac{I_d + I_s}{2}$.

Therefore, inversion layer (channel) mobility is measured by

$$\mu_{eff}(V_g) = \frac{L}{W} \times \frac{(I_d(V_g) + I_s(V_g))}{2V_d} \times \frac{I}{qN_{inv}(V_g)} \quad (2.5)$$

Considering the difference between L_{mask} and the metallurgical channel length L_m , as well as the issue about the parasitic source/drain resistance (R_{sd}), Eq.(2.5) could be defined more accurately by

$$\mu_{eff}(V_g) = \frac{1}{(R_{ch})} \times \frac{(L_{mask} - \Delta L)}{qN_{inv}(V_g)} \quad (2.6)$$

$$R_{ch} = \frac{2V_{ds}}{I_d + I_s} - R_{sd} \quad (2.7)$$

where L_{mask} is the gate length on the polysilicon etch mask: $L_{mask} \approx L_{gate}$. $L_m = L_{mask} - \Delta L$, where ΔL is the length of the overlap region between the source/drain implant straggle and diffusion. Table 1 shows the overlap length for different L_{gate} .

We will discuss in next chapter the N_{inv} and R_{sd} extraction.

Chapter 3

Inverse Modeling

In this section, we make use of a TCAD tool named Sentaurus to reproduce $I_{ch}-V_g$, especially for the subthreshold conduction. This procedure is so-called inverse modeling. First, we use the parameters which is got from $C-V$ fitting: n^+ polysilicon doping concentration N_{poly} ($= 1 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$), gate oxide (SiO_2) physical thickness t_{ox} ($= 1.27 \text{ nm}$), and p-type substrate doping concentration P_{sub} ($= 4 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$). Second, we add two extra peak doping impurities: the source/drain extension N_{sde} and the halo implant P_{halo} . Remarkably, a fairly good fitting was achieved for different gate lengths, different temperatures, and different drain voltages, all with the same source/drain extension doping concentration N_{sde} ($= 4.95 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) and halo implant P_{halo} ($= 2.5 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$). Figure 3.1 to Figure 3.4 show $I_{ch}-V_g$ fitting results. $I_{ch}-V_g$ calibration leads to device doping profiles for $L_m=1\mu\text{m}$, 48nm and 33nm as shown in Figure 3.5 to Figure 3.7. Corresponding extension overlap and hence the metallurgical channel length L_m can be drawn.

TCAD further delivers the inversion-layer charge density qN_{inv} as well as the source/drain series resistance R_{sd} . The method we extracted those parameters will be illustrated clearly as follows. Also, we will introduce the physical model (drift-diffusion) we used in above calibration.

3.1 Drift-diffusion Model

The drift-diffusion model is widely used for the simulation of carrier transport in semiconductors and is defined by the Poisson equation and continuity equations. The

three governing equations for charge transport in semiconductor devices are Poisson equation and the electron and hole continuity equations. Poisson equation is:

$$\nabla \cdot \varepsilon \nabla \phi = -q(p - n + N_D - N_A) - \rho_{trap} \quad (3.1)$$

Where ε is the permittivity, q is the elementary electronic charge, n and p are the electron and hole densities, N_D is the concentration of ionized donors, N_A is the concentration of ionized acceptors, and ρ_{trap} is the charge density contributed by traps and fixed charges.

The electron and hole continuity equations are

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{j}_n = qR_{net} + q \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} \quad (3.2)$$

$$-\nabla \cdot \vec{j}_p = qR_{net} + q \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \quad (3.3)$$

where R_{net} is the net electron-hole recombination rate, \vec{j}_n is the electron current density, and \vec{j}_p is the hole current density.

Combining equation 3.1~ equation 3.3, we can derive current densities for electrons and holes as given by:

$$\vec{j}_n = -nq \mu_n \nabla \Phi_n \quad (3.4)$$

$$\vec{j}_p = -pq \mu_p \nabla \Phi_p \quad (3.5)$$

where μ_n and μ_p are the electron and hole mobilities, and Φ_n and Φ_p are the electron and hole quasi-Fermi potentials, respectively.

3.2 Calculation of Inversion Layer Charge Density

In this section, we will introduce the method we calculated inversion layer density from TCAD calibration model. However, we want to explain why we don't use the same method as we used in extraction for additional mobility from gate plasmons in long-channel device [8]. From Figure 3.5 to Figure 3.7, we can observe that when channel length is shrunk, the substrate doping concentration under the SiO₂/Si interface is obviously larger. This is due to the halo implant P_{halo} in short-channel device. The altered substrate doping concentration may influence the inversion layer density directly and further bring about mobility degradation [3]. Consequently, 1D simulator [10] is not enough in this work. Instead, we use 2D simulator TCAD [12] to calculate inversion charge layer density involving the halo implant effect.

First, we use the calibration model to see the free electron density in vertical direction as shown in Figure 3.8. Then we integrate the electron density vertically under the oxide/substrate interface to 30nm deep, which is the quantum confinement region. So, the area under the e-density curve in Figure 3.8 is the N_{inv} at this x position. Then we cut $L_m=1\mu\text{m}$, 48nm and 33nm devices into many pieces to do the integration, and in order not to contact the source/drain extension in the calculation, we only counted the channel between them. The region we made the calculation is between two dashed lines which is depicted in Figure 3.9 to Figure 3.11. After that, we did the same calculation for different gate voltages from 0V to 1.8V and temperatures from 292K to 380K. Corresponding inversion layer charge density results are shown in Figure 3.12 for $L_m=1\mu\text{m}$, Figure 3.13 for $L_m=48\text{nm}$ and Figure 3.14 for $L_m=33\text{nm}$. Since the N_{inv} for short-channel device is not a constant value, unlike the long-channel device. We further did an average for the inversion layer charge density, i.e. we

integrated the N_{inv} along the channel and then divided the channel length. Finally, we get the N_{inv} for $L_m=1\mu\text{m}$, 48nm and 33nm versus gate voltage as shown in Figure 3.15, which is the N_{inv} mentioned in the mobility calculation in Equation 2.6.

3.3 Extraction of Parasitic Source/Drain Resistance

Since the parasitic resistance cannot be neglected in short channel device, we will explain the method we use in this work. First, we used the calibration model from TCAD simulation as shown in Figure 3.5 to Figure 3.7. Then, we only retained the drain region and constructed a metal contact beneath the oxide/substrate interface to 1 and 3nm deep. For this metal contact, one side connects the device and the other side is grounded as shown in Figure 3.16. After that, device is operated at drain voltage of 0.05V. Hence, we can get the current flow into the metal contact when we applied gate voltage. Therefore, we can derive R_{sd} as below:

$$\frac{R_{sd}}{2} = \frac{V}{I} \quad (3.6)$$

Figure 3.17 shows the R_{sd} under various bias conditions from 0.8V to 1.8V with the values of around 100~110Ω-μm.

Besides, we also provide another calculation method for R_{sd} extraction. The method of extracting parasitic source/drain resistance (R_{sd}) is well described elsewhere [13]. The R_{sd} can be derived as follows. For the intrinsic MOSFET operated in linear region, drain current can be expressed as

$$I_d = \frac{C_{ox} W \mu}{L_m} (V_{gs} - V_{th} - \frac{\alpha}{2} V_{ds}) (V_{ds} - R_{sd} I_d) \quad (3.7)$$

The constant mobility can be achieved with two sets of bias conditions: $(V_{gs}^{V_{bs1}}, V_{th}^{V_{bs1}})$

and $(V_{gs}^{V_{bs2}}, V_{th}^{V_{bs2}})$, where $V_{gs}^{V_{bs2}} = V_{gs}^{V_{bs1}} + (1/\eta_{ana} - 1)(V_{th}^{V_{bs1}} - V_{th}^{V_{bs2}})$. We can get R_{sd} as below

$$R_{sd} = \left(\frac{B}{I_d^{V_{bs2}}} - \frac{A}{I_d^{V_{bs1}}} \right) \frac{\eta_{ana} V_{ds}}{(V_{th}^{V_{bs1}} - V_{th}^{V_{bs2}})} \quad (3.8)$$

where $A = V_{gs}^{V_{bs1}} - V_{th}^{V_{bs1}} - 0.5\alpha V_{ds}$, and

$$B = V_{gs}^{V_{bs1}} + \left(\frac{1}{\eta_{ana}} - 1 \right) V_{th}^{V_{bs1}} - \frac{V_{th}^{V_{bs2}}}{\eta_{ana}} - 0.5\alpha V_{ds}.$$

In modern MOSFET with thin oxide, α is close to 1, and V_{bs1} and V_{bs2} represent two different back biases. Hence, mobility μ_{ana} and $E_{eff-ana}$ can be analytical written as

$$\mu_{ana} = \frac{L_m}{WC_{ox}} \frac{I_d}{(V_{gs} - V_{th} - 0.5\alpha V_{ds})(V_{ds} - R_{sd} I_d)} \quad (3.9)$$

$$E_{eff-ana} = \frac{V_{gs} + \left(\frac{1}{\eta_{ana}} - 1 \right) V_{th} - \frac{1}{\eta_{ana}} V_{FB} - \frac{2}{\eta_{ana}} \Psi_B}{\frac{3}{\eta_{ana}} T_{ox}} \quad (3.10)$$

While minimizing the error between μ_{ana} and $\mu_{universal}$ as described in [13]. Herein,

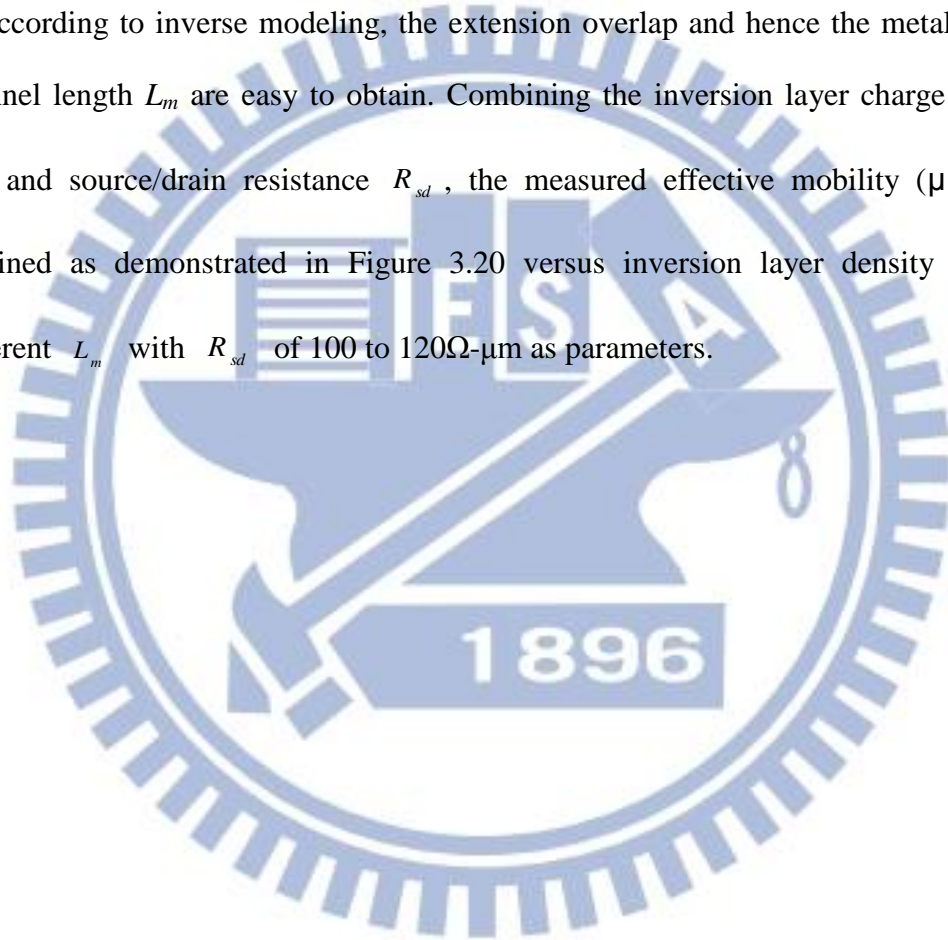
η_{ana} is approximated through iteration to minimize its error. Figure 3.18 shows the

I-V curves for short-channel devices where $V_{bs1} = 0V$ and $V_{bs2} = -0.4V$. The result for

extracting R_{sd} value is derived in Figure 3.19, and its value is about $123\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ for

$\eta_{ana} = 0.33$, which is reasonable and consistent with the value ($\eta_{ana} \approx 1/2 \sim 1/3$) used in [13]. Also, the R_{sd} value obtained by using this method is reasonably consistent with the extracted one ($R_{sd} = 120\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$) in [14]. Thus, we use $R_{sd} = 100 \sim 120\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ to calculate the mobility for short-channel device.

According to inverse modeling, the extension overlap and hence the metallurgical channel length L_m are easy to obtain. Combining the inversion layer charge density N_{inv} and source/drain resistance R_{sd} , the measured effective mobility (μ_{eff}) are obtained as demonstrated in Figure 3.20 versus inversion layer density N_{inv} for different L_m with R_{sd} of 100 to 120 $\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ as parameters.



Chapter 4

Analysis and Discussion

With the inverse modeling in Chapter 3, we extracted the mobility with $R_{sd} = 100 \sim 120 \Omega \cdot \mu\text{m}$ for different metallurgical channel length L_m of $1 \mu\text{m}$, 48nm and 33nm . In Figure 3.20 we found the mobility degradation in short-channel device. Due to the controversial mechanism for the mobility degradation in short-channel device, we want to use the temperature-dependent experimental method as in [8] to determine the main source of degradation. First, we extracted additional mobility $\mu_{add}(48\text{nm})$ and $\mu_{add}(33\text{nm})$ of short-channel device with respect to long-channel one ($L_m = 1 \mu\text{m}$), and further obtained their temperature dependencies at high $N_{inv} (= 1 \times 10^{13} \text{cm}^{-2})$. Besides, we also extracted the extra additional mobility $\mu_{add,extra}$ and decided the main source of this scattering mechanism. Moreover, we further provided an important evidence to verify our hypothesis about this additional scattering mechanism.

4.1 Additional Mobilities

While comparing measured effective electron mobility (μ_{eff}) between the long-channel and short-channel device shown in Figure 3.20, additional scattering in short-channel device can be dealt with using Matthiessen's rule which essentially is valid under high N_{inv} as follows:

$$\frac{1}{\mu_{add}(SC)} = \frac{1}{\mu_{eff}(SC)} - \frac{1}{\mu_{eff}(LC)} \quad (4.1)$$

where SC and LC mean short-channel and long-channel, respectively. Figure 4.1 shows the extracted temperature-dependent additional mobility versus N_{inv} for $L_m=48$ and 33nm with $R_{sd} = 100$ to 120 $\Omega\cdot\mu m$. Note that the devices under study are all characterized by the same oxide thickness, so it is expected that scattering coming from above channel should be the same. It can be seen that additional mobility for $L_m = 48$ nm $\mu_{add}(48\text{ nm})$ increases with N_{inv} , whereas for $L_m = 33$ nm $\mu_{add}(33\text{ nm})$ exhibits a saturating trend which dominates in both cases of R_{sd} . We further extracted additional mobility at $N_{inv}=1 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ versus temperature with R_{sd} as a parameter. In addition, we also provided a temperature-coefficient γ to clarify the temperature-oriented trend, there is a relationship between the additional mobility and temperature as follows:

$$\mu_{add} \propto T^{\gamma} \quad (4.2)$$

Apparently, corresponding temperature dependencies are also opposite to each other: $\gamma = 0.37 \sim 0.55$ for $L_m = 48$ nm and $\gamma = -0.13 \sim -0.17$ for $L_m = 33$ nm as shown in Figure 4.2 for varying R_{sd} .

4.2 Main Source of Mobility Degradation in Short-Channel Device

Several mechanisms are considered to be involved in the process of mobility

degradation for short-channel device. Among them, S/D plasmons, bandgap narrowing, short-range Coulomb scattering due to halo implant or pockets and defects near S/D are believed to be the most probable culprits to degrade the performance [1]-[5]. Additional mobility of $L_m = 48$ nm increases with temperature, consistent with the result of [3] about mobility degradation in short-channel device, indicating that the responsible mechanisms are those of short-range Coulomb centers (due to halo implant or pockets [3] and/or defects near S/D [4],[5]).

As to $L_m = 33$ nm, it exhibits a slight decrease with temperature (Figure 4.2), suggesting other mechanisms. The corresponding mobility component can be written as:

$$\frac{1}{\mu_{add, extra}} = \frac{1}{\mu_{add}(33 \text{ nm})} - \frac{1}{\mu_{add}(48 \text{ nm})} \quad (4.3)$$

The resulting $\mu_{add, extra}$ is plotted in Figure 4.3 versus N_{inv} . And in Figure 4.4 we present the power-law relation of $\mu_{add, extra}$ versus temperature at $N_{inv} = 1 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

Surprisingly, temperature-dependent $\mu_{add, extra}$ in Figure 4.4 is satisfactorily close to that of gate-plasmon-limited ones [8]. The corresponding γ has a value of -0.69 to -0.83 . Here, we have to rule out the mechanism of 2D charge sharing from S/D [3],[6]. The reasons are twofold. First, although the width W_D of simulated substrate depletion region increases with decreasing L_m (Figure 3.5 to Figure 3.7), which may act as a signature of 2D charge sharing, the subband separation does not appear to decrease but increase (see Table 2), greatly contrary to [3],[6]. Here, we consider two lowest subbands as an estimation of population distribution versus energy. Meanwhile, this calculation is done for population for 1nm below surface. Figure 4.5 to Figure 4.7 show the subband energy below surface 1nm for gate voltage from 1.0V~1.5V. This obvious difference is simply because in our work, the halo implant is used and its

effect is enhanced with decreasing L_m . Second, we conducted bulk-phonon-limited mobility simulation using the simulation program [7],[10]. The resulting γ lies at a value from -1.5 to -1.6, which is much more negative than that of $\mu_{add,extra}$ (Figure 4.8). It is therefore argued that only for L_m less than about 40 nm can long-range Coulomb effects become noticeable.

4.3 Evidence of Long-Range Coulomb Interactions

Finally, in Figure 4.9 we quote simulated transconductance at $V_d = 1.0$ V and V_g of 0.75 and 1.0 V above threshold [1] versus L_m , for comparison with measured transconductance at $V_d = 0.8$ and 1.0 V in this work. Evidently, the dimension of our devices, which is carefully chosen to meet the criterion, lies across the activation point of long-range Coulomb effects. With above evidence, we further argue that the long-range Coulomb interactions would be the main factor for performance degradation in ultra-short devices.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

In this work, TCAD-based inverse modeling has been carried out with aim reconstruct the process parameters. Consequently, interesting and useful results have been created. First, the overlap region for short-channel device can be accurately determined. Also the halo implant P_{halo} , which has a significant impact on the substrate doping concentration and further affect the inversion layer charge density, is also solved by calculating the free electron density in the channel region from 2D simulation. Moreover, the parasitic source/drain resistance (R_{sd}) is also extracted from the calibration model. In addition, we also provide experimental method to estimate the R_{sd} for the comprehensive analysis.

Second, the resulting temperature power-law exponent (γ) as extracted from our experimentally-determined additional mobility data points out that the long-range Coulomb interactions exist in the metallurgical channel length less than about 40 nm. Thus, experimental evidence of long-range Coulomb interactions has been drawn. Furthermore, underlying physical origins have all been distinguished for short channel device. Therefore, long-range Coulomb effect, which is not to be ignored in ultra-short devices, has been for the first time experimentally corroborated in the device samples under study.

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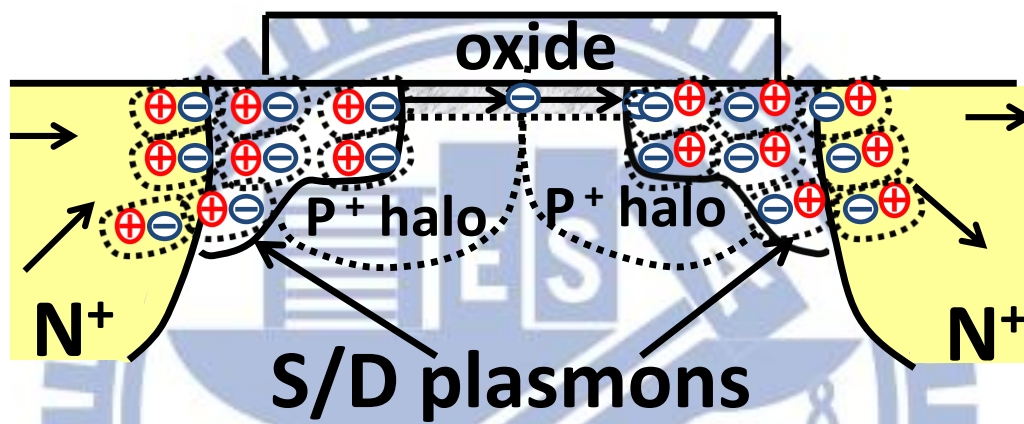


Figure 1.1 Schematic of electron transport under long-range Coulomb interactions with S/D plasmons.

Inverse Modeling

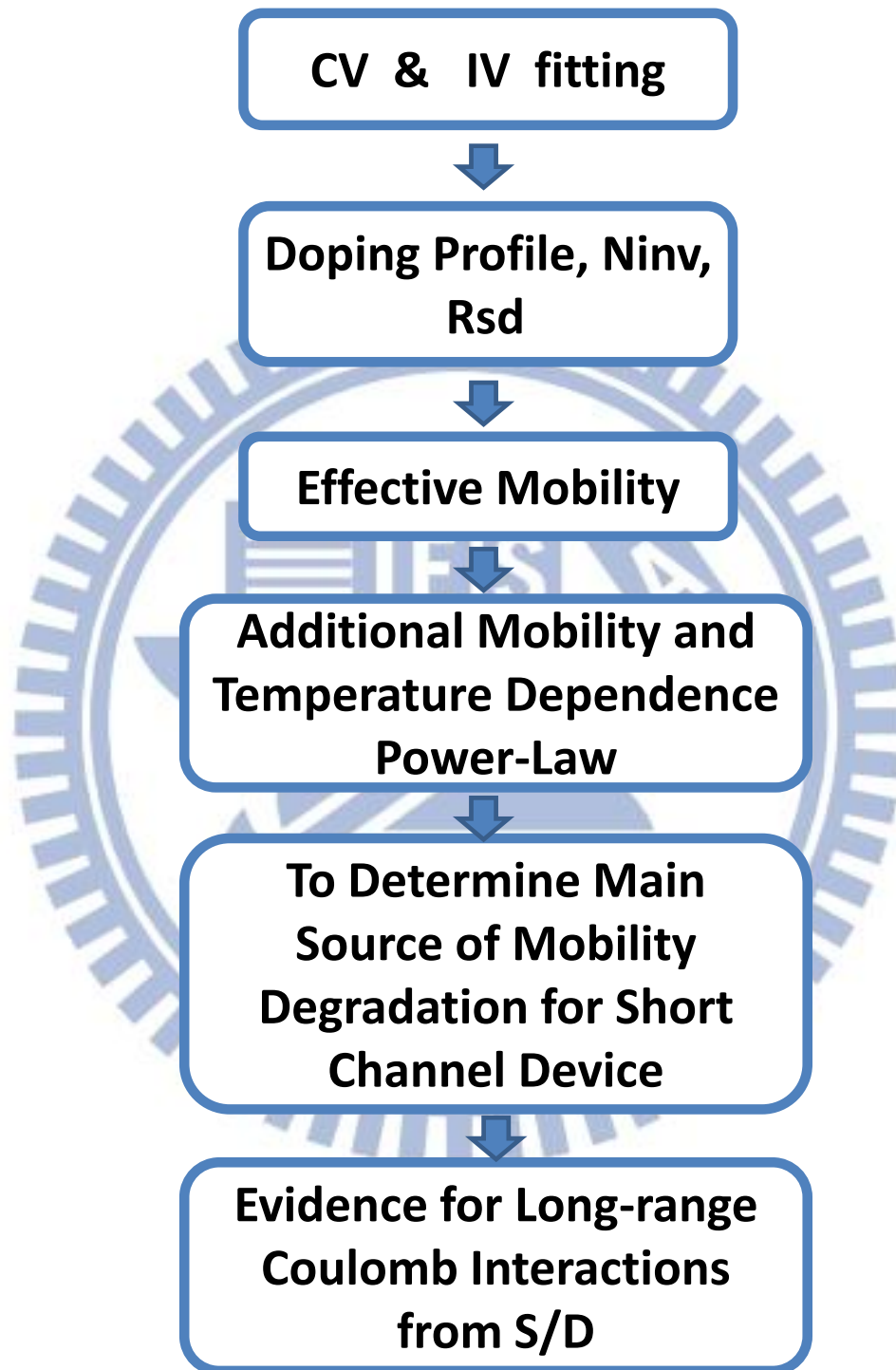


Figure 1.2 Flowchart of inverse modeling in this work.

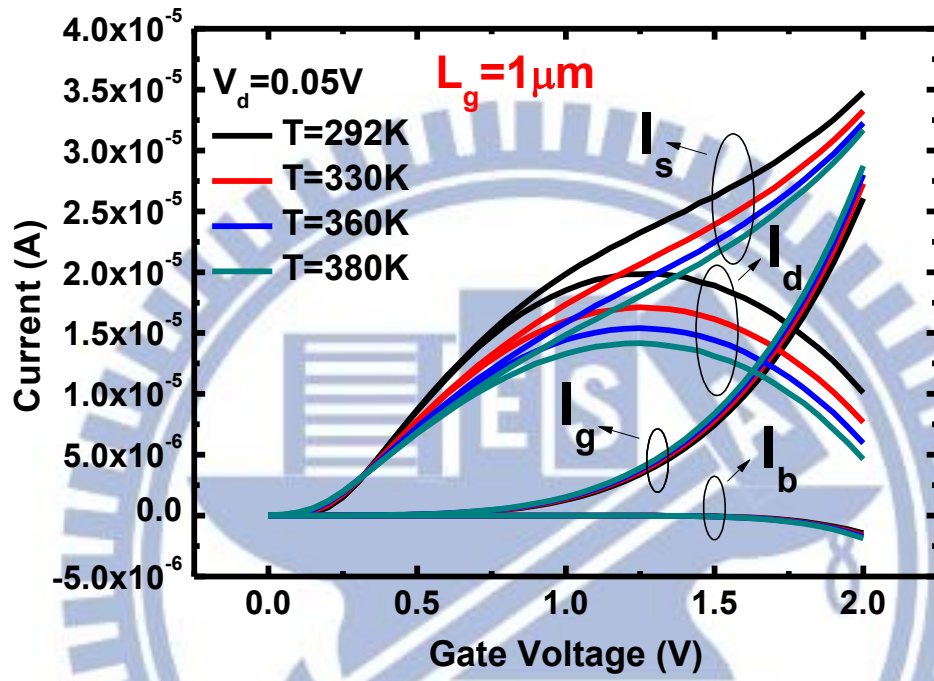


Figure 2.1 Temperature-dependent terminal currents at $V_d=0.05\text{V}$ versus V_g for $L_g=1\mu\text{m}$.

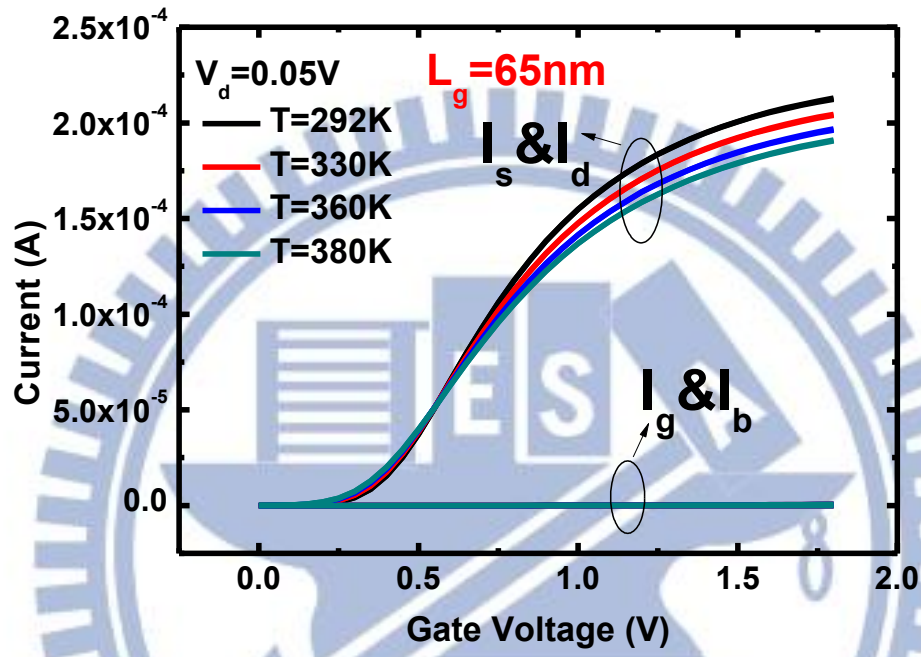


Figure 2.2 Temperature-dependent terminal currents at $V_d = 0.05\text{V}$ versus V_g for $L_g = 65\text{nm}$.

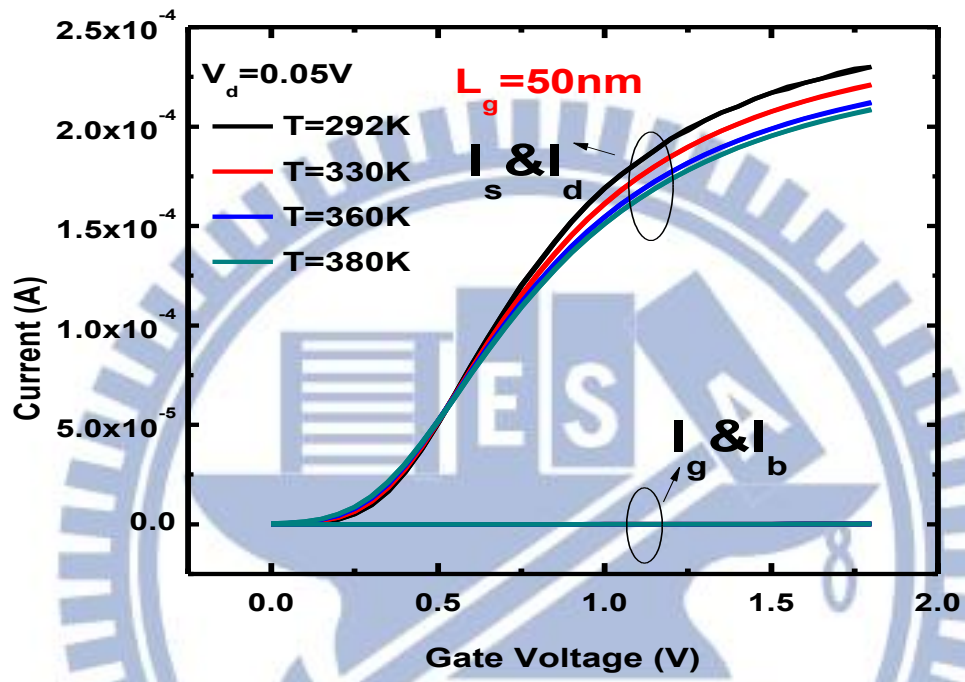


Figure 2.3 Temperature-dependent terminal currents at $V_d = 0.05\text{V}$ versus V_g for $L_g = 50\text{nm}$.

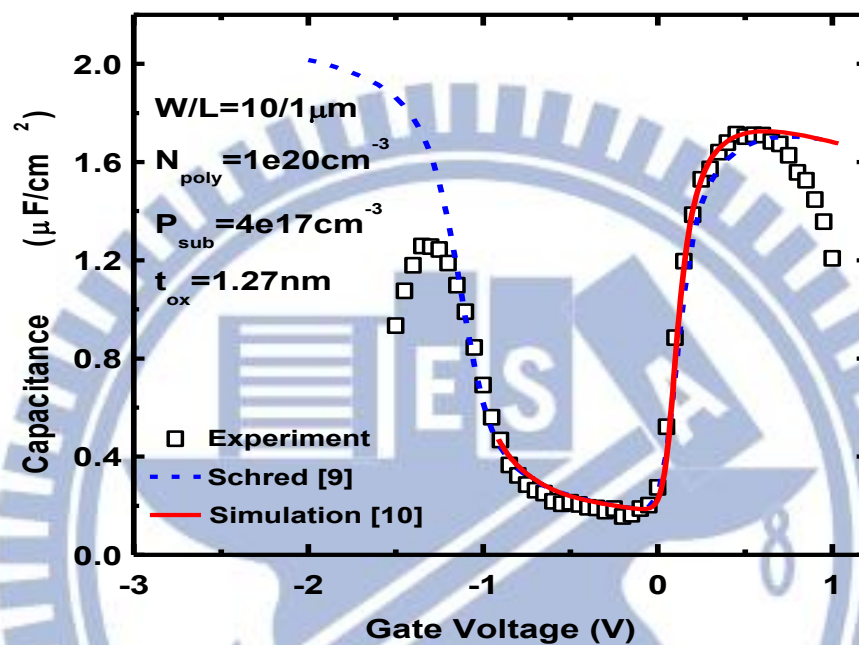


Figure 2.4 Comparison of the measured and simulated gate capacitance versus gate voltage.

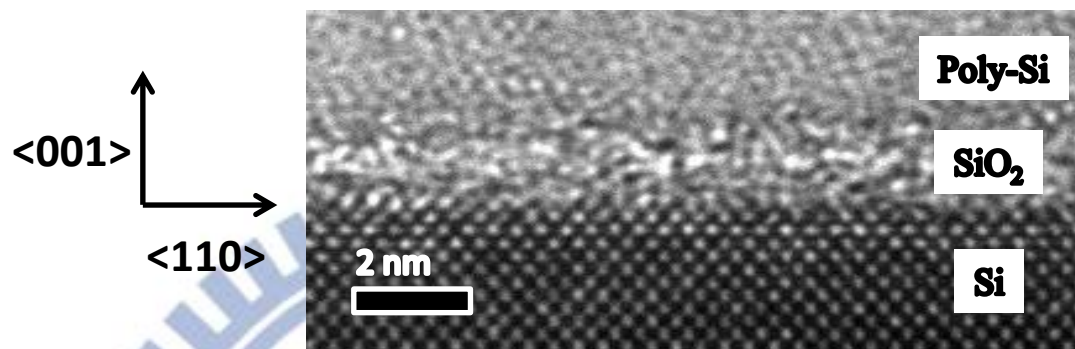


Figure 2. 5 TEM image of the sample.

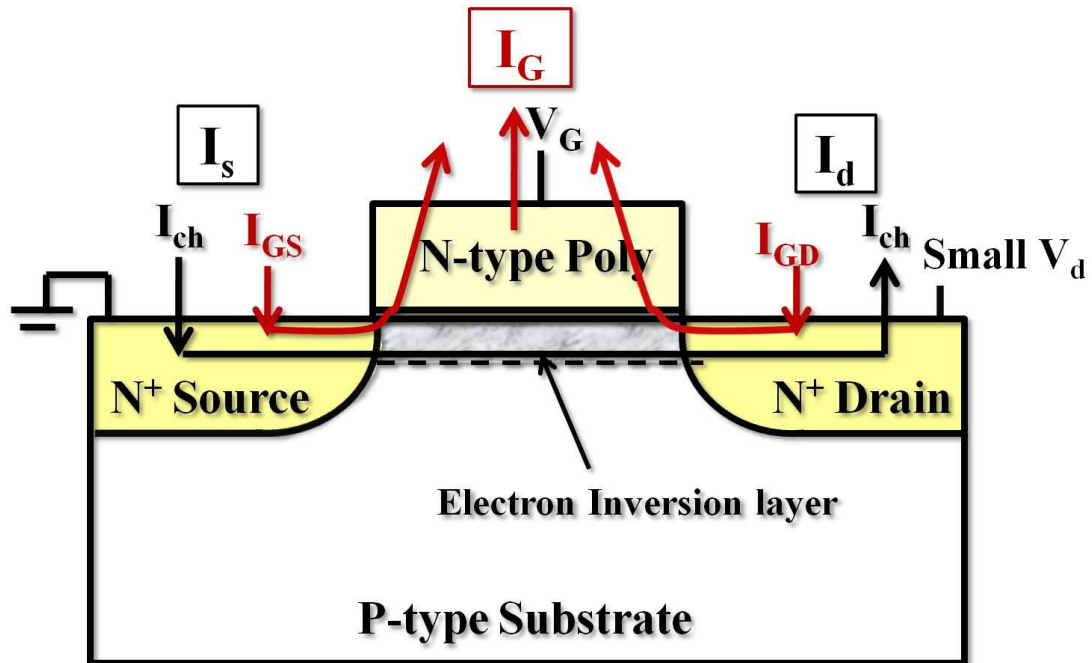


Figure 2.6 The schematic diagram for current flow of nMOSFETs with large gate tunneling current. Besides, $I_s < 0$ and $I_d > 0$.

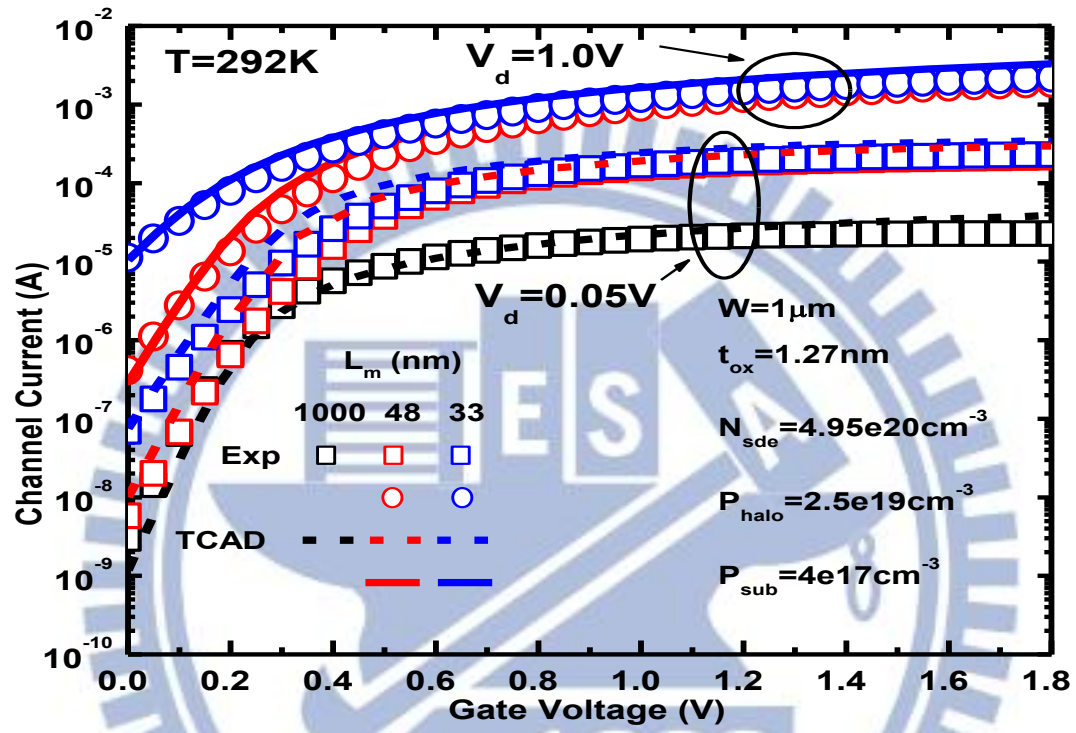


Figure 3.1 Measured and simulated I_{ch} versus V_g at $T=292K$ and $V_d=0.05$ and $1V$.

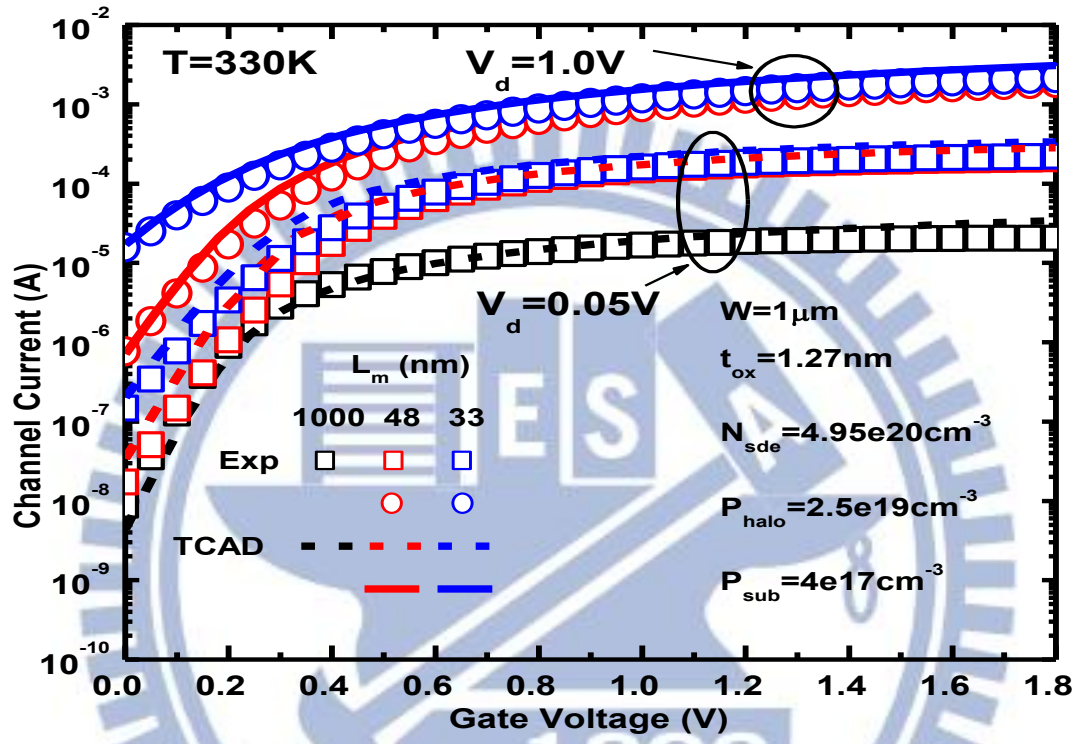


Figure 3.2 Measured and simulated I_{ch} versus V_g at $T=330K$ and $V_d=0.05$ and $1V$.

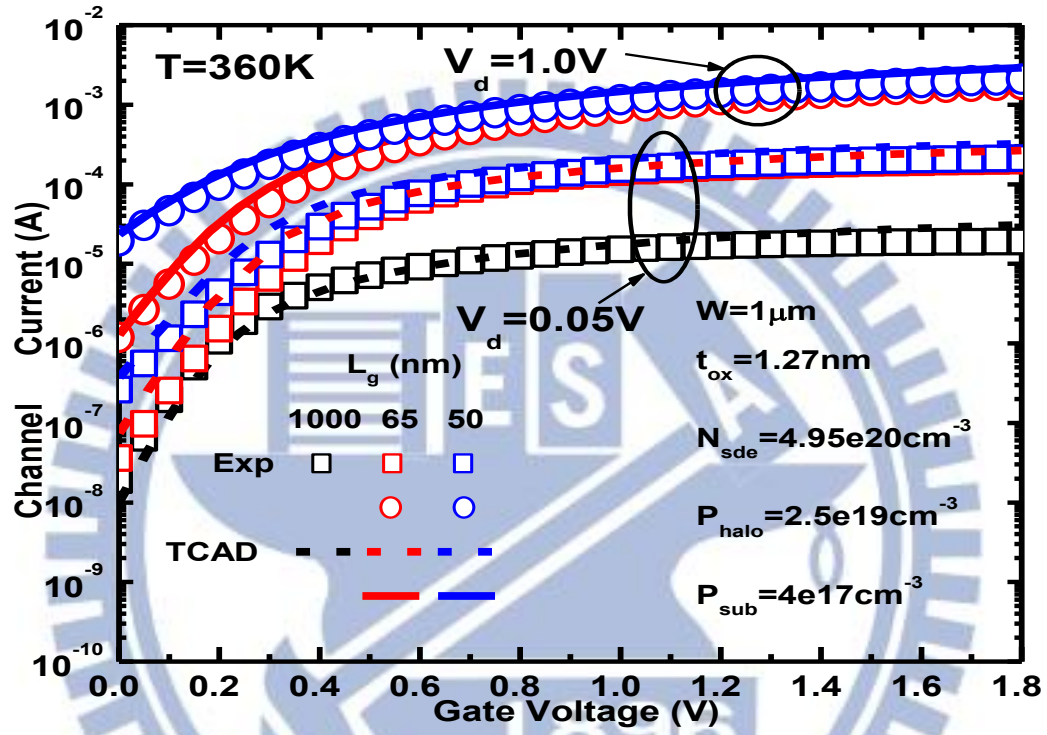


Figure 3.3 Measured and simulated I_{ch} versus V_g at $T=360K$ and $V_d=0.05$ and $1V$.

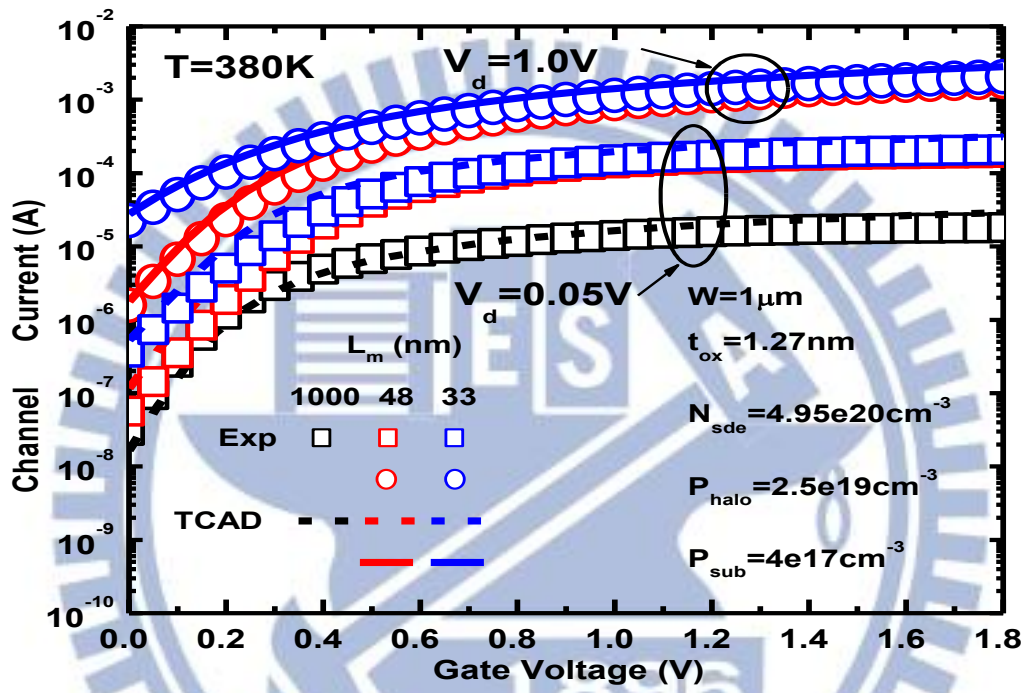


Figure 3.4 Measured and simulated I_{ch} versus V_g at $T=380K$ and $V_d=0.05$ and $1V$.

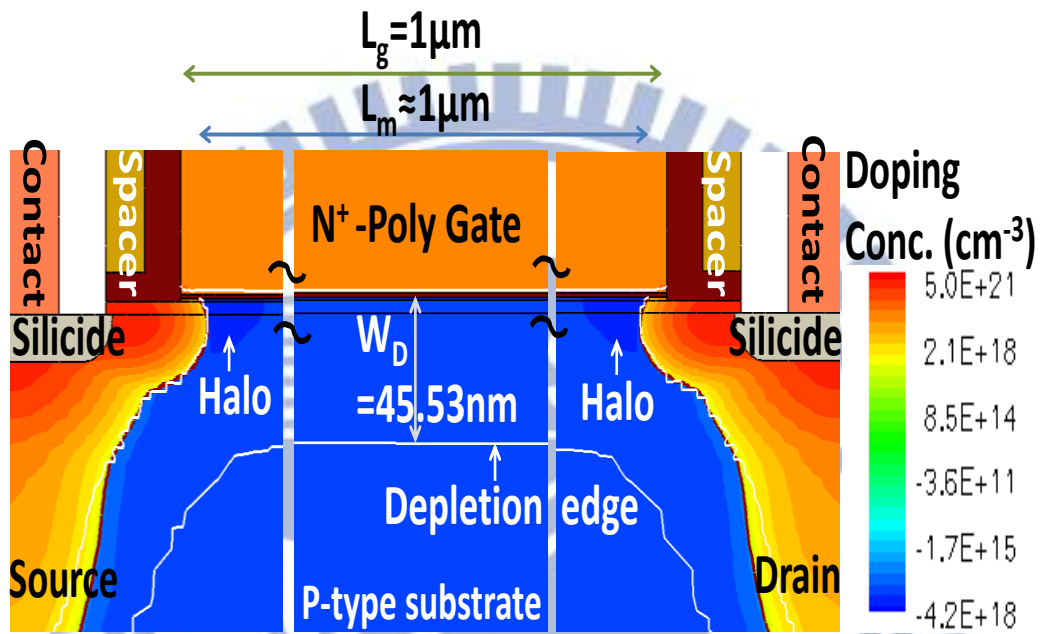


Figure 3.5 Calibrated 2D simulation structure for $L_g=1\mu\text{m}$ and hence $L_m=1\mu\text{m}$. W_D is the width of the mid-channel depletion region.

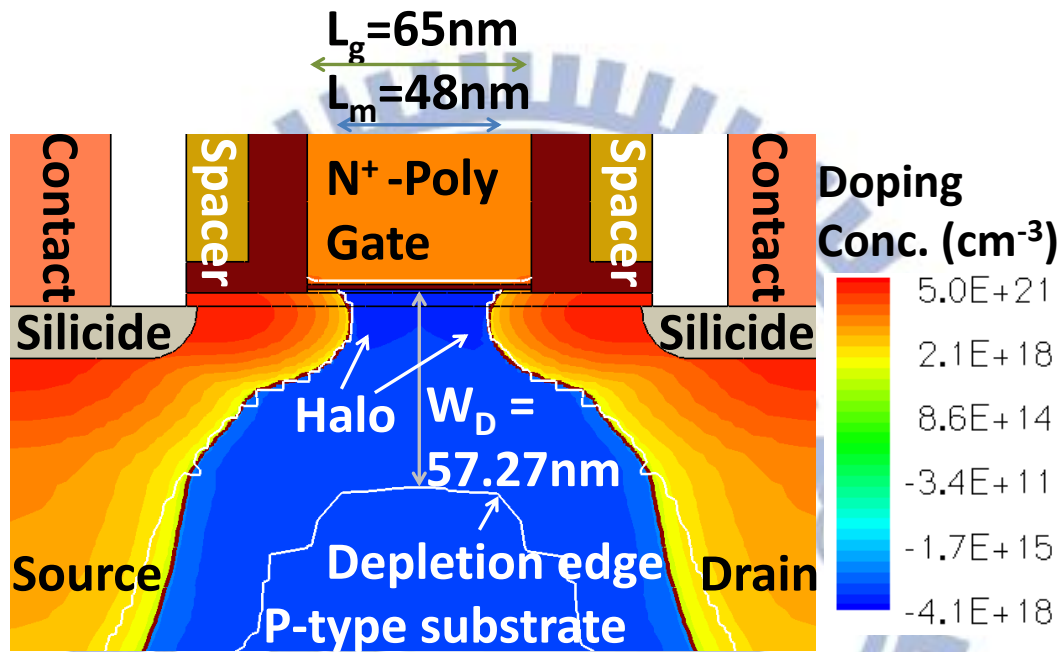


Figure 3.6 Calibrated 2D simulation structure for $L_g=65\text{nm}$ and hence $L_m=48\text{nm}$. W_D is the width of the mid-channel depletion region.

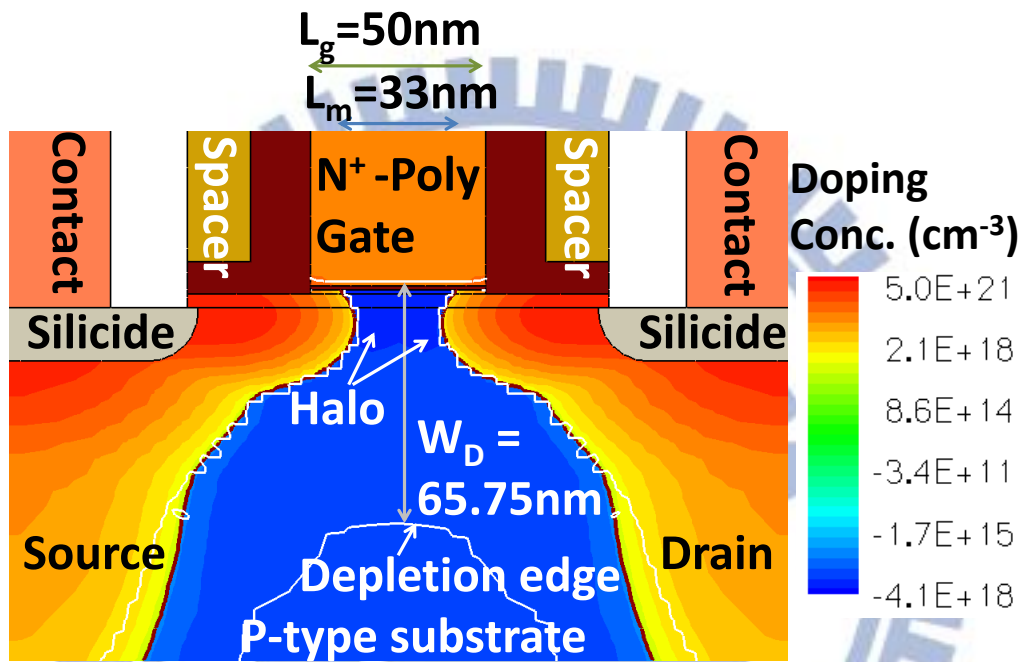


Figure 3.7 Calibrated 2D simulation structure for $L_g=50\text{nm}$ and hence $L_m=33\text{nm}$. W_D is the width of the mid-channel depletion region.

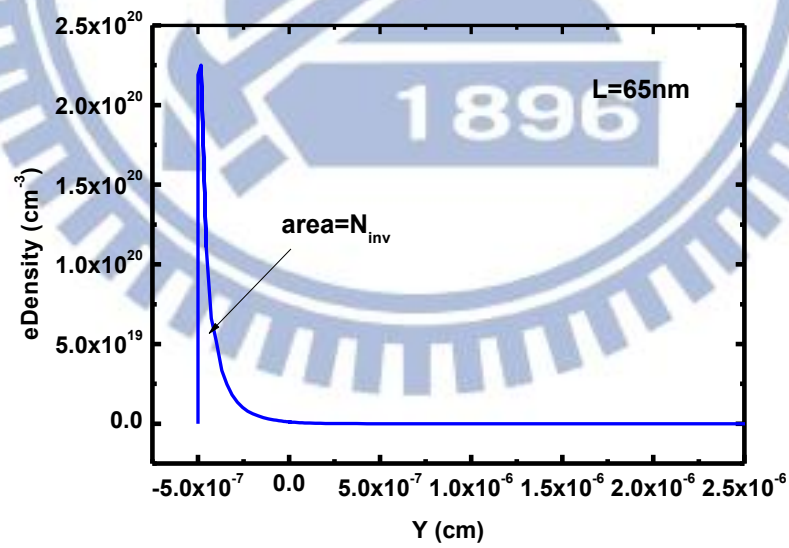
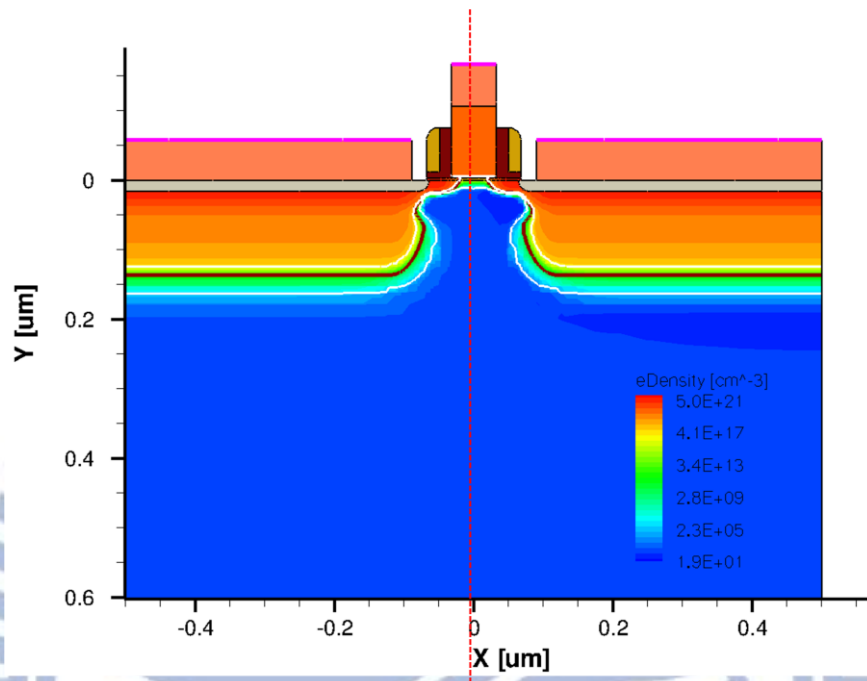


Figure 3.8 The free electron density under the surface 30nm at one position of the channel region.

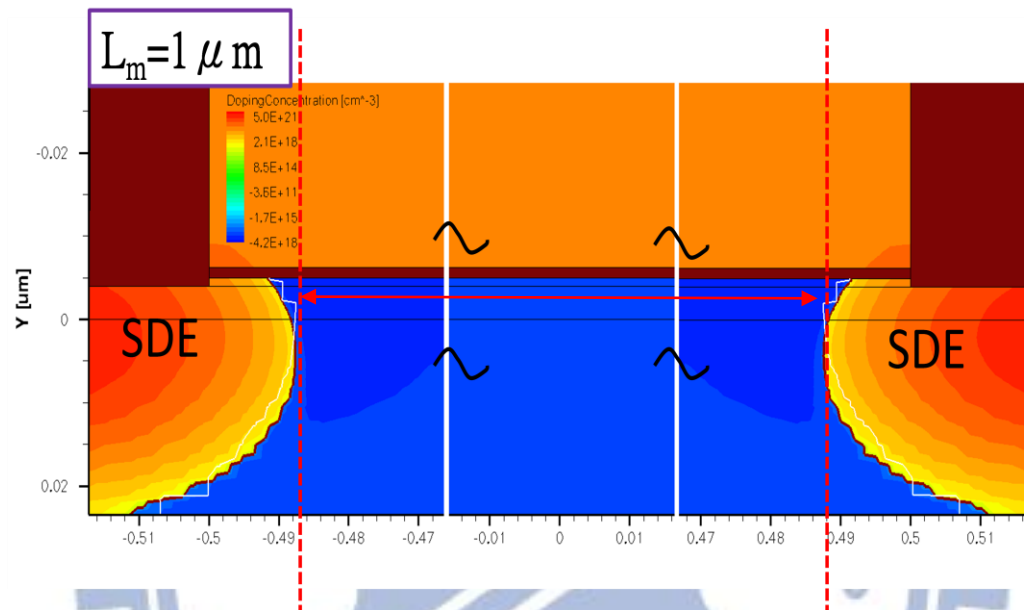


Figure 3.9 The schematic diagram for inversion layer charge density of metallurgical length $L_m=1\mu\text{ m}$.

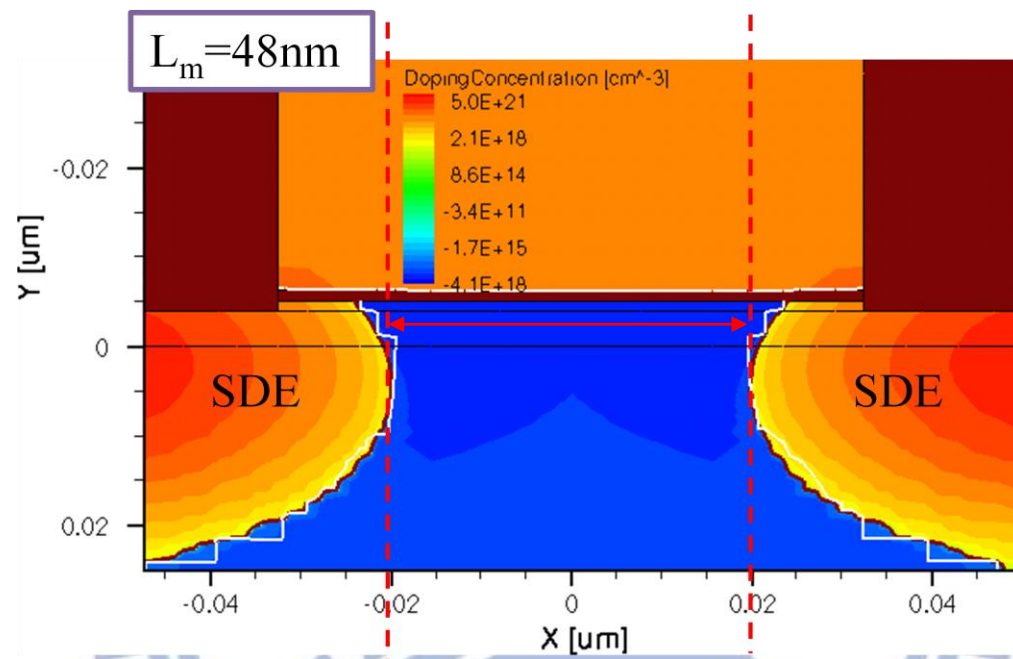


Figure 3.10 The schematic diagram for inversion layer charge density of metallurgical length $L_m = 48 \text{ nm}$.

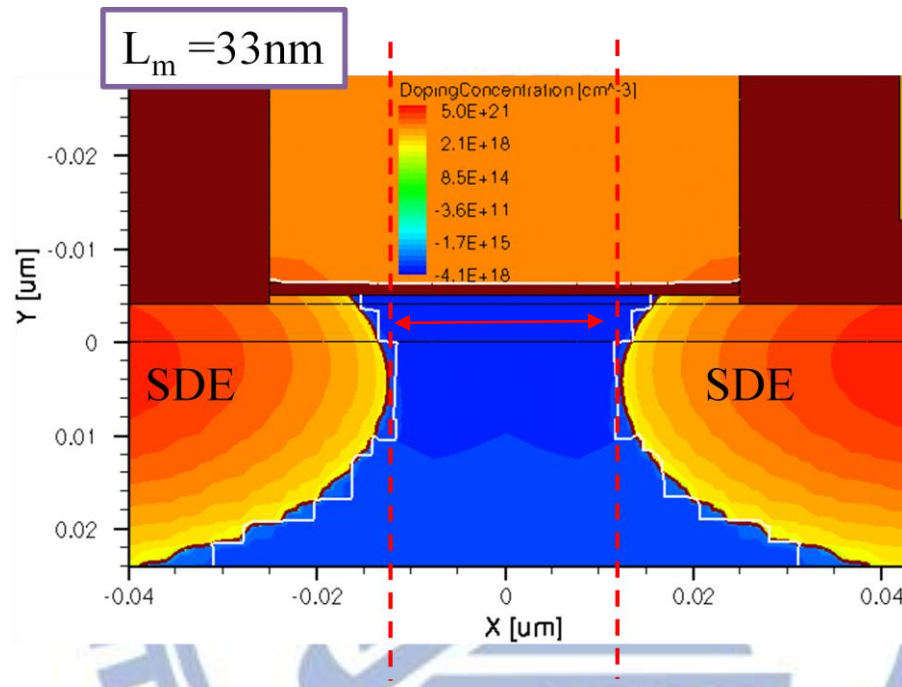
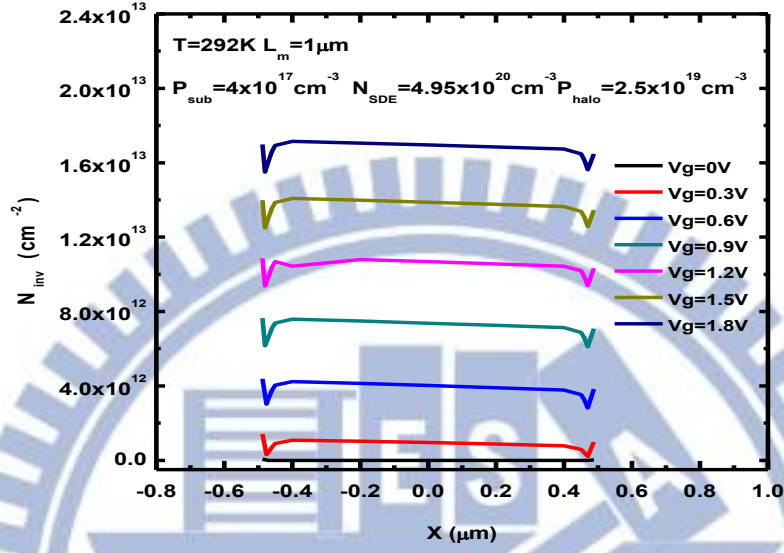
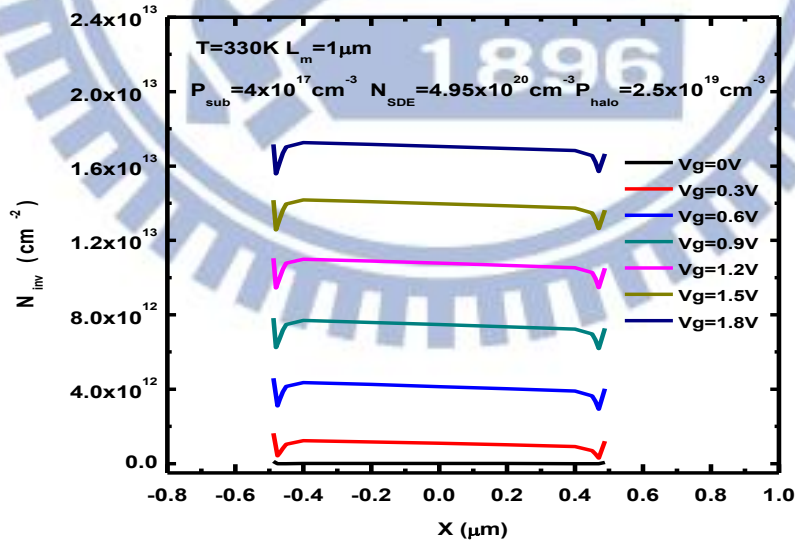


Figure 3.11 The schematic diagram for inversion layer charge density of metallurgical length $L_m = 33 \text{ nm}$.

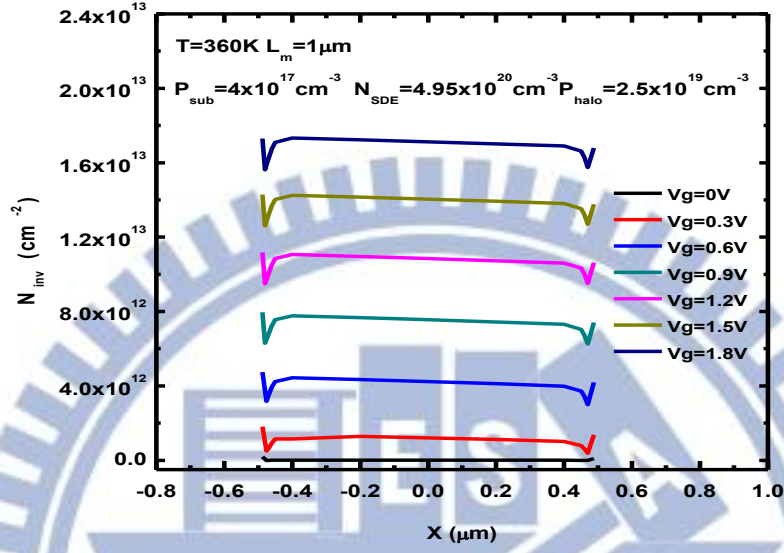


(a)

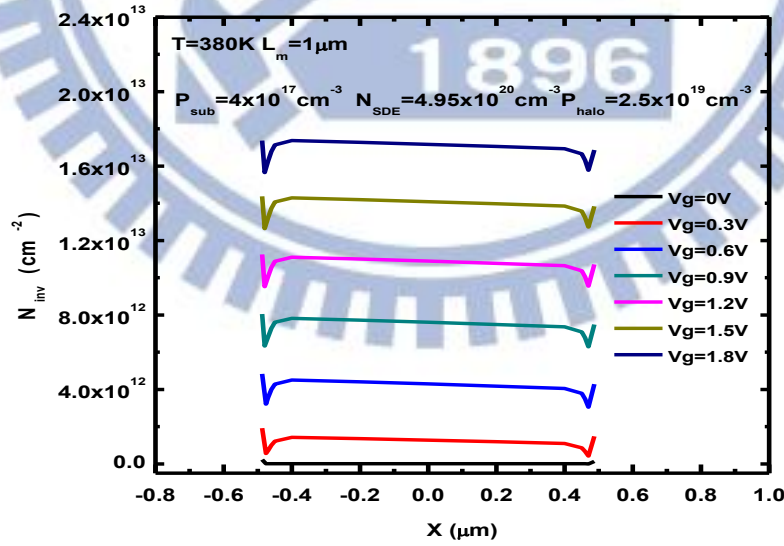


(b)

Figure 3.12 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 1\mu\text{m}$ at $T=$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.

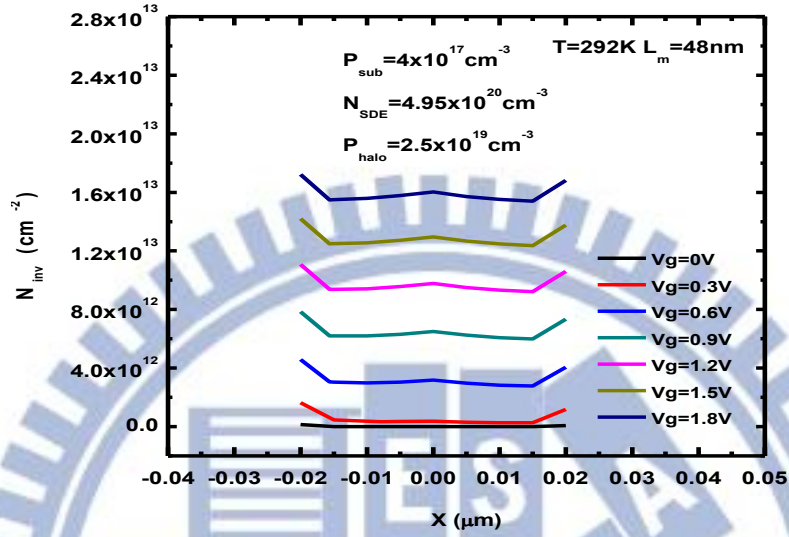


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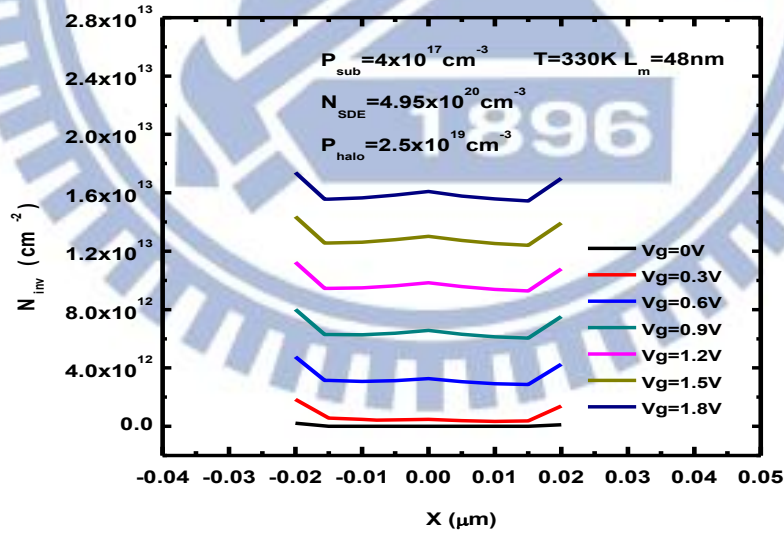


(d)

Figure 3.12 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 1\mu m$ at $T=$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.

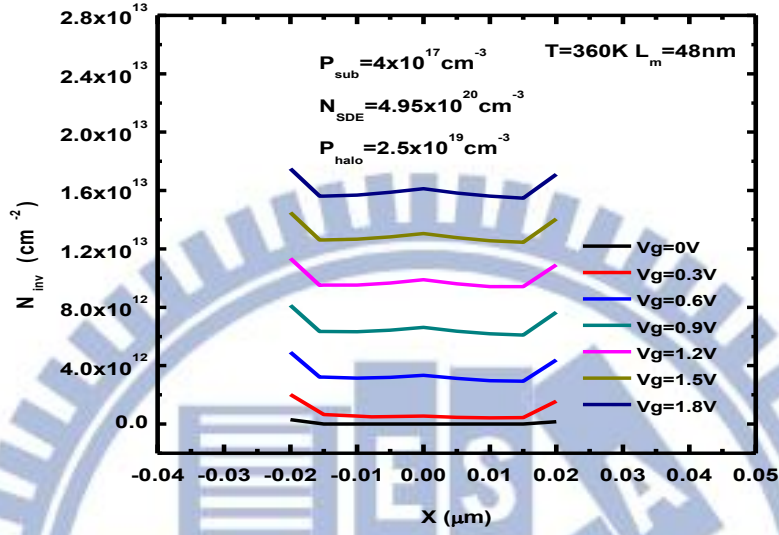


(a)

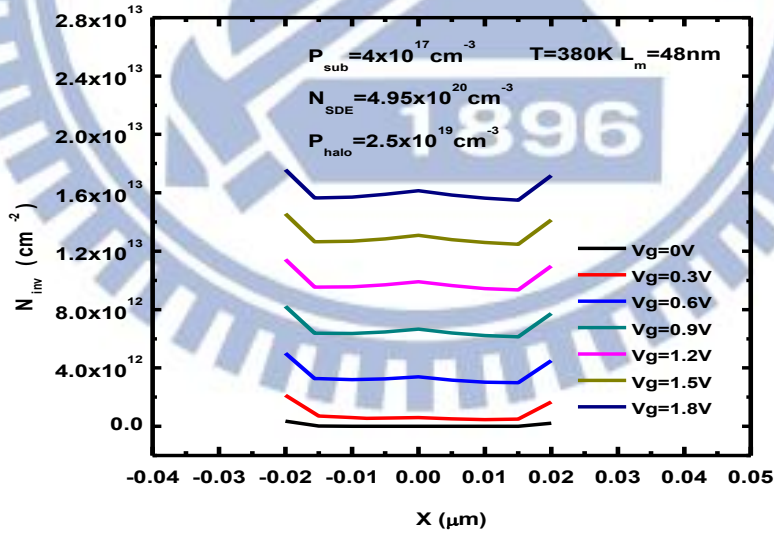


(b)

Figure 3.13 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 48nm$ at $T=$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.

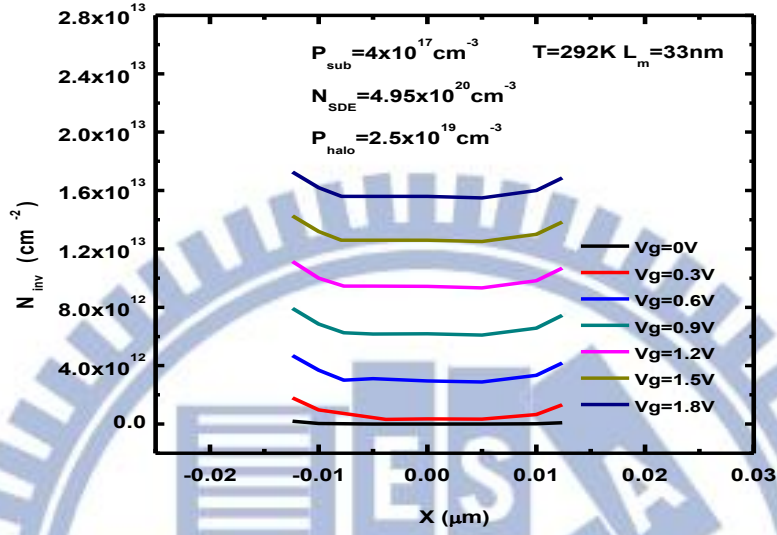


(c)

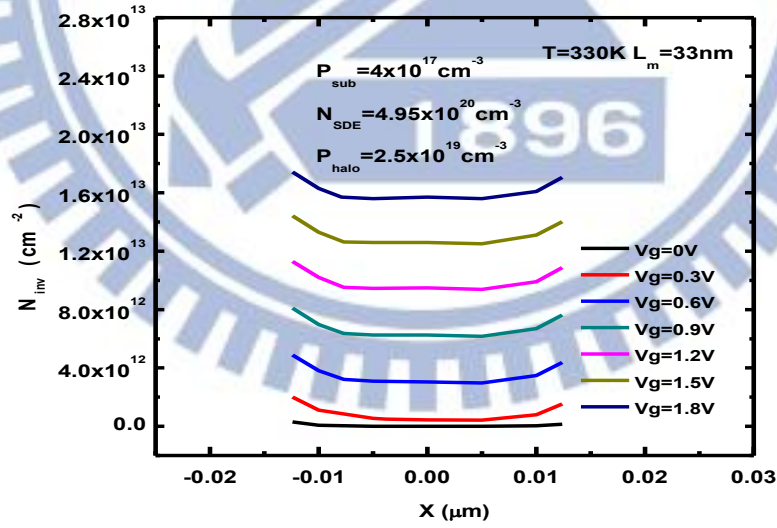


(d)

Figure 3.13 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 48nm$ at $T=$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.

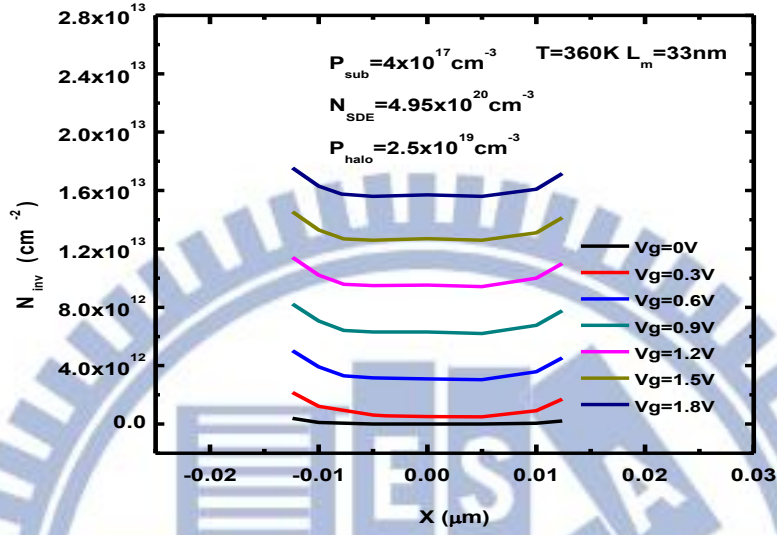


(a)

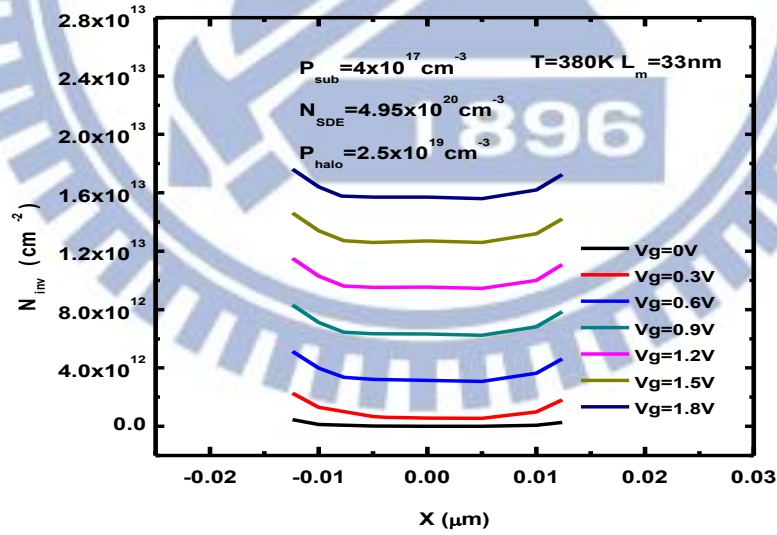


(b)

Figure 3.14 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 33 \text{ nm}$ at $T =$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.



(c)



(d)

Figure 3.14 The calculated N_{inv} along the channel direction under interface 30nm for $L_m = 33nm$ at $T=$ (a) 292K, (b) 330K, (c) 360K, and (d) 380K.

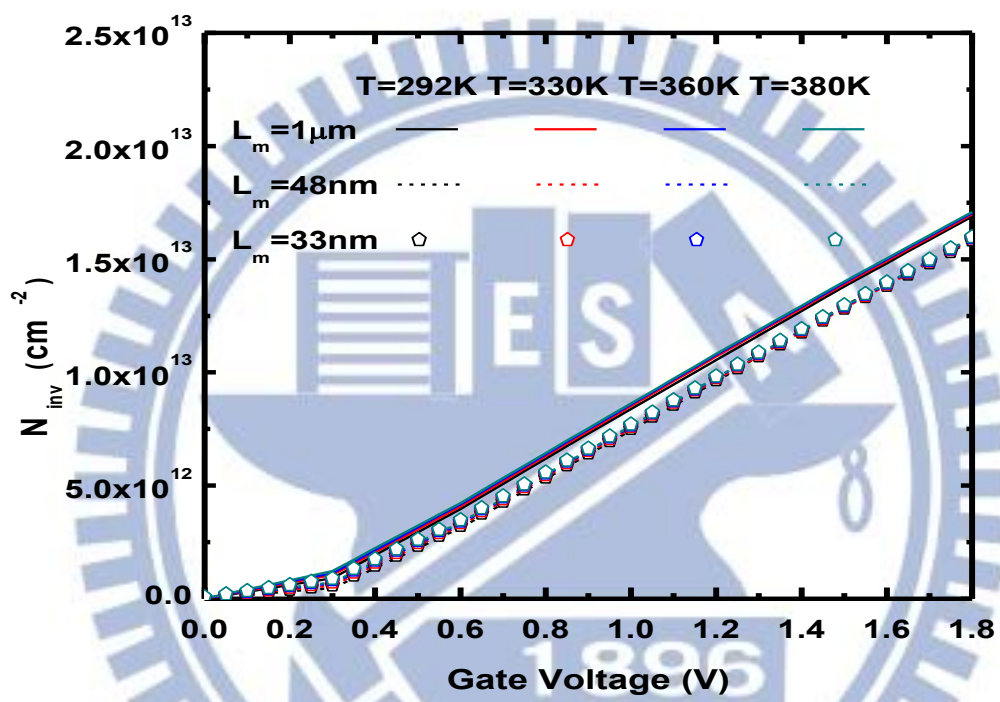


Figure 3.15 Simulated N_{inv} versus gate voltage.

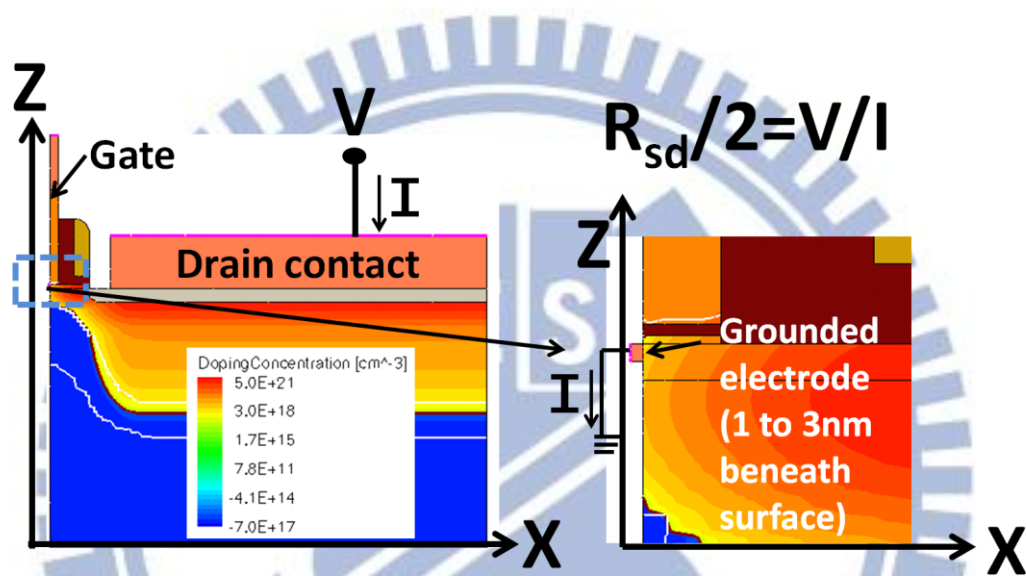


Figure 3.16 Simulation structure for R_{sd} assessment.

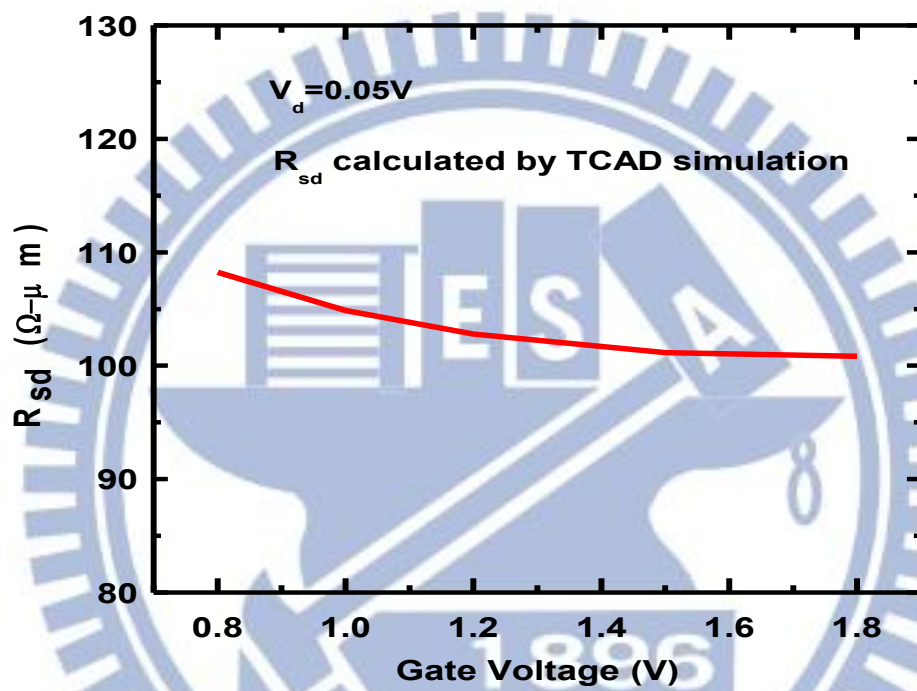
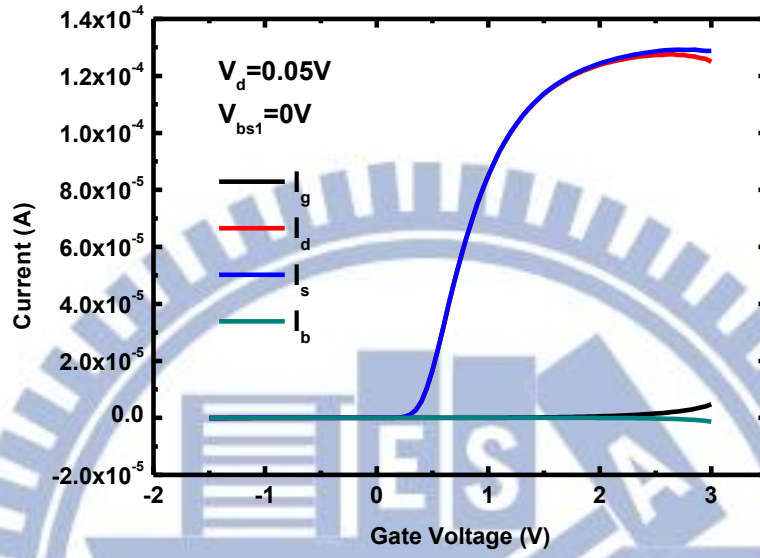
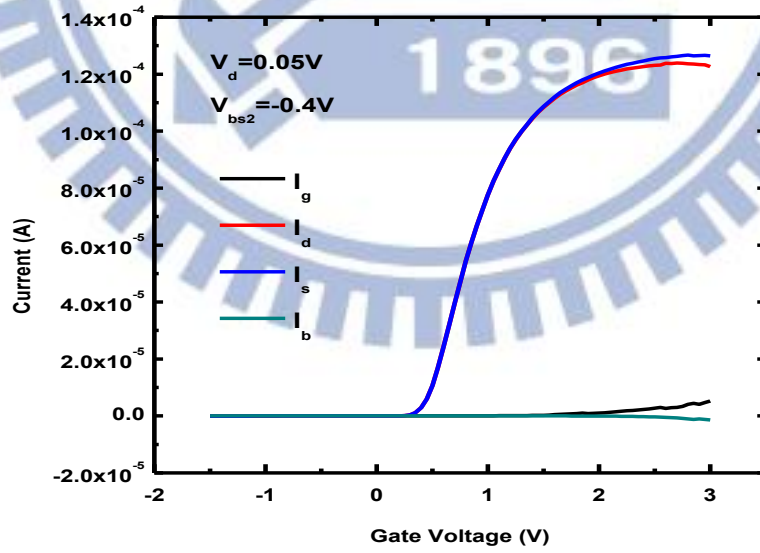


Figure 3.17 Simulated R_{sd} versus V_g at $T=292\text{K}$.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.18 Terminal currents for short-channel device versus V_g at (a) $V_b = 0V$ and (b) $V_b = -0.4V$.

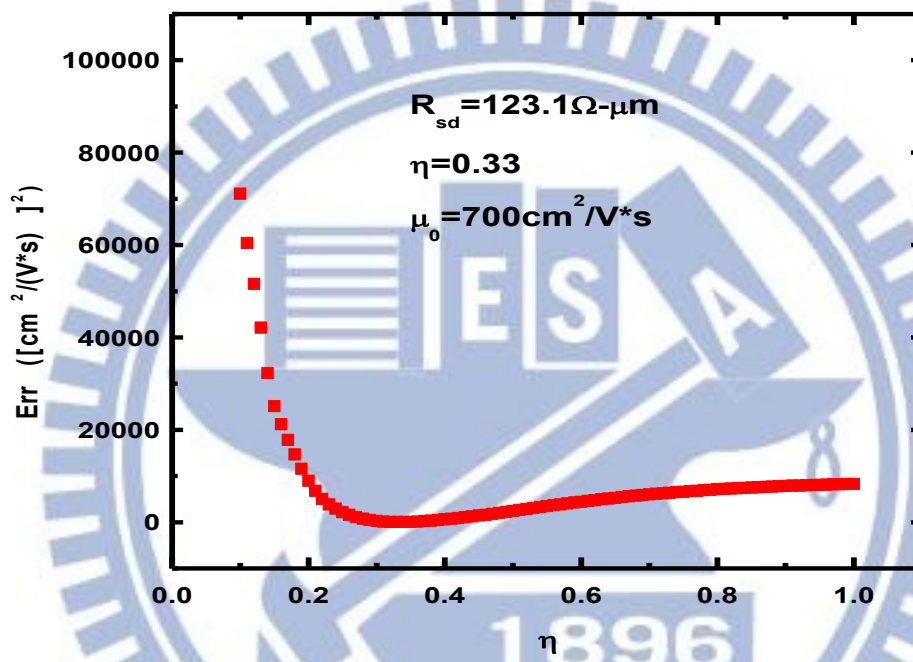
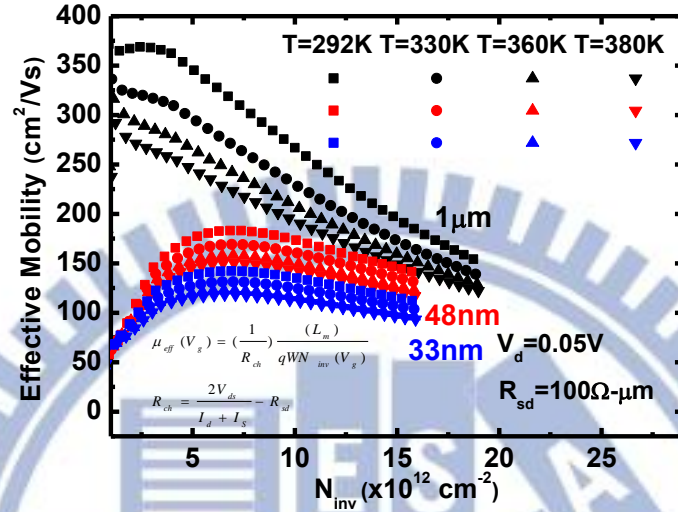
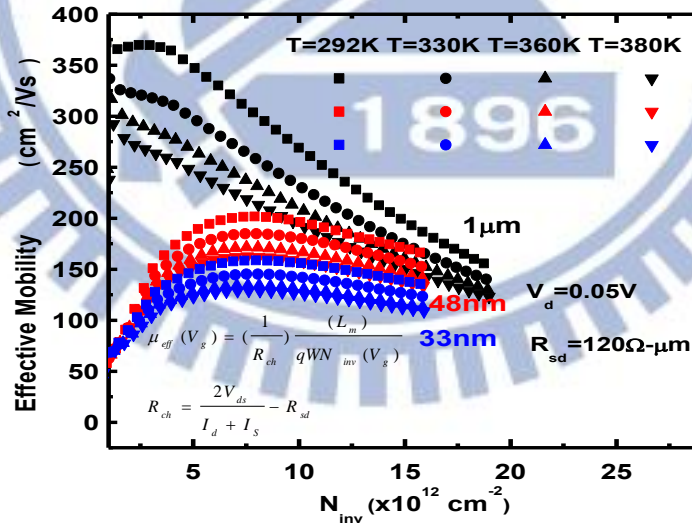


Figure 3.19 The extracted R_{sd} by using the experimental method [13].

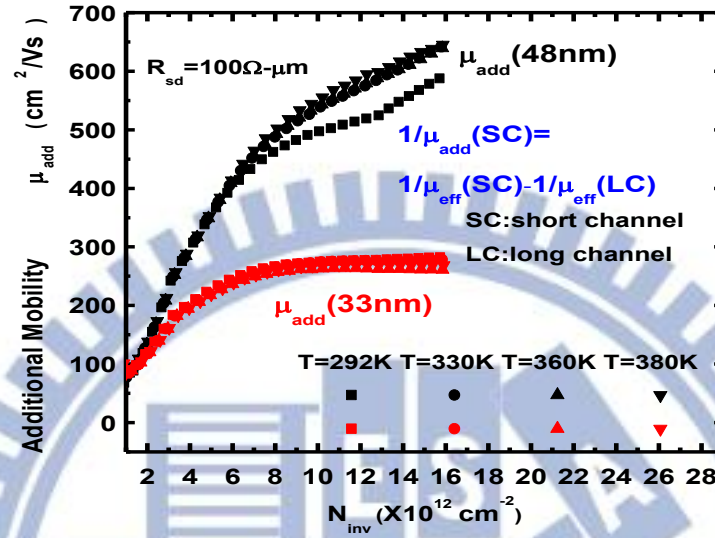


(a)

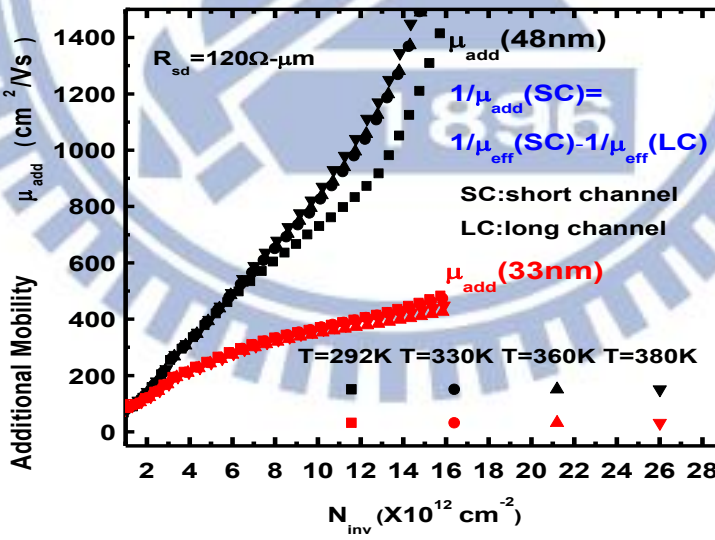


(b)

Figure 3.20 Extracted temperature-dependent effective mobility versus N_{inv} for different L_m with $R_{sd} =$ (a) $100\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ and (b) $120\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$.



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.1 Extracted temperature-dependent additional mobility versus N_{inv} for $L_m=48$ and 33 nm with $R_{sd}=(a) 100\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ and (b) $120\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$.

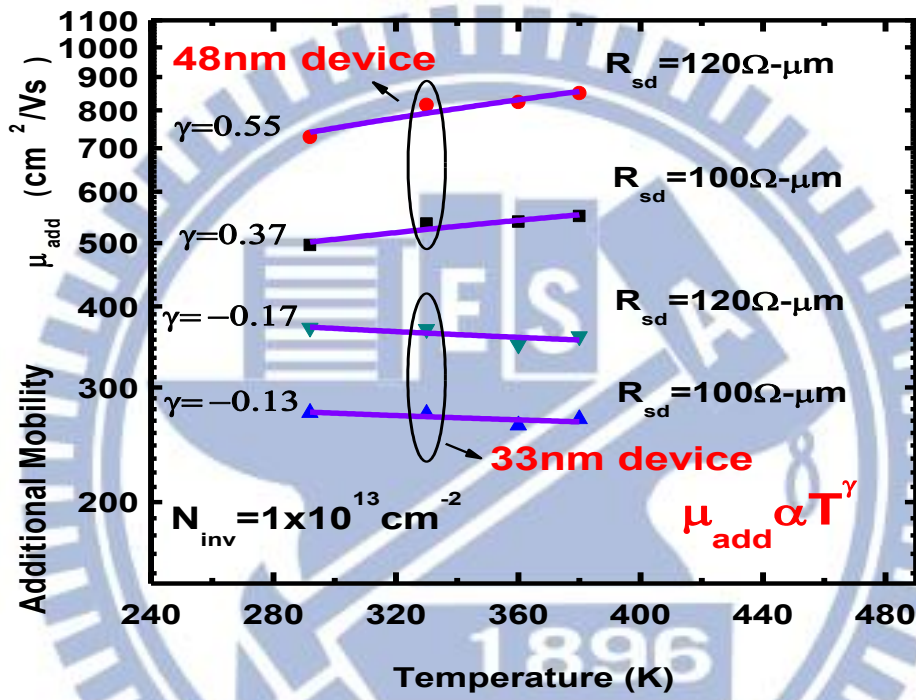


Figure 4.2 Extracted additional mobility at $N_{inv}=1 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ versus temperature with R_{sd} as a parameter. The power-law coefficient γ is obtained by data fitting.

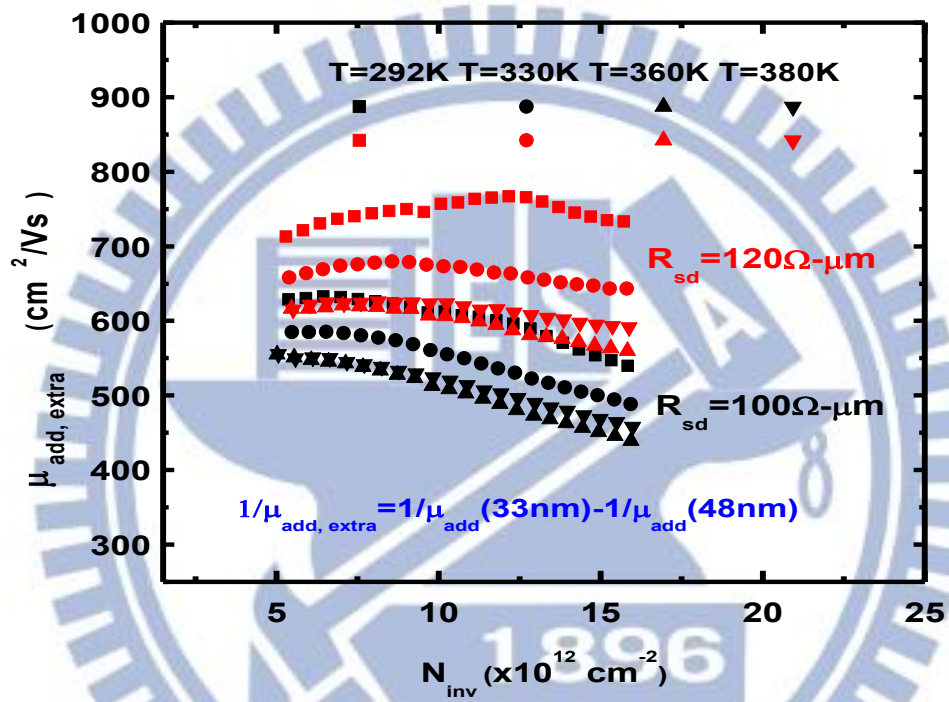


Figure 4.3 Extracted temperature-dependent $\mu_{\text{add, extra}}$ versus N_{inv} with R_{sd} as a parameter.

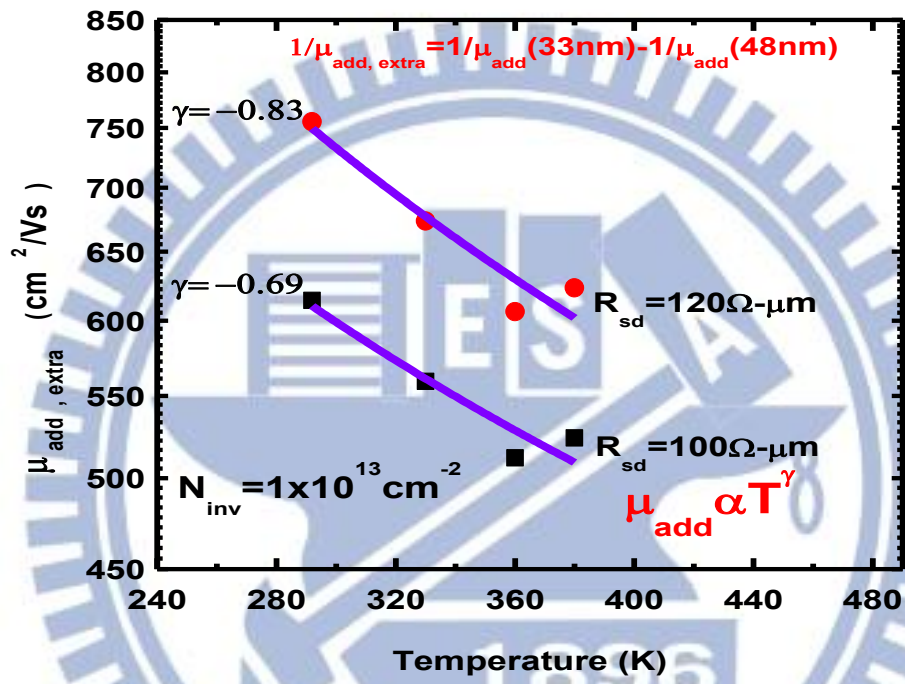
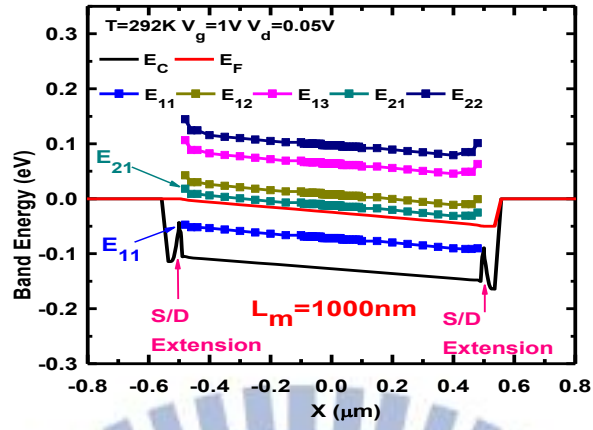
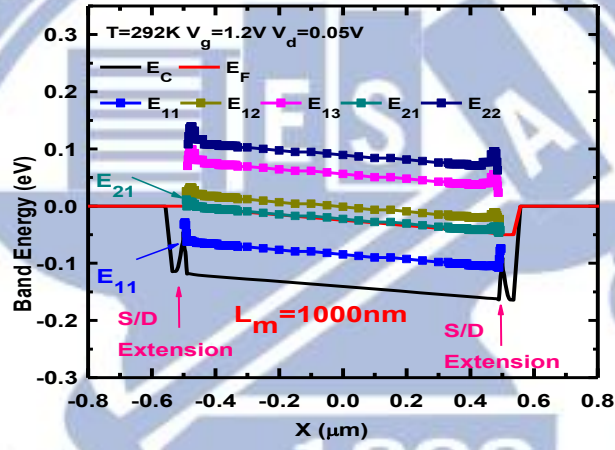


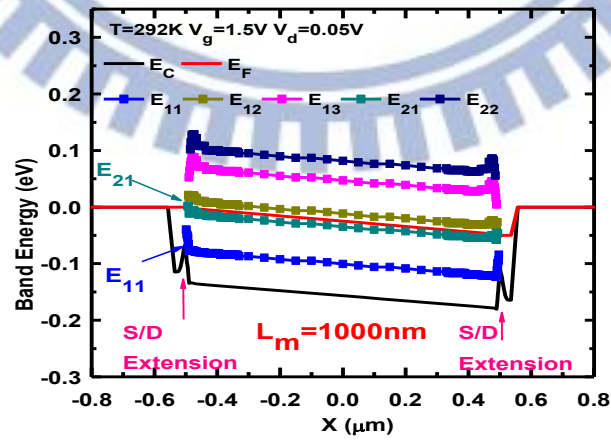
Figure 4.4 Extracted $\mu_{\text{add, extra}}$ at $N_{\text{inv}} = 1 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ versus temperature, along with corresponding power-law coefficient γ .



(a)

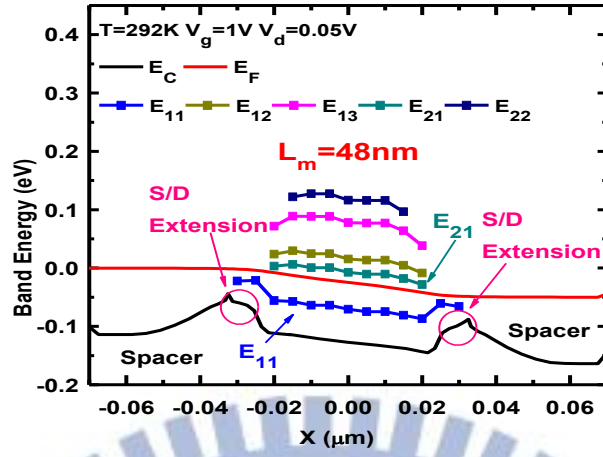


(b)

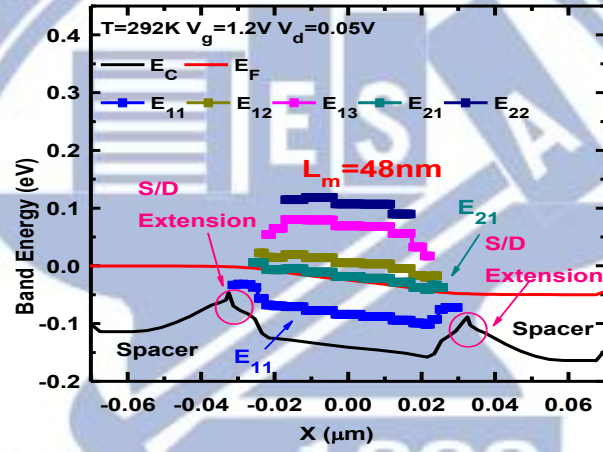


(c)

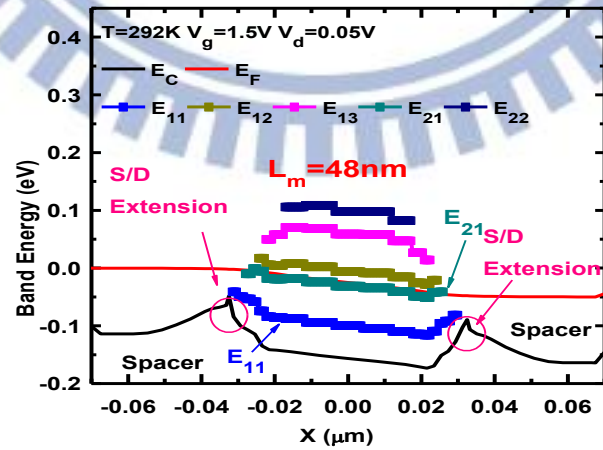
Figure 4.5 Simulated conduction-band edge, subband levels, and Fermi level versus position for $L_m = 1\mu\text{m}$ at $V_g =$ (a) 1V, (b) 1.2V, and (c) 1.5V.



(a)

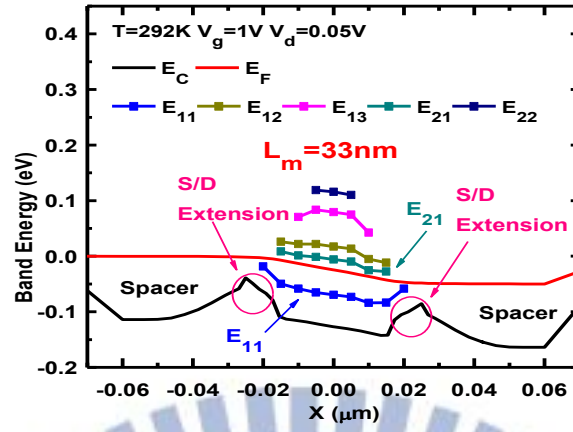


(b)

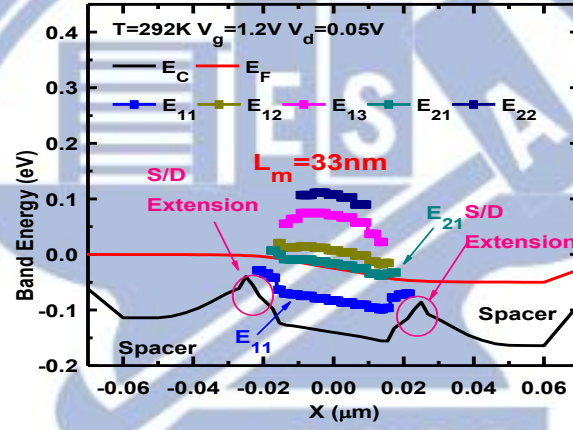


(c)

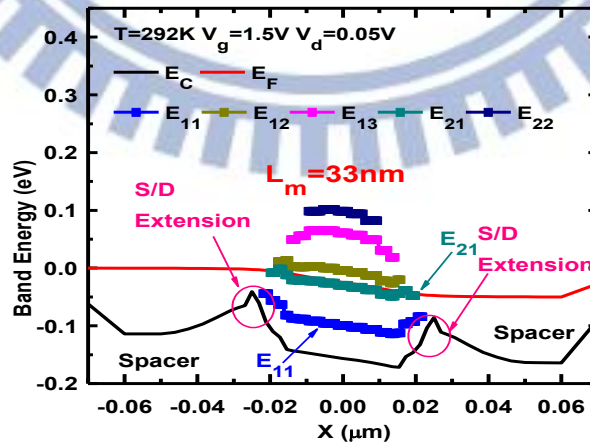
Figure 4.6 Simulated conduction-band edge, subband levels, and Fermi level versus position for $L_m = 48\text{nm}$ at $V_g =$ (a) 1V, (b) 1.2V, and (c) 1.5V.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 4.7 Simulated conduction-band edge, subband levels, and Fermi level versus position for $L_m = 33\text{nm}$ at $V_g =$ (a) 1V, (b) 1.2V, and (c) 1.5V.

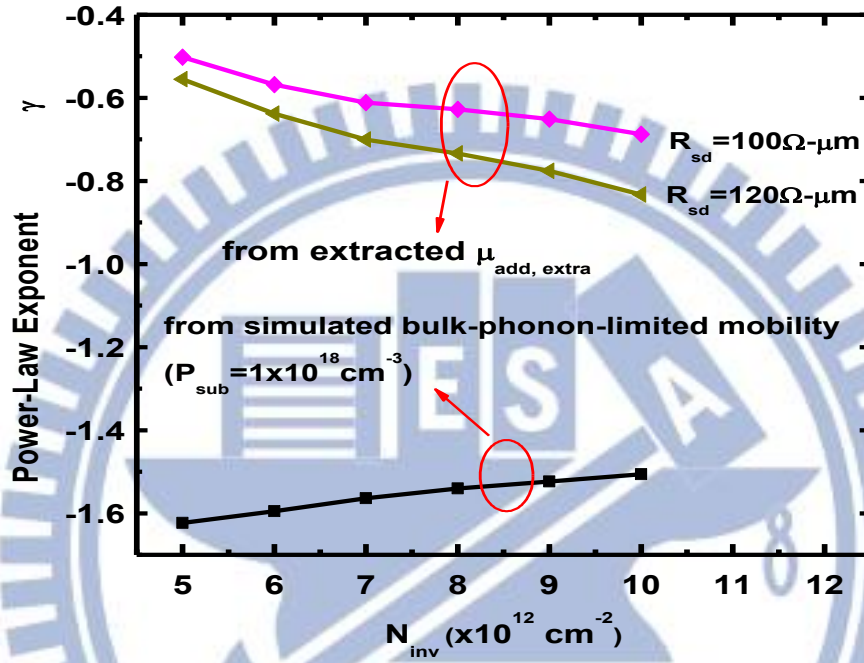


Figure 4.8 Comparison of temperature power-law exponent of extracted $\mu_{add, extra}$ and simulated bulk phonon-limited mobility, plotted versus N_{inv} .

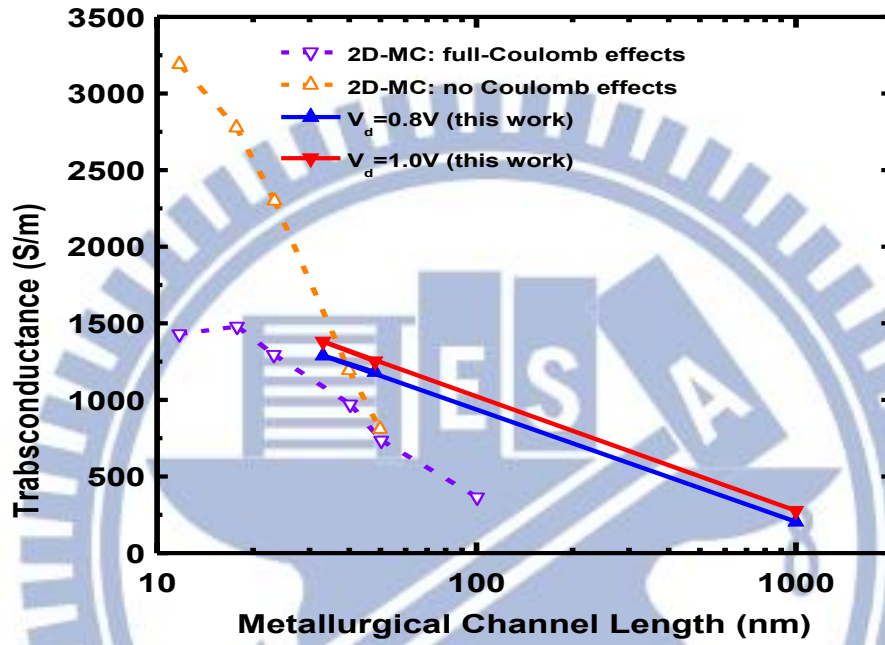
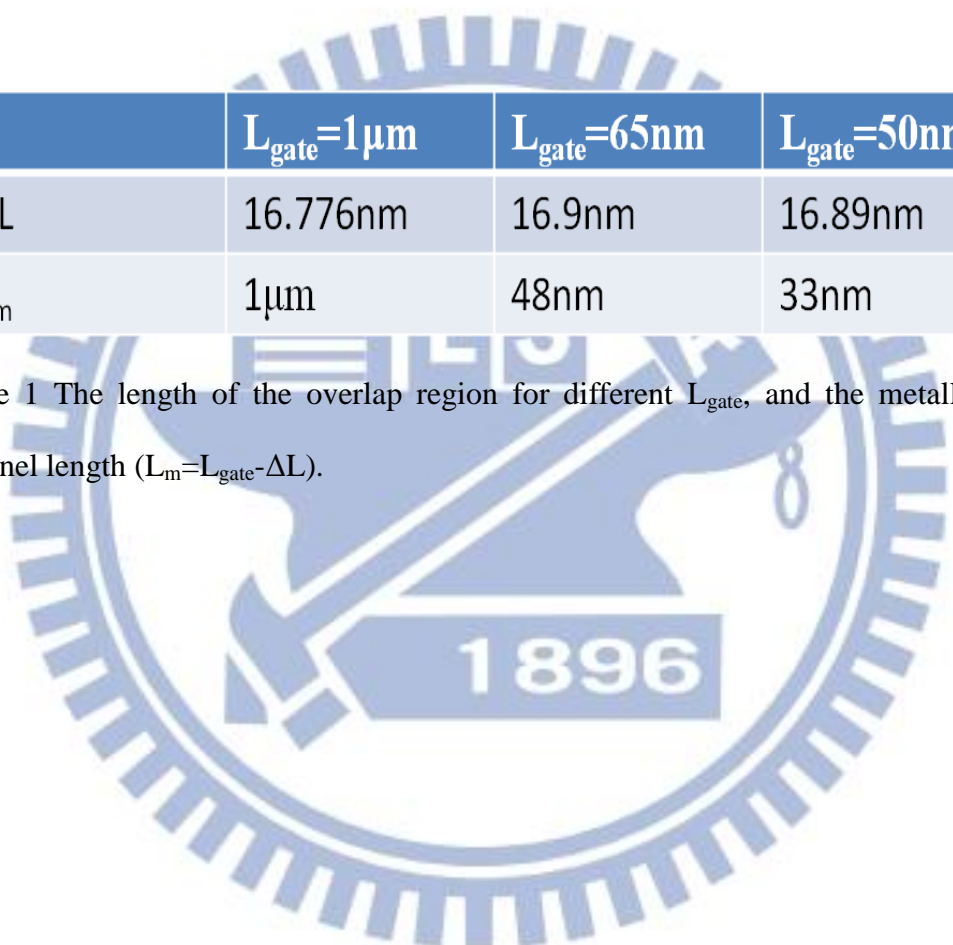


Figure 4.9 Comparison of measured transconductance in this work and simulated ones with and without Coulomb effects [1].



	$L_{gate}=1\mu m$	$L_{gate}=65nm$	$L_{gate}=50nm$
ΔL	16.776nm	16.9nm	16.89nm
L_m	1 μm	48nm	33nm

Table 1 The length of the overlap region for different L_{gate} , and the metallurgical channel length ($L_m=L_{gate}-\Delta L$).

Gate Voltage $V_g=1V$			
Gate Length	$L_m=1\mu m$	$L_m=48nm$	$L_m=33nm$
E_{11} occupancy	0.49	0.52	0.53
E_{21} occupancy	0.51	0.48	0.47

(a)

Gate Voltage $V_g=1.2V$			
Gate Length	$L_m=1\mu m$	$L_m=48nm$	$L_m=33nm$
E_{11} occupancy	0.46	0.49	0.50
E_{21} occupancy	0.54	0.51	0.50

(b)

Gate Voltage $V_g=1.5V$			
Gate Length	$L_m=1\mu m$	$L_m=48nm$	$L_m=33nm$
E_{11} occupancy	0.43	0.45	0.46
E_{21} occupancy	0.57	0.55	0.54

(c)

Table 2 The subband population for different metallurgical channel length at gate voltages of (a) 1V, (b) 1.2V, and (c) 1.5V.