


國立交通大學

電子工程學系 電子研究所碩士班

碩士論文

二氧化鈣電阻式記憶體  
多位元操作之隨機電報雜訊分析



**The Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) Analysis of  
Multi-Level Operation Methods in HfO<sub>2</sub>-based Resistive  
Random Access Memory**

研究生：黃英傑

指導教授：莊紹勳 博士

中華民國一〇一年八月

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碩士論文

A Thesis

Submitted to Department of Electronics Engineering and  
Institute of Electronics

College of Electrical and Computer Engineering  
National Chiao Tung University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of  
Master of Science

in

Electronics Engineering

August 2012

Hsinchu, Taiwan, Republic of China.

中華民國 一〇一年八月

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## 摘要

電阻式記憶體近年來成為非揮發性記憶體的熱門探討主題，歸因於其擁有面積小、高密度、低成本以及低耗能等優勢。在眾多材料當中，以二氧化鉛為基底的電阻式記憶體和現今的高介電係數電晶體製程技術最為相容，也較成熟。電阻式記憶體儲存狀態的方法是透過不同電壓條件改變阻態，不少文獻指出此變化歸因於二氧化鉛絕緣層於不同偏壓下所產生的軟性崩潰(soft breakdown)所致。

然而為了提高儲存密度，一方面在單一元件中必須設法達到多位元的存取，另一方面必須確保各狀態判讀不能有誤，精準控制每個狀態是必要的。隨著元件面積持續縮小，在氧化層中單一缺陷對電流反映出的影響所占比重增加，因此隨機電報雜訊(random telegraph noise)所帶來的問題不容小覷，它將嚴重的影響我們元件中各狀態判讀的正確與否。隨機電報雜訊分析可被用來詳細探討高介電係數電晶體之載子行為。

在本論文中，吾人採用了掃描(sweep)與脈衝(pulse)兩種電壓操作方

式在單一元件中來達成多位元的存取並分別探討其可靠度問題，包含寫入狀態的資料保存、多次重覆寫入/抹除的元件耐久性、面積對重覆寫入/抹除的阻值不穩定關係等。我們運用隨機電報雜訊分析，來分析路徑產生對記憶體的判讀產生的影響。藉由分析捕捉時間(capture time)與發射時間(emission time)，吾人可以計算出缺陷位置、能量的深度；並運用隨機電報雜訊電流擾動的振幅，對應比較不同的操作方法，幫助吾人分析不同增壓速率下其軟性崩潰路徑的分佈。實驗結果顯示，電壓增加速率的快慢關係著元件氧化層中軟性崩潰路徑的分散與集中；軟性崩潰路徑越分散，則元件轉態後阻值將越不穩定，影響判讀準位。



# **The Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) Analysis of Multi-Level Operation Methods in HfO<sub>2</sub>-based Resistive Random Access Memory**

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The logo of National Chiao Tung University is a circular emblem. It features a gear-like outer border. Inside the circle, there is a stylized figure holding a torch, with the letters 'E', 'S', and 'A' arranged vertically. The year '1896' is inscribed at the bottom of the inner circle.

## **ABSTRACT**

Resistance-change Random Access Memory (RRAM) has recently received much more attention owing to its potential layout toward high-density, low-cost, and low-energy non-volatile memory. More recently, the dielectric HfO<sub>2</sub> has become the mainstream of modern transistor and capacitor microelectronics, and is now a strong candidate for RRAM applications. The switching mechanism of HfO<sub>x</sub> RRAM has been considered as the formation and rupture under applied bias of the soft-breakdown paths. To achieve large bit storage in a scaled device with a high density memory cell array, multi-level operation is required. To achieve this requirement and maintain a large resistance memory window, both the low resistance state and high resistance state must be significantly controlled. One of the important phenomena, the current fluctuation caused by the Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) has created a huge impact on the read-out of the RRAM, in particular for multi-level applications. RTN analysis is extensively used to study electron transport in high-κ gate dielectric MOSFETs

In this work, we have studied the effect of sweep and pulse operations for the RRAM device to achieve multi-level storage. The multilevel storage characteristics of our study showing that different resistance states of the RRAM device can be achieved by different operation voltages or currents. We discussed the reliability issues including data retention time, program/erase cycling endurance, and the cell size dependence of the resistance fluctuation.

The RTN signals have been utilized to examine the effects of soft breakdown paths status in RRAM devices. By observing the bias and temperature dependence of capture and emission time, the defect location could be identified. Through both post-sweep and post-pulse RTN current measurements, we found a different trend of the RTN current amplitude between these two operation methods. Results show that the voltage ramping rate during the forming and set process (transition from the high resistance to the low resistance state) is a key parameter to determine the distribution of soft breakdown paths. The dispersed one will cause the instability of switched resistance, and induce the erratic bit during the read-out of RRAM.

## 誌 謝

兩年的實驗室生活是精采豐富的，但同時也充滿嚴苛的挑戰。首先感謝的是我的指導老師：莊紹勳教授，在學術專業上的指導與建議，開啟了我對未知領域的大門，無私的付出默默的關懷，讓我在學業上與研究上獲益良多。處事態度方面也使我增長不少，對事物應必須有的嚴謹態度以及處理方法，無時無刻都得戰戰兢兢面對所有挑戰，故我必須在此表達感謝之意。

感謝已畢業的元宏、承翰學長，當我在實驗遇到瓶頸和挫折時，總是能適時給予指導，並提供我想法。也感謝在兩年研究生涯中，與我一起同甘共苦同學們，包括漢旻、政達與侑璉，我們一起經歷困苦的研究過程，相信數年後再聚首，一定倍感溫馨；除此之外還有一群天真活潑的學弟們，包括敬翰、邦齊、尚墩、宗慶、漢樽，我會懷念和你們聊天打屁一起打球的日子，輕遞一份祝福，希望明年亦能看見你們順利的畢業。對於汪老師研究群的同學，雖然我們身在不同的研究群，但我們的感情就像是一家人一樣，特別感謝榮標學長、泓達、定樺，有了你們陪伴，讓我感到實驗室變得繽紛許多。

最後我要感謝我的家人們，你們是我最大的精神支柱，有了你們的支持與鼓勵，讓我可以不畏艱難的向前邁進。

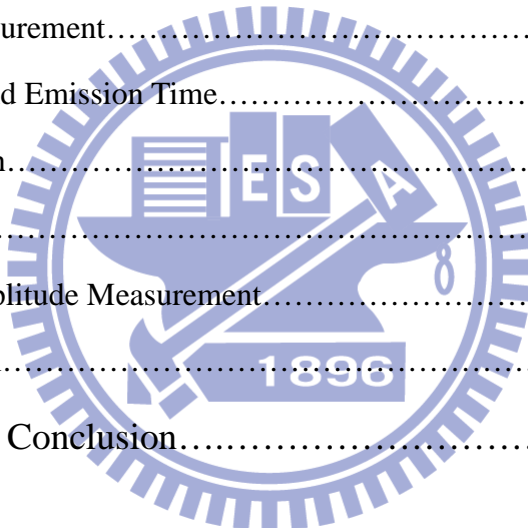
謹將這份榮耀獻給培育我多年的父母親。

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Background

Today, silicon-based flash memory has become the most promising nonvolatile memory because their high density, yield, and the compatibility with current CMOS technology. However, flash memory now faces an inevitable scaling problem limited by the tunnel oxide thickness [1.1]. To solve this issue, nitride storage flash, usually called SONOS, has been developed [1.2]. Although SONOS may continue the scaling of tunnel oxide thickness, several inherent problems of these charge-trapping type nonvolatile memories emerges, such as random dopant fluctuation [1.3], random telegraph noise [1.4], stress induced leakage current [1.5], and trap-assist tunneling [1.6], etc. Next generation nonvolatile memory has a possibility to replace the charge-trapping storage by the dielectric resistance change. Among these, there are four main categories of the emerging memories: Ferroelectric RAM (FeRAM), Magnetoresistive RAM (MRAM), Phase Change Memory (PCM), and Resistive RAM (RRAM). FeRAM exhibits lowest power, while MRAM shows fastest switching. PCM and RRAM have moderate power consumption and switching rate but exhibit scaling potential, which makes them more attractive [1.7, 1.8]. Nevertheless, the self heating of PCM poses great challenges due to frequent high temperature re-crystallization. As a consequence, RRAM becomes the most popular nonvolatile memory owing to its simple structure (MIM), easy fabrication, and good compatibility with conventional CMOS technology.

## 1.2 The Motivation of This Work

About forty years ago, several papers reported that chalcogenide material sandwiched between two metal electrodes may change its conductivity under applied electric field [1.9-1.10]. This discovery did not attract much attention because nonvolatile memory was not popular at that time and the device scaling was not a critical issue. Not until the report of electric-pulse-induced reversible resistance change made by S. Q. Liu in 2000 [1.11], this resistive random access memory draws more interests as a potential candidate which is a strong candidate for the next generation nonvolatile memory.

Many materials have been considered as potential candidates of the dielectric for RRAM. In general, we may classify these materials into three categories: (1) Perovskite, (2) Transition Metal Oxide, and (3) Organic and Macromolecule materials. The perovskite material, such as  $\text{Pr}_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{MnO}_3$  (PCMO) and  $\text{La}_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{MnO}_3$  (LCMO), was first developed owing to its close connection with FeRAM [1.12-1.14]. The organic materials attract lots of interests in recent years because of their potential applications [1.15]. However, the transition metal oxide based RRAM shows best performance, reliability, and conventional fabrication compatibility. There have been numerous reports on transition metal oxide materials, such as  $\text{SrTiO}_3$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZrO}_2$ ,  $\text{NiO}$ ,  $\text{TaO}_2$ ,  $\text{HfO}_2$ ,  $\text{WO}_2$ , etc [1.16-1.22]. Some reports also mentioned the importance of electrode material, which may determine the existence of RRAM switching behavior using the same insulator [1.23].

Besides a variety of dielectric materials, the switching mechanism of RRAM also raised controversies, such as Mott transition, Jahn-Teller Effect, and ionic dopant drift, etc [1.12, 1.13, 1.24]. A more widely accepted model for transition metal oxide based RRAM

manifested that there is one or several conduction filaments connecting between two electrodes, and the formation and rupture of the filaments control the measured resistance [1.25].

To achieve large bit storage in a scaled device with a high density memory cell array, multi-level operation is required. By using different operation methods, the memory devices may endure different damage and show different characteristics. In this thesis, we use hafnium oxide as RRAM dielectric to investigate the operation methods of transition metal oxide based RRAM. We achieved the multi-level storage, and discuss the effect by using different operation schemes.

As the device dimensions continue to shrink with each generation, the effect of each defect on device becomes more pronounced. The current fluctuation due to Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) resulted in errors in the read-out with multi-level operation. In this thesis, we will also use the current fluctuation of RTN to investigate and compare the difference between different operating schemes.

### **1.3 Organization of the Thesis**

There are five parts in this thesis. Chapter 1 is the introduction. We describe the motivation and organization of this thesis. In Chapter 2, we show the device preparation and equipment setup used in the experiments. In Chapter 3, we will examine the methods to achieve multi-level storage and the discussion on the reliability issues. In Chapter 4, the Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) behavior of RRAM is discussed. Finally, the summary and conclusions are given in Chapter 5.



# Chapter 2

## Device Preparation, Equipment Setup, and Measurement Methods

### 2.1 Device Preparation

The structure of RRAM is the TiN / TiO<sub>x</sub> / HfO<sub>x</sub> / TiN stack, which was deposited on the Ti / SiO<sub>2</sub> / Si substrate. The HfO<sub>2</sub> thin film was deposited by atomic layer deposition (ALD), while all the other thin films were deposited by sputtering methods. Owing to the well-known ability of Ti to absorb oxygen atom [2.1], oxygen atoms diffuse from the HfO<sub>2</sub> layer to the Ti, resulting in the formation of HfO<sub>x</sub> (x ~ 1.4) with a large amount of oxygen deficiency and the oxidation of Ti. The corresponding XTEM image, made by the XPS examination, is presented in Fig. 2.1 [2.2].

### 2.2 Equipment Setup

The whole experimental setup for the I-V and pulse characteristics measurement of RRAM is illustrated in Fig. 2.2. Based on the PC controlled instrument environment by HP-IB (GP-IB, IEEE-488 Standard) interface, the complicated and long-term characterization procedures to analyze the behaviors in RRAM cells can be easily achieved. As shown in Fig. 2.2, the equipment, including the semiconductor parameter analyzer (Agilent 4156C), low leakage switch mainframe (HP 5250A Switching Matrix), pulse generator (Agilent 81110A), and probe station, were used for our measurements on RRAM

devices. Programs written by HT-Basic were used to execute the measurement via HP-IB interface.

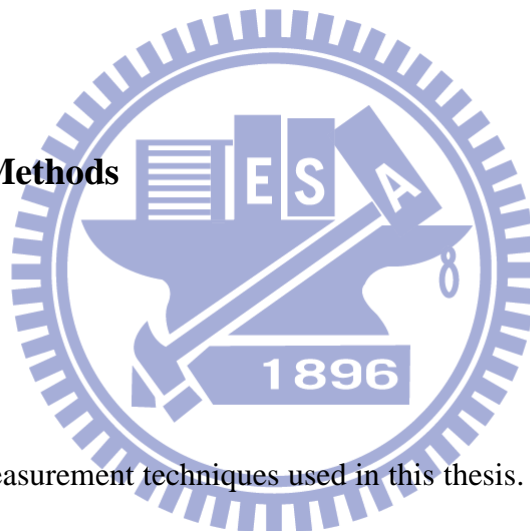
The Agilent 4156C provides a high current resolution up to pico-ampere range, and is equipped with four programmable source/monitor units. Two source units, and two monitor units for supplying or monitoring the voltage and the current. The pulse generator Agilent 81110A with high timing resolution provides for P/E cycling endurance. The HP 5250A switching matrix equipped with an 8-input x 12-output switching matrix switches the signals from the Agilent 4156C and Agilent 81110A to device under test in the probe station automatically.

## **2.3 Measurement Methods**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

There are four measurement techniques used in this thesis. First, a forming process is required for every fresh device before normal operation. Second, normal operation using bipolar voltage sweep is necessary for basic device characterization. Third, the pulse with both positive and negative pulses causes the changes of RRAM devices to high/low resistance state. The last one is the sampling mode which helps us to read the RRAM devices resistance and sensing the Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) signal.

### **2.3.2 Forming**



Before we start to operate the RRAM correctly, performing the so-called “forming” procedure in the beginning is required, as shown in Fig. 2.3. We add a ramping voltage on the top TiN electrode which is near the Ti buffer layer, and measure the corresponding current by Agilent 4156C semiconductor parameter analyzer. When the accumulated energy exceeds a certain limit determined by the device material and thickness [2.3], the current reaches at the value of compliance current, and the forming step is accomplished, as shown in Fig. 2.4. The compliance current is usually set to be a little less than the compliance used in normal SET process.

### 2.3.3 Sweep Operation

After the “forming” process, this device switches to LRS (Low Resistance State). The following step is to turn it off, i.e., to switch the RRAM from LRS to HRS (High Resistance State). There are two operation modes to identify the switching type of RRAM devices [2.4]. As shown in Fig. 2.5, one is unipolar, and the other one is bipolar. Unipolar means that the turn on voltage and turn off voltage are at the same polarity, where the turn on voltage is usually larger than turn off voltage. On the other hand, the bi-polar means that the turn on voltage and turn off voltage are in opposite polarities. Usually the bi-polar switching device is more suitable for future CMOS technology owing to less operation voltage and power consumption. The basic characteristic of a typical device is shown in Fig. 2.6, which is obviously a bipolar device. The illustrations of voltage sweep operations in this work are shown in Fig. 2.7 and Fig. 2.8.

### 2.3.4 Pulse Operation

In order to control the pulse timing of Agilent 81110A during transient and P/E cycling endurance characteristics precisely, we select the triggered pattern mode to achieve this goal. Fig. 2.9 (a) and Fig. 2.9 (b) show the program and erase schemes on the RRAM devices respectively. For example, by taking the programming timing pattern as shown in Fig. 2.9, the triggered pattern mode can be explained as follows. In Fig. 2.9 (a), the VSU1 of Agilent 4156C generated a voltage signal which is equal to the low voltage level of Agilent 81110A. This triggered pattern mode method can provide a substrate bias during programming, and prevent additional stress to device during P/E cycling endurance operation. The pattern mode defined as 01000 in Fig. 2.9 (a) from Agilent 81110A is then sent and the program or erase operation is performed.

### 2.3.5 Sampling

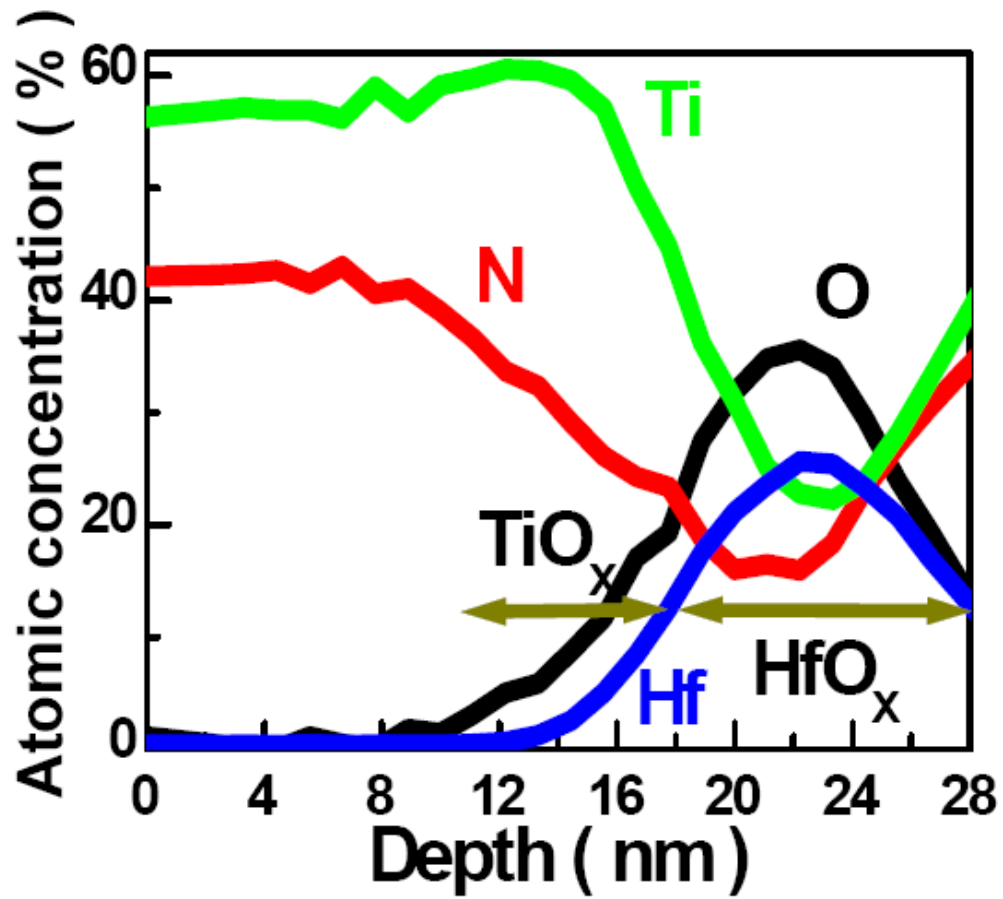
After the sweep and the pulse operation, we have to check whether the RRAM device is switched successfully. So, we have to sense the currents by Agilent 4156C under a read voltage for a period of time and then average them to get the resistance. Fig. 2.10 illustrates the concept of this measurement method. This sampling procedure reads RRAM by applying 0.1 V to evaluate current and resistance. The 0.1 V is chosen to be less than RRAM switching threshold to avoid disturbance.

The Random Telegraph Noise (RTN) signal is extracted by the same method; we can say that is the long time read operation. RRAM current is about 100 nA ~ 100  $\mu$ A. The sampling rate is maximum  $10^3$  readings per second, which means there is minimum 1 ms of resolution. RTN phenomenon may be not observed as interval time set too larger due to capture or emission time less than the interval time.

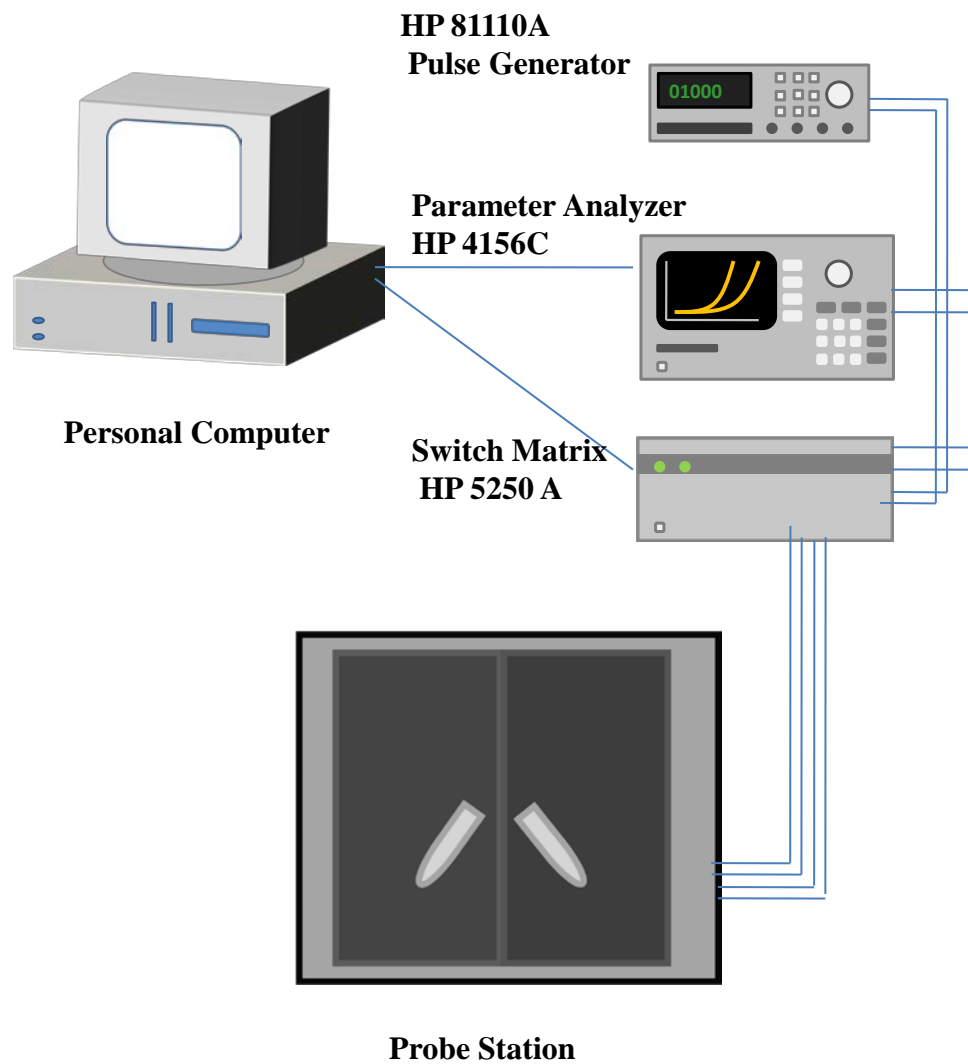
### 2.3.6 Statistics of Random Telegraph Noise

The target of RTN measurement is to extract mean capture and emission time and then further profile traps properties. Therefore, the switching of trap captures and electrons emitting must be distinguished. We can determine using naked eye and it's also the most precise method to obtain mean capture and emission time. Nevertheless it wastes time and not efficient for large amount of data. In our work, we wrote a program and used a current level that lies in the middle of the high and low current state to differentiate trap holding or releasing an electron automatically. Sequentially, every period of time was added and divided by numbers of events. As a consequence, we extracted more accurate mean capture and emission time which can handle much larger amount of data.

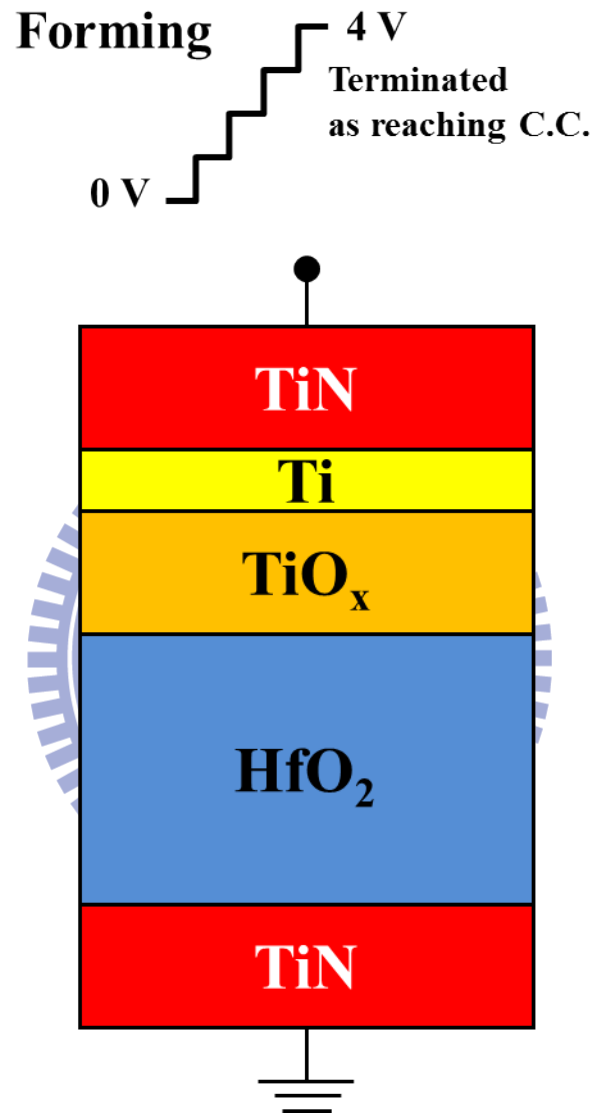




**Fig. 2.1** XPS depth profile of TiN/Ti/HfO<sub>2</sub>/TiN stack layers after alloying.

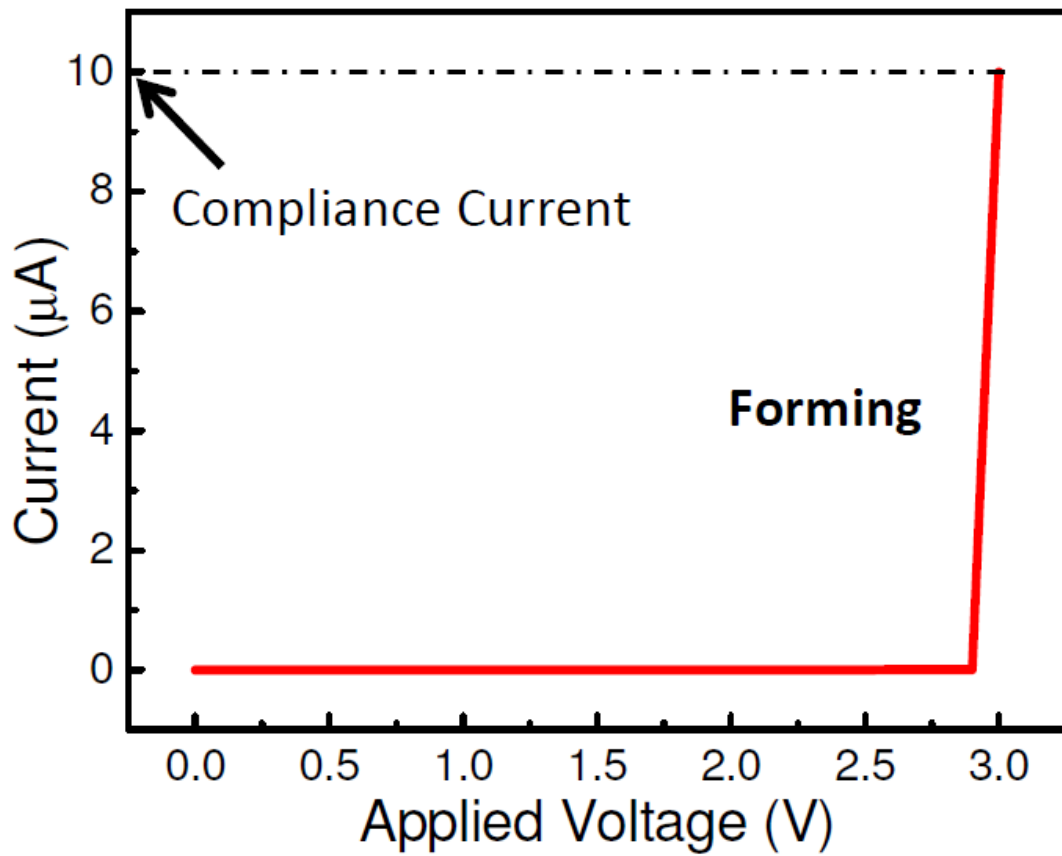


**Fig. 2.2** The experimental setup of the current-voltage and the P/E cycling endurance characteristics measurement in RRAM. Automatic controlled characterization system is setup based on the PC controlled instrument environment.

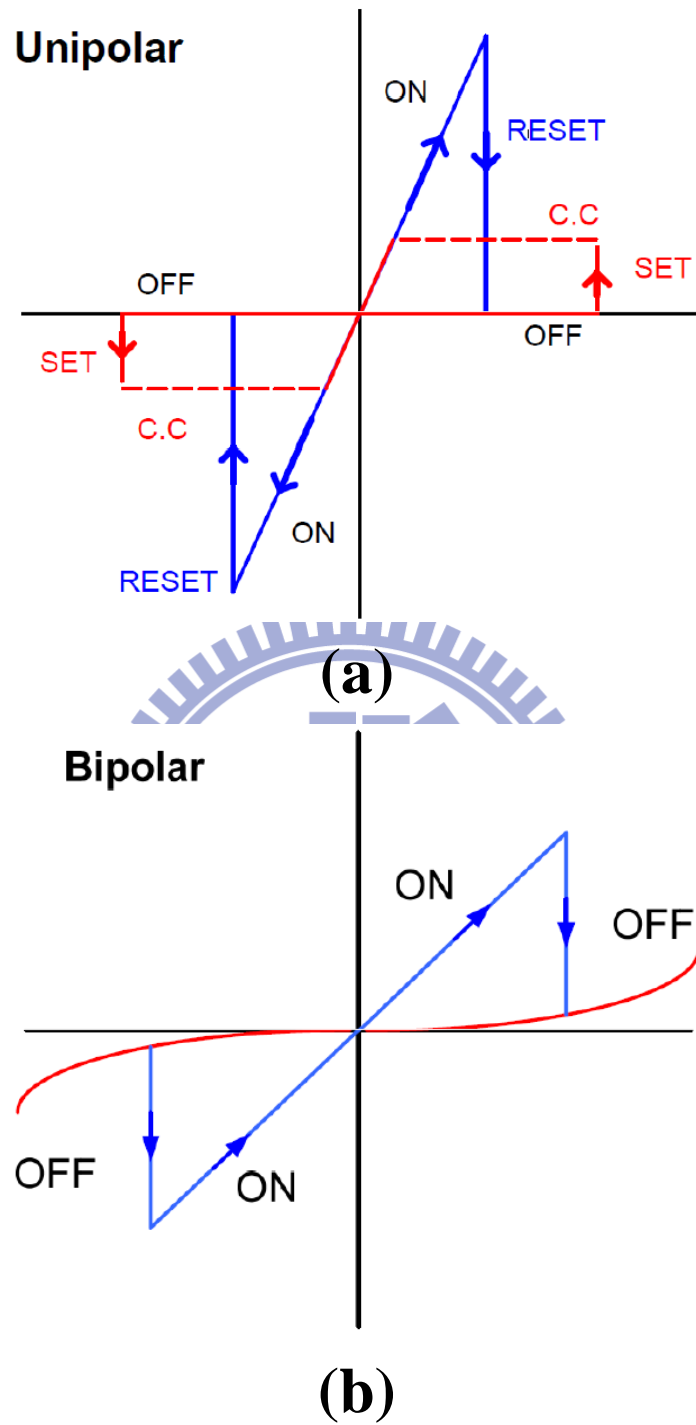


**Fig. 2.3** The cross section of transition metal oxide based resistive switching memory during forming process.

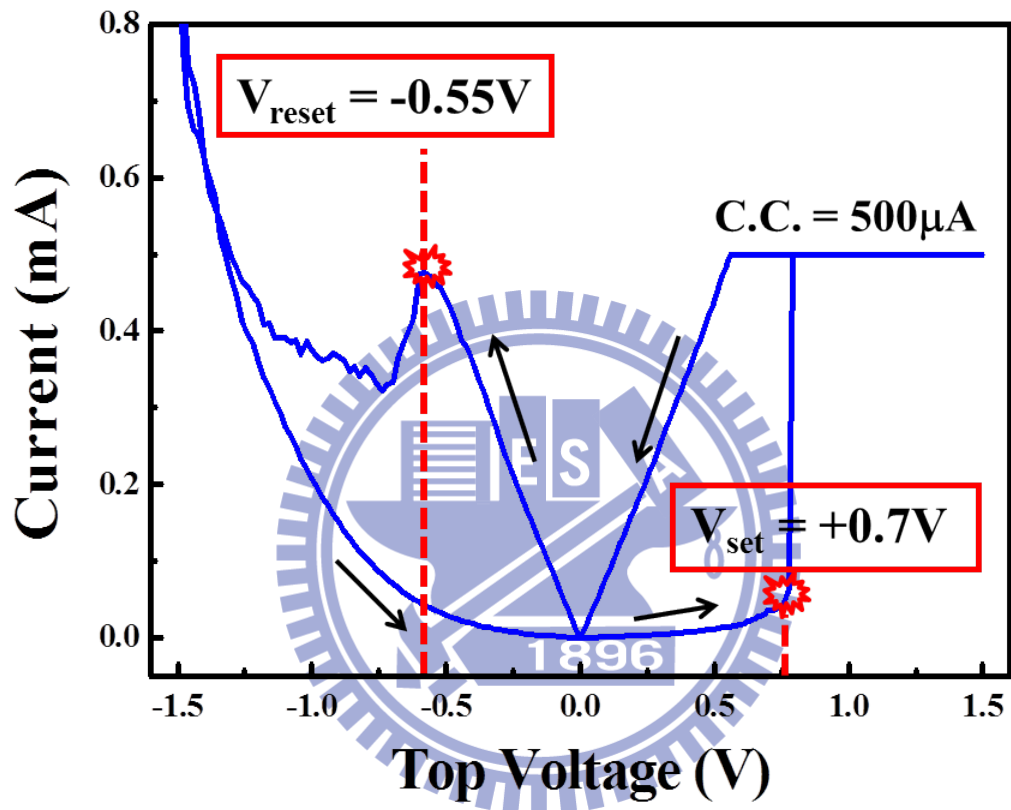




**Fig. 2.4** Forming: the predominant step before resistive switching operation.

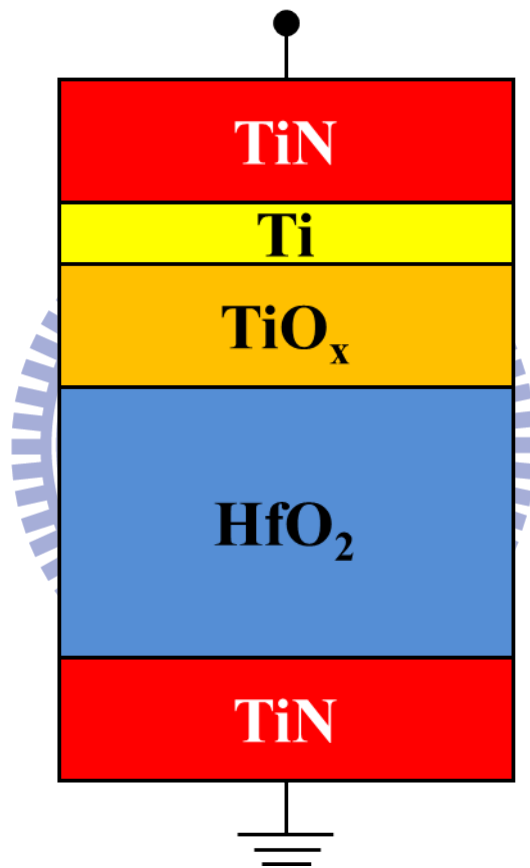
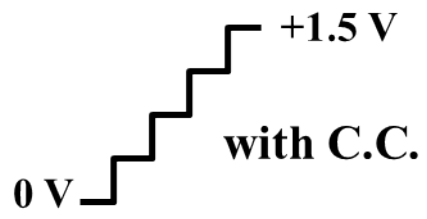


**Fig. 2.5** Two operation modes of RRAM. (a) unipolar and (b) bipolar.

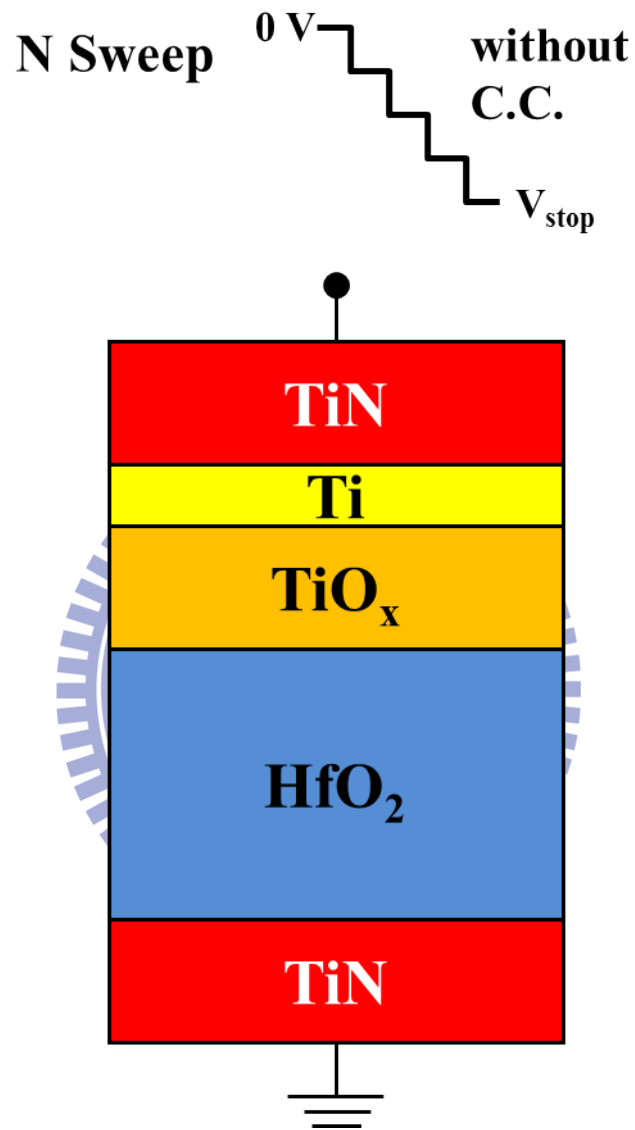


**Fig. 2.6** Basic characteristics of the test RRAM cells in this thesis.

**P Sweep**

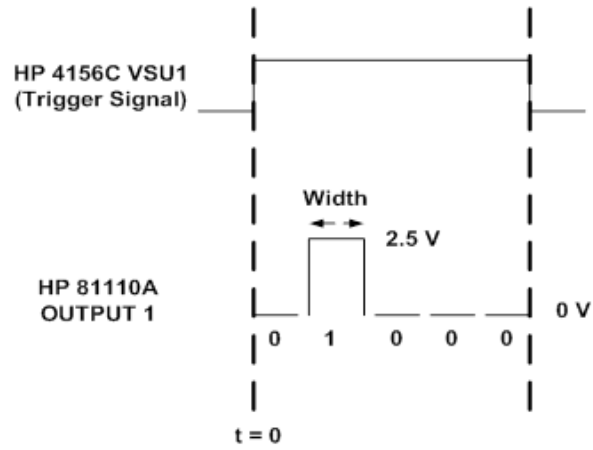


**Fig. 2.7** Illustration of positive sweep operation in RRAM.

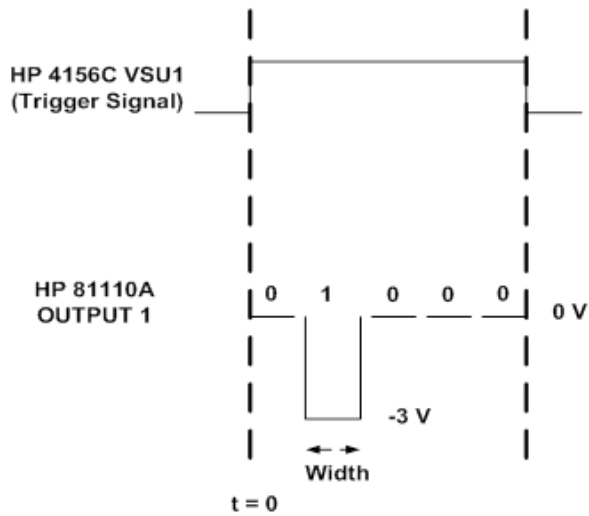


**Fig. 2.8** Illustration for negative sweep operation in RRAM.

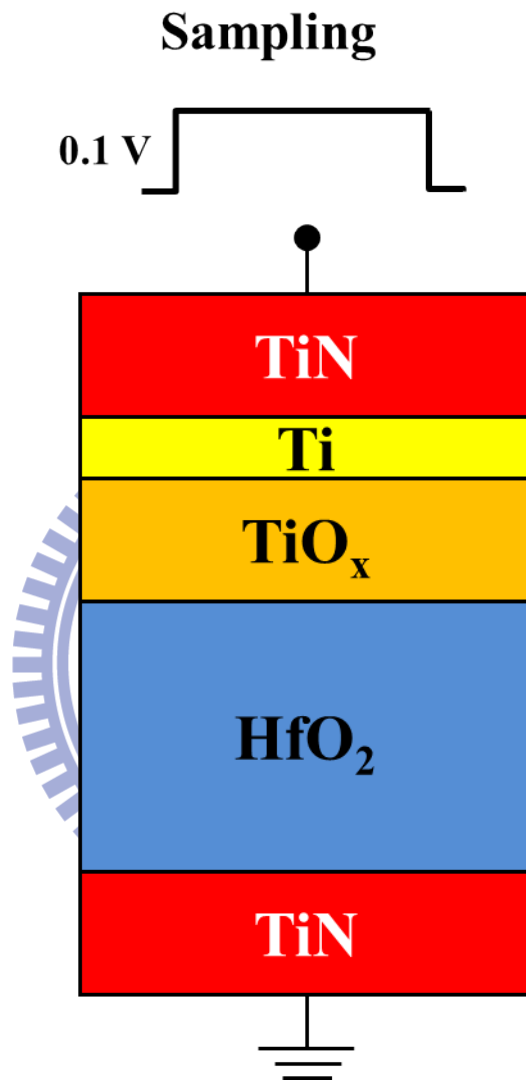
(a) PROGRAM



(b) ERASE



**Fig. 2.9** The timing diagram of the triggered pattern mode method during (a) program and (b) erase operations.



**Fig. 2.10** Illustration of sampling operation.

## Chapter 3

# Multi-Level Storage and Reliability Issues of RRAM

### 3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will show the operation methods of resistive random access memory to achieve multi-level storage and the associated definitions. One method is sweep operation, the other one is pulse operation. Also, we will discuss the reliability issues after different operating methods. Regarding the reliability, we measure the resistance loss at 100 °C after these operations, to observe the data retention characteristic of these devices. After that, we will compare the program/erase cycling endurance between sweep and pulse operation methods. From different operation methods, we discuss the advantages and shortcomings for distinct use of the device.

### 3.2 The Sweep Operation of RRAM

#### 3.2.1 The Switching Parameter Definitions of RRAM

The main parameters used in this thesis are shown in Fig. 3.1. When RRAM is switched to LRS, we define  $V_{\text{set}}$  as the turn on voltage, and  $I_{\text{set}}$  as the corresponding current. For the memory device, we limit the RRAM current during the set and forming process by Agilent 4156C with the compliance current (C.C.). When RRAM is switched to HRS, we define  $V_{\text{reset}}$  as the turn off voltage and  $I_{\text{reset}}$  as the corresponding current. Also,



we define the maximum negative voltage as  $V_{\text{stop}}$ .

### 3.2.2 Compliance Current

The objective for setting the compliance current is to prevent the dielectric hard breakdown of the RRAM device [3.1]. During the “forming operation” and the “set operation,” we must have to set the compliance current to ensure not to destroy the function of the RRAM device. In this case, the compliance current is achieved by Agilent 4156C via the HT-BASIC language.

### 3.2.3 SET Operation by Different Compliance Currents

As shown in Fig. 3.2, for the low resistance state (LRS), we can achieve multi-level storage by using different compliance currents. When the top voltage ramped up, the soft breakdown paths were generated. The voltage step is set very small to ensure that these soft breakdown paths are formed slowly and concentrated [3.2]. Then, we setup the compliance current during the positive sweep; the compliance current level will be able to control these soft breakdown paths' number or cross-section. When the RRAM current reaches the compliance current that we set, this current will be fixed by Agilent 4156C. In other words, the soft breakdown paths stop growing. Different sizes of soft breakdown paths correspond to different RRAM resistances. In the meantime, the soft breakdown paths' size increased, the current increased under same read voltage. So, we can achieve multi-level storage in the low resistance state by changing different compliance currents.

### 3.2.4 RESET Operation by Different Stop Voltages

For the high resistance state (HRS), RRAM device after a negative voltage sweep now changes the resistance state. During this process, some soft breakdown paths are rupture which can be caused by reoxidation of a narrow filament tip adjacent to the electrode [3.3]. So the number of these conductive paths is decreased obviously. All of these soft breakdown paths will be eliminated when the absolute value of the stop voltage is large enough. In other words, the RRAM current must be a tunneling current because the soft breakdown paths are separated from the electrode [3.4]. Also as mentioned above, the multi-level storage can be achieved by changing different stop voltage  $V_{\text{stop}}$ , which is shown in Fig. 3.3. The absolute value of stop voltage increases, the RRAM resistance increases as well, as shown in Fig. 3.4.

### 3.2.5 Discussion

The current is a key performance metric for the operation of RRAM devices as it governs the power needed for switching operation [3.5]. For the low power operation of the memory devices, we should reduce reset current. As shown in Fig. 3.5, RESET current ( $I_{\text{reset}}$ ) and set current (compliance current) are interrelated. The order of these two currents is the same. So, we can lower the compliance current of forming and set process to achieve a low power operation.

When the RRAM device is switched to low resistance state, i.e., set process, if the compliance current we setup is too small, the soft breakdown paths are not completely generated, as illustrated in Fig. 3.6. This state should be wiped out, because the partially-on state may affect the following cycling endurance characteristic. So, we have the lowest

compliance current level, i.e., the maximal resistance at low resistance state (LRS).

For the data retention characteristics, we achieve the different resistance levels by the sweep operation. The LRS data writing for five resistance levels has been demonstrated by varying the compliance currents of sweep process. In Fig. 3.7, the LRS multi-level resistance is achieved by five compliance currents (200  $\mu\text{A}$  ~ 650  $\mu\text{A}$ ) at 100  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and we check the prediction of the retention time for 10 years. Furthermore, the HRS multi-level storage is achieved by different stop voltages. We vary four different stop voltages (-1.0 V ~ -1.5 V), and it shows good data retention characteristics. Here, we can obtain nine different levels on one cell, while it still maintains distinct levels after 10,000 seconds.

The program/erase cycling endurance characteristics of sweep operation are shown in Fig. 3.8. L1 and L2 are the LRS with 650  $\mu\text{A}$  and 200  $\mu\text{A}$  compliance currents respectively. L3 and L4 are the HRS where the stop voltages are -1.0 V and -1.5 V. We can see that the resistance fluctuation is larger. The larger resistance state shows larger resistance variation. For the purpose of the data retention use, we can control the device with nine levels and even more. But if we consider this device for cycling endurance objective, the level number should be reduced. Otherwise, the neighboring states will be overlapped. It will result in errors in the read-out during multi-level operation.

### **3.3 The Pulse Operation of RRAM**

#### **3.3.1 SET Operation by Different Pulse Amplitudes**

Besides the sweep operation, the pulse operation is another operating method for

RRAM device. The same as sweep operation, we add a positive bias to RRAM top electrode to accomplish the set process. There are some differences between these two operation methods. First, the voltage changing rate from 0 V to  $V_{\text{high}}$  of pulse is larger than the sweep operation. Second, the pulse voltage ( $V_{\text{high}}$ ) is always higher than the turn on voltage of the sweep operation.

The multi-level operation is achieved by changing the pulse amplitudes. The pulse width is  $1 \times 10^{-8}$  sec, by changing the pulse amplitudes from 1.5 V to 2.5 V. Then, we will get different resistance levels, as shown in Fig. 3.9. The resistance decreases as the pulse voltage increases. So, the RRAM resistances at the low resistance state can be controlled by different pulse voltages to achieve multi-level storage.

### 3.3.2 RESET Operation by Different Pulse Widths

Different from the set operation, to achieve multi-level storage of high resistance state (HRS), we control the width of the negative pulse. The pulse amplitude should be selected appropriately. If the pulse amplitude is too large, the RRAM device will reverse breakdown and this device will be failed in the switching. In this case, we fix the pulse voltages where  $V_{\text{low}}$  is 0 V and  $V_{\text{high}}$  is -2 V; and then, we change the pulse widths from  $5 \times 10^{-8}$  to  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec. As shown in Fig. 3.10, the multi-level storage is achieved by changing the pulse widths.

### 3.3.3 Discussion

During this violent and fast operation, we speculate that the condition of soft

breakdown paths is different between the moderate sweep operation and the heavy pulse operation. We know that the metal oxide is composed of many grains after the deposition process. The grain boundaries (GBs) constitute a preferential leakage current path, which then get transformed into the soft breakdown path during the forming or set process [3.6].

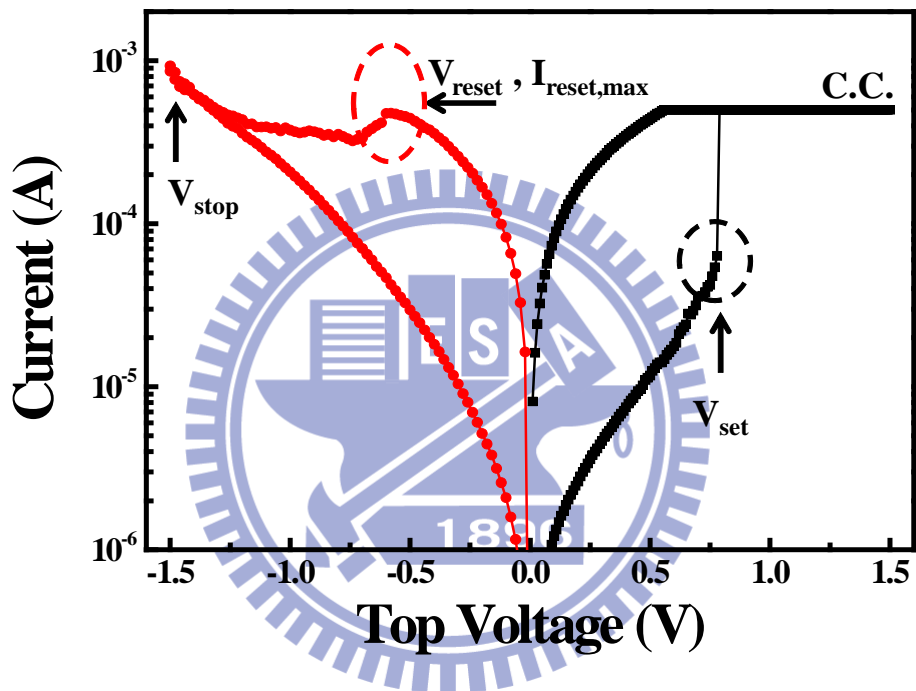
For the sweep operation with slowly voltage ramping step, the soft breakdown paths are generated and centralized at the weakest point first. Then, the other soft breakdown paths increase near that point. For the pulse operation with severe voltage jump, there are many weaker points which will be transferred to soft breakdown paths under the higher pulse voltage ( $V_{\text{high}}$ ). Therefore, the soft breakdown paths during the pulse operation are more disperse than those of the sweep operation.

For the data retention characteristics, we achieve the different resistance levels by pulse operation. For the low resistance state (LRS), there are six levels which are operated by different pulse amplitudes. And, for the high resistance state (HRS), we setup four levels which are achieved by different pulse widths. As shown in Fig. 3.11, the high and low resistance states are separated more than one order difference, but some levels are overlapped. We have no problem to control the high and low resistance states in the beginning. But after 200 seconds baking ( $100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), the high resistance state becomes unstable. Here, we can see that L2 and L3 overlap around 1k seconds. For another case, the high resistance states overlap more serious, as shown in Fig. 3.12 (a). By sensing the current, we found the random telegraph noise (RTN) phenomena, as shown in Fig.3.12 (b). The  $\Delta I/I$  is larger than 30 % and it might cause the resistance unstable. The random telegraph noise phenomena will be investigated in more detail in the next chapter.

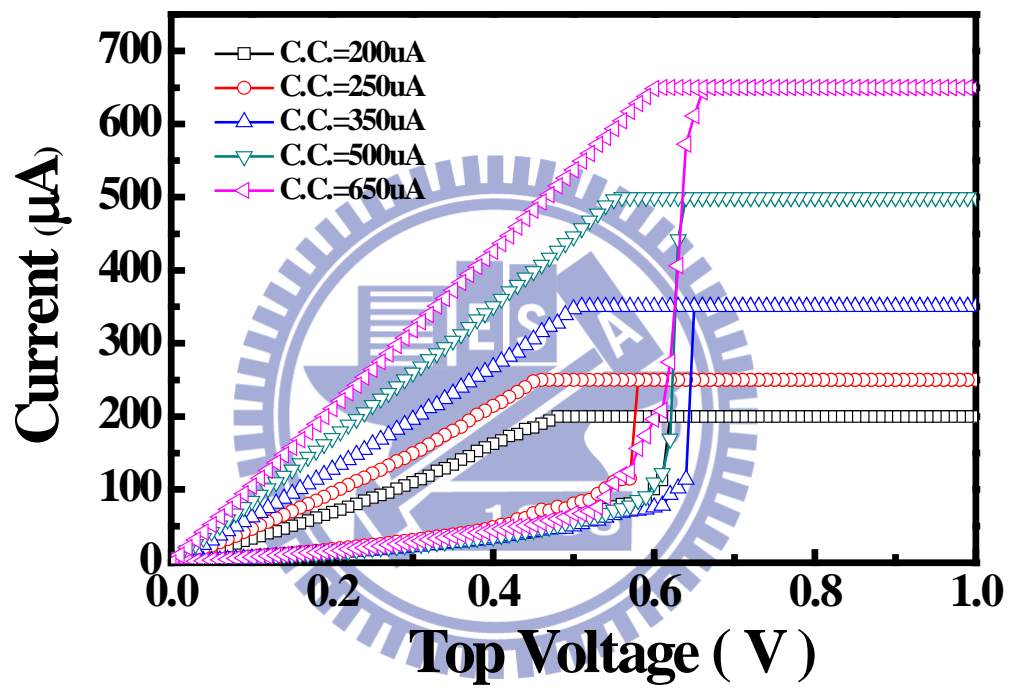
For the program/erase cycling endurance characteristics of pulse operation, shown in Fig. 3.13, during the set step, the pulse amplitude is 2.5 V and the pulse width is  $1 \times 10^{-8}$  sec. Also, for the reset step, the pulse high is -2.0 V and the pulse width is  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec. There is no multi-level window for the pulse operation, because the cycling endurance characteristics are not good. The resistance fluctuation is serious; we speculate that the reason is attributed to the voltage ramping rate during forming and set process. The soft breakdown paths generation after each switching may not be identical, and the instantaneous voltage jump causes their distribution more dissimilar after every set/reset cycle because there are many weaker grain boundaries. So, the soft breakdown paths will be randomly distributed, leading to more severe RRAM resistance fluctuations.

For the low resistance state operated by pulse method, we compare  $\Delta R_{\max}/R$  versus different device area during 1000 times set/reset cycle. As shown in Fig. 3.14, the resistance variation becomes larger as the area of device increasing. The large device size will damage endurance characteristics.

To solve these problems, controlling the soft breakdown paths is important. By using a slower voltage ramping rate, the improving of the oxide quality, or shrinking the memory area will help us to ameliorate the RRAM reliability which include data retention and program/erase cycling endurance characteristics.

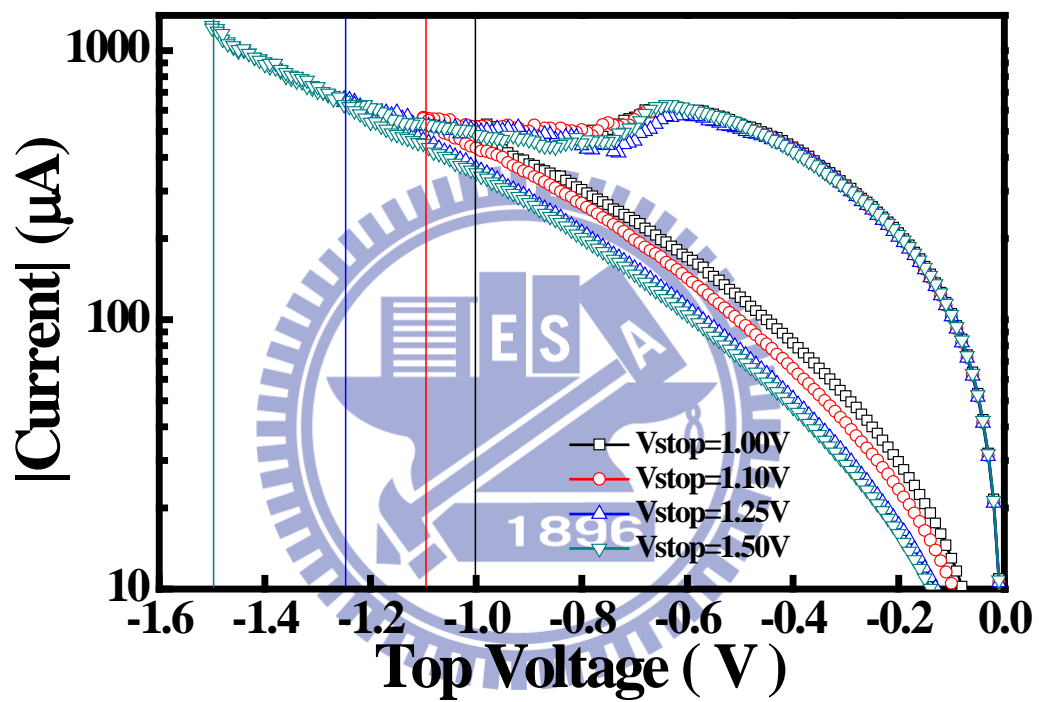


**Fig. 3.1** Typical current-voltage characteristics of RRAM. C.C. represents the compliance current.  $V_{stop}$  is the maximum negative sweep voltage.  $V_{reset}$  or  $I_{reset,max}$  are the voltage or current at which reset takes place.  $V_{set}$  is the voltage at which set takes place.

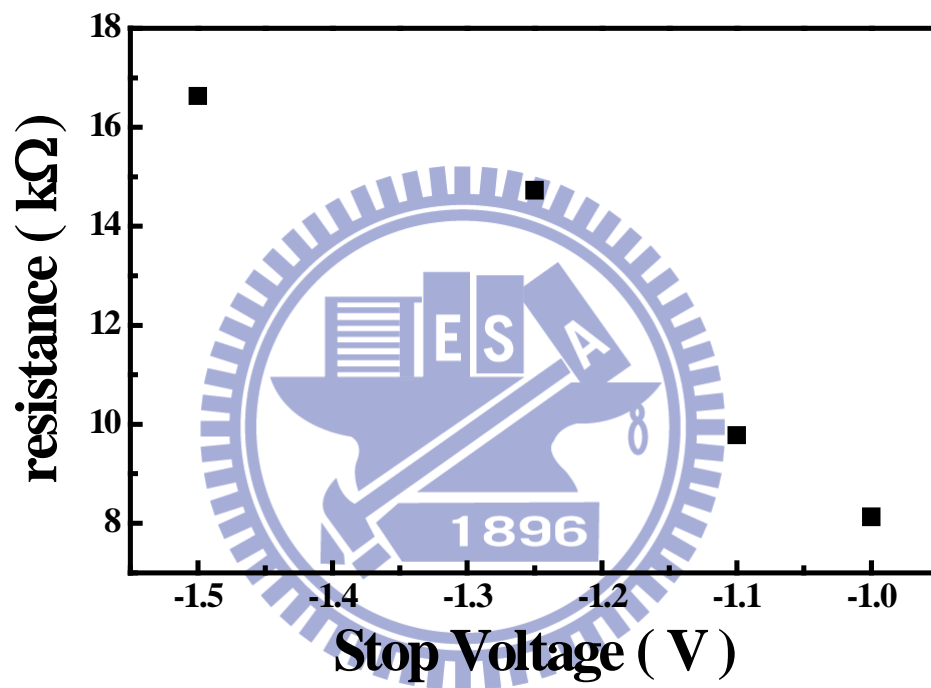


**Fig. 3.2** The multi-level characteristics of  $R_{low}$  in TiN/TiO<sub>x</sub>/HfO<sub>x</sub>/TiN device by controlling the compliance current (C.C.).

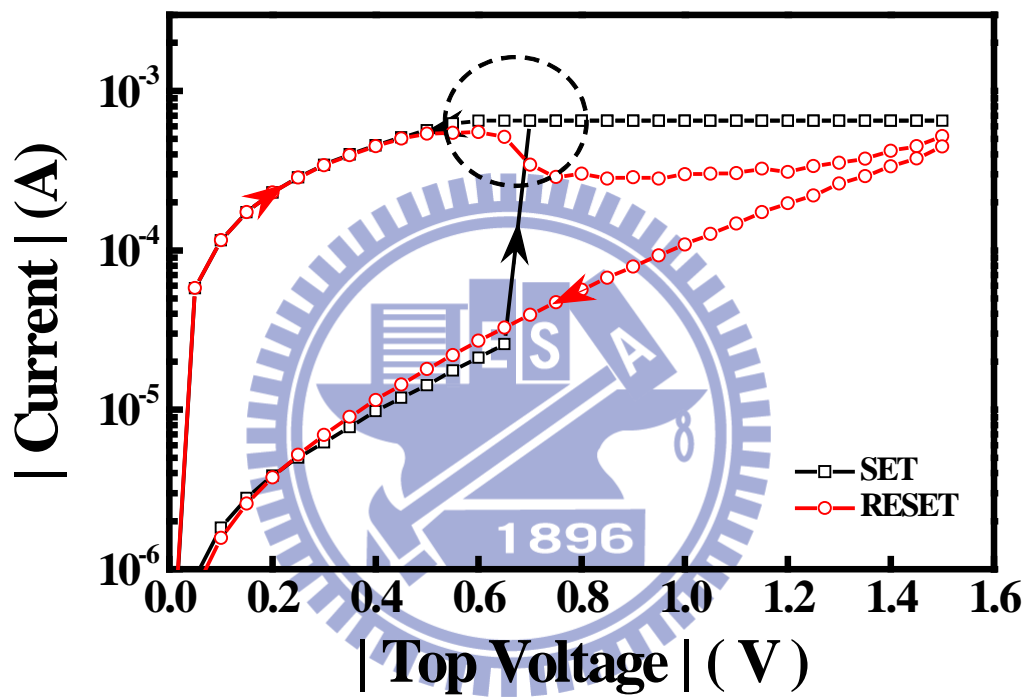




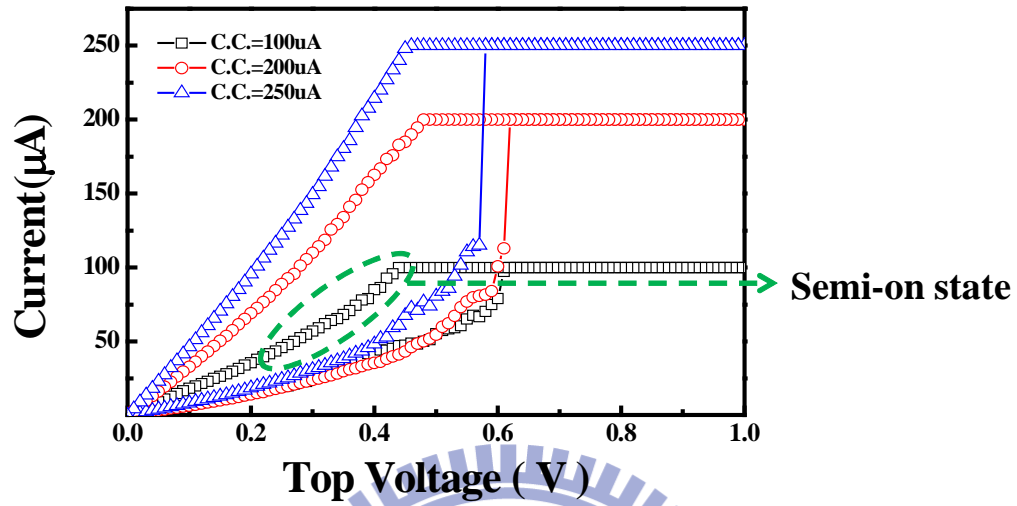
**Fig. 3.3** The multi-level characteristics of  $R_{\text{low}}$  in TiN/TiO<sub>x</sub>/HfO<sub>x</sub>/TiN device by controlling stop voltage ( $V_{\text{stop}}$ ).



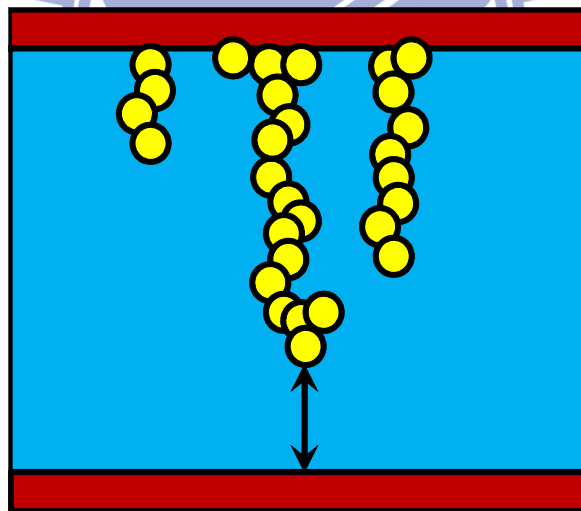
**Fig. 3.4** The stop voltage dependence of the resistance on TiN/TiO<sub>x</sub>/HfO<sub>x</sub>/TiN device.



**Fig. 3.5**  $I_{\text{reset, max}}$  during sweep is kept at the same current order as the previous set process.

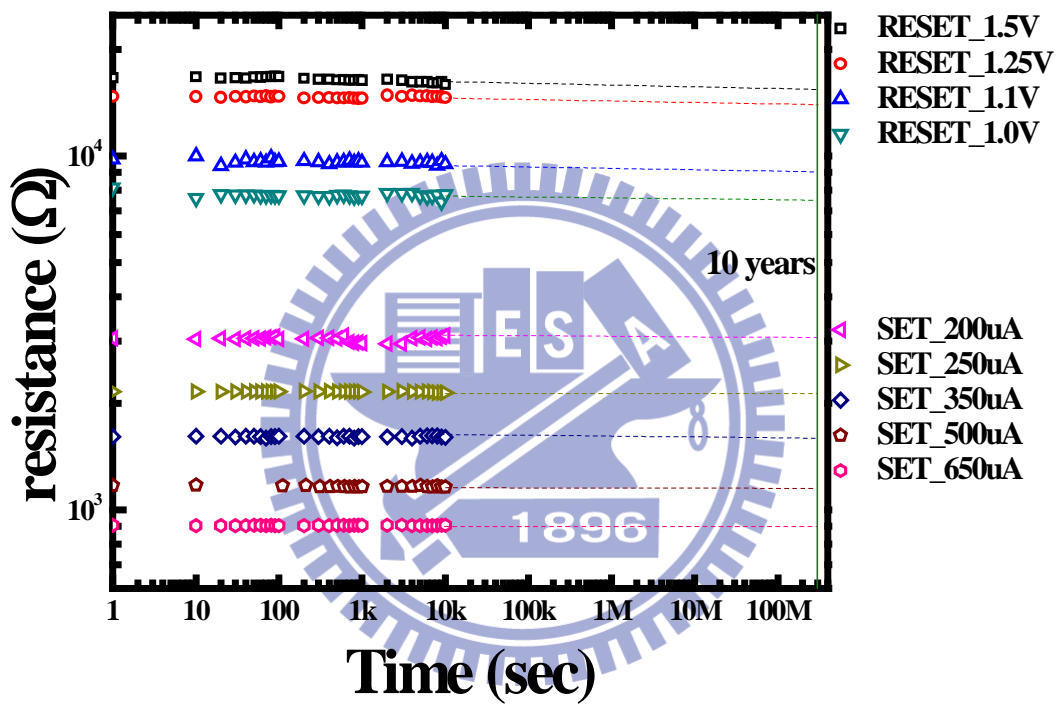


(a)

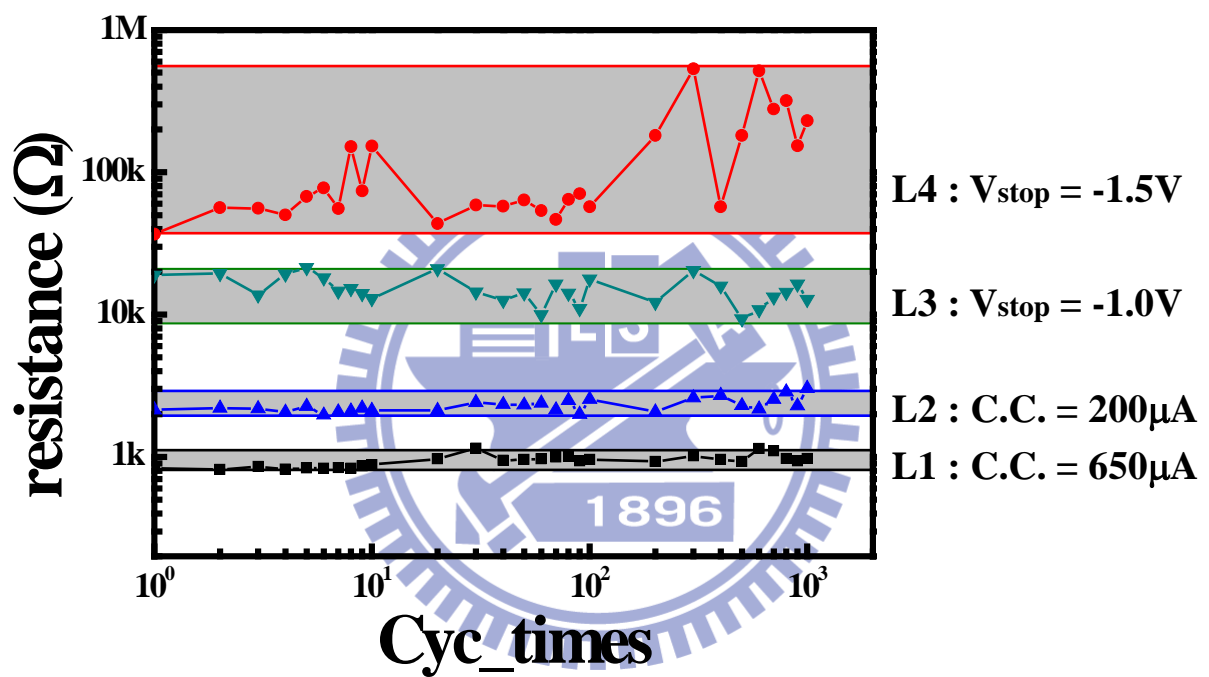


(b)

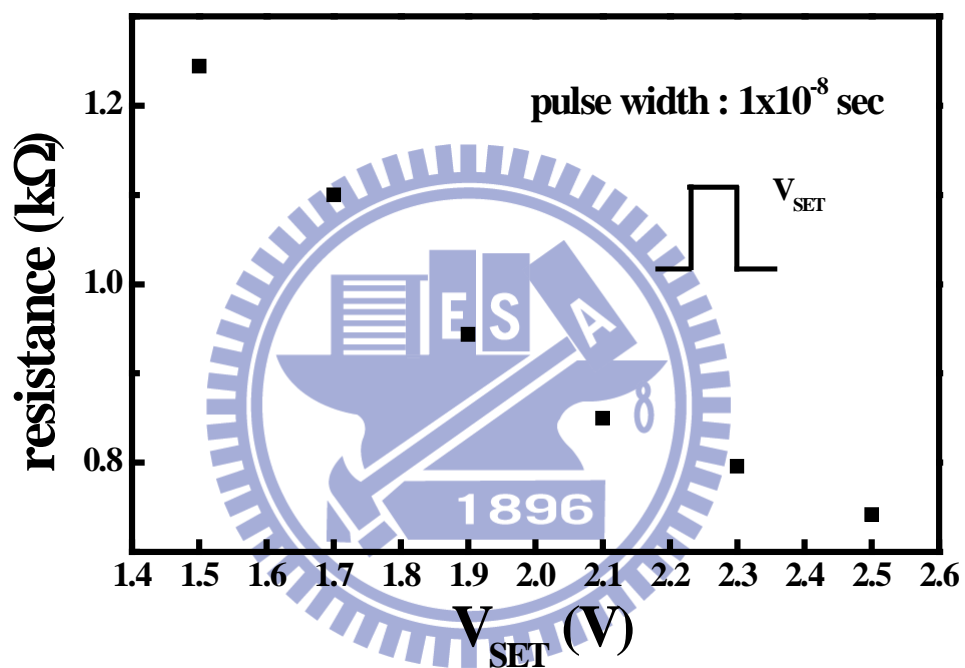
**Fig. 3.6** Illustration for the partially-on state. (a) The state we pick off which is not conducted enough. (b) The current is dominant by tunneling component since the soft breakdown generating paths are not complete.



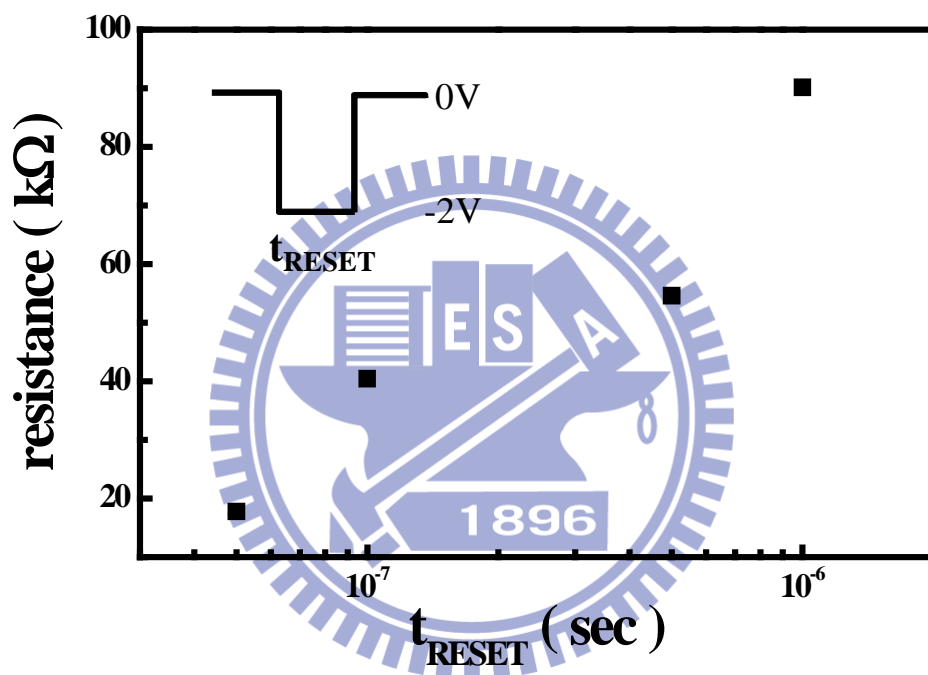
**Fig. 3.7** Data retention properties of various states by sweep operation. The result predicts 10 years lifetime of each state.



**Fig. 3.8** The program/erase cycling endurance characteristics of sweep operation. L1 and L2 are the LRS with 650 μA and 200 μA compliance currents respectively. L3 and L4 are the HRS where the stop voltages are -1.0 V and -1.5 V.

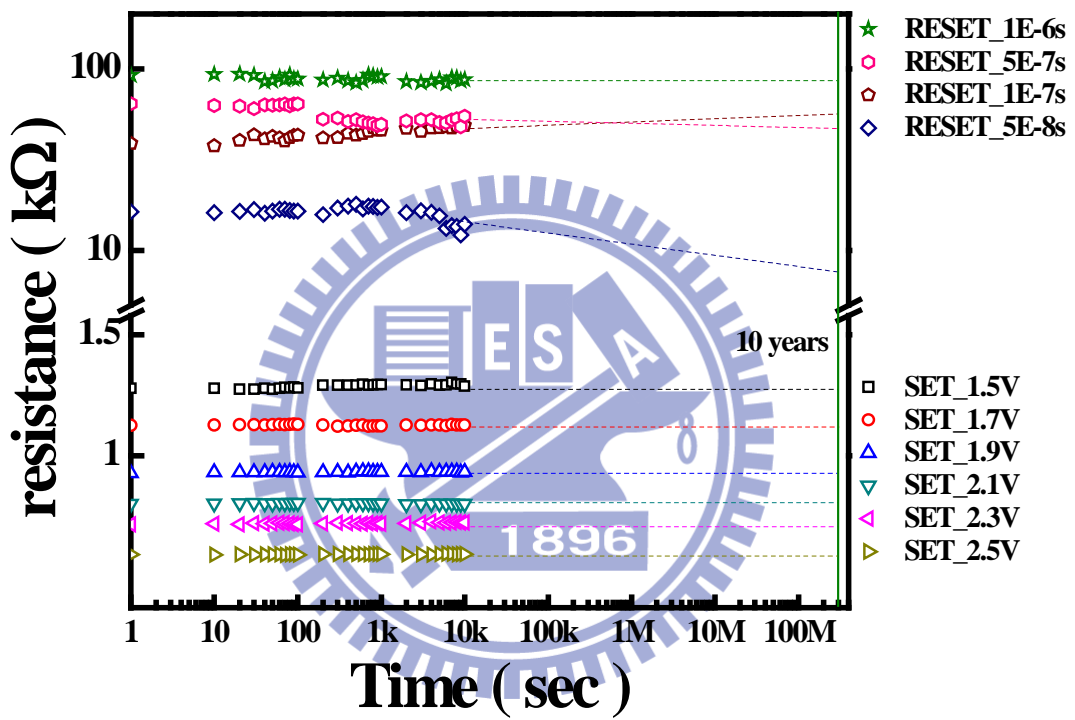


**Fig. 3.9** The pulse voltage dependence of the resistance at low resistance state in TiN/TiOx/HfOx/TiN device. The positive pulse width is  $1 \times 10^{-8}$  sec.

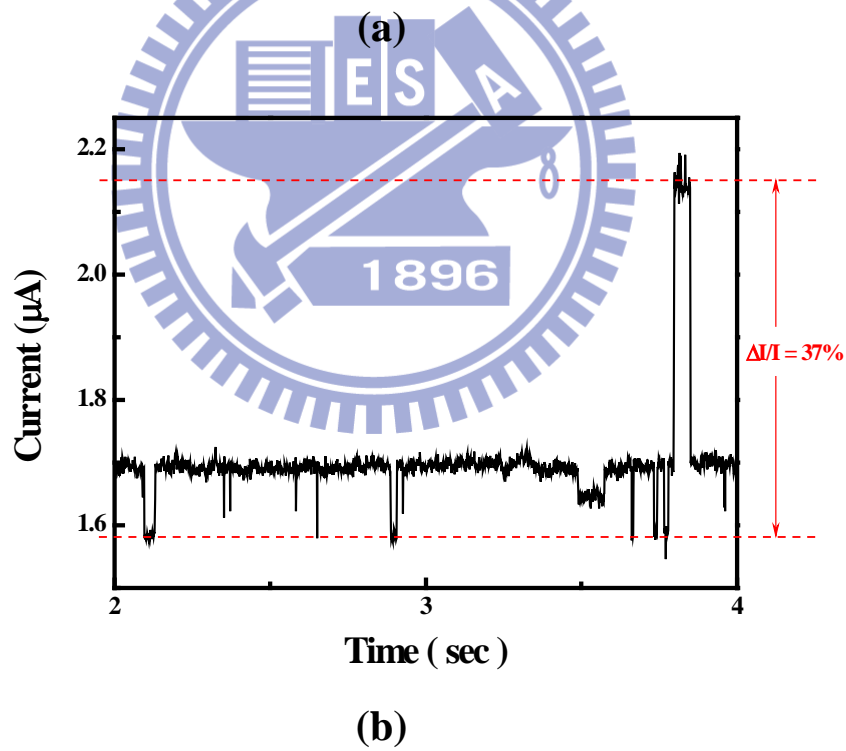
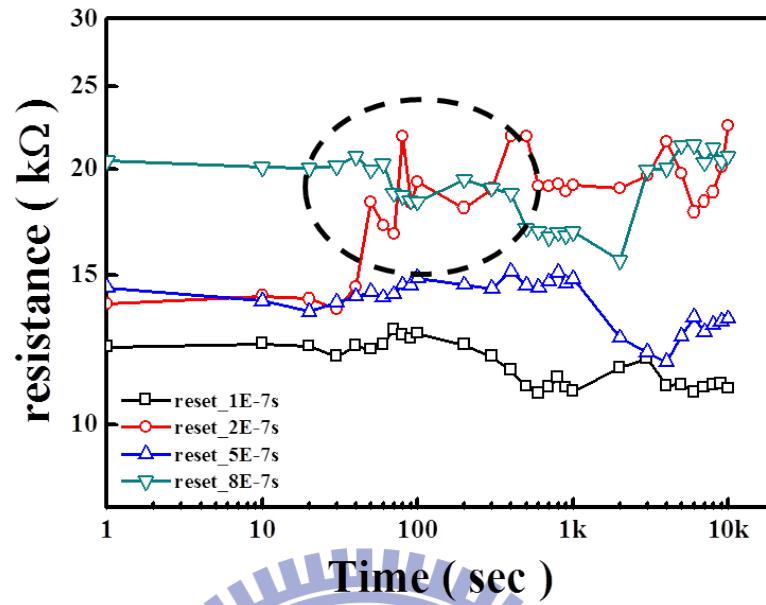


**Fig. 3.10** The pulse width dependence of the resistance at high resistance state in TiN/TiO<sub>x</sub>/HfO<sub>x</sub>/TiN device. The negative pulse amplitude is -2 V.

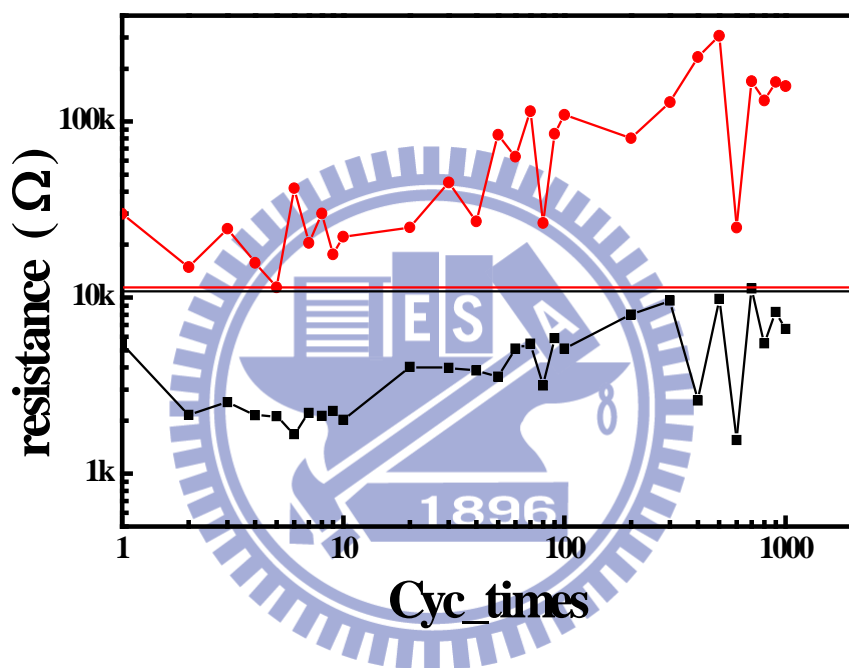




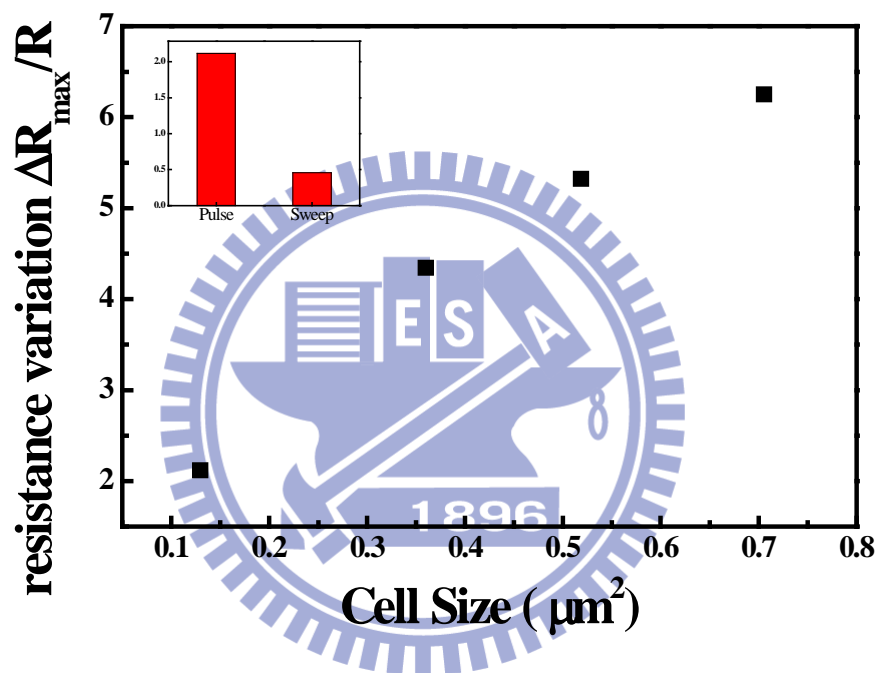
**Fig. 3.11** Data retention properties of various states by pulse operation. The result predicts 10 years lifetime of each LRS, but not HRS.



**Fig. 3.12** (a) The high resistance states overlap after 10 sec. (b) By sensing the current, the random telegraph noise (RTN) phenomena is observed. The  $\Delta I/I$  is larger than 30 %.



**Fig. 3.13** The program/erase cycling endurance characteristics of pulse operation. The resistance fluctuation is serious after each switching.



**Fig. 3.14** Cell size dependence of the resistance variation ( $\Delta R_{\max}/R$ ) after 1000 times set/reset cycles.

# Chapter 4

## Random Telegraph Noise Behavior of RRAM

### 4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will discuss the random telegraph noise of RRAM. The amplitude, capture and emission time are the critical parameters of the random telegraph noise (RTN) behavior and they depend on the trap properties, such as trap depth into dielectrics, and trap energy apart from conduction band. We can extract the trap position by analyzing the capture and emission time. Then, we compare the random telegraph noise behavior which was operated by different methods. By investigating the current variation amplitude behavior, we can understand what happened in the soft breakdown paths in chapter 3. The control of RRAM soft breakdown paths is a major step.

### 4.2 General Equation of RTN

#### 4.2.1 Capture and Emission Time

RRAM current becomes smaller as an electron captured in the trap site, as illustrated in Fig. 4.1. The reason is that electron trapped will screen the proximity of the trap and hence suppress the current. It seems like a big stone laying in the flow of river so the flow rate is apparently rolling off.

Based on the Shockley–Read–Hall (SRH) statistics [4.1], the carrier capture rate  $1/\tau_c$  can be written in terms of the carrier density (per unit volume)  $n$ , the average velocity of the carrier  $v$ , and the average capture cross-section  $\sigma$  in Eq. (4.1), where the capture cross section is given by Eq. (4.2), i.e.,

$$\tau_c = \frac{1}{nv\sigma} \quad (4.1)$$

and

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E_B}{kT}\right). \quad (4.2)$$

Here,  $\sigma_0$  is the cross-section prefactor, and  $\Delta E_B$  is the thermal activation energy for capture.  $T$  and  $v$  are usually taken to be the equilibrium lattice temperature and the average thermal velocity  $v_{th}$ . Emission time is given as Eq. (4.3) [4.2], where  $g$  is the degeneracy factor:

$$\tau_e = \frac{\exp\left[(E_F - E_T)/k_B T\right]}{g\sigma v n}. \quad (4.3)$$

The  $(E_F - E_T)$  term represents the trap energy with respect to the Fermi energy.  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann's constant.

#### 4.2.2 Trap Depth

The energy band diagram of the metal-insulator-metal (MIM) structure with the trap energy level  $E_T$  and depth  $Z_T$  is shown in Fig. 4.2. The fractional occupancy of the oxide trap is governed by

$$\frac{\tau_c}{\tau_e} = \exp\left[(E_T - E_F)/k_B T\right]. \quad (4.4)$$

The expression for the capture time and emission time in terms of the position of the trap can be derived as the following:

$$k_B T \ln\left(\frac{\tau_c}{\tau_e}\right) = \Phi_0 - [(E_{Cd} - E_T) + E_x], \quad (4.5)$$

and

$$E_x = |q \frac{z_T}{T_{ox}} V_{ox}|. \quad (4.6)$$

Here,  $\Phi_0$  is the difference between the work function of TiN and electron affinity of HfO<sub>2</sub>,  $E_{Cd}$  is the conduction band edge of the HfO<sub>2</sub>,  $q$  is the elementary charge,  $T_{ox}$  is oxide thickness,  $Z_T$  is the position of the trap in the oxide from the top electrode, and  $V_{ox}$  is the oxide voltage drop which is the same as the applied bias. By differentiating Eq. (4.5) with respect to the applied bias, the  $Z_T$  is derived as

$$z_T = \frac{k_B T}{q} \frac{\partial}{\partial V} \left[ \ln\left(\frac{\tau_c}{\tau_e}\right) \right] \cdot T_{ox}. \quad (4.7)$$

### 4.2.3 Trap Energy

The emission time constant is as shown below [4.3],

$$\tau_e = \frac{\exp((E_{Cd} - E_T)/kT)}{\sigma v N_C}. \quad (4.8)$$

Here,  $N_C$  is the effective conduction band densities of state.  $(E_{Cd} - E_T)$  is the trap energy difference apart from conduction band of dielectric. The emission time constants  $\tau_e$  depends on the energy  $E_T$  and the capture cross-section  $\sigma$ . The electron thermal velocity and effective density of states in the conduction band are shown in Eq. (4.9), Eq. (4.10), allowing the emission time constant to be written as Eq. (4.11), where  $\gamma$  is a coefficient. A plot of  $\ln(\tau_e T^2)$  versus  $1/kT$  has a slope of  $(E_{Cd} - E_T)$  and an intercept on the  $\ln(\tau_e T^2)$  axis of  $\ln(1/\gamma\sigma)$ . Here,

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m_n}}, \quad (4.9)$$

$$N_C = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_n kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}, \quad (4.10)$$

and

$$\tau_e T^2 = \frac{\exp((E_{Cd} - E_T)/kT)}{\gamma\sigma}. \quad (4.11)$$

### 4.3 RTN Phenomena After the Sweep Operation

#### 4.3.1 RTN Measurement

In the following, we will apply RTN measurement method to analyze RRAM traps behavior. It could not be seen absolutely in every device, and sometimes it is available to observe RRAM RTN phenomenon; nevertheless further analysis is hard to process for some reasons, such as undistinguishable amplitude and multi-levels current state. We discuss the random telegraph noise phenomenon by different operation methods which are practiced in Chapter 3.

We can observe the random telegraph noise phenomena on both sweep and pulse operated devices. In the low resistance state (LRS), it is hard to find RTN phenomena since there are many soft breakdown paths. When we read the resistance, the current fluctuation ( $\Delta I$ ) affected by the trap is much smaller than the background current. So, it is not easy to observe RTN phenomena at the low resistance state. Next, we will show the RTN phenomena of high resistance state (HRS) by different operation methods.



For the sweep operation, we have two cases (S1 and S2). The first one is carried out by sweep operation (S1). In the beginning, the forming process with the compliance current sets at  $100\ \mu\text{A}$ , and then we add negative sweep bias from  $0\ \text{V}$  to  $-1.25\ \text{V}$  to reset the device. After that we operated one time set/reset cycling by the sweep method which set process with a compliance current  $500\ \mu\text{A}$  and the reset process with the negative stop voltage  $-1.5\ \text{V}$ . Then, we changed the read voltages from  $+0.06\ \text{V}$  to  $+0.3\ \text{V}$  to sense the RRAM RNT current, as shown in Fig. 4.3. As the top voltage increases, capture and emission events happen more frequently.

The other one (S2) is operated by the same sweep bias condition with case 1 (S1). But the cycling number is 20 times. In this case, we observe the RTN phenomena in the read voltages ranged from  $-0.3\ \text{V}$  to  $-0.06\ \text{V}$ , as shown in Fig. 4.4.

### 4.3.2 Capture and Emission Time

Figure 4.5 shows the capture and emission time of S1 and S2 gathered statistics from Fig. 4.3 and Fig. 4.4. The capture and emission time of S1 are affected by the top voltage, i.e., the capture and emission time related to the electric field on dielectric and the electrons trapped/de-trapped action cause by the tunneling. For the case 2 (S2), the emission time has no response to electric field and electrons do not escape through tunneling possibly. Further study will be shown in Section 4.3.3.

### 4.3.3 Trap Depth

We can estimate  $Z_T$ , the effective depth from top electrode, from measurements of  $\tau_c/\tau_e$  by varying read voltage ( $V_{top}$ ).  $Z_T$  is 1.86 nm for S1 and 3.35 nm for S2, as shown in Fig. 4.6. It means that S2 trap location sites into  $\text{HfO}_2$  deeper than S1 trap. So, electron trapped in S2 is not easily de-trapped by tunneling that is reasonable for the assumption given in Section 4.3.2.

### 4.3.3 Trap Energy

In our experiments shown in Fig. 4.7 and Fig. 4.8,  $(E_{Cd} - E_T)$  is about 0.68 eV and 0.77 eV for S1 and S2 respectively. It can be seen that there is only a slight variation in  $(E_{Cd} - E_T)$  as the top voltage is increased.

## 4.4 RTN Phenomena After the Pulse Operation

### 4.4.1 RTN Measurement

In this section, we will discuss the RTN phenomena after the pulse operation. All devices are operated by pulse method including forming, set, and reset process. There are two cases (P1 and P2). First one (P1) is the device during forming process with 4 V pulse amplitude and  $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width. Then, we reset it by a negative pulse with -2 V amplitude and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width. The RTN current variation is observed between the read voltages from -0.3 V to -0.06 V, as shown in Fig. 4.9. As the absolute value of the top voltage increases, the capture and emission events happen more frequently.

The other one (P2) is during forming process with 4V pulse amplitude and  $9 \times 10^{-7}$  sec

pulse width. After forming process, we reset it by the same pulse condition which is a negative pulse with -2 V amplitude and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width. As shown in Fig. 4.10, the RTN current variation versus the read voltage. We observe the RTN phenomena from -0.1 V to -0.05 V read voltage. Similar to P1, as the absolute value of top voltage increases, the capture and emission events happen more frequently.

#### 4.4.2 Capture and Emission Time

The plots of capture and emission time are shown in Fig. 4.11. For the case 1, the emission time is larger than capture time under different read voltage. For the case 2, the emission time is smaller than capture time. Nevertheless, the two cases show the same capture and emission time trend as read voltage increases.

#### 4.4.3 Trap Depth

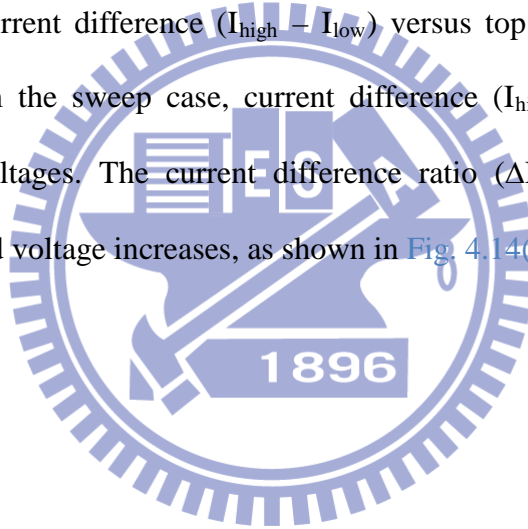
The trap depth is extracted from the slope of  $\ln(\tau_c/\tau_e)$  versus read voltage as shown in Eq. (4.7). Pulse operation cases show different trends from the sweep operation, as shown in Fig. 4.12. The minus sign in Eq. (4.7) for effective trap depth extraction should be changed to positive because the carriers are trapped/de-trapped from the bottom electrode.  $Z_T$  is 4.46nm for P1 and 2.86nm for P2 calculated from bottom electrode.

### 4.5 Noise Amplitude

#### 4.5.1 Noise Amplitude Measurement

The RTN noise amplitude is a key factor of the memory window. In this section, we observe the RTN current variation amplitude ( $\Delta I$ ) after the sweep and pulse modes. In the sweep operation case, for the purpose of facilitating detailed analysis we choose the most obvious data of ours. The RTN current variation versus different read voltages is shown in Fig. 4.13(a). The current difference ( $I_{\text{high}} - I_{\text{low}}$ ) versus top voltage is shown in Fig. 4.13(b), which is linearly increasing as top voltage increases. The current difference proportion ( $\Delta I/I_{\text{high}}$ ) of each read bias seems fixed about the value 20 %, as shown in Fig. 4.13(c).

For the pulse operation case, the RTN current variation versus read voltage is shown in Fig. 4.14(a). The current difference ( $I_{\text{high}} - I_{\text{low}}$ ) versus top voltage is shown in Fig. 4.14(b). Different from the sweep case, current difference ( $I_{\text{high}} - I_{\text{low}}$ ) keeps constant under different top voltages. The current difference ratio ( $\Delta I/I_{\text{high}}$ ) of each read bias decreases when the read voltage increases, as shown in Fig. 4.14(c).



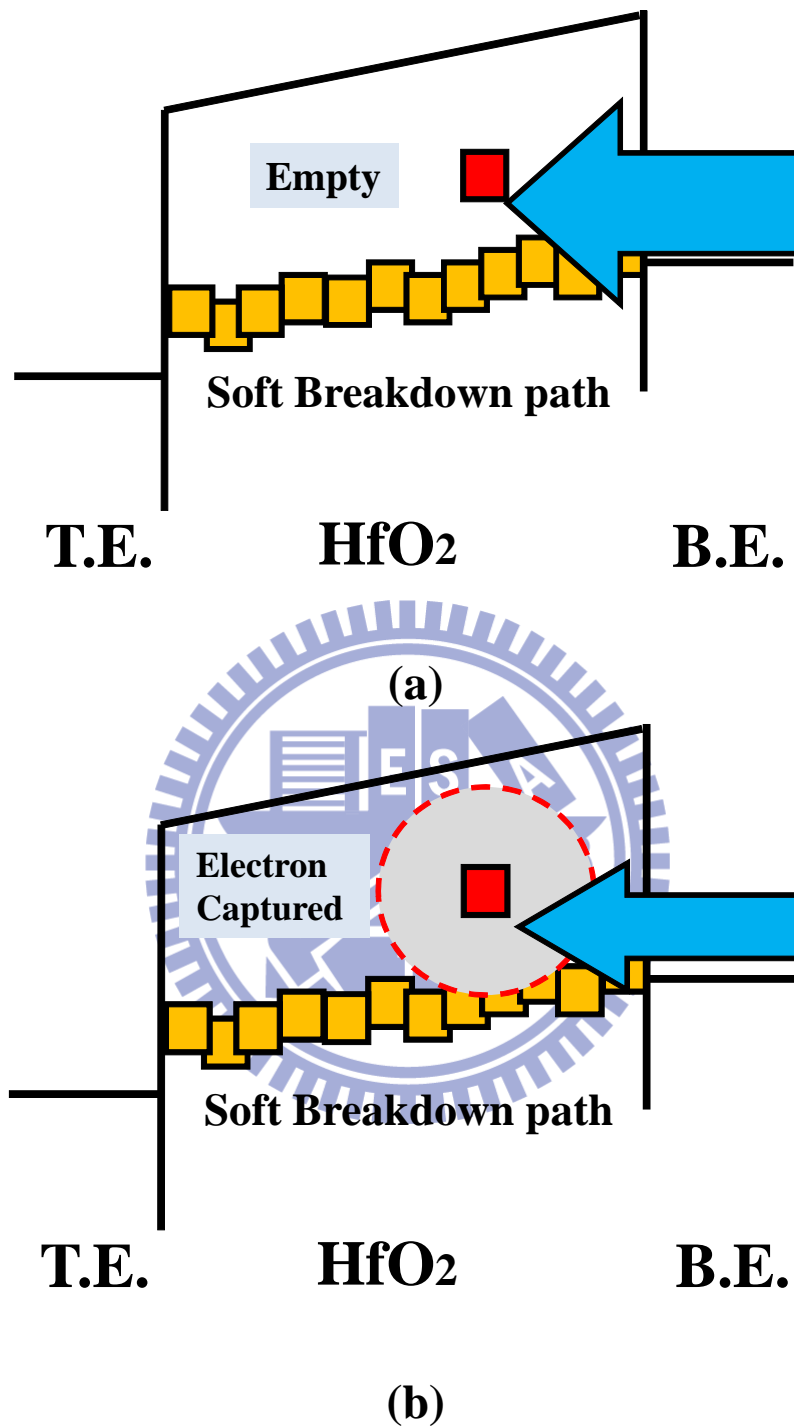
#### 4.5.2 Discussion

By comparing the two cases above, we can associate them with the point of view in Chapter 3. The condition of soft breakdown paths is related the voltage ramping rate. For the sweep operation (i.e. the slower ramping rate), the soft breakdown path will be generated intensively at the weakest point first. After that, the other soft breakdown paths increase near that point, as illustrated in Fig. 4.15(a). So, the trap will screen most of the soft breakdown paths. The term ( $I_{\text{high}} - I_{\text{low}}$ ) versus top voltage is linearly increasing as top voltage increases, and ( $\Delta I/I_{\text{high}}$ ) keeps constant.

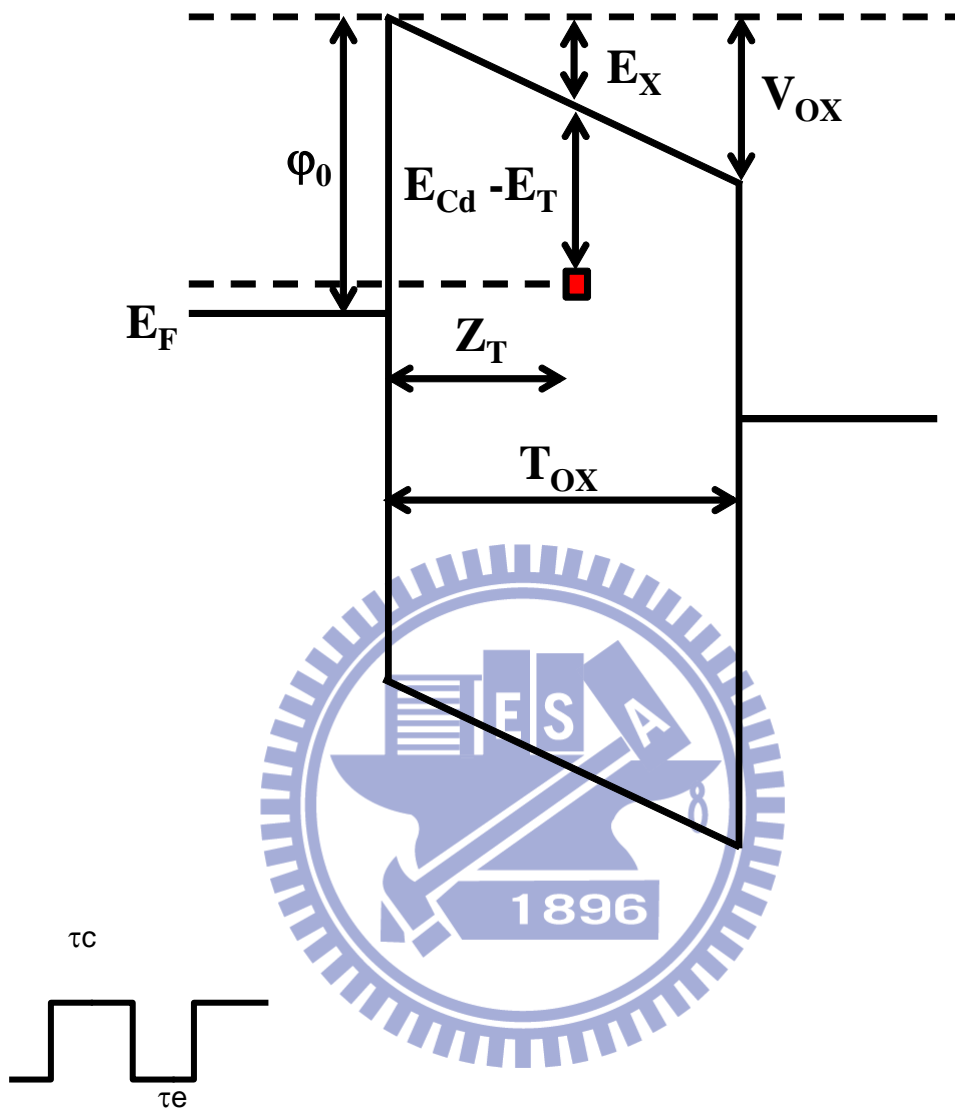
When we choose pulse operation (i.e., the faster ramping rate), there are many

weaker points which will be transferred to soft breakdown paths during a severe voltage jump, as illustrated in Fig. 4.15(b). So, the soft breakdown paths of pulse operation are more disperse than the sweep operation since the grain boundaries (weaker points) are everywhere in the dielectric layer. Then, only little soft breakdown paths are screened. So the correlation between  $(I_{\text{high}} - I_{\text{low}})$  and top voltage are weak. And, the current difference ratio  $(\Delta I/I_{\text{high}})$  is negative with respect to the top voltages.

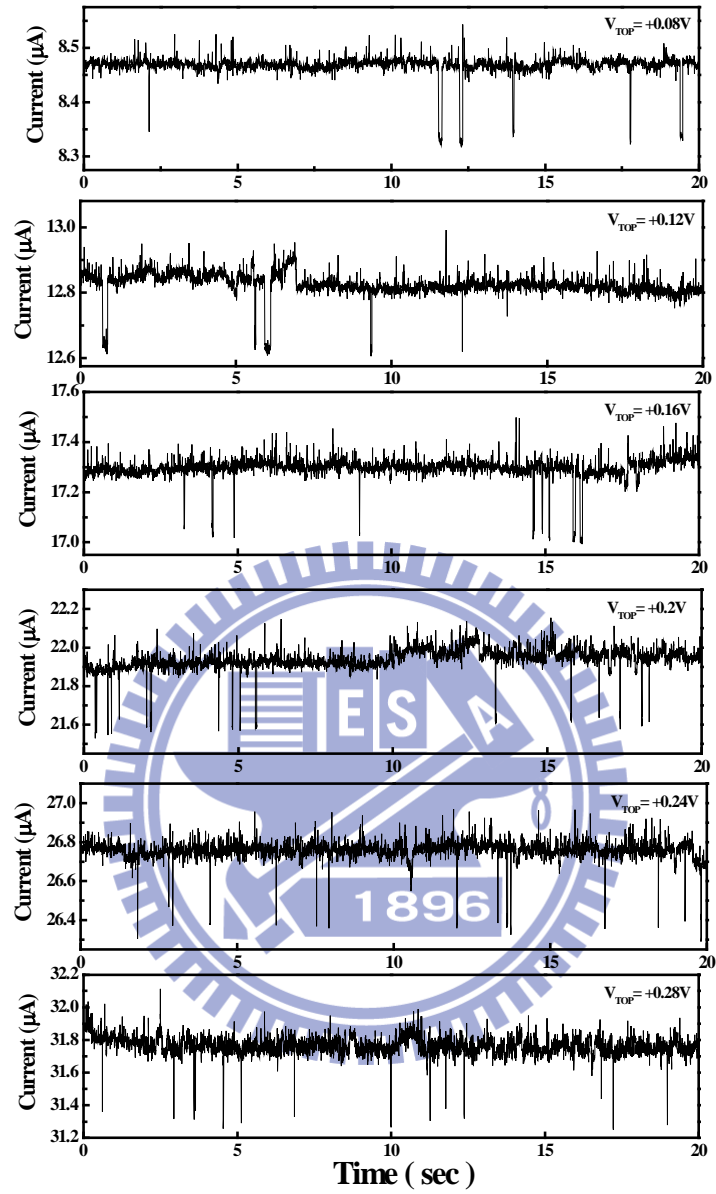




**Fig. 4.1** The schematic plot of current instability due to trapped electrons. (a) Trap empty state, (b) Trap filled state.

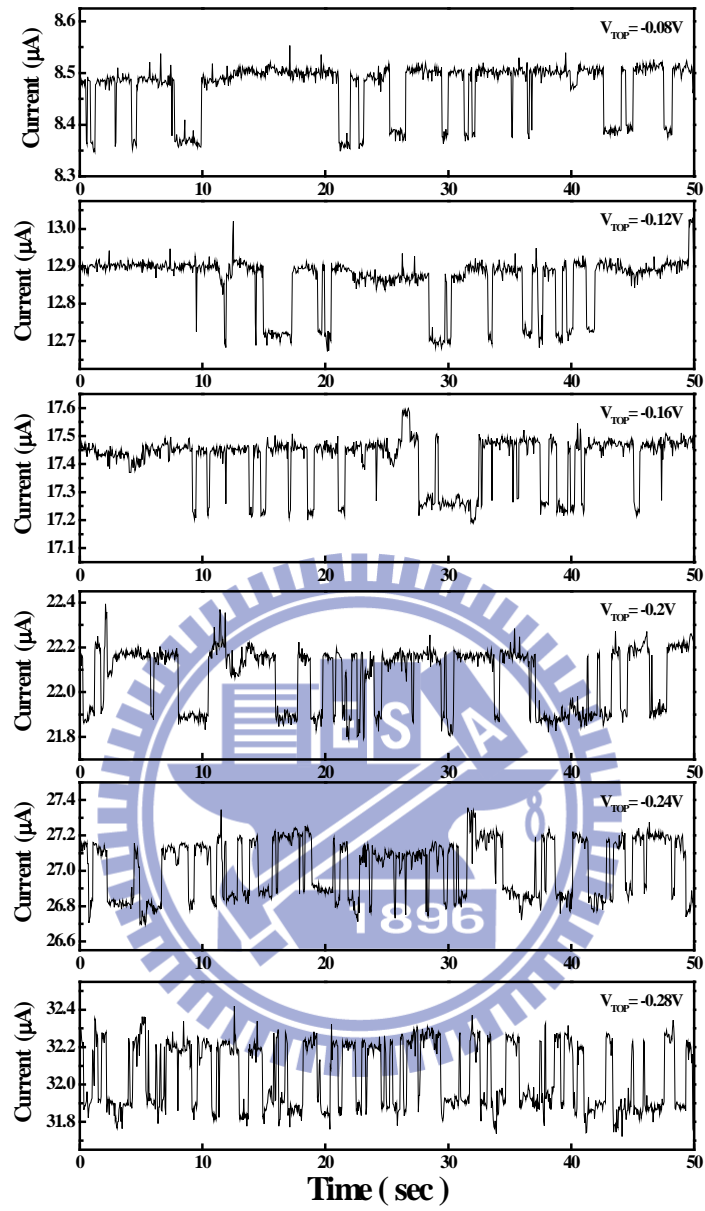


**Fig. 4.2** Energy band diagram of the MIM structure considering the trap energy level  $E_T$  and depth  $Z_T$ .

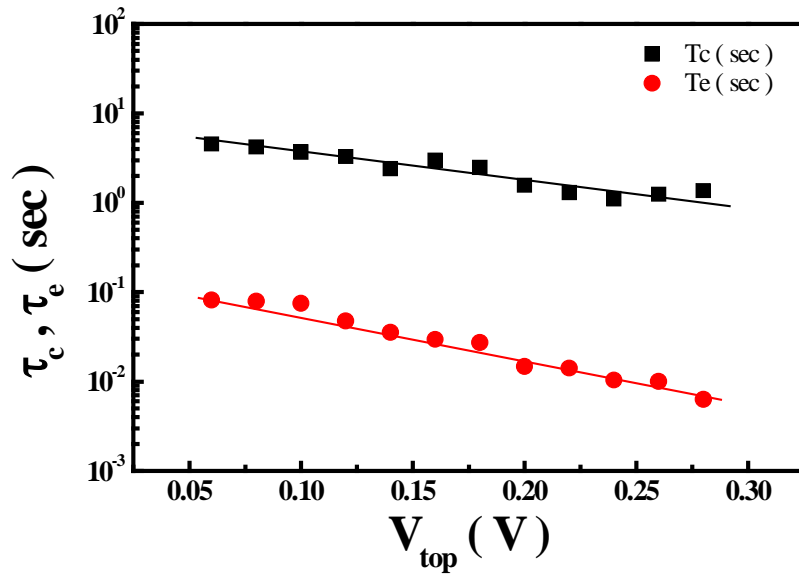


**Fig. 4.3** Current waveform of RRAM device which is operation by sweeping method (S1), C.C. = 500  $\mu\text{A}$ ,  $V_{\text{stop}} = -1.5 \text{ V}$ .

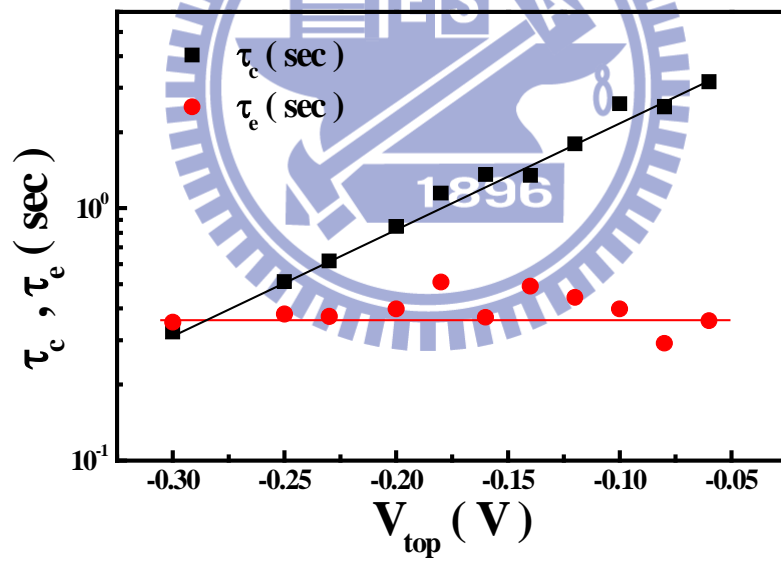




**Fig. 4.4** Current waveform of the other RRAM device which is operation by sweeping method (S2), C.C. = 500  $\mu\text{A}$ ,  $V_{\text{stop}} = -1.5\text{ V}$ , after 20 times set/reset cycles.

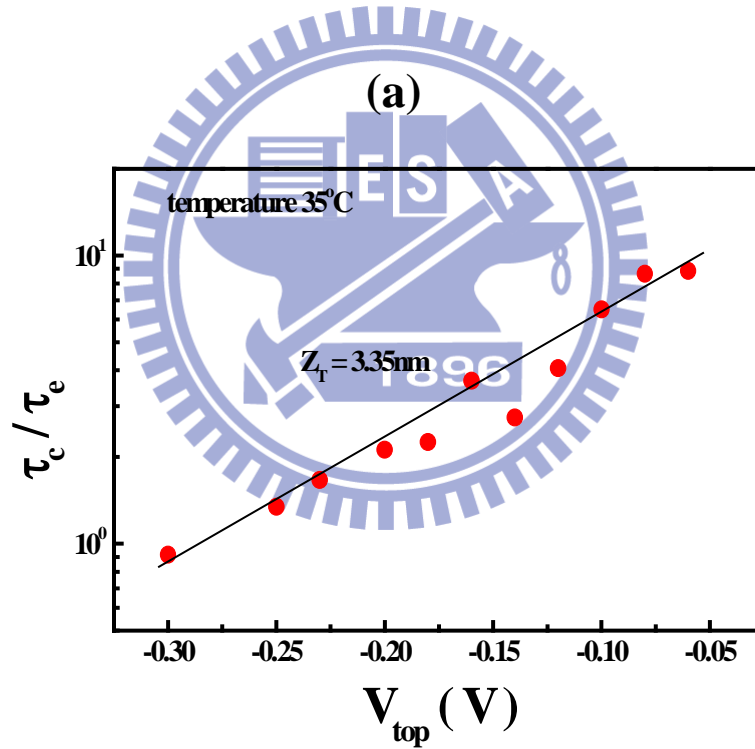
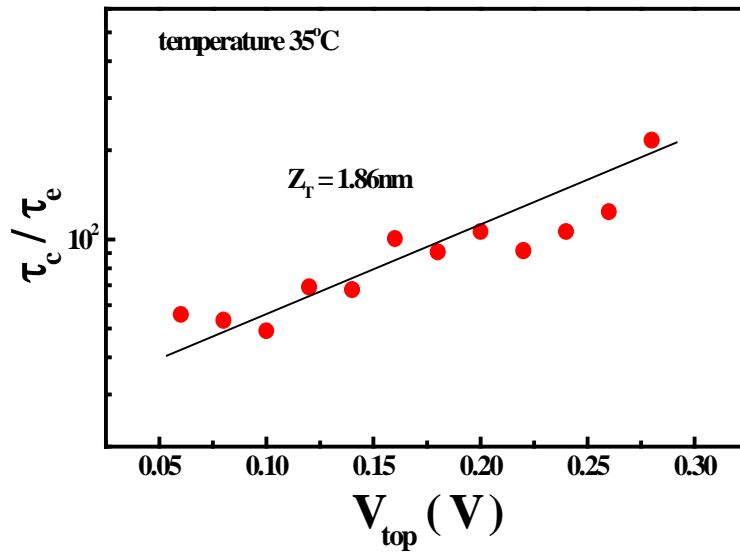


(a)



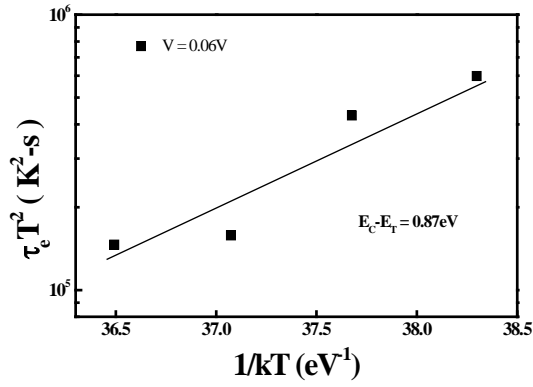
(b)

**Fig. 4.5** Variation of capture time  $\tau_c$  and emission time  $\tau_e$  as top voltage increases. (a) S1 and (b) S2.

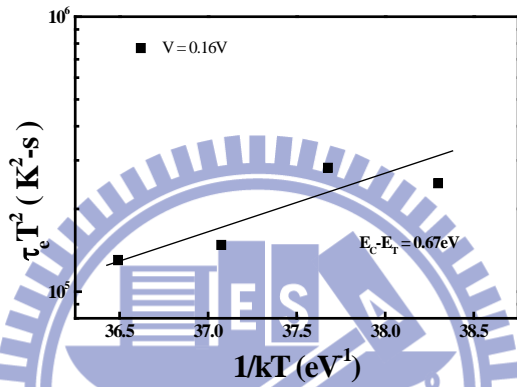


(b)

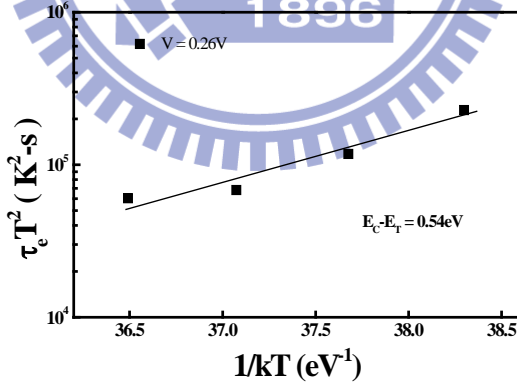
**Fig. 4.6** Relationship between  $\tau_c/\tau_e$  and top voltage. The extracted  $Z_T$  from the slope is 1.86 nm and 3.35 nm for S1 and S2 from top electrode respectively.



(a)

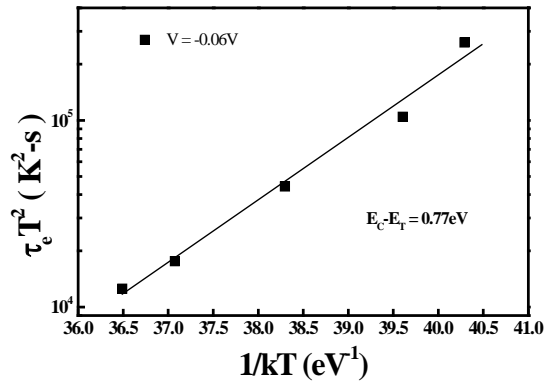


(b)

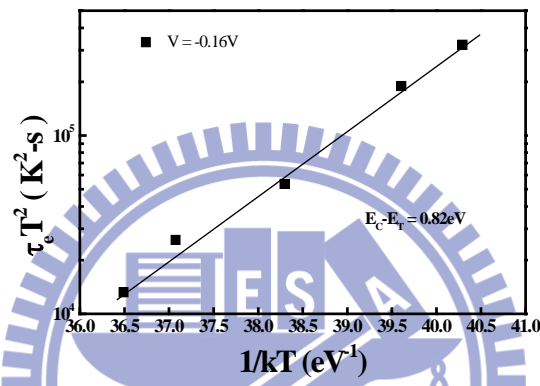


(c)

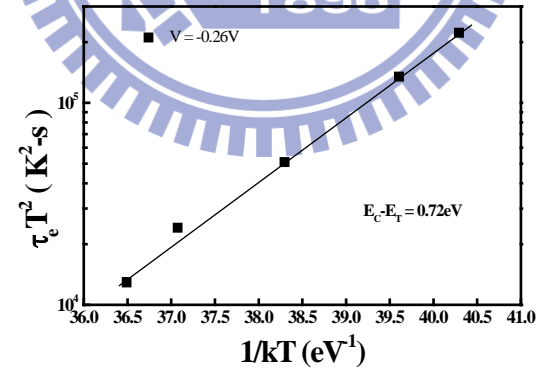
**Fig. 4.7**  $\tau_e T^2$  versus  $1/kT$  plots for S1. Energy difference between conduction band of dielectric and trap ( $E_c - E_T$ ) is around 0.68 eV. (a)  $V_{\text{top}} = 0.06$  V, (b)  $V_{\text{top}} = 0.16$  V, and (c)  $V_{\text{top}} = 0.26$  V.



(a)

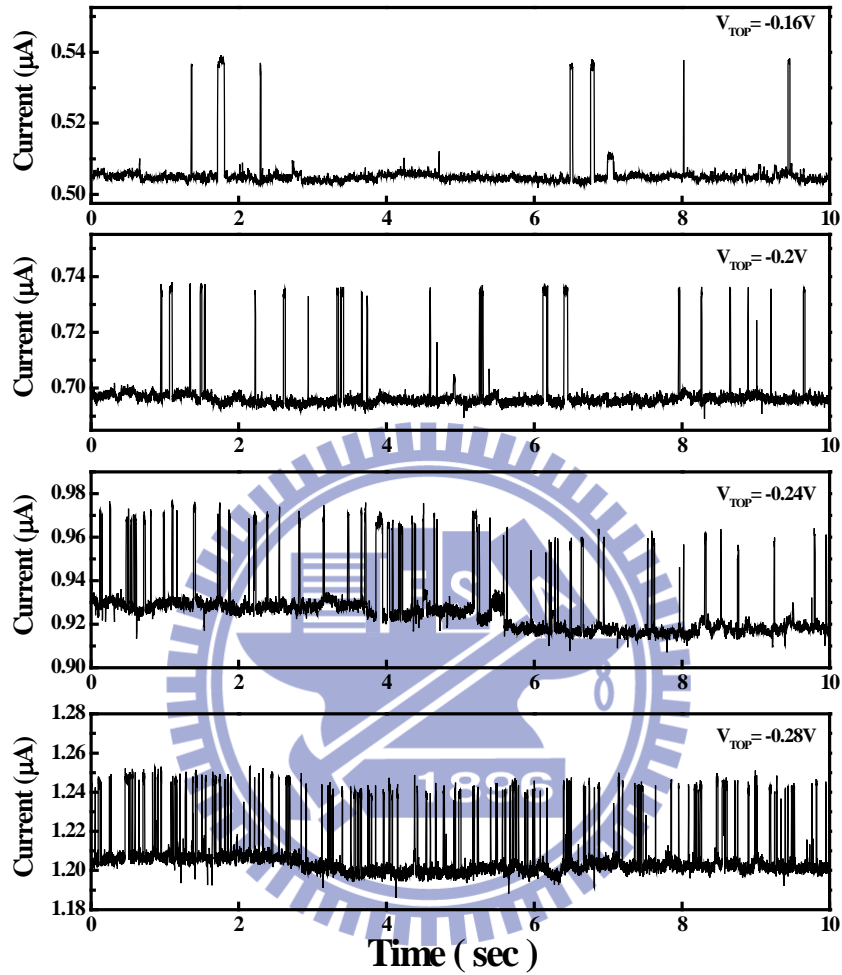


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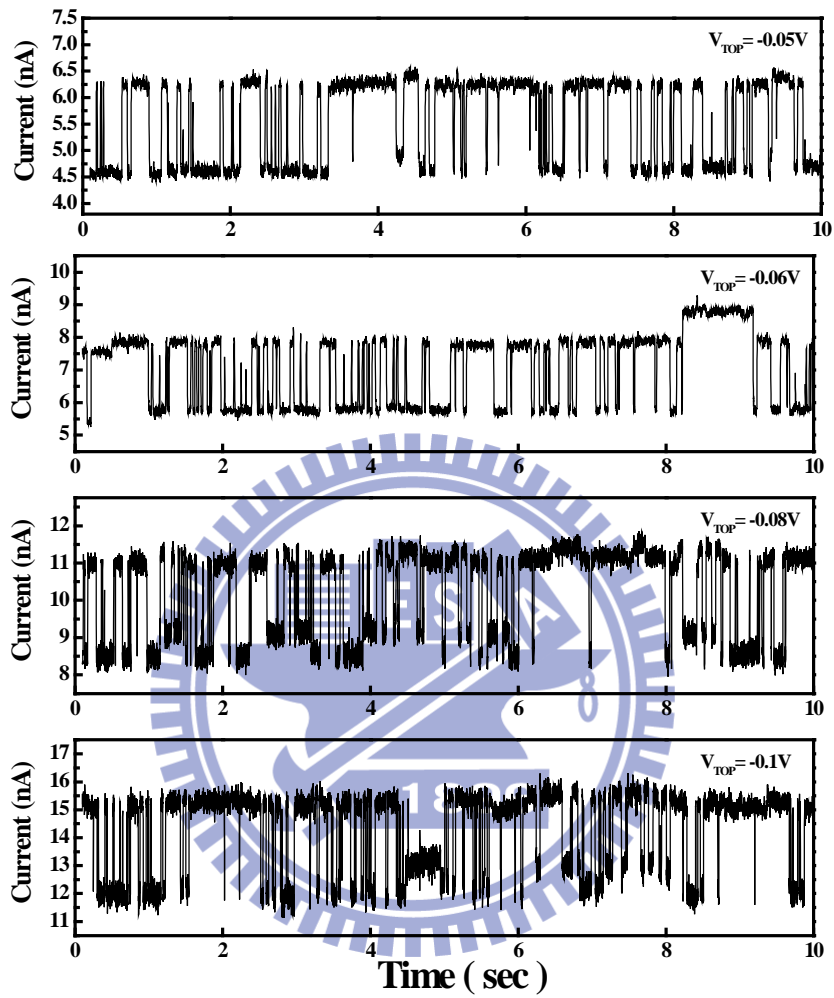


(c)

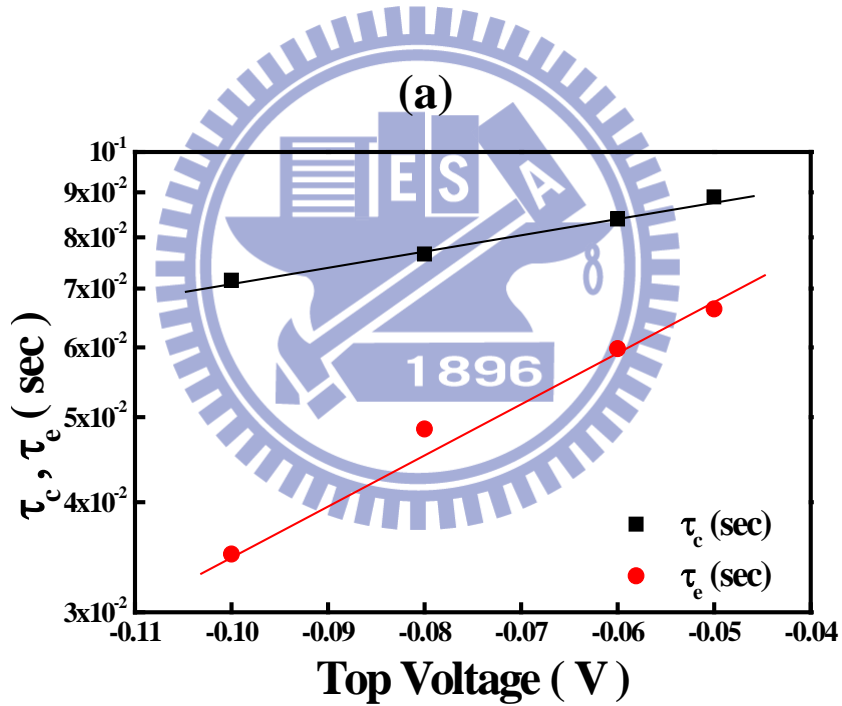
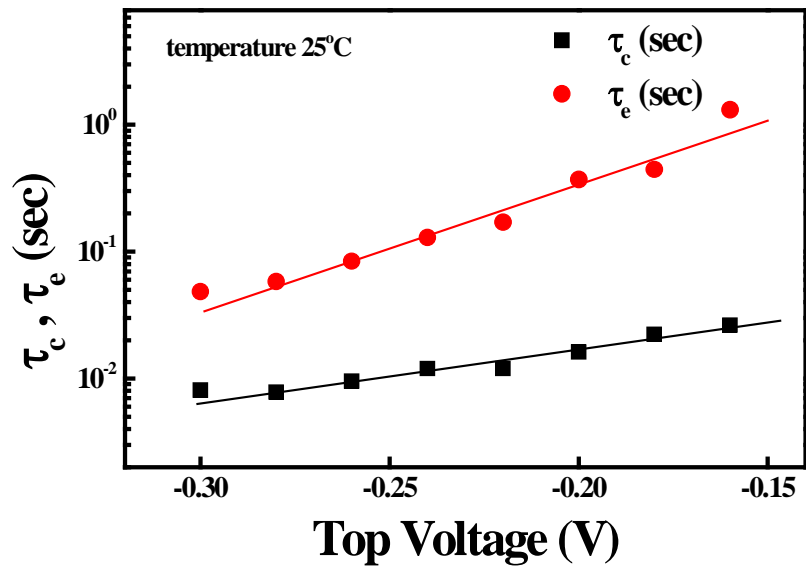
**Fig. 4.8**  $\tau_e T^2$  versus  $1/kT$  plots for S1. Energy difference between conduction band of dielectric and trap ( $E_c - E_T$ ) is around 0.77 eV. (a)  $V_{\text{top}} = -0.06$  V, (b)  $V_{\text{top}} = -0.16$  V, and (c)  $V_{\text{top}} = -0.26$  V.



**Fig. 4.9** Current waveform of RRAM device which is operated by pulse method (P1), forming process with 4 V pulse amplitude and  $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width, reset by a negative pulse with -2 V amplitude and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width.



**Fig. 4.10** Current waveform of RRAM device which is operated by the pulse method (P2), forming process with 4 V pulse amplitude and  $9 \times 10^{-7}$  sec pulse width, reset by a negative pulse with -2 V amplitude and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  sec pulse width.

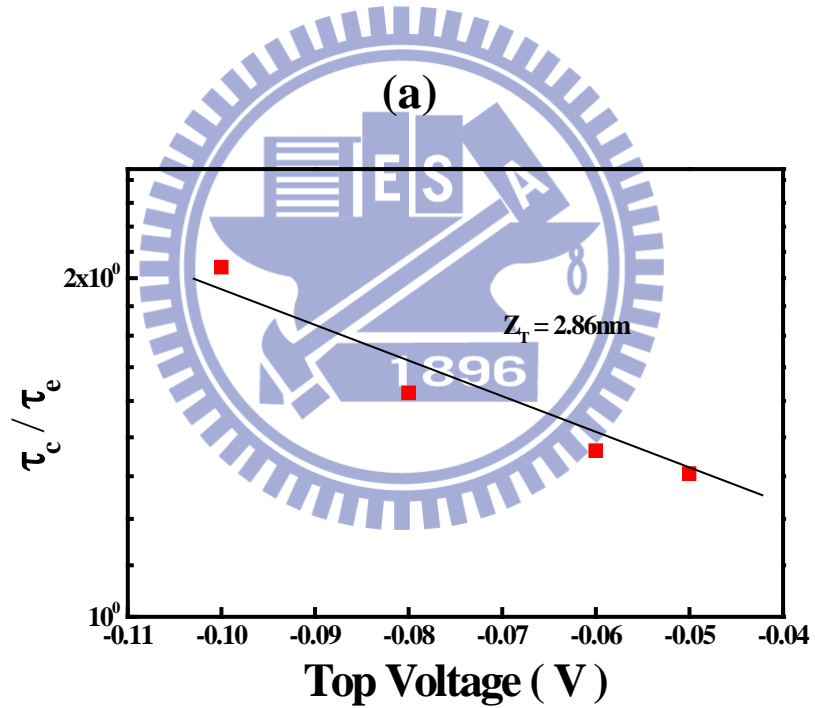
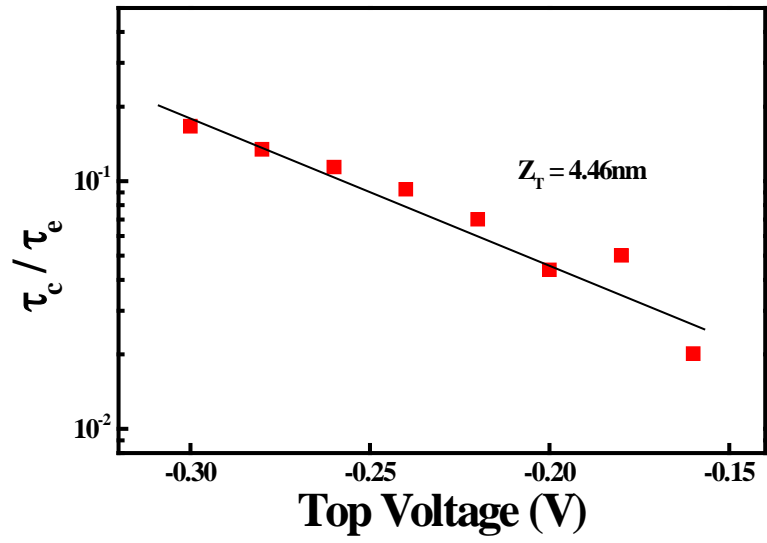


(b)

**Fig. 4.11** Variation of capture time  $\tau_c$  and emission time  $\tau_e$  as top voltage increases.

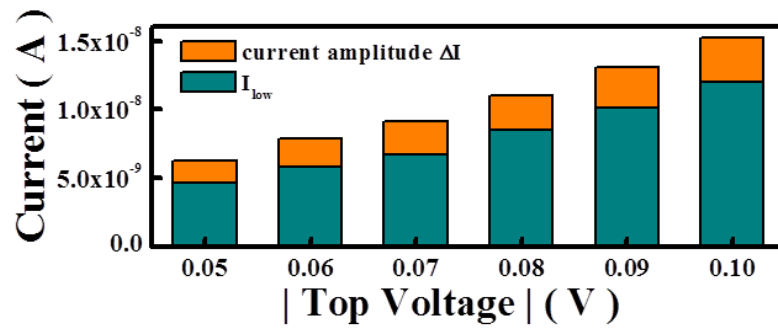
(a) P1 and (b) P2.



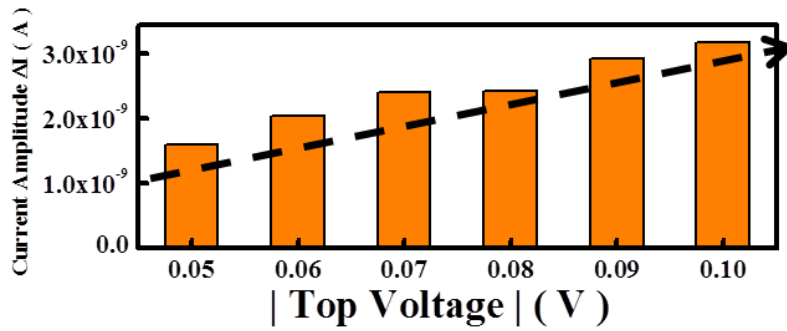


**Fig. 4.12** Capture time to emission time ratio versus gate voltage plots. (a) P1, (b) P2.

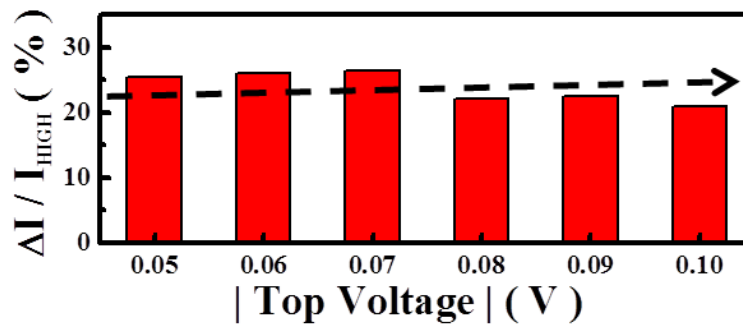
The extracted  $Z_T$  from the slope is 4.46 nm and 2.86 nm for P1 and P2 from bottom electrode respectively.



(a)

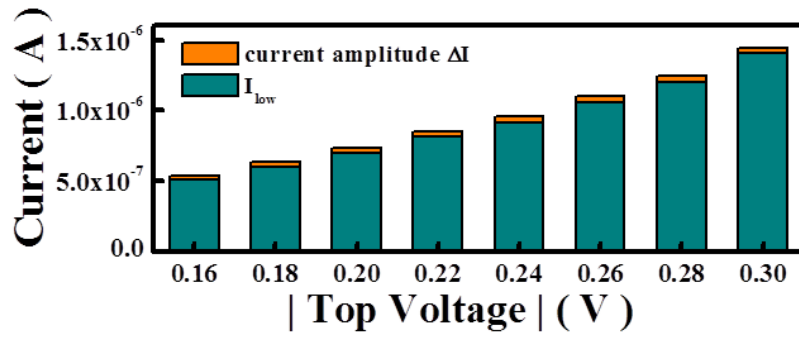


(b)

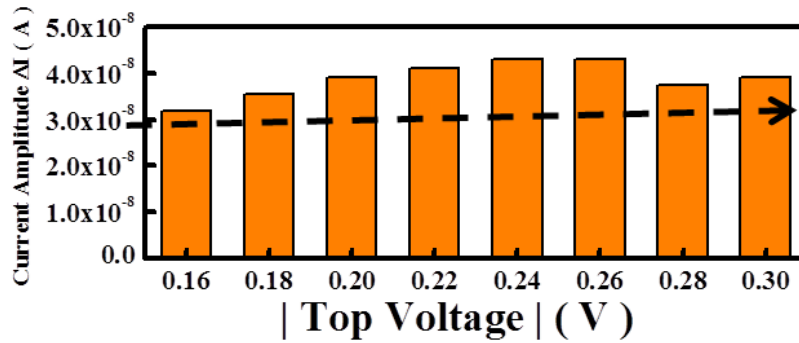


(c)

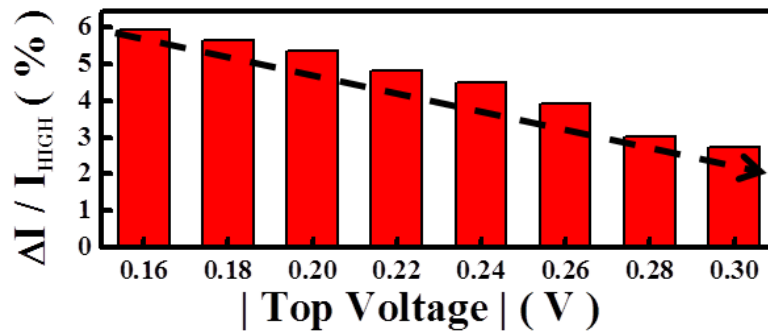
**Fig. 4.13** The RTN current variation versus different read voltages after the sweep operation. (a) Magnitude of current plot, (b)  $\Delta I$  vs.  $V_{top}$ , and (c)  $\Delta I / I_{HIGH}$  vs.  $V_{top}$ .



(a)

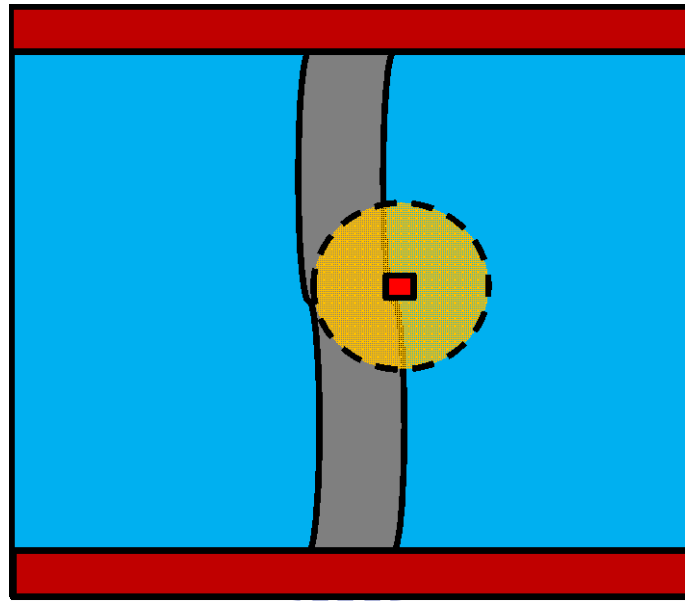


(b)

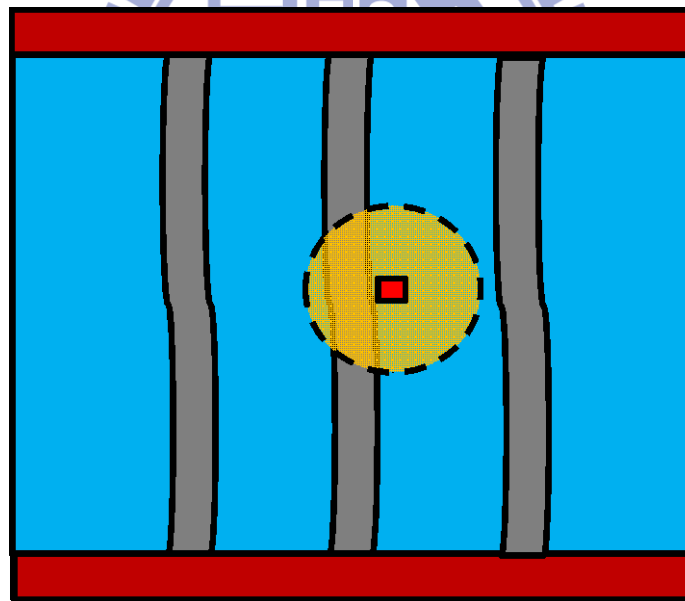


(c)

**Fig. 4.14** The RTN current variation versus different read voltages after the pulse operation. (a) Magnitude of current plot, (b)  $\Delta I$  vs.  $V_{top}$  and, (c)  $\Delta I/I$  vs.  $V_{top}$ .



(a)



(b)

**Fig. 4.15** Illustration of the soft breakdown paths distribution after different operation methods. (a) Sweep operation. (b) Pulse operation.

## Chapter 5

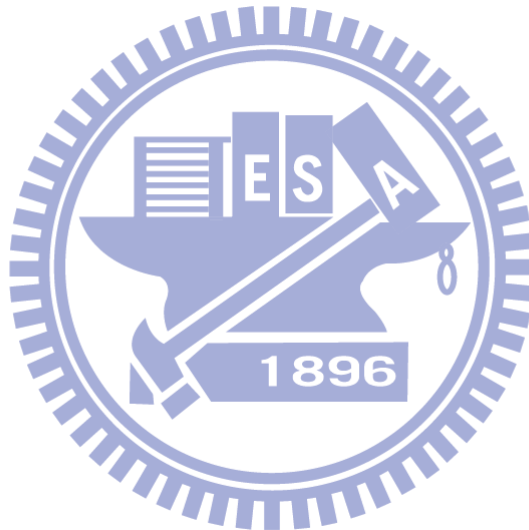
### Summary and Conclusion

In this thesis, we have achieved RRAM multi-level storage by two different operation methods, including sweep and pulse operations. Device operated by pulse method shows poor memory characteristics. By comparing the data retention and the program/erase cycling endurance characteristics of these two methods, we found that the voltage ramp rate is a significant factor which affects the switching stability of RRAM devices.

On the other hand, the grain boundaries (GBs) in the dielectric layer constitute a preferential leakage current path, which are then transformed into the soft breakdown path during the forming or set process. The soft breakdown paths of fast voltage ramp rate operation are more disperse than the slower one. This is why pulse method shows unstable resistance values. As such, the way to control the soft breakdown paths is important. By using a slower voltage ramping rate or reducing the memory area, the reliability such as the data retention and program/erase cycling endurance characteristics, can be greatly improved.

The effect of random telegraph noise measurement is also employed for RRAM multi-level storage. We examined the differences of the RTN property after the sweep and pulse operations respectively. Results show that the RTN behavior causes an erratic read-out of the logic levels. As the RRAM resistance increases, the RTN phenomenon changes more frequently. From the experimental observations, we conclude that the RTN

behavior is caused by the oxide trap which affects the current flow through the soft breakdown paths. Again, the trap positions are extracted by the formula derived from S.R.H. model. By comparing the difference in the RTN current variations after the two different operation methods, it helps us to understand the correlation between the formed breakdown paths and the operation voltage ramping rate.



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