

## Chapter 3

# Single Charge Emission: A Novel Technique to Investigate Trap Properties in Advanced Gate Dielectrics

### 3.1 Preface

Similar to NBTI effects in conventional SiO<sub>2</sub> gate dielectric, in high-k devices positive bias and temperature (PBT) stress induced degradation (parametric shift) and recovery (parametric retrieval) are both considered to be important in determining high-k device lifetime [3.1][3.2]. Conventionally, BTI characterization is carried out by periodically interrupting stress to measure electrical parameters, introducing a switching delay between stress and measurement which may give rise to an imprecise or even incorrect result [3.2]-[3.5]. Recently, a two-frequency charge pumping (CP) measurement has been utilized to characterize high-k trap properties [3.6][3.7]. However, the CP measurement still has the following drawbacks. First, the CP current may be too small to be reliably measured in small-size devices at a lower frequency required to probe into the high-k layer. Second, due to the mixture of interface and high-k bulk traps, the two-frequency CP method may not be viable when the high-k trap density is comparable to or even less than the interface trap density. Third, CP alone cannot provide detailed description for high-k trap behaviors such as trap activation energy.

In this chapter, a novel transient characterization technique for

exploration of high-k trap properties by measuring the post-stress recovery drain current transient in large- and small-area devices is presented in Section 3.2. In small-area devices, single charge phenomenon is observed. Based on the temperature and voltage dependence of the single charge effect, an analytical model for PBTI recovery is developed in Section 3.3 and high-k trap parameters are extracted. The model is further verified by comparison with measured transient characteristics in a large-area device. Finally in Section 3.4, applications of the technique are demonstrated.

## 3.2 Recovery Transient Measurement

### 3.2.1 Experimental

The devices used in this work are nMOSFETs with a poly-silicon electrode, and a bi-layered gate dielectric stack consisting of HfSiON (physical thickness of 2.5nm) and an interfacial SiO<sub>2</sub> layer (IL, 1nm~1.4nm). The gate width is 0.16μm ~100μm, and the gate length ranges from 80nm to 220nm. Detailed fabrication process and device characteristics can be found in [3.8][3.9]. The devices are first subjected to a positive gate bias ( $V_g$ ) stress, and then “recover” at a lower  $V_g$ . In the “stress phase”, electrons in the inversion channel are injected and trapped into pre-existing high-k traps, while in the “recovery phase” the trapped charges escape via thermally assisted tunneling (see Section 3.3.1). A conventional “sense-after-stress” method introduces a switching delay between phase transitions. This switching delay, as has been reported in literature for both NBTI in SiO<sub>2</sub> and PBTI in high-k, leads to inaccurate experimental results [3.1]-[3.5]. Thus, our measurement setup described in Chapter 2 [3.2][3.5] is used to monitor the

recovery  $I_d$ . The switching delay between stress and recovery is minimized down to  $\mu\text{s}$ . The sampling rate is  $10^4$  readings per second. Fig. 3.1(b) depicts the waveforms applied on gate and drain during stress and recovery. The system was tested on MOSFETs with  $\text{SiO}_2$  as the gate dielectric and stable current-time characteristic was obtained as indicated in Fig. 3.2, ensuring that the system introduces no spurious transient effect.

### 3.2.2 Recovery Transient in Large-Area Devices

The recovery transient of the drain current at  $V_g/V_d=0.1V^1/0.2V$  in a large area ( $100\mu\text{m}\times 0.08\mu\text{m}$ ) nMOSFET is shown in Fig. 3.3 after stress<sup>2</sup> at  $V_g=0.7V$  for 0.2s. The pre-stress drain current is also plotted for comparison. The post-stress  $I_d$  increases with a logarithmic time dependence for about four decades of time from 1ms to 10s and is saturated at a level close to the pre-stress one, suggesting full recovery for the chosen stress condition. Note that a conventional measurement, which usually takes a few seconds for phase transition, is unable to measure the initial transient in the milli-second range in Fig. 3.3 and may significantly underestimate the magnitude of the transient effect. We repeat the same measurement (stress and recovery) on a  $\text{SiO}_2$  control sample. The result is shown in Fig. 3.2 and no transient effect is noticed. This comparison implies that the observed transient should arise from the high-k gate dielectric rather than from the interfacial oxide layer.

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<sup>1</sup> The current magnitude to be measured with the transient system is limited by the OpAmp. Therefore, for a device with a very large  $W/L$  value a  $V_g$  much smaller than  $V_t$  is selected. For a device with a small  $W/L$ , the  $V_g$  would be larger (e.g. Line 4 next page). For both cases, the  $V_g$  is such chosen that the devices are in subthreshold region (weak inversion) to magnify the effect of charge detrapping.

<sup>2</sup> A  $V_g$  as low as 0.7V actually dose not damage the device. The “stress” is to “fill” the traps with electrons. The readers should not be confused with the terms.

### 3.2.3 Single Electron Emission in Small-Area Devices

An identical stress condition is performed on a small-area device ( $W/L=0.16\mu\text{m}/0.08\mu\text{m}$ ) where only a few initial traps are present in the high-k layer. The recovery  $I_d$  monitored at  $V_g/V_d=0.3\text{V}/0.2\text{V}$ , interestingly, exhibits a staircase-like evolution, as shown in Fig. 3.4. The post-stress drain current returns to the pre-stress level, suggesting again full recovery. Each current jump in Fig. 3.4 is believed to be due to single electron emission from traps in HfSiON gate dielectric for two reasons. Firstly, the discontinuous change in drain current implies the nature of discrete charge emission. Secondly, according to the theory of random telegraph signal [3.10], the current drift due to interchanging a single electron in the inversion channel with the dielectric traps can be approximated with  $q\mu_n V_d/L_{\text{eff}}^2 \sim 10^{-8}(\text{Amp})^3$ , consistent with the measured value (for example, in Fig. 3.4, 40nA for the first current jump). Here, only three electrons are trapped in the measured device during stress. In Fig. 3.4, individual electron emission time  $\tau_1$ ,  $\tau_2$ , and  $\tau_3$  can be clearly defined. We further explore the dependence of electron emission times on recovery gate voltage and temperature. An average of the electron emission times is taken from ten measurements on the same device by repeating stress and recovery. Fig. 3.5 shows the temperature dependence of  $\tau_1$ . The extracted activation energy ( $E_a$ ) from the Arrhenius plot is about 0.18eV. Fig. 3.6 indicates the recovery gate voltage dependence of the first two electron emission times. Both  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  increase with recovery  $V_g$ .

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<sup>3</sup>  $q$  is the element electronic charge,  $\mu_n$  the electron mobility, and  $L_{\text{eff}}$  the effective channel length.

## 3.3 Results and Discussions

### 3.3.1 Trapped Charge Emission Model

Three possible paths for electron de-trapping are illustrated in the energy band diagram in Fig. 3.7: (a) thermal excitation assisted by electric field, or Frenkel-Poole (F-P) emission, (b) Shockley-Read-Hall like (SRH-like) thermally assisted tunneling<sup>4</sup> (TAT) [3.11]-[3.13] to the gate electrode, and (c) TAT to the Si substrate. The energy band diagram for charge injection is drawn in Fig. 3.8. The most probable injection trap energy for the selected  $V_g$  is  $E_t \sim 3.2 - (0.54 + 1.3) = 1.36\text{eV}$ . Because the electric field in the high-k layer is small, this value can be approximated constant through the whole high-k layer. In the F-P process, a trapped electron is thermally excited *from the trap to the conduction band* (the activation energy). The de-trapping path (a) can thus be ruled out since the corresponding activation energy  $E_a$  should be about the trap energy ( $>1\text{eV}$ ) and the measured  $E_a$  is only  $0.18\text{eV}$ <sup>5</sup>. Path (b) is also excluded because a larger (more positive) recovery  $V_g$  would accelerate de-trapping toward the gate electrode, giving a shorter charge emission time. The measured trend of  $\tau$  versus  $V_g$  is just opposite (Fig. 3.6). As a result, (c) is identified as the dominant path of trapped charge emission under the chosen stress condition. Moreover, the temperature effect implies the role of thermal process in the charge tunneling process. As a result, an analytical model based on TAT is developed with the energy band diagram and trap distance illustrated in Fig. 3.9. According to the WKB approximation, the

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<sup>4</sup> Tunneling by itself exhibits weak temperature dependence. The measured activation energy ( $E_a = 0.18\text{eV}$ ) indicates that temperature plays a role, and thus TAT.

<sup>5</sup> Ribe et al. extracted an activation energy of  $0.35\text{eV}$  for F-P mechanism in [3.14]. In their case, a  $V_g = 2\text{V}$  is used to fill the high-k traps for subsequent detrapping measurement. Much shallower traps than in our experiments are filled because our filling  $V_g$  is smaller ( $0.7\text{--}1.2\text{V}$ ). For smaller injected trap energies, F-P excitation is also a possible detrapping path.

trapped charge emission time is formulated as

$$\tau_i^{-1} = \nu \exp(-\alpha_{ox} T_{ox}) \exp(-\alpha_k x_i) \quad (3.1)$$

where

$$\nu = N_C (1 - f_c) v_{th} \sigma_0 \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{kT}\right) \quad (3.1a)$$

$$\alpha_{ox} = \frac{2\sqrt{2m_{ox,e}^* q(E_t + \Phi_B)}}{\hbar} ; \alpha_k = \frac{2\sqrt{2m_k^* qE_t}}{\hbar}. \quad (3.1b)$$

The pre-factor  $\nu$  in Eq. (3.1a) is a lumped parameter, often referred to as the “attempt-to-escape frequency”, and can be expressed as Eq. (3.1a) where  $N_C$  is the effective density-of-states in the Si conduction band,  $f_c$  the Fermi-Dirac (FD) distribution function in the Si substrate at the energy aligned to the trapped charge,  $N_C(1-f_c)$  the amount of available states in the Si substrate for out-tunneling electrons from high-k traps, and  $\sigma_0$  and  $E_a$  the trap cross-section and the activation energy, respectively. Other variables have their usual definitions. The FD distribution ( $f_c$ ) is a function of  $V_g$  in recovery. A smaller recovery  $V_g$  leads to a smaller channel electron density, or a smaller  $f_c$ , and thus a shorter electron emission time. As the recovery  $V_g$  reduces below the threshold voltage,  $f_c$  approaches zero and thus the electron emission time becomes independent of  $V_g$ , as shown in Fig. 3.6. The electron nearest to the interface of the Si substrate will be the first for de-trapping. In order to exclude the temperature effect resulting from the FD distribution, we chose a small recovery  $V_g$  ( $\leq 0.3V$ ), i.e.  $f_c \sim 0$ , in the measurement of trap activation energy  $E_a$  in Fig. 3.5.

### 3.3.2 High-k Trap Density

The high-k trap density ( $N_t$ ) can be evaluated through the proposed analytical model. By comparing

$$\tau_1 = v^{-1} \exp(\alpha_{ox} T_{ox}) \exp(\alpha_k x_1) \quad (3.2a)$$

$$\tau_2 = v^{-1} \exp(\alpha_{ox} T_{ox}) \exp(\alpha_k x_2) \quad (3.2b)$$

, one obtains

$$\frac{\tau_2}{\tau_1} = \exp[\alpha_k (x_2 - x_1)] . \quad (3.3)$$

Assuming the high-k traps have a uniform distribution in space, the high-k trap density is readily calculated as

$$N_t = \frac{1}{WL(x_2 - x_1)} = \frac{\alpha_k}{WL \ln\left(\frac{\tau_2}{\tau_1}\right)}. \quad (3.4)$$

Equation (3.3) predicts that the ratio of emission times ( $\tau_2/\tau_1$ ) is only related to the physical distance between trap sites. Fig. 3.10 indeed shows that  $\tau_2/\tau_1$  (ten readings of each  $V_g$  on the same device; ten devices measured) is constant and is independent of recovery  $V_g$ . For measurement convenience, in Fig. 3.10 fixed recovery currents rather than recovery voltages were chosen, thus leading to scattered data points arising from threshold voltage variation. An average  $\tau_2/\tau_1$  of 3.4 is obtained, corresponding to an average high-k trap density of  $N_t=3.5 \times 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3}$  (assuming  $m_k^*=0.18 m_0$  [3.15]), or equivalently, an area density of  $8.8 \times 10^{10} \text{cm}^{-2}$ .

It should be pointed out that in the above analysis single trap energy was assumed. This assumption is reasonable since the trap energy range corresponding to stress  $V_g(=0.7V)$  and recovery  $V_g(=0.3V)$  is very small. Only traps in this small energy range are charged and discharged in the above measurement. For a larger stress  $V_g$ , the injected electrons may fill high-k traps at different positions and energies. This will be discussed later.

### 3.3.3 Modeling of Recovery Transient in Large-Area Devices

In a large area device, the high-k charge de-trapping rate is

$$Q(x, t) = Q(x, 0) \exp[-t / \tau(x)] \quad (3.5)$$

where  $Q(x, t) = qN_t(x, t)$  is the time-dependent trapped charge density and  $\tau(x)$  is described in Eq. (3.1). The threshold voltage shift,  $\Delta V_t$ , induced by trapped electron emission is written as

$$\Delta V_t(t) = - \sum_i \frac{\Delta Q(x_i, t)}{C(x_i)} = - \sum_i \frac{qN_t(x_i, 0)}{\epsilon_{HK}} (T_{HK} - x_i) [1 - \exp(-\frac{t}{\tau_i})] \quad (3.6)$$

where  $C(x_i)$  is the corresponding capacitance for trapped charges located at  $x_i$  from high-k/IL interface, and  $\epsilon_{HK}$  and  $T_{HK}$  are the permittivity and physical thickness of the high-k layer respectively. For a large amount of trapped charges, the summation in Eq. (3.6) is substituted by integration written as

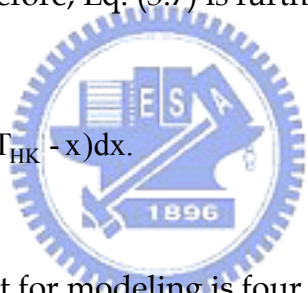
$$\Delta V_t(t) = - \int \frac{qN_t(x, 0)}{\epsilon_{HK}} (T_{HK} - x) \{1 - \exp[-t/\tau(x)]\} dx \quad (3.7)$$



where  $\tau(x)=A\exp(\alpha_k x)$  and  $A=[N_C(1-f_c)v_{th}\sigma_0\exp(-E_a/kT)]^{-1}\exp(\alpha_{ox}T_{ox})$ . Because the double exponential  $\exp[-t/\tau(x)]=\exp[(-t/A)\exp(-\alpha_k x)]$  in the integrand changes abruptly from 0 to 1 around  $x=(\alpha_k)^{-1}\ln(t/A)$ , it can be approximated by a step-function:

$$\exp\left[-\frac{t}{A}\exp(-\alpha_k x)\right] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \leq (\alpha_k)^{-1}\ln(t/A) \\ 1 & \text{for } x \geq (\alpha_k)^{-1}\ln(t/A) \end{cases} \quad (3.8)$$

This approximation translates into a “clear-cut” picture: after time  $t$ , electrons with emission times shorter than  $t$  are completely de-trapped while all of the rest remain trapped. Therefore, Eq. (3.7) is further simplified as

$$\Delta V_t(t) \approx -\frac{qN_t}{\epsilon_{HK}} \int_0^{(\alpha_k)^{-1}\ln(t/A)} (T_{HK} - x) dx. \quad (3.9)$$


The time window of interest for modeling is four decades as shown in Fig. 3.3. According to Eq. (3.3), the time span is equivalent to a physical distance of around  $10\text{\AA}$  in high- $k$ , or an equivalent oxide thickness (EOT) of  $2\text{\AA}$ . Therefore, the term  $T_{HK}-x$  is approximated as a constant, or  $\overline{x_{eff}}$ , and Eq. (3.9)

reduces to


$$\Delta V_t(t) \approx -\frac{qN_t \overline{x_{eff}}}{\epsilon_{HK} \alpha_k} \ln\left(\frac{t}{A}\right). \quad (3.10)$$

The corresponding recovery drain current evolution in the measurement interval can be written as

$$\Delta I_d(t) \propto \frac{qG_m N_t \overline{x_{eff}}}{\epsilon_{HK} \alpha_k} \ln\left(\frac{t}{A}\right) \quad (3.11)$$

where the transconductance,  $G_m(=dI/dV)$ <sup>6</sup>, is obtained from measurement. The simulated recovery transient from Eq. (3.11) is in good agreement with measurement<sup>7</sup> as shown in Fig. 3.3. Eq. (3.11) also reveals that the recovery slope in Fig. 3.3 is linearly proportional to the high-k trap density.

As mentioned in Section 3.3.2, the injected electrons may fill different energy traps at a larger stress  $V_g$ . In this case, the trap energy distribution should be taken into account and Eq. (3.11) is modified as follows

$$\Delta I_d(t) \propto \left( \int_{\Delta E} \frac{qG_m N_t(E_t) \overline{x_{eff}}}{\epsilon_{HK} \alpha_k(E_t)} dE_t \right) \ln(t) \quad (3.12)$$


where  $\Delta E$  represents the energy range of trapped charges. Eq. (3.12) shows that at a larger stress  $V_g$  the recovery transient still follows logarithmic time dependence but has a larger slope because of a larger  $\Delta E$ . Fig. 3.11 shows the measured recovery transients for two stress  $V_g$ 's. As expected, the larger stress  $V_g$  has a larger slope.

Finally, the author would like to remark three points. *First*, a very short stress time (0.2sec) was selected because the purpose of this technique is to

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<sup>6</sup> Subthreshold swing can also be used (with proper modifications in Eq.3.11) if the recovery transient is measured well below  $V_t$ .

<sup>7</sup> Deviation of calculation from measurement does exist, and stems from the assumptions of single trap energy and uniform trap distribution in space as well as from the fact that  $G_m$  may change during recovery as a result of modification of Coulomb scattering in response to charge detrapping. In spite of the deviation, for same charge filling and recovery conditions, the slope of drain current transient can serve as an indicator of trap density.

characterize the pre-existing traps in HfSiON gate dielectric. For a longer stress time and a larger stress  $V_g$ , additional high-k traps will be generated. The PBTI stress induced high-k trap creation will be explored in Chapter 4. *Second*, the extraction of trap density from small area devices or from large area ones described above is based on the assumptions of single energy for trapped charges and of uniform trap distribution in space. These assumptions are vulnerable to selection of stress (filling) and recovery conditions. One should be careful in choosing experimental conditions that validate the assumptions. *Third*, two factors that possibly influence the accuracy in modeling large-area transients should be mentioned. (a) In Eq. (3.10) a constant  $\overline{x_{\text{eff}}}$  of the physical thickness of the high-k layer is used which overestimates the impact of the trapped charges and underestimates the trap density. (b)  $\Delta I_d$  is determined by fluctuations in the number and in the mobility of the inversion charges. Eq. (3.11) considers only number fluctuation (which changes  $I_d$  through capacitance effect) and a constant  $G_m$  is used. However, the electrostatics the trapped charges built would be modified upon charge detrapping which correspondingly affects Coulomb scattering rate, and thus the carrier mobility. Separation of individual contributions from number fluctuation and mobility fluctuation necessitates Monte Carlo simulation which is beyond the scope of this work.

### 3.3.4 Gate Length Effect

The single charge effect is investigated on devices with gate lengths of 0.08 $\mu\text{m}$ , 0.14 $\mu\text{m}$ , and 0.22 $\mu\text{m}$ . Fig. 3.12 shows that the quantized feature in the recovery transient is still observable for all the three lengths. However, the

amplitude of the drain current step ( $\Delta I_d$ ) decreases with increasing gate length. This trend is consistent with the Random Telegraph Signal theory [3.10] and implies that the impact of the trapped electron in the high-k dielectric spreads over the entire channel.

### 3.4 Applications of the Technique

Applying the proposed technique, single hole charge emission is measured in high-k and SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOSFETs.

#### 3.4.1 Study of NBTI in SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOSFETs

Debates on the species involved in NBTI effect in SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOS has been in literatures [3.5][3.16]-[3.19]. While some researchers concluded that *only* hydrogen-related species (neutral or charged) is responsible for NBTI degradation and recovery [3.16][3.17], others proposed the possibility of participation of hole charges [3.5][3.18][3.19]. To explore this problem, single hole emission in SiO<sub>2</sub>-gated pMOSFETs during NBTI recovery is performed and the results are illustrated in Fig. 3.13. The stress condition is  $V_g = -3V$ ,  $T=100C$ , and  $t=2s$  for the “weak stress” and  $t=300s$  for the “strong stress.” The recovery drain current is measured at  $V_g = -0.3V$  (around threshold condition). “Strong stress” gives more frequent current jumps in the recovery period, implying a larger trap density. This is consistent with the fact that “strong stress” induces more oxide degradation (more trap generation). Furthermore, the recovery  $V_g$  dependence of the first two charge emission times ( $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$ ) and the temperature dependence of  $\tau_1$  are also shown in Fig. 3.15(c) and Fig. 3.16(c) respectively.

Since the channel current is stable between two consecutive current jumps, back diffusion of charged particles (no matter what they are) should be excluded for the observed NBTI recovery transient. In addition, although the experimental activation energy  $E_a=0.5\text{eV}$  is close to the values for neutral  $\text{H}_2$  in literature (0.45 [3.17]), the measured recovery  $V_g$  dependence rules out back diffusion of neutral species. Therefore, the staircase-like current changes observed serve as the direct proof of hole charge emission during NBTI recovery which indirectly evidences that hole charges do play a role in degradation.

### 3.4.2 Comparison between High-k and $\text{SiO}_2$

Another application of the technique is to compare the trap properties in high-k and in  $\text{SiO}_2$ . Discrete charge emission induced staircase-like current jumps, and the recovery  $V_g$  and the temperature dependence of the charge emission times are shown in Fig. 3.14, Fig. 3.15, and Fig. 3.16 for high-k nMOS, high-k pMOS, and  $\text{SiO}_2$  pMOS transistors. The activation energy  $E_a$  (extracted from the temperature dependence), the average  $\tau_2$ -to- $\tau_1$  ratio (extracted from the  $V_g$  dependence), and the trap density (calculated from Eq. 3.4) are summarized in Table 3.1. Two interesting findings are noticed: (a) the first charge emission time ( $\tau_1 \sim$  tens of milli-seconds) and the amplitude of the current jumps ( $\Delta I_d \sim$  tens of nA) are comparable for all three types of devices. (b) The activation energy is dependent on the dielectric material (high-k or  $\text{SiO}_2$ ), not on the conduction carrier (electron or hole). Further study is required to clarify the root physics of this difference.

### 3.5 Summary

A novel transient measurement technique is proposed for characterizing high-k gate dielectric traps in HfSiON nMOSFETs. The quantized feature in recovery current evolution due to single charge detrapping is observed for the first time in a small area device. A SRH-like thermally-assisted-tunneling model for high-k trapped charge emission is developed. Our model can well explain the measured electric field and temperature dependence of single-charge emission times. The model also reveals that the recovery drain current transient in large-size devices should follow logarithmic time dependence. The high-k trap density can be extracted from charge emission times in a small device or from the drain current recovery slope in a large device. For trap activation energy, single charge emission measurement is necessary since the transient slope in a large device does not contain the activation energy. Applications of the technique are demonstrated. The proposed technique for single charge effect characterization can provide insight into trap properties in advanced gate dielectrics in the development of nano-scale CMOS devices.

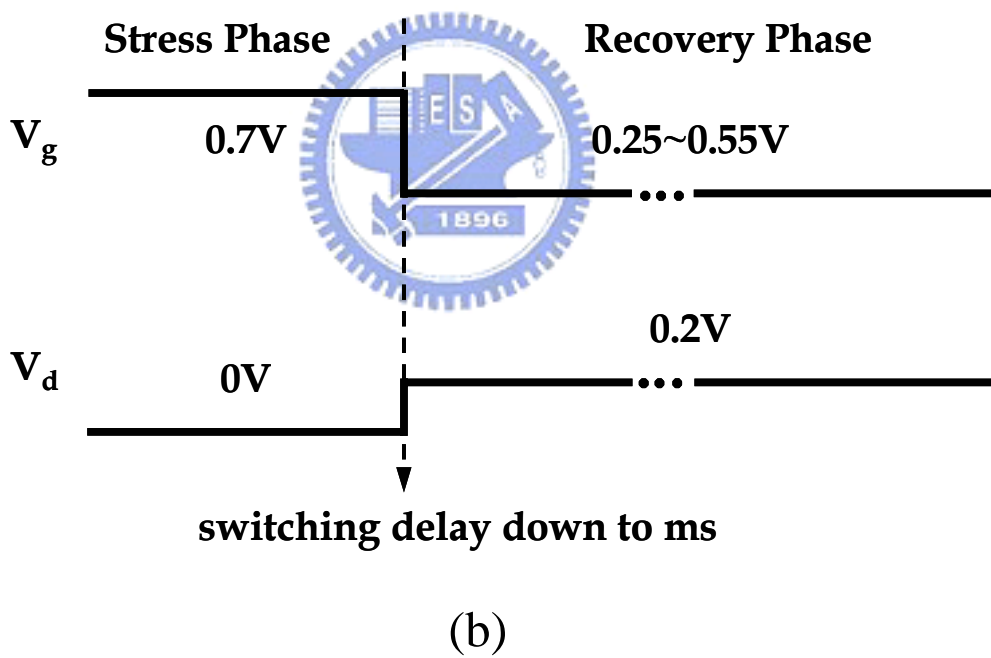
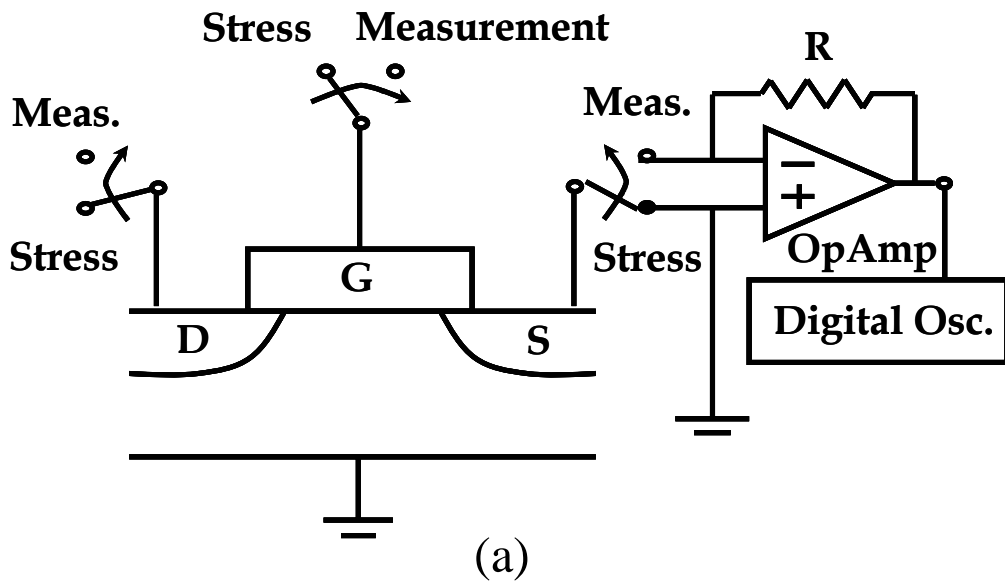


Fig. 3.1 (a) Schematic diagram for PBTI recovery transient measurement. (b) The waveforms applied to the gate and drain during stress and recovery phases.

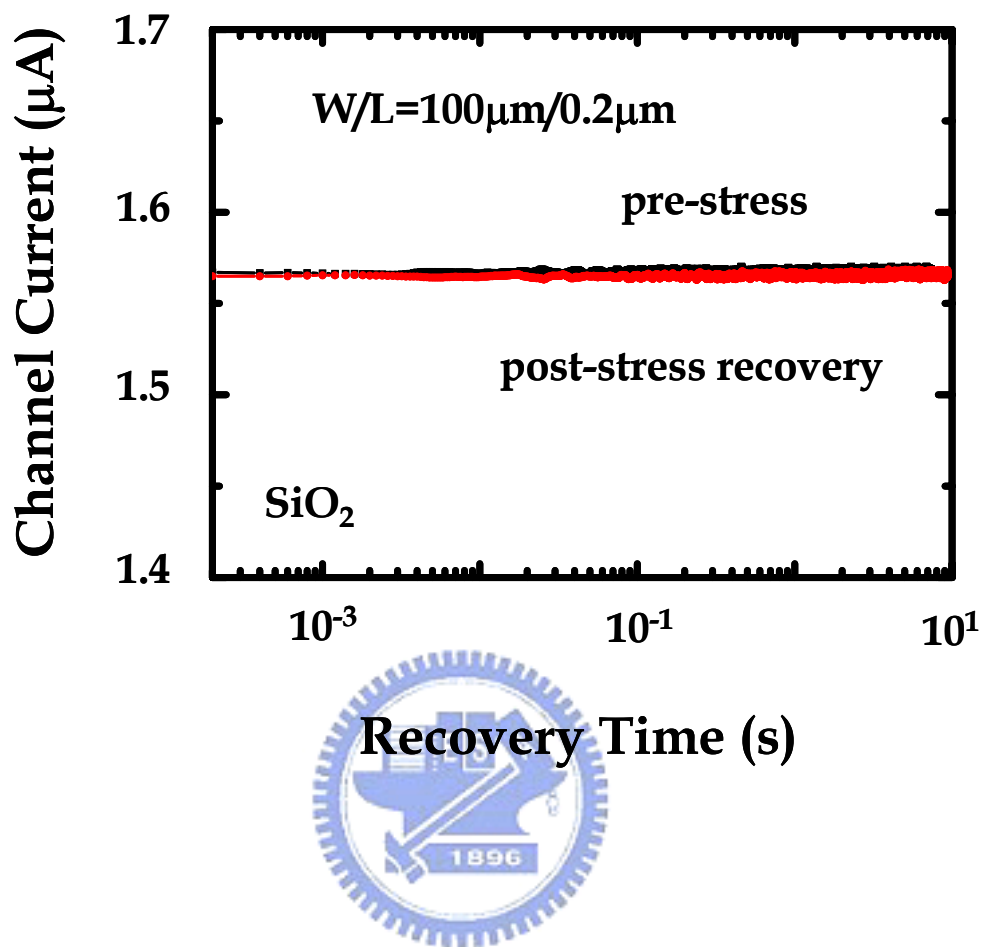


Fig. 3.2 Temporal evolutions of the drain current before and after stress in a nMOSFET with  $\text{SiO}_2$  as the gate dielectric, measured by the experimental setup in Fig. 3.1.



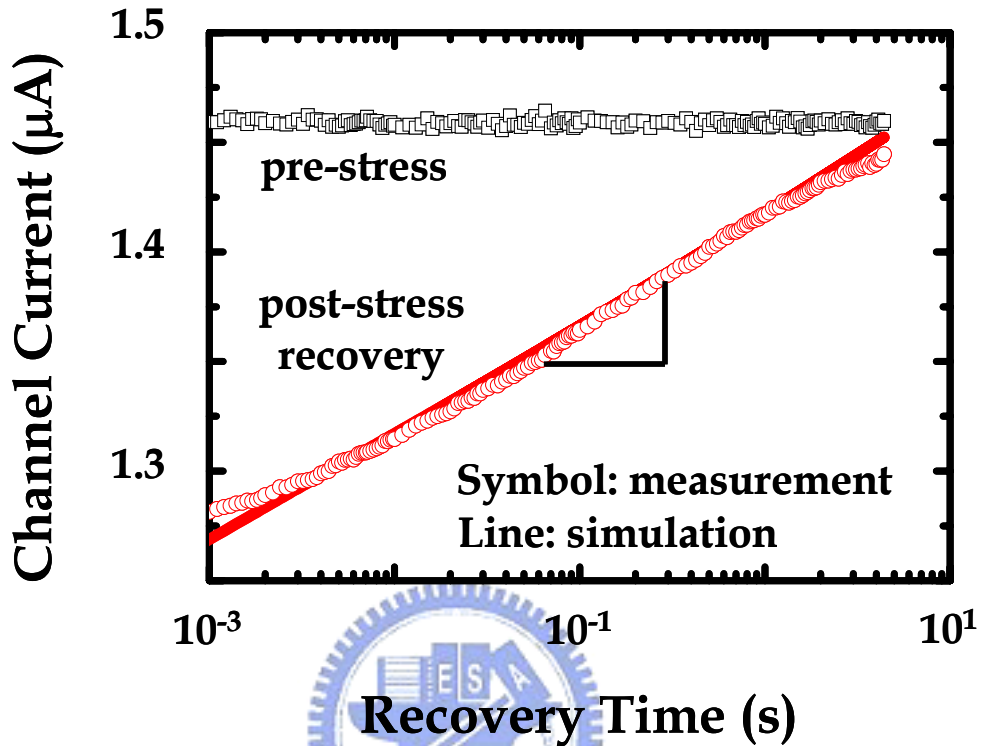


Fig. 3.3 Temporal evolutions of the drain current before and after stress in a large area high-k nMOSFET.  $V_g=0.7\text{V}$ , 0.2s for stress and  $V_g/V_d=0.1\text{V}/0.2\text{V}$  for recovery. The device dimension is  $W/L=100\mu\text{m}/0.08\mu\text{m}$ . The symbols represent measurement data and the line calculation.

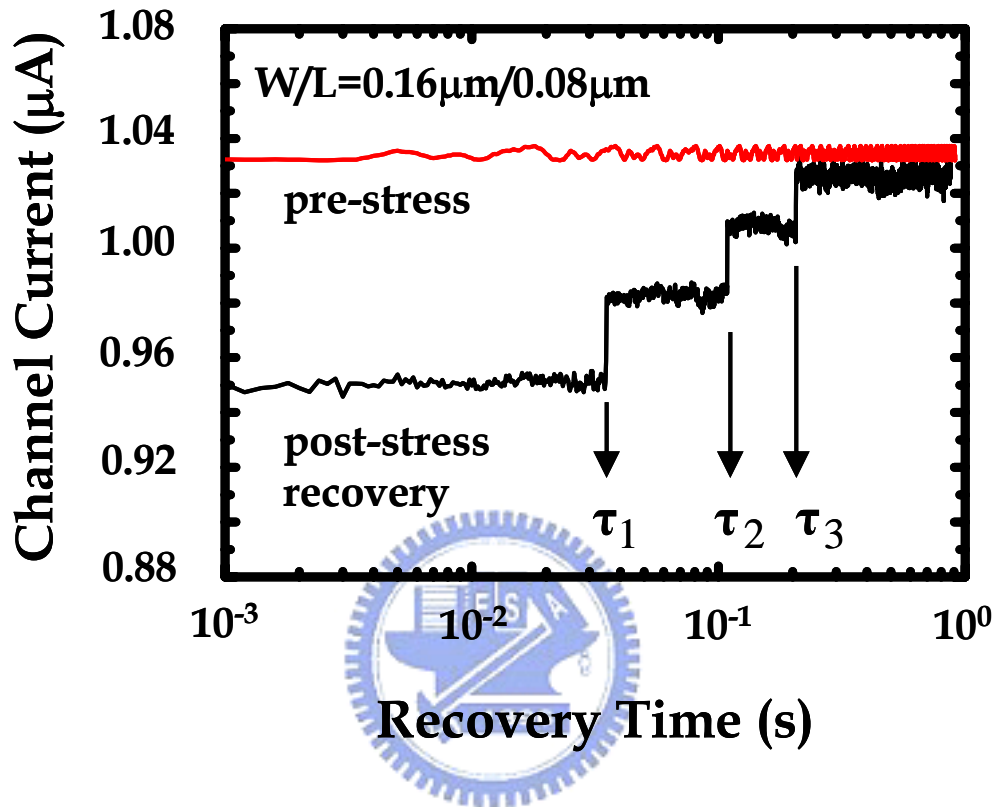


Fig. 3.4 Recovery drain current transients before and after stress in a small-area device. The bias condition for stress is the same as in Fig. 3.3, and for recovery  $V_g/V_d = 0.3/0.2\text{V}$ . The device dimension is  $W/L = 0.16\mu\text{m}/0.08\mu\text{m}$ . Each current jump is attributed to single trapped charge escape from high-k gate dielectric. Only three electrons are trapped during stress. The emission time of the three trapped electrons is denoted as  $\tau_1$ ,  $\tau_2$ , and  $\tau_3$ .

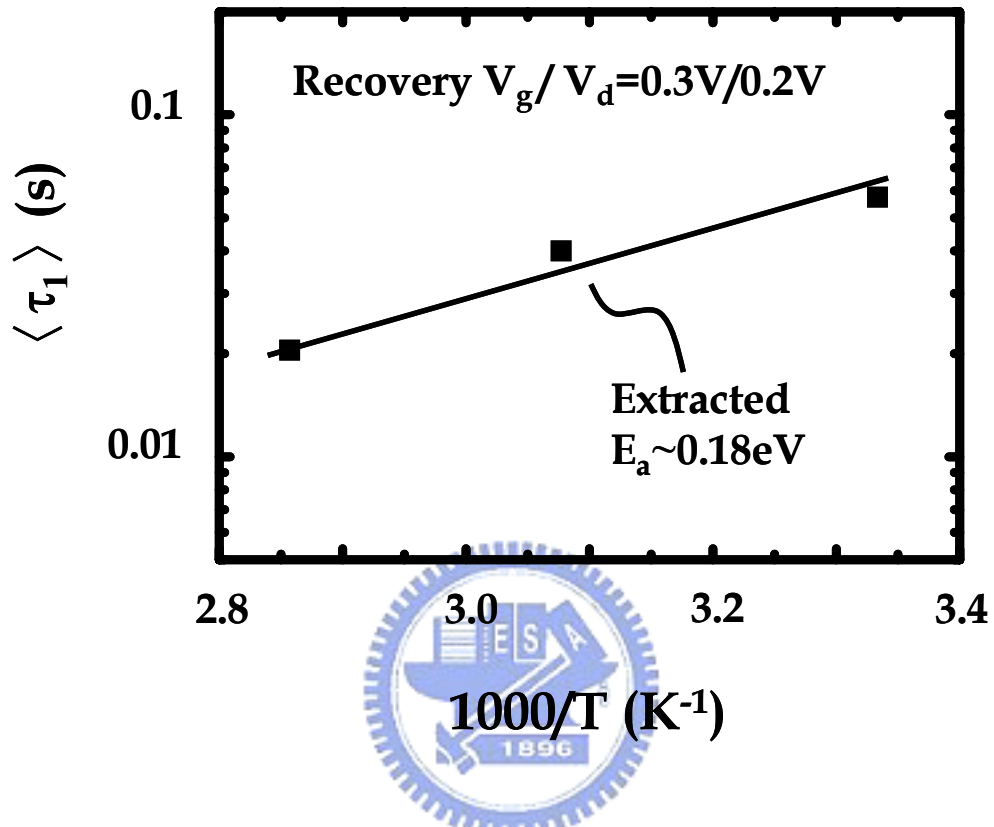


Fig. 3.5 Temperature dependence of  $\langle \tau_1 \rangle$ . The activation energy extracted from the Arrhenius plot is 0.18eV. Each data point is an average of ten readings.

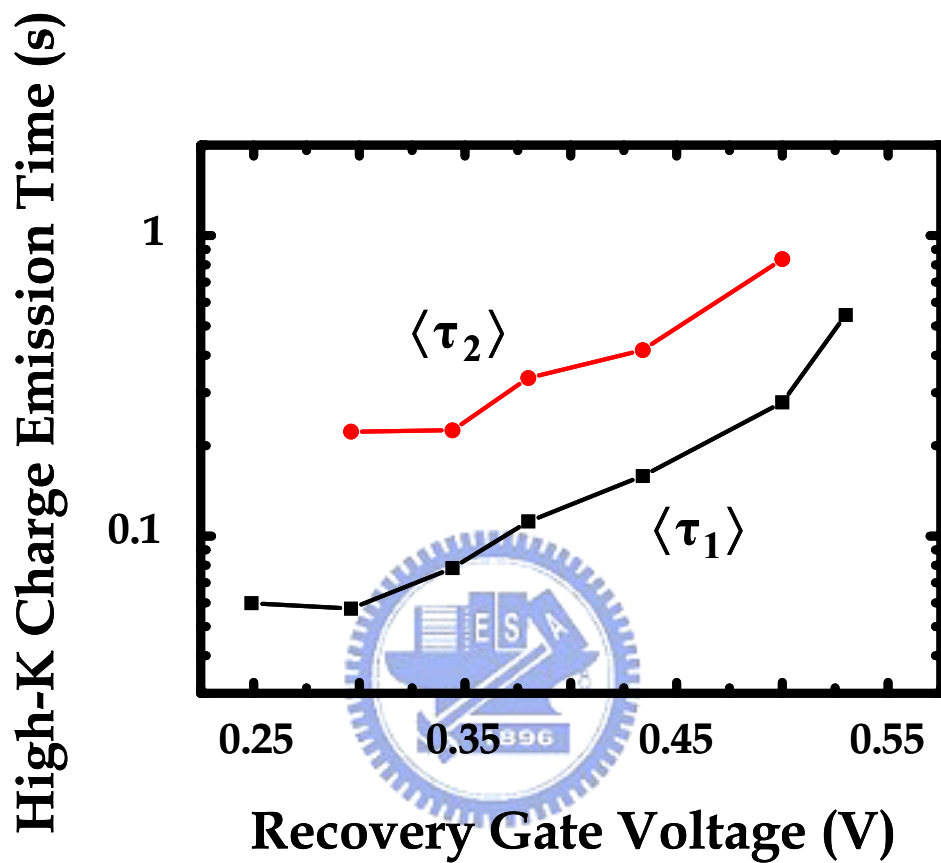


Fig. 3.6 Dependence of trapped electron emission times on recovery gate voltage. Ten measurements are made for each recovery  $V_g$  to take average.

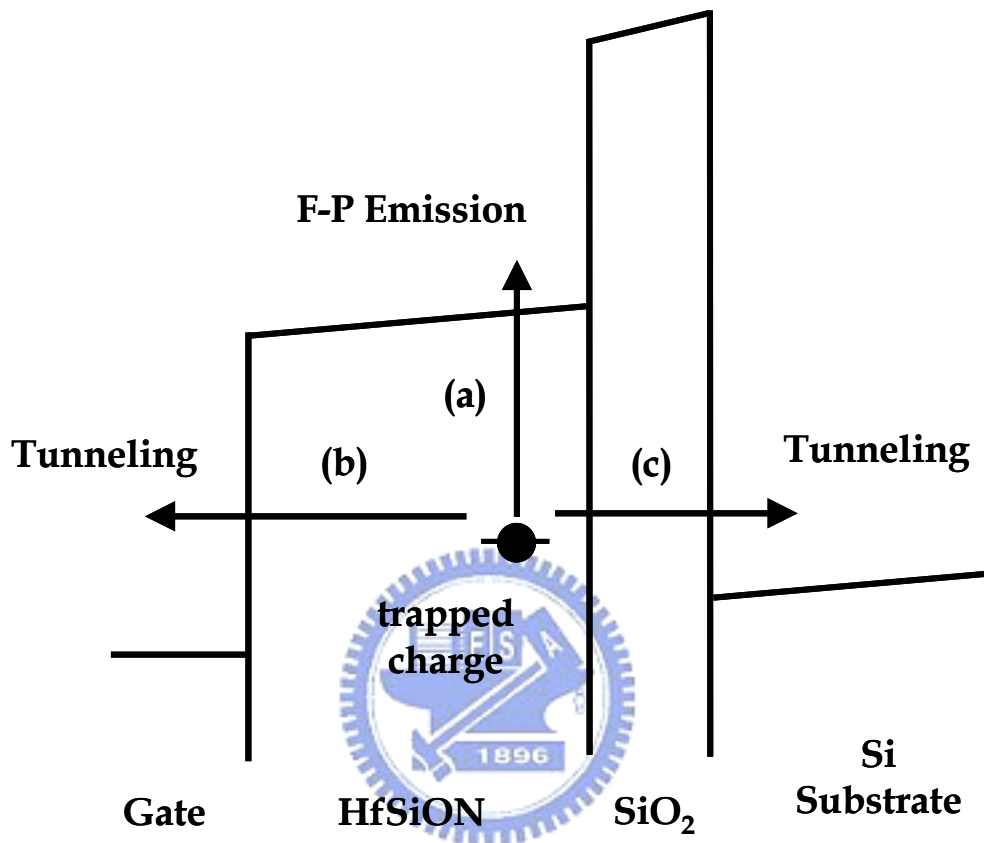


Fig. 3.7 The energy band diagram illustrating possible paths for trapped charge emission: (a) Frenkel-Poole (FP) emission, (b) tunneling to the gate, and (c) tunneling to the Si substrate.

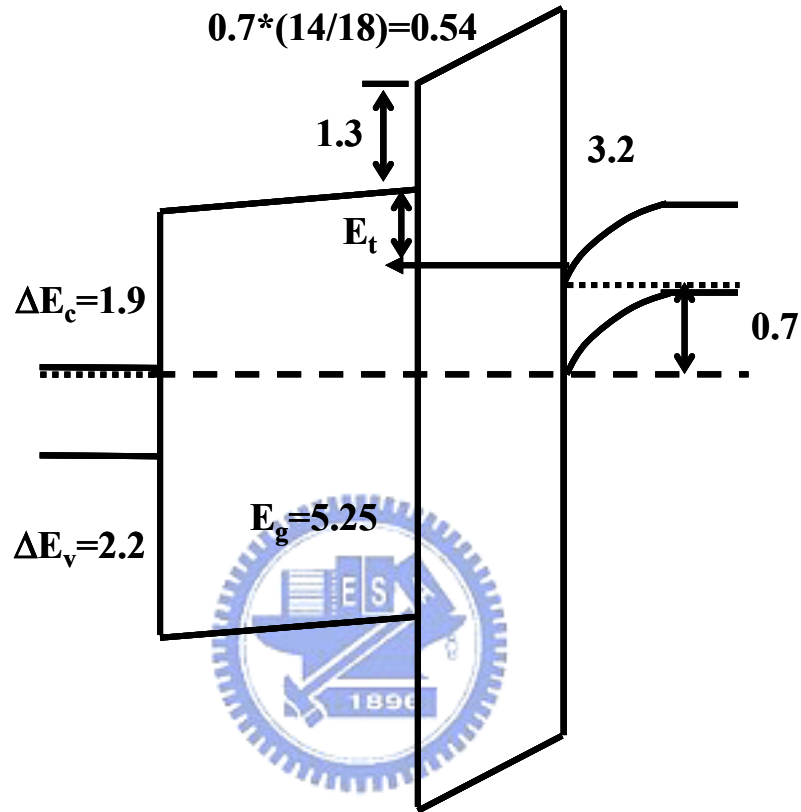


Fig. 3.8 The energy band diagram corresponding to the stress condition where  $V_g=0.7V$  is applied to inject electron into the high-k traps.

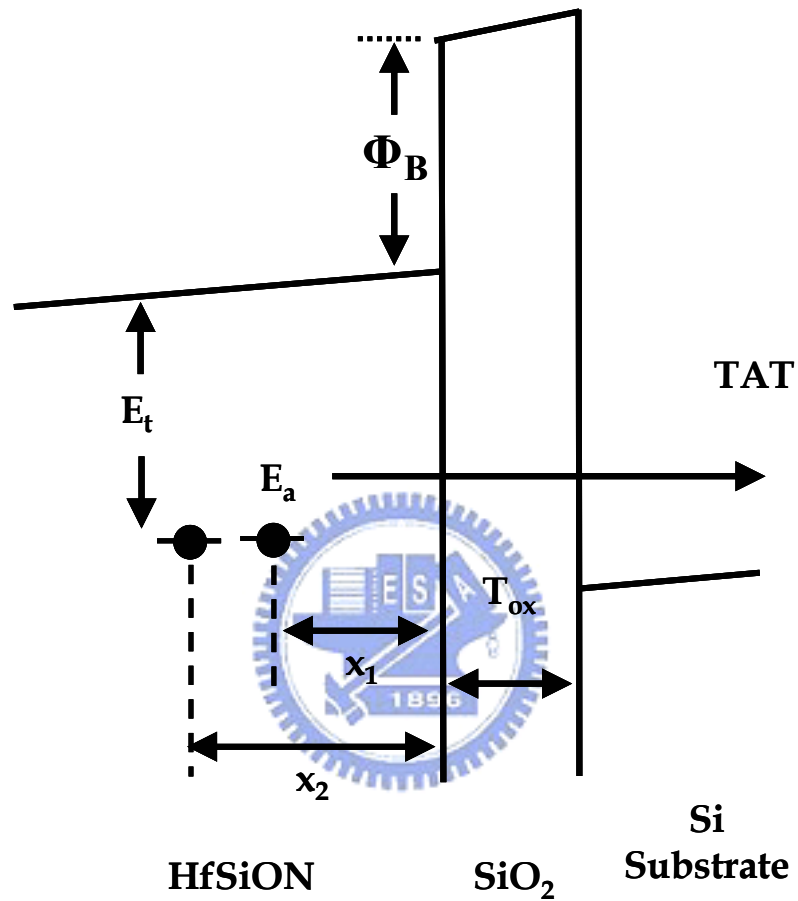


Fig. 3.9 Schematic representation of the band diagram in recovery phase and trap positions.  $E_a$  is the activation energy for SRH-like thermally assisted tunneling (TAT).

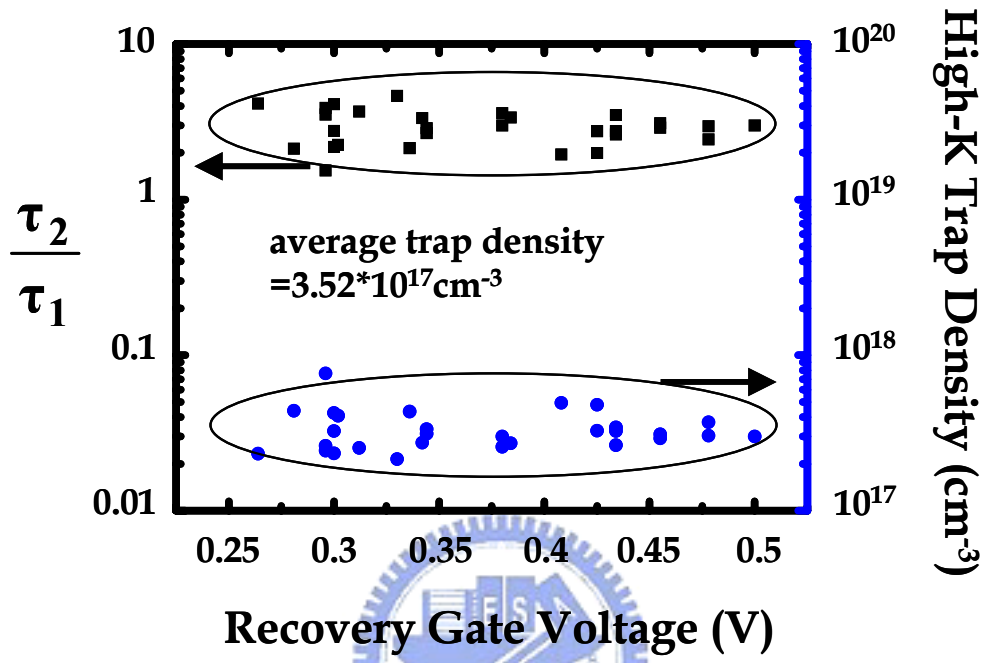


Fig. 3.10 The ratio of  $\tau_2$  to  $\tau_1$  versus gate voltage in recovery phase. Note that  $\tau_2/\tau_1$  remains almost unchanged with respect to  $V_{gr}$ , as predicted by Eq. (3.3). The extracted high-k trap density is  $3.5 \times 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3}$ , or equivalently  $8.8 \times 10^{10} \text{cm}^{-2}$ .



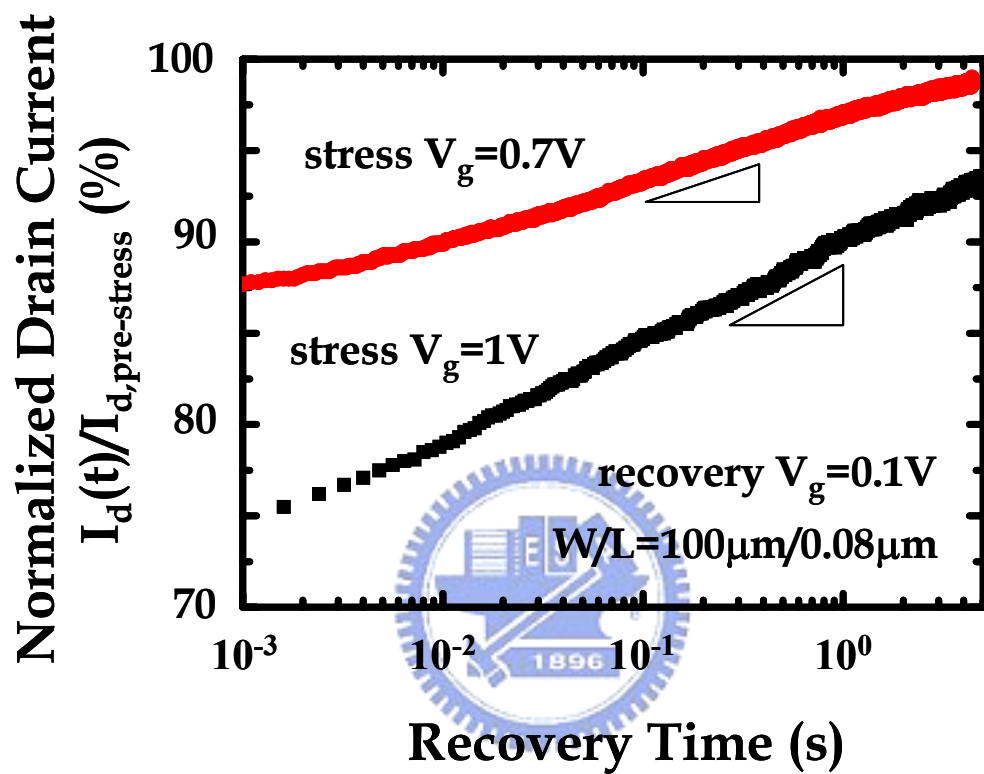
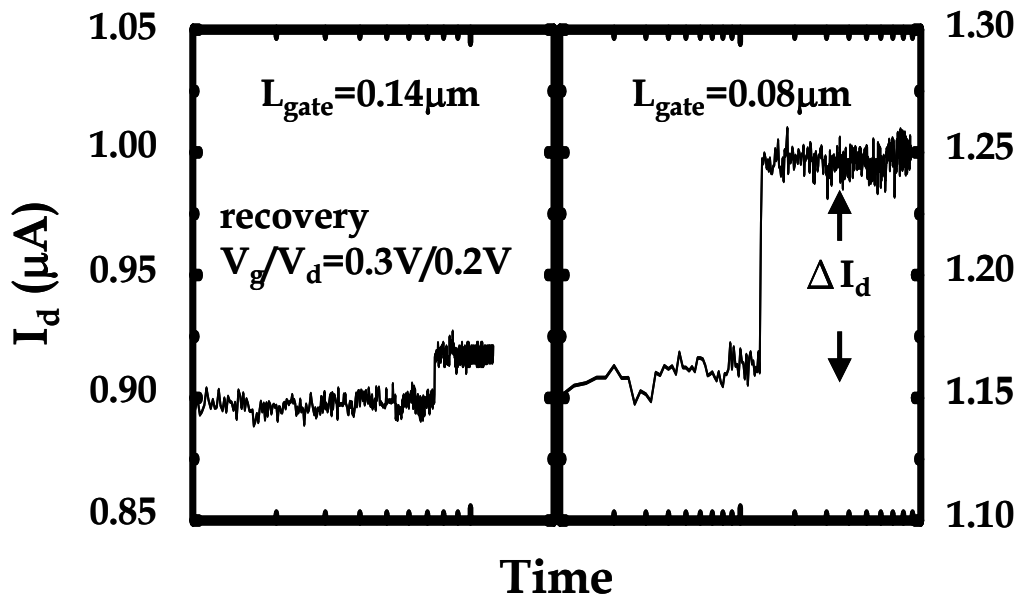
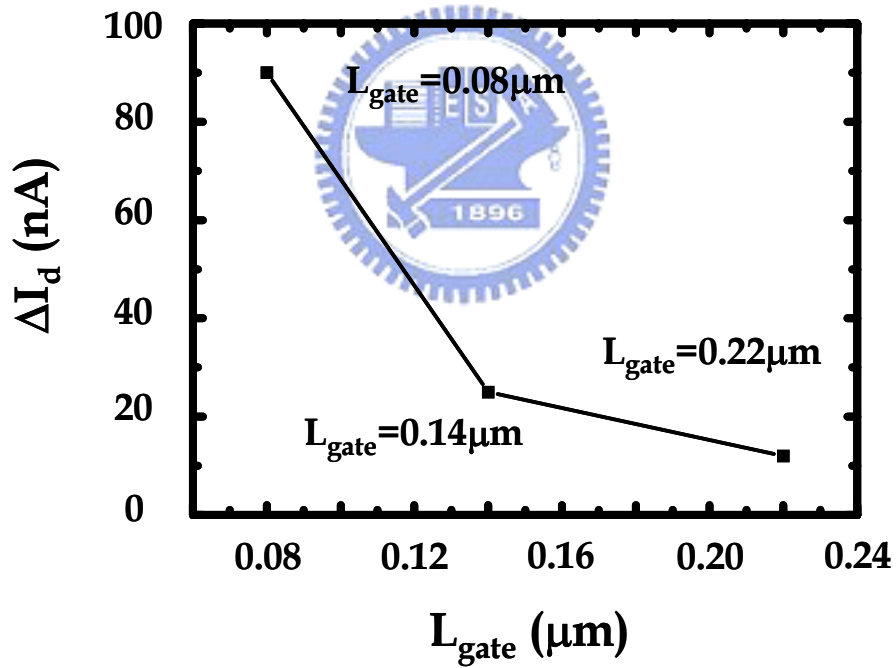


Fig. 3.11 Normalized drain current evolution with recovery time for two stress  $V_g$ 's (0.7V and 1V). The  $V_g$  in recovery phase is 0.1V.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.12 (a) Comparison of the current jump amplitude for  $L_{\text{gate}} = 0.14 \mu\text{m}$  and  $L_{\text{gate}} = 0.08 \mu\text{m}$ . Both devices are subject to identical stress and recovery conditions. (b) The amplitude of the current jump versus  $L_{\text{gate}}$ .

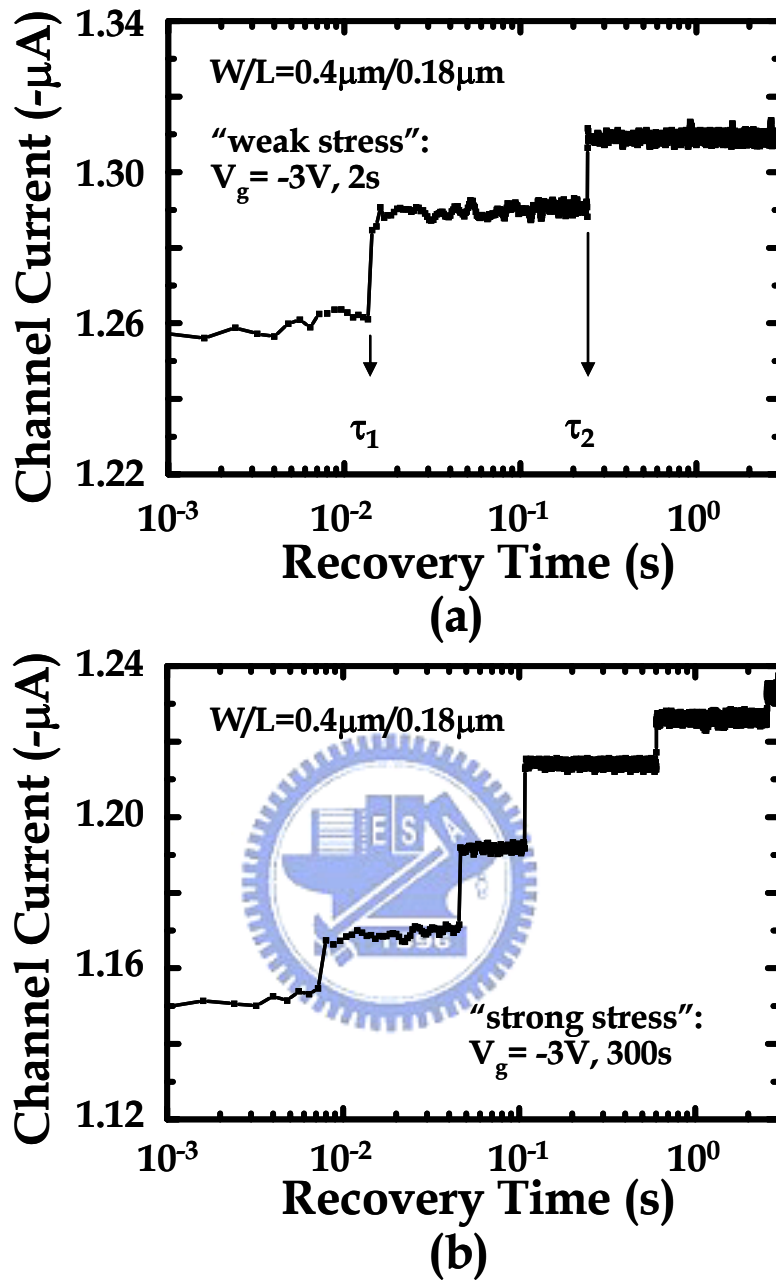


Fig. 3.13 (a) A typical step-like “quantum jump” observed in channel current during NBTI recovery in a  $\text{SiO}_2$  pMOSFET. (b) Compared to a “weak stress” condition ( $V_g = -3\text{V}, 2\text{s}$ ) in (a) in which only two quantum jumps are measured, a post “strong stress” ( $V_g = -3\text{V}, 300\text{s}$ ) recovery has five jumps in the same time window.

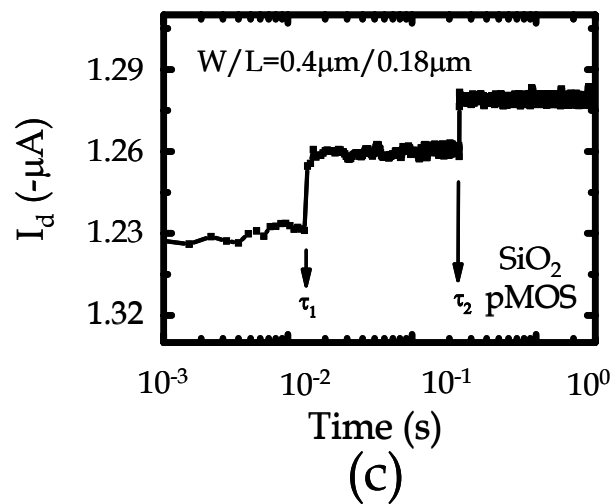
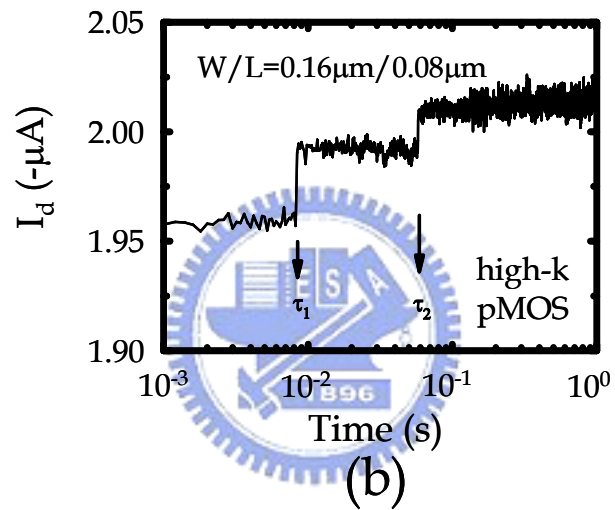
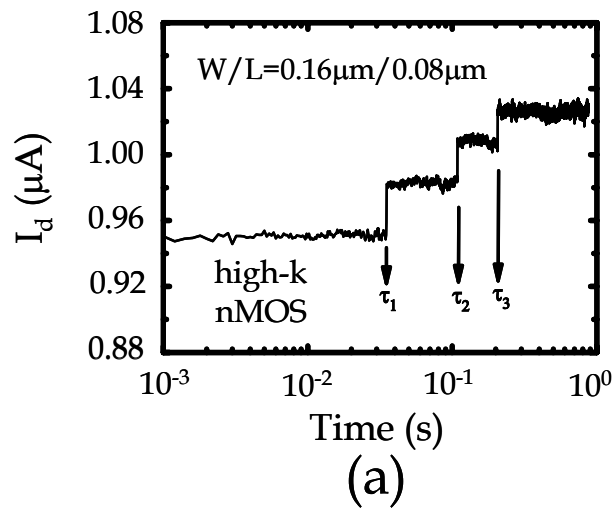
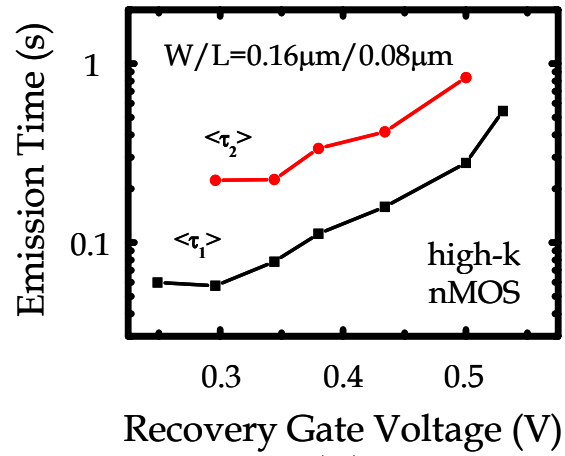
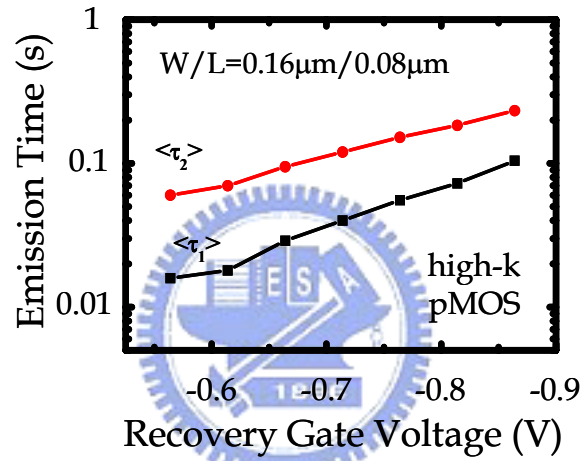


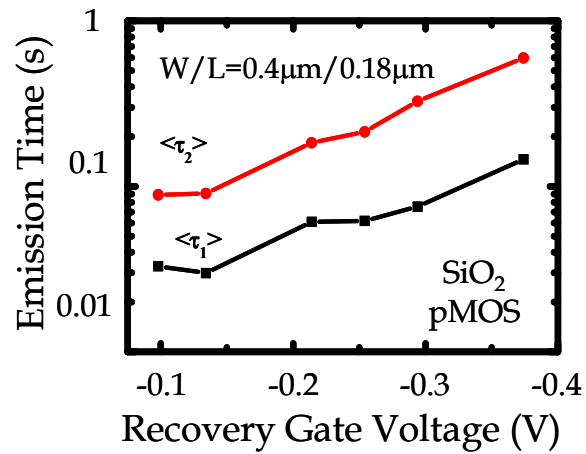
Fig. 3.14 Comparison of the staircase-like current jumps for a (a) high-k nMOS, (b) high-k pMOS, and (c) SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOS device.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 3.15 Comparison of the recovery  $V_g$  dependence of charge emission times for a (a) high-k nMOS, (b) high-k pMOS, and (c) SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOS device.

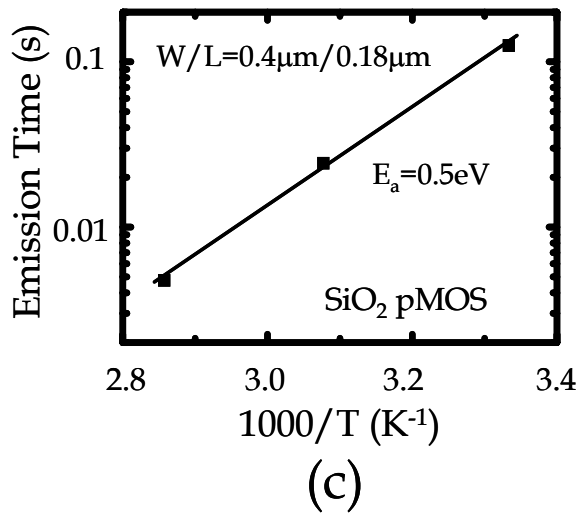
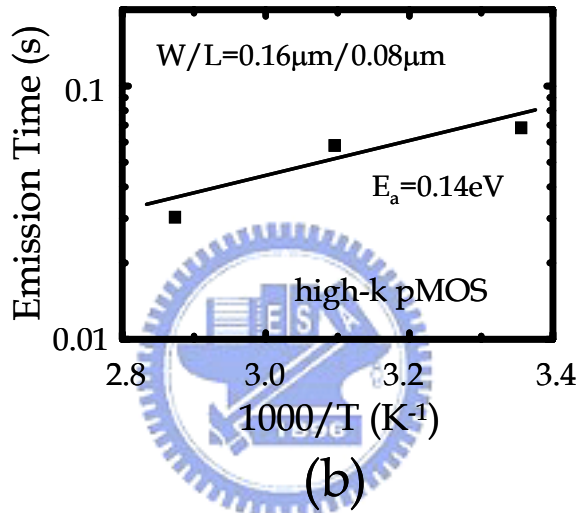
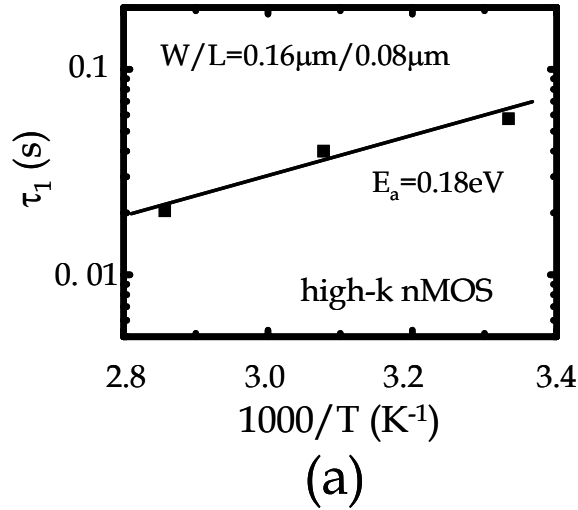


Fig. 3.16 Comparison of the temperature dependence of the first charge emission time. The activation energy  $E_a$  is extracted to be (a) 0.18eV for high-k nMOS, (b) 0.14eV for high-k pMOS, and (c) 0.5eV for SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOS device.

Table 3.1 Summary of  $E_a$ ,  $\tau_1$ , amplitude of the current jumps ( $\Delta I_d$ ),  $\tau_2/\tau_1$ , and the calculated  $N_t$  for high-k nMOS, high-k pMOS, and SiO<sub>2</sub> pMOS devices.

	High-k nMOS	High-k pMOS	SiO <sub>2</sub> pMOS
$E_a$ (eV)	0.18	0.14	0.5
$\tau_1$	on the order of 10 <sup>-2</sup> s		
$\Delta I_d$	several tens of nA		
$\langle \tau_2/\tau_1 \rangle$	3.4	3.06	3.11
$N_t$ (*10 <sup>10</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup> )	8.8	N.A.#	3.5

# Reliable hole effective mass in high-k is not reported in literature to date.

Table 3.2 Summary of the values used in the text.

Constant	Value	Note
$m_{ox,h}^*$	$0.42m_0$ [3.20]	hole effective mass in $SiO_2$
$m_k^*$	$0.18m_0$ [3.15]	
$\Phi_B$	3.2eV	
$E_t^{\&}$	1.36eV	high-k nMOS
	4.7eV	$SiO_2$ pMOS Si/ $SiO_2$ valence band offset

& Although the knowledge of exact trap energy is difficult to obtain, the energy aligned to the applied  $V_g$  (see Fig. 3.8) is used here for high-k devices. However, because around every 2.5eV change translates into a 10% variation in trap density, the effect of  $E_t$  uncertainty can be ignored. Furthermore, the intention of the work is to provide a theoretical basis for the proposed technique, not to give exact numbers.

