



RELIABILITY AND FAILURE MECHANISMS OF INTEGRATED CIRCUITS AND DEVICES

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IS RELIABILITY IMPORTANT ?



Some famous examples of the consequences of insufficient reliability



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OUTLINE

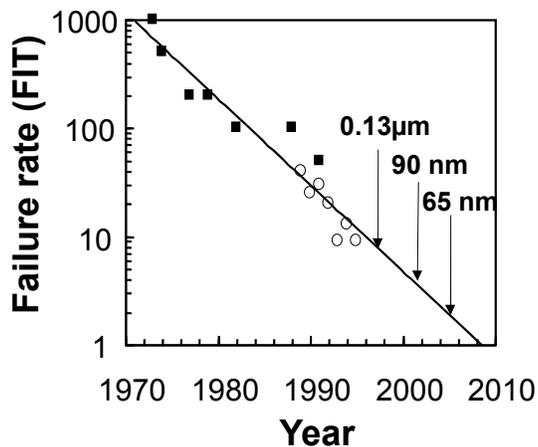
- ➔ 1. Introduction
2. Basic reliability concepts
3. Time-dependent Dielectric Breakdown (TDDB)
4. Hot carrier degradation
5. Bias-Temperature Instability (NBTI)

WHY IS RELIABILITY IMPORTANT ?

Reliability is becoming a major bottleneck in the further downscaling of VLSI technologies

- Increasing fields and current densities
- Increasing power density and chip temperatures
- Increasing number of interfaces
- Increasing process complexity
- Introduction of new materials (high k, low k, Cu, metal gate)
- Increasing failure rate requirements

MARKET CONTINUOUSLY DEMANDS FOR HIGHER RELIABILITY LEVELS



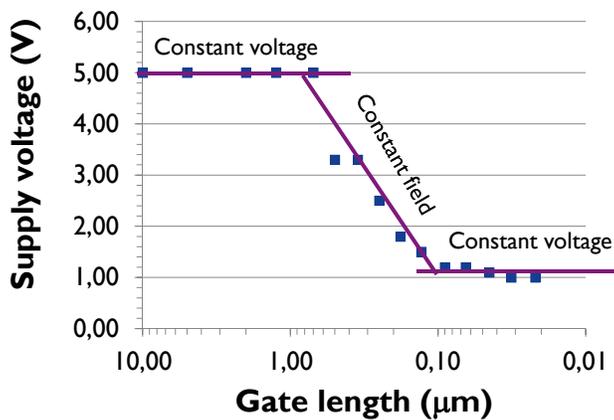
Maximum failure rate and defect density requirements are continuously increasing

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Power supply voltage evolution



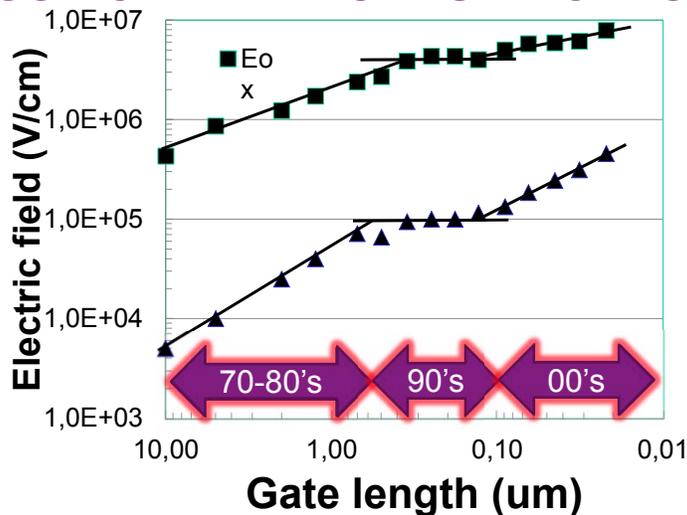
Power supply voltage is saturating at about 1V due to non-scaling of subthreshold slope

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ELECTRIC FIELDS IN OXIDE AND IN SILICON STARTED TO INCREASE AGAIN !



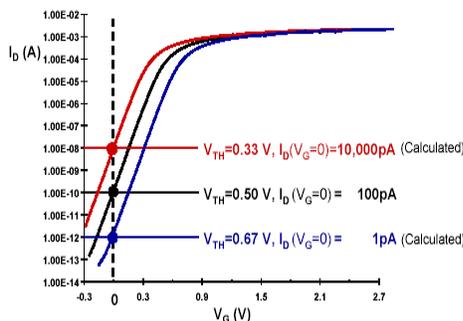
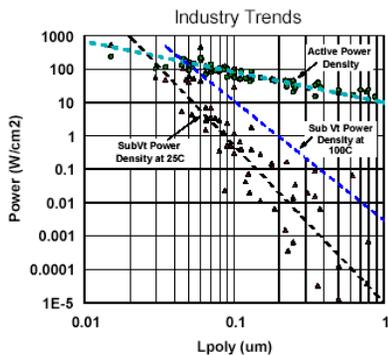
Third scaling period: renewed constant voltage scaling due to non-scaling subthreshold slope will have new implications on reliability !

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POWER DENSITY INCREASES



Power density will soon be dominated by static power !

D. Cox, IRPS Tutorial 2004

Dynamic :

$$P_{\text{dyn}} = \alpha \cdot V_{\text{dd}} \cdot V_{\text{swing}} \cdot C_{\text{eff}} \cdot f$$

Static :

$$P_{\text{stat}} = V_{\text{dd}} \cdot I_{\text{leak}}$$

Almost all reliability problems are accelerated by Temperature !

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TECHNOLOGY TRENDS

Performance requirements push intrinsic reliability of materials to the limit

- ▶ Gate oxide fields > 5MV/cm
- ▶ Interconnect current densities > 5×10^5 A/cm²

New materials introduced

- ▶ 70's: Si, Al, SiO₂ (oxides), Si₃N₄ (nitrides)
- ▶ 80-90's: Ti-silicide, Co-silicide, W, TiN, Al-Cu
- ▶ 2000: high k gate dielectrics (Hf-oxide, Zr-oxide, Ta-oxide), low k dielectrics, Cu metallization
- ▶ 2010: Ge, III-V, CNT, graphene ???

HUGE RELIABILITY CHALLENGES AHEAD OF US !

- ▶ high k gate dielectrics for logic and memory applications (HfO₂, HfSiON, Al₂O₃, etc.)
- ▶ metal gates (TaN, TiN, RuO, etc.)
- ▶ ferroelectric materials (PZT, BST, etc.)
- ▶ phase change materials, Resistive RAM materials
- ▶ nanodevices (MuGFET, Finfet, Ge, III-V devices, TFET's, CNT, nanowires, graphene devices)
- ▶ low k dielectrics/barrier materials/airgaps
- ▶ Cu metallization, CNT interconnects, Cu contacts,

Unknown reliability behavior and/or new failure mechanisms !

Speed of introduction exceeds capabilities to explore reliability performance

MAIN ON-CHIP RELIABILITY FAILURE MECHANISMS

- 1) Time-dependent dielectric breakdown
- 2) Hot carrier degradation
- 3) Bias-Temperature Instability
- 4) Electromigration
- 5) Stress voiding
- 6) Interconnect dielectric breakdown/ stability
- 7) Electrostatic Discharge sensitivity

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MAIN OFF-CHIP RELIABILITY FAILURE MECHANISMS

- 1) Creep
- 2) Fatigue
- 3) Stiction
- 4) Corrosion
- 5) Electromigration
- 6) Charging

Reliability needs a broad field of disciplines and expertises going from device physics, material science, surface chemistry, electrical and physical characterisation

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OUTLINE

1. Introduction
- ➔ 2. Basic reliability concepts
3. Time-dependent Dielectric Breakdown (TDDB)
4. Hot carrier degradation
5. Bias-Temperature Instability (NBTI)

DEFINITIONS

Reliability = probability that an item will

- perform a **required function**
- under **stated conditions**
- for a **stated period of time**

probability: probabilistic models/statistical methods

- ▶ random variables, sample populations
- ▶ density functions (p.d.f., c.d.f.)
- ▶ mean time, median time-to-failure, failure rate

required function: includes definition of failure

- ▶ specification of satisfactory operation

stated conditions: total physical environment

- ▶ mechanical, thermal, environmental, electrical conditions

stated period of time: concept of lifetime

- ▶ required lifetime depends on application: telecom, consumer, space, automotive

DEFINITIONS

Failure = termination of the ability of an item to perform a **required function** (within previously specified limits)

Failure mechanism = the physical, electrical, chemical, thermal or any other **process** which leads to a failure.

Examples:

Devices

hot carrier injection

NBTI

Gate oxide breakdown

Interconnects

electromigration

stress migration

low k dielectric BD

Packages

humidity/corrosion

moisture penetration

die cracking

bond wire fracture

DEFINITIONS

Failure mode = consequence of the mechanism through which the failure occurs

or

that characteristic of the device for which it has been named a failure

Examples:

Devices/interconnects

internal short or open

threshold voltage shift

parametric variation

Junction/gate leakage

Circuits

shift in access time

power supply current increase

functional failure

stuck-at fault

DEFINITIONS

Intrinsic failures:

- ▶ inherent in the design and materials used
- ▶ managed by insuring that they occur beyond useful life of a product, by limiting loads that drive the failure mechanisms (e.g. maximum field, maximum current density, thermal management)

Extrinsic failures:

- ▶ due to process or manufacturing defects or to misapplications such as overload, EOS, ESD etc.
- ▶ managed by improving manufacturing process, reducing defect density
- ▶ usually product reliability is determined by extrinsic failures

RELIABILITY AND FAILURE FUNCTIONS

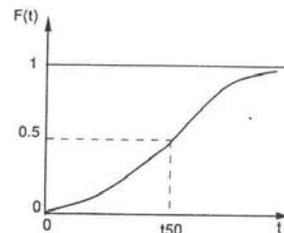
Random variable x: **time t**

a) Cumulative Failure Function: $F(t)$

$$t < 0 \rightarrow F(t) = 0$$

$$0 \leq t \leq t' \rightarrow 0 \leq F(t) \leq F(t')$$

$$t \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow F(t) \rightarrow 1$$



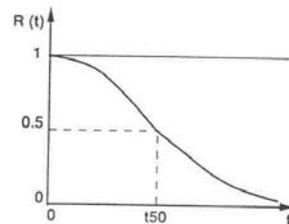
$F(t)$ = probability that a device will fail at or before time t
= **percentage of failures at time t**

b) Reliability function: $R(t)$

$R(t)$ = Probability that a device will survive to time t without failure

= **percentage of good devices at time t**

$$R(t) = 1 - F(t)$$



RELIABILITY AND FAILURE FUNCTIONS

c) Failure density function: $f(t) := p.d.f.$

$f(t)dt$ = probability that an item will fail between time t and $t + dt$

$$f(t) = \frac{dF(t)}{dt} = -\frac{dR(t)}{dt}$$

$$F(t_1) = \int_0^{t_1} f(t)dt$$

$$R(t_1) = 1 - \int_0^{t_1} f(t)dt = \int_{t_1}^{\infty} f(t)dt$$

d) Mean time to failure: MTTF

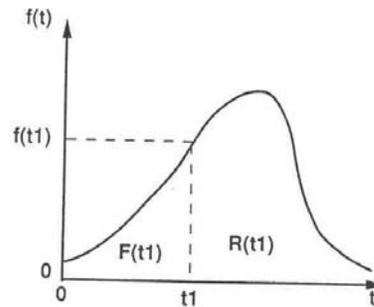
MTTF = mean value to the p.d.f.

$$MTTF = \int_0^{\infty} tf(t)dt$$

e) Median time to failure: MTF

MTF = median value to the p.d.f. $f(t)$

MTF = time when $F(t) = 50\% = t_{50}$



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RELIABILITY AND FAILURE FUNCTIONS

f) Failure rate

-instantaneous failure rate or hazard rate:

$$\lambda_i(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(t + \Delta t) - F(t)}{R(t) \times \Delta t}$$

fraction of failures in a time period $(t, t + \Delta t)$ of those units that were good at the beginning of this period, divided by the period Δt

$$= \frac{1}{R(t)} \times \frac{dF(t)}{dt}$$

$\lambda_i(t)$ = probability that a device will fail in the time interval $(t, t + \Delta t)$, given that it has survived at time t

- cumulative failure rate = average hazard rate

$$\lambda_c(t) = \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \lambda_i(t)dt$$

$$H(t) = \int_0^t \lambda_i(t)dt = \text{cumulative hazard function}$$

Units of failure rate: # Failures/(devices x hours)

Failure unit: 1 FIT = 1 failure/ 10^9 device hours = 8.76 ppm/year

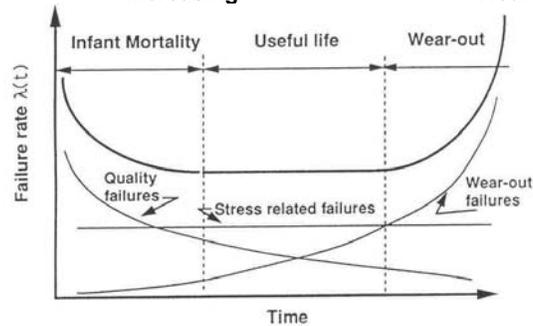
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HAZARD RATE AND BATHTUB CURVE

If hazard rate $\lambda_1(t)$ is $\begin{cases} \text{Decreasing} \\ \text{Constant} \\ \text{increasing} \end{cases}$ With time $\begin{cases} \text{Infant mortality} \\ \text{Useful life} \\ \text{Wear-out} \end{cases}$

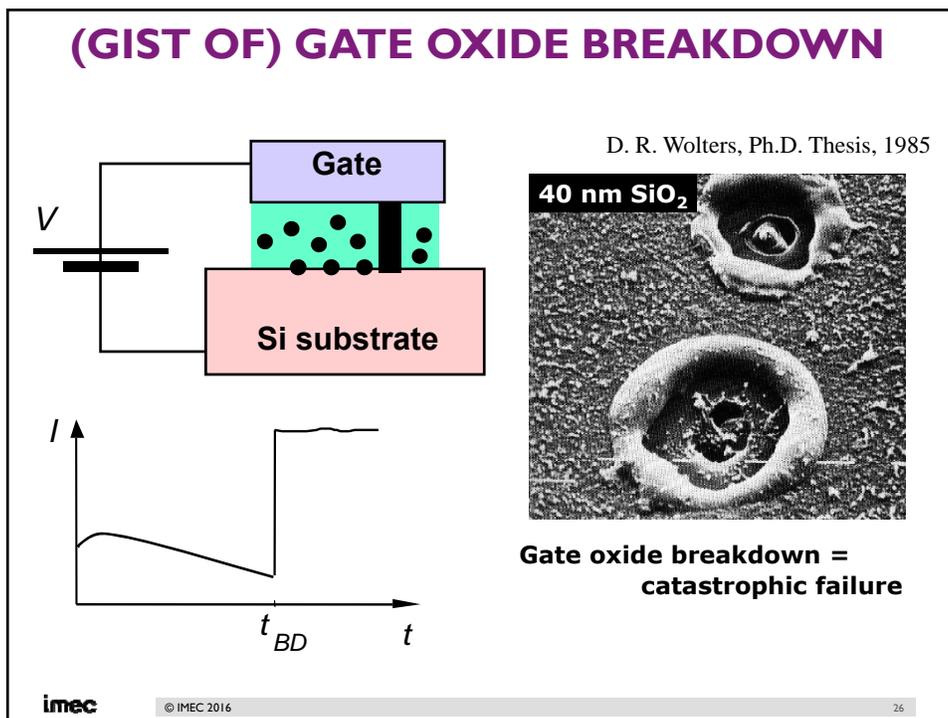
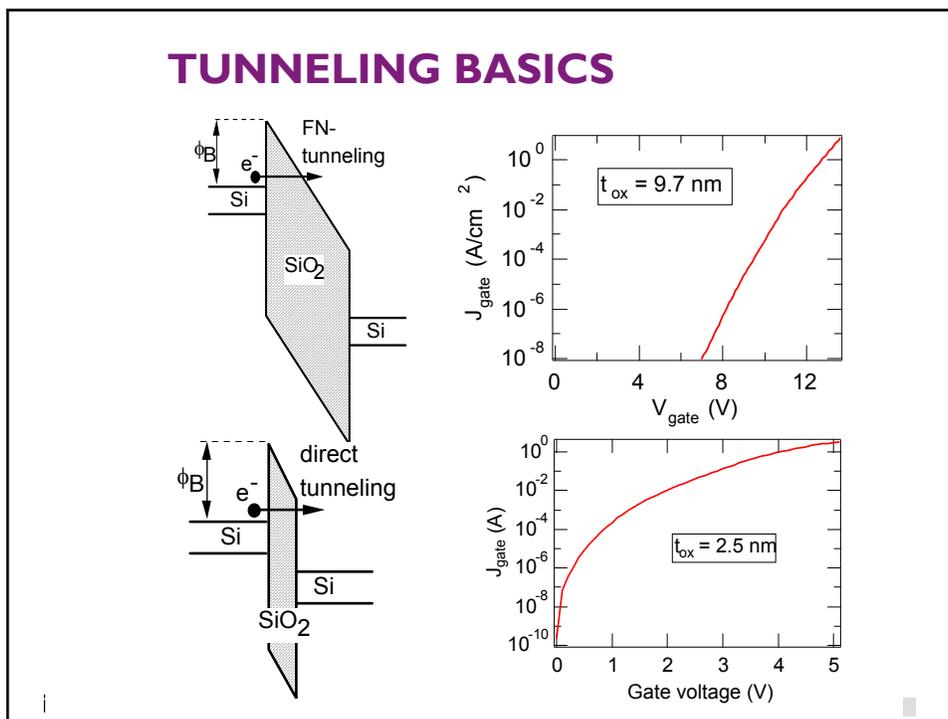


Bath tub curve = sum of 3 curves

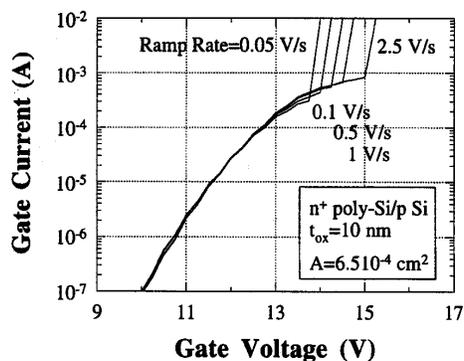
- 1) **quality failures**: weaker parts (**manufacturing defects**) are getting removed from the population
- 2) **stress related failures**: failures occur occasionally at a constant rate
- 3) **wear-out failures**: accumulated damage takes its toll, devices start to fail with increasing frequency

OUTLINE

1. Introduction
2. Basic reliability concepts
- ➔ 3. Time-dependent Dielectric Breakdown (TDDB)
 - Basics
 - Statistics
 - Acceleration model
 - Impact on circuits
4. Hot carrier degradation
5. Bias-Temperature Instability (NBTI)



RAMPED VOLTAGE TEST



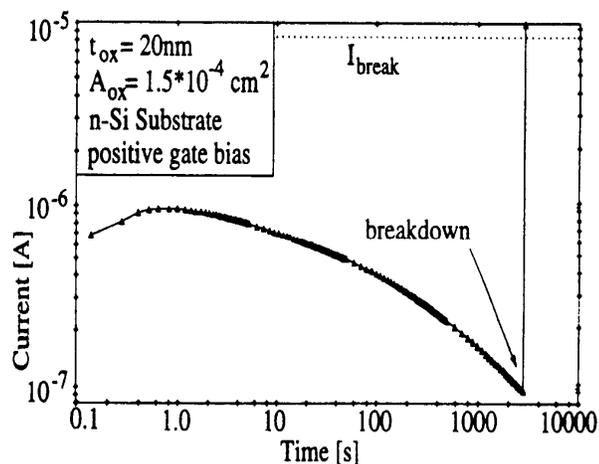
- Apply a fast **voltage ramp** (typically 1-100V/s) and measure current
- **Breakdown voltage** is defined as the gate voltage at which a sudden current increase occurs
- Fixed **trigger current** is set (100uA to 5mA)
- **Sensitive to series resistance effects !**

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CONSTANT VOLTAGE STRESS

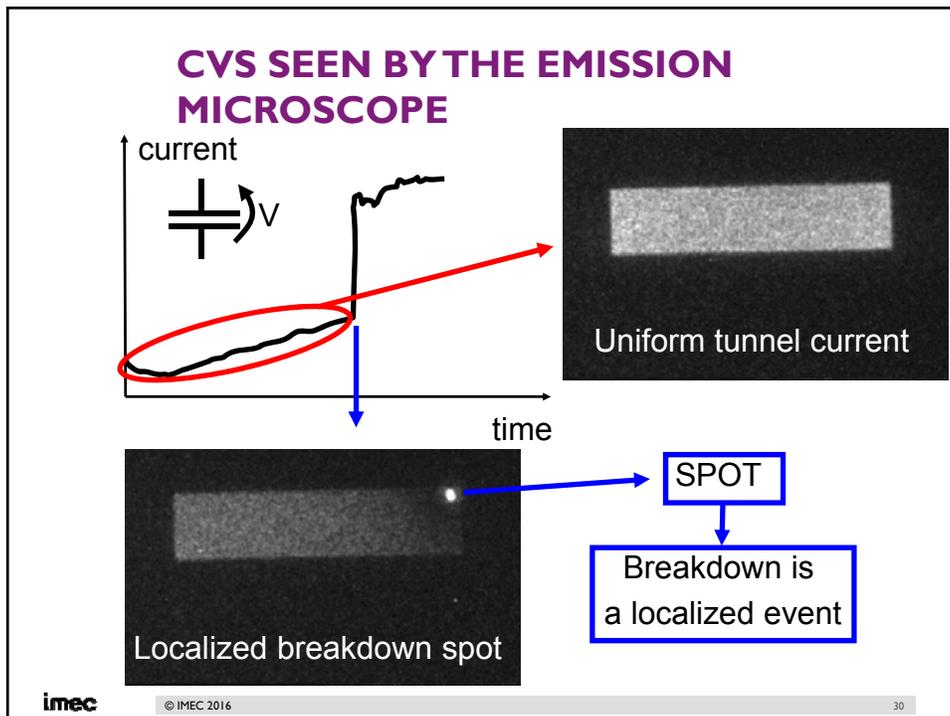
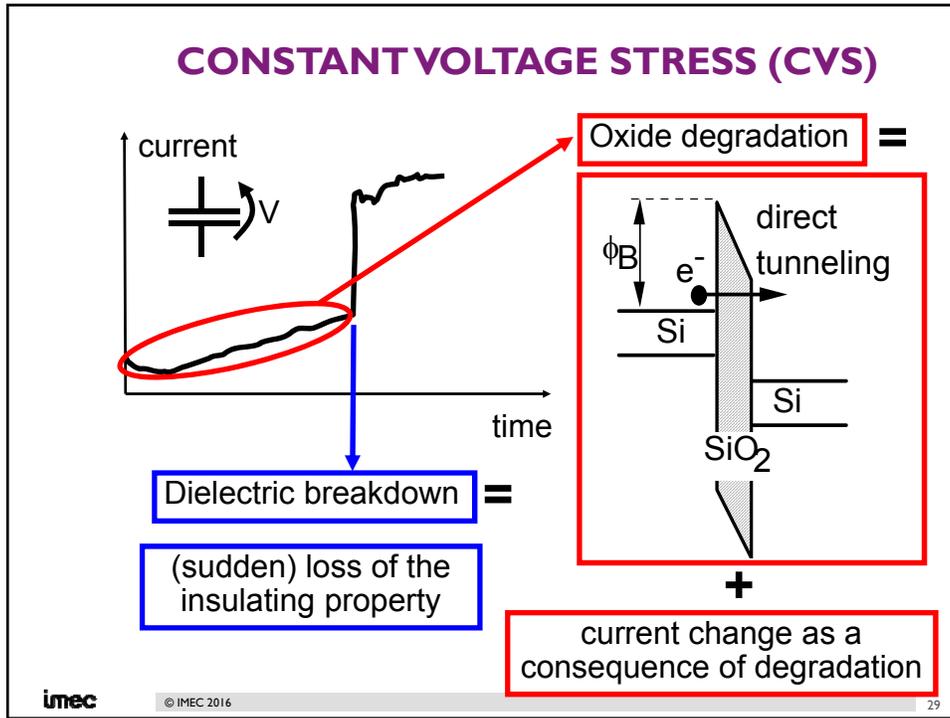


Oxide breakdown is a time-dependent phenomenon
 TDDB = Time dependent Dielectric Breakdown

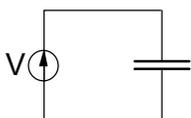
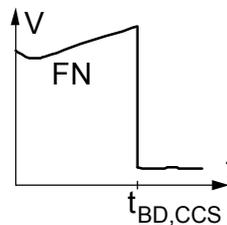
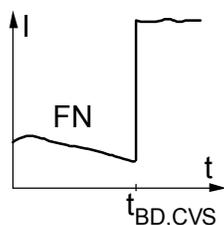
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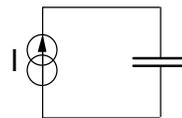


TDDB: CVS AND CCS



Constant Voltage Stress (CVS)

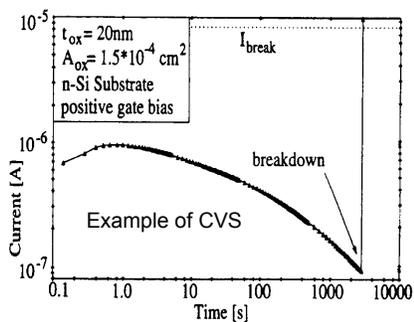
- average field is constant
- current increase: net positive charge; current decrease : net negative charge
- at fixed V_g : tbd decrease with thinner oxides



Constant Current Stress (CCS)

- net positive charge => decrease of average field (and voltage)
- net negative charge => increase applied voltage
- at fixed J : tbd increases with thinner oxides

CHARGE-TO-BREAKDOWN



Degradation scales with charge fluence: for higher currents, lower t_{BD}

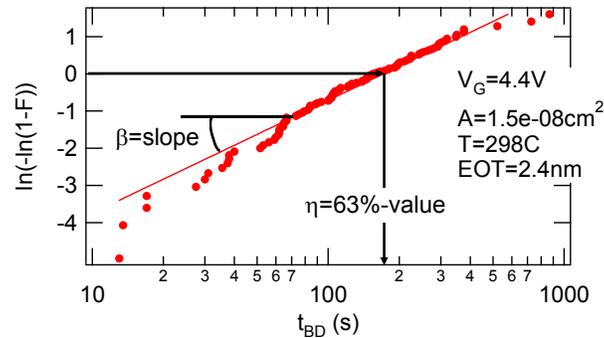
Charge - to - breakdown :

$$Q_{BD} = \int_0^{t_{BD}} J_n dt' \quad \text{or for CCS: } Q_{BD} = J_n \cdot t_{BD}$$

Q_{BD} is one of the main BD figure-of-merits of a technology: typically between 1-100 C/cm²

When oxide thickness scales down: Q_{bd} -value becomes less relevant

TIME-TO-BREAKDOWN = STATISTICALLY DISTRIBUTED PARAMETER



- Time-to-breakdown is Weibull distributed
- Monomodal Weibull distribution is described as:

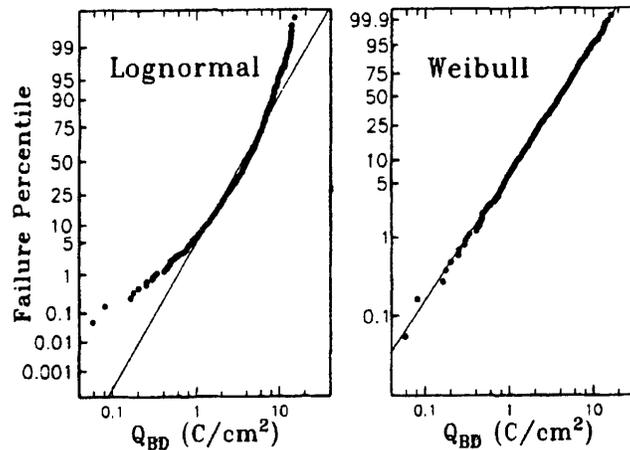
$$F(t) = 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{t}{\eta}\right)^\beta\right] \Rightarrow \ln(-\ln(1-F)) = \beta \ln(t) - \beta \ln(\eta)$$

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BREAKDOWN STATISTICS



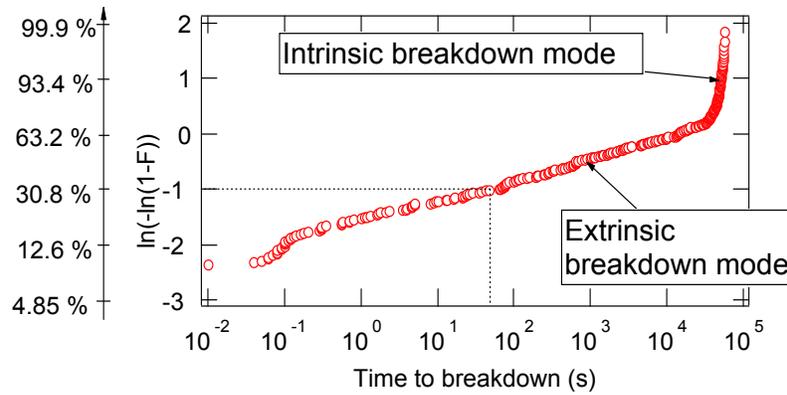
Oxide breakdown (t_{BD} , Q_{BD}) is Weibull distributed
 Extrapolation towards low percentile from lognormal distribution yield overoptimistic results !

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TWO BREAKDOWN MODES



Intrinsic BD = caused by electrical stress-induced defect generation (creation of neutral electron traps)

Extrinsic BD = caused by process-induced imperfections (impurities, roughness, thinning, pinholes, structural weakness)

EXTRINSIC BREAKDOWN



Example of extrinsic breakdown

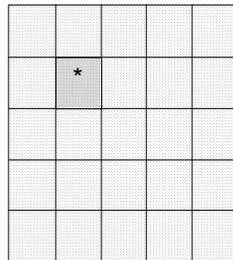
- ▶ Process-induced damage at the gate isolation edge causes multiple breakdowns after continued stress

EXTRINSIC RELIABILITY

Influencing factors:

- substrate quality (epi vs Cz substrates)
- crystalline defects in the silicon: stacking faults !
- wafer cleaning procedures
- oxidation procedures (wet, dry, post-oxidation anneal)
- purity of chemicals
- cleanliness of oxidation furnace
- metal contamination (e.g. heating elements in furnace)
- mobile ion contamination (Na)
- photolithographic related defects
- mechanical stress buildup
- post-oxidation processing: e.g. plasma induced damage

AREA DEPENDENCE OF TBD



$t_{BD,small} > t_{BD,large}$

For $A_1 > A_2$: series rule applies:

$$F_{A_1}(t) = 1 - \prod_n (1 - F_{A_2}(t)) \quad \text{with } n = \frac{A_1}{A_2}$$

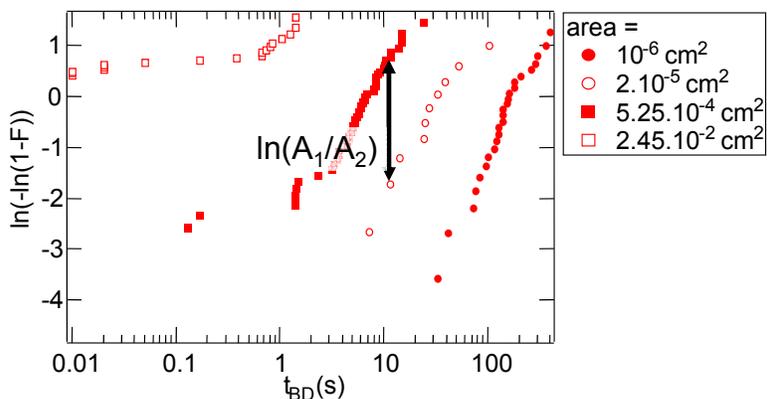
$$\begin{aligned} \ln(1 - F_{A_1}(t)) &= \sum_n \ln(1 - F_{A_2}(t)) \\ &= n \times \ln(1 - F_{A_2}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\ln(-\ln(1 - F_{A_1}(t))) = \ln\left(\frac{A_1}{A_2}\right) + \ln(-\ln(1 - F_{A_2}(t)))$$

The area effect: changing from A_1 to A_2 : distribution shift vertically over a distance $\ln(A_1 / A_2)$

The area dependence of breakdown: schematically

THE AREA SCALING EFFECT



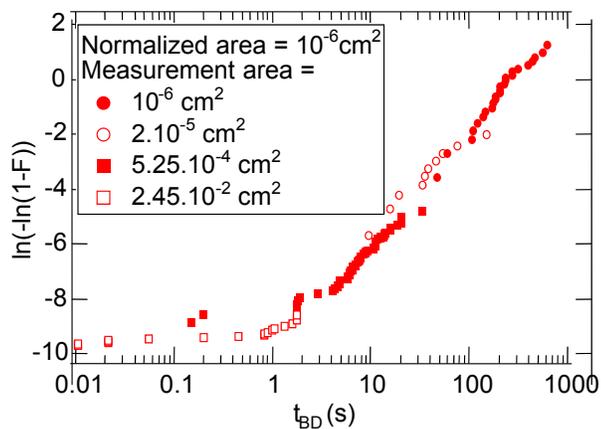
- Changing from A_1 to A_2 gives a vertical shift of $\ln(A_1/A_2)$
- For Weibull: $\eta_1 = \eta_2 (A_2/A_1)^{1/\beta}$
- Scaling of η is β -dependent
- Extrinsic breakdown can only be measured if gate area is large

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THE AREA SCALING EFFECT



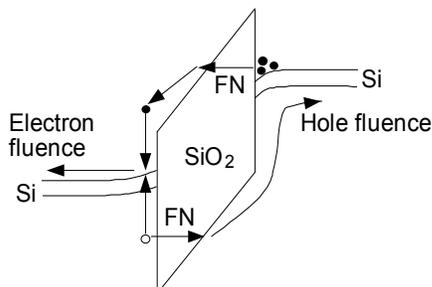
- Normalization of the breakdown distribution to a reference area is always possible
- Depending on test structure area different parts of the distribution are measured
- Allows to extract Weibull slope with higher accuracy

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BREAKDOWN MODEL



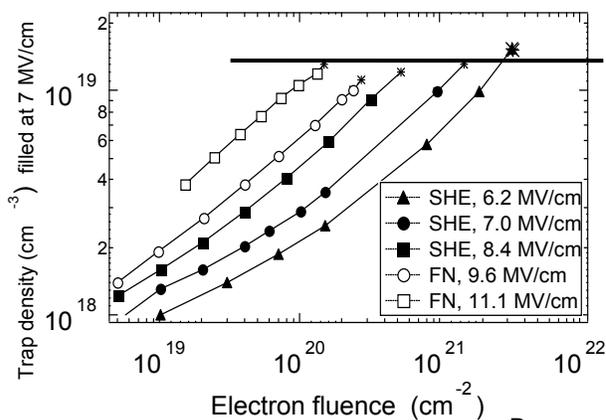
Breakdown model :

- electrons are tunneling
- gain energy in the oxide conduction band
- at anode: energy is transferred to holes

- 1) anode hole injection model: holes tunnel back and generate traps
- 2) hydrogen release model: H is released and moves through the oxide, generate traps

At critical trap density: breakdown occurs !

OXIDE DEGRADATION



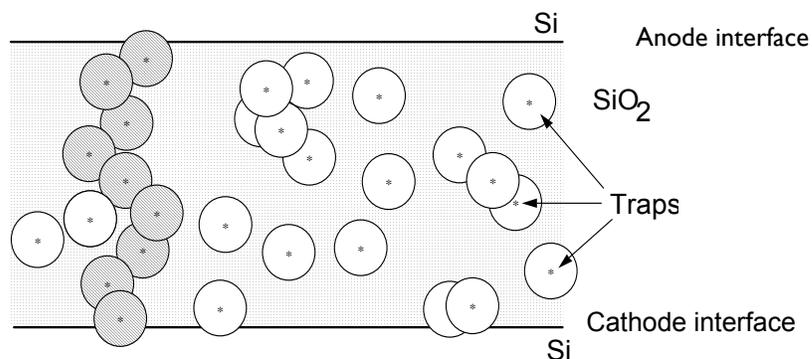
NBD = critical defect density

Decreases with Tox !

Degraeve et al, TED, p. 904 1998

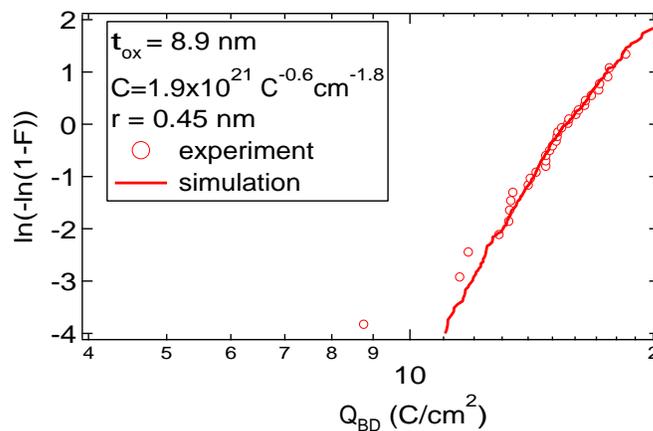
Breakdown occurs when a critical density of neutral electron traps is reached

PERCOLATION MODEL



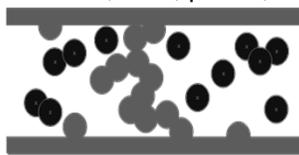
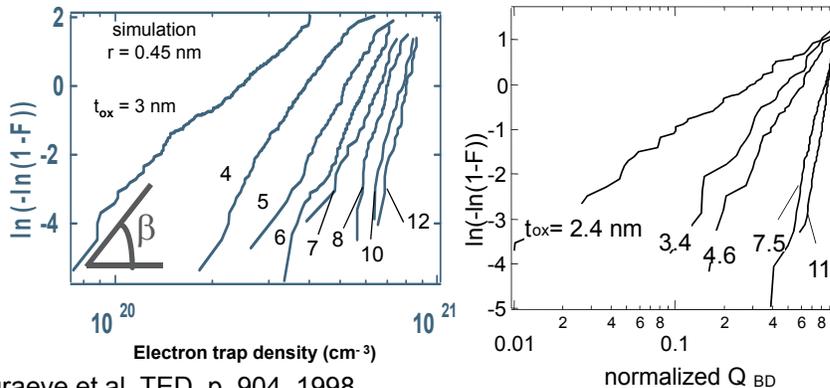
Electron traps are randomly generated in the oxide
 Trap is characterized by a sphere with constant radius r
Breakdown when conducting path is formed from anode to cathode
Critical trap density = total number of traps / testvolume

STATISTICAL MODELLING OF BREAKDOWN



Simulation fits experimental Q_{BD} -distribution very well

STATISTICAL MODELING OF BREAKDOWN



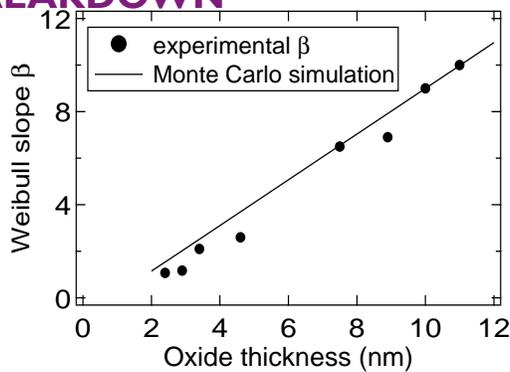
Statistics of percolation model explains decreasing Weibull slope (larger spread of t_{BD}) for decreasing oxide thickness

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STATISTICAL MODELING OF BREAKDOWN



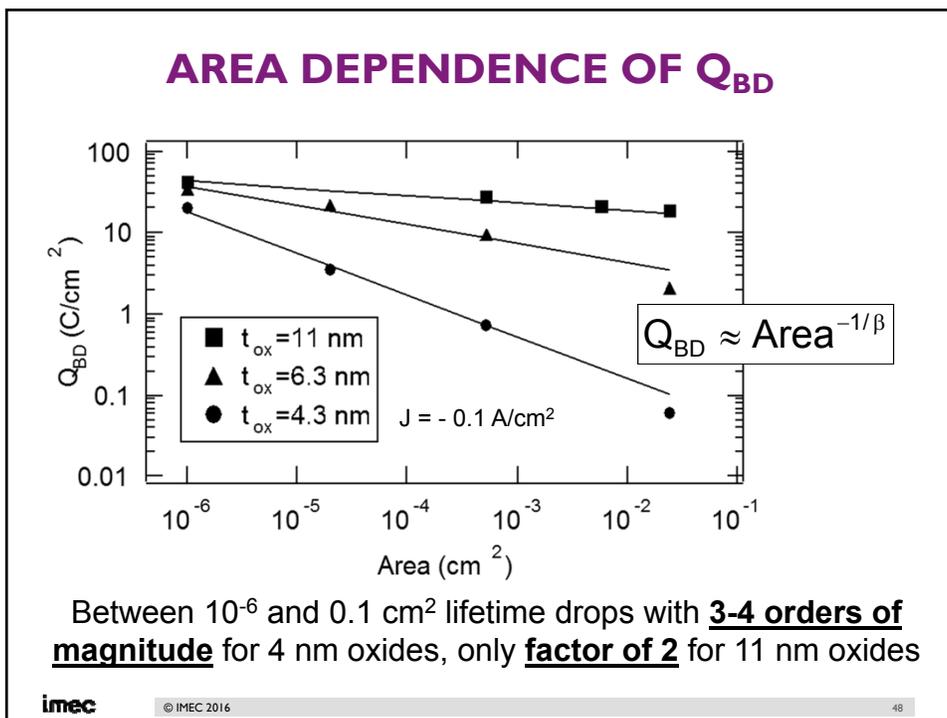
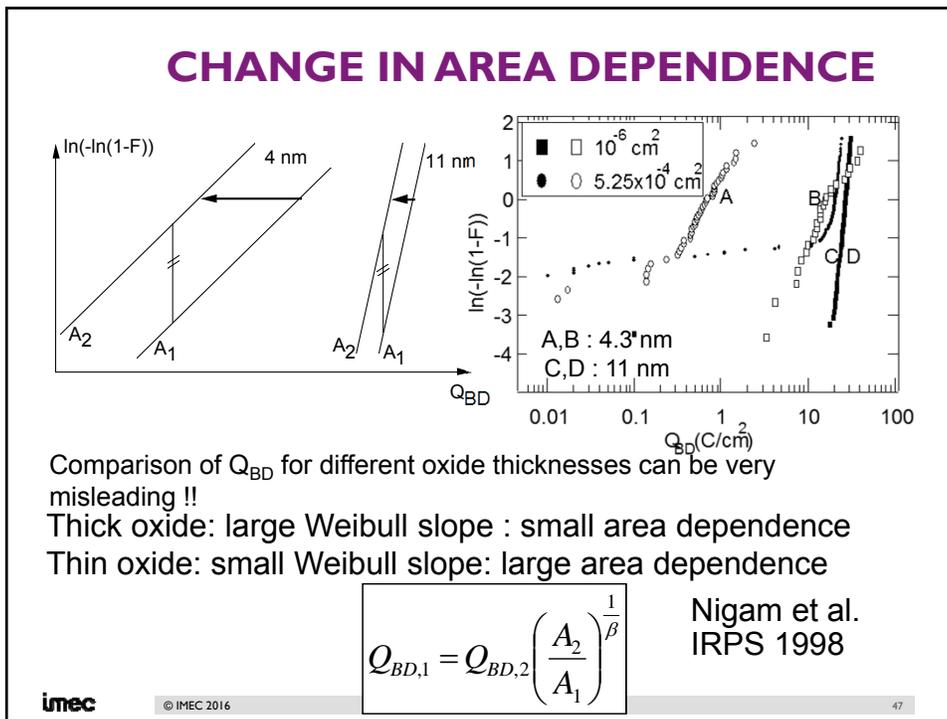
Degraeve et al, TED, p. 904, 1998

The decrease of the Weibull slope β for thin oxides is an **intrinsic statistical property** of the degradation mechanism

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STATISTICAL MODELING OF BREAKDOWN

Degraeve et al., TED 1998

Stathis et al., JAP, 1999

Critical electron trap density (N_{BD}) is reduced with oxide thickness scaling, which is also explained by percolation model

Trap size: 0.9 nm diameter (IMEC) to 2.5 nm (IBM)

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FIELD ACCELERATION MODELS

E-model

$$t_{BD} \approx \tau_0 \cdot \exp(-\gamma \cdot E_{ox})$$

Breakdown is not fluence driven
Based on Thermochemical model
Worst case ?

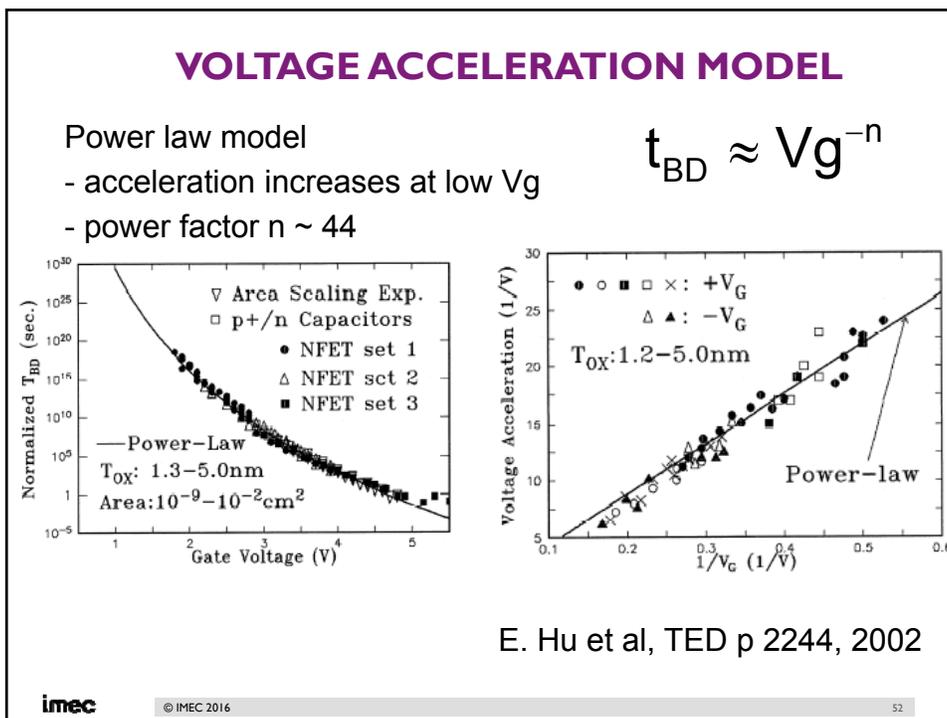
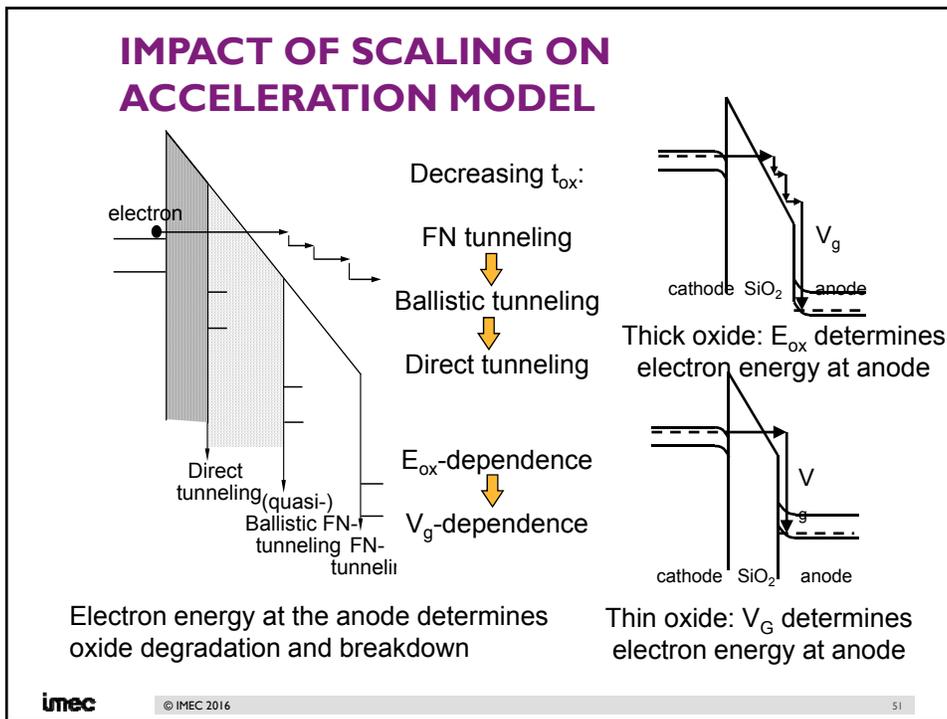
1/E-model

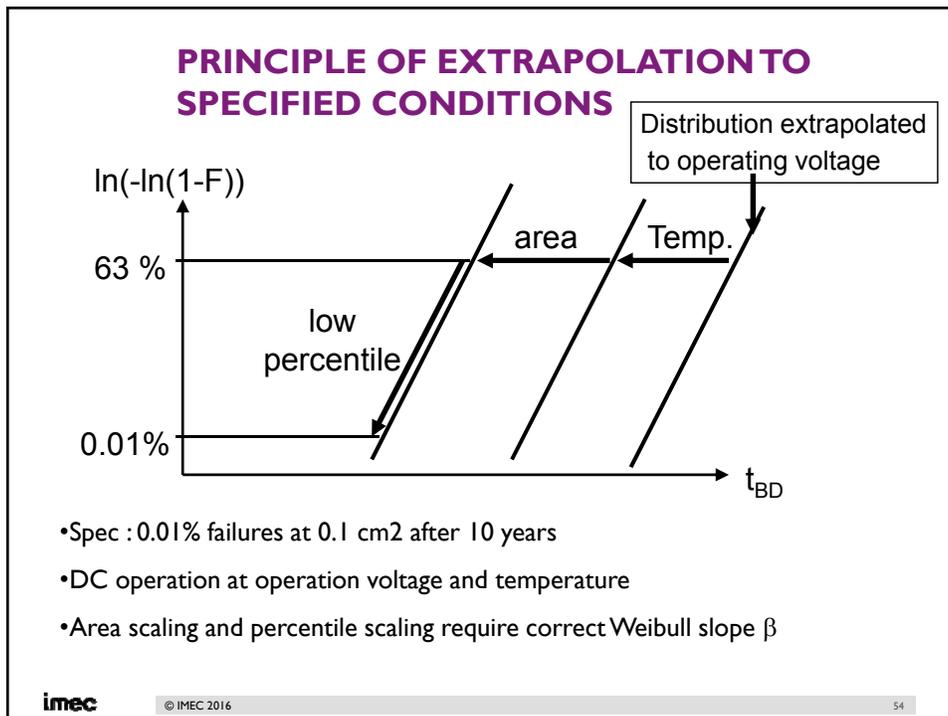
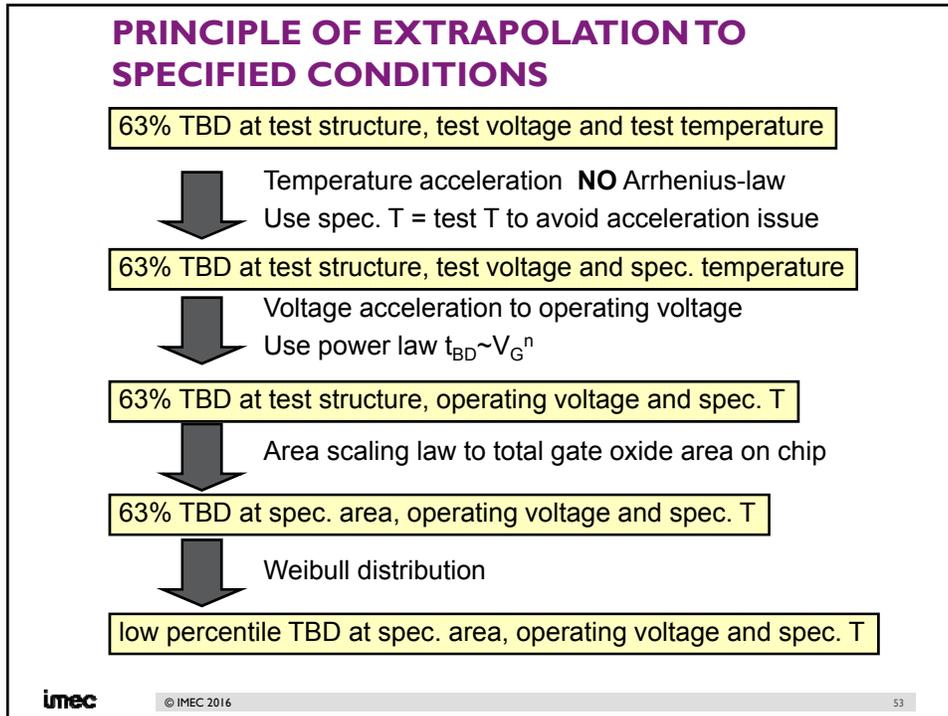
$$t_{BD} \approx \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left(\frac{G}{E_{ox}}\right)$$

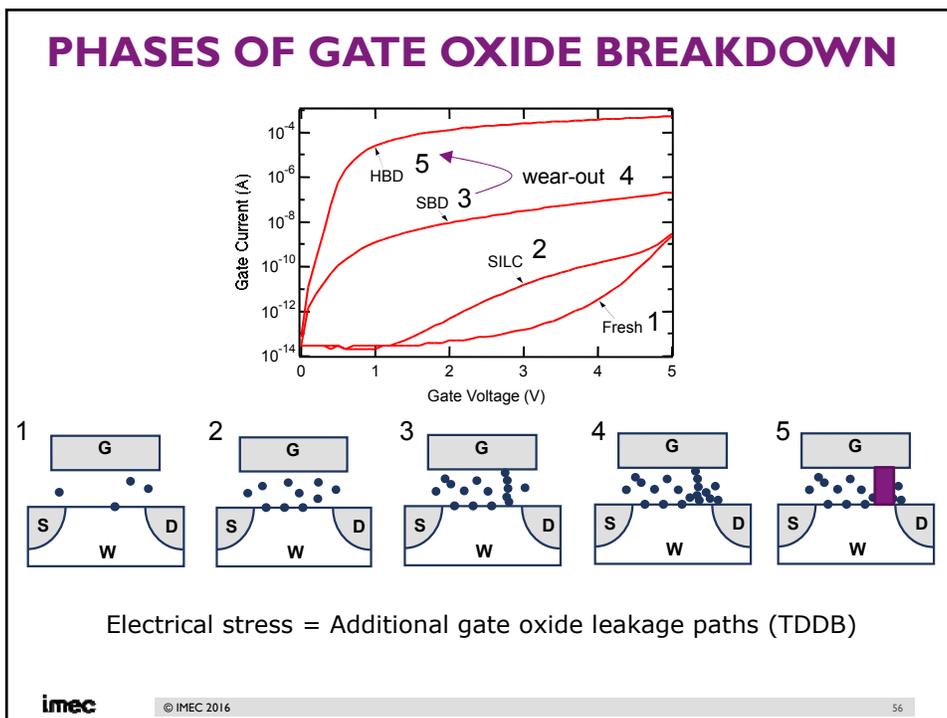
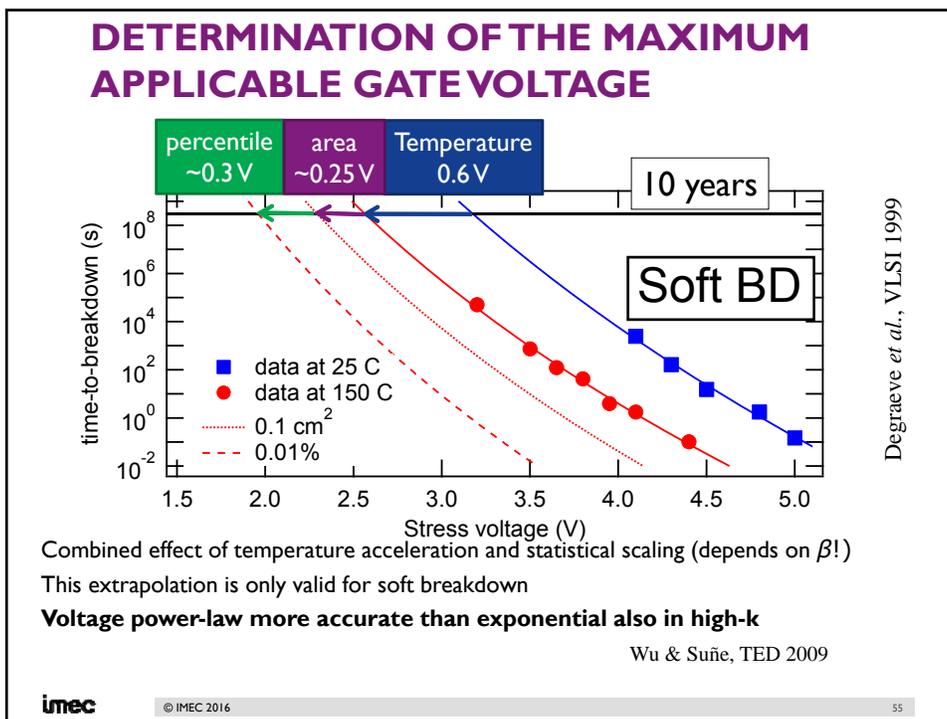
Breakdown is fluence driven
Based on Anode hole injection
Very optimistic- 1/E probably not valid at lower voltages

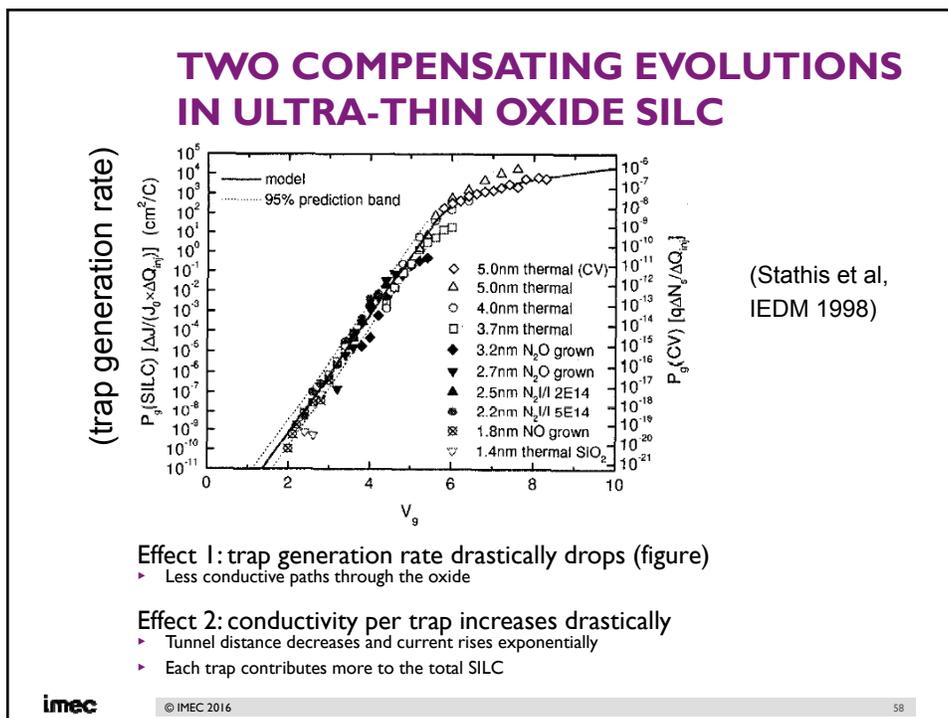
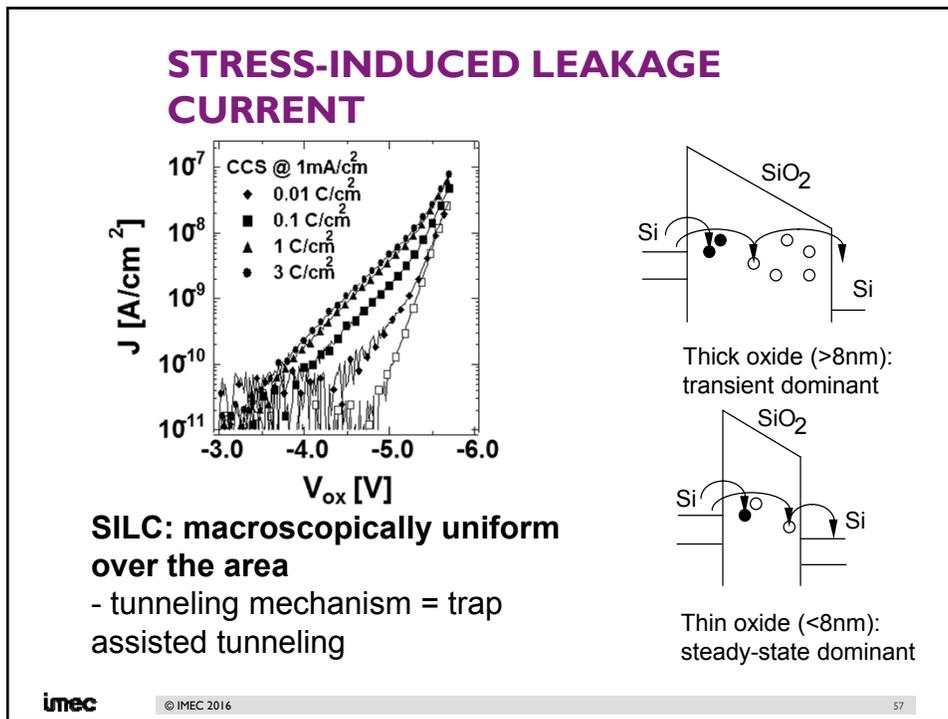
W. Hunter, IRW, 114 (1998) W. Hunter, IRPS, 37 (1996)

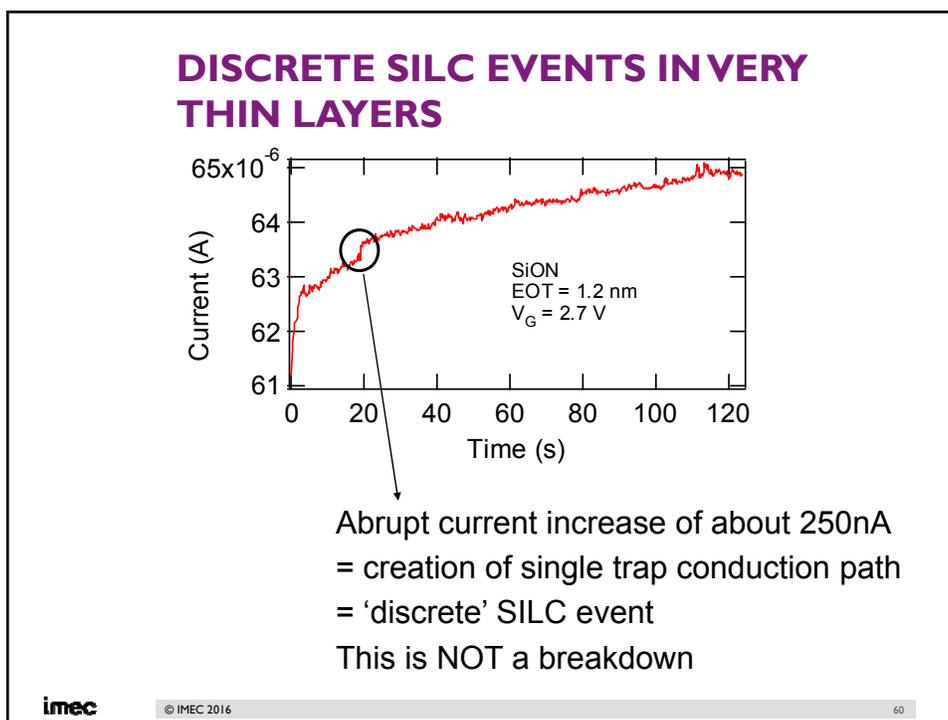
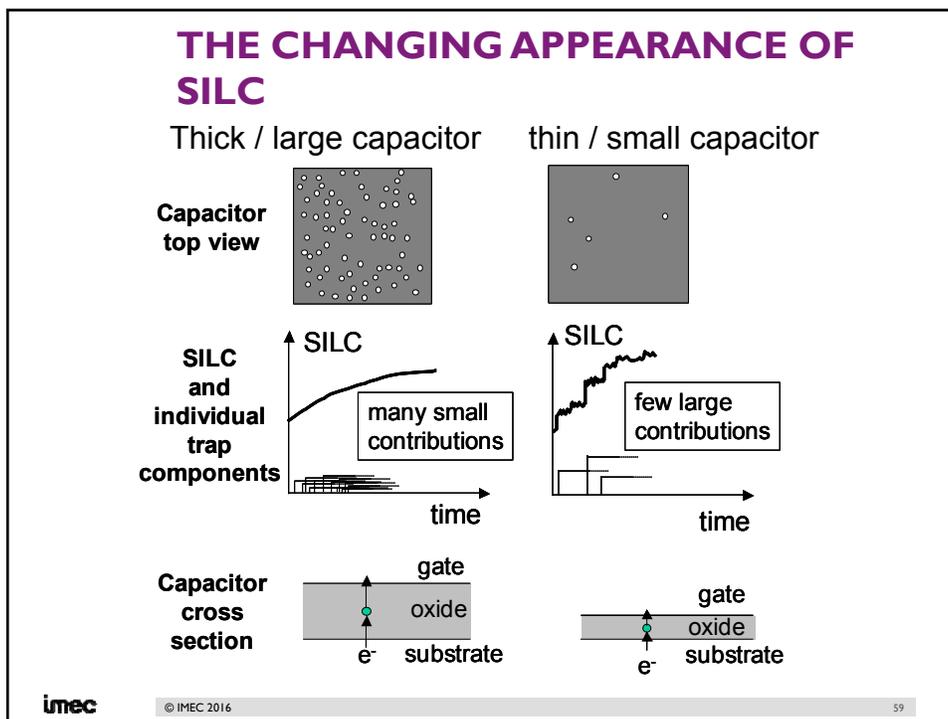
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TWO-TRAP CONDUCTION PATH

capacitor top view

dielectric

Percolation path with trap-assisted tunneling

- ▶ this is **Anomalous Stress-Induced Leakage Current** = a-SILC (non-volatile memories) (Okada et al. IEDM 2001, Degraeve et al., IEDM 2001)
- ▶ this is **Micro-Breakdown** (Cellere et al. TED 49(8), 2002) or **pre-Breakdown** (Degraeve et al, IEDM 2001)

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THIN OXIDE: MICRO-BREAKDOWNS

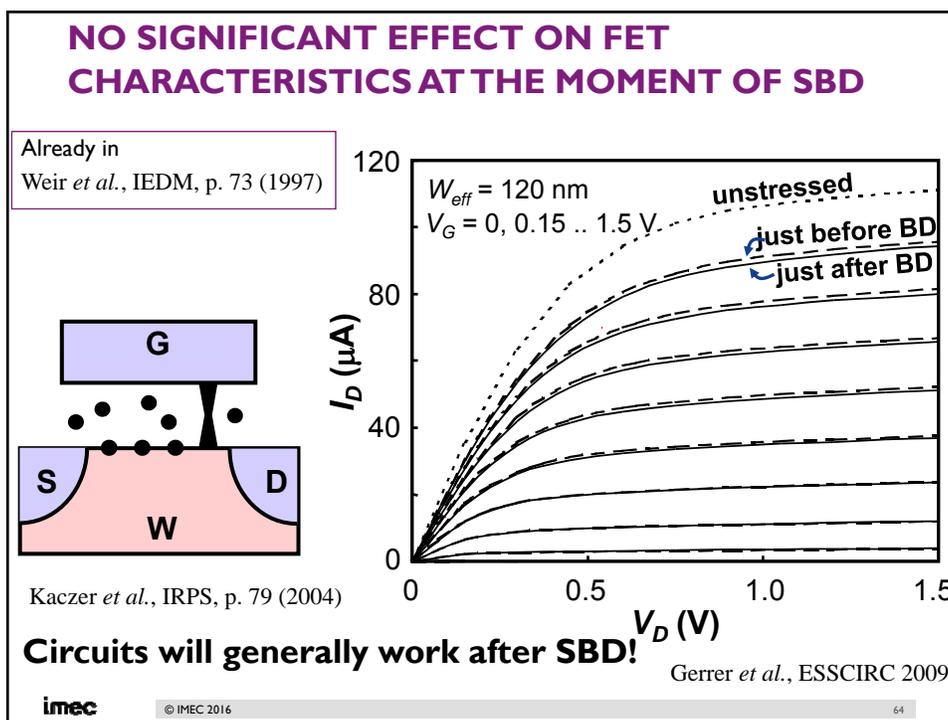
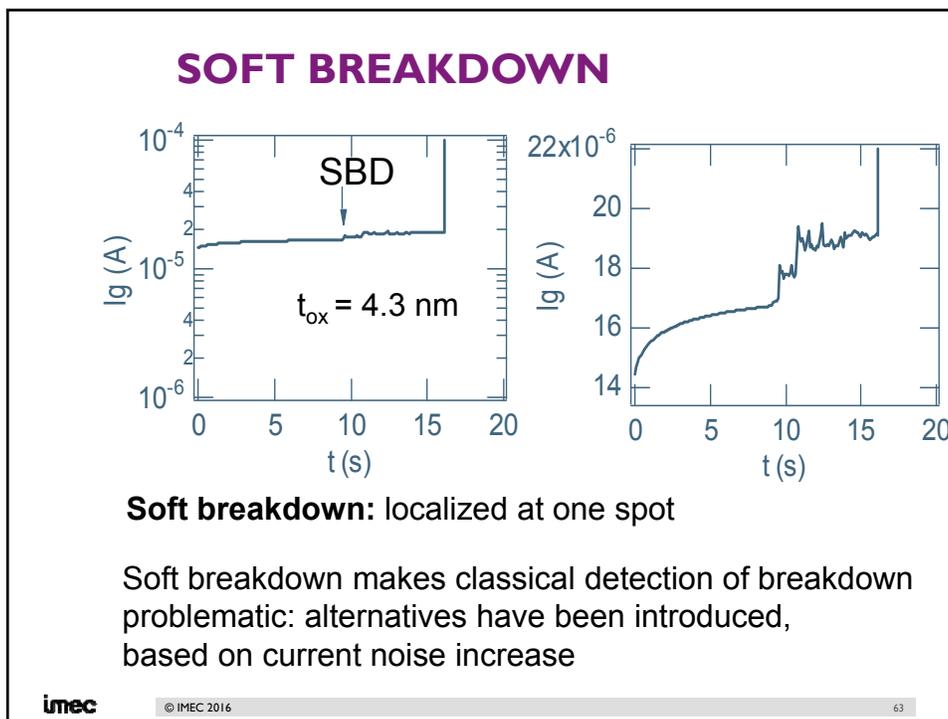
single trap conduction path

different statistics
different I_G-V_G

2-trap conduction path

- No significant change of the gate current noise after micro-BD
- Is this a breakdown or not?
 - ▶ Application dependent specifications needed

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OVERVIEW

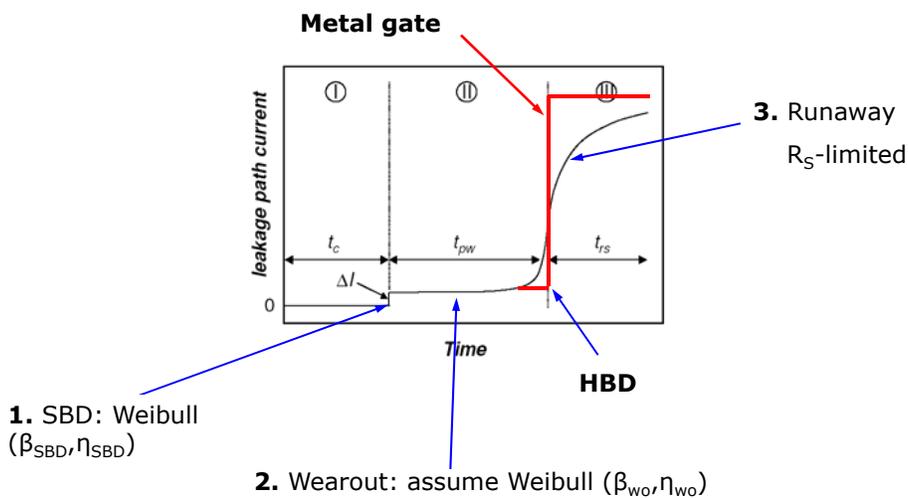
NAME	Conduction model	physical damage	Observable properties
SILC (=A-mode SILC)	trap-assisted tunneling	single trap	- no noise change - RTS behavior
Micro BD (=pre-BD, anomalous SILC)	trap-assisted tunneling	cluster of two traps	- no noise change - RTS behavior
Soft BD (=quasi BD, partial BD, B-mode SILC)	localized conduction over lowered barrier (quantum point model)	percolation path with limited wear out	noise increase
Hard BD	resistor (+diode)	percolation path with thermal damage	very large current increase

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PHASES OF DEGRADATION AND WEAR OUT IN THIN OXIDES

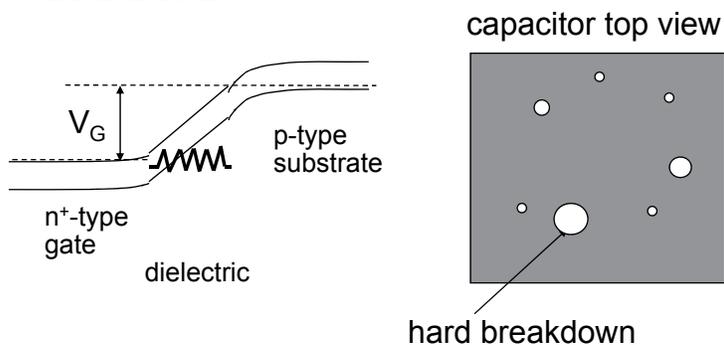


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CONDUCTION PATH + THERMAL DAMAGE



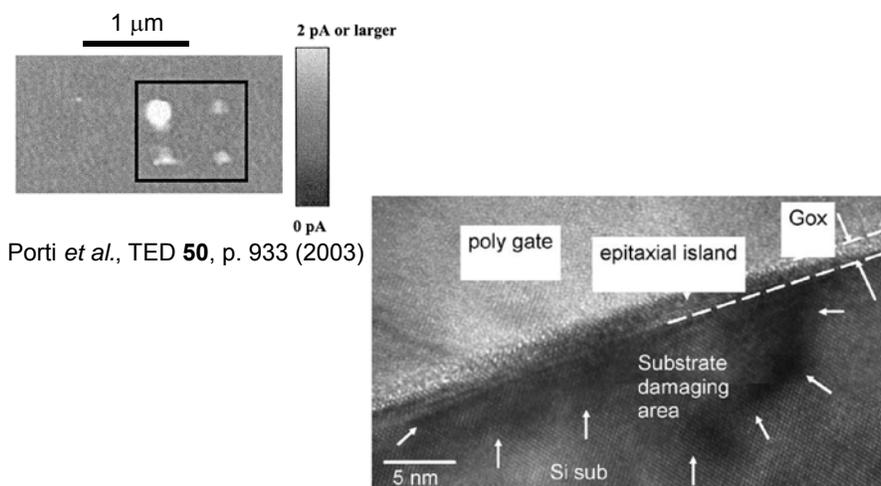
- Mass transport and Si regrowth in the breakdown spot (*Lei Jun Tang et al., TDMR 4(1), 2004*)
- Localized current flow through resistor (+diode) (*Kaczer et al. TED 49(3) 2002*)
- This is a **hard breakdown**

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HARD BREAKDOWN AND MASS TRANSPORT CONFIRMED BY AFM AND TEM



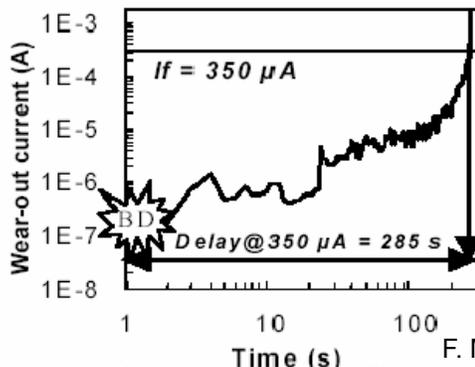
Tang *et al.*, TDMR 4, p. 38 (2004)

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SEARCHING MORE RELIABILITY MARGIN



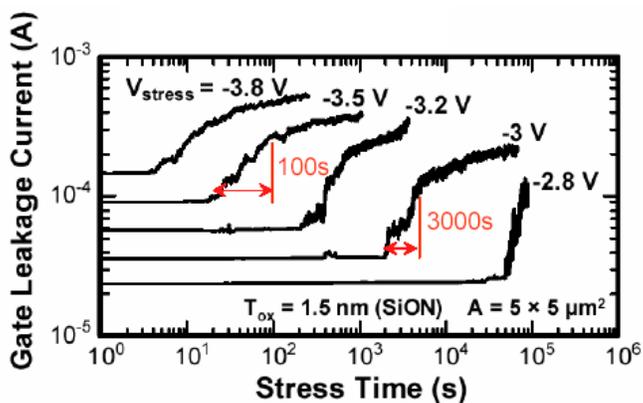
F. Monsieur et al, IRPS2002

At breakdown: leakage current is still low (soft breakdown)

Leakage path is wearing out as a function of time

Delay time is available until the leakage current reaches unacceptable levels

PROGRESSIVE BREAKDOWN

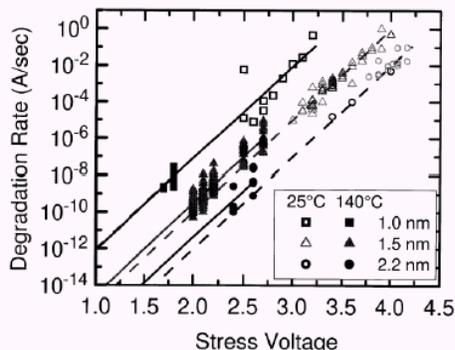


Hosoi et al, IEDM p. 155, 2002

Wearout of breakdown path progresses gradually, rate is lower at low stress voltages

IMPACT OF PROGRESSIVE BD ON RELIABILITY MARGIN

DR ≡ slope of I(t) between 10 μA and 100 μA



Post-SBD degradation rate depends on voltage:

>1mA/s at 4V

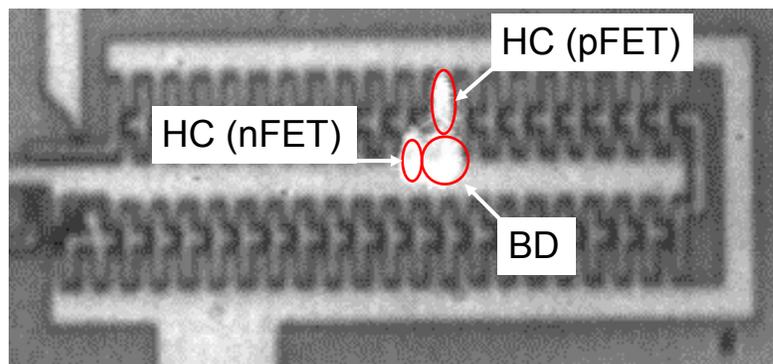
< 1nA/s at 2V

Extrapolations to 10fA/s at 1.2V

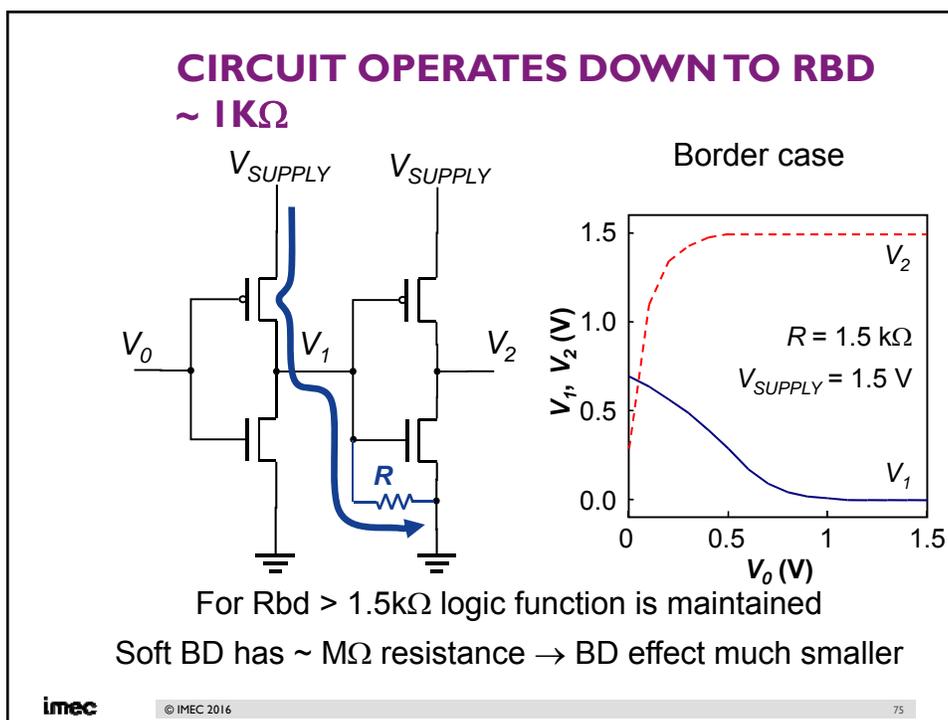
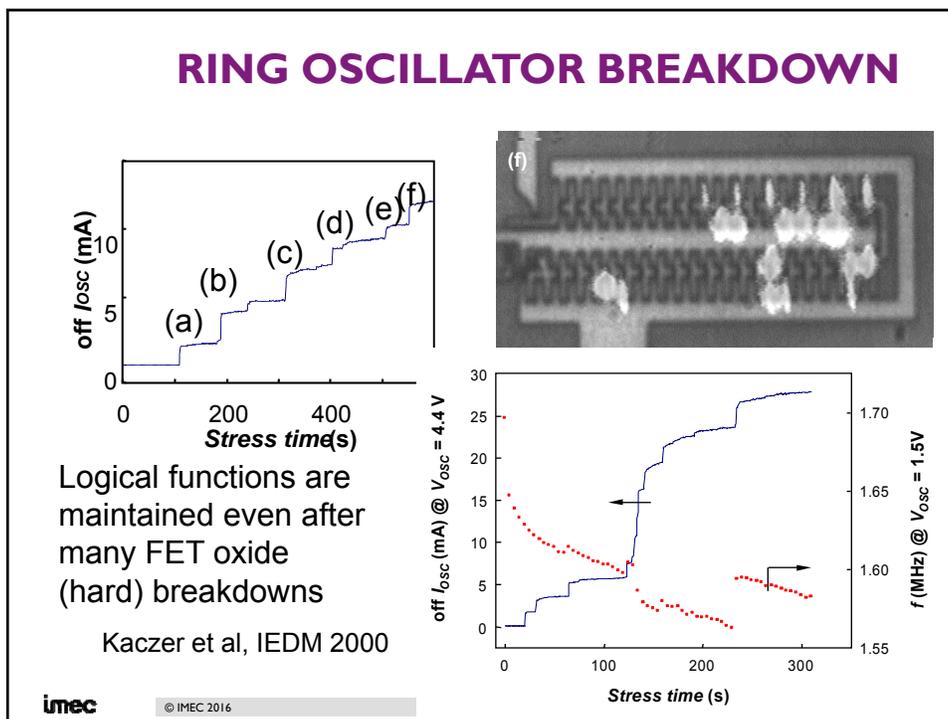
B. Linder et al, EDL 2002

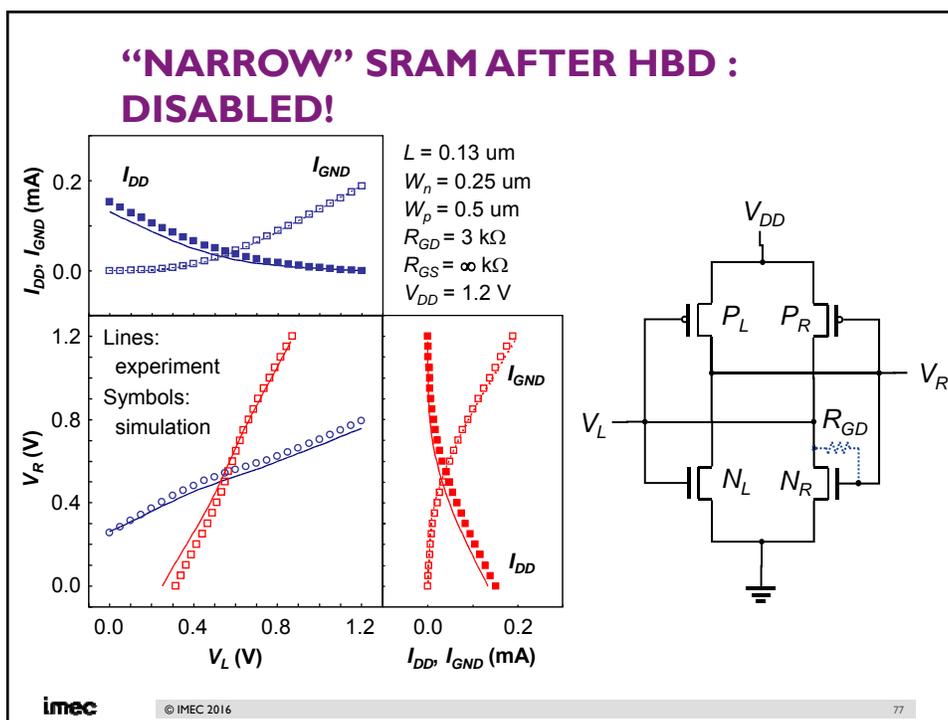
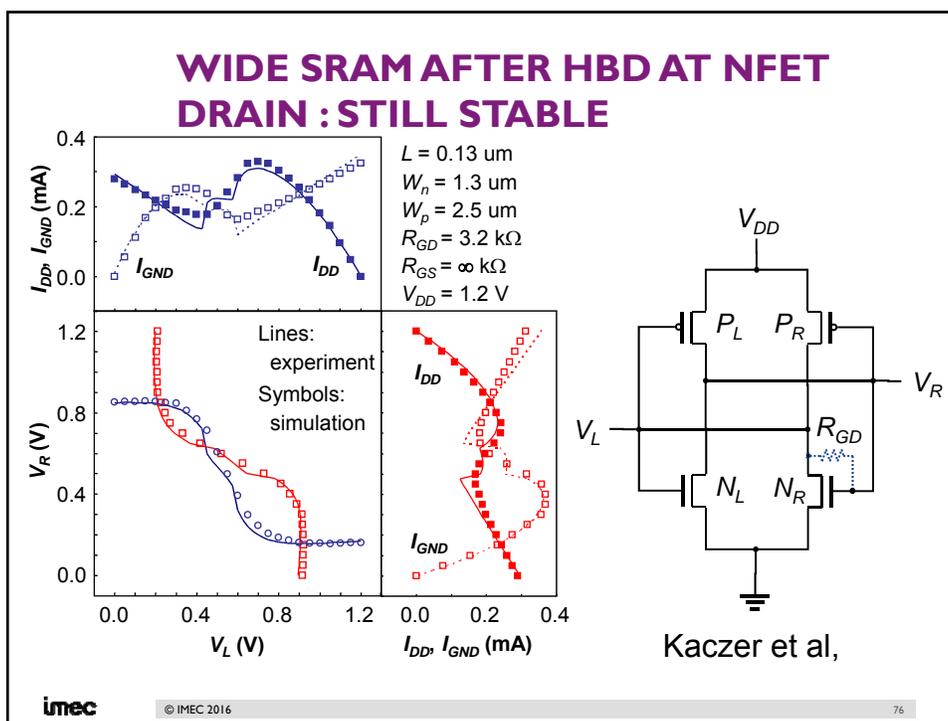
More than 10 years to grow BD-path from SBD to >10 μA at 1.2V: gives us again reliability margin

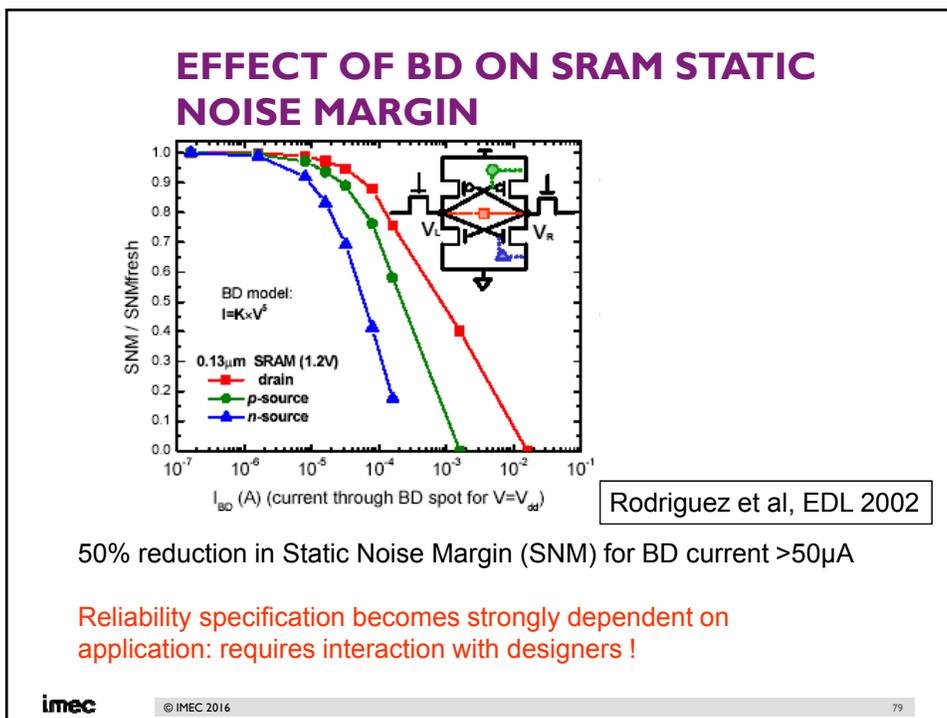
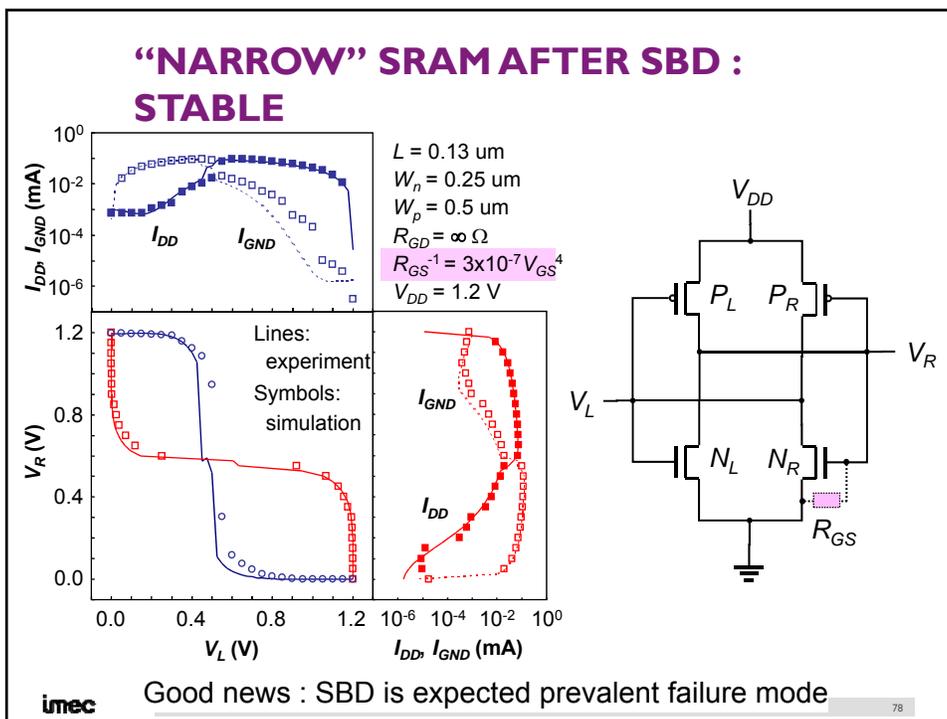
OXIDE BD IS OBSERVABLE WITH EMISSION MICROSCOPE



“Satellite” spots are observed, identified as hot carrier emission by spectral and SPICE analysis





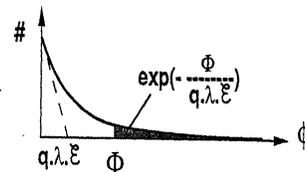
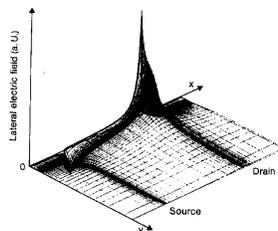


OUTLINE

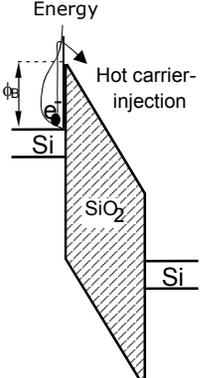
1. Introduction
2. Basic reliability concepts
3. Time-dependent Dielectric Breakdown (TDDB)
- ➔ 4. Hot carrier degradation
 - Hot carrier injection
 - Effects of hot carrier injection
 - Acceleration models and examples
 - Dynamic degradation
5. Bias-Temperature Instability (NBTI)

DEFINITION OF “HOT CARRIERS”

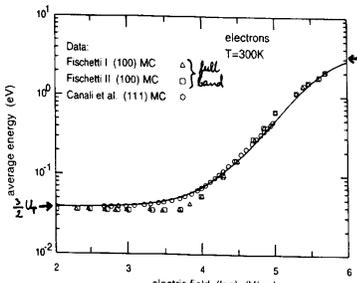
- “Hot carriers” are channel electrons and/or holes with high energy
- ▶ Generation: high lateral electric field at drain side
 - ▶ The distribution of the carrier energy can be approximated by a Fermi-Dirac or Maxwell-Boltzman distribution with a high energy tail (high electron temperature)
 - ▶ Hot carriers are always present when a transistor operates in saturation!



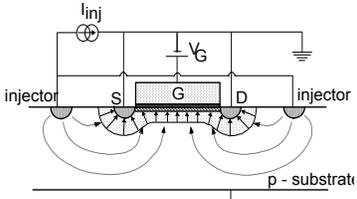
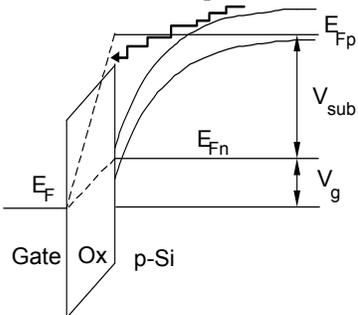
HOT CARRIER INJECTION



- Hot carrier = carrier that has gained large energy in a **high electric field**
- Hot carrier is **NOT** in equilibrium with the crystal: energy distribution is NOT Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution
- This means that hot carriers can be injected at much **smaller oxide fields** than tunneling injection
- Once the electrons are in the oxide conduction band they travel with a relatively high mobility to the anode



SUBSTRATE HOT ELECTRON INJECTION

- Electrons injected from an external injector junction or by illumination are heated in depletion layer and injected into the gate
- Separate control of oxide current density, oxide field and silicon field (i.e. carrier field)
 - Oxide field controlled by V_g
 - Electron energy controlled by V_{sub}
 - Gate current controlled by substrate current
- Allows to measure oxide degradation and breakdown at fields considerably lower than 9MV/cm (i.e. closer to normal operation conditions)
- Use p-channels for hole injection

HOT CARRIER INJECTION

High-energetic carriers are generated in the high lateral electric field at the drain side of the MOS transistor

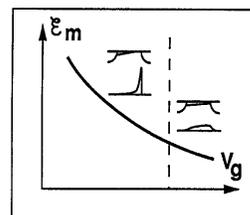
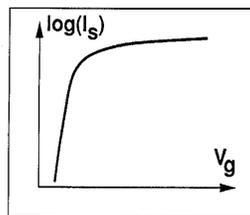
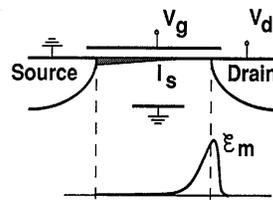
$$E_m = \frac{V_d - V_{dsat}}{l}$$

$$V_{dsat} = \frac{(V_g - V_t) \times L_{eff} \times E_{sat}}{(V_g - V_t) + L_{eff} \times E_{sat}}$$

$$l = 0.22 \times t_{ox}^{1/3} \times x_j^{1/m}$$

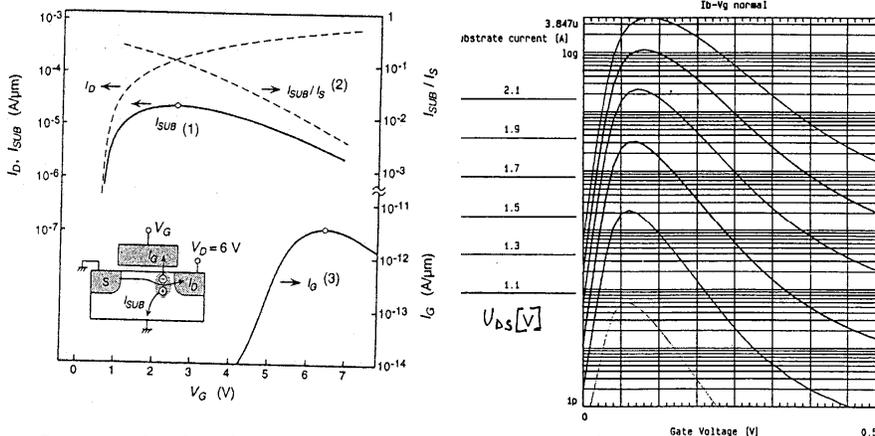
$$l = 0.017 \times t_{ox}^{1/8} \times x_j^{1/3} \times L_{eff}^{1/5}$$

HOT CARRIER INJECTION



Large electric fields at drain lead to high energetic carrier generation

HOT ELECTRON CURRENTS



Impact ionization causes electron-hole pairs, electrons are flowing to the drain, holes are flowing to the substrate
Hot electron generation and injection causes gate current

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SIMPLIFIED EQUATIONS SUBSTRATE CURRENT

$$\text{Substrate current: } I_{\text{sub}} = I_s \cdot C \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\phi_i}{q\lambda_e E_m}\right)$$

$$\text{Multiplication factor: } M = \frac{I_{\text{sub}}}{I_s} = C \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\phi_i}{q\lambda_e E_m}\right)$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{I_{\text{sub}}}{I_s}\right) = \ln C - \frac{\phi_i}{q\lambda_e E_m} = \ln C - \frac{I \cdot \phi_i}{q\lambda_e (V_d - V_{\text{dsat}})}$$

Multiplication factor I_{sub}/I_s is a measure for the lateral electrical field E_m

ϕ_i = impact ionization energy threshold (typically 1.5-1.6 eV)

λ_e = mean free path of electron in Si (typically 9.2 nm), T-dependent

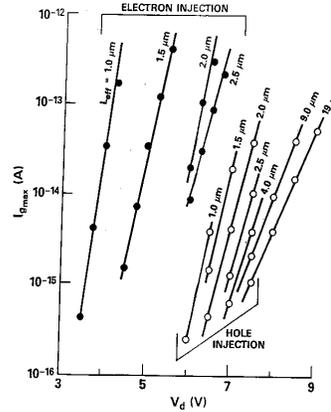
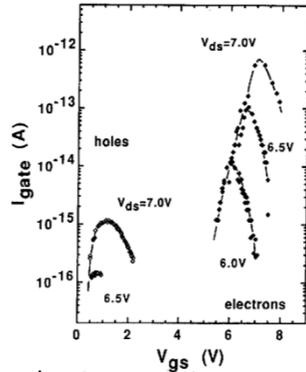
for increasing T: λ_e becomes smaller: less hot carriers generated !

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HOT CARRIER INJECTION

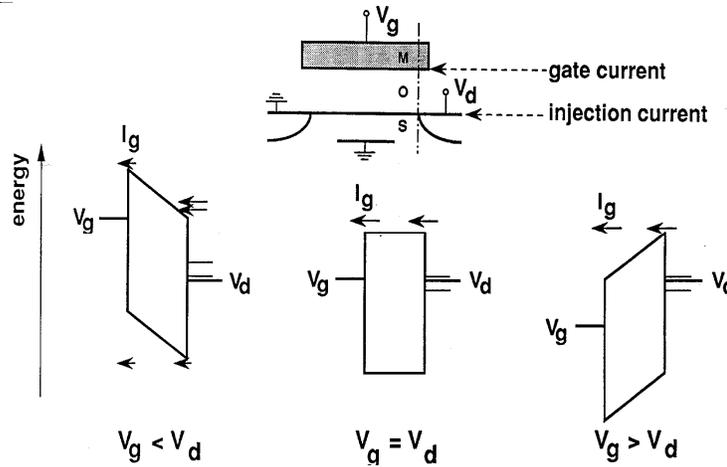


Measured gate currents:
 At large V_g ($\sim V_d$):
 negative gate current: electron injection

For small V_g (near V_t):
 positive gate current: hot hole injection

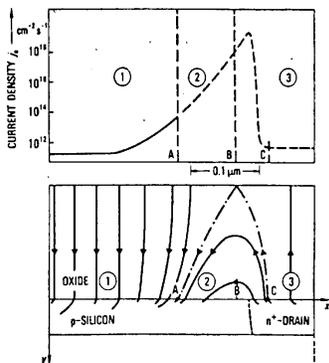
Currents scale exponentially with drain voltage

HOT CARRIER INJECTION

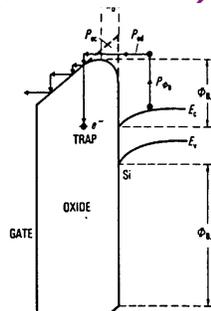


Injection current vs. gate current:
 influence of gate voltage

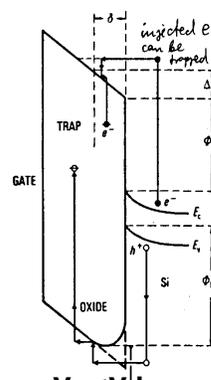
HOT CARRIER INJECTION: ROLE OF OXIDE FIELD (GATE VOLTAGE)



When $V_g < V_d$: repulsive field for electrons exists at the drain
 Large injection current is repelled back into the substrate



$V_g > V_d$
 all injected electrons are traveling to the gate: e-current lateral field is usually too low for hole injection, holes are pushed back into channel



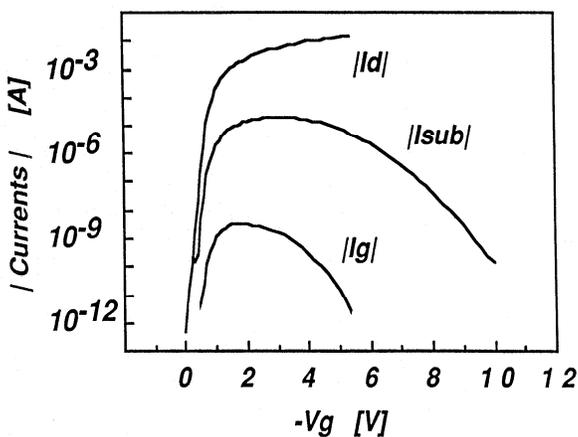
$V_g < V_d$
 most injected electrons are pushed back into channel: no e-current
 all injected holes will travel to the gate: h-current

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HOT CARRIER INJECTION FOR PMOS



Drain, substrate and gate currents for a pMOS device

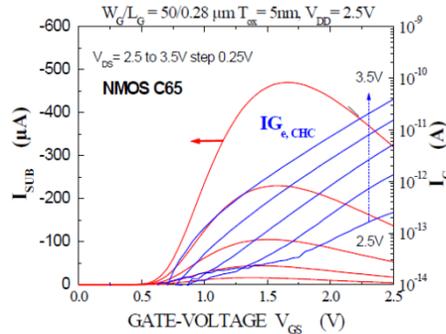
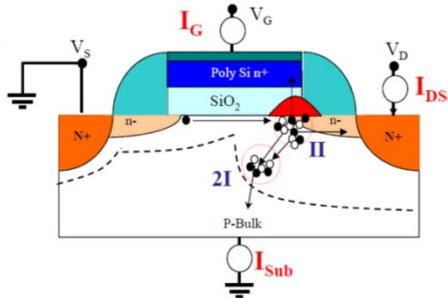
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HOT CARRIER BASICS

A. Bravaix, IRPS Tutorial 2014



Substrate current is determined by product of drain current and multiplication current

Measured gate current is determined by generated hot carriers and attractive or repelling oxide field at the drain

Both electron and holes can be injected, depending on the oxide (gate voltage) and lateral silicon (drain voltage) fields.

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HOT CARRIERS (HC) CAUSE MANY EFFECTS

HC generate electron-hole pairs by impact ionization

- ▶ carrier energy > 1.6eV
- ▶ generated current is measured as a bulk current (I_b)

HC can be injected into the gate oxide

- ▶ damage to the channel - gate oxide interface and electron trapping in the gate oxide → transistor degradation
- ▶ Carrier energy > 3.1eV (for electrons), > 4.8eV (for holes)
- ▶ $I_{inj} \sim I_b$
- ▶ Can also be measured as I_g (under specific conditions)

HC cause also other phenomena

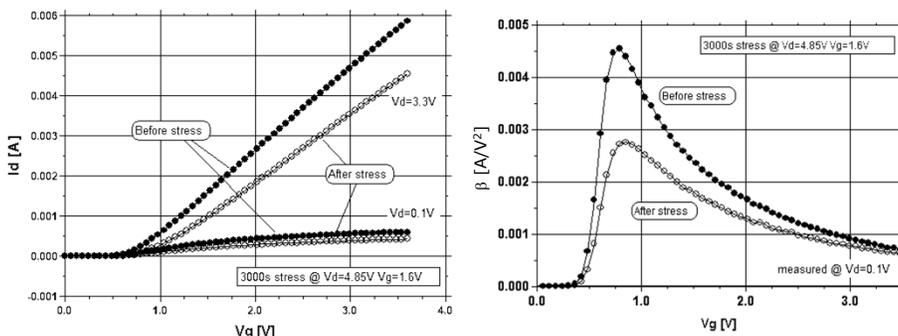
- ▶ Light emission
- ▶ Secondary effects (e.g. too high I_{sub} can cause CMOS latch-up, ...)

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INFLUENCE ON NMOS PERFORMANCE



Guido Groeseneken

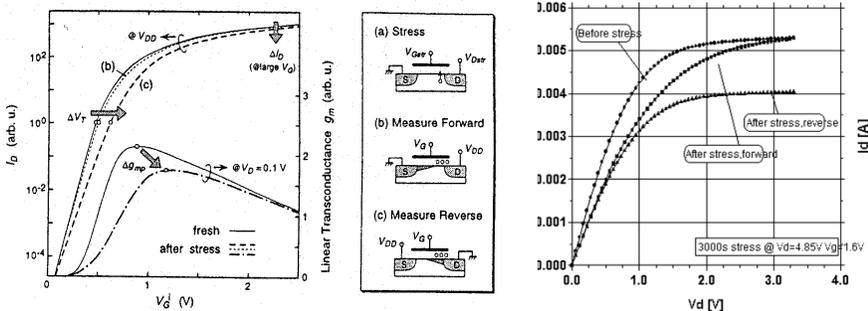
Change in I_d - V_g characteristics and transconductance

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INFLUENCE ON NMOS PERFORMANCE



After stress asymmetric I_d - V_d characteristics (different when S-D are reversed)

- when damage is located at drain side: damaged area is depleted in saturation
- S-D reversed: damage is located at source side, influence I-V characteristic for all voltage

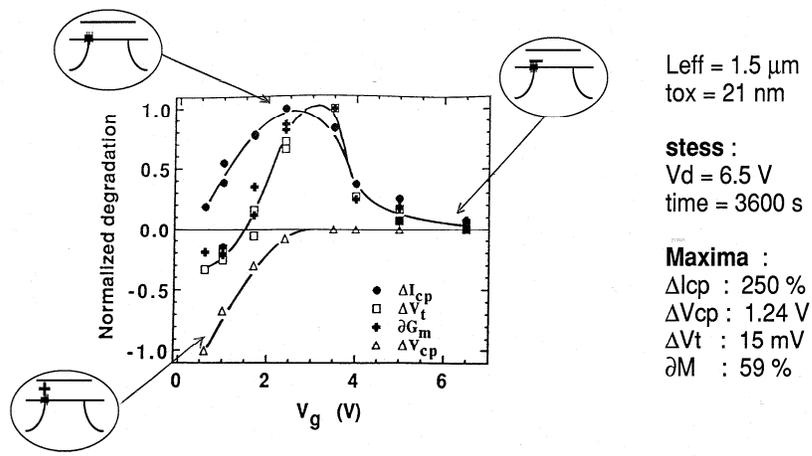
In linear region: characteristics are symmetrical but degraded

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NMOS DEGRADATION



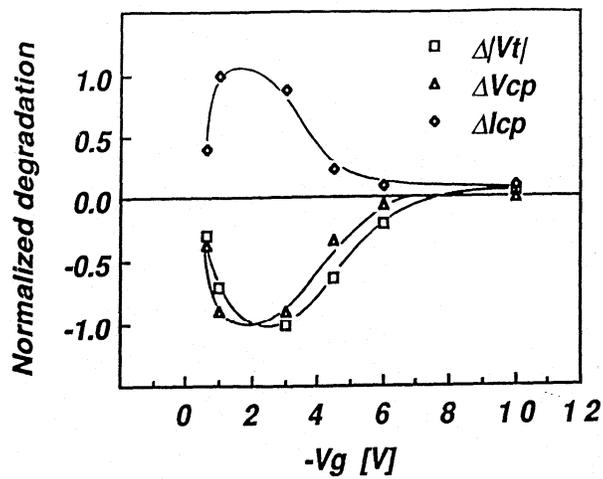
Gate voltage dependence of the nMOS hot carrier degradation

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PMOS DEGRADATION



Gate voltage dependence of hot carrier degradation for p-MOSFET's

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INFLUENCE ON PMOS PERFORMANCE

Fixed negative oxide charge gives rise to a channel shortening effect (magnitude dependent on short channel effect) \Rightarrow increase of drain current

Interface trap generation causes a decrease of I_d

Since $\lambda_e > \lambda_h$ and because of smaller electric fields, hot-carrier degradation in pmos normally is no problem.

For technologies down to $0.5\mu\text{m}$, the channel shortening dominates and screens the effect of D_{it} -generation.

For deep-submicron technologies, the effect of interface trap generation starts to be visible.

HOW TO DEAL WITH HC DAMAGE?

Hot carriers are always generated when a transistor operates in saturation

- ▶ Hot carrier damage cannot be avoided! It can only be limited.

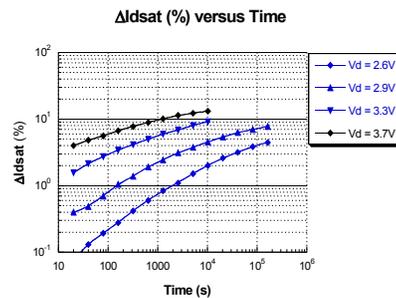
HC damage is not allowed to affect circuit operation during the lifetime of the product

- ▶ Specification to guarantee this (simplified).
 - $\Delta I_{d_{\text{sat}}} < 10\%$
 - After one year of DC operation
 - At $V_d = V_{dd} + 10\%$
 - “HC lifetime for the parameter $I_{d_{\text{sat}}}$ must be one year under worst case operating conditions”
- ▶ This specification has to be met by every individual transistor on the chip.
- ▶ This specification is validated by many years of practice.

HOW IS THE HC LIFETIME MEASURED?

Accelerated Stress

- ▶ HC damage is proportional to the amount of hot carriers
- ▶ higher V_d = more hot carriers → the lifetime is lower at higher V_d
 - C018 example:
 - # hot electrons ($V_d = 3.5V$) $\approx 1e6$ # hot electrons ($V_d = 2.0V$)
- ▶ measurement times per transistor: 20min – 4 days, typically 3 hours



ACCELERATION MODELS

Degradation law:
$$\Delta N_{it}(t) = C_1 \cdot \left[\frac{I_d}{W} \cdot t \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\phi_{it,e}}{q\lambda_e E_m}\right) \right]^n$$

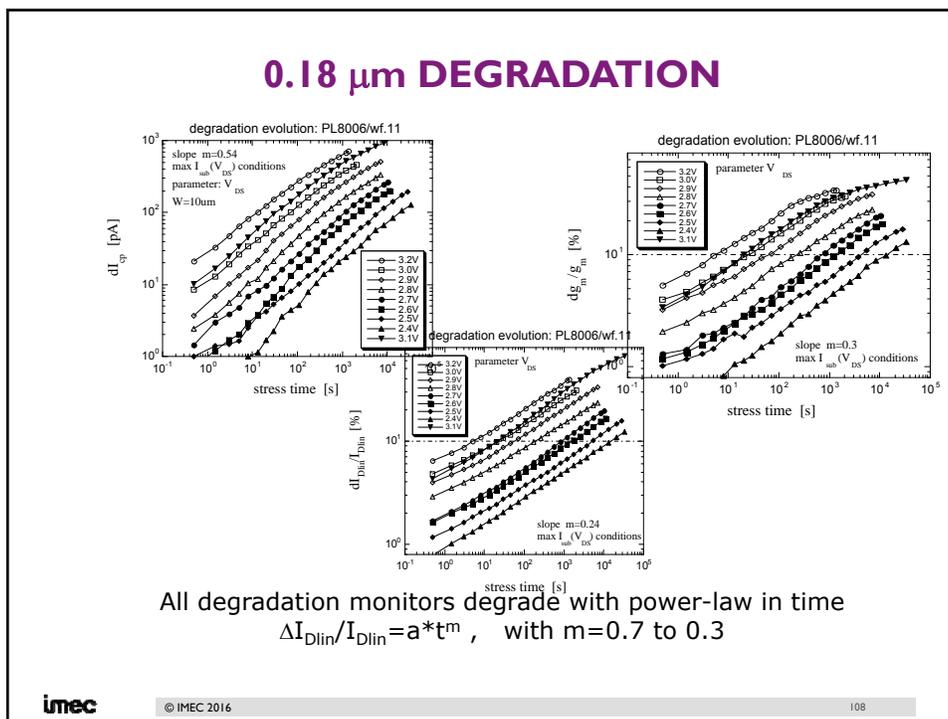
Multiplication factor:
$$M = \frac{I_{sub}}{I_d} = C_2 \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\phi_i}{q\lambda_e E_m}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau I_d}{W} = C_3 \cdot \left(\frac{I_{sub}}{I_d} \right)^{-\phi_{it,e}/\phi_i} = C_3 \cdot M^{-m}$$

Model of Hu et al.

$$\tau = C_4 \cdot \exp\left(\frac{B}{V_d}\right)$$

Model of Takeda et al.



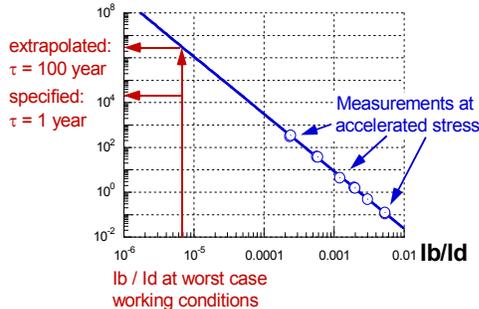
THE HC LIFETIME AT WORK CONDITIONS IS EXTRAPOLATED FROM THE ACCELERATED STRESS

Model of Hu

► Hu plot

- X-axis: I_b / I_d
- $I_b \sim \#$ hot carriers
- $I_d \sim \#$ available carriers
- Y-axis: $\tau * I_d / W$
- τ = lifetime (s)
- W = transistor width (μm)

$\tau * I_d / W$



► Power Law

$$\frac{\tau \cdot I_d}{W} = C \cdot \left(\frac{I_b}{I_d} \right)^{-\phi_{it,e} / \phi_i}$$

- Slope $-\phi_{it,e} / \phi_i$ corresponds to the energy needed to create an interface trap
- $\phi_{it,e}$ = energy needed to create an interface trap
- ϕ_i = energy needed to create an electron-hole pair

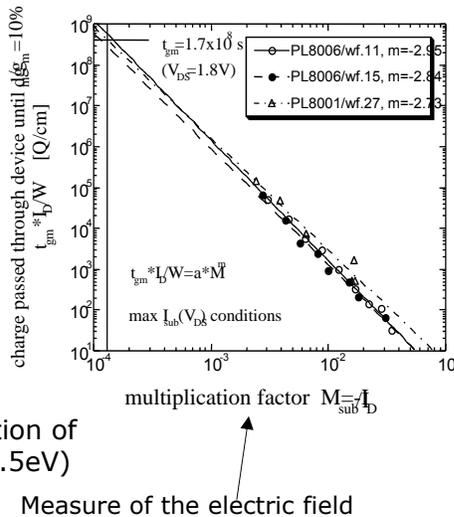
LIFETIME PLOT

A more "physically" based lifetime evaluation procedure

$$\frac{\tau \cdot I_d}{W} = C \left[\frac{I_{sub}}{I_d} \right]^{-\frac{\phi_{it,e}}{\phi_i}}$$

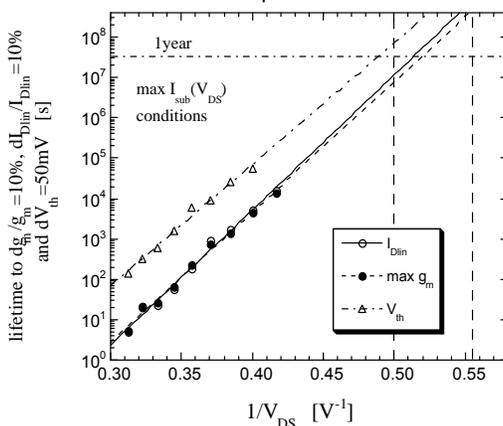
ϕ_i : impact ionization energy (~1.3eV)

$\phi_{it,e}$: energy needed for creation of an interface trap (~ 3.5eV)



LIFETIME

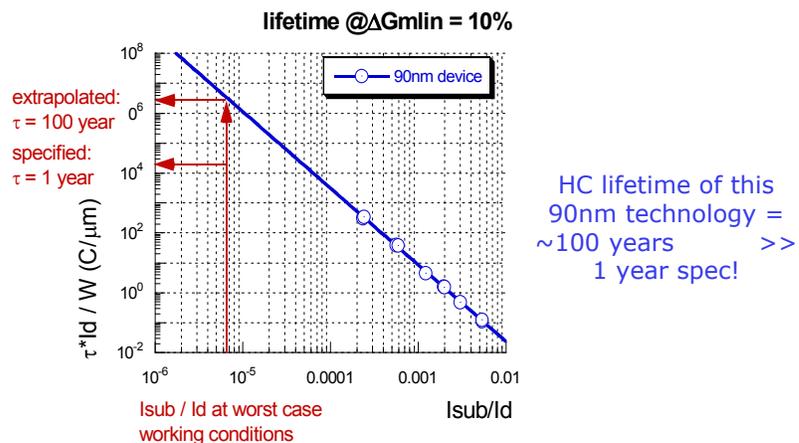
lifetime plot PL8006/wf.11



I_{Dlin} and $max g_m$ are the device lifetime limiting parameters. Lifetime of more than 10 year is reached at 1.8V Vdd

HC LIFETIME OF A 90NM TECHNOLOGY

Wafers finished after ILM



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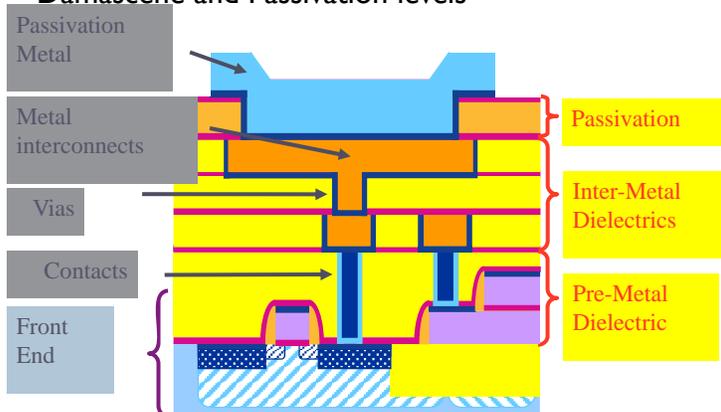
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IMPACT OF BACK END PROCESSING

Back End Processing consists of

- ▶ Deposition of the Pre-Metal Dielectric (PMD), Inter-Metal Dielectric (IMD) and Passivation dielectrics
- ▶ metallisation of Contact, Single Damascene, Dual Damascene and Passivation levels



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IMPACT OF BACK END PROCESSING

Each dielectric layer can affect the gate oxide and the Si-gate oxide interface quality (and thus the HC lifetime)

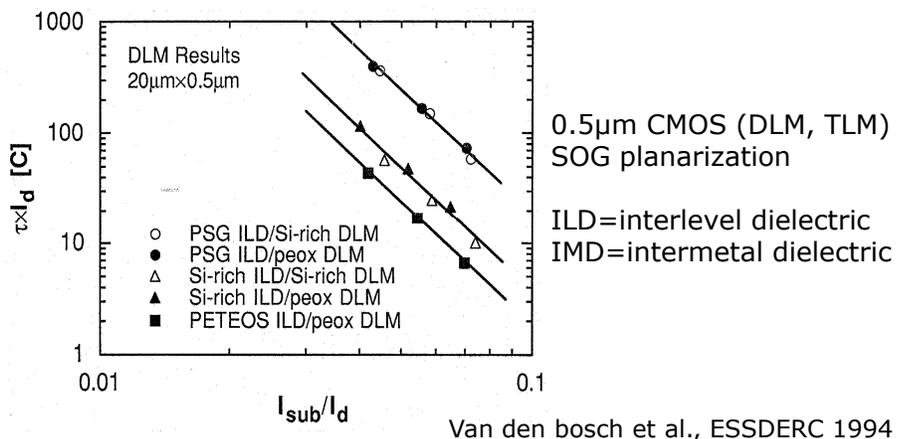
- ☒ Their deposition can create interface states
- ☒ Their presence can block efficient sintering
- ☑ Their deposition can diminish the amount of interface states
- ☑ Their presence can avoid that subsequent process steps to create interface states (they act as a barrier layer)

→ Effect of dielectric layers is very difficult to predict
 ▶ Case by case analysis necessary!

Can metallisation steps affect the interface quality?

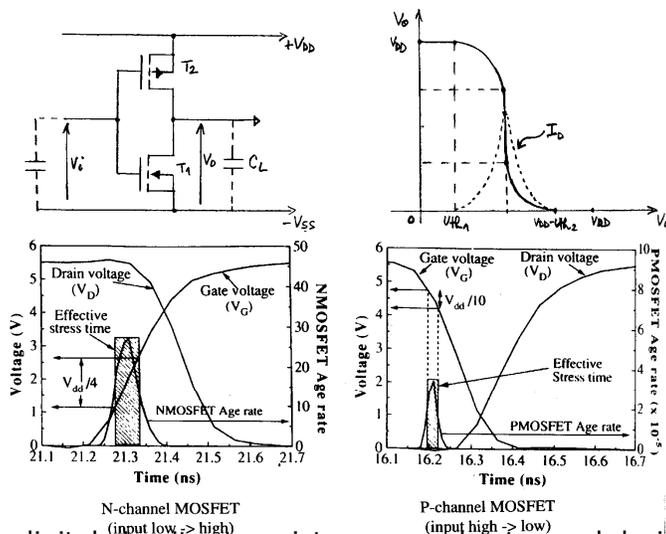
- ▶ There is no clear evidence gathered at IMEC
- ▶ Some reports exist in literature, e.g. on Al-metal etch

INFLUENCE OF BACKEND PROCESSING



Backend processing can have a tremendous influence on the hot carrier lifetime !

DYNAMIC DEGRADATION



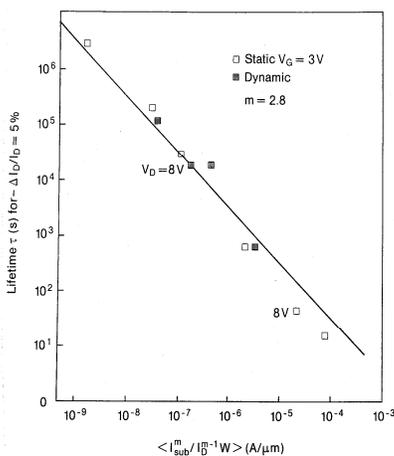
In digital circuits: transistors are only stressed during switching transitions: calculated as a "duty cycle"

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LIFETIME PREDICTION AC CONDITIONS



$$\tau = C \left[\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \frac{I_{sub}^m}{I_d^{m-1}} dt \right]^{-1}$$

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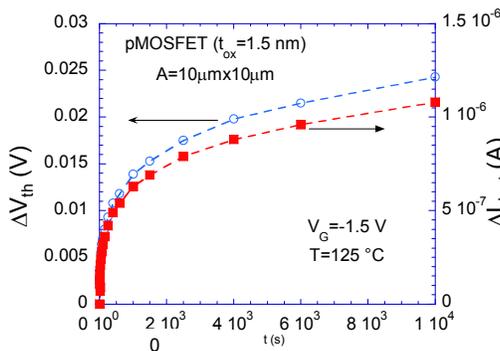
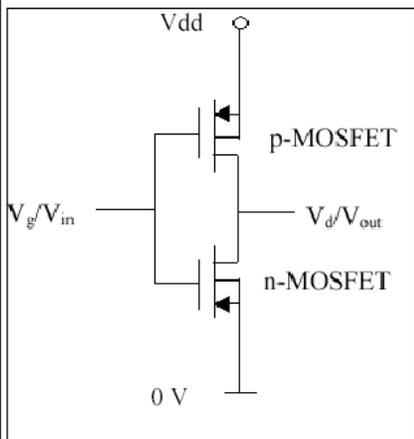
OUTLINE

1. Introduction
2. Basic reliability concepts
3. Time-dependent Dielectric Breakdown (TDDB)
4. Hot carrier degradation
- ➔ 5. Bias-Temperature Instability (NBTI)
 - Basics
 - Acceleration model
 - Physical models
 - Frequency dependence
 - Impact of processing

INTRODUCTION

Negative bias temperature instabilities

CMOS inverter



**V_{th} shifts and reduction of I_{Dsat} occur when p-MOSFET is switched on:
Negative Bias Temperature Instabilities**

**CAUSE OF THRESHOLD VOLTAGE V_{TH} SHIFT (Δ):
GENERATION OF INTERFACE AND OXIDE TRAPPED
CHARGE**

$$\Delta V_{th} = \frac{\Delta Q_{it} + \Delta Q_{ot}}{c_{ox}} = \frac{q \Delta N_{eff}}{c_{ox}}$$

$$\Delta Q_{it} = q \Delta N_{it}$$

$$\Delta Q_{ot} = \frac{1}{t_{ox}} \int_0^{t_{ox}} (t_{ox} - z) \Delta \rho(z) dz$$

Note: sometimes used

$$\Delta N_{eff} = \frac{c_{ox} \Delta V_{th}}{q}$$

- c_{ox} ... Oxide capacitance per area [Fcm^{-2}]
- t_{ox} ... Oxide thickness [cm]
- Q_{it} ... Interface charge density [Ccm^{-2}]
- N_{it} ... Interface state density [cm^{-2}]
- Q_{ot} ... Oxide trapped charge density [Ccm^{-2}]
- $\rho(z)$... Oxide trapped charge density [Ccm^{-3}]

BTI: CHARGED OXIDE BULK AND INTERFACE STATES

NBTI (pFET)	PBTI (nFET)
Positive oxide charge (negative V_{th} shift)	Negative oxide charge (positive V_{th} shift)
Interface states (mobility, transconductance, subthreshold- slope degradation) Mitani <i>et al.</i> , ECS 2005 Garros <i>et al.</i> , ICICDT 2010	X (but observed in sub 1nm EOT)
Generally at substrate interface Zafar <i>et al.</i> , VLSI 2006 Kerber <i>et al.</i> , TED 55 , 3175 (2008) Aoulaiche <i>et al.</i> , IRPS 2009	Generally trapping in high-k

NEGATIVE BIAS TEMPERATURE INSTABILITY

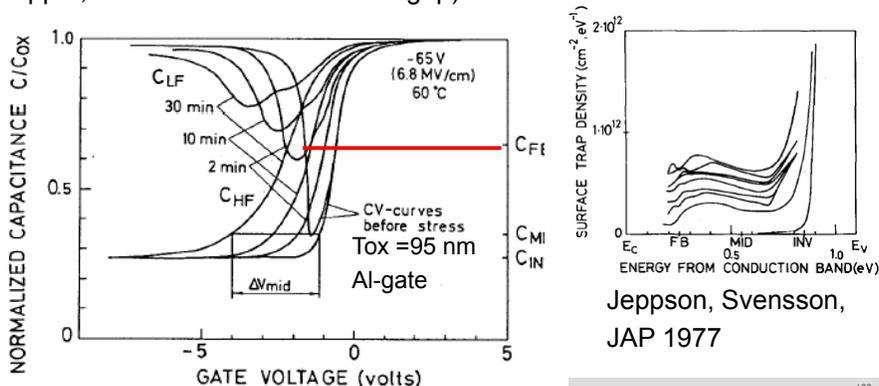
Occurs at relatively low voltage/fields and high temperatures

Mostly pMOS problem (negative V_g)

Problem exists from early days of MOSFET technology !

Damage not related to charge transport through dielectric

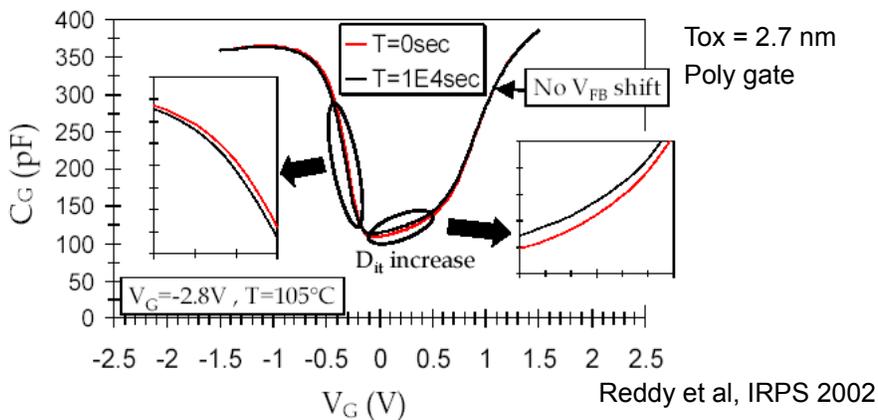
Interpretation: fixed positive charge and interface trap generation (acceptor in upper, donor in lower half of bandgap)



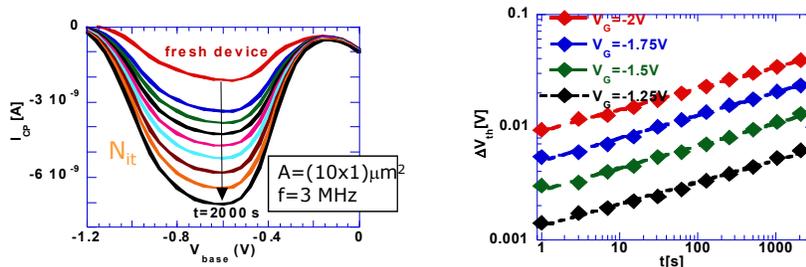
ORIGIN OF NBTI SHIFTS

Other interpretation:

- no positive charge, no V_{fb} shift
- donor type interface traps



INTERFACE STATE DENSITY GENERATION OBSERVED BY CHARGE PUMPING



$$\Delta N_{it}(t) = \frac{\Delta I_{CP,max}}{q \cdot A \cdot f}$$

e.g. M. Aoulaiche *et al.*, *Microelectron. Eng.* **80**, 134-137 (2005).

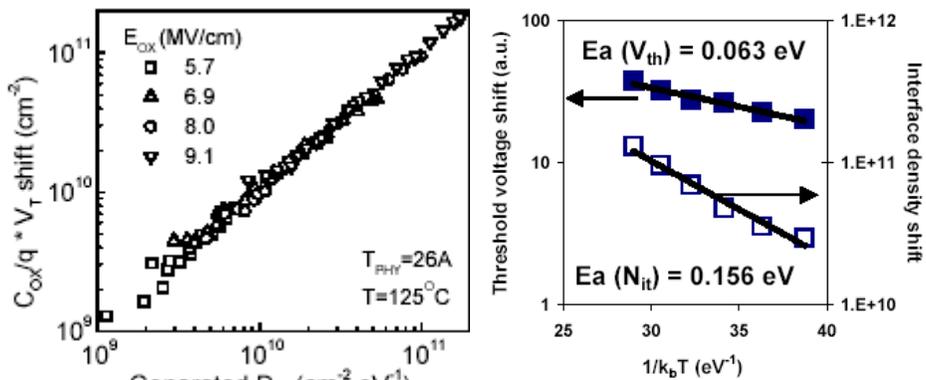
Note: also gives V_{th} and V_{FB} shifts

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ORIGIN OF NBTI SHIFTS



M. Alam *et al.*, *IEDM* 2003

1:1 Correlation between threshold voltage shift and interface trap generation indicates that D_{it} generation is dominant !

V. Huard *et al.*, *IRPS* 2003

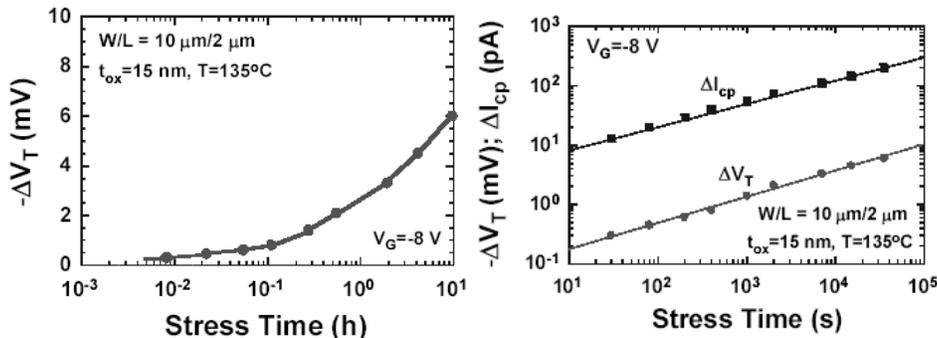
But V_t -shift and D_{it} increase exhibit different activation energies: no consensus !

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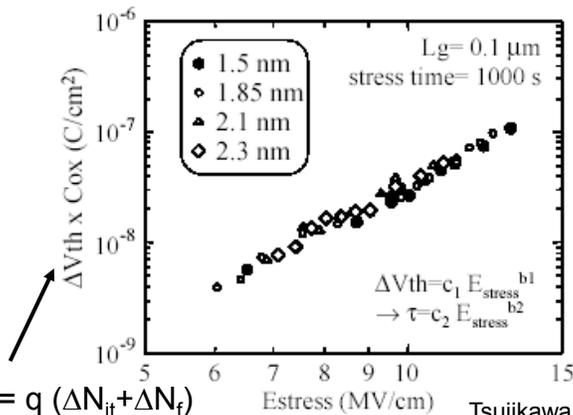
TIME DEPENDENCE



$$\Delta V_T = A t^n$$

Threshold voltage shift and Dit-generation show power law Dependence with slope n=0.2-0.3

OXIDE THICKNESS DEPENDENCE



$$\Delta V_{th} Cox = q (\Delta N_{it} + \Delta N_f) \quad \text{TsujiKawa et al, IRPS 2003}$$

Normalized Vt shift as a function of E shows universal behaviour for all oxide thicknesses

Data show power law field dependence: $\sim E^b$

ACCELERATION MODELS

$$\Delta V_T = C \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{kT}\right) \cdot \exp(\beta|V_G|) \cdot t^n$$

Voltage/field acceleration: no consensus

- linear ($\sim E$)
- power law ($\sim E^n$, $n=1.5$)
- exponential ($\sim \exp(E)$)
- $1/V_g$

Temperature acceleration: consensus

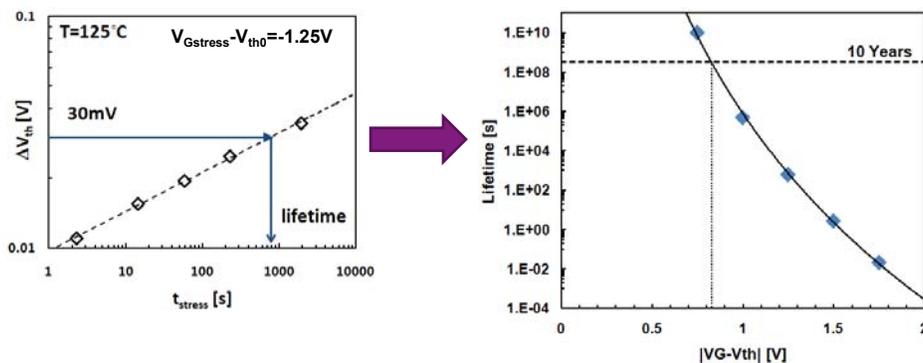
- Arrhenius

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EXAMPLE OF BTI LIFETIME EXTRAPOLATION



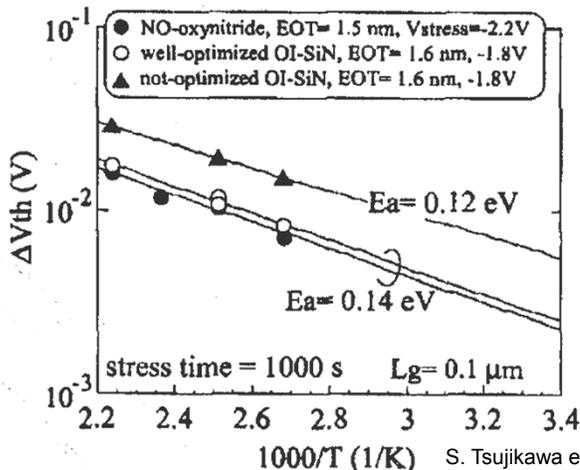
- ▶ Failure Criterion: $\Delta V_{th} = 30\text{mV}$ at $T = 125^\circ\text{C}$
- ▶ Minimized relaxation: $t_{\text{sense_delay}} = 2\text{ms}$
- ▶ Stress experiment at different voltages ($V_{G\text{stress}} > V_{DD}$) → Estimate lifetime → Power Law extrapolation at 10 Years

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ACCELERATION MODEL: TEMPERATURE



S. Tsujikawa et al., IRPS 2003, p. 183

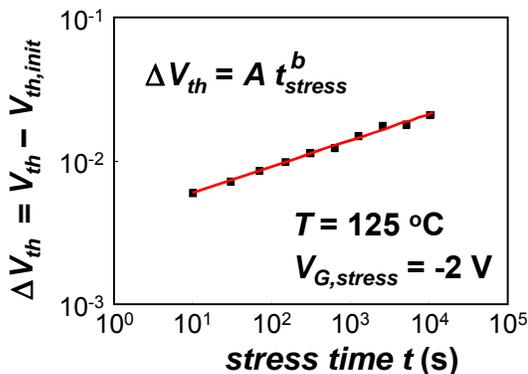
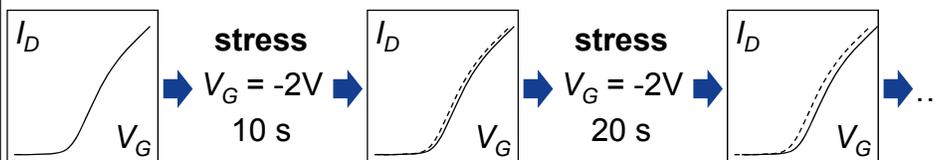
Activation energies are usually in the order of 0.12-0.15 eV

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NBTI DEGRADATION—SEEMINGLY STRAIGHTFORWARD MEASUREMENT

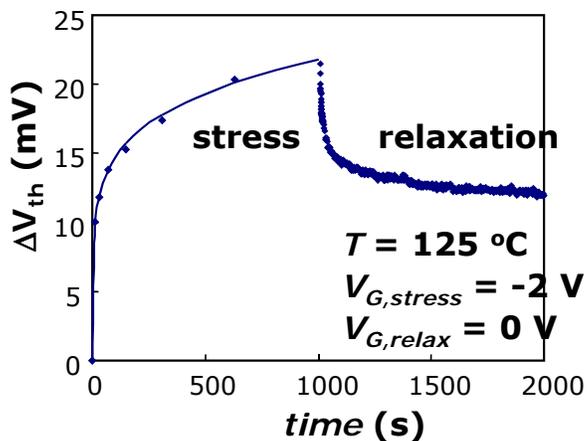


V_{th} shift appears to follow power-law

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“MINOR” COMPLICATION: THRESHOLD VOLTAGE SHIFT STARTS RELAXING IMMEDIATELY AFTER STRESS REMOVED

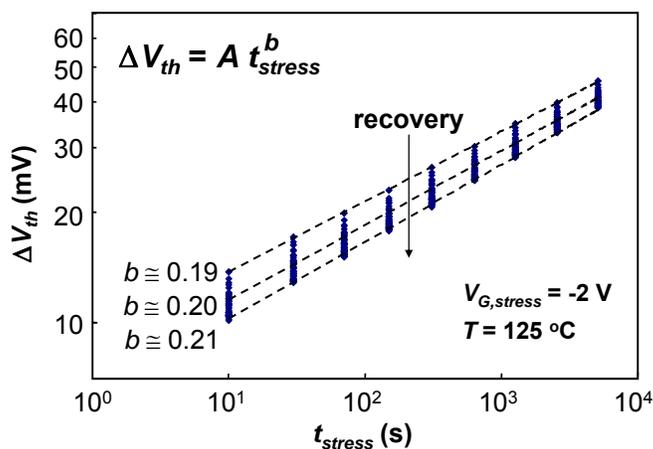


Crucial issue for all BTI measurements and interpretation!

Observed in p/nFETs, P/NBTI, DC and AC stress...

Kerber *et al.*, TED 55, 3175 (2008); Kaczer *et al.*, IRPS 2008

A AND B DEPEND ON T_{MEAS}



A decreases while b increases with increasing t_{meas}

MEASURING BTI

- Several methods developed to compensate relaxation, based on
 - ▶ Measure-Stress-Measure
 - ▶ On-the-fly
- No single “silver bullet” approach to measuring BTI
- Relaxation time needs to be considered otherwise ΔV_{th} measurement meaningless
- JEDEC standards give some guidance
- Rule of thumb: when comparing stacks/processing, use the same measurement setup (fields, timing, etc)

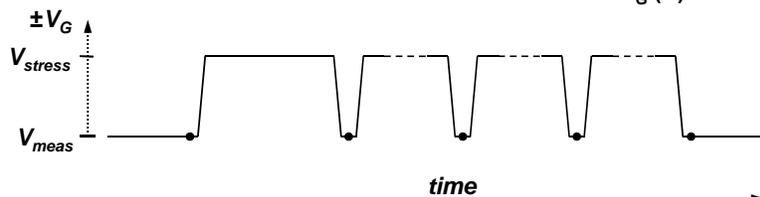
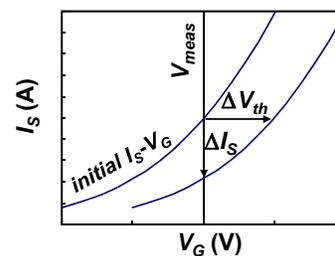
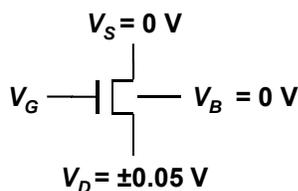
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FAST MEASURE-STRESS-MEASURE (MSM) TECHNIQUE

...devised to speed up BTI threshold voltage shift measurements



Measurement speed increased to ~ 0.1 s

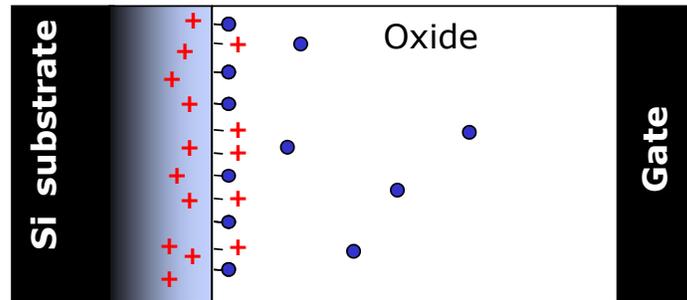
B. Kaczer et al., SISC 2004, IRPS 2005

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**MOST POPULARIZED EXPLANATION FOR NBTI :
REACTION-DIFFUSION MODEL : DIFFUSION OF HYDROGEN
IS THE RATE-LIMITING STEP**



- All effects explained by interface states generation (ΔN_{it}):
 - Channel holes break hydrogen bonds passivating interface states
 - Hydrogen released, diffuses through SiO_2
 - Repassivation of interface states during relaxation

Jepsson & Svensson, J. Appl. Phys. **48**, 2004 (1977)

M. A. Alam, IEDM 2003

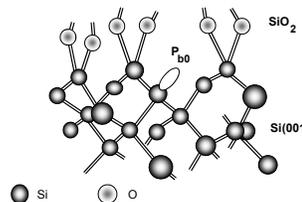
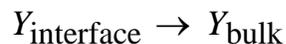
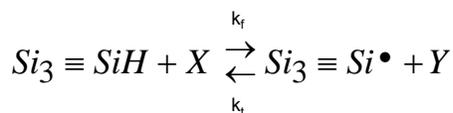
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REACTION-DIFFUSION MODEL

= Most popular models for NBTI



Model originally proposed by Jepsson and Svensson, 1977, further elaborated by Ogawa et al, 1995 and recently by many other groups

- Si-H bonds interact with holes (species X) and are broken (reaction)
- Result: Si dangling bond (interface trap)
- H-related species Y diffuses away from the interface (diffusion): H_2 , H, H^+ , OH
- H-species diffusion is rate limiting step: explains power law slope $n=0.25$

K. Jepsson and C. Svensson, JAP **48**, 2004 (1977)

S. Ogawa and N. Shiono, PRB **51**, 4218 (1995)

S. Ogawa et al., JAP **77**, 1137 (1995)

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REACTION-DIFFUSION MODEL

Generation Annealing

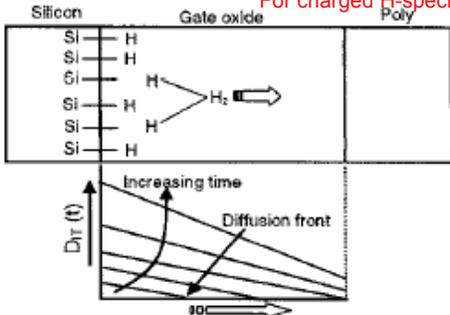
$$\frac{\partial N_{it}}{\partial t} = k_1(N_0 - N_{it}) \cdot p - k_2 N_{it} N_H(x, t)$$

$$\frac{\partial N_H}{\partial t} = D_H \frac{\partial^2 N_H(x, t)}{\partial x^2} - \mu E_{ox} \frac{\partial N_H}{\partial x}$$

Reaction $N_{IT}(t) = \int_0^{\infty} N_H(x, t) dx$

Diffusion $N_0 = \text{Initial SiH bonds}$

For charged H-species



Early stress phase:
Reaction rate k_1 is dominant

Later stress phase:
Diffusion rate is dominant

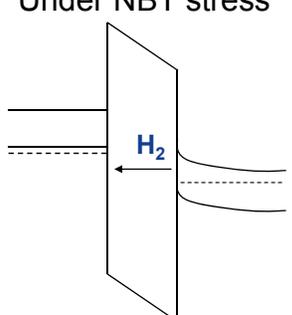
M. Alam et al, IEDM 2003

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REACTION-DIFFUSION MODEL

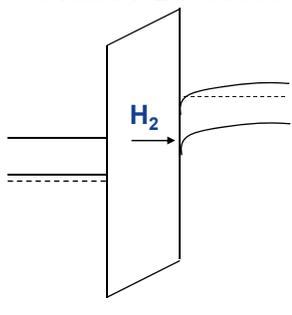
Recovery effects:

Under NBT stress



p⁺ poly-Si SiO₂ n-Si

Under PBT stress



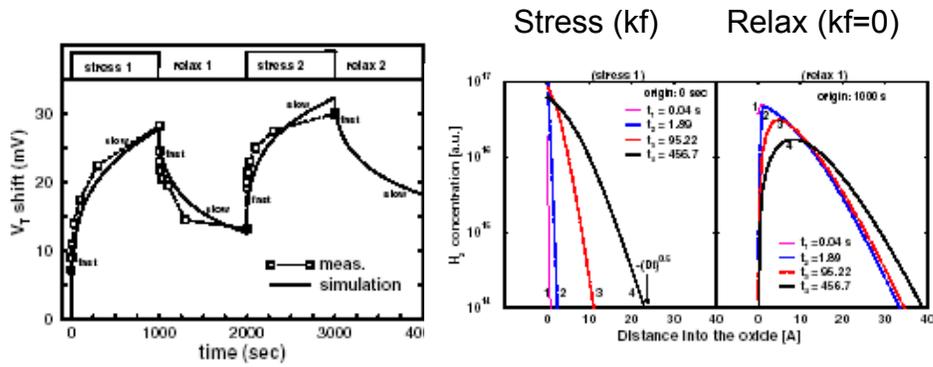
p⁺ poly-Si SiO₂ n-Si

Using the reaction-diffusion model, Alam proposed that partial V_{th} recovery is due to the passivation of P_{b0} centers by H_2 (or H) that diffuses back towards the Si/SiO₂ interface when the gate bias is switched or set to zero.

M. Alam, *IEDM 2003*, 345

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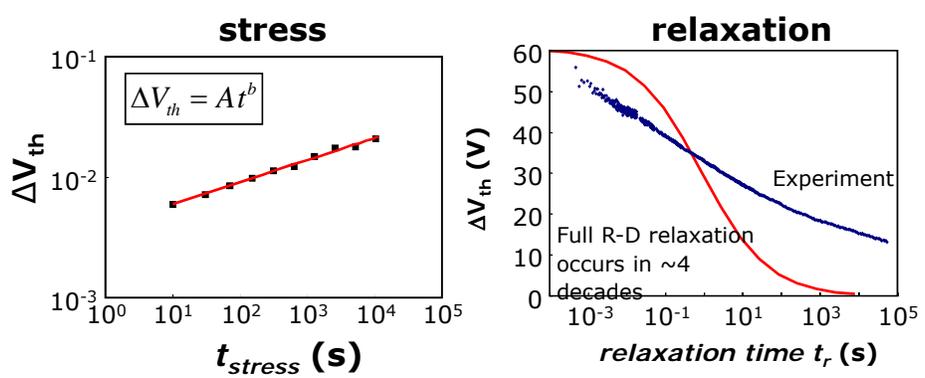
REACTION-DIFFUSION MODEL



M. Alam et al, IEDM 2003

R-D model allows good simulation of stress/relaxation cycles

PREDICTIONS OF THE CLASSIC R-D MODEL



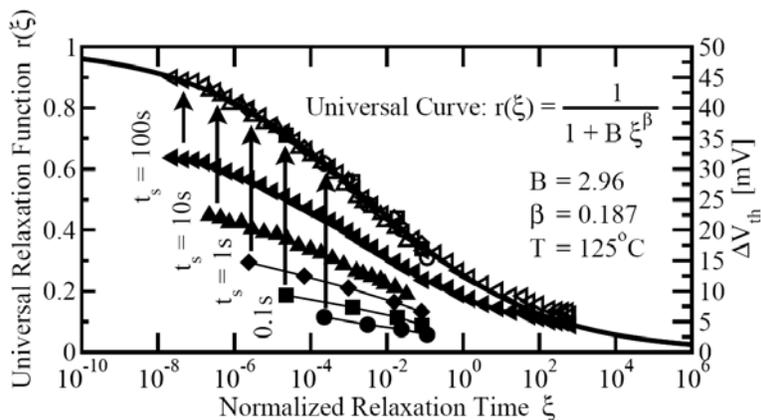
$$\Delta = f(G, R)$$

intricate balance between generation and recombination (relaxation)

$$\Delta = f(0, R)$$

→ Stress phase cannot be described correctly if "R" not described correctly...

PROPERTY OF BTI RELAXATION: RELAXATION TRANSIENTS CAN BE RESCALED TO THE SAME UNIVERSAL RELAXATION CURVE



- $\xi = t_{relax} / t_{stress}$
- $R(t_{relax}) / S(t_{stress})$

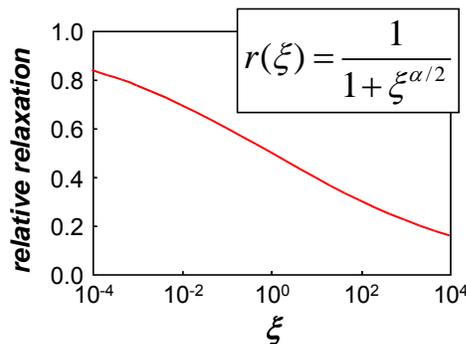
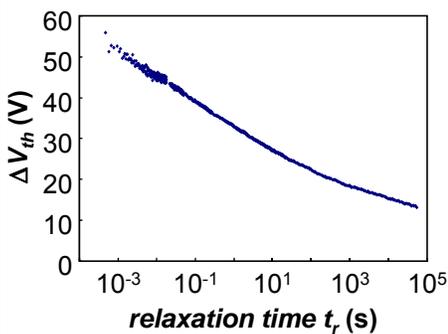
Grasser *et al.*, IEDM 2007

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DISPERSIVE NBTI RECOVERY : LONG LOGARITHMIC RELAXATION TAIL WELL DESCRIBED



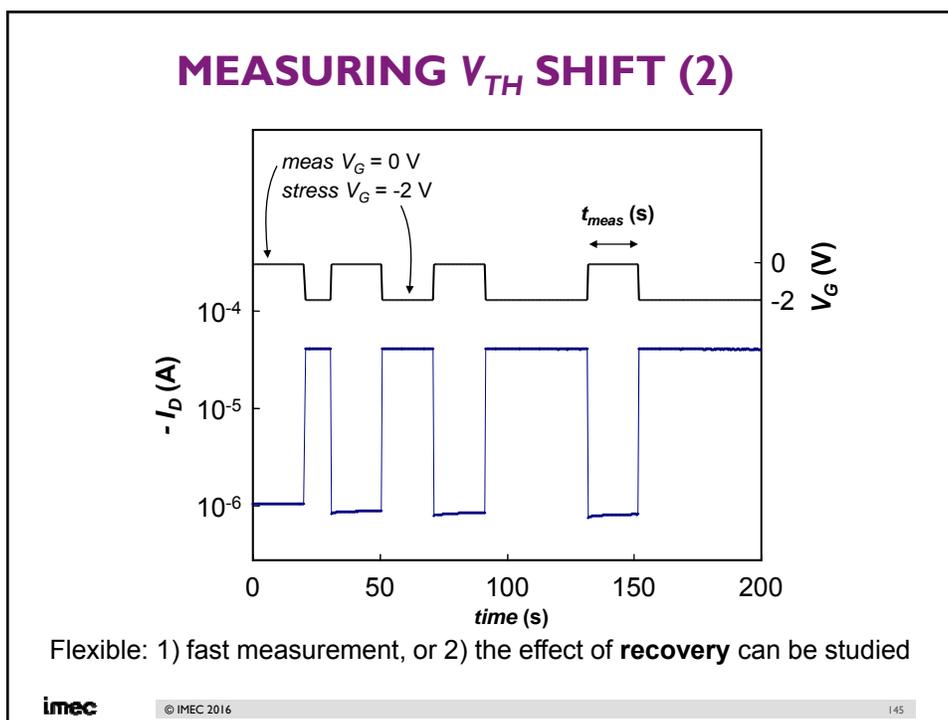
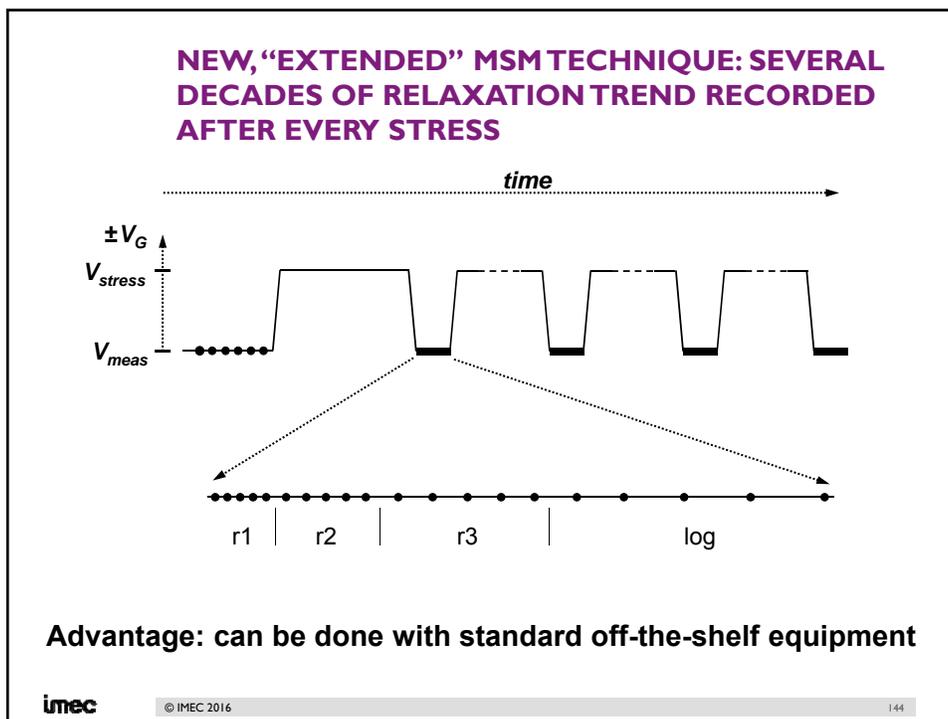
$\xi = t_{relax} / t_{stress}$ is the dimensionless relaxation time

Kaczer *et al.*, IRPS 2005

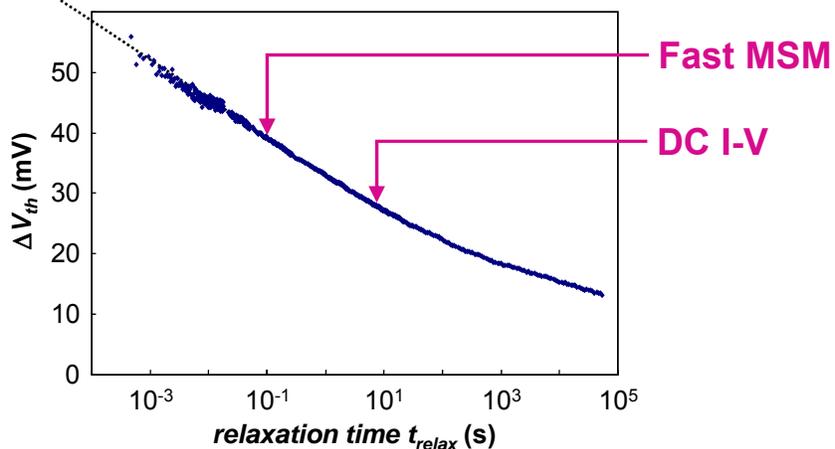
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BTI DEGRADATION RELAXES “DISPERSIVELY” OVER MANY TIME SCALES: MICROSECONDS OR LESS TO DAYS OR MORE



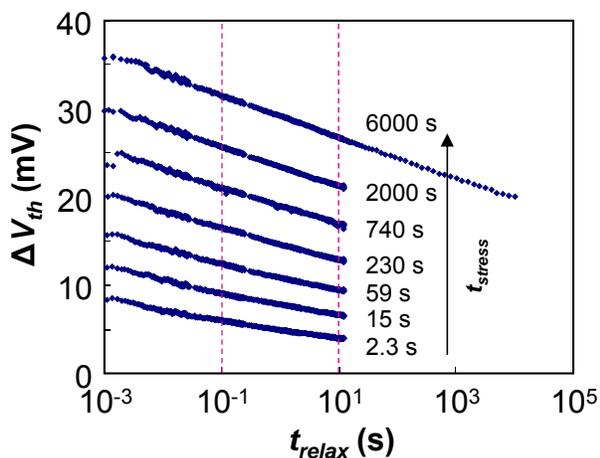
Improvement of a few decades negligible on the logarithmic scale

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TYPICAL EXTENDED MSM MEASUREMENT : RELAXATION TRENDS RECORDED INSTEAD OF SINGLE POINTS



HfSiO pFET

$T = 125\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$

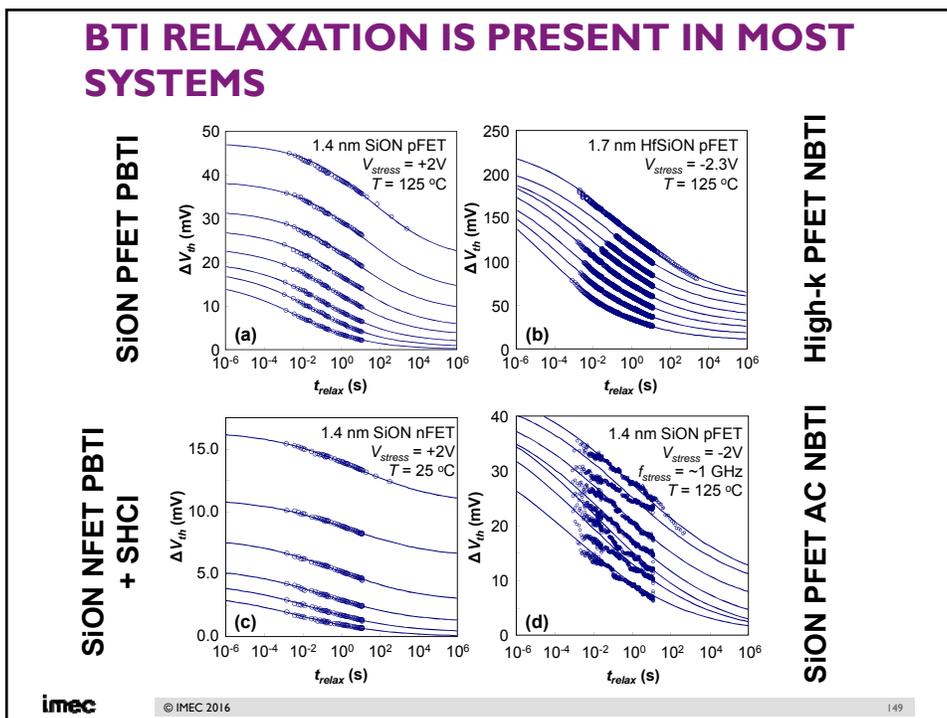
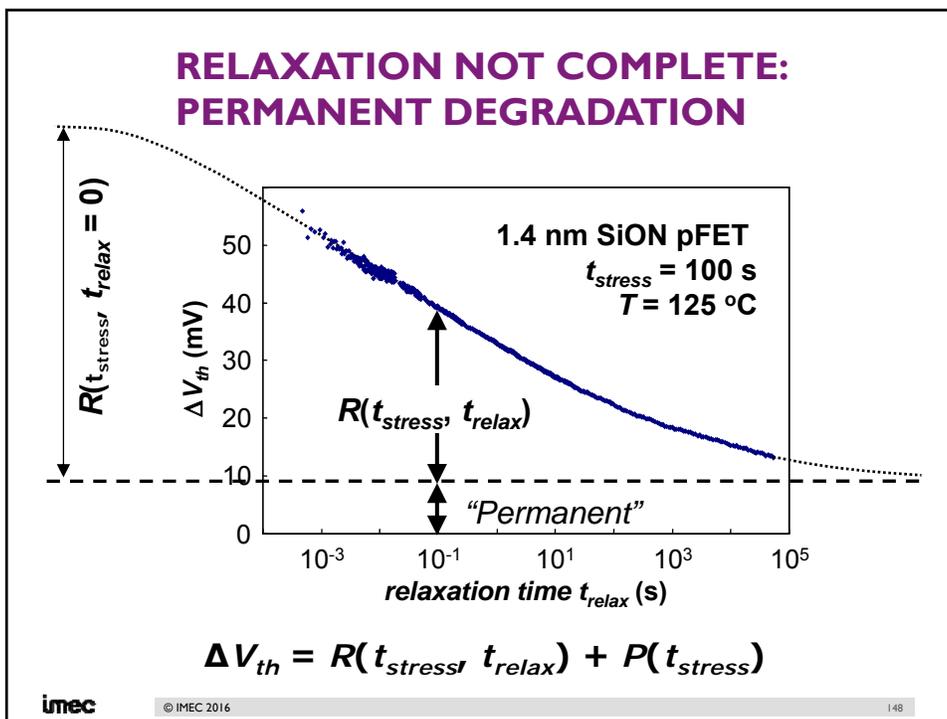
$$V_{stress} = V_{meas} - 1.8\text{V}$$

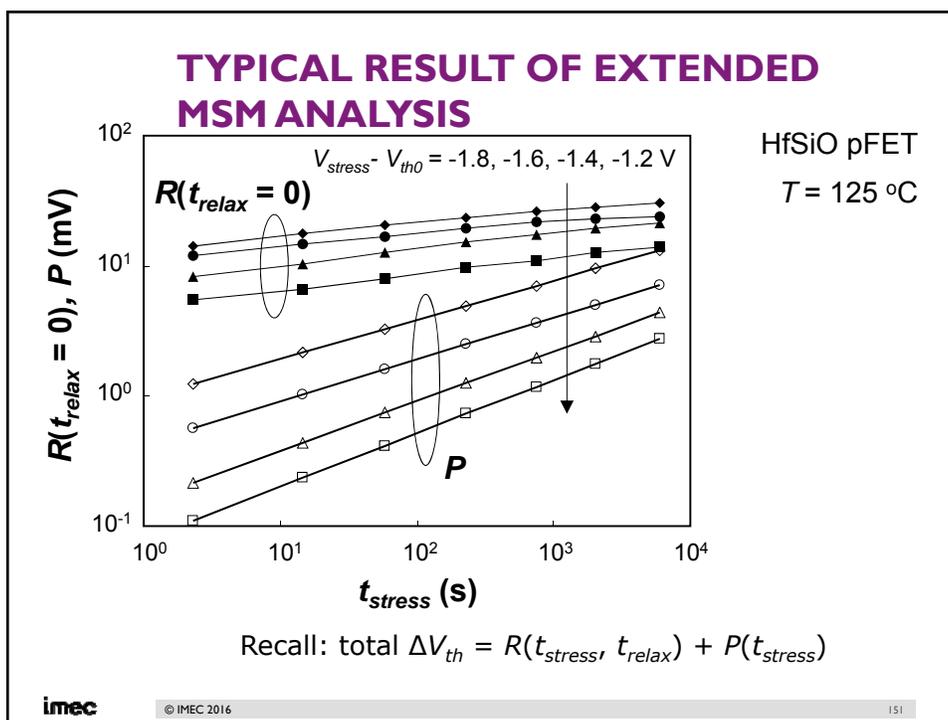
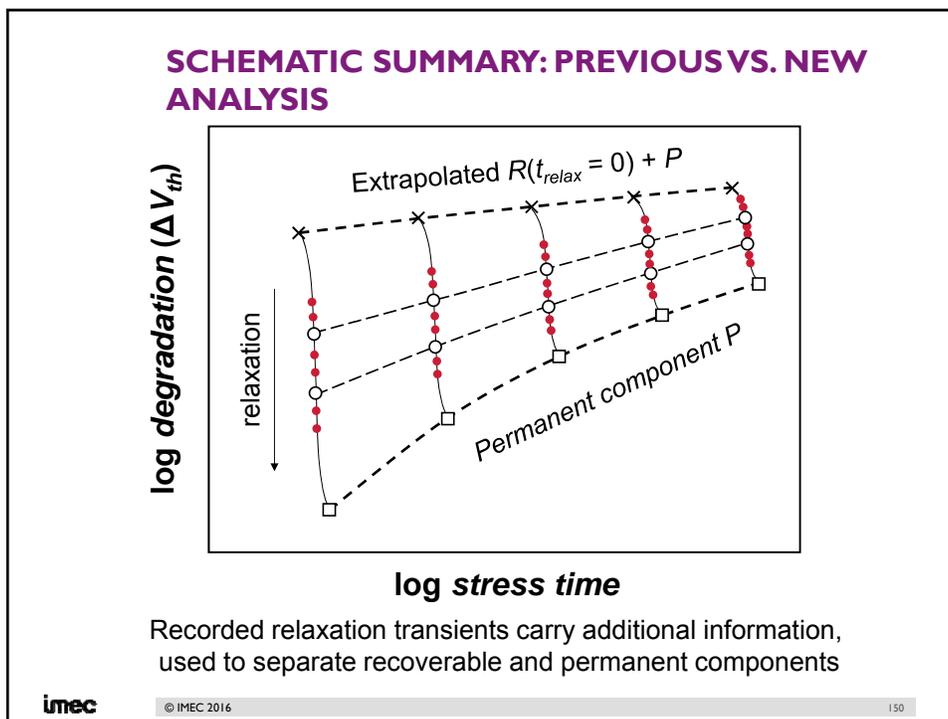
The effect of techniques measuring at different speeds (Fast MSM, DC-IV) can be looked up on this graph (allows “fallback”)

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PRESENT UNDERSTANDING OF THE NBTI COMPONENTS

Recoverable component “R”:

- ▶ Interface states (N_{it})
 - Cannot be due to discharging of interface states (too fast)
 - Cannot be due to R-D passivation of interface states (long relaxation tails)
 - Cannot be due to R-dispersive Diffusion passivation of interface states
- ▶ Hole trapping (N_{ot})
 - Elastic tunneling too fast in thin oxides
 - **Most likely after inclusion of inelastic phonon component**

Permanent component “P”:

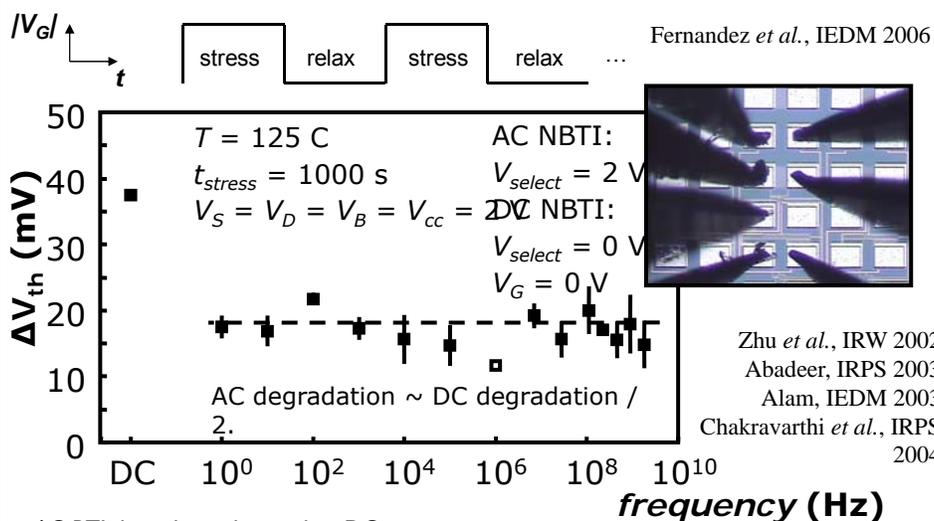
- ▶ Hole trapping (N_{ot})
 - Possibly not fully permanent but really long relaxation
- ▶ Interface states (N_{it})
 - **Most likely component**

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PFET AC NBTI: (FAST) SEQUENCE OF STRESS AND RELAX PHASES



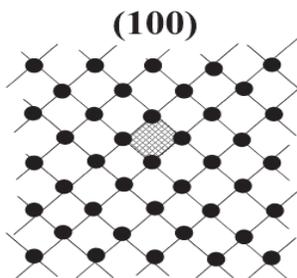
- AC BTI degradation lower than DC
- f -independent up to GHz \rightarrow no “cut-off” time scale down to ~ 1 ns

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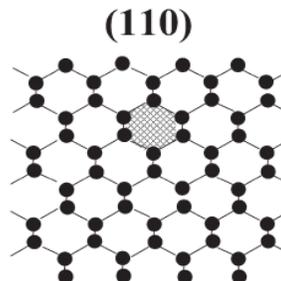
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(110) AND (100) SURFACE ORIENTATIONS



Higher electron mobility



- Higher hole mobility
- Higher density of Si-H bonds

M. Yang, et al. IEDM pp. 453-456, 2003.

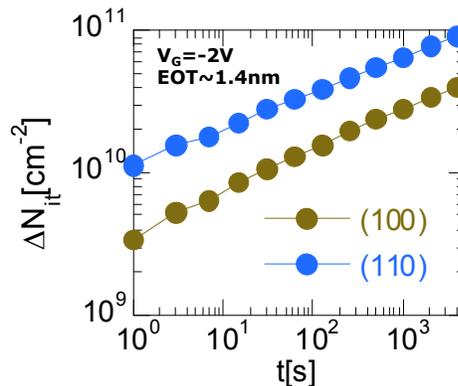
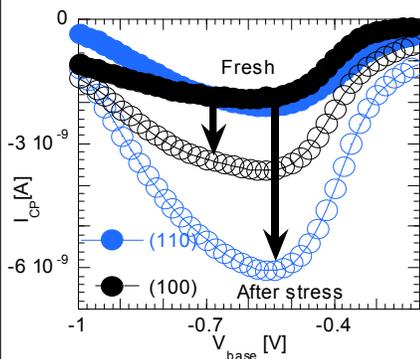
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(110) SURFACE ORIENTATION DEGRADED MORE BY NBTI

M. Aoulaiche *et al.*, SISC ,2006

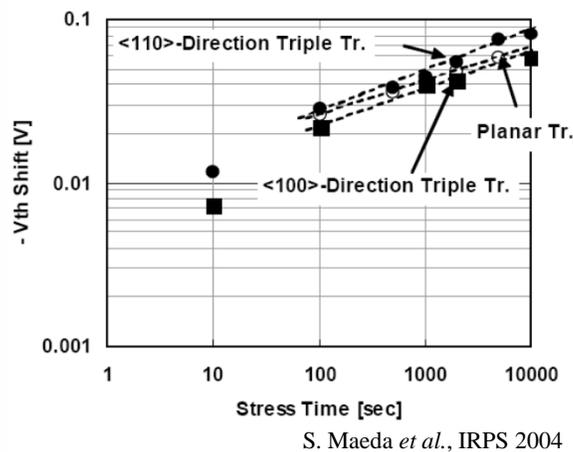
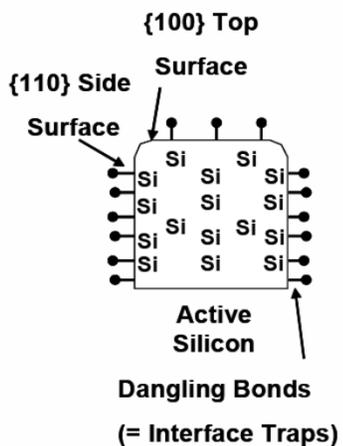


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INFLUENCE OF SIDEWALL ORIENTATION

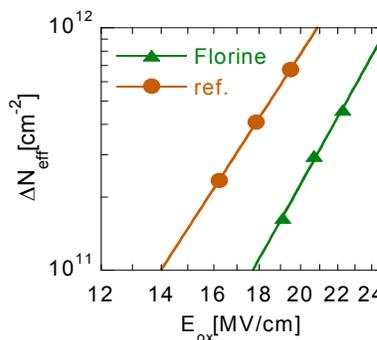
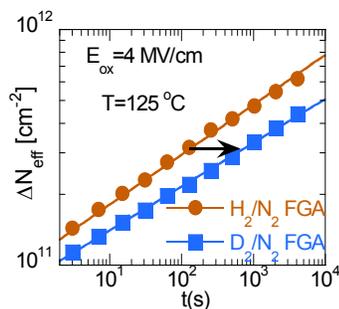


NBTI was reported to be slightly worse for MuGFET devices due to (110) sidewall orientation

IMPROVEMENT DUE TO DEUTERIUM AND FLUORINE

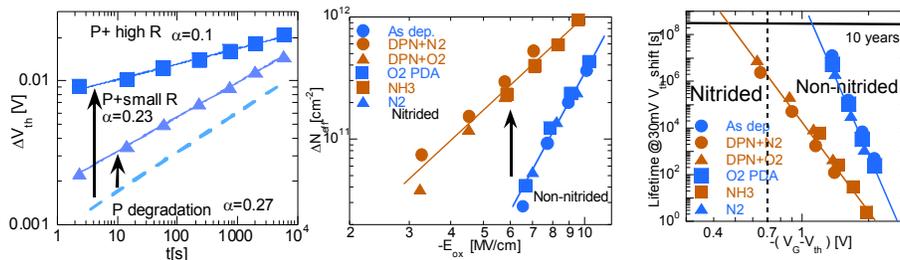


Difference in the dissociation dynamics multiple-vibrational excitation [Van de walle *et al.*]



M. Houssa *et al.*, Electrochemical and Solid-State Letters, 2006

INCREASED NBTI DEGRADATION DUE TO NITROGEN INCORPORATION



NBTI has become important again with the introduction of nitrided oxides: V_{th} shifts and I_{dsat} reduction are much enhanced in oxynitride layers, the more so when N content at the Si/dielectric interface increases.

M. Aoulaiche *et al.*, JVST B, 2009

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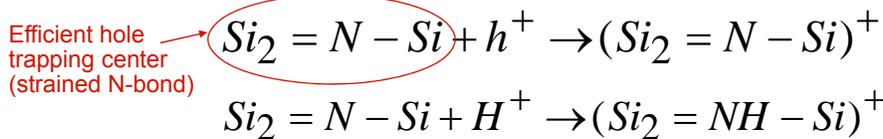
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NBTI IN OXYNITRIDE LAYERS

Consensus more or less reached on the cause of NBTI acceleration in nitrided oxides:

presence of nitrogen-induced defects can trap holes and/or protons, leading to the generation of positive charges in the oxide:



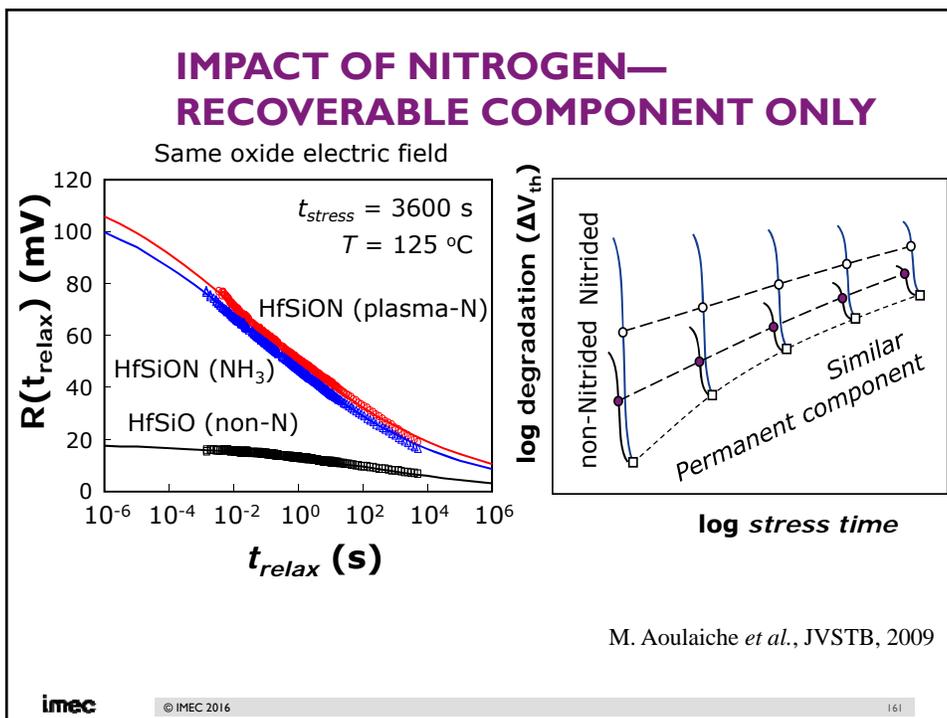
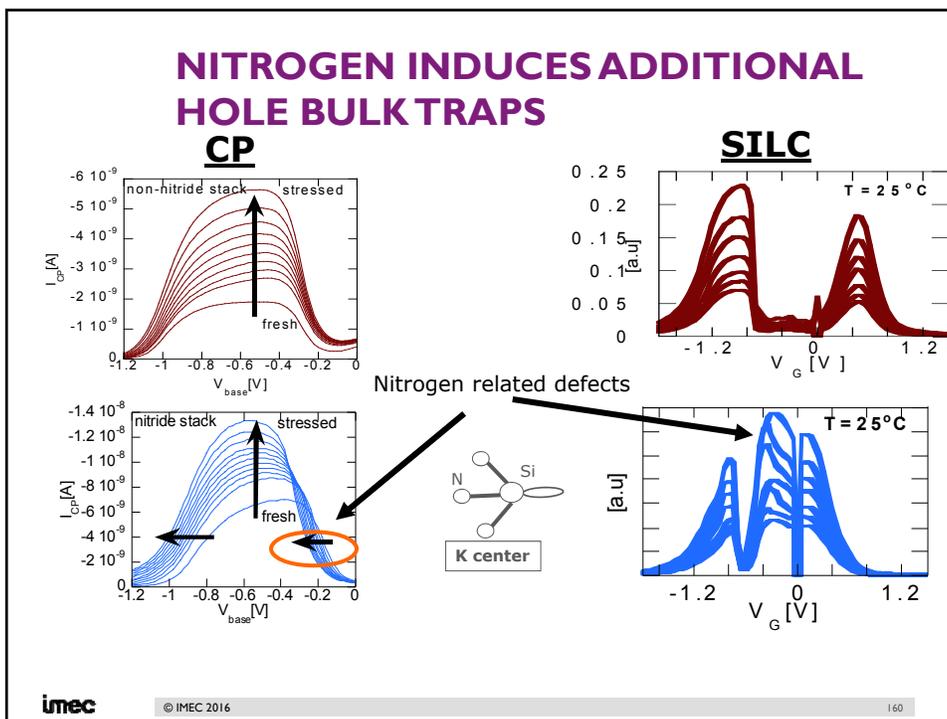
Consequence: Larger V_{th} shift when [N] increases

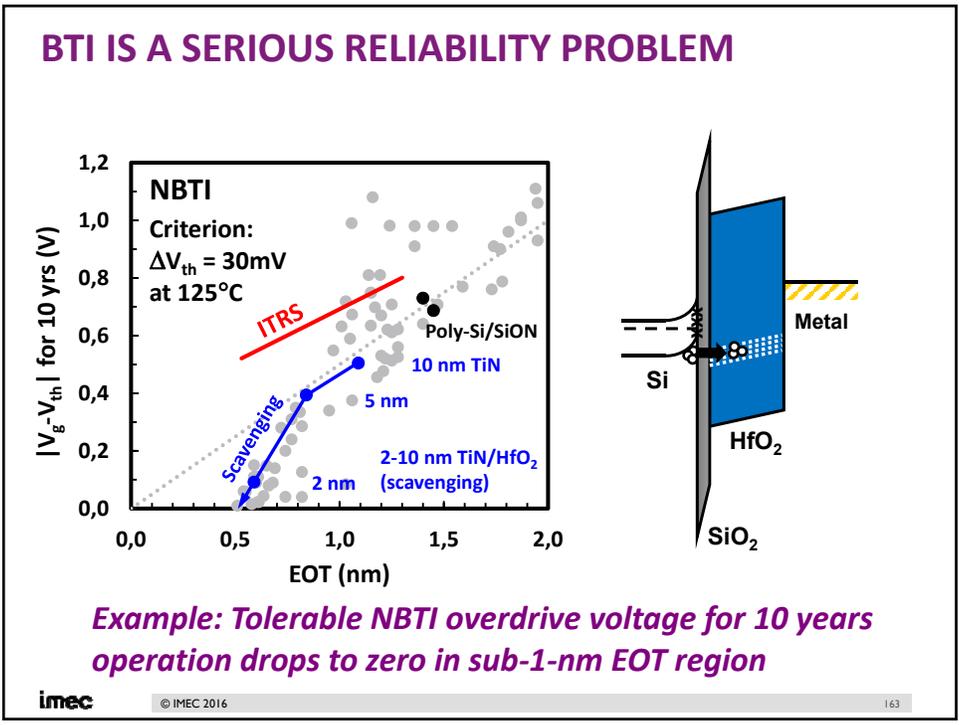
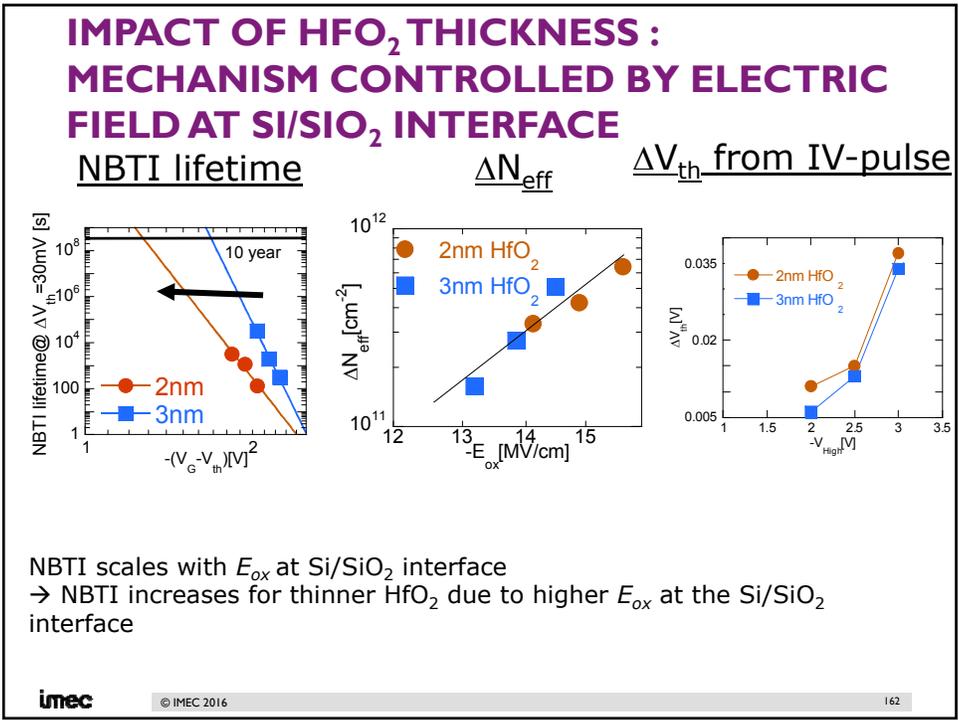
N. Kimizuka *et al.*, 2000 VLSI Symp., p.92.
 K. Kushida-Abdelghafar *et al.*, APL **81**, 4362 (2002)
 S.S. Tan *et al.*, APL **82**, 1881 (2003)
 S. Fujieda *et al.*, APL **82**, 3677 (2003)

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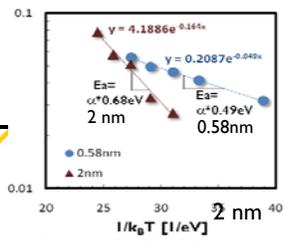
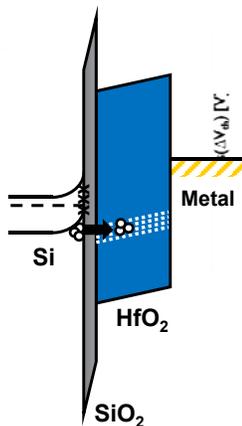
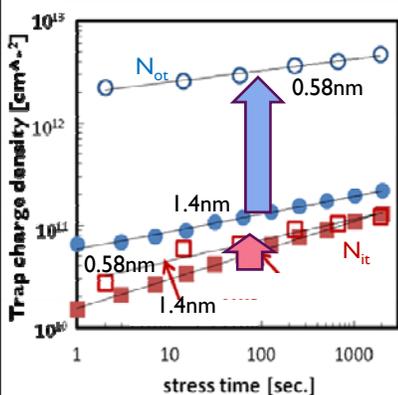
© M. Houssa *et al.*, JAP **95**, 2786 (2004)

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BULK DEFECTS DOMINATE THE NBTI DEGRADATION IN SUB-NANOMETER EOT REGIME

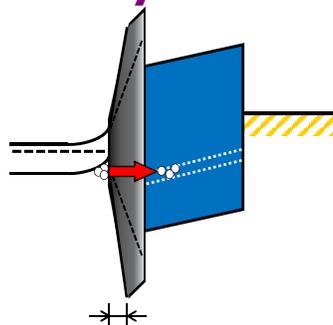
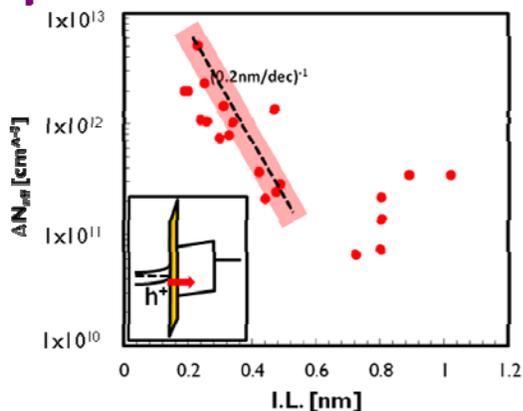


Lower activation energy for 0.58nm EOT devices: more direct tunneling of holes from the channel into the oxide

N_{ot} strongly increases in the 0.58nm EOT devices, N_{it} is similar in both devices

M. Cho et al, IEEE TED, pp. 2042-2048, 2012

Minimum interfacial layer thickness is required to maintain reliability !

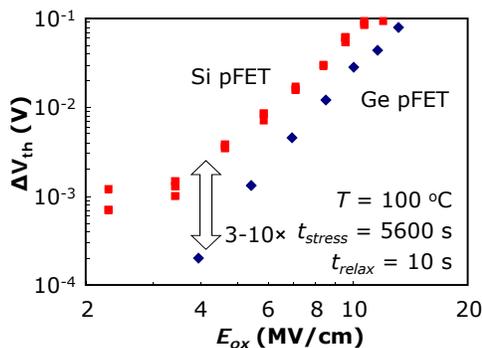
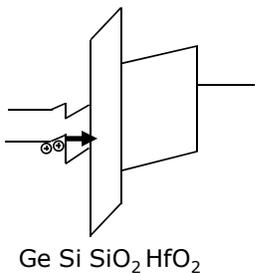
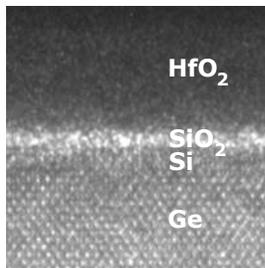


M. Cho et al, IEEE TED, pp. 2042-2048, 2012

Minimum of 0.4nm interfacial layer needed to prevent sudden increase of the NBTI degradation

consistent with ab-initio modeling by Monaghan et al. (Phys. Rev. B, 2007)

NBTI IMPROVEMENT ON Ge-SUBSTRATE pFET



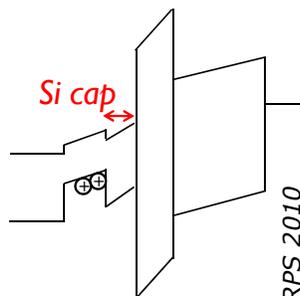
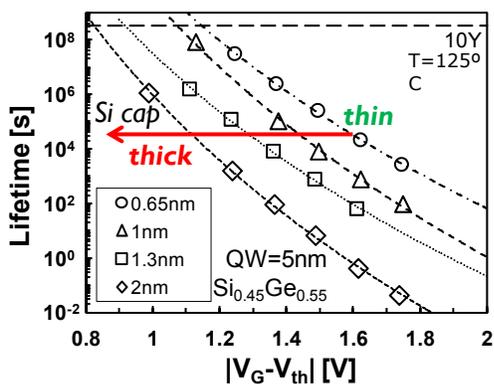
B. Kaczer *et al.*, Microel. Eng. 2009
 J. Franco *et al.*, accepted to IRPS 2010

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Si CAP THICKNESS THINNER CAP IMPROVES NBTI RELIABILITY

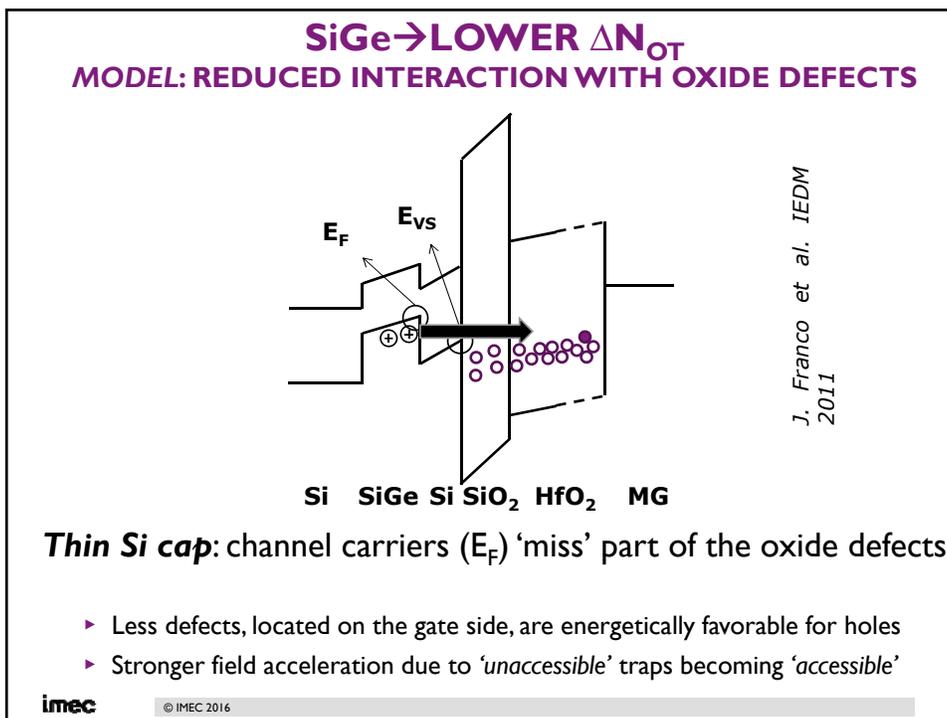
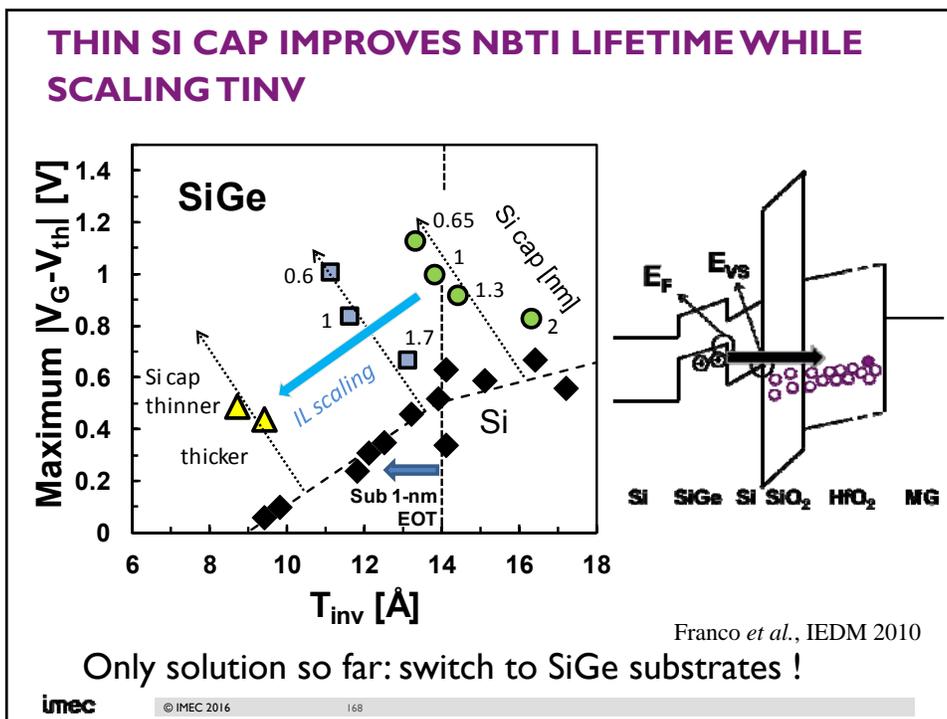


- ▶ Si cap thickness has a strong impact on NBTI
- ▶ **Thinner** Si cap → Reduced NBTI

J. Franco *et al.*, IRPS 2010

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SiGe → LOWER ΔN_{OT}
MODEL: REDUCED INTERACTION WITH OXIDE DEFECTS

Si SiGe Si SiO₂ HfO₂ MG

Thick Si cap: channel carriers (E_F) 'see' all the oxide defects

- ▶ Less defects, located on the gate side, are energetically favorable for holes
- ▶ Stronger field acceleration due to 'unaccessible' traps becoming 'accessible'

J. Franco et al. IEDM 2011

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CONCLUSIONS

- 1) Reliability becomes and more and more critical when downscaling technologies and needs to be taken into account in technology and material choices
- 2) TDDB, BTI and HCD are the three most critical device related failure mechanisms, lot of progress in the understanding of these failure mechanisms has been obtained in the past 3 decades
- 3) TDDB and HCD is under control provided the necessary technology measures are taken (e.g. corner rounding for FinFET's, drain engineering techniques)
- 4) NBTI reliability becomes a showstopper for Si based pMOS devices with sub-1nm EOT
- 5) (Si)Ge/SiO₂/HfO₂ pMOSFETs offer superior reliability w.r.t. Si for sub-1nm EOT nanoscaled pMOSFETs, optimized stack has been identified