



# Gamma and proton irradiation effects and thermal stability of electrical characteristics of metal-oxide-silicon capacitors with atomic layer deposited Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> dielectric



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## ABSTRACT

The radiation hardness and thermal stability of the electrical characteristics of atomic layer deposited Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers to be used as passivation films for silicon radiation detectors with slim edges are investigated. To directly measure the interface charge and to evaluate its change with the ionizing dose, metal-oxide-silicon (MOS) capacitors implementing differently processed Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers were fabricated on p-type silicon substrates. Qualitatively similar results are obtained for degradation of capacitance–voltage and current–voltage characteristics under gamma and proton irradiations up to equivalent doses of 30 Mrad and 21.07 Mrad, respectively. While similar negative charge densities are initially extracted for all non-irradiated capacitors, superior radiation hardness is obtained for MOS structures with alumina layers grown with H<sub>2</sub>O instead of O<sub>3</sub> as oxidant precursor. Competing effects between radiation-induced positive charge trapping and hydrogen release from the H<sub>2</sub>O-grown Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers may explain their higher radiation resistance. Finally, irradiated and non-irradiated MOS capacitors with differently processed Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers have been subjected to thermal treatments in air at temperatures ranging between 100 °C and 200 °C and the thermal stability of their electrical characteristics has been evaluated. Partial recovery of the gamma-induced degradation has been noticed for O<sub>3</sub>-grown MOS structures. This can be explained by a trapped holes emission process, for which an activation energy of  $1.38 \pm 0.15$  eV has been extracted.

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## 1. Introduction

In recent years, a number of high permittivity (high-*k*) dielectrics have been investigated for a wide range of micro/nanotechnology applications, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> being amongst the most studied ones [1,2]. The requirements of large area uniformity, conformality, accurate thickness control of the dielectric layers and low-temperature budget can be achieved by means of atomic layer deposition (ALD) technique. Interestingly, as a difference to other conventional thermally grown or deposited dielectrics like SiO<sub>2</sub> and Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, for which positive fixed charge densities are generally obtained, intrinsic negative charges are found for ALD Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films [3]. The ultimate origin of the negative charges in Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films is still

under debate, however, it has been pointed that aluminum vacancies and oxygen interstitials produce levels in the lower half of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> bandgap, which are candidates to trap negative charges [4,5]. These defect states may be charged by electron tunneling from Si substrate into Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. It has been demonstrated that the presence of a SiO<sub>2</sub> interlayer between Si and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> plays a key role in negative charge formation. An increase in SiO<sub>2</sub> interlayer thickness is known to decrease the effective negative charge densities, eventually leading to positive charge densities for SiO<sub>2</sub> interlayer thicknesses in the range of 5–10 nm [6]. This has been attributed to a reduction of tunneling of electrons into SiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> negative traps, as well as to the introduction of fixed and bulk positive charges at the Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> interface and SiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively [6].

In the last years, excellent surface passivation properties for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers on high-efficiency crystalline silicon solar cells have been proven by a considerable number of studies [7,8]. Passivation

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is partly attributed to the electric field induced by the negative charges, which repels charge carriers from the silicon cell surface, thus avoiding their recombination [3]. Additionally, a chemical passivation mechanism is associated with the reduction of surface recombination by a low Si/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> interface defect density [5]. Optimal passivation results have been obtained for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers with thicknesses typically in the range of 20–30 nm [3,5,7], while lower properties have been appreciated for thinner layers (<10 nm), what has been attributed to a reduced passivation at the Si/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> interface [5].

More recently, in the field of silicon tracking detectors for high-energy physics experiments, interest has also arisen for ALD Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> passivation layers. Silicon tracking detectors are key sub-systems of any modern particle physics experiment. They provide charge particle tracking with high spatial resolution, and are capable of operating in harsh radiation environments [9,10]. Building a full size system in a large experiment, such as ATLAS [11] and CMS at CERN, is a challenging endeavor, due to the practical aspects of instrumenting large area with hermetic coverage. Typically sensors contain inactive regions at their periphery, which requires either tiling them to achieve the hermeticity, or introduction of additional layers to compensate for the acceptance gaps. There are similar requirements in other fields (e.g. medical imaging) that would benefit from maximizing sensor's active area fraction. As a part of the ATLAS Upgrade R&D, we are developing technologies for minimizing the inactive area at the periphery of the sensors, so called "slim edge" approach, to enable hermetic tiling of sensors into large instrumented areas. The method of choice in our investigation is scribe–cleave–passivate (SCP) [12]. Scribing and cleaving steps result in high surface quality on the sidewall, with low defect density [13,14]. The passivation with proper interface charge repels the carriers from the sidewall effectively achieving a resistive surface [15]. This is analogous to the voltage drop along the top surface in the guard ring region of a single-sided sensor, where a certain distance is required to sustain a given bias voltage [16]. In the SCP method the sidewall takes the role of the top region allowing the voltage gradient on its surface. For p-type bulk devices we need to use alumina (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) to passivate the sidewall and to provide negative interface charge with silicon, so that minority charge carriers are repelled and surface recombination is reduced. Radiation tests on such devices indicated relatively low radiation resistance for low fluences [17] with protons, but not with neutrons, indicating possible surface damage.

In recent years, a lot of work has been devoted to physical and electrical characterization of high-*k* dielectrics, as well as to reliability issues [18]. However, much less is known about their behavior in radiation environments. Different works have been published on radiation effects on a limited number of high-*k* dielectrics, with Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> amongst them [19–22]. However, these have been mostly limited to irradiations with X-rays, electrons or heavy ions, and separated studies addressing either capacitance–voltage (*C*–*V*) or current–voltage (*I*–*V*) characterization have been generally considered. Moreover, little is known about annealing of radiation-induced damage in ALD Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> dielectric films [23], the thermal stability of their electrical characteristics being of particular interest.

In this work, we are specifically addressing the radiation hardness of the alumina layer with ionizing radiation. To directly measure the interface charge and to evaluate its change with the ionizing dose, we manufactured Metal-Oxide-Silicon (MOS) capacitors. We varied some details of the Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers processing sequence, including the use of H<sub>2</sub>O or O<sub>3</sub> as oxidant precursors, film thickness and post-processing annealing. We then irradiated the different sample categories with gammas and protons and studied the effects on the electrical characteristics, as well as their

thermal stability. The results indicate that some of the processing variations can produce radiation-hard alumina layers.

## 2. Experimental details

### 2.1. Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors fabrication

MOS capacitors were fabricated in Centro Nacional de Microelectrónica (CNM) cleanroom on four 100 mm-diameter (100)-oriented Czochralski-grown p-type silicon wafers with 0.1–1.4 Ω cm resistivity. After cleaning in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and a dip in HF (5%), a wet thermal oxidation process at 1100 °C in a quartz tube furnace resulted in a 400 nm-thick SiO<sub>2</sub> layer, which was patterned by photolithography and wet etching. In order to investigate any possible process-related radiation hardness differences, blanket Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> dielectric layers with nominal thickness of 20 nm and 40 nm were deposited by ALD in two different facilities, CNM and U.S. Naval Research Laboratory (NRL) (Table 1).

Deposition of CNM Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers was carried out immediately after cleaning in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and a dip in HF (5%). The films were deposited at 250 °C in a Cambridge NanoTech Savannah 200 system, by using trimethylaluminum (TMA) and O<sub>3</sub> as precursors, and N<sub>2</sub> as carrier and purge gas. For CNM layers O<sub>3</sub> was chosen as oxidant precursor, so as to reduce possible blistering phenomena. Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer blistering is associated with a local delamination of the film and is thought to be caused by gaseous desorption upon thermal treatments of the ALD layers, where the dielectric films may act as a gas barrier, thus giving rise to bubble formation [5,24]. Blistering may be encountered for relatively thick (>10 nm) Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ALD layers and it has been found to be reduced when using O<sub>3</sub> oxidant instead of H<sub>2</sub>O [25].

For the case of NRL samples, an additional Silox Vapox III etch of about 20 s was carried out, so as to remove any possible native oxide formed during handling and shipping of the wafers from CNM to NRL. Subsequently, ALD was quickly performed (within 1 min, load-lock and applying vacuum to minimize oxidation in air). NRL Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layers were deposited at 300 °C in an Oxford Plasma ALD system, by using trimethylaluminum (TMA) and H<sub>2</sub>O as precursors, and N<sub>2</sub> as carrier and purge gas. A post-deposition anneal (PDA) treatment of 10 min at 300 °C in H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere was carried out for NRL wafers, just after ALD.

The Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> film thickness was measured prior to gate formation by means of a Rudolph Research Auto EL Ellipsometer, using an index of refraction of 1.64, as well as by a Nanometrics Nanospec 6100 interferometer. The obtained physical thickness values are given in Table 1. A 500 nm-thick Al (99.5%)/Cu (0.5%) layer was deposited as the metal gate of the MOS capacitors. After patterning the metal layer by photolithography and wet etching, the back of the wafers was fully metalized with a 500 nm-thick Al layer for electrically contacting the silicon substrate. Finally, the wafers were cut into halves and one half underwent a forming gas (N<sub>2</sub>/(10%) H<sub>2</sub>) post-metallization annealing (PMA) step at 350 °C for 30 min. The fabricated MOS capacitors are square-shaped with five different surface areas (*A*) ranging from 9.6 × 10<sup>−3</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> to 6.4 × 10<sup>−5</sup> cm<sup>2</sup>. No blistering phenomena were observed on neither CNM nor NRL Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> MOS capacitors subjected or not to the PMA treatment. If the contrary is not indicated, MOS structures with 2.3 × 10<sup>−3</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> and 6.4 × 10<sup>−5</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> areas were used for *C*–*V* and *I*–*V* measurements, respectively.

### 2.2. Irradiation and electrical characterization

MOS capacitors were subjected to unbiased gamma and proton irradiations (the gates of capacitors were left floating) at room temperature. While gamma irradiations were carried out at

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