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# n-MOS Transistor Impact Ionization Boosted by Cumulative Stress Degradation in a 250-nm SiGe BiCMOS Technology

EDMUNDO A. GUTIÉRREZ-D.<sup>1b</sup> (Fellow, IEEE), ALAN Y. OTERO C.<sup>1b</sup>, AND F. XIOMARA RIBERO<sup>1b</sup>

Department of Electronics, Instituto Nacional de Astrofísica, Óptica y Electrónica, Puebla 72840, Mexico

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: E. A. GUTIÉRREZ-D. (e-mail: eduardo@inaoep.mx)

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(All authors contributed equally to this work).

**ABSTRACT** We introduce experimental observations of impact ionization in an n-type MOSFET of a 250 nm SiGe BiCMOS technology when operated under an aging test setup at room temperature. As expected, the electrical basic parameters of the transistor, such as drain current drivability, transconductance, and threshold voltage degrades following a power law. However, impact ionization measured as bulk current enhances as degradation evolves with stress time. Through numerical simulations we prove that impact ionization gets boosted because an enhancement of the longitudinal electric field peak at the drain side, where most of the hot carriers are generated.

**INDEX TERMS** nMOSFET, reliability, impact ionization, hot carriers.

## I. INTRODUCTION

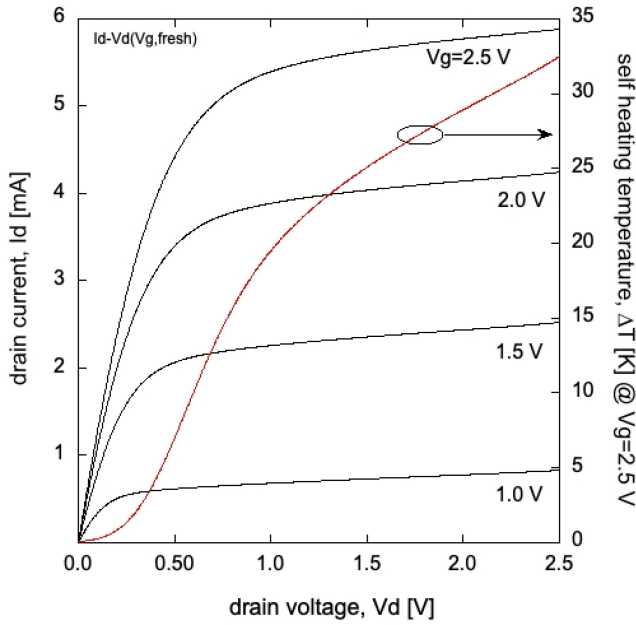
Today SiGe BiCMOS technologies are in general used for high-speed digital data communications systems, automotive radar, radio systems, and some analog circuits, where they share market with CMOS technologies [1]. On the other hand, CMOS-based transceivers, operating in the mm-wave band, are a low-cost available approach [2], but they are limited by the output power, which reduces the radio system range. Despite the unceasing advancement of CMOS technologies, there is still a chance for SiGe-based technologies in the field of mm and sub-mm wave circuits and drivers, for power amplifier stages in the sub-mm and THz range [3], [4].

Getting the best of both SiGe- and Si-based technologies, implies looking not only at the electrical performance in terms of speed, power driving capability, and integration density, but also in terms of reliability. In that direction work on SiGe HBT reliability has been already introduced in [5] for a 130 nm technology, and most recently in [6] for a 55 nm technology. In this work we experimentally test the reliability of the n-type MOSFET transistors of a 250 nm SiGe BiCMOS technology.

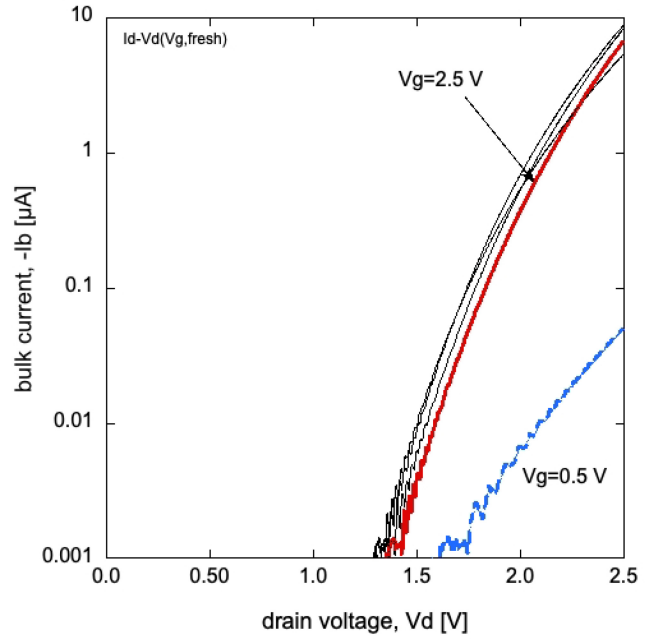
## II. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS, ANALYSIS, AND SIMULATIONS

In this work we introduce experimental reliability data of a n-type Metal-Oxide-Field-Effect Transistor (nMOSFET) of a 250 nm BiCMOS technology. A transistor with a gate width  $W=1 \mu\text{m}$ , a gate length  $L=240 \text{ nm}$ , a gate oxide  $T_{ox}=5 \text{ nm}$ , a retro grade P and N wells [7], and with a maximum operation voltage of  $2.5 \text{ V} \pm 8\%$ , is used as a test device. We particularly focus on the nMOSFET device as a critical piece for high-density digital processing and high-voltage analog devices within a BiCMOS system. An average result of three devices, measured on-wafer, is reported here. All the devices were tested using a Semiconductor Device Analyzer B1500A.

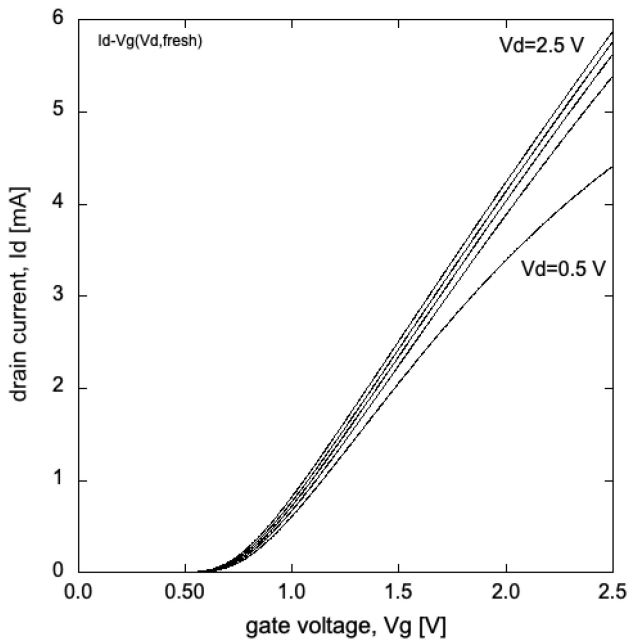
The concurrence of a high electric field with the flow of large number of electrical charges, either electrons or holes, gives rises to charge acceleration, which in turns results in hot carriers (HC) [8], which either get trapped in the gate oxide or generate interface states. Because of HC ionization, charges impacted by accelerated charges are dislodged, resulting in the case of n-type MOSFET, in hot electrons



**FIGURE 1.** Measured  $I_d$ - $V_d$  characteristics for  $V_g$  swept from 1.0 to 2.5 V in steps of 0.5 V. The extracted selfheating temperature is shown at the right axis.



**FIGURE 3.** Measured bulk current  $I_b$  versus drain voltage  $V_d$ , for  $V_g$  swept from 0.5 V to 2.5 V.



**FIGURE 2.** Measured  $I_d$ - $V_g$  characteristics with  $V_d$  swept from 0.5 to 2.5 V in steps of 0.5 V.

traveling to the drain side or being trapped in the gate oxide, while hot holes are swept towards the bulk. The hole current collected at the bulk contact becomes the bulk current  $I_b$ . The  $I_b$  current is considered as a sort of monitor of HC and its associated device degradation.

To start with the analysis, we show, in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, the experimental results of the drain current versus drain voltage ( $I_d$ - $V_d$ ) and drain current versus gate voltage ( $I_d$ - $V_g$ ) characteristics.

The maximum dissipated power, within the maximum operating voltage, is about 15 mW. And because of the selfheating effect [9], the internal temperature  $\Delta T$  increases above that of room temperature by about 32 K (see right axis of Fig. 1). The internal temperature was calibrated against the measured  $I_d$ - $V_d$  versus temperature in the 300 K-350 K range.

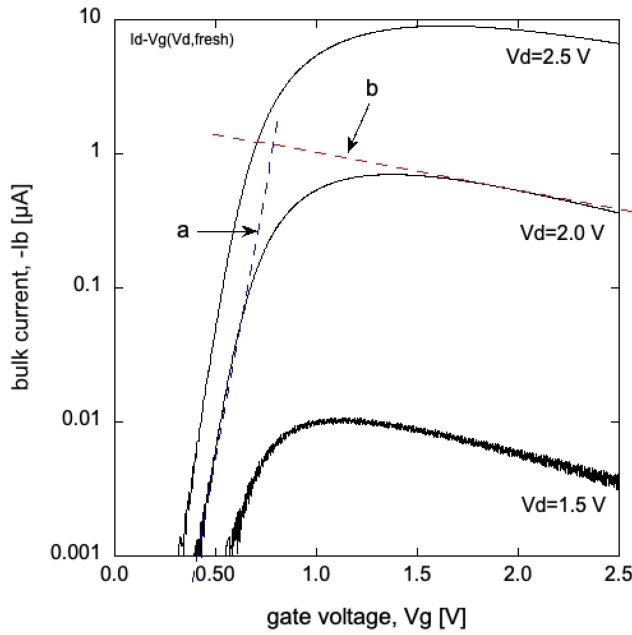
The  $I_d$ - $V_d$  value was measured using a pulsed voltage technique to avoid self-heating [10]. Because of the exponential dependence of the impact ionization on the longitudinal electric field  $E_l$ , the  $I_b$ - $V_d$  characteristics are expected to follow an exponential behavior as shown in Fig. 3. The light deviation from a pure exponential behavior of the  $I_b$ - $V_d$  curve can be attributed to self-heating as we monitored an average reduction of 49 nA per Kelvin degree, in the 300 K-350 K temperature range, for  $V_g=V_d=2.5$  V. The  $I_b$ - $V_g$ , with  $V_d$  as a parameter, characteristics in Fig. 4 show a typical bell-shaped curve.

The  $I_b$ - $V_d$  shows a typical exponential behavior that obeys the exponential dependence of impact ionization on the longitudinal electric field  $E_l$ , which in turns depends on  $V_d$ . This behavior can be modeled by Eq. (1).

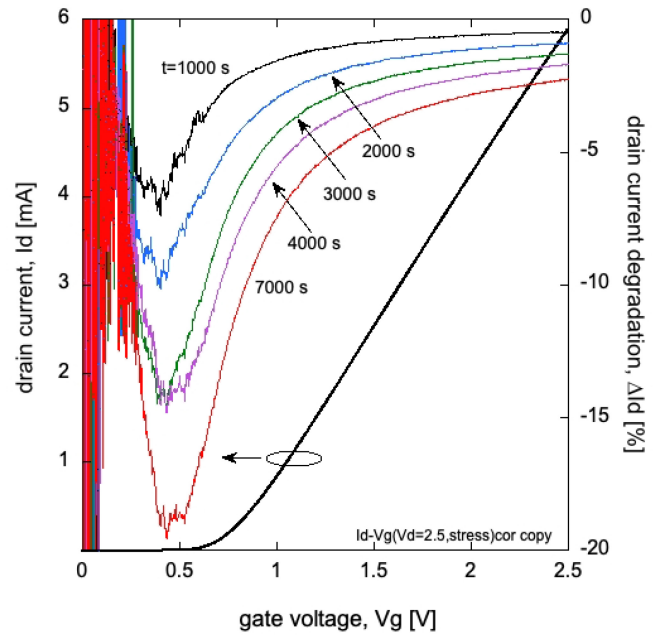
$$I_b = I_d \int_0^{L_{sat}} \alpha \, dx \quad (1)$$

where  $L_{sat}$  refers to the length of the pinch off region at the drain side where impact ionization takes place.  $\alpha$  refers to the impact ionization coefficient given by Eq. (2) [11].

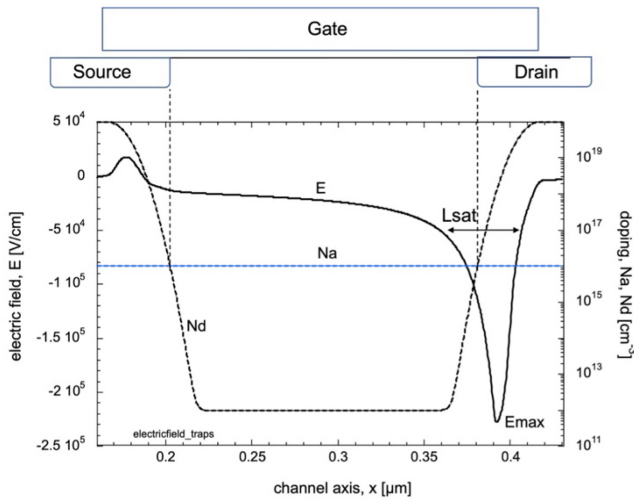
$$\alpha = \alpha_0 \exp \left[ - \left( \frac{E_{crit} \cdot |\vec{J}_n|}{\vec{E} \cdot \vec{J}_n} \right)^\beta \right] \quad (2)$$



**FIGURE 4.** Measured bulk current  $I_b$  versus gate voltage  $V_g$  for  $V_d$  swept from 0.5 V to 2.5 V.



**FIGURE 6.** Measured  $I_d$  current and drain current degradation  $\Delta I_d$  versus  $V_g$  for 5 different stressing times.



**FIGURE 5.** Longitudinal electric field  $E_1$  distribution along the channel axis  $x$ . The doping profile ( $N_d$  and  $N_a$ ) is also shown.

where  $\alpha_0$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $E_{crit}$ , are fitting parameters,  $\vec{J}_n$  is the electron current density for electrons, and  $\vec{E}$  is the electric field.

Impact ionization happens when electrons enter the high field region (see Fig. 5) gaining energy and dislodging holes when impacting the drain side. Most of the hot electrons flow to the drain contact and some other might tunnel through the gate oxide. In the case of a nMOSFET, the hot holes flow to the bulk to become the bulk current  $I_b$ .

For having impact ionization, two conditions are required; the existence of a high enough longitudinal electric field  $E_1$  for carriers to be accelerated to gain additional energy, and enough carriers flowing through the high field region. This

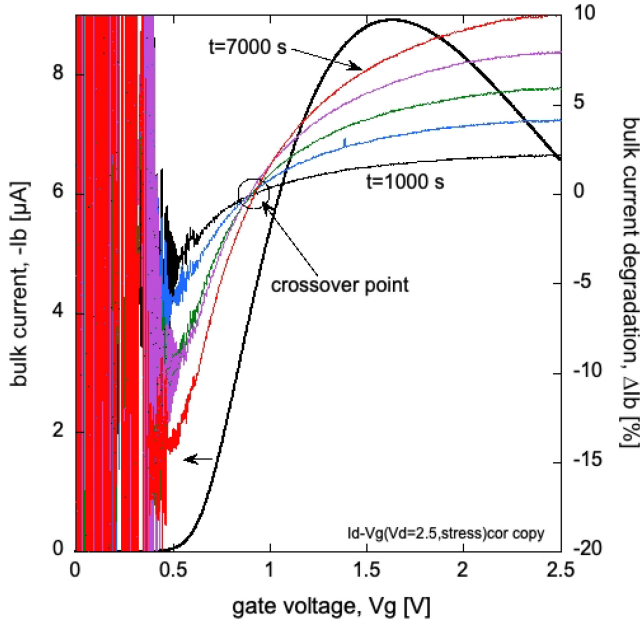
condition is shown by the dashed lines in Fig. 4. The line with positive slope marked with the letter “a” describes the linear dependence of  $I_b$  with respect to  $I_d$  (see Eq. (1)). In this low  $V_g$  regime, the electric field  $E_1$  has a large value through which the electrons supplied by the  $I_d$  current flow and ignite impact ionization. As  $V_g$  increases  $E_1$  reduces resulting in an exponential decrease of the impact ionization  $\alpha$ , with the transistor entering the region “b” with the line with negative slope. The longitudinal electric field  $E_1$  is controlled by both, the gate and drain voltages.

Now an aging procedure is applied on the transistor to investigate the reliability performance and its correlation to the impact ionization mechanism.

An overvoltage  $V_d=3.0$  V is applied on the drain terminal, while  $V_g$  is set to 1.6 V corresponding with the bias condition at maximum bulk current  $I_b$ , with 5 different stress times of 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, and 7000 seconds. We chose  $V_g=1.6$  V because is the voltage at which the impact ionization is maximized and thus the damage caused to the channel-oxide interface. The results of the aging procedure are shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7.

From Fig. 6 we observe a larger channel current degradation  $\Delta I_d$  in the subthreshold to linear region, which is originated by the increase of the threshold voltage  $V_T$  with the stress time as shown in Fig. 8.

The increase of the absolute value of the threshold voltage  $V_T$  is understood as a transistor degradation as a much higher voltage is required to turn on the device, and thus an increase of the energy consumption is required. As expected, the transconductance degrades because of the creation of interface defects, which degrades the carrier mobility  $\mu$  and thus lowers the transconductance  $g_m$ . The measured



**FIGURE 7.** Measured  $I_b$  and bulk current degradation  $\Delta I_b$  versus  $V_g$  at 5 different stress times, with  $V_d=2.5$  V.

bulk current  $I_b$  in Fig. 7, shows a peculiar behavior with a crossover gate voltage point around 0.9 V. Below that voltage value the  $I_b$  current reduces with the stress time, but at higher  $V_g$  values it increases. As an example, for a  $V_g=2.5$  V and a stress time of 7000 s, the  $I_b$  current enhances by a factor of 10% compared to the fresh condition. This effect is interpreted as a boosting of the impact ionization mechanism. Therefore, to understand this boosting, measured as an increase of  $I_b$ , we perform numerical simulations with the support of the Minimos-NT 2.1 tool [12].

To simulate the device degradation, a density of defects per unit are  $D_{it}$  versus stress time, based on a power law (see Eq. (3)), is used to reproduce the effect of stress time on the degradation or reliability of the transistor.

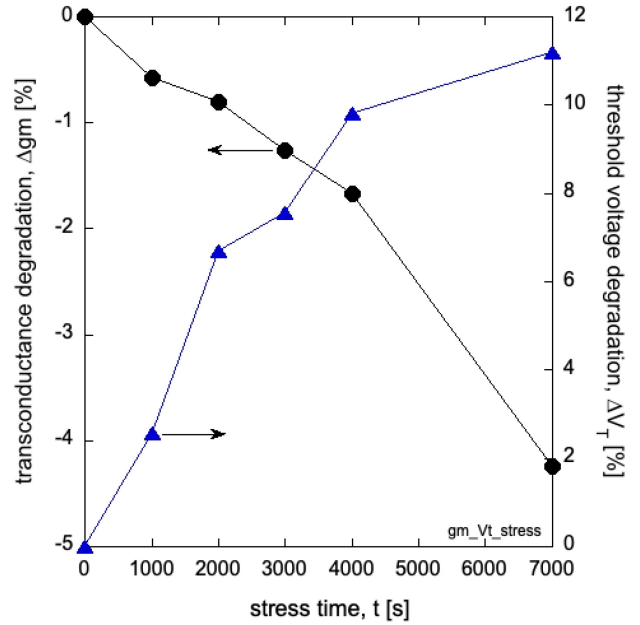
$$D_{it} = a \cdot t^b \quad (3)$$

The simulation results, setting  $a=6 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-2}$  and  $b=0.5$ , are shown Fig. 9.

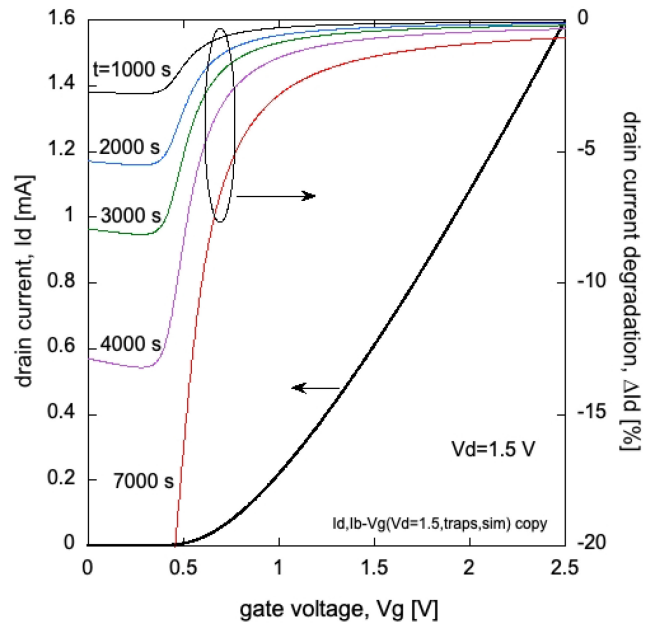
The simulated  $\Delta I_d$ - $V_g$  characteristics shown in Fig. 9 resembles those of the experimental results in Fig. 6, with a larger current degradation  $\Delta I_d$  at low  $V_g$  values compared to those obtained at high  $V_g$  values.

The simulated  $I_b$  and corresponding degradation  $\Delta I_b$ , are shown in Fig. 10. The shape of these  $I_b$ - and  $\Delta I_b$ - $V_g$  simulated characteristics, are alike the experimental ones, except for the magnitude that does not matches.

The magnitude mismatch is attributed to the fact that we did not calibrate the impact ionization model used for the numerical simulations. Despite that fact, the match is good from the qualitative point of view as the crossover point of the  $\Delta I_b$ - $V_g$  and the  $I_b$  boosting, are reproduced.



**FIGURE 8.** Measured transconductance  $\Delta g_m$  and threshold voltage  $\Delta V_t$  degradation.



**FIGURE 9.** Simulated  $I_d$  and  $\Delta I_d$  versus  $V_g$  voltage for 5 different stress times, for  $V_d=1.5$  V.

To back up the physical reasoning behind the simulations, the boosting of impact ionization  $\Delta I_b$  and drain current degradation  $\Delta I_d$  is simulated and plotted versus  $D_{it}$  in Fig. 11. As the stress time increases, the density of interface states  $D_{it}$  increases as predicted by Eq. (3). This is reproduced in the x-axis of Fig. 11, where both  $\Delta I_d$  and  $\Delta I_b$  are simulated as a function of  $D_{it}$ . The simulation reproduces the degradation of  $I_d$  and the boosting of  $I_b$  as shown by

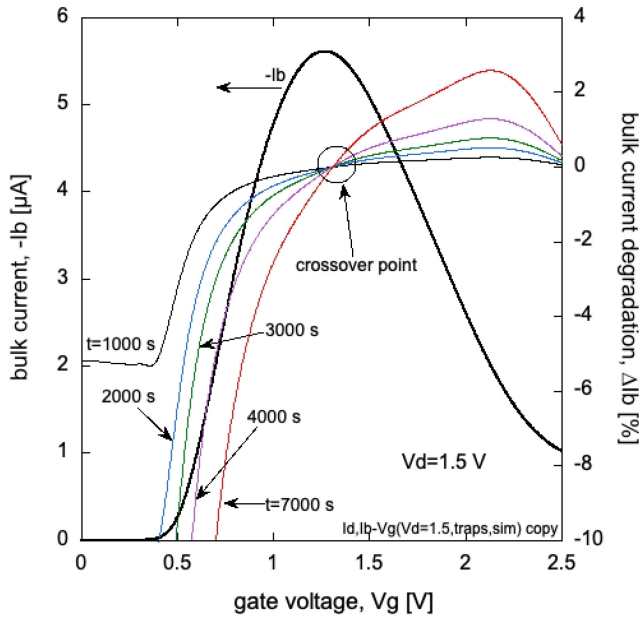


FIGURE 10. Simulated  $I_b$  and  $\Delta I_b$  versus  $V_g$  curves for 5 different stress times,  $V_d=1.5$  V.

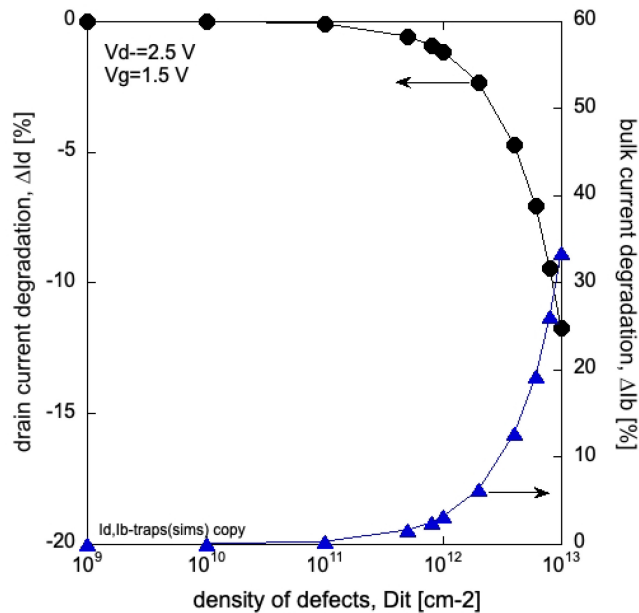


FIGURE 11. Simulation of the degradation values  $\Delta I_d$  and  $\Delta I_b$  versus the density of interface defects, at  $V_d=2.5$  V and  $V_g=1.5$  V.

an increase  $\Delta I_b$  of about +33% for  $D_{it}=10^{13}$   $\text{cm}^{-2}$  and a  $\Delta I_d=12\%$ .

As we mentioned before, the hot electrons which gain energy from the longitudinal electric field  $E_l$ , are responsible for the creation of interface defects generated by impact ionization. Then, we proceed to simulate the internal electric field, with both its longitudinal and transversal components,  $E_l$  and  $E_t$ , respectively. Both simulated electric field components as a function of  $D_{it}$ , are plotted in Fig. 12. As  $D_{it}$

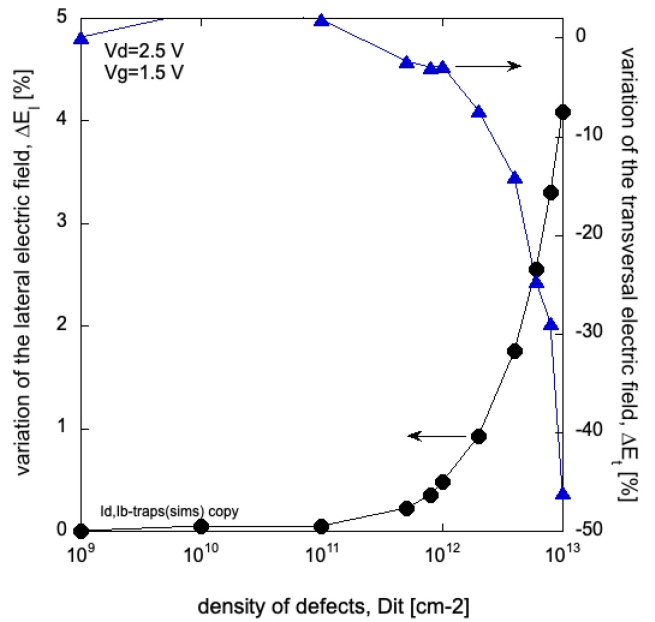


FIGURE 12. Simulation of the value of the magnitude of the lateral  $E_t$  and transversal  $E_t$  electric field, captured at the maximum value of the electric field in the pinch-off region (see  $E_{max}$  at figure 3). For  $V_d=2.5$  V and  $V_g=1.5$  V.

increases the  $E_t$  component gets shielded by the generation of defects, which reduces its magnitude with a corresponding degradation of the transconductance  $g_m$  and drain current  $I_d$ . On the other hand, the shielding of  $E_t$  results in an increase of the longitudinal electric field  $E_l$ , with the consequent increase of the energy source for electron impact ionization.

### III. CONCLUSION

The experimental evidence of impact ionization boosting, measured by the increase of the bulk current  $I_b$  when the  $I_d$  current degrades, is qualitatively reproduced with numerical simulations. The numerical simulation, based on a  $D_{it}$ -stress calibration model, shows the boosting of impact ionization is correlated to the increase of the longitudinal electric field  $E_l$  at the pinch-off region. And that the increase of  $E_l$  is a result of the reduction of the transversal electric field  $E_t$  shielded by the interface trap generated by the electrical stress applied on the transistor. We also were able to reproduce the crossover point at the  $V_g$  voltage where  $I_b$  goes from degradation to boosting.

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**EDMUNDO A. GUTIÉRREZ-D.** (Fellow, IEEE) received the Ph.D. degree from Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium, in 1993.

He is currently the Head of the Instituto Nacional de Astrofísica, Óptica y Electrónica, Puebla, Mexico. He has published over 150 scientific works in international journals and conference proceedings in the field of semiconductor materials and devices. He is the author of the book *Low Temperature Electronics, Physics, Devices, Circuits and Applications* (Academic Press, 2001) and an Editor of the book *Nano-Scaled Semiconductor Devices; Physics, Modelling Characterisation, and Societal Impact* (IET Press, 2016). And chapter 4 contribution to the book *Noise in Nanoscale Semiconductor Devices* (T. Grasser, Springer 2020). He is currently an Editor-in-Chief of IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON DEVICE AND MATERIALS RELIABILITY and an Editor of IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON ELECTRON DEVICES.

**ALAN Y. OTERO C.**, photograph and biography not available at the time of publication.

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