# Measurements and Simulations of Hot-Carrier Degradation Effects in AlGaAs/GaAs HFETs

A. Mazzanti, G. Verzellesi, A.F. Basile, C. Canali, G. Sozzi\*, R. Menozzi\*

Università di Modena e Reggio E. and INFM, Dipartimento di Ingegneria dell'Informazione, via Vignolese 905, 41100 Modena, Italy, e-mail: giovanni.verzellesi@unimo.it
\* Università di Parma, Dipartimento di Ingegneria dell'Informazione, Parco Area delle Scienze 181A, 43100 Parma, Italy, e-mail: roberto.menozzi@unipr.it

Hot-carrier degradation effects are investigated in AlGaAs/GaAs HFETs by coupling measurements and twodimensional device simulations. It is shown that only a simultaneous, localised increase of defects at the gate-drain recess surface and channel-buffer interface can thoroughly account for the observed post-stress device behaviour in terms of drain saturation current decrease, reverse gate current increase, gate-lag enhancement.

## INTRODUCTION

Understanding the physical mechanisms behind highfield degradation of III-V FETs is essential to improve the reliability of these devices in state-of-the-art microwave power applications. The physical mechanism which is most frequently held responsible for high-field degradation is the hot-carrier-induced generation of interface states at the semiconductor-passivation surface between gate and drain. Electrons trapped by these states and into the passivation would lead to increased surface depletion and, consequently, to drain series resistance increase, drain saturation current (I<sub>DSS</sub>) and transconductance (gm) reduction, as well as breakdown walkout. However, a conclusive validation of this degradation mechanism, showing that it can provide consistent explanation for the manifold consequences of hot-electron stress, is still lacking.

In this paper, we show how comparison of measurements and device-simulation outputs can provide insight about the main degradation effects observed in AlGaAs/GaAs HFETs and contribute to the comprehension of the underlying physical mechanisms.

# SAMPLES AND NUMERICAL MODEL

Devices adopted for this study are double-recess power HFETs fabricated at Alenia Marconi Systems with the following bottom-up structure: GaAs SI substrate; AlGaAs/GaAs multilayer buffer; 75 nm thick n-GaAs channel, Si-doped at  $4x10^{17}$ cm<sup>-3</sup>; Al<sub>0.25</sub>Ga<sub>0.75</sub>As barrier layer, Si-doped at  $2x10^{17}$ cm<sup>-3</sup>, 30-nm thick under the gate; n<sup>+</sup>-GaAs cap for low-resistance ohmic contacts. Gate width and length are 200 µm and 0.25 µm,

respectively. Typical electrical parameters measured in these devices are  $I_{DSS}\approx200$  mA/mm,  $g_m\approx150$  mS/mm, pinch-off voltage  $V_T\approx-2$  V, off-state drain-source breakdown voltage (measured at  $I_G=-1$  mA/mm)  $BV_{DS}^{OFF}=17$  V, off-state drain-gate voltage  $BV_{DG}^{OFF}=19$ -20 V. At 10 GHz and 1-dB compression, the typical power density and gain are 0.6 W/mm and 9.6 dB, respectively. Additional details about device fabrication technology can be found in (1).



Figure 1: Sketch of the simulation domain (not to scale).

Two-dimensional device simulations were performed with the program DESSIS-ISE (2). The hydrodynamic transport model was adopted for electrons, whereas holes were treated with the computationally more efficient drift-diffusion model. The electron-initiated impactionization (i.i.) rate was expressed as a function of the electron energy through the so-called effective-carriertemperature model (2), allowing non-local i.i. effects to be accounted for. The simulation domain is sketched in Fig. 1. In order to account for process damage in the asfabricated devices, a density of  $2x10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> acceptor-like surface states was defined at the  $Al_{0.25}Ga_{0.75}As$  recess surfaces between gate and drain and between gate and source. Based on g<sub>m</sub> frequency dispersion and DLTS results, we set the energy of these states at 0.36 eV above the top of valence band (E<sub>V</sub>), and their apparent cross-section at  $2x10^{-17}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> both for electrons and holes (3). A negative fixed charge density of  $6x10^{11}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> was instead placed at the GaAs/Al<sub>0.5</sub>Ga<sub>0.5</sub>As interface in order to account for electrons trapped in the buffer and substrate and to achieve a good fit of the measured V<sub>T</sub>.



Figure 2: Experimental  $I_D$ - $V_{DS}$  and  $I_G$ - $V_{GS}$  characteristics at increasing stress time.

### RESULTS

The HFETs underwent room temperature DC hotelectron accelerated stress under several different bias conditions (1). Fig. 2 shows how hot-carrier stress impacts the I<sub>D</sub>-V<sub>DS</sub> and the bell-shaped I<sub>G</sub>-V<sub>GS</sub> curves. The stress conditions are  $I_G$ =-0.5 mA/mm,  $I_D$ =0.5 mA/mm, corresponding to an initial  $V_{DG} = 20.3$  V. As can be seen, I<sub>DSS</sub> decreases at increasing stress time (it reaches a 30% degradation in about 10 hours under the applied stress conditions). At the same time, the  $|I_G|$  peak increases. As widely known, the bell-shaped IG vs. VGS curve originates from the opposing trends of current density and electron temperature versus V<sub>GS</sub>: while the current increases with V<sub>GS</sub>, the electrons cool down due to field relaxation; consequently, the impact ionisation rate and the gate current, which depend on both the electron current density and energy, peak around V<sub>GS</sub> ranging from -2 V to -1.5 V. Other degradation effects always observed in these devices are a reduction of g<sub>m</sub>, an increase in the drain access resistance (measured by an end-resistance method) and the walkout of the off-state breakdown. An extensive description of acceleratedstress results can be found in (1).

Device simulations are able to reproduce the experimentally observed hot-electron stress effects,

provided that suitable distributions of surface states/fixed charges are accounted for at the barrier-passivation and channel-buffer interfaces in gate-drain access region. More specifically, simulation results can be summarized as follows.



Figure 3: Gate current versus gate-source voltage curves for increasing uniform surface damage (simulated stress A).



Figure 4: Gate current versus gate-source voltage for increasing localised surface damage (simulated stress B).

The surface hot-carrier-induced damage must be concentrated into a narrow ( $\approx 70$  nm) portion of the gatedrain recess adjacent to the gate, otherwise the bellshaped  $I_G(V_{GS})$  curve can not be reproduced by simulations with high surface-state densities at the gatedrain surface (N<sub>SD</sub>). As a matter of fact, if a high N<sub>SD</sub> is uniformly distributed throughout the gate-drain recess surface (simulated stress A, Fig. 1), the electric field peak shifts laterally into the drain access region, resulting in reduced V<sub>GS</sub> control on peak electric field and impactionisation rate. As a result, the reverse gate current become a monotonic function of  $V_{GS}$ , i.e. the  $I_G(V_{GS})$  bell curve is not reproduced by simulations (see Fig. 3), whereas, experimentally, it is still observed even in the most degraded devices (see Fig. 2). When the increase of N<sub>SD</sub> simulating the hot-carrier damage is confined to a narrow (70 nm) portion of the gate-drain recess adjacent to the gate (simulated stress **B**, Fig. 1), the I<sub>G</sub> bell

survives even at the higher  $N_{SD}$  value considered. However, the effect of the simulated stress on the  $I_G$  versus  $V_{GS}$  curves is weak and opposite in sign to the measured one (see Fig. 4).



Figure 5: Simulated output characteristics for increasing localised damage at the gate-drain surface and channel-buffer interface (simulated stress C).



Figure 6: Simulated  $I_G$  vs  $V_{GS}$  curves for increasing localised damage at the gate-drain surface and channel-buffer interface (simulated stress C).

The increase in the localised surface damage must be accompanied by a corresponding increase of negative charge density at the channel/buffer interface, if one wants to match simultaneously the I<sub>D</sub> degradation and the  $|I_G|$  peak increase observed experimentally at increasing hot-electron stress. Figs. 5 and 6 show simulation results obtained by increasing  $N_{SD}$  from  $2x10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> to 6.5  $x10^{12}$ cm<sup>-2</sup> in a 70-nm-wide surface region on the drain side of the gate, but at the same time raising the fixed negative charge at the bottom channel interface by 10% of the surface increase of  $N_{SD}$ , in a 100-nm segment between gate and drain (simulated stress C, Fig. 1). This time, an I<sub>D</sub> reduction similar to the measured ones were simulated (Fig. 5), as well as the increase of the bell curve peak (Fig. 6). Inspection of the simulation outputs shows that this simulated stress results in an increase of the peak electron temperature, only partially compensated by a

reduction of the channel current density: the net result is a significant enhancement of the impact ionisation rate, hence the increase of  $I_G$  of Fig. 6.

In agreement with experimental results (Fig. 2), simulations shown in Fig. 5 exhibit a kink at  $V_{DS}\approx 6$  V. Simulations allow the physical origin of the kink to be elucidated. While for  $V_{DS} < 6$  V nearly all of the states on the source side are occupied by electrons, at the  $V_{DS}$ value (about 6 V) for which channel impact ionisation becomes significant, surface deep acceptors get partly discharged due to hole capture, thus reducing the depletion region under the ungated surface, see Fig. 7. This in turn leads to I<sub>D</sub> increase, hence the kink. As already observed in (4), the kink is present in the simulated output characteristics only if both i.i. and surface deep levels are accounted for (see Fig. 8).



Figure 7: Electron density along a vertical cut inside the source access region for different  $V_{DS}$  for an as-fabricated device  $(N_{SD}=N_{SS}=2x10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}).$ 



Figure 8: Simulated output characteristics with and without impact ionisation and with and without surface states  $(N_{SD}=N_{SS}=2x10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ when considered}).$ 

Gate-lag waveforms of differently degraded devices can be accurately simulated by varying the localised surfacestate density  $N_{SD}$  in a relatively narrow range (from 2.5 ×  $10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> to about 3×10<sup>12</sup> cm<sup>-2</sup>), see Fig. 9. In agreement with (5), we found that the surface states act as hole traps during the switching transients. The turn-off transient is in particular governed by hole emission, resulting in surface negative-trapped-charge increase (see Fig. 10), this in turn leading to conductive channel narrowing and  $I_D$  decrease (see Fig. 9). It is worth mentioning that if surface traps were instead placed at 0.36 eV below the bottom of the conduction band (instead of being assumed at  $E_t=E_V+0.36$ ), no dynamic effect would appear in the simulated I<sub>D</sub>(t) transient following a V<sub>GS</sub> step, in contrast to what experimentally observed (thus ruling out this possibility). Actually, due to the negative trapped charge, bands are actually upward bent at the ungated surface, so that only the occupancy of trap levels sufficiently close to  $E_v$  can be appreciably modulated by the surface electric potential.



Figure 9: Experimental and simulated (simulated stress C) normalised I<sub>D</sub> transients following a reverse-bias V<sub>GS</sub> step (from 0 to -0.5V) in differently degraded devices.



Figure 10: Negative-trapped-charge dynamics during the transient following a reverse-bias  $V_{GS}$  step (from 0 to -0.5V) for  $N_{SD}=3.5 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>-2</sup> (simulated stress C).

#### CONCLUSIONS

We have presented experimental and simulation results showing that only a simultaneous, localised increase of the defect density at the gate-drain recess surface and channel-buffer interface can thoroughly account for the hot-electron degradation modes observed experimentally in AlGaAs-GaAs HFETs, including drain saturation current degradation, reverse gate-current increase and gate-lag enhancement. Simulations also allow the physical origin of the kink to be elucidated, attributing it to the discharge of surface deep acceptors due to the capture of excess holes generated by impact ionisation.

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