

Hot electrons in silicon oxide

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Abstract. One particular application of amorphous silicon oxide (SiO₂), a material crucial for silicon device technology and design, is as a flash memory tunnel dielectric. The breakdown field of SiO₂ exceeds 10⁷ V cm⁻¹. Strong electric fields in SiO₂ give rise to phenomena that do not occur in crystalline semiconductors. In relatively weak electric fields (10⁴–10⁶ V cm⁻¹), the electron distribution function is determined by the scattering of electrons on longitudinal optical phonons. In high fields (in excess of 10⁶ V cm⁻¹), the distribution function is determined by electron–acoustic phonon scattering.

Keywords: silicon oxide, hot electrons, scattering, optical phonons

1. Introduction

In the crystalline semiconductors, because of the small bandgap energy and high mobility of electrons and holes, an avalanche breakdown is observed in the electric fields ranging 10⁴–10⁵ V cm⁻¹. The breakdown fields of thermal SiO₂ on silicon are more than 10⁷ V cm⁻¹. In such fields, new uncommon effects show themselves. The high electric fields (≈ 10⁷ V cm⁻¹) in SiO₂ are realized in flash-memory devices. At present, being produced on the mass market, flash memory based on the floating gate prevails. In such memory elements, the floating polysilicon gate is separated from the

silicon substrate by an SiO₂ layer 5–10 nm thick [1]. The reprogramming of such a memory element is achieved in an electric field of ≈ 10⁷ V cm⁻¹ via the injection of electrons and holes from silicon into the polysilicon gate. If we assume that the electrons in SiO₂ are not scattered at a length equal to the maximum thickness of the oxide, $d = 10$ nm, then the electrons can gain an energy $E = Fd = 10^7 \times 10^{-6} = 10$ eV (F is the electric field strength). Certainly, the assumption that the electrons in SiO₂ are not scattered is unreal. Nevertheless, it follows from the experiments presented in this survey that in a high electric field the electrons in SiO₂ can gain an energy of up to several electron-volts, up to 10 eV [2].

Under the conditions of an enhanced radiation background, an energy-independent memory based on silicon–oxide–nitride–oxide–silicon (SONOS) structures is used [1, 3–7]. In SONOS structures, it is the amorphous silicon nitride (Si₃N₄) that takes the part of a memory medium. Silicon nitride has a high concentration of deep (≈ 1.5 eV) traps capable of localizing electrons and holes [8, 9]. The lifetime of electrons and holes localized in silicon nitride reaches 10 years at 85 °C [1]. This time corresponds to the time of information storage in flash-memory devices. The reprogramming of SONOS devices is implemented through a tunnel oxide 1.8–5.0 nm thick [1, 3, 5]. To overcome the problem of mutual influence of the adjacent floating gates in memory matrices with floating gates, elements of a flash-memory are currently being developed in which silicon nitride appears in the role of a memory medium and a dielectric with a high dielectric constant (so-called high- k dielectric) is employed as the blocking layer, instead of SiO₂ [1, 10, 11]. One of the variants of such a memory element comprises a TaN–Al₂O₃–Si₃N₄–SiO₂–Si (TANOS) structure [5, 12].

At present, the concept of a vertical three-dimensional memory is being framed for increasing the flash-memory storage capacity [13]. Prototypes of such a memory have been developed, in which 32 layers are used. Silicon nitride takes the role of a memory medium in three-dimensional memory; as the tunnel oxide, SiO₂ with a thickness of 3.5 nm is employed. The reprogramming is implemented via the

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alternating injection and subsequent localization of electrons and holes in the silicon nitride. The electric field in the tunnel oxide of such a memory element reaches $\approx 10^7 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$.

Electron heating in a high electric field on the order of 10^7 V cm^{-1} can lead to the formation of defects, subsequent trapping of electrons and holes, and degradation of the electrical properties of SiO_2 [14, 15]. In silicon devices, amorphous SiO_2 is widely exploited. The bandgap energy of amorphous SiO_2 amounts to 8.0 eV [16]. The energies of longitudinal optical phonons in SiO_2 are equal to 0.153 and 0.063 eV. In this paper, we analyze the phenomena of electron heating in a high electric field in silicon oxide, and also in dielectrics with a high density of traps: silicon nitride and silicon oxynitride.

2. Transport of electrons in SiO_2 in a weak electric field ($10^4 - 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$)

Direct measurements of the mobility of nonequilibrium electrons in fused quartz were carried out in Refs [17, 18]. The nonequilibrium electrons were generated with the aid of X-rays. The transit time of the packet of electrons was measured. In the range of the electric field strengths of $3 \times 10^3 - 1 \times 10^5 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, the drift velocity of electrons is proportional to the field strength. Figure 1 depicts the dependence of the electron mobility on the reciprocal temperature in amorphous SiO_2 . The straight line corresponds to the Thornber–Feynman model [19] for scattering on longitudinal optical (LO) phonons. In amorphous SiO_2 , the electron mobility is $\mu = 20 \pm 3 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 298 K. The effective mass of the free electron equals $m^* = 1.4m_0$. At a temperature below 200 K, the mobility ceases to depend on temperature; its value is about $40 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Simulating electron transport by the Monte Carlo method in relatively weak electric fields ($10^4 - 1 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$) was carried out in Refs [20–22]. The electron scattering in SiO_2 on longitudinal optical phonons with an energy of 0.15 and 0.06 eV was taken into account. Figure 2 plots the trajectories of injected electrons in different electric fields. For a field of 10^4 V cm^{-1} , the electron trajectory shows a diffuse character: an increase in the field strength leads to the orientation of scattering along the electric field [22].

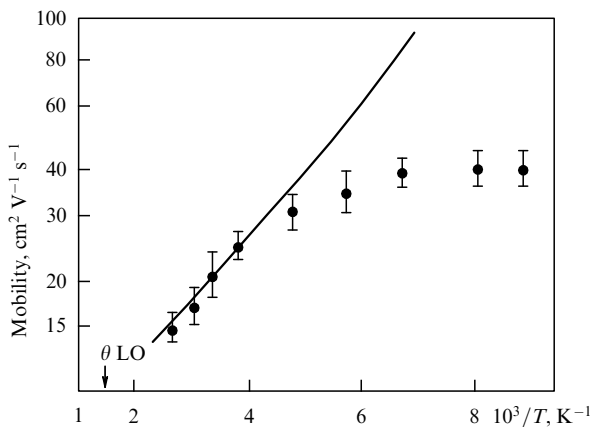


Figure 1. Temperature dependence of the drift mobility of electrons in amorphous SiO_2 . The straight line corresponds to the Thornber–Feynman theory [19] of electron scattering on longitudinal optical (LO) phonons. The arrow indicates the Debye temperature.

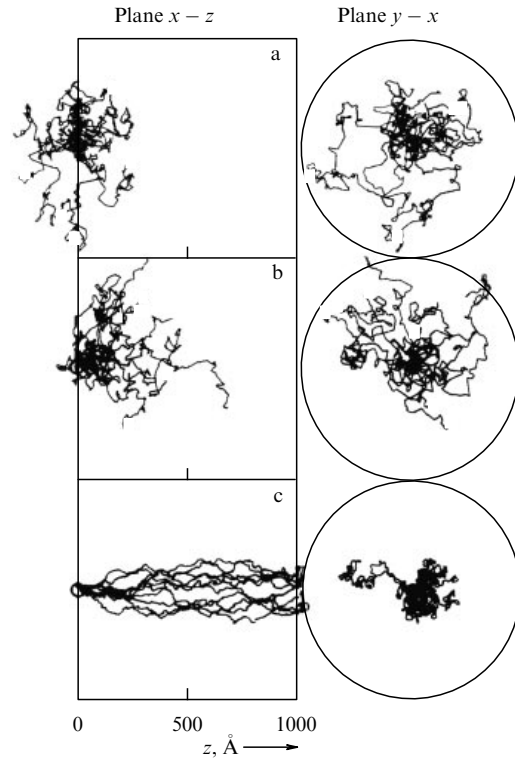


Figure 2. Trajectory of an electron (injected with an initial energy of 0.1 eV) along a field (a) $F = 10^4 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, (b) 10^5 V cm^{-1} , and (c) 10^6 V cm^{-1} [21].

In the fields of $(0.3 - 2.8) \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, electron scattering on the longitudinal optical phonons prevails (Fig. 3) [22]. The mean free path of electrons in SiO_2 was determined in electric fields of $10^5 - 2 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$ in experiments on the scattering of photoinjected electrons from a metal [23] in a metal–oxide–semiconductor (MOS) structure. The expression for the electron potential in the dielectric at a distance x from the metal takes the form

$$\Phi(x) = \Phi_0 + \int_0^x F(z) dz - \frac{q}{16\pi\epsilon x}. \quad (1)$$

Figure 4 depicts the electron potential in a dielectric near the boundary with the metal [23].

In paper [23], it was shown that the dependence of the probability of electron injection upon excitation by a light quantum $\hbar\omega$ in an electric field F is given by the expression

$$J = A(\hbar\omega)(\hbar\omega - \Phi + \beta\sqrt{F})^k \exp\left(-\frac{X_m}{L}\right),$$

$$X_m = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{F}}, \quad \beta = \sqrt{\frac{q^3}{4\pi\epsilon\epsilon_0}}. \quad (2)$$

Here, $A(\hbar\omega)$ is the instrument function, which reflects the dependence of the number of quanta on the energy of the quanta; β is the Schottky constant; ϵ is the optical dielectric constant; k is a parameter whose value depends on the mechanism of electron scattering in the emitter, and X_m is the distance from the metal–dielectric interface to the potential maximum. Figure 5 illustrates the dependence of the photoemission current on the field strength in silicon oxide [23]. A good agreement of the results of the experiments and calculations is observed at the mean free path $L = 3.4 \text{ nm}$. Similar experiments regarding the mean free path of electrons

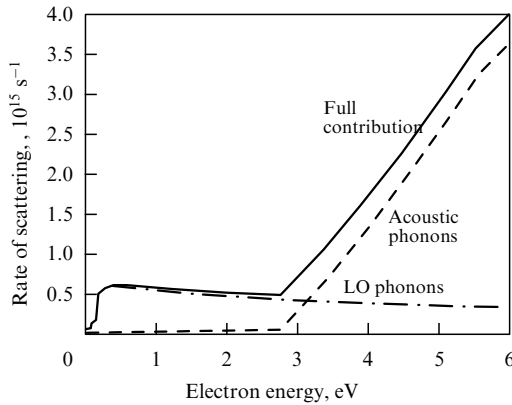


Figure 3. Rate of electron scattering depending on the energy of electrons for different mechanisms of scattering at 298 K.

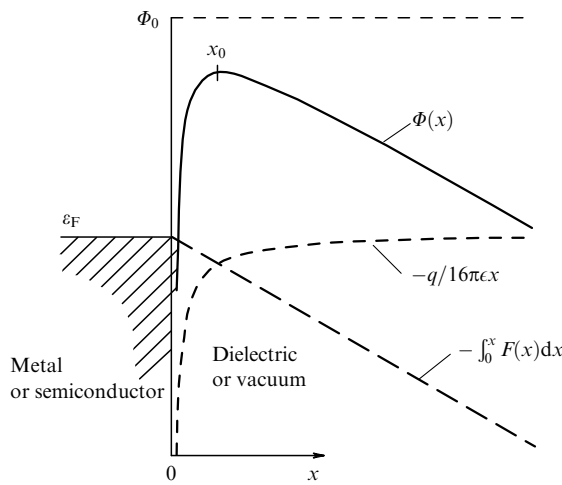


Figure 4. Potential of an electron in the dielectric near the boundary with a metal. The dashed lines correspond to the potential of the image forces and to the potential corresponding to the applied field. The solid line depicts the total potential of an electron. The processes of phonon emission and absorption are taken into account.

in SiO₂ and in silicon oxynitride (SiO_xN_y) with a composition close to SiO₂ were performed in paper [24].

Figure 6 presents the dependence of the photoemission current of electrons on the electric field in the coordinates corresponding to expression (2). The mean free path of electrons in SiO₂, retrieved from Fig. 6, equals 3.5 nm. The mean free path of electrons in SiO_xN_y is 0.5 nm. Notice that the length of the Si–O bond in SiO₂ is equal to 0.162 nm [25]. A simulation by the Monte Carlo method indicates that electron scattering on longitudinal optical phonons does not stabilize the distribution function of electrons in SiO₂ in an electric field with a strength exceeding 2×10^6 V cm⁻¹ [26].

3. Methods of studying the distribution function of hot electrons over energy in SiO₂ in high electric fields

3.1 Electroluminescence

Experiments were performed on metal–dielectric–semiconductor structures (Fig. 7a) [22, 25, 27, 28]. Silicon suboxide (SiO_x) enriched in silicon was used to inject electrons into SiO₂. The data obtained from measurements by the method

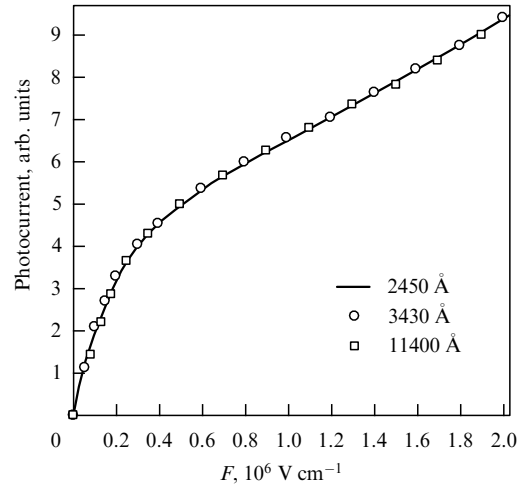


Figure 5. Dependence of the photoemission current on the electric field strength upon the photoemission of electrons from silicon into SiO₂; the thickness of the SiO₂ layer is 245 nm [22].

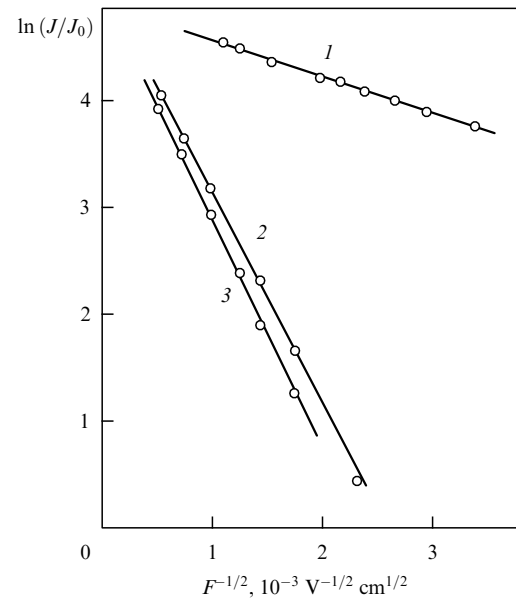


Figure 6. Dependence of the photoemission current of electrons on the electric field in SiO₂ (curve 1) for the quantum energy of 5.0 eV, and in SiO_xN_y for the quantum energy of 5.0 eV (curve 2) and 4.5 eV (curve 3) [24].

of photoelectron spectroscopy show that, in the first approximation, SiO_x comprises a mixture of two phases: Si (silicon islets with a size of ~ 5 nm) and SiO₂ [29]. Figure 7b presents schematically the Si–SiO_x–SiO₂–Al structure that was used in the experiment on electroluminescence [28]. In this experiment, electrons from degenerate n⁺ type silicon are injected into SiO_x. In silicon suboxide, tunneling of electrons between Si islets and then their tunneling from silicon islets into SiO₂ proceeds. The injection of electrons from SiO_x into SiO₂ can occur in a relatively weak electric field, since a local strengthening of the electric field takes place near the silicon islets. Hot electrons in SiO₂ lose energy on surface plasmons in the anode (aluminum). A more efficient interaction is observed on the rough surface of the anode [27, 28]. Quantum yield of luminescence in the interaction of hot electrons with the surface plasmons amounts to ~ 10⁻⁶ electrons per photon [27].

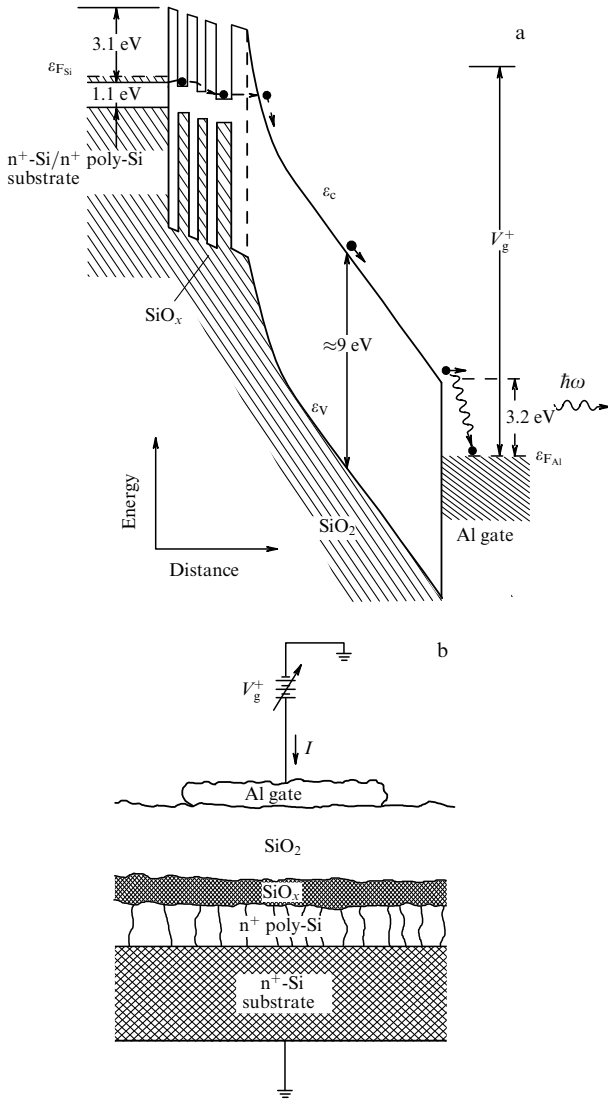


Figure 7. (a) Energy diagram and (b) schematic structure of the device, which illustrate the electroluminescence experiment on determining the distribution function of hot electrons in SiO_2 [22]. The electrons are injected from the silicon substrate into the injector–silicon oxide enriched in silicon (SiO_x) to prevent the breakdown of SiO_2 . Some of the electrons injected from SiO_2 lose their energy in the metallic gate, emitting surface plasmons at the metal–vacuum boundary. The plasmons are decomposed with the emission of a light quantum. The average energy of electrons is retrieved from the spectrum of the emitted photons.

Figure 8 depicts the dependence of the number of photons on the energy in the $Si-SiO_x-SiO_2-Al$ structure in the case of a positive potential at aluminum for three values of the electric field strength in SiO_2 at the SiO_2-Al boundary [27]. The optical system is restricted by the photon energy of 5 eV. The barrier height for the electrons at the $Al-SiO_2$ boundary is equal to 3.2 eV [30]. A detailed quantitative model of an electron–plasmon interaction for hot electrons in aluminum is nonexistent; however, some assumptions can be made. If the energy of electrons in SiO_2 relative to the bottom of the conduction band is small, the luminescence spectrum should fall sharply at an energy exceeding 3.2 eV. Figure 8 gives evidence that the electrons in SiO_2 are heated substantially; the average energy of electrons considerably exceeds the energy E_c at the edge of the conduction band in SiO_2 .

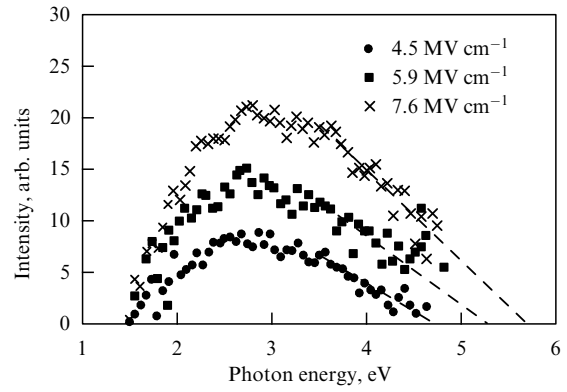


Figure 8. Dependence of the number of photons on the energy of photons in the $Si-SiO_x-SiO_2-Al$ structure at a positive potential at aluminum for three values of the electric field strength in SiO_2 at the SiO_2-Al boundary [27].

3.2 Determination of the average energy of electrons in SiO_2 by the separation of the electron and hole components of the current traversing a transistor

The method of separating the electron and hole components of the current flowing in a dielectric was first proposed for determining the sign of charge carriers in silicon nitride (Si_3N_4) [31]. A similar method was applied in Refs [26, 28] for studying hot electrons in SiO_2 . Figure 9 shows an energy diagram and the scheme of the inclusion of a field-effect p-channel transistor in an experiment on the separation of the electron and hole components of current in SiO_2 [26]. To increase the efficiency of the injection of electrons into SiO_2 , the silicon suboxide (SiO_x) was utilized as the cathode. The method of separating electrons and holes in a dielectric is discussed in detail in paper [32]. The current of electrons injected from SiO_x into SiO_2 is registered in the substrate circuit (Fig. 9b). The current of holes injected from the silicon substrate into SiO_2 is recorded in the circuit involving channel. The average energy necessary for the generation of an electron–hole pair in silicon is equal to 4.3 eV [33, 34]. The procedure for retrieving the average energy of electrons from the dependence on the electric field is described in Refs [27, 29]. Figure 10 presents the dependence of the average electron energy in SiO_2 on the electric field [32]. From the slope of this dependence, the electron mean free path can be determined as being $L \approx 2.3 \text{ nm}$. It follows from Fig. 10 that in a strong electric field the electron energy in SiO_2 can reach 7–9 eV.

3.3 Emission of electrons from SiO_2 into a vacuum

The experiment is based on the determination of the energy distribution of electrons injected from SiO_2 into a vacuum through a thin metal layer applying the retarding potential method. Figure 11 plots an energy diagram, which illustrates the measurement of the distribution function of hot electrons injected from SiO_2 through aluminum into a vacuum (Fig. 11a), and the schematic structure of the capacitor used for the experiment (Fig. 11b) [22]. The experiment was carried out using an $Si-SiO_x-SiO_2-metal$ structure. As the metal, Al, Cr, or Au 15–20 nm thick was used. The injection of electrons into SiO_2 is implemented from SiO_x .

Figure 12 presents the dependence of the current of electron emission into a vacuum on the value of the retarding potential [32]. The energy distribution of electrons for three values of the electric field strength and also the data of

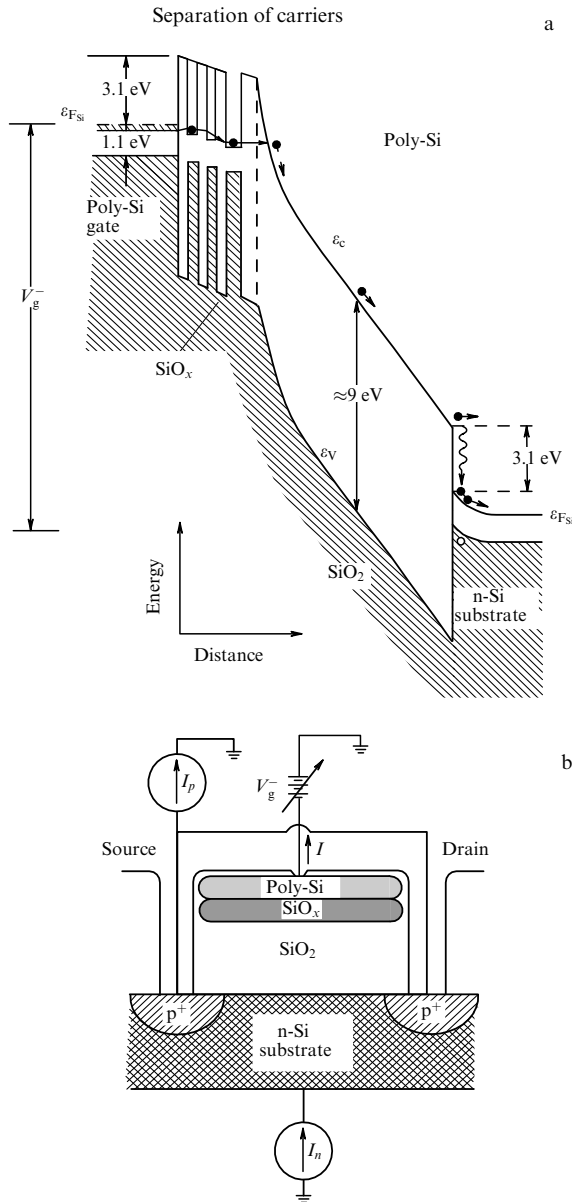


Figure 9. (a) Energy diagram and (b) schematic structure of the device, which illustrate the experiment on the separation of electrons and holes in SiO₂ [28]. The electrons are injected from the polysilicon gate of a field-effect transistor through SiO_x and SiO₂ into the silicon substrate. The number of electron-hole pairs entering into the substrate, which are generated by hot electrons, is registered in the circuit with the source and/or drain. The electron current is registered in the substrate circuit. The average energy of carriers is determined using the known ionization probability in silicon as a function of the electron energy.

theoretical calculations are given in Fig. 13 [22]. The calculated curves were obtained by the Monte Carlo method without and taking into account collisional broadening effects. The maximum of the distribution function of hot electrons lies at an energy of approximately 3 eV. From the dependence of the average energy of hot electrons on the electric field strength, the mean free path of electrons was estimated to be $L \approx 3.2$ nm [32]. It was also reported in [32] that in an SiO₂ layer with a thickness of 150 nm in an average electric field of 5×10^6 V cm⁻¹ the energy of hot electrons in SiO₂ can reach 40 eV.

A drawback of the above experiments lies in the uncertainty caused by electron scattering in the metal

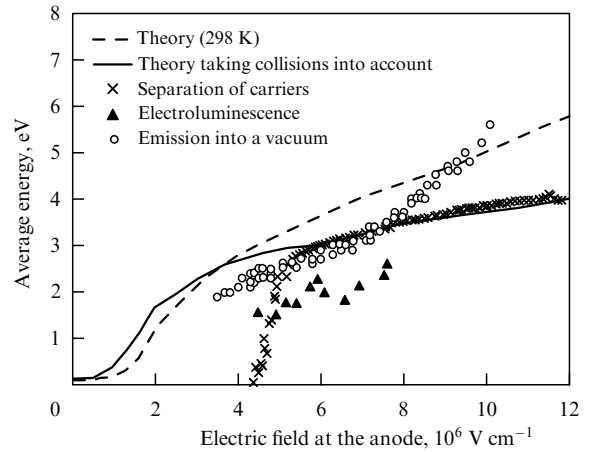


Figure 10. Distribution function (average energy of hot electrons) depending on the strength of the average electric field according to the data of three experiments: on the separation of the electron and hole components of current; electroluminescence, and emission of electrons into a vacuum. In experiments on the electroluminescence and emission into a vacuum, the average energy was measured relative to the Fermi level in aluminum; in the experiment on the separation of the electron and hole components of current, the electron energy was measured relative to the bottom of the conduction band in silicon. The dashed line indicates the position of the bottom of the conduction band in SiO₂.

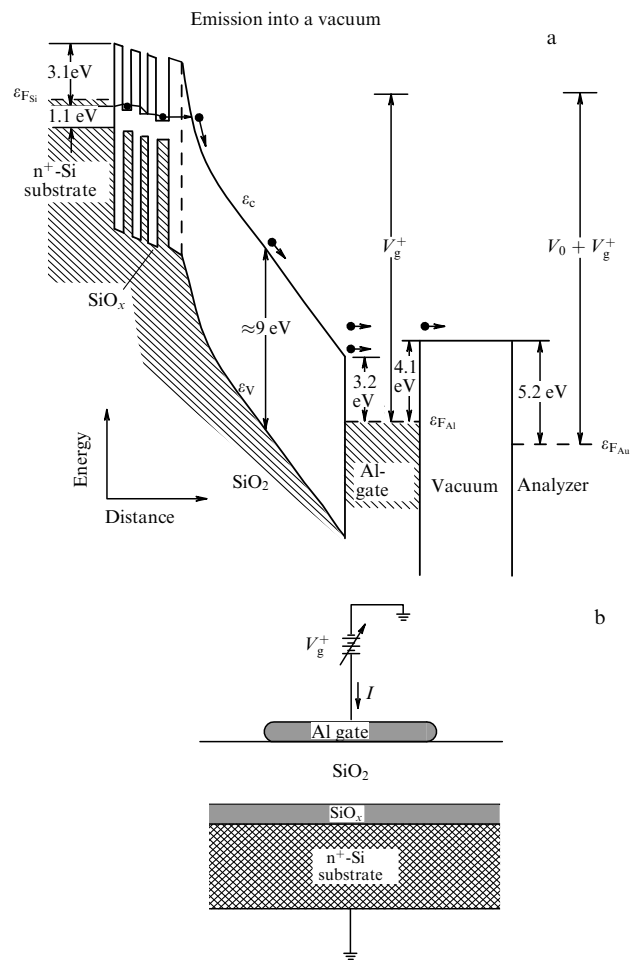


Figure 11. (a) Energy diagram and (b) schematic structure of the device in the experiment for the determination of the distribution function of electrons upon emission into a vacuum. The injected electrons pass through a thin (≈ 25 nm) metal gate into a vacuum. The energy distribution of electrons is measured in the vacuum chamber by the retarding potential method.

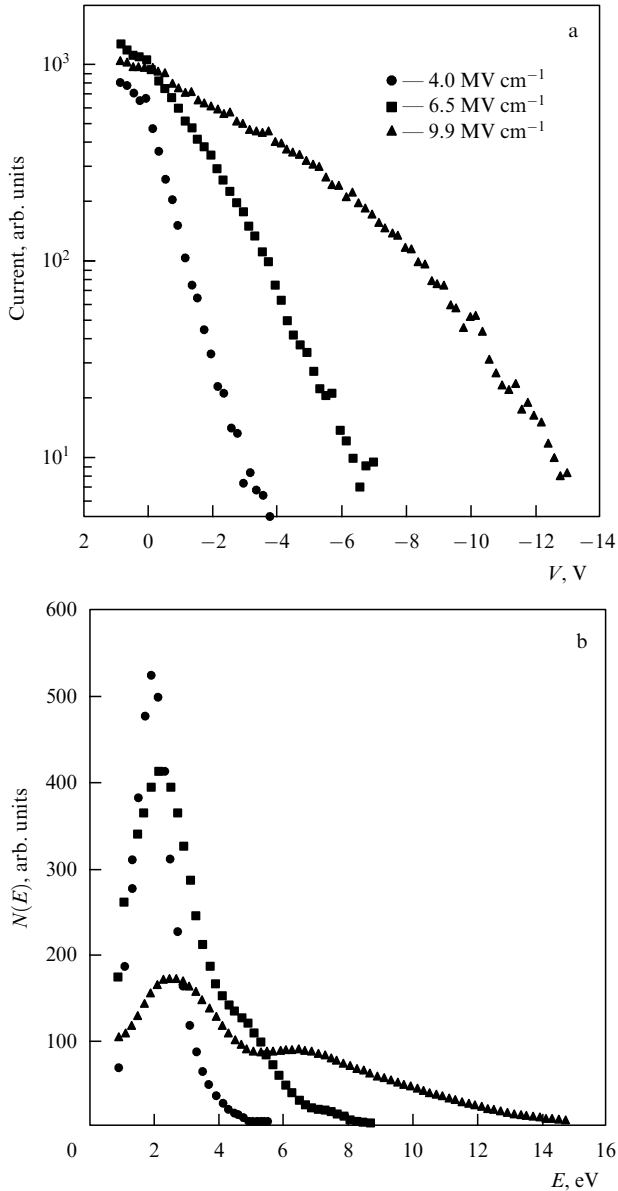


Figure 12. (a) Current of electrons emitted from SiO₂ into a vacuum depending on the retarding potential for three values of the electric field strength. (b) Distribution function of electrons obtained by the differentiation of the data presented in figure (a). The thickness of the SiO₂ layer is 50 nm; the thickness of the Al layer is 25 nm.

through which the emission of electrons into a vacuum is implemented. It was established in paper [32] that the distribution function of hot electrons in SiO₂ depends substantially on the type of metal (Al, Cr, Au). The procedure for determining the distribution function of hot electrons emitted directly from SiO₂ into a vacuum has no such drawback [35, 36]. In this procedure, an Si–SiO₂ structure was utilized; a positive charge (positively charged ions) from the plasma of a corona discharge in the atmosphere was deposited onto the SiO₂ surface. After this, the surface of the sample is irradiated by the light source with an energy that exceeds the barrier for the photoemission of electrons from Si into SiO₂. The photoinjected electrons are accelerated in SiO₂ and are emitted into a vacuum. The energy distribution of the electrons injected into a vacuum is measured by the retarding potential method. This method makes it possible to study the

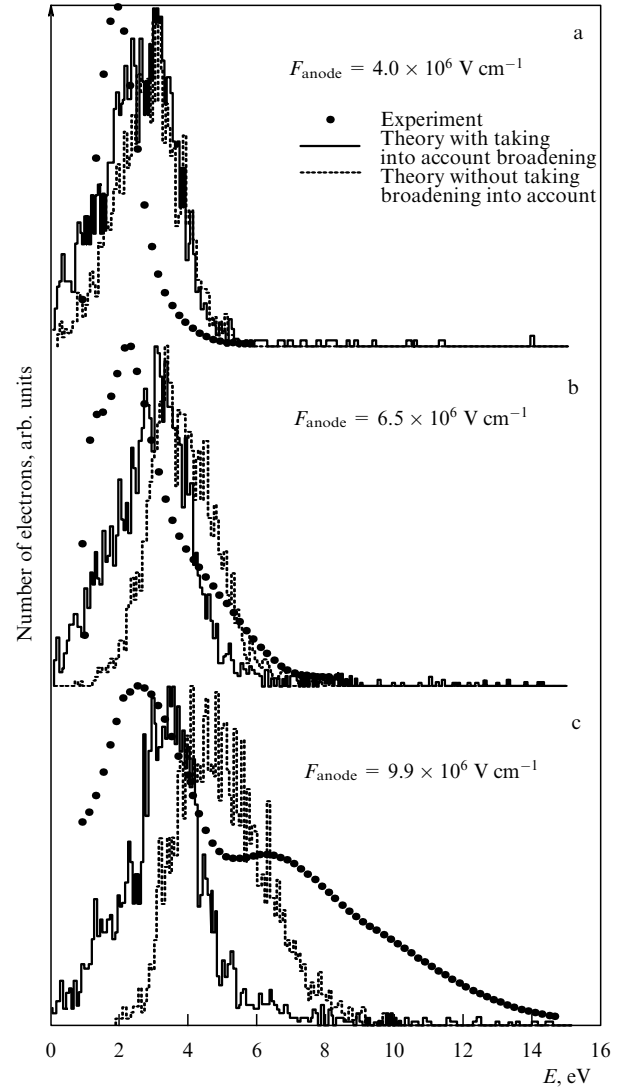


Figure 13. Distribution function of hot electrons in an SiO₂ layer 50 nm thick, obtained from the experiments on the emission of electrons into a vacuum through a metal, and its comparison with the calculated distribution function obtained by the Monte Carlo method taking into account the broadening due to collisions and without collisions.

distribution function of electrons injected in relatively weak electric fields $(2\text{--}4) \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$.

Figure 14 depicts the distribution function of hot electrons emitted from a thermal SiO₂ layer with a thickness of 63 nm into a vacuum at different values of the electric field [36]. An increase in the electric field strength in the dielectric from 0.8×10^6 to $5 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$ is accompanied by a shift of the maximum in the distribution function of electrons from 0.5 to 2.5 eV.

An increase in the thickness of the silicon oxide layer from 2.8 to 76 nm at close values of the electric field strength leads to a shift of the distribution function maximum from 1 to 3 eV (Fig. 15) [36]. An analysis has shown that the presence of metal only insignificantly distorts the distribution function of the electrons in the vacuum. It follows from Fig. 15 that the distribution function of hot electrons emitted into a vacuum depends on the thickness of SiO₂ layer. The distribution function is shifted in the direction of higher energies with an increase in the thickness of the silicon oxide layer. This result indicates the dependence of the distribution function of hot electrons on the coordinate.

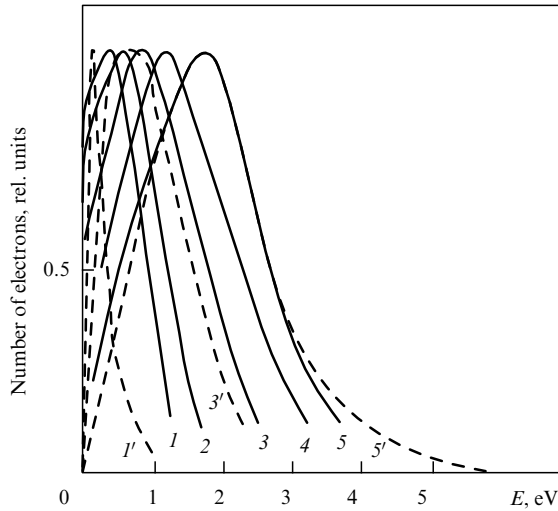


Figure 14. Distribution function of electrons emitted from an SiO₂ layer 63 nm thick in different electric fields: (1) $F = 0.8 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, (2) $1.1 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, (3) $1.6 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, (4) $3.1 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, and (5) $5.6 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$. Curves 1', 3', and 5' are calculated.

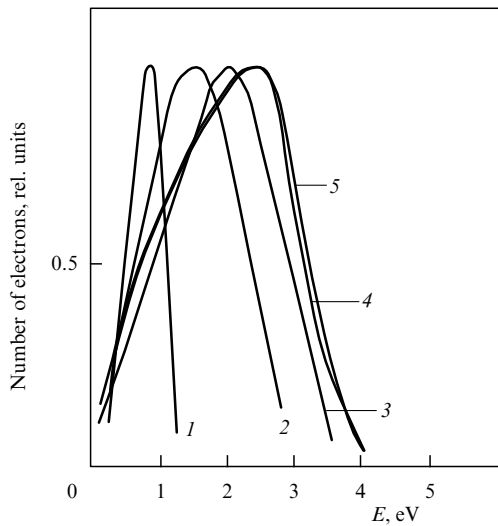


Figure 15. Distribution function of electrons emitted from SiO₂ layers of different thicknesses d into a vacuum: (1) $d = 2.8 \text{ nm}$, $F = 5.5 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$; (2) $d = 6.8 \text{ nm}$, $F = 5.3 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$; (3) $d = 32.3 \text{ nm}$, $F = 5.6 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$; (4), $d = 63 \text{ nm}$, $F = 5.6 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$, and (5) $d = 76 \text{ nm}$, $F = 5.4 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$.

In Refs [37, 38], the Monte Carlo method was applied to calculating the distribution function of electrons in SiO₂ in the regime of ballistic transfer upon their scattering on longitudinal optical phonons with energies of 0.063 and 0.153 eV. The results of the calculations were compared with the distribution function of the electrons emitted into a vacuum. The peaks caused by electron scattering on low- and high-energy longitudinal optical phonons were observed in the distribution function.

4. Hole injection into SiO₂ caused by electron heating

The heating of electrons injected from silicon into silicon oxide is accompanied by hole injection from the polysilicon contact into silicon oxide [14]. It is assumed that the hot

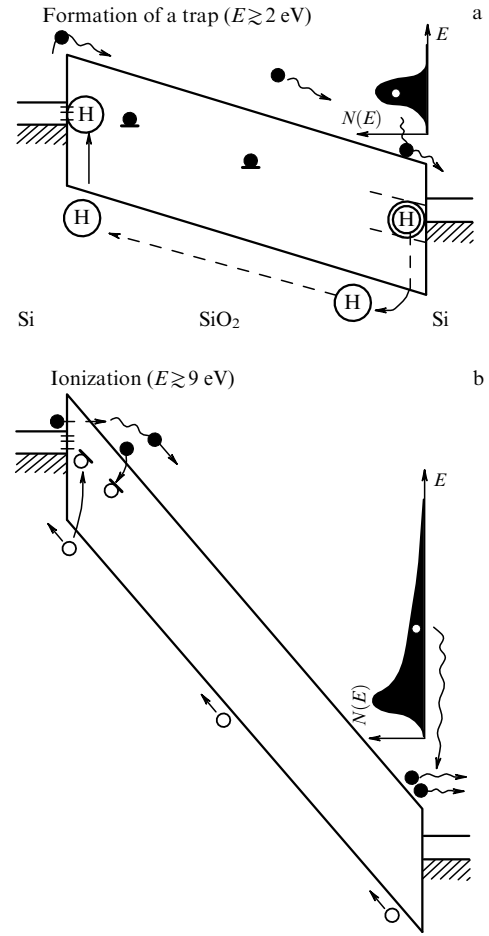


Figure 16. (a) Energy diagram of a silicon–silicon oxide–polysilicon structure with a positive potential at polysilicon in a weak electric field. (b) Electrons injected from silicon become heated in the silicon-oxide layer and generate holes (H) in the polysilicon layer, which are injected into the silicon oxide.

electrons injected from the silicon oxide into polysilicon generate hot holes in the polysilicon (Fig. 16a). The energy of the holes exceeds the height of the hole barrier at the polysilicon–silicon oxide boundary; therefore, holes from the polysilicon are injected into the silicon oxide (Fig. 16b) [14]. Hole traps exist near the boundary between the silicon and thermal silicon oxide. The holes injected into the silicon oxide can be captured by these hole traps (Fig. 17) [15].

5. Electron heating in silicon oxynitride (SiO_xN_y) and nitride (Si₃N₄)

Silicon oxynitride (SiO_xN_y) is utilized as a subgate dielectric in logical low-power silicon devices [7]. The energy gap width of the SiO_xN_y, depending on the chemical composition, changes in the range of 4.5–8.0 eV [39, 40]. The amorphous silicon nitride (Si₃N₄) has an energy gap width equal to 4.5 eV [41]. Silicon nitride possesses a high number density ($\sim 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) of electron and hole traps with an energy of 1.4 eV [42, 43]. The localization of electrons and holes in silicon nitride is employed for the accumulation of charges in flash-memory devices [1, 7]. The electron heating in silicon nitride and silicon oxynitride was studied in Refs [36, 42]. The emission of electrons from the dielectric into a vacuum has been investigated. The silicon suboxide SiO_x enriched in

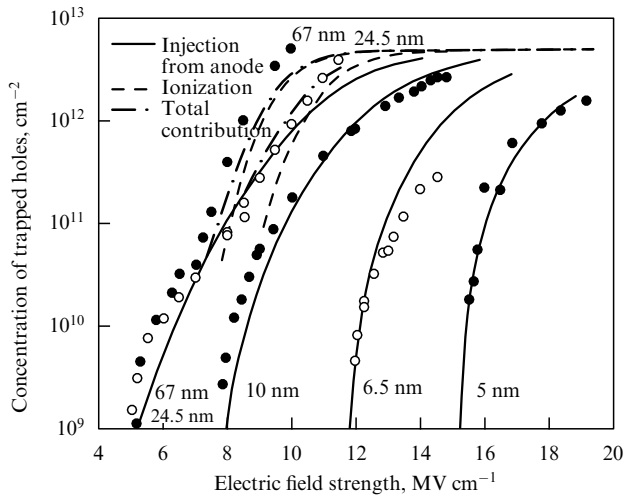


Figure 17. Surface density of a positive charge depending on the field strength at different thicknesses of the silicon-oxide layer.

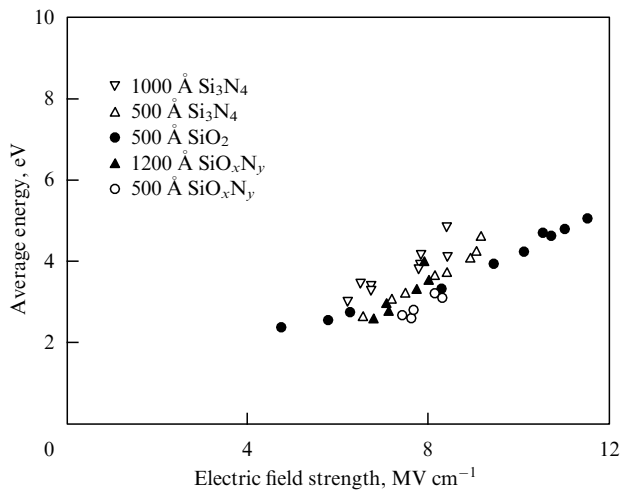


Figure 18. Average energy of electrons in the silicon oxide, silicon nitride, and silicon oxynitride layers of different thicknesses depending on the electric field strength. The electron energy is counted from the bottom of the conduction band in the dielectric.

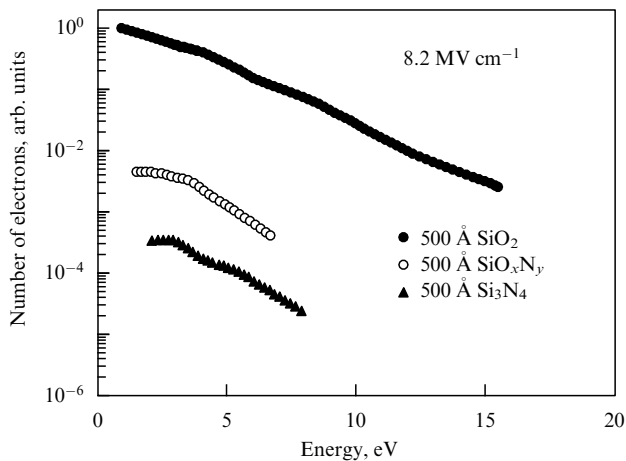


Figure 19. Electron-energy distribution for silicon oxide, silicon nitride, and silicon oxynitride in an electric field of $8.2 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$.

silicon took the part of the injector of electrons into the silicon nitride and oxynitride.

The dependence of the energy of electrons in SiO_2 , SiO_xN_y , and Si_3N_4 on the electric field strength is presented in Fig. 18 [44]. It can be seen that the energy distributions of electrons for these materials are similar to each other. Figure 19 presents the relative efficiency of emission from SiO_2 , SiO_xN_y , and Si_3N_4 into a vacuum, depending on the energy of electrons [44]. The efficiency of emission from SiO_xN_y is two orders of magnitude less, and from Si_3N_4 four orders of magnitude less, than that from SiO_2 . The low efficiency of the emission of electrons from SiO_xN_y and Si_3N_4 is caused by capturing electrons into the traps.

6. Conclusion

In relatively weak electric fields (10^4 – $1 \times 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$), the distribution function of electrons in SiO_2 is determined by their scattering on longitudinal optical phonons. In strong fields ($> 10^6 \text{ V cm}^{-1}$), the distribution function is determined by electron scattering on acoustic phonons. The heating of electrons injected from silicon into silicon oxide leads to the generation of hot holes in the polysilicon electrode and to their subsequent injection into the silicon oxide. Because of the localization of electrons it traps located in silicon nitride and in silicon oxynitride, the efficiency of the electron emission from SiO_xN_y and Si_3N_4 is orders of magnitude less than that from SiO_2 .

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