

Preconditioned BTI on 4H-SiC: Proposal for a Nearly Delay Time-Independent Measurement Technique

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Abstract -- When using JEDEC-like measurement patterns, MOSFETs based on 4H-SiC show amplified voltage shifts during gate bias stress compared to their siliconbased counterparts. We show that the majority of the extracted voltage shift originates from fully reversible components and strongly relies on stress-independent measurement conditions such as the reference point for the calculation of the voltage shift and timing parameters. An enhanced bias temperature instability measurement technique using device preconditioning is presented and compared to standard JEDEC-like measurement patterns developed for bias temperature instability evaluation of silicon MOSFETs. We show that preconditioned measurements allow for accurate and nearly delay and recovery time independent extraction of the permanent component within typical industrial timescales.

Index Terms—4H-SiC, bias temperature instability, delay time dependence, MOSFET, preconditioning, reliability, threshold voltage shift.

I. INTRODUCTION

SILICON carbide (SiC) as a wide bandgap (WBG) semiconductor promises superior performance for power device operation due to the 10 times higher breakdown field and 3 times higher thermal conductivity than silicon (Si) [1]. As such, SiC power MOSFETs enable operation at elevated temperature, higher switching frequency, and power density than their Si-based counterparts. However, the larger bandgap of 3.23 eV at 300 K leads to extended interactions of free carriers with interfacial trap states. These states are within the SiC bandgap but outside the Si bandgap and lead to enlarged bias temperature instability (BTI) and hysteresis effects [2]–[4]. Although there have been enormous improvements to the electrical performance within the recent years by interface

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annealing in nitrogen-containing atmospheres, such as nitrous oxide (N₂O) or nitric oxide (NO), silicon carbide (SiC)-based power MOSFETs still show one to two orders of magnitude higher interface state densities $D_{\rm it}$ as their Si-based counterparts [5]–[7].

BTI, as one of the main topics of interest in countless reliability studies based on 4H-SiC MOSFETs [8]–[11], is caused by charge trapping at or near the SiC/SiO₂ interface during (high temperature) gate stress, resulting in threshold voltage $V_{\rm th}$ variations, which depend on the polarity of the stress voltage $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$. A positive $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$ shifts $V_{\rm th}$ to more positive gate voltages, whereas a negative $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$ shifts $V_{\rm th}$ to more negative gate voltages. Especially for SiC-based power devices, a large positive voltage shift ΔV is undesirable because the voltage overdrive in the ON-state is decreased which in turn leads to increased on-resistance and static losses, respectively. A more detailed discussion on the application relevance of BTI for SiC-MOSFETs is given in [10].

In this paper, we focus on various ΔV extraction techniques after positive bias stress (PBS). It will be demonstrated that the majority of ΔV typically observed in standardized measurement tests (e.g., JEDEC-like) on 4H-SiC devices results from erroneous extraction techniques including stress independent but fully reversible components, which do not degrade the device performance under regular dynamic operation. A new drift evaluation technique based on what we call device preconditioning before each ΔV readout is presented, which allows for a more comprehensive and nearly measurement delay-time independent determination of the permanent voltage shift component $P(t_s)$. This component emerges after ac and dc stress and is of fundamental importance from an application perspective. While this paper is based on our previous work [11], here the topic is discussed in far more detail and additional information on the temperature and time dependence of the preconditioning scheme is provided.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

BTI results from charge trapping at or near the semiconductor–insulator interface after the creation of crystallographic defects or the charging of already existing precursors [12], [13]. Despite the fact that BTI in Si-based devices has been investigated for more than half a century, the detailed atomic origin is still heavily debated.

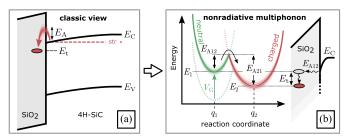


Fig. 1. (a) Classic view of the trapping mechanism extended with a distributed $E_{\rm A}$. (b) Modern interpretation using NMP theory with distributed $E_{\rm A12}$ and $E_{\rm A21}$.

Several microscopic defect candidates are under intensive investigation, including various interactions with hydrogen (diffusion, hopping, depassivation of Si dangling bonds, and so on) [14], [15], SiO₂ intrinsic electron traps [16], [17], oxygen vacancies [18], or dangling bonds [19]. Although the absolute ΔV is more pronounced in SiC-based devices, likely due to the larger bandgap, the BTI characteristics are, at least to some extent, analogous to Si-based devices, indicating similar atomic origins.

A typical model for the charge trapping mechanism is shown in Fig. 1(a) assuming a single trap state at the energy level E_t within the oxide close to the SiC/SiO₂ interface. We extend the classic model by introducing an activation energy E_A , which depends on the Fermi-level E_F . Furthermore, we assume E_A of the trap state to change its occupancy to be normally distributed. A more comprehensive explanation of the atomic mechanism is given by nonradiative multiphonon (NMP) model [Fig. 1(b)], which also accounts for the atomic deformation of the defect when the charge state is changed and the electric field dependence for both capture and emission times of the defect [13]. In the NMP model, the neutral and charged states of a defect are described as a parabolic function representing the possible energy states. Here, q_1 and q_2 are the reaction coordinate equilibrium positions with the distributed local ground state energies E_1 and E_2 of the neutral and charged states, respectively. As an example, we start with a neutral precursor described by the green parabola. After providing enough energy E_{A12} through lattice vibrations to change the charge state, the states' configuration changes (e.g., bond length, equilibrium nuclei position, and so on) and is now described by the red parabola. Hence, $E_{\rm A}$ for the reverse transition from the charged (red) to the neutral (green) state is given by E_{A21} .

Assuming a distributed $E_{\rm A}$, the capture/emission process is also distributed in time according to the characteristic capture or emission time constant τ

$$\tau = \tau_0 \exp\left(\frac{E_{\rm A}}{k_{\rm B}T}\right) \tag{1}$$

with the Boltzmann constant $k_{\rm B}$, the temperature T, and the pre-exponential factor τ_0 .

The influence of a distributed E_A on ΔV is shown in Fig. 2. For instance, a normally distributed E_A with a mean value $\mu = 1$ eV and standard deviation $\sigma = 0.1$ eV [Fig. 2(a) (green line)] will lead to a voltage shift versus stress-time behavior with trapping times within 1×10^4 s

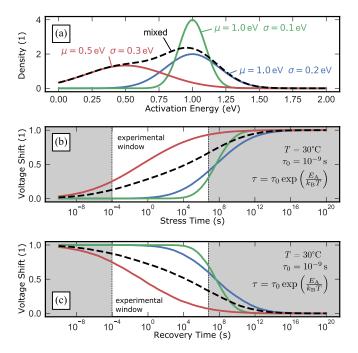


Fig. 2. (a) Simulated impact of distributed activation energies on the observed ΔV during (b) stress and (c) recovery according to (3). The dashed black line represents a mix of the red and blue distributions, which leads to a broad distribution enabling the often used power-law approximation, within narrow experimental windows.

and 1×10^{12} s [Fig. 2(b) (green line)]. Increasing the width of the $E_{\rm A}$ distribution will lead to a larger stretch out of the stress-time dependence, as is shown in blue ($\mu = 1$ eV, $\sigma = 0.2$ eV) and red ($\mu = 0.5$ eV, $\sigma = 0.3$ eV). Fig. 2(c) represents the recovery behavior for the same set of activation energies assuming all trapping centers have been filled during the preceding stress. In real devices, a combination of various defects with characteristic energy barriers will contribute, leading to a convolution of the individual voltage shift versus time behaviors [13]. For a broadly distributed $E_{\rm A}$, ΔV approaches the often used power-law approximation

$$\Delta V = A \cdot t^k \tag{2}$$

with the prefactor A and the power-law factor k, which is only valid within a certain time window. An example of a mixture between two individual defects (red and blue lines) is given in Fig. 2 as a dashed black line for stress and recovery.

Instead of using (2), a physical way to describe ΔV during bias stress or recovery is given by [20]

$$\Delta V(t_x) = \frac{\Delta V^{\text{max}}}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(K \frac{k_{\text{B}} T \ln\left(\frac{t_x}{\tau_0}\right) - \mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right)$$
(3)

with the complementary error function, erfc, the stress or recovery time $t_x = t_{\rm S}$ or $t_x = t_{\rm r}$, the maximum voltage shift $\Delta V^{\rm max}$ as an additional fitting parameter and the parameters of the normal distribution μ and σ . The prefactor K is -1 for stress and 1 for recovery. Note that the parameters of the normal distribution of $E_{\rm A}$ for capture and emission processes, μ and σ , do not necessarily correlate. A narrow distribution in $E_{\rm A}$ for the capture process $E_{\rm A12}$

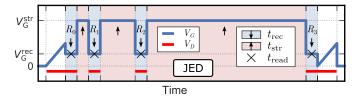


Fig. 3. BTI measurement pattern according to JEDEC standard JESD 241 [21]. In the sections marked with red lines, $V_D=0.1$ V, whereas $V_D=0$ V everywhere else.

usually results in a broadly distributed E_A for the emission process E_{A21} and vice versa [13]. As can be seen from (3), the time evolution of ΔV scales with the logarithm of t_s or t_r , resulting in a fundamental dependence of the measurement timing on the extracted ΔV as will be discussed in Section IV.

III. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

All devices were fabricated on 4H-SiC n-doped substrates using an industrial process. The *n*-channel (1120)-plane (a-face) MOSFETs received a SiO₂ dielectric via chemical vapor deposition. Post oxidation anneal was done in a nitric oxide (NO) containing atmosphere for all samples. Measurements were performed on wafer level using an Agilent B1500A parameter analyzer and Agilent E5250A switching matrix at room temperature unless otherwise stated. Changes in temperature were done via an ATT Systems P40 cooling unit.

IV. IMPACT OF THERMAL NONEQUILIBRIUM DURING THE REFERENCE READOUT

A BTI measurement test according to JEDEC standard JESD 241 [21] is shown in Fig. 3. The measurement pattern consists of a gate voltage V_G sweep from 0 V to the maximum sweep voltage $V_{\mathrm{G}}^{\mathrm{swe}}$ for the calculation ΔV followed by a repeated readout cycle at the recovery voltage $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$ in sequence with a stress cycle at V_G^{str} with logarithmically increasing t_s . The drain voltage V_D is turned off during every stress cycle to suppress device heating, nonuniform electric oxide fields, and hot-carrier degradation. After each stress pulse, ΔV is calculated from the recovery drain current I_D with respect to the reference I_D at the initial readout cycle (marked with R_0). I_D at each subsequent readout cycle R_i is extracted at $t_{\rm read} = 100$ ms after the end of the stress pulse. The resulting ΔV is shown in Fig. 4 (JED, blue line) after application of a stress voltage equal to two times the operation voltage $V_{\rm G}^{\rm op}$ for t_s up to 1444 s at 30 °C. Using JESD 241, a ΔV of 400 mV after 1444 s stress is recorded. A slightly changed but common variation of the JESD 241 standard measurement is shown in Fig. 5. The pattern is similar to the pattern sketched in Fig. 3 with one small deviation: we introduce a 10 s delay at $V_G = 0$ V before R_0 to represent the influence of the often ill-defined measurement delay. Although at first glance this modification appears to be negligible, the influence on ΔV is significant as can be seen in Fig. 4 (JED0, green line). While the trend over time does not change, an offset of approximately $\Delta V_0 = 200 \text{ mV}$ is introduced which is merely due to changing the bias value prior to R_0 .

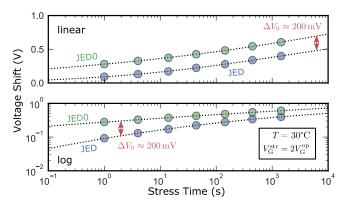


Fig. 4. ΔV extracted via JED according to Fig. 3 in comparison with JED0 according to Fig. 5, where $V_{\rm G}$ was set to 0 V for 10 s before $R_{\rm 0}$. The minor change to the measurement pattern results in a 200-mV offset in $\Delta V_{\rm c}$.

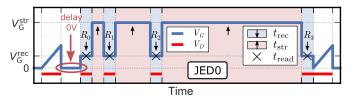


Fig. 5. Delayed BTI measurement pattern (JED0) similar to JED (Fig. 3), but with a delay at $V_G = 0$ V before R_0 .

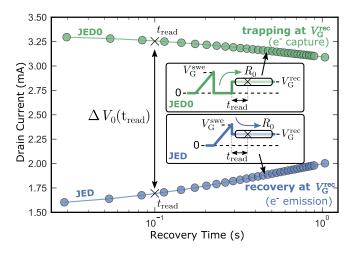


Fig. 6. $I_{\rm D}$ at $R_{\rm 0}$ for JED (blue line—bottom) and JED0 (green line—top). Trapping or detrapping behavior depends on the preceding gate bias. After the 0 V phase, $I_{\rm D}$ is higher and decreases over time (JED0, electron capture), whereas after the switch from $V_{\rm G}^{\rm swe}$ to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm ec}$, $I_{\rm D}$ is lower and increases over time (JED, electron emission).

The offset ΔV_0 results from the fact that the interface charging state at R_0 strongly depends on the bias history. Fig. 6 shows $I_{\rm D}$ at R_0 ($V_{\rm G}=V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$) for both measurement patterns. The blue curve represents the measurement pattern according to JEDEC JESD 241 (JED), whereas the green represents the same pattern with a 10 s delay at $V_{\rm G}=0$ V before R_0 (referenced to as JED0). For JED, we observe increasing $I_{\rm D}$ after the bias change from $V_{\rm G}^{\rm swe}$ to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$, indicating recovery of trapped electrons, which were captured at $V_{\rm G}>V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$ during the preceding voltage sweep. The opposite trend is observed for JED0 (green line). At the same $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$, JED0 shows

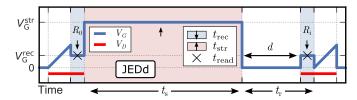


Fig. 7. Delayed JEDEC-like measurement (JEDd) similar to JESD 241 [21] extended with variable delay d at $V_{\rm G}=0$ V after the stress.

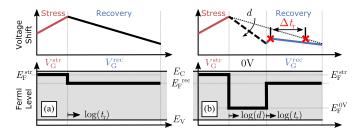


Fig. 8. Sketch of the impact of $E_{\rm F}$ on the recovery. (a) Switch from $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$ to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm ec}$ without delay. (b) Due to accelerated recovery during d, $t_{\rm r}$ decreases by several orders of magnitude ($\Delta t_{\rm r}$).

a higher and decreasing I_D resulting from carrier trapping in oxide/border traps.

We therefore conclude that the discrepancy in I_D at R_0 is due to the amount of time the system needs to reach thermal equilibrium at a certain V_G , meaning every trap state with an energetic position below E_F is filled with electrons and every trap state above E_F is empty. Especially in WBG semiconductors like SiC, reaching thermal equilibrium may take a long time (see Section II).

V. IMPACT OF MEASUREMENT DELAY TIMES ON ΔV

In addition to a well-defined reference readout R_0 , the timing of each subsequent ΔV extraction point R_i after the stress cycle is of similar importance. An example for a delayed R_i , JEDEC-like, readout is shown in Fig. 7 (referred to as JEDd). The measurement pattern is similar to the JED pattern in Fig. 3, extended with a delay phase at $V_G = 0$ V for the delay time d after the stress cycle. Especially, in industrial reliability tests, measurements are always delayed since the stress cycle is usually done in special high-temperature furnaces (accelerated BTI stress [22]) where many chips can be stressed in parallel for long times (e.g., 1000 h), whereas the readout is done outside the furnace sequentially for multiple devices at room temperature. The whole procedure of loading and unloading packaged devices naturally introduces a delay time between the termination of the stress pulse and the extraction of ΔV .

The impact of d on ΔV is sketched in Fig. 8 as a function of $E_{\rm F}$, and data for multiple devices subjected to identical PBS is shown in Fig. 9. ΔV is measured according to Fig. 7 (JEDd). Here, d varies from 0 to 30 s (black and blue lines). We see a decreasing ΔV for increasing d. An explanation is given in Fig. 8 and in the inset of Fig. 9. The change in ΔV is caused by varying $E_{\rm F}$ positions prior to the extraction of ΔV . As such, ΔV increases with stress time according to (3) (red line) during the stress cycle at $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$. By directly switching to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$

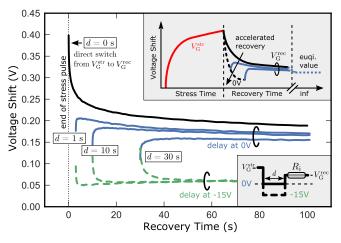


Fig. 9. Recovery behavior after identical PBS depending on d. The black solid line represents ΔV with d=0 (direct switch from $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$ to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm ec}$). By introducing a delay phase at $V_{\rm G}=0$ V between the stress and the recovery phase, ΔV decreases with increasing d (blue line). Inset: mechanism via a steeper recovery curve at $V_{\rm G}=0$ V (black dashed line). This effect increases by using an accumulation pulse during d, which results in less dependence of ΔV on d (green dashed line).

without any delay (d = 0 s), ΔV follows the black recovery curve according to (3). By introducing a delay at $V_G = 0$ V, E_F moves from a position close to the conduction band $E_{\rm F}^{\rm str}$ to a position around the midgap $E_{\rm F}^{\rm OV}$ leading to emission of trapped charges with energetic positions above $E_{\rm F}^{\rm OV}$, which results in a decrease of ΔV (black dashed line). A subsequent bias change back to V_G^{rec} (blue line) will lead to a superposition of charge trapping for trap states with energetic positions below $E_{\rm F}^{
m rec}$ and above $E_{\rm F}^{\rm OV}$ (visible as the rising edge) and the ongoing charge transition of states above $E_{\rm F}^{\rm rec}$ which have not yet emitted their charge within d. As can be seen, the delayed recovery curve approaches a value smaller than recorded in the nondelayed trace. This shows that the delay phase at 0 V increases ΔV recovery in comparison to V_G^{rec} . t_r is shifted to faster times by several orders of magnitude due to the strong dependence on log(d), as will be shown later in this paper. The same trend is observed for a floating gate contact during d (not shown), as would be the case in typical industrial measurements.

A feature that will be exploited in the following is the fact that ΔV is further decreased by using an accumulation pulse instead of 0 V/floating [Fig. 9 (green dashed line)] during the delay phase. In this example, an accumulation pulse of -15 V is used for the same range of delay times resulting in a decrease of ΔV from > 150 mV to \approx 60 mV after $t_{\rm r} = 60$ s.

VI. PRECONDITIONED BTI

As mentioned before, BTI measurements of SiC-MOSFETs are highly sensible to the exact and timing conditions of each ΔV readout (Fig. 9). Therefore, no reliable estimation of $P(t_s)$ can be given. This is due to two essential facts: first, the extracted ΔV depends on the reference readout timing and gate bias history since thermal equilibrium is not reached within a reasonable period of time, meaning I_D transients are still noticeable due to ongoing charge capture/emission

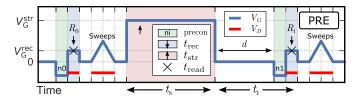


Fig. 10. Preconditioned BTI pattern (PRE) with accumulation pulse $(n_i, \text{ green})$ before R_0 and R_i to maintain identical switching conditions.

during R_0 . Second, the switching condition of each subsequent readout usually differs from the switching condition of R_0 . For example, in the JEDEC JESD 241 standard (Fig. 3), R_0 is monitored after $V_{\rm G}^{\rm swe}$, whereas R_i is monitored after $V_{\rm G}^{\rm swe}$. Therefore, the interface charging state differs for each readout, resulting in a stress independent offset in the extracted ΔV .

To overcome timing and bias-dependent variations of ΔV , we propose an optimized measurement pattern which we refer to as device preconditioning. The basic scheme is sketched in Fig. 10 for a PBS pattern and consists of the following features: first, we introduce exactly the same accumulation preconditioning pulse before each readout cycle to ensure a well-defined and comparable interface charge state at the instant V_G is switched to V_G^{rec} . By this, we isolate fast interface states (charging state is able to follow the gate signal) from application relevant border states with slower time constants allowing for an extraction of ΔV nearly independent of d as shown in Section VI-A. Second, voltage sweeps (if needed for calculation of ΔV) are moved behind the readout. Therefore, the bias sweep does not influence the charge state of the trapping centers during the readouts, allowing for more comparable ΔV extraction.

A. Consequences of Preconditioning

Fig. 11 shows the impact of various readout arrangements on the ΔV recovery curves after a 1 ks PBS (STR). Here, we start with an $I_{\rm D}$ – $V_{\rm G}$ curve (SWE) for the calculation of ΔV , to include its impact on the subsequent readouts. For R_0 , we either use a bias switch from $V_{\rm G}=0$ V to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$ (JED0) or a preconditioned accumulation pulse readout as shown in Fig. 10 with bias switching from 0 to –15 V ($t_{\rm pre}=1$ s) to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$, which we refer to as n0. Subsequent to STR, ΔV extraction is done according to JEDEC JESD 241 by switching from $V_{\rm G}^{\rm str}$ to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$ (JED1) or via accumulation pulse preconditioning similar to n0, referred to as n1.

Each ΔV recovery trace in Fig. 11 is given relative to one of the reference readouts JED0, n0, or SWE (indicated via the minus sign). For simplicity, we start by analyzing JED0, a simple bias change from 0 V to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$. As shown in Fig. 6, $I_{\rm D}$ changes over time and can be converted to ΔV by using SWE as reference. The outcome is shown in Fig. 11 as dotted purple line (JED0-SWE). In the JESD 241 measurement standard and numerous other studies, only a certain point in time $t_{\rm read}$ is used as the reference point for the calculation of ΔV after bias stress. Due to this major drawback of JEDEC-like measurements, ΔV changes drastically in amplitude and time dependence if $t_{\rm read}$ is changed. In our case, $t_{\rm read}$ represents the interface charge state 100 ms after switching to $V_{\rm G}^{\rm rec}$.

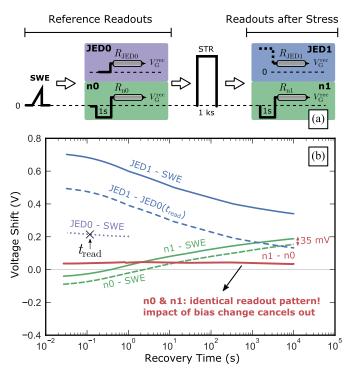


Fig. 11. (a) Reference and readout variations for ΔV calculation. (b) Resulting ΔV as a function of the chosen readout-reference combination. Preconditioning results in less recovery time dependence and more exact ΔV extraction due to identical and, therefore, comparable switching conditions before each readout.

By using either SWE or JED0($t_{\rm read}$) as a reference point, we are now able to extract ΔV induced by STR as a function of $t_{\rm r}$. Fig. 11 shows the outcome in reference to SWE (blue solid line) or JED0($t_{\rm read}$) (blue dashed line). Both curves only differ in an offset of $\Delta V_0 \approx 200$ mV, which is exactly ΔV of JED0 at $t_{\rm read}$.

Compared to the ΔV recovery curves of JED1 (blue line), the time dependence changes drastically if we switch to the accumulation pulse preconditioned readout and, more importantly, always compare ΔV within identical time frames, meaning t_{read} equals t_{r} . The solid and dashed green curves represent ΔV at the readouts n0 and n1 with respect to SWE. n0-SWE shows ΔV before the stress, whereas n1-SWE shows ΔV after the stress. Since both readouts are performed under identical and well-defined switching conditions from accumulation to inversion, n0 and n1 show the same trend over time. This indicates that the form of the recovery curve mainly depends on the switching conditions since STR does not result in any noticeable change in the time dependence of ΔV . The difference between both curves represents the real BTI due to STR since any impact from the switching cancels out. The resulting ΔV is indicated in red and is nearly stable at 35 mV within the measured recovery time of 10 ks, giving a good estimation for $P(t_s)$. The comparison with the JEDEC-like measurement JED1-JED0, which shows a ΔV of ≈ 500 mV recovering to 140 mV within the same recovery time, proves the importance of comparing pairs of values (ΔV , $t_{\rm r} = t_{\rm read}$) rather than ΔV prior and after the stress for reliable ΔV measurements. Note that for industrial measurements, it is

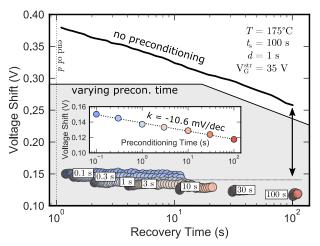


Fig. 12. Impact of $t_{\rm pre}$ varying from 0.1 to 100 s (circles) on ΔV . ΔV decreases with $\log(t_{\rm pre})$. Therefore, even a short $t_{\rm pre}$ decreases the recovery time by several orders of magnitude. The mean ΔV after $t_{\rm pre}$ is given in the inset.

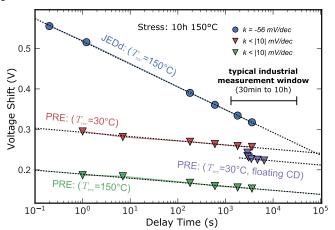


Fig. 13. Delay time dependence of ΔV after 10 h, 5-MV cm⁻¹ PBS at 150 °C. Readout was done at either 150 °C or 30 °C. The impact of d on ΔV is reduced by more than a factor of 5 for PRE measurements, since fully recoverable components of ΔV cancel out due to the preconditioning pulse.

usually sufficient to extract only one pair of values instead of the complete recovery transient as long as $t_r = t_{read}$.

The impact of the preconditioning time t_{pre} on ΔV is shown in Fig. 12. As for t_r and t_s , ΔV decreases with $\log(t_{pre})$. Therefore, even a short t_{pre} of 1 s is sufficient to decrease the recovery time by several orders of magnitude.

B. Minimized Impact of Delay Times

Especially in industrial BTI measurements with a large number of devices stressed simultaneously, delay times between the end of the stress pulse and R_i are inevitable. As shown in Fig. 9, delay times lead to high inaccuracy in the extracted ΔV in JEDEC-like measurement due to ongoing recovery. Preconditioned BTI measurements, on the other hand, show much less dependence of ΔV on d between the end of $V_G^{\rm str}$ and the beginning of R_i , allowing for more reliable extraction of application relevant ΔV .

Fig. 13 shows the delay time dependence of ΔV for a 10 h, 5 MV cm⁻¹ PBS at 150 °C for delay times up to 1 h, which is in the range of typical industrial delay times. The delayed

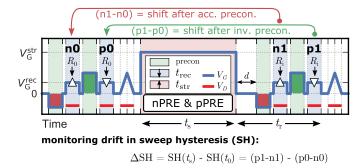


Fig. 14. Preconditioned BTI measurement pattern with accumulation and inversion pulse preconditioning allowing for additional hysteresis monitoring.

JEDEC-like measurement JEDd (see Fig. 7) is shown in blue circles, whereas the preconditioned measurements (according to Fig. 10) are shown with triangles labeled PRE. Readout was done at 150 °C (green and blue) or 30 °C with cooldown under V_G^{str} (red) or floating (purple). JEDd exhibits strong dependence of ΔV on d and recovers from 560 mV for d = 0.2 s to 320 mV for d = 1 h representing a recovery slope of -56 mV/dec at a recovery temperature of 150 °C. The preconditioned measurement at the same recovery temperature is shown in green triangles and represents ΔV after identical stressing conditions. Since recoverable components, which are irrelevant for application, are eliminated, ΔV shows five times less dependence on the delay time and ranges from 190 mV for d = 1 s to 155 mV for d = 1 h with slopes smaller than 10 mV /dec. The red curve represents PRE with readout performed at 30 °C and cooling down under V_G^{str} resulting in higher shift and less recovery, but identical dependence on d. The purple data represent ΔV after cooling down performed under floating conditions, which results in data points shifted to longer delay times since the time needed to reach 30 °C adds to d. It is important to state that PRE does not lead to any additional degradation: a comparison of the change in charge pumping current after JEDd and PRE shows only a minor increase (<2%), which is within the device variation.

VII. MONITORING OF FAST-STATE HYSTERESIS EFFECTS

4H-SiC MOSFETs show a hysteresis (SH) between gate voltage upsweeps from accumulation to inversion and the downsweeps from inversion to accumulation, which is especially visible in the subthreshold regime. The majority of SH is caused by fast interface states, which are fully recoverable during normal device operation within nanoseconds [4], [10], [23] and therefore cancel out as a result of using preconditioning pulses. However, the impact of BTI on the interface states causing the hysteresis has not been investigated until now. To enable monitoring changes in the hysteresis during high temperature gate stress, n0 is extended via a second inversion preconditioning pulse p0 at use-voltage, resulting in the measurement pattern shown in Fig. 14. By using negative and positive preconditioning pulses, ac-use conditions are mimicked. SH before the stress phase is given by the voltage shift after the positive p0 and negative n0 preconditioning,

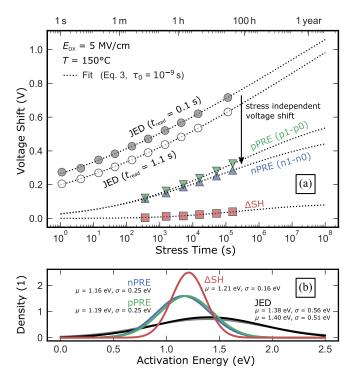


Fig. 15. (a) ΔV for $t_{\rm S}$ up to \approx 40 h at 150 °C for JEDEC JESD 241 (circles) with two different values for $t_{\rm read}$ and preconditioned BTI according to Fig. 14 after negative (nPRE, blue triangles up) and positive (pPRE, green triangles down) preconditioning. Although stress conditions are identical, PRE measurements show significantly less shift. The difference between pPRE and nPRE represents the change in SH as a function of $t_{\rm S}$ (red squares). (b) Parameters of the normally distributed $E_{\rm A}$ (σ , μ) are extracted using (3) (assuming $\tau_0 = 10^{-9}$ s).

whereas SH after the stress is given by the difference between p1 and n1. The change in SH due to BTI is therefore given by Δ SH = (p1-n1) - (p0-n0). Fig. 15 shows a comparison of the JEDEC JESD 241 (circles) and the preconditioned BTI after a 1 s accumulation pulse (negative PRE, triangles up) and after a succeeding 1 s inversion pulse (positive PRE, triangles down) for a 40 h, 5 MV cm⁻¹ PBS at 150 °C.

For JEDEC readouts, ΔV is overestimated for given stress times and depends strongly on $t_{\rm read}$ because stress independent components, such as fully recoverable hysteresis effects, are not excluded. Preconditioned measurements eliminate a large fraction of these components resulting in an approximately 2–3 times lower and more application relevant ΔV . The difference in ΔV for negative and positive PRE results from the hysteresis (red squares), which slightly increases during high temperature, high field PBS. The fit (dashed line) was done according to (3) assuming $\tau_0 = 10^{-9} \, \mathrm{s}$ [22]. Extracted parameters of the normally distributed $E_{\rm A}$ (σ , μ) are given in Fig. 15(b). PRE measurements show significantly reduced standard deviation with $\mu = 1.18 + -0.05 \, \mathrm{eV}$.

VIII. CONCLUSION

We investigated the impact of various BTI measurement parameters on the extracted ΔV of 4H-SiC power MOSFETs. A satisfying BTI procedure should assess exclusive parameter drifts, which degrade the *application relevant* device performance. However, using JEDEC-like measurements, the majority of ΔV after high bias stress originates from

fully recoverable and stress independent shift components, which strongly depend on the measurement parameters and incorrectly add to the extracted ΔV . ΔV changes drastically by changing the reference point for the shift calculation and strongly depends on recovery and delay times of the measurement. To overcome this issue, we demonstrate a sophisticated BTI measurement pattern using device preconditioning for an exact determination of the application relevant ΔV . By using similar and well-defined preconditioning pulses before each readout, fully reversible shift components are eliminated, thereby allowing for a more accurate extraction of the application relevant permanent component. Voltage shifts extracted via preconditioned BTI are less dependent on measurement delay times within industrial timescales and do not include fully recoverable hysteresis effects. Therefore, they enable more accurate lifetime prediction of 4H-SiC MOSFETs.

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