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Some Aspects of Using A Scanning Electron Microsope for Total Dose Testing

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Some Aspects of Using a Scanning Electron Microscope for Total Dose Testing

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Abstract

This report addresses a number of aspects involved in using a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) for radiation testing of semiconductor devices. Problems associated with using the low energy electron beam to simulate ^{60}Co exposure and a method for estimating the total absorbed dose in critical device oxides are discussed. The method is based on the experimentally determined expression for electron energy dissipation versus penetration depth in solid materials of Everhart and Hoff. An appendix giving the method of estimating the total absorbed dose in a form suitable for ASTM deliberations is included.

1. Introduction

Low energy electron beams such as those used in a scanning electron microscope (SEM) have been used in a number of experiments to explore the effects of ionizing radiation on semiconductor devices.[1-11] The SEM has been suggested as an instrument which can be used to selectively irradiate devices directly at the wafer level and which can simulate the effects of ^{60}Co gamma irradiation.[12-15] This report addresses a number of aspects involved in using an SEM for radiation testing of semiconductor devices. In particular, problems associated with using the low energy electron beam to simulate ^{60}Co exposure and a method for estimating the total absorbed dose† in critical device oxides are discussed.

If the SEM irradiation is intended to simulate a ^{60}Co radiation exposure, at least three factors must be considered. 1) For a low energy electron beam, the depth-dose distribution through the oxide may be quite different from the assumed constant depth-dose distribution for ^{60}Co exposure. 2) An SEM properly adjusted for imaging using secondary electrons will not deliver a uniform electron flux to the specimen.

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†In this report, the terms total dose and total absorbed dose are used to indicate the total energy divided by total mass. This is to be distinguished from the term absorbed dose which is generally defined as a point quantity.

3) The dose rate during a typical SEM exposure is considerably higher than typical ^{60}Co dose rates.

Due to the variation in depth-dose profiles of low energy electrons in device structures, careful attention must be given to the method used for determining the total absorbed dose. The energy deposited by the electron beam can be considered primarily as a mechanism for electron-hole pair production in the device materials. Since an electron of approximately 170 keV or greater is necessary for displacement damage in silicon, permanent bulk damage can be neglected for SEM electron irradiation. In metals and semiconductor materials, the pair formation will only result in a transient effect. However, the trapping of holes in the silicon dioxide and interface state build-up at the silicon-silicon dioxide interface can result from low energy electron exposure. These are also the effects usually associated with ^{60}Co exposure[16] where the total absorbed dose in the oxide is the radiation parameter which correlates with changes in device electrical parameters. For this reason, the method given in this report will be for estimating the total absorbed dose in the oxide. The method is based on the experimentally determined expression for electron energy dissipation versus penetration depth in materials with atomic numbers between 10 and 15 given by Everhart and Hoff.[17]

In the following sections, the calculational method for estimating the total absorbed dose and various graphs to facilitate the calculation are given, an example calculation is presented, and techniques and problems relevant to using an SEM for radiation testing are discussed. An appendix giving the method of estimating the total absorbed dose in semiconductor devices due to SEM electron radiation in a form suitable for ASTM deliberations is included.

2. Calculation of Total Absorbed Dose

Early work on the distribution of energy loss versus penetration depth for kilovolt electrons was done by Grün.[18] Grün experimentally determined the electron energy absorption as a function of penetration depth in air and demonstrated two important points. First, he obtained a relationship between the projected range of electrons, R_G, and the electron beam energy, E_B:

$$R_G = 4.57\ E_B^{1.75}\ , \qquad (1)$$

where R_G is expressed in micrograms per square centimeter[§] and E_B is expressed in kilo-electron volts. This expression is valid for 5 keV $\leq$ $E_B \leq$ 25 keV. Second, he showed that the shape of the depth-dose relation

[§]The unit of length used here is mass thickness - the product of material density and thickness. For example, a layered structure of 800 nm of aluminum and 200 nm of silicon dioxide would have a thickness of 260 $\mu g/cm^2$.

is practically invariant if the penetration distance is expressed as a function of R_G and the energy is expressed as a fraction of E_B.

Everhart and Hoff[17] extended these general conclusions to solids and obtained a generalized depth-dose curve for solid materials. They determined experimentally a depth-dose function by taking the steady-state electron-beam-induced current through the insulating layer of a metal-oxide-semiconductor structure as a measure of the energy dissipation in that layer. For structures of aluminum, silicon dioxide, and silicon, Everhart and Hoff found the projected range expression,

$$R_G = 3.98\ E_B^{1.75}\ , \tag{2}$$

to be accurate for 5 keV $\leq E_B \leq$ 25 keV. Figure 1 is a plot of projected range versus electron beam energy. They also found that for elements with an atomic number in the range 10 to 15 the energy dissipation per unit mass thickness is given by

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{(1-f_B)E_B\lambda(y)}{R_G}\ , \tag{3}$$

where f_B is the fraction of incident energy backscattered, typically taken as 0.1 (see Appendix A), $y = x/R_G$ where x is the penetration depth in micrograms per square centimeter, and

$$\lambda(y) = 0.60 + 6.21y - 12.40y^2 + 5.69y^3\ . \tag{4}$$

Equation 3 is plotted in figure 2 for several beam energies.

The work of Everhart and Hoff provides the basis for calculating the total absorbed dose in the oxide layers of semiconductor devices exposed in a scanning electron microscope.

If uniform electron flux over the rastered area (A_S in square centimeters) is assumed, the number of incident electrons per unit area (electrons per square centimeter) is

$$N = \frac{I_B t}{qA_s}\ , \tag{5}$$

where I_B is the electron beam current in amperes, t is the exposure time in seconds, and q is the charge per electron (1.6×10^{-19} coulombs per electron). Multiplying N by the area of the oxide layer of interest (A_O in square centimeters) gives the number of electrons incident on the oxide.

The energy deposited in the oxide per electron can be calculated from eq (3) by integrating from x_1, the distance from the device surface

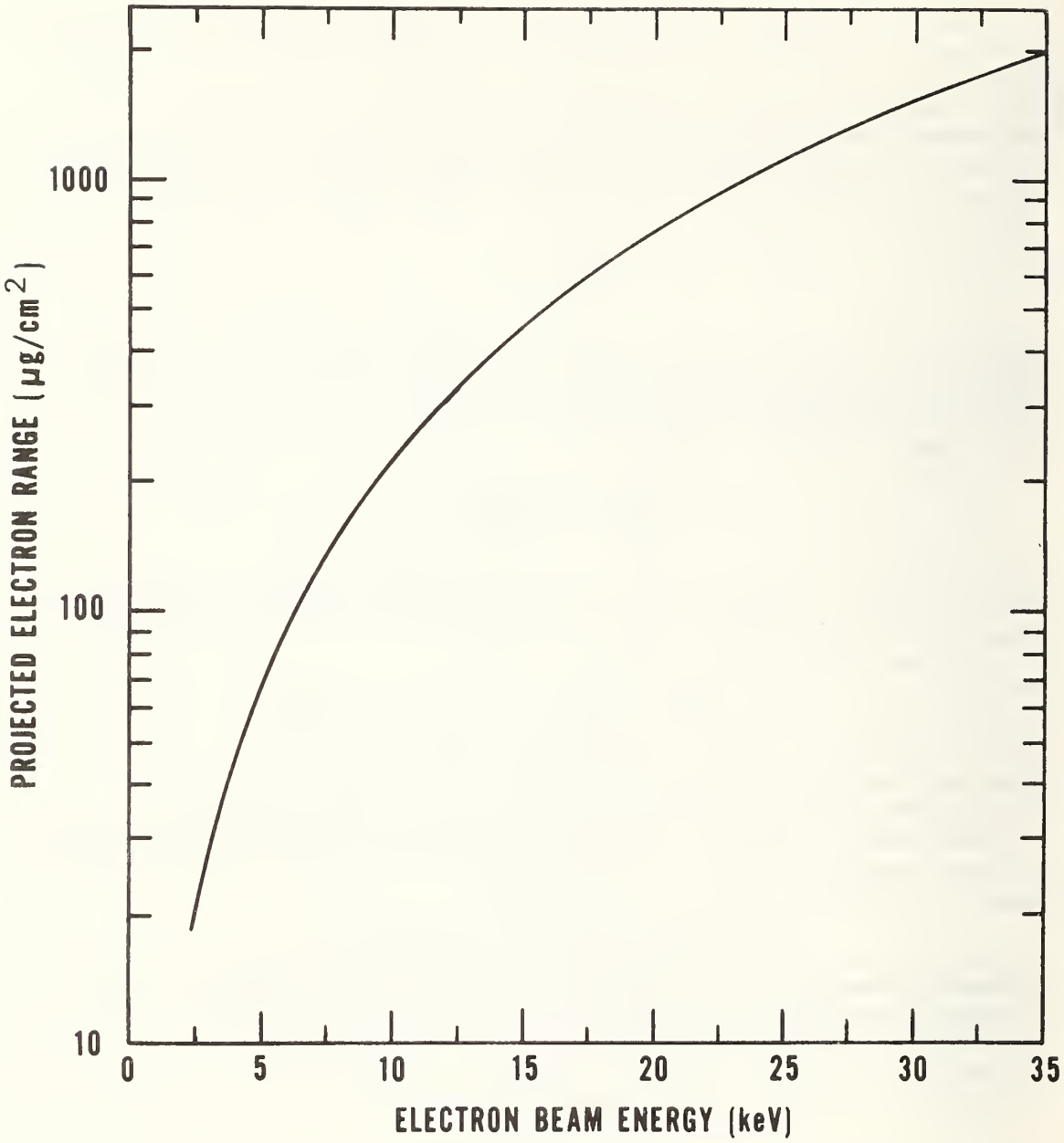

Figure 1. Projected electron range versus electron beam energy from the expression of Everhart and Hoff.

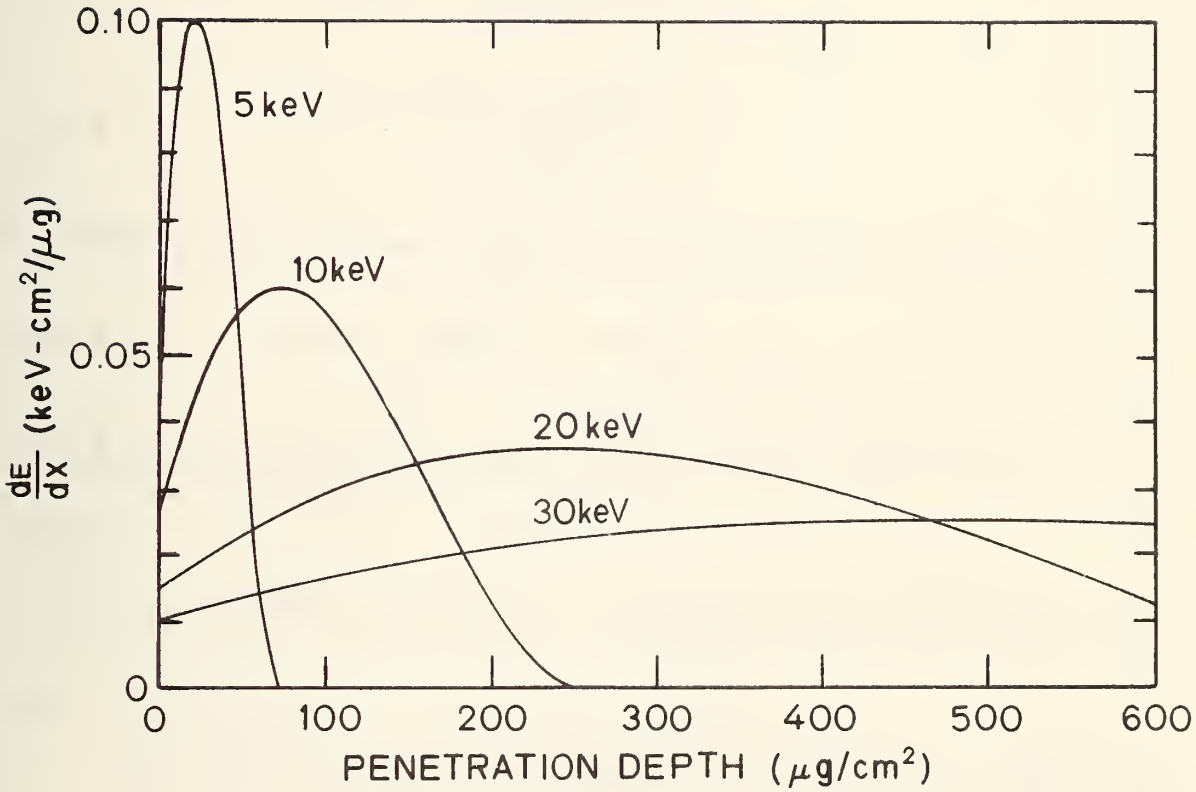

Figure 2. Energy deposition versus penetration depth for electron beams for four different energies based on the work of Everhart and Hoff. Ten percent of the beam energy is assumed to be back-scattered.

to the top of the oxide, to x_2, the distance to the bottom of the oxide. Normal incidence for the electron beam is assumed.

$$\begin{aligned} E_D &= \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{dE}{dx}\, dx \\ &= (1-f_B)E_B \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \lambda(y)dy \\ &= (1-f_B)E_B\, [Y(y_2) - Y(y_1)] \\ &= (1-f_B)E_B\, f_D\ , \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where f_D is the fraction of incident electron energy deposited between y_1 and y_2 and

$$Y(y) = 0.6y + 3.105y^2 - 4.133y^3 + 1.425y^4\ . \tag{7}$$

Figure 3 is a plot of the function Y.

The total energy deposited in the oxide in kilo-electron volts is then

$$E_T = N \cdot A_o \cdot E_D\ . \tag{8}$$

The radiation dose in the oxide can be calculated by dividing E_T by the mass of the oxide layer in grams

$$M = A_o\ (x_2 - x_1)\ . \tag{9}$$

The result, in kilo-electron volts per microgram, is

$$\text{Dose} = N \cdot E_D \cdot (x_2 - x_1)^{-1}\ . \tag{10}$$

The commonly used unit of radiation dose, the rad, is defined as the amount of radiation which deposits 100 ergs of energy per gram of irradiated material; the total absorbed dose in the oxide layer in rad(SiO_2) is

$$\text{Dose [rad}(SiO_2)] = 1.602 \times 10^{-5}\ N \cdot E_D \cdot (x_2 - x_1)^{-1}\ . \tag{11}$$

The parameters used in determining N and E_D can be substituted explicitly in eq (11) and the total absorbed dose in the oxide layer can be expressed as

$$\text{Dose [rad}(SiO_2)] = \frac{10^{14}\ I_B E_B t(1-f_B)f_D}{A_s\ (x_2 - x_1)}\ . \tag{12}$$

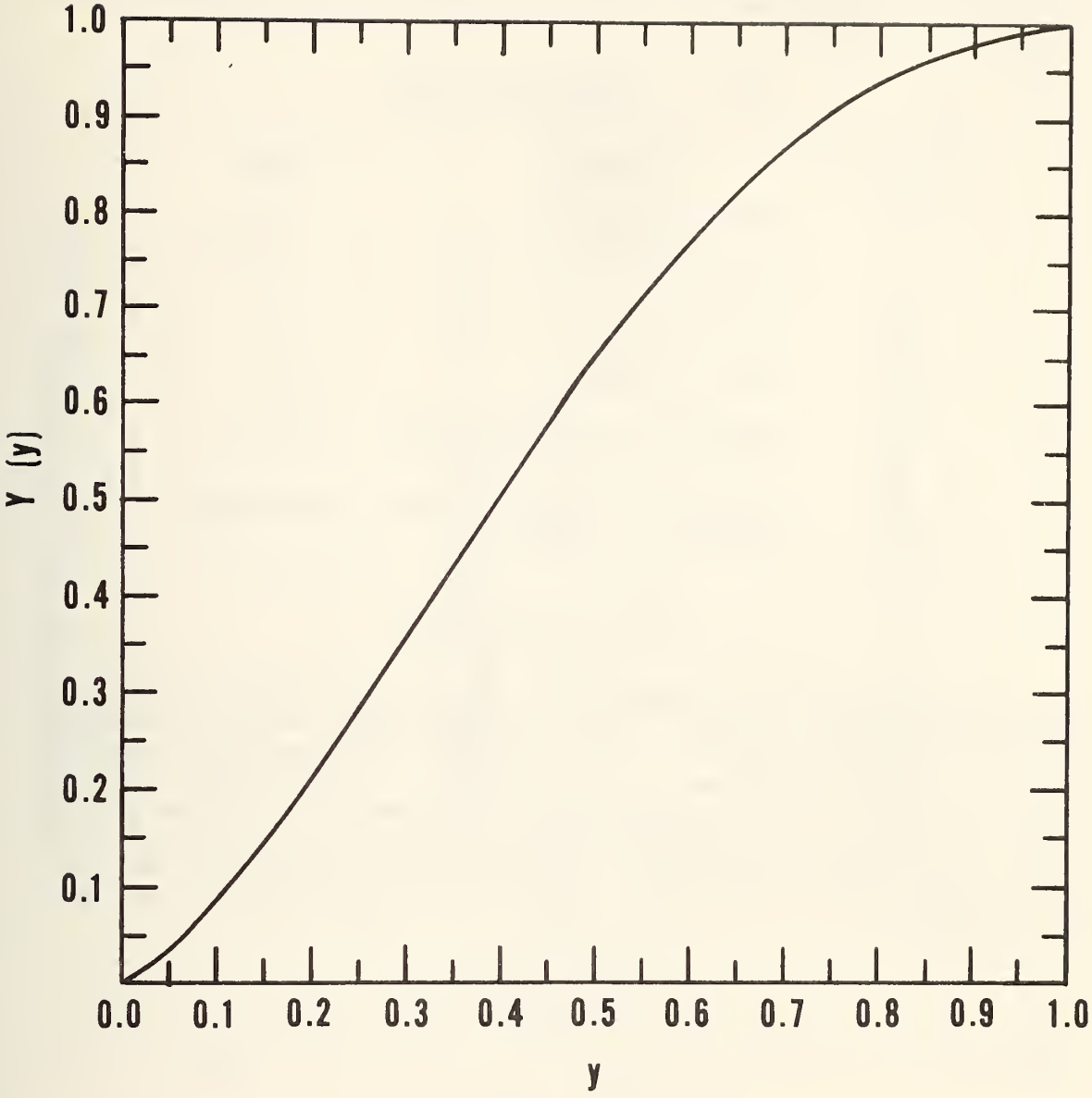

Figure 3. The function $Y(y) = 0.6\ y + 3.105\ y^2 - 4.133\ y^3 + 1.425\ y^4$ plotted as a function of y.

The quantities appearing in eq (12) and their units are given in table I.

Table I. SYMBOLS AND UNITS

Symbol	Parameter	Units
I_B	beam current	A
E_B	energy of beam electrons	keV
t	scan time	s
A_s	area of scan	cm^2
x_2-x_1	oxide thickness	$\mu g/cm^2$
f_B	fraction of incident energy backscattered from device	unitless
f_D	fraction of incident energy deposited in oxide	unitless

3. Example Calculation

Consider a critical oxide layer of 100 nm, for example the gate oxide of an MOS device, beneath 1 μm of aluminum which is in turn beneath a silicon oxide overcoat 1 μm thick. Figure 4 is a nomograph which can be used to convert aluminum, silicon dioxide, or aluminum plus silicon dioxide thickness in micrometers to mass thickness in micrograms per square centimeter. On a depth scale measured from the top of the overcoat, the critical oxide extends from 500 $\mu g/cm^2$ to 523 $\mu g/cm^2$ (x_1 and x_2, respectively). For a 20-keV electron beam, R_G is 752.8 $\mu g/cm^2$ (see fig. 1). Thus

$$y_1 = \frac{x_1}{R_G} = 0.664$$

$$y_2 = \frac{x_2}{R_G} = 0.695 \qquad (13)$$

and from eq (7)

$$Y(y_1) = 0.834$$

$$Y(y_2) = 0.861 \ . \qquad (14)$$

Thus, the energy deposited in the oxide expressed in kilo-electron volts per electron is

$$E_D = (1.0-0.1)\ 20\ [0.861-0.834]$$

$$= 0.486 \ . \qquad (15)$$

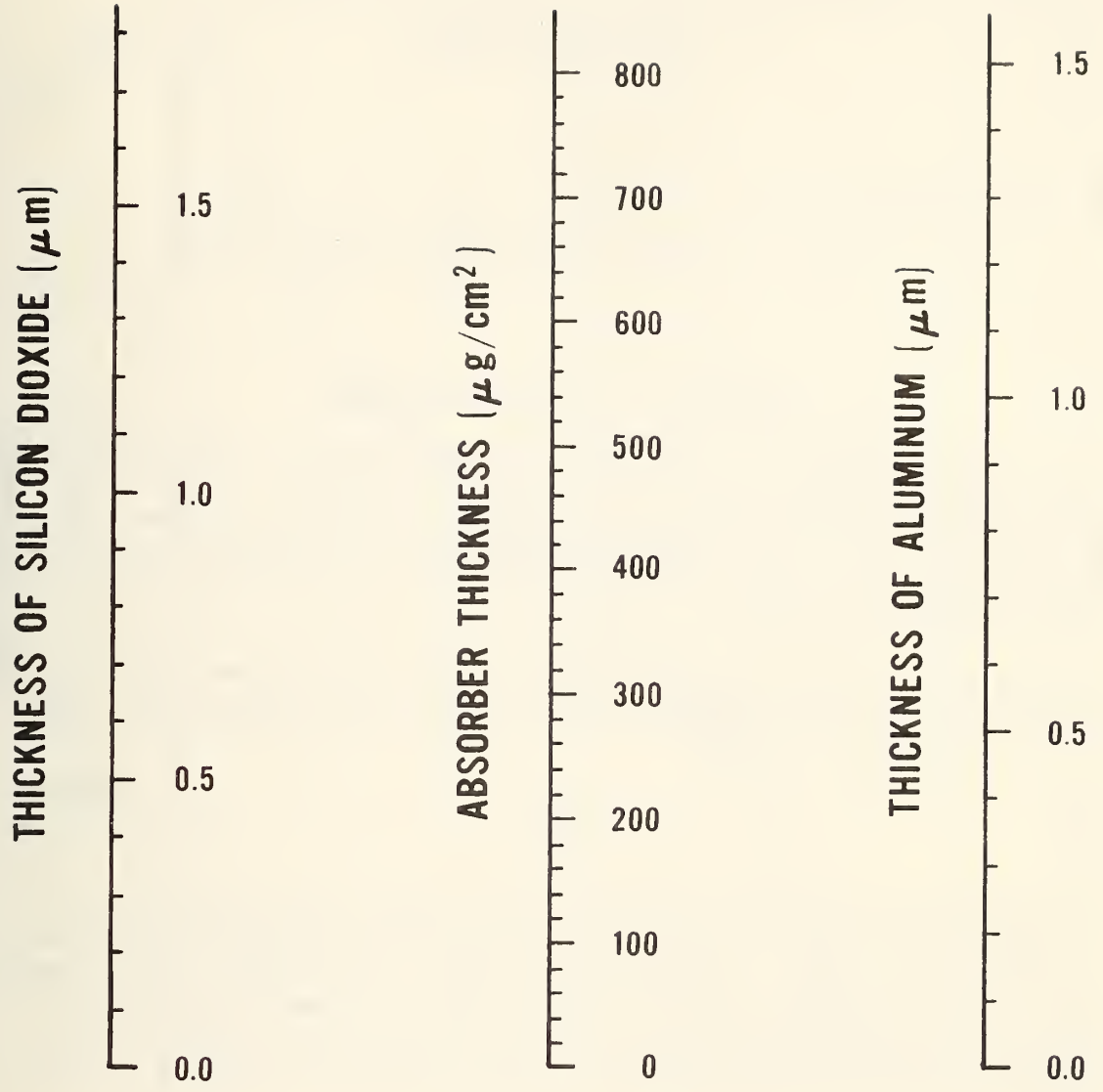

Figure 4. Nomograph for converting aluminum, silicon dioxide, or aluminum plus silicon dioxide thicknesses in micrometers to mass thickness in $\mu g/cm^2$. To use, draw a line from the silicon dioxide thickness in micrometers to the aluminum thickness in micrometers and read the absorber thickness in $\mu g/cm^2$.

For an electron beam of 100 pA scanning an area of 0.02 cm^2 for 100 s, the number of incident electrons per square centimeter is

$$N = \frac{(100 \times 10^{-12})\ (100)}{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})\ (.02)} = 3.125 \times 10^{12} \ . \tag{16}$$

The total absorbed dose in the oxide for this case is then

$$\text{Dose } [\text{rad}(SiO_2)] = \frac{(1.602 \times 10^{-5})\ (3.125 \times 10^{12})\ (0.486)}{23} = 1.06 \times 10^{6} \ . \tag{17}$$

4. Consideration of SEM Parameters

If the procedure for estimating the total absorbed dose outlined in the preceding sections is to yield reasonable results, the SEM should be adjusted so that the assumptions made in the calculation are met and the SEM parameters used in the calculation should be accurately determined. The requirement of a uniform electron flux incident on the specimen needs special attention.

The area of the specimen exposed to the electron beam or the area scanned, A_S, is usually related to the area of the recording CRT, A_{CRT}, and the SEM magnification by

$$A_s = \frac{A_{CRT}}{Mag} \ . \tag{18}$$

For this reason, the magnification needs to be accurately determined. The magnification is a function of many different variables and is usually determined using a calibration artifact. The electron beam current, I_B, is usually measured using a Faraday cup. The beam energy, E_B, is probably best determined from the x-rays emitted from a known target. Techniques for determining these and other critical parameters are discussed in a paper by Joy.[19]

In order that the assumption of uniform electron exposure be met, a number of factors must be carefully considered. The goal, of course, is a uniform dose deposited in the oxide layer. An SEM electron beam properly adjusted for secondary imaging is approximately circular in projection on the specimen with about 80 percent of the electrons in a circle 10 to 25 nm in diameter. As these electrons penetrate to the oxide layer of interest a radially varying dose distribution in the oxide results, primarily from multiple scattering of the electrons. Figure 5, taken from the work of Chadsey,[20] illustrates the radial dose distribution in the oxide for a point beam of 20-keV electrons incident on a 150-nm silicon dioxide layer on silicon beneath a 500-nm aluminum layer. Extrapolating from the data in this figure, it is obvious that when us-

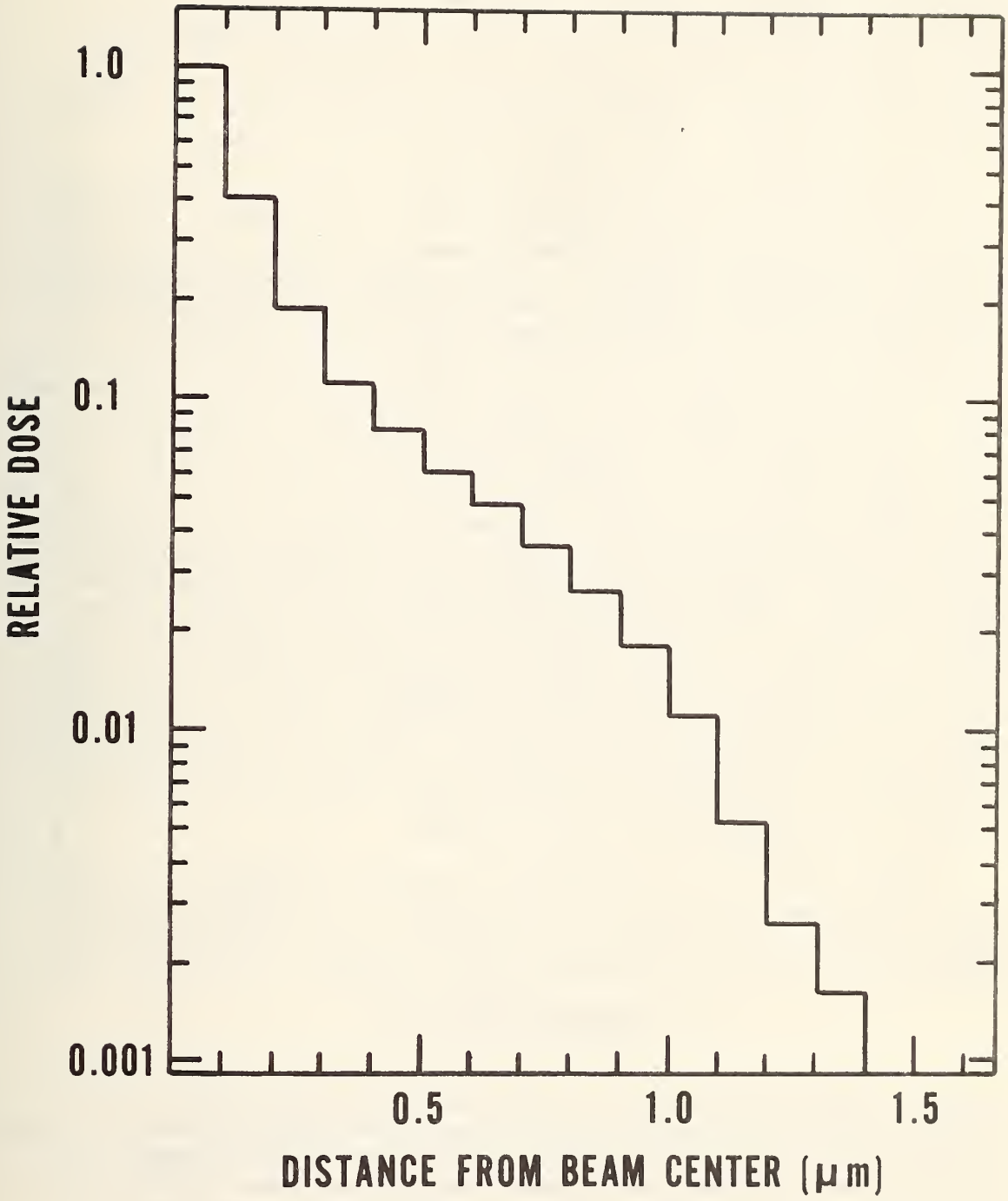

Figure 5. Relative radial dose distribution in the oxide layer for a point beam of 20-keV electrons incident on a 150-nm oxide layer beneath a 500-nm aluminum layer.

ing a well focused beam the scan lines must be on the order of 0.5 μm or less apart to achieve a uniform dose when irradiating typical chips. This is impractical since a typical chip to be exposed is on the order of 2500 μm on a side and the number of scan lines per frame is usually between 500 and 2000. Therefore, an SEM operated in its normal imaging mode will not deliver a uniform dose to typical device oxides.

This problem can be solved by defocusing the electron beam in order to obtain a uniform electron exposure. This is accomplished by decreasing the objective lens current. Beam diameters as large as 50 to 100 μm are easily attainable. Figure 6 illustrates beam "profiles" obtained by defocusing. The beam "profiles" shown in figure 6 were measured using an MOS induced current technique schematically shown in figure 7. An MOS capacitor with a gate 5 μm wide and several hundred micrometers long was oriented perpendicular to the scan direction and biased to accumulation. The current induced by the beam in the oxide was amplified and recorded on an x-y plotter. Figure 6a shows the profile of the gate at focus (beam diameter much less than gate width) and can be used to estimate the beam widths of the other traces. Figures 6b and 6c show the profiles obtained as the beam is progressively defocused. The amplitude is arbitrary as the beam current changes with objective lens setting. The beam current used to calculate the dose must be measured with the beam defocused. The profiles obtained in this way are not true beam intensity profiles as the gate integrates the electron distribution in one dimension. However, the full width of the measured profile, from where the current rises from zero to where it returns to zero, is exactly the full width of the beam plus the width of the gate stripe. Figure 8 represents the uniformity of exposure across a chip for electron beams with assumed Gaussian distributions of 0.025, 5.0, and $\geq$10.0 μm FWHM. If, for example, a 50-μm diameter beam is scanned across a chip on lines 5 μm apart, the resulting dose will be uniform.

Another factor to be considered is the time of exposure. If the time per frame is t_F and the time of exposure is t, the assumption of uniform exposure of the specimen is most nearly met if t is a rational multiple of t_F or if t is very much greater than t_F.

5. SEM Radiation Testing

This final section is devoted to a discussion of a number of other important details which must be considered when using an SEM for the radiation testing of semiconductor devices. Practical problems associated with device positioning, device biasing, and possible damage to adjacent devices are briefly addressed. Also, the effects of differences in depth-dose distribution and in dose rate between the low energy electrons from SEM exposure and the gamma-rays from ^{60}Co radiation testing are pointed out.

Positioning the device to be exposed in the SEM chamber may present a problem. This is particularly true if it is desired to expose only one or a few devices on a wafer. Some systems have optical viewing systems which are useful in positioning. It is also possible to

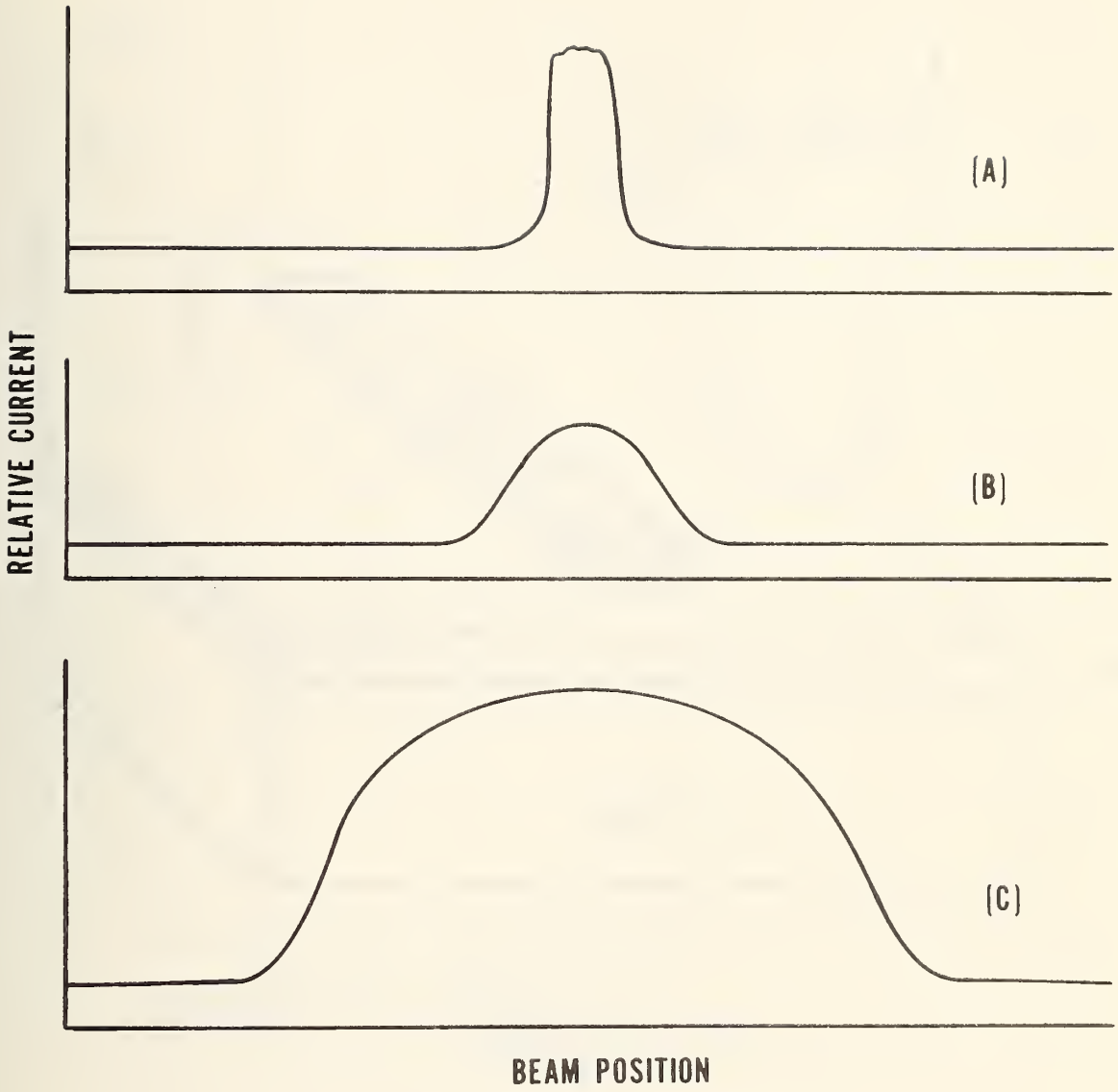

Figure 6. Beam "profiles" obtained by defocusing measured with a 5-μm aluminum stripe MOS capacitor. A. Focused beam; the width of the peak is approximately equal to the width of the 5-μm stripe. B. Beam width ∿4 μm. C. Beam width ∿18 μm.

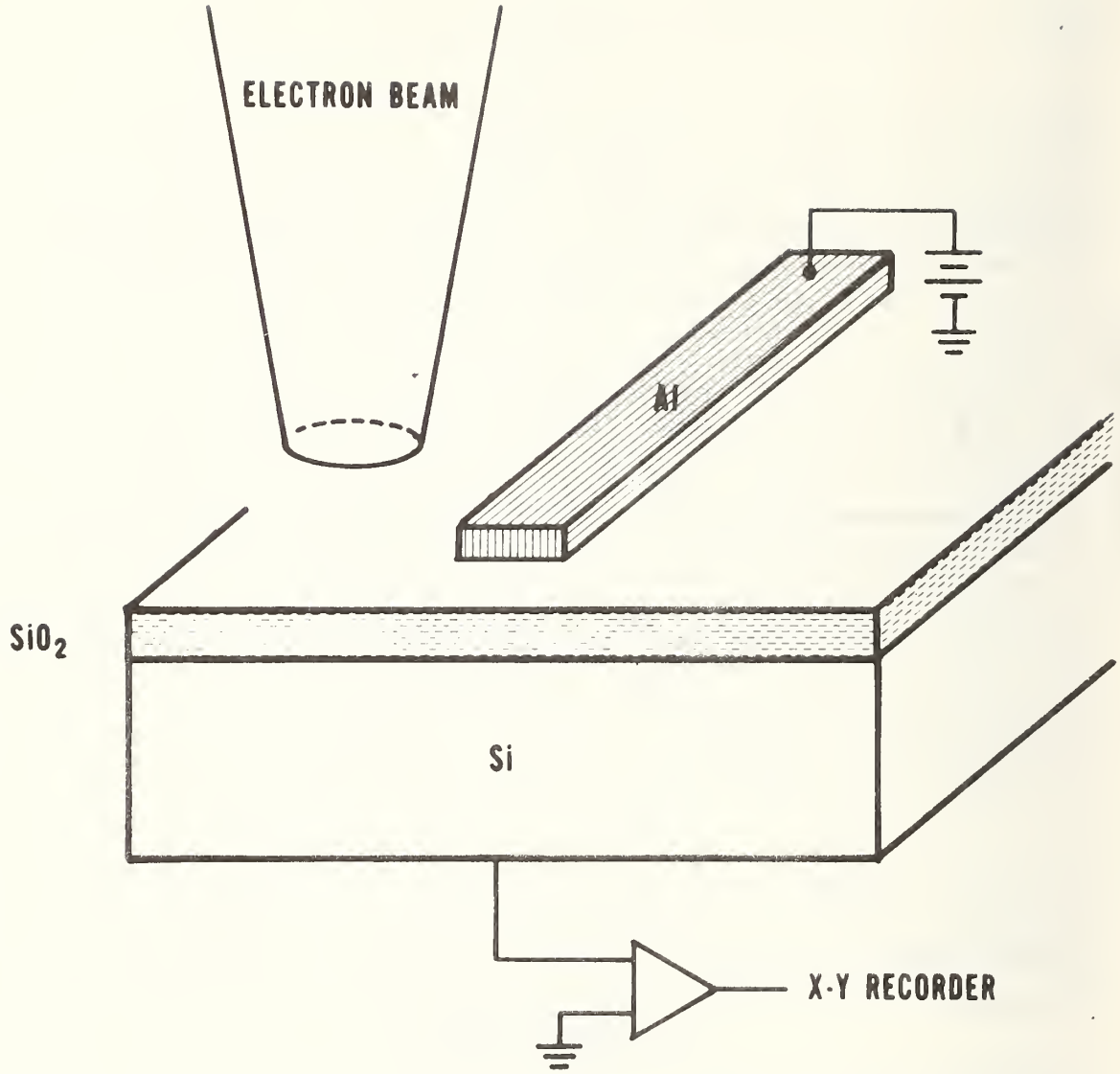

Figure 7. Schematic illustration of measurement arrangement for obtaining defocused "profiles" shown in figure 6.

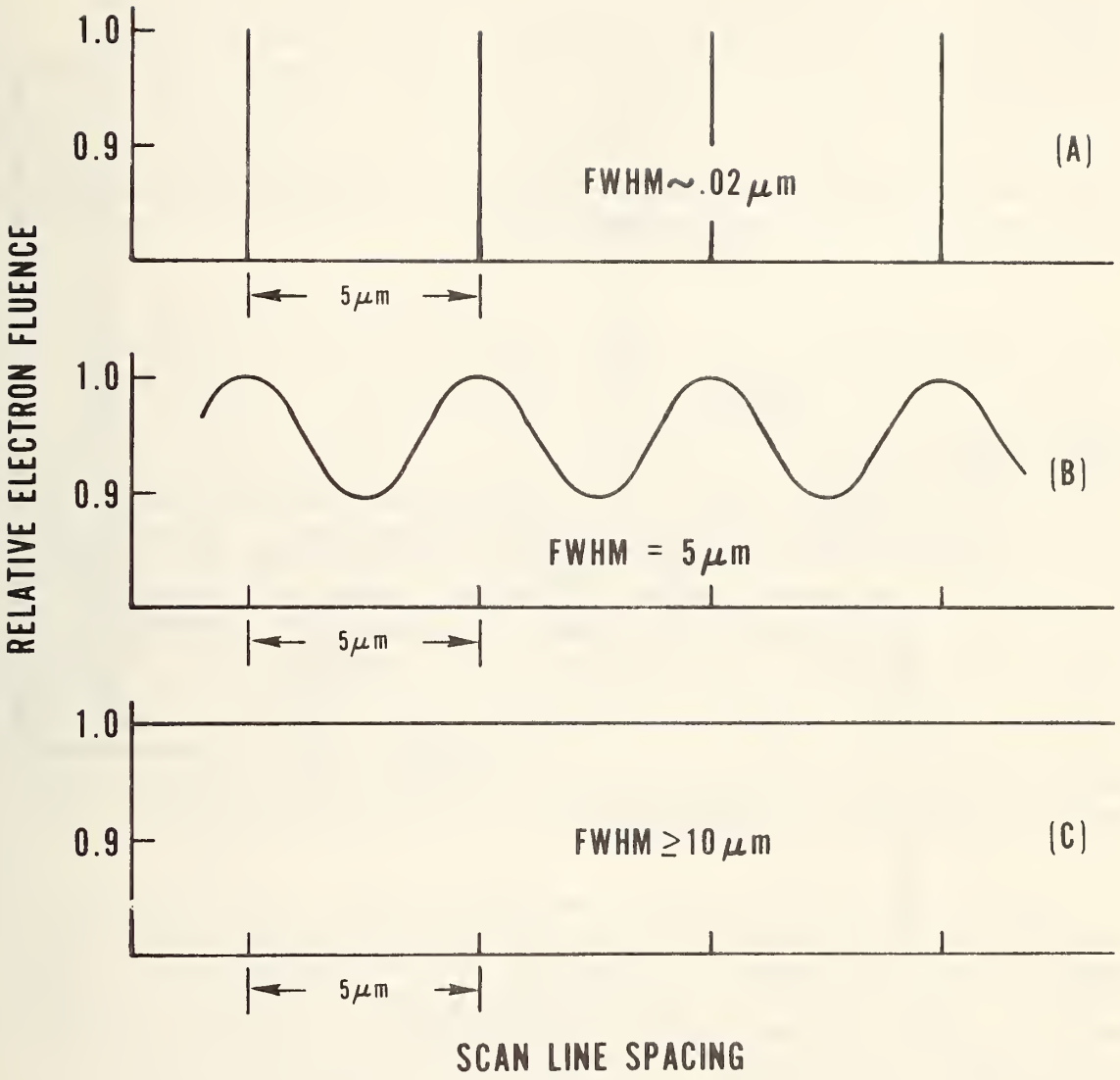

Figure 8. Relative electron fluence across the rastered area for three different beams with assumed Gaussian distributions. A. FWHM $\sim$ 0.2 μm. B. FWHM = 5 μm. C. FWHM $\geq$ 10 μm.

design and construct a fixture which will hold a wafer and provide shielding for those devices which are not to be exposed to the beam. In general, a very low energy electron beam ($E_B \leq 1$ keV) can be used to locate and align the device to be exposed. Electrons of this energy usually do not penetrate to critical oxide layers. However, a small but potentially significant number of continuum x-rays, generated by the electrons in the material covering the critical oxide layers, may penetrate to the oxide. If this technique is to be used, the exposure during set-up should be as short as possible. For a particular SEM system, it may be necessary to explore a number of techniques to discover the best method.

It is generally accepted that ionizing radiation effects are accentuated by applying bias to the device during the radiation exposure. Provisions for applying biases during SEM exposure to a single device mounted on a header are available in most instruments. However, SEM systems equipped with multiple probes for IC probing are not currently commercially available. A group interested in doing on-wafer failure analysis has designed a fixture which was mounted in an SEM chamber so that individual devices on a wafer could be biased during SEM irradiation.[21,22] The fixture, containing a probe card with the required number of probes, was rigidly mounted in the SEM chamber and aligned so that the region to be probed was centered on the electron optic axis. Figure 9 is a schematic illustration of this arrangement. The wafer is fixed in a specimen holder on the moveable stage of the SEM, and in operation, the chip to be investigated is adjusted relative to the probes and the wafer raised in the Z-direction until the probes mate with the pads. A system such as this would permit pre- and post-radiation electrical characterization and irradiation under bias of selected chips at the wafer level.

Another concern during wafer level irradiations is the possible damage to devices adjacent to the target device due to scattering of the electron beam in the target device or due to stray radiation in the SEM chamber. Using Monte Carlo techniques to examine the problem of scattering in the target device, Chadsey has shown that this effect is negligible in neighboring devices.[20] The magnitude of stray radiation in the SEM chamber is more difficult to predict. This background is due to electrons backscattered from the sample rescattering from the pole-piece and walls of the sample chamber. Measurements by Lipman *et al.*[12] indicated no effect on the gain of neighboring devices when the target device received a dose of approximately 1 Mrad(SiO_2). However, Ma *et al.*[10] in experiments on MOS capacitors observed an effect where the dose due to stray radiation can be estimated to be 10^{-3} to 10^{-5} times the dose in the target device.

In order to most closely simulate a ^{60}Co exposure with an SEM electron beam, the electron beam energy should be selected such that the energy dissipated per unit mass thickness (dE/dx) across the critical oxide is nearly constant. Exposure to ^{60}Co gamma-rays results in almost uniform energy deposition throughout a typical device. This is not the case for a low energy electron beam. Consider, for example, a critical

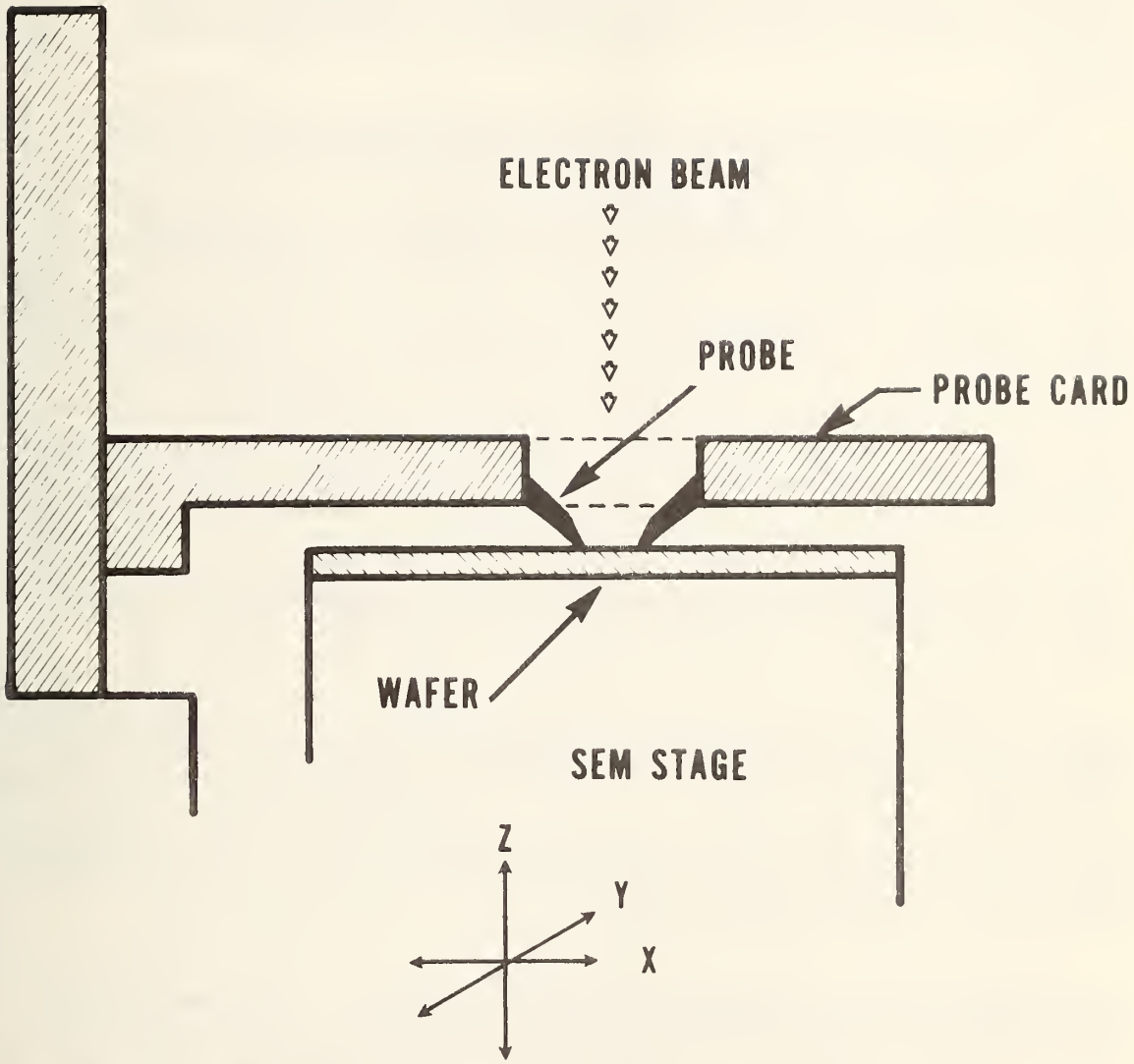

Figure 9. Schematic cross section through an SEM specimen chamber illustrating probe card arrangement for applying bias to an individual chip on a wafer.

oxide located between 200 and 250 μg/cm^2 in figure 2. A 5-keV beam will deposit no energy in this oxide layer. A 10-keV beam or a 20-keV beam could deposit the same amount of energy in this oxide layer if the individual times of exposure and beam currents were appropriately adjusted. However, the 20-keV beam deposits its energy more uniformly throughout the oxide. For this reason, a beam energy of 20 keV would be the better choice for simulating a ^{60}Co exposure for this particular device configuration.

Substantial differences in dose rate can exist between an SEM exposure and a ^{60}Co exposure delivering the same total dose to a device. Dose rate can be calculated from eq (12) using the raster scan time and the raster area or, equivalently, using the area of the beam spot and the time the beam spends on each spot if the electron exposure is uniform. A typical MOS gate oxide might be 100 nm thick under 1 μm of aluminum covered by 1 μm of glass. For a beam energy of 30 keV, a beam current of 100 pA, a raster area of 0.1 cm^2 (a chip of approximately 125 mils by 125 mils), and raster scan time of 1 s, the dose rate is 2.7 × 10^3 rad(SiO_2)/s. The beam current in the SEM may be varied conveniently from 1 pA to 10 nA, thereby varying the dose rate in a range of approximately 10 to 10^6 rad(SiO_2)/s. The lower limit is set by the reliability of the current-measuring electronics, assuming an image is not required during irradiation. The upper limit is set by the apertures of the SEM optics; beam currents of 10 μA or greater are obtainable if these apertures are removed (resolution will be lost). For comparison, typical dose rates for ^{60}Co exposures are 20 to 200 rad(SiO_2)/s.

Some dose rate effects have been reported for very high dose rates.[23] At the lower limits of SEM beam current the dose rate is comparable with ^{60}Co sources so those effects are clearly not a problem. In general, a consideration of the physics of device response would indicate that rate effects should not be significant at 10^4 to 10^5 rad/s. Above this rate, space charge effects may be important. Thus, radiation testing in the SEM offers the potential advantage of depositing significant doses in only a few minutes.

SEM radiation testing has been shown to yield results similar to ^{60}Co exposure for both bipolar[12] and MOS devices.[13] This technique has a unique feature in that the radiation sensitivity of different regions of an integrated circuit can be separately investigated.[15] When planning a program which is to include SEM radiation testing, reasonable simulation of ^{60}Co total dose exposure can be obtained if the various facets of SEM low energy electron irradiation are accounted for.

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Appendix A

Analysis of the Fraction of Energy Backscattered

In order to utilize the energy deposited versus penetration results of Everhart and Hoff [A1] to calculate the energy deposited in aluminum, silicon dioxide, and silicon structures by a low energy electron beam, knowledge of the fraction of incident energy backscattered from the specimen (f_B) is necessary. This fraction is usually taken to be 0.1 from the work of Bishop [A2] at 30 keV. A study was undertaken to examine the validity of using this value at lower electron beam energies.

The fraction f_B depends on η, the fraction of incident electrons backscattered, and the fractional mean energy of the backscattered electrons:

$$f_B = \eta \, \bar{E}_{Bck}/E_B \ ,$$

where $\bar{E}_{Bck}$ is the mean energy of backscattered electrons and E_B is the beam energy. Both $\bar{E}_{Bck}/E_B$ and η depend on the incident energy, specimen composition, the incident beam angle, and the scattering angle at which they are measured. The data reviewed here are for normal incidence and are integrated over all possible scattering angles.

There have been several experimental determinations of η using a variety of experimental techniques [A3-A7]. In the energy range of interest here (usually $E_B \leq 30$ keV), the fraction of electrons backscattered from aluminum or silicon is almost independent of the beam energy, E_B, as shown in figure A1. Data on the fractional mean energy of backscattered electrons are scarce [A2,A8,A9]. Figure A2 illustrates the variation of $\bar{E}_{Bck}/E_B$ with beam energy for electrons backscattered from aluminum. The values given by Thomas [A8] were measured at 138 deg with respect to the beam direction; the average value over all backscattering angles would be greater. The values of f_B for an aluminum specimen can be calculated using these values of $\bar{E}_{Bck}/E_B$ and values of η from figure A1b interpolated when necessary to obtain values at the same energies. The results, with error bars estimated on the basis of scatter in the reported data, are shown in figure A3. It is apparent that taking the value of f_B to be 0.1 in the range 5 to 30 keV makes no more than a 2-percent contribution to the error in calculating the energy deposited. This contribution is small in comparison to the other possible sources of error. To a first approximation for silicon specimens, values of f_B can be taken to be the same as aluminum. The results are also expected to be applicable in general to devices consisting of silicon, silicon dioxide, and aluminum.

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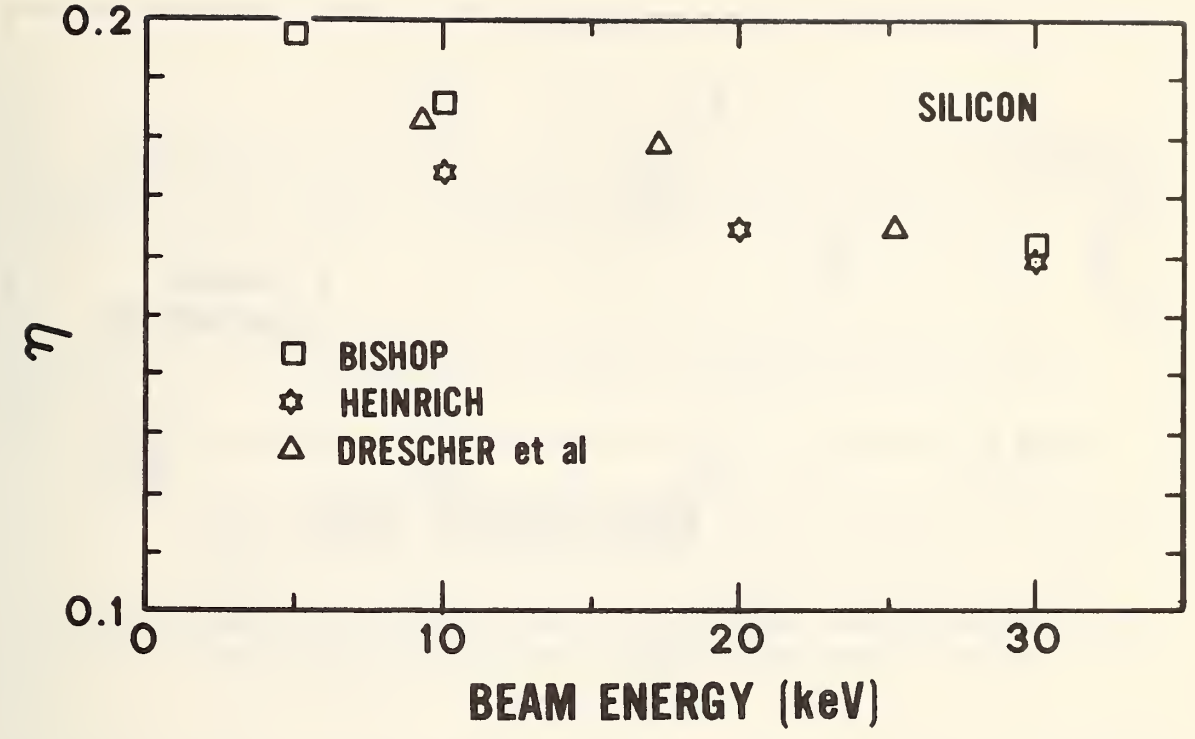
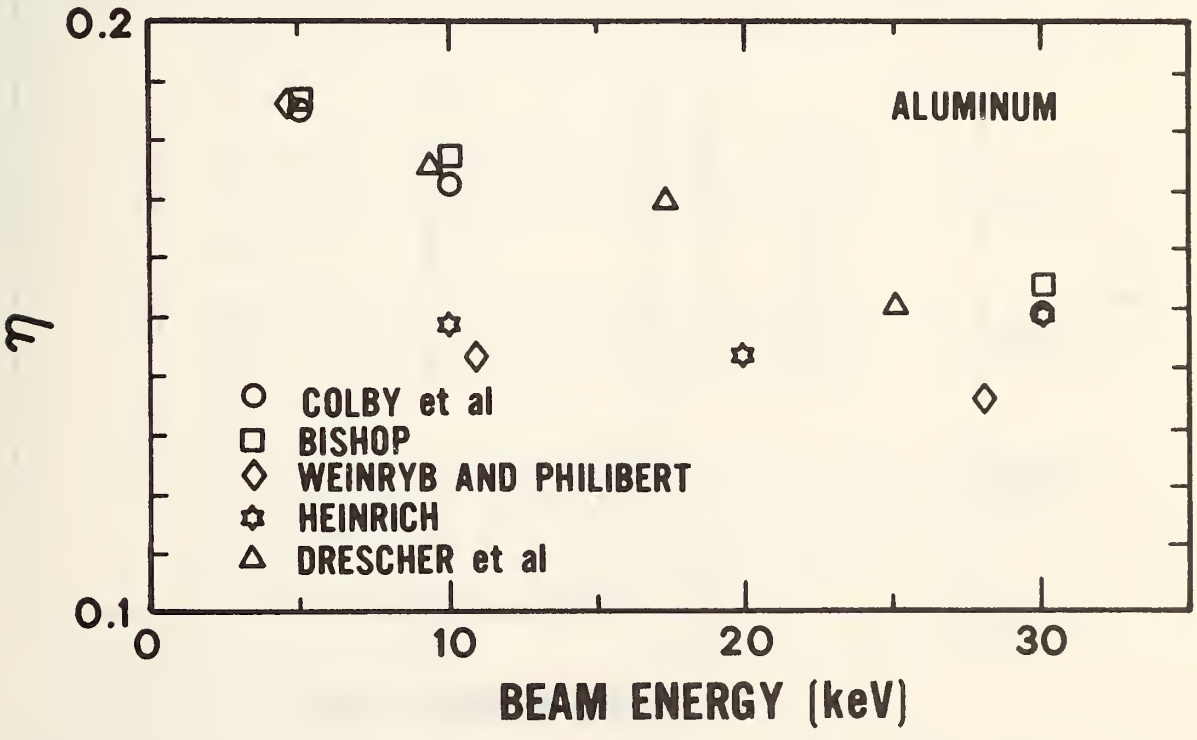
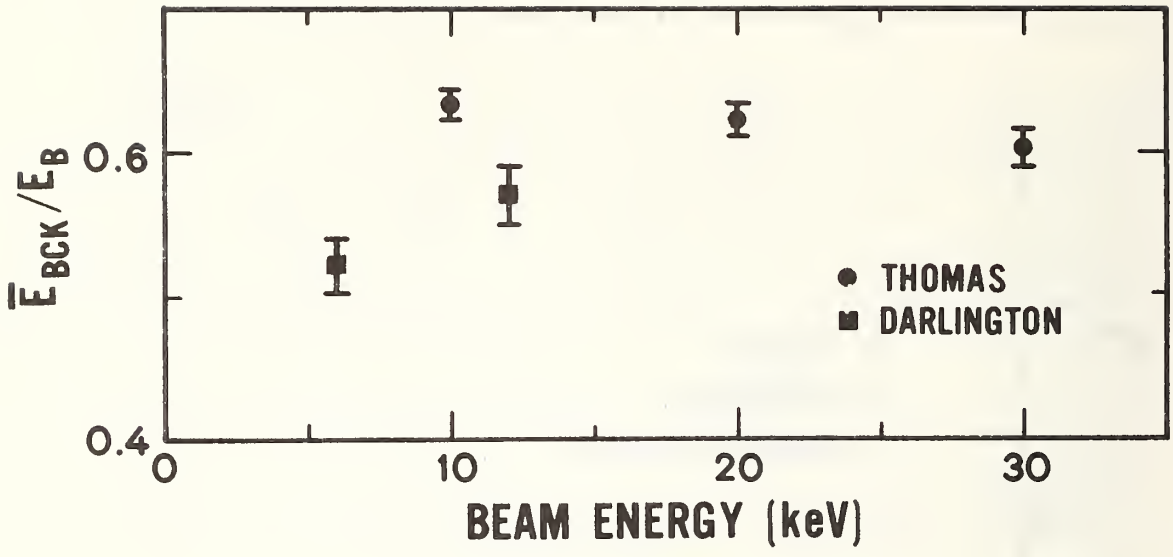


(a)

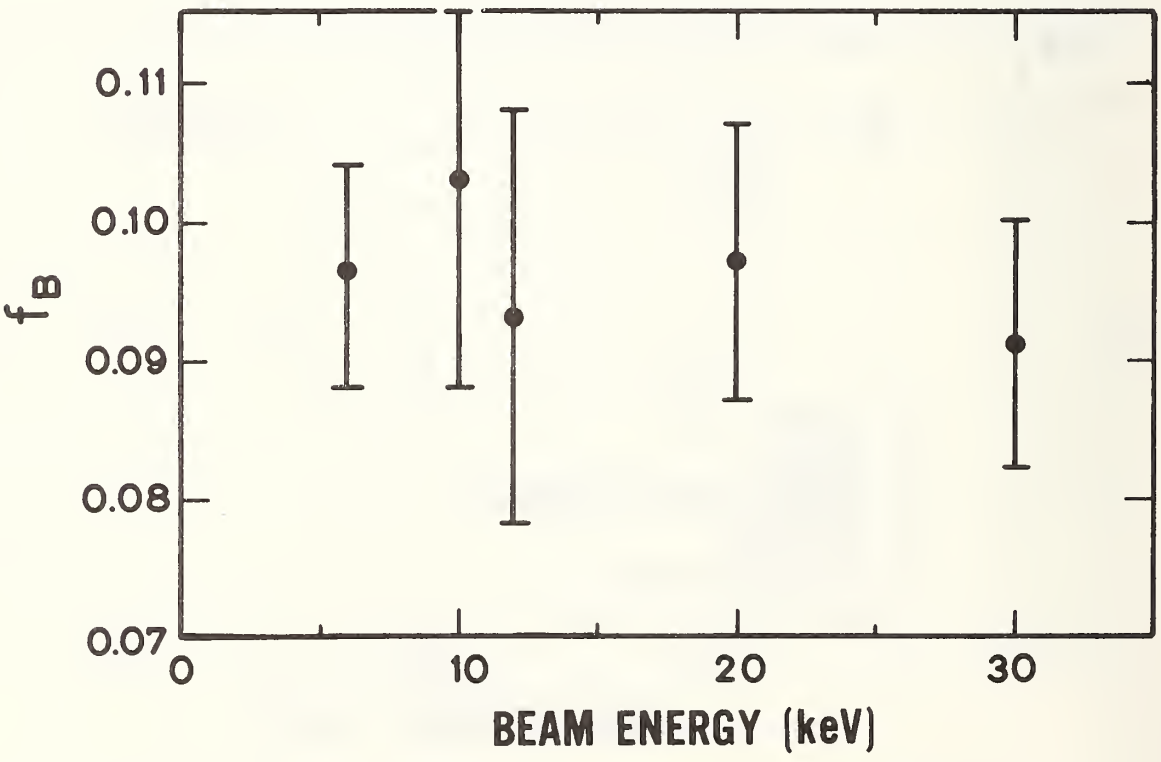


(b)

Al. Ratio of backscattered to incident electrons, η, as a function of beam energy. (a) Silicon specimen. (b) Aluminum specimen.



A2. Fractional mean energy backscattered, $\bar{E}_{Bck}/E_B$, from aluminum as a function of beam energy, E_B.



A3. Fraction of incident energy backscattered, f_B, from aluminum as a function of beam energy.

Appendix B

Draft of Recommended Practice

This appendix gives a method of estimating the total absorbed dose in semiconductor devices due to SEM electron irradiation in a form suitable as a first draft for presentation to Subcommittee F-1.11 on Quality and Hardness Assurance of ASTM Committee F-1 on Electronics.

Recommended Practice for Estimating the Total Absorbed Dose in Semiconductor Devices from SEM Electron Irradiation[1]

1. Scope

1.1 This recommended practice covers a method for calculating an estimation of the total absorbed dose in critical semiconductor device oxides resulting from exposure to the low energy electron beam available in a scanning electron microscope (SEM). The calculation is based on the experimental work on energy dissipation versus electron penetration depth of Everhart and Hoff (1).[2]

1.2 The calculation requires knowledge of the geometry and composition of the device structure and the parameters associated with the scanning electron microscope exposure: the electron beam energy, the electron beam current, the duration of the exposure, and the area scanned by the electron beam.

1.3 This method is limited to devices fabricated from materials with atomic numbers between 10 and 15. Thus, it is applicable to devices consisting of silicon, silicon oxides, silicon nitrides, and aluminum.

1.4 The experimental measurements of Everhart and Hoff were limited to electron energies between 5 and 25 keV. An extrapolation of these results to 40 keV is expected to incur only a small error.

1.5 This method assumes that the scanning electron microscope is adjusted so that the electron fluence incident on the device is uniform, that the electron beam is incident normally on the device, and that 10% of the incident energy is backscattered from the surface of the device (2).

---

[1]Reserved for ASTM jurisdictional footnote.

[2]The bold face numbers in parentheses refer to the list of references appended to this practice.

2. Significance

2.1 Knowledge of the effects of a total ionizing dose on the electrical characteristics of a semiconductor device is a requirement for many applications. Total absorbed dose testing is typically accomplished using ^{60}Co irradiation; however, it is often more convenient to simulate the exposure of a device to ^{60}Co gamma rays with an SEM than to use a ^{60}Co source.

2.2 The variation of dose with depth through the device for the SEM electron beam is dependent on the device structure and the beam energy; this variation may be quite different from the essentially constant depth-dose distribution for ^{60}Co exposure.

2.3 This practice takes account of the variations in depth-dose profiles of low energy electrons in device structures in the calculation of the total absorbed dose in critical device oxides.

3. Calculation

3.1 Calculate the number of incident electrons per unit area

$$N = \frac{I_B t}{q A_s}$$

where:

N = electron fluence, electrons/cm^2

I_B = electron beam current, A,

t = exposure time, s,

A_s = area scanned, cm^2, and

q = 1.6×10^{-19} C/electron.

3.2 Determine the projected range of the incident electrons

$$R_G = 3.98\ E_B^{1.75}$$

where:

R_G = electron projected range, $\mu g/cm^2$, and

E_B = electron beam energy, keV.

3.3 Using knowledge of the device structure, determine x_1, the distance from the device surface to the top of the oxide of interest, and x_2, the distance to the bottom of the oxide both in micrograms per square centimeter.

$$x_1 = \Sigma \rho_j d_j$$

$$x_2 = x_1 + \rho_o d_o$$

where:

ρ_j = density of layer j above oxide, $\mu g/cm^3$,
d_j = thickness of layer j above oxide, cm,
ρ_o = density of oxide layer, $\mu g/cm^3$, and
d_o = thickness of oxide layer, cm.

3.4 Calculate y_1 and y_2

$$y_1 = \frac{x_1}{R_G}, \quad y_2 = \frac{x_2}{R_G}$$

3.5 If $x_2 > R_G$, $y_2 = 1.0$. The electron beam is not penetrating the oxide layer. The results may be anomalous. Reconsider beam energy being used.

3.6 If $x_2 > R_G$, the dose in the oxide layer equals zero; stop the calculation.

3.7 If $x_1 \leq R_G$, continue with the calculation.

3.8 Calculate the fraction of incident electron energy deposited between y_1 and y_2

$$f_D = Y(y_2) - Y(y_1)$$

where:

f_D = fraction of incident energy deposited and

$$Y(y) = 0.6\ y + 3.105y^2 - 4.133y^3 + 1.425y^4$$

3.9 Calculate the energy deposited in the oxide layer per incident electron

$$E_D = 0.9\ E_B f_D$$

where:

E_D = energy deposited per electron, keV/electron.

3.10 Calculate the total absorbed dose in the oxide

$$D[\text{rad}(SiO_2)] = 1.602 \times 10^{-5}\ N \cdot E_D \cdot (x_2 - x_1)^{-1}$$

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This report addresses a number of aspects involved in using a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) for radiation testing of semiconductor devices. Problems associated with using the low energy electron beam to simulate ^{60}Co exposure and a method for estimating the total absorbed dose in critical device oxides are discussed. The method is based on the experimentally determined expression for electron energy dissipation versus penetration depth in solid materials of Everhart and Hoff. An appendix giving the method of estimating the total absorbed dose in a form suitable for ASTM deliberations is included.

17. KEY WORDS *(six to twelve entries; alphabetical order; capitalize only the first letter of the first key word unless a proper name; separated by semicolons)*

Electron beam energy deposition; ionizing radiation effects; radiation dose; radiation testing; semiconductor devices; scanning electron microscope.

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