Effects of Threading Dislocations on AlGaN/GaN High-Electron Mobility Transistors

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Abstract—This brief aims to show the effects of threading edge dislocations on the dc and RF performance of GaN high-electron mobility transistor (HEMT) devices. A state-of-the-art high-frequency and high-power HEMT was investigated with our full-band cellular Monte Carlo (CMC) simulator, which includes the full details of the band structure and the phonon spectra. A complete characterization of the device has been performed using experimental data to calibrate the few adjustable parameters of the simulator. Thermal simulations were also carried out with commercial software in order to operate the corrections needed to model thermal effects. The approach of Weimann based on the results of Read, Bonch-Bruevich and Glasko, and Pödör was then used to model with our CMC code the dislocation effects on the transport properties of HEMT devices. Our simulations indicate that GaN HEMT performance exhibits a fairly large dependence on the density of thread dislocation defects. Furthermore, we show that a threshold concentration exists, above which a complete degradation of the device operation occurs.

Index Terms—Dislocations, GaN, high-electron mobility transistor (HEMT), high-frequency, Monte Carlo, numerical simulation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the demonstration of the first GaN-based transistors, rapid progress has been made in their development, and novel III–N high-electron mobility transistor (HEMT) devices have been proposed. The properties of large-band-gap materials such as GaN make them ideally suited to operation at elevated temperatures because they become intrinsic at much higher temperature than narrow-band-gap materials, and sustain high current or voltage levels because they exhibit a high breakdown field. Moreover, AlGaN/GaN heterostructures do not require modulation doping, which is necessary in GaAs-based devices to create the electron gas at the heterointerface. Indeed, the discontinuity of the spontaneous polarization, due to the lack of symmetry in wurzite crystals, induces free carriers at the interface. In addition, the piezoelectric polarization, due to the strain of the AlGaN layer, also plays an important role in increasing the density of carriers in the device channel [1].

High-power operation has been achieved by GaN HEMTs in the millimeter-wave frequency range. In order to improve the high-frequency performance, the gate length \( L_G \) of the device has to be reduced [2]. This concept is well highlighted by (1), where an analytical formula to calculate the current-gain cutoff frequency \( f_T \) (see Section II-B) is reported [3] as follows:

\[
f_T = \left[ 2\pi \int_{0}^{L_{ct}} \frac{1}{v_{ave}(x)} dx \right]^{-1},
\]

where \( L_{ct} \) is the effective gate length and \( v_{ave}(x) \) is the average velocity calculated along the channel.

However, if \( L_G \) is brought below 100–200 nm, an improvement of the frequency response can be achieved only by decreasing the barrier layer thickness and the gate length at the same time. In this case, the aspect ratio between the gate–channel distance and \( L_G \) is kept high, preventing an increase of the effective channel length with the gate length decreasing.

Nevertheless, decreasing the AlGaN barrier thickness under 15 nm causes a reduction of both density and mobility of carriers in the two-dimensional electron gas (2DEG) channel. Furthermore, at these short gate lengths, short-channel effects, such as threshold-voltage shift, soft pinchoff, and high sub-threshold current, occurs due to the poor confinement of the electrons in the 2DEG channel, which reduces the modulation efficiency of the gate [4].

Recently, AlGaN/GaN HEMTs with a current-gain cutoff frequency \( f_T \) of about 180 GHz and a maximum oscillation frequency \( f_{MAX} \) of 230 GHz have been reported [5], [6]. This has been made possible by novel techniques, including the use of thin and high-Al-content barrier layers in order to compensate the decrease of the sheet channel charge concentration with the decrease of the barrier thickness [2]. An InGaN back barrier has also been used in order to raise the conduction band in the buffer with respect to the GaN channel, increasing the confinement of the carriers at the heterointerface [7].

However, material quality is probably still limiting the high-frequency performance, and in this brief we are going to analyze its effect in detail. Indeed, because of the lack of a suitable lattice-matched substrate, epitaxial layers of GaN can contain a high density of dislocations. So far, the substrates of choice have been sapphire (Al\(_2\)O\(_3\)) and silicon carbide (SiC), and both have shown such problems.
The threading defects are normally oriented parallel to the c-axis of the material, and their density, in GaN layers grown on a sapphire or SiC substrate, can range between $10^8$ and $10^{11}$ cm$^{-2}$. Dislocations and point defects that are present in AlGaN/GaN HEMTs can become charged and act as centers of Coulomb scattering. This degrades the device performance and raises issues of device long-term reliability [8].

We first demonstrate the agreement between simulation and experiment, focusing in particular on the device layout including an InGaN back barrier proposed by Palacios et al. [6]. We then use the approach of Weimann [9], based on the results of Read [10]–[12], Bonch-Bruevich and Glasko [13], and Pödör [14], to model with cellular Monte Carlo (CMC) [15] the dislocation effects on the dc and high-frequency performance of state-of-the-art GaN HEMT power devices.

The structure of the device analyzed is described in Section II-B, where the simulation setup is summarized as well. In Section III, the theory describing the influence of threading-dislocation scattering on carrier transport is briefly discussed. The effects of dislocations on the simulated device performance are shown in Section IV. Conclusions are finally drawn in Section V.

II. GaN HEMT With InGaN Back Barrier

The layout of the device described in this brief is shown in Fig. 1 and is composed of an AlGaN/GaN heterostructure with an InGaN back barrier grown on a semi-insulating SiC substrate by metal–organic chemical vapor deposition. The heterostructure is not intentionally doped and consists, from bottom to top, of 1.5 μm of GaN, followed by 1 nm of In$_{0.30}$Ga$_{0.70}$N capped by 11 nm of GaN and 25 nm of Al$_{0.32}$Ga$_{0.68}$N. The AlGaN layer is recessed in order to have a gate-to-channel distance of 13 nm. The source–gate and gate–drain separations are both 0.75 μm, while the gate length is set to 0.1 μm. Highly doped regions are created under the source–drain electrodes down to the GaN channel to emulate metal spikes and to control contact resistances.

As mentioned in the Introduction, the presence of the InGaN layer enhances the confinement of the electrons in the channel. In fact, the large polarization-induced electric field in the InGaN layer raises the conduction-band edge of the GaN buffer with respect to the GaN channel, creating a potential barrier against carrier diffusion in the bulk layer. This property is shown in Fig. 2, showing the carrier distribution (black points) at $V_{GS} = 0$ V and $V_{DS} = 6$ V, superimposed on the conduction-band profile of the simulated device.

More details on that device can be found in [6], where all the characteristics of the sample used to obtain the experimental data are reported.

A. Simulation Setup

To account for the large polarization discontinuity that is present at the AlGaN/GaN and InGaN/GaN heterointerfaces, explicit sheets of charge were set at these interfaces following the formulation of Ambacher et al. [16].

The large polarization-induced charge at the AlGaN barrier surface would completely deplete the channel of electrons if it were not (partially or completely) compensated by fixed charges or surface traps [17]. In this brief, we assumed that it is partially compensated by fixed positive charge. More precisely, the charge concentration that was set at the SiN/AlGaN interface was $-0.011$ C/m$^2$, whereas at the AlGaN/GaN heterointerface, we used 0.0276 C/m$^2$.

Fig. 3 shows a comparison of the simulated (dashed lines) and measured (dots) $I_D$-$V_D$ characteristics of the HEMT. As it can be seen, the simulation results are in very good agreement with the experimental data in the low-drain-bias region. However, the simulated current is increasingly higher than the experimental one with increasing drain and gate biases. This discrepancy is due to self-heating effects under high-power operation.

To account for these effects, thermal simulations were carried out with the commercial simulation program Sentaurus [18]. The thermodynamic (or nonisothermal) model [19] implemented in this software tool extends the drift–diffusion approach to account for electrothermal effects, under the assumption that the charge carriers are in thermal equilibrium with the lattice. Therefore, the carrier and lattice temperatures are described by a single temperature.

The temperature distribution within the device has been computed at $V_{GS} = 0$ and 1 V for different drain biases. Fig. 4
As can be seen in Fig. 3, the thermally corrected simulation results (solid lines) are in full agreement with the experimental data. Concerning the simulation parameters, the electronic structure was computed with a local empirical pseudopotential method [20]. The phonon spectra were computed with the Keating approach [21]. Nonpolar scattering rates were tabulated in momentum space with an isotropic deformation potential. Polar scattering was computed by the usual Fröhlich expression, as described in [15]. Dislocation scattering is discussed in detail in Section III. As customary with our CMC simulations, a different inhomogeneous tensor-product grid was used for each band in the first Brillouin zone (BZ1) of the momentum space. All energies were tabulated, meaning that no analytical approximation of the electronic dispersion and of the phonon spectra were used in any subregion of BZ1.

The position space of the device was represented on a 178 × 100 inhomogeneous tensor-product grid where Poisson’s equation was solved. We used an iterative version of the multigrid Poisson solver [22] with relaxation for both pre- and postsmoothing [23]. The Poisson solver was iterated until the normalized maximum difference between two subsequent solutions was smaller than 10⁻⁵. Because of the irregular nature of the grid, the charge assignment and field interpolation scheme was nearest grid point [24].

Simulations were run for different dislocation concentrations in the range of 10⁸−10¹² cm⁻². Accordingly, the Poisson time step was in the range of 0.3–2.5 fs, while the (constant) free-flight time step [25] was set in the range of 0.03–0.2 fs. Each bias point was obtained starting from the carrier distribution of the previous one, and each run lasted for 6 ps of simulated time, with ensemble and time averages performed during the last 2 ps. The first point was run for 40 ps, and averages were performed in the last 6 ps. The carrier (electron) population was represented by 50 000 superparticles.

The (scalar) runs were performed on 64-b processors running at a frequency of 2.8 GHz, and the transition table was not larger than 3TB. The performance of the simulation code is shown in Fig. 5, where the CPU time per iteration for each main algorithmic component of the code is listed for the set of bias points corresponding to the VGS = 0 − V curve in Fig. 3.

### B. RF Analysis of AlGaN/GaN HEMT

Several figures of merit are often used to evaluate the performance of microwave devices [4]. The most important metrics for the frequency performance of microwave transistors are the cutoff frequency fT and the maximum frequency of oscillation fmax [26]. The cutoff frequency is related to the short-circuit current gain h₂₁, which is defined as the ratio of the
small-signal output current to the small-signal input current of the device when the output terminals are shorted [4]. The maximum frequency of oscillation is the frequency at which the transistor still provides a power gain.

The basic idea of the small-signal frequency, or RF, analysis consists of applying a small perturbation to one electrode of the device in steady state while keeping all other parameters constant. The small-signal parameters can then be derived from the recorded transient response. The response in the transient regime is a function of device characteristics, such as geometry, doping profile, transport property in the device, and steady-state operating point (i.e., the dc component of $V_{DS}$ and $V_{GS}$) [27].

In our study, the operating point for the RF analysis ($V_{GS} = 0$ V and $V_{DS} = 6$ V) has been chosen in order to compare the simulation results with the experimental data [6]. The current gain as a function of frequency is shown in Fig. 6. The right plot, representing the simulation results, is obtained by the Fourier decomposition method [4], a straightforward technique, where perturbation is a small step voltage applied to one electrode of the device in steady state. The gate and drain step amplitudes used were 0.5 and 1 V, respectively. This figure shows that a cutoff frequency $f_T$ of 150 GHz has been found, which matches to the experimental findings [6].

C. Johnson Figure of Merit

In general, materials like GaN have been considered to have desirable properties for high-power applications due to their large band gap and high thermal conductivity. One well-known figure of merit for this is the Johnson figure of merit [28]

$$FoM_{Johnson} = \frac{v_{sat}E_{BD}}{2\pi}$$  

where $v_{sat}$ is the saturation velocity and $E_{BD}$ is the electric field at which impact ionization starts to cause breakdown. Unfortunately, this is a difficult figure of merit to apply as the saturation velocity and breakdown field are intrinsic properties of a device. While they can easily be found in simulation, they are more difficult to determine experimentally. However, these can be connected to microwave measurements in a meaningful manner. Generally, the cutoff frequency $f_T$ is related to the effective saturation velocity through a well-known formula

$$f_T = \frac{v_{sat}}{2\pi L_G}$$  

where $L_G$ is the gate length (or effective gate length to be more precise [3]). We also find from detailed simulations that the field under the gate varies almost linearly over the length of the effective gate. Breakdown usually occurs near the drain end of the gate, where the highest field occurs. Because there is also a potential drop across the space between the gate and the contacts, we can write the breakdown voltage in terms of the breakdown field as

$$V_{BD} = \alpha E_{BD} L_G$$  

where $\alpha$ is an adjustable parameter that relates the voltage drop across the gate to the total voltage applied to the device. Hence, we can rewrite the figure of merit in terms of these experimentally determined parameters as

$$FoM_{Johnson} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{2V_{BD}}{2V_{BD} \alpha L_G}\right) = \frac{2}{\alpha} f_T V_{BD}.$$  

The $\alpha$ parameter can be extracted directly from the simulations using (4) and calculating the breakdown voltage as integral of the field across the channel when impact ionization starts.

Using a value that was previously published for GaN for (2) [29] and values found in simulations of GaN HEMTs, we find that $\alpha$ takes a value around 1.25, but this factor could actually be ignored without much loss of relevance of the figure of merit. Following (5) and assuming a breakdown voltage of 80 V [30], a $\alpha FoM_{Johnson}$ around $20 \times 10^{12}$ V/s was found for the HEMT device analyzed in this brief. After showing that our CMC simulation agrees well with the experiment, we can now examine the role of dislocations.
III. DISLOCATION SCATTERING

GaN layers grown on sapphire or silicon carbide suffer from biaxial strain due to the quite-large lattice mismatches between materials, i.e., 2.5% and 3.6% at 298 K, respectively [31]. These mismatches, together with the large difference in the thermal expansion coefficient of the adjacent materials, result in threading edge and screw dislocations with typical concentrations in the range of $10^8$–$10^{11}$ cm$^{-2}$ [8]. It has been shown [32] that the dislocation lines are negatively charged and therefore act as lines of Coulomb scattering centers for conduction electrons.

Read [10]–[12] and Bonch-Bruevich and Glasko [13] calculated the occupation statistics of dislocation acceptor centers and the potential due to a vertical line of charges. Some years later, Pödör obtained a momentum relaxation rate and mobility after averaging over energy [14]. Weimann et al. [9] employed this relaxation rate and obtained a good agreement with the measured Hall mobility in wurtzite GaN. The approach of Weimann et al. is used in this brief.

The scattering due to dislocation-line charges is 2-D because only electrons moving perpendicular to the dislocation line can be scattered. The scattering probability can therefore be expressed as a function of the 2-D perpendicular momentum $\vec{k}_\perp$ and the parallel component $k_z$ that is conserved through the scattering process [32].

Using the Weimann approach, the scattering probability for an electron with 3-D initial momentum $(\vec{k}_1, k_z)$ to a small region $\Omega_{\vec{k}_1, k_z}$ centered in $(\vec{E}', k_z)$, if $N_{\text{dis}}$ is the number of threading edge dislocations and $f$ is the fraction of filled traps, can be expressed as follows:

$$p_{\text{dis}}(\vec{k}_1, k_z, \Omega_{\vec{k}_1, k_z}) = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar^2 e^2 (1 + q^2 \lambda^2)^2} \frac{N_{\text{dis}} e^4 \lambda^4 f^2}{\hbar^2 e^2 (1 + q^2 \lambda^2)^2}$$

$$\times I(\vec{k}_1, k_z, \vec{E}_1, k_z) D_\perp(\vec{E}', \Omega_{\vec{k}_1, k_z})$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $\hbar$ is the reduced Plank’s constant, $e$ is the electron charge, $\epsilon$ is the semiconductor static dielectric constant, $c$ is the lattice parameter along the (0001) direction, $\vec{q} = \vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_1'$, and $\lambda$ is the screening length. $I$ is the overlap integral, while $D_\perp$ represents the 2-D density of states perpendicular to the $c$-axis. The (generally different) band indices of the initial and final wave vectors have been omitted to simplify the notation.

In agreement with [9], in bulk wurtzite GaN, the fraction of filled traps increases with the dislocations and the free-carrier density. Because, in an HEMT device, such as the one analyzed here, most of the electrons are confined in the AlGaN/GaN heterointerface, where a large quantity of carriers are present, a filling factor $f$ that is equal to one has been chosen for our study.

IV. EFFECT OF DISLOCATIONS ON DEVICE PERFORMANCE

In order to obtain a quantitative insight about the effects of dislocations on HEMTs’ performance, the rate expressed in (6) was implemented in our code and used to perform the dc and frequency analysis at different dislocation concentrations.

A. DC Analysis

Various degradation modes related to the mobility reduction caused by dislocation scattering have been identified, including the lowering of the drain current and the transconductance peak value. Both of these effects can be seen in Fig. 7, where the $I_D$–$V_G$ characteristics and the transconductance curves are reported as obtained by simulations at values of threading-edge-dislocation density in the range of $N_{\text{dis}} = 10^8$–$10^{12}$ cm$^{-2}$.

As it can be seen, when $N_{\text{dis}}$ ranges between $10^8$ and $10^{10}$ cm$^{-2}$, the threading defects do not significantly affect the device behavior, which shows a quite-high drain current ($<1500$ mA/mm). Also, the transconductance peak value is larger than 350 mS/mm and is almost unchanged by defect scattering. In particular, if $N_{\text{dis}} < 10^8$ cm$^{-2}$, the scattering from dislocations is negligible with respect to the other scattering mechanisms.

However, when the dislocation concentration exceeds the “threshold” value of $10^{10}$ cm$^{-2}$, the transport properties start...
to degrade significantly, and both drain current and transconductance decrease by a factor of two or more. When \( N_{\text{dis}} \) is increased above \( 10^{11} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the device is completely compromised and ceases to work as a transistor.

B. Frequency Analysis

The main results of RF analysis are shown in Fig. 8, where the current gain versus frequency is plotted for different values of dislocation density. As in Fig. 2, the operating point \( (V_{GS} = 0 \, \text{V}, \, V_{DS} = 6 \, \text{V}) \) is chosen.

As it can be seen, the cutoff frequency exhibits fairly large changes with the dislocation density, ranging from 150 GHz, corresponding to a concentration of \( N_{\text{dis}} = 10^8 \cdot 10^9 \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), to 90 GHz, for \( N_{\text{dis}} = 10^{11} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \).

Also, in this case, the device performance is considerably compromised above the critical concentration of \( N_{\text{dis}} = 10^{11} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \). Beyond this value, in fact, the current gain is almost zero for all frequencies, and a cutoff frequency is not identifiable.

V. Conclusion

In this brief, the results of the first complete full-band study on the influence of threading-dislocation scattering on carrier transport in GaN HEMT devices have been presented.

The scattering rate of Weimann, based on the first-principles theory of Read, Bonch-Bruevich and Glasko, and Pödör, was used to implement the threading-dislocation scattering in our full-band CMC simulation code, which includes the full details of the band structure and the phonon spectra.

Thermal simulations were performed with commercial software in order to determine the corrections needed to model thermal effects with our particle-based CMC simulator.

Our simulations indicate that the GaN HEMT device performance exhibits a fairly large dependence on the density of threading-dislocation defects. Various degradation modes related to defect scattering have been identified, including the lowering of the drain current and the transconductance peak value. More in detail, we have observed that, when the dislocation concentration ranges between \( 10^8 \) and \( 10^{10} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the threading-dislocation defects do not significantly affect the dc behavior of the device. In particular, if \( N_{\text{dis}} < 10^9 \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the scattering from dislocations is negligible with respect to the other scattering mechanisms. However, if the dislocation concentration exceeds a value of \( 10^{10} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the transport properties start to degrade seriously, and both drain current and transconductance decrease by a factor of two or more. An analogous situation holds for the frequency performance that is sensibly related to material quality, and the only difference in this case is that the degradation is more progressive with an increasing number of crystal defects.

We have also shown that, if the number of dislocations exceeds the critical concentration of \( N_{\text{dis}} = 10^{11} \, \text{cm}^{-2} \), the device transport properties and, therefore, dc and RF device performance are completely compromised.

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