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FUJITSU FRAM Quality & Reliability



In 1966, Fujitsu began a company-wide movement towards high reliability. While preparing for this movement, then-president Kanjiro Okada summarized his thoughts on the issue with the words “Keeping cost efficiency and keeping delivery dates are important, but these are meaningless if quality is low. Quality precedes everything.” These words summarize Fujitsu’s unwavering commitment to quality.

“Quality speaks for itself - no matter where you go”

Motto of the late president Fujitsu Kanjiro Okada

Table of Contents

What is FRAM?	3
Features ■ FRAM cell configurations	3
■ Cell operating principals	5
■ Writing and reading data to cells	7
■ Feature comparison between FRAM and other memories	9
Reliability	11
■ Retention	11
■ Fatigue	13
■ Retention after fatigue	14

FRAM - A new type of semiconductor device that uses a ferroelectric film

FRAM is a new type of non-conventional semiconductor device.

This section explains the design and operating principals of FRAM, and also describes the inherent reliability of FRAM.

What is FRAM?

FRAM is an abbreviation of Ferroelectric Random Access Memory. FRAM is a type of memory that utilizes the polarization of ferroelectric materials (a property whereby a charge remains even when the applied potential is removed) to store data. FRAM is also called FeRAM.

Spontaneous polarization is a phenomenon that occurs in ferroelectric films whereby the direction of polarization can be reversed or switched by the direction of an applied electric field. In FRAM, this polarization reversal or switching is used as a memory storage function.

FRAM is able to offer non-volatile data storage by using ferroelectric material in the memory cells. FRAM can also be rewritten quickly and frequently, and therefore combines the features of both RAM and ROM.

Furthermore, read and write operations can be performed at low voltages, making FRAM an ideal memory for mobile devices that demand low power consumption.

Features

■ FRAM cell configurations

The structures that are used to integrate ferroelectric film into non-volatile memory cells can be principally divided into the two types of (1) 1T1C (2T2C), and (2) MFIS-FET. Although each of these offer individual features, the type that is currently used in products is 1T1C (2T2C).

(1) 1T1C (2T2C): 1Transistor - 1Capacitor (2Tr/2Cap)

This structure is the same as a DRAM cell, and is composed of a capacitor (C) for storing the charge that holds the data, and a transistor (T) for accessing the data. In a DRAM cell, the capacitor material used to store the charge is a paraelectric film such as silicon oxide or silicon nitride. In FRAM, however, this is replaced by a ferroelectric film. Therefore, FRAM technologies that use this cell configuration are similar to DRAM technology, and so can be integrated relatively easily.

The procedure for reading the cell data is to apply an electrical potential to the cell, and then read the polarization charge that occurs if the polarization changes (refer to "**Reading and writing data to cells**" for details). One unavoidable result of this is that the read operation is a destructive read that destroys the stored cell data with each read cycle, requiring the data to be rewritten in the same cycle.

Currently, 1T1C (2T2C) cells are fabricated in the planar structure shown in Figure 1.

(2) MFSFET: Metal Ferroelectric Insulator Semiconductor FET

This configuration is also called the 1T type, and can be implemented by changing the gate oxide film of a transistor from silicon oxide film into the ferroelectric film.

Data is written to the cell by applying a potential between the gate electrode and the substrate to reverse the polarity of the ferroelectric film. Data is read by using the fact that the threshold voltage of the transistor changes depending on the polarization direction.

The cell data is able to be retrieved by reading the magnitude of the drain current when a specific gate voltage is applied, with the magnitude corresponding to the polarization direction. This cell configuration therefore shares similarities with E²PROM and flash memory technologies. Furthermore, the main benefits of this cell type are that data can be read non-destructively, and that the area of the cell is small.

However, due to crystal defects and other problems at the interface between the silicon substrate and the ferroelectric film, it is difficult to stably on uniformity control the threshold voltage of the transistor. Furthermore, the properties of the ferroelectric film may become severely degraded to the point where non-volatility is lost, and so this type of cell is currently under development. Although MFMS (Metal Ferroelectric Metal Insulator Semiconductor), in which the ferroelectric film is grown above a floating gate, has been proposed to resolve these problems, the dielectric constant of the ferroelectric film is several hundred times greater than silicon oxide, creating the problem of lower levels of polarization due to voltage division effects. There is also a problem of the difficulty of integration. These problems represent challenges for the future.

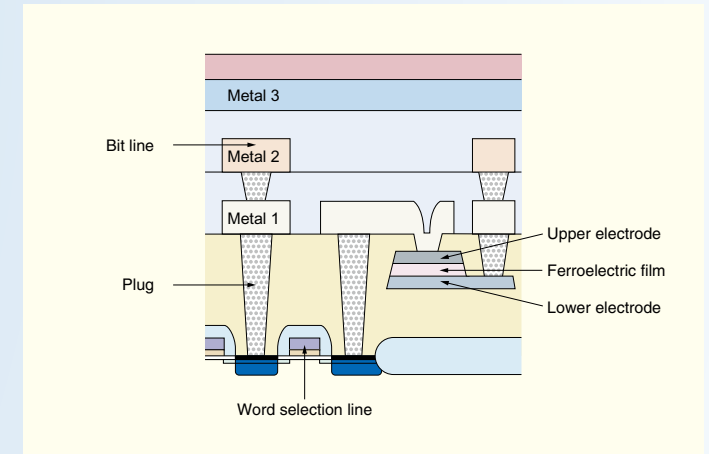


Figure 1. Cross-sectional diagram of an FRAM memory cell (1T1C, 2T2C)

Cell operating principals

FRAM uses a ferroelectric film in a memory cell by associating "1" and "0" data states with the spontaneous polarization direction of the ferroelectric material.

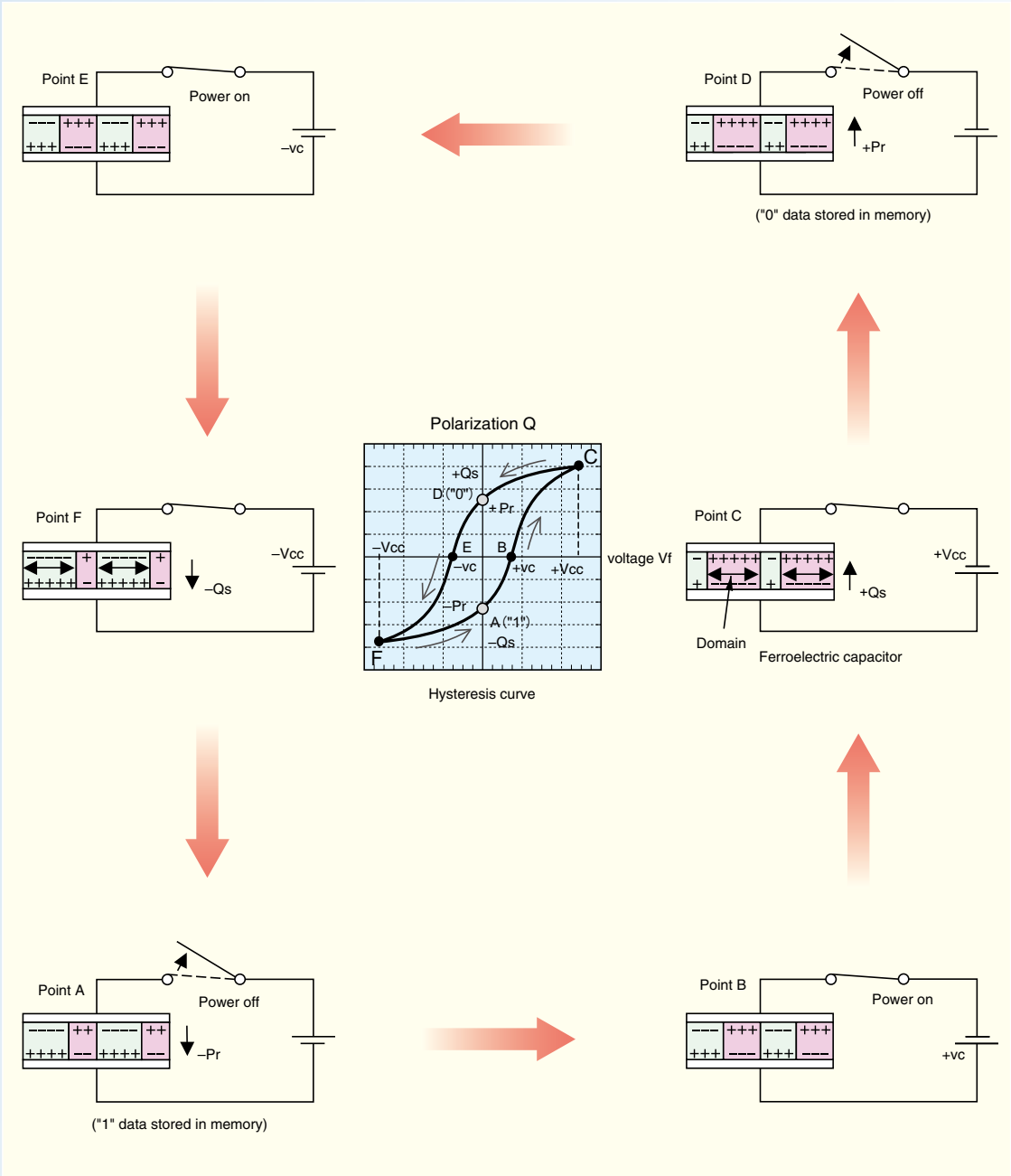
The operating principals of an FRAM cell can be understood by observing the correlation between the hysteresis exhibited by the voltage dependence of the polarization charge Q (i.e. the ferroelectric domain orientation) and the polarization state of the ferroelectric capacitor.

For example, Fig. 2 shows the relationship between the hysteresis curve and the polarization charge of the ferroelectric capacitor when the polarity of the voltage applied to the ferroelectric capacitor, Vf, is taken to be positive when the voltage of the upper electrode is greater than the lower electrode.

The state of the ferroelectric capacitor is shown at six points around the hysteresis curve in Figure 2. These are the points D and A, which are the different polarization states of the remanence (Pr +/-) when Vf = 0V, the points B and E where the amount of polarization is 0 when Vf = +/- vc, and the points C and F when Vf = +/- Vcc.

The curves joining A to B to C, and D to E to F show the change in the polarization state or direction as the applied voltage Vf is changed from 0V to +Vcc, and from 0V to -Vcc starting from "1" stored data state. The polarization state reversed or switches in these segments, and so we will call this the reversal or switching region. When the applied voltage is varied from +Vcc to 0V, and from -Vcc to 0V, the polarization state changes along the paths from C to D, and from F to A, respectively. However, while the amount of polarization decreases slightly, the direction of the polarization does not reverse. We will call this difference in polarization a non-reversible change in polarization. Furthermore, we let the amount of polarization at C and F be +Qs and -Qs respectively, and call this the saturated switchable-polarization.

In order to apply these ferroelectric characteristics to memory, we associate the two polarization states with "0" and "1" states. For example, let the upward pointing polarization state be "0" and the downward pointing state be "1". Thus, when the voltage applied to the ferroelectric capacitor is 0V (the power off state), the level of remanence is +Pr or -Pr (corresponding to the polarization states at points D and A on the hysteresis curve in Fig. 2), making it possible to store data based upon the polarization direction.



* This figure shows the changes in the level of polarization of ferroelectric film when the voltage is changed as 0 → +vc → +Vcc → 0 → -vc → -Vcc → 0.

Figure 2. Hysteresis curve and ferroelectric capacitor polarization states

■ Writing and reading data to cells

◆ Write operation

<Writing data to a cell>

In order to write "1" or "0" data to the cell, a voltage of +Vcc or -Vcc is applied across the two electrodes of the ferroelectric capacitor.

Figure 3 shows the actual write operation for a 1T1C cell (which is composed of one transistor and one ferroelectric capacitor). The word line (WL) is selected (the transistor is in the on state) and then a potential (Vcc) is applied between the bit line (BL) and plate line (PL). The specific data that is written depends on the specific potential that is applied to the ferroelectric capacitor. When writing "0" data, BL=0V and PL=Vcc, and when writing "1" data, BL=Vcc and PL=0V.

After the data is written, it remains stored even after WL is deselected (the transistor is turned off), and the stored data is non-volatile.

These two data states are the remanence states (+Pr, -Pr) that remain even after an applied potential is removed from the capacitor as described in "Cell operating principals".

◆ Read operation

<Reading data from a cell>

In order to read the "1" or "0" data state from the cell, BL is first precharged to 0V before WL is selected, and BL is then placed in a high-impedance state. WL is then selected and Vcc is applied to PL, and the read is performed by applying a specific voltage to the ferroelectric capacitor. As shown in Fig. 3, if the cell is in the "0" data state then the polarization is not reversed or switched, and BL is charged up to ΔVL by a relatively small charge transfer (j0). However, if the cell is in the "1" data state then the polarization is reversed or switched, and a relatively large charge transfer (j1) occurs that charges BL up to ΔVH. By connecting a sense amp to BL that has a reference voltage (Vref) set to a value between ΔVH and ΔVL, voltages ΔVL that are lower than Vref can be amplified to 0V and voltages ΔVH that are larger than Vref can be amplified to Vcc.

After amplification, if "0" data was read then BL=0V and PL=Vcc, and so the ferroelectric capacitor is biased at Vf=+Vcc (the same state as when writing "0" data", and if "1" data was read then BL=Vcc and PL=Vcc, and so the ferroelectric capacitor is biased at Vf=0V.

<Rewriting data>

When the "1" data state is read, the data is destroyed by reversal of the polarization and the cell data changes to the "0" state. Therefore, "1" data needs to be written again to return the cell to the data state before reading it.

After reading the "1" data state, the potential level of BL is Vcc. At this point, "1" data can be rewritten by setting the PL voltage to 0V. In this way, the cell is restored to the original "1" data state.

Polarity reversal does not occur when the "0" data state is read, and the "0" data state is maintained without being destroyed by the read.

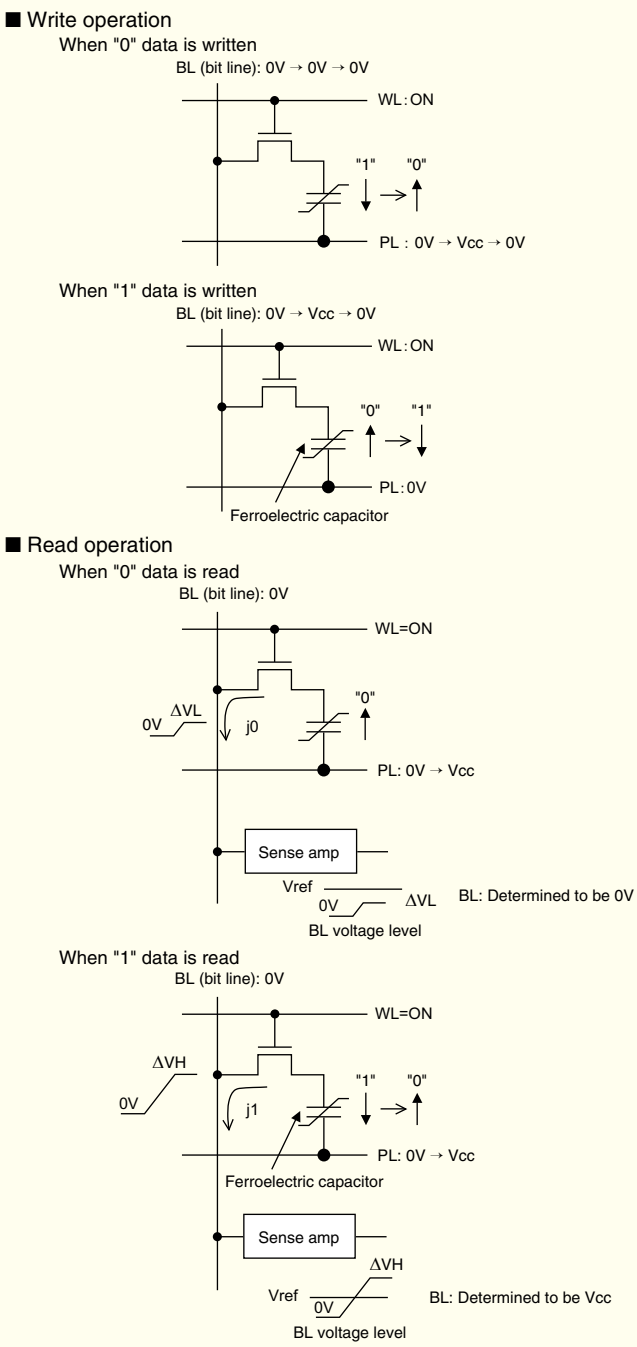


Figure 3. Fundamentals of 1T1C cell read/write operations

■ Feature comparison between FRAM and other memories

FRAM memory cells (the smallest units to function as data memory) have the same structure as DRAM, consisting of a combination of a transistor and a capacitor (see Fig. 4). Furthermore, the use of a ferroelectric film as the capacitor enables the data to be retained even when the power is disconnected, in the same way as non-volatile memory such as flash memory. In other words, FRAM is a revolutionary semiconductor memory that provides a good balance of the features of both RAM and ROM.

Compared to the current limit on the number of times that data can be rewritten to flash memory of 10⁵ times, FRAM can be rewritten over 10¹⁰ times, which is comparable to DRAM and SRAM.

While flash memory requires that an erase operation (or sector erase operation) is performed prior to rewriting data, FRAM operates the same as DRAM and SRAM, and does not require a time-consuming erase operation. Furthermore, because refresh operations are not required in order to retain data as they are in DRAM, FRAM offers the advantage of being non-volatile.

Table 1 shows a comparison of the features of FRAM and other types of memory.

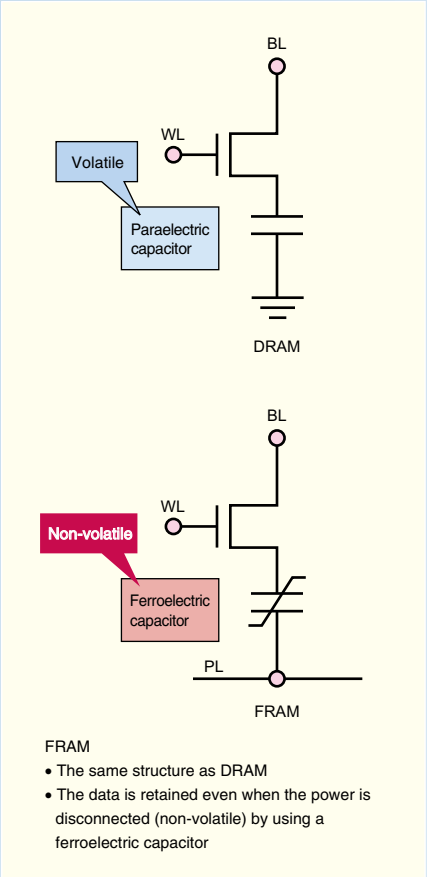


Figure 4. Memory cell comparison

Table 1. Feature comparison of FRAM and other types of memory

	FUJITSU FRAM	MRAM	E ² PROM (SPI)	Flash (NOR)	SRAM
Data storage	Non-volatile	Non-volatile	Non-volatile	Non-volatile	Volatile
Cell scheme	1T1C/2T2C* ¹	1T1MTJ* ²	2T	1T	6T
Rewriting method	Write over	Write over	Erase + Write	Sector erase + Write	Write over
Write cycle time	150ns	35ns	5ms	10μs	55ns
Number of rewrites	10 ¹⁰ (100 billion* ³)	Infinite	10 ⁶ (1 million)	10 ⁵ (100,000)	Infinite
Write operation current	10mA (Typ.) 15mA (Max.)	105mA (Typ.) 155mA (Max.)	5mA (Max.)	20mA (Max.)	8mA (Typ.)
Standby current	5μA (Typ.) 50μA (Max.)	9mA (Typ.) 12mA (Max.)	2μA (Max.)	100μA (Max.)	0.7μA (Typ.) 3μA (Max.)

* 1: 1 transistor 1 capacitor / 2 transistor 2 capacitor
* 2: 1 transistor 1 magnetic tunnel junction
* 3: Total number of reads and writes

Reliability

Because FRAM devices use a ferroelectric film, the reliability of the ferroelectric film needs to be considered in addition to the reliability that is required of general semiconductor devices. One of the problems with the reliability of ferroelectric films is a loss of polarization due to degradation phenomena. Degradation of polarization levels occurs due to various reasons and the effects of polarization loss is observed when measuring retention and fatigue. At Fujitsu, the Test Element Group (TEG) performs evaluations on products to ensure the reliability of FRAM as described above.

Retention

FRAM is non-volatile memory that is able to preserve the data that has been written without power. The ability to preserve this data for a long period of time without the data being lost is called "retention". In general, retention is strongly temperature-dependent. Guaranteed retention lifetimes are therefore subject to temperature conditions. (For example, 10 years at 70°C or less.) The following section describes the procedure for evaluating retention and the modes of degradation.

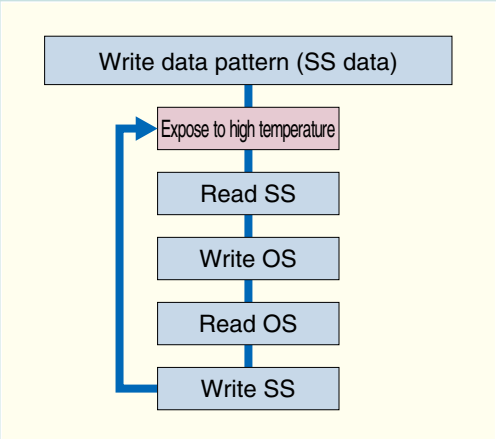


Figure 5. Testing procedure

(1) Testing procedure

As described above, retention is highly temperature-dependent, and so testing can be accelerated using temperature. First, some data pattern (such as a checkerboard pattern of "0" and "1") is written to the FRAM, and the FRAM is then left exposed to high temperature for a fixed period of time. The data pattern is then read to confirm that the data that was originally written has been preserved. Next, a data pattern that is the reverse of the data pattern that was originally written (the "0" and "1" states are swapped) is written, and a check is performed that the data can be read correctly. Finally, the data pattern that was first written is written again, and the FRAM is again exposed to a high temperature.

The above procedure is repeated until a read error occurs, and the retention lifetime is determined based upon the baking temperature by applying the Arrhenius equation*.

The first time the data pattern is read, the data pattern that was exposed to high temperature is read, and so this is called the SS (Same State) read. The second data pattern read is the reverse data pattern, and so this is called the OS (Opposite State) read.

The level of polarization of the ferroelectric is dependent on the applied voltage as shown in Fig. 6. Retention tends to depend on the level of polarization. Writing data using an insufficient applied voltage therefore creates a risk of degradation of the retention. Retention testing is therefore carried out at the minimum power supply voltage that is guaranteed for operation in the catalog.

$\tau \propto \text{Exp}(E_a/kT)$
 τ : Retention lifetime
 E_a : Activation energy
 k : Boltzmann constant
 T : Absolute temperature

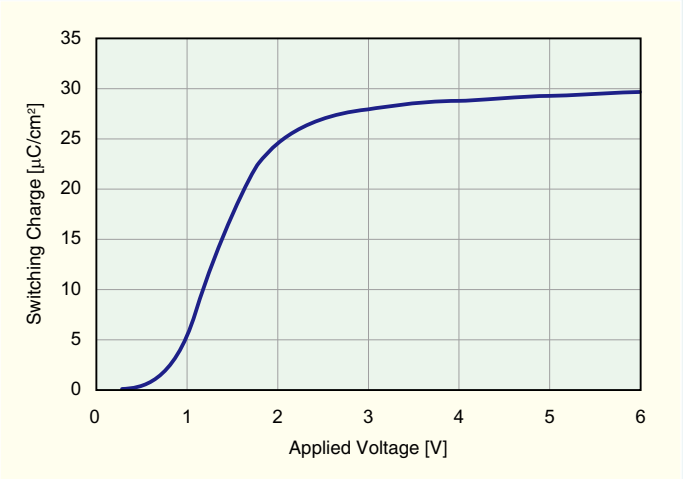


Figure 6. Graph of polarization saturation versus applied voltage

(2) Degradation modes

The retention is degraded by two modes: depolarization and imprinting. These two degradation modes can be detected by testing both "SS" reads and "OS" reads.

a) Depolarization by heat

Depolarization is a phenomenon where the direction of polarization reverses and the level of remanence is reduced (+Pr and -Pr drop), as shown in Fig. 7. Because FRAM is read by detecting the level of polarization, a decrease in the remanence leads to read errors. The depolarization phenomenon becomes more pronounced as the temperature increases. At a sufficiently high temperature, depolarization occurs in a matter of seconds, and this is followed by virtually no change loss irrespective of how much time passes. Degradation of retention due to depolarization is revealed by errors in the "SS" read. Depolarization is a property observed in all ferroelectrics in response to high temperature, and is not physical degradation. If data is again written at normal operating temperatures, the polarization is restored.

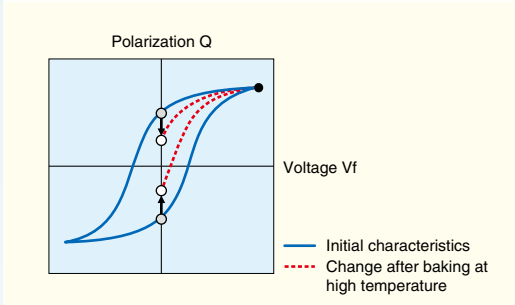


Figure 7. Loss of polarization due to high temperature exposure or thermal depolarization

b) Degradation by imprint

Imprint is a phenomenon where the polarization is gradually reduced after storage over a period of time, and the polarization becomes difficult to reverse.

When imprint occurs, it becomes difficult to write the reverse data. Imprint can be observed when viewing the hysteresis characteristics as a phenomenon where the hysteresis curve is shifted to the left or right, as shown in Fig. 8. (A shift in the coercive voltage (+V_c, -V_c))

The "OS" read that is performed in the evaluation procedure in Fig. 5 is to check for this degradation mode.

This is a physical phenomenon which is difficult to reverse.

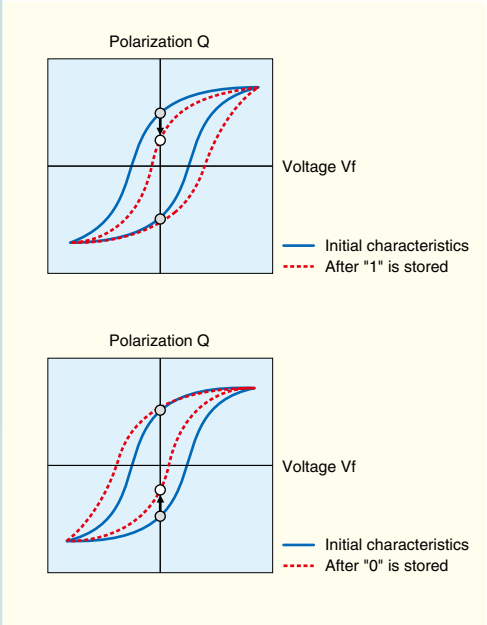


Figure 8. Degradation of the hysteresis characteristics by imprinting

■ Fatigue

Fatigue is a phenomenon where the level of polarization decreases as the ferroelectric polarization is repeatedly reversed.

Fatigue occurs during both read and write cycles, it also occurs during read cycles. This is because reading an FRAM memory cell is a destructive read that involves the sequence of operations of reading and then rewriting the data, the same as in DRAM, and therefore polarization reversal occurs. (See "Writing and reading data to cells".)

The guaranteed number of FRAM rewrite cycles is therefore not based on read/write cycles, but is defined as the total number of accesses to each individual memory cell.

The following section describes the method for evaluating fatigue and the degradation modes.

(1) Testing procedure

Fatigue testing is performed by applying fatigue bipolar stress, which basically involves repeatedly performing read or write operations a specified number of times, and then checking whether the FRAM operates normally.

As an example, the amount of time required for fatigue stressing of 64 kbit FRAM memory cells in an 8 kword x 8 bit configuration when the operation cycle time is 250 ns can be calculated. In this case, 8 bits can be simultaneously stressed at the same time, and so 8 kcycles are required to write to all of the memory cells once. The amount of time needed to carry out a specific number of stress cycles is therefore given as follows.

10⁸ times: 250 ns × 8,192 × 10⁸ = Approx. 57 hours
10¹⁰ times: " × 10¹⁰ = Approx. 237 days
10¹² times: " × 10¹² = Approx. 65 years

As the above example shows, it becomes difficult to actually carry out fatigue testing for more than a certain number of rewrites. To overcome this, the testing time can be reduced using the following methods.

- a) Accelerated by increasing the applied voltage and temperature
- b) Limit the number of cells being stressed (sample testing)
- c) Apply stress to multiple cells at the same time (simultaneous testing)

(2) Degradation modes

The degradation in the remanence as shown in Fig. 9 is observed after a certain number of repetitions of read or write operations. Although this resembles the degradation by thermal depolarization at elevated temperature, the polarization does not return to the previous level when rewritten.

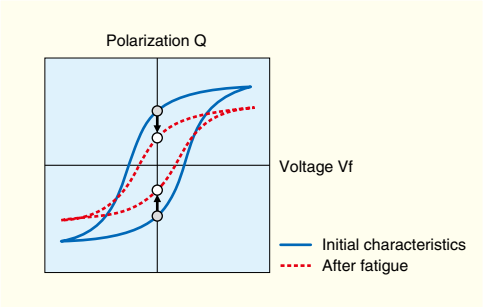


Figure 9. Degradation of the hysteresis characteristics by fatigue

■ Retention after fatigue

Under the conditions in which FRAM cells are actually used, retention and fatigue are mutually interrelated.

In general, the retention lifetime of a memory cell that has been heavily fatigued is worse than a cell that has not been fatigued.

Figure 10 shows a model of retention degradation after the "1" data state is written to a sample with different levels of fatigue degradation (different numbers of accesses). The degree of imprint degradation is greatest for the sample with the larger number of accesses (the more degradation).

It is therefore important for reliability that retention testing is also performed using memory cells after the application of a fixed number of stress cycles.

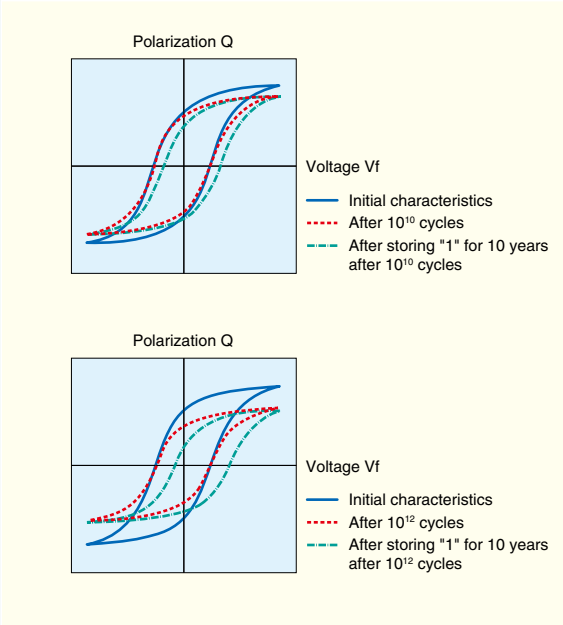


Figure 10. Retention characteristics after the memory cell has been fatigued