# Scaled, Ferroelectric Memristive Synapse for Back-End-Of-Line Integration with Neuromorphic Hardware 

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#### Abstract

Ohmic, memristive synaptic weights were fabricated with a Back-End-Of-Line compatible process, based on a $3.5 \mathrm{~nm} \mathrm{HfZrO}_{4}$ thin film crystallized in the ferroelectric phase at only $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The current density was increased by three orders of magnitude compared to the state-of-theart. The use of a metallic oxide interlayer, $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$, allows excellent retention (only $6 \%$ decay after $10^{6} \mathrm{~s}$ ) and endurance ( $10^{10}$ full switching cycles). The On/Off of 7 and the small device to device variability ( $<5 \%$ ) makes them promising candidates for neural networks inference. The synaptic functionality for online learning was also demonstrated: using pulses of increasing (resp. constant) amplitude and constant (resp. increasing) duration, emulating spike-timing (resp. spike-rate) dependent plasticity. Writing with 20 ns pulses only dissipate femtojoules. The cycle-to-cycle variation was below $2 \%$. The training accuracy (MNIST) of a neural network was estimated to reach $92 \%$ after 36 epochs. Temperature dependent experiments


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revealed the presence of allowed states for charge carriers within the band gap of hafnium zirconate. Upon polarization switching, the screening of the polarization by mobile charges (that could be associated with oxygen vacancies and/or ions) within the ferroelectric layer modifies the energy profile of the conduction band and the bulk transport properties.

## 1. Introduction

Artificial Neural Networks, by analogy with the brain, consist of collections of interconnected neurons. The information flows from a layer of neurons to another, through vector-matrix multiplications. Tasks such as classification are possible by training the network, i.e. adjusting the matrix elements or "synaptic weights". Analog, ${ }^{[1]}$ in-memory ${ }^{[2,3]}$ as well as neuromorphic ${ }^{[4,5]}$ computers aim at implementing the Vector-Matrix Multiplication (VMM) in the analog domain: ${ }^{[6][7]}$ the "multiply" (through Ohm's law) and "accumulate" (through Kirchhoff's law) operation is performed by a parallel voltage drop through a cross-bar array of non-volatile, programmable resistances. Among the different technologies existing for memristive devices, ferroelectric synaptic weights rely on electrostatic effects: for example Schottky barrier height ${ }^{[8]}$ or width ${ }^{[9]}$ modulation, or electrostatically induced metal-insulator transitions ${ }^{[10]}$. Neuromorphic computers' learning paradigms (unsupervised ${ }^{[11,12]}$ or supervised $\left.{ }^{[13],[14]}\right)$ require the ferroelectric memristive devices to show synaptic behavior, i.e. the ability to gradually decrease (depression) or increase (potentiation) their conductance upon voltage pulses emulating the effect on biological synapses of the pre- and post-synaptic spikes emitted by the neurons. Co-integrating ferroelectric materials with CMOS neurons became possible with the discovery of ferroelectricity in hafnia compounds ${ }^{[15]}$. In the race to miniaturization of Front-End-Of-Line (FEOL) devices, logic functions and discrete multi-level memories are demonstrated at the 28 and even 22 nm node. ${ }^{[16]}$
Fabrication in the Back-End-Of-Line (BEOL) relaxes the constraint on the device size: several nanometric ferroelectric domains can be contained in the active device area, allowing multi-level and/or analog conductance level updates, as demonstrated for example in fieldeffect transistors ${ }^{[17]}$ and in Metal-Ferroelectric-Insulator-Metal (MFIM) devices. Based on thick $\mathrm{HfO}_{2}$ layer, the band diagram of these two-terminals devices is engineered such that the electrons tunnel through the insulator, and partially through the ferroelectric ${ }^{[18,19]}$. These devices have a large dynamic range, but their non-linearity (which can be circumvented by the use of a logarithmic driver ${ }^{[3]}$ ) limit their usage for VMM. In contrast, in Metal-FerroelectricSemiconductor (MFS) devices, the electrons see the full thickness of the ferroelectric. In the

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Back-End, the process temperature cannot exceed $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C} .5$ to 15 nm thick Hafnia films grown by Atomic Layer Deposition can be crystallized in the ferroelectric phase with a moderate thermal budget by rapid thermal annealing, ${ }^{[20]}$ laser annealing ${ }^{[21]}$ or millisecond-flash lamp annealing ${ }^{[22-24]}$ but they result in low current densities. By decreasing the thickness, the current density increases, but at the cost of a higher thermal budget required for crystallizing the film ${ }^{[25]}$. In $\operatorname{ref}^{[26]} 600^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ are required to crystallize 5 nm of $\mathrm{HfZrO}_{4}(\mathrm{HZO})$, and in $\mathrm{ref}^{[27]} 800^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ are required for 4,6 and 8 nm of HZO .

In this work, ferroelectricity was obtained in a TiN/ $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}} / \mathrm{HZO} / \mathrm{TiN}$ structure with an HZO film as thin as 3.5 nm crystallized at $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, a thermal budget compatible with Back-End-OfLine. Compared to 5 nm thick devices that were fabricated in the same conditions ${ }^{[24]}$ and to state-of-the-art $\mathrm{HfO}_{2}(10 \mathrm{~nm}) / \mathrm{Al}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ bilayers ${ }^{[18,19]}$, the current density is 3 and 6 orders of magnitude higher, respectively. Their synaptic functionality, endurance and retention properties were characterized. The performance of a neural network based on this technology was estimated. The conduction mechanisms across the device, as well as the mechanisms governing the resistive switching, were explored using structural and ferroelectric characterization, as well as temperature dependent electrical measurements.

## 2. Ferroelectricity in Ultra-Thin, Back-End Compatible Bilayer

TiN, $\mathrm{WO}_{3}, \mathrm{HfZrO}_{4}(\mathrm{HZO})$ and TiN layers were deposited by Plasma-Enhanced Atomic Layer Deposition on an $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ buffered Si substrate. TiN was chosen as a capping layer to promote the crystallization of HZO in the ferroelectric phase by a mechanical constraint during the annealing. ${ }^{[28]} \mathrm{HZO}$ was pre-heated to $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, then a 20 millisecond long energy pulse of 90 $\mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{cm}^{-2}$ was applied to crystallize it in the orthorhombic/tetragonal phase, without any fraction of the monoclinic phase, as is confirmed by the Grazing Incidence X-rays Diffraction scan in Figure 1. As shown later, the as-grown HZO film shows ferroelectric properties, indicating that the peak observed at $2 \theta-\omega=30.2^{\circ}$ corresponds to the (111) planes of the orthorhombic, ferroelectric phase. The latter was fitted by a Gaussian with a width at half maximum of $\mathrm{w}=$ $1.7^{\circ}$. Using a k factor in the range $0.7 \sim 0.94$, the in-plane crystallite size was estimated using the Scherrer equation: ${ }^{[29]} d=k \lambda_{k \alpha 1}^{C u} /(w \cos \theta)$ to be $\mathrm{d}=3.8 \sim 5.0 \mathrm{~nm}$. This in-plane crystallite size is slightly larger than the thickness of the HZO layer. The broadening of the (111) peak is attributed to crystallite size and not to the presence of multiple peaks.


Figure 1: GIXRD scan of the device stack after crystallization (black curve). The peak at $30.2^{\circ}$ is fitted by a Gaussian, from which the in-plane crystallite size is estimated at 5.0 nm using the Scherrer formula. The solid lines represent the predicted amplitude for the $\mathrm{o}-\mathrm{t} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{m}$ - peaks of HZO.

X-ray reflectivity (Figure S1) confirms sharp interfaces and an ultra-low HZO thickness of 3.5 nm . To confirm the Back-End-Of-Line compatibility of the crystallization process, the same annealing was performed on MOSFETs ( 130 nm ). The drain current as a function of the gate voltage characteristics of the annealed transistors fell within the spread of the characteristics of the pristine transistors. During the whole process, tools and temperatures compatible with Back-End-Of-Line conditions were used: the devices were defined by optical lithography and Reactive Ion Etching. The $\mathrm{HZO}, \mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ and bottom TiN layer were etched using Inductive Coupled Plasma with a $\mathrm{CF}_{4}$ chemistry. The sputtered W metal lines were isolated by a $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ spacer, deposited by Plasma-Enhanced Chemical Vapor Deposition at $300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, as sketched in Figure S2.

## 3. A Ferroelectric Synaptic Weight

## DC Resistive Switching:

Potentiation (depression) of the two-terminal device was first obtained by applying a negative (positive) DC "pulses" of decreasing (increasing) amplitude with respect to the grounded $\mathrm{TiN} / \mathrm{WO}_{x}$ electrode. In this DC configuration, the duration of the applied bias was not controlled. After the application of each pulse of amplitude $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}$ (that varies in the -1.4 V to 1.6 V range) the bias was set back to zero, then the conductance was measured at 100 mV , as shown in Figure 2 (yellow data points). In the High Resistive State (HRS), the HZO polarization points towards the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer (blue layer in the sketch in Figure 2). Upon the application of an

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increasing positive bias, the fraction of domains whose polarization points away from the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer gradually increases. The On/Off ratio, defined as the ratio of the device conductance in the Low Resistive State (LRS) and in the HRS is 7 . More than 25 levels can be clearly distinguished. The non-linearity of the long term potentiation and depression was quantified by fitting the normalized data represented in Figure 2, by a function of the normalized pulse number $y: x \rightarrow \frac{1-e^{\left(-\frac{x}{A}\right)}}{1-e^{\left(-\frac{1}{A}\right)}}$, as proposed in ref. ${ }^{[30]}$ The parameter A was chosen by minimizing the root mean square error of the fitting. Values of $A_{\text {LTP }}=0.5$ for the long-term potentiation and $A_{\text {LTD }}=-1$ for the long-term depression, respectively, were found. For a device area of $314 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$, the resistance in the LRS, $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{on}}$, is $7 \mathrm{M} \Omega$. The device-to-device variation, measured at 0.1 V as shown in Figure S3, is 5\%.


Figure 2: Potentiation and Depression of the device upon DC pulses (the duration is not controlled) of increasing amplitude $V_{\text {write }}$. The On/Off ratio is the maximal conductance divided by the minimal conductance.

In Figure 3 a) the I-V characteristics of a device in a $3 \times 3$ crossbar are presented. Around the read voltage $(100 \mathrm{mV})$ the characteristics are linear, which is ideal for vector-matrix multiplication. Above, they are highly non-linear: consequently, the effect of sneak-paths during writing in selector-less arrays is limited. ${ }^{[31]}$ The non-linearity, quantified by the $\mathrm{I}(\mathrm{V}) / \mathrm{I}(\mathrm{V} / 2)$ ratio, gradually increases from 3 at 0.6 V to 18 at 2.0 V , as represented in Figure S4.

To assess the effect of sneak paths, the current-voltage characteristic of the same device was measured in the worst-case scenario (all the other devices in the crossbar array were set to the LRS) and in the best-case scenario (all the other devices in the HRS). The data, shown in Figure 3 a), differ by maximum $10 \%$ (grey curve). With the parameters listed earlier, the on-line learning accuracy of a selector-less array of 400 input, 250 hidden and 10 output neurons trained
on the MNIST database was simulated using the "MLP+NeuroSimV3.0" framework ${ }^{[32]}$. As shown in Figure 3 b), the accuracy reaches $92 \%$ after 36 training epochs.


Figure 3: a) I-V of a device in a $3 \times 3$ array when the 8 other elements are in HRS (blue line) or in LRS (red line). Grey line: relative error. b) Simulated accuracy of a 1R array of 400 input, 250 hidden and 10 output neurons (MNIST database).

## Pulsed weight update:

The conductance was then modulated using a waveform generator. Figure 4 shows the conductance at $\mathrm{V}_{\text {read }}=100 \mathrm{mV}$ DC, measured after each write pulse of increasing amplitude ( $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}$ ) and of constant duration $\mathrm{t}_{\text {write }}=20 \mathrm{~ns}$. In the inset, the same data is represented as a function of the pulse number within the cycle: the conductance varies by less than $2 \%$ from cycle to cycle. The energy dissipated during the writing is minimal for $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}=0.2 \mathrm{~V}\left(\mathrm{E}^{0.2 \mathrm{~V}} \approx\right.$ $\left.10^{-15} \mathrm{~J}\right)$ and maximal for $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}=-2 \mathrm{~V}\left(\mathrm{E}^{-2 \mathrm{~V}} \approx 10^{-12} \mathrm{~J}\right)$.


Figure 4: Synaptic Potentiation and Depression with pulses of increasing amplitude. The pulse amplitude $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}$ and the pulse duration $\mathrm{t}_{\text {write }}$ are defined as in the measurement scheme (top right). The inset shows the cycle-to-cycle variation.

In Figure 5, the amplitude is kept constant ( -1.4 V for potentiation, 2.0 V for depression) and the pulse width ( $\mathrm{t}_{\text {write }}$ ) is increased. With this scheme, $20 \%$ of the dynamic range is traversed after the first pulse ( 20 ns , lower limit of the generator). The circuitry required for the on-chip implementation of this scheme is more accessible than the one required by the scheme with increasing amplitude. Moreover, it emulates spike trains and shows that the proposed devices have potential applications in neuromorphic systems implementing a Spike-Rate-DependentPlasticity learning rule. ${ }^{[33]}$ The cycle-to-cycle variation for both schemes is $<2 \%$. Cumulative switching (upon applying pulses of constant width and amplitude) was not observed.


Figure 5: Long Term Potentiation and Depression for pulses with constant amplitudes $\mathrm{V}_{\text {pot }}$ and $\mathrm{V}_{\text {dep }}$ (as defined in the measurement scheme) and increasing duration $\mathrm{t}_{\text {width }}$. The inset shows the cycle-to-cycle variation.

Retention properties were measured for over ten days: the worst-case scenario corresponds to a $6 \%$ decay at $300 \mathrm{~h}\left(10^{6} \mathrm{~s}\right)$ in the case where the polarization points towards the oxide interlayer (pink triangles in Figure S5). This confirms that the devices based on a metal oxide / ferroelectric bilayer showed limited back-switching compared to devices based on a dielectric interlayer: for comparison, optimized junctions based on a $\mathrm{SiO}_{2} / \mathrm{Si}: \mathrm{HfO}_{2}$ bilayer showed a $30 \%$ decay. ${ }^{[34]}$ This observation is consistent with a better screening of the polarization charges by the metallic $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$, which implies a reduction of the depolarization field across the HZO ferroelectric layer that leads to improved retention characteristics. Finally, the devices showed strong robustness against fatigue, with no dielectric breakdown after more than $10^{10}$ full switching cycles (+/-2V at 100 kHz ).

## 4. Investigation of the Resistive Switching Mechanism

Both tungsten oxides ${ }^{[35]}$ and hafnium oxides ${ }^{[36]}$ were used as memristors operating with the displacement of oxygen vacancies and ions. In this work, the current density is constant for circular devices with diameters in the 10 to $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ range: Figure S6 shows the resistances measured at 0.1 V in the HRS and LRS in logarithmic scale, showing a constant On/Off ratio of 7 for diameters in the $10-30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and a homogeneous conduction across the device: no filaments or conduction at the edges. In addition, for a given polarity, resistive switching was only observed for pulses of increasing amplitude or time. Electroresistance loops (Figure S7)

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revealed hysteretic behavior: the resistance increases (resp. decreases) while the amplitude increases from 0 to 2 V (resp. decreases from 0 to -2 V ), then remains constant as the amplitude decreases from 2 V to 0 V (resp. increases from -2 V to 0 V ). This discards current-driven resistive switching mechanisms (governing for example filamentary resistive memories).

Positive Up Negative Down (PUND) experiments were performed to measure the ferroelectric properties of the devices. The waveform is schematized in Figure S8 a). The polarization for a $60 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ capacitor measured at 50 kHz is represented in Figure $\mathbf{S} \mathbf{8 b}$ ). As for the current density, the polarization (per unit area) is independent on the device area (circular devices of diameter 40,50 and $60 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), and confirms the ferroelectric properties of the devices $\left(2 \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{r}} \approx 4.5 \mu \mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\right)$. This value is low compared to 10 nm films $\left(\approx 20 \mu \mathrm{C} \cdot \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\right)$ due to the reduced thickness. For a constant voltage range ( -1 V to 1 V ), the polarization decreases with the frequency of the measurement, as represented in Figure 6: this effect reflects the dependence of the resistive switching on the pulse duration observed in Figure 5. The polarization switching occurs over a broad range of coercive fields (from $+/-0.2 \mathrm{~V}$ to above $+/-$ 1 V ), matching the voltage range where the resistive switching is observed (see Figure 2). Such broad distribution is explained by the polycrystalline nature of the HZO film, determined by the X-Ray analysis in Figure 1. Finally, we observed that the resistive switching saturates upon increasing field amplitude for both polarities (see the electroresistance loops in Figure S7). These observations are consistent with the resistive switching originating from ferroelectric domains switching: it saturates when all the domains are aligned in the same direction, and multiple intermediate configurations are allowed as only the grains with an intermediate coercive field have switched.


Figure 6: Polarization measured by the PUND method for a $60 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ capacitor, for various frequencies.

In this paragraph, the relative contribution of $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ to the overall resistance is discussed. $\mathrm{WO}_{3}$ is an insulator with a band gap of 3.40 eV ; oxygen vacancies create donor states that push the Fermi level close to the conduction band, conferring n-type semiconducting properties to

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$\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}} \cdot{ }^{[37]}$ For $\mathrm{x}<2.9, \mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ shows metallic behavior. ${ }^{[38]}$ The situation where $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ is most likely to contribute to the resistance of the device is when the polarization points away from the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer, after applying a negative bias on the top (TiN) electrode, causing an electrostatic depletion of electrons in the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$. From the resistive switching experiments (for example in Figure 2), this corresponds to the LRS of the synaptic weight. This shows that the resistance change in the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer, is small compared to the resistance change in the HZO layer. In addition, a chip with identical HZO thickness but with a $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer thickness of only one nanometer (compared to two nanometers for the reference stack) was fabricated. Two devices of the same diameter ( $80 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) but different $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ thicknesses shared the same $\operatorname{LRS}$ of $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{On}_{\mathrm{n}}}=1.13$ MOhms, showing that the resistance of the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ layer was small compared to the resistance of the HZO layer. In the following paragraph, we assume that the electric field drop in the $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ is small compared to that in the HZO layer.

The conduction mechanisms across the devices were then analyzed with current-voltage (IV) sweeps between 25 and $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, back and forth with no degradation observed upon heating. Although the On/Off ratio remains constant, the resistance decreases with increasing temperature, as shown in Figure 7 and Figure S7. For this reason, direct tunneling ${ }^{[39]}$ and Fowler Nordheim tunneling ${ }^{[40]}$ (respectively proposed in ${ }^{[41]}$ and ${ }^{[42]}$ ) were discarded as being the dominant transport mechanism. At low bias, below 75 mV and where the On/Off ratio is maximal, Ohmic conduction is observed, due to the drift of a small number of mobile electrons in the material's conduction band. ${ }^{[43]}$ It is described by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\sigma E=\mu q N_{C} \exp \left[\frac{-\left(E_{C}-E_{F}\right)}{k T}\right] E \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

equivalent to:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log (J)=\log \left(\mu q N_{C} / t\right)+\frac{-\left(E_{C}-E_{F}\right)}{k} \times \frac{1}{T}+\log (V) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where J is the current density, $\sigma$ the electrical conductivity, $\mu$ the electron mobility, $q$ the electronic charge, $N_{C}$ the carrier concentration at equilibrium, $t$ the sample thickness, $E_{C}-E_{F}$ the energy difference between the conduction band and the Fermi level, k the Boltzmann constant, T the absolute temperature and E the electric field across the ferroelectric layer. As discussed in the previous paragraph, the electric field was assumed to drop mainly across the ferroelectric layer resulting in $\mathrm{E}=\mathrm{V} / \mathrm{t}$ where the thickness t is equal to 3.5 nm . Only the nonswitching branches of the IV sweeps were analyzed. The product $\mu \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{C}}$ is assumed independent of the temperature. ${ }^{[43]}$ At each temperature, a linear regression was performed in the $\log (\mathrm{V}) \mapsto$ $\log (\mathrm{J})$ representation, shown in Figure 7 a). Figure 7 c) shows the Arrhenius plot of the intercepts of the linear regression in the Ohmic regime: the presence of the conduction band at

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only 0.3 eV above the Fermi level, deducted using Equation (2), indicates the presence of donor states in the band gap of HZO $\left(\sim 5.4 \mathrm{eV}^{[44]}\right)$. Such states could originate from the presence of oxygen vacancies, but also from hydrogen trapped in the lattice during the atomic layer deposition ${ }^{[45]}$. From Figure 7 c) and Equation (2), we found that the resistive switching originates from an increase by one order of magnitude in the $\mu \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{C}}$ product in the LRS compared to the HRS. At moderate fields ( $75 \sim 200 \mathrm{mV}$ ) the I-V characteristics keep the same diode-like polarity regardless of the polarization direction, showing that the energy band diagram of the $\mathrm{TiN} / \mathrm{HZO} / \mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ junction is not structurally modified upon polarization reversal as for example in refs. ${ }^{[46-48]}$

At larger bias, we first considered electrode-limited mechanisms: the thermionic emission model ${ }^{[49]}$ (proposed in ${ }^{[50]}$ ) fitted reasonably well the data, however the Richardson constant obtained was of the order of $0.1 \mathrm{~A} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{~K}^{-2}$ in the HRS and $100 \mathrm{~A} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{~K}^{-2}$ in the LRS, which is orders of magnitude smaller than the universal Richardson constant ${ }^{[51]}\left(\sim 10^{6} \mathrm{~A} \cdot \mathrm{~m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{~K}^{-2}\right)$. Bulklimited conduction mechanisms were also studied: similarly, it was possible to fit the experimental data with a Poole-Frenkel conduction model (proposed in ${ }^{[52]}$ ), but the dielectric constant obtained with this model was unrealistically as high as 60 . Thermionic-field emission ${ }^{[53]}$, hopping ${ }^{[54]}$, space-charge-limited ${ }^{[54]}$ fittings were not satisfying. Phonon-mediated trap-assisted-tunneling ${ }^{[55]}$ and simplified trap-assisted-tunneling ${ }^{[56]}$ models, in a single branch approach, were not fitting the data on a sufficient range. Regardless of the conduction mechanisms explored, the corresponding barrier height seen by the electrons on the negative branch (TiN to HZO injection, $\Phi_{b}{ }^{-}$) is higher than in the other polarity $\left(\Phi_{b}{ }^{+}\right)$, although the current flowing is larger. It supports the description of the transport by a "Modified Schottky Emission" (MSE) mechanism, ${ }^{[57]}$ which confers both electrode and bulk limited characters to the conduction. The MSE model was previously observed in $\mathrm{ZrO}_{2}$ thin films, ${ }^{[58]}$ and describes the experimental data well. It is governed by the equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
J=\alpha T^{\frac{3}{2}} E \mu\left(\frac{m^{*}}{m_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \exp \left[\frac{-q\left(\phi_{B^{-}} \sqrt{q E / 4 \pi \varepsilon_{r} \varepsilon_{0}}\right)}{k T}\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

equivalent to:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log \left(\frac{J}{T^{\frac{3}{2} V}}\right)=\frac{\alpha}{t} \mu\left(\frac{m^{*}}{m_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}+\frac{-q \phi_{B}}{k} \times \frac{1}{T}+\frac{-q\left(\sqrt{q / t 4 \pi \varepsilon_{r} \varepsilon_{0}}\right)}{k} \times \frac{1}{T} \times \sqrt{V} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha=3 \times 10^{-4} \mathrm{~A} \cdot \mathrm{~s} \cdot \mathrm{~cm}^{-3} \cdot \mathrm{~K}^{-3 / 2}$ is a constant, $m_{0}$ the free electron mass, $m^{*}$ the effective electron mass in HZO, $q \phi_{B}$ the Schottky barrier height, $\varepsilon_{0}$ the permittivity in vacuum, and $\varepsilon_{r}$
the dynamic dielectric constant. Linear regressions in the representations of $\log \left(\mathrm{J} /\left(\mathrm{T}^{3 / 2} \mathrm{~V}\right)\right)$ as a function of $|\mathrm{V}|^{0.5}$ were performed (Figure 7 b).


Figure 7: Current-Voltage characteristics in the Ohmic (a) and Modified Schottky Emission (MSE) (b) representations. At each temperature, a linear regression is performed on the negative, increasing branch (LRS, non-switching) and on the positive, decreasing branch (HRS, nonswitching). Arrhenius plots allow the calculation of the $\mu \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{C}}$ and $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{C}}-\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{F}}$ parameters from the intercepts of the linear regressions in the Ohmic regime (c), the $\mu\left(\mathrm{m}^{*} / \mathrm{m}_{0}\right)^{3 / 2}$ parameter is calculated from the intercepts of the linear regression in the MSE regime (d), and the parameters $\Phi_{\mathrm{B}}, \varepsilon$ from the slopes of the later (e).

For this mechanism, the barrier heights measured from Figure 7 d) and Equation (4) are $\Phi_{\mathrm{b}}{ }^{-}=$ 0.34 eV and $\Phi_{\mathrm{b}}{ }^{+}=0.26 \mathrm{eV}$. Consistently with the increase of $\mu \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{C}}$ measured at low bias, the average product $\mu\left(\mathrm{m}^{*} / \mathrm{m}_{0}\right)^{3 / 2}$ calculated from Figure 7 d ) and Equation (4) increases by several orders of magnitude from the HRS to the LRS. On average, the dynamic dielectric constant $\varepsilon$, calculated from Figure 7 e) and Equation (4) also increases.

The models describe HZO as a semiconductor and show that the resistive switching originates from the modification of bulk transport properties upon polarization reversal. Such modification can be explained by the displacement of charged defects within the semiconducting ferroelectric layer upon polarization switching in the vicinities of the interfaces. The displacement of charged defects is driven by the screening of the polarization charges as

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observed recently in sub-stoichiometric $\mathrm{BaTiO}_{3 \text {-x }}$ tunnel junctions, ${ }^{[59]}$ but also in a polymer ferroelectric. ${ }^{[60]}$ The simplified analytical models presented above do not capture eventual gradients within the HZO layer: further analysis using compact models simulations ${ }^{[61]}$ may further improve the understanding of the resistive switching in the $\mathrm{HZO} / \mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ bilayers.

## 5. Conclusion

In this work, ferroelectricity was obtained in $\mathrm{TiN} / \mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}} / \mathrm{HZO} / \mathrm{TiN}$ structure with an HZO film as thin as 3.5 nm crystallized at $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, a thermal budget compatible with Back-End-Of-Line. Thanks to the reduced thickness, the current density was increased by three orders of magnitude compared to the state-of-the-art ${ }^{[62]}$ and the devices operate in the Ohmic regime for read-out, which makes them ideal memristors for analog vector-matrix multiplication. The use of a metallic oxide electrode, $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$, enables good retention properties: the conductance in the less stable state varies by only $6 \%$ after $10^{6} \mathrm{~s}$. In comparison, optimized MFIM devices show a $30 \%$ decay for the most stable state ${ }^{[34]}$. The On/Off of 7 and the small device to device variability $(<5 \%)$ makes them promising candidates for neural networks inference.

In addition, the synaptic functionality was demonstrated using pulses of increasing amplitude and constant duration, emulating spike-timing dependent plasticity. Using pulses as short as 20 ns , the writing energy was in the femtojoule range. Spike-rate dependent plasticity was also emulated, using pulses of constant amplitude (of only 2 V ) and increasing duration. For both schemes the cycle-to-cycle variation was below $2 \%$. The current-voltage non-linearity in the range of $3 \sim 18$, allowing limited effects of the sneak paths on addressing a device in passive cross-bar arrays, which was verified on a $3 \times 3$ cross-bar. Using the weight update non-linearity parameters of 0.5 and -1 , the training accuracy of a neural network based on the proposed synapse on the MNIST dataset was estimated to reach $92 \%$ after 36 epochs. In addition, the endurance of the devices exceeds $10^{10}$ full switching cycles.
The conduction mechanisms across the device, as well as the mechanisms governing the resistive switching, were explored using temperature dependent experiments: the results indicate the presence of allowed states for charge carriers within the band gap of HZO, originating from defects such as oxygen vacancies. Upon polarization switching, the screening of the polarization by mobile charges (that could be associated with oxygen vacancies and/or ions) within the ferroelectric layer modifies the energy profile of the conduction band and the bulk transport properties.

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## Experimental Section/Methods

## Device preparation

A 200 nm thick $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ oxide was grown on Si by thermal oxidation. The active stack was then deposited by Plasma-enhanced atomic layer deposition (PE-ALD): 20 nm of TiN was deposited at $300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with Tetrakis(dimethylamino)titanium and $\mathrm{N}_{2}$ as precursors. 2 nm of $\mathrm{WO}_{\mathrm{x}}$ was deposited at $375^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $(\mathrm{BuN})_{2} \mathrm{~W}\left(\mathrm{NMe}_{2}\right)_{2}$ and $\mathrm{O}_{2}$, then 3.5 nm of HZO was deposited at $300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ alternating one cycle with Tetrakis(ethylmethylamino) hafnium (IV) and $\mathrm{O}_{2}$, and two cycles with Bis (methylcyclopentadienyl) (methyl) (methoxy) zirconium (IV) and $\mathrm{O}_{2}$. Ten additional nanometers of TiN were deposited. The crystallization was performed with the millisecond flash lamp annealing technique ${ }^{[22]}$ : the sample was preheated to $400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, then a 20 ms long energy pulse of $90 \mathrm{~J} \cdot \mathrm{~cm}^{-2}$ was applied. A 100 nm thick W metal electrode was then deposited by sputtering. The top electrode, defining the area of the junction, was defined by optical lithography and reactive ion etching (RIE) of the W and top TiN layers. Using this method, the HZO layer acted as an etch stop. The bottom electrode was then defined by optical lithography and inductive coupled plasma reactive ion etching (ICP) of the $\mathrm{HZO}, \mathrm{WO}_{x}$ and TiN layers. A 100 nm thick $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ passivation layer was deposited at $300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by plasma-enhance chemical vapor deposition (PECVD). Vias to the top and the bottom electrode were defined by optical lithography. The $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ layer was etched by RIE, then the HZO and the $\mathrm{WO}_{x}$ were etched by ICP, exposing the TiN layer to air. The etch was immediately followed by the sputtering of 100 nm of W. The first metal lines were then defined by optical lithography and etching by RIE. A 100 nm thick $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ passivation layer was deposited at $300^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ by PECVD. Vias to the bottom electrode contacts were defined by optical lithography. The $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ layer was etched by RIE. 100 nm of W was sputtered. The second metal lines were then defined by optical lithography and RIE.

## Structural characterization

Grazing-incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) and X-Ray Reflectivity (XRR) measurements were performed on a Bruker D8 Discover diffractometer equipped with a rotating anode generator.

## Electrical characterization

Electrical measurements were performed on an Agilent B1500A semiconductor analyzer with a B1530A waveform generator/fast measurement unit (WGFMU). Write pulses were generated by a remote-sense and switch unit (RSU) module close to the probe and applied to the top electrode while the bottom electrode is grounded. The device resistance was measured at

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$\mathrm{V}=+/-100 \mathrm{mV}$ with a high-resolution source-measurement unit (SMU) at the top electrode while the bottom electrode was grounded.

Positive Up Negative Down (PUND) experiments were performed to measure the ferroelectric properties of the devices. The waveform is schematized in Figure $\mathbf{S 8}$ a): during each of the P (positive, switching), U (positive, non-switching), N (negative, switching) and D (negative, non-switching) pulses of period $T$, the current I was measured during a time tread (that depends on the voltage range spanned and on the frequency) at a voltage V , then the voltage was increased by 0.1 V during a 20 ns long ramp. The polarization was calculated from the measured I-V curves.

## Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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A Back-End-Of-Line, ferroelectric synapse shows excellent cycle-to-cycle and device-todevice variation ( $2 \%$ ), retention and endurance ( $10^{10}$ cycles). A $10 \%$ error is measured in a $3 \times 3$ crossbar ( $92 \%$ accuracy predicted on the MNIST dataset). Ohmic conduction at low bias is ideal for multiply and accumulate operation. Temperature measurements reveal the analog resistive switching mechanisms in semiconducting and ferroelectric $\mathrm{HfZrO}_{4}$.

Scaled, Ferroelectric Memristive Synapse for Back-End-Of-Line Integration with Neuromorphic Hardware

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## Supporting Information

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Figure S1: X-Rays Reflectivity measurement of the TiN (11 nm) / HZO (3.5 nm) / WO $\mathrm{W}_{\mathrm{x}}(2$ $\mathrm{nm})$ / TiN (20 nm) / $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}(200 \mathrm{~nm}) /$ Si stack after ms-Flash Lamp Annealing. The inset shows the Fast-Fourier Transform from which the thickness of 3.5 nm is measured for the HZO layer.


Figure S2: Sketch of the device


Figure S3: I-V characteristics of ten devices, showing a device-to-device variation of $5 \%$ at 0.1 V .


Figure S4: Non-linearity of the I-V characteristics.


Figure S5: Retention of several devices in the high, intermediate and low resistive states


Figure S6: Resistance measured at 0.1 V in the HRS (Roff) and LRS (Ron) as a function of the inverse of the area of the device.


Figure S7: Resistance measured at 100 mV after applying $\mathrm{V}_{\text {write }}$, at various temperatures T .
The arrows indicate the chronological order.


Figure S8: Measure of the ferroelectric polarization by the PUND method. a) P and U, resp.
N and D are staircase triangular pulses as detailed in the inset. The polarization in b ) is calculated for three capacitors of 40,50 and $60 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter, for example for the $60 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ device from the current measured in c): each branch of different color corresponds to a $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{U}$, N or D pulse, as described in a$)$. The frequency ( 50 kHz in b ) and c$)$ ) is defined as $1 / 2 \mathrm{~T}$ where T is the duration of a pulse as defined in a).

