TCAD simulation V

E. Giulio Villani



Overview

Semiconductor fabrication process

- Fabrication process flow
- Silicon epitaxial growth
- Oxidation
- Resist deposition
- Photolithography/etching
- Implantation
- Thermal annealing/Activation
- Metalization
- Process simulation in TCAD
 - 2D process simulation of PN junction
- Addendum: Fabrication process details



Semiconductor fabrication process

- The fabrication of semiconductor devices is a rather complex process
- Many intermediate steps and manufacturing precision at atomic level
- It starts with the growth of high purity Si crystals







Silicon process fabrication example

- Start with Si wafer cleaned and polished
- The wafer top is covered by insulating layer, ${\rm SiO_2}$
- Light-sensitive layer (photoresist) deposited
- A photomask with the desired pattern is aligned with the wafer





Silicon process fabrication example

- Exposure to UV light makes the photoresist not covered by masks easily removable
- Once the developed resist is removed, the unprotected SiO₂ is etched away, using chemical process. Remaining resist is stripped off
- The exposed areas of Silicon are then doped, e.g. to obtain PN junctions
- Metallization followed by a similar photolithographic process to obtain a final device







Silicon process fabrication example

- Additional layers of conducting or insulating materials can be added, to obtain multilayers structures
- 10s of layers in modern submicron CMOS process



PN junction cross section example – 1 layer



Diagram of a cross-section of a VLSI circuit from ITRS 2005, http://www.itrs.net/Links/2005itrs/ home2005.htm. 58



Process simulation in TCAD E. Giulio Villani



- Simulate the fabrication process of a PN junction
- Epitaxial layer thickness and doping can be modified by the user
- Thermal silicon oxide growth, implantation, etching, diffusion and metal cathode deposition





- The Synopsys tool **SPROCESS** can simulate the fabrication process of semiconductor device, 1/2/3D
- Simulated steps include epitaxial growth, implantation, etching, thermal annealing, metal deposition
- Analytical and MC simulation possible for realistic results
- Simulation of crystal damage following implantation

A 3D simulated OVERMOS sensor



Cross section of 2D simulated Low Gain Avalanche Detector (LGAD)





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- Script in SPROCESS to simulate the fabrication of a PN junction on a epitaxial layer
 - Doping and thickness of the epi layer can be modified (device parameters)
 - Fabrication parameters can be modified (energy/dose of the implant, presence of oxide/JTE and oxidation time)
- The obtained mesh will then be simulated for IV, CV and Charge collection

Device parameters

Fabrication parameters



- Substrate and mask definition: parameters taken from the main workbench window
- Additional SPROCESS parameters configuration

SPROCESS DEFINITIONS: SUBSTRATE

line x location= @<@Epi_thick@>@<um> spacing= 0.1<um> tag= SubTop line x location= @<@Epi_thick@+0.2*@Sub_thick@>@<um> spacing= 0.2<um> line x location= @<@Epi_thick@+@Sub_thick@>@<um> spacing= 0.7<um> tag= SubBottom

line y location= -50<um> spacing= 8.00<um> tag= SubLeft
line y location= 0.0<um> spacing= 1.00<um>

line y location= 50<um> spacing= 1.00<um> tag= SubRight

JTE mask if needed
###
mask name= JTEGR segments= { -5.5 -4.5 4.5 5.5 }

ACTIVE REGION ### mask name= Active segments= { -4.5 4.5 }

SHALLOW N WELL ### mask name= SHN segments= { -5 5 }

CS MASK FOR OXIDE

###

mask name= CS segments= { -4.5 4.5 }

only up to front end line here, i.e. up to CS (contacts aded in the next SPROCESS steps)



• Substrate deposition and Epitaxial layer growth

• Saves the structure

Substrate (P+) definition and initialization
DEPOSITS THE SUBSTRATE

region Silicon xlo= SubTop xhi= SubBottom ylo= SubLeft yhi= SubRight name = substrate init Silicon field= Boron concentration= 5e18 DelayFullD wafer.orient= 100

Global Mesh settings for automatic meshing in newly generated layers
grid set.normal.growth.ratio.2d= 1.1 set.min.normal.size= 20<nm>

if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 0; struct FullD tdr=2D_PROC_\${PlotNum}_SUB }

GROWS THE EPI LAYER

#if 1

deposit material= Silicon type= isotropic rate= 1.0<um/min> time= @Epi_thick@<min> \
gpecies= Boron concentration= @<@Epi_doping@>@<cm-3>
diffuse temperature= 1000<C> time= @<600/60>@<min>
#endif

#if 0

###Grows thermal Epi layer ###
temp_ramp name= ramp_topSi temperature= 550 t.final= 1000 time=1<min>
temp_ramp name= ramp_topSi t.final= 1000 time= 600<s> Epi thick= @Epi_thick@<um> \
epi.doping = { boron= @Epi_doping@ } epi.model= 1
diffuse temp.ramp= ramp_topSi

#endif

saves the doping profile of substrate/epitaxial

if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 0; struct FullD tdr=2D_PROC_\${PlotNum}_Epi@Epi_doping@ }





- Thermal oxide growth 300 nm
- Oxide thickness extraction
- Saves the structure

WET THERMAL OXIDE GROWTH

```
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 700<C> t.final= 900<C> time= 20<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 900<C> t.final= 1000<C> time= 12.5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp=1000<C> t.final= 1080<C> time= 16<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1080<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1080<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1080<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1}
```

temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= @Wet0x_Time@<min> flows= {H2=7.0 02=4}

###ramp down
temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final=700<C> time= 67<min>

diffuse temp_ramp= temperatureRamp temp_ramp clear gas_flow clear

Simple Oxide deposition
###deposit Oxide type= isotropic thickness= 300.0<nm>

if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 1; struct FullD tdr= 2D_PNjnct_\${PlotNum}_Th0x_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@ }

Oxide thickness extraction
set int_si_o2 [interface Silicon /Oxide y= 0 z= 0]
set int_o2_gas [interface Oxide /Gas y= 0 z= 0]
set tox_thickness [expr \$int_si_o2 - \$int_o2_gas]
puts "OX_Thickness [format %3.1f [expr \$tox_thickness*1.0e3]]"
End of oxide thickness extraction



- Optional JTE
- Etching of Active area and growth of sacrificial oxide
- Saves the structure

4 -- etching active area

photo mask=Active thickness=1000<nm>
etch oxide anisotropic thickness=0.400

strip resist

if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 4; struct FullD tdr= 2D_PNjnct_\${PlotNum}_Active_Etch_JTENACT_JTENimp@JTE@_@JTEN_Implants_Energy_KeV@_@JTEN_Implants_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@}

5 -- ReOxide Growth - 40nm -# _____ ### WET THERMAL OXIDE GROWTH ### ramp up temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 700<C> t.final= 900<C> time= 20<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1} temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 900<C> t.final= 1000<C> time= 12.5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1} flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1} temp ramp name= temperatureRamp temp=1000<C> t.final= 1080<C> time= 16<min> temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1080<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 5<min> flows= {N2=4.0 02=0.1} ### hold for anneal temp ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final= 1100<C> time=0.7<min> flows= {H2=7.0 02=4} ###ramp down temp ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final=700<C> time= 67<min> diffuse temp_ramp= temperatureRamp temp_ramp_clear gas_flow clear if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 5; [struct FullD tdr= 2D_PNjnct_\${PlotNum} ReOxide JTENimp@JTE@ @JTEN Implants_Energy_KeV@ @JTEN_Implants_Dose@ BulkEpi@Epi_doping@ } ## SAC ovide thickness extraction



- Implantation of N well: beam tilting to suppress channeling effect
- Low Temperature Oxide (LTO) deposition
- Saves the structure

# ============			
] photo mask=SHN th	ickness=1000 <nm></nm>		
implant Phosphoru	s dose= @<@N_Implants_Dose@>	>@ <cm-2> energy= @N_Implants_E</cm-2>	nergy_KeV@ <kev> tilt= 7<degree> rotation= 27</degree></kev>
strip resist			
if {\$SaveAllSteps struct FullD tdr	} { set PlotNum 6; = 2D PNinct \${PlotNum} Shall	N @N Implants Energy KeV@ @N I	mplants Dose@ ReOxide JTENimp@JTE@ @JTEN Implants En
V@_@JTEN_Implants	_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@]	}	
V@_@JTEN_Implant: # ====================================	_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@) t 500 nm	}	
V@_@JTEN_Implant: #	_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@) t 500 nm {Oxide} type= isotropic tim	} me= 5 rate= {0.1}	



- Activation of implanted ions and LTO densification
- Etching of SiO2 for contact placement
- Saves the structure

Thermal annealing after Shallow N implants temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 600<C> t.final= 900<C> time= 30<min> flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 900<C> t.final= 1000<C> time= 12.5<min> flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} temp ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1000<C> t.final= 1080<C> time= 16<min> flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} temp_ramp_name= temperatureRamp_temp= 1080<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 5<min> flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} ### Hold temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final= 1100<C> time= 60<min> flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} ### Ramp down flows= {N2=8.0 02=0.0} temp_ramp name= temperatureRamp temp= 1100<C> t.final= 600<C> time= 84<min> diffuse temp_ramp= temperatureRamp temp_ramp clear gas_flow clear if {\$SaveAllSteps} { set PlotNum 8; struct FullD tdr= 2D_PNjnct_\${PlotNum}_ACT_LT0_ShalN_@N_Implants_Energy_KeV@_@N_Implants_Dose@ R* se0xide_JTENimp@JTE@_@JTEN_Implants_Energy_KeV@_@JTEN_Implants_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@ } # _____ # 9: etching for metal depo / contacts deposition # _____ ### etching of SiO2 for contacts

photo mask=CS thickness=1000<nm>

etch oxide anisotropic thickness=1

strip resist





- The second SPROCESS re-meshes for device simulation
- Contact mask definition
- Metal deposition for contact and etching
- Saves the structure

NOMINAL CONTACT MASK

mask name= contacts_mask segments= { -6 6 }

DOPING BASED REFINEMENT pdbSet Grid Adaptive 1

reset default settings for adaptive meshing
pdbSet Grid AdaptiveField Refine.Abs.Error 1e37
pdbSet Grid AdaptiveField Refine.Rel.Error 1e10
pdbSet Grid AdaptiveField Refine.Target.Length 100.0

Set high quality delaunay meshes
pdbSet Grid sMesh 1
pdbSet Grid SnMesh DelaunayType boxmethod
pdbSet Grid SnMesh CoplanarityAngle 179
pdbSet Grid SnMesh MaxPoints 5000000
pdbSet Grid SnMesh MaxNeighborRatio 1e6

Set the interface spacing
pdbSet Grid SnMesh min.normal.size 0.01
pdbSet Grid SnMesh normal.growth.ratio.2d 4.0
pdbSet Grid SnMesh max.box.angle.2d 179

###Set which interfaces will have interface refinement refinebox interface.materials= "Silicon"

AL DEPOSITION 1 UM FOR CATHODE CONTACT

deposit material= {Aluminum} type= isotropic time= 10 rate= {0.1}

```
etch material= {Aluminum} type= anisotropic time= 10 rate= {0.12} \
    mask= contacts_mask
```

Cathode contact
contact box Aluminum xlo= -2 ylo= -6 xhi= 0.5 yhi= 6 name= Cathode

Substrate contact
contact name = Substrate bottom

saves the entire structure with contatcs and mesh for SDEVICE
###grid remesh
grid remesh info = 1

set PlotNum 10

struct FullD tdr= 2D_PNjnct_\${PlotNum}_ShalN_@N_Implants_Energy_KeV@_@N_Implants_Dose@_JTENimp@JTE@_@JTEN_Implants_P Energy_KeV@_@JTEN_Implants_Dose@_BulkEpi@Epi_doping@ !Gas



- Substrate and mask definition
- Epitaxial layer growth
- Thermal oxide growth 300 nm





- SiO2 etching
- Sacrificial SiO2 growth
- Implant N well





- LTO (Low Temp Oxide) deposition
- Activation / annealing
- Etching cathode contact





- Metal contact deposition and etching
- Remeshing for device simulation:
 - Delaunay meshing
 - Specify refinement in region of electrical simulation interest, i.e. near the junction, at the interface







Addendum: More details on fabrication process



Silicon process fabrication details

- The fabrication of semiconductor devices is a rather complex process
- Many intermediate steps and manufacturing precision at atomic level
- Some details of the manufacturing steps are provided in the next slides







Silicon crystal growth Czochralski

- The majority of ICs are made on single-crystal Si wafers grown in large ingots using **CZ** (Czochralski, 1915^[1]) method
 - 1. High purity polysilicon (99.9999999% or 9N) crushed into powder, put into a quartz crucible and heated until it melts
 - 2. A seed crystal is dipped into liquid silicon. As the stick is rotated and slowly pulled up, an ingot of monocrystalline silicon is formed that has the same atomic arrangement as the seed crystal
- For detector grade Si, the smallest concentration of contaminants is required. The Floating- Zone (FZ^[2]) process is usually employed for this

¹ Development of Crystal Growth Technique of Silicon by the Czochralski Method, Vol. 124 ACTA PHYSICA POLONICA, 2013

² T.F. Ciszek, T.H. Wang, Silicon defect and impurity studies using float-zone crystal growth as a tool, Journal of Crystal Growth, 237, p. 1685-1691, 2002



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Silicon crystal growth Epitaxy

- Arrangement of atoms over existing planes of crystalline substrate, to form an extended crystal
- The deposited layer can have very different doping of the substrate, allowing doping profiles unattainable with implantation.
- Different materials can be grown (heteroepitaxy)
- The epitaxially grown layer can be oxygen free



SiCl₄ [gas] + 2H₂ [gas] = Si [solid] + 4HCl [gas]

Chemical Vapour Deposition (CVD) is the formation of solid films on a substrate by exploiting a chemical reaction of reactants in vapour phase.

Reactants introduced in reaction chamber decompose and react with the heated surface to form the film





Silicon crystal

- The cylindrical ingot is sliced into thin circular wafers, polished, etched, and cleaned until their surface is almost roughness free (<< 1 nm)
- The diameter of Si ingots grew over the years: currently 300 mm diameter, driven by keeping the cost/area constant
- As per 2022, worldwide Si wafer area around 10e6 m², for an approximate 1.15x10¹² semiconductor chips produced





Oxidation process

- The <u>purpose</u> of oxidation is essentially to provide **isolation**:
- Barrier against dopants diffusion/implantation
- Electrical insulator between devices (critical field ~ 10⁷ V/cm)







Oxidation process

- Two deposition methods:
 - Thermal growth
 - Dry: best quality, slow growth rate: used for gate oxide
 - Wet: lower quality, faster growth rate: used for field oxide (isolation)
 - Chemical vapor deposition ^[3] (lower quality, fast)
 - Used when no Si is available for oxidation (Interlayer Layer Dielectric, ILD)

^[3] J. K. Wang, D. R. Denison, Advanced techniques for interlayer dielectric deposition and planarization, Proc. SPIE 2090, https://doi.org/10.1117/12.156535, 1993.







Oxidation process tools

• Thermal oxidation:

oxide is grown at high temperature (~ 1000° C) by supplying oxygen that reacts with silicon wafer to form SiO₂ at the surface

• Wafers inserted on a suspended boat into a tubular reactor of quartz, heated by resistance



 $Si + O_2 \rightarrow SiO_2$.

Dry oxidation: best quality, slow (10 nm/hr)

 $\mathsf{Si} + 2\mathsf{H}_2\mathsf{O} \rightarrow \mathsf{SiO}_2 + 2\mathsf{H}_2.$

Wet oxidation: lower quality, faster (>x10) Wet oxidation is faster because H₂O molecules smaller than O₂ leading to faster diffusion through SiO₂





Oxidation process tools

- Chemical Vapor Deposition (CVD): reaction of vapor phase chemicals containing the material to deposit form the solid film on substrate. Reactant gases decompose and form the film.
 - SiO₂ growth rate >x10 compared to thermal oxide, but lower quality
 - CVD is also used for growing dielectric materials of different electrical permittivity (high k/low k material)



Chemical reactions	Techniques
$SiH_4 + O_2 \xrightarrow{430 \circ C, 1 \text{ bar}} SiO_2 + 2H_2$	Silane oxide CVD
$SiH_4 + O_2 \xrightarrow{430 \text{ °C}, 40 \text{ bar}} SiO_2 + 2H_2$	LTO CVD
$SiH_2Cl_2 + 2N_2O \xrightarrow{900 \circ C, 40 Pa} SiO_2 + Gas$	HTO CVD
$Si(OC_2H_5)_4 \xrightarrow{700 \circ C, 40 \text{ bar}} SiO_2 + Gas$	TEOS CVD
$Si(OC_2H_5)_4 + O_2 \xrightarrow{400 \circ C, 0.5 \text{ bar}} SiO_2 + Gas$	ACVD
SiH ₄ + 4N ₂ O $\xrightarrow{350 \text{ °C, Plasma 40 Pa}}$ SiO ₂ + Gas	PECVD

Oxide quality

- Mobile charges (contamination make insulator conductive)
- Fixed charges (incompletely oxidized Si create an extra electric field affecting the devices in Si)
- Oxide trapped charge (broken Si-O bonds, due to radiation)
- Interface trapped charges (dangling bonds affect mobility and increase noise)





Resist deposition

- The <u>purpose</u> of photoresist deposition is to prepare the wafer for the next step of lithography
- The pattern needs to be reproduced on the photoresist, using a special camera that projects the image of the photomask onto the photoresist
- Photoresist must allow to form a high-res image of the pattern (photo) and be able to stop etching (resist) to transfer the pattern onto the wafer





Resist deposition

- A small amount (~ml) of photoresist, with its solvent, is poured onto the wafer surface
- The wafer is spun at high speeds, the resist spreads out. The air flow increases the viscosity of the photoresists, by evaporating the solvent, which leads to a very uniform photoresist layer spread over the surface
- A post-apply bake is usually performed to further stabilize the film before lithography
- The obtained uniformity is of the order of < 1nm over the entire wafer surface





From KemLab website, <u>https://www.kemlab.com/</u> Resist thickness $\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}}$



Mask/photolithography

- The photomask, usually made of chrome on quartz substrate, around 5 mm thick, includes the pattern to be reproduced onto the wafer. It can be put in direct contact (contact litho), kept at small distance (proximity litho) or projected onto the wafer (projection litho)
- The photomask is typically bigger (x4-x5) than the wafer pattern



resist





From Wikipedia

The photomask itself is an example of high-resolution photolithography, usually obtained by electron beams to expose a photoresist



Mask/photolithography

- Contact printing provides a resolution near the wavelength λ of light used, but every contact damages the mask, that can be used only for a number of times
- Proximity printing keeps mask and wafer separated, around 10 um to avoid cumulative defectiveness, but resolution is about $\sqrt{\lambda d}$
- The modern lithography process makes use of projection printing, where the mask is illuminated by UV light and the image is projected on the wafer





Mask/photolithography

- The cost of lithography process is around 30 % - 50 % of the entire fabrication process and bound to increase for the most modern technology nodes
- Lithography is a gating technology, which leads the advancement in semiconductor industry


Mask/photolithography

- The patterning of the image is done using a step and scan procedure
- The light goes through a slit and the mask and wafer are scanned across the length of a field (mask pattern)
- Once a field is scanned, the wafer/mask are stepped along the orthogonal direction and the scanning is repeated
- Field size typically 26 x 33 mm², slit 25 x 8 mm²





Mask/photolithography

- The projection method used by modern processes consist of a light source and a lens system
- Currently state-of-the-art photolithography^[4] uses Deep Ultraviolet (DUV) light λ = 193 nm from an ArF excimer Laser
- The printing of nanometers feature size is possible using immersion lithography, where a media of higher refractive index (DI) is used between the lens and the wafer surface

^[4] B. Lin, Optical lithography—present and future challenges, C. R. Physique 7 (2006) 858–874





Resist development

- After photoresist deposition the mask is aligned and the process of exposure takes place
- Currently state-of-the-art photolithography uses Deep Ultraviolet (DUV) light λ = 193 nm ArF excimer Laser
- After the exposure, a post-bake to stabilize the film is performed , before the development





- After lithography, the process of etching usually follows
- Its purpose is to transfer a pattern onto the wafer, by removing material from some areas
- Either 'wet' or 'dry' etching is used
- Selectivity: etch rate ratio,e.g. s=etch_{SiO2}/etch_{res} (>= 4-5)
- Anisotropy: $A = 1 e_h/e_v$
- Also high etch rates is required, 1 10 nm/s



- Wet etching uses chemistry and might provide very high selectivity
- Plasma etching also uses reactive free radicals that chemically reacts with the material
- Usually poor anisotropy A= $1 e_h/e_v$
- Cheap and good selectivity but not suitable for precision etching, i.e. nanostructures

Wet etching example: Buffered HF etching of SiO₂

 $SiO_2 + 6HF \rightarrow H_2SiF_6 + 2H_2O$

F displaces O atoms and dissolves oxide, no effect on Si: very high selectivity





- Sputter etching is a purely 'physical' process, i.e. no chemical reaction involved
- Anisotropy very high but poor selectivity
- The wafer is bombarded with chemically inert ions e.g. Ar⁺
- Possible damage to the crystal (similar to ion implantation)



Plasma generates ion beam (Ar+) which are extracted and accelerated towards the sample The ions sputter off atoms of the target Low pressure (1e-4 Torr) to increase mean free path and provide line of sight travel to increase anisotropy



- Ideally one wants to combine **selectivity** using chemical reactions (like in wet etching) and **anisotropy** (like in sputter etching)
- Using Reactive Ion Etching (RIE) it is possible to achieve both high selectivity and anisotropy
- RIE uses ions bombardment to enhance the chemical process
- Chemical etching happens where the ions strike, leading to high selectivity and anisotropy

	High selectivity	Low selectivity
High anisotropy	Reactive Ion etch (RIE)	Sputter etch
Low anisotropy	Wet/plasma etch	



- Reactive-ion etching (RIE) uses chemistry and ions to simultaneously provide high selectivity and anisotropy
- The wafer is negatively biased ٠
- Positive ions are accelerated towards its surface ٠
- A plasma creates reactive species which diffuse towards the wafer
- The exposed parts of the wafer react and are etched ٠
- Etch byproducts may deposit onto the surface and provide sidewall passivation as they do not react with the reactive species
- Unique RIE recipe for a specific etching process ٠



Polysilicon CF_{4}/O_{2}

Si02 CF_4/H_2

Resist O_2



- Issues with RIE etching:
 - Ion damage to wafer
 - Etch loading (the etch rate changes depending on the mask pattern, i.e. Si with bigger aperture or narrow trenches etch more slowly)



A wide trench allows fluorine radicals to reach the bottom more easily, hence fast etch rate compared to the narrow trench

Source: https://www.samcointl.com/opto/



- Technique to introduce atoms of dopants into a semiconductor material and create regions of different electrical characteristics
- Historically proposed by Shockley in 1949, became common in the 70's
- Ionized gas ions are accelerated by strong electric field and injected into a target wafer (a few nm to a few µm depth). Ion implanters spin-off from particle accelerator technology



...the layer is formed by bombardment of one face of the N-type body with nuclear a particles and the N-type zones in the layer are produced by masking the surface areas of the layer from the bombarding particles.



Pros

- Precise control of dose and depth profile, complex profiles
- RT process (can use photoresist as mask)
- Wide selection of masking materials e.g. photoresist, oxide, poly-Si, metal
- Excellent dose uniformity across wafers
- Little lateral dopant diffusion, important for small devices







>10 implantations process



Cons

- Equipment big and expensive (> 1M\$)
- Radiation damage: reticle damage due to implantation not always possible to correct
- Difficult to obtain very shallow and very deep doping
- Masks material can be scattered into the wafer, creating impurities and defects



Year Estimates of the number of commercial ion implanters sold per year, mainly for IC fabrication, showing the '5 year cycle'

2000

2005

2010

2015

1985



- Ions used: As, B, P, In, O, Ar •
- Energy: 1 ~1000's keV ٠
- Flux: $10^{12} 10^{14}$ cm⁻² s⁻¹ •
- Dose: $10^{11} 10^{18}$ cm⁻² ۲
- Uniformity: \pm 1% across 12" wafers •
- Absolute dose accuracy: \pm 10 -15 % •
- Temperature: RT ٠



Dose and atom energy regions for CMOS transistor doping (gold), high dose hydrogen implants for Si layer splitting (lavender), and direct implantation of oxygen to form Silicon-on-Insulator (SOI) wafers (green).



Ion Implantation tools

Typical ion implanter for semiconductor process consists of several elements

1: Ion source

2: Analyzing Magnetic

3: Ion Accelerator

4: Beam manipulating system

5: End station





- Adiabatic approximation : Scattering of ions with target is described using two separate collision processes:
- S_n collisions with nuclei (energy loss and geometry of trajectory)
- S_e collisions with electrons (energy loss only).

$$S = \left(-\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{nuclear} + \left(-\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{electronic} = S_n + S_e$$

S_n screened potential classical two-body scattering Binary Collision Approximation BCA)

S_e interactions of ion with target electrons (Lindhard's Bethe-Bloch)



- At low energy, nuclear collisions dominate: at the end of its range the ion has low energy, S_n dominates leading to more crystalline damage
- At high energy, electronic collisions dominate, from scattering of electrons ~ Ohm's law





• From $\frac{dE}{dx}$, the total energy stopping power, one can estimate the average ion range

R: range

 R_p : projected range along axes of incident ion, with straggle ΔR_p

R_s perpendicular distance



$$\frac{dE}{dx} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_n + \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_e$$

$$R = \int_0^E \frac{dE}{-\frac{dE}{dx}}$$



- Projected range Rp and Straggle Δ Rp for common dopants
- Transverse spread increases with $R_p (R = (1 + M_2/3M_1)Rp$
- limiting factor on lower limit of mask opening, which affects maximum device density





Straggle ΔR_p





- Example of MC (>5000 runs) ion range simulations (SRIM^{*}) of B¹¹ and P³¹ implanted in amorphous Si
- No annealing, i.e. no dopants activation, no thermal diffusion



Depth vs. Y-Axis

- Target Depth -



P³¹(120keV) in Si



*http://srim.org/



• The range distribution of implanted impurities is described, as a first approximation, by a **symmetrical Gaussian distribution** (2 moments: R_p : projected range, ΔR_p : straggle)





- Higher moments are needed to describe realistic profiles:
 - skewness (γ), describing asymmetry of distribution
 - **kurtosis** (β), describing peak sharpness of the profile





- Analytical description of doping profiles can be obtained from Pearson distribution
- Coefficients of Pearson's equation are related to the four moments
- Explicit formula for the implanted profile can be obtained

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{(x-a)f}{b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2}$$

Pearson distribution function defined as DE solution

$$a = b_1 = -\frac{\gamma \Delta R_P^2(\beta + 3)}{10\beta - 12\gamma^2 - 18}$$

$$b_0 = -\frac{\Delta R_P^4 (3\gamma^2 - 4\beta)}{10\beta - 12\gamma^2 - 18}$$

$$b_2 = -\frac{6+3\gamma^2 - 2\beta}{10\beta - 12\gamma^2 - 18}$$

$$C(x) = C_o \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2b_2}\ln(b_2x^2 + b_1x + b_0) - \frac{2b_2a + b_1}{b_2\sqrt{4b_2b_0 - b_1^2}}\arctan\left(\frac{2b_2x + b_1}{\sqrt{4b_2b_0 - b_1^2}}\right)\right\}$$

Generic profile formula from Pearson distribution A. F. Tasch et al., "An Improved Approach to Accurately Model Shallow B and BF 2 Implants in Silicon," Journal of the Electrochemical Society, vol. 136, no. 3, pp. 810–814, 1989,



- Analytical doping profiles description reasonably accurate for heavy ions
- Lighter ions more accurately described using MC (crystal orientation depending)



SIMS, Pearson IV distribution and MC run - 11B



Ion Implantation masking

- Purpose of the mask is to Implant only in certain parts of the wafer, using a suitably thick mask (i.e. that its R_p lies within the mask material)
- The thickness of the mask should be large enough that the tail of the implant profile in the silicon should not significantly alter the doping concentration (C_B)



MATERIAL THICKNESS NEEDED TO MASK

At 200 KeV
Boron
Phosphorous
Arsenic
Antimony
At 100 KeV

PolySiO2Si3N4A1Resist0.9µm1.0µm0.61µm0.9µm1.0µm0.7µm0.6µm0.42µm0.55µm0.8µm0.3µm0.3µm0.18µm0.28µm0.35µm0.2µm0.2µm0.16µm0.18µm0.25µm

At 100 KeVIBoron0Phosphorous0Arsenic0Antimony0

 Poly
 SiO2
 Si3N4
 Al
 Resist

 0.65μm
 0.7μm
 0.42μm
 0.7μm
 0.7μm

 0.4μm
 0.36μm
 0.25μm
 0.3μm
 0.45μm

 0.18μm
 0.16μm
 0.1μm
 0.16μm
 0.20μm

 0.12μm
 0.11μm
 0.07μm
 0.10μm
 0.14μm

 FOR
 0.0001%
 TRANSMISSION
 0.0001%



Ion Implantation channeling

- During ions implantation in a periodic structure, directional effects due to nuclear scattering might confine the ions into regions minimizing interactions along the path.
- Channelling: Average penetration depth is larger, affecting the final doping profile







Ion Implantation channeling

To minimize channelling:

- **pre-amorphization** of the wafer via implantation
- the wafer is tilted by some degrees with respect to ion beam: the value of the critical angle below which there is channelling depends on crystal orientation and energy of the ion. In practice a tilting angle of 7 degrees is used







- Ion implantation creates defects in the target crystal, by displacing atoms from their regular lattice sites (see radiation damage lectures)
- The elementary radiation defect consists of Frenkel defect, i.e. displaced atom (interstitial) plus the related vacancy.
- More complex defects form as a result of accumulation and clustering of interstitials and vacancies (divacancies V-V, vacancy impurities, like V-O, As-I...)





- After the implantation process, a thermal treatment is required to electrically activate the dopant (i.e. to have them moved to substitutional positions) and to restore the crystalline order of the semiconductor
- Annealing at high temperature (~1000°C) could result in perfect crystal, but leads to dopant diffusion. Particularly serious issue in modern technologies, where very shallow junctions are used



An example of doping profile from ¹¹B implantation in <100> Si, as implanted and after thermal annealing



Isochronal annealing of boron. The ratio of the freecarrier to dose (fraction of boron atoms located in substitutional lattice points) is plotted versus the anneal temperature for three doses of boron.



9/11mg 0.1

- Activation energy for removal of point defects (V and I) usually higher than that of impurity diffusion.
- Different slopes in Arrhenius plots allow to use high temperature to enhance annealing and depress diffusivity: Rapid Thermal Annealing (RTA)



Dislocation removal rate in As implanted Si and As diffusivity vs. 1/T





- Rapid thermal annealing of wafers (**RTA**) optimizes the defects suppression, whilst minimizing dopants diffusion
- Wafers are rapidly heated by lamps (10's kW) to 1000 C for 1 20 secs max
- Various methods to measure the wafer temperature (optical, acoustic)





https://photonexport.com/rapid-thermal-processing/



Metallization

- Once devices have been fabricated in the wafer (Front End of Line), metal layers are deposited to form the conductive connections
- Modern technologies moved from Al to Cu to reduce resistivity in interconnect in Back End of Line (BEOL). This is a more complex process (Dual Damascene process) than sputtering

Schottky diode on P-type Si wafer







Metallization

- Sputtering (**PVD**, Physical Vapor Deposition) is one of the most common method to deposit thin film of metal
- Good step coverage obtained by reducing the mean free path of sputtered atoms (increasing Ar ions, magnetron sputtering) Sputtering also used to clean wafer before deposition, by Ar⁺ etching



Cathode (target -) is the material to deposit, generally cooled

An inert gas (Ar) is ionized, accelerated and collides with the target. Ejected atoms have energies ~ 10's eV

Some atoms sputters off and, after scattered paths, land and deposit onto the wafer (+)



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General Relationship for the Thermal Oxidation of Silicon

B. E. DEAL AND A. S. GROVE Fairchild Semiconductor, A Division of Fairchild Camera and Instrument Corporation, Palo Alto, California (Received 10 May 1965) in final form 9 September 1965)

The thermal-oxidation kinetics of silicon are examined in detail. Based on a simple model of oxidation which takes into account the reactions occuring at the two boundaries of the oxida hyer a well as the diffusion process, the general relationships $s^{+}+4s_{2}=B(t+r)$ is derived. This relationship is shown to be in excellent agreement with oxidation data obtained over a wide range of temperature (700-7400°C), partial pressure (0.1–1.0 atm) and oxide thickness (300-20000 Å) for both oxygen and water oxidants. The parameters A, B, a_{1} are shown to be related to the physico-chemical constants of the oxidation reaction in the predicted manner. Such detailed analysis also leads to further information, garding the nature of the transported species as well as space-charge effection on the initial phase of oxidation.

1. INTRODUCTION

OWING to its great importance in planar silicondevice technology, the formation of silicon dioxide layers by thermal oxidation of single-crystal silicon has been studied very extensively in the past several years.¹⁻¹⁰ Now, with the availability of large amounts of experimental data, it appears that there is much contradiction and many peculiarities in the store of knowledge of silicon oxidation. For instance, reported activation energies of rate constants vary between 27 and 100 kcal/mole for oxidation in dry oxygen; pressure dependence of rate constants has been reported as linear as well as logarithmic. While most of the data on silicon oxidation have been evaluated using the parabolic rate law, certain authors have taken recourse to using empirical power-law dependence.¹⁴ x₀ = *Al*, where both *m* and *k* were complex functions of temperature, pressure, and oxide thickness.

contain a summary of data obtained in these laboratories which are in good general agreement with the corresponding data of Fuller and Striteet⁴⁴ and of Evitts, Cooper, and Flaschen.¹¹² (The experimental methods are dealt with in detail later.) The plots are logarithm of oxide thickness vs the logarithm of oxidation time for dry and wet oxygen (95°C H₄O) at various temperatures. The slope of the lines corresponds to the exponent n in the above power law. These values are indicated at the limiting position of some of the curves. In the case of wet oxygen (Fig. 1), n ranges from 2 for thicker oxides at 1200°C to 1 for the thinner oxide region of the 920°C data. However, for dry oxygen (Fig. 2), the value of n at 1200° approaches 2 as the oxide thickness increases above 1.0 μ ; but at lower temperatures and oxide thicknesses the value of n decreases only to about 1.5 and then appears to increase again. Obviously the data cannot be represented by a simple power law.

14 N. Cabrera and N. F. Mott, Rept. Progr. Phys. 12, 163 (1948).



B. E. DEAL AND A. S. GROVE General Relationship for the Thermal Oxidation of Silicon, JOURNAL OF APPLIED PHYSICS VOLUME 36. NUMBER 12 DECEMBER 1965

10 nm -

1980

Appendix :The Deal-Grove oxidation model

- The Deal Grove Model is a simple kinetic model for oxide thermal growth, wet and dry
- Developed by Andy Grove (Intel's CEO) and Bruce Deal in the 60's

Technology node

130 nm.

Planar MOSFET limit

Calendar vear

2000

1990

90 nm

.65 nm

2010

2020

The Deal-Grove oxidation model

1: Oxygen diffuses from bulk (C_G) to wafer surface (C_S)

2: Oxygen diffuses from wafer surface (C_0) to Si surface (C_i)

3: Oxygen reacts with Si at interface to form ${\rm SiO}_{\rm 2}$





The Deal-Grove oxidation model

- Oxygen diffusion through gas: Fick's 1st Law approximated as linear equation
- Adsorbed concentration C_0 on surface \propto • partial pressure (Henry's Law)
- Oxygen diffusion through SiO₂ Fick's 1st Law • approximated as linear equation
- 1st order reaction at Si interface •

1 2 3

$$f_{0}$$
 f_{0} f_{0}

2:
$$F_2 = D \frac{dC}{dx} \approx \frac{D_{ox}}{t_{ox}} (C_o - C_i)$$

3: $F_3 = k_s C_i$

$$C_g = \frac{P_g}{kT}$$
Reactant concentration
H Henry's gas law coefficient
 t_{ox} SiO2 thickness
 D_{ox} Oxygen diffusivity in SiO2
 h_g Mass transfer coefficient



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The Deal-Grove oxidation model

- Steady state: all fluxes are equal (Si interface reaction is the rate-limiting step)
- Oxygen flux $F_{OX} = v_{ox} N_{ox}$



 $F_1 = F_2 = F_3 = F_{OX}$

$$F_{OX} = \frac{Hk_s P_g}{1 + \frac{k_s}{h} + \frac{k_s t_{OX}}{D_{OX}}} = \frac{dt_{OX}}{dt} N_{OX} \qquad ; h = \frac{h_g}{HkT}$$

$$\frac{dt_{ox}}{dt} = \frac{Hk_s P_g}{1 + \frac{k_s}{h} + \frac{k_s t_{ox}}{D_{ox}}} \frac{1}{N_{ox}}$$


The Deal-Grove oxidation model

- Integrating over t gives the expression for oxide thickness t_{ox} vs. time t
- The model requires coefficients adjustments for different crystal orientations

Temperature (°C)	Dry			Wet (640 torr)	
	A (μm)	B (μm²/hr)	τ (hr)	A (μm)	B (μm²/hr)
800	0.370	0.0011	9		_
920	0.235	0.0049	1.4	0.50	0.203
1000	0.165	0.0117	0.37	0.226	0.287
1100	0.090	0.027	0.076	0.11	0.510
1200	0.040	0.045	0.027	0.05	0.720

The τ parameter is used to compensate for the rapid growth regime for thin oxides. (After Deal and Grove.)

Table 4.1 Ovidation coefficients for silicon

<111> Si



The Deal-Grove oxidation model

- Comparison of Deal-Grove model with <u>measured</u> oxide thickness (Dry oxide)
- With the correct coefficients (P,T, crystal) the Deal-Grove model works nicely for single crystal silicon (~%'s accuracy). Model extensions to 3D exist
- Additional tweaking needed for high Si doping
- The model fails for Polysilicon



* Self-limiting growth of native oxide saturates at around 2-3 nm **'Growth of native oxide on a silicon surface'** Journal of Applied Physics, Volume 68, Issue 3, August 1, 1990, pp.1272-1281

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The Deal-Grove oxidation model

 The oxide grows at the expense of Silicon: during oxidation around half of Silicon is consumed



$$X_{Si} N_{Si} = X_{Ox} N_{Ox} \to X_{Si} = \frac{X_{Ox} N_{Ox}}{N_{Si}} \equiv X_{Ox} \frac{2.3 \ 10^{22}}{5 \ 10^{22}} = X_{Ox} \ 0.46$$

 $N_{Ox} = molecular \ density \ SiO_2$ $N_{Si} = atomic \ density \ Si$



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