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Semiconductor Doping

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Doping of Semiconductors

- Semiconductors are not intrinsically conductive
- To make them conductive, replace silicon atoms in the lattice with dopant atoms that have valence bands with fewer or more e⁻s than the 4 of Si
- If more e⁻s, then the dopant is a donor: P, As
 - ↳ The extra e⁻ is effectively released from the bonded atoms to join a cloud of free e⁻s, free to move like e⁻s in a metal

Extra free e⁻

- ↳ The larger the # of donor atoms, the larger the # of free e⁻s → the higher the conductivity

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Doping of Semiconductors (cont.)

- Conductivity Equation:

$$\sigma = q\mu_n n + q\mu_p p$$

conductivity → σ ← charge magnitude on an electron (q) ← hole density (p)
 electron mobility (μ_n) electron density (n) hole mobility (μ_p)

- If fewer e⁻s, then the dopant is an acceptor: B

- ↳ Lack of an e⁻ = hole = h⁺
- ↳ When e⁻s move into h⁺s, the h⁺s effectively move in the opposite direction → a h⁺ is a mobile (+) charge carrier

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Diffusion

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Diffusion in Silicon

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- Movement of dopants within the silicon at high temperatures
- Three mechanisms: (in Si)

(a)

(b)

(c)

Substitutional Diffusion

- Impurity moves along vacancies in the lattice
- Substitutes for a Si-atom in the lattice

Interstitialcy Diffusion

- Impurity atom replaces a Si atom in the lattice
- Si atom displaced to an interstitial site

Interstitial Diffusion

- Impurity atoms jump from one interstitial site to another
- Get rapid diffusion
 - ↳ Hard to control
 - ↳ Impurity not in lattice so not electrically active

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Diffusion in Polysilicon

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- In polysilicon, still get diffusion into the crystals, but get more and faster diffusion through grain boundaries
- **Result:** overall faster diffusion than in silicon

Fast diffusion through grain boundaries Regular diffusion into crystals

- In effect, larger surface area allows much faster volumetric diffusion

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Basic Process for Selective Doping

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1. Introduce dopants (introduce a fixed dose Q of dopants)
 - (i) Ion implantation
 - (ii) Predeposition
2. Drive in dopants to the desired depth
 - ↳ High temperature $> 900^\circ\text{C}$ in N_2 or N_2/O_2

• **Result:**

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Predeposition

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- Furnace-tube system using solid, liquid, or gaseous dopant sources
- Used to introduced a controlled amount of dopants
 - ↳ Unfortunately, not very well controlled
 - ↳ Dose (Q) range: $10^{13} - 10^{16} \pm 20\%$
 - ↳ For ref: w/ ion implantation: $10^{11} - 10^{16} \pm 1\%$ (larger range & more accurate)
- **Example:** Boron predeposition

Predeposition Temp: $800-1100^\circ\text{C}$

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Ex: Boron Predeposition

Basic Procedure:

1. Deposit B_2O_3 glass
2. B diffuses from $B_2O_3 \rightarrow Si$

Difficult to control dose Q , because it's heavily dependent on partial pressure of B_2H_6 gas flow

- this is difficult to control itself
- get only 10% uniformity

Furnace tube cross-section
Less B concentration

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Ex: Boron Predeposition (cont.)

For better uniformity, use solid source:

Furnace tube
wafer
Boron/Nitride wafer \rightarrow 2% uniformity

Reactions:

$$B_2H_6 + 3O_2 \rightarrow 3H_2O + B_2O_3$$

$$Si + O_2 \rightarrow SiO_2$$

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General Comments on Predeposition

- Higher doses only: $Q = 10^{13} - 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ (I/I is $10^{11} - 10^{16}$)
- Dose not well controlled: $\pm 20\%$ (I/I can get $\pm 1\%$)
- Uniformity is not good
 - $\pm 10\%$ w/ gas source
 - $\pm 2\%$ w/ solid source
- Max. conc. possible limited by solid solubility
 - Limited to $\sim 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
 - No limit for I/I \rightarrow you force it in here!
- For these reasons, I/I is usually the preferred method for introduction of dopants in transistor devices
- But I/I is not necessarily the best choice for MEMS
 - I/I cannot dope the underside of a suspended beam
 - I/I yields one-sided doping \rightarrow introduces unbalanced stress \rightarrow warping of structures
 - I/I can do physical damage \rightarrow problem if annealing is not permitted
- Thus, predeposition is often preferred when doping MEMS

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Diffusion Modeling

Modeling $N(x)$ concentration of dopant $\rightarrow J$

\Rightarrow Dopants from points of high conc. move to points of low conc. w/ flux J

\Rightarrow Question: What's $N(x,t)$? τ fun of time

Fick's Law of Diffusion - (1st law)

$$J(x,t) = -D \frac{\partial N(x,t)}{\partial x} \quad (1)$$

flux [$\#/cm^2 \cdot s$] \leftarrow Diffusion Coefficient

Continuity Equation for Particle Flux -

General form: $\frac{\partial N(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot J$

rate of increase of conc. w/ time \leftarrow negative of the divergence of particle flux

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Diffusion Modeling (cont.)

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⇒ We're interested for now in the one-dimensional form:

$$\frac{\partial N(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial J}{\partial x} \quad (2)$$

[$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ (1) and substitute (2) in (1)] ⇒ $\frac{\partial N(x,t)}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 N(x,t)}{\partial x^2}$ [Fick's 2nd Law of Diffusion in 1-D]

Solutions: → dependent upon boundary conditions
↳ use variable separation or Laplace X-form techniques

Case 1: Predeposition → constant source diffusion: surface concentration stays the same during the diffusion

surface conc. stays constant N_0
background conc. N_B
surface x , distance fr. surface
impurity conc $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$
high T $(D_1 t_1 < D_2 t_2 < D_3 t_3)$
complementary error function profile

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Diffusion Modeling (Predeposition)

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⇒ if plotted on a linear scale, would look like this:

⇒ **Boundary Condition:**
(i) $N(0,t) = N_0$
(ii) $N(\infty,t) = 0$

$$N(x,t) = N_0 \left[1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\frac{x}{2\sqrt{Dt}}} e^{-y^2} dy \right]$$

$N(x,t) = N_0 \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{x}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right)$ ⇒ again, complementary error function (read tables or graph)

Dose, $Q \triangleq$ total # of impurity atoms per unit area in the Si
= area under the curve
 $Q = \int_0^\infty N(x,t) dx \Rightarrow Q(t) = N_0 \frac{2\sqrt{Dt}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \text{ cm}^2$

$2\sqrt{Dt} \triangleq$ characteristic diffusion length

$N(x)$ ← linear scale
area under this square is same as under the curve!
 $2\sqrt{Dt}$

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Diffusion Modeling (Limited Source)

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Case 2: Drive-in → limited source diffusion, i.e., constant dose Q

⇒ **Boundary Condition:**
(i) $N(\infty,t) = 0$
(ii) $\frac{\partial N(x,t)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} = 0$

Why? Constant Dose: $\int_0^\infty N(x,t) dx = Q \leftarrow \text{const.}$

This is equivalent to saying that there's no flux going out of the Si, i.e., and that's what this says!

$J=0$

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Diffusion Modeling (Limited Source)

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(ii) Usually make delta fn. approx.: $N(x,0) = Q \delta(x)$
⇒ we can do this, because for sufficiently long diffusion times, no matter what the original shape of the dopant distribution, the diffused distribution will be the same

Get Gaussian Distribution: $N(x,t) = \frac{Q}{\sqrt{\pi Dt}} \exp\left[-\frac{x^2}{4Dt}\right]$

corresponds to a half Gaussian in this Equation

When the starting conc. profile is completely contained in the Si, then $Q = \frac{D_I}{2} = \text{half the implant dose}$

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Two-Step Diffusion

- Two step diffusion procedure:
 - Step 1: predeposition (i.e., constant source diffusion)
 - Step 2: drive-in diffusion (i.e., limited source diffusion)
- For processes where there is both a predeposition and a drive-in diffusion, the final profile type (i.e., complementary error function or Gaussian) is determined by which has the much greater Dt product:
 - $(Dt)_{\text{predep}} \gg (Dt)_{\text{drive-in}} \Rightarrow$ impurity profile is complementary error function
 - $(Dt)_{\text{drive-in}} \gg (Dt)_{\text{predep}} \Rightarrow$ impurity profile is Gaussian (which is usually the case)

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Successive Diffusions

- For actual processes, the junction/diffusion formation is only one of many high temperature steps, each of which contributes to the final junction profile
- Typical overall process:
 - Selective doping
 - Implant \rightarrow effective $(Dt)_1 = (\Delta R_p)^2/2$ (Gaussian)
 - Drive-in/activation $\rightarrow D_2 t_2$
 - Other high temperature steps
 - (eg., oxidation, reflow, deposition) $\rightarrow D_3 t_3, D_4 t_4, \dots$
 - Each has their own Dt product
 - Then, to find the final profile, use

$$(Dt)_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i D_i t_i$$
 in the Gaussian distribution expression.

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The Diffusion Coefficient

$$D = D_o \exp\left(-\frac{E_A}{kT}\right) \quad (\text{as usual, an Arrhenius relationship})$$

Table 4.1 Typical Diffusion Coefficient Values for a Number of Impurities.

Element	$D_o(\text{cm}^2/\text{sec})$	$E_A(\text{eV})$
B	10.5	3.69
Al	8.00	3.47
Ga	3.60	3.51
In	16.5	3.90
P	10.5	3.69
As	0.32	3.56
Sb	5.60	3.95

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Diffusion Coefficient Graphs

Substitutional & Interstitial Diffusers

Fig. 7.1

Interstitial Diffusers

Note the much higher diffusion coeffs. than for substitutional

Fig. 7.2

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Metallurgical Junction Depth, x_j

x_j = point at which diffused impurity profile intersects the background concentration, N_B

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Expressions for x_j

- Assuming a Gaussian dopant profile: (the most common case)

$$N(x_j, t) = N_o \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x_j}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right)^2\right] = N_B \rightarrow x_j = 2\sqrt{Dt \ln\left(\frac{N_o}{N_B}\right)}$$

- For a complementary error function profile:

$$N(x_j, t) = N_o \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{x_j}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right) = N_B \rightarrow x_j = 2\sqrt{Dt} \operatorname{erfc}^{-1}\left(\frac{N_B}{N_o}\right)$$

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Sheet Resistance

- Sheet resistance provides a simple way to determine the resistance of a given conductive trace by merely counting the number of effective squares
- Definition:**

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} = \left(\frac{\rho}{t}\right) \frac{L}{W} = R_s \left(\frac{L}{W}\right)$$

ohms per square
Ω/D

sheet resistance # unit squares of material in the resistor

eg.,

uniformly doped material w/ resistivity $\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma}$
 $\sigma = \text{conductivity} = q(\mu_n n + \mu_p p)$

What if the trace is non-uniform? (e.g., a corner, contains a contact, etc.)

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Squares From Non-Uniform Traces


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Sheet Resistance of a Diffused Junction

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• For diffused layers:

Sheet resistance



Reducing deposit conc.

Effective resistivity

$$R_s = \frac{\rho}{x_j} = \left[\int_0^{x_j} \sigma(x) dx \right]^{-1}$$

Majority carrier mobility

Net impurity concentration

$$= \left[\int_0^{x_j} q \mu N(x) dx \right]^{-1}$$

[extrinsic material]

- This expression neglects depletion of carriers near the junction, $x_j \rightarrow$ thus, this gives a slightly lower value of resistance than actual
- Above expression was evaluated by Irvin and is plotted in "Irvin's curves" on next few slides
 - ↳ Illuminates the dependence of R_s on x_j , N_0 (the surface concentration), and N_B (the substrate background conc.)

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Irvin's Curves (for n-type diffusion)

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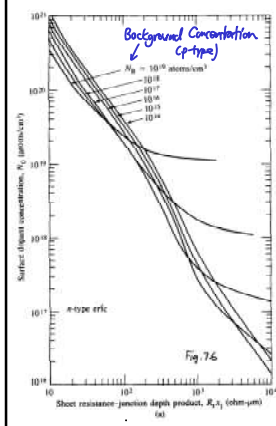


Fig. 7.6

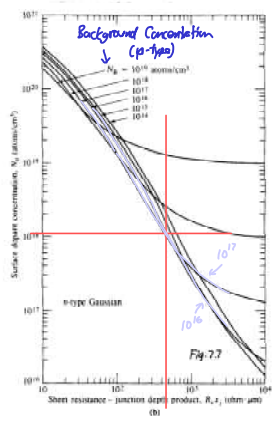


Fig. 7.7

Example. p-type

Given:

- $N_B = 3 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- $N_0 = 1.1 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (n-type Gaussian)
- $x_j = 2.77 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

Can determine these given known predep. and drive conditions

Determine the R_s .

Using Fig. 7.7:

$R_s x_j = 470 \text{ } \Omega \cdot \mu\text{m}$

$\therefore R_s = \frac{470}{2.77} = 170 \text{ } \Omega/\square$

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Irvin's Curves (for p-type diffusion)

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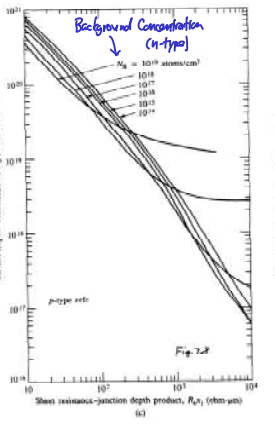


Fig. 7.8

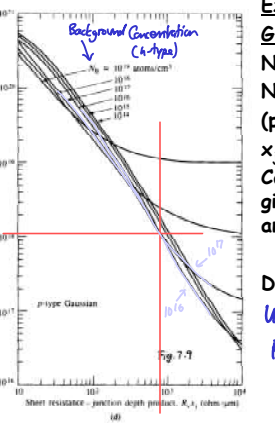


Fig. 7.9

Example. n-type

Given:

- $N_B = 3 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- $N_0 = 1.1 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (p-type Gaussian)
- $x_j = 2.77 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$

Can determine these given known predep. and drive conditions

Determine the R_s .

Using Fig. 7.9:

$R_s x_j = 800 \text{ } \Omega \cdot \text{cm}$

$\therefore R_s = \frac{800}{2.77} = 289 \text{ } \Omega/\square$

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