

1 Profiles & Layout

1.1

1.2

1.3

2 Process Procedures

2.1 Process Monitoring Measurements

2.1.1 Measurement Type and Description

- Film color

Pay atten

2.2

2.3

3 Calculations

a) Film Thickness

Layer	Theoretical calculation (nm)	Experimental (nm)	% Error	Linewidths (photoresist) (nm)	Linewidths (after PR Strip) (nm)	% Overetch
Field Oxide	505.8	477.2	5.65	2000	3000	50
Polysilicon	?	?	?	3628	4000	10
Gate Oxide	80.1	86.5	7.40	3628	4000	10
Intermed Oxide	386.3	320	17.2	2749	1869	47
Aluminum	800	?	?	2088	2520	21

b) Sheet Resistance

Layer	Sheet Resistance (Ω/sqr)	Surface concentration (??)
ACTV after Field Oxidation	530	?
Polysilicon	?	?
ACTV after Pre-Dep	5	?
ACTV after Drive-In	8	?
Metal	?	?

c) Overetch

Layer	Measured Linewidth (nm)	% Overetch	Theoretical etch time (min)	Actual etch time (min)	% Overetch
Field Oxide	3000	50	4.8	6	25
Polysilicon	4000	10	1.6	~ 2.25	41
Gate Oxide	4000	10	0.87	0.83	4.6
Intermed Oxide	1869	47	3.2	4.5	41
Aluminum	2520	21	1.4	~ 5	360

1) Theoretical and experimental thicknesses of field oxide, gate and intermediate oxides (Include orientation dependence of oxidation rate but not impurity dependence) (9 points)

For details on the theoretical oxide thickness calculations see Appendix 5.1.

Layer	Theoretical (nm)	Experimental (nm)	% Error
Field Oxide	505.8	477.2	5.65
Gate Oxide	80.1	86.5	7.40
Intermed Oxide	386.3	320	17.2

2) Junction depths after pre-diffusion and drive-in (theoretical, assume only phosphorous doping with surface concentration limited by solid solubility). You must consider the effect of the initial ion implantation. For pre-deposition you may use the box approximation, but for drive-in you must use the half-gaussian calculation. Why is this? (10 points)

For details on the junction depth calculations see Appendix 5.2. Also the reason we use a box approximation for the pre-diffusion is because we have a constant source profile. However, for drive-in we now have source-limited diffusion.

Step	Junction Depth (nm)
Pre-diffusion	365
Drive-in	1000

3) test

test

4) Plot or sketch the change of dopant profile from the silicon surface through the source-drain after each thermal step. Quantitatively label significant points such as Peak concentration, Peak Width, Junction Depth. Show movement of the Silicon-Silicon Dioxide interface and qualitatively show non-ideal effects such as dopant redistribution during oxidation. (11 points)

The profiles were all created in Tsuprem-4 using the EE143 process flow.

- Field Oxidation

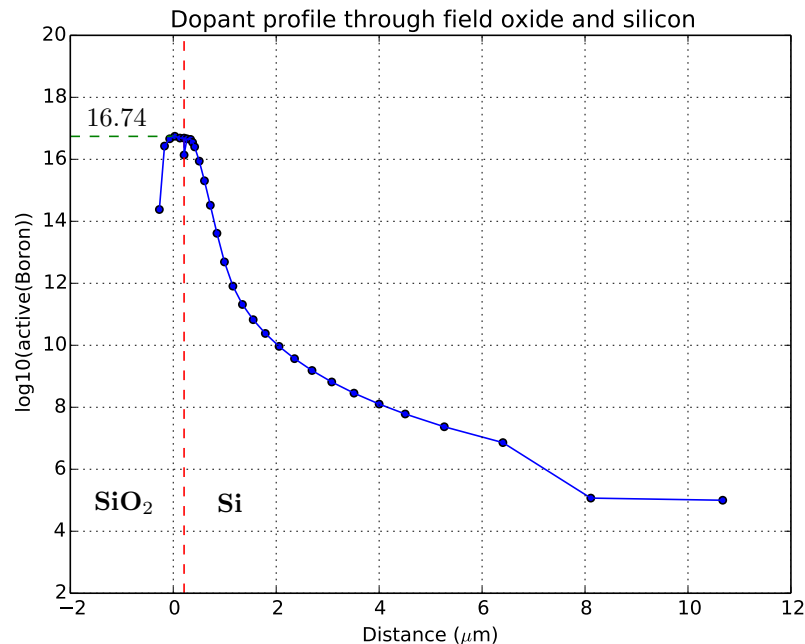


Figure 1: Dopant profile with only field oxide. The Si-SiO_2 interface occurs at $0.2104 \mu\text{m}$. There was about 500 nm of field oxide deposited here. The peak concentration is roughly $10^{16.74}$.

- Gate Oxidation

5) test

test

- 6) List an estimate of the Young's modulus, Poisson ratio, and coefficient of thermalexpansion for SiO₂, poly-Si, and Al films as deposited. (You can find these in a table in many physics/ME textbooks, or in a web-based search.) (2 points)

See table below

Material	Young's modulus (GPa)	coeff. of thermal expansion (K^{-1})	Poisson's ratio (a.u.)
SiO ₂ [3]	57(dry)-70(wet)	$5.6 \cdot 10^{-7}$	0.17
poly-Si [2]	169 ± 6.15	$4.6 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$0.22 \pm .011$
Aluminum [4]	70	$22.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$	0.33

Figure 2: Values were found from various journals/articles found online ([2],[3], and[4]) and many of these values are calculated for thin films of the material.

4 Questions

- 1) What type of photoresist (positive or negative? I-line or G-line?) do we use in the lab? What do I-line and G-line refer to? Briefly describe how the resist responds to the process steps like spinning, UV light exposure and development.

The lab uses positive photoresist. The lithography machine uses a light that has g line wavelength. The I and G lines refer to the wavelength of the light coming off the light bulb that reacts with the photoresist. G line is roughly 436nm wavelength and I line is 365nm wavelength. Photoresist is spun onto the wafer to spread it evenly over the wafer, but extreme topology and surface debris can cause excess PR in some areas and deficient PR in others. When exposed to UV light, the photo-sensitive part of the polymer activates changing it into an organic acid, whereas unexposed PR remains unchanged. When dipped into the PR developer, the organic acid form of the PR dissolves whereas the polymer form remains on the wafer, leaving a layer PR that masks certain areas of the wafer.

- 2) What is the purpose of baking the wafers at 120 °C before depositing HMDS? What is the purpose of the 90 °C bake after spinning on photoresist? What happens if the soft bake is too hot and too long (say 120 °C, 5 minutes)?

The purpose of baking the wafers at 120°C before depositing HMDS is to remove excess environmental moisture that has accumulated on the wafer. The purpose of the 90°C bake after spinning on photoresist is to evaporate the solvent and make it less sticky. If the soft bake is too long, the photoactive component of the PR may start to decompose and the PR may become less soluble in the developer.

- 3) What is the purpose of hard bake? What happens if we skip this step? What may happen if the bake is done at a temperature above 120 °C (say 200 °C)?

The purpose of the hard bake is to cross-polymerize the PR, making it less permeable to chemicals, more adhesive, and physically harder. If this step is skipped, subsequent etching and similar steps have a chance of penetrating the PR, making the mask meaningless. If the bake is done at a temperature above 120°C, the PR will start to become brittle, resulting in cracks that would also make the masking step meaningless.

- 4) We do lithography steps under yellow light only. What is the consequence if we expose the wafers to fluorescent light before development? What if we expose them to fluorescent light after development? Would red light damage your process?

If the fluorescent light happens to be near the wavelength of the g-line, it will react with the photoresist and make it soluble. Since there is no mask over the wafer at that time, it will make all the photoresist soluble which will cause the developer to remove all the photoresist. If it were exposed after development, it will still make the remaining photoresist soluble, but since we have already done development, there is no risk of the remaining photoresist coming off (unless we were to dip it in the developer again).

- 5) What are the differences between wet and dry oxidation that lead us to use one for the gate oxide and one for the field/intermediate oxide? What is the purpose of annealing in nitrogen after oxidation?

Wet oxidation has a higher growth rate but a tendency to create dangling bonds and a lower density oxide, making it more suitable for the thick field/intermediate oxide. Dry oxidation is much slower but creates a higher density oxide with fewer dangling bonds, making it more suitable for creating the thin gate oxide that is critical in device performance. The purpose of annealing in nitrogen is to allow the silicon atoms to diffuse and repair damage done by oxidization.

- 6) How do you determine etching time using theoretical etch rate in literature? List two ways to determine etch time empirically from lab measurements, when you etch the layers. (Hint: these methods include visual cues.). How close are the experimental and the theoretically calculated values?
- 7) Before n+ deposition (prior to SOG spinning), we clean in Piranha but not in HF. Before gate oxidation, we clean in both. Why the difference?
For n+ deposition, we are depositing PSG (a phosphate-doped oxide) on top of the wafer for diffusion. The presence of a native oxide on the surface serves as a barrier material between the PSG and the silicon, preventing unwanted inter-diffusion effects. However, for growing a high-quality gate oxide, the poor-quality native oxide will adversely affect results, thus it must be removed with an HF dip.
- 8) Why is 5:1 BHF (5:1 $\text{NH}_4\text{F}:\text{HF}$) used for etching features in the oxide while 10:1 BHF is used for cleaning and spin-on-glass stripping? Why buffered HF?
We use buffered HF because normal HF etches way too quickly and tends to peel off photoresist as well. Using buffered HF allows for more controllable and constant etching which allows for good process control. According to the process flow, spin on glass etches at 470 nm/sec in 10:1 BHF while thermally grown oxide etches at 100nm/sec in 5:1 BHF. If we had used 5:1 BHF for the spin on glass, it would etch way too quickly and be difficult to control.
- 9) What would happen if we skipped the HF dip before metallization?
Skipping the HF dip before metallization would result in a thin layer of native oxide at the Al-Si interface, causing poor contact with the devices on the wafer.
- 10) What is etch selectivity?
Etch selectivity is the relative difference in etch rates for given materials on the wafer. Ideally, the etch should be highly selective towards the material to be etched and thus etch it the fastest whereas other material, like the PR, should etch much more slowly.
- 11) Why do we first use the roughing pump and then the diffusion pump when pumping down the aluminum deposition system? Why must the foreline pressure be kept below 100 mTorr?
- 12) What is the Al etchant composed of? What happens if you use it at room temperature? What is the purpose of sintering? What will result if sintering step is skipped? What happens if sintering temperature is too hot or too low?
Al etchant has a composition of 80% Phosphoric acid, 10% H_2 , 5% acetic acid, and 5% nitric acid. It etches much more slowly at room temperature than at 50 degC. Sintering allows the aluminum and silicon to interdiffuse, resulting in a good contact, as well as allowing hydrogen to diffuse into the oxide and tie up dangling bonds. If the sintering step is skipped, the contact may be poor. If the sintering temperature is too hot, the eutectic Al-Si system will melt. If the sintering temperature is too low, the contact resistance between the aluminum and silicon will be too high.
- 13) Briefly explain the mechanism of XeF_2 etching. Is the etch isotropic or anisotropic? In an integrated CMOS/MEMS process, is there any consequence to using KOH instead of XeF_2 for etch?
 XeF_2 gas is absorbed by the silicon surface, where it breaks down into xenon and fluoride gas. The fluoride gas reacts with the silicon to form SiF_2 gas, and both the xenon and SiF_2 gas are released back into the air. XeF_2 etching is isotropic. Using KOH as an etchant instead of XeF_2 has two consequences. First, it is anisotropic and therefore less efficient at undercutting the beam. Secondly, it is a wet etch and liquid etchants can cause the freed structure to stick to the substrate.
- 14) . What would happen if a thick oxide film was left on the wafers as it went into the XeF_2 etching step?
Since XeF_2 is highly selective against SiO_2 , the structure would not be freed as the etchant would not be able to etch through the oxide film to the silicon below.
- 15) Identify two of the 11 major processing steps that are unnecessary to fabricate a functional oxide cantilever beam. Why are they unnecessary?
Gate oxidation and S/D deposition are unnecessary to fabricating a functional oxide cantilever beam. The cantilever requires no gate so any gate oxide grown during this step must later be removed, and doping plays no part in the functioning of a cantilever device, so S/D deposition can also be skipped.

5 Appendix

5.1 Oxide Thickness calculations

Film thickness calculation for oxides:

$$X_{ox} = \frac{0.5B}{B/A} \left[\sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{B} \left(\frac{B}{A} \right)^2 (t + \tau) - 1} \right] \quad (1)$$

$$\tau = \frac{X_i^2}{B} + \frac{X_i}{B/A} \quad (2)$$

where

$$B/A = D_o e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}} \text{ (Use table 3.1 [1] to find } E_a \text{ and } D_o)$$

$$B = D_o e^{\frac{-E_a}{kT}} \text{ (Use table 3.1 [1] to find } E_a \text{ and } D_o)$$

t = Time of oxide growth

τ = Time of initial oxide growth already present

X_i = length of initial oxide growth

Example: Calculated oxide thickness of Intermed Oxide:

Given: 5 min dry oxidation at 1050°C and 12 + 25 min wet oxidation annealing at 1050°C, calculate oxide growth.

First we consider the 5 min dry oxidation. Using table 3.1 [1] for a < 100 > Silicon, and using dry oxidation, we see that for the linear rate constant (B/A), $E_A = 2.00$ eV and $D_o = 3.71 \times 10^6 \mu\text{m/hr}$. For the parabolic rate constant (B), $E_A = 1.23$ eV and $D_o = 772 \mu\text{m/hr}$.

Using an arrhenius equation where k = Boltzmann's constant, and T = temperature.

$$B/A = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} = 3.71 \times 10^6 e^{\frac{-2.00 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23} (1050^\circ\text{C} + 273)}} = 0.0887 \mu\text{m/hr}$$

$$B = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} = 772 e^{\frac{-1.23 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23} (1050^\circ\text{C} + 273)}} = 0.0159 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{hr}$$

Since there is no initial oxide here, $\tau = 0$,

$$X_{ox} = \frac{0.5B}{B/A} \left[\sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{B} \left(\frac{B}{A} \right)^2 (t + \tau) - 1} \right] = \frac{0.5(0.0159)}{0.0887} \left[\sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{0.0159} (0.0887)^2 \left(\frac{5\text{min}}{60\text{min/hr}} + 0 \right) - 1} \right] \approx 7.11 \text{ nm}$$

Now after this dry oxidation, we have a 37 minute wet oxidation at 1050°C. Using table 3.1 [1] again, but this time using the constants that apply for wet oxidation,

$$B/A_{\text{wet}} = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} = 9.70 \times 10^7 e^{\frac{-2.05 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23} (1050^\circ\text{C} + 273)}} = 1.50 \mu\text{m/hr}$$

$$B_{\text{wet}} = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} = 386 e^{\frac{-0.78 \times 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23} (1050^\circ\text{C} + 273)}} = 0.411 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{hr}$$

This time we do have an initial oxidation time τ because of the dry oxidation we did in the previous step. Here X_i is the oxide length we calculated for the dry oxidation growth,

$$\tau = \frac{X_i^2}{B_{\text{wet}}} + \frac{X_i}{B/A_{\text{wet}}} = \frac{0.00711^2}{0.411} + \frac{0.00711}{1.50} \approx 0.00488 \text{ hrs}$$

And finally our oxide growth is,

$$X_{ox} = \frac{0.5B}{B/A} \left[\sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{B} \left(\frac{B}{A} \right)^2 (t + \tau) - 1} \right] = \frac{0.5(0.411)}{1.50} \left[\sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{0.411} (1.50)^2 \left(\frac{(12 + 25)\text{min}}{60\text{min/hr}} + 0.00488 \text{ hrs} \right) - 1} \right] \approx 386.3 \text{ nm}$$

5.2 Junction Depth Calculations

Junction depth calculation for box approximation (limited-source diffusion):

$$x_j = 2\sqrt{Dt \ln(N_o/N_B)} \quad (3)$$

and for a half gaussian (constant-source diffusion):

$$x_j = 2\sqrt{Dt} \operatorname{erfc}^{-1}(N_B/N_o) \quad (4)$$

where,

$$D = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} \text{ (Diffusion coefficient)}$$

t = time of diffusion

N_B = Background impurity concentration

N_o = Surface concentration limited by solid solubility

Example: Calculate the junction depth after pre-diffusion and drive in.

According to the process flow [5], our silicon wafer has a resistivity of about 14-16 ohm-cm. From the same process flow we know that we had a phosphorus doped, solid solubility limited constant diffusion at 1050°C. Using figure 4.6 [1] we see that at a temperature of 1050°C our phosphorus surface concentration $N_o \approx 10^{21}/\text{cm}^3$. Now using the Resistivity of our wafer and figure 4.8 [1], we see that we have an impurity concentration $N_B \approx 8 \times 10^{14}/\text{cm}^3$.

Using table 4.1 [1], we can calculate our diffusion coefficient. Note that pre-diffusion was done at 1050°C for 5 minutes.

$$D = D_o e^{\frac{-E_A}{kT}} = 10.5 \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec} \exp\left(\frac{-3.69 * 1.602 \times 10^{-19}}{1.38 \times 10^{-23}(1050 + 273)}\right) = 9.11 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$$

Now we can plug everything into our solid solubility limited box approximation equation:

$$x_j = 2\sqrt{Dt} \operatorname{erfc}^{-1}(N_B/N_o) = 2\sqrt{(9.11 \times 10^{-14})(300\text{sec})} \operatorname{erfc}^{-1}(8 \times 10^{14}/10^{21}) \approx 365 \text{ nm}$$

Now for drive-in we kept the temperature the same, 1050°C, but kept the wafer inside the furnace for 37 minutes (2220 seconds). Also we can no longer assume a simple box approximation, we must use a half gaussian; this means that our surface concentration is going to change with drive-in.

We will use the following equation,

$$N_B = (Q/\sqrt{\pi D_2 t_2}) \exp\left(-\left(\frac{x_j}{2\sqrt{D_2 t_2}}\right)^2\right) \quad (5)$$

where Q is the dose rate,

$$Q = 2N_o \sqrt{D_1 t_1 / \pi} \quad (6)$$

Combining the two equations and noting that $D_1 = D_2$ because we are using the same temperature, 1050°C, for both pre-diffusion and drive-in (t_1 is the pre-diffusion time and t_2 is the drive in time),

$$N_B = (2N_o/\pi) \sqrt{\frac{t_1}{t_2}} \exp\left(-\left(\frac{x_j}{2\sqrt{D_2 t_2}}\right)^2\right)$$

Solving this for x_j yields,

$$x_j = 2\sqrt{D_2 t_2 \ln\left((2N_o/\pi N_B)(\sqrt{t_1/t_2})\right)} = 2\sqrt{(9.11 \times 10^{-14})(2220) \ln\left((2(10^{21})/\pi(8 \times 10^{14}))(\sqrt{300/2220})\right)} \approx 1000 \text{ nm}$$

5.3 Dopant Profiles.

- Field Oxide

According to the EE143 process flow, There was an initial blanket implant of B11 3E12cm⁻³ on our < 100 > wafer. Also our wafer had a resistivity of 14-16cm which corresponds to a background concentration of about 8E14cm⁻³. Now for the field oxide, we used 5-80-5 minute dry,wet,dry oxidation to create about 500 nm of oxide. Putting all this information into Tsuprem-4 generates the plot in Figure 1.

Script file:

```

$ field oxide

$ Initialization
Initialize <100> material=silicon Phosphorus=8e14 width=1.5 dX=0.005

$ Blanket implant here
Implant B11 Energy=60 Dose=3e12

$ 5-80-5 oxidation
Diffusion Time=5 Temperature=1000 DryO2
Diffusion Time=80 CONTINUE Temperature=1000 WetO2
Diffusion Time=5 CONTINUE Temperature=1000 DryO2

$ plotting
Select z=log10(active(boron))
Plot.1d
Print.1d

```

- Gate Oxide

6 References

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