

VLSI Design EE 523

Spring 2025

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Lecture 2

Topics in today's lecture

- Fabrication Steps
 - Wafer preparation, Lithography, Diffusion, Chemical Vapor Deposition, e-beam ion implantation, masking, etching, slicing, packaging, testing, etc.
- PN junction
 - Diffusion, drift, depletion region, barrier voltage, junction capacitance, VI characteristics
- MOS transistor construction
 - Enhancement and Depletion type MOS transistors

Periodic table – semiconductor, p and n type

DONOR IMPURITIES

VERSUS

ACCEPTOR IMPURITIES

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DONOR IMPURITIES

Donor impurities inject extra electrons into the semiconductor crystal lattice due to having an excess of valence electrons compared to the host material

Introduce excess electrons that can move through the material

Introduce energy levels within the band gap near the conduction band

Elements found in group V of the periodic table commonly function as donor impurities

ACCEPTOR IMPURITIES

Acceptor impurities generate "holes" or gaps within the valence band of the semiconductor lattice by possessing fewer valence electrons than the host material

Create holes that can also carry a charge

Introduce energy levels near the valence band

Elements in group III usually serve as acceptor impurities

Periodic table of the elements

Electrons in shells:

2, 8, 18,....

		<div>2, 8, 18,....</div>																		
group 1*		<div>Alkali metals</div>										<div>Halogens</div>								
		<div>Alkaline-earth metals</div>										<div>Noble gases</div>								
		<div>Transition metals</div>										<div>Rare-earth elements (21, 39, 57–71) and lanthanoid elements (57–71 only)</div>								
		<div>Other metals</div>										<div>Actinoid elements</div>								
		<div>Other nonmetals</div>																		
period	1																			2
1	1																			2
	H																			He
2	3	4																	10	
	Li	Be																	Ne	
3	11	12													13	14	15	16	17	18
	Na	Mg													Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar
4	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36		
	K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr		
5	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54		
	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe		
6	55	56	57	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86		
	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn		
7	87	88	89	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118		
	Fr	Ra	Ac	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rg	Cn	Nh	Fl	Mc	Lv	Ts	Og		

lanthanoid series 6

actinoid series 7

58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71
Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103
Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr

- **P type semiconductor** (holes) is doped with B, Al, or In; 3 el in Outermost valence shell
- **N type semiconductor** (electrons) is doped with P, As, Sb (antimony) 5 el in outermost valence shell

*Numbering system adopted by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC).

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Silicon - Semiconductor

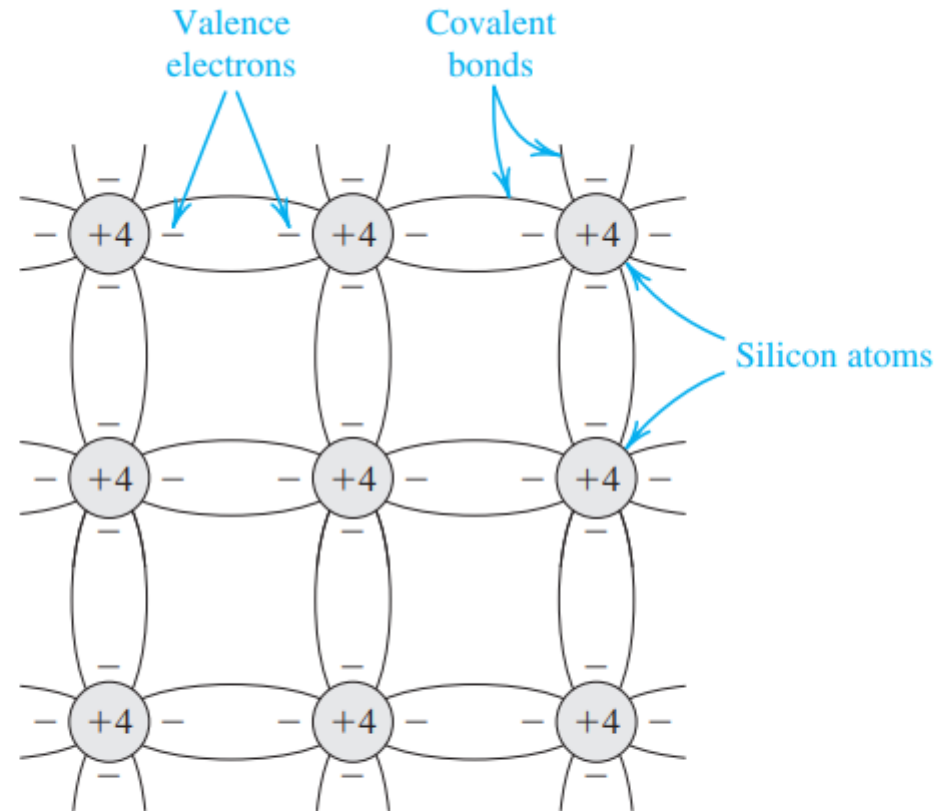


Figure 3.1 Two-dimensional representation of the silicon crystal. The circles represent the inner core of silicon atoms, with +4 indicating its positive charge of $+4q$, which is neutralized by the charge of the four valence electrons. Observe how the covalent bonds are formed by sharing of the valence electrons. At 0 K, all bonds are intact and no free electrons are available for current conduction.

Donor Impurity – n type

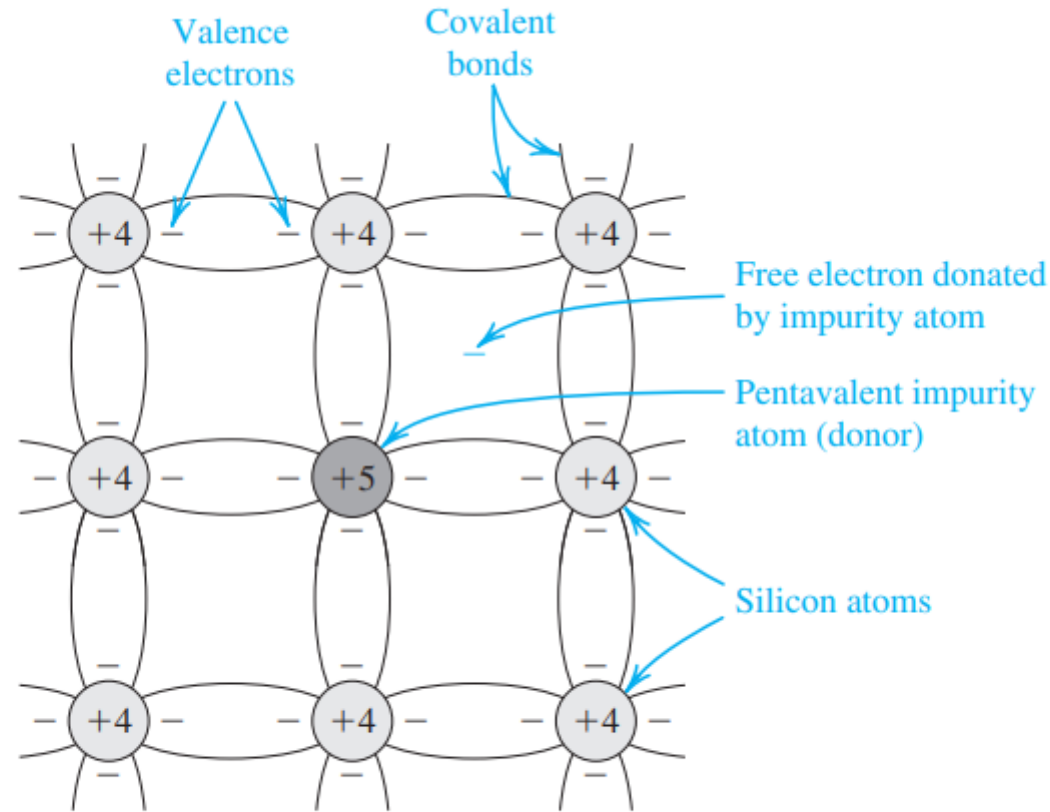


Figure 3.3 A silicon crystal doped by a pentavalent element. Each dopant atom donates a free electron and is thus called a donor. The doped semiconductor becomes *n* type.

Acceptor Impurity – p type

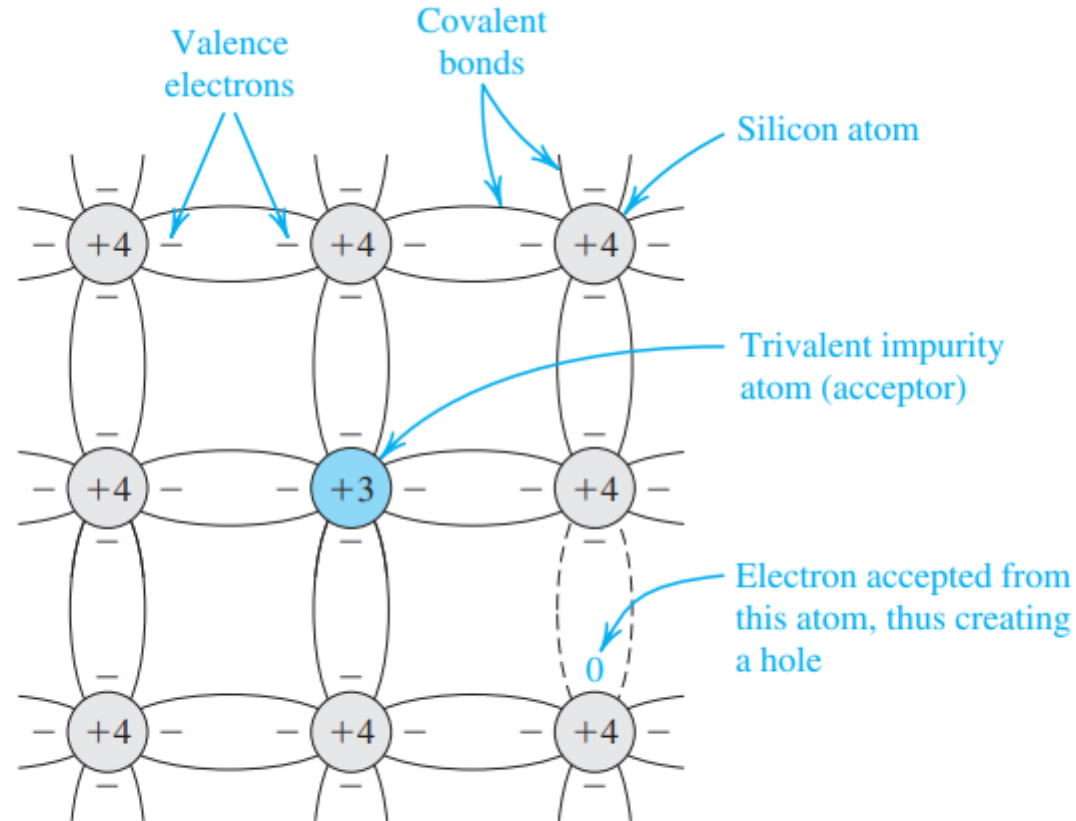


Figure 3.4 A silicon crystal doped with boron, a trivalent impurity. Each dopant atom gives rise to a hole, and the semiconductor becomes *p* type.

pn junction

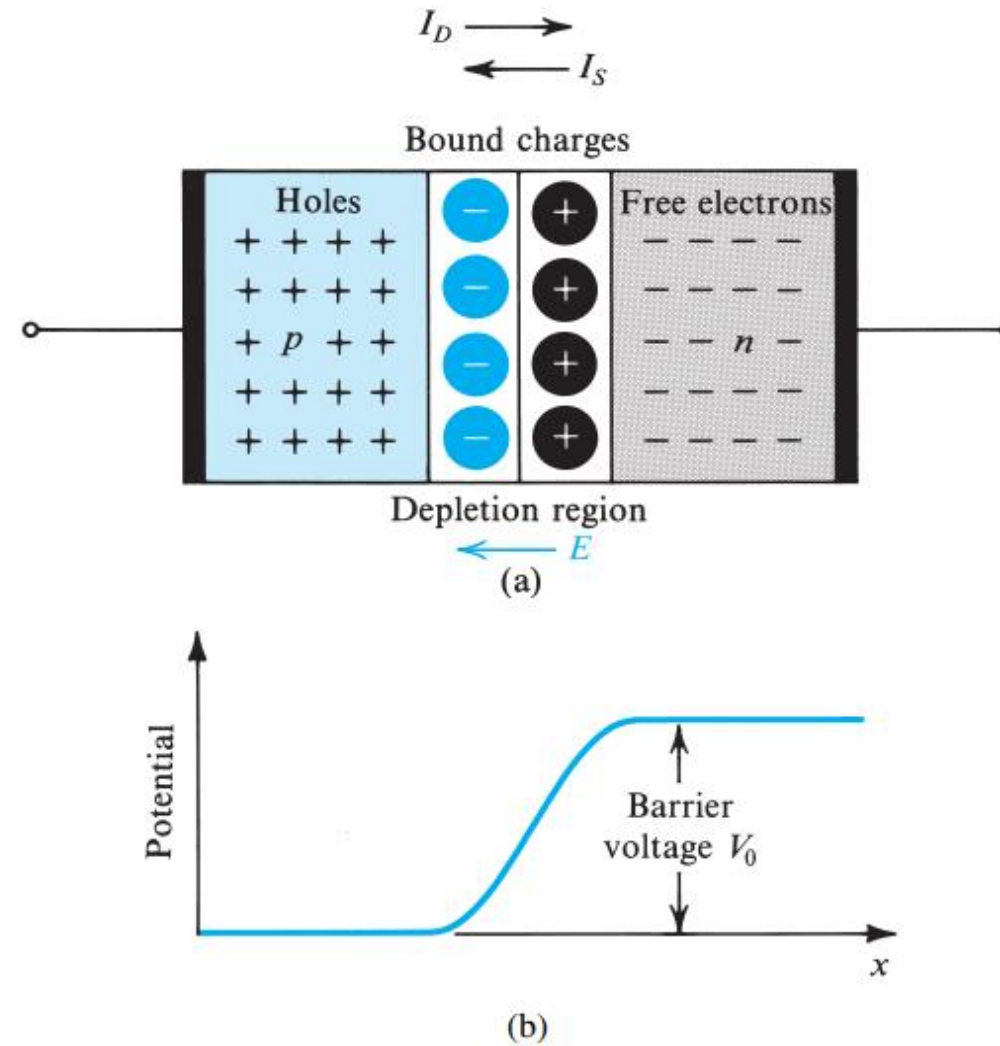


Figure 3.9 (a) The *pn* junction with no applied voltage (open-circuited terminals). (b) The potential distribution along an axis perpendicular to the junction.

Bias voltage in pn junction

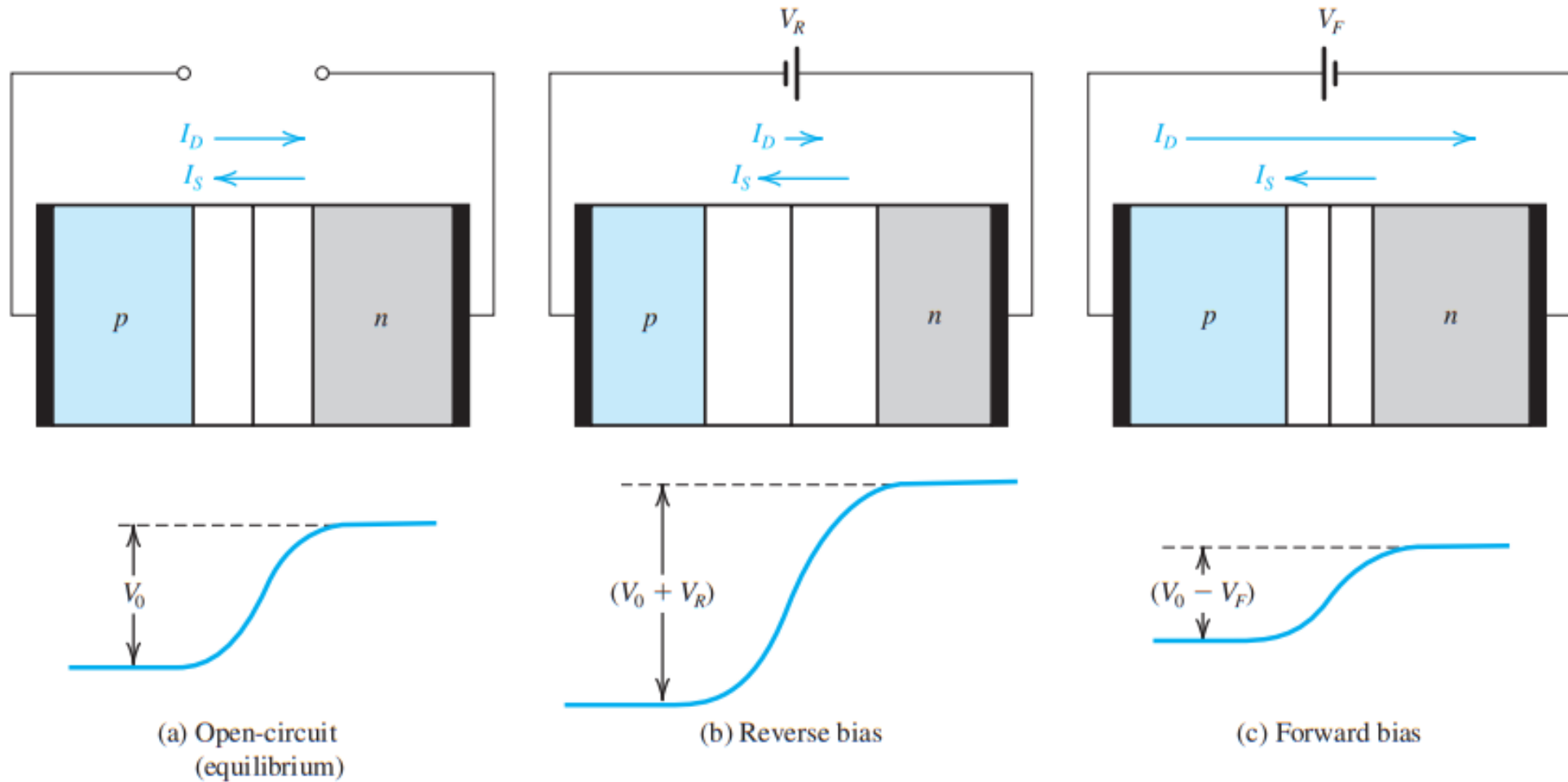


Figure 3.11 The pn junction in: (a) equilibrium; (b) reverse bias; (c) forward bias.

Diode Equations 1

Ref: Electronics book by
Sedra / Smith

Table 3.1 Summary of Important Equations		
Quantity	Relationship	Values of Constants and Parameters (for Intrinsic Si at $T = 300$ K)
Carrier concentration in intrinsic silicon (cm^{-3})	$n_i = BT^{-3/2} e^{-E_g/2kT}$	$B = 7.3 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ K}^{-3/2}$ $E_g = 1.12 \text{ eV}$ $k = 8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K}$ $n_i = 1.5 \times 10^{10} / \text{cm}^3$
Diffusion current density (A/cm^2)	$J_p = -qD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$ $J_n = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$	$q = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ coulomb}$ $D_p = 12 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ $D_n = 34 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$
Drift current density (A/cm^2)	$J_{\text{drift}} = q(p\mu_p + n\mu_n)E$	$\mu_p = 480 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s}$ $\mu_n = 1350 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s}$
Resistivity ($\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$)	$\rho = 1/[q(p\mu_p + n\mu_n)]$	μ_p and μ_n decrease with the increase in doping concentration
Relationship between mobility and diffusivity	$\frac{D_n}{\mu_n} = \frac{D_p}{\mu_p} = V_T$	$V_T = kT/q \simeq 25.9 \text{ mV}$
Carrier concentration in n -type silicon (cm^{-3})	$n_{n0} \simeq N_D$ $p_{n0} = n_i^2/N_D$	
Carrier concentration in p -type silicon (cm^{-3})	$p_{p0} \simeq N_A$ $n_{p0} = n_i^2/N_A$	
Junction built-in voltage (V)	$V_0 = V_T \ln\left(\frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}\right)$	
Width of depletion region (cm)	$\frac{x_n}{x_p} = \frac{N_A}{N_D}$ $W = x_n + x_p$ $= \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s}{q} \left(\frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_D} \right) (V_0 + V_R)}$	$\epsilon_s = 11.7\epsilon_0$ $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm}$

Diode Equations 2

Table 3.1 continued

Quantity	Relationship	Values of Constants and Parameters (for Intrinsic Si at $T = 300$ K)
Charge stored in depletion layer (coulomb)	$Q_J = q \frac{N_A N_D}{N_A + N_D} AW$	
Forward current (A)	$I = I_p + I_n$ $I_p = Aqn_i^2 \frac{D_p}{L_p N_D} (e^{V/V_T} - 1)$ $I_n = Aqn_i^2 \frac{D_n}{L_n N_A} (e^{V/V_T} - 1)$	
Saturation current (A)	$I_S = Aqn_i^2 \left(\frac{D_p}{L_p N_D} + \frac{D_n}{L_n N_A} \right)$	
I - V relationship	$I = I_S (e^{V/V_T} - 1)$	
Minority-carrier lifetime (s)	$\tau_p = L_p^2/D_p \quad \tau_n = L_n^2/D_n$	$L_p, L_n = 1 \mu\text{m to } 100 \mu\text{m}$ $\tau_p, \tau_n = 1 \text{ ns to } 10^4 \text{ ns}$
Minority-carrier charge storage (coulomb)	$Q_p = \tau_p I_p \quad Q_n = \tau_n I_n$ $Q = Q_p + Q_n = \tau_T I$	
Depletion capacitance (F)	$C_{j0} = A \sqrt{\left(\frac{\epsilon_s q}{2} \right) \left(\frac{N_A N_D}{N_A + N_D} \right) \frac{1}{V_0}}$ $C_j = C_{j0} / \left(1 + \frac{V_R}{V_0} \right)^m$	$m = \frac{1}{3} \text{ to } \frac{1}{2}$
Diffusion capacitance (F)	$C_d = \left(\frac{\tau_T}{V_T} \right) I$	

Silicon Crystal, Wafers and Defects

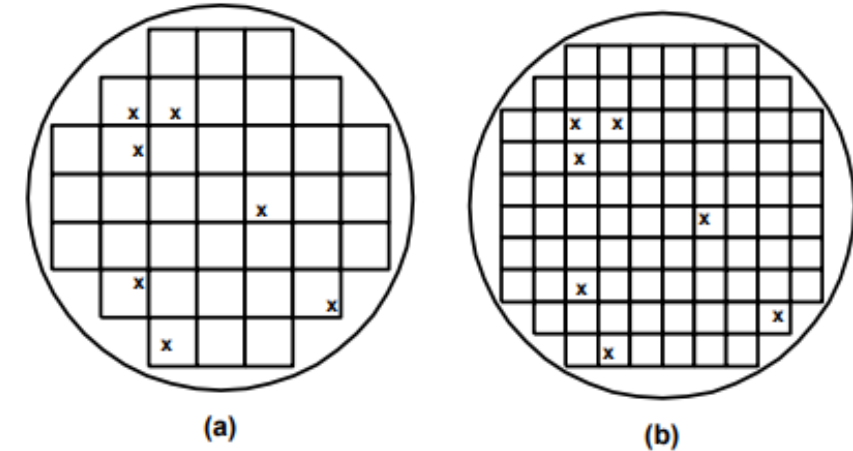
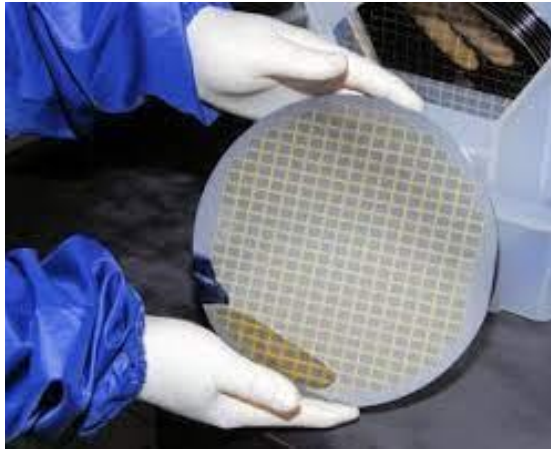
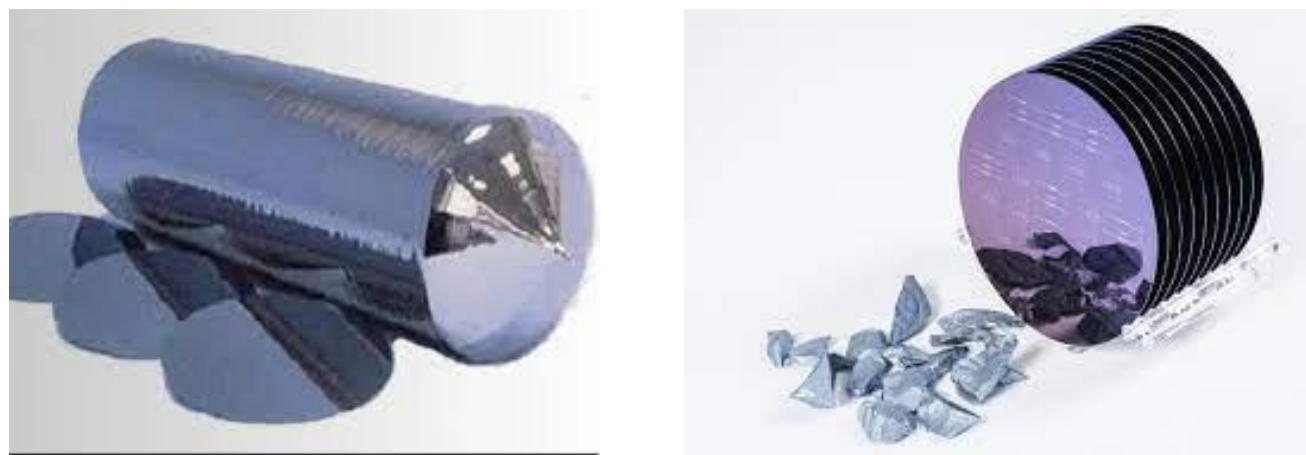


FIGURE 1.50
Effect of die size on yield. Both wafers have the same number and distribution of defects. For wafer (a) the yield is 81%, whereas for wafer (b) the yield is 92%.

The yield is a function of the wafer defect density and the die size. Assuming that a single defect results in a nonworking circuit, larger die* will result in a lower yield, even for the same defect density and distribution, as shown in Figure 1.50. The identically sized wafers have the same number and distribution of defects. The wafer on the left has 7 bad die out of a total of 37; the yield is $30/37$, or 81%. The wafer on the right with a smaller die size also has 7 bad die, but the yield is $81/88$, or 92%. A yield of 92% is economically viable, but 81% is probably not.

Die yield

Section 1.3 Quality Metrics of a Digital Design

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$$\text{die yield} = \left(1 + \frac{\text{defects per unit area} \times \text{die area}}{\alpha} \right)^{-\alpha} \quad (1.4)$$

α is a parameter that depends upon the complexity of the manufacturing process, and is roughly proportional to the number of masks. $\alpha = 3$ is a good estimate for today's complex CMOS processes. The defects per unit area is a measure of the material and process induced faults. A value between 0.5 and 1 defects/cm² is typical these days, but depends strongly upon the maturity of the process.

Example 1.3 Die Yield

Assume a wafer size of 12 inch, a die size of 2.5 cm², 1 defects/cm², and $\alpha = 3$. Determine the die yield of this CMOS process run.

The number of dies per wafer can be estimated with the following expression, which takes into account the lost dies around the perimeter of the wafer.

$$\text{dies per wafer} = \frac{\pi \times (\text{wafer diameter}/2)^2}{\text{die area}} - \frac{\pi \times \text{wafer diameter}}{\sqrt{2} \times \text{die area}}$$

This means 252 (= 296 - 44) potentially operational dies for this particular example. The die yield can be computed with the aid of Eq. (1.4), and equals 16%! This means that on the average only 40 of the dies will be fully functional.

Basic CMOS building blocks

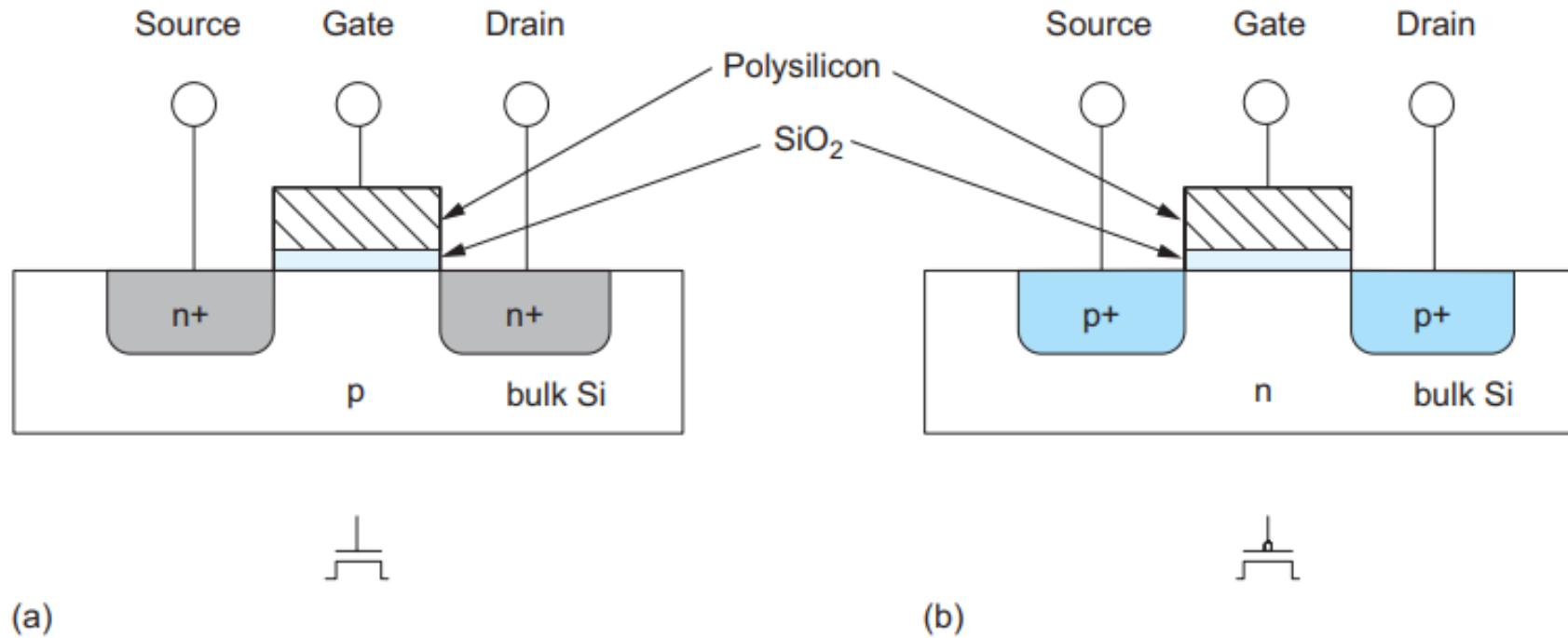


FIGURE 1.9 nMOS transistor (a) and pMOS transistor (b)

Transistors as switches

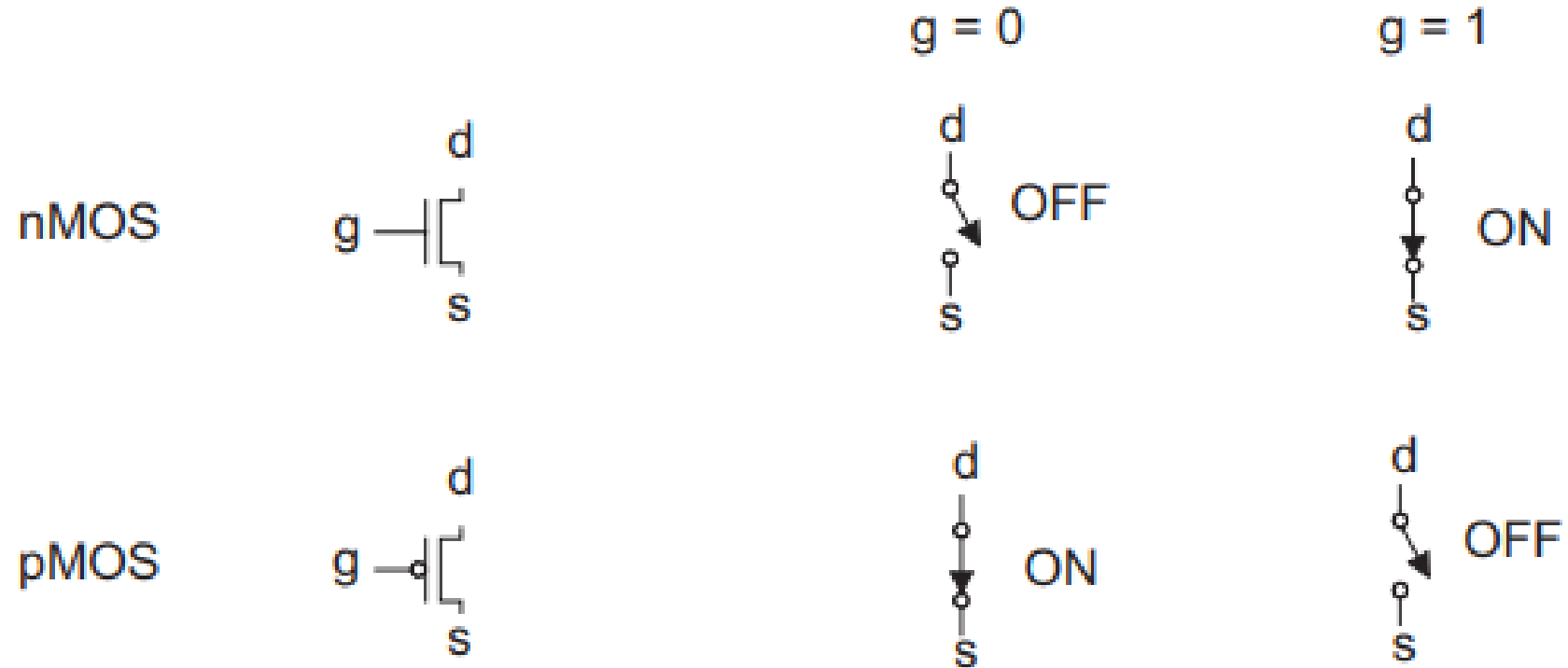


FIGURE 1.10 Transistor symbols and switch-level models

Different views of chip design

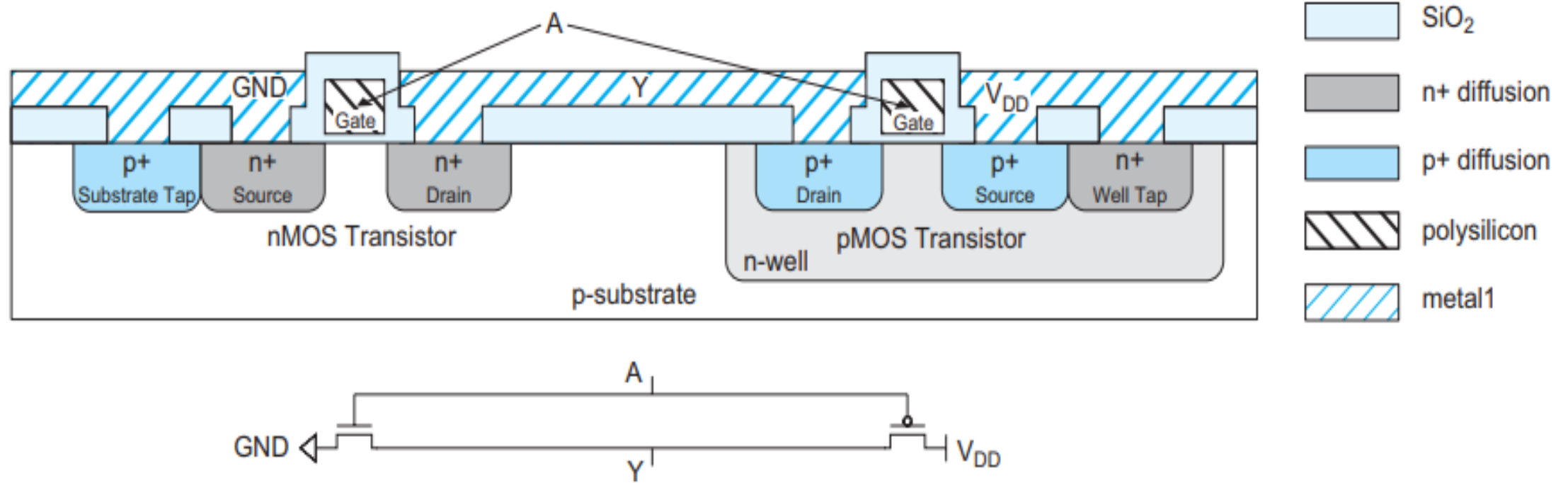


FIGURE 1.34 Inverter cross-section with well and substrate contacts. Color version on inside front cover.

Domains of VLSI chip design

1.6.3 Behavioral, Structural, and Physical Domains

An alternative way of viewing design partitioning is shown with the Y-chart shown in Figure 1.48 [Gajski83, Kang03]. The radial lines on the Y-chart represent three distinct design domains: behavioral, structural, and physical. These domains can be used to describe the design of almost any artifact and thus form a general taxonomy for describing

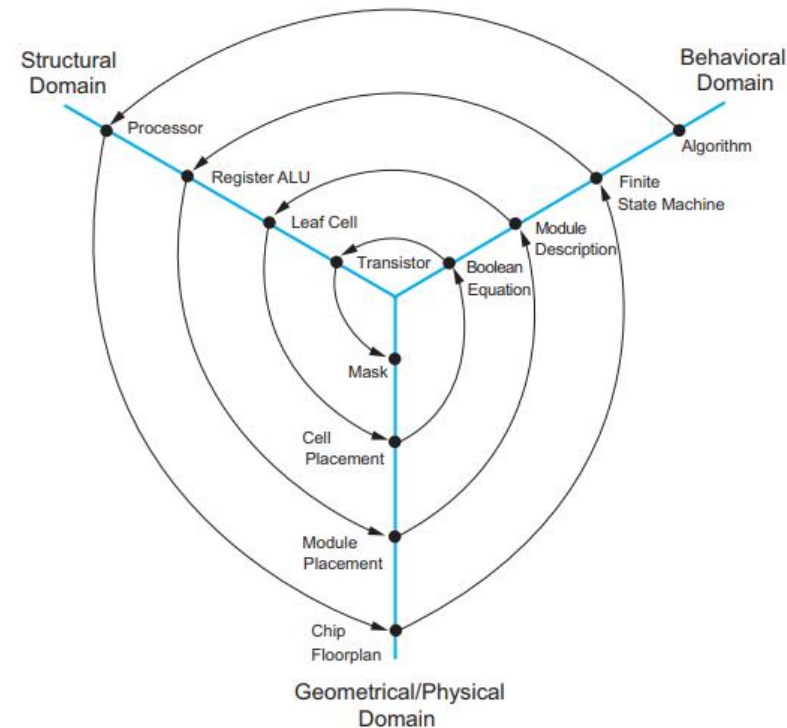


FIGURE 1.48 Y Diagram (Reproduced from [Kang03] with permission of The McGraw-Hill Companies.)

⁵Some designers refer to both units and functional blocks as *modules*.

Chip Manufacturing Process

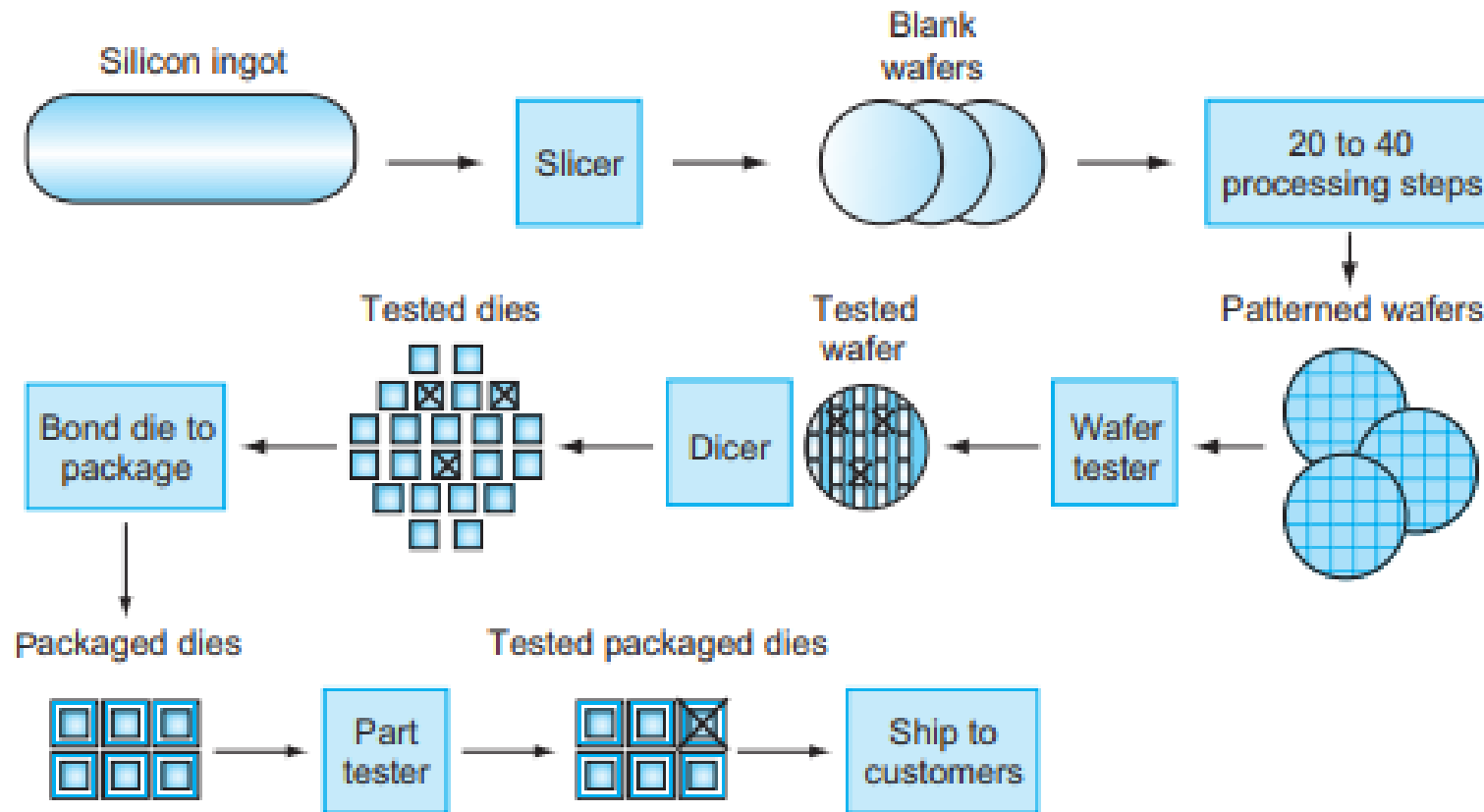


FIGURE 1.12 The chip manufacturing process. After being sliced from the silicon ingot, blank wafers are put through 20 to 40 steps to create patterned wafers (see Figure 1.13). These patterned wafers are then tested with a wafer tester, and a map of the good parts is made. Then, the wafers are diced into dies (see Figure 1.9). In this figure, one wafer produced 20 dies, of which 17 passed testing. (X means the die is bad.) The yield of good dies in this case was 17/20, or 85%. These good dies are then bonded into packages and tested one more time before shipping the packaged parts to customers. One bad packaged part was found in this final test.

Diode Calculations

Example 3.1

Determine the built-in potential, depletion width, and zero-bias depletion capacitance for an n⁺-p Si diode at 300 K, with $N_d = 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $N_a = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, and a junction area of 10^{-5} cm^2 .

Solution. The built-in potential is

$$V_{bi} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left(\frac{N_a N_d}{n_i^2} \right) = (0.0259 \text{ V}) \ln \left(\frac{(10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3})(10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3})}{(1.45 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3})^2} \right) = 0.816 \text{ V}.$$

Diodes

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The depletion width is almost entirely on the p-type side and is

$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s V_{bi}}{qN_a}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(11.9)(8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm})(0.816 \text{ V})}{(1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})(10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3})}} \\ = 0.33 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm} = 0.33 \text{ } \mu\text{m}.$$

The zero-bias depletion capacitance is

$$C_T = \frac{\epsilon_s A}{W} = \frac{(11.9)(8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm})(10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2)}{0.33 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}} = 0.32 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F} = 0.32 \text{ pF}.$$