

# Wafer (1A)

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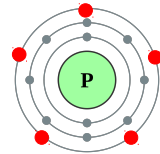
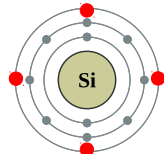
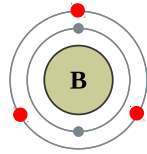
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# Periodic Table

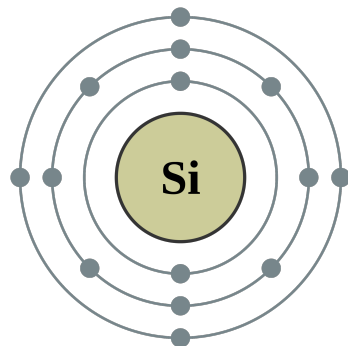
Group → ↓ Period	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1	1 H																		2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be												5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 Na	12 Mg												13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr	
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe	
6	55 Cs	56 Ba		72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn	
7	87 Fr	88 Ra		104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113 Uut	114 Fl	115 Uup	116 Lv	117 Uus	118 Uuo	



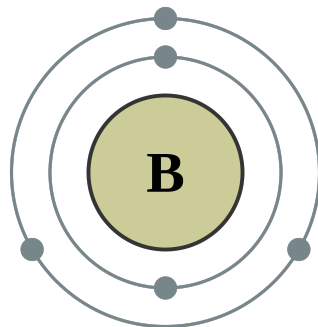
Lanthanides	57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu
Actinides	89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr

# Acceptor & Donor

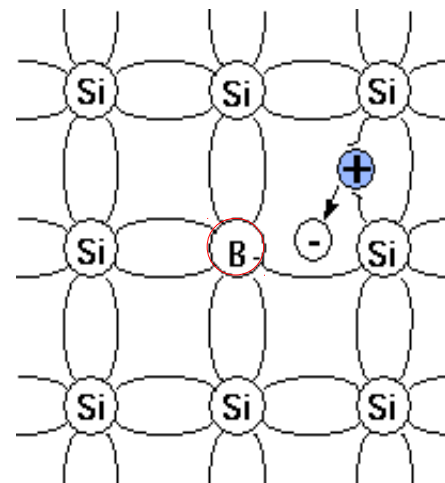
Intrinsic



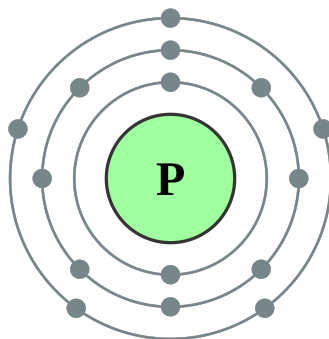
Acceptor



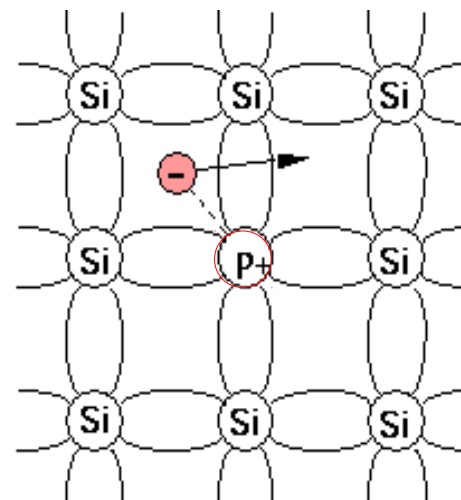
p-type



Donor

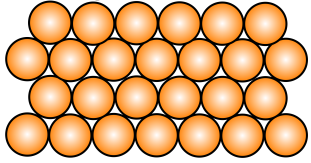


n-type



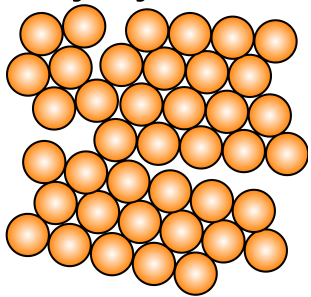
# Polycrystal

## Crystalline



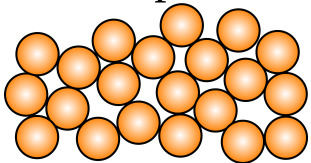
Microscopically, a crystal has atoms in a near-perfect periodic arrangement;

## Polycrystalline

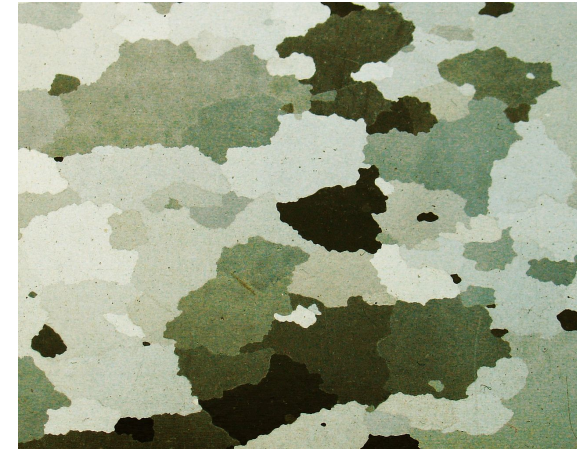


a polycrystal is composed of many microscopic crystals (called "crystallites" or "grains");

## Amorphous



an amorphous solid, such as glass, has no periodic arrangement even microscopically.



A photo of electrical steel (coating removed) showing polycrystalline structure

## Polycrystalline materials

solids that are composed of **many crystallites** of varying **size** and **orientation**. The variation in direction can be random (called random texture) or directed, possibly due to growth and processing conditions. Fiber texture is an example of the latter.

# Single Crystal Silicon

## Polycrystalline

- composed of a number of **smaller crystals** or **crystallites**.
- a material consisting of **multiple small silicon crystals**.
- recognized by a visible grain, a “**metal flake effect**”.
- **semiconductor grade polycrystalline silicon** → **single crystal silicon**
- the randomly associated crystallites of silicon in "polycrystalline silicon" are converted to a large "single" crystal.
- poly is used both at the macro-scale and micro-scale (**component**) level.

## Single crystal silicon

- the crystalline framework is **homogeneous**
- recognized by an even external **coloring**
- the crystal lattice of the entire sample is **continuous** and **unbroken** with no grain boundaries.
- large single crystals are exceedingly **rare** in nature
- also **difficult** to produce in the laboratory.
- used to manufacture most Si-based microelectronic devices.
- as much as 99.9999% **pure**.

# Single Crystalline Silicon Formation

Wafers are formed of highly pure (99.9999999% purity), nearly defect-free **single crystalline material**.

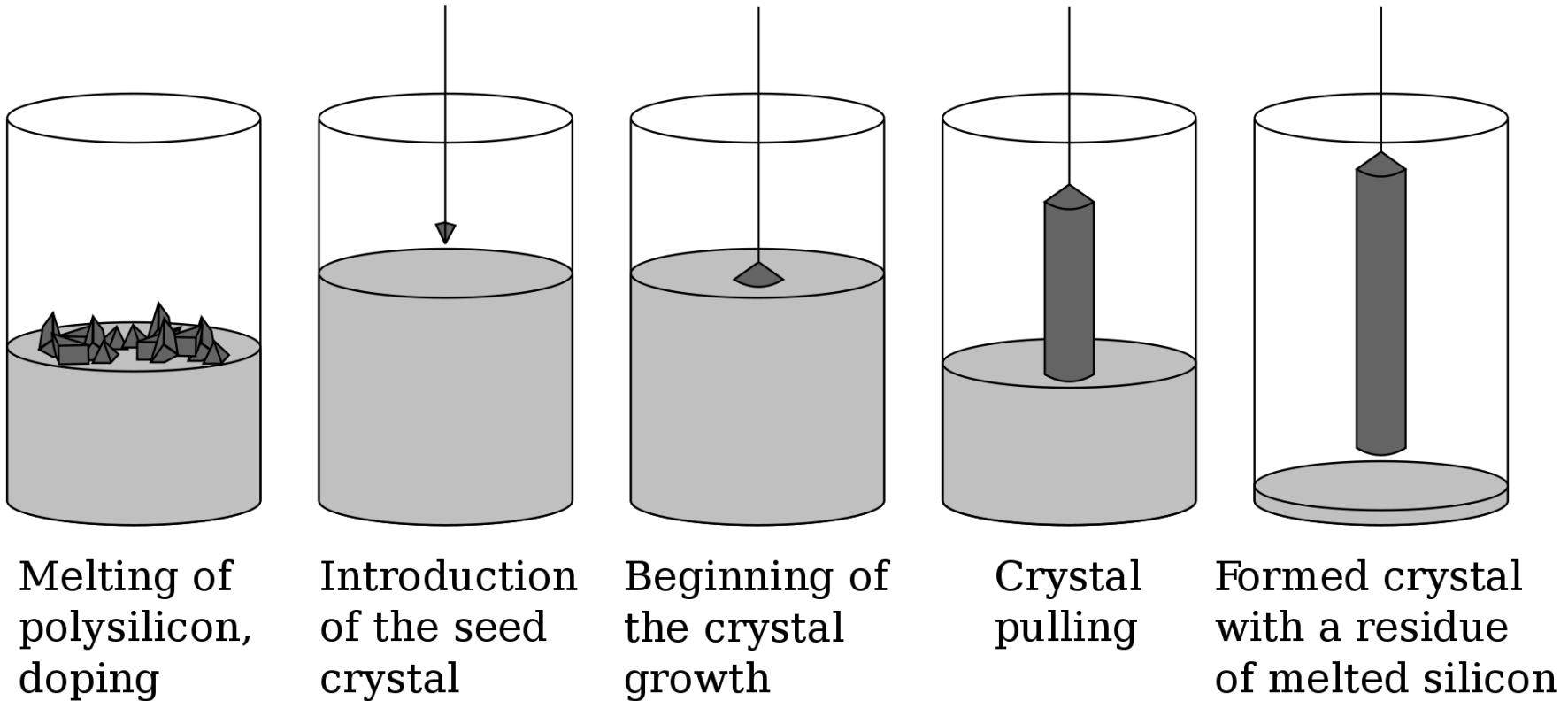
## Czochralski growth

- invented by the Polish chemist Jan Czochralski.
- **high purity** monocrystalline semiconductor (silicon or germanium)
- a **cylindrical ingot** is formed by **pulling** a seed crystal from a '**melt**'.
- **impurity** atoms in order to dope the crystal (n-type, p-type)
- The ingot is then **sliced** with a wafer saw (wire saw)
- and **polished** to form wafers.
- The size of wafers for photovoltaics is 100–200 mm square
- the thickness is 200–300  $\mu\text{m}$
- Electronics use wafer sizes from 100–300 mm diameter

## Bridgman Growth

## Float Zone Growth

# Czochralski Growth



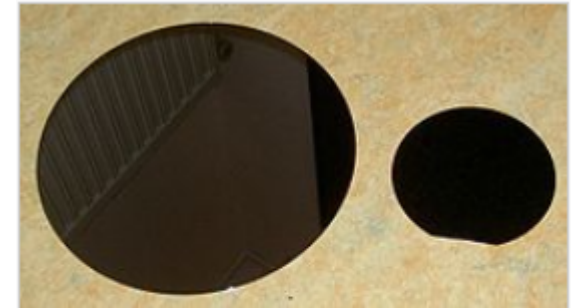


# Wafer Production

1. Ingot Growing
2. Shaping
3. Polishing
4. Cleansing



Silicon boule for the production of wafers



Polished 12" and 6" silicon wafers. The flat cut into the right wafer indicates its doping and crystallographic orientation (see below)

## Crystal Growth and Wafer Slicing Process

Step 1: Obtaining the Sand

Step 2: Preparing the Molten Silicon Bath

Step 3: Making the Ingot

Step 4: Preparing the Wafers

Thickness Sorting

Lapping & Etching Processes

Thickness Sorting and Flatness Checking

Polishing Process

Final Dimensional and Electrical Properties Qualification

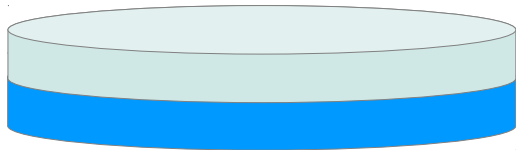
Remove any cracked and damaged surface silicon on the surface

# Types of Silicon Wafers

Bulk polished Silicon Wafer



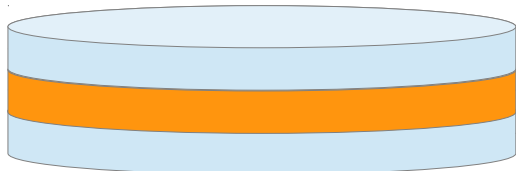
Epi Silicon Wafer



Heavily doped bulk wafers with moderately to lightly doped epitaxial silicon layer

Immunity to latch-up

Silicon on Insulator Wafer



increase performance  
Eliminate latch-up

silicon dioxide or sapphire

# Epitaxial Growth

the Greek roots epi (above) and taxis (in ordered manner)--> "to arrange upon".

**Epitax:** the deposition of a crystalline **overlayer** on a crystalline substrate

**Epitaxial growth:** there must be one or more preferred **orientations** of the **overlayer** with respect to the substrate

the **overlayer** - an **epitaxial film** or **epitaxial layer**

Epitaxial films may be grown from **gaseous** or **liquid** precursors.

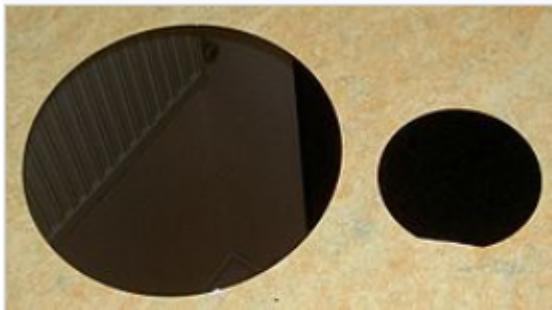
**VPE** (Vapor Phase Epitaxy)

**LPE** (Liquid Phase Epitaxy)

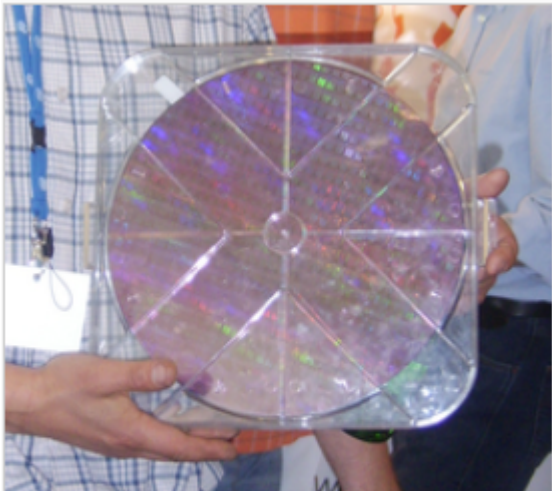
**SPE** (Solid Phase Epitaxy)

If an epitaxial film is deposited on a substrate of the **same composition**, the process is called **homoepitaxy**; otherwise it is called **heteroepitaxy**.

# Wafer Fabrication (1)



Polished 12" and 6" silicon wafers. The flat cut into the right wafer indicates its doping and crystallographic orientation (see below)



VLSI microcircuits fabricated on a 12-inch (300 mm) silicon wafer, before dicing and packaging

## Wafer production

### Wafer fabrication

a procedure composed of **many repeated sequential processes** to produce complete electrical or photonic circuits.

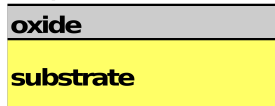
electrical circuit specifications

circuit layout programs (computer aided design)

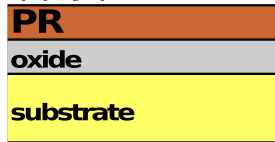
**photomask** production

# Wafer Fabrication (2)

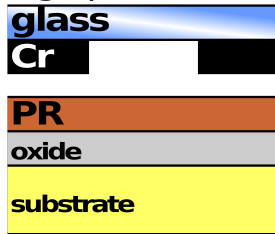
a. Prepare wafer



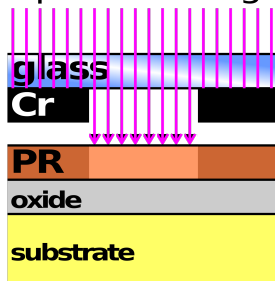
b. Apply photoresist



c. Align photomask

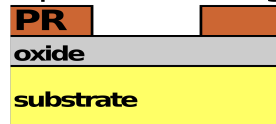


d. Expose to UV light

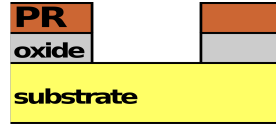


e. Develop and remove photoresist exposed to UV light

e. Develop and remove photoresist exposed to UV light



f. Etch exposed oxide



g. Remove remaining photoresist



## Photolithography

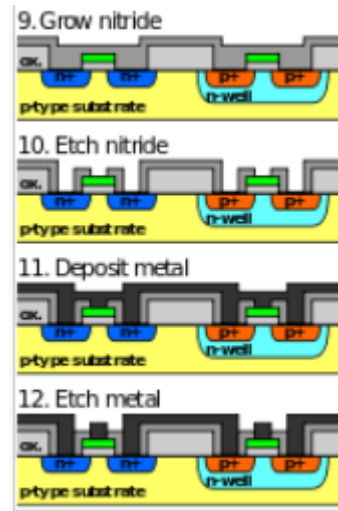
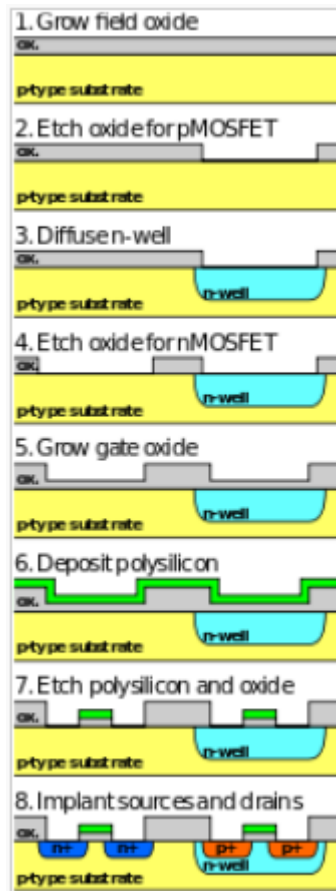
- Apply oxide
- Photoresist application (PR)
- Exposure and developing (Cr + glass)
- Etching Oxide
- Photoresist removal

- Silicon wafers start out blank and pure.
- The circuits are built in layers.
- photo-sensitive resistance patterns are photo-masked
- then exposed to short-wave ultraviolet light
- the unexposed areas are thus etched away and cleaned.
- Hot chemical vapors are deposited on to the desired zones and baked
- the vapors are permeated into the desired zones.
- In some cases, ions, such as O<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> or O<sup>+</sup>, are implanted

These steps are often repeated many hundreds of times

# Wafer Fabrication (3)

Simplified illustration of the process of fabrication of a CMOS inverter  
Each etch step is detailed in the previous slide



Oxidation Layering  
Photo lithography  
Etching  
Diffusion  
Thin Film

- Silicon wafers start out blank and pure.
- The circuits are built in layers.
- photo-sensitive resistance patterns are photo-masked
- then exposed to short-wave ultraviolet light
- the unexposed areas are thus etched away and cleaned.
- Hot chemical vapors are deposited on to the desired zones and baked
- the vapors are permeated into the desired zones.
- In some cases, ions, such as  $O_2^+$  or  $O^+$ , are implanted

# Thermal Oxidation

$\text{SiO}_2$  :

- \* Insulator
- \* A good diffusion mask
- Very good etching selectivity

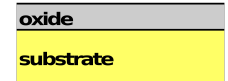
**Thermal oxidation** is a way to

- produces a thin layer of oxide (usually silicon dioxide) on the surface of a wafer : High Temperature Oxide layer (HTO)
- forces an oxidizing agent to diffuse into the wafer at high temperature and react with it.
- may use either water vapor (**wet oxidation**) or molecular oxygen (**dry oxidation**) as the oxidant
- performed in **furnaces**, at temperatures between 800 and 1200°C.
- a single furnace accepts many wafers at the same time

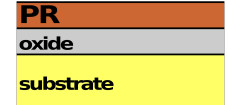
# Photolithography

- a process to **pattern** parts of a thin film or the bulk of a substrate
- uses light to transfer a **geometric pattern** from a **photomask** to a light-sensitive chemical "**photoresist**" on the substrate.
- either **engraves** the exposure pattern into, or enables **deposition** of a new material in the desired pattern upon, the material underneath the photo resist.

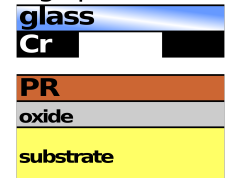
a. Prepare wafer



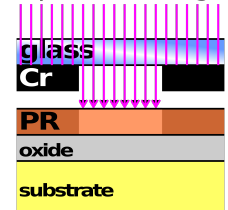
b. Apply photoresist



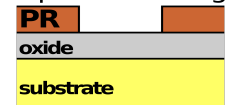
c. Align photomask



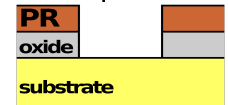
d. Expose to UV light



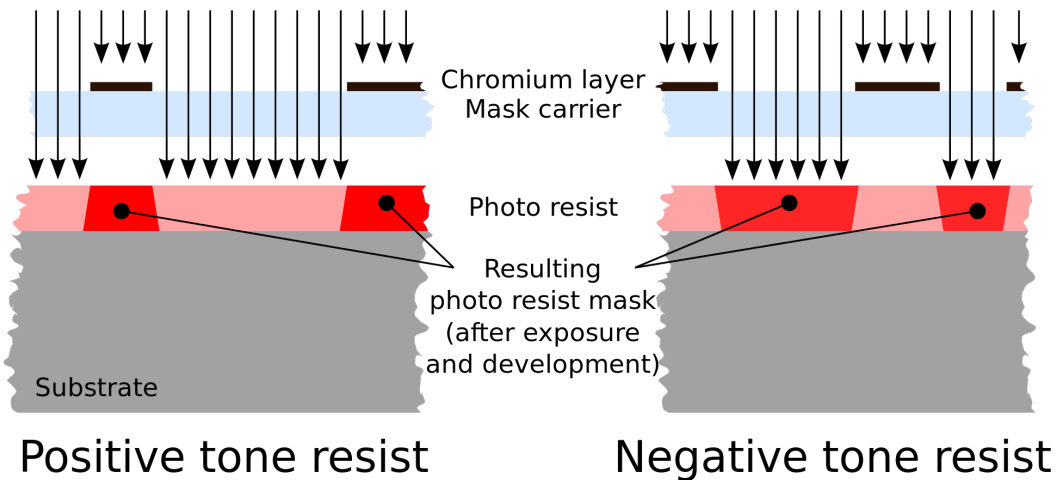
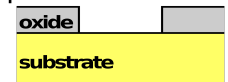
e. Develop and remove photoresist exposed to UV light



f. Etch exposed oxide



g. Remove remaining photoresist





# Etching

used to chemically remove layers from the surface of a wafer  
part of the wafer is **protected** from the etchant by a "**masking**" material  
the masking material is a **photoresist** which has been patterned using photolithography.  
a more **durable mask**, such as silicon nitride

## Wet etching

liquid-phase ("wet") etchants  
the wafer can be immersed in a bath of etchant  
buffered hydrofluoric acid (BHF)

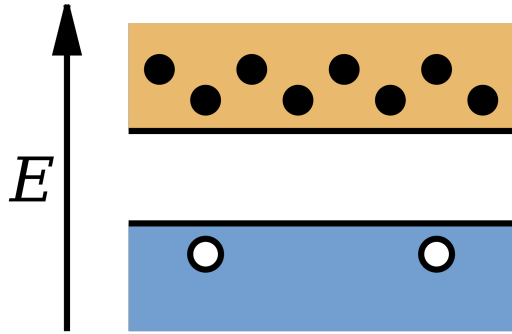
## Anisotropic wet etching

**Orientation** dependent etching  
Some wet etchants etch crystalline materials at **very different rates** depending upon which crystal face is exposed

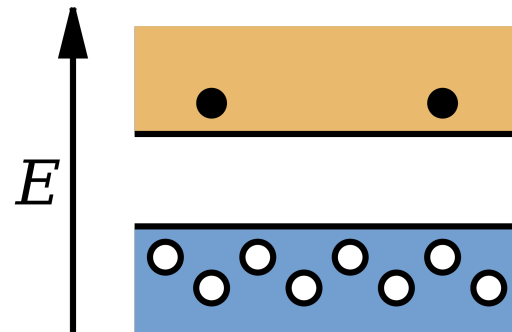
## Plasma etching

Modern VLSI processes **avoid wet etching**, and use plasma etching instead.  
Plasma etchers can operate in several modes by adjusting the parameters of the plasma.

# Doping



Extrinsic semiconductors with a larger **electron concentration** than hole concentration are known as n-type semiconductors. The phrase 'n-type' comes from the negative charge of the electron. In n-type semiconductors, **electrons** are the **majority carriers** and holes are the minority carriers. N-type semiconductors are created by **doping** an intrinsic semiconductor with **donor impurities**.

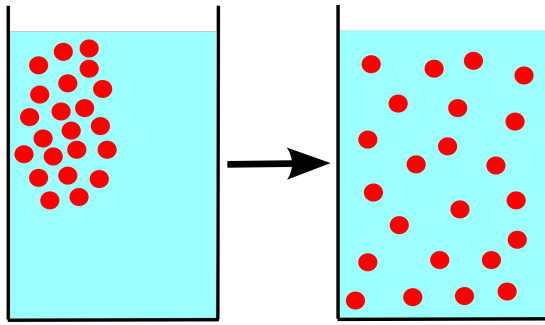


As opposed to n-type semiconductors, p-type semiconductors have a larger **hole concentration** than electron concentration. The phrase 'p-type' refers to the positive charge of the hole. In p-type semiconductors, **holes** are the **majority carriers** and electrons are the minority carriers. P-type semiconductors are created by **doping** an intrinsic semiconductor with **acceptor impurities**.

**Diffusion** : The **spread** of particles through random motion from regions of higher concentration to regions of lower concentration

**Ion implantation** : **Bombarding** the substrate with ions accelerated to **high velocities**

# Diffusion



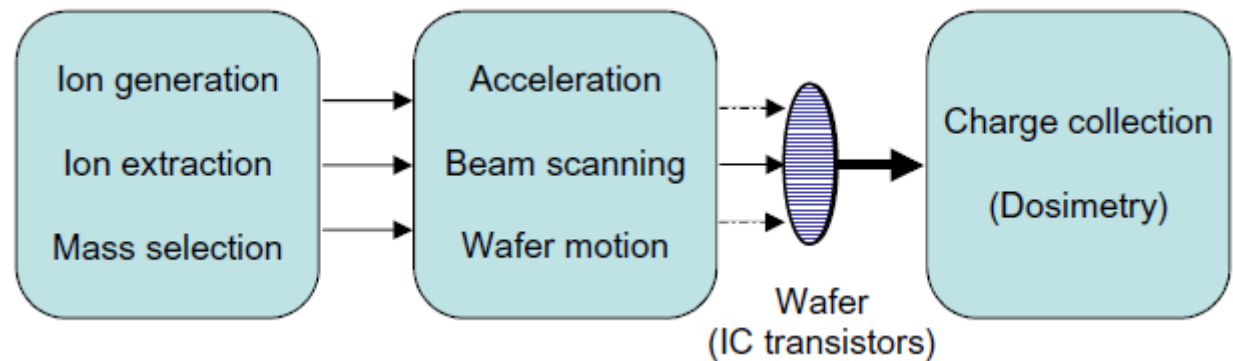
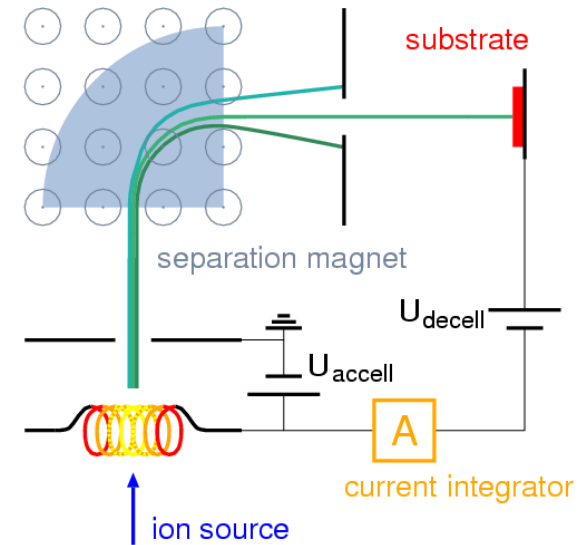
A diffusion process in science. Some particles are dissolved in a glass of water. Initially, the particles are all near one corner of the glass. If the particles **all randomly move around ("diffuse")** in the water, then the particles will eventually become **distributed randomly and uniformly**, and organized (but diffusion will still continue to occur, just that there will be no net flux).

**Predeposition** : to introduce the required **dose** of dopant into the substrate.

**Drive-In** : a subsequent drive-in anneal then **redistributes** the dopant giving the required junction depth and surface concentration.

# Ion Implantation

Ion implantation is a materials engineering process by which **ions** of a material are **accelerated** in an electrical field and **impacted into a solid**. This process is used to change the physical, chemical, or electrical properties of the solid.



# Thin Film Deposition

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- **thin**: a layer of material ranging from fractions of a **nanometer** (monolayer) to several **micrometers** in thickness.
- the act of **applying a thin film to a surface**
- onto a **substrate** or onto **previously deposited layers**
- molecular beam epitaxy: a single layer of atoms

**Chemical deposition**

**Physical deposition**

# Chemical Deposition

- a **fluid** precursor undergoes a **chemical change** at a solid surface, leaving a solid layer.
- like the formation of **soot** on a cool object when it is placed inside a flame.
- deposition happens on **every** surface, with **little** regard to **direction**;
- tend to be **conformal**, rather than **directional**.

A **conformal** film defines a morphologically **uneven interface** with another body and has a **thickness that is the same everywhere** along the interface.

- **Plating**
- **Chemical solution deposition (CSD)**  
or **Chemical bath deposition (CBD)**
- **Spin coating or spin casting**
- **Chemical vapor deposition (CVD)**
  - **Plasma enhanced CVD (PECVD)**
- **Atomic layer deposition (ALD)**

# Physical Deposition

- mechanical, electromechanical or thermodynamic means
- like the formation of frost
- most engineering materials are held together by relatively high energies
- chemical reactions are not used to store these energies
- require a low-pressure vapor environment to function properly
- most can be classified as physical vapor deposition (PVD).

- **Thermal evaporator**
  - **Electron beam evaporator**
  - **Molecular beam epitaxy (MBE)**
- **Sputtering**
- **Pulsed laser deposition**
- **Cathodic arc deposition (arc-PVD)**
- **Electrohydrodynamic deposition (Electrospray deposition)**

# Metallization

coating **metal** on the surface of non-metallic objects.

**Plating** relies on **liquid precursors**, often a solution of water with a **salt of the metal** to be deposited. Some plating processes are driven entirely by reagents in the solution (usually for noble metals), but by far the most commercially important process is **electroplating**.

**Chemical vapor deposition (CVD)** generally uses a **gas-phase precursor**, often a **halide** or **hydride** of the element to be deposited. In the case of MOCVD, an **organometallic gas** is used. Commercial techniques often use very low pressures of precursor gas.

**Physical vapor deposition (PVD)**. The material to be deposited is placed in an **energetic, entropic environment**, so that particles of material **escape** its surface. Facing this source is a **cooler surface** which draws energy from these particles as they arrive, allowing them to form a solid layer. The whole system is kept in a vacuum deposition chamber, to allow the particles to travel as freely as possible. Since particles tend to follow a straight path, films deposited by physical means are commonly **directional**, rather than **conformal**.



# Dielectric

**Insulator:** SiO<sub>2</sub> Si<sub>2</sub>N<sub>4</sub> SiON

**Plasma enhanced CVD (PECVD)** uses an ionized vapor, or **plasma**, as a precursor. Unlike the soot example above, commercial PECVD relies on electromagnetic means (**electric current**, **microwave excitation**), rather than a chemical reaction, to produce a plasma.

**Spin coating** or spin casting, uses a **liquid** precursor, or sol-gel precursor deposited onto a smooth, flat substrate which is subsequently **spun at a high velocity** to centrifugally spread the solution over the substrate. The speed at which the solution is spun and the viscosity of the sol determine the ultimate thickness of the deposited film. Repeated depositions can be carried out to increase the thickness of films as desired. Thermal treatment is often carried out in order to crystallize the amorphous spin coated film (orientations).

**Atomic layer deposition (ALD)** uses **gaseous** precursor to deposit **conformal** thin films one layer at a time. **Two half reactions**, run in sequence and repeated for each layer, in order to ensure total layer saturation. As a result of the **stepwise**, the process is **slower** than CVD, however it can be run at **low temperatures**, unlike CVD.

# Mask

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## References

[1] <http://en.wikipedia.org/>