Outline

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- CMOS technology
- CMOS logic structures
- CMOS sequential circuits
- CMOS regular structures

CMOS technology

- Lithography
- Physical structure
- CMOS fabrication sequence
- Yield
- Design rules
- Other processes
- Advanced CMOS process
- Process enhancements
- Technology scaling

CMOS technology

- An Integrated Circuit is an electronic network fabricated in a single piece of a semiconductor material
- The semiconductor surface is subjected to various processing steps in which impurities and other materials are added with specific geometrical patterns
- The fabrication steps are sequenced to form three dimensional regions that act as transistors and interconnects that form the switching or amplification network



Lithography: process used to transfer patterns to each layer of the IC

Lithography sequence steps:

- <u>Designer</u>:
 - Drawing the layer patterns on a layout editor
- <u>Silicon Foundry</u>:
 - Masks generation from the layer patterns in the design data base
 - Printing: transfer the mask pattern to the wafer surface
 - Process the wafer to physically pattern each layer of the IC

Basic sequence

- The surface to be patterned is:
 - spin-coated with photoresist
 - the photoresist is dehydrated in an oven (photo resist: light-sensitive organic polymer)
- The photoresist is exposed to ultra violet light:
 - For a positive photoresist exposed areas become soluble and non exposed areas remain hard
- The soluble photoresist is chemically removed (development).
 - The patterned photoresist will now serve as an etching mask for the SiO₂



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- The SiO₂ is etched away leaving the substrate exposed:
 - the patterned resist is used as the etching mask
- Ion Implantation:
 - the substrate is subjected to highly energized donor or acceptor atoms
 - The atoms impinge on the surface and travel below it
 - The patterned silicon SiO₂ serves as an implantation mask
- The doping is further driven into the bulk by a thermal cycle



- The lithographic sequence is repeated for each physical layer used to construct the IC. The sequence is always the same:
 - Photoresist application
 - Printing (exposure)
 - Development
 - Etching

Patterning a layer above the silicon surface



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- Etching:
 - Process of removing unprotected material
 - Etching occurs in all directions
 - Horizontal etching causes an under cut
 - "preferential" etching can be used to minimize the undercut
- Etching techniques:
 - Wet etching: uses chemicals to remove the unprotected materials
 - Dry or plasma etching: uses ionized gases rendered chemically active by an rfgenerated plasma



Physical structure



NMOS physical structure:

- p-substrate
- n+ source/drain
- gate oxide (SiO₂)
- polysilicon gate
- CVD oxide
- metal 1
- L_{eff}<L_{drawn} (lateral doping effects)

NMOS layout representation:

- Implicit layers:
 - oxide layers
 - substrate (bulk)
- Drawn layers:
 - n+ regions
 - polysilicon gate
 - oxide contact cuts
 - metal layers

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Physical structure



PMOS physical structure:

- p-substrate
- n-well (bulk)
- p+ source/drain
- gate oxide (SiO₂)
- polysilicon gate
- CVD oxide
- metal 1

PMOS layout representation:

- Implicit layers:
 - oxide layers
- Drawn layers:
 - n-well (bulk)
 - n+ regions
 - polysilicon gate
 - oxide contact cuts
 - metal layers

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- 0. Start:
 - For an n-well process the starting point is a p-type silicon wafer:
 - wafer: typically 75 to 230mm in diameter and less than 1mm thick

1. Epitaxial growth:

- A single p-type single crystal film is grown on the surface of the wafer by:
 - subjecting the wafer to high temperature and a source of dopant material
- The epi layer is used as the base layer to build the devices



2. N-well Formation:

- PMOS transistors are fabricated in n-well regions
- The first mask defines the n-well regions
- N-well's are formed by ion implantation or deposition and diffusion
- Lateral diffusion limits the proximity between structures
- Ion implantation results in shallower wells compatible with today's fine-line processes



3. Active area definition:

- Active area:
 - · planar section of the surface where transistors are build
 - defines the gate region (thin oxide)
 - defines the n+ or p+ regions
- A thin layer of SiO₂ is grown over the active region and covered with silicon nitride



4. Isolation:

- Parasitic (unwanted) FET's exist between unrelated transistors (Field Oxide FET's)
- Source and drains are existing source and drains of wanted devices
- Gates are metal and polysilicon interconnects
- The threshold voltage of FOX FET's are higher than for normal FET's



- FOX FET's threshold is made high by:
 - introducing a channel-stop diffusion that raises the impurity concentration in the substrate in areas where transistors are not required
 - making the FOX thick

4.1 Channel-stop implant

 The silicon nitride (over n-active) and the photoresist (over n-well) act as masks for the channel-stop implant



4.2 Local oxidation of silicon (LOCOS)

- The photoresist mask is removed
- The SiO_2/SiN layers will now act as a masks
- The thick field oxide is then grown by:
 - exposing the surface of the wafer to a flow of oxygen-rich gas
- The oxide grows in both the vertical and lateral directions
- This results in a active area smaller than patterned



- Silicon oxidation is obtained by:
 - Heating the wafer in a oxidizing atmosphere:
 - Wet oxidation: water vapor, T = 900 to 1000°C (rapid process)
 - Dry oxidation: Pure oxygen, T = 1200°C (high temperature required to achieve an acceptable growth rate)
- Oxidation consumes silicon
 - SiO₂ has approximately twice the volume of silicon
 - The FOX is recedes below the silicon surface by 0.46X_{FOX}



5. Gate oxide growth

- The nitride and stress-relief oxide are removed
- The devices threshold voltage is adjusted by:
 - adding charge at the silicon/oxide interface
- The well controlled gate oxide is grown with thickness tox



6. Polysilicon deposition and patterning

- A layer of polysilicon is deposited over the entire wafer surface
- The polysilicon is then patterned by a lithography sequence
- All the MOSFET gates are defined in a single step
- The polysilicon gate can be doped (n+) while is being deposited to lower its parasitic resistance (important in high speed fine line processes)



7. PMOS formation

- Photoresist is patterned to cover all but the p+ regions
- A boron ion beam creates the p+ source and drain regions
- The polysilicon serves as a mask to the underlying channel
 - This is called a self-aligned process
 - It allows precise placement of the source and drain regions
- During this process the gate gets doped with p-type impurities
 - Since the gate had been doped n-type during deposition, the final type (n or p) will depend on which dopant is dominant



8. NMOS formation

- Photoresist is patterned to define the n+ regions
- Donors (arsenic or phosphorous) are ion-implanted to dope the n+ source and drain regions
- The process is self-aligned
- The gate is n-type doped



9. Annealing

- After the implants are completed a thermal annealing cycle is executed
- This allows the impurities to diffuse further into the bulk
- After thermal annealing, it is important to keep the remaining process steps at as low temperature as possible



10. Contact cuts

- The surface of the IC is covered by a layer of CVD oxide
 - The oxide is deposited at low temperature (LTO) to avoid that underlying doped regions will undergo diffusive spreading
- Contact cuts are defined by etching SiO₂ down to the surface to be contacted
- These allow metal to contact diffusion and/or polysilicon regions



11. Metal 1

 A first level of metallization is applied to the wafer surface and selectively etched to produce the interconnects



12. Metal 2

- Another layer of LTO CVD oxide is added
- Via openings are created
- Metal 2 is deposited and patterned



13. Over glass and pad openings

- A protective layer is added over the surface:
- The protective layer consists of:
 - A layer of SiO₂
 - Followed by a layer of silicon nitride
- The SiN layer acts as a diffusion barrier against contaminants (passivation)
- Finally, contact cuts are etched, over metal 2, on the passivation to allow for wire bonding.

Yield

• Yield



- The yield is influenced by:
 - the technology
 - the chip area
 - the layout
- Scribe cut and packaging also contribute to the final yield
- Yield can be approximated by: $Y = e^{-\sqrt{A} \cdot D}$

A - chip area (cm²)

D - defect density (defects/cm²)

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Yield (%)



- The limitations of the patterning process give rise to a set of mask design guidelines called <u>design rules</u>
- Design rules are a set of guidelines that specify the minimum dimensions and spacings allowed in a layout drawing
- Violating a design rule might result in a <u>non-functional</u> circuit or in a <u>highly reduced yield</u>
- The design rules can be expressed as:
 - A list of minimum feature sizes and spacings for all the masks required in a given process
 - Based on single parameter λ that characterize the linear feature (e.g. the minimum grid dimension). λ base rules allow simple scaling

- Minimum line-width:
 - smallest dimension permitted for any object in the layout drawing (minimum feature size)
- Minimum spacing:
 - smallest distance permitted between the edges of two objects
- This rules originate from the resolution of the optical printing system, the etching process, or the surface roughness



- Contacts and vias:
 - minimum size limited by the lithography process
 - large contacts can result in cracks and voids
 - Dimensions of contact cuts are restricted to values that can be reliably manufactured
 - A minimum distance between the edge of the oxide cut and the edge of the patterned region must be specified to allow for misalignment tolerances (registration errors)



- MOSFET rules
 - n+ and p+ regions are formed in two steps:
 - the <u>active</u> area openings allow the implants to penetrate into the silicon substrate
 - the <u>nselect</u> or <u>pselect</u> provide photoresist openings over the active areas to be implanted
 - Since the formation of the diffusions depend on the overlap of two masks, the nselect and pselect regions must be larger than the corresponding active areas to allow for misalignments



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- Gate overhang:
 - The gate must overlap the active area by a minimum amount
 - This is done to ensure that a misaligned gate will still yield a structure with separated drain and source regions
- A modern process has may hundreds of rules to be verified
 - Programs called <u>D</u>esign <u>R</u>ule <u>C</u>heckers assist the designer in that task



P-well process

- NMOS devices are build on a implanted p-well
- PMOS devices are build on the substrate
- P-well process moderates the difference between the p- and the ntransistors since the P devices reside in the native substrate
- Advantages: better balance between p- and n-transistors



Twin-well process

- n+ or p+ substrate plus a lightly doped epi-layer (latchup prevention)
- wells for the n- and p-transistors
- Advantages, simultaneous optimization of p- and n-transistors:
 - threshold voltages
 - body effect
 - gain



- Silicon On Insulator (SOI)
 - Islands of silicon on an insulator form the transistors
- Advantages:
 - No wells \Rightarrow denser transistor structures
 - Lower substrate capacitances



- Very low leakage currents
- No FOX FET exists between unrelated devices
- No latchup
- No body-effect:
 - However, the absence of a backside substrate can give origin to the "kink effect"
- Radiation tolerance
- Disadvantages:
 - Absence of substrate diodes (hard to implement protection circuits)
 - Higher number of substrate defects \Rightarrow lower gain devices
 - More expensive processing

- SOI wafers can also be manufactured by a method called: Separation by Implantation of Oxygen (SIMOX)
- The starting material is a silicon wafer where heavy doses of oxygen are implanted
- The wafer is annealed until a thin layer of SOI film is formed
- Once the SOI film is made, the fabrication steps are similar to those of a bulk CMOS process



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Advanced CMOS processes

- Shallow trench isolation
- n+ and p+-doped polysilicon gates (low threshold)
- source-drain extensions LDD (hot-electron effects)
- Self-aligned silicide (spacers)
- Non-uniform channel doping (short-channel effects)



Process enhancements

- Up to six metal levels in modern processes
- Copper for metal levels 2 and higher
- Stacked contacts and vias
- Chemical Metal Polishing for technologies with several metal levels
- For analogue applications some processes offer:
 - capacitors
 - resistors
 - bipolar transistors (BiCMOS)

- Currently, technology scaling has a <u>threefold</u> <u>objective</u>:
 - Reduce the gate delay by 30% (43% increase in frequency)
 - Double the transistor density
 - Saving 50% of power (at 43% increase in frequency)
- How is scaling achieved?
 - All the device dimensions (lateral and vertical) are reduced by $1/\alpha$
 - Concentration densities are increased by $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 - Device voltages reduced by $1/\alpha$ (not in all scaling methods)
 - Typically $1/\alpha = 0.7$ (30% reduction in the dimensions)

• The **scaling variables** are:

 Supply voltage: V_{dd} V_{dd} / α \rightarrow \rightarrow L/ α – Gate length: L \rightarrow W/ α – Gate width: W \rightarrow t_{ox} / α Gate-oxide thickness: tox \rightarrow X_i / α X – Junction depth: $N_A \times \alpha$ – Substrate doping: N_A \rightarrow

This is called **<u>constant field</u>** scaling because the electric field across the gate-oxide does not change when the technology is scaled

If the power supply voltage is maintained constant the scaling is called **constant voltage**. In this case, the electric field across the gate-oxide increases as the technology is scaled down.

Due to gate-oxide breakdown, below 0.8µm only "constant field" scaling is used.

Some consequencies 30% scaling in the constant field regime ($\alpha = 1.43$, $1/\alpha = 0.7$):

• Device/die area:

$$W \times L \rightarrow (1/\alpha)^2 = 0.49$$

- In practice, microprocessor <u>die size grows</u> about 25% per technology generation! This is a result of added functionality.
- Transistor density:

(unit area) /(W × L) $\rightarrow \alpha^2 = 2.04$

 In practice, <u>memory density</u> has been scaling as expected. (not true for microprocessors...)

• Gate capacitance:

W × L /
$$t_{ox} \rightarrow 1/\alpha = 0.7$$

• Drain current:

(W/L) × (V²/t_{ox})
$$\rightarrow$$
 1/ α = 0.7

• Gate delay:

$$(C \times V) / I \rightarrow 1/\alpha = 0.7$$

Frequency $\rightarrow \alpha = 1.43$

- In practice, microprocessor frequency has doubled every technology generation (2 to 3 years)! This faster increase rate is due to two factors:
 - the number of gate delays in a clock cycle decreases with time (the designs become highly pipelined)
 - advanced circuit techniques reduce the <u>average gate delay</u> <u>beyond 30%</u> per generation.

• Power:

$$C \times V^2 \times f \rightarrow (1/\alpha)^2 = 0.49$$

• Power density:

$$1/t_{ox} \times V^2 \times f \rightarrow 1$$

• Active capacitance/unit-area:

Power dissipation is a function of the operation <u>frequency</u>, the power <u>supply voltage</u> and of the <u>circuit size</u> (number of devices). If we normalize the power density to $V^2 \times f$ we obtain the <u>active</u> <u>capacitance per unit area</u> for a given circuit. This parameter can be compared with the oxide capacitance per unit area:

$$1/t_{ox} \rightarrow \alpha = 1.43$$

 In practice, for microprocessors, the active capacitance/unitarea only increases between 30% and 35%. Thus, the twofold improvement in logic density between technologies is not achieved.

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- Interconnects scaling:
 - Higher densities are only possible if the interconnects also scale.
 - Reduced width \rightarrow increased resistance
 - Denser interconnects \rightarrow <u>higher capacitance</u>
 - To account for <u>increased parasitics</u> and <u>integration</u> <u>complexity</u> more interconnection layers are added:
 - thinner and tighter layers \rightarrow local interconnections
 - thicker and sparser layers → global interconnections and power

Interconnects are scaling as expected

Parameter	Constant Field	Constant Voltage	
Supply voltage (V _{dd})	1/α	1	1
Length (L)	1/α	1/α	
Width (W)	1/α	1/α	Scaling
Gate-oxide thickness (t _{ox})	1/α	1/α	Variables
Junction depth (X _i)	1/α	1/α	
Substrate doping (N _A)	α	α	\downarrow
Electric field across gate oxide (E) 1	α	1
Depletion layer thickness	1/α	1/α	
Gate area (Die area)	1 /α ²	1/α ²	Device
Gate capacitance (load) (C)	1/α	1/α	Repercussion
Drain-current (I _{dss})	1/α	α	
Transconductance (g _m)	1	α	Ļ
Gate delay	1/α	1/α²	1
Current density	α	α^3	
DC & Dynamic power dissipation	1 /α ²	α	Circuit
Power density	1	α^3	Repercussion
Power-Delay product	1/α ³	1/α	Ļ
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Lithography:

Optics technology	Technology node		
248nm mercury-xenon lamp	180 - 250nm		
248nm krypton-fluoride laser	130 - 180nm		
193nm argon-fluoride laser	100 - 130nm		
157nm fluorine laser	70 - 100nm		
13.4nm extreme UV	50 - 70nm		

Lithography:

- Electron Beam Lithography (EBL)
 - Patterns are derived directly from digital data
 - The process can be direct: no masks
 - Pattern changes can be implemented quickly
 - However:
 - Equipment cost is high
 - Large amount of time required to access all the points on the wafer