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A novel laser trimming technique for microelectronics

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Abstract

A novel laser trimming technique, fully compatible with conventional CMOS processes, is described for analogue and mixed microelectronics applications. In this method, a laser beam is used to create a resistive device by melting a silicon area, thereby forming an electrical link between two adjacent p–n junction diodes. These laser diffusible resistances can be made in less than a second with an automated system, and their values can be in the range 100 Ω to a few megaohms, with an accuracy of 50 ppm, by using an iterative process. In addition, these resistances can also be made to possess a TCR (temperature coefficient of resistance) close to 0. We present the method used to create these resistances, the main device characterization and some insight on process modeling. © 2001 Published by Elsevier Science B.V.

Keywords: Laser trimming; Analogue microelectronics; Resistance

1. Introduction

In spite of the steady progress of digital electronics, nowadays electronic systems often contain significant analogue sub-systems, because their connection to the external world often implies dealing with analogue signals. Actually, the general model of a digital core with analogue external interfaces is found in most telecommunication, digital signal processing and control applications. While the growing transistor counts available with digital integrated circuits that can absorb all functions of many electronic systems, analogue sub-systems get integrated at a much slower

pace, due primarily to their component accuracy requirements. For systems that need high accuracy, system designers are usually forced to use some sort of trimming. This may sometimes be avoided by relying on a limited number of high accuracy components, which tend to be relatively expensive, by hiding from the user some sort of interior trimming, or by referring all key performance parameters to a single device that determines system accuracy. For instance, Taylor and Hanlon [1] describe the design of a 12-bit DAC (digital to analogue converter) implemented using wafer laser trimming. In most approaches, trimming involves the modification of the impedance or resistance of integrated components through the use of laser, ion or electron beams [2–14]. The methods based on laser ablation of thin [2,3,6] or thick [4–6] films, mesh trimming [7] and polysilicon link making [8,9] all require an additional process step to deposit the resistive film. Laser polysilicon link making even

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54 requires masking of the polysilicon film prior to
 55 implantation. Polymer trimming [10], in which poly-
 56 mer conductivity is changed by exposition to infrared
 57 light, not only requires an additional material layer,
 58 but is also very slow. Pulsed voltages [11,12] and
 59 floating gate [13] methods present the advantage of
 60 compensating for the resistance of the package pins.
 61 Even if integrated circuits can be trimmed after packag-
 62 ing, this method requires additional pads to provide
 63 the electrical stimulus used to trim, which consumes
 64 significant die space, particularly with low pin count
 65 analogue or mixed signal components. In most tech-
 66 niques presented above, the additional process steps
 67 increase cost and consume significant die area, which
 68 limits their flexibility and usefulness.

69 The method presented in this paper is an extension
 70 of the laser-induced diode linking that was originally
 71 proposed for wafer-scale integration [15–17]. By a
 72 careful iterative approach, this diode linking method is
 73 used for impedance tuning of semiconductor resistances.
 74 This novel trimming method produces laser
 75 diffusible resistances that can be very accurate, uses
 76 very small die area, and can be integrated into any
 77 existing CMOS process without any additional mask-
 78 ing step. A patent disclosing the detailed device
 79 structure and creation method has been accepted at
 80 the US and Canadian patent offices, and was also
 81 submitted as a PCT patent [14].

82 2. Principle of the laser trimming method and 83 experimental setup

84 The laser trimming technique is applied to a device
 85 structure shown in Fig. 1. Put simply, this structure is a
 86 MOSFET with no gate contact, fabricated with any
 87 conventional CMOS process. For an n-type resistor,
 88 the device structure consists of two highly doped
 89 regions, separated by a distance L , and formed by
 90 implantation into a p-well, resulting into two p–n
 91 junctions facing each other. The device has a width
 92 W and the electrical connections to the structure are
 93 formed using contacts. Finally, an oxide layer protects
 94 the device. Complementary doping types are used for
 95 a p-type resistor. Before performing laser trimming,
 96 the only currents that can flow through the device are
 97 leakage currents from the p–n junctions to the sub-
 98 strate, resulting essentially in an open circuit. Focus-

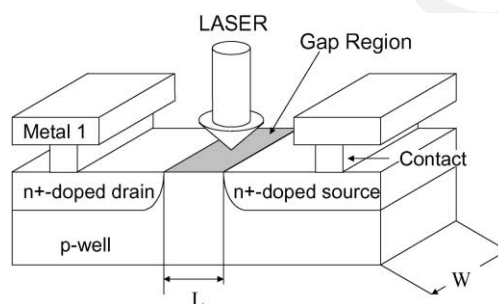


Fig. 1. Schematic cross-section of the laser diffusible resistance.

99 ing a laser beam on the gap region between the two
 100 junctions melts the silicon, resulting in dopant diffu-
 101 sion from the highly doped regions to the lightly
 102 doped gap region. Upon removal of the laser light,
 103 the silicon freezes and solidifies, leaving the diffused
 104 dopants in a new local distribution, which may form
 105 an electrical link between the highly doped regions.
 106 This laser-diffused link constitutes the trimmed resis-
 107 tance. Tight control of process parameters is necessary
 108 to efficiently create these laser diffusible resistances,
 109 while avoiding damage to adjacent devices and struc-
 110 tures. These parameters are the laser spot size, pulse
 111 duration, laser power, number of laser exposures and
 112 position of the laser spot relative to the device. By
 113 varying these parameters between each laser irradiation,
 114 one can accurately tune the device. The laser
 115 trimming system used comprises a Coherent Innova
 116 90 5 W argon ion laser, running all lines for maximum
 117 possible power, an acousto-optic modulator (AOM)
 118 from Neos technologies implemented as a high-speed
 119 shutter, and a Klinger X–Y–Z positioning table. The
 120 laser beam is focused on the device structure to a spot
 121 $2\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter, and the system is computer con-
 122 trolled to speed up the process.

123 3. Device characterization

124 While the results presented here were obtained on
 125 devices made with the MITEL $1.5\ \mu\text{m}$ technology
 126 with dimensions $L = 1.7\ \mu\text{m}$ and $W = 6\ \mu\text{m}$, we have
 127 successfully verified that the method works for a
 128 $0.35\ \mu\text{m}$ technology. A large number of laser diffu-
 129 sible resistances, with a 100% yield, have been created
 130 using a prototype integrated circuit comprising many
 131 tight sites on the same circuit.

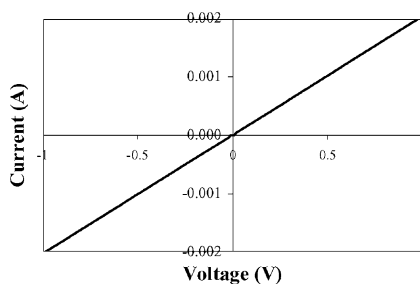


Fig. 2. Typical I - V characteristic of a laser diffusible resistance (value = $492\ \Omega$) at room temperature.

132 Current–voltage characteristics were measured
 133 using a Hewlett Packard 4155A semiconductor param-
 134 eter analyzer. I - V characteristics for all devices
 135 produced by our iterative laser trimming process show
 136 excellent linear behavior at potential differences smal-
 137 ler than 0.3 V. Resistance values from $100\ \Omega$ to as high
 138 as a few megaohms, with accuracy of 50 ppm, can be
 139 made easily. Typical I - V characteristic for a $492\ \Omega$
 140 device is shown in Fig. 2.

141 Resistance as a function of temperature was measured
 142 using a Hewlett Packard 34401A digital multi-
 143 meter and a Yamato Scientific America DX300 oven
 144 to control the device temperature. Fig. 3 depicts
 145 typical resistance variations as a function of tempera-
 146 ture. Resistances having values lower than $1.5\ \text{k}\Omega$
 147 present a positive temperature coefficient, and those
 148 with values higher than $3\ \text{k}\Omega$ present a negative
 149 temperature coefficient. For a gap of $1.7\ \mu\text{m}$ and a

150 width of $6\ \mu\text{m}$, there exists a resistance for which the
 151 temperature coefficient is close to 0. This value is
 152 around $2\ \text{k}\Omega$ in this case, and it is expected to vary
 153 with device geometry and doping levels.

154 Fig. 4 shows images produced with an atomic force
 155 microscope (AFM) and a scanning capacitance micro-
 156 scope (SCM) (Digital Instruments, Dimension 3100
 157 model) of a laser-diffused resistance, where all outer
 158 dielectric layers have been removed by an HF etch.
 159 Five laser pulses were used in this experiment and the
 160 laser parameters were maintained at $0.75\ \text{W}$ (incident
 161 on the surface of the chip) and $1\ \mu\text{s}$ duration. While the
 162 AFM image reveals no significant deformation of the
 163 p-well, the SCM image shows clearly that dopants, as
 164 represented by dark gray, have diffused from the two
 165 n^+ regions into the p-channel. The diffused region is
 166 about $1\ \mu\text{m}$ in size.

167 4. Process modeling

168 Modeling this process involved a time-dependent
 169 three-dimensional (3D) calculation of the temperature
 170 due to the laser irradiation, followed by a dopant
 171 distribution calculation using Fick's law. A simple
 172 model must include the effects of the laser power,
 173 beam waist and exposure time as well as the geometric
 174 characteristics of the initial structure. Device charac-
 175 teristics can then be evaluated by solving the three
 176 differential coupled equations to obtain the 3D dis-

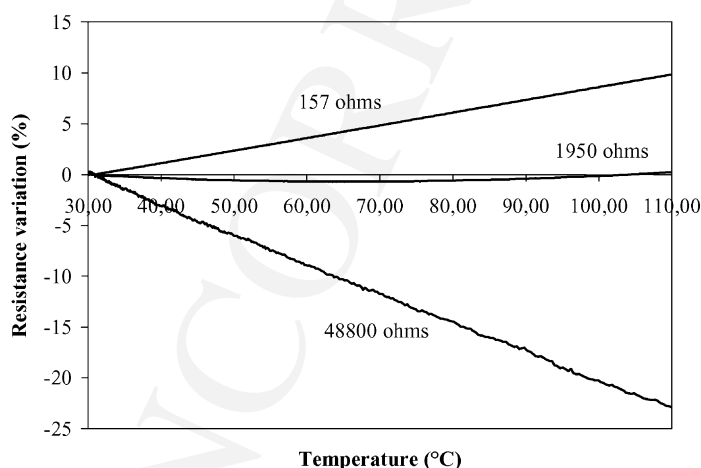


Fig. 3. Resistance variation in percent (relative to the $30\ ^\circ\text{C}$ value) as a function of temperature for three laser diffusible resistances with nominal values at $30\ ^\circ\text{C}$ of 157, 1950 and $48\ 800\ \Omega$.

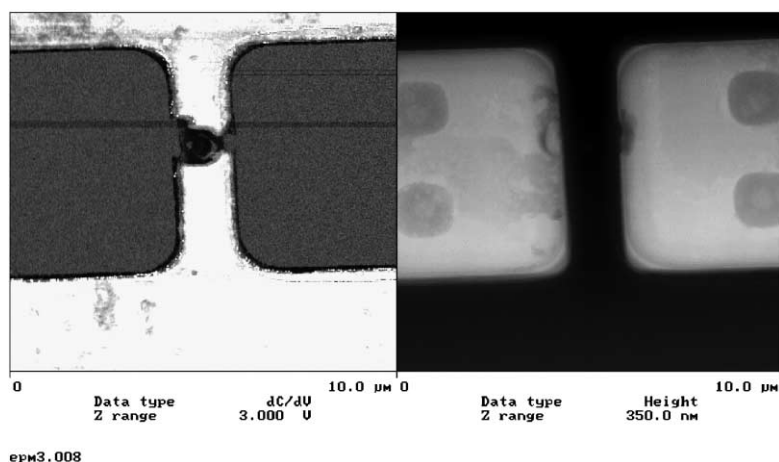


Fig. 4. SCM (left) and corresponding AFM image (right) of diffused resistance. The n-channel is clearly visible on the SCM image, whereas topography (AFM) reveals no significant deformation of the p-well.

177 tributions of electron and hole concentrations, as well
 178 as the electric field in this device presenting a non-
 179 uniform dopant distribution. In addition, modeling
 180 must also include the possibility of varying the laser
 181 beam location and power from pulse to pulse to obtain
 182 the desired device characteristics.

183 Some insight on process modeling can be obtained
 184 by using careful approximations. We consider the
 185 effect of a focused laser beam incident on an n^+p -
 186 n^+ silicon structure, resulting in the diffusion of
 187 dopants into silicon. Because the diffusion length of
 188 dopants in liquid Si is 4 orders of magnitude higher
 189 than that of crystalline Si [19], we assume that only
 190 dopants in the silicon melt diffuse. During the laser
 191 pulse, the silicon melt dimension increases and then
 192 decreases as the pulse ends. Therefore, we propose
 193 that only the *maximum* melted region (as denoted by
 194 r_{melt} on the Si surface) has to be determined in the
 195 temperature calculation; the dopants located outside
 196 this region are assumed to be immobile. As the pulse
 197 duration t increases, dopants with a diffusion coeffi-
 198 cient D will have more time to diffuse over a length of
 199 $r_D = 2\sqrt{Dt}$ in the entire melted region yielding a more
 200 uniform dopant distribution. For instance, arsenic
 201 ($D = 3.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ in liquid Si [19]) was the
 202 major dopant in the n^+ regions of the structures
 203 investigated and $r_D \text{ (m)} = 0.4\sqrt{t \text{ (s)}}$, suggesting that
 204 laser pulses of a few microseconds are required for
 205 uniform dopant distribution over a fraction of a micro-
 206 meter.

207 The calculation of the temperature distribution
 208 resulting from a focused laser beam is based on a
 209 method by Bäuerle [18] and Cohen et al. [16]. The
 210 heat diffusion equation is solved in the case of a
 211 Gaussian beam of radial symmetry and exponentially
 212 decaying optical absorption. The pulse is rectangular in
 213 time. The temperature dependence of the thermal
 214 conductivity is taken into account via a Kirchhoff
 215 transformation. The solution of this problem is in
 216 the form of a temporal integral to be solved numeri-
 217 cally. In the method proposed by Cohen et al., optical
 218 absorption and heat diffusion coefficient do not vary
 219 with temperature. Furthermore, the latent heat of fusion
 220 is not incorporated into the calculations and only the
 221 steady state problem is solved (though it is pointed out
 222 that the solution of the time-dependent problem can be
 223 obtained merely by changing the integration limits).

224 We extend Cohen's method to the time-dependent
 225 problem, including latent heat of fusion and partially
 226 taking into account temperature-dependent reflectivity,
 227 optical absorption and heat diffusion coefficient. This
 228 is done within an adiabatic approximation [20] where
 229 the time evolution of the temperature can be monitored
 230 by separating the time integral into small segments.
 231 After each temperature increment, the silicon proper-
 232 ties are adjusted to the new temperature before the next
 233 temperature jump is calculated. In this way, the impor-
 234 tant variation of silicon properties as a function of
 235 temperature, particularly at the solid/liquid transition,
 236 are partially included. As for the latent heat of fusion,

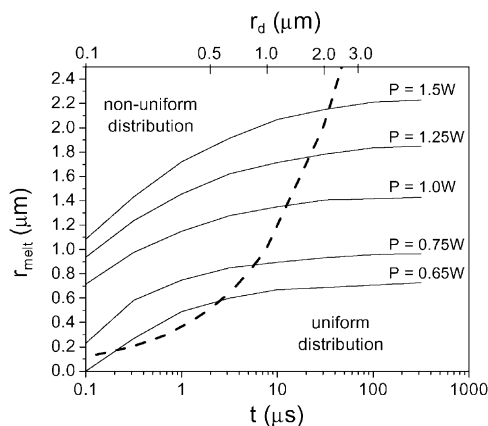


Fig. 5. Maximum silicon melt radius r_{melt} as a function of pulse duration t and laser power. Laser $1/e$ radius is $1.0 \mu\text{m}$. The dashed line separates the uniform dopant distribution from the non-uniform distribution.

an internal loop in the numerical algorithm insures that it is taken into account. When the temperature reaches the melting point (T_f), it is maintained at this value and the subsequent temperature rises are converted into enthalpy until sufficient energy is accumulated [21], i.e. when the enthalpy of silicon reaches the latent heat of fusion. The next temperature calculations are then made as before, with the exception that the material properties are those of liquid silicon.

Fig. 5 shows the results of numerical calculations of r_{melt} as a function of laser duration for different laser powers at a fixed waist of $1.0 \mu\text{m}$. For a laser power of 0.75 W and $1 \mu\text{s}$, the calculation is in relatively good agreement with the SCM results of Fig. 4. In addition, conditions for uniform dopant distribution are located on the right side of the dashed line corresponding to $r_{\text{melt}} = r_D$. Fig. 5 can then be used to determine the laser power and time width t of the various laser exposures in an iterative process to fine-tune the dopant distribution to yield a specific resistance value.

5. Conclusion

Laser diffusible resistances can be made accurately by an iterative process to obtain resistance values between 100Ω and a few megaohms. This new trimming technique is compatible with CMOS processes and can accurately produce resistances in less

than a second. Further studies are being performed on process optimization and modeling, as well as on applications of these resistances in analogue micro-electronic circuits. These studies will be the subjects of future publications. This technique is being implemented for high-volume production of integrated circuits by LTRIM technologies.

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