A Model for Boron Deposition in Silicon Using a $\text{BBr}_3$ Source

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ABSTRACT

The sheet resistance and junction depth as a function of time at various temperatures have been obtained for the deposition of boron in silicon by using a $\text{BBr}_3$ liquid source. A simulation program incorporating a more realistic physical process is developed to analyze the deposition process under oxidizing atmosphere. By fitting numerical solutions to experimental data, the moving interface velocity and diffusion coefficient are determined. The profile of deposited layers as a function of deposition quantities can be modeled by the change of silicon self-interstitial concentration. The solid solubility of boron in silicon as a function of temperature has been determined. Different surface concentrations corresponding to different thicknesses of the boron-rich layer can be explained by the translation of the BRL-Si interface.

Boron tribromide ($\text{BBr}_3$) is the p-type dopant source most commonly used in silicon planar technology (1). Since the deposition of boron in silicon using $\text{BBr}_3$ is generally carried out in an oxidizing atmosphere, the physical process is more complicated than that using $\text{BN}$ under inert ambient. A purely vacancy model gives a good prediction of the sheet resistance as a function of time for various temperatures when a boron nitride solid source is used (2). However, as shown in Fig. 1, the quantity of boron atoms deposited into silicon using $\text{BBr}_3$ is much larger than that using $\text{BN}$ and is not increased linearly with the square root of time as predicted from a simple diffusion model (2).

It is well-known (3) that the diffusivity of boron in silicon depends not only on doping concentration but also on the oxidation rate of silicon at the surface. The concentration-dependent diffusion is generally modeled by a vacancy mechanism, while the oxidation-enhanced diffusion is related to the interstitialcy mechanism. In general, the vacancy contribution is determined from the multiple charge state vacancy statistics (2, 4) and the interstitialcy contribution is given as a function of oxidation rate (5, 6).

Naturally, the oxidation of silicon will consume silicon as well as some impurity atoms already deposited in it. The purpose of this paper is to show that the sheet resistance and junction depth as a function of time for various temperatures can be simulated by taking a moving boundary condition into account.

As shown by Negrini et al. (1), the deposition of boron in silicon using $\text{BBr}_3$ depends strongly on doping gas composition for a given temperature and time. However, for a suitably chosen doping gas composition, some reproducible results of sheet resistance and junction depth can be obtained. On the other hand, the increase of deposition quantity with oxygen flow rate can be modeled by the oxidation rate dependence of silicon self-interstitials (6), while the anomalous decrease of deposition quantity with $\text{BBr}_3$ flow rate can be explained by the reduction of the population of interstitial excess silicon in the Si-SiO$_2$ interface. The reaction of oxygen with silicon will generate some interstitial silicon ion (3) whose concentration will be reduced by interacting with boron oxide and bromine produced by the preliminary reaction of $\text{BBr}_3$ and $\text{O}_2$.

Experimental

The silicon materials used in this investigation were 2 in. diam n-type wafers with a resistivity of 3-7 $\text{Q-cm}$. Wafers were about 300 $\mu$m thick and one side was mechanically and chemically polished.

Deposition processes were carried out at temperatures of 900°C-1050°C while the liquid $\text{BBr}_3$ source was kept at 16°C which corresponds to a partial pressure of 42 Torr. High purity nitrogen was bubbled

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Key words: diffusion, boron deposition, $\text{BBr}_3$ source.

Fig. 1. Boron deposition quantity and oxide thickness as a function of time at 950°C.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{fig1.png}
\caption{Boron deposition quantity and oxide thickness as a function of time at 950°C.}
\end{figure}
through the liquid and mixed with the main carrier gas consisting of nitrogen and oxygen.

The deposition cycle consisted of a 5 min preheating (N₂ and O₂), a given time of deposition (BBR₃ plus N₂ and O₂), and followed by a 1 min flush (N₂ and O₂). The gas flow rate was kept at N₂ 1000 cm³/min, O₂ 30 cm³/min, and N₂ + BBR₃ 10 cm³/min. The gas composition was estimated as O₂ 3% and BBR₃ 0.05%.

The deposition of boron in silicon was actually a very complicated oxidation-diffusion process. It consisted of a preliminary reaction of BBR₃ with O₂ which results in the chemical deposition of boron oxide on the silicon wafers

\[ 4 \text{BBR}_3 + 3 \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{B}_2\text{O}_3 + 6 \text{B}_2\text{Br}_6 \]  

an interface reaction of oxygen with silicon to form silicon dioxide as well as some interstitial silicons

\[ \text{Si} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{SiO}_2 \]  

a reaction of boron oxide with silicon to produce silicon dioxide and boron atoms

\[ 2\text{B}_2\text{O}_3 + 3\text{Si} \rightarrow 3\text{SiO}_2 + 4\text{B} \]  

and a possible etch of silicon by bromine

\[ \text{Si} + 2\text{Br}_2 \rightarrow \text{SiBr}_4 \]  

Boric oxide was a liquid at normal deposition temperatures. It mixed readily with the silicon dioxide on the silicon surface to form a borosilicate glass. Boron atoms deposited would diffuse into silicon or form a boron-rich surface layer.

After the deposition operation, the borosilicate glass on the surface was etched with dilute HF, while the boron-rich layer as generally detectable by its hydrophilic behavior was removed boiling the wafer in the nitric acid (1). The thickness of some borosilicate glasses was measured by a Rudolph Auto EL-II ellipsometer.

The glass thickness as a function of time is shown in Fig. 2. Generally, the sheet resistance of the deposited layers as a function of time for various temperatures is shown in Fig. 3.

The impurity profile was determined from the anodic sectioning technique. Anodic oxidation was carried out with a constant current source by using as electrolyte a solution of

\[ \text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}: \text{KNO}_3: \text{H}_2\text{O}/1 \text{ liter: } 404 \text{ mg: } 20 \text{ ml} \]

The thickness of each oxide layer was measured by an ellipsometer. The sheet resistance after oxide stripping was measured by a four-point probe.

The deposition of boron in silicon by using a BBR₃ source under an oxidizing ambient is an oxidation-diffusion process depicted in Fig. 6. Actually, this is a moving boundary problem and, in general, there is no analytic solution. Therefore, a numerical method should be used to generate a computer solution (9). Furthermore, a moving coordinate system is chosen to solve the moving boundary problem encountered in this work. As usual, the space and time are discretized into intervals of Ay and At. The impurity concentration Cj is evaluated at a node lying in the middle of each discrete cell j. The impurity flux \( F_{j+1/2} \) is evaluated at the boundary between cells j and j + 1. As time changes from \( t_n \) to \( t = t_n + \Delta t \), the oxide thickness increases from \( X_j^0 \) to \( X_j \), and the oxide-silicon interface as well as all cell boundaries will translate a distance \( \Delta X = V \Delta t \), where V is the velocity of silicon consumed to form the oxide. An implicit scheme of the finite difference method is more suitable for solving this moving boundary problem. In a discretized form, the impurity flux may be written as

\[ F_{j+1/2} = (D_j C_j - D_{j+1} C_{j+1}) / \Delta y \]  

where \( D_j \) and \( C_j \) are diffusivity and concentration of a

- Fig. 2. Measured and simulated sheet resistances as a function of time for various temperatures.
- Fig. 3. Measured and simulated junction depths as a function of time for various temperatures.
The deep boundary usually lies inside the silicon substrate at the point where the simulated space terminates. The last cell in this end is also a half-cell similar to the first one. The impurity flux at the deep boundary $F_N$ is taken as zero in the simulation program.

Results and Discussion

Measured values of the sheet resistance and junction depth of deposited layers as a function of time for various temperatures as well as measured profiles of boron in silicon at different temperatures and times can be simulated by properly choosing the boundary condition and modeling the diffusion coefficient. Simulated results are also illustrated in Fig. 2-5. The simulated values of surface concentration, moving boundary velocity, and diffusion coefficients as a function of temperature are given in Table I.

Surface concentration.—As shown in Fig. 4 and 5, simulated values of the surface concentration are in good agreement with the measured data. The results obtained in this work as well as those reported by Armigliato et al. (10) are shown in Fig. 7.

Moving boundary velocity.—The oxide-silicon interface is moved with a velocity $V$ by the reactions of oxygen, boric oxide, and bromine to consume silicon as well as boron atoms. The reactions of oxygen and boric oxide with silicon, Eq. [2] and [3], result in the growth of silicon dioxide. The growth rate of silicon dioxide due to oxygen is generally given as (11)

$$v_1 = \frac{B_1}{2X_0 + A_1}$$

[8]

where $B_1$ and $A_1$ are the parameters defined by Deal and Grove (11). For thin oxide, $2X_0 << A_1$, the oxidation rate is linearized as

$$v_1 \approx \frac{B_1}{A_1}$$

[9]

The oxidation rate may be enhanced by a catalytic action (12) in the presence of bromine. It may also be enhanced by the high vacancy concentration generated in a heavily doped silicon (4, 13).

Table I. Some parameters used in profile simulations

| $T$ (°C) | $900$ | $950$ | $1000$ | $1050$
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<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C_0$ (cm$^{-3}$)</td>
<td>$1.9 \times 10^{20}$</td>
<td>$2.3 \times 10^{20}$</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^{20}$</td>
<td>$2.9 \times 10^{20}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V$ (cm/sec)</td>
<td>$1.92 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
<td>$2.24 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
<td>$4.8 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
<td>$8.0 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D_r^*$ (cm$^2$/sec)</td>
<td>$1.21 \times 10^{-15}$</td>
<td>$5.15 \times 10^{-15}$</td>
<td>$1.96 \times 10^{-14}$</td>
<td>$6.76 \times 10^{-14}$</td>
</tr>
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Due to oxidation enhancements as well as chemical deposition of boric oxide, Eq. [1], the oxide formation rate \( v_0 \) estimated from the oxide thickness given in Fig. 1 is much larger than \( v_1 \) calculated from Eq. [9] using the parameters given by Deal and Grove (11). It is interesting to note that the ratio of silicon consuming rate \( v \) given in Table I to oxide formation rate \( v_0 \) is around 0.58 which is slightly higher than the volumetric ratio of 0.45 for silicon converted to silicon dioxide during thermal oxidation. The difference may be attributed to the etching of silicon by bromine in the deposition process.

**Diffusion coefficient.**—From the study of oxidation-enhanced diffusion of boron and phosphorus in silicon, it is generally believed (14, 15) that a substitional impurity diffuses via a dual mechanism of vacancy and interstitialcy. An increase in the concentration of either vacancies \( C_v \) or interstitials \( C_i \) would cause the enhancement of impurity diffusion. Thus it is reasonable to assume that the effective diffusivity of an impurity may be expressed as

\[
D = f_e(D_v + D_i) \quad [10]
\]

where \( f_e \) is the high concentration field enhancement factor given by (16)

\[
f_e = 1 + [1 + (2n_i/C)^2]^{-1/2} \quad [11]
\]

\( D_v \) and \( D_i \) are the vacancy and interstitialcy motivated diffusivities given by (14)

\[
D_v = D_v^*(C_v/C_v^*) \quad [12]
\]

\[
D_i = D_i^*(C_i/C_i^*) \quad [13]
\]

with the asterisk denoting the corresponding intrinsic value.

The normalized vacancy concentration has been shown to follow the multiple charge state vacancy statistics (2, 4) and can be expressed as a function of hole concentration \( p \) as

\[
\frac{C_v}{C_v^*} = \frac{1 + \beta^+(n_i/p) + \beta^-(n_i/p) + \beta^=(n_i/p)^2}{1 + \beta^+ + \beta^- + \beta^=} \quad [14]
\]

where \( \beta^+, \beta^- \), and \( \beta^= \) are the vacancy statistics parameters defined in Ref. (2).

The normalized concentration of self-interstitials has been related to the oxidation rate by a number of investigators (5, 6, 15) and can be expressed as

\[
\frac{C_i}{C_i^*} = K_v \tau \quad [15]
\]

where \( K \) is a proportionate factor and \( \tau \) is an exponent around 0.5 (3). Although \( v_1 \) is time dependent in general, Eq. [8], we will consider it as a constant, Eq. [9]. Substituting Eq. [12], [13], and [15] into Eq. [10], we obtain

\[
D = f_eD_v^*(C_v/C_v^* + \gamma) \quad [16]
\]

where \( \gamma = D_i^* K_v \tau / D_v^* \quad [17] \)

is the interstitialcy contribution parameter with simulated values given in Table I. The intrinsic diffusivity reported by Fair (17) has been taken as \( D_v^* \) in this work. The intrinsic carrier concentration \( n_i \) which appears in Eqs. [11] and [14] is calculated from Morin and Maita’s empirical relation (18).

**Doping composition effect.**—The dependence of boron concentration profiles on doping gas composition can be modeled by the change of interstitialcy contribution parameter \( \gamma \). Higher oxygen flow rate results in higher oxidation rate \( v_1 \) and hence higher interstitial concentration \( C_i \). While higher BBr3 concentration produces higher boric oxide concentration in the oxide layer which reacts with the excess silicon at the interface. Therefore the interstitial concentration \( C_i \) is reduced and a boron-rich layer (BRL) is formed at silicon surface.

Figure 8 reproduces the measured profiles of Negrini et al. (1) at 1000°C for 23 min with different gas compositions. The observed differences in the surface concentration can be modeled by the displacement \( \delta \) of the BRL-Si interface from the original oxide-silicon interface. The simulated results for boron concentration profiles with different values of \( \gamma \) and \( \delta \) are also shown in the figure. A constant surface concentration of \( 2.6 \times 10^{20} \text{cm}^{-3} \) is taken at the oxide-silicon interface and the origins of all profiles are taken at the BRL-Si interface. Good agreement in profile shapes as well as deposition quantities has been obtained.

**Deposition quantity.**—The quantity \( Q \) of boron deposited in silicon can be determined in some cases by numerical integration of the measured doping profiles. However, as revealed from profile and sheet resistance simulations, the average mobilities of deposited layers are very close together (54.3 ± 1.1 cm²/V·sec) and a sufficiently accurate value of \( Q \) can be obtained from the measured sheet resistance. Figure 1 shows the deposition quantity \( Q \) as a function of time at 950°C for BBr3 and BN sources. Also shown in the figure is a
relation of \( Q < t^{1/4} \) which is obtained by taking the moving boundary velocity \( V \) as zero.

**Conclusion**

The sheet resistance and junction depth of boron-deposited layers as a function of time for various temperatures using a BBF source can be simulated by properly choosing the boundary conditions and modeling the diffusion coefficient. The diminishing of the deposition quantity is modeled by a moving velocity of the oxide-silicon interface. The increase of the deposition quantity by using BBF as compared to BN is attributed to the formation of silicon self-interstitials. The gas composition dependence of boron deposition is explained by the change of the interstitiallicity contribution as well as the formation of a boron-rich layer.

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**Studies of Methacrylonitrile and Trichloroethyl Methacrylate Copolymers as Electron Sensitive Positive Resists**

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**ABSTRACT**

Positive electron resists derived from copolymers of methacrylonitrile (MCN) and trichloroethyl methacrylate (TCM) have been synthesized, characterized, and evaluated. The sensitivity of 2:1 MCN/TCM copolymer is \( 5 \mu \text{C cm}^{-2} \) with 40% unexposed area thickness loss. The plasma etch resistance of the copolymer is significantly higher than that of the TCEM homopolymer. The inclusion of the comonomer MCN, however, has not significantly broadened the exposure range for the copolymer as a positive-acting resist. The copolymer resists exhibited significant concurrent cross-linking at a dose \( \approx 20 \mu \text{C cm}^{-2} \).

**Poly(methacrylonitrile) (PMCN)** is one of the vinyl polymers that is highly sensitive to high energy radiation. On exposure to high energy electron beams, chain scission occurs predominantly in the polymer with negligible concurrent cross-linking. The \( G_s \) value, defined as the number of chain scission events per 100 eV of energy absorbed, of PMCN has been reported to be 3.3 (1). The value is significantly higher than 1.6 of PMMA \( (\text{poly(methyl methacrylate)}) \), the current standard E-beam resist. The thermal stability of the polymer is also better than PMMA. The glass transition temperature \( (T_g) \) of PMCN is 120°C (2), which is higher than the \( T_g \) of PMMA, which is 100°C. Further, it has been shown that PMCN is one of the few aliphatic vinyl polymers that has high plasma etch resistance (3).

Although PMCN has the attractive properties discussed above, the polymer has one major drawback. The polymer is highly solvent resistant (4). The poor solubility of the polymer has resulted in the use of less common solvents, e.g., nitromethane and benzonitrile, for spin coating and development of the polymer resist (5). The poor solubility of the polymer also hinders the possibility of further enhancing the resist sensitivity through optimization of the development process.

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