THE INVESTIGATION ON THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE RESISTANCE OF DRAIN-TO-SOURCE IN SEMICONDUCTOR PACKAGING

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APPRECIATION

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of the project is to investigate the characteristics contact resistance of the silicon lead-frame interface using ECA die attach materials, and to evaluate the factors contributing to the increase of interface resistively in semiconductor packaging. This project was done at ON Semiconductor where silver-filler epoxy-based adhesive chips were investigated.

Tektronix 370B Programmable Curve Tracer with picoprobing is used to measure R_{ON} of the chips. Nondestructive techniques such as X-ray and SAM used to examine internal defect and cross sectional analysis was done using SEM.

Few factors were found affect R_{ON}. Those factors are capacitance due to trap charges during fabrication, supply voltage, thermal management of the package, delamination between die attachments, thickness of the epoxy and copper dioxide of the lead-frame.

ABSTRAK

Objektif projek adalah untuk mengkaji ciri-ciri rintangan sentuh bagi antaramuka *leadframe*-silikon dengan menggunakan bahan lekat die dan menilai faktor-faktor berkaitan kepada peningkatan rintangan bungkusan semikonduktor. Projek ini dijalankan di ON Semiconductor dan cip *silver-filler epoxy-based adhesive* dikajikan.

Tektronix 370B Programmable Curve Tracer dengan *picoprobing* digunakan untuk mengukur R_{ON} cip. Teknik *nondestructive* seperti *X-ray* dan SAM digunakan untuk memeriksa kerosakan dalaman dan analisis keratan rentas dilakukan dengan menggunakan SEM.

Terdapat beberapa faktor didapati mempengaruhi R_{ON}. Faktor-faktor tersebut adalah kapasitan yang disebabkan oleh cas terperangkap semasa fabrikasi, sumber voltan, pengurusan terma pada bungkusan, *delamination* antara perlekatan die, ketebalan eposi dan karbon dioksida bagi *lead-frame*.

CONTENT

TABLE LIST

FIGURE LIST

SYMBOL LIST

Ω	Ohm
μ_n	Electron Mobility
ACA	Anisotropic Conductive Adhesive
Al	Aluminum
AMLCD	Active-matrix liquid-crystal display
a-Si:H	Hydrogenated Amorphous Silicon / Polycrystalline Silicon
BVDSS	Breakdown Voltage
COB	Chip-on-Board
COF	Chip-on-Flex
COG	Chip-on-Glass
C_{OX}	Oxide Capacitance
CTE	Coefficient Thermal Expansion
Cu	Copper
Cu_2O	Copper Oxide
DAP	Die Attach Package
DCA	Direct Chip Attachment
ECA	Electrical Conductive Adhesive
FIB	Focused Ion Bean
FPD	Flat-panel displays
I	Current
I/O	Input/Output
IC	Integrated Circuit
ICA	Isotropic Conductive Adhesive
I_D	Drain (Source) Current
IDSS	Drain Source Short Current
L	Length
MCM	Multi-Chip Module
MOS	Metal Oxide Silicon
MOSFET	Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor
n^+	High Doping Type n
Pb	Plumbum
PC	Personal Computer
PCB	Printed Circuit Board
PDA	Personal Digital Assistant
Q_f	Fixed Charge
Q_{it}	Interface-Trapped Charges
Q_m	Mobile Ionic Charges
Q_{ot}	Oxide-Trapped Charges
R	Resistance
R_{ON}	Drain-to-Source resistance
SAM / SAT	Scanning Acoustic Microscopy
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscopy
SiO_2	Silicon Dioxide
Sn	Lead
TAB	Tape-Automated Bonding

TFT	Thin-film transistor
T_gs	Glass Transition Temperature
V	Voltage
V_{DS}	Drain Source Voltage
V_G	Gate Voltage
VGS(th)/V_T	Threshold voltage
V_{IN}	Input Voltage
V_S	Source Voltage
W	Width

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Semiconductor packaging is a process used to assemble IC devices in electronic packages which provides the interconnection from the IC chip to the printed circuit board (PCB). It provides electrical connection of the chips with wires to distribute signals and power, remove the heat generated by the circuits and provides them with physical support and environmental protection. It plays an important role in determining the performance, cost and reliability of the system.

For many decades, the semiconductor packaging was well served by solders lead, Pb. Tin/lead, SnPb, eutectic solder has become the industry standard material for attaching various components to PCBs (Don Klosterman et. al., 1998). However, as public environmental awareness increases, the toxicity of lead has become increasingly important and the pressure to eliminate or reduce the industrial use of lead is growing. One alternative to Pb-bearing solders is Pb-free solders or an Electrically Conductive Adhesive (ECA), perceived to be more environmentally friendly.

ECA consist of a polymer binder that provides mechanical strength and conductive fillers which offer electrical conduction. The advantages of ECAs over conventional solder interconnection technology are lower processing temperature, finer pitch printer, and low cost due to simpler processing (Don Klosterman et. al., 1998).

1.2 OBJECTIVE

ECA is one of the alternatives that being actively investigated for the possibility of replacing the solder interconnection technology used for microelectronics applications. Silver-filled epoxy resin is commonly used for thermal conduction in die attach applications. This material has several limitations when it is considered as a replacement for solder interconnection, such as low electrical conductivity, low joint strength, increase in contact resistance upon thermal cycling, lack of reworkability and silver migration. The objectives of this project as follow:

i. to investigate the characteristics contact resistance of the silicon-leadframe interface using ECA die attach materials.
ii. to evaluate factors contributing to the interface resistively increase in semiconductor packaging.

The source-to-drain resistance (R_{ON}) after die attach is the parameter that shall be investigated. Die attach performance is usually correlated to die attach cohesive strength and adhesion strengths to different interfaces. It becomes important to have low contact resistance especially when replacing Pb-bearing solders with Pb-free solders that produces high contact resistance after die attach.

1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THIS DISSERTATION

This study is divided into five chapters and each chapter is briefly described as follows.

Chapter 1 gives a brief description of background information related to this project and presents the objectives and significance of this study.

Chapter 2 deals with a literature review covering various topics which related to this project such as semiconductor packaging, conductive adhesive, die attachment, issue of contact resistance and the importance of resistance in packaging.

Chapter 3 is entitled methodology of the project. This chapter was written on how's the project performs to investigate factors that affect the R_{ON}. A combination of several experimental techniques including internal scanning acoustic microscopy, radiation x-ray, cross sectional analysis, scanning electron microscopy, and temperature testing was utilized throughout this study.

Chapter 4 is entitled "Result and Discussion" which describes the result from experiment and then discuss the factors involved such as capacitance, trapped charge, input supply, temperature management, delamination, thickness of epoxy, copper dioxide and equipment that may affect the impact behavior of electrical parameter R_{ON}.

As conclusion to this project, Chapter 5 summarizes the important conclusions and findings of this work besides proposing some future work for this area.

Finally, several appendices are included. Appendix gives some supplemental information related to this project and some results that are not incorporated in the formal chapter.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 SEMICONDUCTOR PACKAGING

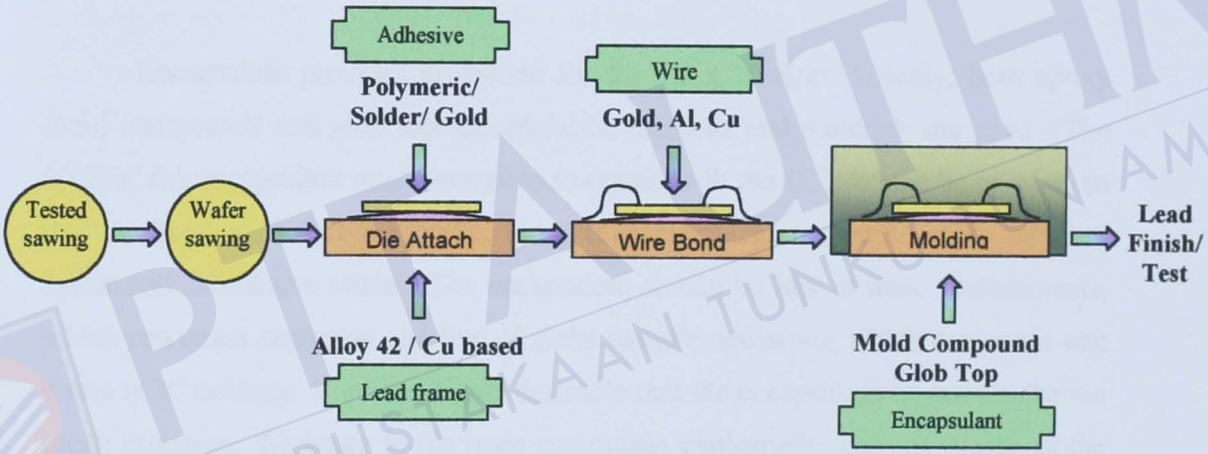


Figure 2.1: Basic process of semiconductor packaging

Figure 2.1 illustrated the basic process of semiconductor packaging. The major components in semiconductor packaging are composed of lead frame, die attach, silicon die, wire bond and encapsulate material. The lead frame, typically a copper alloy for better thermal performance, is used to form the skeleton of the package upon which other components are laid to form a complete package. Die attachment is done with a polymer adhesive, either conductive (silver-filled) or nonconductive epoxy or polyimide paste. Polymer adhesive are used to bond the IC chip to either a lead frame or, in the case of direct chip attach and interposer or substrate (Harper, 2000).

The electrical contacts between the die and bonding pad of substrate are made through the bonding of a metal wire. Wire bonding is either thermosonic, thermocompression or ultrasonic ball-wedge bonding using 0.001 to 0.00125-in (0.025 to 0.032mm) diameter, 99.99 percent pure gold wire (Pecht, 1991 & Harper, 2000). Copper wire has also been evaluated and can be used but requires much more care. The choice is often made based on a combination of factors such as cost, size and reliability. Thermocompression bonding is commonly used and requires both heat (>300°C) and pressure to join the two metals together, usually by forming a ball (Pecht, 1991 & Harper, 2000). In ultrasonic wedge bonding, the heat is generated by ultrasound and the substrate remains around room temperature. Finally, thermosonic bonding uses a combination of ultrasound and pressure and better results are obtained at intermediate substrate temperatures of 125°C (Pecht, 1991 & Harper, 2000).

Encapsulant provides protection for the die and wire. Usually, both epoxy mold compounds and glob top encapsulation methods and materials are used. The CTE of the encapsulant must formulate to match with the CTE of the bond wire, so that the bond wire does not break during repeated thermal excursions the result of cyclic and cumulative strain. The encapsulant should be low in ionic contaminants, which can cause corrosion and free of alpha particle emissions, which can cause soft errors in IC devices. It is also highly desirable that the encapsulant do not absorb too much moisture. Moisture in the resin can outgas explosively, causing cracks in the encapsulant when exposed to reflow temperatures. (Figure 2.2)

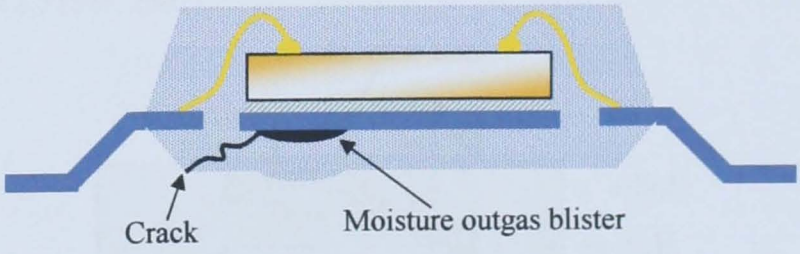


Figure 2.2: Moisture absorption in the encapsulation can cause downstream problems such as cracking during assembly (Harper, 2000)

2.2 THIN FILM TRANSISTOR TECHNOLOGIES

Flat-panel displays (FPDs) are becoming increasingly common in today's commercial electronic devices and they are widespread use in many new products, such as cellular phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs), camcorders, and laptop personal computers (PCs). FPDs in these devices are expected to be lightweight, portable, low-power and high-resolution. Displays having these entire characteristic will enable a wide variety of commercial applications in the future (Chung, 1995).

Active-matrix liquid-crystal displays (AMLCDs) are the leading flat-panel display technology. These displays are present in laptops, often dubbed "active-matrix TFT," (active-matrix thin-film transistor), a display is composed of a grid (or matrix) of pixels (picture elements). Thin-film transistors (TFTs) act as switches to turn each pixel "on" (light) or "off" (dark). The TFTs are the active elements that more responsive to change. For example, when you move your mouse across the screen, a TFT display is fast enough to reflect the movement of the mouse cursor. With a passive matrix display, the cursor temporarily disappears until the display can "catch up" (Chung, 1995).

TFT is a MOSFET (Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor) which fabricated on an insulation substrate with the channel layer is hydrogenated amorphous silicon (a-Si:H) or polycrystalline silicon. The a-Si:H TFT is usually fabricated using the inverted staggered structure with a bottom-gate scheme as shown in Figure 2.3 (Sze, 2002).

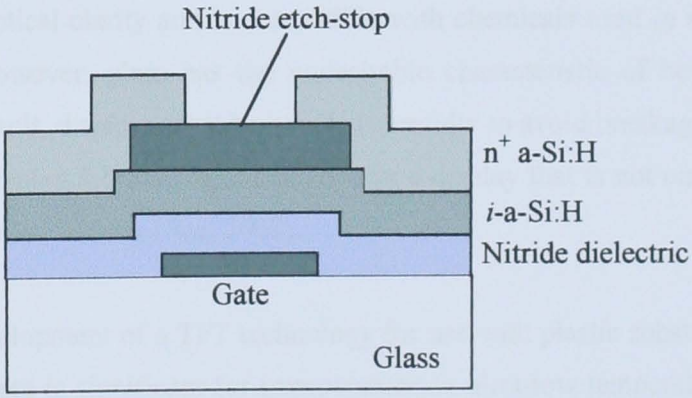


Figure 2.3: A typical a-Si:H thin film transistor (TFT) structure (Sze, 2002)

Silicon nitride or silicon dioxide is often used as the gate dielectric. An undoped a-Si:H layer is subsequently deposited to form the channel. The source and drain of the TFT are formed with an in situ-doped n^+ a-Si:H layer complying (Sze, 2002).

The polysilicon TFT uses a thin polysilicon as the channel layer. The polysilicon TFT is usually fabricated with the top-gate structure as shown in Figure 2.4. A self-aligned implant is used to form the source or drain. One main limitation of polysilicon TFT manufacturing is the high process temperature (>600°C) (Sze 2002). Expensive substrates such as quartz are usually needed to tolerate the high process temperatures. This makes polysilicon TFT less attractive than a-Si:H TFT in production for low-end applications (Sze, 2002).

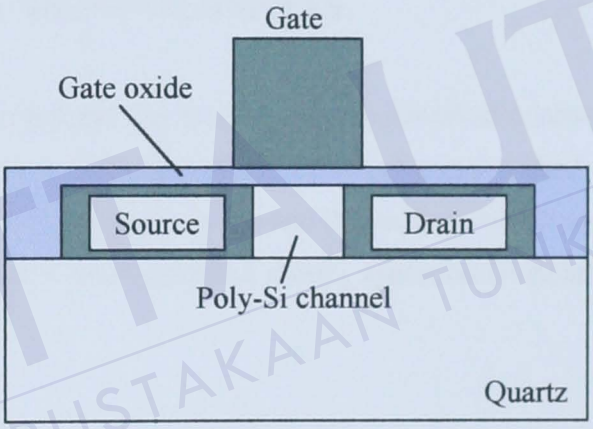


Figure 2.4: A polysilicon TFT structure (Sze, 2002)

Most available AMLCDs use glass in the display fabrication process. Glass has excellent optical clarity and is compatible with chemicals used in semiconductor processing. However, glass has the undesirable characteristic of being extremely fragile. As a result, displays must be handled carefully to avoid breakage. If plastic is employed for display fabrication, it can achieve a display that is not only lightweight and rugged but also flexible (Sze, 2002).

The development of a TFT technology for use with plastic substrates is still in its infancy. There is significant for improvement in ultra-low temperature fabricated polysilicon TFTs. An ultra-low-temperature (100°C) fabrication process, which

would be compatible with flexible plastic substrates, is being developed by the TFT technology group at UCB. The goal is to achieve polycrystalline-silicon TFTs with current-driving capability far exceeding that of conventional amorphous-silicon TFTs typically employed in high-performance active-matrix liquid-crystal displays today. Techniques for formation of the poly-Si and gate-dielectric materials are being investigated in order to determine the optimum processes for high-performance TFTs. Various device and process architectures for attaining low leakage current are being studied. The degradation of TFT performance under high-voltage bias stressing will also be characterized. To enable device modeling and circuit design, a physically based model for ultra-low-temperature-fabricated TFTs will be developed.

2.3 DIE ATTACHMENT TECHNIQUES

Different bonding techniques are used to provide electrical connections between the chip pads and package. Die attachment performs several critical function. It must provide a good thermal path between die and the package which usually attached to a heat sink to remove the heat generated during operation (Ponchak). These can be classified as follows.

2.3.1 Wire Bonding

Wire bonding is a method used to connect a fine wire between an on-chip pad and a substrate pad. This substrate may simply be the ceramic base of a package or another chip. The common materials used are gold and aluminum (Pecht, 1991). The main advantage of wire bonding technology is its low cost; but it cannot provide large I/O counts and it needs large bond pads to make connections (Sze, 1988). The connections have relatively poor electrical performance.

2.3.2 Tape-Automated Bonding

In tape-automated bonding (TAB) technology, a chip with its attached metal films is placed on a multilayer polymer tape. The interconnections are patterned on a

multilayer polymer tape. The tape is positioned above the "bare die" so that the metal tracks (on the polymer tape) correspond to the bonding sites on the die. TAB technology provides several advantages over wire bonding technology. It requires a smaller bonding pad, smaller on-chip bonding pitch and a decrease in the quantity of gold used for bonding. It has better electrical performance, lower labor costs, higher I/O counts and lighter weight, greater densities and the chip can be attached in a face-up or face-down configuration. TAB technology includes time and cost of designing and fabricating the tape and the capital expense of the TAB bonding equipment. In addition, each die must have its own tape patterned for its bonding configuration. Thus, TAB technology has typically been limited to high-volume applications (Pecht, 1991).

2.3.3 Solder Bump Bonding

Solder bumps are small spheres of solder (solder balls) that are bonded to contact pads of semiconductor devices. The length of the electrical connections between the chip and the substrate can be minimized by placing solder bumps on the die, flipping the die over, aligning the solder bumps with the contact pads on the substrate and re-flowing the solder balls in a furnace to establish the bonding between the die and the substrate. This technology provides electrical connections with minute parasitic inductances and capacitances. In addition, the contact pads are distributed over the entire chip surface rather than being confined to the periphery. As a result, the silicon area is used more efficiently, the maximum number of interconnects is increased and signal interconnections are shortened. But this technique results in poor thermal conduction, difficult inspection of the solder bumps and possible thermal expansion mismatch between the semiconductor chips and the substrate (Harper, 2000).

2.4 DIE ATTACHMENT PROCESS

The process of mounting a semiconductor die or chip to a substrate or package is known as die attach as shown in Figure 2.5 (Stockham, 2001 & Harper, 2000). The die is attached mechanically to the substrate either by an organic adhesive, such as a

silver-filler epoxy or by a metal solders. This is a low-temperature process and care must be taken not to stress the die through differences in the thermal expansions of the material.

Automatic syringe dispensing, screen printing and stamping paste adhesives are the popular production methods for attaching ICs and other chip devices. Control of the epoxy flow is an important consideration in die attach. Excessive flow-out will contaminate adjacent bonding sites and require additional cleaning steps (Stockham, 2001 & Harper, 2000).

The curing profile determines the properties of adhesive after cure. The best cure profile is determined from the results of RGA testing, x-ray, die shear and/or centrifuge testing, combined with the throughput demands of the production environment. Once an epoxy is fully cured, it is shall not to exceed the cure temperature for extended periods of time, because the epoxy will begin to break down and lose strength (Stockham, 2001 & Harper, 2000).

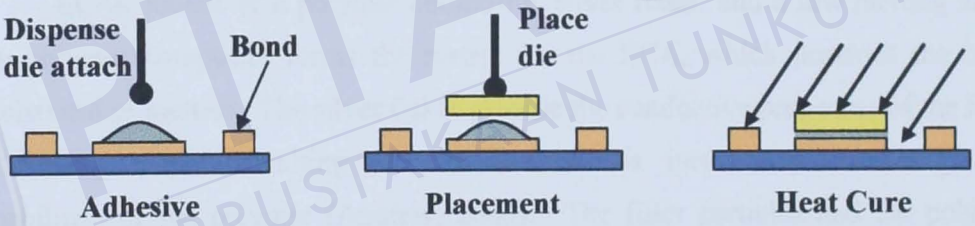


Figure 2.5: Die Attachment Process (Harper, 2000)

2.5 ELECTRICALLY CONDUCTIVE ADHESIVES

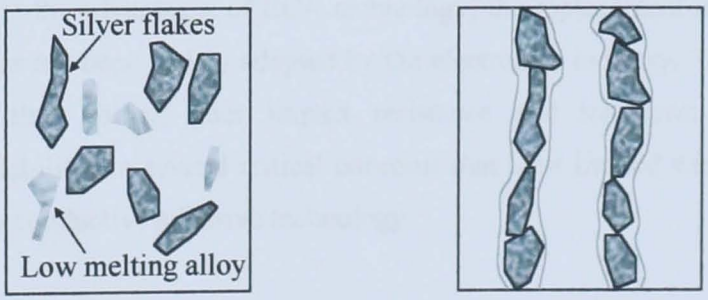
Electrically conductive adhesives (ECAs) are gaining great interest as potential solder replacements in microelectronics assemblies. Basically, there are two types of ECAs, isotropic conductive adhesive (ICA) and anisotropic conductive adhesive (ACA). Although the concepts of these materials are different, both materials are composite materials consisting of a polymer matrix containing conductive fillers. Typically, ICAs contain conductive filler concentrations between 20 and 35 vol.% and the adhesives are conductive in all directions. ICAs are primarily utilized in hybrid

applications and surface mount technology. In ACAs, the volume fractions of conductive fillers are normally between 5 and 10 vol.% and the electrical conduction is generally built only in the pressurization direction during curing. ACA technology is very suitable for fine pitch technology and is principally used for flat panel display application, flip chips and fine pitch surface mount devices (Harper, 2000).

Compared to conventional solder interconnection technology, conductive adhesives are believed to have the following advantages (Tschudin & Adamson, 2002,):

1. more environmental friendly than lead-based solder;
2. lower processing temperature requirements;
3. finer pitch capability;
4. higher flexibility and greater fatigue resistance than solder;
5. simpler processing (no need to get rid of flux);
6. non-solderable (inexpensive) substrates can be used (e.g. glass)

ECAs consist of a polymer composite, silver flakes and a low melting alloy. The polymer composite forms the matrix for the ECA, which provides the basic mechanical properties. The silver flakes provide the conductive properties of the ECA and finally the low-melting alloy filler particles increase the self-alignment capabilities of the polymer (Andrew, 2000). The filler particles and the polymer composite should have similar melting behavior, the melting temperature of the filler particles will be just below the curing temperature of the polymer so that the particles will have more time to align in a way that connects the chip to the substrate as illustrated in Figure 2.6.



Before Cure **After Cure**

Figure 2.6: Alignment of filler particles before and after cure (Andrew, 2000)

Basically, there are three different classifications of polymer adhesives used in the joining process. They are epoxies, cyanate esters and polyimides (Harper, 2000). Epoxies are widely used and characterized by relatively low cure temperatures (125 to 175°C) and moderate glass transition temperature, T_gs (100 to 155°C, typical) which able to rework a defective chip if it fails. Epoxies are relatively low in cost and there is a large supplier base with many different products to choose from. Epoxy provides a strong adhesive bond and can be easily reworked. However, epoxies by their very nature easily absorb and gas moisture and other contaminants. Cyanate ester adhesives require much higher cure temperatures (300°C typical) and have relatively high T_gs (240°C) and a correspondingly high thermal stability (Harper, 2000).

Epoxy as a die attach material suffers from two major disadvantages (McCluskey):

1. The thermal and electrical resistances are quite high compared to direct methods of bonding such as soldering or eutectic bonding.
2. The operation temperature is limited to about 150°C, as many epoxies begin breaking down and outgassing at temperatures above this figure.

These factors inhibit the use of epoxy in mounting power devices, in applications where a high processing temperature is required or where a low bond resistance is needed (Adamson, 2002). One phenomenon that can occur when the epoxy is operated at elevated temperatures near or above the T_g at the bond line and increasing the electrical resistance of the bond to the point where circuit failure occurs.

Despite the advantages of ECA technology, the replacement of solder by this technology has not been widely adopted by the electronics industry. Lower electrical conductivity than solder, poor impact resistance and long-term electrical and mechanical stability are several critical concerns that have limited wider applications of electrically conductive adhesive technology.

2.6 DRAIN-TO-SOURCE RESISTANCE

R_{ON} defined as on resistance or resistance drain-to-source.

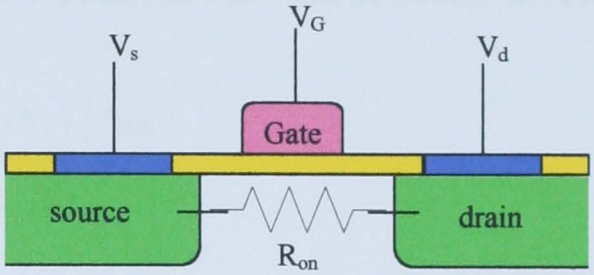


Figure 2.7: On resistance or resistance drain-to-source

When transistors are scaled down, their junctions are shallower and the contact openings become smaller. This causes an increase in the parasitic resistance in series with the drain and source regions. There are many factors that affect R_{ON} such as temperature, input voltage, supply voltage and gate length 'L'.

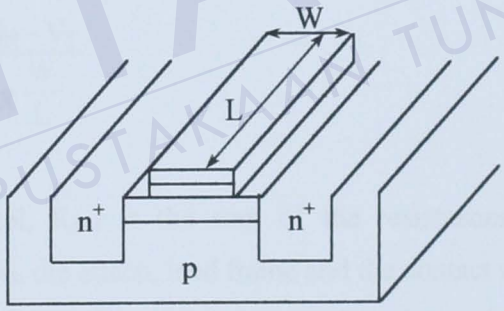


Figure 2.8: N-channel MOSFET (nMOS) (Rabaey, 2002)

The following calculations drive how gate length 'L' affect R_{ON} in wafer level. The current flow in drain (source) region can be expressed as (Rabaey, 2002)

$$I_D = \frac{(\mu_n C_{OX}) W}{L[(V_{GS} - V_T) V_{DS} - \frac{1}{2} V_{DS}^2]} \quad (2.1)$$

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