

# Spiral 1 / Unit 8

Transistor Implementations CMOS Logic Gates



# **Spiral Content Mapping**

Spiral	Theory Combinational Design		Sequential Design	System Level Design	Implementation and Tools	Project
1	<ul> <li>Performance metrics (latency vs. throughput)</li> <li>Boolean Algebra (Pt. 1)</li> <li>Canonical Representations</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Decoders and muxes</li> <li>Synthesis with min/maxterms</li> <li>Synthesis with Karnaugh Maps</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Edge-triggered flip-flops</li> <li>Registers (with enables)</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Encoded State machine design</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Structural Verilog HDL</li> <li>CMOS gate implementation</li> <li>Fabrication process</li> </ul>	
2	<ul> <li>Boolean algebra for analysis and optimization (DeMorgan's theorem)</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Synthesis with memory</li> <li>Adder and comparator design</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Bistables, latches, and Flip- flops</li> <li>Counters</li> <li>Memories</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>One-hot state machine design</li> <li>Control and datapath decomposition</li> <li>Single-cycle CPU</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>MOS Theory</li> <li>Capacitance, delay and sizing</li> <li>Memory constructs</li> </ul>	
3	<ul> <li>Shannon's theorem</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Synthesis with muxes (Shannon's theorem)</li> </ul>		<ul><li>HW/SW partitioning</li><li>Bus interfacing</li></ul>	<ul> <li>Power and other logic families</li> <li>EDA design process</li> </ul>	

# Outcomes

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- I know the difference between combinational and sequential logic and can name examples of each.
- I understand latency, throughput, and at least 1 technique to improve throughput
- I can identify when I need state vs. a purely combinational function
  - I can convert a simple word problem to a logic function (TT or canonical form) or state diagram
- I can use Karnaugh maps to synthesize combinational functions with several outputs
- I can design a working state machine given a state diagram
- I can implement small logic functions with complex CMOS gates



# **DEMORGAN'S THEOREM**



# **DeMorgan's Theorem**

$$\mathbf{F} = (\overline{\mathbf{X}} + \mathbf{Y}) + \overline{\mathbf{Z}} \bullet (\mathbf{Y} + \mathbf{W})$$

To find F', invert both sides of the equation and then use DeMorgan's theorem to simplify...

$$\overline{F} = (\overline{X} + \overline{Y}) + \overline{Z} \cdot (\overline{Y} + W)$$
$$\overline{F} = (\overline{\overline{X}} + \overline{Y}) \cdot (\overline{\overline{Z}} \cdot (\overline{Y} + W))$$
$$\overline{F} = (\overline{\overline{X}} \cdot \overline{Y}) \cdot (\overline{\overline{Z}} + (\overline{Y} + W))$$
$$\overline{F} = (\overline{X} \cdot \overline{Y}) \cdot (\overline{Z} + (\overline{Y} \cdot W))$$



#### Generalized DeMorgan's Theorem

 $F'(X_1,...,X_n,+,\bullet) = F(X_1',...,X_n',\bullet,+)$ 

To find F', swap AND's and OR's and complement each literal. However, you must maintain the original order of operations.

Note: This parentheses doesn't matter (we are just OR'ing X', Y, and the following subexpression)

$$F = (X+Y) + Z \bullet (Y+W)$$
$$F = \overline{X} + Y + (\overline{Z} \bullet (Y+W))$$

Fully parenthesized to show original order of ops.

$$\overline{\mathbf{F}} = \mathbf{X} \bullet \overline{\mathbf{Y}} \bullet (\mathbf{Z} + (\overline{\mathbf{Y}} \bullet \overline{\mathbf{W}}))$$

AND's & OR's swapped Each literal is inverted

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#### DeMorgan's Theorem Example

• Cancel as many bubbles as you can using DeMorgan's theorem.





With focus on MOS Transistors

# **SEMICONDUCTOR TECHNOLOGY**

# **Evolution of transistor in ICs**

- BJT invention, Bell Labs, 1947
- Single transistor, TI, 1958
- CMOS gate, Fairchild, 1963
   First processor, Intel, 1970
- Very Large Scale Integration, 1978

   Up to 20k transistor
- Ultra Large Scale Integration, 1989
  - More than 1 million per chip
- System-on-Chip, 2002-2015
  - Millions to several billion transistors



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# Invention of the Transistor

- Vacuum tubes ruled in first half of 20<sup>th</sup> century Large, expensive, power-hungry, unreliable
- 1947: first point contact transistor
  - John Bardeen and Walter Brattain at Bell Labs
  - See Crystal Fire
    - by Riordan, Hoddeson



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### **Growth Rate**

- 53% compound annual growth rate over 50 years
  - No other technology has grown so fast so long
- Driven by miniaturization of transistors
  - Smaller is cheaper, faster, lower in power!
  - Revolutionary effects on society



[Moore65] Electronics Magazine



## **Minimum Feature Size**





#### Intel 4004 Micro-Processor



19711000 transistors1 MHz operation

# Intel Core I7

- 2<sup>nd</sup> Gen. Intel Core i7 Extreme Processor for desktops launched in Q4 of 2012
- #cores/#threads: 6/12
- Technology node: 32nm
- Clock speed: 3.5 GHz
- Transistor count: Over one billion
- Cache: 15MB
- Addressable memory: 64GB
- Size: 52.5mm by 45.0mm mm<sup>2</sup>



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# ARM Cortex A15

ARM Cortex A15 in 2011 to 2013

- 4 cores per cluster, two clusters per chip
- Technology node: 22nm
- Clock speed: 2.5 GHz
- Transistor count: Over one billion
- Cache: Up to 4MB per cluster
- Addressable memory: up to 1TB
- Size: 52.5mm by 45.0mm



## Cortex-A72

1-8.16

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#### Cortex-A72: Accelerating Usable Performance



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# IBM z13 Storage Controller

#### z13 Storage Control (SC) Chip Detail

- CMOS 14S0 22nm SOI Technology
  - 15 Layers of metal
  - 7.1 Billion transistors
  - 12.4 Miles of copper wire

#### Chip Area –

- 28.4 x 23.9 mm
- 678 mm<sup>2</sup>
- 11,950 power pins
- 1,707 Signal Connectors
- eDRAM Shared L4 Cache
  - 480 MB per SC chip (Non-inclusive)
  - 224 MB L3 NIC Directory
  - 2 SCs = 960 MB L4 per z13 drawer
- Interconnects (L4 L4)
  - 3 to CPs in node
  - 1 to SC (node node) in drawer
  - 3 to SC nodes in remote drawers
- 6 Clock domains





# **Annual Sales**

- >10<sup>19</sup> transistors manufactured in 2008
  - 1 billion for every human on the planet





### **Cost per Transistor**





# Internet Traffic Growth



Source: Cisco VNI, 2010

# **TRANSISTOR BASICS**

![](_page_20_Picture_1.jpeg)

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![](_page_21_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **Transistors As Switches**

- Transistor act as a form of switch (on / off)
- Different physical structures lead to different kinds of transistors
  - Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)
    - Initial technology back in the late 40's 60's
  - Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor (MOSFET)
    - Dominates the digital IC market today
- All transistors essentially function similarly with 3 nodes/terminals:
  - 1 node serves as the switch value allowing current to flow between the other 2 nodes (on) or preventing current flow between the other 2 nodes (off)
  - Example: if the switch input voltage is 5V, then current is allowed to flow between the other nodes

![](_page_21_Figure_11.jpeg)

## Semiconductors

While there are numerous semiconductor materials available, by far the most popular material is **Silicon**.

GaAs, InP and SiGe are compound semiconductors that are used in specialized devices.

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The success of a semiconductor material depends on how easy it is to process and how well it allows reliable high-volume fabrication.

# Semiconductor Material

- Semiconductor material is not a great conductor material in its pure form
  - Small amount of free charge
- Can be implanted ("doped") with other elements (e.g. boron or arsenic) to be more conductive
  - Increases the amount of free charge

![](_page_23_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Figure_7.jpeg)

P-Type Silicon (Doped with boron)

**Electron acceptors** 

![](_page_23_Picture_10.jpeg)

N-Type Silicon (Doped with arsenic)

Electron donors

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	1/IA					-											1	8/VIIIA
1	1 H 1.008	2/11A		P	er	<b>i</b> 0		Ga	13	b	e		13/ША	14/IVA	15/VA	16/VIA 1	7/VIIA	2 <b>He</b> 4.003
2	3 Li 6.941	4 <b>Be</b> 9.012		1998 Dr. Michael Blaber 1008 Dr. Michael Blaber 1000 F 1000 20.									10 Ne 20.18					
3	11 Na 22.99	12 Mg 24.30	3/1113	4/IVB	5/VB	6/VIB	7/VIB	8	VШ . 9	10	11/IB	12/1118	13 Al 26.98	14 <b>Si</b> 28.09	15 P 30.97	16 <b>S</b> 32.07	17 CI 35.05	18 Ar 39.95
4	19 K 39.10	20 Ca 40.08	21 Sc 44.96	22 <b>Ti</b> 47.87	23 V 50.94	24 Cr 52.00	25 Mn 54.94	26 Fe 55.85	27 <b>Co</b> 58.93	28 Ni 58.69	29 Cu 63.55	30 Zn 65.39	31 Ga 69.72	32 <b>Ge</b> 72.61	33 As 74.92	34 <b>Se</b> 78.96	35 Br 79.90	36 Kr 83.80
5	37 <b>Rb</b> 85.47	38 <b>Sr</b> 87.62	39 Y 88.91	40 <b>Zr</b> 91.22	41 Nb 92.91	42 <b>Mo</b> 95.94	43 <b>TC</b> 98.91	44 <b>Ru</b> 101.1	45 <b>Rh</b> 102.9	46 <b>Pd</b> 106.4	47 <b>Ag</b> 107.9	48 Cd 112.4	49 In 114.8	50 <b>Sn</b> 118.7	51 <b>Sb</b> 121.8	52 <b>Te</b> 127.6	53   126.9	54 Xe 131.3
6	55 Cs 123.9	56 <b>Ba</b> 137.3	La- Lu	72 <b>Hf</b> 178.5	73 <b>Ta</b> 180.9	74 W 183.8	75 <b>Re</b> 186.2	76 <b>Os</b> 190.2	77 <b>Ir</b> 192.2	78 <b>Pt</b> 195.1	79 <b>Au</b> 197.0	80 Hg 200.6	81 <b>TI</b> 204.4	82 <b>Pb</b> 207.2	83 <b>Bi</b> 209.0	84 <b>Po</b> 210.0	85 At 210.0	86 <b>Rn</b> 222.0
7	87 Fr 223.0	88 Ra 226.0	Ac- Lr	104 Db	105 JI	106 Rf	107 Bh	108 Hn	109 <b>Mt</b>	110 Uun	111 Uuu							
$\blacktriangleleft s \longrightarrow \blacktriangleleft \qquad \qquad$																		
	Lanth	nanid	es	57 La 138.9	58 Ce 140.1	59 <b>Pr</b> 140.9	60 Nd 144.2	61 <b>Pm</b> 146.9	62 Sm 150.4	63 Eu 152.0	64 Gd 157.2	65 <b>Tb</b> 158.9	66 <b>Dy</b> 162.5	67 <b>Ho</b> 164.9	68 Er 167.3	69 <b>Tm</b> 168.9	70 <b>Yb</b> 173.0	71 Lu 175.0
Actinides			89 <b>Ac</b> 227.0	90 <b>Th</b> 232.0	91 <b>Pa</b> 231.0	92 U 238.0	93 Np 237.0	94 <b>Pu</b> 239.1	95 <b>Am</b> 241.1	96 Cm 244.1	97 <b>Bk</b> 249.1	98 <b>Cf</b> 252.1	99 <b>Es</b> 252.1	100 Fm 257.1	101 <b>Md</b> 258.1	102 No 259.1	103 <b>Lr</b> 262.1	
				•							f -							

# Silicon Lattice and Dopant Atoms

![](_page_25_Figure_1.jpeg)

- Pure silicon: 3-D lattice of atoms (a cubic crystal) and a poor conductor
- Conductivity can be raised by adding either donors or acceptor
  - Donors: Group V dopant impurities, which have more free electrons than silicon
    - The resulting material is called n-type
  - Group III dopants impurities which have lack of electrons
    - The resulting material is called p-type

![](_page_26_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **Transistor Types**

- Bipolar Junction Transistors (BJT)
  - npn or pnp silicon structure
  - Small current into very thin base layer controls large currents between emitter and collector
  - However the fact that it requires a current into the base means it burns power (P = I\*V) and thus limits how many we can integrate on a chip (i.e. density)
- Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistors
  - nMOS and pMOS MOSFETS
  - Voltage applied to insulated gate controls current between source and drain
    - Gate input requires no constant current...thus low power!

We will focus on MOSFET in this class

![](_page_26_Figure_11.jpeg)

#### npn BJT

![](_page_26_Figure_13.jpeg)

![](_page_27_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

 Transistor is started by implanting two n-type silicon areas, separated by p-type

![](_page_27_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

• A thin, insulator layer (silicon dioxide or just "oxide") is placed over the silicon between source and drain

![](_page_28_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

- A thin, insulator layer (silicon dioxide or just "oxide") is placed over the silicon between source and drain
- Conductive polysilicon material is layered over the oxide to form the gate input

![](_page_29_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

- Positive voltage (charge) at the gate input *repels* the extra positive charges in the ptype silicon
- Result is a negativecharge channel between the source input and drain

![](_page_30_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

- Electrons can flow through the negative channel from the source input to the drain output
- The transistor is "on"

![](_page_31_Figure_5.jpeg)

Negative channel between source and drain = Current flow

![](_page_32_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **NMOS Transistor Physics**

- If a low voltage (negative charge) is placed on the gate, no channel will develop and no current will flow
- The transistor is "off"

![](_page_32_Figure_5.jpeg)

No negative channel between source and drain = No current flow

![](_page_33_Picture_0.jpeg)

# PMOS vs. NMOS

 PMOS transistors can also be made that are on when the gate voltage is low and off when it is high

![](_page_33_Figure_3.jpeg)

Negative channel between source and drain = Current flow "Positive" channel between source and drain = Current flow

NMOS

**PMOS** 

![](_page_34_Picture_0.jpeg)

Understanding physical constraints

# CMOS TRANSISTOR LEVEL IMPLEMENTATION

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# NMOS and PMOS Transistors

#### **NMOS Transistors**

• NMOS conducts when gate input is at a high voltage (logic '1')

![](_page_35_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_35_Picture_6.jpeg)

Current Flows (Small resistance between source and output ) No Current Flows (Large resistance between source and output)

NMOS (On if G=1)

**PMOS Transistors** 

 PMOS conducts when gate input is at a low voltage (logic '0')

![](_page_35_Figure_11.jpeg)

## NMOS Transistors in Series/Paralle<sup>Echol of Engineering</sup> Connection

1-8.37

- Transistors can be thought as a switch controlled by its gate signal
- NMOS switch closes when switch control input is high

![](_page_36_Figure_3.jpeg)

# PMOS Transistors in Series/Parallel<sup>School of Engineering</sup> Connection

1-8.38

 PMOS switch closes when switch control input is low

![](_page_37_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_38_Picture_0.jpeg)

# We All Have Our Strengths

- NMOS are:
  - Good at pulling the output voltage DOWN to 0
  - Bad at pulling the output voltage up to 1
- PMOS are:
  - Good at pulling the output voltage up to 1
  - Bad at pulling the output voltage down to 0

![](_page_38_Figure_9.jpeg)

# NMOS and PMOS Transistors

- NMOS transistors work best when one terminal is connected to a low voltage source, pulling the other terminal down to that voltage
  - Normally, source terminal is connected to GND=0V
- PMOS transistors work best when one terminal is connected to a high voltage source, pulling the other terminal down to that voltage
  - Normally, source terminal is connected to power supply voltage (+5V, +3V, etc.)

![](_page_39_Figure_5.jpeg)

![](_page_39_Figure_6.jpeg)

# CMOS

- Complimentary MOS (CMOS)
  - Use PMOS to connect output to high voltage source
    - We call this the Pull-Up Network
  - Use NMOS to connect output to low voltage source (usually = GND)
    - We call this the Pull-Down Network
  - Either PMOS or NMOS should create a conductive path to output, but not both

![](_page_40_Figure_7.jpeg)

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	Pull-up OFF	Pull-up ON
Pull-down OFF	Z (float)	1
Pull-down ON	0	X (crowbar)

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# Signal Strength

- *Strength* of signal
  - How close it approximates ideal voltage source
- $V_{DD}$  and GND rails are strongest 1 and 0
- nMOS passes strong 0
  - But degraded or weak 1
- pMOS passes strong 1
  - But degraded or weak 0
- Thus nMOSes are best for the pull-down network, pMOSes are best for the pull-up network

# **CMOS** Inverter

- Inverter can be formed using one PMOS and NMOS transistor
- The input value connects to both gate inputs
- The output is formed at the junction of the drains

![](_page_42_Figure_4.jpeg)

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![](_page_43_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **CMOS** Inverter

- When input is 1, NMOS conducts and output is pulled down to 0V (GND)
- When input is 0, PMOS conducts and output is pulled up to 3V (V<sub>DD</sub>)

![](_page_43_Figure_4.jpeg)

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# CMOS 'NAND' Gate

- If A and B = 1, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 0 (opposite of AND function)
- If A or B = 0, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 1 (opposite of AND function)
- Rule of Conduction Complements
  - Pull-up network is the dual (complement) of pull-down
  - Parallel -> series, series -> parallel

![](_page_44_Figure_8.jpeg)

# CMOS 'AND' Gate

- If A and B = 1, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 0 (opposite of AND function)
- If A or B = 0, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 1 (opposite of AND function)
- Inverter is then used to produce true AND output

![](_page_45_Figure_4.jpeg)

produce AND

-8.46

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# CMOS 'NOR' Gate

- If A or B = 1, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 0 (opposite of OR function)
- If A and B = 0, the output of the circuit is pulled to 1 (opposite of OR function)
- Rule of Conduction Complements
  - Pull-up network is the dual (complement) of pull-down
  - Parallel -> series, series -> parallel

![](_page_46_Figure_6.jpeg)

-8.47

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# CMOS 'NOR' Gate

- If A or B = 1, the output of the first circuit is pulled to 0 (opposite of OR function)
- If A and B = 0, the output of the circuit is pulled to 1 (opposite of OR function)
- Inverter is then used to produce true OR output

![](_page_47_Figure_4.jpeg)

-8.48

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OR

# **Compound Gates**

- How could you build this gate?
- You could try building each gate separately
  - Two AND gates = 2\*6 transistors
  - One NOR gate = 4 transistors
- With DeMorgan's
  - Two NAND gates = 2\*4 transistors
  - One AND gate = 6 transistors
- Or you could take build it as a single compound gate.

![](_page_48_Figure_9.jpeg)

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![](_page_48_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_49_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **Compound Gates**

- Compound gates can do any inverting function
- Ex: AND-OR-INVERT (AOI)

$$Y = \overline{A \bullet B + C \bullet D}$$

![](_page_49_Figure_5.jpeg)

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# Compound Gate Approach

- For an inverting function just look at the expression (w/o the inversion) and...
  - Implement the PDN using:
    - Series connections for AND
    - Parallel connections for OR
  - Implement PUN as dual of PDN
    - Swap series and parallel
- If function is non inverting just add an inverter at the output

![](_page_51_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **Compound Gate Example**

$$Y = D \bullet (A + B + C)$$

![](_page_51_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_52_Picture_0.jpeg)

Compound Gate Example

![](_page_52_Figure_2.jpeg)

$$OUT = D + A \cdot (B + C)$$

![](_page_53_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Compound Gate Example (cont.)

![](_page_53_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_54_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Another Compound Gate Example

 $OUT = A \cdot D + B(C + E)$ 

$$OUT = \overline{A \cdot D + B(C + E)}$$

Add an inverter at the output

 Implement inverting function using compound CMOS gate

OR apply DeMorgan's theorem with the inner inversion and just build the resulting circuit

![](_page_54_Figure_8.jpeg)

![](_page_55_Picture_0.jpeg)

#### Build a 2-to-1 mux at the Transistor Level

![](_page_55_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_55_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_56_Picture_0.jpeg)

### **FABRICATION**

![](_page_57_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **MOS Layout Structure**

![](_page_57_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_57_Figure_5.jpeg)

#### L: Channel Length W: Channel Width

![](_page_57_Figure_7.jpeg)

![](_page_58_Figure_0.jpeg)

- Both n-channel (NMOS) and p-channel (PMOS) transistors are built on the same chip substrate
  - Well: A special region created in which the semiconductor type is opposite the substrate's type
    - Example: n-well
      - CMOS fabrication technology to create a n-type substrate inside the already p-type substrate
      - The n-well is used to create the PMOS transistors

![](_page_59_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Layers

- Start from the bottom up
  - Build the n- and p-type material areas on the silicon
  - Lay the insulator layer (oxide) over the silicon
  - Place the polysilicon (gate) on top of the oxide
  - Connect wires to the source, gate, and drain use layers of metal above the gate

![](_page_59_Figure_7.jpeg)

1-8.61

# Photolithography

- An IC consists of several layers of material that are manufactured in successive steps
- Lithography is used to selectively process the layers where the 2-D mask geometry is copied on the surface
- Once the desired shape is patterned with photoresist the unprotected areas are etched away
- Lift-off and etching are different techniques to remove and shape

![](_page_60_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_61_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Photolithography

- Expose only specific areas of the chip for layer deposition or etching
- A layer of "photoresist" material is deposited on the chip
- "Photoresist" becomes soluble when exposed to ultraviolet light

![](_page_61_Figure_5.jpeg)

# Photolithography

- Expose only specific areas of the chip for layer deposition or etching
- A layer of "photoresist" material is deposited on the chip
- "Photoresist" becomes soluble when exposed to ultraviolet light
- Using a mask to cast a shadow, some portions of photoresist can be kept while the remainder is washed away

![](_page_62_Figure_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_63_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Ion Implantation

- After washing away soluble photoresist, silicon in the shape of the mask is exposed
- Can be implanted with ions to make n- or ptype material

![](_page_63_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_64_Picture_0.jpeg)

# **Resulting Material**

 After implantation, remaining photoresist can be exposed and washed away leaving ntype silicon in the appropriate areas

![](_page_64_Picture_3.jpeg)

n-type "doped" silicon

# Layer Deposition

- For layers above the surface (oxide, gate polysilicon, and metal wires), a similar but slightly different process is used
  - 1. Entire layer of material is deposited over entire area
  - 2. Covered with photoresist
  - 3. Mask is used to indicate where material is desired

![](_page_65_Figure_5.jpeg)

-8.66

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![](_page_66_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Layer Deposition

- For layers above the surface (oxide, gate polysilicon, and metal wires), a similar but slightly different process is used
  - 1. Entire layer of material is deposited over entire chip
  - 2. Covered with photoresist
  - 3. Mask is used to indicate where material is desired
  - 4. Wash away exposed photoresist
  - 5. Use chemical/mechanical etching process to remove exposed oxide

Etching process removes exposed oxide material but cannot penetrate photoresist material

![](_page_66_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_67_Picture_0.jpeg)

**Oxide layer for** 

# Layer Deposition

- For layers above the surface (oxide, gate polysilicon, and metal wires), a similar but slightly different process is used
  - 1. Entire layer of material is deposited over entire chip
  - 2. Covered with photoresist
  - 3. Mask is used to indicate where material is desired
  - 4. Wash away exposed photoresist
  - 5. Use chemical/mechanical etching process to remove exposed oxide
  - 6. Remaining photoresist can be removed exposing oxide in the desired location

![](_page_67_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_68_Picture_0.jpeg)

# Layer Deposition

- Process is repeated for gate (polysilicon) and metal wire layers
  - A separate mask is required for each layer to indicate where the substance should be kept and where it should be etched away

![](_page_68_Figure_4.jpeg)

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#### Simplified CMOS School of Engineering Metal **Fabrication Process** Metal Metal SiO<sub>2</sub> SiO<sub>2</sub> p+ n+ n+ P+ **n**+ Create n-well regions and channel-stop regions n-well region p-type substrate Metal (AI) Grow field oxide and gate oxide (thin oxide) SiO<sub>2</sub> (Oxide) n+ n+ Deposit and pattern polysilicon layer Si - substrate Implant source and drain Metal regions, substrate contacts contact SiO<sub>2</sub> (Oxide) n+ n+ Create contact windows, deposit and pattern metal layer Si - substrate

## **Fabrication Images**

![](_page_70_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_70_Figure_2.jpeg)

![](_page_70_Figure_3.jpeg)

![](_page_70_Figure_4.jpeg)

http://pubs.rsc.org/services/images/RSCpubs.ePlatform.Service.FreeContent.ImageService.svc/I mageService/Articleimage/2003/AN/b208563c/b208563c-f1.gif

http://www.4004.com/assets/4004-east-mask-detail-hdcrop.gif

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