

# Technology of IT Devices

## Lecture 2

- Microelectronics
- Trends in Integrated Circuit Technology
- VLSI basic terms
- Basic properties of semiconductors
- MOS transistor

# Microelectronics

- Microelectronics is a subfield of electronics, and it relates to the study and manufacture (or microfabrication) of very small electronic designs and components
  - These devices are typically made from semiconductor materials.
  - Digital integrated circuits (ICs) consist mostly of transistors.
  - Analog circuits commonly contain resistors and capacitors as well. Inductors are used in some high frequency analog circuits, but tend to occupy a large chip area if used at low frequencies.
  - Integrated circuits are mass producible
    - the cost per IC is low

# Moore's law

- IC production is one of the fastest growing industries.
- Gordon Moore made a prediction in 1965, that the number of transistors integrated on one chip would double every 18-24 month (exponential growth).
- He thought it would stand for the next decade, **it's still true today.**
- The 1 million transistors per chip barrier was broken through in the 80's:
  - 1971: 2300 transistors, clock frequency: 1 MHz (Intel 4004)
  - 2001: 42 million transistors, clock frequency: 2 GHz (Intel P4) – 2001
  - 2016: 7,2 billion transistors, 22-core Xeon Broadwell-E5
    - 2,2GHz (3,6GHz in turbo mode), 55MB smart cache, 456mm<sup>2</sup>
    - [Datasheet](#)
  - FPGA: 30 billion transistors, Stratix 10 10GX5500/10SX5500
    - [Datasheet](#)
  - **More than Moore:** growth of an even higher rate is possible by using 3D structures (e.g. in RAMs)

# The original figure in Moore's paper showing the prediction

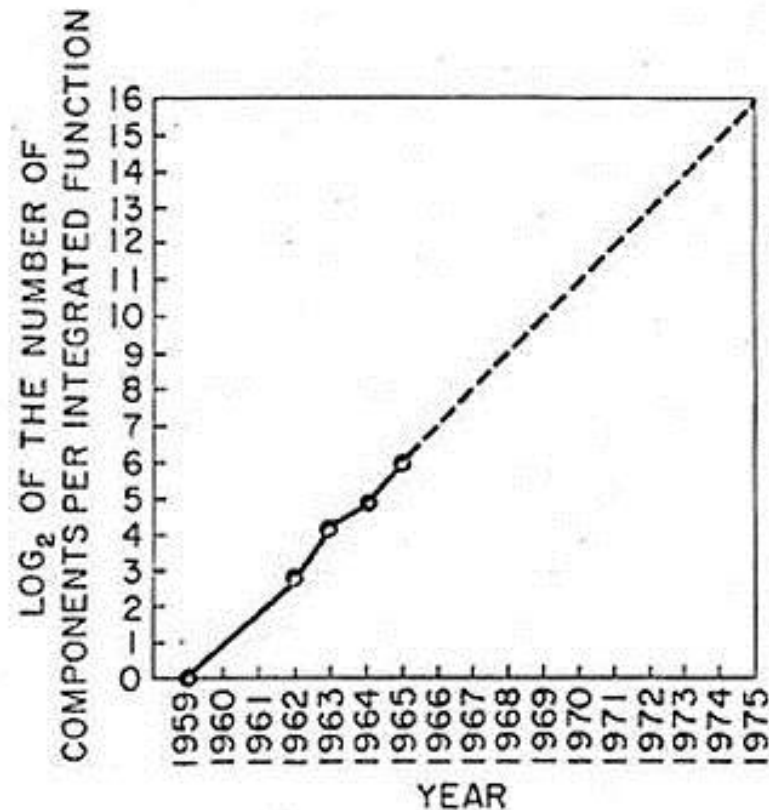
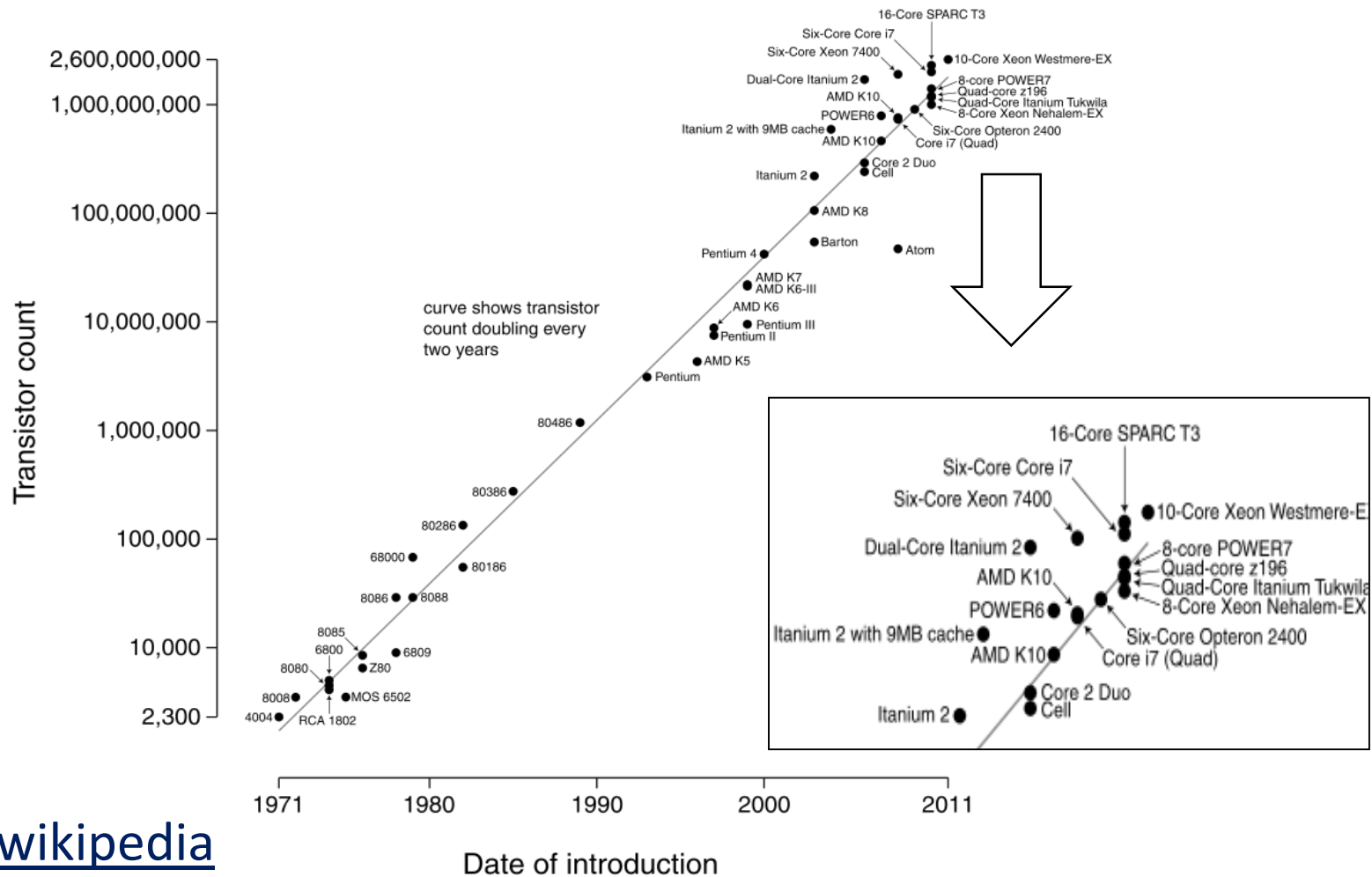


Fig. 2 Number of components per integrated function for minimum cost per component extrapolated vs time.

# Evolution of Microprocessors

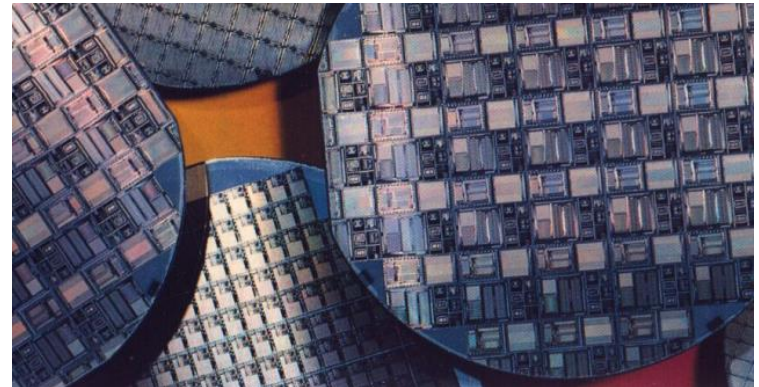
## Microprocessor Transistor Counts 1971-2011 & Moore's Law



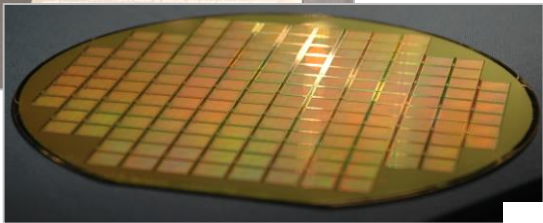
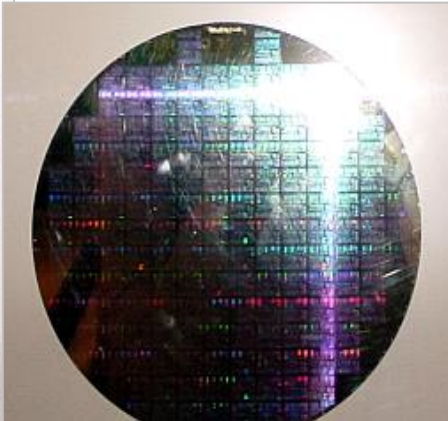
- Source: [wikipedia](#)

# Planar technology

- VLSI – very large scale integration.
  - Since 1980, more than 10 000 transistors
- The word planar implies that the devices are fabricated on the surface of the silicon wafer in a 2D structure.
- The basis is a silicon ingot made up of monocrystalline silicon.
- The ingot is sliced into wafers:
  - Diameter: 2-12"
  - Width: 0.25-0.7 mm
- A wafer can contain thousands of ICs that are manufactured at the same time.



# Si ingots and wafers

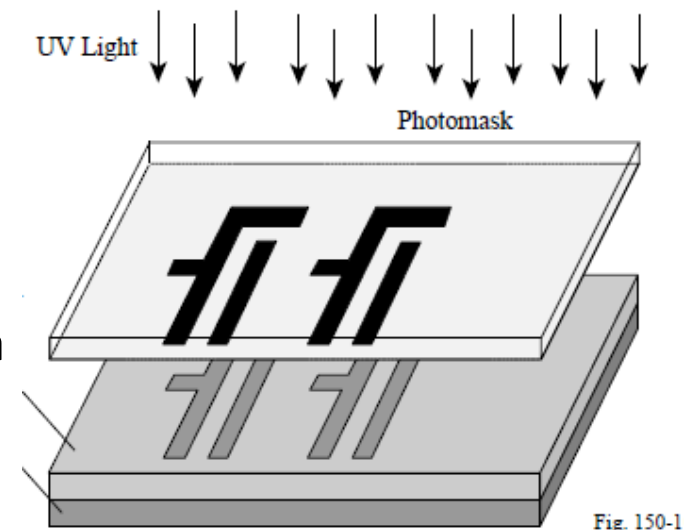


Si wafer after processing



# Lithography

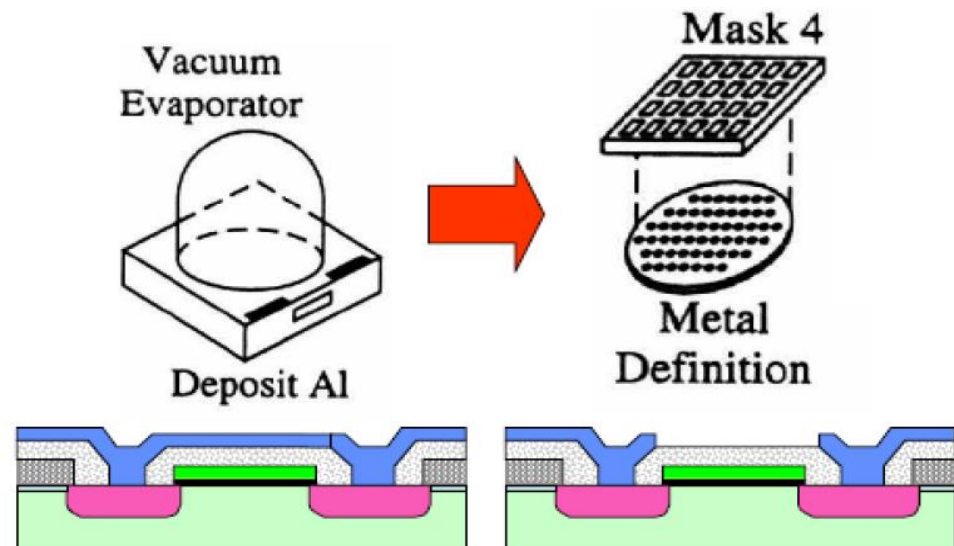
- Lithography creates the patterns.
- A special agent called a photoresist is deposited on the surface.
  - organic material, a photoresist changes its chemical properties and becomes soluble or non-soluble by etchants
  - if the photoresist is exposed to light through a mask, it changes its properties in a pattern.
- After the exposure, the parts of the resist that are soluble are etched away, which leaves a protective layer over the wafer where the etching is unwanted.





## Example: basic steps of forming interconnects

- A layer of metal is deposited over the whole surface
- The metal is then removed from areas where it is not desired (by lithography and dry etching)
  - Creating the pattern by lithography
  - Using wet or dry etching

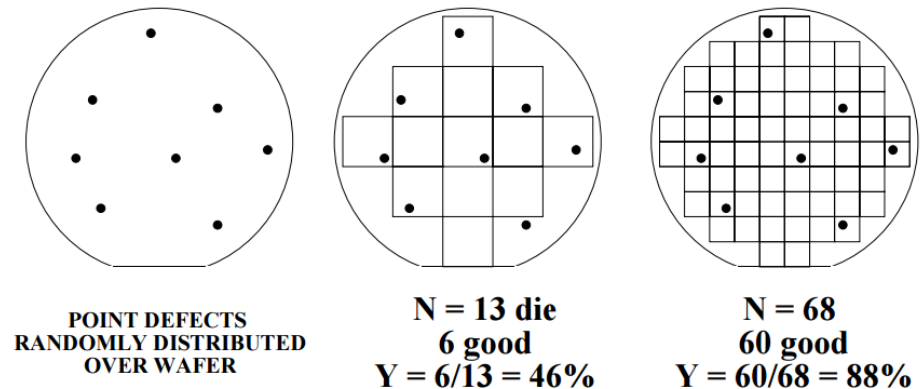


# Scaling

## ■ The number of components can be increased in two ways

- Increasing the size of chip.
  - But it ends up with more failures per wafer (lower yield) due to randomly distributed defects on wafers.

- Optimal chip area is about 500mm<sup>2</sup>



- If we can decrease every physical size by the factor of 2, we can produce 4 times more components
- This is called scaling

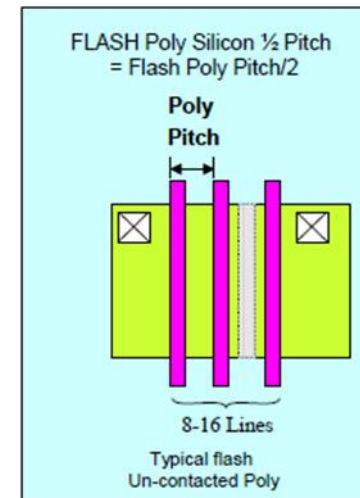
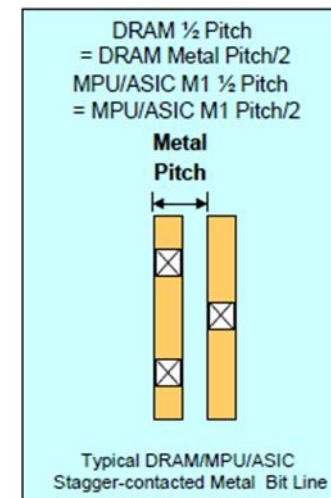
## ■ Effects of scaling

- Delay can be decreased (clock frequency can be increased)
- power consumption of logic gates decreases
- power dissipation density **increases!**

# Scaling

- “x nm” technology
  - It means the smallest object in nm.
- This is called MFS (minimum feature size)
- 1970: ca. 10 $\mu$ m (10 000nm) volt.
- 2016: 14nm, in production
  - Intel, Samsung
- Lattice constant (the distance between two atoms is 0.543 nm)

Pitch is the distance between identical features in an array



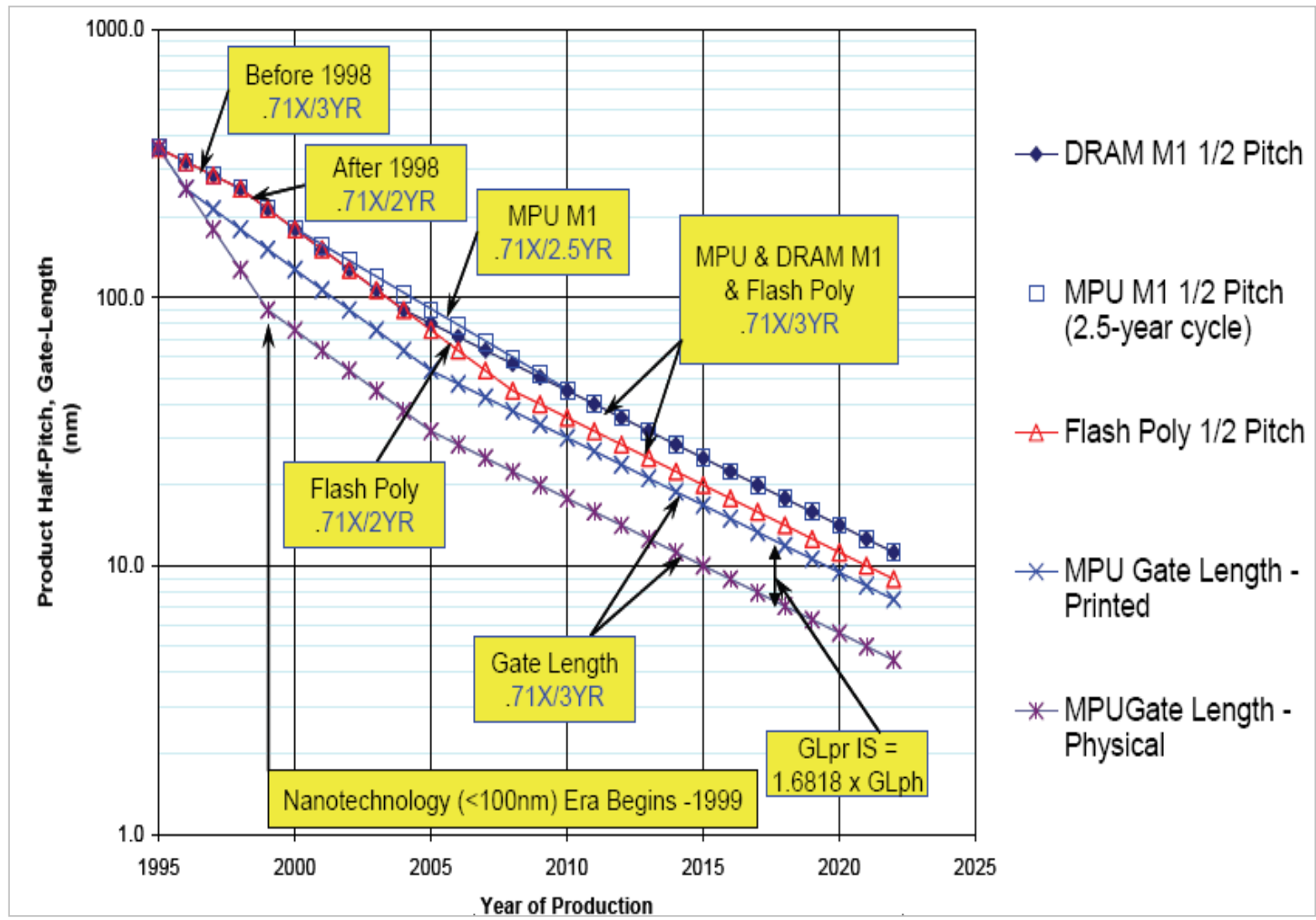
# ITRS roadmap

- The ITRS roadmaps always contain the latest predictions and directions of the development.
- They are created by the leaders of the industry.
- Forecast in 2015 can be found [here](#).

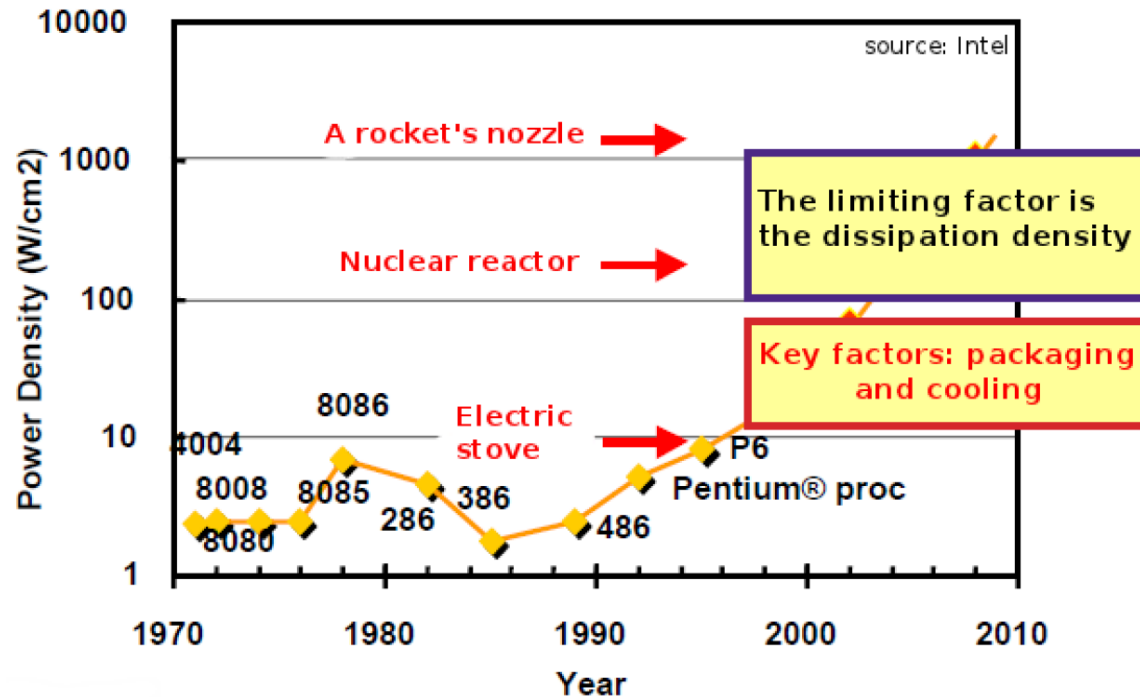
YEAR OF PRODUCTION	2015	2017	2019	2021	2024	2027	2030
Logic device technology naming	P70M56	P48M36	P42M24	P32M20	P24M12G1	P24M12G2	P24M12G3
Logic industry "Node Range" Labeling (nm)	"16/14"	"11/10"	"8/7"	"6/5"	"4/3"	"3/2.5"	"2/1.5"
Logic device structure options	FinFET FDSOI	FinFET FDSOI	FinFET LGAA	FinFET LGAA VGAA	VGAA, M3D	VGAA, M3D	VGAA, M3D

- We will meet these abbreviations (FinFET, FDSOI, LGAA, VGAA) later

# Forecast at different nodes



# Increase in dissipation density

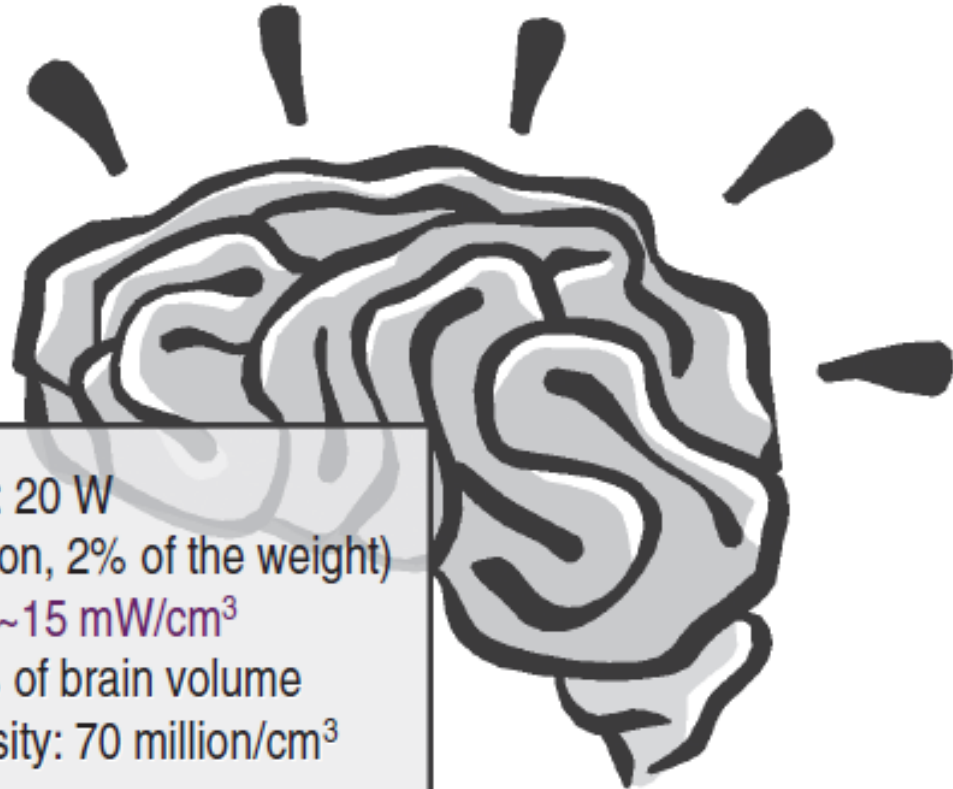


- This reason led us to design multi-core processors
  - 2004: Power Wall, which has limited the frequency to 3-4GHz

# Human brain

A Side Note: What Can One Do with 1 cm<sup>3</sup>?

*Reference case: the human brain*



$P_{\text{avg}}(\text{brain}): 20 \text{ W}$   
(20% of the total dissipation, 2% of the weight)  
Power density:  $\sim 15 \text{ mW/cm}^3$   
Nerve cells only 4% of brain volume  
Average neuron density: 70 million/cm<sup>3</sup>





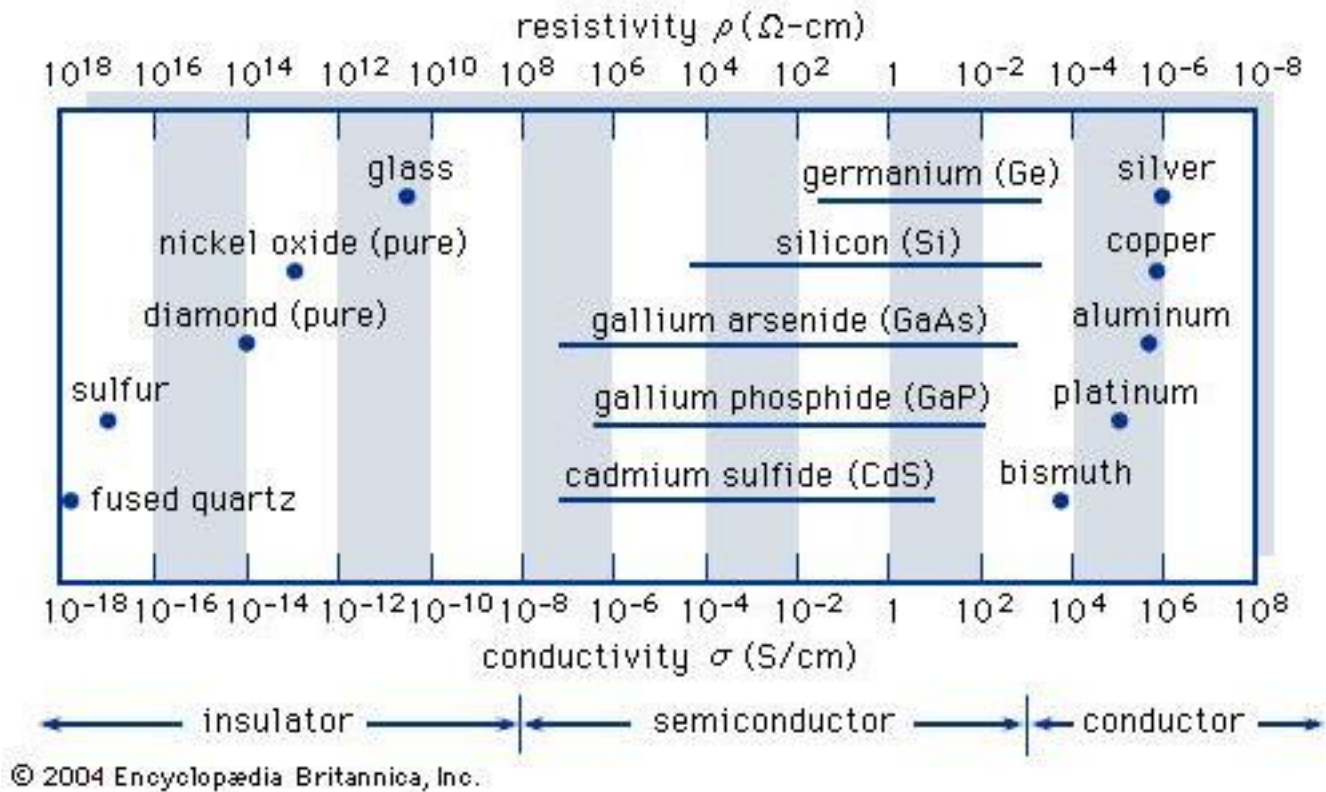
Budapest University of Technology and Economic  
Department of Electron Devices

# Semiconductors

## <PHYSICS>

# Semiconductors

- Semiconductors' conductance is between that of conductors and insulators

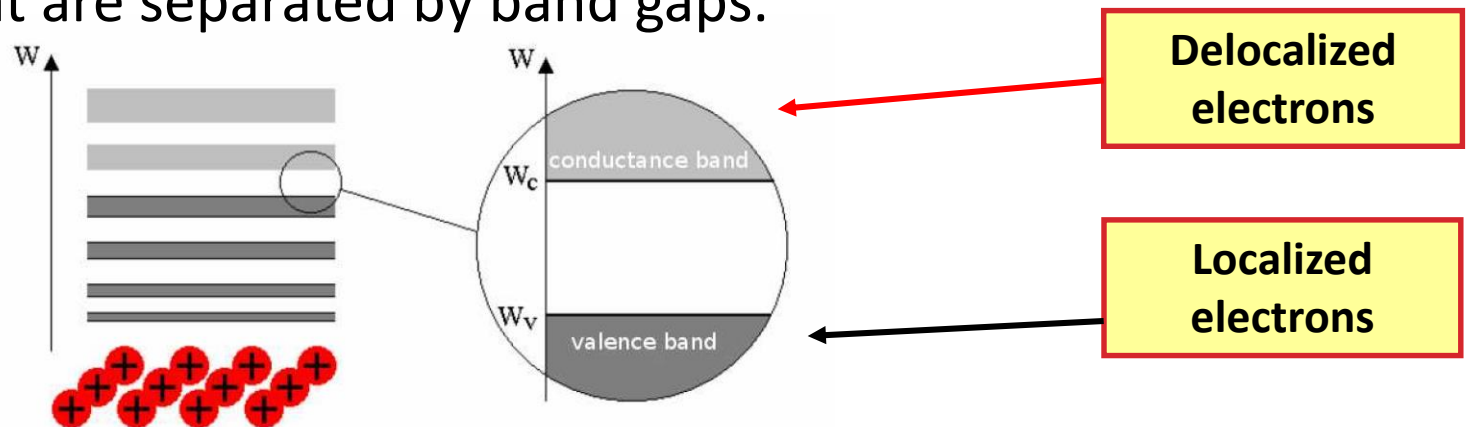


# Semiconductors

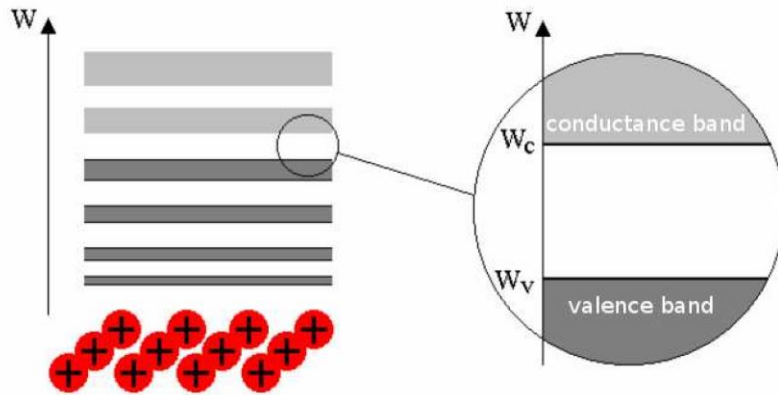
- Semiconductors' conductance is between that of conductors and insulators
- They conduct current
  - Semiconductors have a negative thermal coefficient (NTC)
  - It means their conductivity increases when temperature rises.
  - This is exactly the opposite behaviour of metals.
- The most important semiconductors:
  - Monocrystalline or single-crystal materials:
    - Semiconductor elements: Si (silicon), Ge (germanium)
    - Compound semiconductors: GaAs (gallium arsenide), GaAsP (gallium arsenide phosphide). They are used to create LEDs.
  - Amorphous semiconductors: amorphous Si mainly
  - TFT, solar cells, etc.
- Organic semiconductors: OLEDs (Organic LEDs)

# The band structure

- An electron's energy is a quantized quantity – there are certain energy levels that are allowed for electrons, the rest of the levels are forbidden.
- When electrons take part in a system (an atom or a crystalline consisting of many atoms), every electron has to be at a different level. The electrons take energy levels very close to the allowed levels – thus in large systems the electrons take place in energy bands that are separated by band gaps.

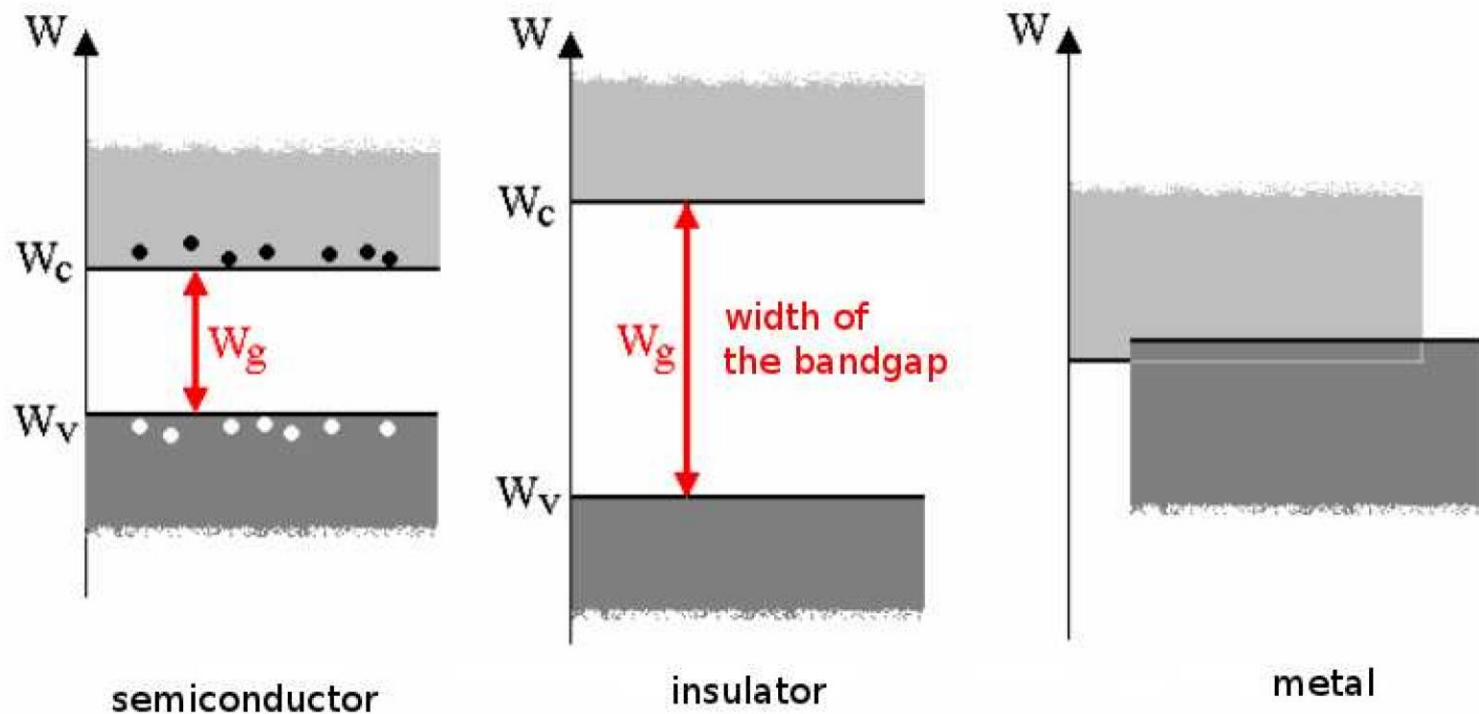


# The band structure



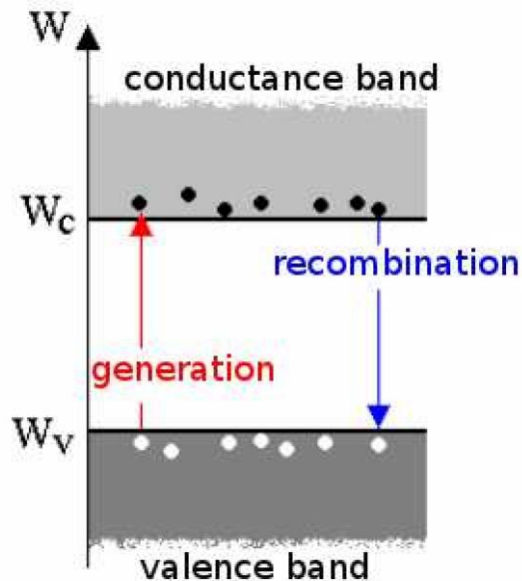
- Conductance band:
  - electrons that can move freely.
- Valence band:
  - electrons that take part in bonds and thus are bound to atoms.

- From the viewpoint of conductance the important bands:
  - The highest band that contains electrons (valence band).
  - The band above the valence band, which is almost empty (conductance band).
  - The band gap between them.



- Insulators and semiconductors
  - there are bandgaps – the width of the bandgap ( $W_g$ ) decides whether a material is an insulator or a semiconductor.
- Conductors: the valence band and the conductance bands overlap.

# Charge carriers



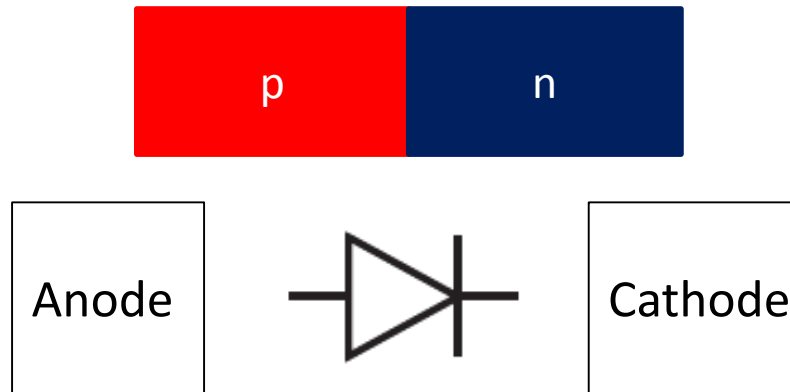
- Electrons: at the bottom of the conductance band
- Holes: at the top of the valence band – a hole is an absence of electron.
- **Both electrons and holes take part in conduction!**
- Generation: happens when an electron gets to the conductance band from the valence band.
  - This means that two charge carriers are created: an electron in the conductance band and a hole in the valence band.
- Recombination: the opposite of generation – when an electron falls back to the valence band.



# Doping

- A small number of atoms of a different element are injected into the crystal structure.
- This is done in a way that the dopants are placed in positions where Si atoms are normally located.
- There are two types of doping
  - n-type doping:
    - Donor dopants: dopants that inject atoms that have one extra electrons at their valence band (P (phosphorus), As (arsenic))
    - **Electrons** are the majority charge carriers, **holes** are the minority charge carriers
  - p-type doping:
    - dopants that inject atoms that have one less electrons at their valence band (B (boron)),
    - Electrons are the minority charge carriers, holes are the majority charge carriers

# The pn-junction: a semiconductor diode



- A pn-junction is a monocrystalline transitional area where a p-type and an n-type semiconductor are next to each other.
- When a forward voltage is applied to it, its current is an exponential function of the voltage.
- Forward direction: the p side is at a higher potential.
- In the reverse direction its current is very-very low and is independent of the voltage
- Diodes can be used for rectification (AC-DC conversion)

# MOS transistor

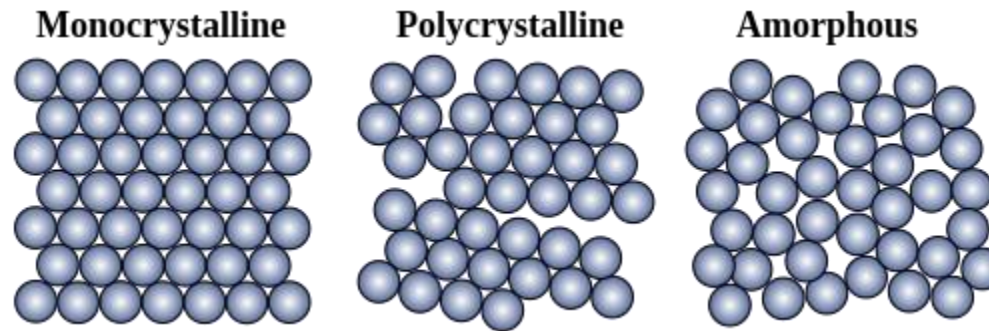
## ■ MOS: Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor

- metal: in the early days aluminum was used, then poli-Si became the standard material for this role and nowadays metals are used again
- oxide: the oxide of the semiconductor ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) – aka. quartz
- semiconductor: silicon.

## ■ History

- 1957: the first MOS was manufactured
- 1970: first IC manufactured in large volumes (1 kbit RAM consisting of 3-transistor cells by Intel),
- In 2005 more transistors were manufactured than rice grains grown.

# Types of Crystal: monocrystalline, polycrystalline, amorphous

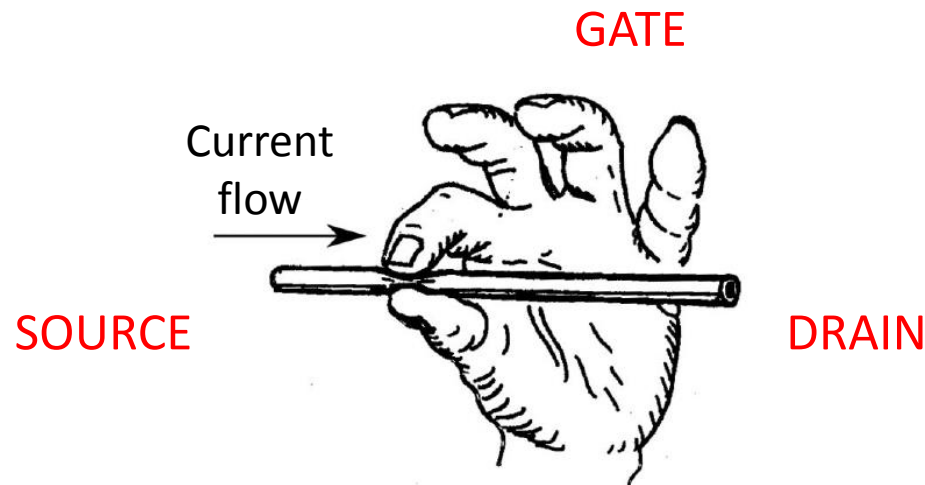


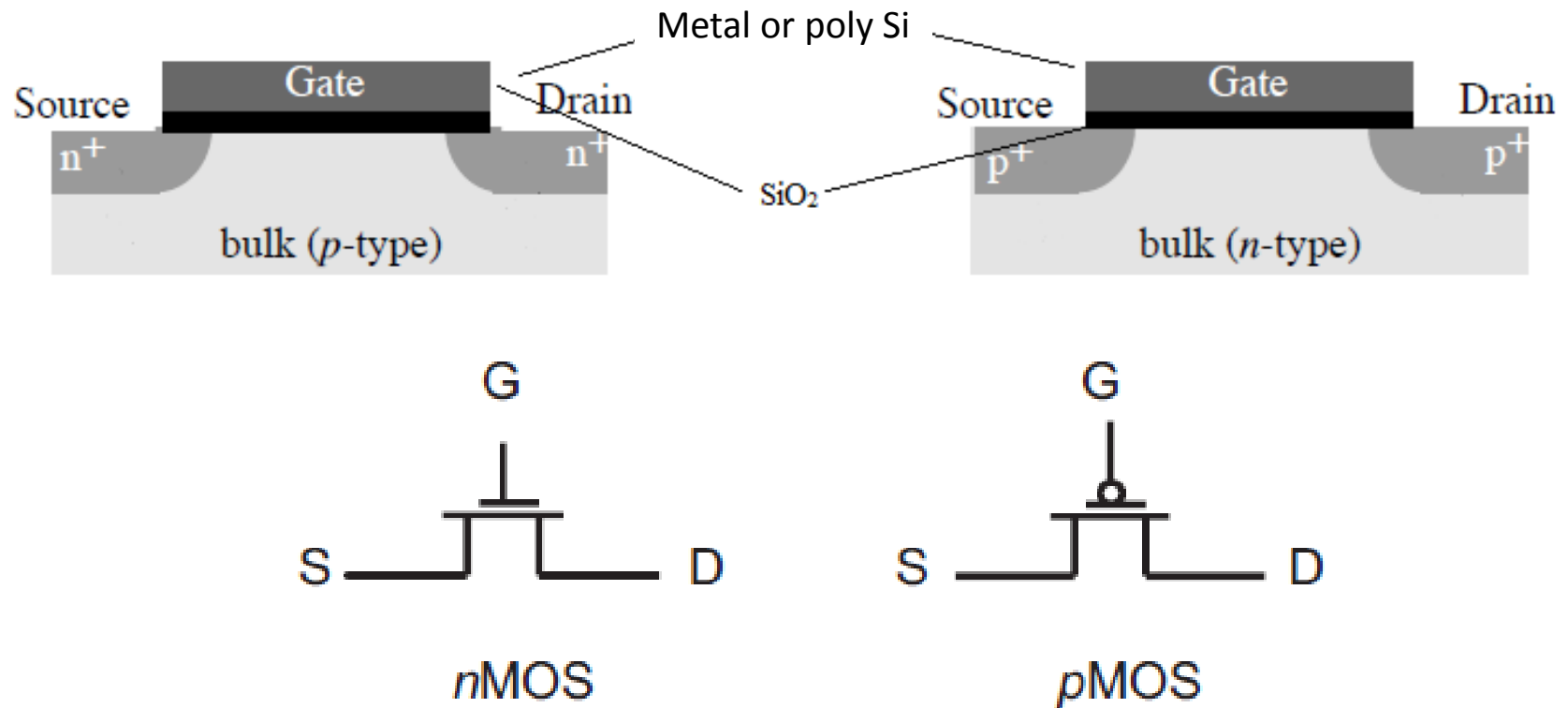
- Monocrystalline material: perfect ordering
- Polycrystalline material: made of tiny crystalline grains
- Amorphous material: no significant ordering

# MOS transistors

## ■ The principle of operation:

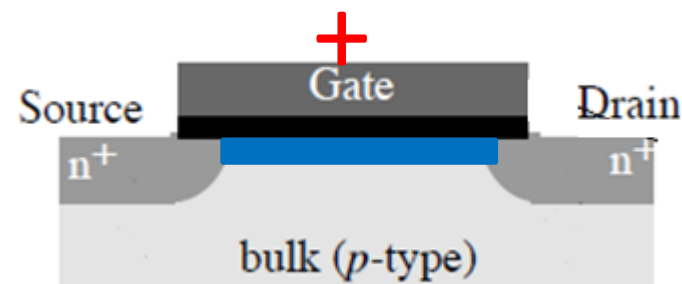
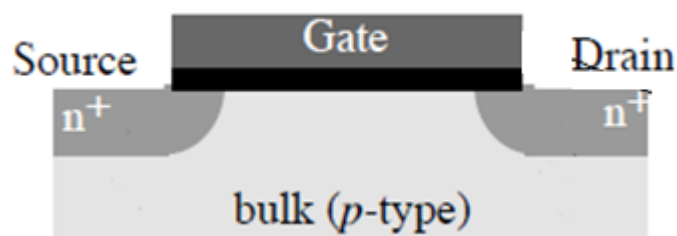
- On a single crystal silicon chip (**substrate**) we create two contacts. The current flow can be controlled between the contacts
- The name of contacts are „**source**” and „**drain**”
- The **source** is so named because it is the source of the charge carriers, the **drain** is where the charge carriers leave the channel.
- The name of control terminal: **gate**





- There are two types of MOS transistors.
  - nMOS: the bulk is p-type silicon (the inversion channel is n-type)
  - pMOS: the bulk is n-type silicon (the inversion channel is p-type)

# The operation of MOS transistors



- Normally it is an open circuit, does not conduct any current
- When the gate voltage exceeds a certain value, charge carriers appear below the gate (inversion charge)
- The voltage that is needed to create the inversion layer is the **threshold voltage** ( $V_T$ ).
- The device operates as a **relay** – when the control voltage on the gate is above the threshold voltage, a conducting channel connects the source and the drain, otherwise it behaves as an open circuit.

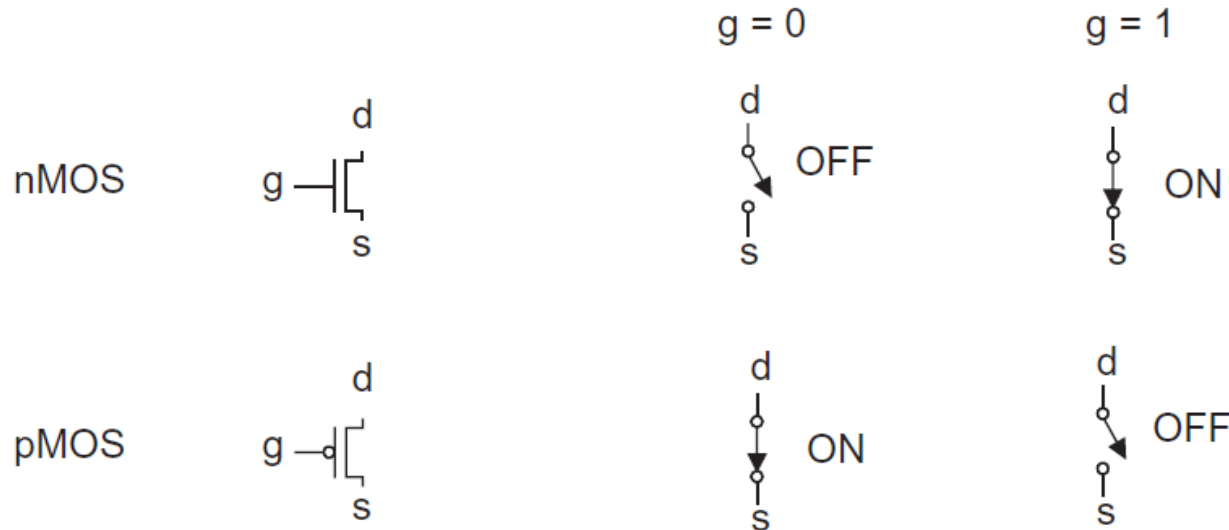




Budapest University of Technology and Economic  
Department of Electron Devices

# MOS transistor as a switch

</PHYSICS>



## ■ nMOS

- In case of logical 0: open switch (does not conduct current)
- In case of logical 1: closed switch (conducts current)

## ■ pMOS

- logical 0: conducts current,
- logical 1: does not conduct current

- The symbol of pMOS transistor has a circle at the gate terminal

# CMOS

- Complementary MOS
  - They consist of two types of MOSFETs: n-type and p-type
  - Every logic circuit is CMOS nowadays.
- We have two complementary transistors:
  - One conducts when the input logic level is high
  - Other conducts when the input logic level is low
  - Hence the name
- We can create
  - Inverters
  - Basic logic gates (and, or, etc.)
  - Complex logic gates
- The next lesson will be on static CMOS logic