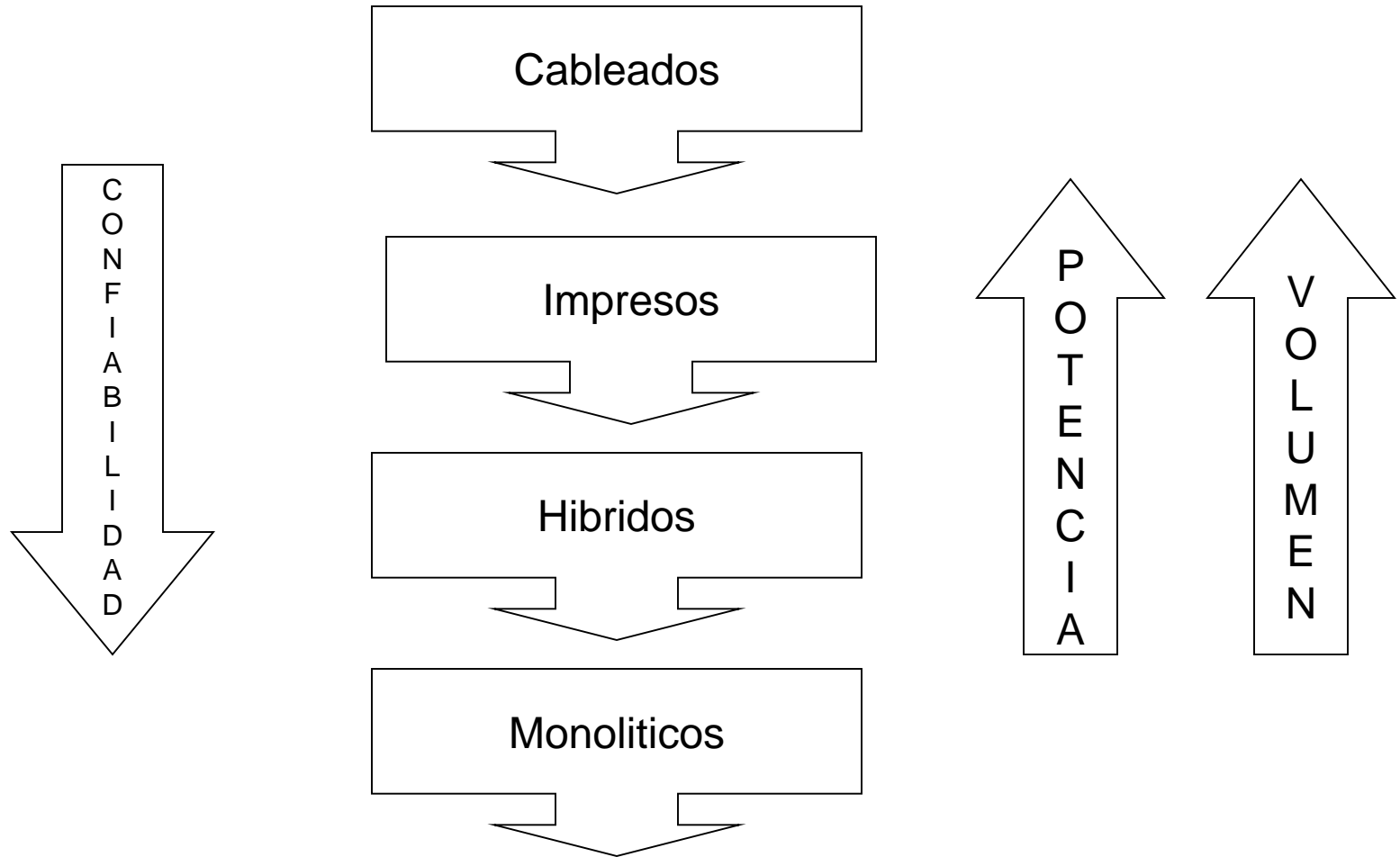
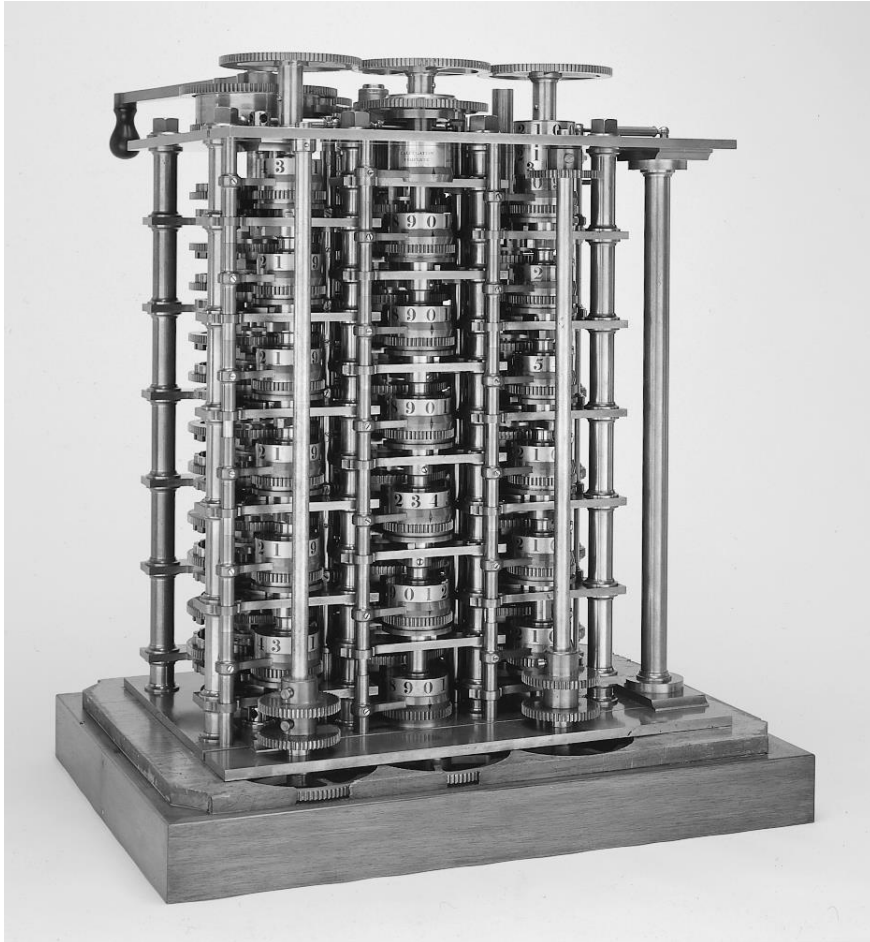


# **CIRCUITOS INTEGRADOS MONOLITICOS**

# Evolucion de los Circuitos Electronicos



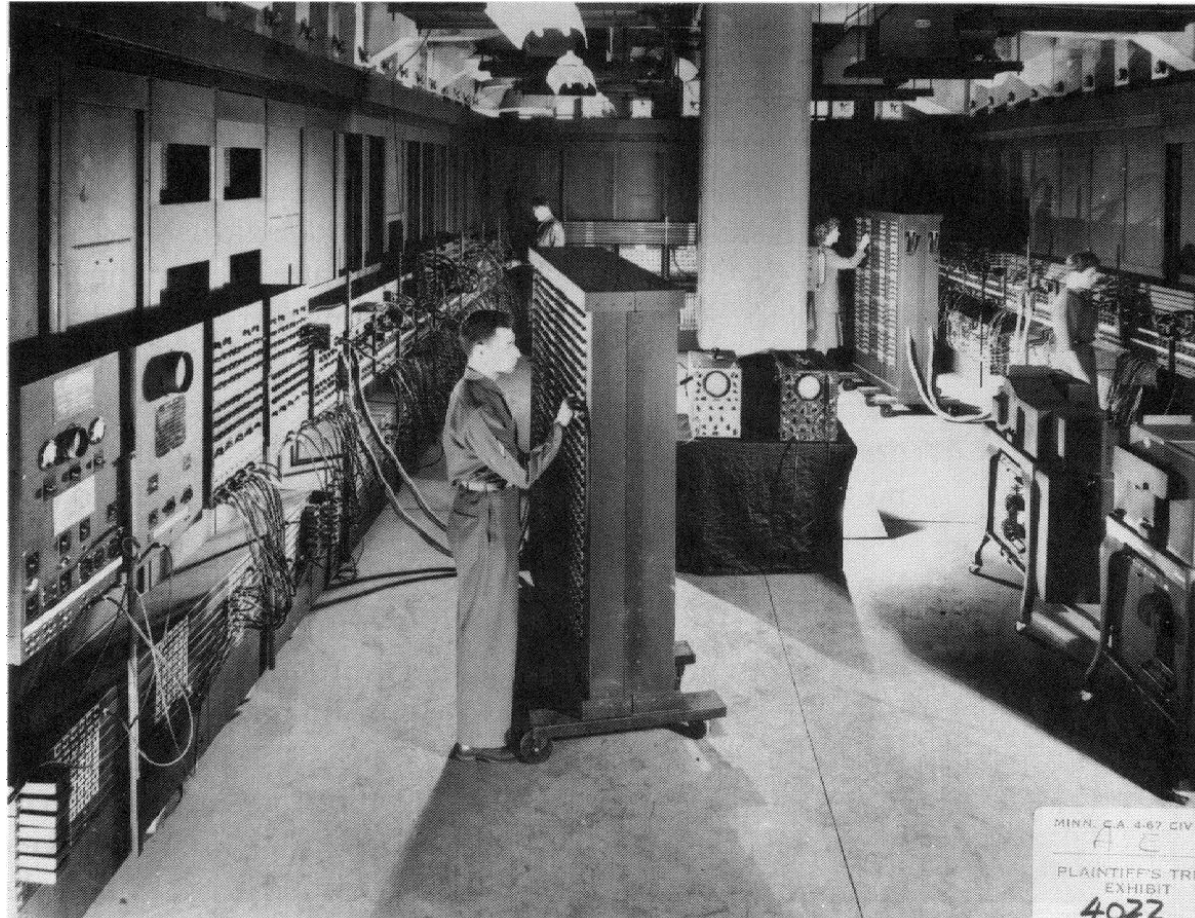
# El primer Computador



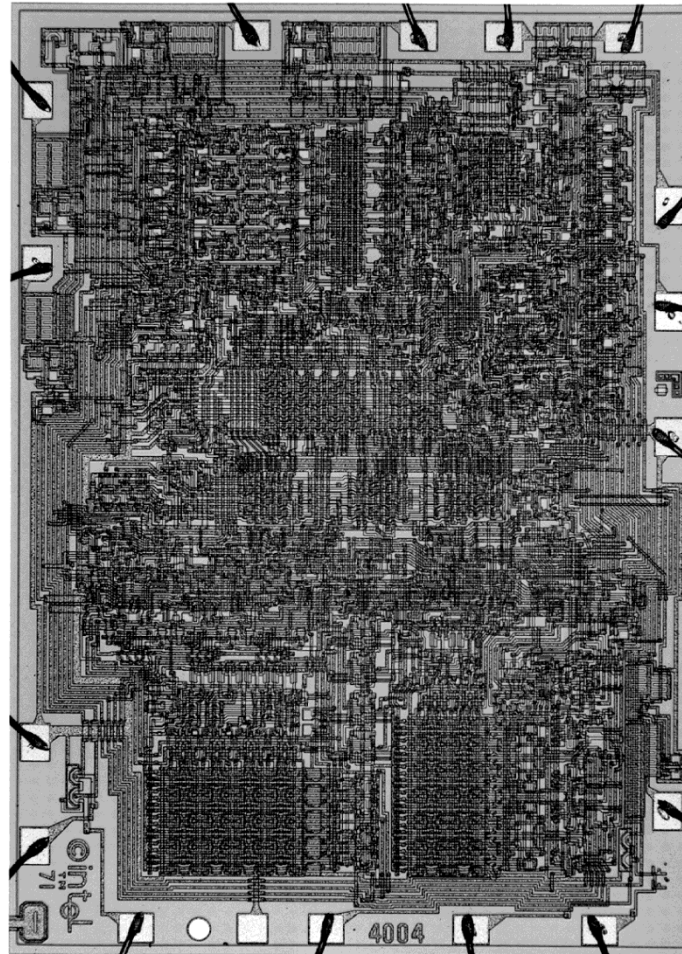
**The Babbage  
Difference Engine  
(1832)**

**25,000 parts  
cost: £17,470**

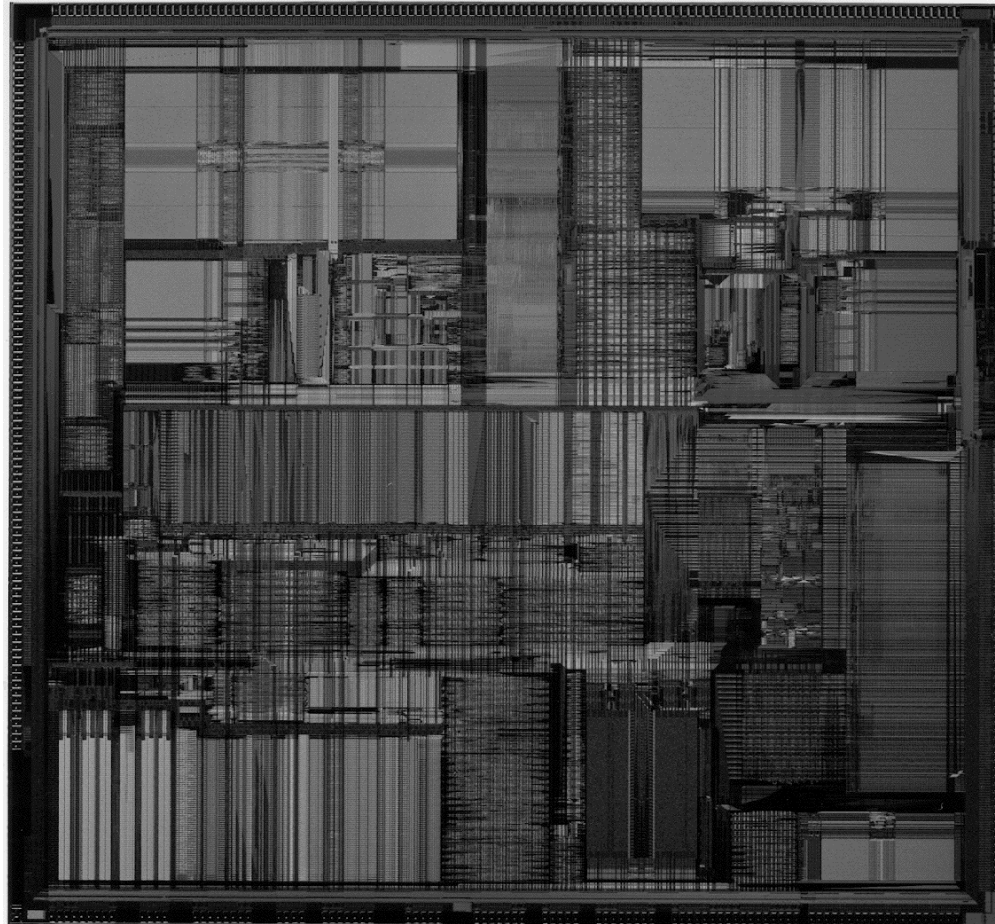
# ENIAC – La primera computadora electrónica (1946)



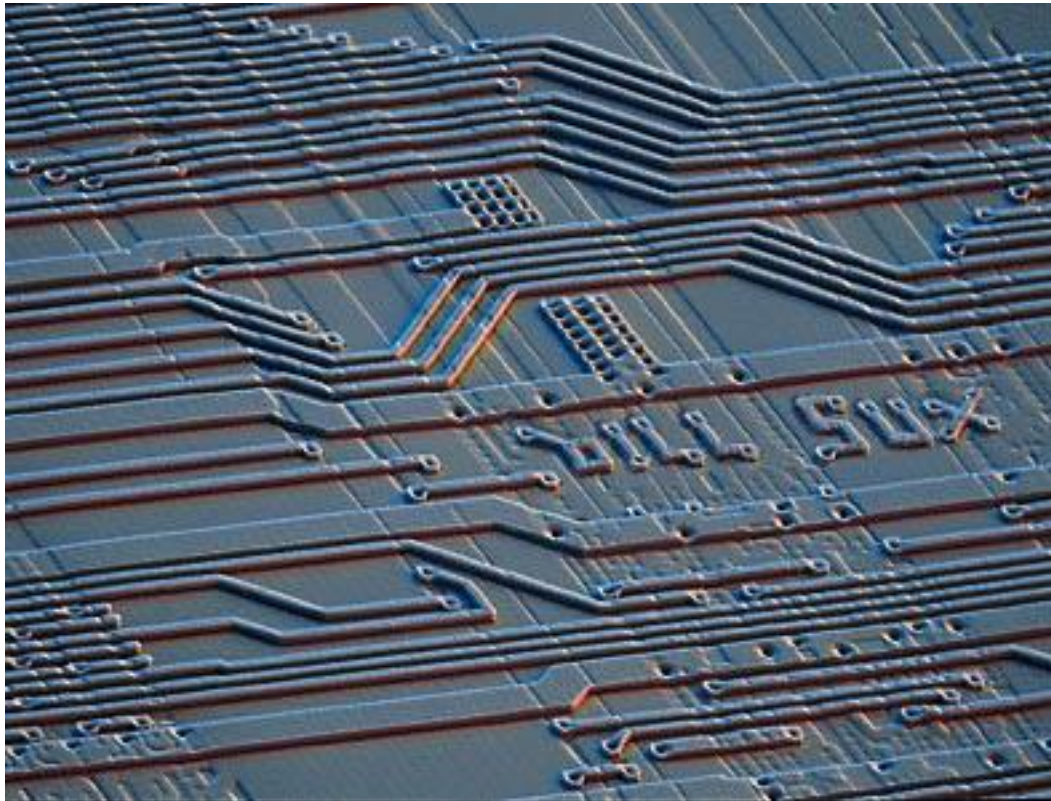
# Intel 4004 Micro-Processor



# Intel Pentium (II) microprocessor



# Vista de un Chip Intel?



Time Magazine, July 1998

# EVOLUCION DE LOS CI.PDF





1947 – When it comes to helping jumpstart innovation and technology, no invention is more important than the transistor created 60 years ago at Bell Labs.

1953 – The first commercial device to make use of the transistor is put on the market – the Sonotone 1010 hearing aid.



1954 – The first transistor radio, the Regency TR-1, goes on the market for just \$49.99. The radio contains just four transistors.

1947

1950

1960 – Sony introduces the first portable, transistorized TV, the TV8-301. It has a modest 5-inch screen and uses 23 silicon and germanium transistors.



1965 – Moore's Law, which states that the number of transistors on a chip doubles about every two years, is born when Intel's Gordon Moore made a prediction about the semiconductor business that still holds true today.

1971 – Intel launches its first microprocessor, the 4004, containing just over 2,000 transistors.



1971 – Busicom introduces the first single-chip, pocket-size calculator, the LE-120A "HANDY," which uses a MOSTEK MK6010 integrated circuit.

1950

1960

1960

1976 – An operator in an early bunnysuit shows how a 4-inch wafer is prepared for a positive acid spin.



1972 – Intel's first microprocessor, powered the Basicom calculator and paved the way for the personal computer.



1975 – The Altair 8800 microcomputer, based on the Intel® 8080 microprocessor, was the first successful home or personal computer.



1970

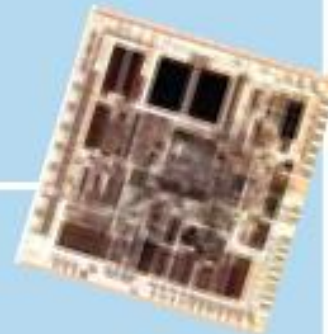
1970

1981 – The Intel® 8088 microprocessor was selected to power the IBM PC.

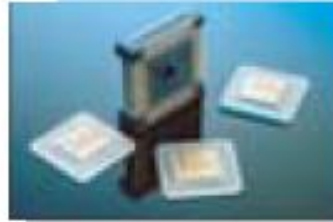


1981 – IBM introduces the first personal computer with an Intel 8088 processor serving as the "brains" behind the computer.

1982 – Intel launches their new high performance, 16-bit 80286 microprocessor featuring 134,000 transistors.



1980



1982 – Within six years of its release, an estimated 15 million 286-based personal computers were installed around the world.

1983 – Mobile communication changes forever when Motorola introduces the first commercial mobile phone – the DynaTAC 800X – powered by transistors and costing a mere \$3,995.



1993 – With the creation of the World Wide Web in 1990, the need for transistor speed becomes greater than ever.

1993 – The World Wide Web debuts and Intel responds with its Pentium® processor, boasting speeds of 66 and 60 MHz 3.1 million transistors.



1980

1990

2000 - The 42-million transistor debuts. If automobile speed increased similarly over that same period, you could drive from New York City to San Francisco in 13 seconds.



2000 - Silicon Valley based company develops Tivo - a device that records TV programs on an internal hard drive.



2003 - Intel® Centrino® mobile technology brought high performance, enhanced battery life, and integrated WLAN capability to thinner, lighter PCs.

1990

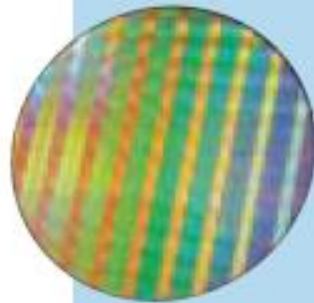
2000

2005 – Dual-core technology was introduced.



2006 – The dual core Intel® Itanium® 2 processor launches with the world's most intricate product design to date, utilizing more than 1.72 billion transistors.

2007 – 45nm Intel debuts the Penryn chip – the biggest change to transistors (all 620 million of them in our quad-core processors) in 40 years based on the company's 45 nanometer transistor technology. More than 2,000 45nm transistors fit across the width of a human hair.

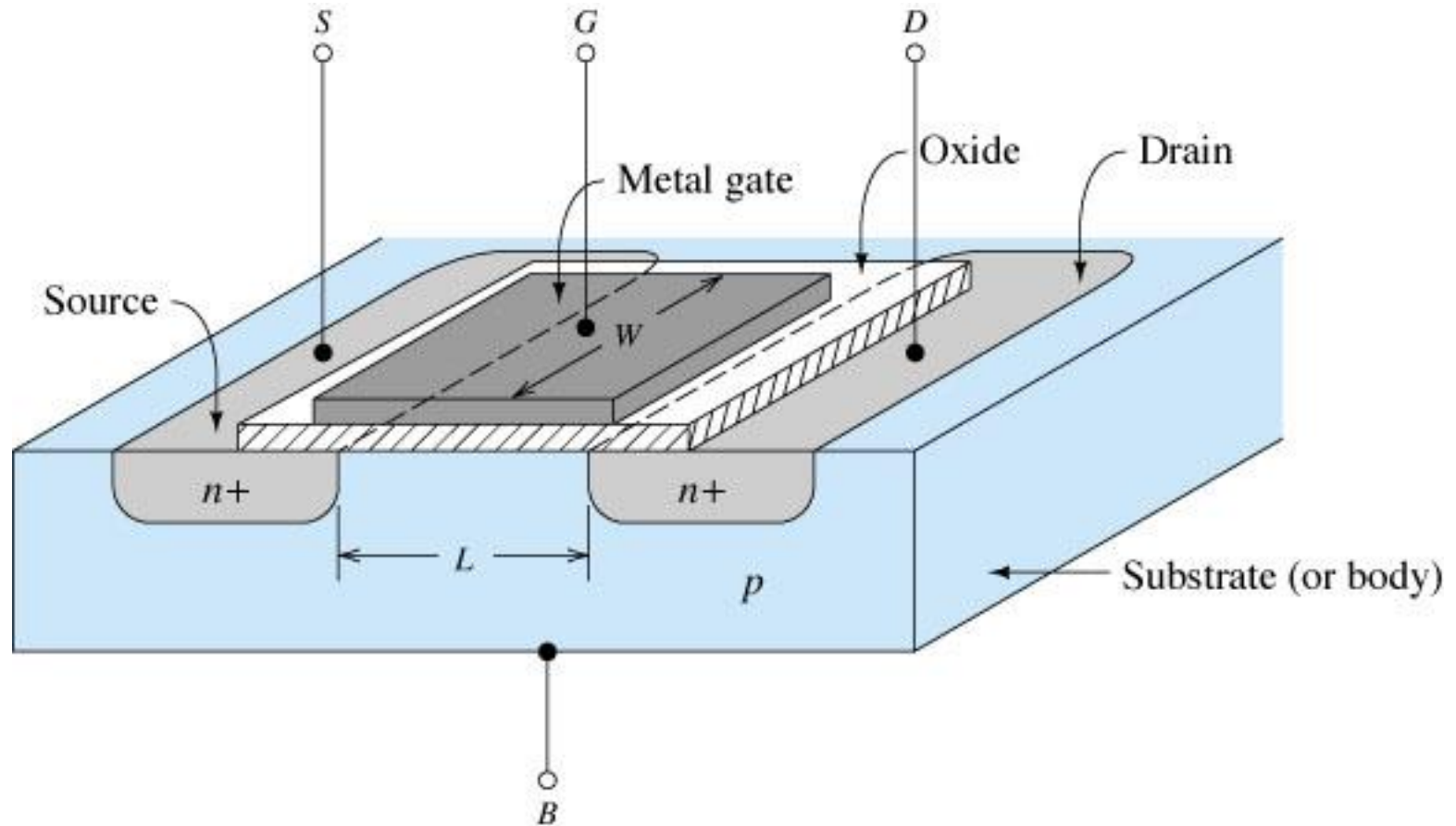


2007 – In the second half of 2007, Intel began production of the next generation Intel® Core™2 and Xeon processor families based on 45-nanometer (nm) Hi-k metal gate silicon technology.

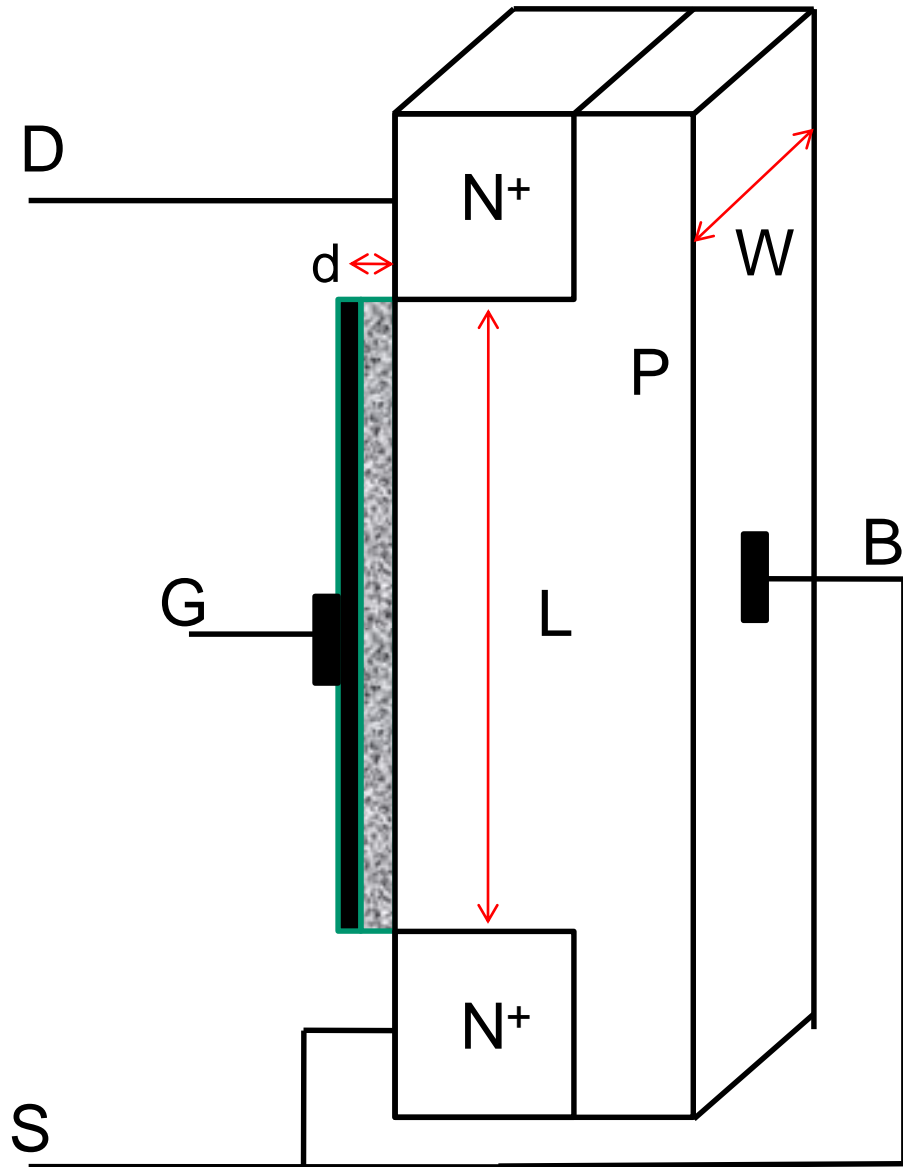
2000

2007

# TECNOLOGIA de FABRICACION







## Moore's Law

In 1965, Intel co-founder Gordon Moore predicted that the number of transistors on a chip would double about every two years. Since then, Moore's Law has fueled a technology revolution as Intel has exponentially increased the number of transistors integrated into its processors for greater performance and energy efficiency.

Note: Number of transistors is an approximate number.



Intel® 4004 processor  
Introduced 1971  
Initial clock speed  
**108 KHz**  
Number of transistors  
**2,300**  
Manufacturing technology  
**10μ**

The groundbreaking Intel® 4004 processor was introduced with the same computing power as ENIAC.



Intel® 8008 processor  
Introduced 1972  
Initial clock speed  
**500-800 KHz**  
Number of transistors  
**3,500**  
Manufacturing technology  
**10μ**

The Intel® 8008 processor was twice as powerful as the Intel® 4004 processor.



Intel® 8080 processor  
Introduced 1974  
Initial clock speed

**2 MHz**

Number of transistors

**4,500**

Manufacturing technology

**6μ**

The Intel® 8080 processor made video games and home computers possible.



Intel® 8086 processor  
Introduced 1978  
Initial clock speed

**5 MHz**

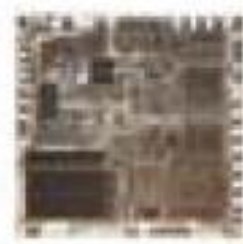
Number of transistors

**29,000**

Manufacturing technology

**3μ**

The Intel® 8086 processor was the first 16 bit processor and delivered about ten times the performance of its predecessors.



Intel® 8088 processor  
Introduced 1979  
Initial clock speed

**5 MHz**

Number of transistors

**29,000**

Manufacturing technology

**3μ**

A pivotal sale to IBM's new personal computer division made the Intel® 8088 processor the brains of IBM's new hit product--the IBM PC.



Intel® 286 processor  
Introduced 1982  
Initial clock speed

**6 MHz**

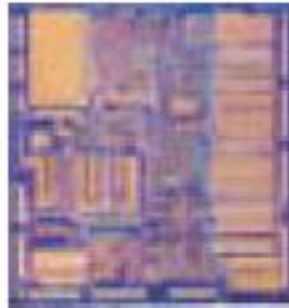
Number of transistors

**134,000**

Manufacturing technology

**1.5μ**

The Intel® 286 was the first Intel processor that could run all the software written for its predecessor.



Intel386™ processor  
Introduced 1985  
Initial clock speed

**16 MHz**

Number of transistors

**275,000**

Manufacturing technology

**1.5μ**

The Intel386™ processor could run multiple software programs at once and featured 275,000 transistors—more than 100 times as many as the original Intel® 4004.



Intel486™ processor  
Introduced 1989  
Initial clock speed

**25 MHz**

Number of transistors

**1,200,000**

Manufacturing technology

**1μ**

The Intel486™ introduced the integrated floating point unit. This generation of computers really allowed users to go from a command level computer into point and click computing.



Intel® Pentium® processor  
Introduced 1993  
Initial clock speed

**66 MHz**

Number of transistors

**3,100,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.8μ**

The Intel® Pentium® processor, executing 112 million commands per second, allowed computers to more easily incorporate \*real world\* data such as speech, sound, handwriting and photographic images.



Intel® Pentium® Pro processor  
Introduced 1995  
Initial clock speed

**200 MHz**

Number of transistors

**5,500,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.6μ**

The Pentium® Pro processor delivered more performance than previous generation processors through an innovation called Dynamic Execution. This made possible the advanced 3D visualization and interactive capabilities.



Intel® Pentium® II processor  
Intel® Pentium II Xeon® processor  
Introduced 1997  
Initial clock speed

**300 MHz**

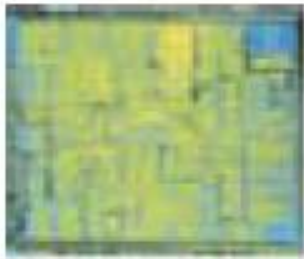
Number of transistors

**7,500,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.25μ**

The Intel® Pentium® II processor's significant performance improvement over previous Intel-Architecture processors was based on the seamless combination of the P6 microarchitecture and Intel MMX media enhancement technology.



Intel® Pentium® III processor  
Intel® Pentium® III Xeon® processor  
Introduced 1999  
Initial clock speed

**500 MHz**

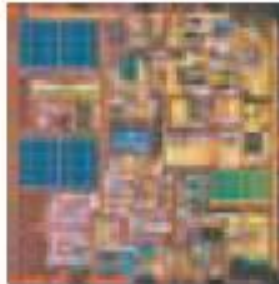
Number of transistors

**9,500,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.18μ**

The Intel® Pentium® III processor executed Internet Streaming SIMD Extensions, extended the concept of processor identification and utilized multiple low-power states to conserve power during idle times.



Intel® Pentium® 4 processor  
Introduced 2000  
Intel® Xeon® processor  
Introduced 2001  
Initial clock speed

**1.5 GHz**

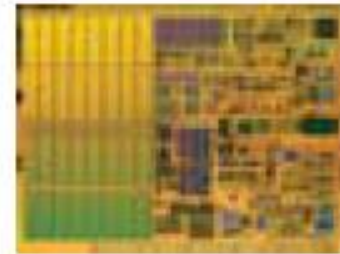
Number of transistors

**42,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.18μ**

The Intel® Pentium® 4 processor ushers in the advent of the nanotechnology age.



Intel® Pentium® M processor  
Introduced - 2002  
Initial Clock Speed

**1.7 GHz**

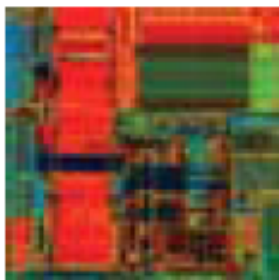
Number of transistors

**55,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**90nm**

The Intel® Pentium® M processor, the Intel® 855 chipset family, and the Intel® PRO/Wireless 2100 network connection are the three components of Intel® Centrino® processor technology. Intel® Centrino® processor technology was designed specifically for portable computing.



Intel® Itanium® 2 processor  
Introduced 2002  
Initial clock speed

**1 GHz**

Number of transistors

**220,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**0.13μ**

The Intel® Itanium® 2 processor is the successor of the first Itanium processor. The architecture is based on Explicitly Parallel Instruction Computing (EPIC). It is theoretically capable of performing roughly eight times more work per clock cycle than other CISC and RISC architectures.



Intel® Pentium® D processor  
Introduced 2005  
Initial clock speed

**3.2 GHz**

Number of transistors

**291,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**65nm**

The Intel® Pentium® D processor features the first desktop dual-core design with two complete processor cores, that each run at the same speed, in one physical package.



Intel® Core™ 2 Duo processor  
Intel® Core™ 2 Extreme processor  
Dual-Core Intel® Xeon® processor  
Introduced 2006  
Initial clock speed

**2.93 GHz**

Number of transistors

**291,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**65nm**

Intel® Core™ 2 Duo processor optimizes mobile microarchitecture of the Intel® Pentium® M processor and enhanced it with many microarchitecture innovations. Intel® Centrino® Pro and Intel® vPro™ processor technology provide excellent performance from the Dual-Core Intel® Core™ 2 Duo processor.



Dual-Core Intel® Itanium® 2 processor 9000 series  
Introduced 2006  
Initial clock speed

**1.66 GHz**

Number of transistors

**1,720,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**90nm**

Dual-Core Intel® Itanium® 2 processor 9000 series outperforms the earlier, single-core version of the Itanium 2 processors. With more than 1.7 billion transistors and with two execution cores, these processors double the performance of previous Itanium processors while reducing average power consumption.



Quad-Core Intel® Xeon® processor  
Quad-Core Intel® Core™2 Extreme processor  
Introduced 2006  
Intel® Core™2 Quad processors  
Introduced 2007  
Initial clock speed

**2.66 GHz**

Number of transistors

**582,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**65nm**

The unprecedented performance of the Intel® Core™2 Quad processor is made possible by each of the four complete execution cores delivering the full power of Intel Core microarchitecture. The Quad-Core Intel® Xeon® processor provides 50 percent greater performance than industry-leading Dual-Core Intel® Xeon® processor in the same power envelope. The quad-core-based servers enable more applications to run with a smaller footprint.



Quad-Core Intel® Xeon® processor (Penryn)  
Dual-Core Intel® Xeon® processor (Penryn)  
Quad-Core Intel® Core™2 Extreme processor (Penryn)  
Introduced 2007  
Initial clock speed

**> 3 GHz**

Number of transistors

**820,000,000**

Manufacturing technology

**45nm**

Intel's next generation Intel® Core™2 processor family, codenamed "Penryn", contains industry-leading microarchitecture enhancements. Further, new SSE4 instructions for improved video, imaging, and 3D content performance and new power management features will extend "Penryn" processor family leadership in performance and energy efficiency.

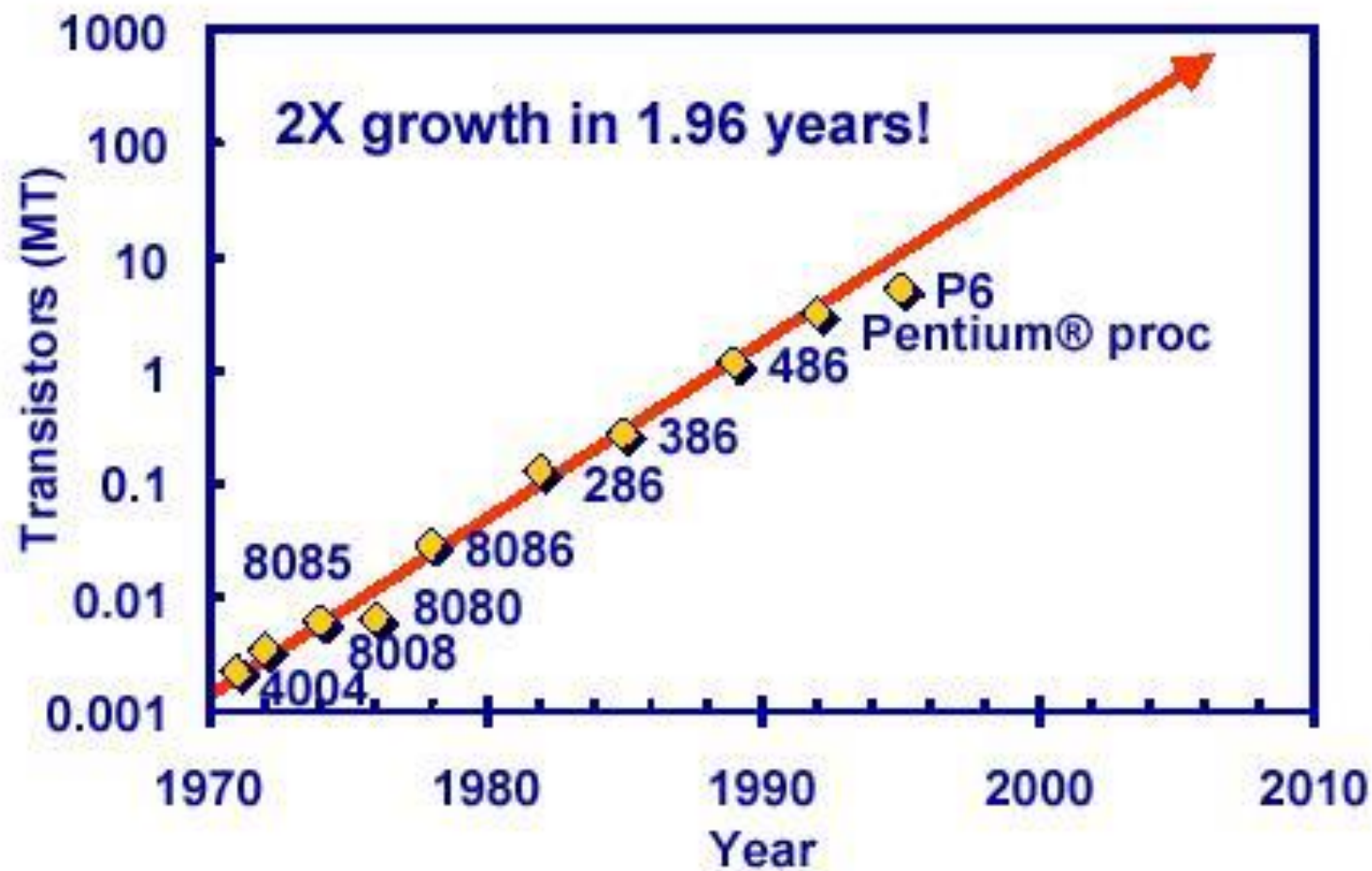


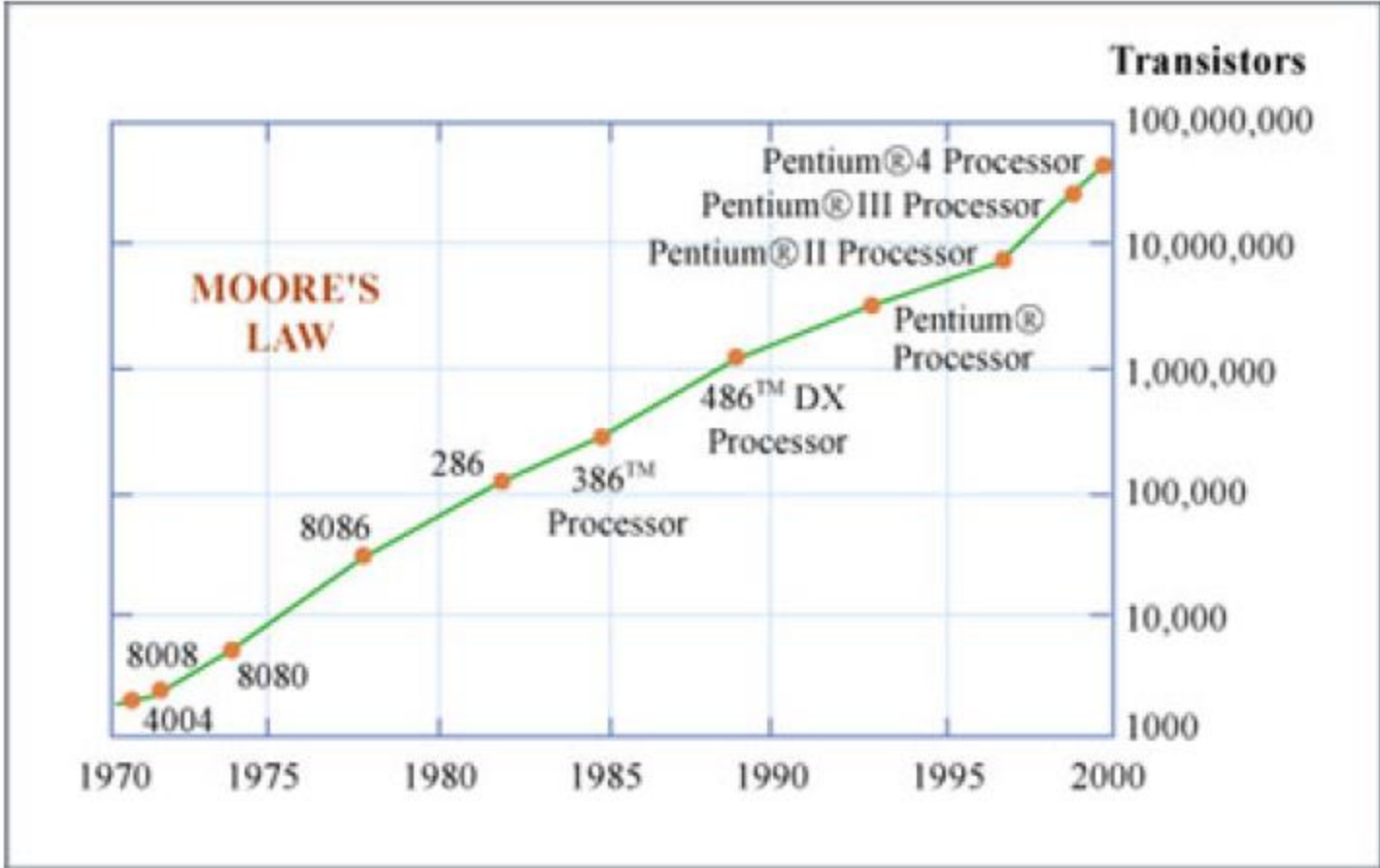
# Numero de transistores en un CHIP

Microprocessor	Year of Introduction	Transistors
4004	1971	2,300
8008	1972	2,500
8080	1974	4,500
8086	1978	29,000
Intel286	1982	134,000
Intel386™ processor	1985	275,000
Intel486™ processor	1989	1,200,000
Intel® Pentium® processor	1993	3,100,000
Intel® Pentium® II processor	1997	7,500,000
Intel® Pentium® III processor	1999	9,500,000
Intel® Pentium® 4 processor	2000	42,000,000
Intel® Itanium® processor	2001	25,000,000
Intel® Itanium® 2 processor	2003	220,000,000
Intel® Itanium® 2 processor (9MB cache)	2004	592,000,000

# Moore's law in Microprocessors

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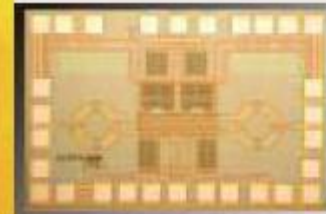




Polysilicon Ingots



PECVD Sputtering Tool  
(Sputtered Films Corporation)



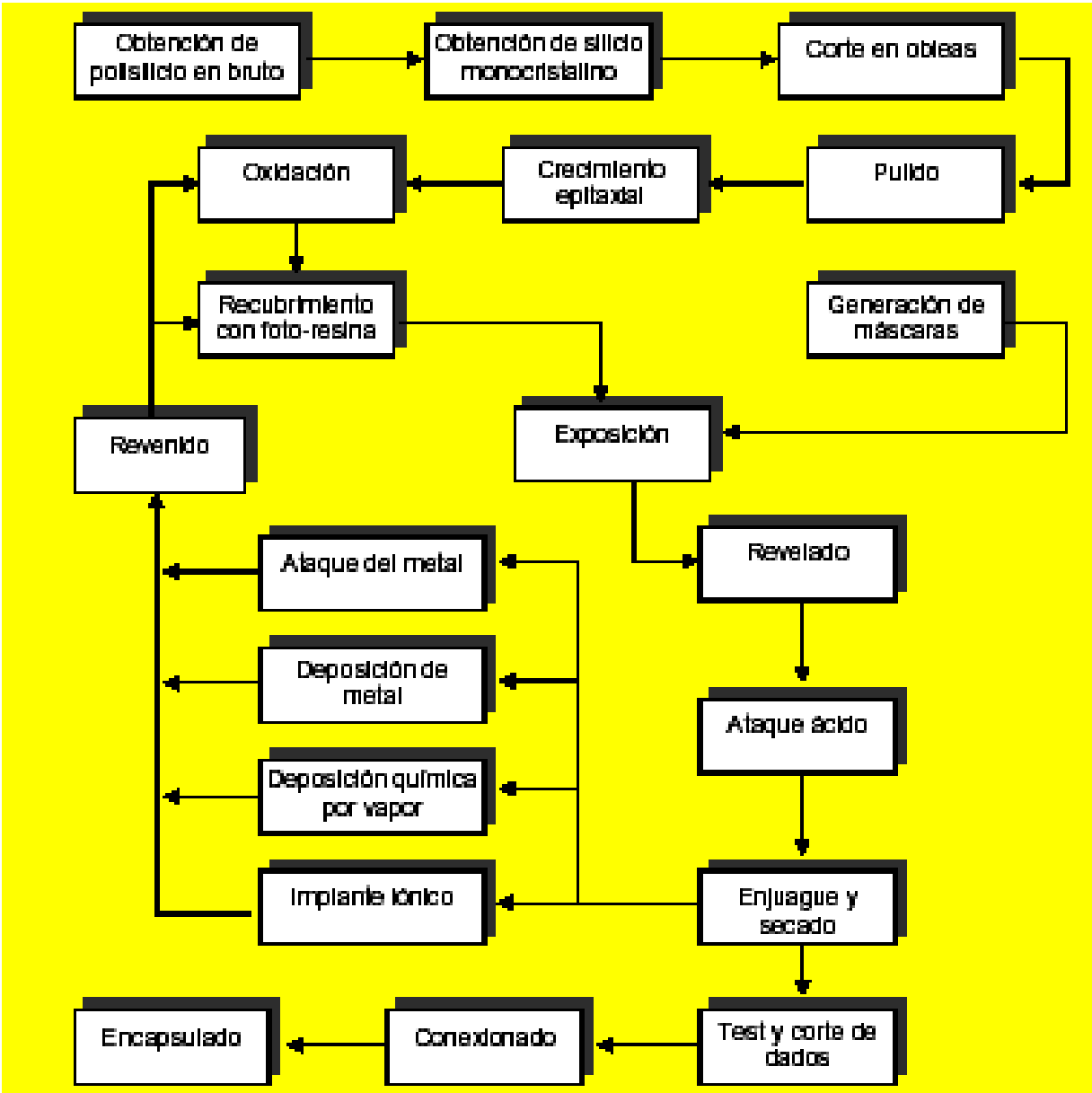
Ion Implanter  
(Norian Associates)



# El Proceso Tecnológico



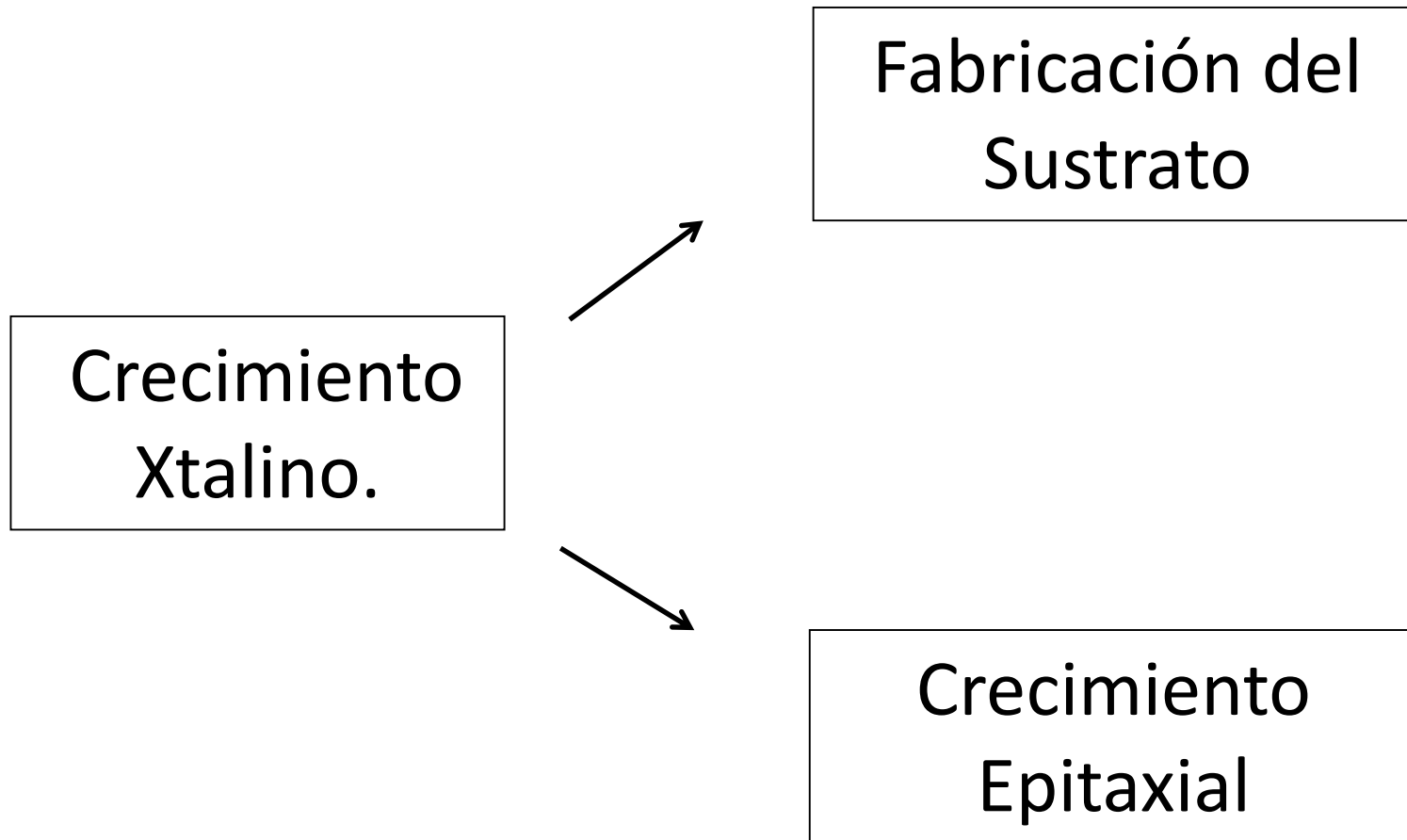
# Fabricación de C.I.M. (Monolíticos.pdf pag 5)



## **Procesos para la Fabricación de C.I.M.**

- Fabricación del Sustrato
- Crecimiento Epitaxial
- Fotolitografía
- Colocación de impurezas
- Metalización
- Pasivación
- Encapsulado

# Procesos para la Fabricación de C.I.M.

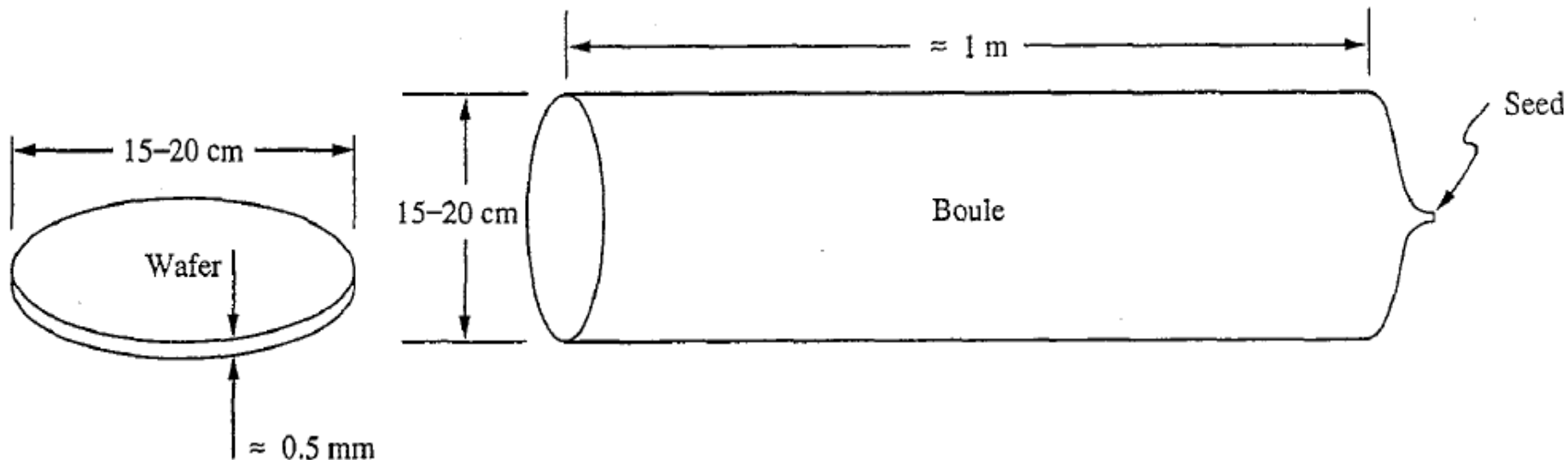




# Crecimiento Xtalino.

## Fabricación del sustrato

1. Silicio poli cristalino
2. Refinado del silicio poli cristalino (Silicio de grado electrónico)
3. Fabricación de barras de silicio mono cristalino (1 mt. de largo x 30 cm de diámetro)
4. Obtención de las obleas (Corte de discos de silicio)
  - a) Espesor 400  $\mu\text{m}$  a 600  $\mu\text{m}$
  - b) 10 defectos por  $\text{cm}^2$  en cualquier sección transversal



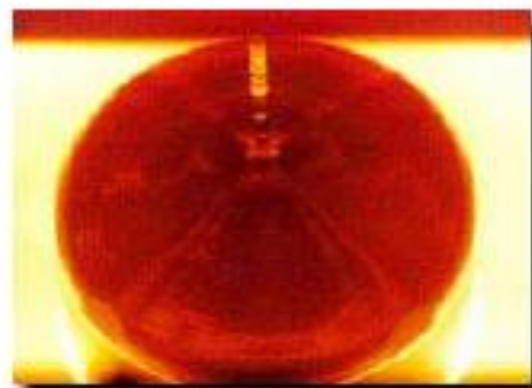
# Obtención de lingotes de Silicio Monocristalino

Los lingotes se obtienen por el método de Czochralski



El silicio policristalino es molido e impurificado con elementos del tipo As, B, P o Sb y fundido a  $1400^{\circ}\text{C}$  en un crisol de cuarzo en atmósfera de gas inerte (Ar) de alta pureza.

El diámetro del lingote se controla con la temperatura del baño y la velocidad de extracción.



Inside CZ Puller  
(MEMC)

# Obtención de lingotes de Silicio Monocristalino



CZ Crystal Pullers  
(Mitsubishi Materials Silicon)

Los equipos de estiramiento se instalan sobre fundamentos de hormigón de gran profundidad para prevenir la vibración

Los mayoría de los lingotes son de 150 mm (6") y 200 mm (8"), pero también pueden ser de 300 mm (12") y 400 mm (16")

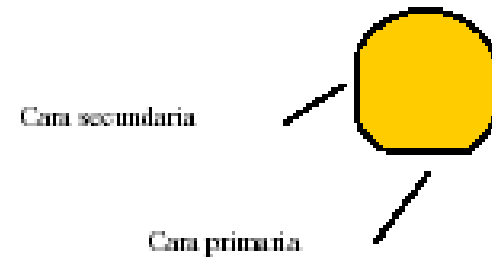


Silicon Ingots  
(Mitsubishi Materials Silicon)



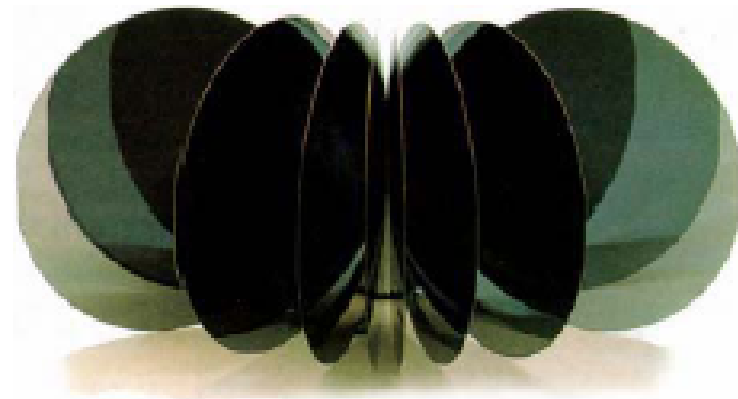
# Corte de Obleas

Antes de proceder a cortar los lingotes en finas obleas se hacen unas marcas para especificar la orientación cristalina

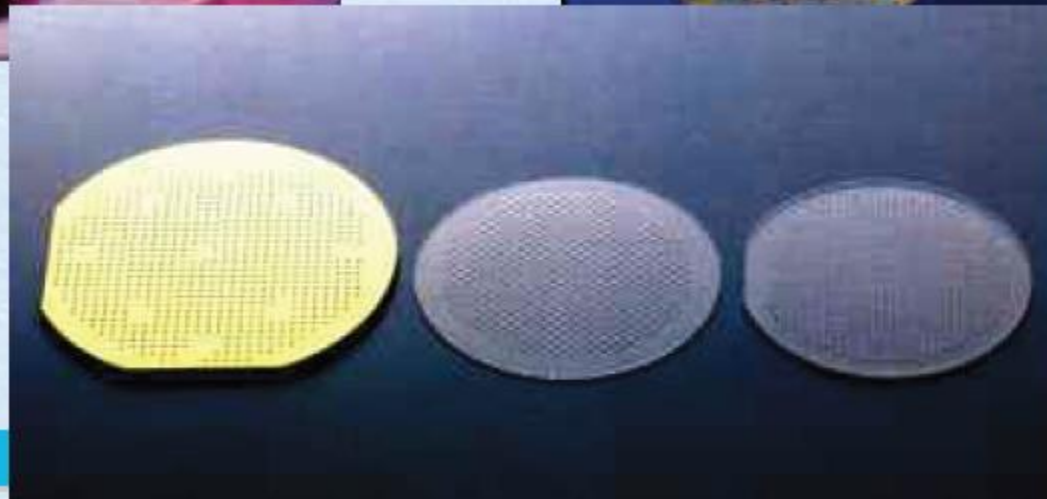
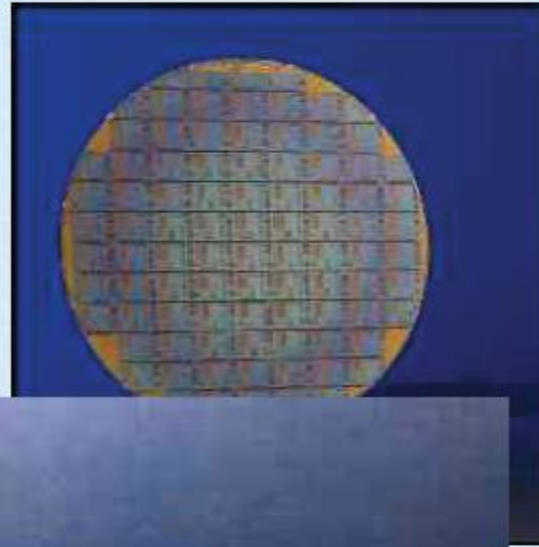


ID Wafer Slicing Saw

Las obleas se cortan en una sierra circular cuyo borde de corte es el interno para asegurar una mayor precisión y finura



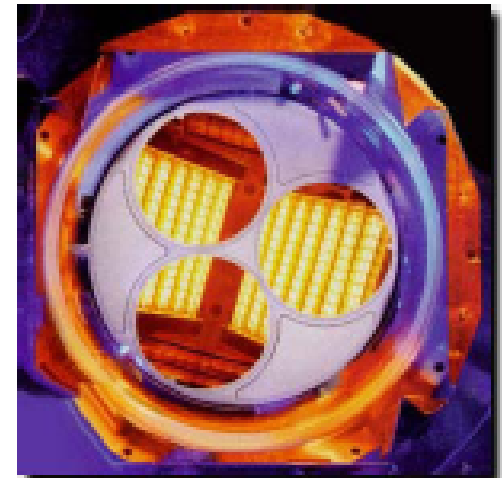
# Obleas de silicio y de vidrio



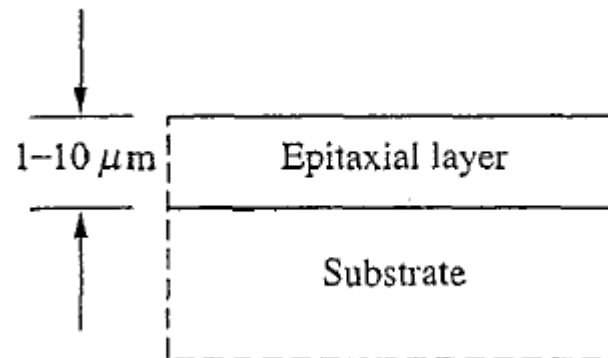
# Crecimiento Epitaxial

Este proceso se utiliza para hacer crecer una capa de silicio con una concentración diferente, generalmente menor, de dopantes en el seno del sustrato.

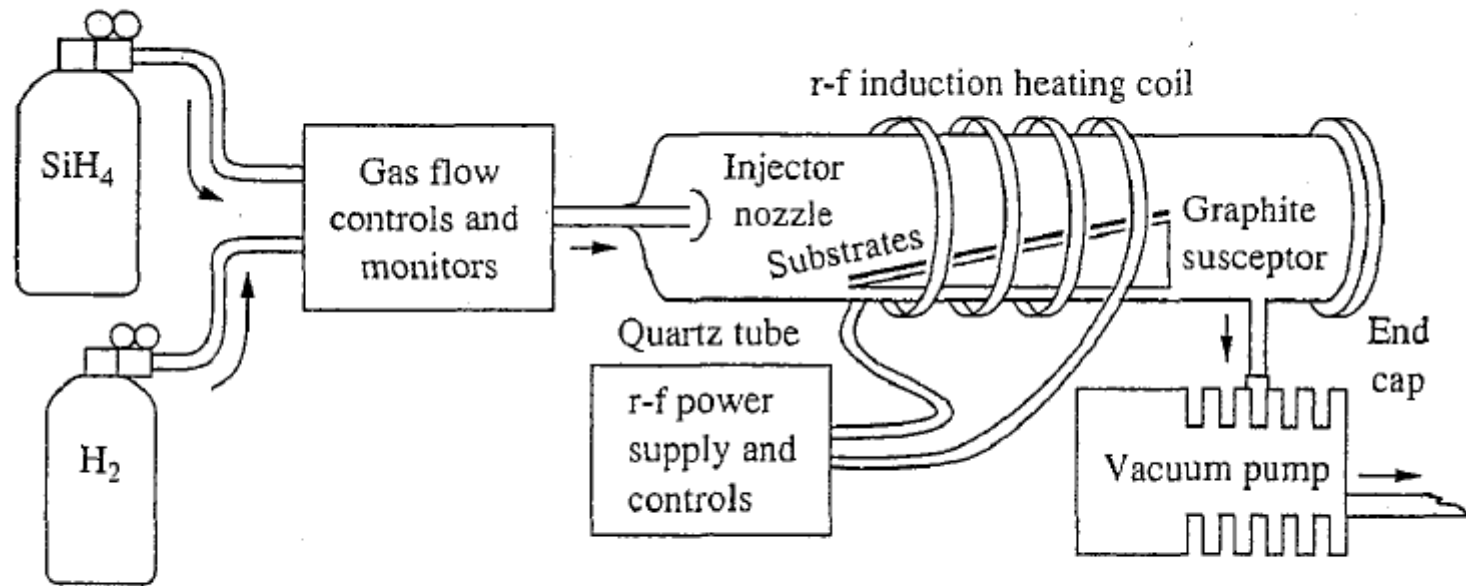
El triclorosilano ( $\text{SiHCl}_3$ ) o el tetracloruro de silicio ( $\text{SiCl}_4$ ) y el hidrógeno se combinan con gas de diborano ( $\text{B}_2\text{H}_6$ ) o fosfina ( $\text{PH}_3$ ) para actuar como dopante.



Epitaxial Reactor  
(Moore Epitaxial®)

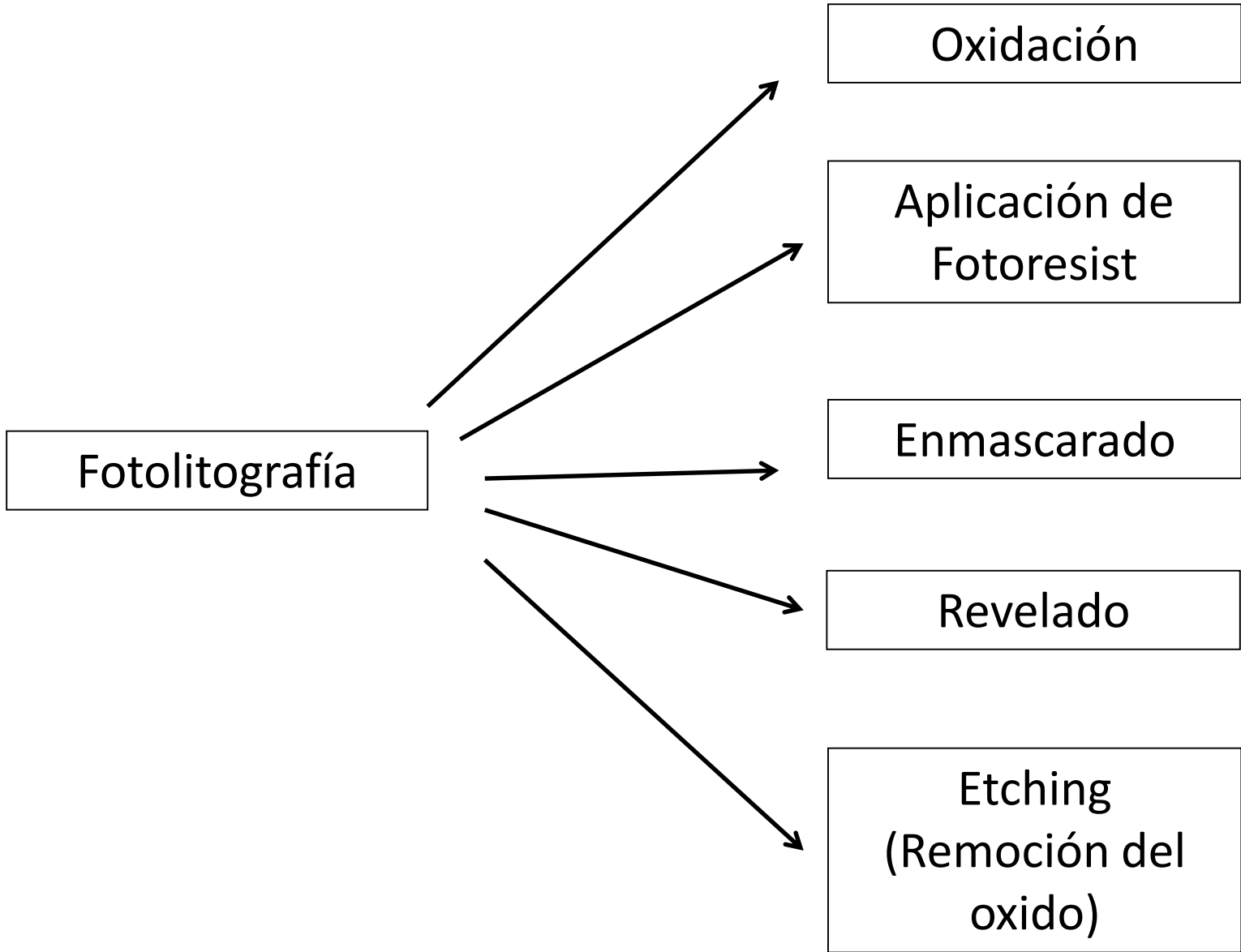


# Crecimiento Epitaxial



**FIGURE G.2**

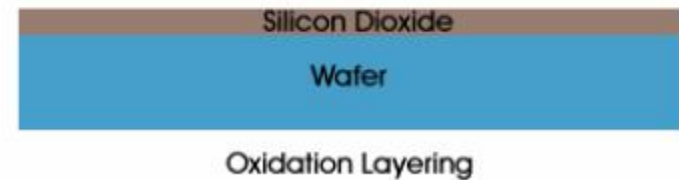
Representative chemical vapor deposition system for epitaxial growth of silicon.





# Oxidación

Se crea una fina capa de  $\text{SiO}_2$  sobre la superficie por exposición a una mezcla de  $\text{O}_2$  e  $\text{H}_2$  de alta pureza a  $1000\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

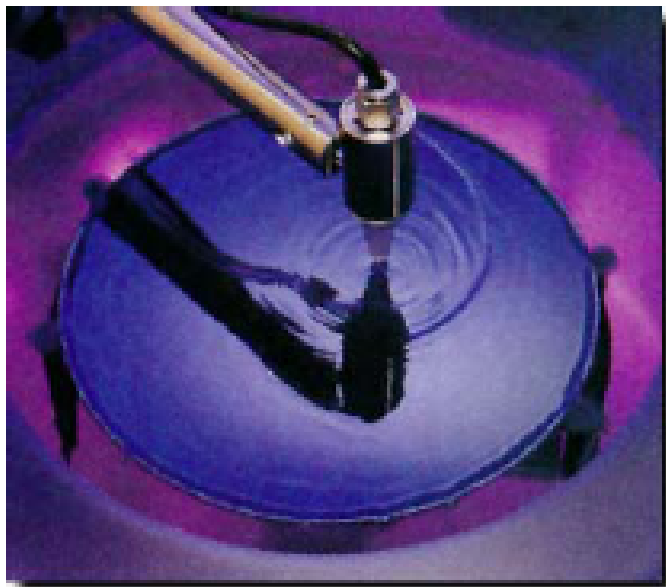


Oxidation Furnace  
(Silicon Valley Group - Thermco Systems)

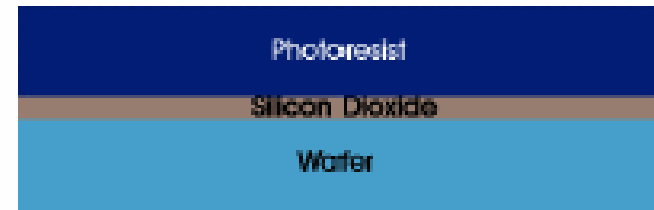
El óxido se utiliza como aislante ( en torno a  $1500\text{ \AA}$ ) y como óxido de puerta (entre  $200$  y  $500\text{ \AA}$ )

# Recubrimiento con fotoresina

La fotoresina es un material fotosensible que se aplica sobre la oblea en estado líquido en pequeñas cantidades



Photoresist Application  
(Ontrak)

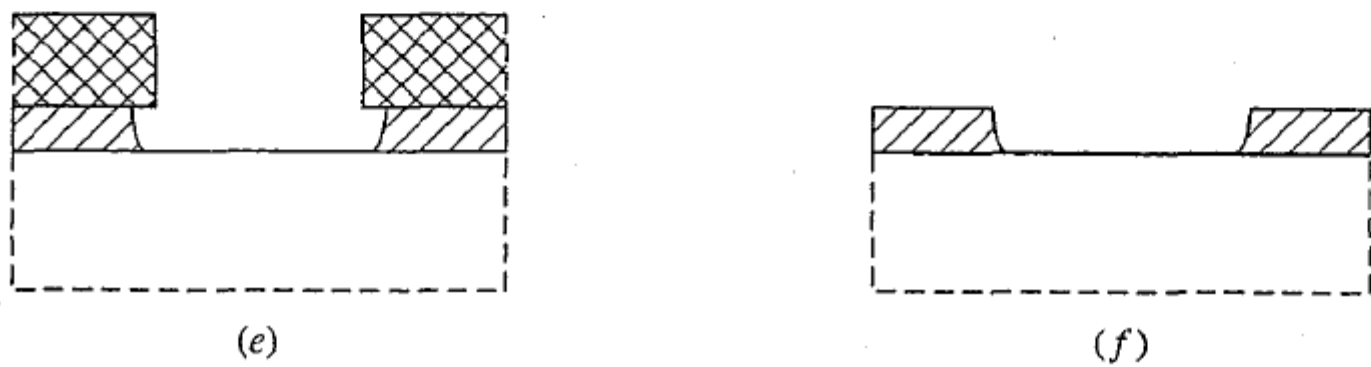
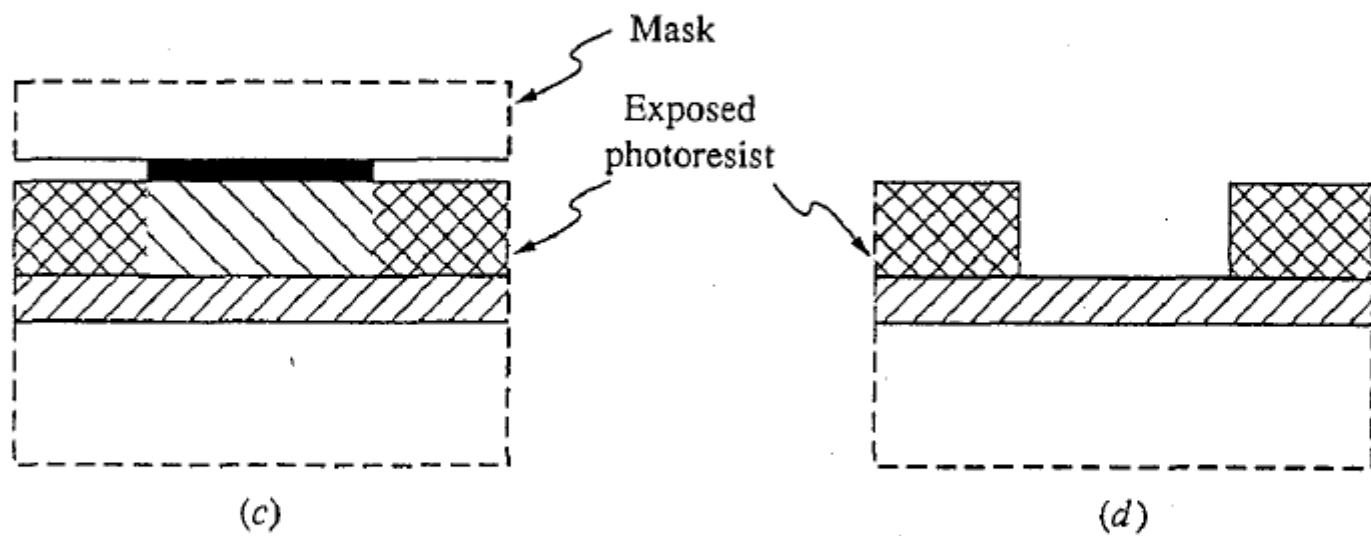
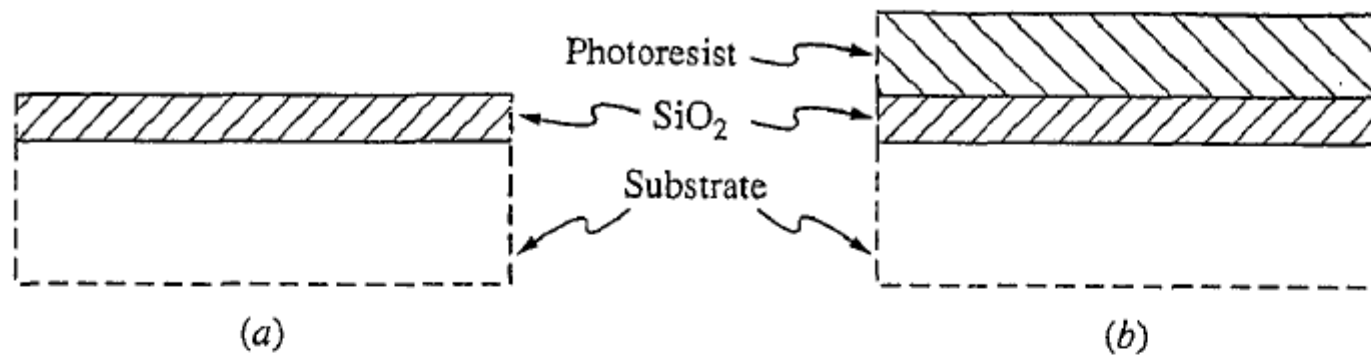


Photoresist Coating

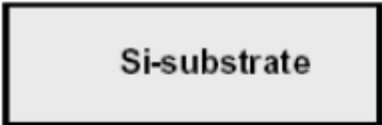
La oblea se hace girar a 3000 r.p.m. extendiendo el material en forma de una capa uniforme de entre 2 y 200  $\mu\text{m}$  de espesor.

Hay dos tipos de fotoresinas: negativa y positiva

La fotoresina positiva se adapta mejor a las exigencias de la tecnología moderna en cuanto a alcanzar menores dimensiones, las cuales se encuentran por debajo de 1,0  $\mu\text{m}$  y puede llegar a 0,15  $\mu\text{m}$ .



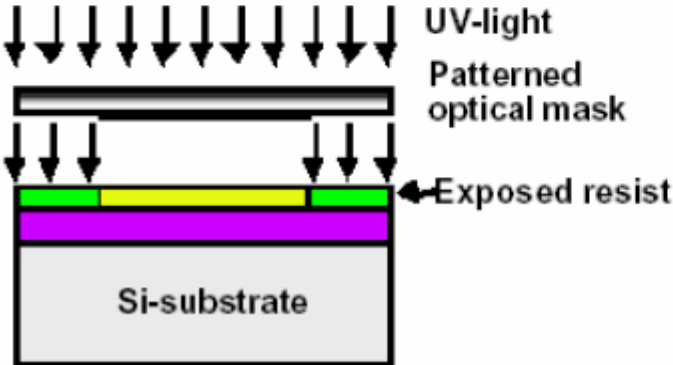
# FOTOLITOGRAFIA



(a) Silicon base material



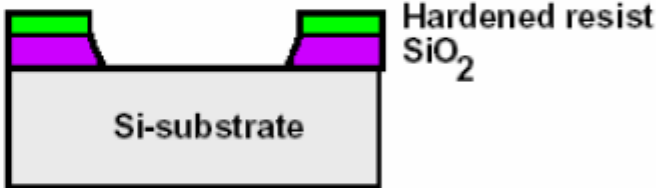
(b) After oxidation and deposition of negative photoresist



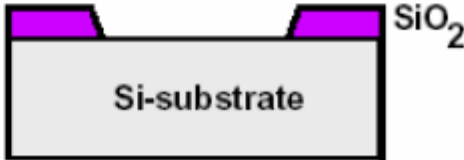
(c) Stepper exposure



(d) After development and etching of resist, chemical or plasma etch of SiO<sub>2</sub>

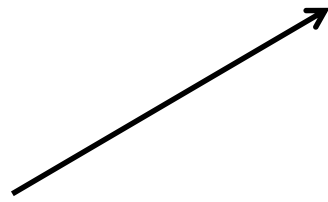


(e) After etching

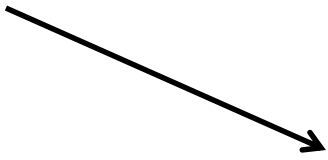


(f) Final result after removal of resist

Colocación  
de  
Impurezas

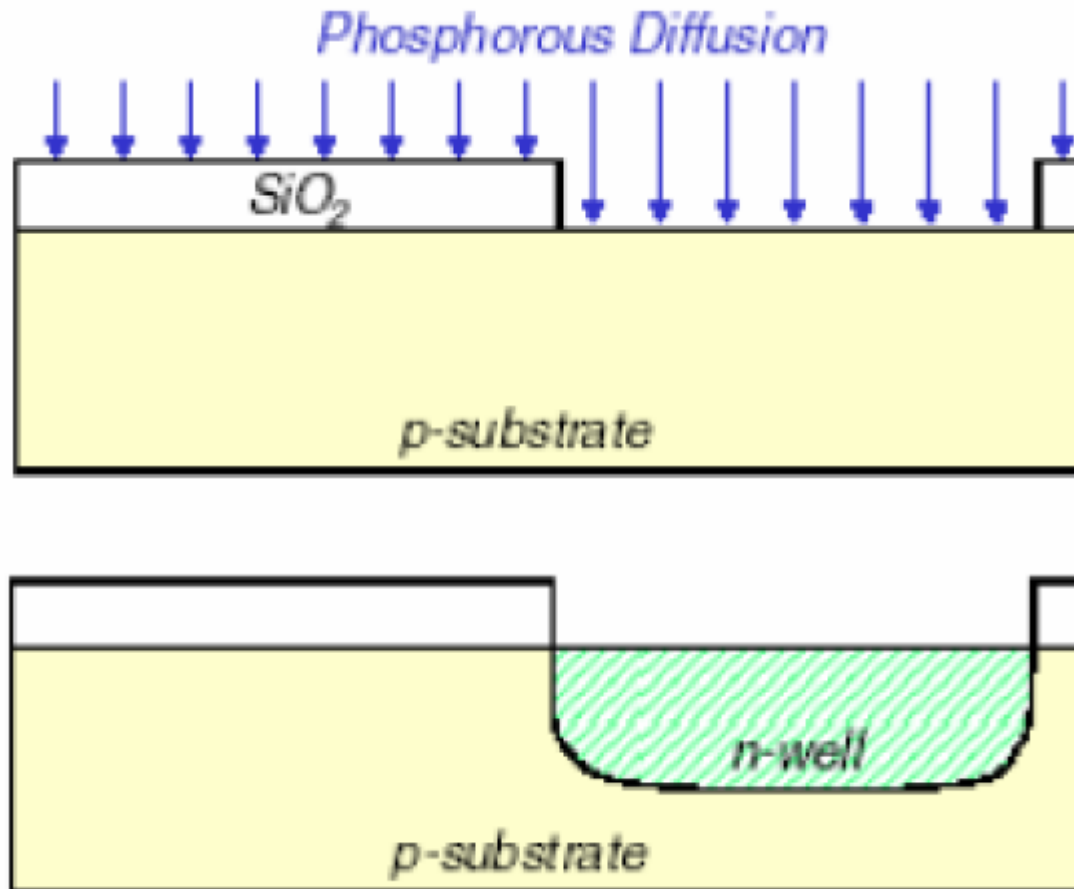


Difusión

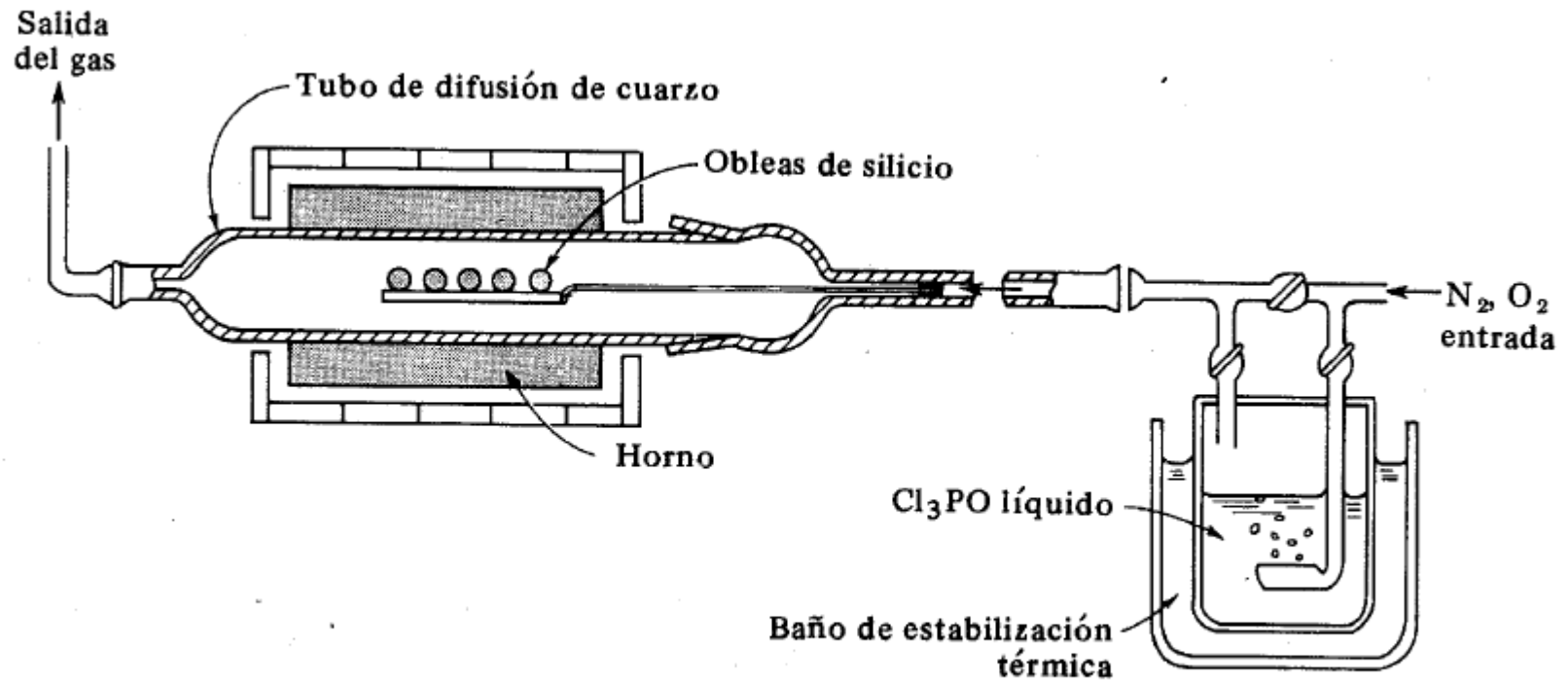


Implante  
Iónico

# DIFUSION DE IMPUREZAS

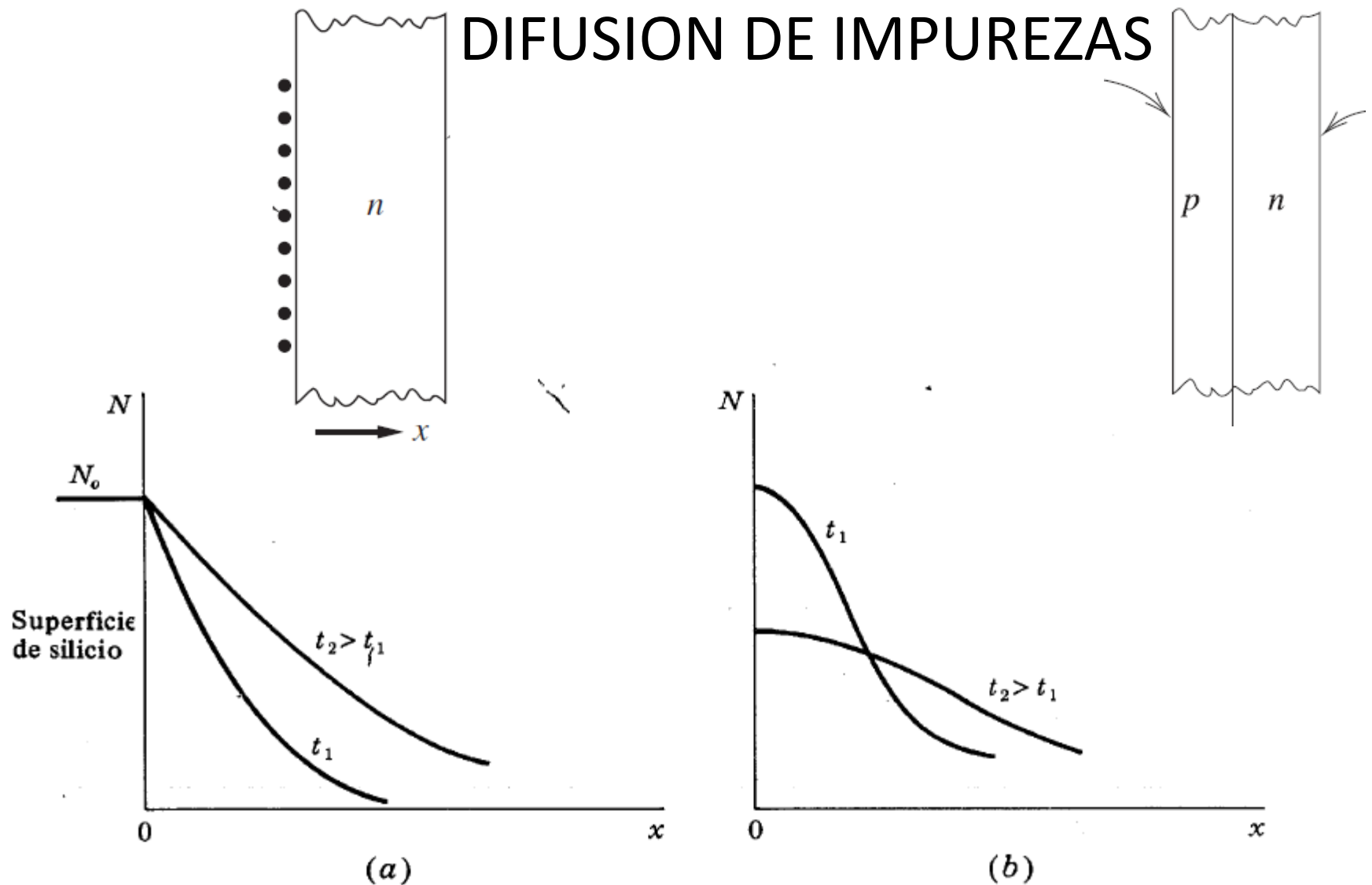


# DIFUSION DE IMPUREZAS



**Fig. 7-10.** Representación esquemática de un aparato típico para la difusión de  $\text{Cl}_3\text{PO}$ . (Cortesía de Motorola, Inc.<sup>1</sup>)

# DIFUSION DE IMPUREZAS



**Fig. 7-6.** Concentración  $N$  en función de la distancia  $x$  dentro del chip de silicio para dos valores  $t_1$  y  $t_2$  del tiempo de difusión. (a) La concentración en la superficie constante es igual a  $N_0$  por unidad de volumen. (b) El número total de átomos en la superficie es constantemente igual a  $Q$  por unidad de superficie

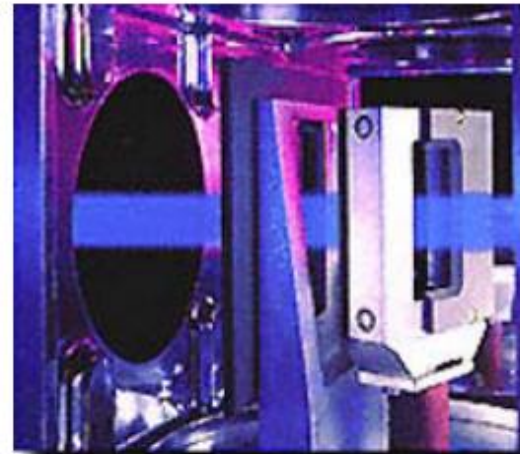


# Implante iónico

El implantador iónico utiliza un tubo acelerador de alta corriente e imanes de dirección focalizadores para bombardear la superficie de la oblea con iones de un dopante específico. Estos iones dopantes son implantados en la capa superior de la oblea, justo debajo de la superficie, modificando la conductividad de una región específica.

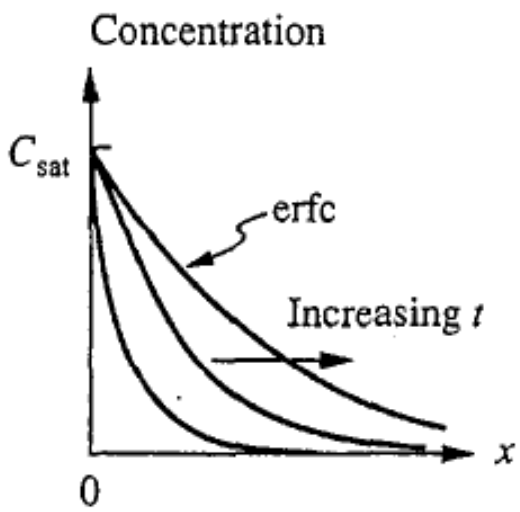
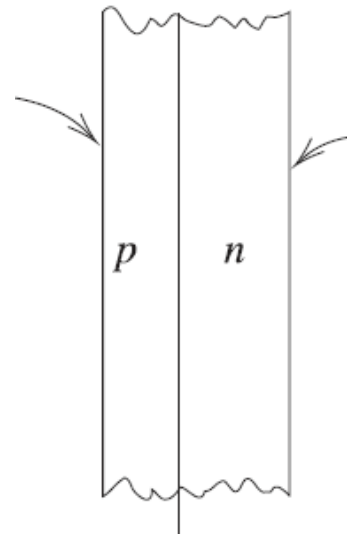
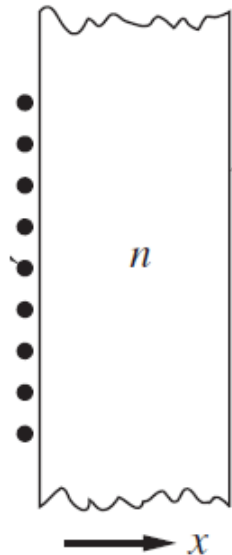


Ion Implanter  
(Varian Associates)

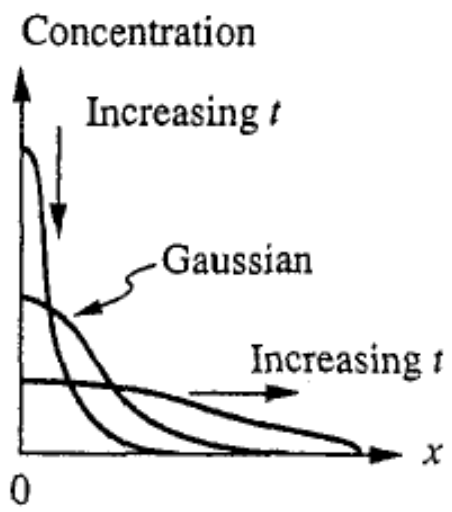


Ion Implanter Steering Magnets  
(Varian Associates)

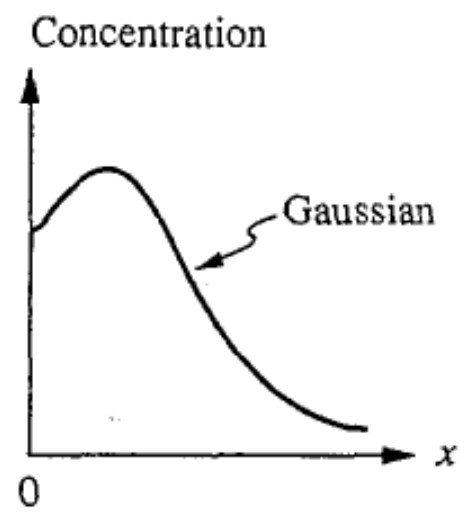
Los equipos de implante se clasifican en los de alta corriente (corriente mayor de 3 mA) o de corriente media (menores de 3 mA)



Concentración de impurezas constante en la superficie



Cantidad de impurezas fija en la superficie

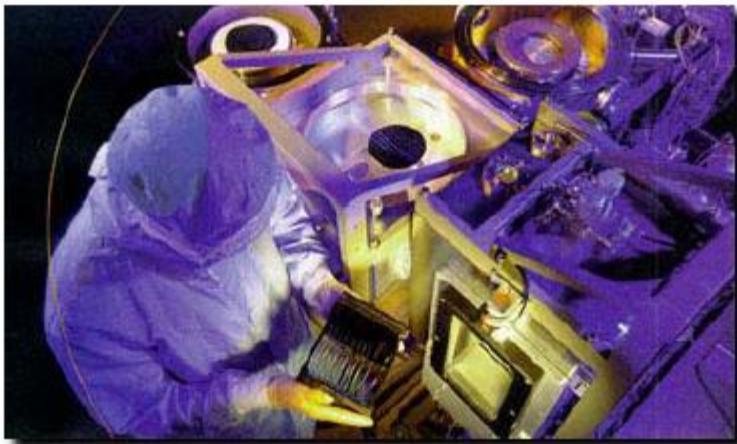


Implante IONICO

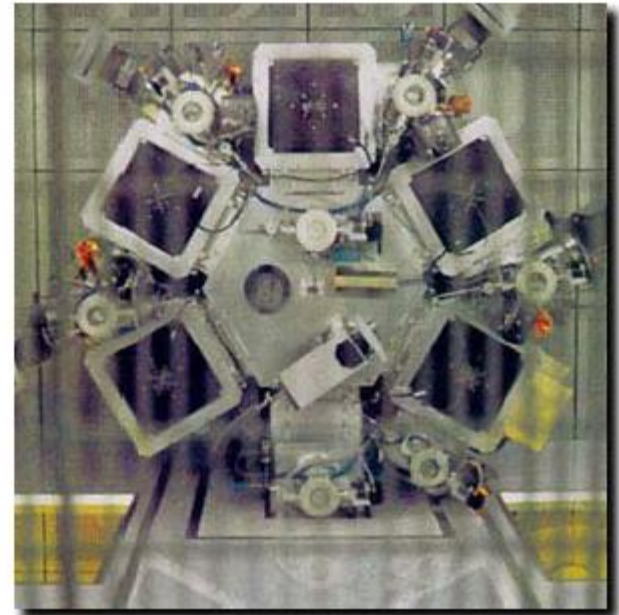
## Metalización (deposición de metal)

La evaporación utiliza el calor de un filamento eléctrico o de un haz de electrones y un fuerte vacío para vaporizar la fuente de metal. El material vaporizado se condensa sobre la superficie de las obleas.

El chisporroteo utiliza plasma de argón que bombardea el metal fuente. Las moléculas de metal desprendidas son focalizadas por una “lente”, llamada colimador; y se depositan en una fina película sobre la superficie de la oblea.



Thin Film Deposition  
(Alcatel High Vacuum Technology)

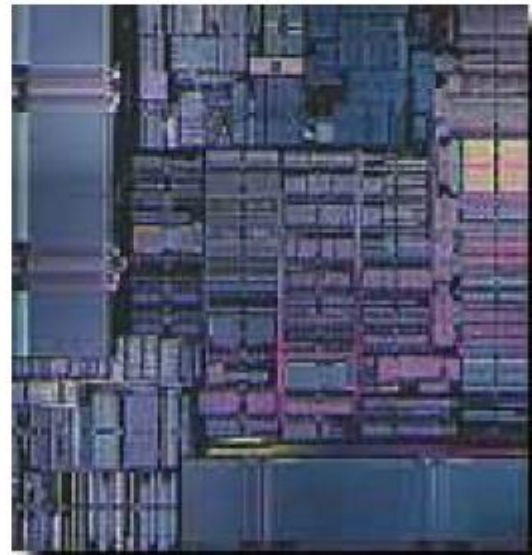


PVD Sputtering Tool  
(Sputtered Films Corporation)

## Testeo y Corte en dados

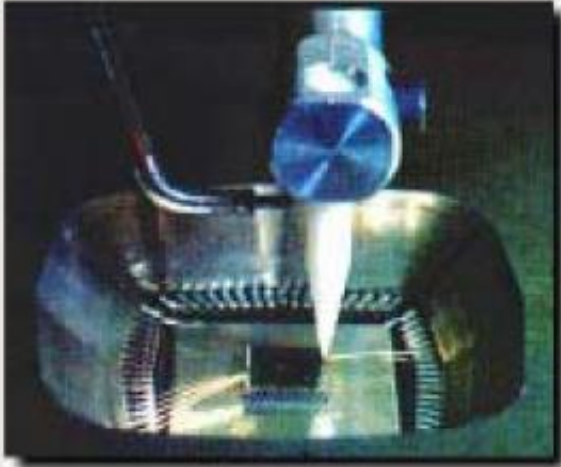
Cada oblea terminada puede contener algunos cientos de dispositivos del mismo tipo contenidos en pequeños dados. Todos los dados son testeados de forma automática antes de proceder a cortarlos.

El equipo de testeo utiliza unas sondas tipo agujas para hacer contacto en los *pads* de soldadura (puntos de conexión del circuito) de cada dispositivo y verificar su funcionamiento.



64-Bit RISC  
Microprocessor Die  
(Motorola)

# CONEXIONADO



Wire Bonding  
(Kulicke & Soffa Industries, Inc.)

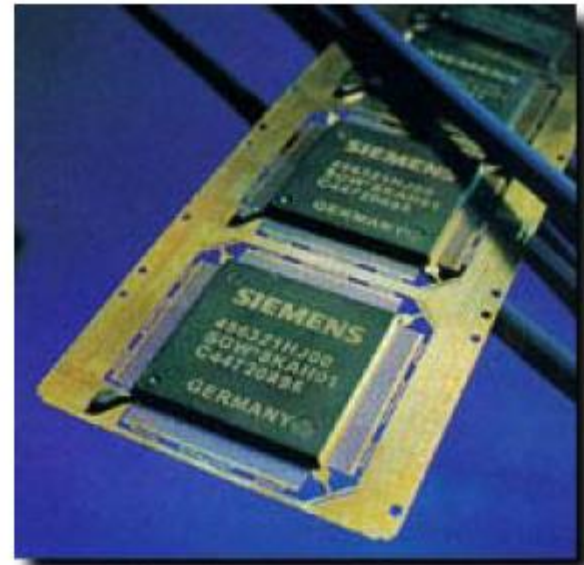


# Encapsulado

Después de terminada la soldadura de los cables se procede al sellado del dispositivo en un envoltorio cerámico o de plástico.



DIP (Dual In-line Package) Device  
(AMD Corporation)



Quad Package Device  
(Siemens AmG)

# TBJ de Crecimiento Epitaxial (1)

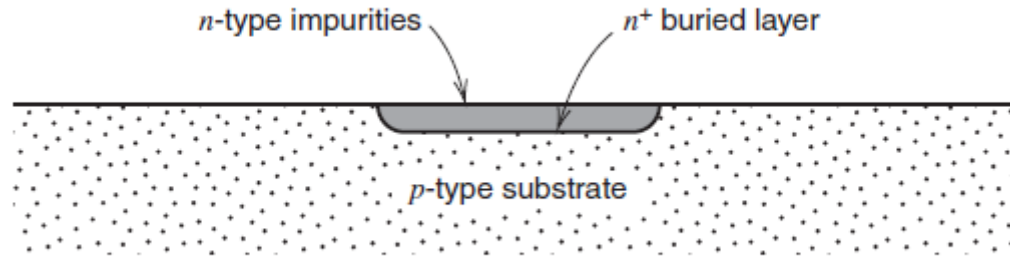


Figure 2.10 Buried-layer diffusion.

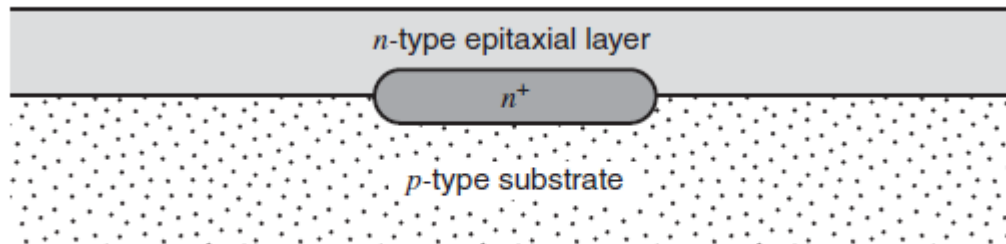


Figure 2.11 Bipolar integrated-circuit wafer following epitaxial growth.

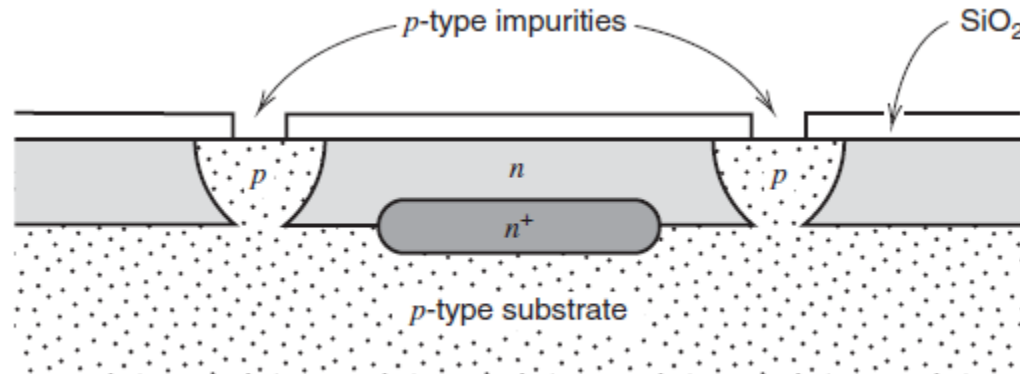


Figure 2.12 Structure following isolation diffusion.

# TBJ de Crecimiento Epitaxial (2)

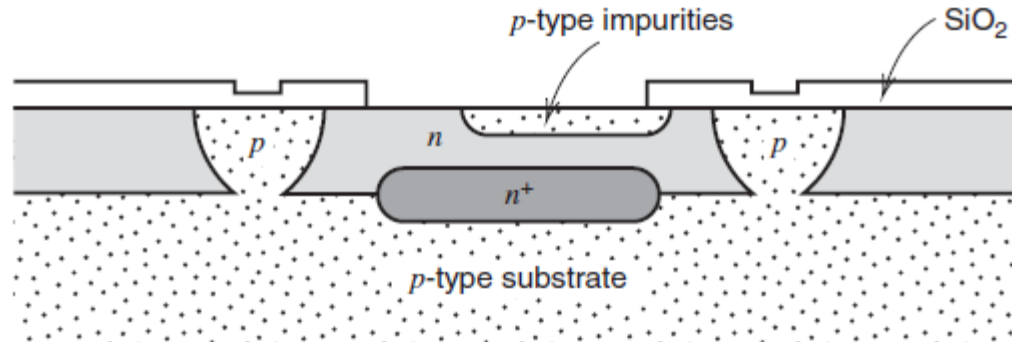


Figure 2.13 Structure following base diffusion.

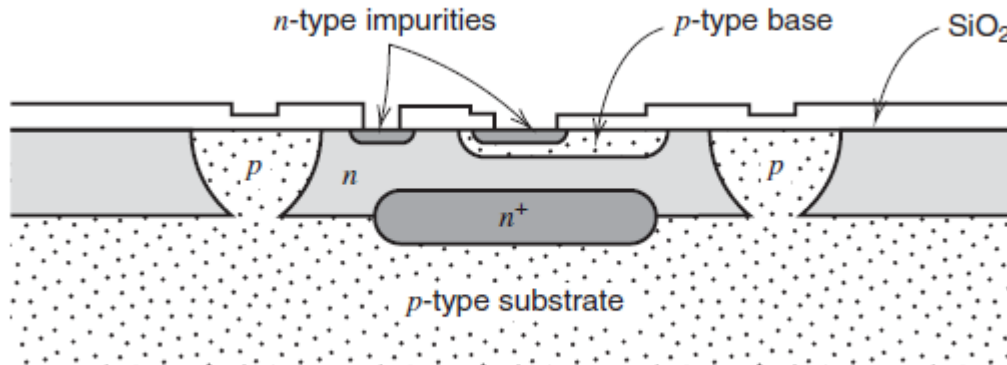


Figure 2.14 Structure following emitter diffusion.

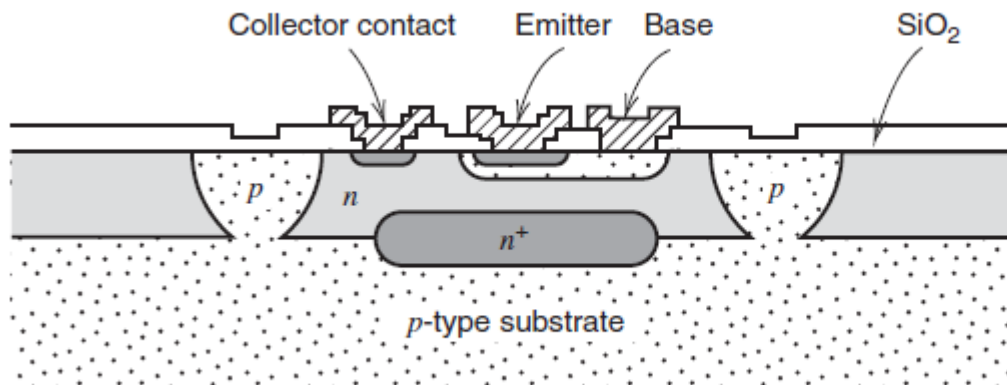
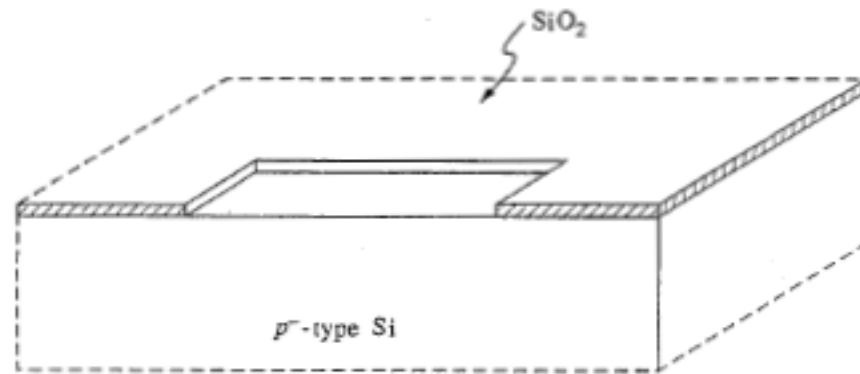


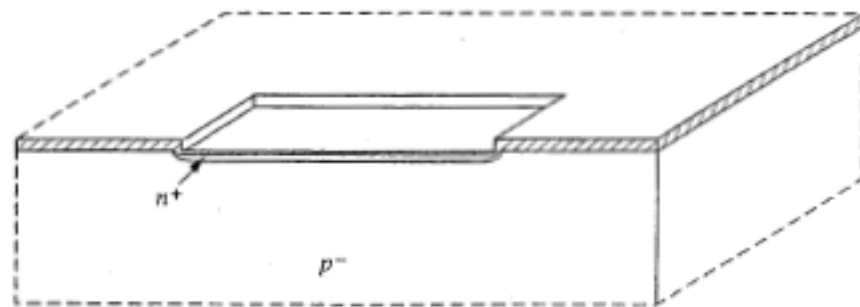
Figure 2.15 Final structure following contact mask and metallization.



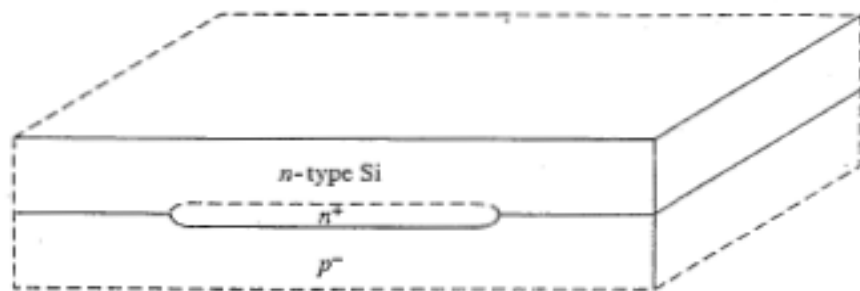
# PASOS DE FABRICACION DE UN TBJ NPN



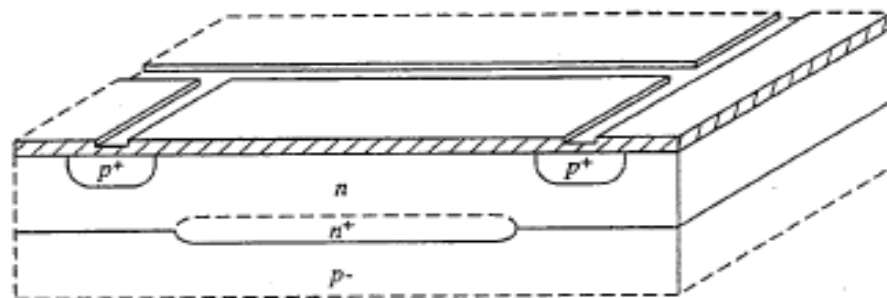
(a)



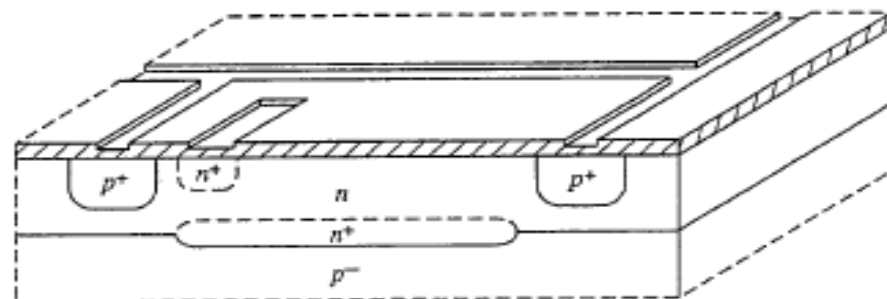
(b)



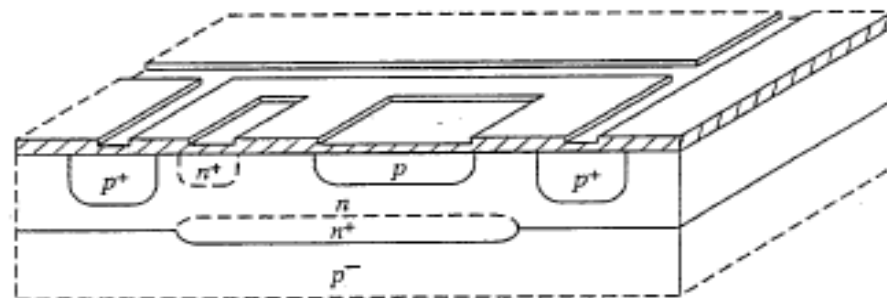
(c)



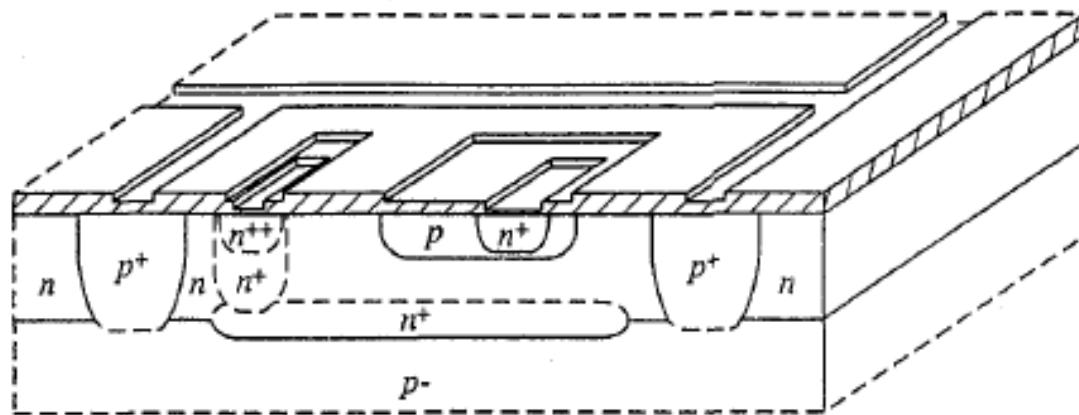
(d)



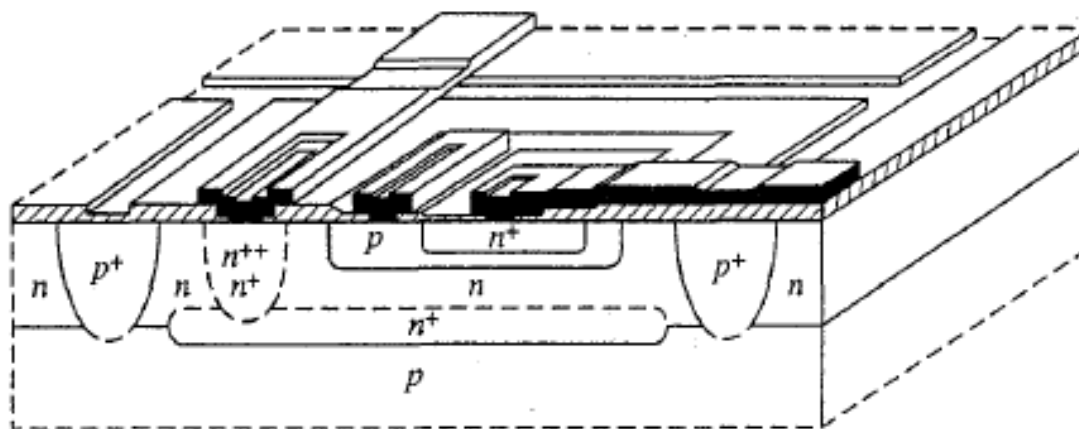
(e)



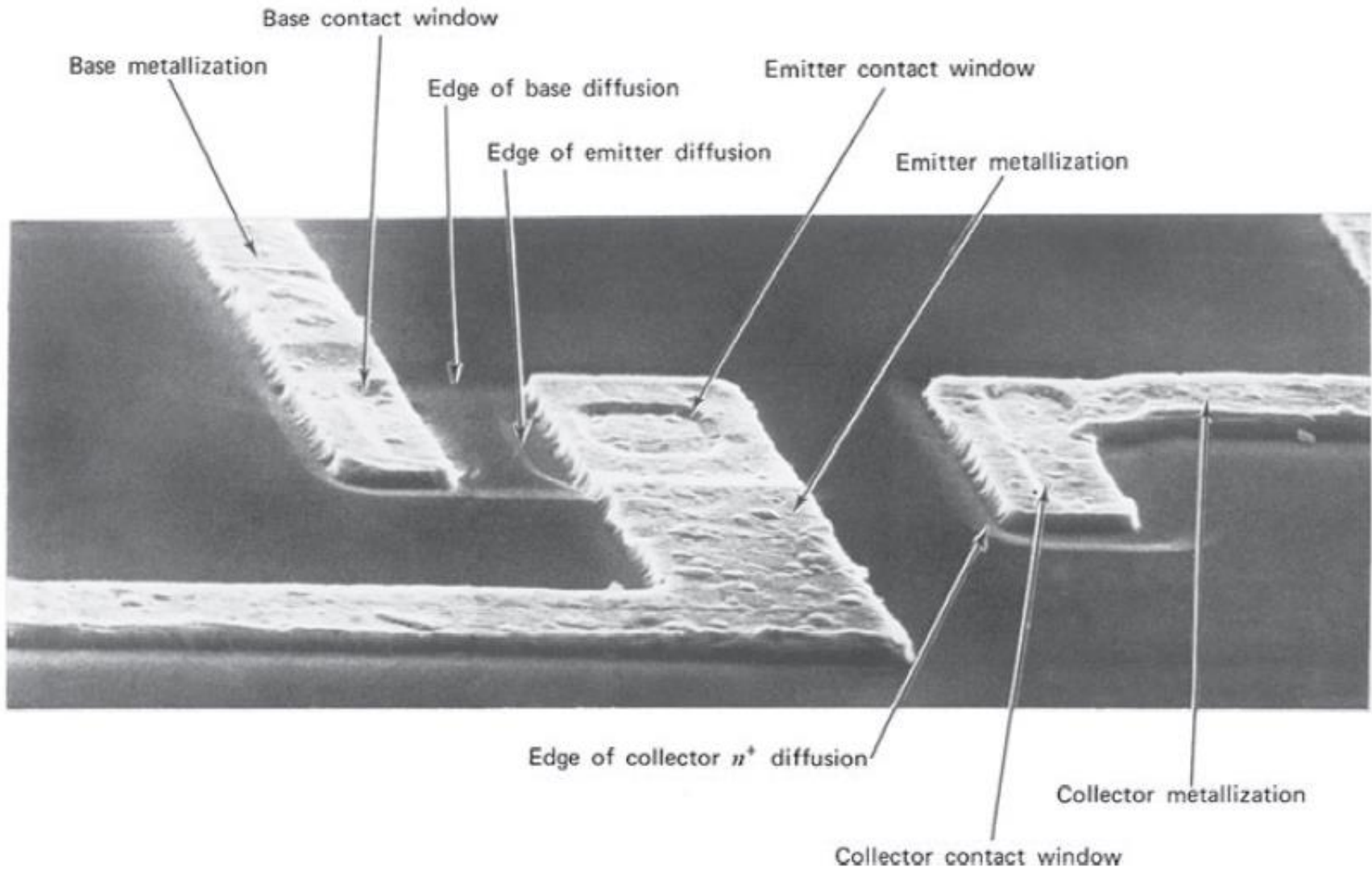
(f)



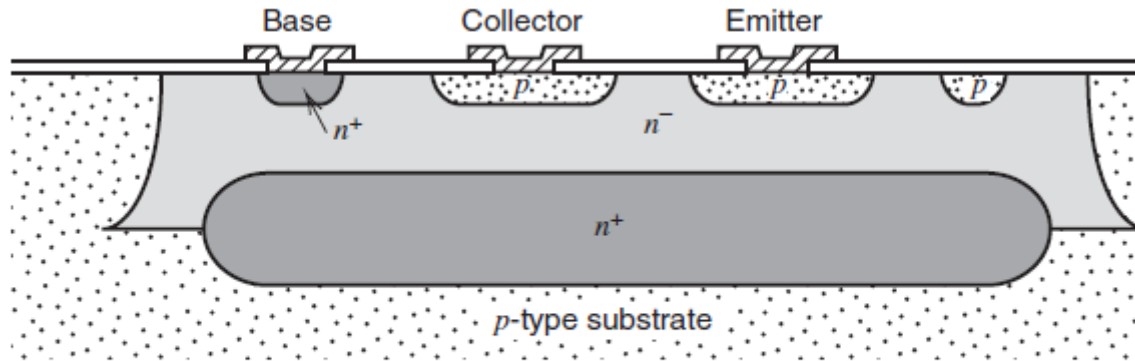
(g)



(h)

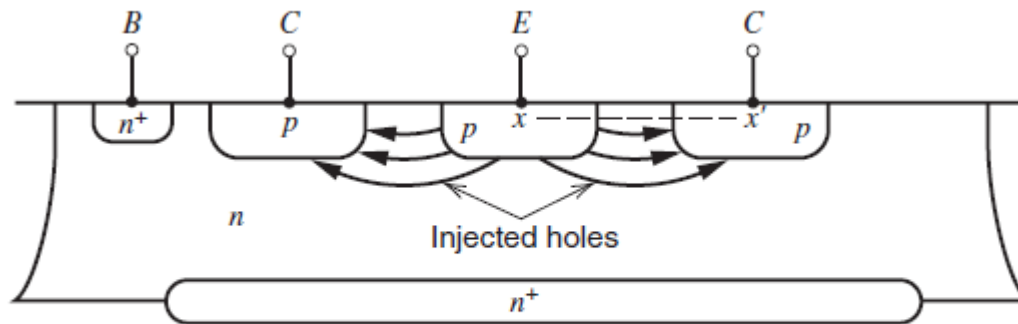


# TBJ PNP lateral



(a)

Figure 2.33 (a) Lateral  $pnp$  structure fabricated in a high-voltage process.



(b)

Figure 2.33 (b) Minority-carrier flow in the lateral  $pnp$  transistor.

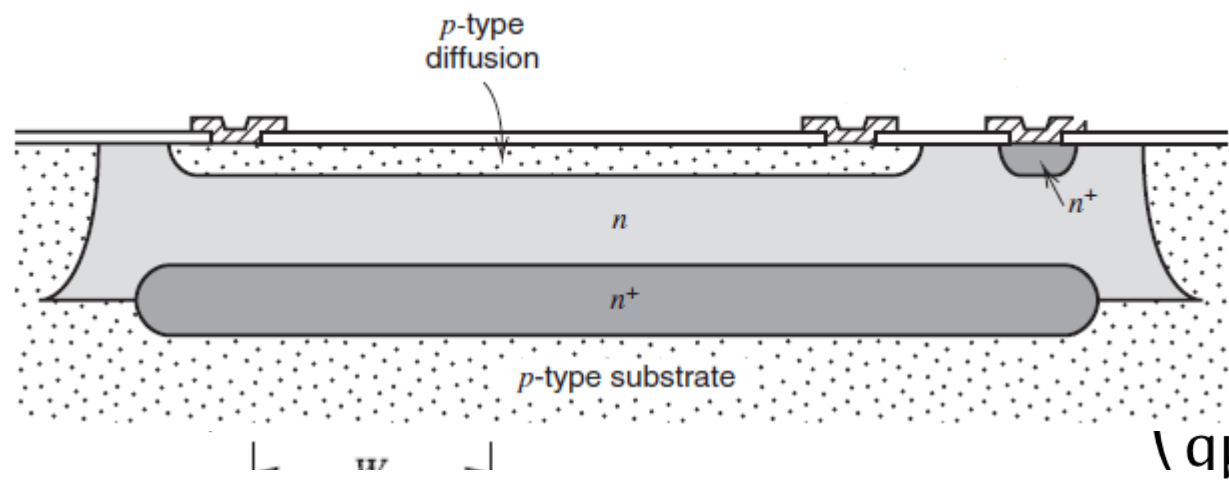
## Parametros de Fabricacion TBJ'

<b>Parametro</b>	<b>Valor Tipico</b>	<b>Tolerancia</b>	<b>Coef.Termico</b>
$\beta$ (NPN)	30 a 100	+50% a -30%	0.5%/°C
Apar. $\beta$ (NPN)	–	$\pm 10\%$	10% /°C
VBE (NPN)	0.7 V	$\pm 3\%$	-2mV/°C
Apar. VBE (NPN)	–	$\pm 2\text{mV}$	$\pm 10 \text{ uV}/^\circ\text{C}$
VBE (BR)	6 a 8 V	$\pm 5\%$	3 mV/°C
VCB (BR)	mas de 45 V	$\pm 30\%$	–
VCSust (BR)	Mas de 60 V	–	–
$\beta$ (PNP) lateral	0.5 a 20	+ 200% a –50%	$\pm 0.5\%$

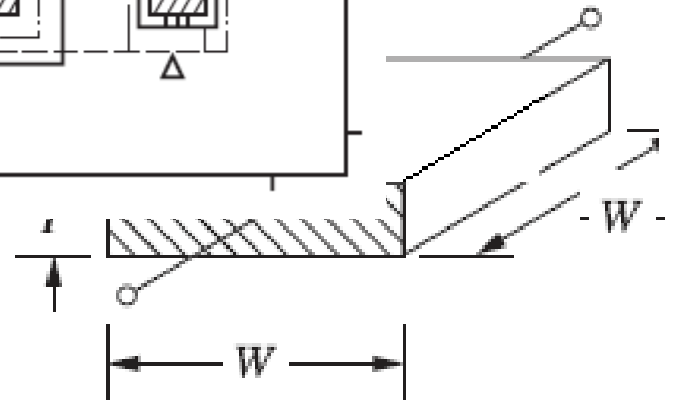
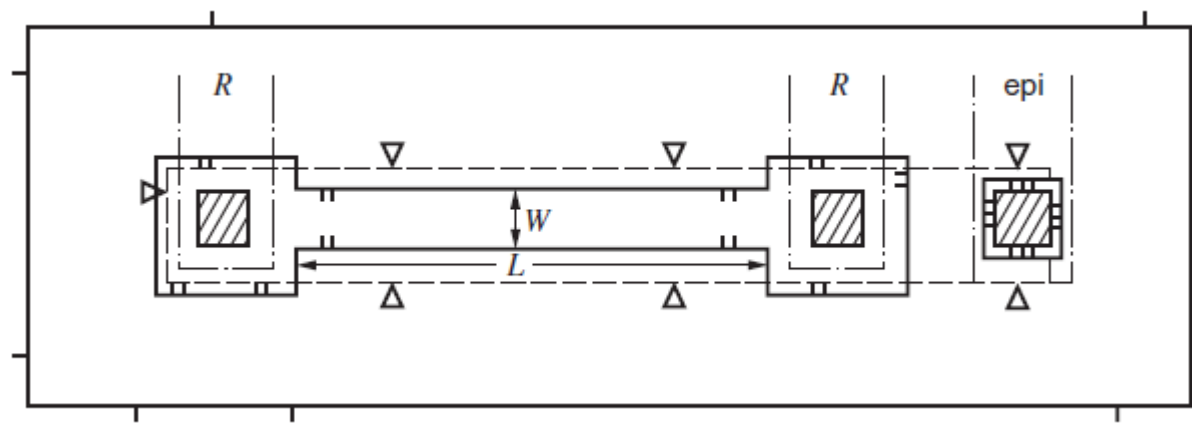
# Resistencia Laminar

$$R = \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{L}{W}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{q\mu_n N_D} \frac{L}{WT}$$



$$\left( \frac{1}{q\mu_n N_D T} \right) \frac{L}{W}$$



$$R = R_{\square} \frac{L}{W}$$

# Resistores Integrados

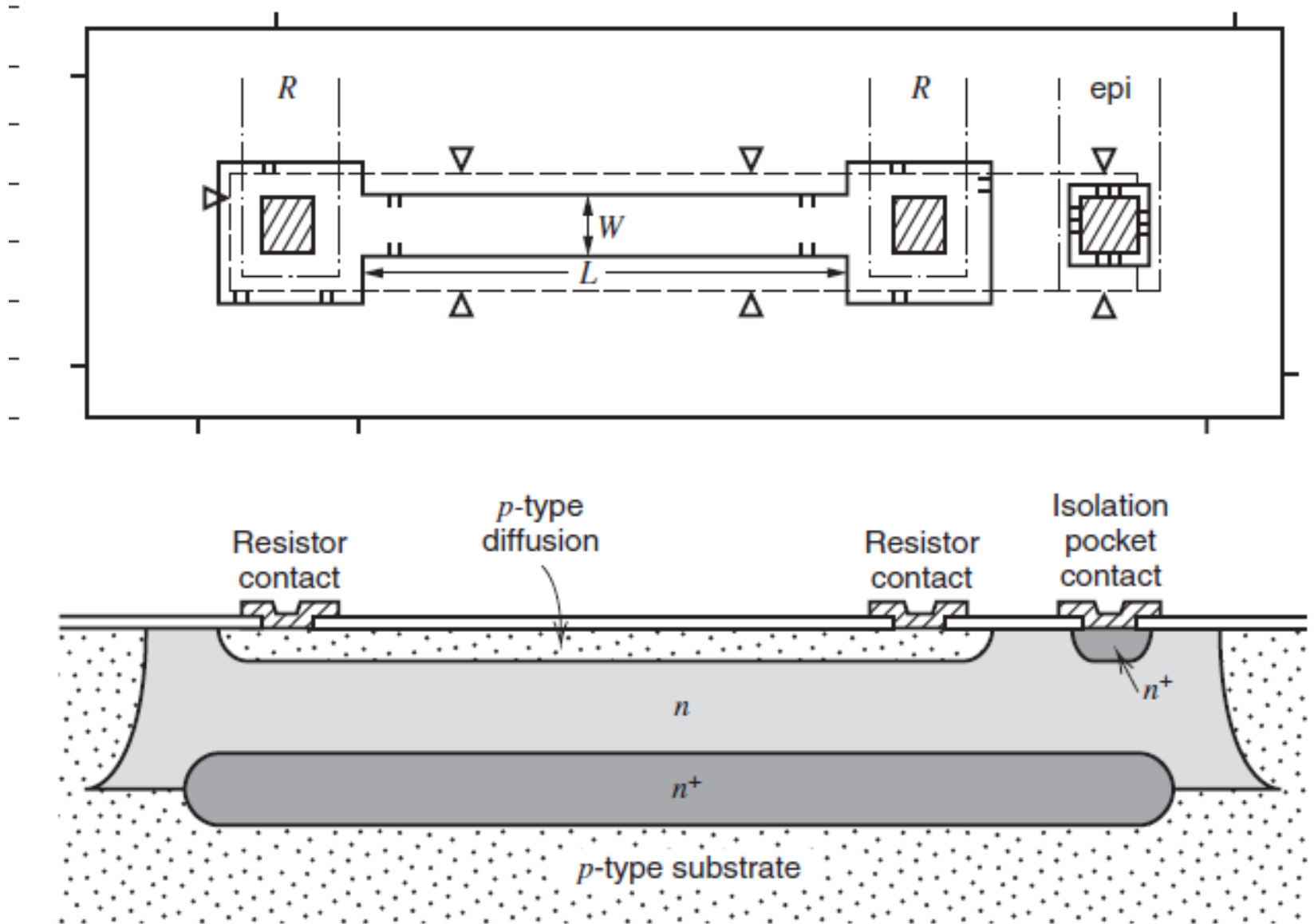


Figure 2.39 Base-diffused resistor structure.



# Resistores Integrados

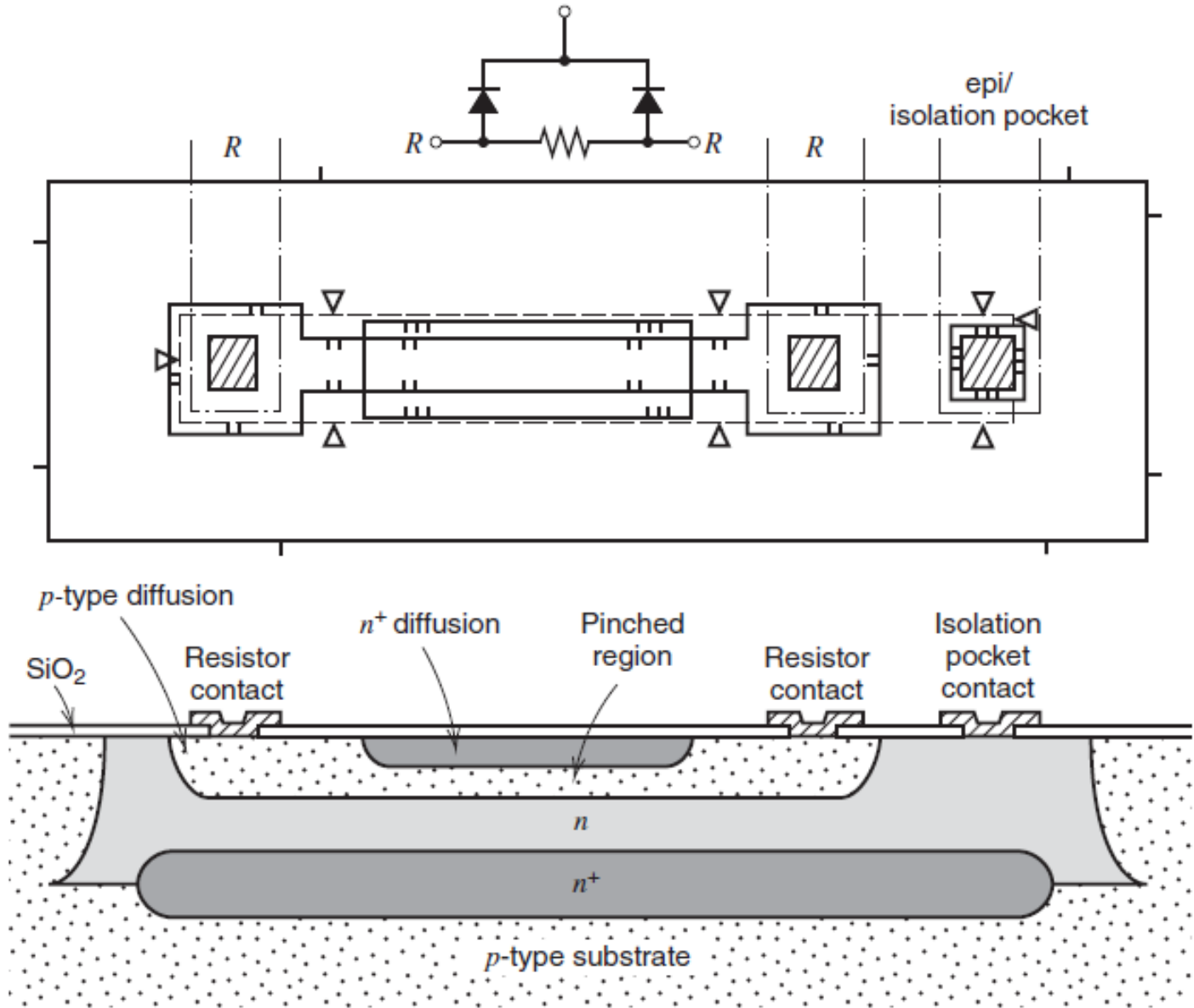


Figure 2.41 Pinch resistor structure.

# Resistores Integrados

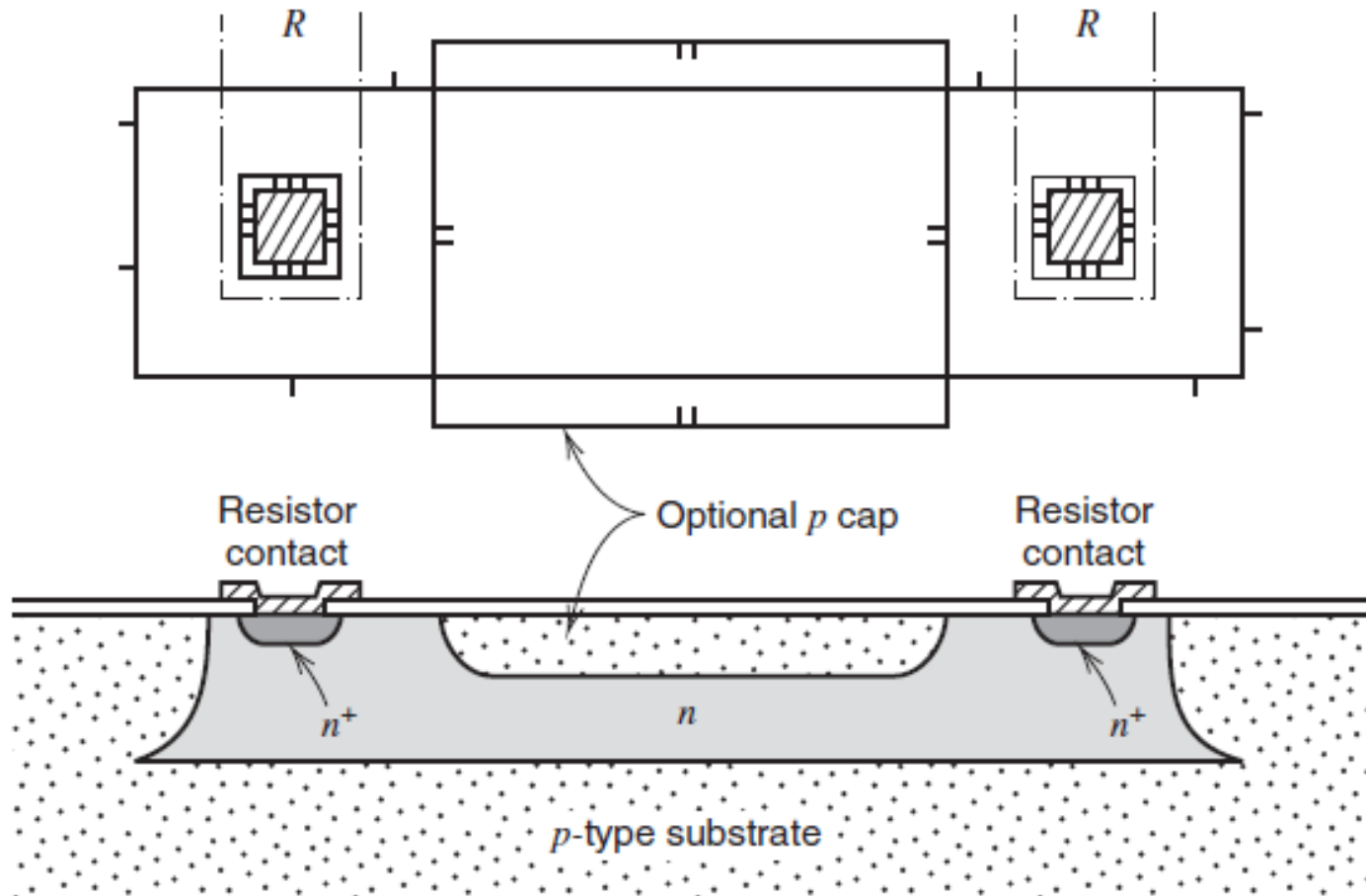


Figure 2.42 Epitaxial resistor structure. The  $p$ -cap diffusion is optional and forms an epitaxial pinch resistor.

# Parametros de Resistores

Resistor Type	Sheet $\rho$ $\Omega/\square$	Absolute Tolerance (%)	Matching Tolerance (%)	Temperature Coefficient
Base diffused	100 to 200	$\pm 20$	$\pm 2$ (5 $\mu\text{m}$ wide) $\pm 0.2$ (50 $\mu\text{m}$ wide)	(+1500 to +2000) ppm/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$
Emitter diffused	2 to 10	$\pm 20$	$\pm 2$	+600 ppm/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$
Base pinch	2k to 10k	$\pm 50$	$\pm 10$	+2500 ppm/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$
Epitaxial	2k to 5k	$\pm 30$	$\pm 5$	+3000 ppm/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$
Epitaxial pinch	4k to 10k	$\pm 50$	$\pm 7$	+3000 ppm/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$

# Circuitos Integrados Monolíticos

## Ventajas

- Disminuye el N° de interconexiones
- Apareamiento de las características de los componentes
- Bajo gradiente térmico

## Limitaciones

- NPN o PNP óptimos
- R con altos Coeficientes térmicos
- Alta dispersión en el valor de los parámetros
- Resistencias de bajo valor (50 Kohms o menos)
- Capacitores de bajo valor (50 pF o menos)
- Elementos parásitos
- Baja disipación de potencia
- No inductores

# **Nueva Electrónica**

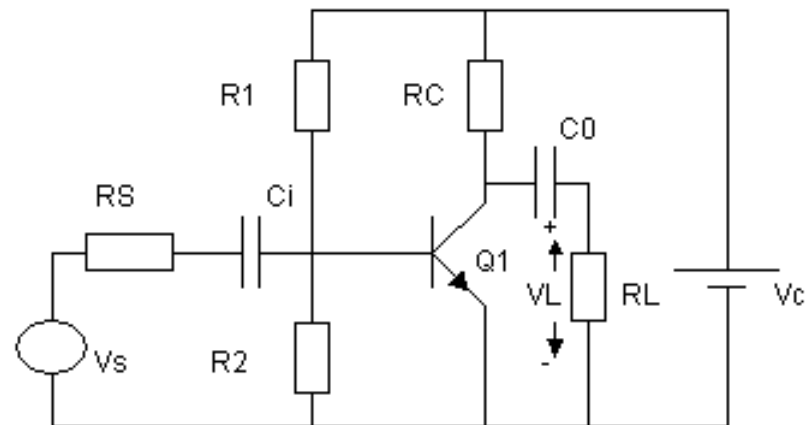
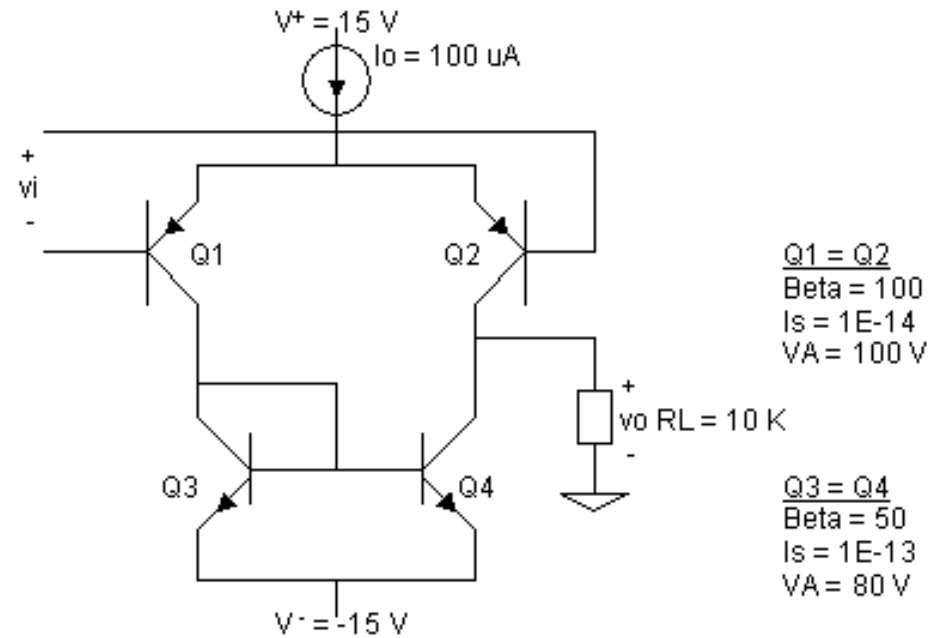
1 – Circuitos sin Resistores

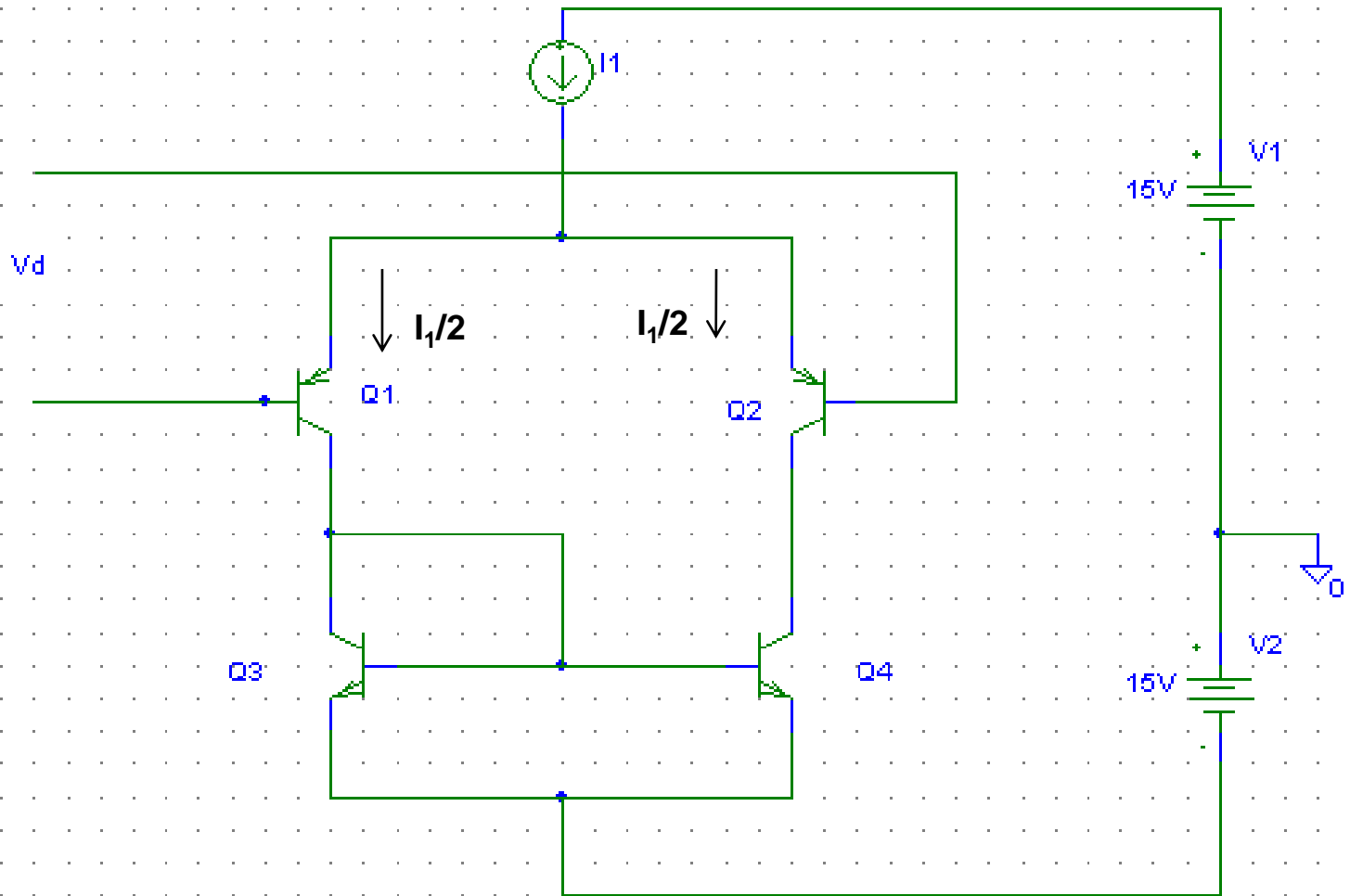
2 – Circuitos sin Capacitores

3 – Circuitos sin Inductores

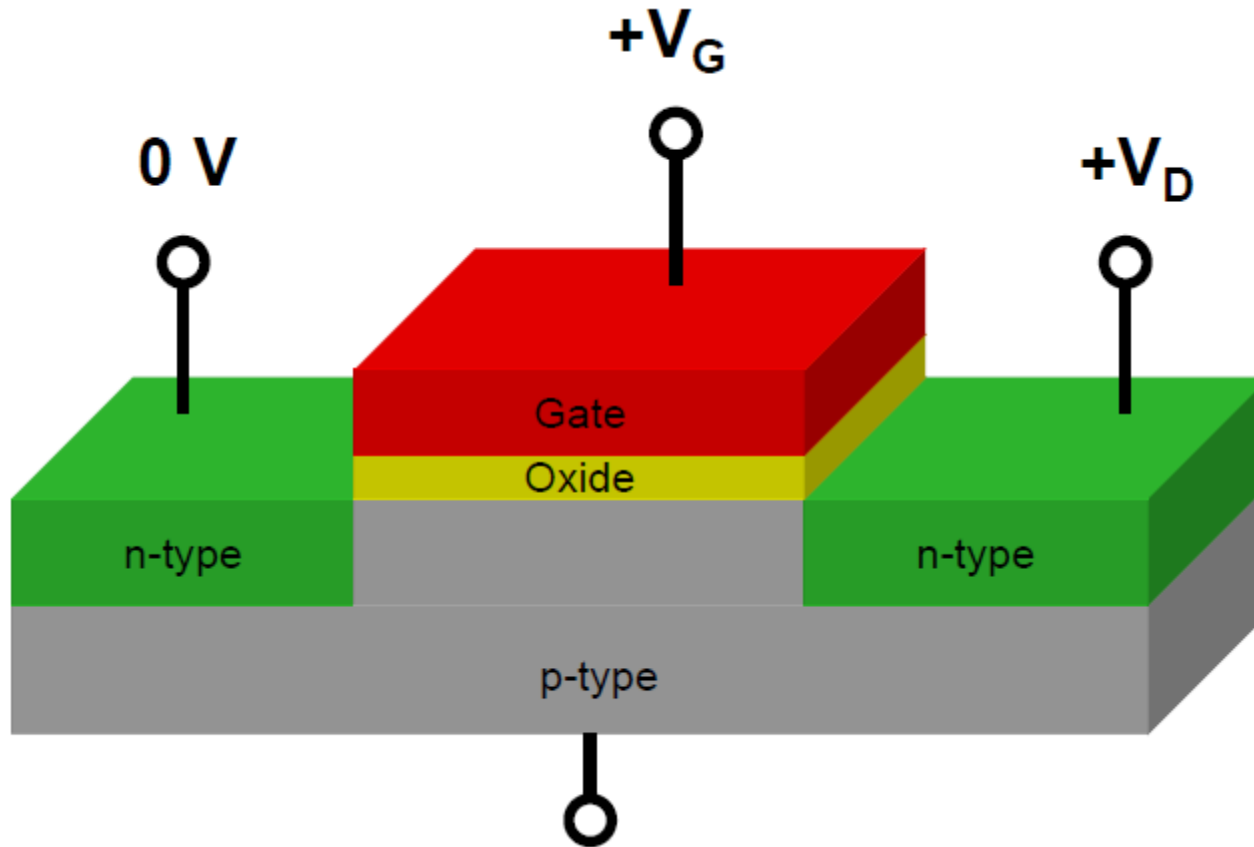
4 – Características del circuito (Ej. Ganancia) función del cociente de parámetros

# Amplificador típico = AMPLIFICADOR DIFERENCIAL





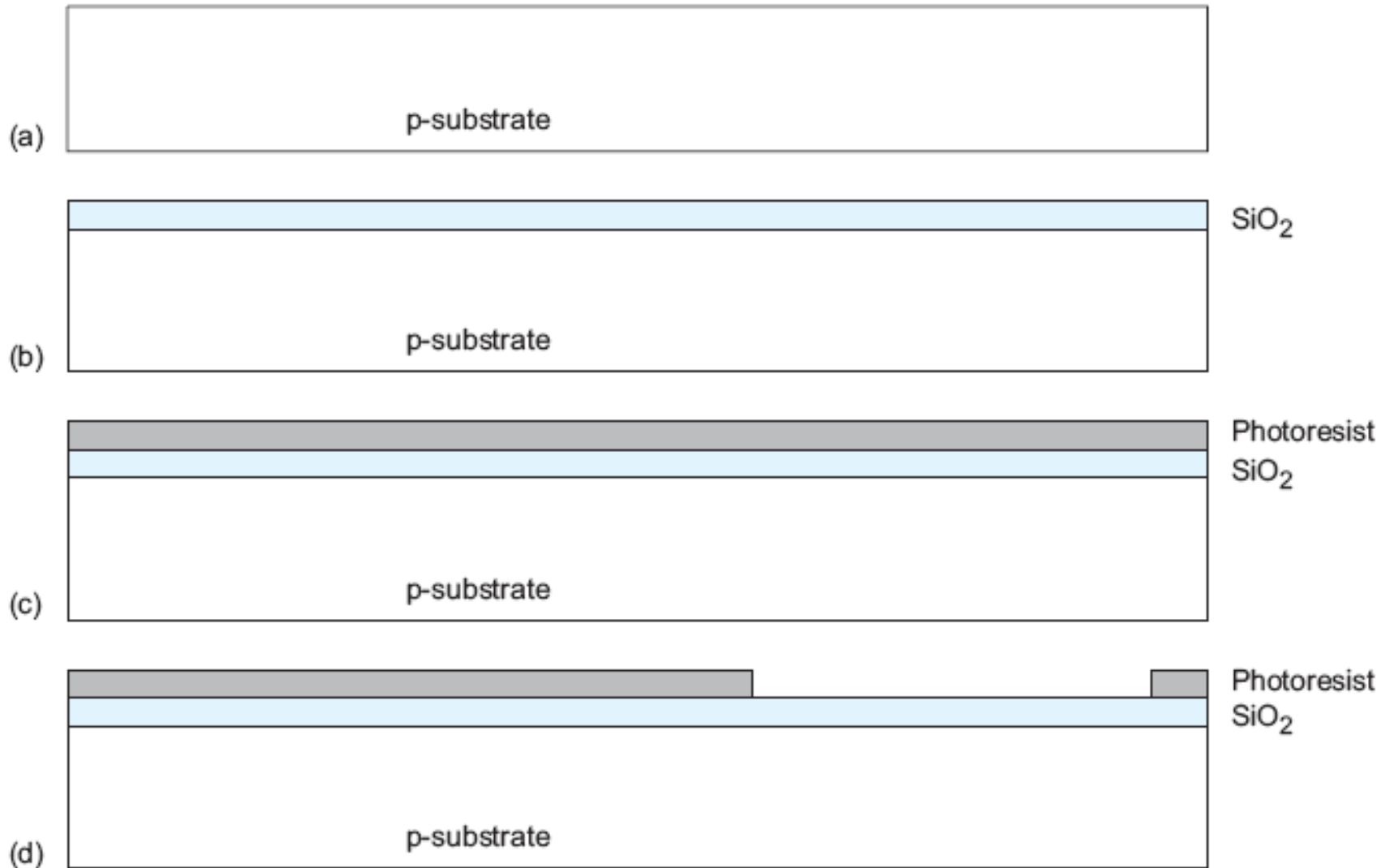
# TRANSISTOR MOS





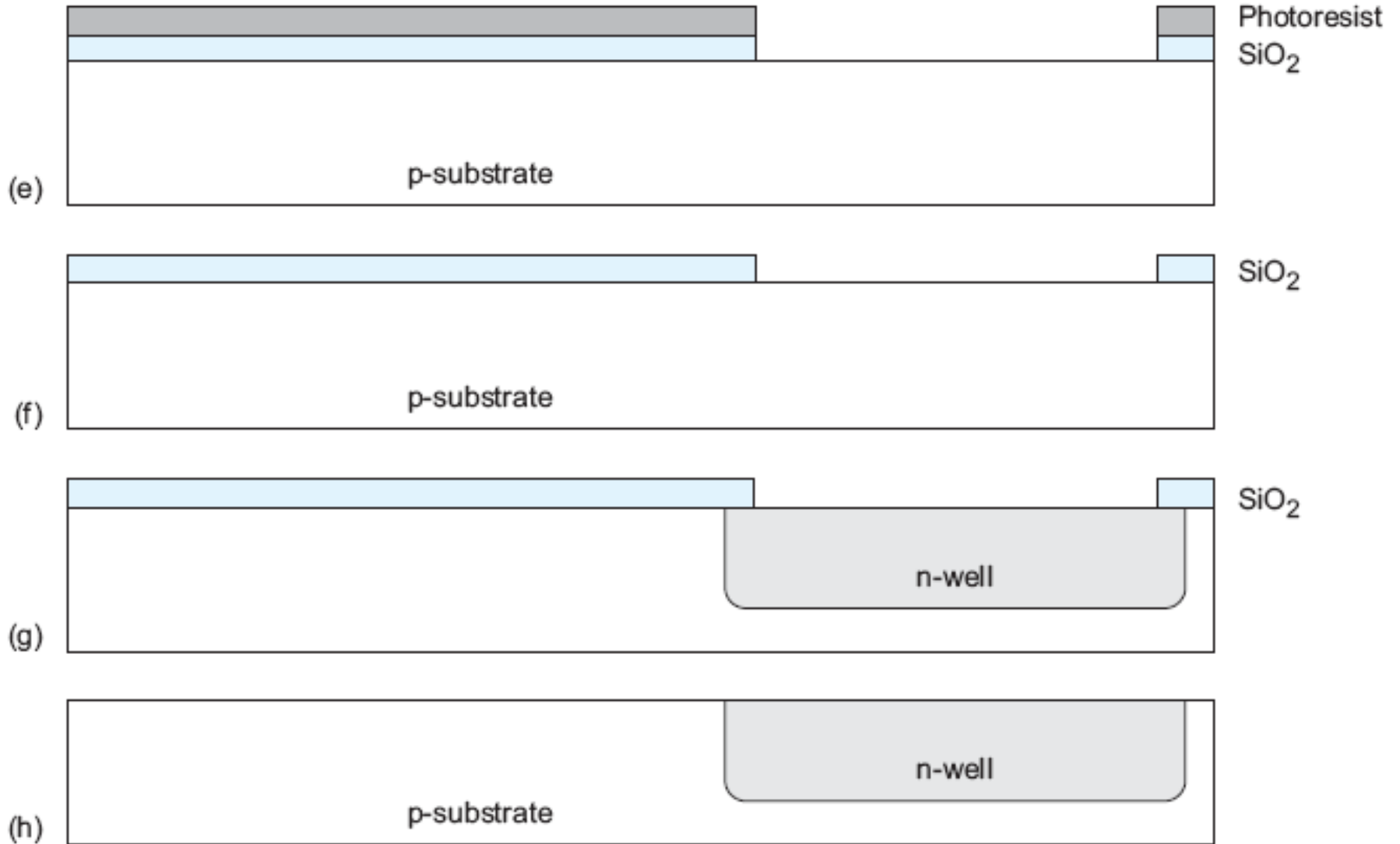
# Fabricación de un inversor CMOS

I



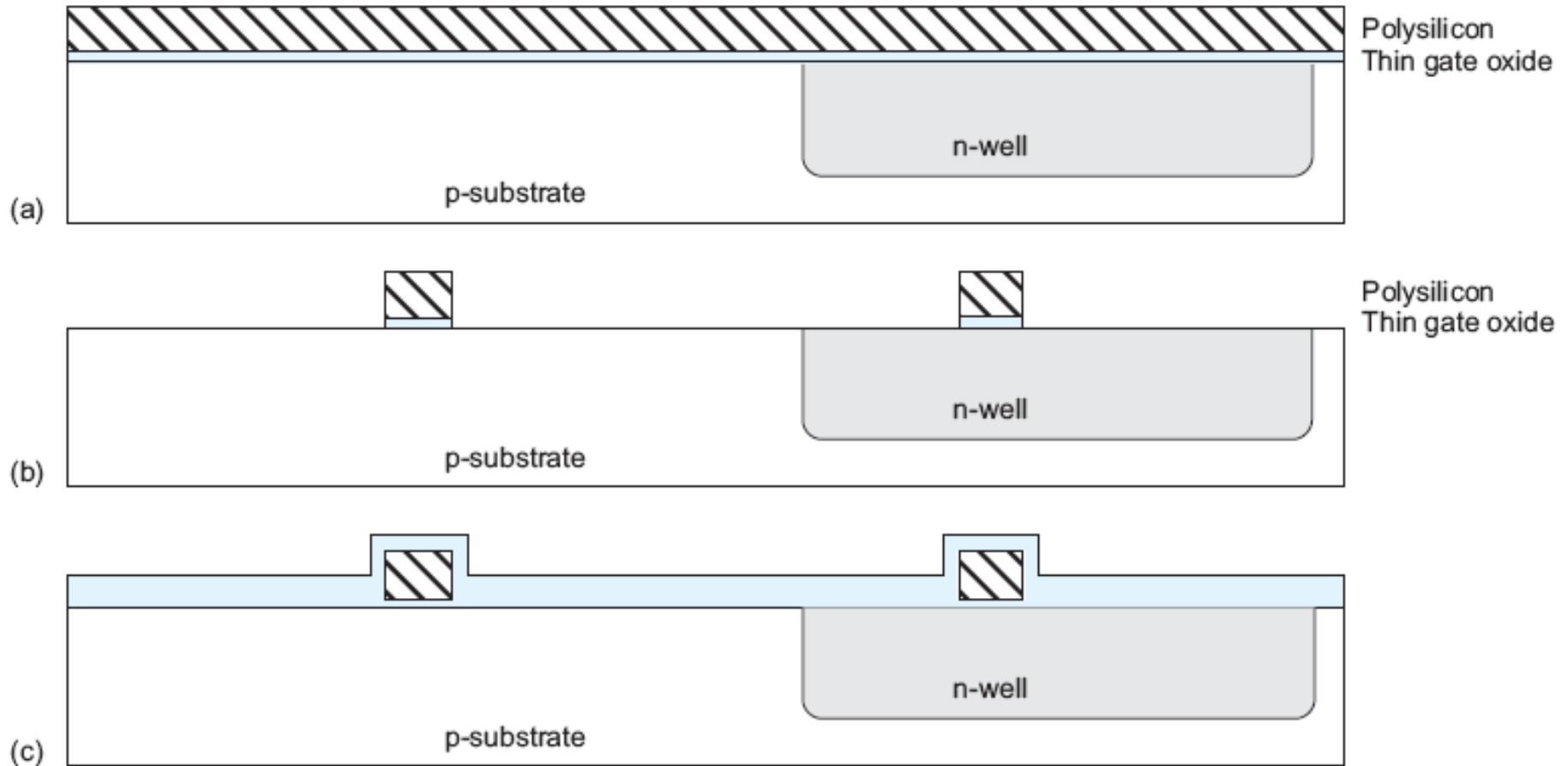
# Fabricación de un inversor CMOS

## II

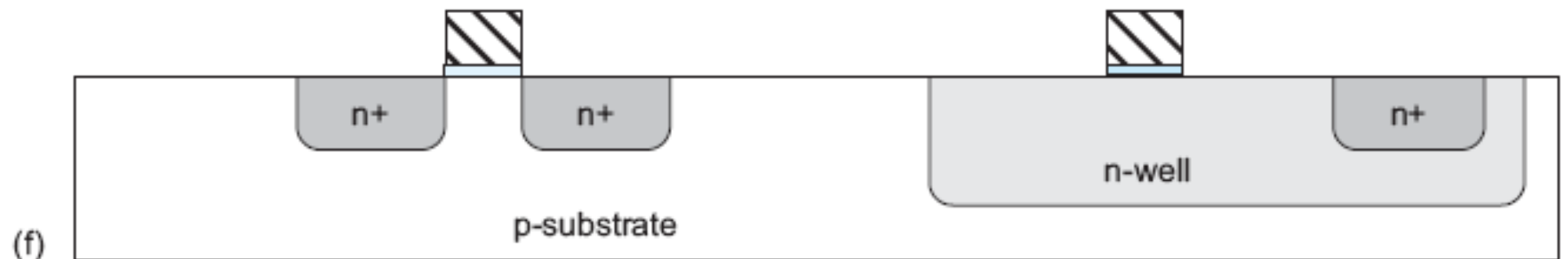
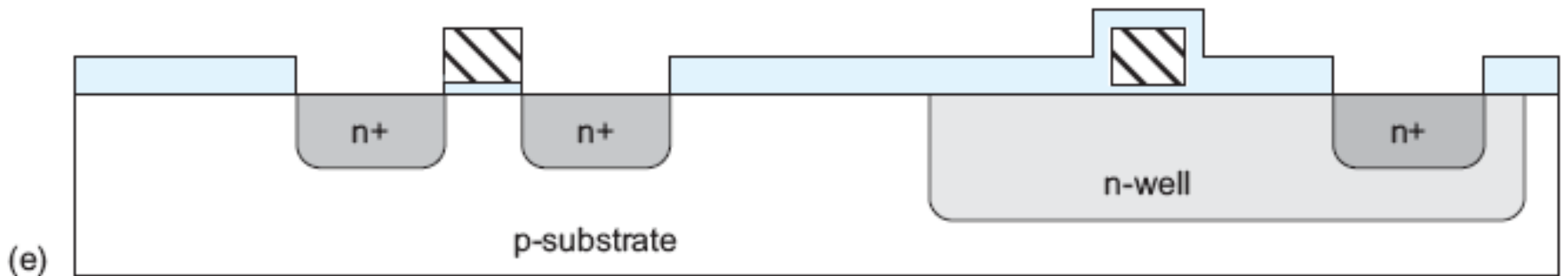
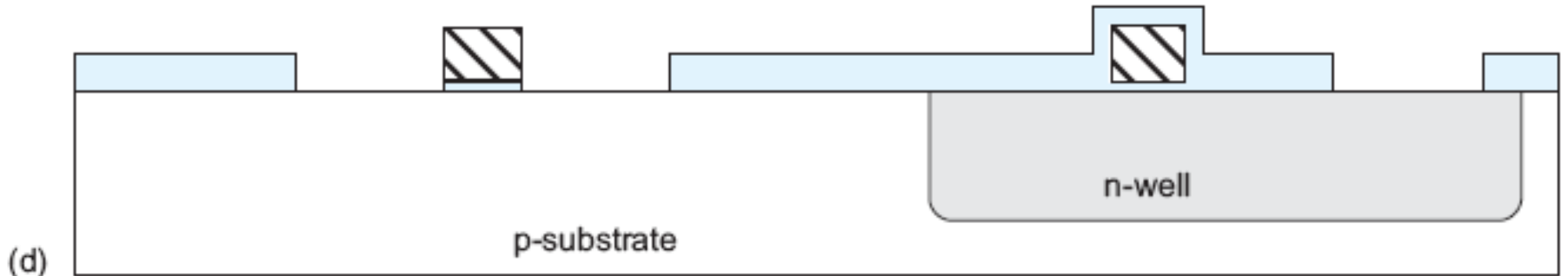


# Fabricación de un inversor CMOS

## III

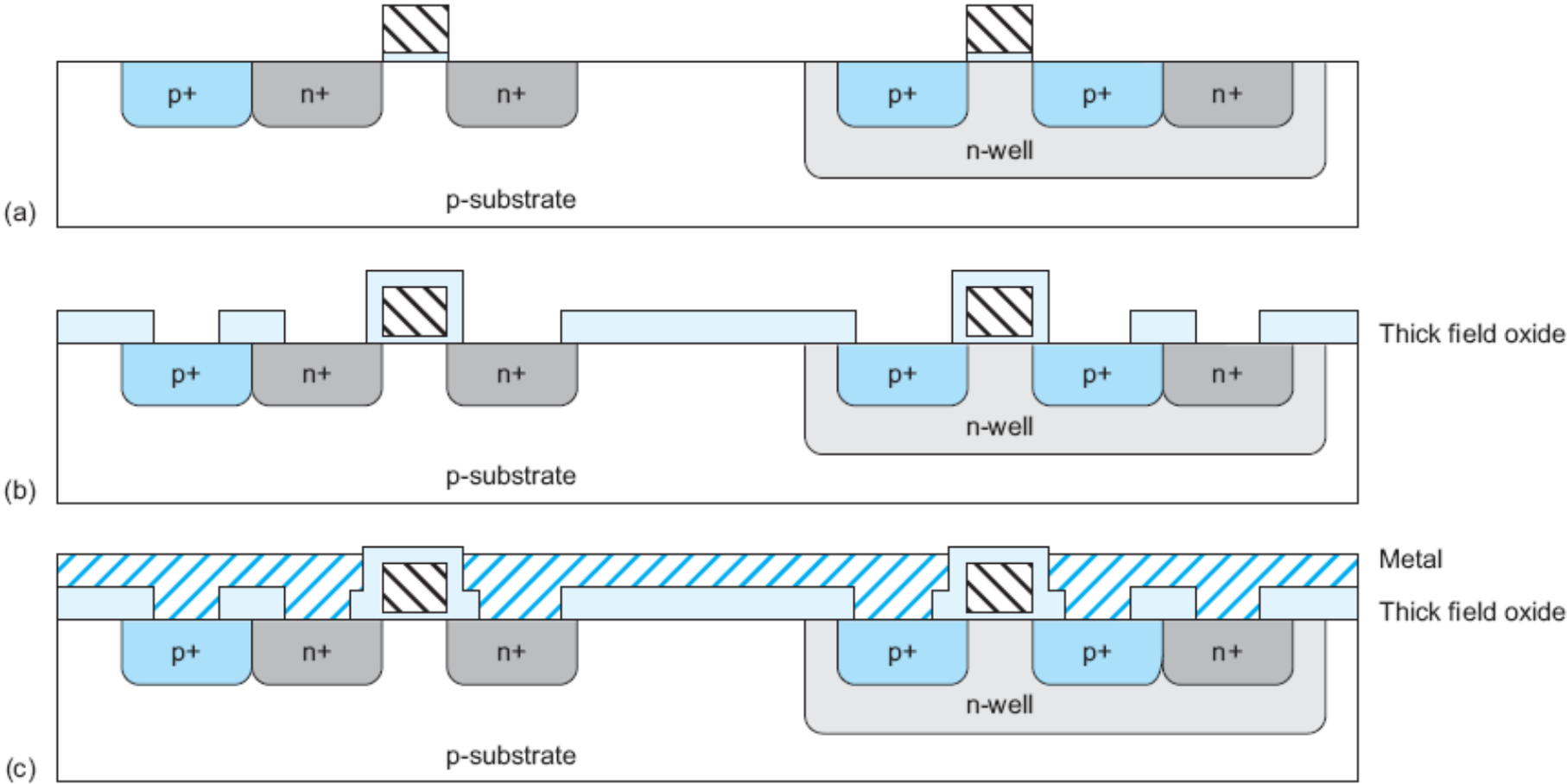


# Fabricación de un inversor CMOS

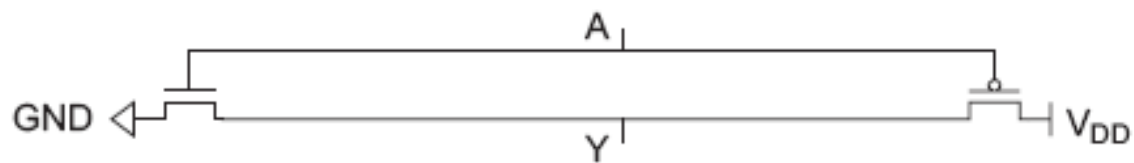
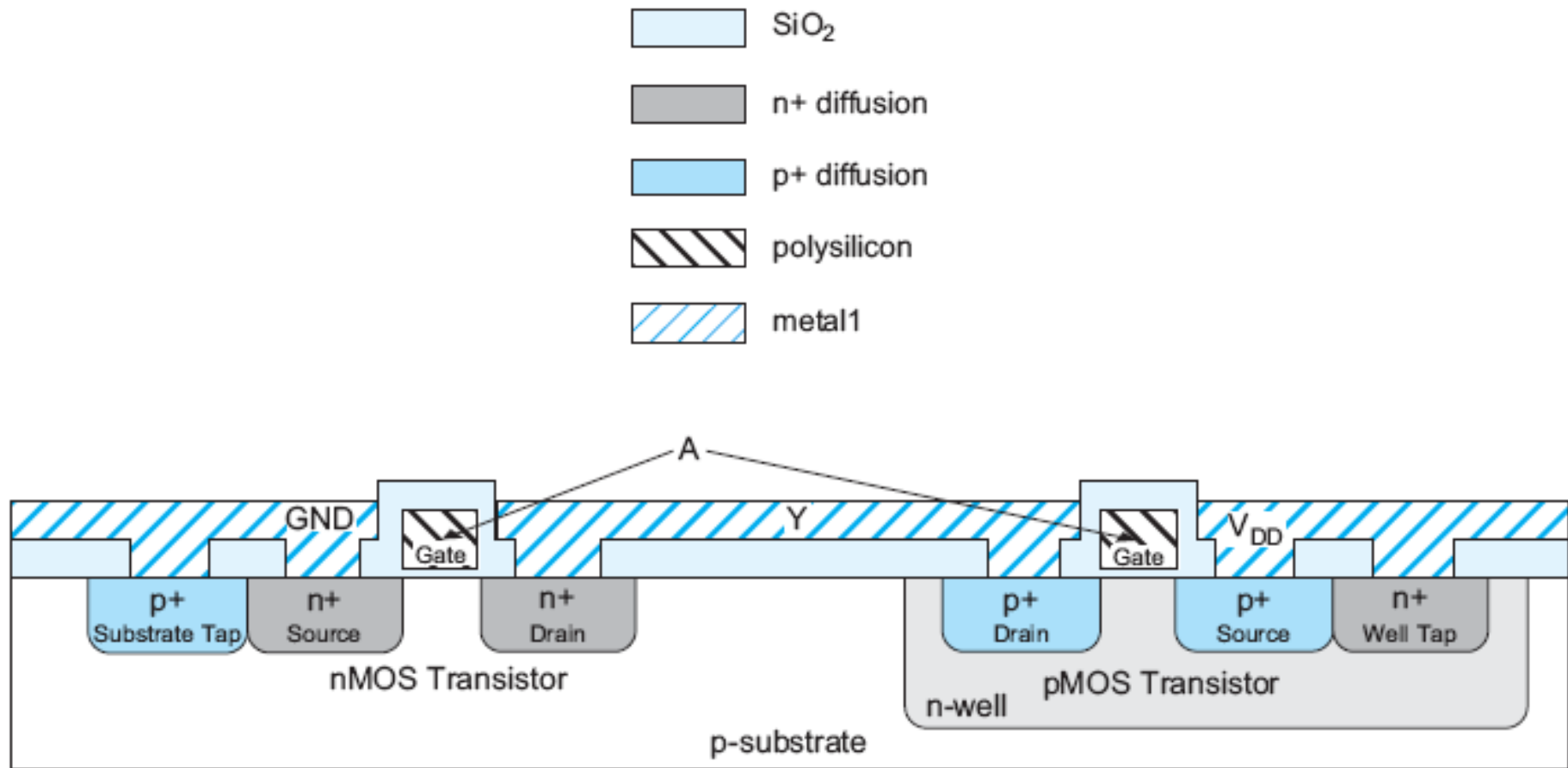


# Fabricación de un inversor CMOS

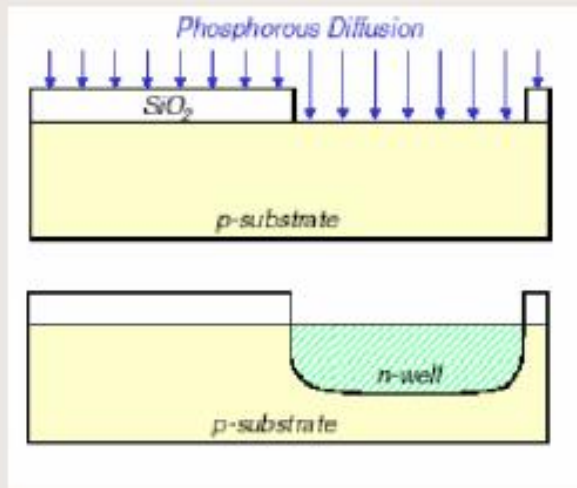
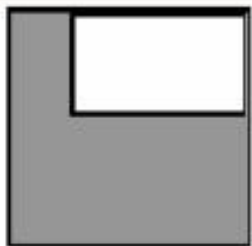
## IV



# Corte transversal de un inversor CMOS



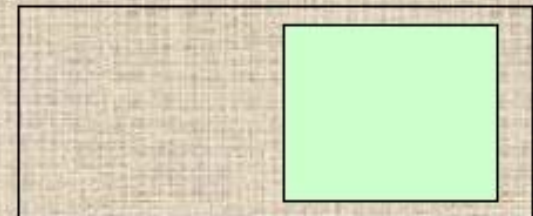
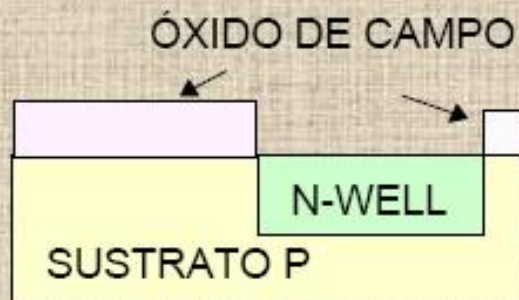
Máscara para eliminar  $\text{SiO}_2$



# Máscara 1

Difusión de pozo

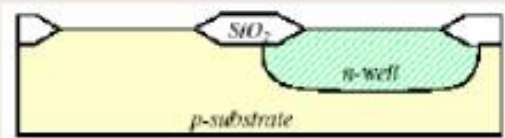
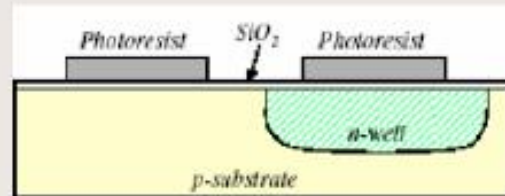
Pozo



## Máscara 2

Definición de áreas activas

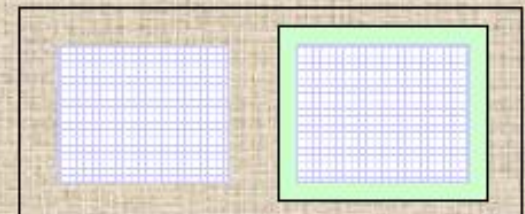
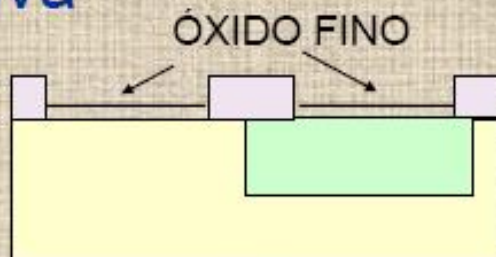
Define las regiones activas donde se van a colocar los dispositivos



planos

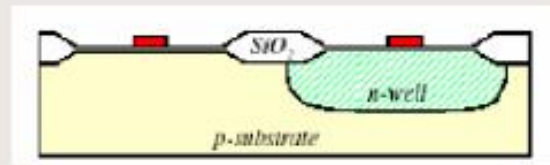
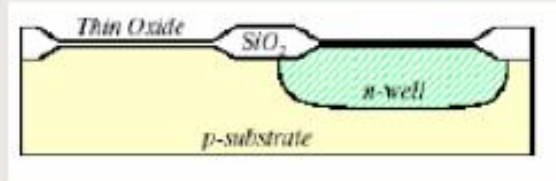


Área activa





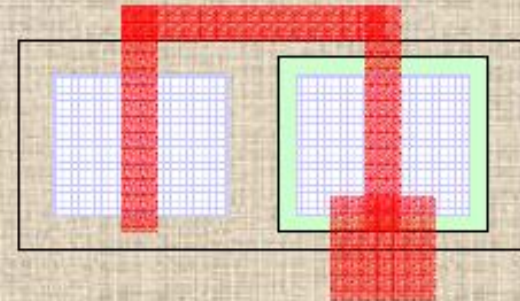
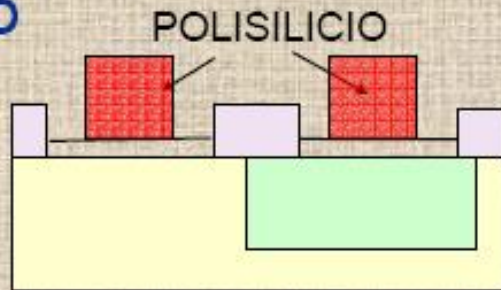
Se deposita el polisilicio de puerta



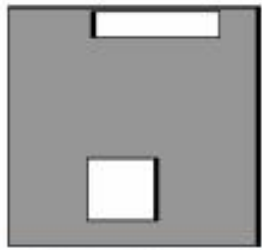
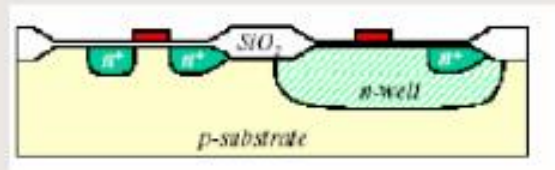
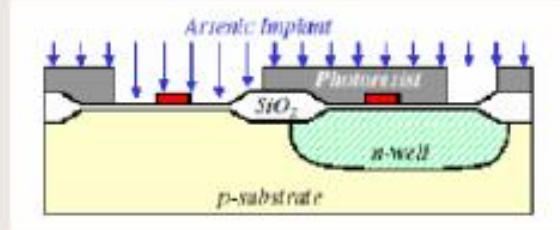
## Máscara 3

Definición de las puertas

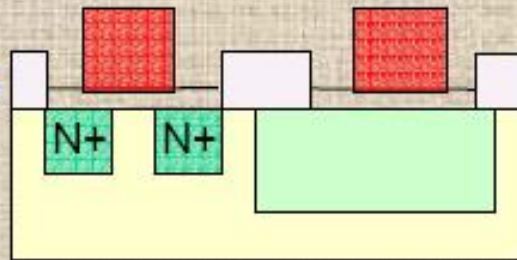
Polisilicio



Se crea la fuente y el drenador de los dispositivos n

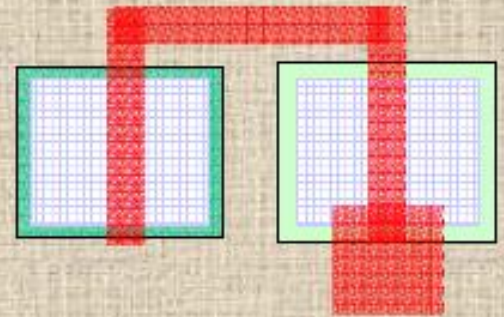


Implante N+

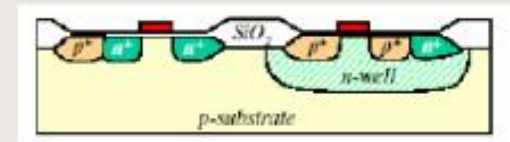
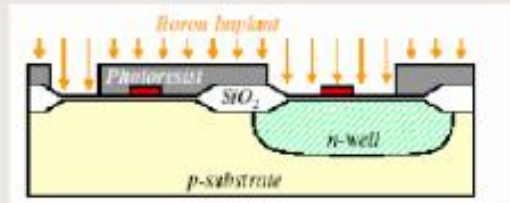
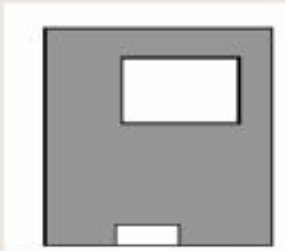


## Máscara 4

Difusión n+  
MOS canal N



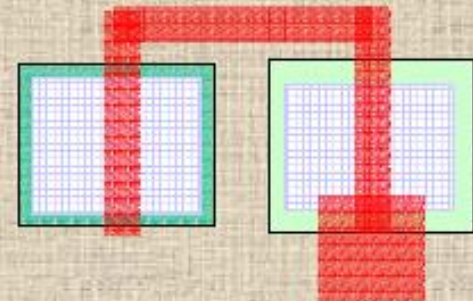
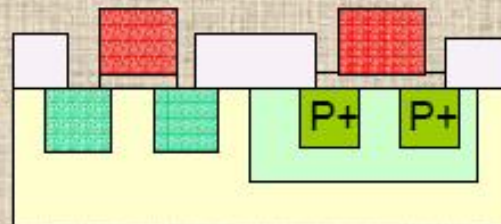
Se crea la fuente y el drenador de los dispositivos p



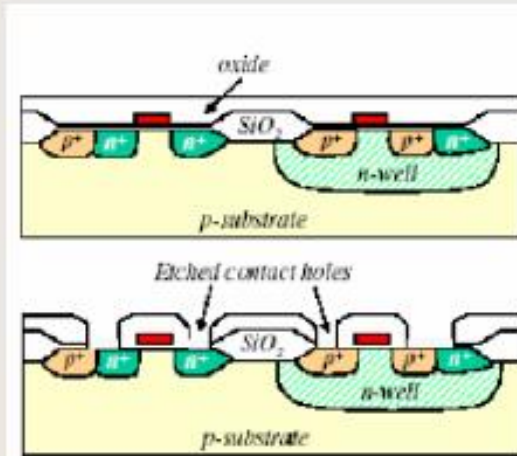
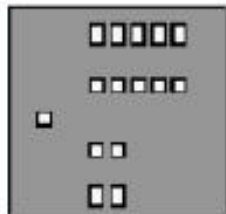
## Máscara 5

Difusión p+  
MOS canal P

Implante P+



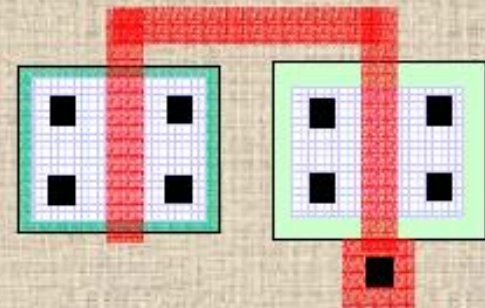
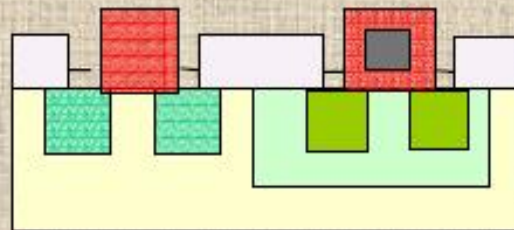
Determina las posiciones donde van los contactos



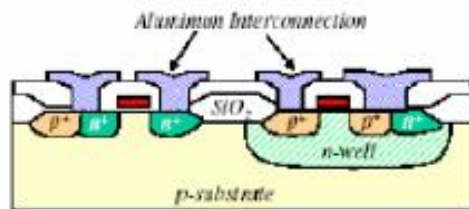
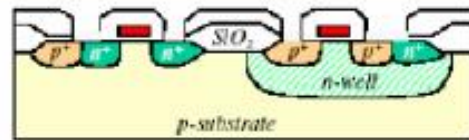
## Máscara 6

Perforaciones de contacto

Contactos



Determina las posiciones donde van las interconexiones



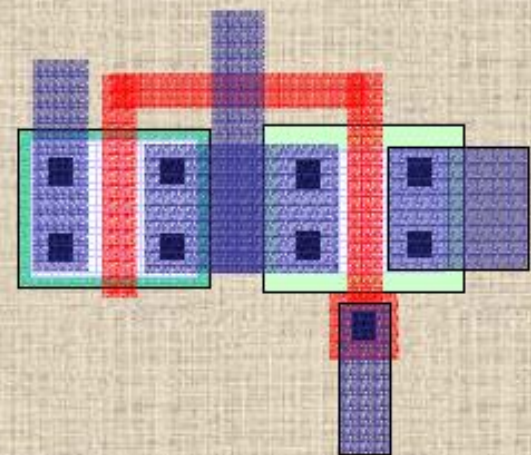
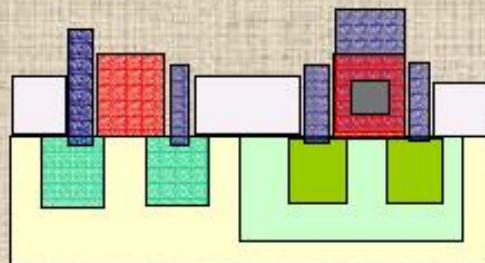
## Máscara 7

### Metalización

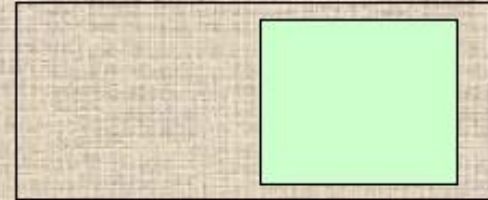


Metal Deposition

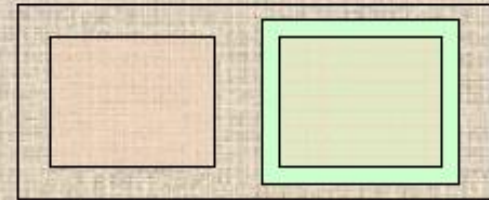
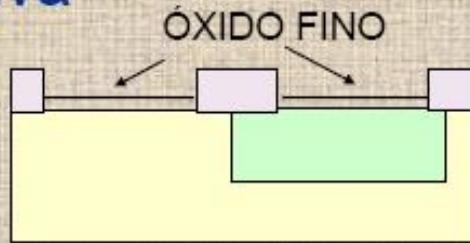
Metal



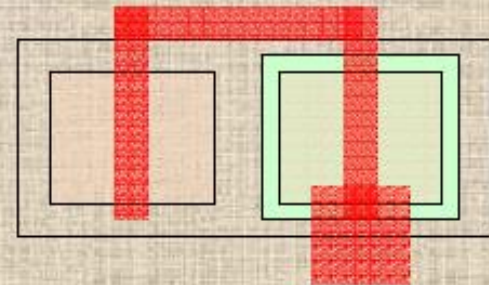
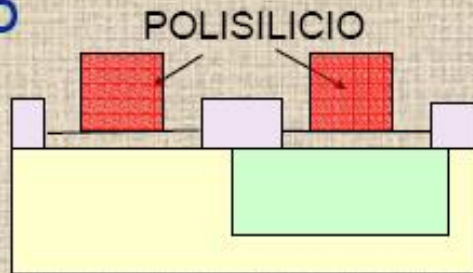
## Pozo



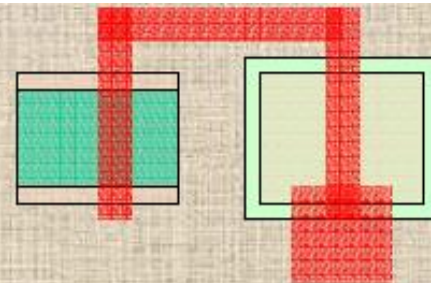
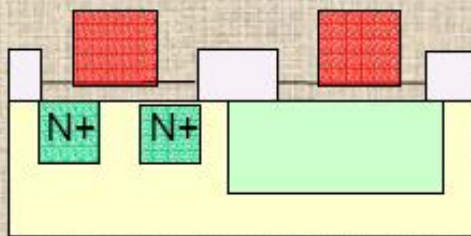
## Área activa



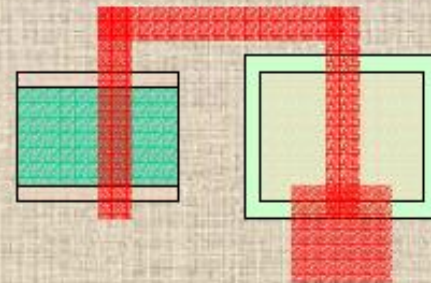
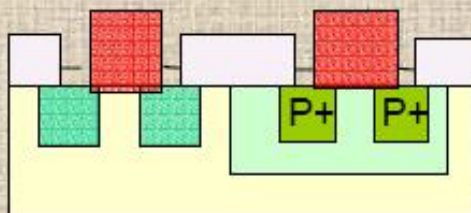
## Polisilicio



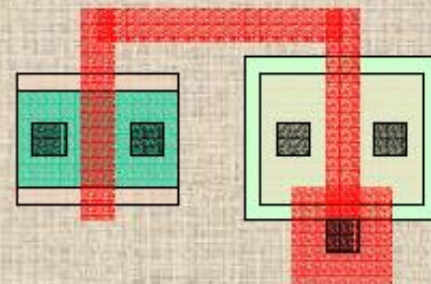
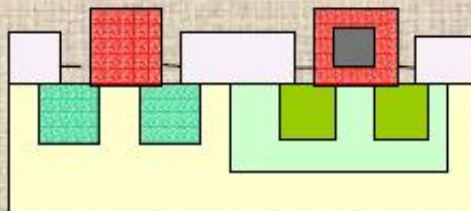
Implante N+



Implante P+



Contactos



Metal

