

CPE 690: Introduction to VLSI Design

Lecture 5

MOS Transistors and CMOS Logic

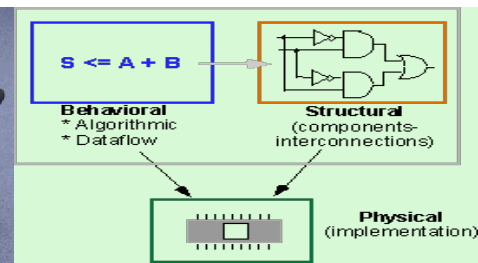
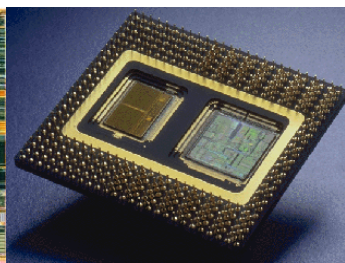
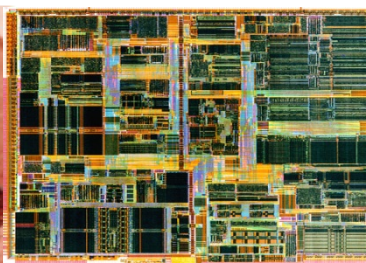
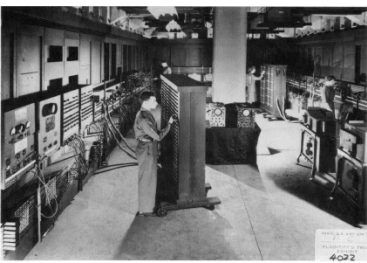
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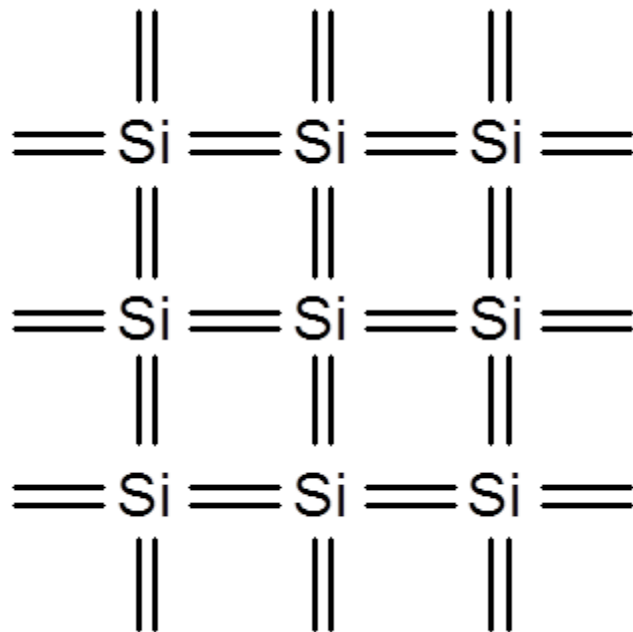
Hoboken, NJ 07030

Adapted from Lecture Notes, David Mahoney Harris CMOS VLSI Design



Silicon Lattice

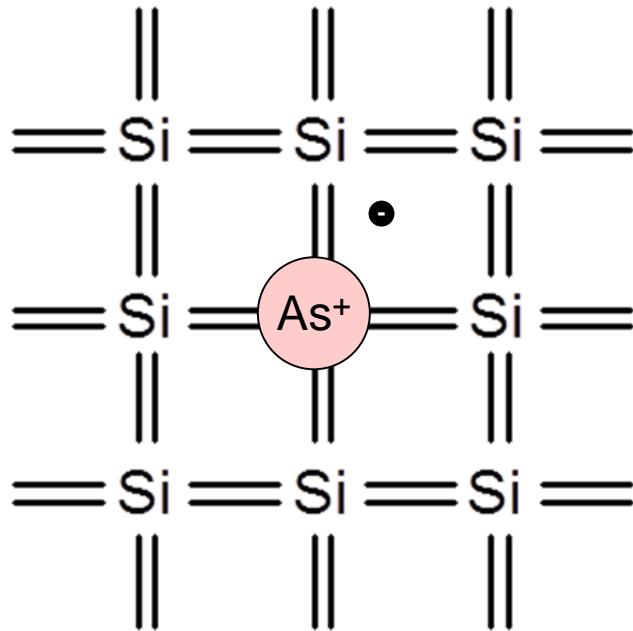
- Transistors are built on a silicon substrate
- Silicon is a Group IV material
- Forms crystal lattice with bonds to four neighbors
- Pure silicon is a semiconductor
- Very few free electrons - conducts very poorly



		III	IV	V	VI	
		5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	
		13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	
	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	
	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	

Dopants: Donor Atoms

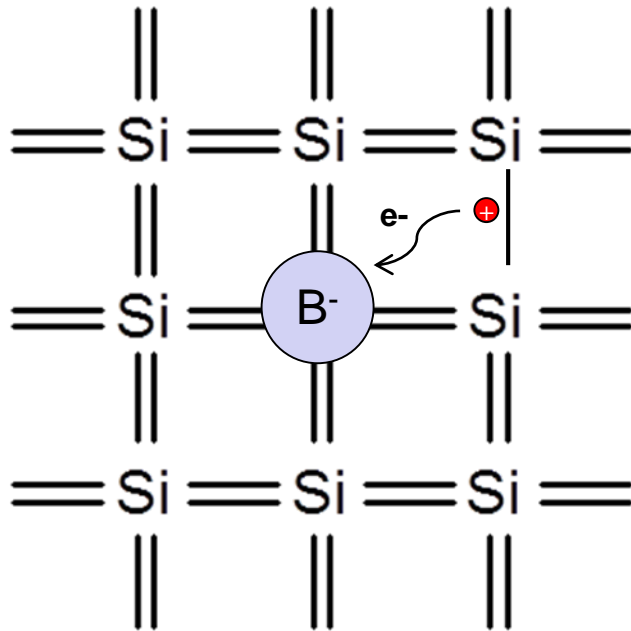
- Adding dopants increases the conductivity
- Group V: extra electron (e.g., Arsenic)
- Extra electron weakly held – free to wander at room temperature
- Semiconductor doped with donors is called n-type



		III	IV	V	VI	
		5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	
		13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	
	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	
	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	

Dopants: Acceptor Atoms

- Group III: missing electron, (known as hole) (e.g, Boron)
- Electron jumps from neighboring silicon atom to fill vacancy – creates a new vacancy (hole)
- Holes can move about as if they were positive carriers (p-type)

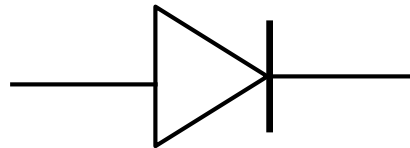
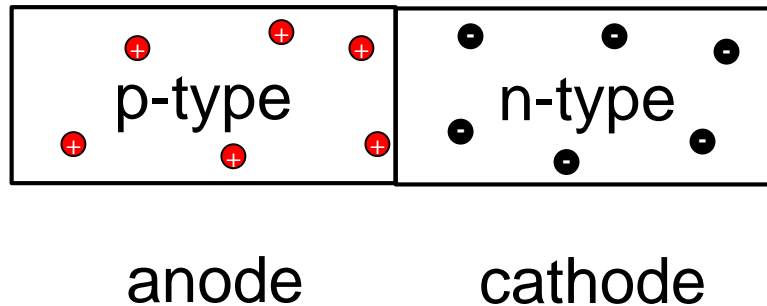


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		5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	
		13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	
	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	
	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	

- if one in million Si atoms is replaced by an acceptor, number of holes available to conduct current increases by a factor of 5×10^6 (same is true for donors and electrons)

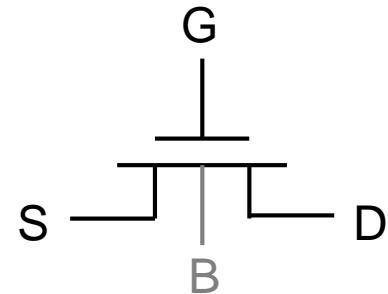
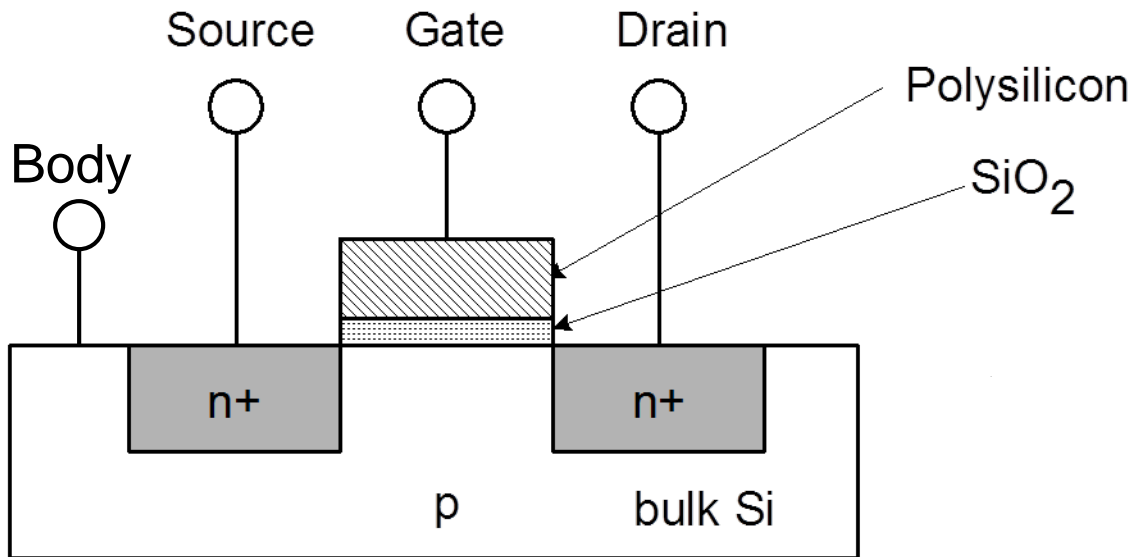
PN Junctions

- A junction between p-type and n-type semiconductor forms a diode.
- Current flows only in one direction



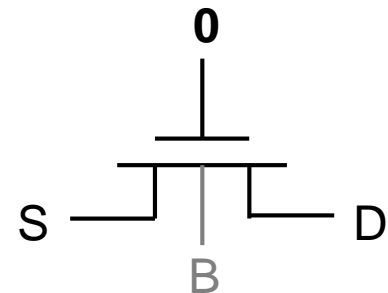
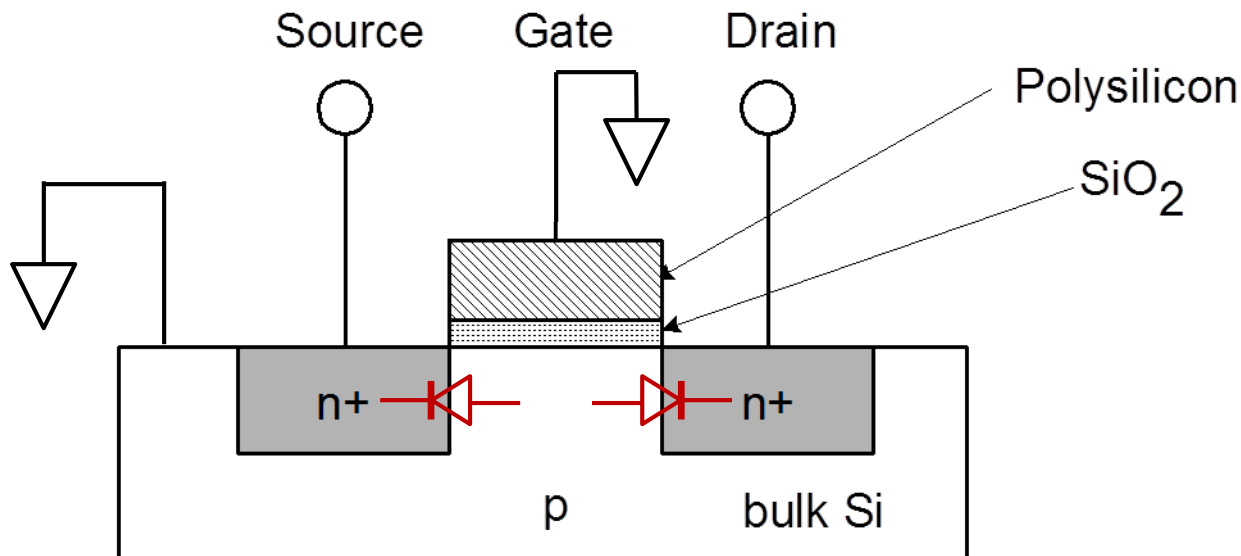
nMOS Transistor

- Four terminals: gate, source, drain, body
- Gate – oxide – body stack looks like a capacitor
 - Gate and body are conductors
 - SiO_2 (oxide) is a very good insulator
 - Called metal – oxide – semiconductor (MOS) capacitor
 - Even though gate is no longer made of metal



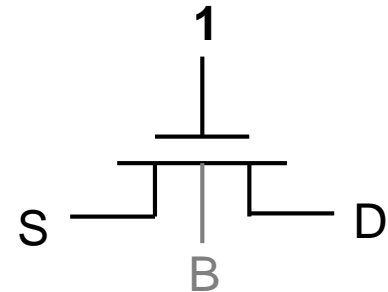
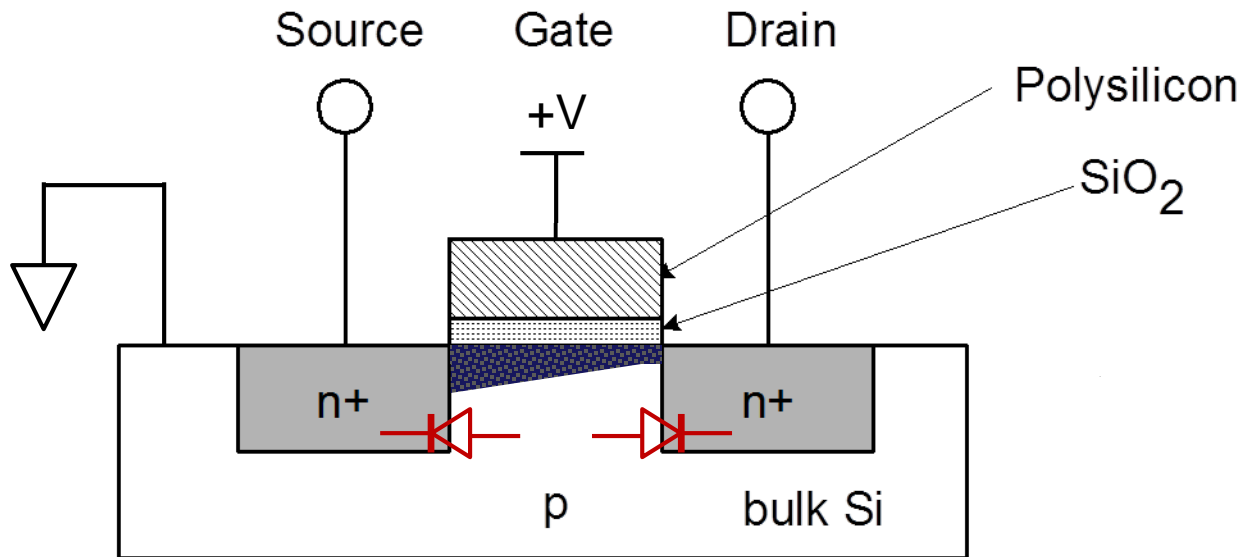
nMOS Operation (1)

- P-type body is commonly tied to negative rail (0 V)
- When the gate is at a low voltage ($\sim 0V$):
- Source and drain are at some positive voltage ($\geq 0V$)
 - Source (by definition) is at lower voltage than the drain
- Source-body and drain-body diodes are OFF
- No current flows, transistor is OFF



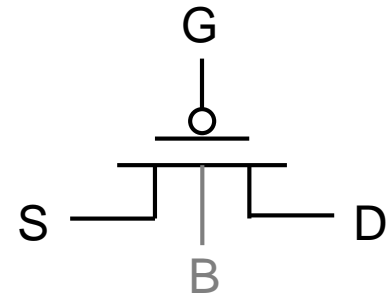
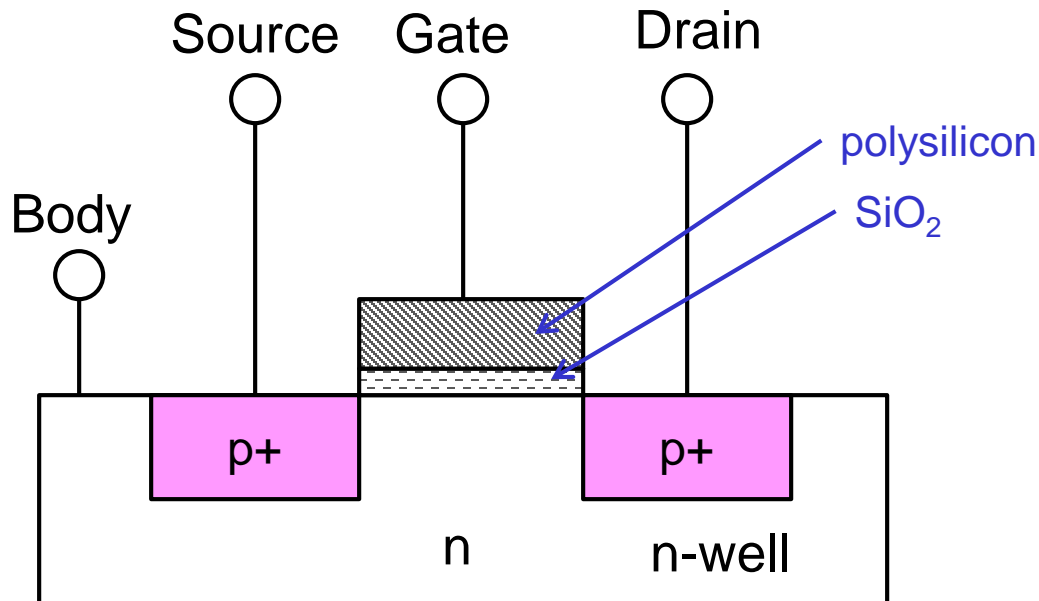
nMOS Operation (2)

- When the gate is at a high voltage (+V volts):
- Positive charge on gate of MOS capacitor
- Negative charge (electrons) drawn out of source/drain
 - Inverts a channel under gate to n-type
- Now electrons can flow through n-type silicon from source through channel to drain, transistor is ON



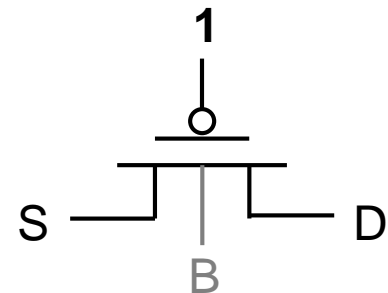
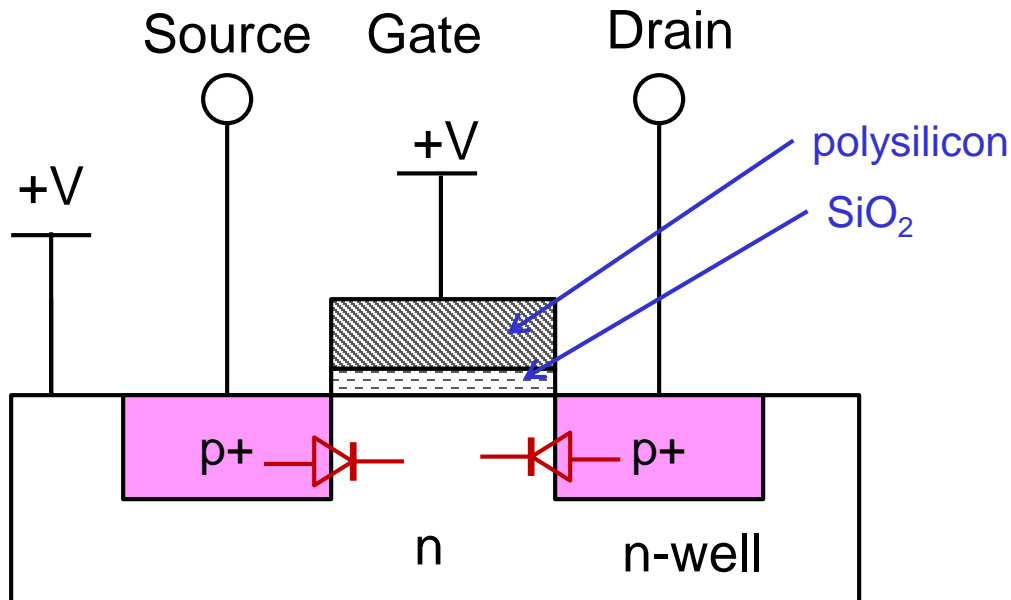
pMOS Transistor

- Similar to nMOS but doping and voltages are reversed
- pMOS transistor normally built in n-well
- “Bubble” on gate of symbol indicates inverted behavior



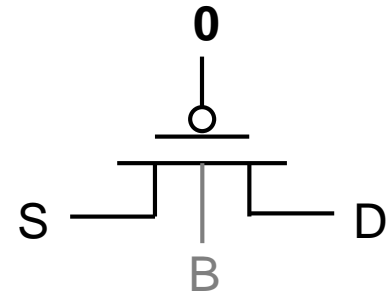
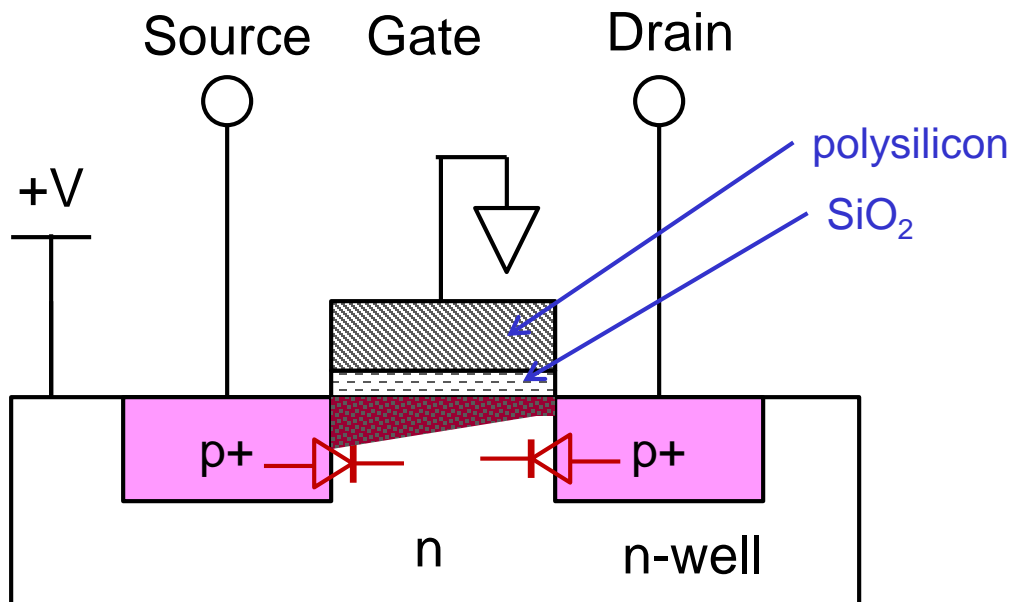
pMOS Operation (1)

- n-type body is commonly tied to positive rail (+V)
- When the gate is also at a high voltage ($\sim +V$),
- Source and drain are at some voltage ($\leq +V$)
 - source (by definition) is at higher voltage than the drain
- Source-body and drain-body diodes are OFF
- No current flows, transistor is OFF



pMOS Operation (2)

- When the gate is at a low voltage (~ 0 volts):
- Negative charge on gate of MOS capacitor
- Positive charge (holes) drawn out of source/drain
- Inverts a channel under gate to p-type
- Now holes can flow through p-type silicon from source through channel to drain, transistor is ON



Power Supply Voltages

- $V_{SS} \approx$ negative rail \approx GND ≈ 0 V
- In 1980's, positive rail $V_{DD} = 5$ V
- VDD has decreased in modern processes
- High VDD would damage modern tiny transistors
 - very thin gate oxide ~ 2 nm
- Lower VDD saves power
- VDD has progressed:

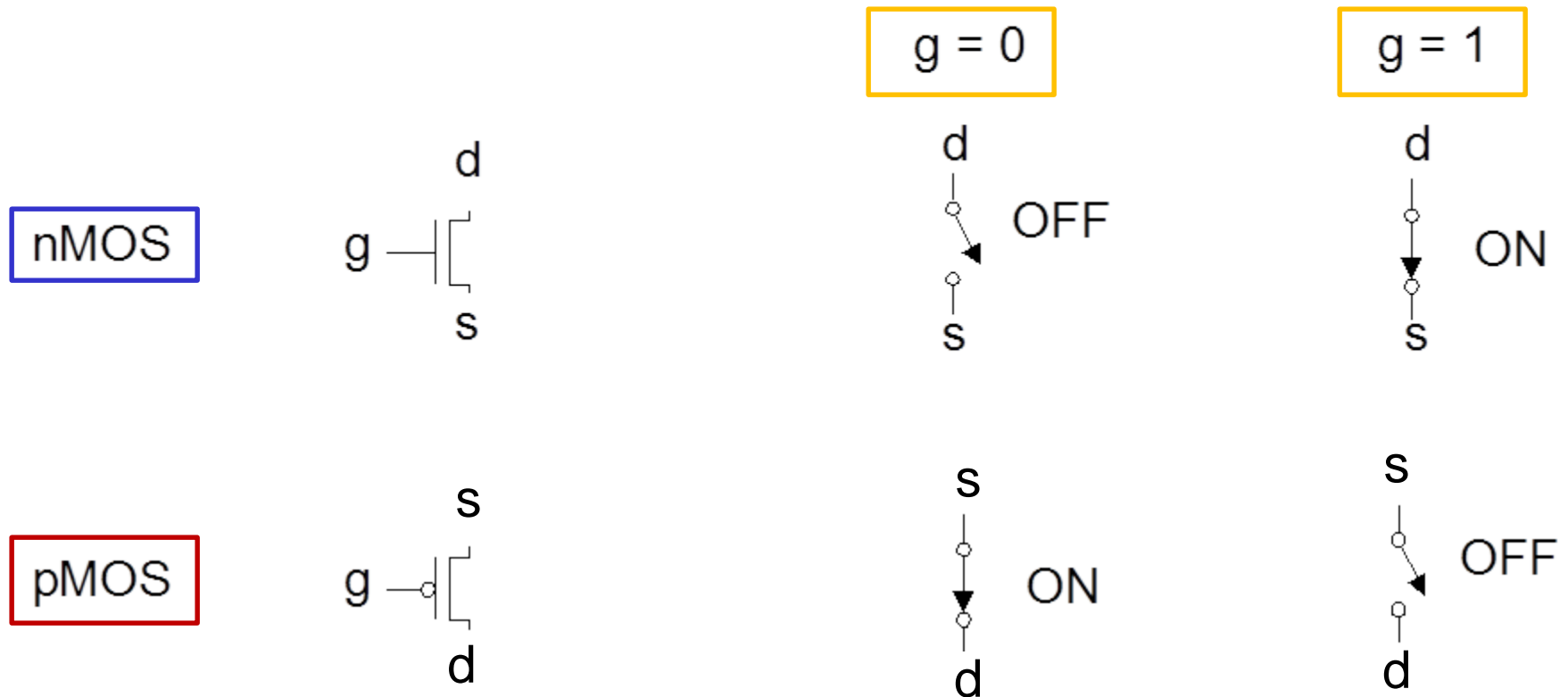
Process: 0.35μ \Rightarrow 0.25μ \Rightarrow 180nm \Rightarrow 130nm \Rightarrow 90nm \Rightarrow 65nm

VDD: 3.3V \Rightarrow 2.5V \Rightarrow 1.8V \Rightarrow 1.5V \Rightarrow 1.2V \Rightarrow 1.0V \Rightarrow ??

- In CMOS digital circuits, define:
 - GND \equiv logical '0'
 - VDD \equiv logical '1'

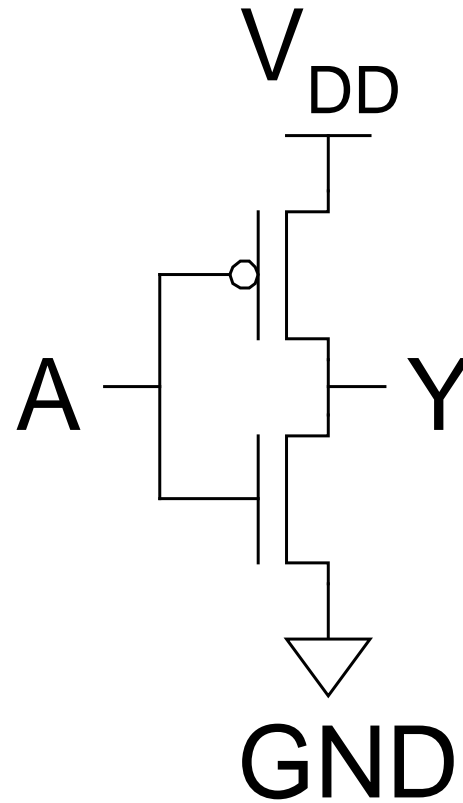
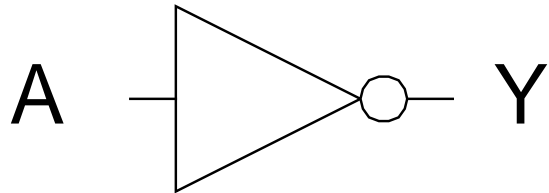
Transistors as Switches

- In simplest model, we can view MOS transistors as electrically controlled switches
- Voltage at gate controls path from source to drain



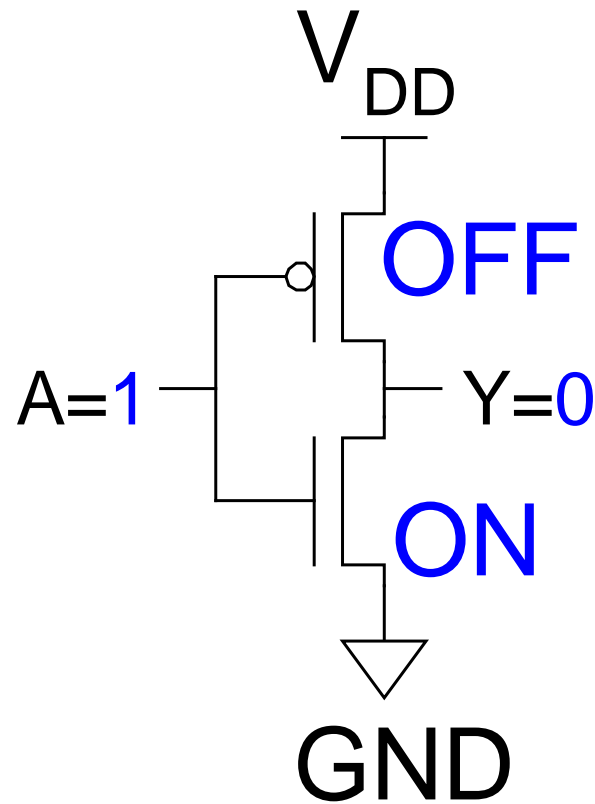
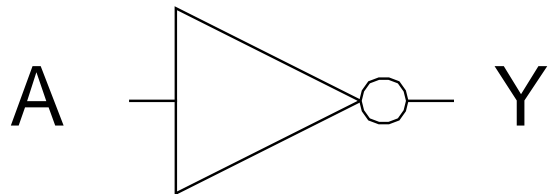
CMOS Inverter

A	Y
0	
1	



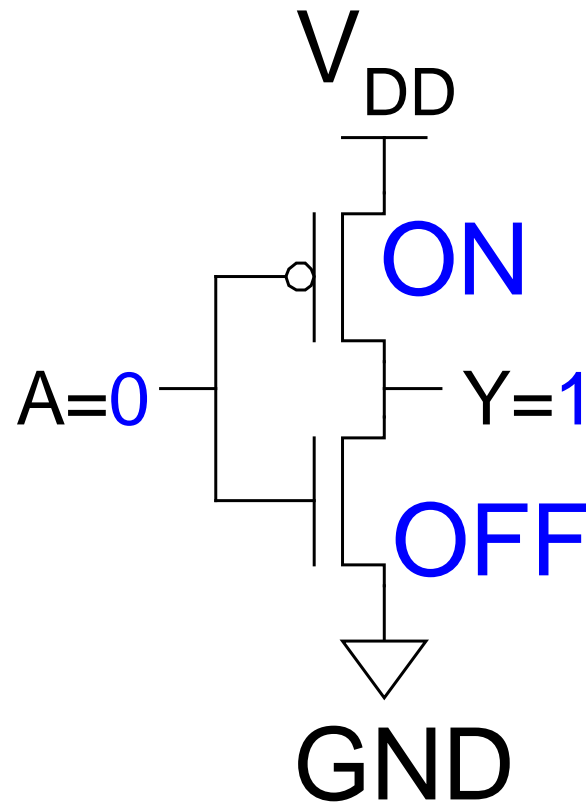
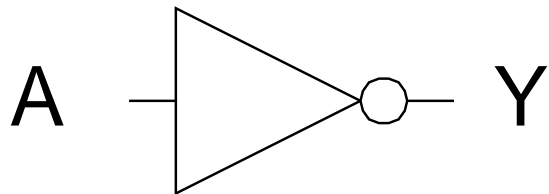
CMOS Inverter

A	Y
0	
1	0



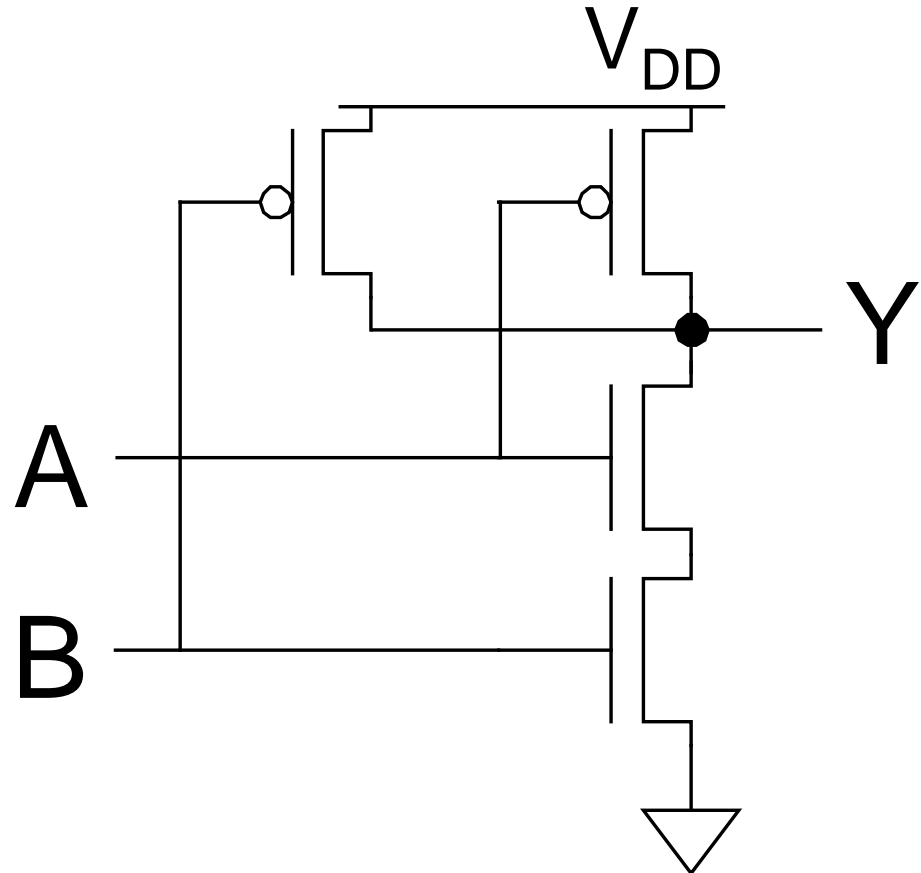
CMOS Inverter

A	Y
0	1
1	0



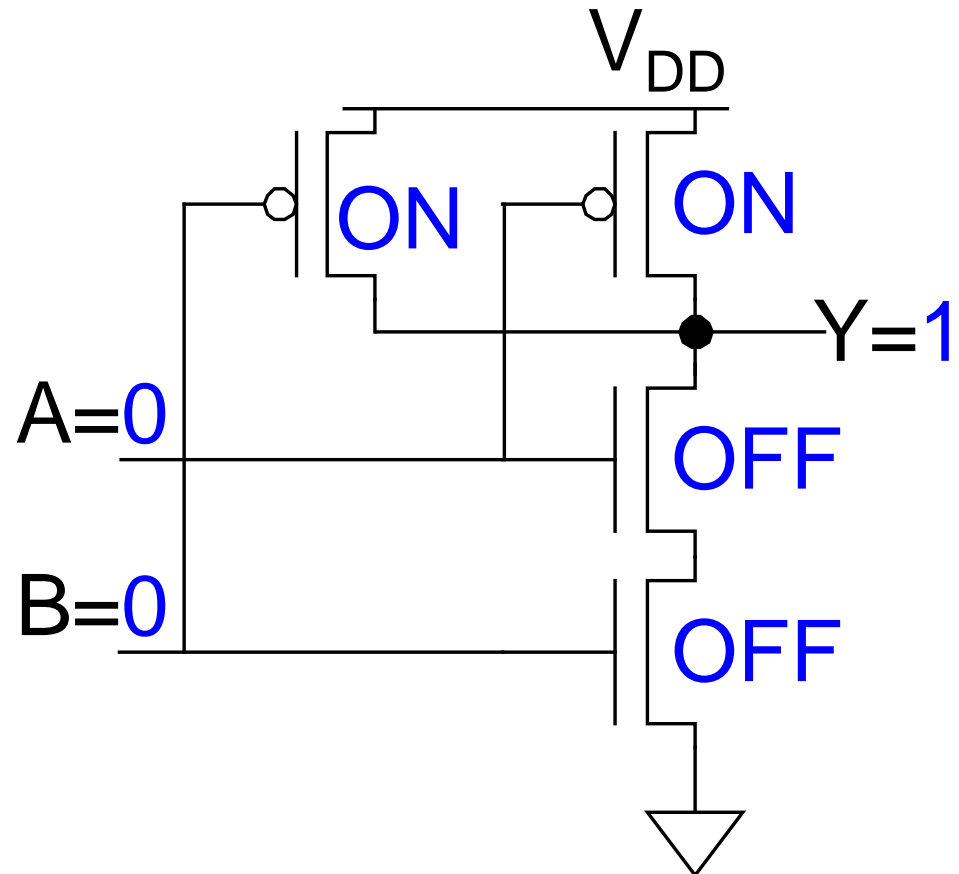
CMOS 2-input NAND Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	
0	1	
1	0	
1	1	



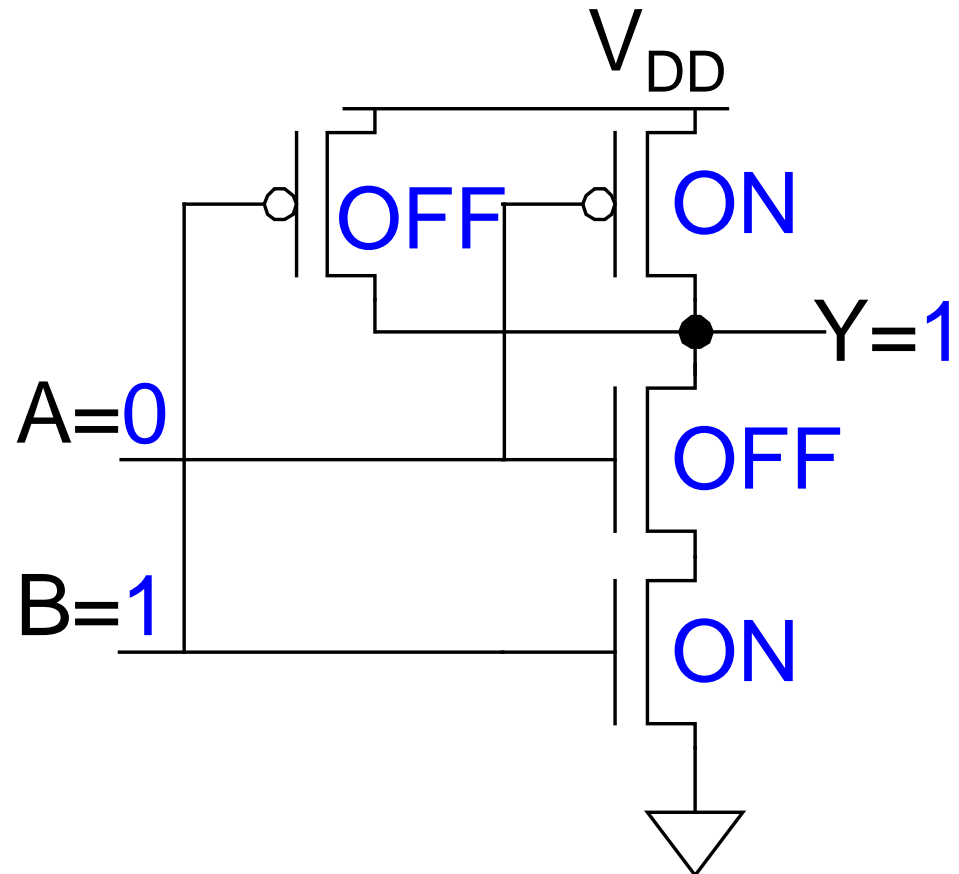
CMOS 2-input NAND Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	
1	0	
1	1	



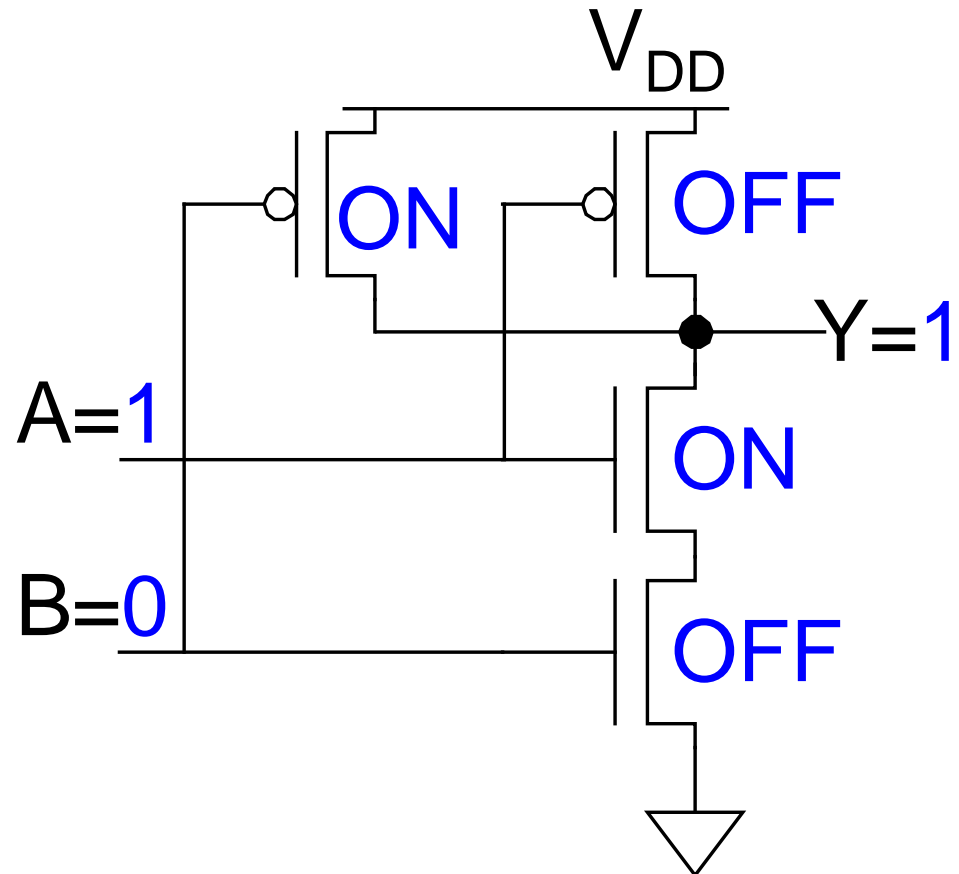
CMOS 2-input NAND Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	
1	1	



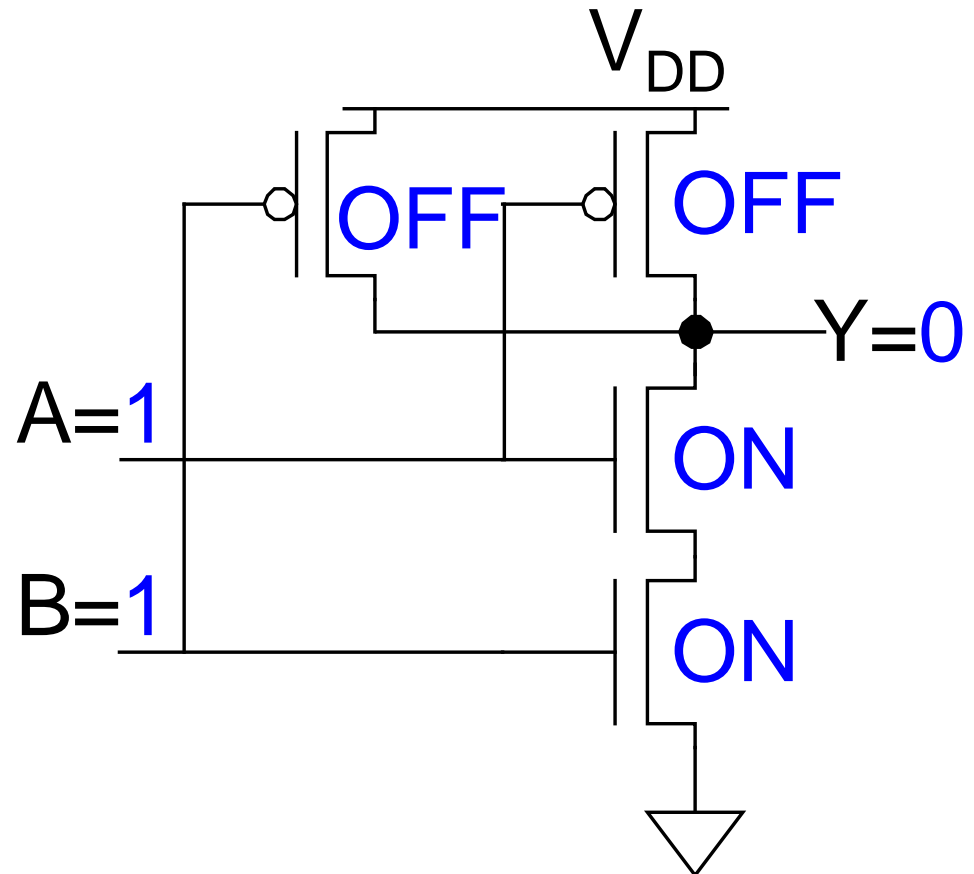
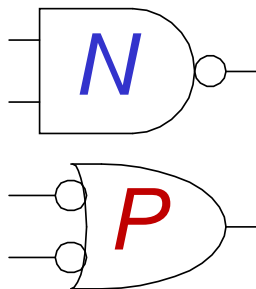
CMOS 2-input NAND Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	



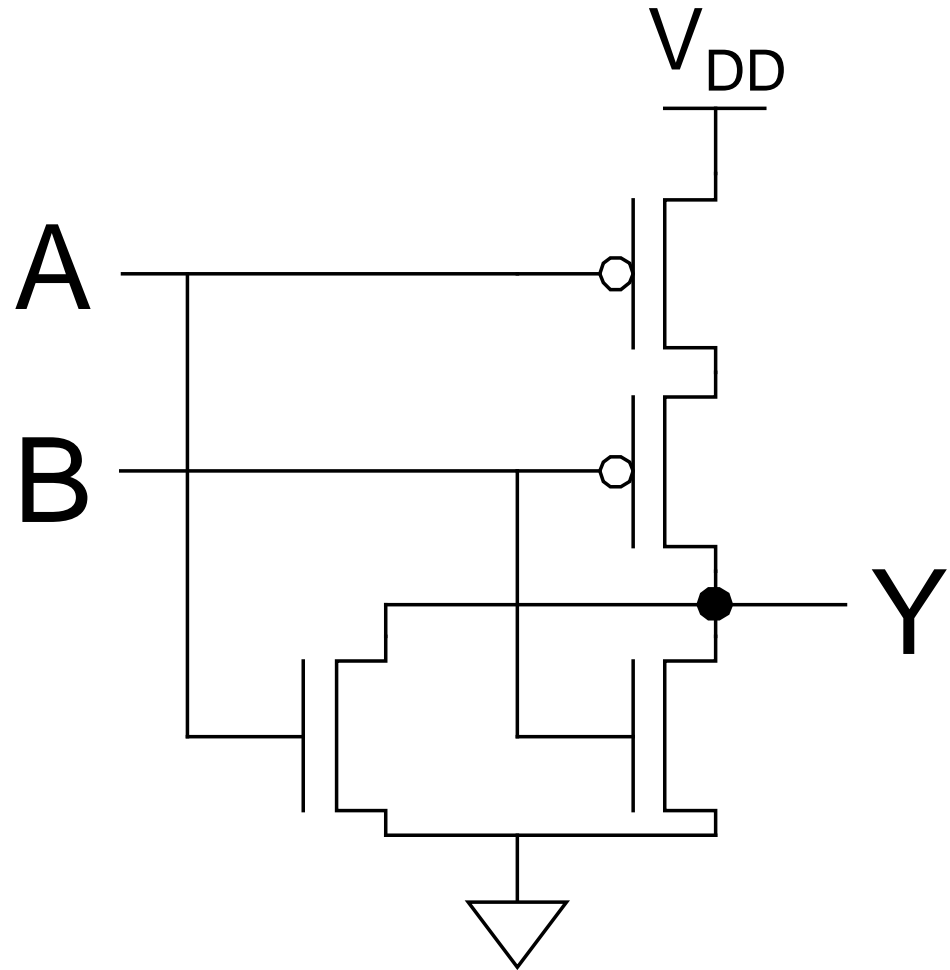
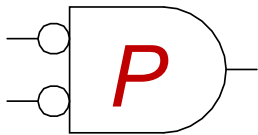
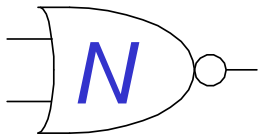
CMOS 2-input NAND Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



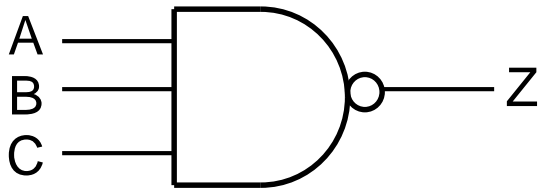
CMOS 2-input NOR Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0



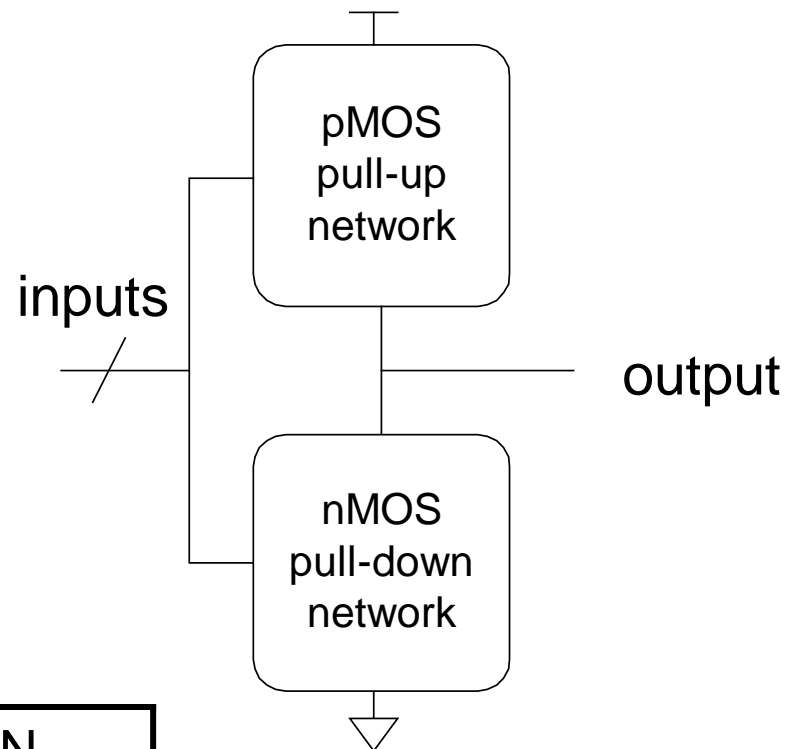
CMOS Gate Design

- Draw the transistor level schematic of a 3-input CMOS NAND gate:



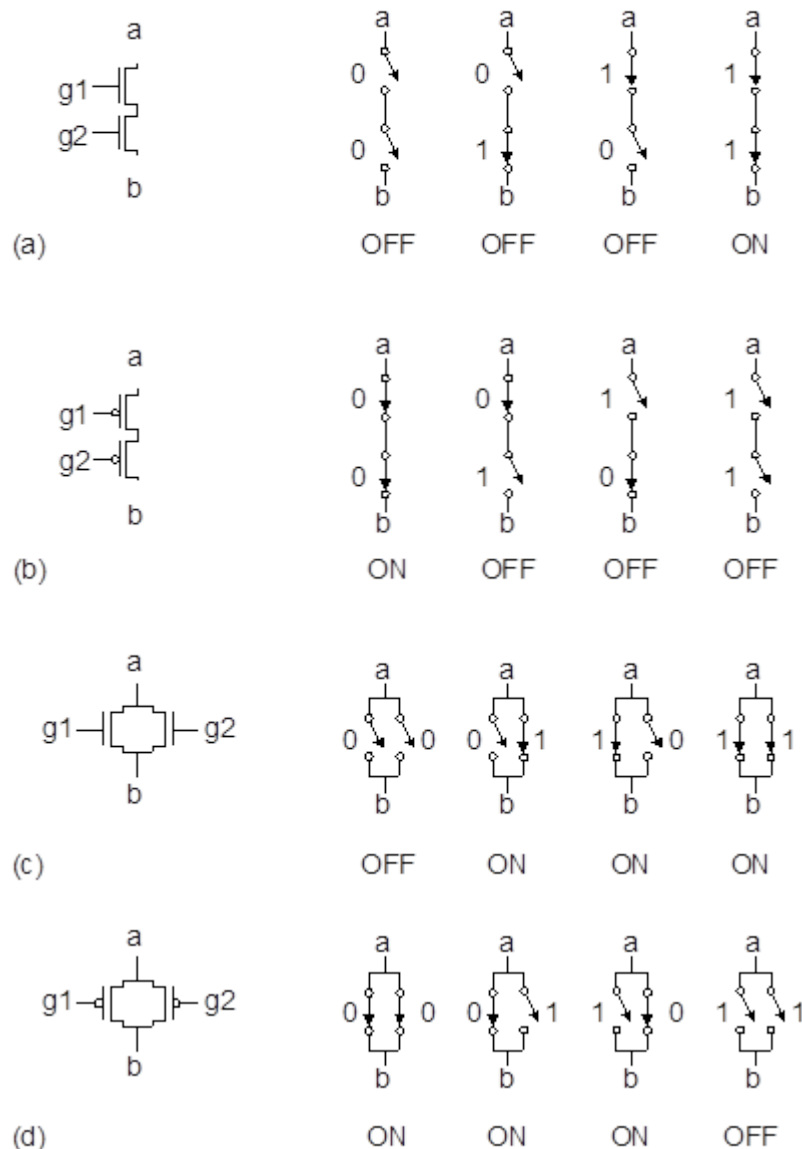
Complementary CMOS Gates

- nMOS pull-down network
- pMOS pull-up network
- static combinational CMOS logic



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

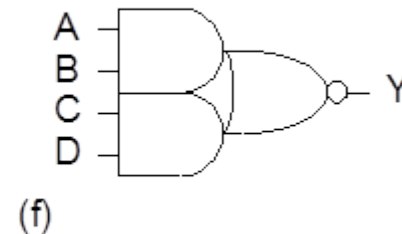
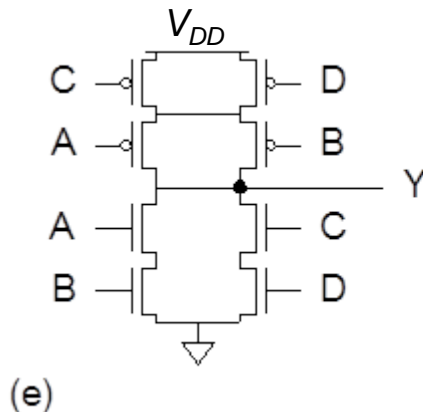
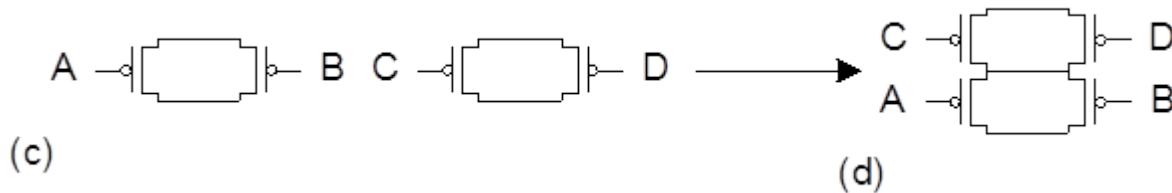
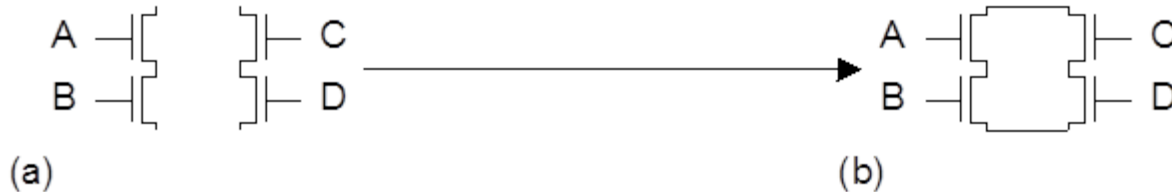
Series & Parallel Conduction Paths



- nMOS: 1 = ON
- pMOS: 0 = ON
- Series: both must be ON
- Parallel: either can be ON
- To ensure that gate is always driven to 0 or 1:
- Pull-up network must be topological complement of pull-down network
 - parallel \Rightarrow series
 - series \Rightarrow parallel

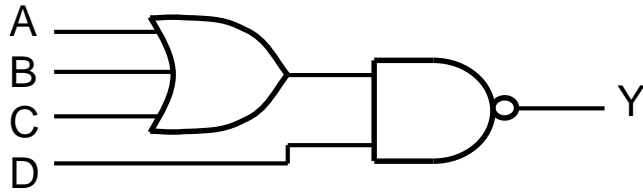
Compound Gates

- We can generate any **inverting** combinational function with a network of series and parallel nMOS transistors and a complementary network of pMOS transistors
- e.g., $Y = \overline{A.B + C.D}$ *and-or-invert gate: AOI22*



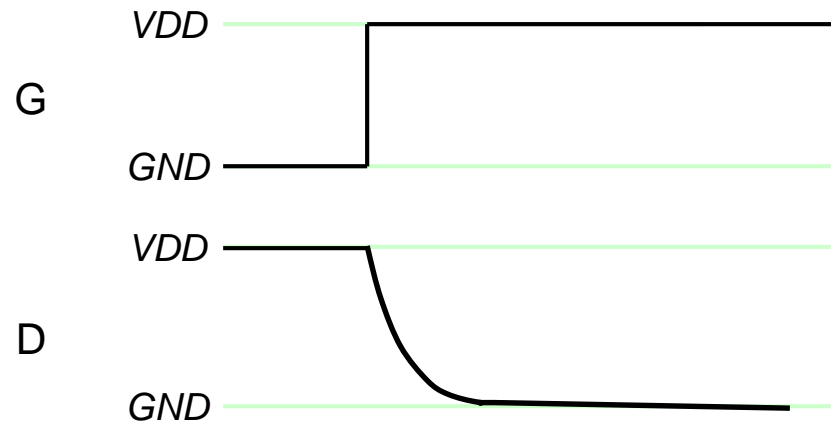
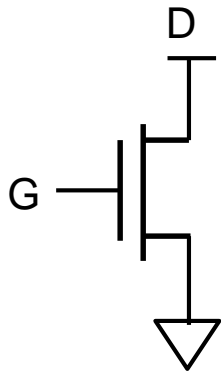
Example: O3AI

- $Y = \overline{(A + B + C)}.D$



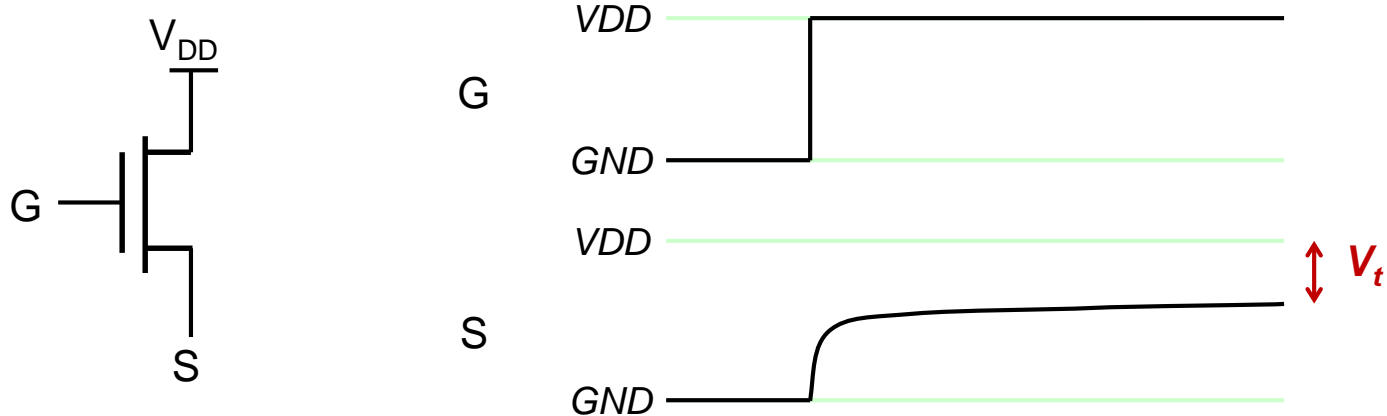
Signal Strength

- In a compound gate, nMOS transistors are always used to pull down to GND and pMOS are always used to pull up to V_{DD}



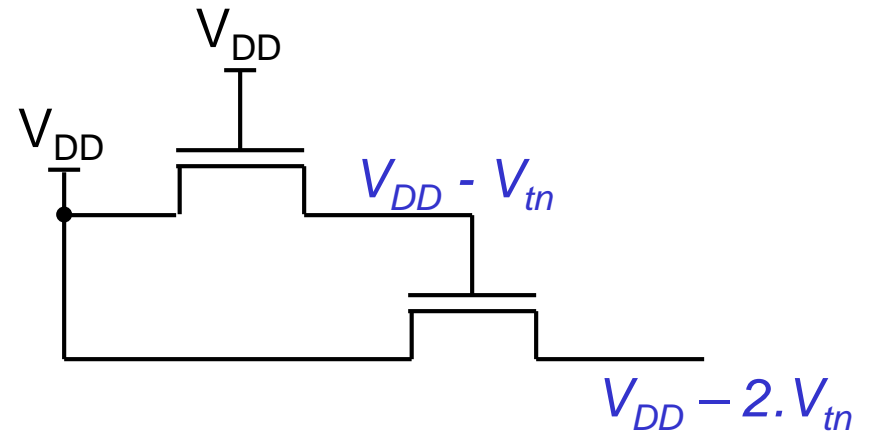
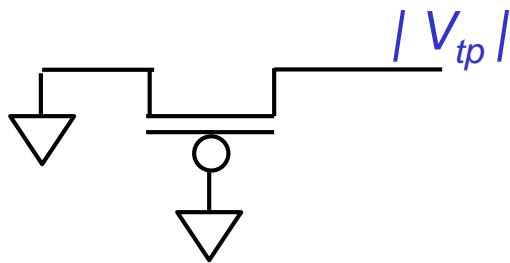
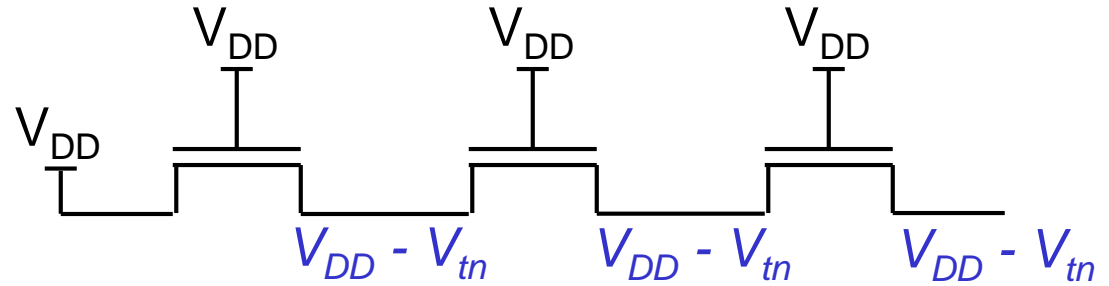
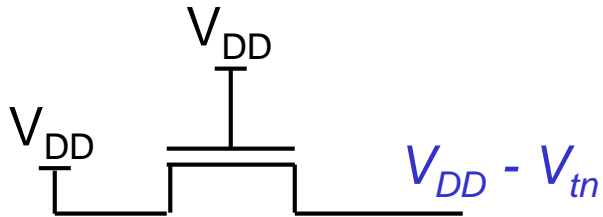
- Once gate goes high, $V_g - V_s = V_{DD} > V_{th}$ (threshold voltage)
- Transistor stays on as drain is pulled all way down to GND
- Could we use an nMOS transistor to pull-up to V_{DD} ?

Pulling up with an nMOS



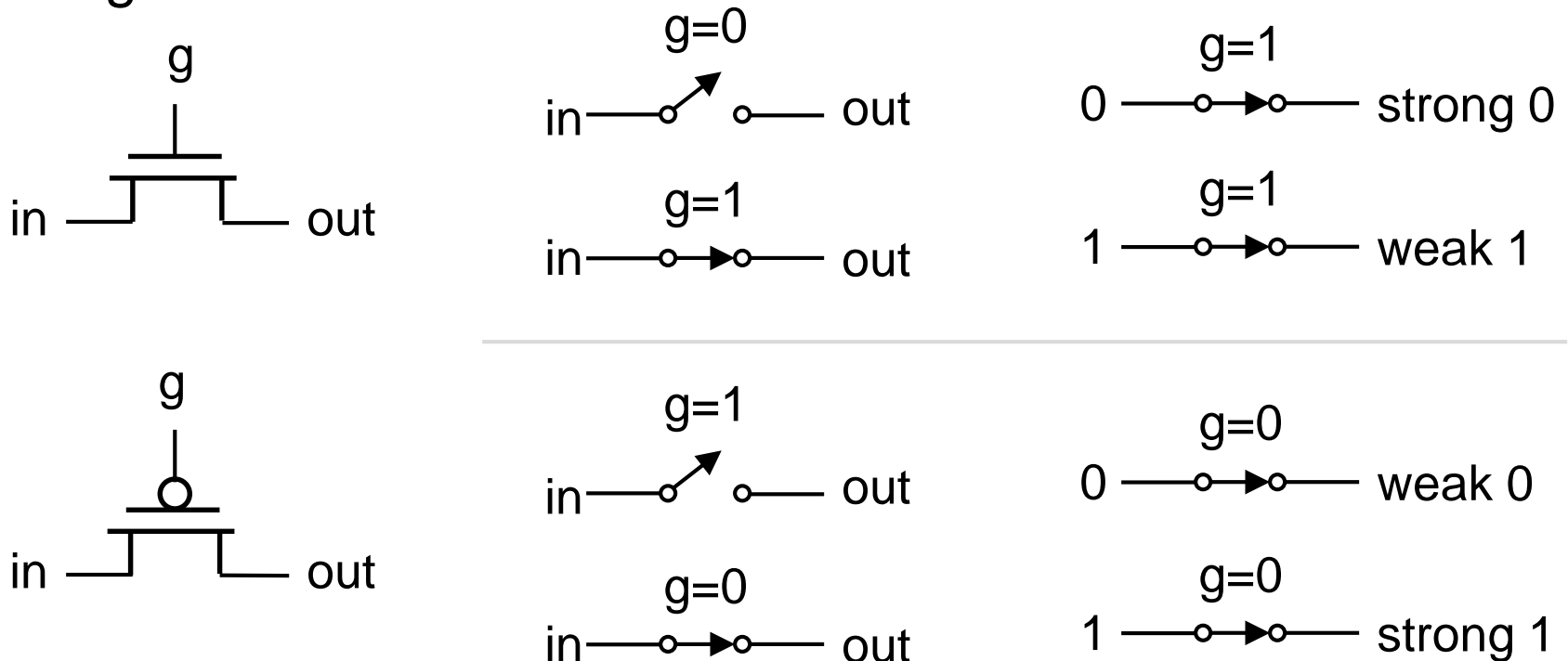
- In this configuration, source voltage is changing
- As $V_g - V_s$ approaches V_{th} , transistor starts to turn off
- Weak conduction leads to degraded final value
 - never reaches V_{DD} . V_s asymptotes towards $V_{DD} - V_t$
- As a switch, we say nMOS drives (passes) a strong 0 but a degraded or weak 1
 - Similarly pMOS drives a strong 1 but a degraded or weak 0

Cascaded Pass Transistors



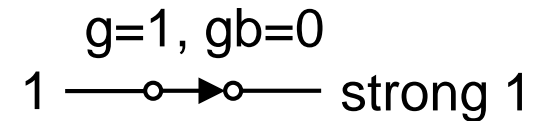
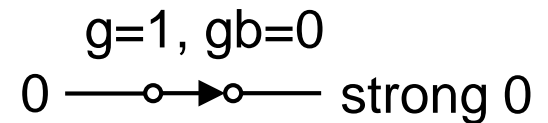
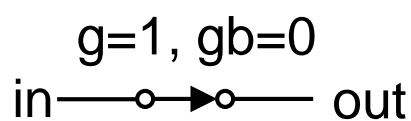
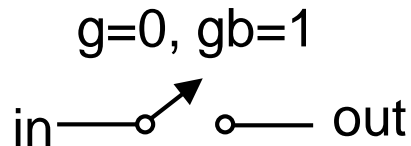
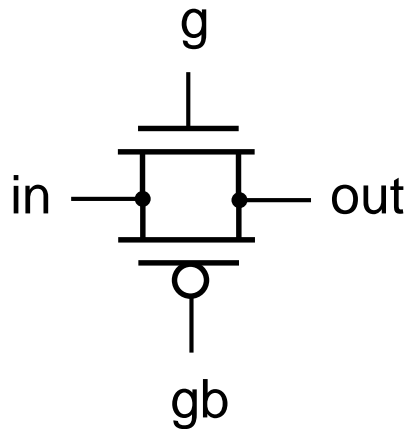
Pass Transistors

- So far, we have used nMOS to switch (drive) output to GND and pMOS to switch (drive) output to VDD in response to various input signals
- We can also use MOS transistors to switch the input signals themselves

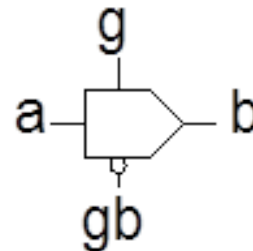
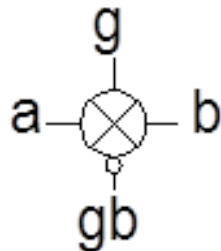
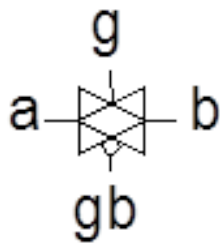


Transmission Gate

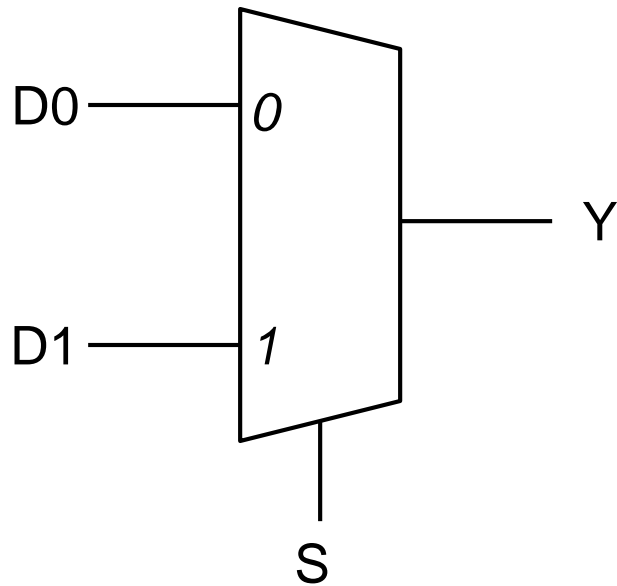
- Transmission gate is a pMOS and nMOS pass transistor in parallel
- Passes a strong 0 and a strong 1



- Common schematic symbols:



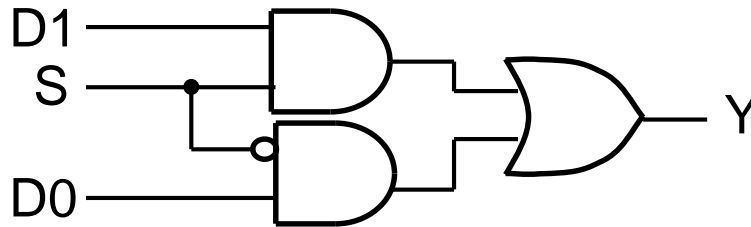
2:1 Multiplexer



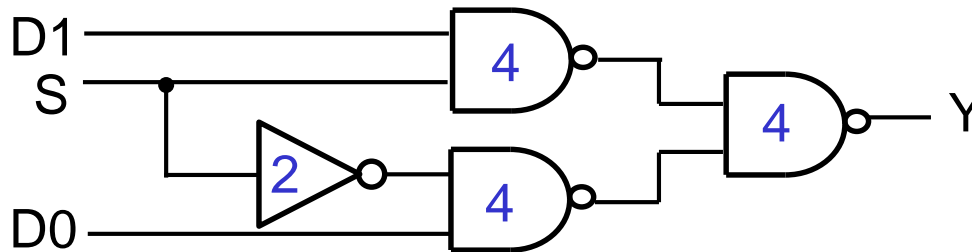
S	D1	D0	Y
0	X	0	0
0	X	1	1
1	0	X	0
1	1	X	1

Mux Design using Standard Logic Gates

- $Y = \overline{S}.D0 + S.D1$

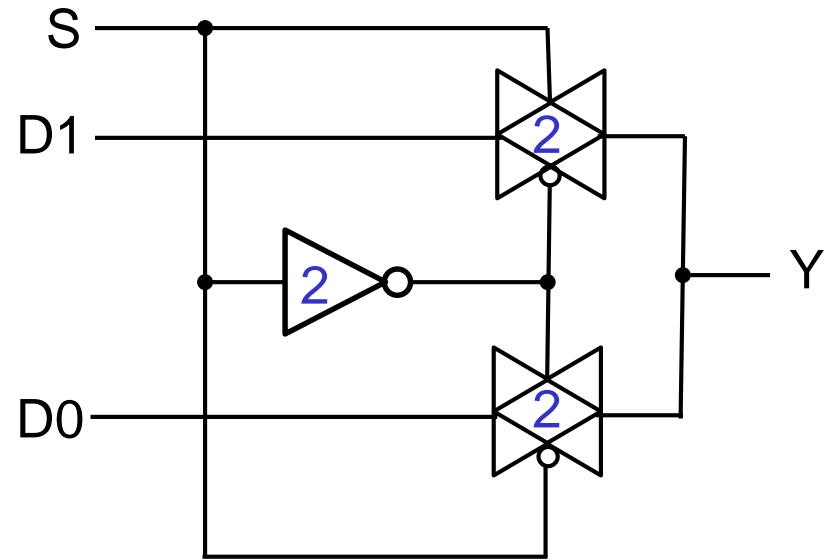
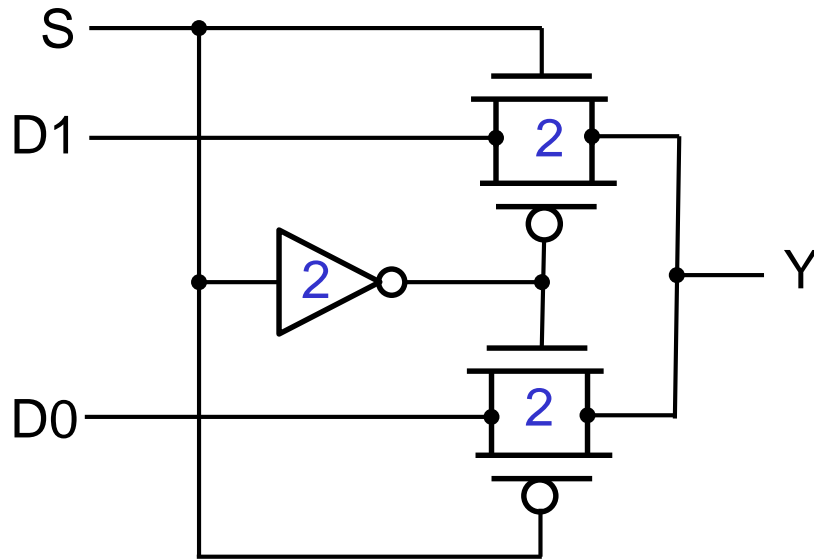


using complimentary inverting gates



- Requires 14 transistors

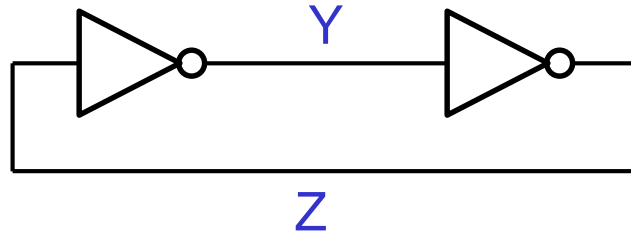
Mux Design using Transmission Gates



- Requires only 6 transistors
- Use with caution: non-restored logic
- Long chains of transmission gates lead to long delays and degraded levels

Storage Elements

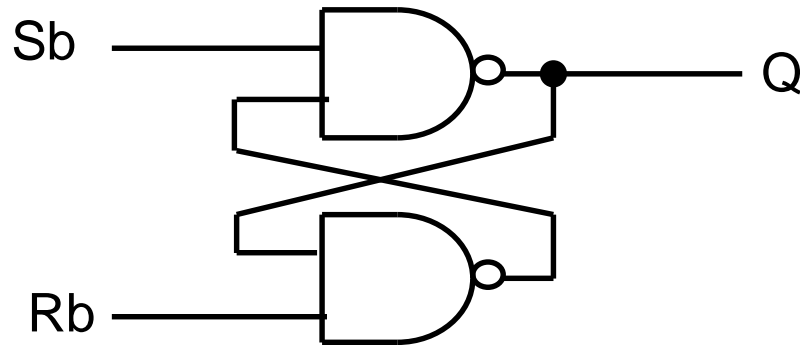
- Basic static storage element is cross-coupled inverter



- Positive feedback drives circuit into one of two stable states
- Either: $(Y=1, Z=0)$ **OR** $(Y=0, Z=1)$
- Circuit will hold state indefinitely
 - restoring effect of digital logic eliminates degradation of stored levels over time
- How do we change the state?

RS Latch

- Simple “writable” storage element



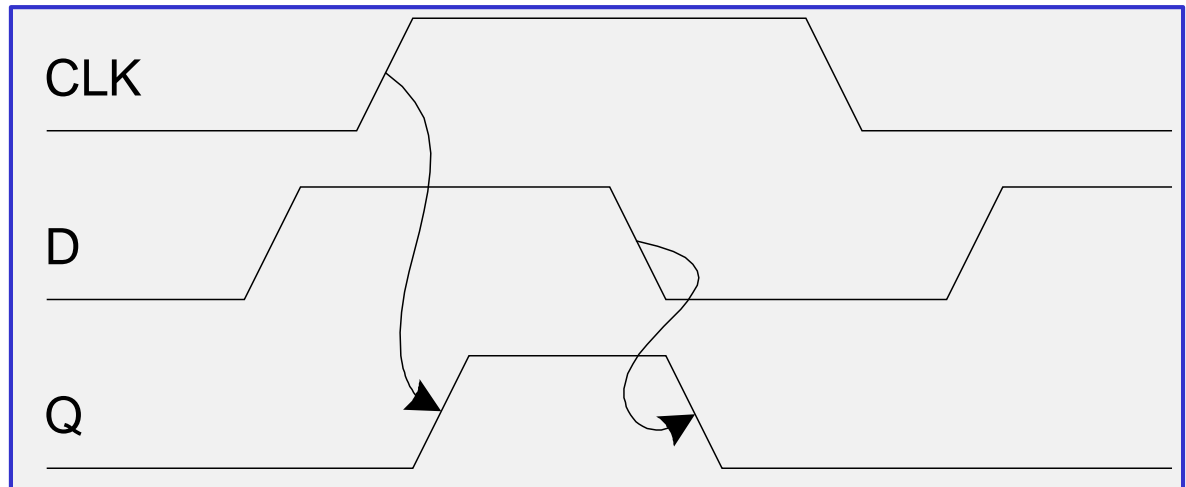
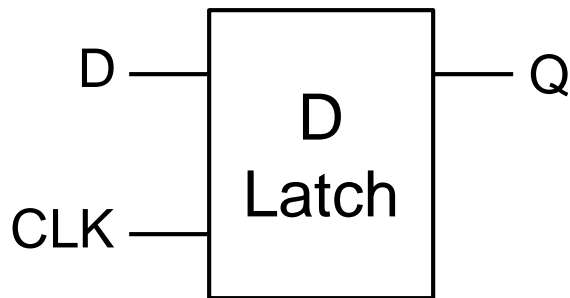
Rb	Sb	Q
0	1	0
1	0	1
1	1	<i>no change</i>
0	0	<i>illegal</i>

- Normally, S_b and R_b are both 1
- When $S_b=0$, Q is set to 1
- When $R_b=0$, Q is reset to 0

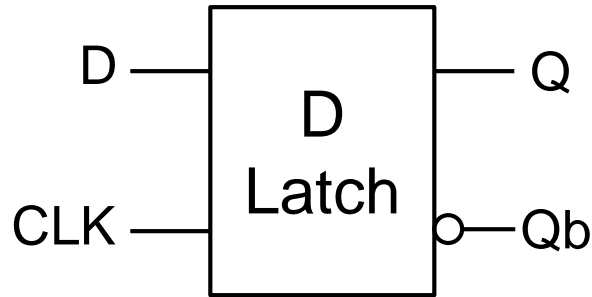
D Latch

- When $CLK = 1$, latch is transparent
- D flows through to Q like a buffer
- When $CLK = 0$, the latch is opaque
- Q holds its old value independent of D
- a.k.a. transparent latch or level-sensitive latch

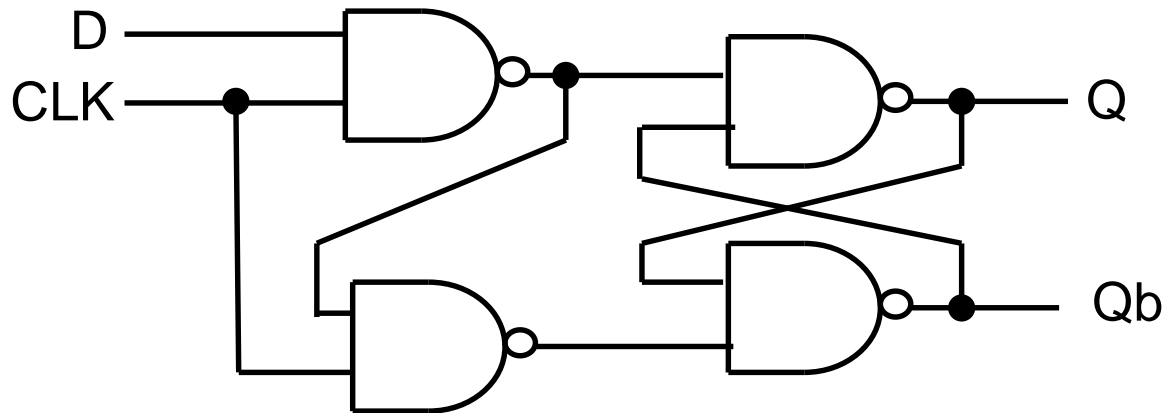
D	CLK	Q
0	1	0
1	1	1
0	0	<i>no change</i>
1	0	<i>no change</i>



D Latch using Standard Logic Gates

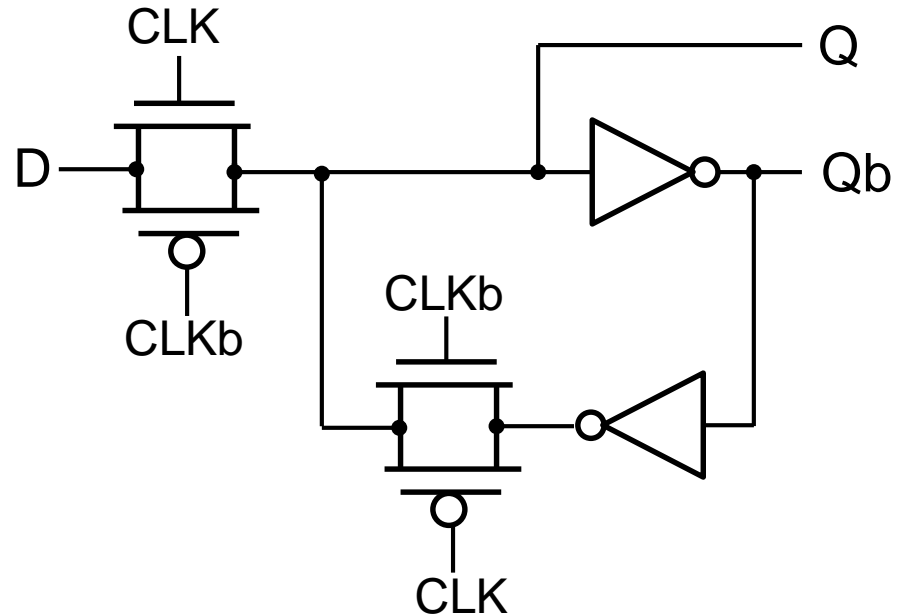
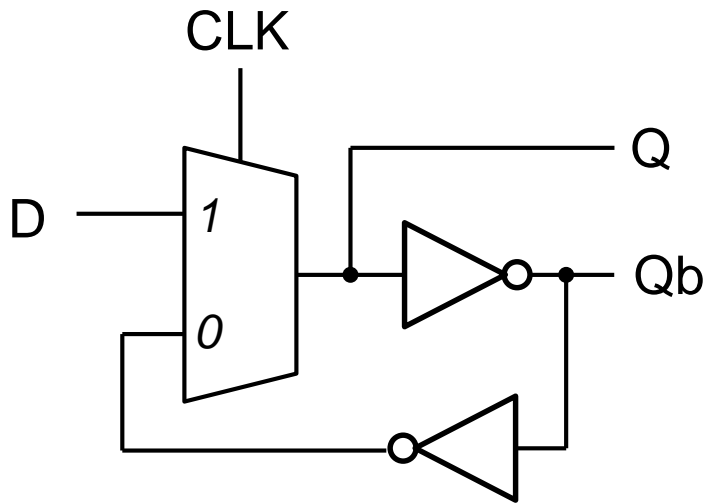


D	CLK	Q	Qb
0	1	0	1
1	1	1	0
0	0	<i>no change</i>	<i>no change</i>
1	0	<i>no change</i>	<i>no change</i>



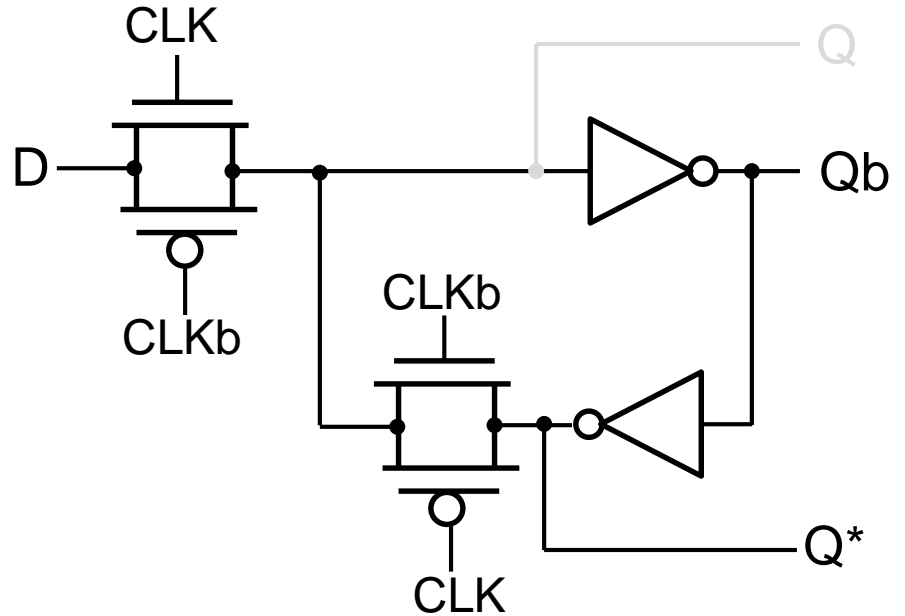
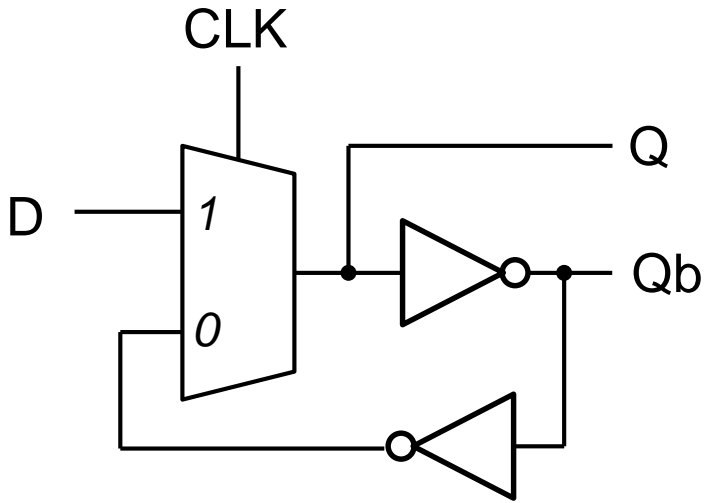
- Uses 16 transistors
- Up to 4 gate delays (D to Q)

D Latch using Transmission Gate



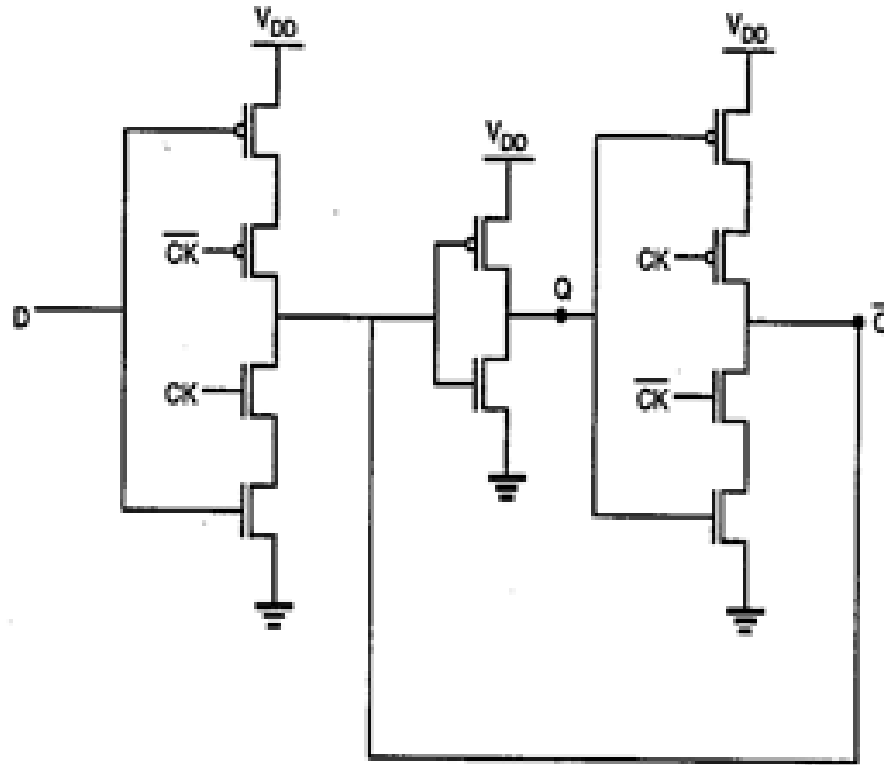
- Multiplexer chooses D or stored Q
- Uses 8 (+2) transistors
- Fast response D to Q
- Q is non-restored

D Latch using Transmission Gate



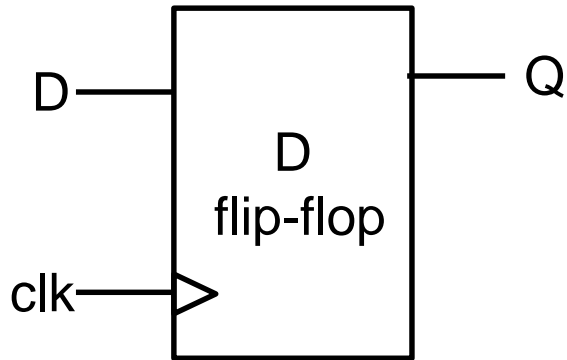
- Multiplexer chooses D or stored Q
- Uses 8 (+2) transistors
- Fast response D to Q
- Q is non-restored
- Q* is slower response, but fully restored

Alternative CMOS D Latch



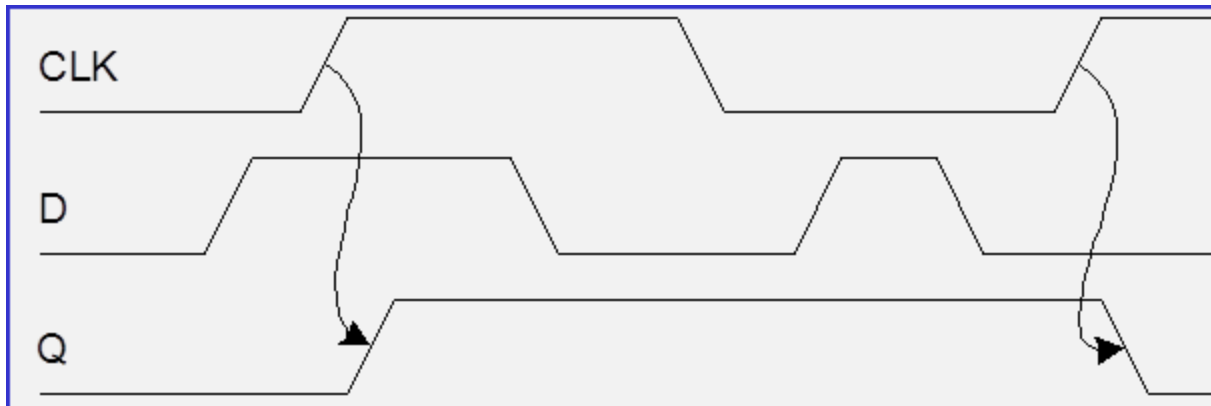
- What is happening here?

D Flip-flop



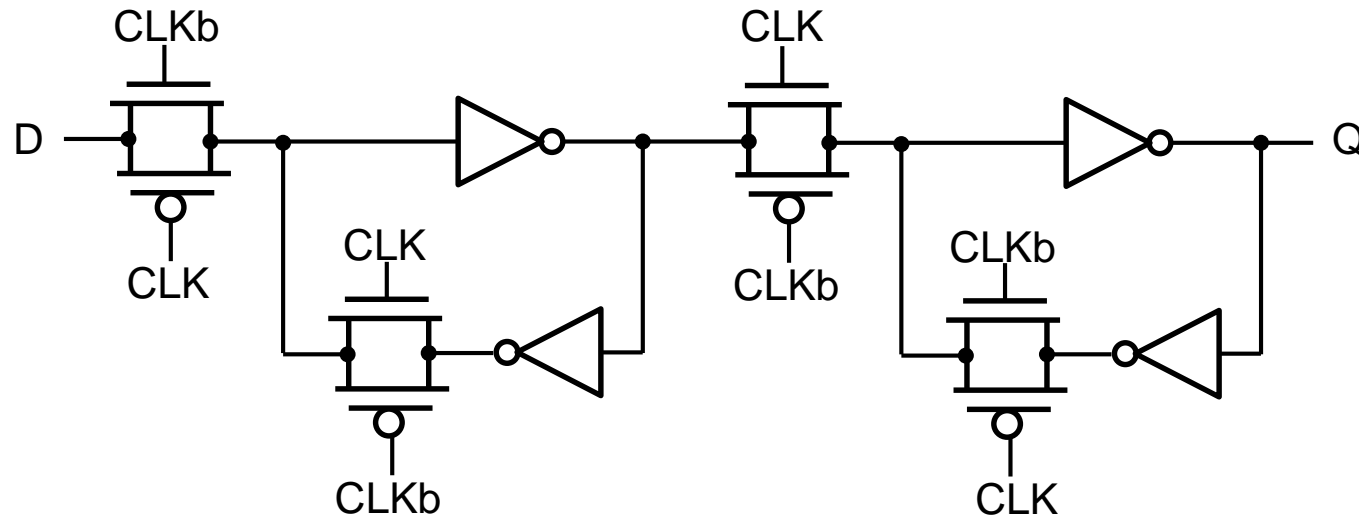
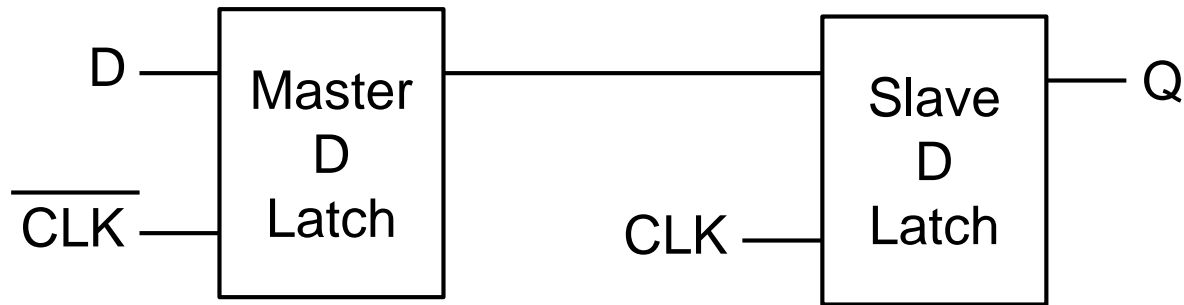
clk	D	Q
0	X	no change
1	X	no change
↑	1	1
↑	0	0

- When CLK rises, D is copied to Q
- At all other times, Q holds its value
- a.k.a. edge-triggered flip-flop, master-slave flip-flop

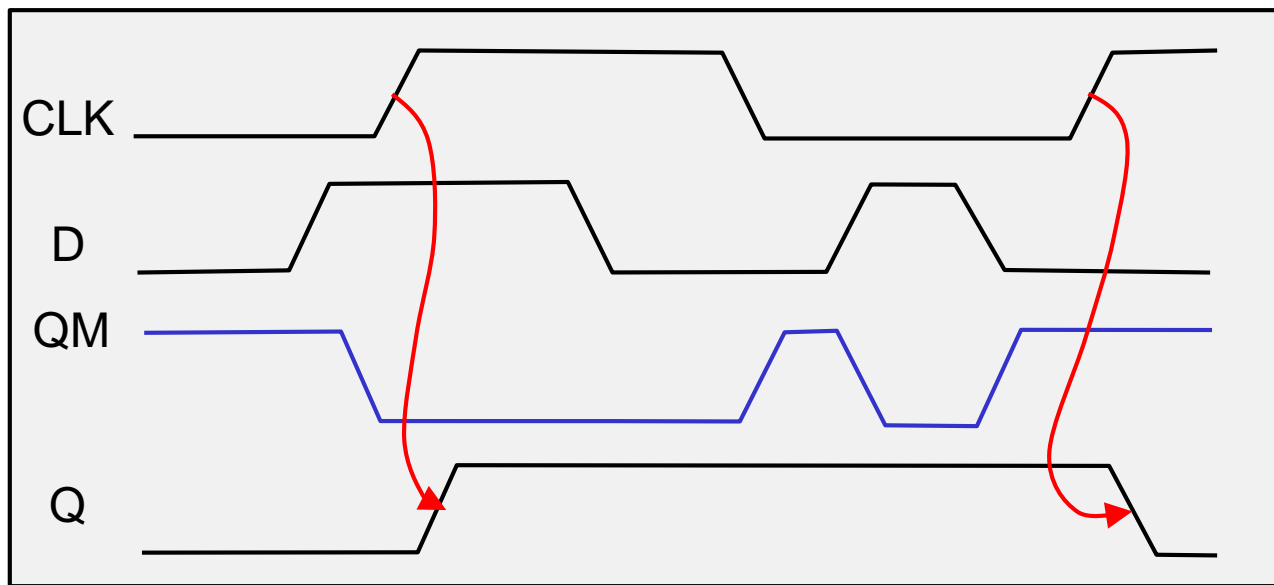
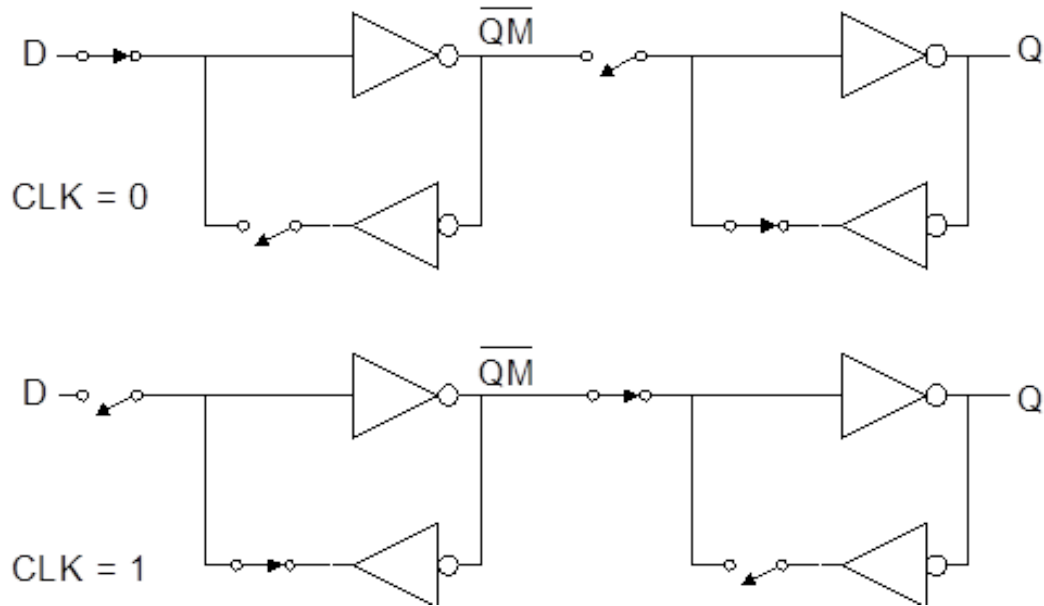


Master-Slave Latches

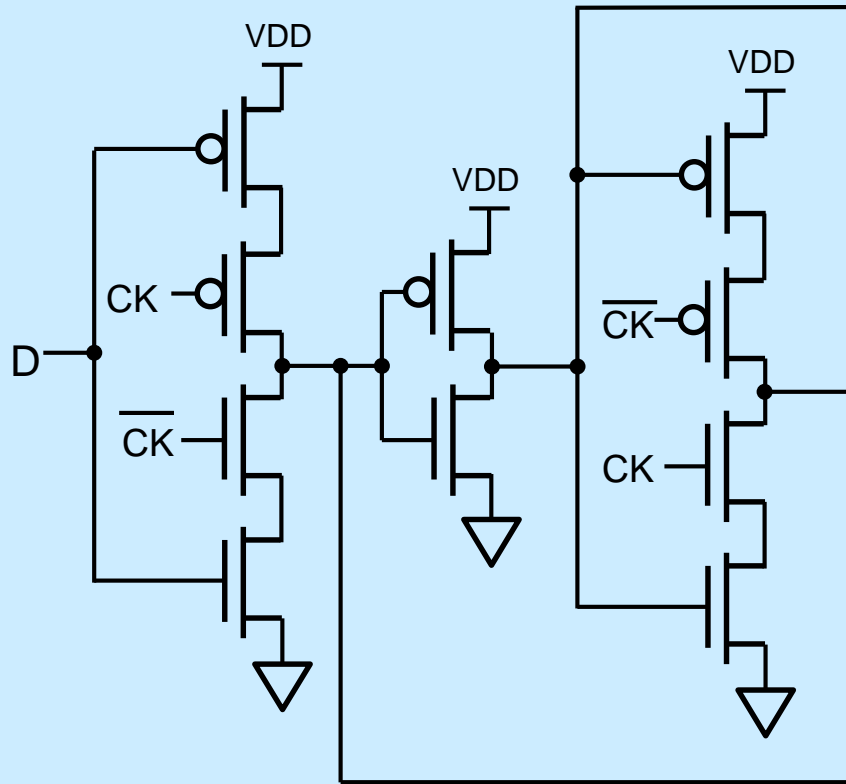
- D Flip-flop is built from two D latches



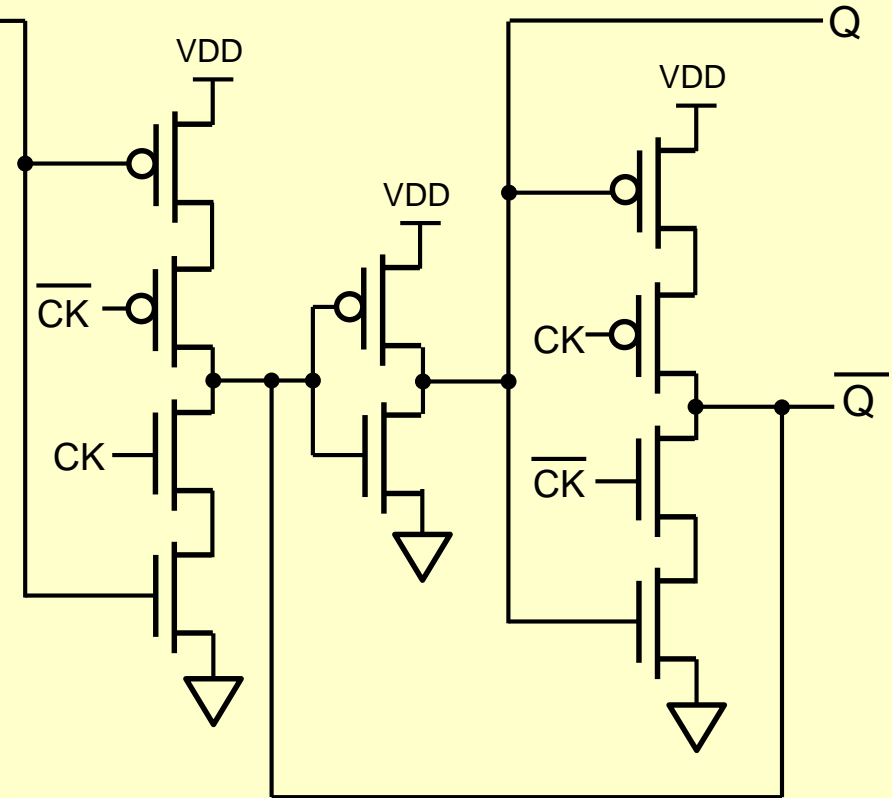
D Flip-flop Operation



Another D-Flip-flop Implementation



master

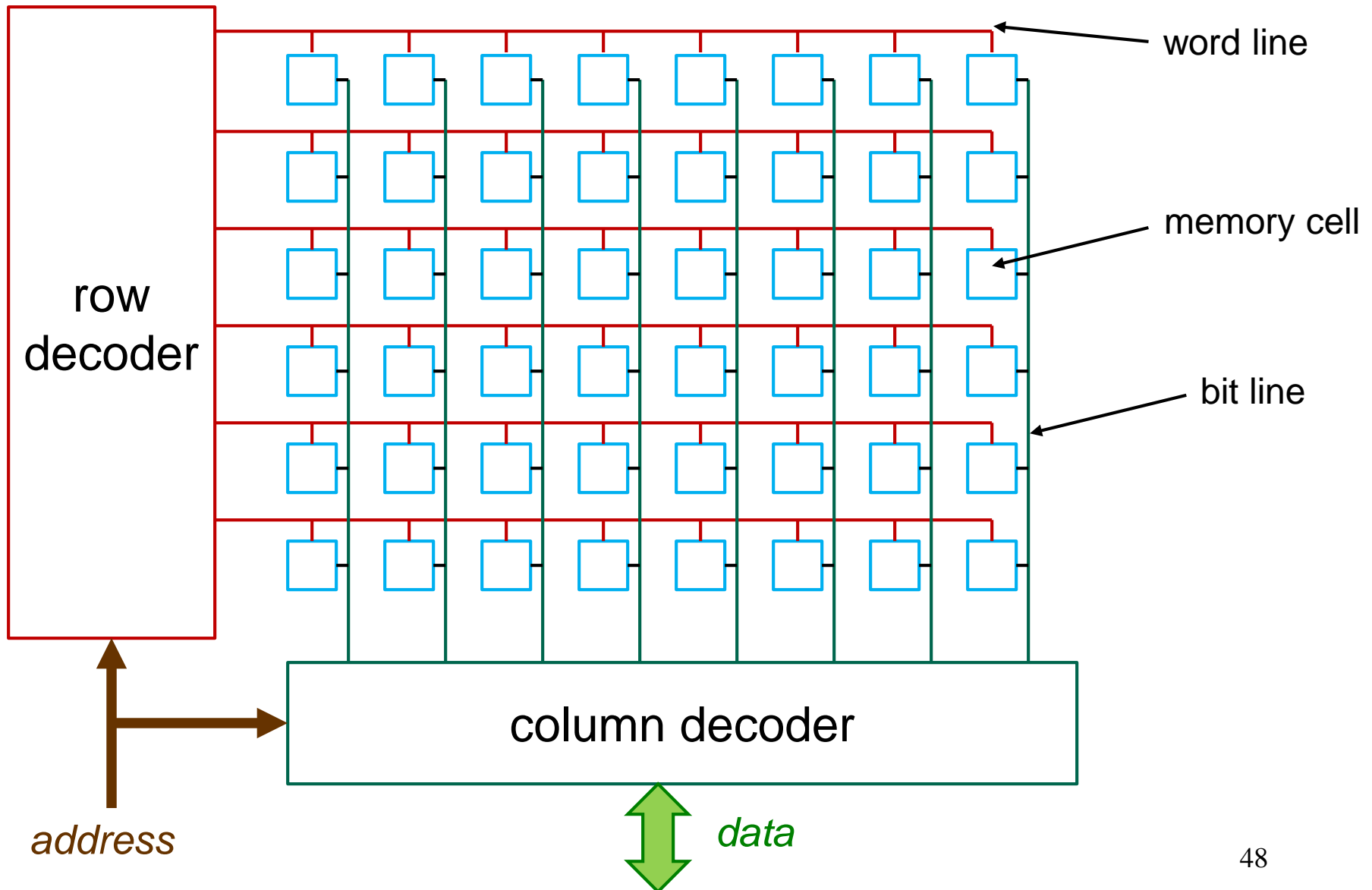


slave

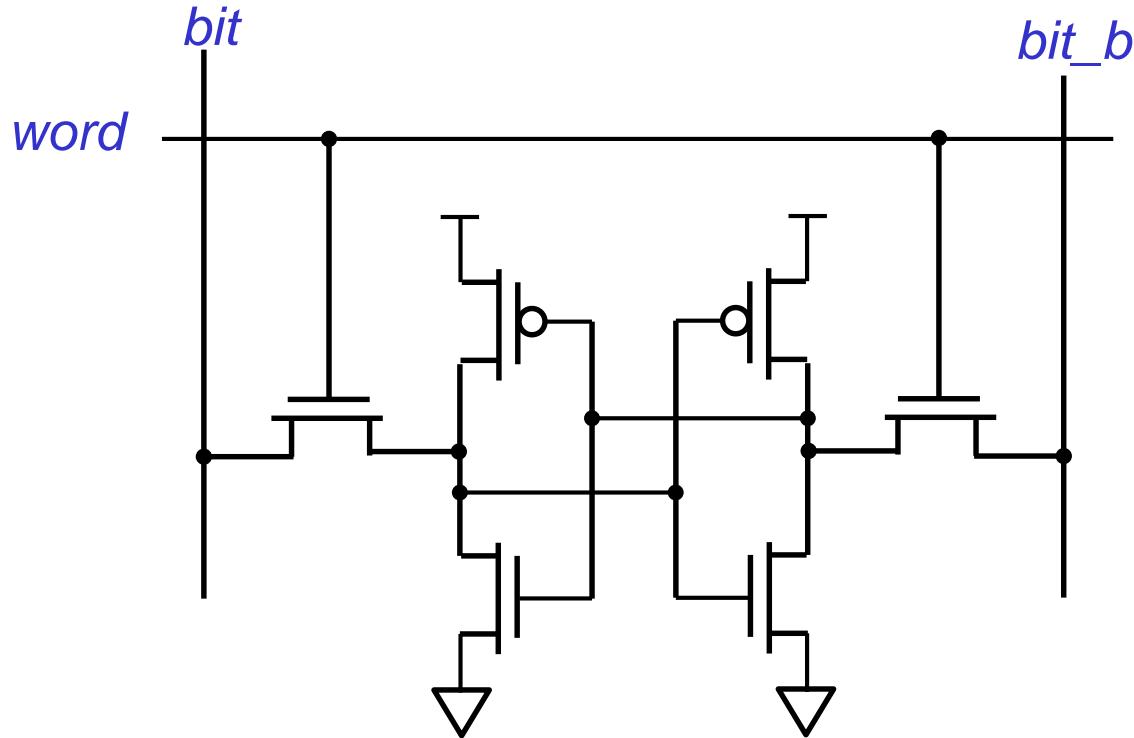
CMOS Memory

- Latches and flip-flops are used to hold temporary values in CMOS data paths and control circuitry
 - register arrays
 - finite state machines
- Not suitable for large memory arrays
 - too much area (D flip-flop uses 20 transistors)
 - too much power
- Memory arrays are designed using
 - smallest possible unit cell
 - regular layout
 - yields very high density and simple design
- CMOS static RAM (SRAM) - 6 transistors per bit
- CMOS dynamic RAM (DRAM) - 1-3 transistors per bit

Memory Array Architecture

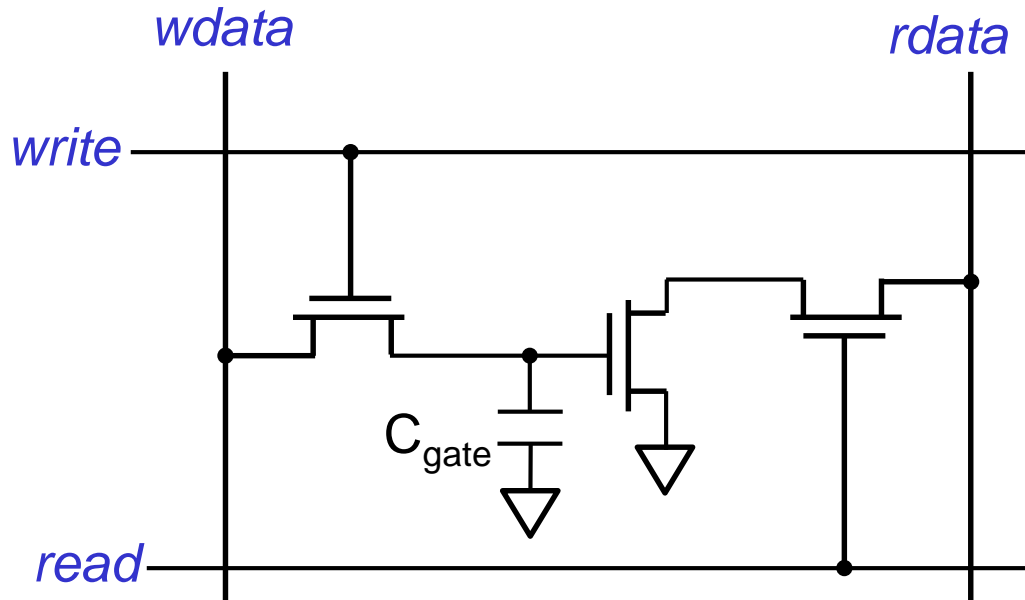


6-T SRAM Cell



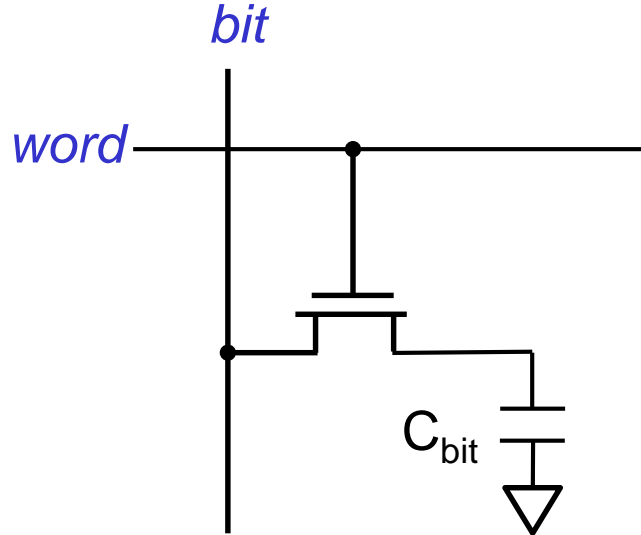
- Used in most commercial chips
 - Data stored in cross-coupled inverters
- Read: precharge *bit*, *bit_b*, then raise *word* line
- Write: drive data onto *bit*, *bit_b*, then raise *word* line

3-T DRAM Cell



- Data stored as charge on gate capacitance C_{gate}
- Read: precharge *rdata*, then raise *read* line
- Write: drive data onto *wdata*, then raise *write* line
- Charge will eventually leak away
 - cell must be periodically refreshed (read followed by re-write)
 - requires more complex memory controller

1-T DRAM Cell



Read: precharge *bit*, then raise *word* line

Write: drive data onto *bit*, then raise *word* line

- Highest density - cell used in commercial DRAM chips
 - Data stored as charge on capacitor C_{bit}
- Charge eventually leaks away – requires refresh
- Read operation is destructive
 - read generates only a small change in voltage of bit line due to charge sharing - requires sense amplifier on bit lines
- Not usually implemented in CMOS
 - requires special process to make a (physically) small capacitor with large capacitance