

## LARGE-SCALE INTEGRATION SYSTEMS

A chip containing over 1,000 components is referred to as an LSI and one with over 10,000 elements as a VLSI (very large-scale integration) system or a VHSIC (very high-speed integrated circuit). There are reasonable expectations that in the 1990s chips with over one million gates will be available commercially! This chapter describes large-system chips which are primarily "memories" of various types. The commercial importance of these microelectronic chips is evident from the fact that the estimated world-wide semiconductor memory consumption in 1978 exceeded 900 million dollars.†

Included are discussions of very long (over 1,000 bits) MOS shift-register serial memories, mask-programmable MOS read-only memories (ROMs with over 65,000 bits), erasable-programmable read-only memories (EPROMs with over 16,000 bits), programmable logic arrays, read/write memories (RAMs with over 65,000 bits), charge-coupled devices (CCDs with over a 65,000-bit memory), microcomputers, and integrated injection logic (I<sup>2</sup>L).

### 9-1 DYNAMIC MOS SHIFT REGISTERS<sup>1-3</sup>

Very long shift registers (involving hundreds of bits) are impractical if built from FLIP-FLOPS as discussed in Sec. 7-4. Too much power is wasted and they are uneconomical because an excessive area of silicon is required. An alternative approach is to construct an LSI shift-register stage by cascading two dynamic

† Source: DATAQUIST, Inc.

MOS<sup>†</sup> inverters. A bit is stored temporarily by charging the parasitic capacitance between gate and substrate of a MOSFET. A dynamic NOT circuit is first described and then two such gates will be expanded into a 1-bit dynamic storage cell.

### A Dynamic MOS Inverter

The circuit of Fig. 9-1 shows a dynamic MOS inverter which requires a clock waveform  $\phi$  for proper operation. Positive logic using  $n$ -channel enhancement MOSFETs is assumed with a 0 state of 0 V and a 1 state of  $V_{DD} = 10$  V. The capacitor  $C$  represents the parasitic capacitance ( $\sim 0.5$  pF) between the gate and substrate of the following MOS, fed by  $V_o$ .

When  $\phi = 0$  V, then the gates of  $Q2$  and  $Q3$  are at 0 V and both these enhancement NMOS are OFF. The supply voltage is disconnected from the circuit and delivers essentially no power. When the clock is at 10 V, both  $Q2$  and  $Q3$  are ON and inversion of  $V_i$  takes place. For example, if  $V_i = 0$  V,  $Q1$  is OFF,  $C$  charges to  $V_{DD}$ † through  $Q2$  in series with  $Q3$ , and  $V_o = 10$  V. If, however,  $V_i = 10$  V,  $Q1$  is ON,  $C$  discharges to ground through  $Q3$  and  $Q1$ , and  $V_o = 0$  V. Note that  $Q3$  is a bidirectional switch: Terminal 2 acts as the source when  $C$  charges to the supply voltage, whereas terminal 1 becomes the source when  $C$  discharges to ground.

The important features of MOSFETs for this dynamic inverter (and also for the shift register) are:

1. The MOS is a bidirectional switch.
2. The very high input resistance permits temporary data storage on the small gate-to-substrate capacitance of a MOS device.
3. The load FET may be turned off by a clock pulse to reduce power dissipation.

The inverter discussed above is called a *ratioed inverter*. The name derives from the fact that when the input is high and the clock is high, transistors  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  form a voltage divider between  $V_{DD}$  and ground. Therefore the output voltage  $V_o$  depends on the ratio of the ON resistance of  $Q1$  and the effective load resistance of  $Q2$  (typically,  $< 1 : 5$ ). This ratio is related to the physical size of  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  and is often referred to as the *aspect ratio*.

### Two-Phase Ratioed Memory Cell

Cascading two of the dynamic inverters of Fig. 9-1 allows each bit of information which is stored on the capacitance  $C$  of the first NOR gate to be transferred to the following inverter by applying a second clock pulse out of phase with the

† The following terms are used synonymously in this chapter: MOSFET, MOS, FET, MOST, NMOS, and transistor.

† It is assumed throughout this chapter that the threshold voltage  $V_T$  is much smaller than the supply voltage  $V_{DD}$  and that  $V_{on} = 0$  (Sec. 8-7).

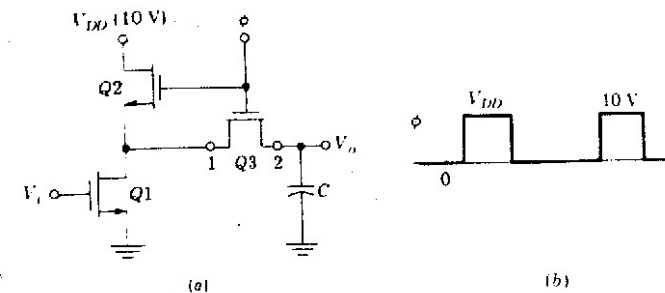


Figure 9-1 (a) Dynamic NMOS inverter. (b) Clock waveform  $\phi$ .

first waveform. A typical MOS dynamic-shift-register stage is shown in Fig. 9-2a and the required two-phase clock waveforms are indicated in Fig. 9-2b. Each stage of the register requires six MOSFETs. The input  $V_i$  is the voltage on the gate capacitance  $C_1$  of  $Q1$ , applied there by the previous stage (or by the input signal if this is the first stage of the shift register). When at  $t = t_1$  the clock  $\phi_1$  goes positive (for NMOS devices), transistors  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  form an inverter and the bidirectional switch  $Q3$  conducts. Hence, the complement of the level of  $C_1$  is transferred to  $C_2$ . When  $\phi_1$  drops to 0 (at  $t = t_2 +$ ),  $Q2$  and  $Q3$  are OFF and  $C_2$  retains its charge as long as  $\phi_1$  remains at 0 V. However, at  $t = t_3 +$ , when  $\phi_2 = V_{DD}$ , then  $Q4$  and  $Q5$  act as an inverter and the switch  $Q6$  is closed. Hence, the data stored on  $C_2$  are inverted and deposited on  $C_3$ . The bit (a 1 or a 0) transferred to the output  $V_o$  is identical with that which was at the input  $V_i$  but delayed by an amount determined by the clock period. In other words the register stage in Fig. 9-2a is a 1-bit delay line. The combination  $Q1Q2Q3$  can be called the *master inverter*, and  $Q4Q5Q6$  the *slave section*. To retain data

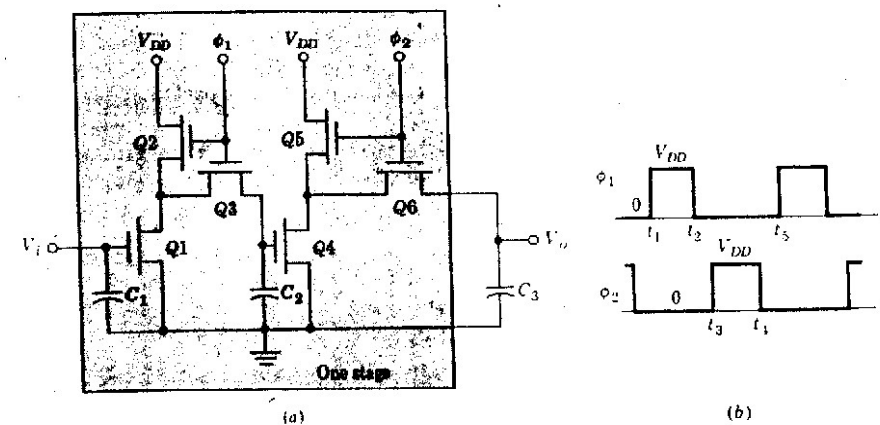


Figure 9-2 (a) A two-phase ratioed dynamic NMOS shift-register stage (six MOSFETs). (b) The two-phase clock waveforms  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ .

stored in the register, the rate at which the data are clocked through the circuit must not fall below some minimum value. If the clock period is too long, the charge will leak off the parasitic capacitors and the data will be lost.

The load FETs in Fig. 9-2a are clocked because the gates are controlled by the clock waveform. Unclocked loads (the gates tied to fixed voltages) may also be used, but such circuits dissipate more power.

The Intel 2401 is a dual 1,024-bit dynamic shift register fabricated with NMOS. It uses a single 5-V supply and is TTL compatible. It operates at minimum data rate of 25 kHz and a maximum rate of 1 MHz, with power dissipation of 0.12 mW/bit at 1 MHz. It is interesting to note that this chip contains  $2 \times 1,024 \times 6 = 12,288$  MOSFETs, exclusive of the control circuitry needed to convert it into a recirculating memory (Fig. 9-3).

### Applications

Typical applications for MOS shift registers are as serial memories for calculators, cathode-ray tube displays, or communication equipment, as refresh or buffer memories, and as delay lines. A serial dynamic circulating shift-register memory is drawn in Fig. 9-3. The output of the register is returned to its input through an AND-OR combination as indicated. If the *write but not read* mode  $W/\bar{R}$  is in the 1 state, the digital data at the *input* terminal are fed into the register. After a *clock* pulse cycle each bit is shifted to the right into the following stage, as explained in connection with Fig. 9-2. When the desired number of bits are entered sequentially into the register, the *recirculating* mode is commenced by changing  $W/\bar{R}$  to the 0 state. In this mode further data are inhibited from entering the register and the bits stored in the memory are recirculated from the output back into the input of the shift register in synchronism with the clock waveform. Nondestructive reading of the data train is obtained at the output if the *read* input is excited by a logic 1.

If the register contains 1,024 stages, then this recirculating memory may store one 1,024-bit serial word. Consider now that four systems,  $S_0$ ,  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ , and  $S_3$ , such as shown in Fig. 9-3, are used with *independent* data inputs and outputs. The  $W/\bar{R}$  terminals are tied together as well as all the read terminals and the

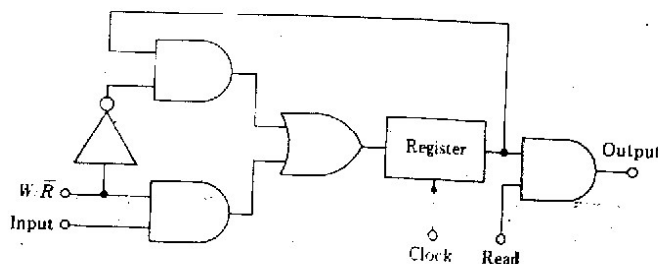


Figure 9-3 A recirculating shift register. ( $W/\bar{R}$  is an abbreviation for *write but do not recirculate*). The AND, OR, and NOT gates are fabricated on the same chip with the register stages.

same clock synchronizes all systems. The resulting configuration is a serial memory which could be considered as storing 1,024 words, each containing 4 bits. All 4 bits in a particular word appear simultaneously: the LSB at the output of  $S_0$  and the MSB at the output of  $S_3$ . One clock period later another 4-bit word can be read. To expand the system to  $n$ -bit words, it is necessary to use  $n$ -recirculating shift registers. If more words are required, then longer shift registers must be used.

If the desired use has been made of the data circulating in the memory of Fig. 9-3, then the  $W/\bar{R}$  input is changed to a logic 1. This inhibits the bits from the last stage of the shift register from entering the first stage. In other words, the content of the memory is *erased* and new data may be simultaneously entered into the register.

### Static MOS Shift Register

A "static" shift register is dc stable and can operate without a minimum clock rate. That is, it can store data indefinitely provided that power is supplied to the circuit. However, static shift-register cells are larger than the dynamic cells and consume more power. Consequently they are seldom used.

## 9-2 RATIOLESS SHIFT-REGISTER STAGES

It is pointed out in Sec. 9-1 that the load FET  $Q2$  in Fig. 9-2 must have a much higher resistance than the driver  $Q1$  in order for the low-state voltage  $V_{on}$  to be close to zero. In Sec. 8-7 we emphasize that the FET resistance is proportional to  $L/w$ . Hence,  $Q2$  must have a much larger channel length  $L$  and smaller width  $w$  than  $Q1$ . Consequently the inverter occupies more than the minimum possible area. Also, since the parasitic storage capacitance is charged through the load  $Q2$  during a portion of the cycle, the high resistance of  $Q2$  limits the speed of operation of the register. Both of these difficulties may be avoided by using a dynamic *ratioless* inverter, as indicated in Fig. 9-4a (where  $Q1$  and  $Q2$  may have identical geometries). Note that no power supply (dc) voltage is used in this inverter. The clock pulse  $\phi$  (Fig. 9-1b for NMOS devices) must supply the required energy to this circuit and the power dissipation is proportional to the clocking frequency.

To understand the operation of the ratioless inverter consider first the case where  $V_i = 0$ . Then during the pulse the situation is as pictured in Fig. 9-4b. Since the gate voltage of  $Q1$  is 0 and that of  $Q2$  is  $V_{DD}$ , then (for NMOS enhancement devices)  $Q1$  is OFF and  $Q2$  is ON. Therefore  $C$  charges through  $Q2$  to  $V_{DD}$ . At the end of the pulse  $\phi$  falls to 0 and both MOSFETs remain OFF. Hence, with  $V_i = 0$  (logic 0), the output  $V_o = V_{DD}$  (logic 1) and an inversion has taken place.

Consider now that  $V_i = V_{DD}$  and that  $\phi = V_{DD}$  as shown in Fig. 9-4c. Both MOSFETs are ON and deliver current to  $C$  as indicated. Hence  $C$  is quickly

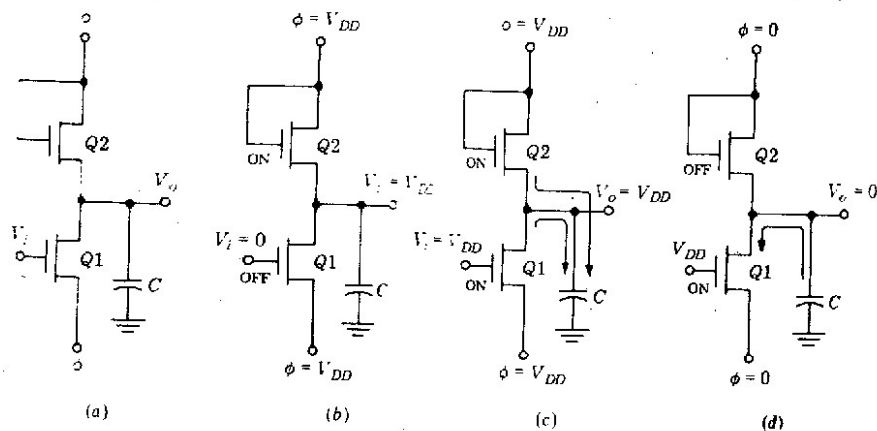


Figure 9-4 (a) A ratioless dynamic inverter using NMOS. (b) Input = logic 0 and  $\phi = V_{DD}$ . (c) Input = logic 1 and  $\phi = V_{DD}$  (during pulse). (d) Input remains at logic 1 and  $\phi = 0$  (after the pulse terminates).

charged to  $V_{DD}$ . Since  $V_o = V_i = V_{DD}$ , there is no inversion during the pulse. However, at the termination of the pulse when the clock voltage returns to 0, we have the situation depicted in Fig. 9-4d. Now the gate  $G_2$  of  $Q_2$  is at 0 and  $Q_2$  is OFF, whereas  $G_1$  of  $Q_1$  is at  $V_{DD}$  and  $Q_1$  is ON. Consequently  $C$  discharges to 0 V through  $Q_1$ . Hence, shortly after the pulse ends,  $V_o = 0$  while  $V_i = V_{DD}$  indicating that a logical inversion has taken place.

### Two-Phase Ratioless Dynamic Register Cell

If we cascade two inverters of the type shown in Fig. 9-4a through bidirectional transmission gates, the ratioless shift-register stage of Fig. 9-5 is obtained. The first inverter is powered by phase  $\phi_1$  and the second by phase  $\phi_2$ , where these clock waveforms are drawn in Fig. 9-5b. At the beginning ( $t = t_1 +$ ) of pulse  $\phi_1$  the switch  $Q_0$  closes and the voltage across  $C_0$  (the input voltage to  $Q_1$ ) equals the input level  $V_i$ . By the inverter action described in connection with Fig. 9-4, the voltage across  $C_1$  after the end of the pulse  $\phi_1$  (at  $t = t_2 +$ ) corresponds to the complementary logic state of  $V_i$ . Since  $\phi_1$  is now at its low level,  $Q_0$  opens and  $V_i$  is retained on  $C_0$  until the end of the period of  $\phi_1$  (at  $t = t_3$ ).

At  $t = t_3 +$  the second waveform  $\phi_2$  goes to its high level  $V_{DD}$  allowing transmission through  $Q_3$  and effectively placing  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  in parallel. If at  $t = t_3 -$  the voltage on  $C_1$  ( $C_2$ ) is  $V_1$  ( $V_2$ ), then at  $t = t_3 +$  the voltage  $V$  on  $C_2$  (which must be the same as that on  $C_1$ ) is found in Prob. 9-5 to be

$$V = \frac{C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2}{C_1 + C_2} \quad (9-1)$$

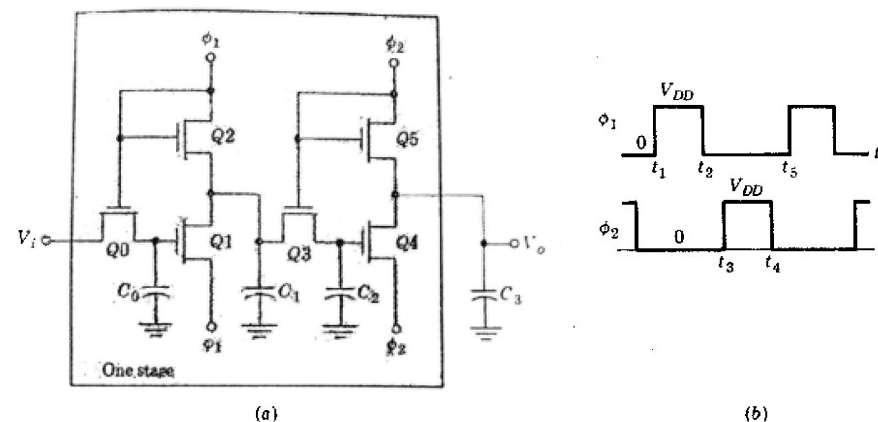


Figure 9-5 (a) A two-phase ratioless dynamic NMOS shift-register stage (six MOSFETs). (b) The two-phase clock waveforms  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ .

If  $C_1 \gg C_2$ , note from Eq. (9-1) that  $V \approx V_1$ . In other words, pulse  $\phi_2$  causes the output voltage (across  $C_1$ ) of the first inverter to appear at the input (across  $C_2$ ) of the second NOT gate. Finally, by the inverter action described above, at the end of the pulse  $\phi_2$  (at  $t = t_4 +$  and until  $t = t_5$ ) the logic level  $V_o$  across  $C_3$  is the complement of that across  $C_2$ , which, in turn, is the complement of that across  $C_0$ . Clearly, in one period of the clock the input level  $V_i$  has shifted through the stage to the output  $V_o$ , as it should in a 1-bit delay line or 1-bit shift register.

No dc power supply is used in Fig. 9-5, but the clocking waveforms must be capable of furnishing the heavy capacitive currents. Also in order to ensure that  $C_1$  be much larger than  $C_2$ , additional area must be added to the chip for  $C_1$ . We can reduce the loading on the clock drivers by adding another transistor to each inverter as in Prob. 9-6. This modification results in an eight-MOSFET stage. A number of four-phase ratioless shift registers capable of operation at high speed are described in the literature.<sup>1-3</sup> Because of the large amount of chip area required for two-phase ratioless shift registers and the additional complications of four-phase clock drivers these systems are seldom used.

### A Dynamic CMOS Shift-Register Stage

The static CMOS inverter indicated in Fig. 8-26 is discussed in Sec. 8-9. The CMOS transmission gate is shown in Fig. 8-28 and its operation is also explained in Sec. 8-9. We find in the foregoing discussion that interposing bidirectional transmission gates between inverters results in a dynamic shift register. Such a configuration using CMOS is indicated in Fig. 9-6. The transmission gates are labeled  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  and are controlled by complementary

