PRINCIPLES OF CMOS VLSI DESIGN BY WESTE & ESHRAGHIAN

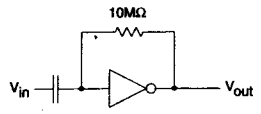


FIGURE 2.18 The CMOS inverter as an amplifier

This region may be further examined with a circuit simulator by using the circuit shown in Fig. 2.18, with a high-value resistor between input and output (10M Ω). The input is DC isolated using a capacitor. The gain of this amplifier is estimated by using the small-signal model of the amplifier shown in Fig. 2.10. This circuit is valid for small signals around the linear operating point of the amplifier. The gain is approximately given by

$$\begin{aligned} A &= g_{mtotal} R_{dseffective} \\ &= (g_{mn} + g_{mp})(r_{dsn} \parallel r_{dsp}) \\ &= g_m r_{ds} \text{ (if } g_{mn} = g_{mp} \text{ and } r_{dsn} = r_{sdp}) \end{aligned} \tag{2.35}$$

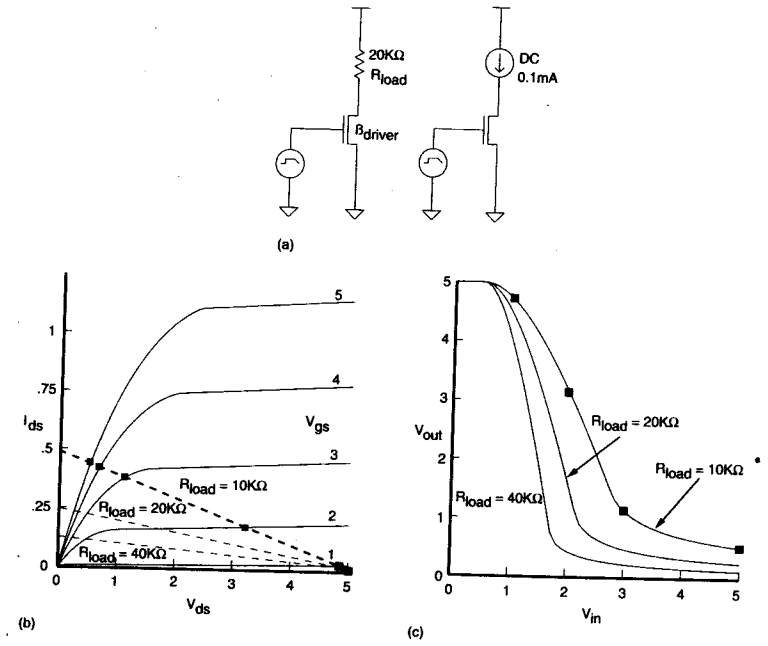
This gain is very dependent on the process and transistors used in the circuit but can be in the range from 100 to over 1000. The gain is enhanced by lengthening the transistors to improve the r_{ds} values. This improvement comes at the expense of speed and bandwidth of the amplifier.

2.4 Static Load MOS Inverters

Apart from the CMOS inverter, there are many other forms of MOS inverter that may be used to build logic gates. Figure 2.19(a) shows a generic nMOS inverter that uses either a resistive load or a constant current source. For the resistor case, if we superimpose the resistor-load line on the VI characteristics of the pull-down transistor (Fig. 2.19b), we can see that at a V_{gs} of 5 volts, the output is some small V_{ds} (V_{OL}) (Fig. 2.19c). When $V_{gs} = 0$ volts, V_{ds} rises to 5 volts. As the resistor is made larger, the V_{OL} decreases and the current flowing when the inverter is turned on decreases. Correspondingly, as the load resistor is decreased in value, the V_{OL} rises and the on current rises. Selection of the resistor value would seek a compromise between V_{OL}, the current drawn and the pull-up speed, which vary with the value of the load resistor.

The resistor- and current-source-load inverters shown in Fig. 2.19 are normally implemented using transistors in CMOS processes. In some memory processes, resistors are implemented using highly resistive undoped polysilicon. When transistors are used the inverter is called a saturated load inverter if the load transistor is operated in saturation as a constant current source. If the load transistor is biased for use as a resistor, then it is called an unsaturated load inverter.

In this section we will examine a number of static load inverters that one can implement in CMOS processes. Usually the reason for doing this is to reduce the number of transistors used for a gate to improve density and/or to lower dynamic power consumption.



Figur
load i

2.4.1 The Pseudo-nMOS Inverter

Figure 2.20(a) shows an inverter that uses a p-device pull-up or load that has its gate permanently grounded. An n-device pull-down or driver is driven with the input signal. This is roughly equivalent to the use of a depletion load in nMOS technology (which preceded CMOS technology as a major systems technology) and is thus called "pseudo-nMOS." This circuit is used in a variety of CMOS logic circuits. Similar to the complementary inverter, a graphical solution to the transfer characteristic is shown in Fig. 2.20(b) for various sized p-devices for a particular CMOS process. This shows that the ratio of β_n/β_p affects the shape of the transfer characteristic and the V_{OL} of the inverter (shown in Fig. 2.20c). Figure 2.20(d) shows that when the driver is turned on, a constant DC current flows in the circuit. This is to be contrasted with the CMOS inverter in which no DC current flows when the input is either the terminal high or low state. The importance of whether DC current flows, and hence whether one can use the pseudo-nMOS inverter, depends on the application. CMOS watch circuits rely on the fact that when the circuit is not switching, no current is drawn from the small battery that powers

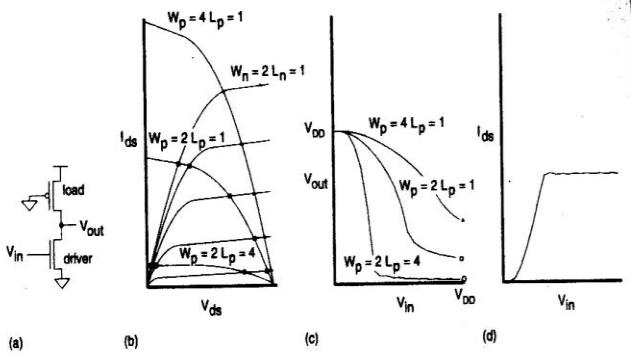


FIGURE 2.20 The pseudo-nMOS inverter and DC transfer characteristics

the watch. In this application, having circuits that consumed DC current would not be advisable. Similarly in circuits which required a power-down mode (as in palmtop or portable computers) one might not want such circuits. Finally, the fact that CMOS complementary circuits do not draw DC current has led some semiconductor manufacturers to have a gross test of CMOS chips that tests the DC current of a chip (IDDQ testing—see Chapter 7). If there is DC current, they assume there is some fault internally and have to do no more testing of that die. Notwithstanding these applications where pseudo-nMOS gates are not applicable, they do find wide application in high-speed circuits and circuits that require large fan-in NOR gates. Even in DC power critical applications, the pseudo-nMOS gate may be used by selectively grounding the gate of the p-device pull-up transistor. (*Note:* The output voltage of a pseudo-nMOS inverter with both driver and load transistors turned off will depend on the subthreshold characteristics of the transistors. This should be rigorously simulated if contemplated, or the output should be clamped to a known voltage.)

For the circuit shown in Fig. 2.20 the current in the n driver transistor is given by

$$I_{dsn} = \frac{\beta_n}{2}(V_{inv} - V_{tn})^2 \quad (V_{out} > V_{in} - V_{tn}).$$

The p-device I_{ds} with $V_{gsp} = -V_{DD}$ is

$$I_{dsp} = \beta_p\left[(-V_{DD} - V_{tp})(V_{out} - V_{DD}) - \frac{(V_{out} - V_{DD})^2}{2}\right].$$

Setting the two currents we obtain

$$\frac{\beta_{driver}}{2}(V_{in} - V_{tn})^2 = \frac{\beta_{load}}{2}(V_{out} - V_{DD} - V_{tp})^2.$$

Upon rearrangement,

$$V_{out} = V_{DD} + V_{tp} + \sqrt{k}(V_{in} - V_{tn}) \tag{2.40}$$

where $k = \dfrac{\beta_{driver}}{\beta_{load}}$.

This effectively gives the V_{OH} value ($V_{in} = V_{tn}$). Similar calculations can yield the V_{OL}. From Fig. 2.24(b), for $k = 4$ $V_{OL} = .24$ volts, $V_{IH} = 2.1$ volts, $V_{OH} = 4.4$ volts, and $V_{IL} = .5$ volts. Thus the low noise margin is .26 volts and the high noise margin is 2.3 volts. The small low-noise-margin makes this inverter unsuitable for cascaded logic use, but it is of use in other circumstances and forms the basis for the differential pair inverter, which we will examine subsequently.

Finally, Fig. 2.25 shows an nMOS depletion load inverter. This inverter relies on the existence of a depletion nMOS transistor to form the load device. That is, the threshold of the depletion transistor is negative. While this is relatively rare in CMOS processes, this inverter formed the basis for the generation of MOS technology that ushered in the VLSI era. By connecting the gate of the load to the output, a constant current load is formed. Unlike the inverter shown in Fig. 2.24, which uses a p-device as a constant current load, the output of this inverter can rise to a full V_{DD} level.

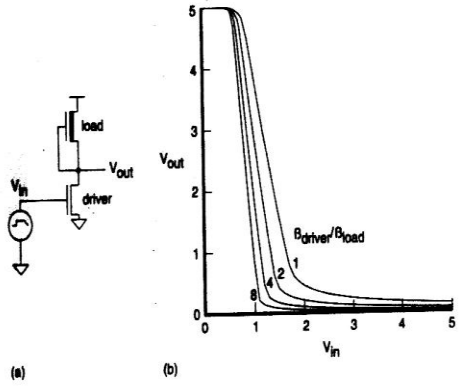


FIGURE 2.25 Depletion load inverter

In the circuit, V_{bias} is set by what is termed a current mirror. If a current is forced in N_3, then an identical current will flow in transistor N_4. The reason for this is as follows. With the drain connected to the gate, N_3 is in saturation. Forcing a current I_{s3} in N_3 yields a V_{gs3} of

$$V_{gs3} = \sqrt{\frac{2I_{s3}}{\beta}} + V_t .$$

Now, because N_4 has a $V_{gs} = V_{gs1}$,

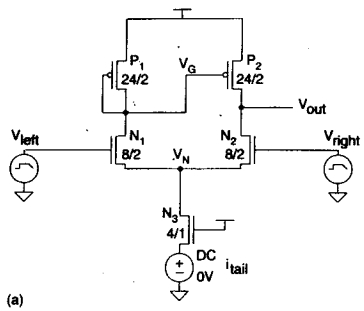
$$I_{s4} = \frac{\beta}{2}(V_{gs} - V_t)^2 = I_{s3}.$$

One may cascade current mirrors to provide a variety of current tracking arrangements. If a current multiplication is required, this may be achieved by appropriate ratioing of the current mirror transistors.

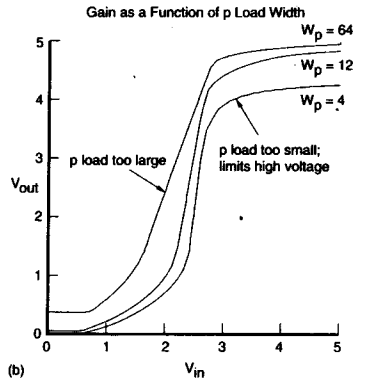
Figure 2.30(a) shows a differential amplifier that employs an active current-mirror load structure rather than resistive p-transistors. This structure forms the basis for many RAM sense amplifiers. In this application, the current source is often connected as an unsaturated device. In these circumstances, one has to ensure that the DC conditions are such that the amplifier operates correctly. The active p loads have to be able to source the total current developed by the current source n-transistor. A starting point is to make $\beta_{N_3} = \beta_{P_1} = \beta_{P_2}$. Figure 2.30(b) shows the amplifier characteristic for varying load device sizes. If the p-devices are too small, then when $V_{left} = V_{DD}$, the high value at V_{out} will be lower than possible because P_1 will not be able to source all of the current from N_3. If P_1 and P_2 are made larger with respect to N_3, the low value of the amplifier increases, the gain of the amplifier decreases, and the transition region moves to the left as shown in Fig. 2.30(b). The gain is then determined by the g_m of N_1 and the output conductance of P_2 and N_2. Figure 2.30(c) and Fig. 2.30(d) show the I/O characteristics for the amplifier and the currents that flow in the current source and the two load devices. The small signal gain is given by[24]

$$A = \frac{g_{mn}}{g_o} \qquad (2.44)$$

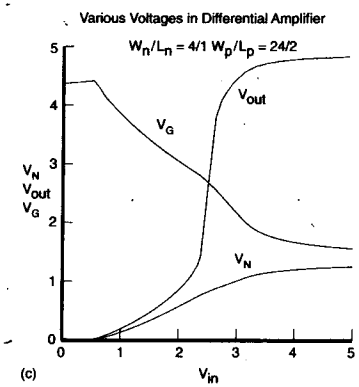
where g_{mn} is the g_m of the driver transistor and g_o is the combined output conductance of the p current load and the n-driver transistor. This is shown in Fig. 2.30(e) for various values of load- and driver-device sizes for a fixed current source. As the length of the devices is increased (r_{ds} increases), the gain of the amplifier increases. Increasing the width of the driver devices



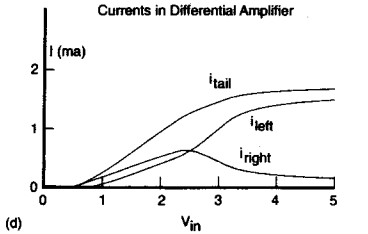
(a)



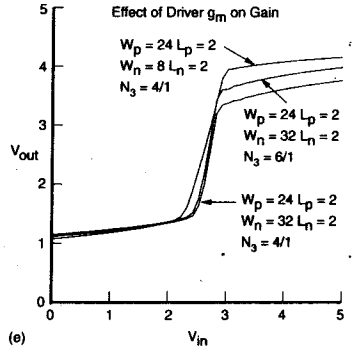
(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)

FIGURE 2.30 Active loa
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