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# A Functional MOS Transistor Featuring Gate-Level Weighted Sum and Threshold Operations

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Abstract-A new functional MOS transistor has been proposed which works more intelligently than a mere switching device. The functional transistor calculates weighted sum of all input signals at the gate level, and controls the "on" and "off" of the transistor based on the result of such a weighted sum operation. Since the function is quite analogous to that of biological neurons, the device is named a neuron MOSFET or neuMOS (vMOS) in short. The device is composed of a floating gate and multiples of input gates that are capacitively interacting with the floating gate. As the gate-level sum operation is performed in a voltage mode utilizing the capacitive coupling effect, essentially no power dissipation occurs in the calculation, making the device ideal for ULSI implementation. The basic characteristics of neuron MOSFET's as well as of simple circuit blocks are analyzed based on a simple transistor model and experiments. Making use of its very powerful function, a number of interesting circuit applications have been explored. neuMOS inverters and neuron circuits, variable-threshold transistors and inverters, linear resistors, and neuMOS sourcefollower circuits and single-gate D/A converters are described. The concept of a Soft Hardware Logic Circuit implemented by neuMOS transistors is also proposed. The circuit exhibits a very interesting feature that the logical function of the circuit is arbitrarily altered by external signals without any changes in the hardware configuration.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

OVER the past decades, we have experienced a phenomenal growth of the silicon integrated circuits technology. Due to the remarkable progress in the microfabrication techniques, the physical dimensions of transistors have been continuously scaled down. As a result, the number of transistors or functions implemented on a chip have been ever-increasing. It has been almost quadrupled every three years approximately following Moore's prediction in 1975 [1]. Although the scaling approach [2]–[5] has been so successful so far in enhancing the capabilities of silicon chips, a number of severe limitations are now being encountered in terms of material properties, performances of miniaturized devices, and de-

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sign of ULSI (Ultra Large Scale Integration) circuits and systems.

The electric field strength in Si or in SiO<sub>2</sub> in scaleddown devices, for instance, is now approaching the limit of intrinsic material properties, presenting several reliability issues such as the time-dependent breakdown of thin gate oxide films [6] and hot-electron instabilities of short-channel MOSFET's [7]. Further difficulties are encountered in the interconnect-related technologies. Since ULSI logic circuits require long and entangled interconnections among a huge number of transistors on a chip, signal propagation delays and crosstalk errors in extremely close-packed interconnect structure impose severe limitations on the circuit performance [8]. Large current densities required for driving circuits at high speeds accelerates interconnect failures due to electromigration. All these difficulties, we believe, originate from the fact that sophisticated functions of ULSI systems are realized solely depending on a very primitive function of a transistor, i.e., the current switching function, and that the enhancement in the function of a system is only pursued by simply increasing the number of transistors integrated on a chip. What we are proposing in this paper is the enhancement in the basic function of a single transistor.

A new functional MOS transistor proposed in this paper behaves much more intelligently than a mere switching transistor does. The transistor can calculate the weighted sum of all input signals at the gate level, and controls the "on" and "off" of the transistor based on the result of such a weighted sum calculation [9], [10]. Since the function is quite analogous to that of a biological neuron [11], the new transistor is called "a neuron MOSFET" or neuMOS (abbreviated as  $\nu$ MOS) in short. The neuron MOSFET is, of course, most suitable to use in constructing neural networks [12]. However, a number of interesting applications have been exploited in digital circuits (binary or multivalued) as well as in analog circuits.

Application to ULSI implementation of multiple-valued logic will be one of the most interesting and promising ones. Multiple-valued ULSI's have a potential advantage over their binary counterparts in that they can provide a means of increasing data processing capability per unit area with a reduced number of interconnections [13]-[15]. This has been demonstrated by new hardware algorithms and their implementation by NMOS [16] and CMOS [17], [18] integrated circuits. In this work [17], however, the weighted sum calculation, the most essential operation,

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was carried out by wired summation of currents each bearing multivalued information. Such current mode calculation certainly increases the power dissipation. Since the  $\nu$ MOS performs the sum operation by a voltage mode utilizing a capacitive coupling effect, essentially no current flows except for the charging and discharging currents. This very low power nature of  $\nu$ MOS is most essential for realizing high-density integration. It is demonstrated in [19] that a MOSFET having an externally adjustable threshold voltage is quite essential for implementing a highly parallel AI processor based on multivalued logic. An SOS MOS transistor applied with a variable substrate bias voltage was employed for the variablethreshold transistor in their work [19]. Such a variable threshold transistor, however, can be implemented much simpler using a  $\nu$ MOS transistor.

Some of other interesting applications of  $\nu$ MOS include: a single device D/A converter; an A/D flash converter implemented with a much lower number of transistors; a *Soft-Hardware-Logic Circuit* in which the logical functions of the circuit can be arbitrarily altered by external signals using the same hardware configuration.

The purpose of this paper is to present the basic idea and characteristics of the functional MOS transistor (neuron MOSFET) and its circuit applications based on model analysis and experiment. In Section II, the basic structure of the device is described and the device characteristics and applications to simple circuits are analyzed based on a simple MOSFET model. The fabrication of  $\nu$ MOS transistors using a double-polysilicon n-channel MOS process and the measurement results are presented in Sections III and IV, respectively. The design of a Soft Hardware Logic Circuit is briefly described in Section V in order to demonstrate the versatile features of  $\nu$ MOS in circuit applications. In Section VI, concluding remarks are presented.

## II. BASIC STRUCTURE AND OPERATION OF THE FUNCTIONAL MOS TRANSISTORS

The basic structure of the functional MOS transistor (a neuron MOSFET) is illustrated in Fig. 1(a). It is an nchannel MOS transistor having a gate electrode which is electrically floating. n input gates are capacitively coupled to the floating gate. The terminal voltages and various capacitive coupling coefficients are defined in Fig. 1(b), where  $\phi_F$  is the floating-gate potential,  $V_1, V_2, \cdots, V_n$  are the input signal voltages,  $C_1, C_2, \cdots, C_n$ the capacitive coupling coefficients between the floating gate and each of the input gates,  $C_0$  is the capacitive coupling coefficient between the floating gate and the substrate, and  $Q_0, Q_1, Q_2, \cdots, Q_n$  are the stored charges in each of the capacitors. A symbol representing the device is given in Fig. 1(c).

Let  $Q_F$  denote the net charge in the floating gate, which is calculated as

$$Q_F = Q_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-Q_i) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_i (\phi_F - V_i)$$
  
=  $\phi_F \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_i - \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_i V_i.$  (1)



Fig. 1. (a) Conceptual drawing of the basic structure of the functional MOS transistor (neuron MOSFET). The structure is fully compatible to short-channel devices since the coupling capacitor in a real device is formed on field oxide. (See Figs. 4(a) and 8.) (b) Relationship among terminal voltages and capacitance coupling coefficients. (c) The symbol representing the device.

It is assumed that no charge injection occurs during device operation. Then  $Q_F$  is equal to the initial charge in the floating gate, which is assumed to be zero at the moment for simplicity. Such assumptions do not prevent generality of the analysis in the following, as is discussed later in this section. All voltages are measured with respect to the ground, and the substrate and source are both grounded; namely,  $V_S = V_0 = 0$ . Here  $V_S$  and  $V_0$  denote the source and substrate potentials, respectively. Then (1) reduces to

$$\phi_F = \frac{C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2 + \cdots + C_n V_n}{C_{\text{TOT}}}$$

where

$$C_{\text{TOT}} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} C_i.$$

The effect of nonzero substrate potential ( $V_0 \neq 0$ ) will be discussed later in this section.

One of the most important features of this functional device is clearly expressed in (2), which states that the floating-gate potential  $\phi_F$  is determined as a linear sum of all input signals weighted by the capacitive coupling coefficients. The voltage signals are directly added at the gate level without any power dissipation. This voltage-mode summation is the most attractive feature of the capacitive coupling technique as compared to the wired sum of currents [17] in terms of reducing the power dissipation.

Such a capacitive coupling technique using a similar device structure was first implemented in a dual-controlgate EEPROM cell in which two input gates with the same

(2)

capacitive coupling coefficients are equipped to control the floating-gate potential [20], [21]. Only when both of the input gates are biased at a programming voltage, the floating-gate potential becomes high enough to cause Fowler-Nordheim tunneling via tunnel oxide for injecting electrons into the floating gate. When either one or both of the two input gates are grounded, injection does not occur, thus realizing selective writing/erasing of a cell in the matrix of cell array. In the present functional MOS-FET, however, a number of input gates are interacting with the floating gate via different capacitive coupling coefficients and the potential of the floating gate controls the formation of the channel underneath the gate oxide, i.e., the "on" and "off" of the MOS transistor.

The value of  $\phi_F$  is uniquely determined by (2) provided that all capacitive coupling coefficients are not changing during device operation. Among all  $C_i$ 's, only  $C_0$  can vary depending on the operating condition of the transistor. However, it can be reasonably well approximated by the gate oxide capacitance when the device is on and the channel is formed, the case of interest in the study of device operation. As long as the channel is formed, the value of  $C_0$  does not vary appreciably and can be regarded as a constant.

Here we would like to introduce a parameter  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  which is defined as

$$\gamma \equiv \frac{C_1 + C_2 + \dots + C_n}{C_{\text{TOT}}} = \frac{C_{\text{TOT}} - C_0}{C_{\text{TOT}}}.$$
 (3)

 $\gamma V_{DD}$  represents the maximum floating-gate voltage obtained as all input gates are at  $V_{DD}$ . Since the value is the voltage gain of the floating gate as a result of its capacitive coupling to all of the input gates,  $\gamma$  is called the floating-gate gain factor, one of the key design parameters of the device and circuits.

Let  $V_{\text{TH}}^*$  be the threshold voltage of the transistor as seen from the floating gate. Then the transistor turns on at the condition of  $\phi_F > V_{\text{TH}}^*$ , namely

$$\frac{C_1 V_1 + C_2 V_2 + \dots + C_n V_n}{C_{\text{TOT}}} > V_{\text{TH}}^*.$$
 (4)

This relationship presents the other important feature of the device, the threshold operation. When the linear weighted sum of all input signals exceeds a certain threshold value  $V_{TH}^*$ , the transistor turns on. The behavior of the transistor very well resembles that of a biological neuron if the turn-on of the transistor is correlated to the firing of a neuron [11]. In this respect, we call the new functional MOS transistor a "neuron MOSFET" or a neuMOS in short. Hereafter in this paper, the device is called neuMOS or is abbreviated as  $\nu$ MOS.

The learning function of neural networks, the most important feature of the circuit, however, originates not from the threshold operation of a neuron but from the weight  $(w_i)$  that changes with time to optimize the strength of connections for establishing desired responses of a system for problem solving. Such a variable weight connection is called a synapse. However, in the  $\nu$ MOS such weights are fixed because they are determined by the capacitive cou-

pling coefficient of the input gate to the floating gate  $(C_i/C_{\text{TOT}})$ . In order to build neural network systems using  $\nu$ MOS transistors, all input gates of a  $\nu$ MOS must have an identical capacitive coupling coefficient, and a synapse circuit must be provided to each input gate for variable weight connection. We have proposed a synapse circuit constructed using  $\nu$ MOS transistors, as well, which is free from stand-by power dissipation [12]. The synapse circuit is most appropriate to construct neural networks by combination with artificial neurons implemented by  $\nu$ MOS transistors.

In the following, the most basic applications of  $\nu MOS$ transistors to circuits are presented. Subsection A describes a variable-threshold transistor in which the threshold voltage is arbitrarily altered by an external signal. The implementation of a linear resistor with an adjustable resistance is presented in Subsection B. In Subsection C, a  $\nu$ MOS inverter, one of the most important  $\nu$ MOS circuits, is described. The circuit output changes its state from high to low when the linear weighted sum of all input signals exceeds a certain threshold value. In Subsection D, a circuit which directly outputs the results of weighted sum calculation is presented. Although these circuits are all very simple and primitive, the circuits described in Subsections A, C, and D are particularly important as key components in construction of more complicated and sophisticated vMOS logic circuits and systems.

#### A. Variable Threshold Transistor

The relation (4) is rearranged for  $V_1$  as

$$V_1 > \frac{C_{\text{TOT}}}{C_1} V_{\text{TH}}^* - \frac{C_2}{C_1} V_2 - \frac{C_3}{C_1} V_3 - \cdots - \frac{C_n}{C_1} V_n.$$
(5)

If an *n*-input-gate  $\nu$ MOS is regarded as a single-input-gate MOSFET where gate 1 is the only signal input gate and the other gates are for threshold control, then the threshold voltages of the MOSFET as seen from gate 1 is given by

$$V_{\rm TH}^{(1)} = \frac{C_{\rm TOT}}{C_1} V_{\rm TH}^* - \frac{C_2}{C_1} V_2 - \frac{C_3}{C_1} V_3 - \cdots - \frac{C_n}{C_i} V_n.$$
(6)

It is obvious that  $V_{\text{TH}}^{(1)}$  is determined as a function of control signals  $V_2, V_3, \cdots, V_n$ .

Consider the simplest case of a two-input-gate  $\nu$ MOS with  $C_1 = C_2$ , then

$$V_{\rm TH}^{(1)} = \frac{C_{\rm TOT}}{C_1} V_{\rm TH}^* - V_2.$$
 (7)

Thus the threshold voltage of the MOSFET is controlled by an analog signal  $V_2$ . The experimental verification of this relation is presented later in Fig. 10. If the values of coupling capacitances are designed as  $C_1 = (1/2) \gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$ ,  $C_a = (1/3) \gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$ , and  $C_b = (1/6) \gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$  in a three-input-gate  $\nu$ MOS ( $\gamma$ : the floating-gate gain factor defined in (3)), gate 1 threshold (the threshold voltage as seen from gate 1) is controlled by the binary digital signals  $V_a$  and  $V_b$  as in the following:

$$V_{\rm TH}^{(1)} = \frac{C_{\rm TOT}}{C_1} V_{\rm TH}^* - \frac{1}{3} (2V_a + V_b). \tag{8}$$

If  $(C_{\text{TOT}}/C_1)V_{\text{TH}}^*$  is taken equal to  $V_{DD}$ , i.e.,  $V_{\text{TH}}^* = (1/2)\gamma V_{DD}$ ,  $V_{\text{TH}}^{(1)}$  changes as  $V_{DD}$ ,  $(2/3)V_{DD}$ ,  $(1/3)V_{DD}$ , and 0 according to  $(V_a, V_b) \approx (0, 0)$ , (0, 1), (1, 0), and (1, 1), respectively. Here "1" stands for the input voltage at  $V_{DD}$ . These examples here are only the simplest cases demonstrating the principles of variable-threshold transistors implemented by  $\nu$ MOS. A variety of threshold controls is possible by changing the coupling capacitances and the number of control signal inputs.

So far the net charge in the floating gate  $Q_F$  has been assumed to be zero. All equations given in this paper are applicable to the cases of nonzero  $Q_F$  by just replacing  $V_{\rm TH}^*$  by  $V_{\rm TH}^* - Q_F/C_{\rm TOT}$ . If charge transfer is allowed to occur among the floating gate and some other gates, as in the case of EEPROM cells, this will provide another means of threshold change with its memory function, resulting in further interesting applications such as learning capabilities of synapses [12]. However, in the present paper it is assumed that  $Q_F$  does not change during device operation since it is most essential in establishing the reliable operation of vMOS circuits to be described in this paper. In this respect, the employment of the single integrated device structure, as shown later in Fig. 8, is quite essential for realizing capacitive coupling and control of the floating-gate potential. This is because the polysilicon floating gate entirely covered by thermal oxide exhibits an excellent charge retention characteristics, allowing no charge loss or gain due to leakage currents induced during the circuit operation. It is quite difficult to achieve longterm stability of the floating-gate charge using single-gate MOSFET's and externally connected capacitors.

The transconductance of a  $\nu$ MOS transistor as seen from gate 1 is given by

$$g_m^{(1)} = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_1} = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial \phi_F} \cdot \frac{\partial \phi_F}{\partial V_1} = \frac{C_1}{C_{\text{TOT}}} g_m^*$$

where  $g_m^*$  denotes the transconductance as seen from the floating gate.

#### B. Linear Resistor

One of the most primitive  $\nu$ MOS applications, a linear resistor, is described in the following. A MOS transistor is usually used as a resistor either by connecting its gate to the drain or by supplying a constant bias to the gate. However, it exhibits a strong nonlinearity in its current voltage characteristics as exemplified in Fig. 2(a). In order to circumvent the problem, a dual-input-gate  $\nu$ MOS connected as in Fig. 2(b) is proposed. As a result of the competing effects of the constant bias  $V_1$  and the increasing bias  $V_2$  following the drain voltage, it is expected that the convex upward and downward I-V curves in Fig. 2(a) would be somehow averaged to yield a linear relationship. The I-V characteristics of the  $\nu$ MOS under the linearparabolic regime are obtained by substituting ( $w_1 V_1$  +



Fig. 2. (a) Current-voltage characteristics of conventional MOSFET's used as resistors. (b) A linear resistor implemented by a two-input gate  $\nu$ MOS by connecting gate 2 to the drain.

 $w_2 V_2$ ) to the gate-source voltage in a simple transistor equation as

$$I_{D} = \mu_{n} C_{\text{OX}} \frac{W}{L} \bigg[ \bigg( w_{1} V_{1} - V_{\text{TH}}^{*} \bigg) V_{D} + \bigg( w_{2} - \frac{1}{2} \bigg) V_{D}^{2} \bigg].$$
(9)

Here  $V_D$ ,  $I_D$  are the drain voltage and current,  $\mu_n$  the surface electron mobility,  $C_{OX}$  the gate oxide capacitance per unit area, W and L the channel width and length,  $w_1 = C_1/C_{TOT}$  and  $w_2 = C_2/C_{TOT}$ . If we take  $w_2 = 1/2$ , the parabolic term in (9) disappears and a linear relationship is obtained. When the drain voltage increases and satisfies

$$V_D > \frac{w_1}{1 - w_2} V_1 - \frac{1}{1 - w_2} V_{\text{TH}}^*$$

the transistor operates in the saturation regime, and the current is given by

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{\text{OX}} \frac{W}{L} \left[ (w_1 V_1 - V_{\text{TH}}^*) + w_2 V_D \right]^2.$$

The  $V_D^2$  term again appears, but the coefficient is reduced by a factor  $w_2^2(= 1/4)$ , thus improving the linearity. Although the discussion here is only valid within the framework of the simple transistor model, it is shown by experiments (in Fig. 14) that nearly linear *I-V* characteristics are obtained by optimizing the  $w_1/w_2$  ratio.

# C. vMOS Inverter

If an inverter circuit is built using a neuron MOSFET and a resistor as shown in Fig. 3(a), the output of the circuit would be that in Fig. 3(b). The output is low when the linear weighted sum of input voltages  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i V_i$  is below the floating-gate threshold, and the output becomes high when the sum is larger than the threshold. Here  $w_i$ stands for  $C_i/C_{\text{TOT}}$ . The characteristics are exactly those



VSS VOD NPUT GATES (a) FLOATING GATE (b) V1 V2 V3 Vn P(b) V1 V2 V3 Vn  $p - \nu MOS$ (c)

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Fig. 4. Complementary  $\nu$ MOS inverter circuit: schematics of (a) possible pattern layout, (b) cross section at X-X', and (c) symbol representation.

Fig. 3. (a) An *n*-channel neuron circuit constructed with an n-channel  $\nu$ MOS, resistor, and an ordinary inverter and (b) its typical output characteristics, where  $W_i \equiv C_i/C_{\text{TOT}}$ .

expected for an artificial neuron [11]. Thus the neuron function can be implemented using such a simple circuit configuration.

Since essentially no dc current flows in the voltagemode summation, the power dissipation in a neuron circuit shown in Fig. 3(a) mostly occurs in the inverter. In order to suppress the power dissipation as well as to enhance the speed performance, a ratioless-type inverter must be constructed using  $\nu$ MOS transistors. Namely, the employment of CMOS configuration is quite essential. A possible layout and the cross section of a complementary  $\nu$ MOS inverter are depicted in Fig. 4, along with its symbol representation. The n- and p-channel devices are called n-channel  $\nu$ MOS and p-channel  $\nu$ MOS, respectively, and the n- $\nu$ MOS and p- $\nu$ MOS both share the same floating gate in the C- $\nu$ MOS inverter.

The switching threshold voltage of the inverter as seen from the floating gate,  $V_{INV}^*$ , is defined as a voltage at which the inverter output becomes  $V_{DD}/2$ . It is given by

$$V_{\rm INV}^* = \frac{V_{DD} + \sqrt{\beta_R} V_{T_n}^* + V_{T_p}^*}{\sqrt{\beta_R} + 1}$$
(10)

where  $V_{T_n}^*$  and  $V_{T_p}^*$  are the n- and p-channel  $\nu$ MOS threshold voltages as seen from the floating gate, respectively.  $\beta_R$  is the beta ratio

$$\beta_R \equiv \frac{\beta_n}{\beta_P} = \frac{(W/L)_n \mu_n}{(W/L)_p \mu_p} \tag{11}$$

where subscripts *n* and *p* refer to n- and p-channel, respectively,  $\mu_n$  and  $\mu_p$  are the surface mobilities of electrons and holes, respectively. If  $\beta_R = 1$ , (10) reduces to

$$V_{\rm INV}^* = \frac{1}{2} V_{DD} + \frac{V_{T_n}^* + V_{T_p}^*}{2}.$$
 (12)

Here a comment is made on the effect of the substrate potential which has been so far assumed to be zero. The assumption is not valid for the p- $\nu$ MOS transistor in the inverter configuration because the n-well is biased to  $V_{DD}$ . Therefore, corrections need to be made in (2) as follows:

$$\phi_F = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} C_i V_i + C_{0p} V_{DD}}{C_{\text{TOT}}}$$

where  $C_{0p}$  is the substrate capacitance of a p- $\nu$ MOS which can be approximated by the gate oxide capacitance, provided that the p- $\nu$ MOS is on. Then the basic relation (4) must be revised as

$$\frac{C_{1}V_{1} + C_{2}V_{2} + \dots + C_{n}V_{n}}{C_{\text{TOT}}} > V_{\text{INV}}^{*} - \frac{C_{0p}}{C_{\text{TOT}}}V_{DD}.$$
(4')

Equation (6) that has been derived for the threshold voltage of a variable-threshold transistor can be made applicable to the switching threshold of a C- $\nu$ MOS inverter by just replacing  $V_{TH}^*$  by  $V_{INV}^* - (C_{0p}/C_{TOT})V_{DD}$ . The C- $\nu$ MOS inverter threshold as seen from gate 1 is given by

$$V_{\rm INV}^{(1)} = \frac{C_{\rm TOT}}{C_1} \left( V_{\rm INV}^* - \frac{C_{0p}}{C_{\rm TOT}} V_{DD} \right) \\ - \frac{C_2}{C_1} V_2 - \frac{C_3}{C_1} V_3 - \cdots - \frac{C_n}{C_1} V_n.$$

For a two-input gate  $C-\nu MOS$  inverter having identical capacitive coupling coefficients, the switching threshold as seen from gate 1 is given by

$$V_{\rm INV}^{(1)} = \frac{C_{\rm TOT}}{C_1} \left( V_{\rm INV}^* - \frac{C_{0p}}{C_{\rm TOT}} V_{DD} \right) - V_2 \qquad (7')$$

and it reduces to  $V_{INV}^{(1)} = V_{DD} - V_2$  if the value of  $V_{INV}^*$  is taken as

$$V_{\rm INV}^* - \frac{C_{0p}}{C_{\rm TOT}} V_{DD} = \frac{1}{2} \gamma V_{DD}.$$
 (13)

The threshold as seen from gate 1 for the three-input-gate  $C-\nu MOS$  inverter shown in Fig. 5 is given by

$$V_{\rm INV}^{(1)} = V_{DD} - \frac{1}{3} \left( 2V_a + V_b \right) \tag{14}$$

provided  $V_{\rm INV}^*$  is given by (13). Therefore,  $V_{\rm INV}^{(1)}$  changes as a function of the binary digital control signals  $V_a$  and  $V_b$  in exactly the same manner as  $V_{\rm TH}^{(1)}$  in (8). Such a variable-threshold inverter is one of the most important key components in construction of the so-called *Soft Hardware Logic Circuit* to be discussed later in Section V.

From (12) and (13), we obtain

V

$${}^{*}_{T_{n}} + V^{*}_{T_{p}} = (\gamma - 1 + 2C_{0p}/C_{\text{TOT}})V_{DD}$$
$$= \frac{C_{0p} - C_{0n}}{C_{\text{TOT}}}V_{DD}$$
(15)

where  $C_{0p}$  and  $C_{0n}$  denote the gate oxide capacitances of p- $\nu$ MOS and n- $\nu$ MOS transistors, respectively. Equation (13) yields the standard setting of  $V_{INV}^*$  for C- $\nu$ MOS inverters and (15) specifies the condition to determine the floating-gate threshold voltages for n- and p- $\nu$ MOS transistors provided  $\beta_R = 1$ .

### D. vMOS Source-Follower Circuit

We have shown that the input signals to a  $\nu$ MOS transistor are summed over with multiplication factors specified by each capacitive coupling coefficient of the respective gate. Therefore, if the floating-gate potential is directly read out as an output voltage, a variety of analog calculations can be performed very simply. This is possible by employing the well-known source-follower circuitry.

Consider a source-follower circuit composed of an *n*-input-gate n-channel  $\nu$ MOS transistor and a load resistor shown in Fig. 6. If the resistance *R* is much larger than the on-resistance of the  $\nu$ MOS transistor, the  $V_{OUT}$  is given by

$$V_{\rm OUT} = \phi_F - V_{\rm TH}^*.$$

If the threshold is selected as  $V_{TH}^* = 0$ , then  $V_{OUT} = \phi_F$ . One of the most useful applications of this circuit configuration is a single-device D/A converter, in which the coupling capacitances are designed as  $C_i \propto 2^{i-1}$   $(i = 1, 2, 3, \cdots, n)$ . Then the output voltage is expressed as

$$V_{\rm OUT} = \frac{\gamma V_{DD}}{2^n - 1} \left( X_1 + 2X_2 + \cdots + 2^{n-1} X_n \right) \quad (16)$$



Fig. 5. Variable-threshold C- $\nu$ MOS inverter where  $V_1$  is the input terminal, and  $V_a$  and  $V_b$  are the control signal inputs. The inverter switching threshold voltage changes as  $V_{DD}$ ,  $(2/3) V_{DD}$ ,  $(1/3) V_{DD}$ , and 0 according to  $(V_a, V_b) = (0, 0)$ , (0, 1), (1, 0), and (1, 1), respectively.



Fig. 6. A source-follower circuit composed of an n-channel  $\nu$ MOS and a load resistor R.

where  $\gamma$  is the floating-gate gain factor and  $X_1, X_2, \cdots$ ,  $X_n$  are binary digital signals, i.e.,  $V_i = X_i V_{DD}$  and  $X_i = 0$ or 1. The output voltage is proportional to an analog value represented by *n*-bit binary signal inputs. Thus a D/A converter circuit can be very simply constructed. The results of experiments are given later in Fig. 15.

The speed performance of the circuit is limited by the time required for discharging the output node capacitance through the load resistor R. Therefore, the resistance must be reduced to enhance the response. However, it in turn reduces the voltage gain of the circuit, resulting in degraded noise margins. Moreover, the circuit dissipates a stand-by power of  $V_{OUT}^2/R$  which is further increased by the reduction in R.

The complementary n- and p- $\nu$ MOSFET configuration circuit for reading out  $\phi_F$  is demonstrated in Fig. 7. The circuit is basically a source-follower circuit of an n-channel  $\nu$ MOS transistor where a p-channel  $\nu$ MOS is utilized as an active load. The circuit looks like a C- $\nu$ MOS inverter, but the positions of n- and p-channel devices are interchanged. Such an upside-down complementary  $\nu$ MOS circuit exhibits very interesting features and is called a reciprocal C- $\nu$ MOS transfer amplifier or simply C- $\nu$ MOS source-follower. In the charging cycle of the output node, the p- $\nu$ MOS turns off and serves as an infinitely large load resistor, thus yielding a voltage gain of unity. While in the discharging cycle, the p- $\nu$ MOS turns on and accelerates discharging. In addition, both n- and



Fig. 7. A complementary  $\nu$ MOS source-follower circuit in which a pchannel  $\nu$ MOS acts as an active load and both n- and p- $\nu$ MOSFET's share the same floating gate. The circuit is called a reciprocal C- $\nu$ MOS transfer amplifier.

p- $\nu$ MOSFET's can be made to operate under a nearly cutoff condition when the circuit is holding a constant voltage level. Thus the power dissipation can be minimized. Therefore, we can expect that high-speed performance is achieved without degrading the voltage gain at relatively low power dissipation.

However, the following issues must be taken into account in the design of power dissipation. The charging of a capacitance load through an enhancement-mode NMOS is a relatively slow process as usually encountered in the turn-off of E/E inverters. In order to enhance the speed performance, as well as to increase the stability and noise margins of  $\nu$ MOS circuit operation,  $\nu$ MOS source-followers must conduct stand-by current to maintain the multivalued output level. Consequently, the magnitude of the current, and hence the power dissipation, need to be determined as a tradeoff among these issues.

The detailed analysis of C- $\nu$ MOS source-follower circuit operation as well as the derivation of the quantitative relationship between  $V_{OUT}$  and  $\phi_F$  will be described in a separate publication.

#### **III. EXPERIMENTATION**

In order to perform feasibility studies on  $\nu$ MOS transistors and circuits the following experiments were conducted.

vMOS transistors with varying configurations were fabricated by Tohoku University standard double-polysilicon n-channel MOS process. Typical process parameters were: the gate oxide thickness underneath the floating gate varied as 200-500 Å; the interpoly oxide thickness ranging from 500 to 1000 Å; the arsenic-implanted source and drain junction depths of 0.25  $\mu$ m. Tapered sidewall spacers were formed by depositing CVD SiO<sub>2</sub> followed by RIE at the periphery of the floating gates in order to define accurate control-gate to floating-gate overlap areas as well as to facilitate the directional etching of the second poly. Photomicrographs of fabricated test neuron MOS-FET's are shown in Fig. 8 as examples. Detailed description of fabrication process issues will be presented elsewhere. In these test vMOS transistors, the  $C_0/C_{TOT}$  ratio



Fig. 8. Photomicrographs of 6-input (left) and 16-input (right) neuron MOSFET's fabricated by Tohoku University Standard Double-Polysilicon NMOS Process.



Fig. 9. An *n*-channel neuron circuit composed of discrete components which has been utilized in the experiment.  $\phi_F$  is the floating-gate potential and  $V_C$  the input to the CMOS inverter.

was designed typically in the range of 0.2–0.1 or  $\gamma = 0.8-0.9$ .

The basic structures of vMOS transistors were also constructed using discrete components. Single polysilicongate NMOS transistors were directly probed on a wafer and several coupling capacitors were externally connected to the gate electrode. The circuit configuration used in the experiment is depicted in Fig. 9. A 40-k $\Omega$  resistor was used as a load to form the E/R configuration vMOS inverter in the first stage. The CMOS inverter in the second stage was composed of discrete NMOS and PMOS transistors. This two-stage inverter circuit corresponds to the n-channel neuron circuit shown in Fig. 3(a). External capacitors of a few thousands picofarads were used as coupling capacitances, and their values were measured at 100 kHz using an LCR meter (HP 4284). Since the gate oxide capacitance of the NMOS used for this measurement was 0.52 pF ((L/W) = 15  $\mu$ m/50  $\mu$ m,  $T_{OX}$  = 500 Å),  $\gamma$  = I approximately holds.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fig. 10 shows the measured current-voltage characteristics of a two-input-gate  $\nu$ MOS transistor fabricated by the double-polysilicon process. One of the input gates was used as a gate terminal and the other was used as a threshold-control terminal to which control voltages from +5 to -5 V were applied. The apparent threshold voltage as seen from the input gate is arbitrarily changed by a control signal. For this device,  $C_1 = C_2 = 0.518$  pF and  $C_0 =$ 0.086 pF (therefore,  $\gamma = 0.92$ ) as calculated from the designed pattern dimensions and oxide thicknesses.  $V_{TH}^*$ was measured to be 0.60 V. The calculated values of  $V_{TH}^{(1)}$  using (7) and these parameters almost exactly coincide with the experimental results.



Fig. 10. Measured drain current-gate voltage characteristics of a variablethreshold transistor. One of the input gates of a 2-input  $\nu$ MOS was used as a gate terminal and the other was used as a threshold control terminal to which control voltages from +5 to -5 V were applied (from left to right).

The results of measurement on the circuit shown in Fig. 9 are given in Fig. 11. Fig. 11(a) represents the transfer characteristics of the CMOS inverter in the second stage of the circuit and Fig. 11(b) the transfer characteristics of the E/R  $\nu$ MOS inverter in the first stage. The overall characteristics of the entire circuit, i.e., the *n*-channel neuron circuit is also given in Fig. 11(c). The switching threshold voltage of the CMOS inverter is 1.88 V. The input voltage to the E/R inverter that yields the inverter output ( $V_C$ ) of 1.88 V is 2.24 V. In the circuit composed of these two inverters, the output  $V_{OUT}$  changes its logical state from 0 to 1 or vice versa at an input voltage of 2.24 V, which is the threshold voltage of the  $\nu$ MOS inverter as seen from the floating gate. Namely,  $V_{INV}^* = 2.24$  V.

In order to demonstrate an example of neuron operations of the circuit, an eight-input-gate neuron MOSFET was constructed by connecting eight capacitors with identical capacitance values (1300-1400 pF). The results are shown in Fig. 12(a). In this experiment, an input voltage changing from 0 to 5 V was applied simultaneously to some of the eight input gates, while the rest of the gates were grounded. In the figure, the abscissa represents the common input voltage  $V_{IN}$  and N is the number of gates to which the common input voltage was applied. For values of N smaller than 3, the output is always low. The circuit outputs a high level when N is larger than 4, and the switching threshold for the low-to-high transition decreases with an increase in N. The behavior is easily understood in terms of (4), which reduces in this case to

$$(1/8)N \times V_{\rm IN} > V_{\rm INV}^* = 2.24.$$
 (17)

This allows the circuit to output a high level. For  $N \leq 3$ , it is required that  $V_{\rm IN} > 5$ . Therefore, only low levels are obtained. For  $N \geq 4$ , the minimum value of  $V_{\rm IN}$  that satisfies (17), i.e., the switching threshold, is calculated as 4.48, 3.58, 2.99, 2.56, or 2.24 V for N = 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8, respectively. These values are in excellent agreement with the experimental results: 4.37, 3.50, 2.99, 2.55, and 2.20 V (for N = 4-8) determined as a value giving a half  $V_{DD}$  output.

The variation of the  $\nu$ MOS inverter (the E/R inverter) output is shown in Fig. 12(b). The common input voltage that gives the output of 1.88 V (the threshold voltage of the CMOS inverter) is also in excellent agreement with the above values. It is seen from the curves in Fig. 12(b),



Fig. 11. Measured transfer characteristics of the circuits represented in Fig. 9. (a) Transfer characteristics of the CMOS inverter in the second stage. (b) Transfer characteristics of E/R  $\nu$ MOS inverter in the first stage. (c) Overall characteristics of the entire circuit, i.e., the *n*-channel neuron circuit.

that as the total capacitive coupling coefficient of the common input gate decreases (i.e., the value of N decreases), the slope of the E/R inverter output versus  $V_{\rm IN}$  becomes very gradual. However, a very steep output characteristics is obtained at the output of the CMOS inverter. This is due to the very large voltage gain of the CMOS inverter. This fact suggests that similar very steep characteristics will be obtained if complementary vMOS inverter configuration, as shown in Fig. 4, is employed instead of the E/R  $\nu$ MOS inverter. Nevertheless, the gain of each input, as given by  $g_m^{(1)}$  in Section II-A, will be reduced and noise margin or resistance to upsets will be lower than in binary logic. The employment of  $E/R \nu MOS$  inverter in this example is only for demonstration purposes, and CMOS configuration should be usually employed in the real circuit design. The data in Fig. 12 clearly demonstrate the neuron circuit in Fig. 9 functions exactly as the artificial neuron model works in that it outputs 1 when the weighted sum of inputs exceeds a certain threshold value and outputs zero otherwise.

An example of a variable-threshold inverter controlled by binary digital signals 0 or  $V_{DD}$  in which the coupling



Fig. 12. (a) Output characteristics of the neuron circuit (shown in Fig. 9) having eight input gates of identical coupling capacitances. N indicates the number of gates to which the common input voltage is applied with remaining gates being grounded. (b) E/R inverter output as a function of common input voltage.



Fig. 13. A neuron circuit with two-input gate E/R  $\nu$ MOS inverter at the input stage. The input gate capacitance  $C_1 = 10.8$  nF and the control gate capacitance  $C_2$  is varied as a multiple of  $C_m$  (= 2500 ± 200 pF) as indicated in the figure.

capacitances are varied is shown in Fig. 13. Here the data are shown as the output characteristics of the neuron circuit shown in Fig. 9. It is clearly indicated that the threshold voltage for the neuron to be fired is controlled by changing the coupling strength (the capacitance value), again demonstrating the characteristics of the neuron function.

The application of a  $\nu$ MOS transistor as a linear resistor is demonstrated in Fig. 14. Here the drain characteristics of a  $\nu$ MOS connected as shown in Fig. 2(b) is shown as a function of the ratio of  $C_2/C_1$ . It is very interesting to see that as the ratio is reduced, the characteristics show a gradual transition from the well-known gate-drain-connected E-mode transistor characteristics in Fig. 14(a) to



Fig. 14. Two-input gate  $\nu$ MOS transistor connected to form a linear variable resistor as shown in Fig. 2(b). The drain current-voltage characteristics are shown for various  $C_2/C_1$  ratios. The ordinate and abscissa scales represent  $I_D$  (mA) and  $V_D$ , respectively.

the typical MOS characteristics in Fig. 14(e) via intermediate characteristics in Fig. 14(b), (c), and (d). Fairly reasonable linear resistor characteristics are observed at intermediate stages where the resistance value is controlled by the input voltage  $V_1$ . The theory based on the simple transistor model predicts perfect linearity will be obtained for  $C_1/C_2 = 1$  in the liner-parabolic region. However, this is not exactly the case in the experimental data shown here. This is due to the lack of accuracy in the simple transistor model we used for the analysis.

Finally, the output characteristics of a  $\nu$ MOS sourcefollower circuit implemented by a four-input-gate n- $\nu$ MOS and a load resistor of 40 k $\Omega$  is shown in Fig. 15. The output voltage increases in proportion to the analog value represented by the 4-b binary input. The offset seen on the abscissa is due to the threshold voltage of the NMOS (0.94 V). For input signals greater than 4(= 0100), the floating gate voltage exceeds the threshold, yielding non-



Fig. 15. The output characteristics of an n-channel  $\nu$ MOS transistor source-follower circuit with four input gates, where  $C_1 = 183$  pF,  $C_2 = 359$  pF,  $C_3 = 713$  pF, and  $C_4 = 1405$  pF.

zero output. This offset can be easily avoided either by adjusting the threshold of the device or giving a positive bias to the floating gate by attaching an extra control gate with a constant positive input voltage. The latter method, however, reduces the gain of the circuit by the increase in  $C_{\text{TOT}}$ , i.e., the reduction in  $\gamma$  (see (16)). In order to obtain the desired output characteristics, the employment of C- $\nu$ MOS source-follower configuration is preferred.

## V. Application to Soft Hardware Logic Circuit Implementation

In order to demonstrate the versatile feature of a  $\nu$ MOS transistor in circuit applications, the implementation of a *Soft Hardware Logic Circuit* is briefly discussed. This is a circuit whose logical function can be altered arbitrarily by external signals without any modifications in its hardware configuration.

An example is shown in Fig. 16 in which the circuit diagram of a Soft Hardware Logic Circuit for two binary digital inputs is given. The circuit is composed of a 2-b D/A converter at the input stage and a 4-input-gate neuron circuit at the output stage. Three inverters A, B, and C in the intermediate stage are variable-threshold C- $\nu$ MOS inverters whose inversion thresholds are given by  $V_{DD} - V_A$ , etc., i.e., their values are controlled by external signals  $V_A$ ,  $V_B$ , and  $V_C$ , respectively. The 4-input C- $\nu$ MOS inverter is designed as:  $C_1 = (1/2)\gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$ ;  $C_2 = (1/4)\gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$ ;  $C_3 = C_4 = (1/8)\gamma C_{\text{TOT}}$ ;  $V_{T_n}^* + V_{T_p}^* = 0$ ;  $\beta_R = 1$  (then,  $V_I^* = \gamma V_{DD}/2$ ).

Two binary digital variables,  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ , are converted to a four-level variable by the D/A converter according to the relation

$$V_1 = V_{DD}(\frac{1}{4}X_1 + \frac{1}{2}X_2) + \frac{1}{8}V_{DD}$$



Fig. 16. An example of a *Soft Hardware Logic Circuit* implemented by  $\nu$ MOS transistors. The circuit can represent 16 different logic functions by just changing the control signals  $V_A$ ,  $V_B$ , and  $V_C$ .

The four-level signal  $(V_1)$  is directly led to the input gate of the four-input vMOS inverter having the largest coupling capacitance and determines the "on" and "off" of the inverter. The threshold of this inverter is controlled by the output voltages of the intermediate inverters. The outputs of these inverters,  $V_2$ ,  $V_3$ , and  $V_4$ , take values of either 0 or  $V_{DD}$  depending on the four-level signal ( $V_1$ ) and the control signals  $V_A$ ,  $V_B$ , and  $V_C$ , respectively. The output of the entire circuit  $V_{OUT}$  alternates between 0 or 1  $(V_{DD})$  according to  $V_1$ . The most important characteristics of this circuit is that the values of  $V_1$  at which 1 appears at  $V_{\text{OUT}}$  is arbitrarily selected by the combination of  $V_A$ ,  $V_B$ , and  $V_C$ . When the 2-b binary-input variable is correlated to the four-level signal, any Boolean function can be generated. This is what is meant by Soft Hardware Logic. The circuit in Fig. 16 can represent any sixteen logic functions for 2-b binary inputs by just changing the control signals. The circuit becomes, for instance, exclusive-or, exclusive-nor, or, and AND circuits for  $(V_A, V_B,$  $V_C$  = (1/4, 1/4, 1), (3/4, 3/4, 0), (0, 0, 1), and (1, 1, 0), respectively. Here 1, 1/4, etc., represent  $V_{DD}$  and  $V_{DD}/4$ , respectively. More detailed description of the circuit operation and the generalized design methodology for Soft Hardware Logic Circuits for a larger number of inputs will be presented in a forthcoming paper [22].

It should be noted here that the Soft Hardware Logic Circuit shown in Fig. 16, if the input-stage D/A converter is removed, is the implementation of a universal literal function for a multiple-valued radix-4 system in the terminology of multiple-valued logic [14]. Its functional form can be arbitrarily altered by external signals. This is one of the numerous examples of  $\nu$ MOS applications to multivalued logic implementation.

#### **VI.** CONCLUSIONS

A new type of MOS device called a neuron MOSFET has been described which functions more intelligently than the conventional MOS and bipolar transistors that are working as only switching devices in digital integrated circuits. The device has a very simple structure consisting of a floating gate and a number of signal input gates. One of the most essential aspects of the function of the device is the weighted sum calculations of all input signals performed at the floating-gate level. Since this calculation is carried out in a voltage mode utilizing the capacitive coupling effect, no current flows except for the charging and discharging currents of coupling capacitors, thus showing superiority over the current-mode summation technique. Its low power nature is one of the most attractive features of the device for ULSI implementation. Another essential aspect of the device function is the threshold operation of the device, i.e., the control of the "on" and "off" of the transistor based on the result of the weighted sum calculation. Thus the essential part of the artificial neuron function has been realized for the first time in a single transistor level. Basic applications of the  $\nu$ MOS transistor such as neuron circuits, variable threshold transistors and inverters, linear resistors, source-follower circuits, and single-gate D/A converters are presented and analyzed in detail to furnish sufficient bases for circuit design. The validity of the analyses has been verified by experiments using n-channel vMOS transistors fabricated by a doublepolysilicon NMOS process or those composed of discrete MOS transistors and externally connected coupling capacitors. Also, the concept of a Soft Hardware Logic Circuit has been introduced as one of the most exciting applications of the  $\nu$ MOS transistor. We believe the concept is very important in construction of new logic circuit architectures for future ULSI's including multiple-valued logic architecture.

Finally, it is pointed out that no special technologies are requested in the fabrication of vMOS integrated circuits. Standard CMOS processes with double-polysilicon gate technology are sufficient. For ultra large scale integration of  $\nu$ MOS circuits, however, the accuracy of the voltage level at the floating gate is most essential in the operation of vMOS transistors and circuits, which is primarily determined by the lithographic accuracy of capacitor pattern delineation. Great progress in the microfabrication technologies will be utilized in enhancing the pattern dimensional accuracy. We would like to propose an alternative direction of future technological development of ULSI's where very high patterning accuracy is achieved while keeping the minimum device dimensions at a moderate level. This would lessen a number of difficulties arising from the smallness of device structures. The penalty of decreased packing density will be well compensated for because the vMOS transistor introduced here carries out much more jobs than the conventional switching transistors do. The noise-free manufacturing [23] we are developing based on Ultra Clean Technologies [24], [25] will further enhance the performance and capability of ULSI vMOS circuits and systems.

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