# Four-Quadrant One-Transistor-Synapse for High-Density CNN 

 ImplementationsR. Domínguez-Castro, A. Rodríguez-Vázquez, S. Espejo, R. Carmona<br>Inst. de Microelectrónica de Sevilla - Centro Nac. de Microelectrónica - C.S.I.C. - Universidad de Sevilla, Edf. CICA, C/Tarfia $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{n}, 41012$-Sevilla, SPAIN.<br>Phone: +3454239923; FAX: +3454231832; email: rafael@imse.cnm.es


#### Abstract

This paper presents a linear, four-quadrants, electrically-programmable, one-transistor synapse strategy applicable to the implementation of general massively-parallel analog processors in CMOS technology. It is specially suited for translationally-invariant processing arrays with local connectivity, and results in a significant reduction in area occupation and power dissipation of the basic processing units. This allows higher integration densities and therefore, permits the integration of larger arrays on a single chip.


## 1. Introduction

The most important trend in the electronic implementation of CNNs is the maximization of the number of elementary processing units that can be placed in a single chip. This must be combined with the achievement of an acceptable accuracy for the system parameters. The first trend imposes a strong commitment in the design of the cell circuitry: area-efficiency. A second but also important objective is power-economy. Unfortunately, in analog processing circuits, area and power consumption of individual devices are directly related to accuracy [1]. Therefore, the selection of a circuit strategy as simple as possible for the prescribed processing function is crucial.

This paper proposes a one-transistor, four-quadrants, electrically-programmable, linear synapse for the implementation of massively-parallel analog-array processors in CMOS technologies. The proposal is easily extensible to general artificial neural networks.

## 2. Analog-Array-Processors Elementary Units

Each processing unit (or cell) in a massively-parallel analog-array processor can be characterized by an interconnection pattern and by an specific processing function. These characteristics are often considered invariant from cell to cell, resulting in an additional simplification of the electronic implementation. This property, commonly referred to as spatial invariance or uniformity, will be assumed without loss of generality.

A common characteristic of massively-parallel analog processing algorithms is the local computation (within each cell $c$ ) of a weighted aggregation of contributions from the cells in its neighborhood,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{c}=\sum_{i=1}^{N} A_{i} x_{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The aggregated signal $y_{c}$ is then used as input to a processing-block which realizes some specific function, and generates an output $x_{c}$ representative of the cell state. In turn, this output constitutes the (unscaled) contribution of the cell to its neighbors. This general cell architecture is illustrated in Figure 1. The output $x_{i}$ of each neighbor is weighted by a coefficient $A_{i}$, which is independent of the particular receptor cell $c$ under the assumed spatial uniformity. Except for specific purpose systems it is generally required that the scaling coefficients (or weights) $A_{i}$ be electrically programmable, for versatility reasons.


Figure 1. General architecture of an analog-processing-array elementary processing unit (cell).
At a system level, the required number of signal-scaling circuit-blocks (or synapses) can be computed as $N$ times the number of cells. The associated area and power consumption, as well as the obvious effects of the synapse accuracy on the overall performance of the system, renders the selection of the synapse circuitry a crucial issue in the design of integrated analog array processors.

## 3. Electrically-Programmable Synapses

Electrically programmable synapses must be driven by the input signal $x_{i}$, and by a weight signal $w_{i}$ used to program the scaling coefficient $A_{i}$. Under the assumed spatial uniformity, only $N$ different weight values will coexist throughout the array. Therefore, a reduced number ( $N$ ) of global nodes (common to all cells in the network) satisfy the programming-related routing requirements of the array, if the programming signals $w_{i}$ are codified as voltages. Since every cell output $x_{c}$ is transmitted to $N$ synapses located within its $N$ neighboring cells, it is also appropriate that synapse input signals $x_{i}$ be codified as voltages. Finally, because scaled signals must be added at the input of each cell's processing block, it is convenient that synapse output
signals $A_{i} x_{i}$ be given in current form, eliminating the need of a dedicated summing circuit.
Although the required functionality of a programmable analog synapse may suggest the use of linear analog multipliers, there are some specific circumstances common to almost every analog-array processing algorithm which expand the set of selectable circuit blocks.

First note that while the synapses output current is expected to be linear with the input signal $x_{i}$, it is not required to be linear with the weight signal $w_{i}$, whose function is simply to allow weight variations in some prescribed range. Therefore, function $A_{i}\left(w_{i}\right)$ may be nonlinear in general.

Second, in almost every analog-array processing algorithm, the weight values are invariant during processing. Therefore, the dynamic response with respect to the weight signal is of little concern and, more important, after setting the weight values, any error or deviation from the ideal behavior independent of the input signal $x_{i}$ (but in general dependent on $w_{i}$ ) may be cancelled using autozeroing, before performing the processing function.

This is a good practice in general because the offset of the aggregated signal is given by the addition of the output-current offset of the $N$ synapses driving each cell. Indeed, this is often the dominant error source of this class of systems.

In the last years, synapse circuits based on MOS transistors operating in their ohmic region have been employed by several authors [2], [3]. The choice is based on a combined estimation of several performance figures (including area occupation, accuracy, linearity, programming weight range, signal-range, and power efficiency) which predicts important advantages as compared to other classes of synapse circuits based on the quadratic law of MOS transistors in saturation, or the exponential law of bipolar transistors and MOS transistors in weak inversion.

Regardless the family, practically all synapse circuits employ differential or fully differential architectures to achieve fourquadrants behavior and also for linearity reasons. Typical examples include those synapses based on differential pairs, like the Gilbert multiplier [4], and also the synapses employed in [2] and [3]. In addition to the larger complexity of the synapse, this usually forces the use of differential or fully differential architectures in the processing block as well, thus resulting in a substantial increase in area occupation.

In the following section we propose a one-transistor, four-quadrants, electrically-programmable synapse circuit with sin-gle-ended architecture.

## 4. A One-Transistor Synapse Circuit

The DC current of an MOS transistor operating in its strong-inversion ohmic region can be described by the following well-known first-order approximation

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{D S}=\beta\left(v_{G S}-v_{T}\left(v_{S B}\right)-\frac{v_{D S}}{2}\right) v_{D S} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{gather*}
\beta=\mu C_{o x} \frac{W}{L}  \tag{3}\\
V_{\gamma}\left(V_{S B}\right)=V_{T 0}+\gamma\left(\sqrt{V_{S B}-\phi_{B}}-\sqrt{\phi_{B}}\right) \tag{4}
\end{gather*}
$$

and every symbols has its well established meaning in MOS literature.
Eq. (2) predicts an incrementally linear relation between $I_{D S}$ and $V_{G S}$, and an approximately linear dependence with $V_{D S}$ for $V_{D S} * 2\left[V_{G S}-V_{T}\left(V_{S B}\right)\right]$. These considerations have been widely exploited for many applications, including MOS implementations of active RC filters [5], analog multipliers for RF communication circuits [6] and also synapse circuits for massivelyparallel analog processing systems [2], [3] using differential architectures.

The use of a single transistor to implement an electrically programmable synapse with signals represented by single-ended voltages requires that one of the diffusion terminals be set to a fixed voltage level. The gate and the other diffusion terminals can then be employed as input points, while the output is obtained from the current flowing out of the fixed-voltage diffusion terminal. This is conceptually illustrated in Figure $2 a$ in which a nullator and a DC voltage source represent the ideally nullimpedance input terminal of the processing block in Figure 1. Such a virtual-reference level is required because the output impedance of the synapse is low due to its operation in the ohmic region. The input impedance at the diffusion input is also low, while that at the gate input is high. Two alternatives can then be considered: using the gate terminal for $x_{i}$ and the diffusion terminal for $w_{i}$, or the other way around. This has implications on the output-impedance requirements for either the cell processing-block or the voltage sources driving the analog-weight control bus, but the major decision factor is related to linearity.

Equation (2) is valid only for $v_{D S} \geq 0$ and therefore, the use of the notation introduced in Figure 2 a requires an independent consideration of the two possible cases $V_{A} \geq V_{L}$ and $V_{A} \leq V_{L}$. Still, simple analysis results in the following combined expression for $I_{N}$, valid in either of the two cases,

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{N}=\beta\left(V_{A}-V_{L}\right) V_{G}-\beta\left(\hat{V}_{T^{+}}+\frac{V_{A}+V_{L}}{2}\right)\left(V_{A}-V_{L}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\hat{V}_{T}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V_{T 0}+\gamma\left(\sqrt{V_{L}-\phi_{B}}-\sqrt{\phi_{B}}\right) ; V_{A} \geq V_{L}  \tag{6}\\
V_{T 0}+\gamma\left(\sqrt{V_{A}-\phi_{B}}-\sqrt{\phi_{B}}\right) ; V_{A} \leq V_{L}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that the second summand in (5) is independent of $V_{G}$ and that the first summand is linear with $V_{G}$. Since we need a
linear behavior with respect to one of the inputs $\left(x_{i}\right)$ and we can eliminate any systematic offset in a previous step, it seems straight forward that we can chose $x_{i} \equiv V_{G}$ and $w_{i} \equiv V_{A}$, as shown in Figure 2a.

(a)

(b) Analog weight-control bus

Figure 2. a) One transistor synapse concept, b) Cell (top) and peripheral (bottom) circuitry for independent-terms substraction.
There is still another issue related to the obtention of a four-quadrants behavior. While the two possibilities $V_{A} \geq V_{L}$ and $V_{A} \leqslant V_{L}$ provide double sign capability for the weight, $V_{G}$ must always be positive. Therefore we must select a sufficiently high reference level on the gate voltage to act as the zero level for $x_{i}$. Let us define:

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{X}=V_{x}+V_{x 0} \Rightarrow V_{x}=V_{X}-V_{x 0} \equiv x_{i} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and in the same manner, referring the weight voltage to $v_{L}$, this is, selecting $v_{w 0}=v_{L}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{W}=V_{w}+V_{L} \Rightarrow V_{w}=V_{W}-V_{L} \equiv w_{i} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using this new notation, equations (5) and (6) can be rewritten respectively as:

$$
\begin{gather*}
I_{N}=\beta V_{w} V_{x}+\beta V_{w}\left(V_{x 0}-\hat{V}_{T^{-}} V_{L}-\frac{V_{w}}{2}\right)  \tag{9}\\
\hat{V}_{T}=\left\{\begin{array}{r}
V_{T 0}+\gamma\left(\sqrt{V_{L}-\phi_{B}}-\sqrt{\phi_{B}}\right) \\
; V_{w} \geq 0 \\
V_{T 0}+\gamma\left(\sqrt{V_{w}+V_{L}-\phi_{B}}-\sqrt{\phi_{B}}\right) ; V_{w} \leq 0
\end{array}\right. \tag{10}
\end{gather*}
$$

where both $v_{x}$ and $v_{w}$ can be either positive or negative and still, the first summand in (9) is linear with $v_{x}$ and the second one is independent of $v_{x}$. We define the weight and the output offset of the synapse, respectively, as

$$
\begin{gather*}
G\left(V_{w}\right)=\beta V_{w}  \tag{11}\\
I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right)=G\left(V_{w}\left(V_{x 0}-\hat{V}_{T}-V_{L}-\frac{V_{w}}{2}\right)\right. \tag{12}
\end{gather*}
$$

This allows (9) to be written in the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{N}\left(V_{w}, V_{x}\right)=G\left(V_{w}\right) V_{x}+I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us now assume that we can eliminate the term $I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right)$, Then, we can define

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{N}=I_{n}+I_{0} \Rightarrow I_{n}=I_{N}-I_{0} \equiv A_{i} x_{i} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

and rewrite (13) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{n}\left(V_{w}, V_{x}\right)=G\left(V_{w}\right) V_{x} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the equation of a four-quadrants, electrically-programmable, linear analog synapse. This relies only on the separated dependencies shown in (13), and not on the specific forms of $G\left(V_{w}\right)$ and $I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right)$, a fact that will become relevant for the consideration of second order effects in a latter section

## 5. Cell and Control Circuitry

In order to preserve the high area efficiency provided by the one-transistor synapses, the circuitry employed within each cell for the elimination of the $N$ second summands (one per synapse) should be as simple as possible. This is made easier by the fact that the cell circuitry itself computes the sum of these summands, which can therefore be eliminated altogether.

Under the assumed spatial invariance of the weight signals, common to most analog-array processing systems, the term to
be eliminated in each cell is also spatially invariant. Therefore, we can reproduce its value in a small circuitry, shared by all the cells in the network and placed at the periphery of the cell array, and substract it at the input nodes of each cell processing block. This can be achieved, without additional cost in the cell circuitry, through proper weight-dependent biasing of the pro-cessing-block input stage.

As an example, Figure 2 b describes a simple technique. The top part of the figure represents the cell circuitry (identical to Figure 1 using one-transistor synapses) which includes a class-A input stage as part of the processing-block input circuitry (bias current source is not shown for simplicity). The circled transistor performs the substraction of the $N$ second summands in (13). The lower part of the figure describes the required biasing devices, placed at the periphery of the cell-array and shared by the whole network.

This technique relies on the use of matched current-conveyors [4] at the peripheral circuitry and at the input node of the cells processing-block. Their electronic implementation can be shown to be highly efficient in terms of area and power consumption [3].

It might be argued that large-distance mismatch effects could result in cancellation errors of the independent terms. However, as mentioned earlier, it is generally convenient to employ autozeroing techniques. Such autozeroing, which can be easily implemented with area-efficient current memories [7] in the cases considered (current-output synapses), would eliminate the cancellation error as well. Indeed, the use of autozeroing may render unnecessary the proposed substraction circuitry, since it could be used to eliminate the complete sum of independent terms rather than their remaining error. Although combining high-signal-ranges and high-absolute-accuracy is often difficult, the recently proposed class of $S^{2} I$ current memories [8] may provide a good solution.

## 6. Operation Limits and Second Order Effects

One fundamental limitation to the operation range of the proposed synapse is imposed by the ohmic region limits of the MOS transistor, which can be approximated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{G S} \geq V_{D S}+V_{T}\left(V_{S B}\right) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitution of the previously employed notation in this equation yields the following lower limit for the gate voltage

$$
v_{X} \geq \begin{cases}V_{L}+v_{T}\left(v_{W}\right) & ; v_{W} \leq V_{L}  \tag{17}\\ v_{W}+v_{T}\left(v_{L}\right) & ; v_{W} \geq v_{L}\end{cases}
$$

Except for this limit, no other restrictions exist on the proposed synapse, on the basis of the first order model considered. It can be shown that there is only one second order effect, mobility degradation, which represents a relevant deviation from the functional dependence expressed in (13). Other second order effects affect only to the precise form of $G\left(V_{w}\right)$ and $I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right)$, something irrelevant for our discussion.

Mobility degradation models predict a reduction in the effective carriers mobility ( $\mu$ in equation (3)) with transversal (normal to channel surface) electric field, something that affects our present discussion because the transversal electric field depends on the gate voltage and thus, the first summand will not be linear with $v_{x}$. Although the widely accepted simple model for mobility degradation [9].

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu=\frac{\mu_{0}}{1+\theta\left(V_{G S}-V_{T}\left(V_{S B}\right)\right)} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

predicts a continuous reduction of the effective mobility starting just above $v_{G S}=V_{T}\left(v_{S B}\right)$, the fact is that in most technologies, there is an appreciable ( $\sim 2.0 \mathrm{v}$ ) $v_{G S}$ range above $V_{T}\left(v_{S B}\right)$ within which mobility reduction is negligible. Furthermore, some higher level models accounting for mobility degradation employ a specific parameter to define a field threshold below which no mobility degradation occurs (UCRIT in SPICE level 2 [10]). Regardless the continuous or thresholded modelling of mobility degradation, we can always define a maximum effective gate voltage

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{G E_{\mathrm{MAX}}}=\left[V_{G S}-V_{T}\left(V_{S B}\right)\right] \operatorname{MAX} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

below which any reasonable linearity requirements are satisfied. The operation of the synapse must be restricted to this range.

Performing the appropriate substitutions in (19) yields the following upper limit for the gate voltage,

$$
V_{X} \leq\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V_{W}+V_{T}\left(V_{W}\right)+V_{G E_{\mathrm{MAX}}} ; V_{W} \leq V_{L}  \tag{20}\\
V_{L}+V_{T}\left(V_{L}\right)+V_{G E_{\mathrm{MAX}}} ; V_{W} \geq V_{L}
\end{array}\right.
$$

The selection of $v_{L}$ and $v_{x 0}$ must be made based on the limits imposed by (17) and (20). In turn, this will result in an upper limit for the allowed signal ranges of $v_{w}$ and $v_{x}$. Equation (17) can be rewritten as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
V_{x}+V_{x 0} \geq V_{w}+V_{L}+V_{T}\left(V_{L}\right) & ; V_{w} \geq 0 \\
V_{x}+V_{x 0} \geq V_{L}+V_{T}\left(V_{w}+V_{L}\right) & ; V_{w} \leq 0 \tag{21}
\end{array}
$$

Let us denote the signal ranges of $V_{w}$ and $V_{x}$ by $\left|V_{w}\right| \leq V_{w \max }$ and $\left|V_{x}\right| \leq V_{x \max }$, respectively. In the above equation, the worst-case limit for $V_{x 0}$ is given by the first inequality when $V_{w}=V_{w \max }$ and $V_{x}=-V_{x \max }$, which yields,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{x 0} \geq V_{L}+V_{T}\left(V_{L}\right)+V_{w \max }+V_{x \max } \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Regarding $v_{L}$, its value must be sufficiently high to provide room for the minimum $v_{w}$ value and also for some possible loss of voltage range due to the limited output swing of the circuits generating the analog weight control signals, which we denote as $v_{W \text { min }}$. This is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{L} \geq V_{\mathrm{w} \text { max }}+V_{W \min } \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because an upper limit for the voltage ranges exist due to mobility degradation, and also because we are interested in maximizing the signal ranges and/or allowing a reduced power supply operation, we will select the minimum allowed value for $v_{L}$. Substituting $V_{L}=V_{w \text { max }}+V_{W \min }$ in (22) results in a minimum value for $v_{x 0}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{x 0} \geq V_{W \min }+V_{T}\left(V_{w \max }+V_{W \min }\right)+2 V_{w \max }+V_{x \max } \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Again, we select $v_{x 0}$ as its minimum allowed value. The resulting maximum value for $v_{X}$ is then given by $v_{X \text { max }}=v_{x 0}+v_{x \text { max }}$, this is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{X \max }=v_{W_{\min }}+v_{T}\left(v_{w \max }+v_{W_{\min }}\right)+2 v_{w \max }+2 v_{x \max } \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the worst case mobility degradation limit will be imposed by the first inequality in (20), when $v_{w}$ is minimum, this is, $v_{W}=v_{L}-v_{w \text { max }}=v_{W_{\text {min }}}$, which
yields,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{X \max } \leq V_{W \min }+V_{T}\left(V_{W \min }\right)+V_{G E_{\mathrm{MAX}}} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (25) into (26), yields,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{w \max }+V_{x \max } \leq \frac{1}{2} V_{G E M A X}-\frac{1}{2}\left[V_{T}\left(V_{w \max }+V_{W_{\min }}\right)-V_{T}\left(V_{W \min }\right)\right] \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

For moderate linearity requirements, the right hand side of the above equation takes values in the range of one volt for typical CMOS technologies, which for $v_{w \max }=v_{x \max }$ provides a peak-to-peak signal range of about one volt for both $v_{x}$ and $v_{w}$.

Figure 3 illustrates the above discussion and shows the voltage distribution selected for a particular technology: a standard n -well, $0.8 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ CMOS process available through EUROPRACTICE. With small changes, these values should be valid for most typical CMOS technologies. Note that the minimum power supply level should be at least slightly above $v_{X \max }=3.4 v$ to pre-


Figure 3. Voltage range distribution for synapse operation.
vent the possible loss of voltage range due to the limited output swing of the processing block. Still, an optimization of the output swing of both the analog weight control drivers and the output stage of the processing block should allow the operation of the proposed synapse with power supply levels in the range of 3.3 v , with similar signal swings for $v_{x}$ and $v_{w}$.

Figure 4 provides an additional insight into the selection of $v_{L}$ and $v_{x 0}$ values and the associated signal ranges. It shows the allowed operation region, delimited by (17) and (20) in the $V_{X} \cdot V_{W}$ plane, within which a squared range (under the assumption $v_{w \max }=v_{x \max }$ ) for signals $v_{x}$ and $v_{w}$, centered around $\left(v_{L}, v_{x 0}\right)$, must be defined. The graphs correspond to $v_{L}=1 v$ and the specific parameters of the technology being employed. Note that although apparently, an appreciable increase in signal ranges could be obtained by increasing the values of $v_{L}$ and $v_{x 0}$, this is not true in general because the limits imposed by (17) and (20) will also shift with $v_{L}$. In view of (27), the increase would be small. On the other hand, it would require a larger power supply.


Figure 4. Signal ranges delimited by ohmic region and mobility degradation limits.

## 7. Results

In this section we will illustrate the behavior of the proposed synapse in a specific n-well, $0.8 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ CMOS technology available through EUROPRACTICE. Figure 5 contains HSPICE level 2 simulated transfer characteristics of the proposed synapse. Transistors sizes are $W=6 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $L=24 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. These geometries correspond to reasonable sizes in a practical application, in which a low aspect ratio serves to the purposes of having reasonable current levels through the analog weight-control lines, as well as moderate power dissipation in the chip. Large channel areas (relative to technology resolution) are required for matching considerations [1]. Still, low resolution technologies are highly convenient for matching considerations and also because most of the cell area is usually dedicated to contacts, routing, and active region separations.

Figure 5 a reflects the total transistor current $I_{N}$ versus the total gate voltage $V_{X}$, for different values of the weight signal voltage $V_{w}$. The value of $v_{L}$ is 1.0 v . Values of $V_{w}$, relative to $V_{L}$, range from -0.4 v (lower trace) to +0.4 v (upper trace) in 50 mv increments. The mobility degradation effects are clearly visible at the right side, while those related to the pinch-off region can be observed at left side, specially for positive values of $v_{w}$. The region around $v_{x 0}=3.0 \mathrm{v}$ reflects the behavior predicted by (13). Figure 5b shows the result obtained after substracting the independent term $I_{0}\left(V_{w}\right)$, by means of the circuitry described in Figure 2b. Wort-case $\left(V_{w}=0.4 v\right)$ total harmonic distortion (THD) is below $0.05 \%$ at 1 Hz and $0.7 \%$ at 1 MHz . Similar results are obtained from the $p$-channel version of the circuitry.


Figure 5. HSPICE level-2 simulations of the proposed synapse: a) Current $I_{N}$ in Figure 2 versus gate voltage $V_{X}$ for different values of $V_{w}$.b) Current $I_{n}=I_{N}-I_{0}$ obtained using the circuitry described in Figure $2 b$.

## 8. Conclusions

This paper has proposed and discussed an electrically programmable, one-transistor, four-quadrants linear synapse strategy for massively-parallel analog array processing systems, based on MOS operation in the triode region. Signal ranges for both the input and the weight signal are in the range of 1 vpp , and total harmonic distortion is below $0.7 \% \mathrm{at} 1 \mathrm{MHz}$. Operation from reduced power supplies of about 3.3 v seems feasible. The proposed synapse circuit results in a substantial reduction in area and power consumption of the basic cell, as compared to traditionally employed synapses based on differential or fullydifferential architectures. This allows the realization of array processors with a larger number of units in the same chip.
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