



Queen Mary
University of London

Science and Engineering

EBU4202: Digital Circuit Design

Logic Signals

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Overview: Digital Circuits

- * Logic Signals

- * IC Fabrication → Self-study topic (not assessed)

- * CMOS Logic → Self-study topic (not assessed)



Chapters 1 & 3 – “Digital Design: Principles and Practices” book

Note: *Some pictures in this topic were extracted from the web.*

Logic Signals & Gates

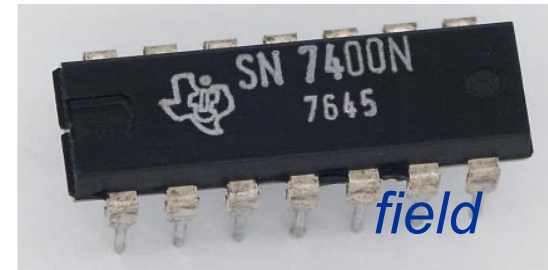
- **Logical signals** are often called *low* and *high*, to refer to the values *0* and *1* (**not necessarily in this order!**).
- Also, *low* often corresponds to algebraically lower voltages while *high* corresponds to higher voltages (Low can mean “inactive”, High can mean “active”).
The most natural type.
- **Types of logic:**
 - *Positive Logic* assigns *0* to *low* and *1* to *high*.
 - *Negative Logic* assigns *0* to *high* and *1* to *low*.
Not often used
(we will not discuss this in this module)

Logic Families



There are *other logic families* and *sub-families* (but *out of scope* here).

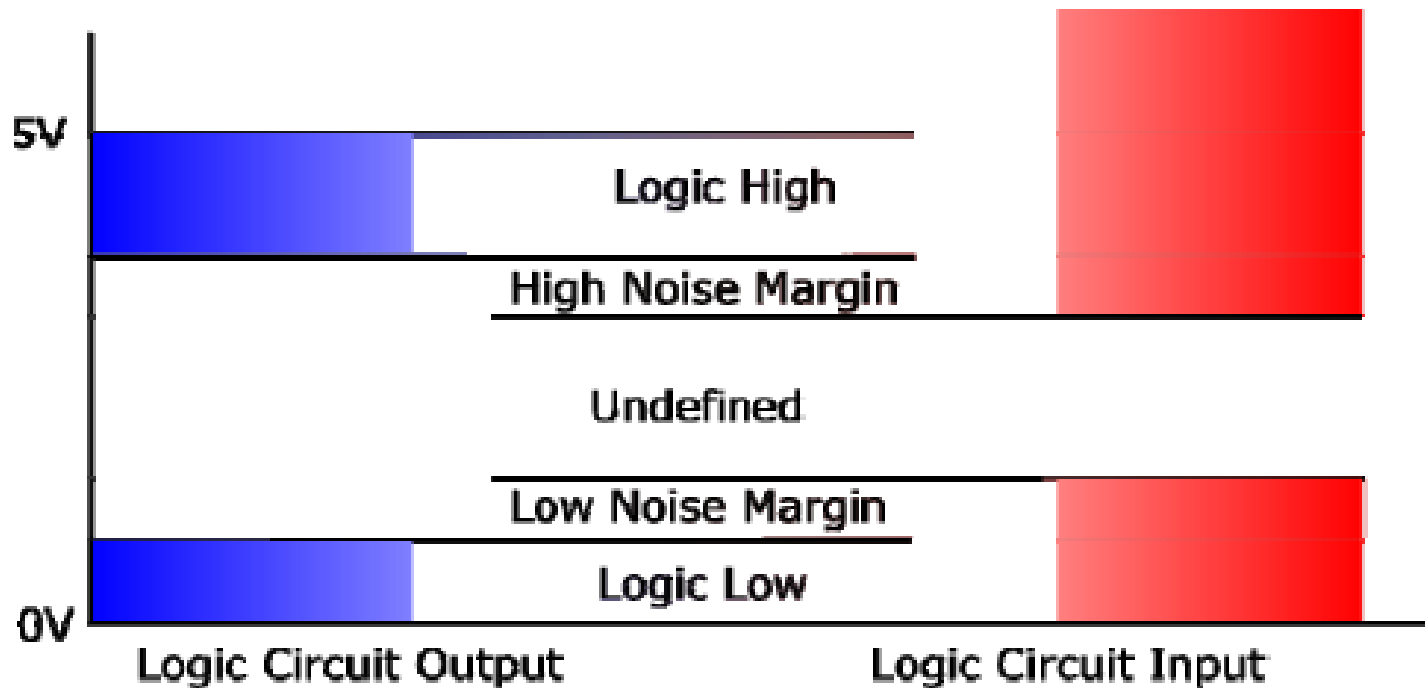
- **Logic family**: Collection of different IC chips that have similar input, output, and internal circuit characteristics, but perform different logic functions.
 - Thus, **chips from different logic families may not be compatible**.
- Two **most common logic families**:
 - *TransistorTransistor Logic* (TTL), and
 - *Complementary MetalOxide Semiconductor effect transistor* (CMOS).
- **Differences between TTL and CMOS**: materials, fabrication methods, and electrical behaviours.



Logic Levels: TTL & CMOS

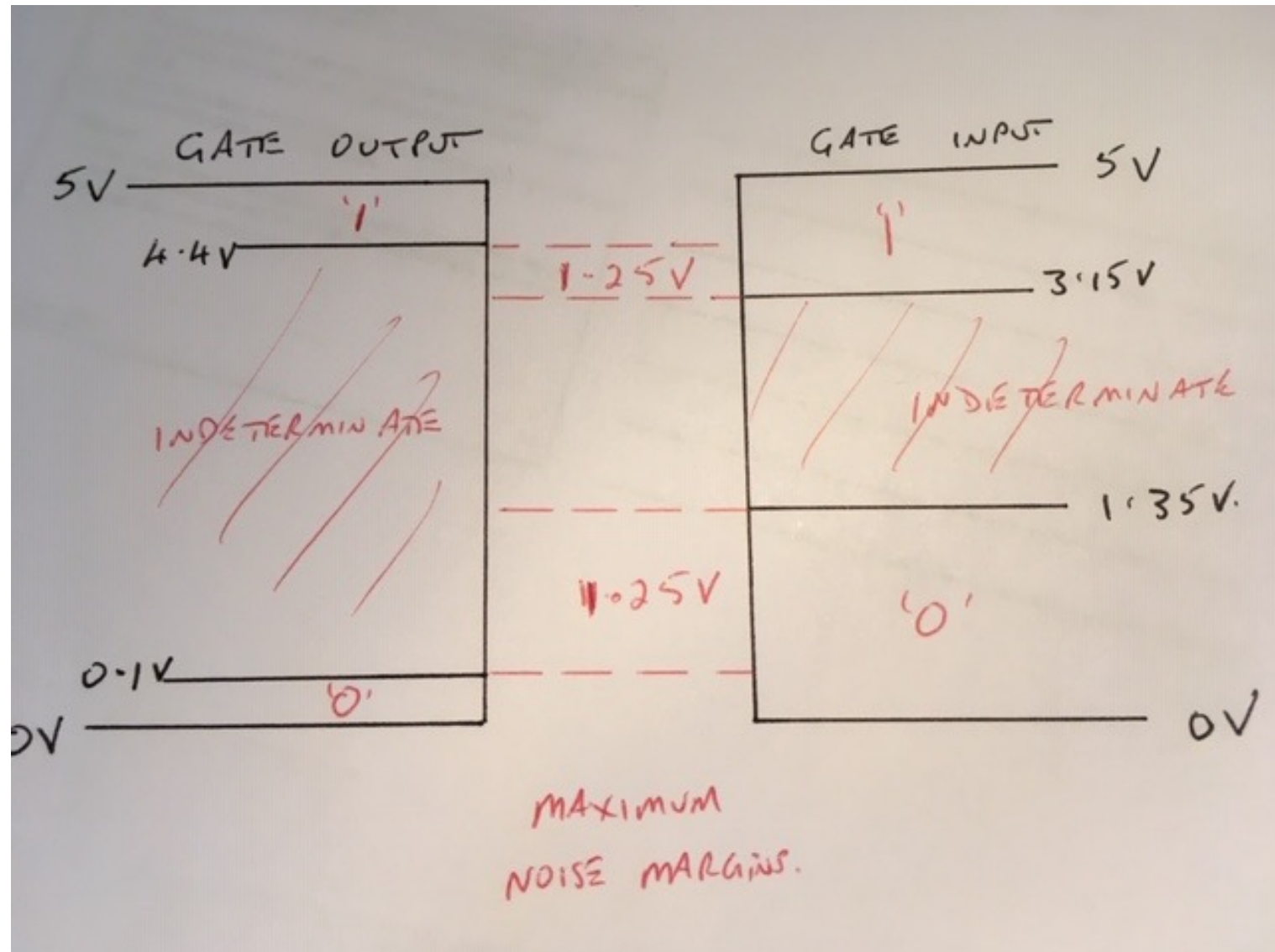
- **CMOS** (*Complementary MOS*): built on MOS transistors.
 - (*) *Input Logic values*: (*) *Typical values only*.
0 → voltages: **0-1.5 volts**; **1** → voltages: **3.5-5.0 volts**.
 - Used by most **large-scale ICs** (e.g., microprocessors and memory).
- **TTL** (*Transistor-Transistor Logic*): built on bipolar junction transistors (BJT).
 - (*) *Input Logic values*:
0 → voltages: **0-0.8 volts**; **1** → voltages: **2.0-5.0 volts**.
 - Once used extensively for small to medium-scale applications, now usually replaced by CMOS devices. **TTL components can still be found in university labs and elsewhere, and have their uses.**

Logic Levels

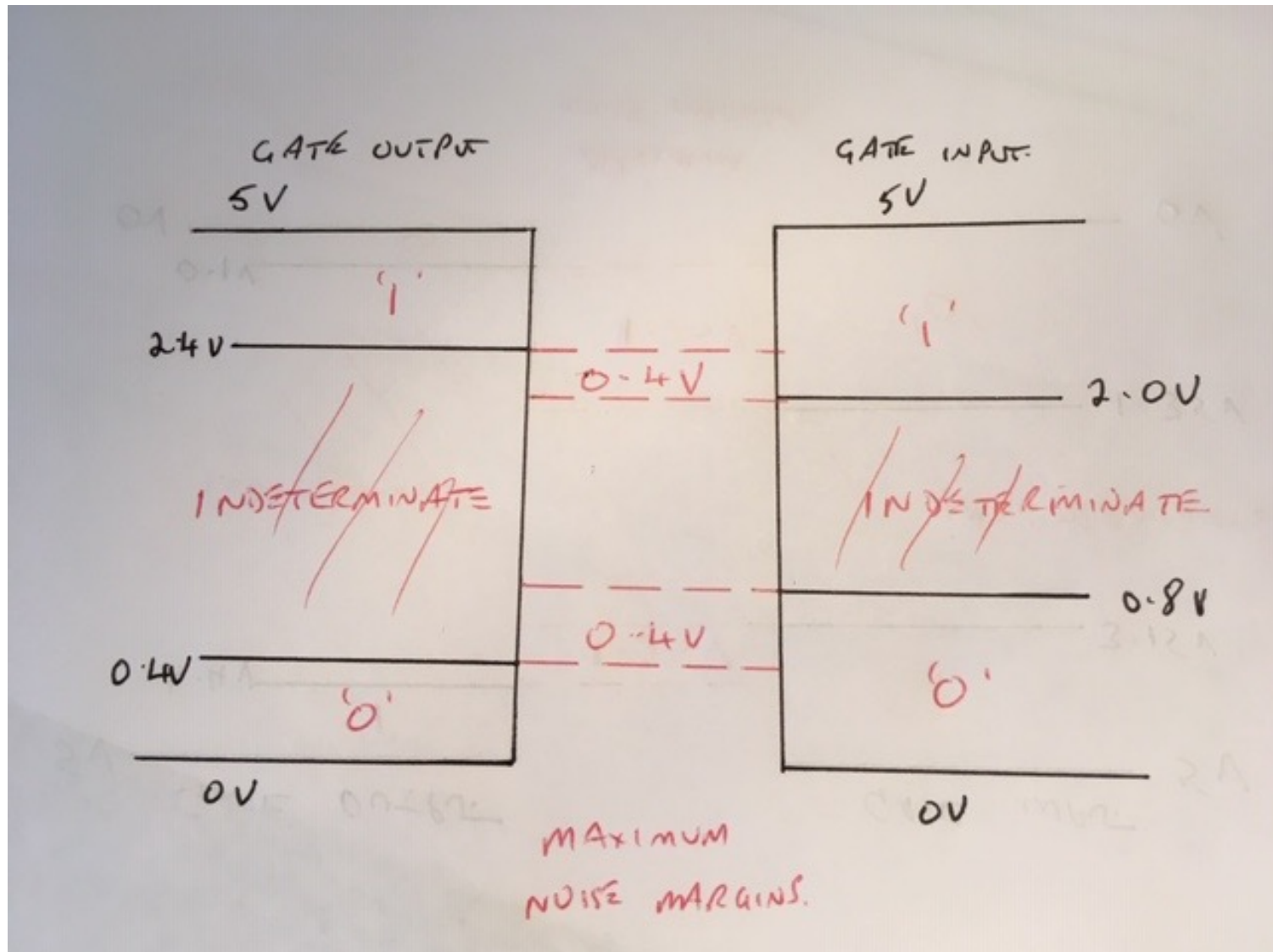


- *Different logic families* may have different logic levels.
- **Noise Margin:** *maximum external noise voltage* that can be added to an input signal *without causing an undesirable change in the circuit output*.
- NOTE: If we use TTL gates, then the NOISE IMMUNITY is greater if we use NEGATIVE LOGIC i.e. logic 1 is OFF/inactive.

CMOS Voltage Levels

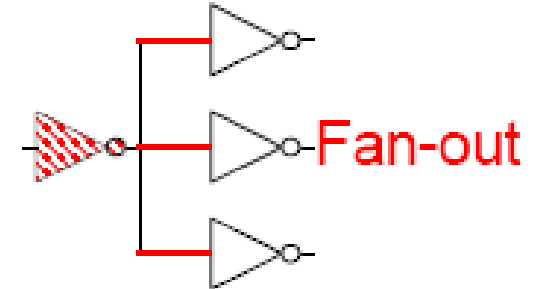


TTL Voltage Levels



Fan-in & Fan-out: Definition

- **Fanin** refers to the number of inputs a gate can have in a particular logic family.
 - In other words, it's the number of inputs that a gate can practically have.
- **Fanout** refers to the maximum number of logic inputs that an output can drive reliably.
 - It depends not only on the *characteristics of the output*, but also depends on the *characteristics of the input*.



Fan-in & Fan-out: Characteristics

- **Fan-in:**

- Too many inputs for a gate may lead to significant delay.
- The number of inputs on most CMOS gates is limited to between 4 and 6.
- Gates with a large number of inputs can be made faster and efficient by cascading gates with fewer inputs.

- **Fan-out:**

- If too much fanout is connected to an output, the DC noise margin may not be adequate and there may be incorrect logic operation.
- Fan-out may also affect speed.

Example: Data Sheet

Note: Taken from course textbook (page 98).

Table 3-3 Manufacturer's data sheet for a typical CMOS device, a 54/74HC00 quad NAND gate.

DC ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS OVER OPERATING RANGE

The following conditions apply unless otherwise specified:

Commercial: $T_A = -40^\circ\text{C}$ to $+85^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 5.0\text{V} \pm 5\%$; Military: $T_A = -55^\circ\text{C}$ to $+125^\circ\text{C}$, $V_{CC} = 5.0\text{V} \pm 10\%$

Sym.	Parameter	Test Conditions ⁽¹⁾		Min.	Typ. ⁽²⁾	Max.	Unit
V_{IH}	Input HIGH level	Guaranteed logic HIGH level		3.15	—	—	V
V_{IL}	Input LOW level	Guaranteed logic LOW level		—	—	1.35	V
I_{IH}	Input HIGH current	$V_{CC} = \text{Max.}$, $V_i = V_{CC}$		—	—	1	μA
I_{IL}	Input LOW current	$V_{CC} = \text{Max.}$, $V_i = 0\text{V}$		—	—	-1	μA
V_{IK}	Clamp diode voltage	$V_{CC} = \text{Min.}$, $I_N = -18\text{mA}$		—	-0.7	-1.2	V
I_{IOS}	Short-circuit current	$V_{CC} = \text{Max.}$, ⁽³⁾ $V_O = \text{GND}$		—	—	-35	mA
V_{OH}	Output HIGH voltage	$V_{CC} = \text{Min.}$, $V_{\text{IN}} = V_{\text{IL}}$	$I_{\text{OH}} = -20\mu\text{A}$	4.4	4.499	—	V
			$I_{\text{OH}} = -4\text{mA}$	3.84	4.3	—	V
V_{OL}	Output LOW voltage	$V_{CC} = \text{Min.}$, $V_{\text{IN}} = V_{\text{IH}}$	$I_{\text{OL}} = 20\mu\text{A}$	—	.001	0.1	V
			$I_{\text{OL}} = 4\text{mA}$	—	0.17	0.33	
I_{CC}	Quiescent power supply current	$V_{CC} = \text{Max.}$, $V_{\text{IN}} = \text{GND}$ or V_{CC} , $I_O = 0$		—	2	10	μA

Overview: Digital Circuits

- * Logic Signals
- * Logic Families
- * IC Fabrication
- * CMOS Logic

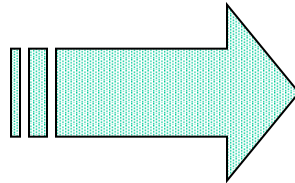
→ Self-study topic



Chapters 1 & 3 – “Digital Design: Principles and Practices” book

ICs: back to basics

- **Integrated Circuits** (ICs) are made of silicon, which in turn is created from sand. However, the manufacturing process of ICs is extremely complex and expensive.



Silicon and ICs

- **Silicon** is a semiconductor. This means that it can be altered to act as either a conductor, allowing electricity to flow, or as an insulator preventing the flow of electricity.
- This is done by DOPING the pure silicon with *trivalent* and *pentavalent* elements to make P-type and N-type silicon and hence PN junctions and transistors. These are then combined on the silicon wafer to make gates and INTEGRATED CIRCUITS.
- **Silicon chips:**
 - have a surface area of similar dimensions to a thumb nail (or even smaller);
 - are 3-dimensional structures composed of microscopically thin layers (perhaps as many as 20) of insulating and conducting material on top of the silicon.

Silicon Ingots: Definition

- Semiconductor devices are produced from *silicon ingots*.
- **Silicon ingots** is the name given to *silicon* in a single crystal form.
- **Ingots** are produced in a number of ways, but essentially, *high purity silicon* is melted down and then formed into **cylindrical rods** as shown below.



Silicon ingots are made to the customer's specifications (usual *diameter* ~15-20cm, but may be much larger due to improvements in manufacturing techniques).

Wafers versus Silicon Ingots

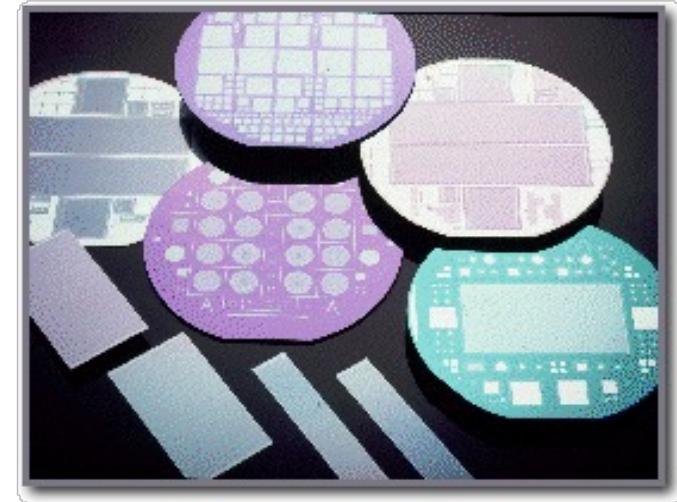
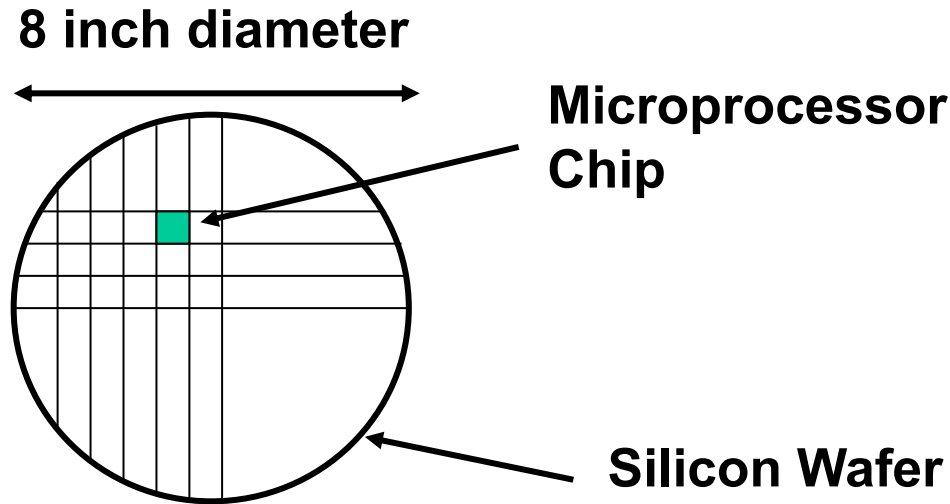
- **Rods** (or *silicon ingots*) are sliced into very thin *wafers*, using special diamond cutting technology.
- **Wafers**:
 - are treated (i.e., polished and chemically treated) to remove any roughness and/or damage;
 - are very thin (usually only *0.06mm* in width).
- **ICs** are built from the *wafers*.

Silicon ingot and the *wafers* that are cut from the ingot.



Creating ICs on Wafers

- **Wafers** are divided up so that many chips can be printed on them.



Finished wafers.

- How are all connectors, resistors, transistors and capacitors added to the wafer to make up an IC?
 - New (very thin) layers are embedded in, or added to, the original wafer.
 - Each additional layer defines more and more of the completed IC.

The Die

- **Wafers** *versus* **chips**: One wafer can yield hundreds of finished chips, that are cut individually using a diamond saw.
- **Die**: The industry term for individual chips.
- **Die size** varies depending on the chip:
 - The larger the individual chip's die size, the greater the waste of silicon area when a fault arises on a chip.
 - **Example**: If a wafer is divided to make 40 chips and 10 random faults occur, then there'll be a wastage of 25%.
But if the wafer is divided to make 200 chips and 10 random faults occur, then wastage will be only 5%.

Wafer Yield

- **Yield of the wafer:** The percentage of functioning chips.
- Yields vary substantially depending on:
 - complexity of the device being produced;
 - feature size used.
- **Acceptable yield values:**
 - any yield value of 50% is reported;
 - yield values of 80% to 90% are regarded as very good.



Producing good yield values is important, since a **single short circuit**, caused by two wires touching in a 30+ million transistor chip, **is enough to cause chip failure!**

Feature Size

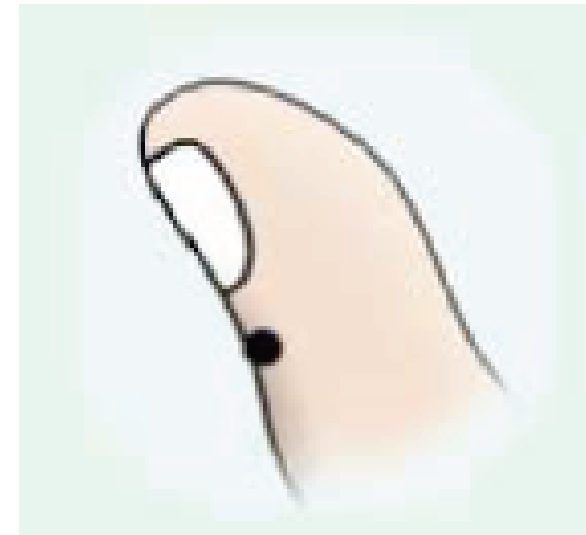
- **Feature Size:** Refers to the size of a transistor or to the width of the wires connecting transistors on the chip. *Examples:*
 - One micron (i.e., 1/1000 of a millimetre) *used to be* a common feature size.
 - State of the art chips are now using sub-micron feature sizes between 0.25 (in 1997) to 0.13 (in 2001) (i.e., between 250 and 130 nanometres).



The smaller the feature size, the more transistors there are available on a given chip area.

A million nanometers

The pinhead sized patch of this thumb is a million nanometers across.



Smaller Feature Size (1/2)

- **Advantages:**

- A greater number of transistors per die means a smaller die size, and this means more chips per wafer.
- A microprocessor using a smaller feature size than its predecessor will be smaller, run faster and use less power.
- Since more of these smaller chips can be obtained from a single wafer, each chip will cost less (this is one of the reasons for cheaper processor chips).
- A reduced feature size makes it possible to build more complex microprocessors, e.g., the Pentium III which uses around 30 million transistors (now much superceded).....
- For example, Apple A13 processor (iPhone 11 Pro): 8.5 billion transistors

Smaller Feature Size (2/2)

- **Disadvantages:**

- A reduced feature size means an **increase in the density of transistors per chip area**, and this has led to power consumption and power dissipation problems.

- **Example:**

- **CPUs** typically dissipate about the same heat per square inch as an electric cooker generates (and **sometimes require cooling fans or water cooling systems**).
- Increasing the speed (by reducing the propagation delay) increases the power dissipation.

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- * Logic Families
- * IC Fabrication

* CMOS Logic

→ Self-study topic

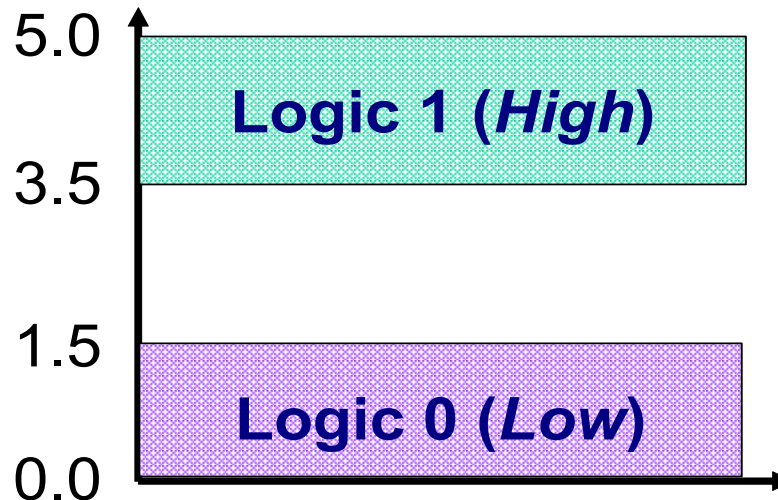


Chapters 1 & 3 – “Digital Design: Principles and Practices” book

CMOS Logic

- As seen before:
 - The **building blocks** in CMOS are MOS transistors.
 - CMOS operates from a 5 volts power supply (*usually!*).
- The **Voltage-logic connection** is interpreted as follows:

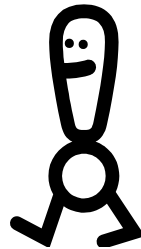
Typical **Logic levels**
for CMOS logic
circuits.



MOS Transistors

- **MOS transistor**: a 3-terminal device.
 - The voltage applied to one terminal controls the resistance between the remaining two terminals.
 - The **three terminals** are:

- *Gate*;
- *Source*;
- *Drain*.



The **names** refer to the type of *semiconductor material* used for the resistance-controlled terminals.

- **Types of MOS transistors**:
 - *n-channel*
 - *p-channel*

N-Channel MOS (NMOS) Transistor

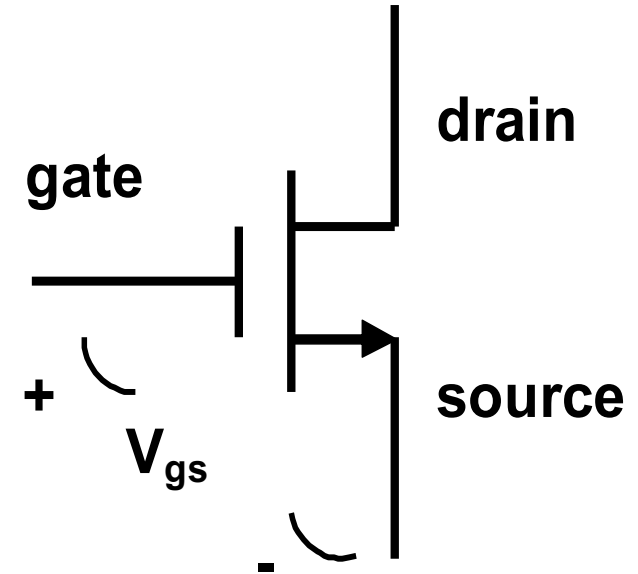
- **Drain** on NMOS: usually is at a *higher* voltage than the **source**.

- **Notation:**

- V_{gs} = voltage from **gate** to **source**
- R_{ds} = resistance from **drain** to **source**

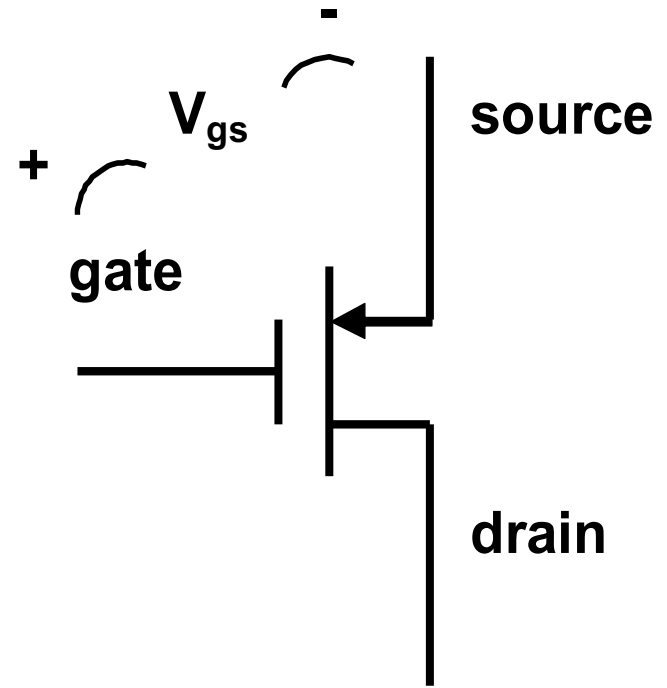
- **How it works:**

- $V_{gs} \geq 0$ (usually).
- If $V_{gs} = 0$, then R_{ds} will be very high (so, *no output*).
- If voltage on the **gate** is increased (i.e., increase on V_{gs}), then R_{ds} decreases (so, *there is an output*).



P-Channel MOS (PMOS) Transistor

- **PMOS** operation similar to **NMOS**, but **drain** is usually at a *lower* voltage than the **source**.
- **Notation:**
 - V_{gs} = voltage from **source** to **gate**
 - R_{ds} = resistance from **source** to **drain**
- **How it works:**
 - $V_{gs} \leq 0$ (usually).
 - If $V_{gs} = 0$, then R_{ds} will be very high (so, *no output*).
 - If voltage on the **gate** is decreased (i.e., decrease on V_{gs}), then R_{ds} decreases (so, *there is an output*).



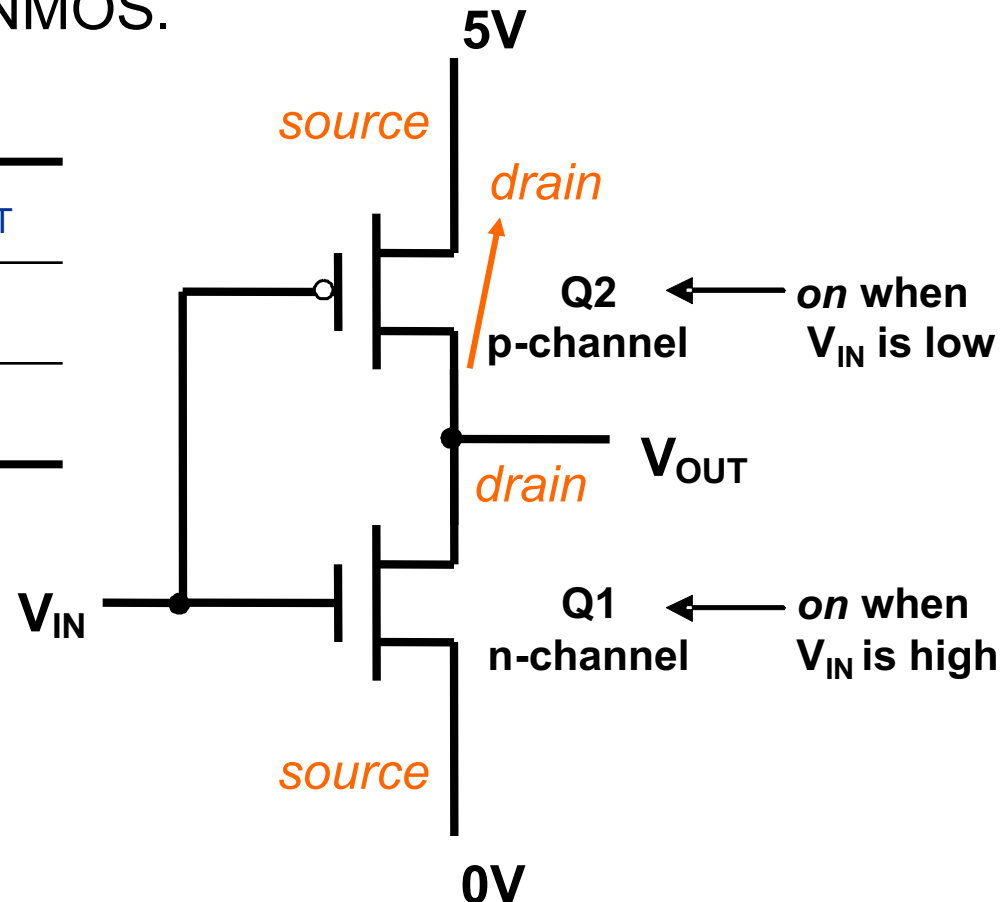
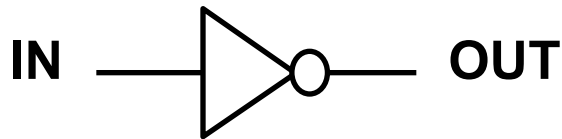
CMOS Inverter

- **CMOS inverter circuit:** the simplest CMOS circuit, requires only one each of a PMOS and an NMOS.

- **Functional behaviour:**

V_{IN}	Q1	Q2	V_{OUT}
0V (L)	off	on	5V
5V (H)	on	off	0V

- **Logic symbol:**

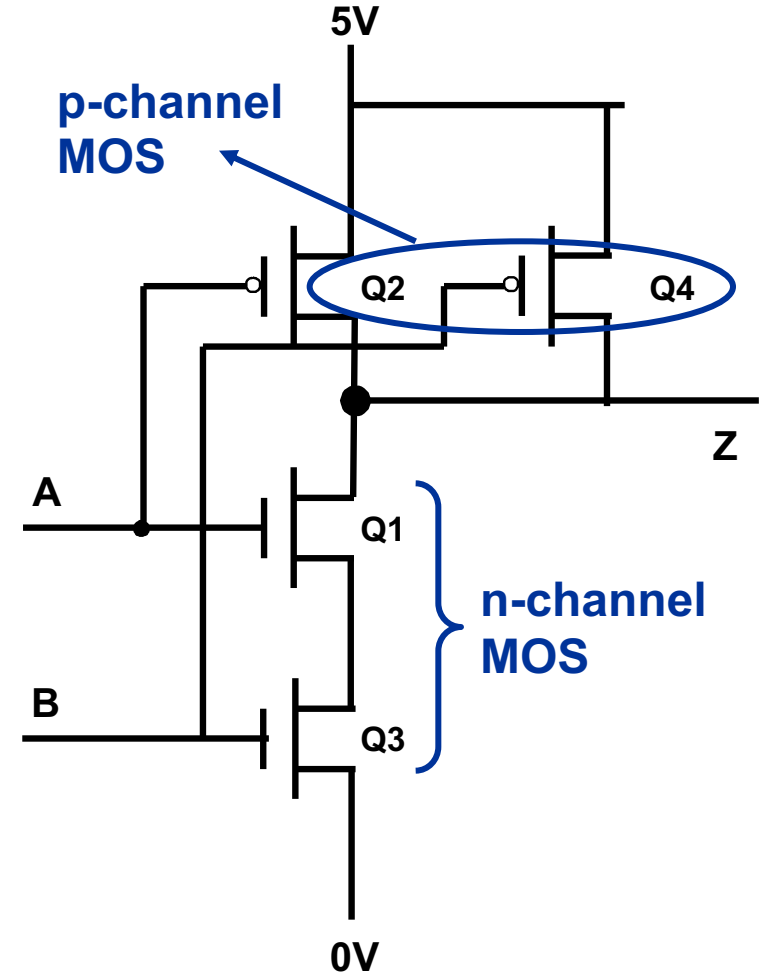
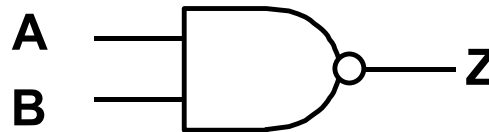


CMOS 2-Input NAND

- **CMOS NAND circuit:** a k -input gate uses both k PMOS and k NMOS transistors.
- **Functional behaviour:**

A	B	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Z
L	L	off	on	off	on	H
L	H	off	on	on	off	H
H	L	on	off	off	on	H
H	H	on	off	on	off	L

- **Logic symbol:**



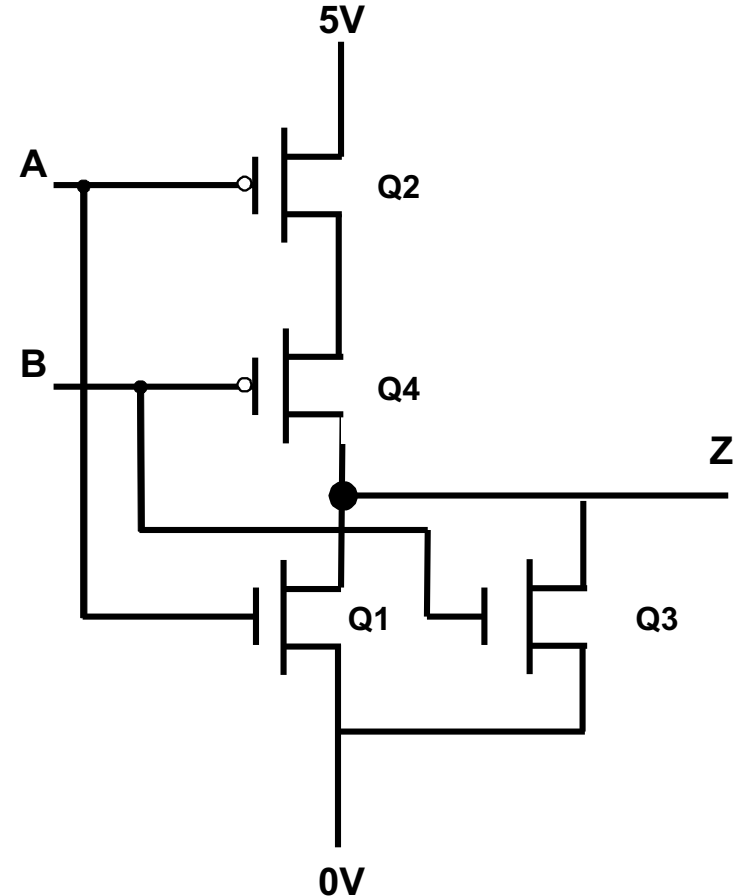
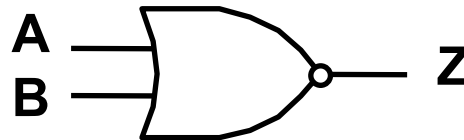
CMOS 2-Input NOR

- **CMOS NOR circuit:** a k -input gate uses both k PMOS and k NMOS transistors.

- **Functional behaviour:**

A	B	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Z
L	L	off	on	off	on	H
L	H	off	on	on	off	L
H	L	on	off	off	on	L
H	H	on	off	on	off	L

- **Logic symbol:**



CMOS Electrical Properties

- The **electrical behaviour of a CMOS gate** can be characterised by its *electrical properties*. They include, apart from *logic voltage levels*:
 - *Noise margins* → How much noise it takes to corrupt a worst-case output voltage into a value that can not be recognised by an input.
 - *Fanout* → Number of inputs that the gate can drive/feed without exceeding its worst-case specifications.
 - *Speed (propagation delay)* → Time necessary for a change in the input signal to result in a change to the output signal.
 - *Power consumption* → Most CMOS circuits have low *static power dissipation*.



Dilemma faced in electronic design – increasing the *speed* (i.e., decreasing the *propagation delay*) typically results in higher *power dissipation*, and vice versa.