

# TECNOLOGÍA

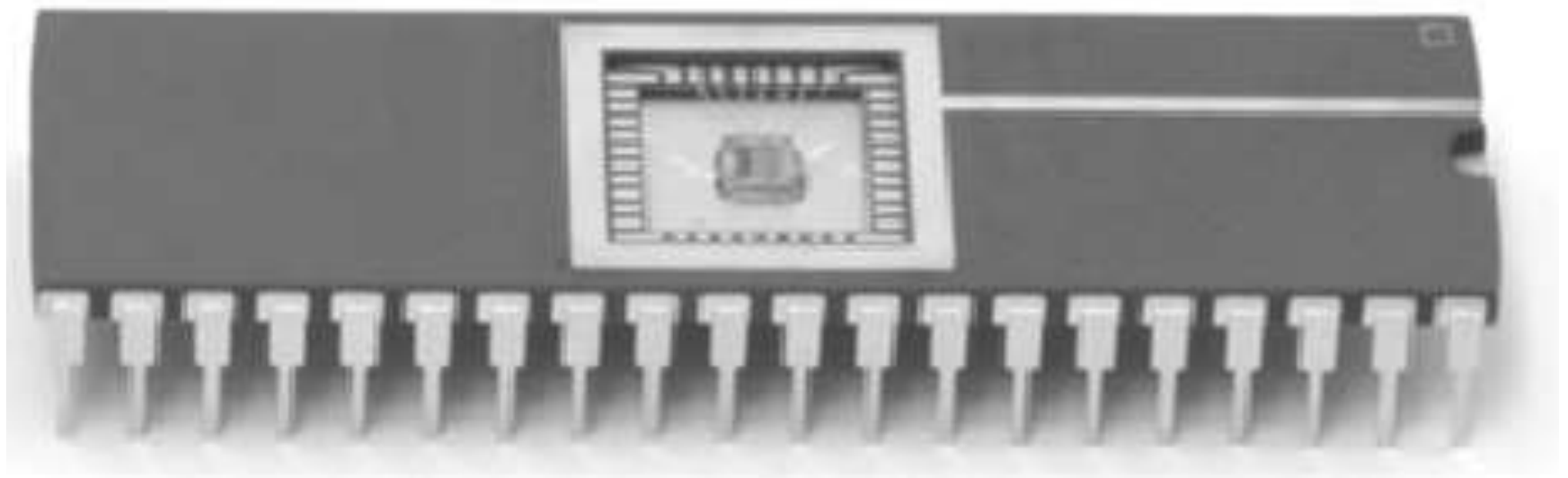
## *Técnicas Digitales I*

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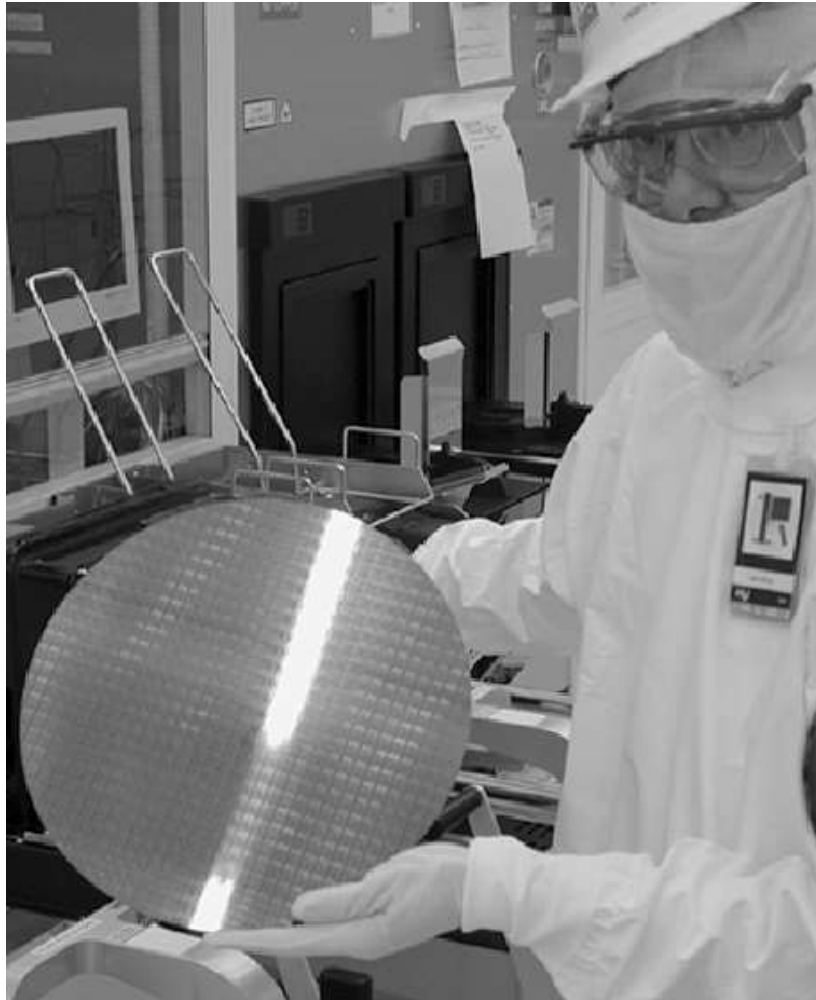
Luis Eduardo Toledo



# CIRCUITO INTEGRADO



# OBLEA DE SILICIO



# Logic Levels

- Discrete voltages represent 1 and 0
- For example:
  - 0 = *ground* (GND) or 0 volts
  - 1 =  $V_{DD}$  or 5 volts
- What about 4.99 volts? Is that a 0 or a 1?
- What about 3.2 volts?

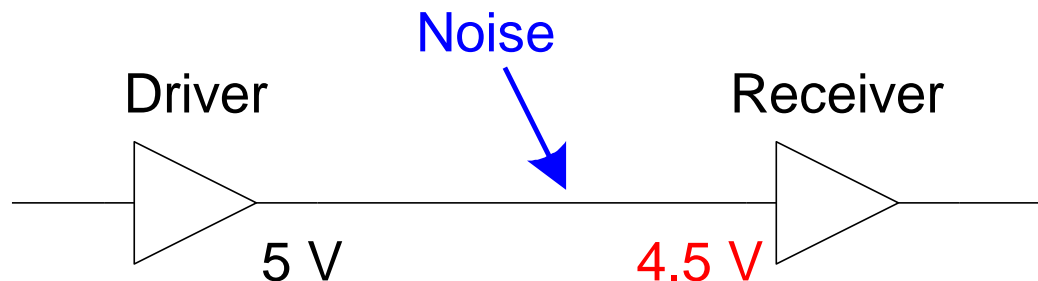
# Logic Levels

- *Range* of voltages for 1 and 0
- Different ranges for inputs and outputs to allow for *noise*

# What is Noise?

# What is Noise?

- **Anything that degrades the signal**
  - E.g., resistance, power supply noise, coupling to neighboring wires, etc.
- **Example:** a gate (driver) outputs 5 V but, because of resistance in a long wire, receiver gets 4.5 V

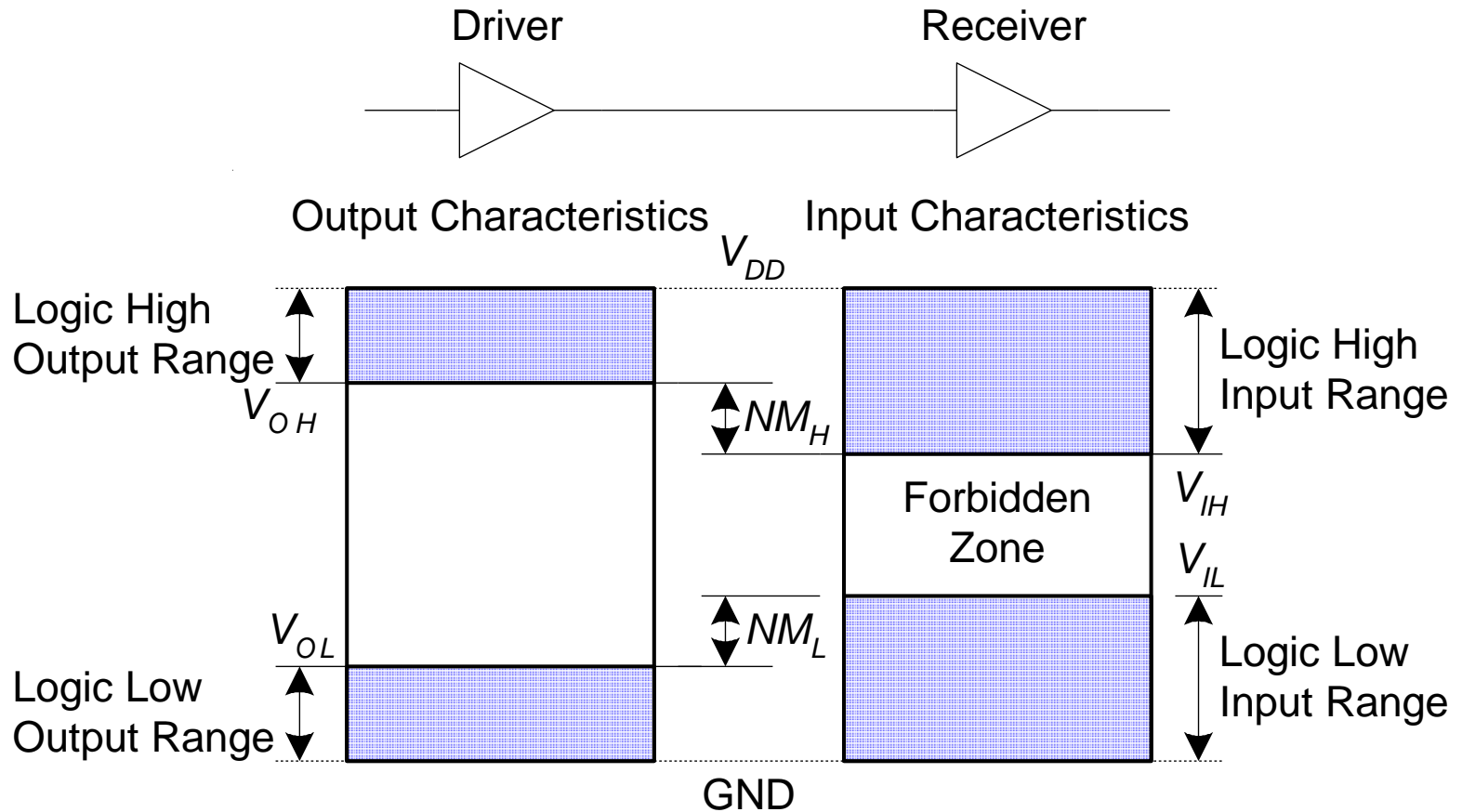


# The Static Discipline

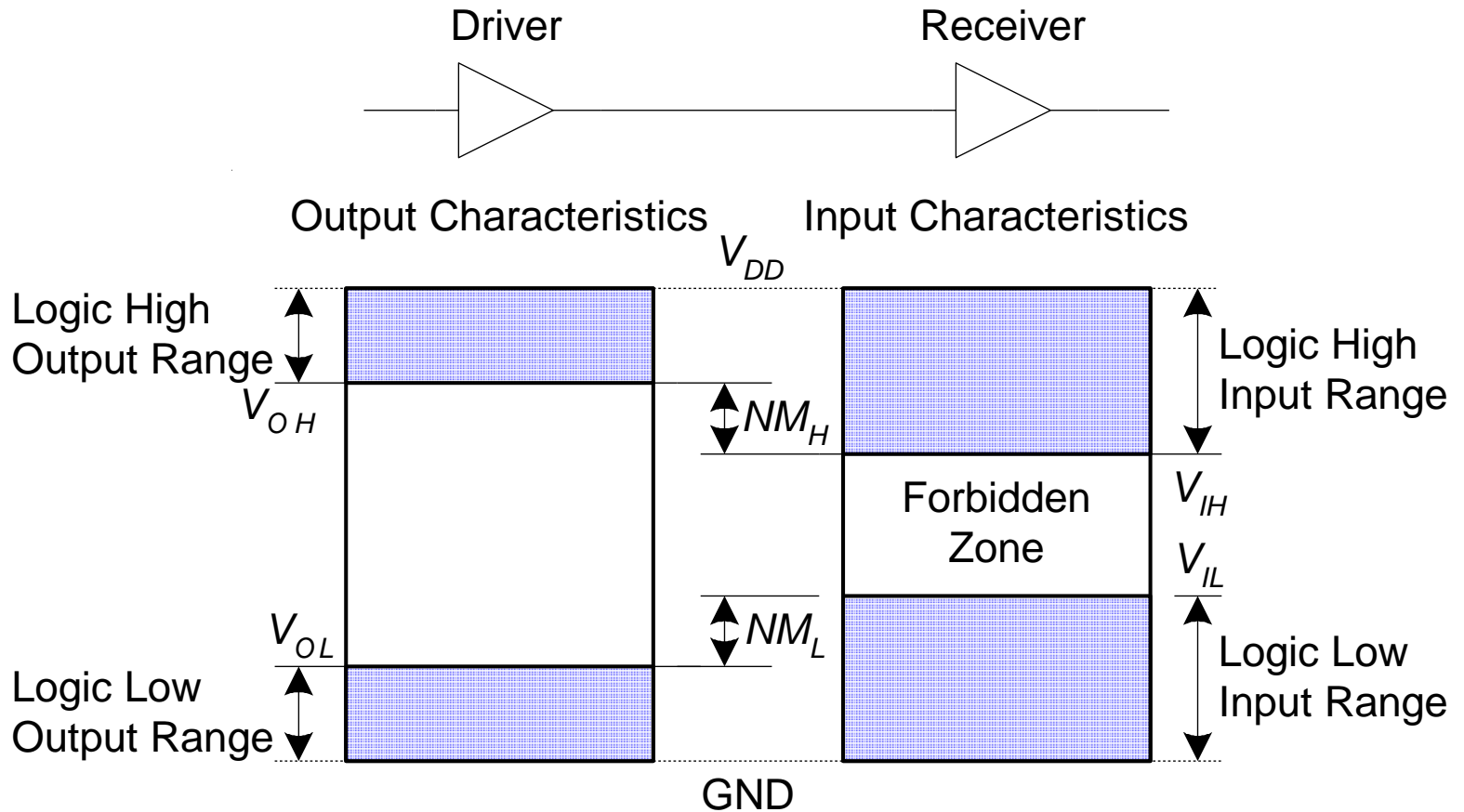
- With logically valid inputs, every circuit element must produce logically valid outputs
- Use limited ranges of voltages to represent discrete values



# Logic Levels



# Noise Margins

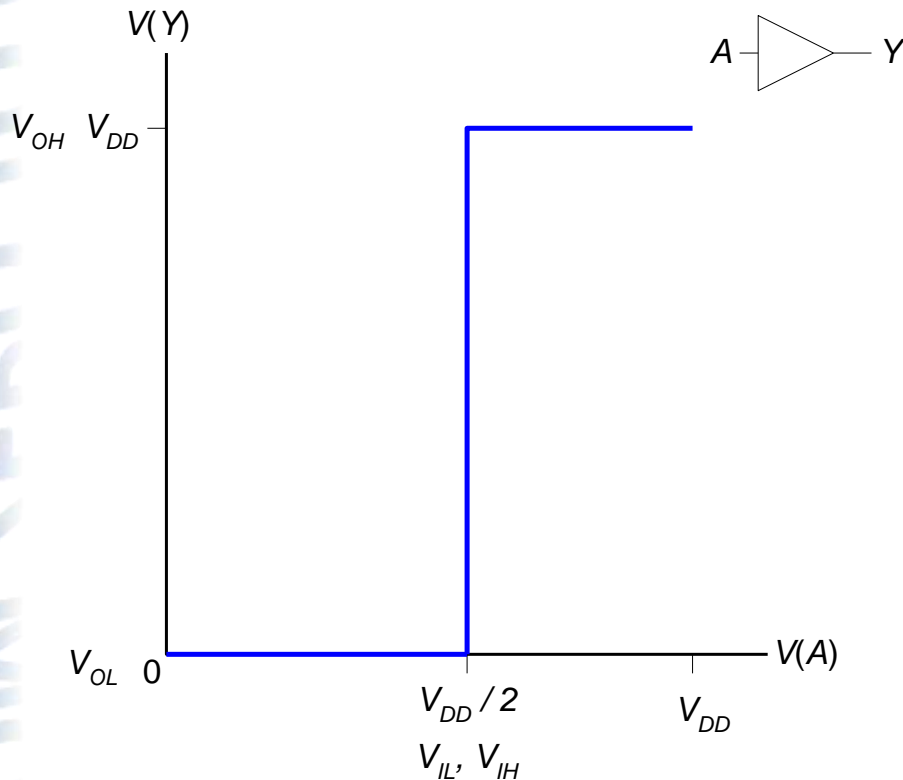


$$NM_H = V_{OH} - V_{IH}$$

$$NM_L = V_{IL} - V_{OL}$$

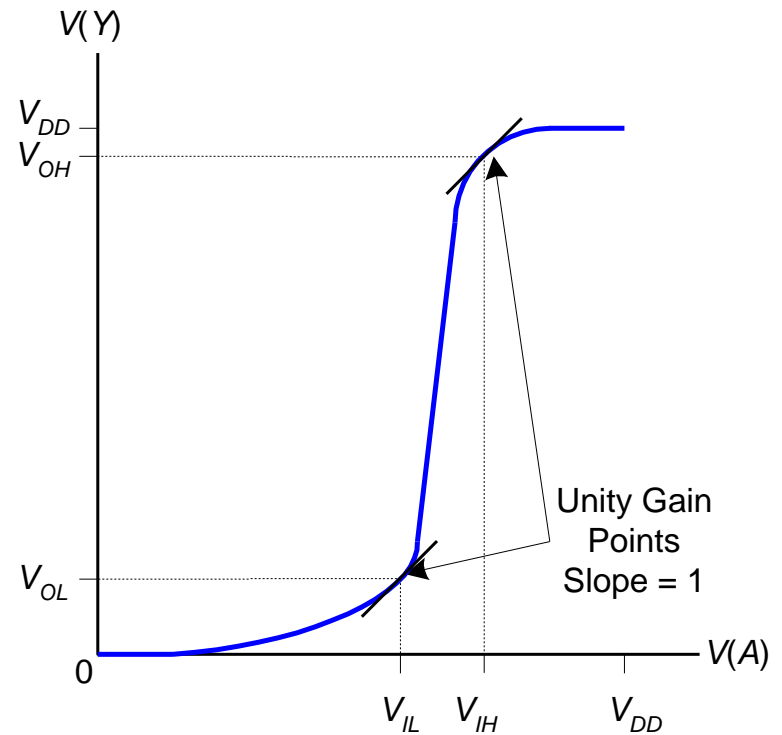
# DC Transfer Characteristics

Ideal Buffer:



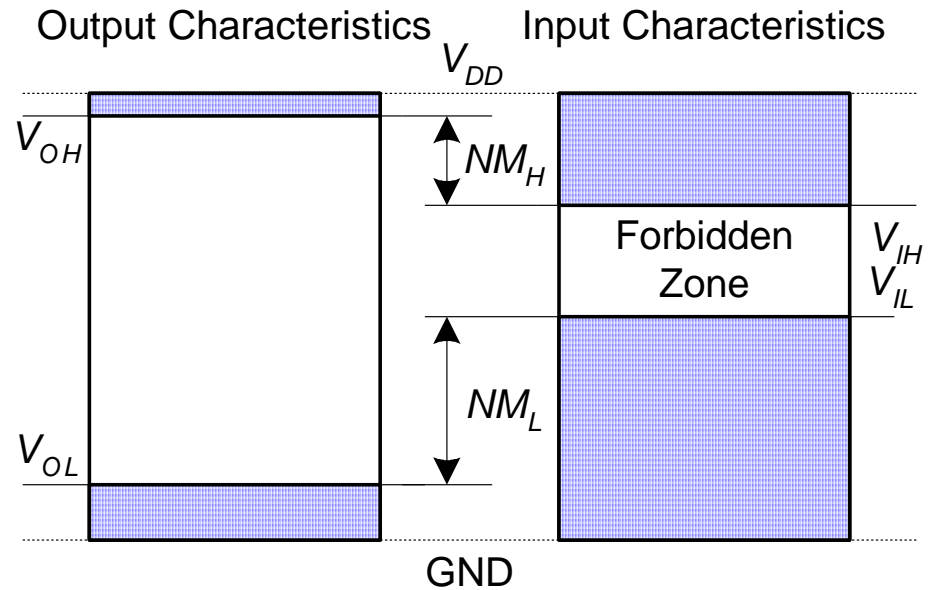
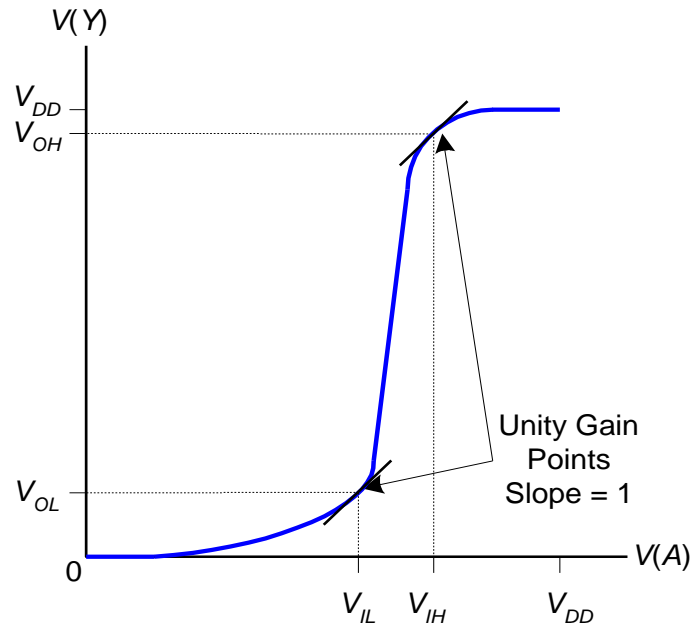
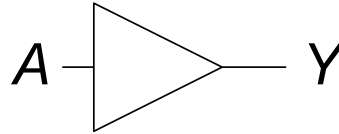
$$NM_H = NM_L = V_{DD}/2$$

Real Buffer:

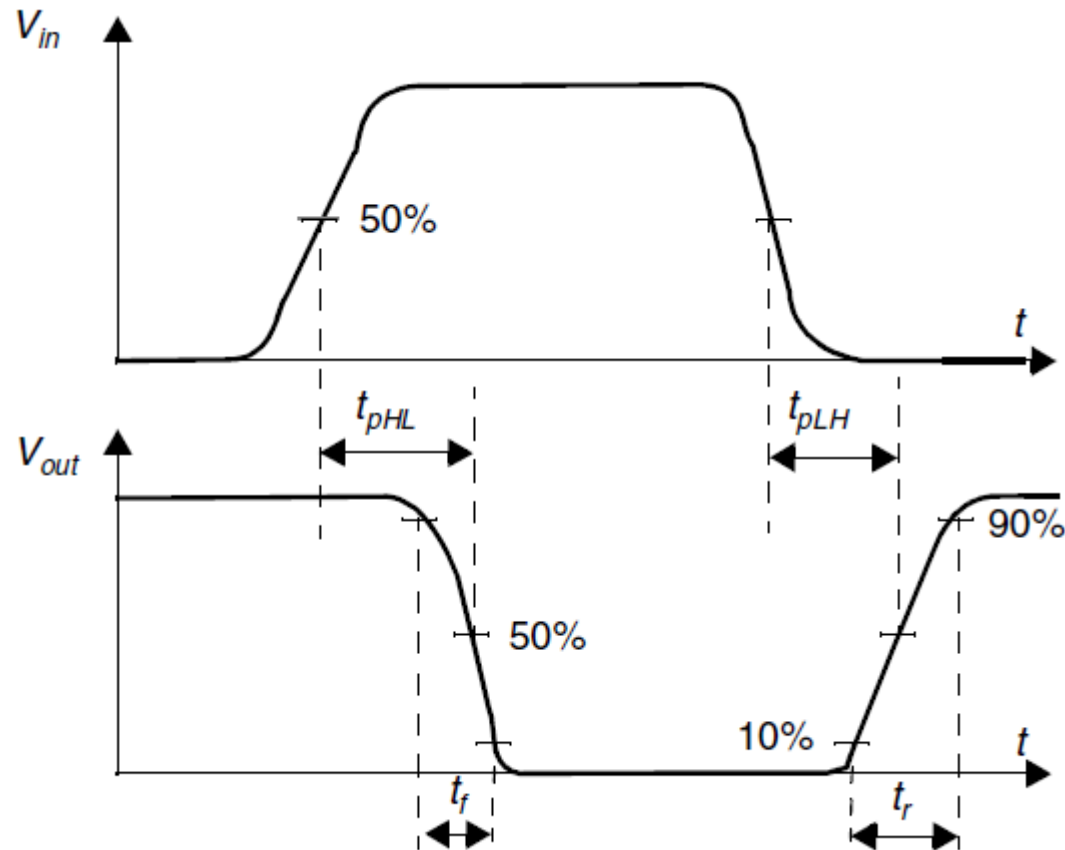


$$NM_H, NM_L < V_{DD}/2$$

# DC Transfer Characteristics



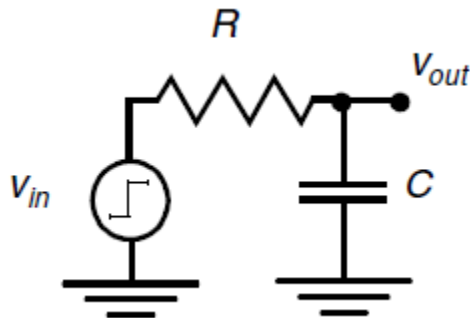
# DEFINICIÓN DE RETARDO DE PROPAGACIÓN



$$t_p = \frac{t_{pLH} + t_{pHL}}{2}$$

# RETARDO DE PROPAGACIÓN DE UN CIRCUITO RC DE PRIMER ORDEN

LOS CIRCUITOS DIGITALES SE PUEDEN  
MODELAR COMO SIMPLES CIRCUITOS RC

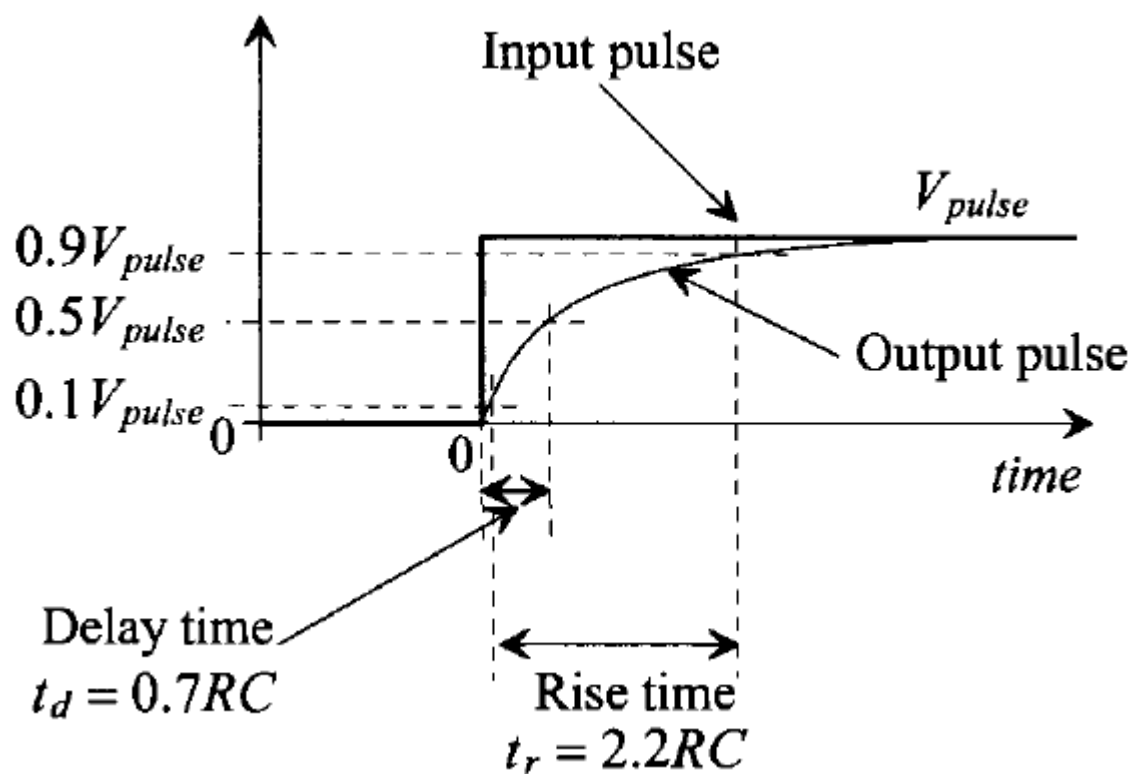


CUANDO SE APLICA UN ESCALON A  $V_{in}$   
(DE  $0$  A  $V$ ), LA RESPUESTA TRANSITORIA  
ES:

$$v_{out}(t) = (1 - e^{-t/\tau}) V$$

$$\tau = RC$$

# RETARDO DE PROPAGACIÓN DE UN CIRCUITO RC DE PRIMER ORDEN



$$\frac{V_{pulse}}{2} = V_{pulse}(1 - e^{-t_d/RC}) \rightarrow t_d \approx 0.7RC$$

$$0.1V_{pulse} = V_{pulse}(1 - e^{-t_{10\%}/RC})$$

$$0.9V_{pulse} = V_{pulse}(1 - e^{-t_{90\%}/RC})$$

$$t_r = t_{90\%} - t_{10\%} \approx 2.2RC$$

# V<sub>DD</sub> Scaling

- In 1970's and 1980's, V<sub>DD</sub> = 5 V
- V<sub>DD</sub> has dropped
  - Avoid frying tiny transistors
  - Save power
- 3.3 V, 2.5 V, 1.8 V, 1.5 V, 1.2 V, 1.0 V, ...
- Be careful connecting chips with different supply voltages

Chips operate because they contain magic smoke

Proof:

- if the magic smoke is let out, the chip stops working



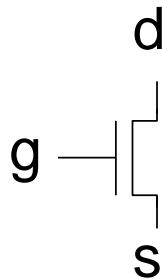


# Logic Family Examples

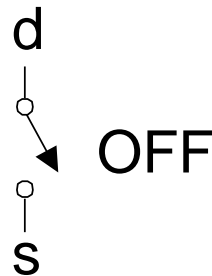
Logic Family	$V_{DD}$	$V_{IL}$	$V_{IH}$	$V_{OL}$	$V_{OH}$
TTL	5 (4.75 - 5.25)	0.8	2.0	0.4	2.4
CMOS	5 (4.5 - 6)	1.35	3.15	0.33	3.84
LVTTL	3.3 (3 - 3.6)	0.8	2.0	0.4	2.4
LVC MOS	3.3 (3 - 3.6)	0.9	1.8	0.36	2.7

# Transistors

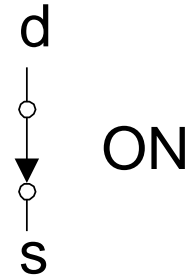
- Logic gates built from transistors
- 3-ported voltage-controlled switch
  - 2 ports connected depending on voltage of 3rd
  - d and s are connected (ON) when g is 1



$g = 0$

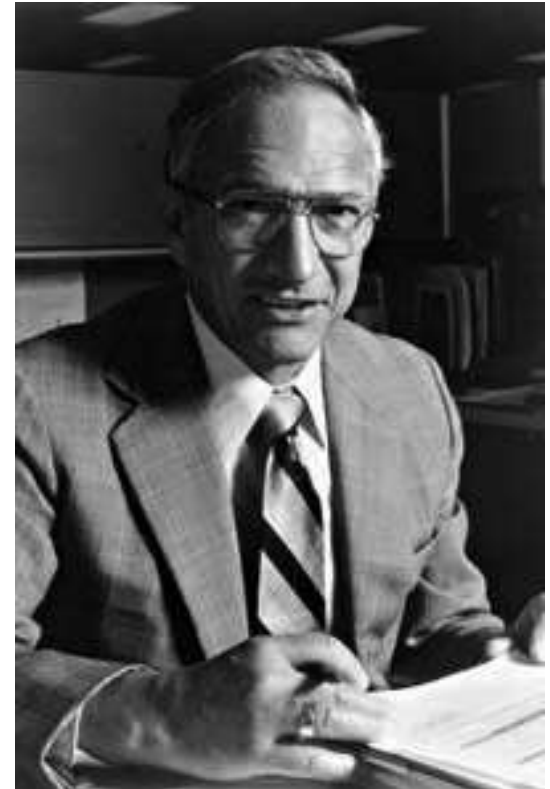


$g = 1$



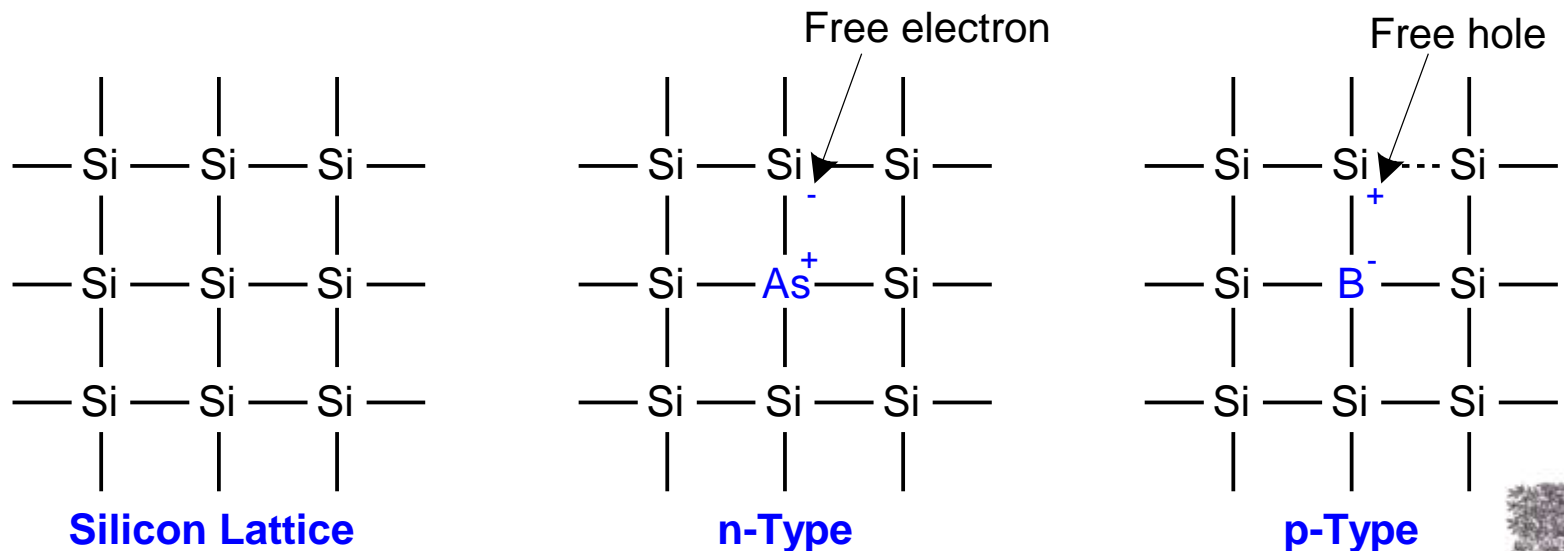
# Robert Noyce, 1927-1990

- Nicknamed “Mayor of Silicon Valley”
- Co-founded Fairchild Semiconductor in 1957
- Co-founded Intel in 1968
- Co-invented the integrated circuit



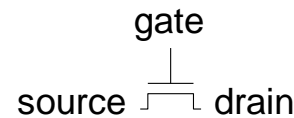
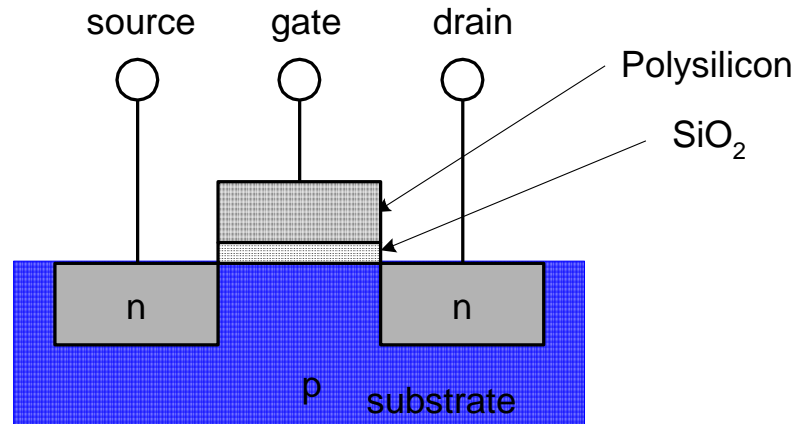
# Silicon

- Transistors built from silicon, a semiconductor
- Pure silicon is a poor conductor (no free charges)
- Doped silicon is a good conductor (free charges)
  - n-type (free *negative* charges, electrons)
  - p-type (free *positive* charges, holes)



# MOS Transistors

- **Metal oxide silicon (MOS) transistors:**
  - Polysilicon (used to be **metal**) gate
  - **Oxide** (silicon dioxide) insulator
  - Doped **silicon**

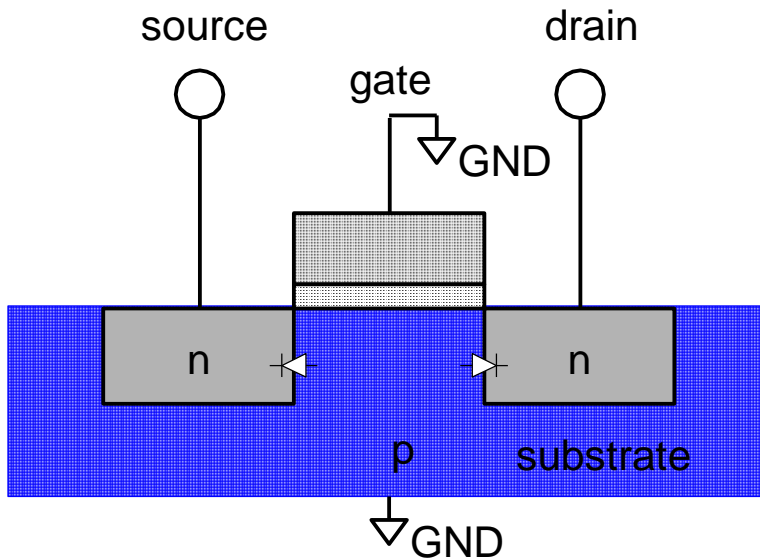


nMOS

# Transistors: nMOS

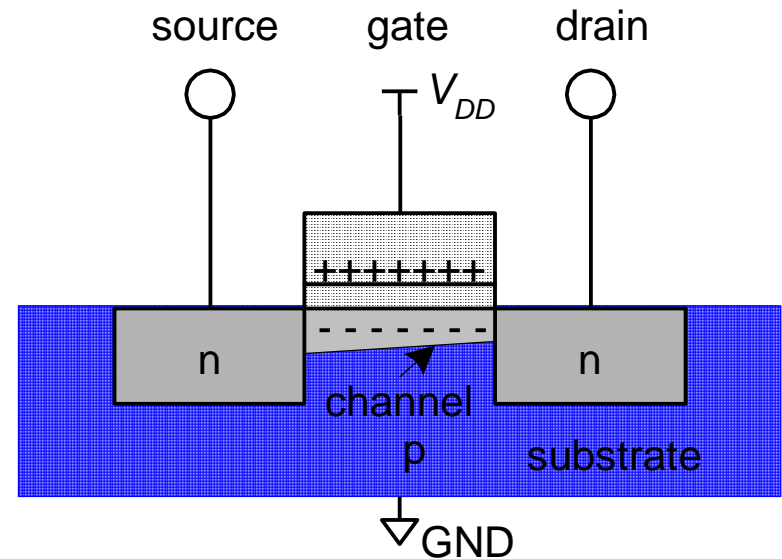
Gate = 0

OFF (no connection between source and drain)



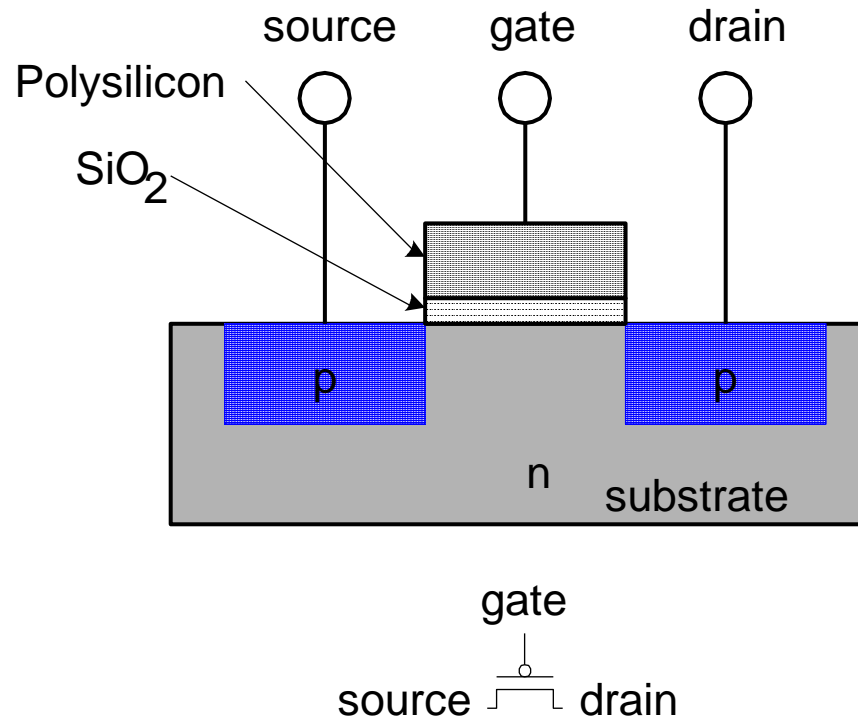
Gate = 1

ON (channel between source and drain)



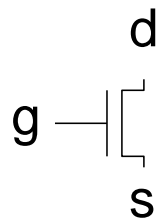
# Transistors: pMOS

- pMOS transistor is opposite
  - ON when Gate = 0
  - OFF when Gate = 1

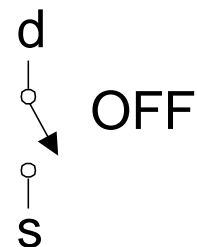


# Transistor Function

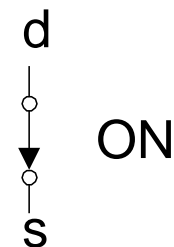
nMOS



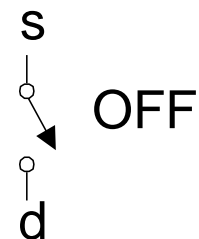
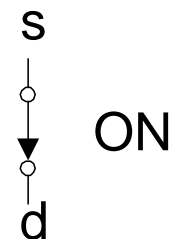
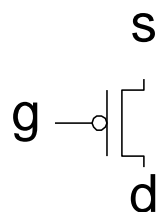
$g = 0$



$g = 1$



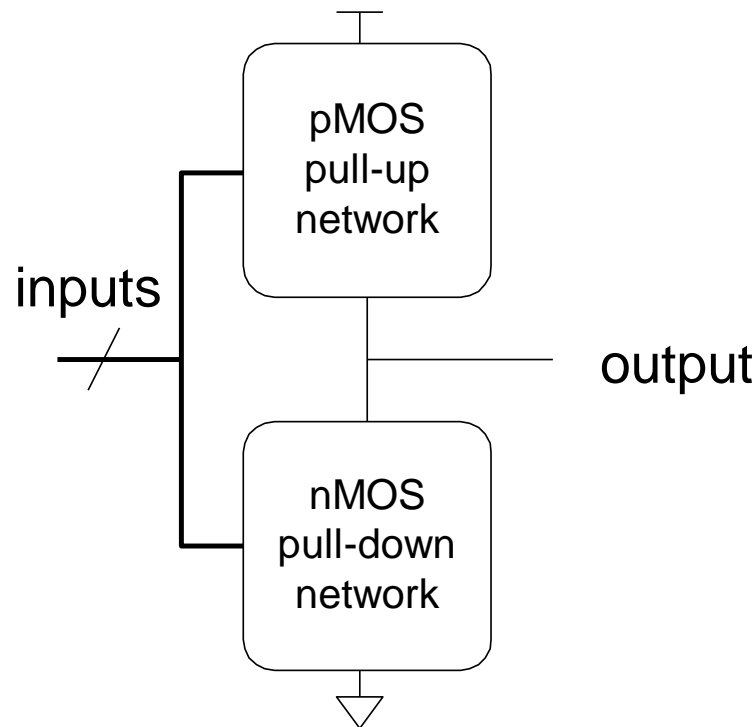
pMOS





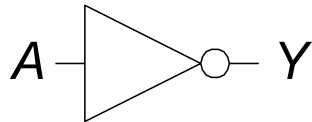
# Transistor Function

- **nMOS:** pass good 0's, so connect source to GND
- **pMOS:** pass good 1's, so connect source to  $V_{DD}$



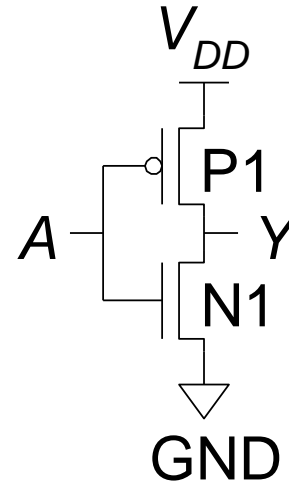
# CMOS Gates: NOT Gate

**NOT**



$$Y = \overline{A}$$

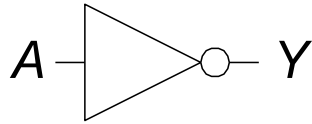
A	Y
0	1
1	0



A	P1	N1	Y
0			
1			

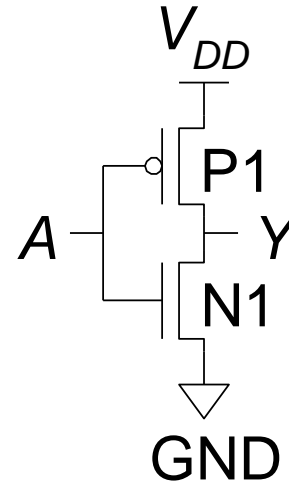
# CMOS Gates: NOT Gate

**NOT**



$$Y = \overline{A}$$

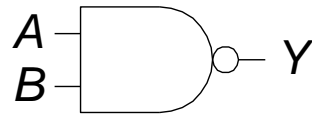
A	Y
0	1
1	0



A	P1	N1	Y
0	ON	OFF	1
1	OFF	ON	0

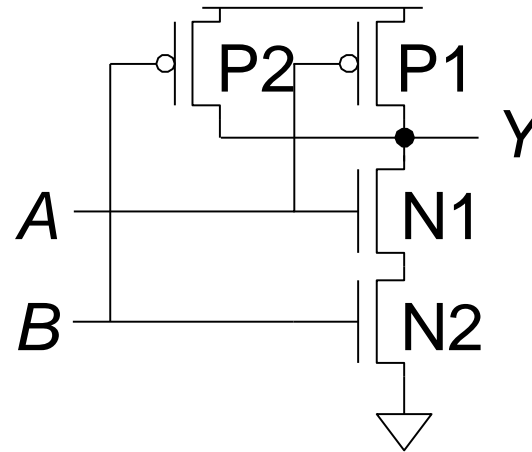
# CMOS Gates: NAND Gate

## NAND



$$Y = \overline{AB}$$

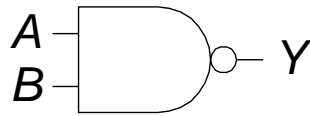
A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



A	B	P1	P2	N1	N2	Y
0	0					
0	1					
1	0					
1	1					

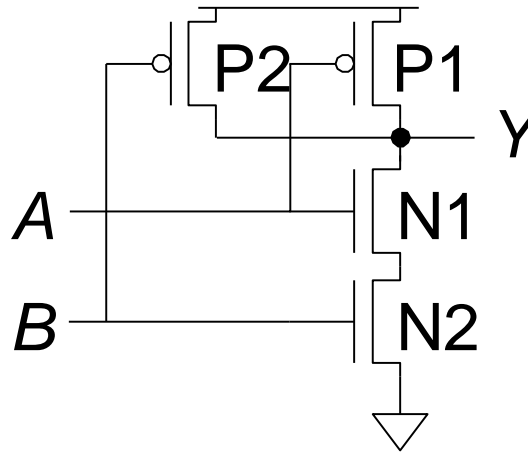
# CMOS Gates: NAND Gate

## NAND



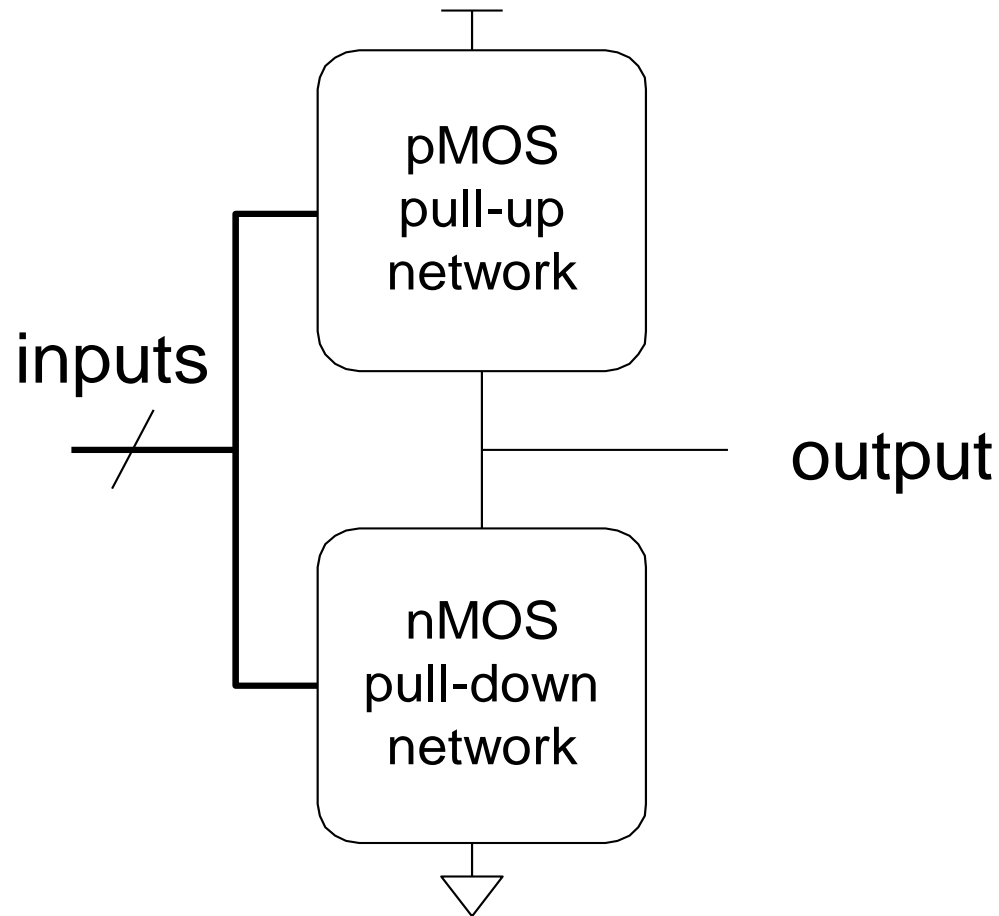
$$Y = \overline{AB}$$

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



A	B	P1	P2	N1	N2	Y
0	0	ON	ON	OFF	OFF	1
0	1	ON	OFF	OFF	ON	1
1	0	OFF	ON	ON	OFF	1
1	1	OFF	OFF	ON	ON	0

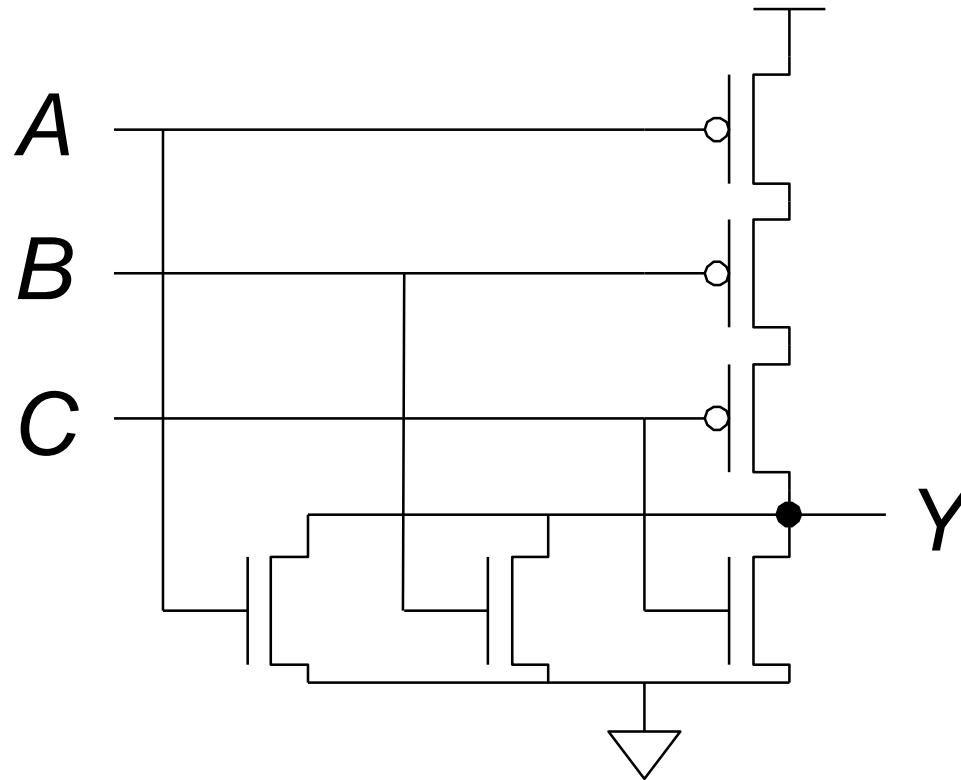
# CMOS Gate Structure



# NOR Gate

How do you build a three-input NOR gate?

# NOR3 Gate

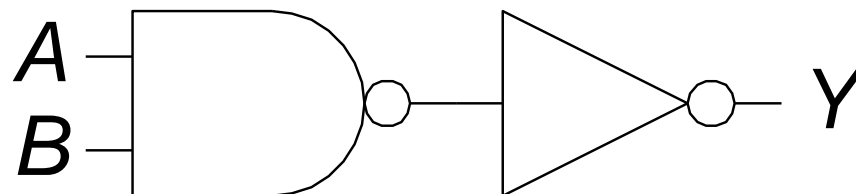




# Other CMOS Gates

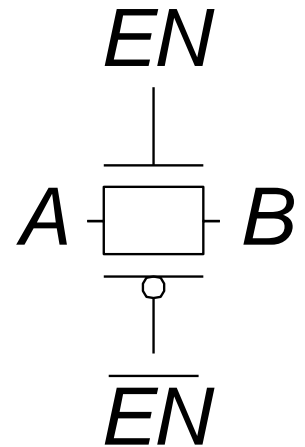
How do you build a two-input AND gate?

# AND2 Gate



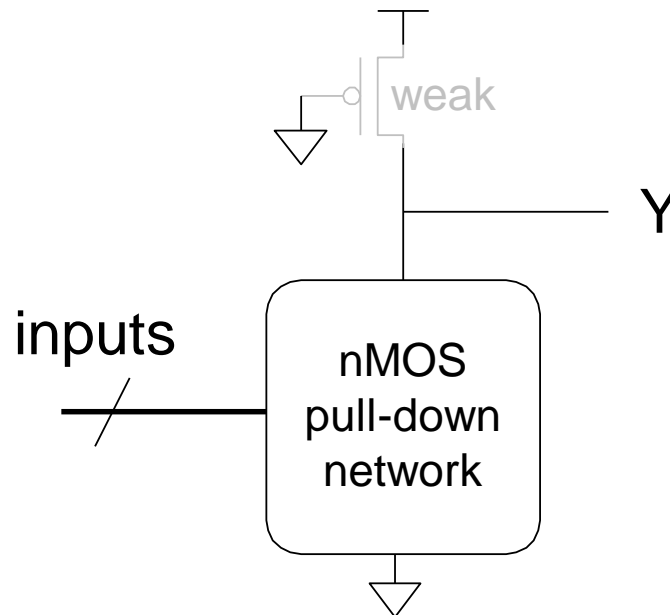
# Transmission Gates

- nMOS pass 1's poorly
- pMOS pass 0's poorly
- Transmission gate is a better switch
  - passes both 0 and 1 well
- When  $EN = 1$ , the switch is ON:
  - $EN = 0$  and  $A$  is connected to  $B$
- When  $EN = 0$ , the switch is OFF:
  - $A$  is not connected to  $B$



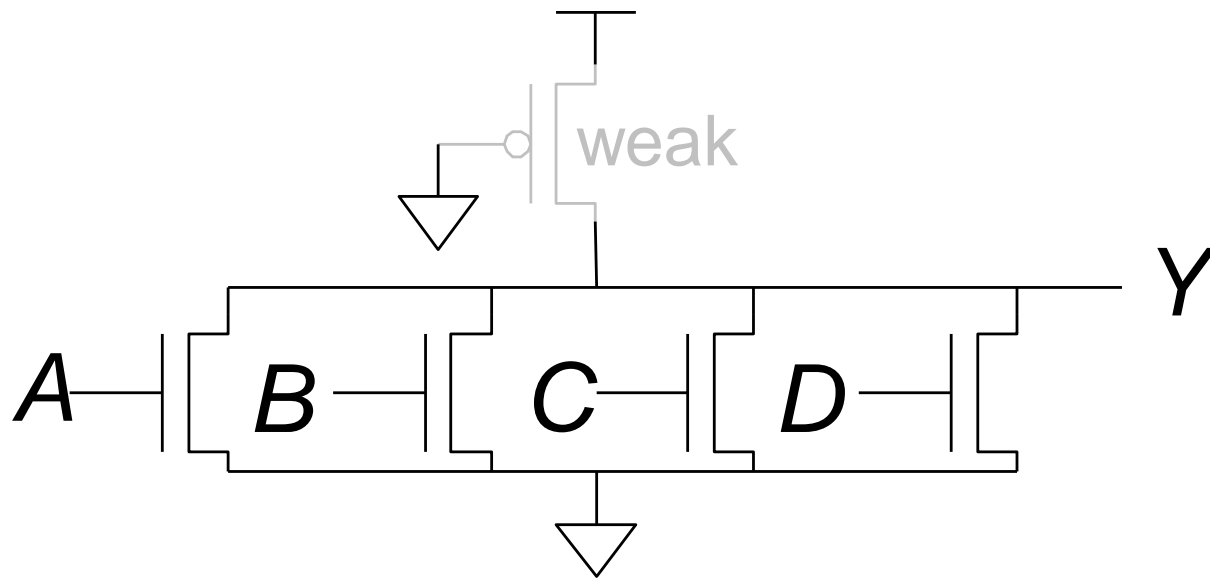
# Pseudo-nMOS Gates

- Replace pull-up network with *weak* pMOS transistor that is always on
- pMOS transistor: pulls output HIGH *only* when nMOS network not pulling it LOW



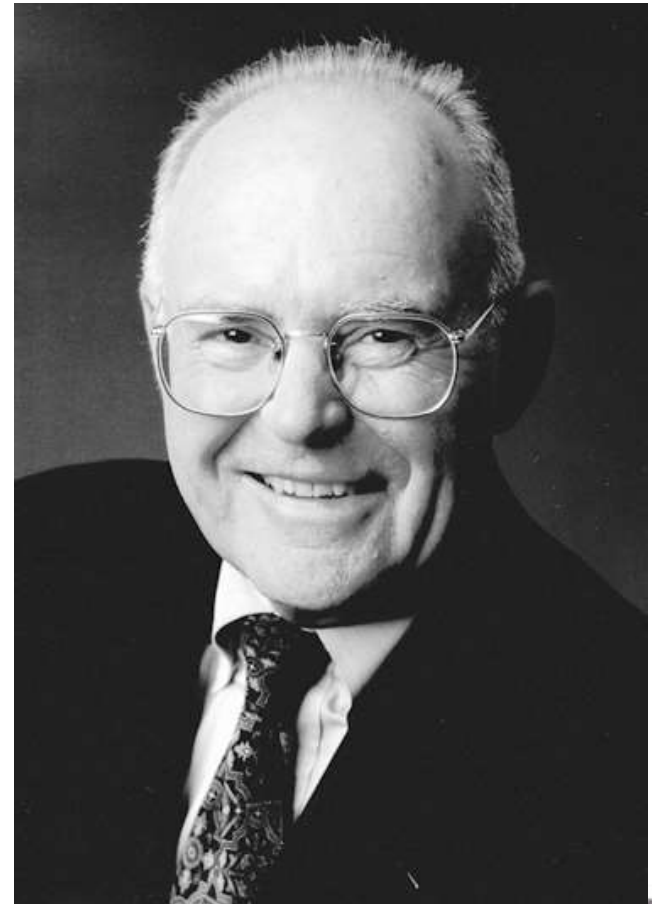
# Pseudo-nMOS Example

## Pseudo-nMOS **NOR4**

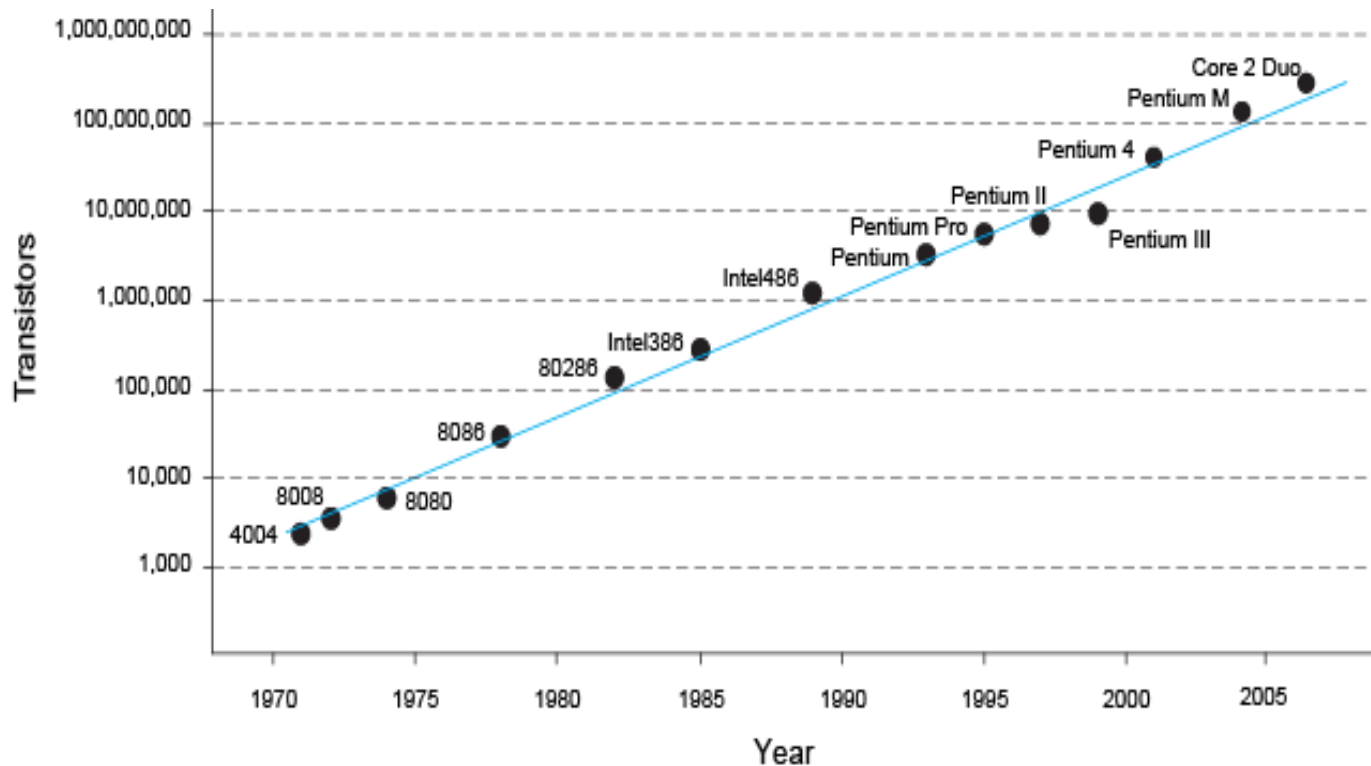


# Gordon Moore, 1929-

- Cofounded Intel in 1968 with Robert Noyce.
- **Moore's Law:** number of transistors on a computer chip doubles every year (observed in 1965)
- Since 1975, transistor counts have doubled every two years.



# Moore's Law



- “If the automobile had followed the same development cycle as the computer, a Rolls-Royce would today cost \$100, get one million miles to the gallon, and explode once a year . . .”

– Robert Cringley

# Power Consumption

- Power = Energy consumed per unit time
  - Dynamic power consumption
  - Static power consumption



# Dynamic Power Consumption

- **Power to charge transistor gate capacitances**
  - Energy required to charge a capacitance,  $C$ , to  $V_{DD}$  is  $CV_{DD}^2$
  - Circuit running at frequency  $f$ : transistors switch (from 1 to 0 or vice versa) at that frequency
  - Capacitor is charged  $f/2$  times per second (discharging from 1 to 0 is free)
- Dynamic power consumption:

$$P_{dynamic} = \frac{1}{2}CV_{DD}^2f$$

# Static Power Consumption

- Power consumed when no gates are switching
- Caused by the *quiescent supply current*,  $I_{DD}$  (also called the *leakage current*)
- Static power consumption:

$$P_{static} = I_{DD}V_{DD}$$

# Power Consumption Example

- Estimate the power consumption of a wireless handheld computer
  - $V_{DD} = 1.2 \text{ V}$
  - $C = 20 \text{ nF}$
  - $f = 1 \text{ GHz}$
  - $I_{DD} = 20 \text{ mA}$

# Power Consumption Example

- Estimate the power consumption of a wireless handheld computer
  - $V_{DD} = 1.2 \text{ V}$
  - $C = 20 \text{ nF}$
  - $f = 1 \text{ GHz}$
  - $I_{DD} = 20 \text{ mA}$

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{1}{2} C V_{DD}^2 f + I_{DD} V_{DD} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (20 \text{ nF}) (1.2 \text{ V})^2 (1 \text{ GHz}) + \\ &\quad (20 \text{ mA}) (1.2 \text{ V}) \\ &= (14.4 + 0.024) \text{ W} \approx 14.4 \text{ W} \end{aligned}$$