

Friday 3rd September

CSC 219

Digital Systems

A digital system is a combination of devices designed to manipulate logical information or physical quantities that are represented in digital forms i.e. the quantities can take only discrete values. These devices are most often electronics but they can also be mechanical magnetic or pneumatics.

binary (keep adding 1 to get of next value)

000

001

010

011

100

101

110

111

Analog System

This is a system that contains devices that manipulate physical quantities that are represented in analog form. In an analog system, the quantities over a continuous range of values.

Advantages of digital system

(NB: You can remove the first 2 0 cuz its not significant)

→ Digital systems are easier to design.

- * Information storage
- * Accuracy and precision to maximize the system.

- * Operation can be affected by noise
- * More digital can be fabricated

Limitations of

- * The real world takes time
- * Processing data takes time

Voltage source

A voltage source which can provide continuous flow of electrons (or through the two terminals of the device).

* Information storage ^{is easy} ~~is easy~~
 * Accuracy and precision are easier to maximize throughout the system.

* Operation can be programmed.

* Digital circuits are less affected by noise.

* More digital circuitry can be fabricated on IC chips.

Limitations of Digital systems

* The real world is analog.

* Processing digital signals takes time.

Voltage source and current Source

A voltage Source is a device which can ~~produce~~ produce a continuous force to move electrons (or continuous voltage) through the wire connected to the two terminals of the device.

Types of voltage source

* Direct voltage Source

This is a device which produces a continuous direct voltage output. A direct voltage is a type of voltage whose polarity remains the same. This type of voltage causes the current to move only in one direction continuously. Examples of direct voltage source are cells, battery, Dc generator.

NOTE: Polarity is defined as having two opposite electrical charges. "Good" and "evil" are examples of Polarity.

* Alternating voltage Source

This is a device which produces an alternating direct voltage output. Examples

are A-C generator, DC to AC converter etc.

An alternating voltage is a type of voltage whose polarity is reversed periodically. Alternating voltage causes the current to move in one direction for a period and then another direction for another period.

* Ideal Voltage Source

This is a kind of voltage source whose internal resistance is ∞ such that the supply voltage does not change even if the external load resistance is changed.

CURRENT SOURCE

This is a device which provides the regular flow of electrons or current in a circuit.

Types of current Source

* Direct current Source

This is made of a direct voltage source.

* Alternating current Source

This is a type of current source made of an alternating voltage source.

Ideal Current Source

This is a current source which provides a constant current without any relation with the voltage supplied to the load.

Friday 10th Sep.

CURRENT, VOLTAGE, RESISTANCE AND OHMS LAW

Current

Current is the rate at which electric charge flows past a point in a circuit. In other words, it is the rate of flow of electric charge.

$$C = \frac{E}{T}$$

$$\text{i.e. } I = \frac{Q}{T}$$

Current can be measured in amperes or coulombs per sec.

Voltage

Voltage also called electromotive force is the potential difference in charge between two points in an electrical field. It is measured in volt.

Relationship between Current & Voltage

- 1) Current is the effect and voltage being the cause
- 2) Current cannot flow without voltage.
- 3) Voltage can exist without current.

| Comparison Current | Voltage |
|---|---|
| 1) It is the same through all components connected in series. | Voltage gets distributed over components connected in series. |
| 2) It gets distributed over components connected in parallel. | Voltage are the same across all components in parallel. |

RESISTANCE

This is a property of a conductor by virtue of which the passage of current is opposed forcing electric energy to be transformed.

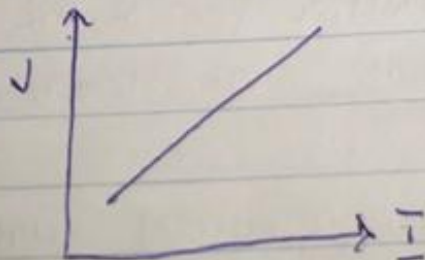
Ohm's Law

This states that the current through a conductor between two points is directly proportional to the voltage across the two points.

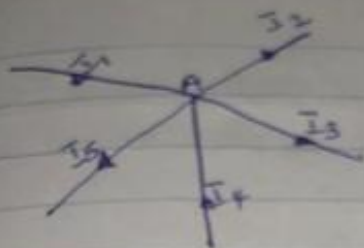
$$V \propto I$$

$$V = IR$$

The constant of proportionality is resistance, represented by



This law states that the algebraic sum of current in a junction or node is 0. It simply means that the total current leaving a junction is equal to the total current entering the junction.



$$I_1 + I_4 - I_2 - I_3 - I_5 = 0$$

$$I_1 + I_4 = I_2 + I_3 + I_5$$

$$\sum I = 0$$

Kirchoff's voltage law

This states that the algebraic sum of the product of current and resistance in each of the conductors in any closed path. In a network the algebraic sum of the emf in that path is zero.

$$\sum IR + \sum \text{emf} = 0$$

Superposition Theorem

This states that in a network of linear resistance containing more than one source of emf, the current which flows at any point is the sum of all the current which will flow at that point. If each emf is considered separately and all the other emf replaced for the time being by resistances equal to their internal resistances.

OR



The current i in a branch of a linear circuit is equal to the sum of the current produced by each source with the other sources set equal to zero.

~~Thevenin~~ Thevenin Theorem

This states that any linear two terminal DC network can be represented by a voltage source in series with a resistance.

Boolean Constant and variable.

Boolean algebra differs in a major way from normal algebra because boolean constants and variables are allowed to have only two possible values 0 or 1. A boolean variable is a quantity that ~~may~~ ^{at} different times, it is ~~is~~ either equal to 0 or 1. Boolean 0 and 1 do not represent actual numbers but instead represent the state of a voltage variable or what is called its logic level. A voltage in a digital circuit is said to be at the logic 0 level or the logic 1 level depending on its actual numeric value. In a digital logic, several other terms are used synonymously are shown in the table below

| Logic 0 | Logic 1 | |
|-------------|---------------|---|
| False | True | |
| off | on |  → Open Switch |
| Low | High |  → Closed Switch |
| No | Yes | |
| Open Switch | Closed Switch | |

Boolean algebra is a means of expressing the relationship between a logic circuit input and output. The inputs are considered logic variables whose logic levels at any time determine the output level because only ^{two} ~~three~~ values are possible; Boolean algebra is relatively easy to work it compared with ~~other~~ ^{ordinary} algebra. In boolean algebra, there are no fractions, decimal, negative numbers, square roots, cube roots, logarithms, imaginary numbers, and so on. In fact, in boolean algebra, there are only 3 basic operations: **OR**, **AND**, and **NOT**.

Truth Tables

A Truth table is a ~~table~~ means for describing how a logic circuit output depends on the logic level present at the circuit input.

NB: for a two input table, there are 4 entries.

for a 3 input table, there are 8 table entries.

for a 4 input table, there are 16 table entries.

The Number of input combinations will equal 2^n for an n input truth tables.

The shortest path scheduling is only

AND operation with AND Gate

$$x = A \cdot B$$

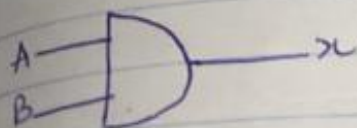
| A | B | x |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

$$x = 0 \times 0 = 0$$

$$= 0 \times 1 = 0$$

$$= 1 \times 0 = 0$$

$$= 1 \times 1 = 1$$

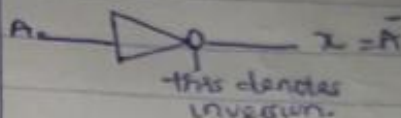


$$x = A \cdot B$$

NOT Gate

The NOT operation is unlike OR and AND operations because it can be performed on a single input variable. For example, if variable A is subjected to the NOT operation, the output x can be expressed as follows

$$x = \bar{A}$$



this denotes inversion.

i.e. it denotes the inverse

BOOLEAN THEOREMS

$$1.) x \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$2.) x \cdot 1 = x$$

$$3.) x \cdot x = x$$

$$4.) x \bar{x} = 0$$

$$5.) x + 0 = x$$

$$6.) x + 1 = 1$$

$$7.) x + x = x$$

$$8.) x + \bar{x} = 1$$

$$9.) x + y = y + x$$

$$10.) x \cdot y = y \cdot x$$

$$11.) x + (y \cdot z) = (x + y) \cdot (x + z)$$

$$12.) x(y \cdot z) = (xy) \cdot z = xyz$$

$$13a.) x \cdot (y + z) = xy + xz$$

$$13b.) (w + x)(y + z) = wy + xz + wy + xz$$

$$14.) x + xy = x$$

$$15a.) x + \bar{x}y = x + y$$

$$15b.) \bar{x} + xy = \bar{x} + y$$

also called the dispatcher,
the shortest path algorithm

blocks or term

OR

Examples ^{input}

| X | Y | Z ← output |
|---|---|------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

OR

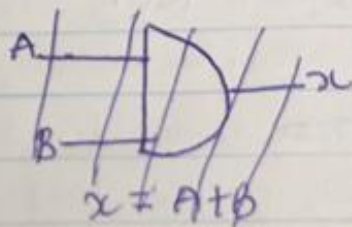
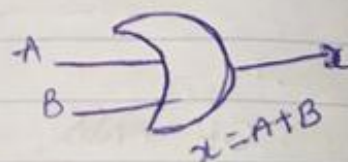
| A | B | C | Z |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

17/09/2021.

OR operation with OR Gate.

$$x = A + B$$

| A | B | x |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |



OR gate

$$x = 0 + 0 = 0$$

$$= 0 + 1 = 1$$

$$= 1 + 0 = 1$$

$$= 1 + 1 = 1$$

AND operation

$x = A * B$

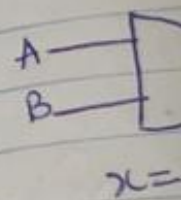
| A | B | x |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

$$x = 0 \times 0 = 0$$

$$= 0 \times 1 = 0$$

$$= 1 \times 0 = 0$$

$$= 1 \times 1 = 1$$



NOT

The NOT operation is performed on a single input variable. It can be represented by a NOT gate. The output of a NOT gate is the complement of the input variable.

De Morgan's theorem

$$(6a) \overline{x+y} = \bar{x} \cdot \bar{y}$$

$$(6b) \overline{x \cdot y} = \bar{x} + \bar{y}$$

Exercises

1) Simplify the expression

$$y = \bar{A}\bar{B}D + A\bar{B}\bar{D}$$

Solution:

$$y = \bar{A}\bar{B}D + A\bar{B}\bar{D}$$

$$= \bar{A}\bar{B}(D + \bar{D})$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\underline{1}$$

$$\bar{A}\bar{B}(1) = \bar{A}\bar{B}$$

2) Simplify $Z = (\bar{A} + B)(A + B)$

Solution:

$$Z = (\bar{A} + B)(A + B)$$

$$= \bar{A}A + \bar{A}B + BA + BB$$

$$= 0 + \bar{A}B + BA + B$$

$$= \bar{A}B + BA + B$$

$$= B(\bar{A} + A + 1)$$

$$= B(1 + 1)$$

$$= B(1)$$

$$= B$$

Under de Morgan's theorem,

3) Simplify

$$x = ACD + \bar{A}BCD$$

$$= CD(A + \bar{A}B)$$

$$= CD(A + B)$$

$$= ACD + BCD$$

RESISTIVITY

$$R \propto \frac{L}{A}$$

$$R = \rho \frac{L}{A}$$

resistivity

$$P = \frac{R \cdot A}{L}$$

$$(\Omega m)$$

Question

A coil consists of 2,000 turns of copper wire having a cross sectional area of 0.8 mm^2 . The mean length per turn is 80cm and the resistivity of copper is

convert 0.8mm
to m
the coil and
the supply.
Solution.
length of the

$$\text{But } 1000 = L = 1600$$

$$\text{Area} = 0.8$$

$$1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ mm}^2 = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Area} = 0.8$$

Resistivity

$$R = \rho \cdot \frac{L}{A}$$

$$R = \rho$$

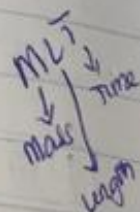


Diagram for procedure

convert 0.8mm to cm
0.02-microhm meter.

0.02 $\mu\Omega$ m
0.02mm meter find the resistance of
the coil and power absorbed by
the coil when connected across 110V
DC supply.

Solution.

$$\text{Length of the coil } (L) = 80 \times 2000 \text{ cm} \\ = 160000 \text{ cm}$$

$$\text{But } 100 \text{ cm} = 1 \text{ m}$$

$$\Rightarrow L = 160000 \text{ cm} = 1600 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Area} = 0.8 \text{ mm}^2$$

$$1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ mm}^2 = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Area} = 0.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Resistivity } (\rho) = 0.02 \mu\Omega \text{ m} = 0.02 \times 10^{-6} \Omega \text{ m}$$

$$R = \rho \cdot \frac{L}{A} = \frac{0.02 \times 1600}{0.8 \times 10^{-6}}$$

~~Mistake~~

$$R = \rho \cdot \frac{L}{A} = \frac{0.02 \times 10^{-6} \times 1600}{0.8 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= \frac{0.02 \times 10^{-6} \times 1600 \times 10^6}{0.8}$$

$$0.8$$

$$= 40 \times 10^0 \Omega$$

$$= \frac{0.02 \times 1600}{0.8} = 40 \Omega$$

$$0.8$$

$$\text{Power } (P) = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

$$V = 110 \text{ V}$$

$$P = \frac{(110)^2}{40} = \frac{12100}{40}$$

$$= 302.5 \text{ W}$$

Friday 24th Sep. 2021.

Designing combinational logic circuits.

When the desired output level of a logic circuit is given for all possible input conditions, the results can be conveniently displaced in a truth table. The

boolean expression for the circuit required ~~output~~ can then be

derived from the truth table. Complete

The following are the design procedure for a combinational logic circuit. Examples

Design a logic circuit that has 3 inputs A, B and C, and whose

output will be **HIGH** only when the majority of the inputs are high.

Solution
STEP 1: Set up the truth table.

| Inputs | | | Output X |
|--------|---|---|------------------------|
| A | B | C | X |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | $\leftarrow \bar{A}BC$ |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | $\leftarrow A\bar{B}C$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | $\leftarrow AB\bar{C}$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | $\leftarrow ABC$ |

NB: outputs will be HIGH when the majority of the INPUTS are high.
 i.e. where 1 is more than 0 i.e. 4 times.

NB: The (-) Bar shows the value is 0

Step 2: Write the AND term for each case where the output is 1

NB: There are 4 such cases and they are shown in the truth table
 i.e. $\bar{A}BC$, $A\bar{B}C$, $AB\bar{C}$ and ABC .

Step 3: Write the sum of product expression for the outputs.
 i.e.

$$X = \bar{A}BC + A\bar{B}C + AB\bar{C} + ABC$$

Step 4: Simplify the output expression

The expression can be simplified in several ways. Perhaps, the quickest way is to realise that the last term ABC has two variables in common with each of the other terms. We can use ABC term to factor each of the other terms.

The expression is rewritten with the ABC term occurring 3 times.

Step 4:

$$X = \bar{A}BC + A\bar{B}C + AB\bar{C} + ABC + AB\bar{C} + ABC$$

Solve using Boolean theorem.

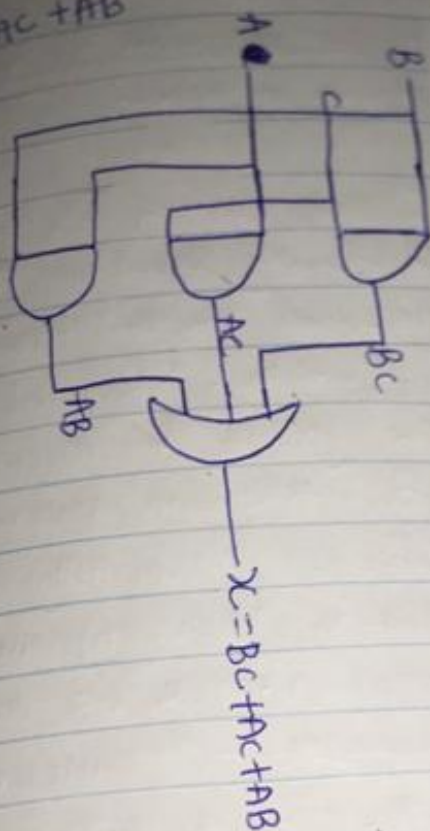
$$= BC(\bar{A} + A) + AC(\bar{B} + B) + AB(\bar{C} + C)$$

$$\text{But, } \bar{A} + A, \bar{B} + B, \text{ and } \bar{C} + C = 1$$

$$\therefore X = BC + AC + AB$$

Step 5: Implement the circuit for the final expression

$$Z = AC + AC + AB$$



and field effect transistor (FET). Passive components or devices are those which do not have this ability. Examples are resistors, capacitors, and inductors.

Advantages of IC

- 1.) Extremely small physical size.
- 2.) Very small weight.
- 3.) Reduced cost.
- 4.) Extremely high reliability: This is due to many factors;
 - a.) Absence of soldered connections
 - b.) Need for fewer interconnections which is major cause of circuit failures.
 - c.) Small temperature rise due to low power consumption of ICs

New topic:

INTEGRATED CIRCUIT (IC)

NOTE: Higher reliability means that ICs will work for longer period without giving any troubles.

An IC is a complex electronic circuit in which both the active and passive component are fabricated on a tiny single chip of silicon.

Active components are those which have the capability to produce gain. Examples are transistors

- 5.) Increased response time and speed.
- 6.) Low power consumption.
- 7.) Easy replacement.
- 8.) Higher yield

also called the dispatcher, blocks or

Drawbacks (Disadvantages) of ICs

- 1.) Costs or velocities cannot be fabricated number of circuit per package is low.
- 2.) ICs functions are fairly low voltage - million or more.
- 3.) They handle only limited amount of power.
- 4.) They are quite delicate and cannot withstand rough handling or excessive heat.

Scale of Integration

1.) SSI : Small Scale Integration;

The number of circuits obtained in one IC package is less than 10^4 .

2.) MSI : Medium Scale Integration

The number of circuits per IC package is between 13 and 99.

3.) LSI : Large Scale Integration

The no. of circuits per IC package is 100 and 9,999.

4.) VLSI (Very large scale integration)

Their number of circuit per package is between 10,000 and 99,999.

5.) Ultra large Scale Integration (ULSI)

The circuit density is between 100,000 and 999,999.

6) Mega Scale Integration (MSI)

Classification of ICs by structure

Structurally speaking, ICs can be classified into the following:

1.) Monolithic Integrated circuit: In this type of IC all circuit components both active and passive are

fabricated inseparably within a single piece of silicon crystalline material called WAFER OR SUBSTRATE. All components are automatically part of the same chip.

2.) Thick and thin film ICs: Thick thin ICs are constructed by depositing films of conducting materials through a mask on the substrate made of glass & ceramics.

Thick film ICs : This type of ICs, silk screen printing technique are used to create desired pattern

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- Thick film ICs : This type of ICs, silk screen printing technique are used to create desired pattern

on the surface of the Ic's. (ii) Small signal amplifiers
 3) Hybrid Ic's. These are formed by interconnecting a number of individual chips or by a combination of film and monolithic Ic's techniques. (iii) Power amplifiers
 (iv) RF and IF amplifiers
 (v) Microwave amplifiers
 (vi) Multiplexers
 (vii) Voltage comparators
 (viii) Voltage regulators.

Classification of Ic's by function

- ① Linear Ic's
- ② Digital Ic's

Digital Integrated circuits: These are mostly used by the Computer Industry. They lend themselves easily to monolithic integration.

Linear Integrated circuits: Also referred to as analogue Ic's because a computer uses a large number of identical circuits. their inputs and outputs can take on a continuous range of values and these outputs are generally proportional to the input as combined to digital Low or high. This is because digital signals are usually binary.

Digital Ic's include circuits

- a) Linear
 - b) They possess higher reliability such as;
 - (i) Logic gate
 - (ii) Flip flops
 - (iii) Counters
 - (iv) Clock-chips
- because so many external connections are eliminated. They are frequently used in;
- i) operational amplifiers

v) calculator chips

vi) Memory chips

vii) Microprocessor.

Friday.

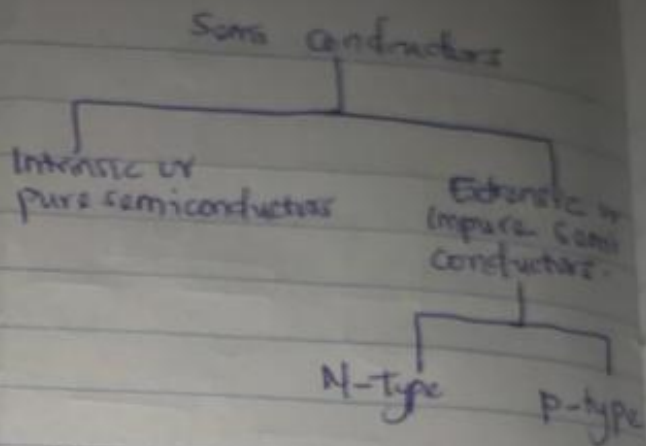
15/01/2021

Semi conductors.

A Semi conductor material is one whose electrical properties lies b/w those of insulators and conductors eg Silicon and germanium. In terms of energy bands, semi conductors can be defined as those materials which have almost an empty conduction band and almost filled valence band with a very narrow energy gap separating the two. Semi conductor current is the sum of electron and hole currents flowing in opposite directions.

Types of Semi conductors.

Semi conductors can be classified as shown below;



Intrinsic or pure semiconductor.
An Intrinsic Semiconductor is one which is made up of a semi conductor material in its extremely pure form. Alternatively, an intrinsic semiconductor may be defined as one in which the no. of conduction electron is equal to the no. of holes. Examples of such semi conductors are pure Germanium and silicon which have forbidden energy gaps of 0.72 eV and 1.1 eV respectively.

The energy gap is so small that even at ordinary room temperature, there are many electrons which possess sufficient energy

However, it is worth noting that for each electron liberated into the conduction band, a positively charged hole is created in the valence band.

2.) Extrinsic Semiconductors

These intrinsic semiconductors + to which some impurities or ~~doping~~ doping agent or dopant has been added in extremely small amounts are called extrinsic or impure semiconductors. The usual doping agents are;

- a) pentavalent atoms having 5 valence electrons (Arsenic, Antimony, phosphorus) or
- b) trivalent atoms having 3 valence electrons (Gallium, aluminium, boron)

Depending on the type of doping material used, extrinsic semiconductors can be subdivided into (2) classes;

- ① N type Semiconductors
- ② P type Semiconductors
- ③ N type

This type of Semiconductors is obtained when a pentavalent material like antimony is added to pure germanium crystal. In N type Semiconductors, electrons are the majority carriers while holes constitute the minority carriers. Hence, N type Semiconductors conduct principally by electrons in the nearly ^{empty conduction} ~~electron~~ band and the process is called excess conduction.

The shortest time scheduling is only required whenever an event occurs that

11.) p type semi conductors

This type of Semi conductor is obtained when traces of trivalent material are added to a pure ^{germanium} crystal. In this case, the three valence electron of boron atom form covalent bond with four surrounding atoms and one bond is left incomplete and gives rise to a whole holes form ^{majority} negative carriers, ^{while ~~the~~ electrons} constitute ^{minority} positive carrier.