Digital logic Lecture 1. Introduction

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#### Outline

Principles and practice

Analog versus digital

Digital devices

Electronic aspects of digital devices Logic levels, invalid levels and noise margins

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Integrated circuits

Digital-Design Levels

#### Administrative

- Instructor: Doru Todinca, room B622
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- ▶ Labs are mandatory and will count 50% in the final mark
- The lecture is also mandatory
- ▶ Examination: written exam, counting 50% of the final grade

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### Textbook

- Textbook: John F. Wakerly, Digital Design: Principles and Practice, Third Edition, Prentice Hall, Inc, 2000
- The fourth edition was published in 2006
- Third edition of Wakerly's textbook was translated in Romanian: "Cicuite digitale: Principiile si practicile folisite in proiectare", Teora, 2002, ISBN 973-20-0659-5
- If not specified otherwise, my presentations are entirely based on John Wakerly's book
- in the sense that figures, tables, definitions, examples, etc, from third edition are used for these presentations
- Handouts will be enough for your exam, but Wakerly's book may be useful.

### Principles and practice

- Most of the principles that you learn now will continue to be important in the future
- Maybe some principles will be applied in ways that have not yet been discovered!
- Practice changes much faster, sometimes even before you start working in the field
- For sure many practical things will change through your career
- Wakerly: "Treat practice material as a way to reinforce principles
- and as a way to learn design methods by examples".
- These things are valid not only for Digital Logic, but for most things that you study in college !

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**Digital-Design Levels** 

## Analog versus digital

- Analog signals (produced by analog devices) can take any value over a continuous range of values (of voltage, current, or other metric)
- We model a digital signal as taking at any time only two discrete values
- ► We call these two values 0 and 1, LOW and HIGH, FALSE and TRUE, negated or asserted, etc.
- In reality digital signals do take values over a continuous range of voltages, currents, etc, but we ignore their analog behaviour.
- ▶ **Digital abstraction:** we associate a **range** of analog values with a logic **0** value and **another range** of analog value with a logic **1**.
- The range of values associated to 0 logic and the range of values associated to 1 logic are separated by a range of invalid (undefined) values

# Analog versus digital: advantages of digital devices

- Reproducibility of results:
  - a properly designed digital device always obtains the same results (outputs) for the same set of inputs
  - For an analog circuit this not always true, because its outputs can vary with temperature, power supply, aging, and other factors
- Ease of design: Digital, or logic design is logic, no special math needed (e.g. calculus)
- Flexibility and functionality: once a problem is in digital form, we can follow a set of logical steps and solve it.
- Programmability:
  - much of digital design is done using Hardware Description Languages (HDLs).
  - HDLs are used for modeling, simulation and synthesis
  - The use of HDLs in digital design will increase even more in the future
- Speed: digital circuits are very fast

# Advantages of digital devices

- Economy: the cost of digital circuits decreases, making mass production very effective
- Steadily advancing technology: when designing a digital system, we know that there will be a faster, cheaper, better technology in the future, and can anticipate it (e.g. by providing expansion sockets)
- Digital devices replaced analog devices in many domains, in the last decades:

- still pictures (cameras)
- video recordings: digital versatile discs (DVDs)
- audio recordings: compact discs (CDs)
- automobile carburetors
- the telephone system
- mobile phones
- traffic lights
- movie effects
- and many more !

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**Digital-Design Levels** 

Digital devices. Combinational and sequential devices

There are two types of digital devices: *combinational devices* and *sequential devices* 

#### Definition

**Combinational devices**: their outputs depend only on the current *input combination* (i.e., the combination of their input values)

#### Definition

**Sequential devices**: their outputs depend on the current input combination *and* the *sequence* of past inputs.

### Digital devices: sequential circuits

- Sequential devices have states, or memory, i.e., they store values
- Usually the state of a sequential device can be changed only at certain time moments, determined by a "clock" input signal
- The most basic sequential circuit is called *flip-flop*
- The state of a flip-flop can be either 0 or 1
- Or, we can say that a flip-flop stores either a 0 or a 1
- Flip-flops are built from combinational circuits (from gates)
- In general, a sequential device consists of flip-flops and combinational devices
- That's why we will study first combinational circuits, then sequential circuits.

### Combinational circuits: gates

- The simplest combinational circuits are called gates
- This is because they control the flow of digital information: they allow or not to pass certain information from inputs to output
- Gates have one single output and one or more inputs
- Of course, inputs and output take analog values, but we interpret them digitally (0 or 1)
- There are three fundamental gates (see figure 1), from which any other gate can be obtained:

- 1. AND gate
- 2. OR gate
- 3. NOT gate, or inverter

### Combinational circuits: gates



Figure 1 : Digital devices: (a) AND gate, (b) OR gate and (c) NOT gate, or inverter

Figure 1 shows the symbols of the three fundamental gates, and their behaviour: all input combinations and the resulting outputs.

### Digital gates and truth tables



Figure 2 : Fundamental gates and truth tables: (a) for AND gate, (b) for OR gate, (c) for NOT gate

A gate's behaviour can be expressed more compactly using the truth table (see figure 2) The figure shows also the functions realized by the three gates: XAND Y, X OR Y, and NOT X

### Inverting gates



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#### Figure 3 : Inverting gates:(a) NAND, (b) NOR

- We can combine an AND gate and a NOT gate, obtaining a NAND gate
- The circle on the gate symbol is called *inversion bubble*, and it means that the output of the gate is negated
- Which means that, instead of function X AND Y, the gate implements the function NOT(X AND Y)
- Similarly for NOR gate, the function is NOT(X OR Y)

- ► A logic value, 0 or 1, is called a *binary digit*, or *bit*.
- If more than two values are needed, then we can add more bits.
- With *n* bits we have  $2^n$  different values.
- ► When we discuss electronic logic circuits we use LOW and HIGH for 0 and 1.
- ► LOW: a signal is in the range of algebraically lower values, which is interpreted as logic 0.
- ► HIGH a signal is in the range of algebraically higher values, which is interpreted as logic 1
- Association between 0 and LOW and 1 and HIGH is arbitrary, and is called *positive logic*.
- The opposite association, i.e., 0 to HIGH and 1 to LOW is called *negative logic*. Normally we use positive logic.

- The operation of a combinational circuit is fully described by a truth table that lists all combinations of input values and the output value(s) produced by each input combination.
- For a combinational circuit with n inputs, the truth table has  $2^n$  lines.
- The behaviour of a sequential circuit can be described by a state table
- The state table specifies next state and the output as function of its inputs and current state.

- An AND gate produces a 1 output if and only if (iff) all its inputs are 1. Otherwise its output is 0.
- It means that, if at least one input is 0, the output of an AND gate is 0.
- ► The output function of an AND gate with inputs X and Y is denoted X AND Y or X · Y.
- An OR gate produces a 1 output if and only if one or more inputs are 1.
- It means that an OR gate produces a 0 output iff all inputs are 0.
- The function of an OR gate with inputs X and Y is denoted X OR Y or X + Y.

- A NOT gate (an inverter) produces an output value that is the opposite of the input value
- It means, when the input is 0, the output is 1; when the input is 1, the output is 0
- ► The function of the NOT gate with input X is NOT X, denoted also X, or X'. We will prefer the notation X'.
- ► We can combine AND and NOT to obtain the NAND gate, with the function NOT(X AND Y),or X · Y ,or (X · Y)', or X NAND Y
- The output of a NAND gate is the opposite of and AND gate (is 0 iff all inputs are 1)
- A NOR gate is obtained by combining an OR and an inverter
- ► The function of a NOR is denoted NOT (X+Y), or X + Y, or (X + Y)', or X NOR Y
- The output of a NOR gate is the opposite of an OR gate: a 0 iff one or more inputs are 1.

# Representations of a digital device

- 1. The "black-box" representation (fig 4):
  - Minimum amount of detail: only the number of inputs and outputs
  - It does not describe the functioning of the device (how it responds to input signals
- 2. The truth table: for combinational circuits (fig 5)
- 3. Logic diagram (logic circuit) (fig 6): we will learn how to obtain the logic circuit from the truth table
- 4. Timing diagram (fig 7):
  - Contains the time dimension of the circuit's behaviour
  - It shows how the circuit might respond to the time-varying input signals
  - It shows also that the logic signals do not change instantaneously from logic 0 to logic 1: the signals have a *slope*, visible on the oscilloscope, but not in simulation
  - Also, we can see that there is a lag between an input change and the corresponding output change (circuit's delay): it can be visualized by simulation

### Representations of a digital device



Figure 4 : Black-box representation of a 3-input, 1-output logic circuit

Table 3-2 Truth table for a	Х	Y	Z	F
combinational logic	0	0	0	0
circuit.	0	0	1	1
	0	1	0	0
	0	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0
	1	1	0	1
	1	1	1	1

Figure 5 : Truth table for a combinational logic circuit = .

### Representations of a digital device



Figure 6 : Circuit diagram for the circuit described by the truth table from above



Figure 7 : Timing diagram for a logic circuit ( = ) ( = )  $\circ \circ \circ$ 

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### Logic values and undefined values



Figure 8 : Logic levels for CMOS circuits

- Between 0.0 V and 1.5 V is the voltage interval representing logic 0 values
- Between 3.5 V and 5.0 V is the voltage interval representing logic 1 values.
- Between the 0 logic values and 1 logic values is the interval for undefined (invalid) values: the interval 1.5 V to 3.5 V.
- The values are for the CMOS integrated circuits.

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# The noise margins



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Figure 9 : Logic levels and noise margin

- The domain for logic 0 output values is smaller than the input interval for logic 0 values and included in it.
- The difference between them is the noise margin.
  Similar for logic 1 intervals
- If a noise signal affects the output of a circuit, the output will be correctly recognized as a logic 0 (or 1) by the input of the next circuit if the noise signal is smaller than the noise margin.

# Logic families

- First electronically controlled logic circuits were based on relays (1930, Bell Labs)
- Eniac, first electronic digital computer was built with vacuum tubes (mid-1940s)
- Invention of semiconductor diode and bipolar junction transistor made computers smaller and faster (late 1950s)
- In 1960s: invention of *integrated circuit (IC)*: multiple diodes, transistors and other components on a single chip
- Definition: "a logic family is a collection of different integrated circuit chips that have similar input, output, and internal circuit characteristics, but that perform different logic functions"
- Most successful bipolar logic family: transistor-transistor logic (TTL) 1960s
- Metal oxide semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET, or MOS transistor): the base of CMOS family (mid 1980's)
- CMOS technology: most used and easiest to understand !

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### Integrated circuits: the fabrication process

- "A collection of one or more gates fabricated on a single silicon chip is called an *integrated circuit (IC)*." [Wakerly]
- The fabrication process starts with a circular wafer that contains many replicas of the same IC (thousands replicas).
- The size of the wafer is "up to ten inches in diameter"
- Each piece (IC chip) is called a die
- Each die has pads electrical contact points, much larger than other IC features, where the wires will be connected later
- After fabrication, the dice are tested in place on the wafer using very small probing pins to contact the pads
- Defective dice are marked
- > Then, the wafer is sliced in order to produce the individual dice
- The marked dice are discarded
- Each "good" die is mounted in a package, the pads are connected to the package pins, resulting an *integrated circuit*
- ► The packaged ICs are tested again before being sold

### Integrated circuits: classification by size

- 1. Small-Scale Integration (SSI):
  - Contain the equivalent of 1 to 20 gates
  - Typically SSI ICs contain gates and flip-flops
  - They come in a 14-pin dual inline-pin (DIP) package (see figure 10, (a))
- 2. Medium-Scale Integration (MSI):
  - Contain the equivalent of about 20 o 200 gates
  - Typically contain functional building blocks: decoders, encoders, multiplexers, demultiplexer, registers, counters
  - The equivalent building blocks are used in larger ICs
- 3. Large-Scale Integration (LSI):
  - contain the equivalent of 200 to 1,000,000 gates or more
  - They include: small memories, microprocessors, programmable logic devices, and customized devices
- 4. Very Large-Scale Integration (VLSI):
  - Separation between LSI and VLSI is fuzzy and is based on transistor count
  - ICs with a few millions of transistors are VLSI
  - They include most nowadays microprocessors and memories, larger programmable logic devices and customized devices

### Integrated circuits DIP packages



Figure 10 : Dual inline pin (DIP) packages: (a) 14-pin; (b) 20-pin; (c) 28-pin

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### Pin diagram for several SSI ICs from 7400-series



Figure 11 : Pin diagram for several SSI ICs from 7400-series

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### Programmable logic devices

- There are many types of ICs that can be "programmed" after manufacturing
- It means that their logic function are established after manufacturing
- Most such devices can be also re-programmed
- This is very good for the design process: e.g, if we find an error, we can change the logic functions of the IC
- First such devices were called Programmable Logic Arrays (PLAs), then, after enhancements, Programmable Array Logic (PAL) devices
- They consist of a two-level structure of AND and OR gates with user-programmable connections
- Today, the generic name for such devices is Programmable Logic Devices (PLDs)

### Programmable logic devices

- There are technological limitations in the capacity increase of PLDs.
- Two solutions have been developed:
  - 1. Complex PLD (CPLD): a number of PLDs and a programmable structure that connects them (fig 12 (a))
  - 2. Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs): a very large number of small individual logic blocks and a large, distributed interconnection structure (fig 12 (b))
- Both CPLDs and FPGAs are used for prototyping and they reduce the "time to market" of a product
- This is because of the use of HDLs (Hardware Description Languages) like VHDL or Verilog: a description of a device realized in a HDL can be synthesized and downloaded on a FPGA or CPLD chip in minutes.
- Synthesis is the process of transformation of a representation of a digital device to an equivalent lower level representation.

### Programmable logic devices



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Figure 12 : Large PLDs: (a) CPLD; (b) FPGA

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### Application-Specific ICs

- The costs of a LSI chip entirely designed for a specific customer (from chip's functions to the transistor level) are extremely high (more than 500,000 USD), being efficient only for mass production (e.g. microprocessors, buss-interface chips)
- In order to reduce the costs per chip, semicustom ICs, or application-specific ICs (ASICs) have been developed
- ASICs are "chips designed for a particular, limited product or application"
- IC manufacturers have developed libraries of standard cells, which usually contain MSI common functions like decoders, registers, counters, or LSI functions like memories
- The ASICs rely on standard cell design: the logic designer interconnects such functions using the libraries of standard cells

### Printed-Circuit Boards

- ICs are mounted on printed-circuit boards (PCBs), called also printed-wired boards PWBs
- A multilayer PCB "have copper wiring etched on multiple, thin layers of fiberglass that are laminated into a single board"
- Individual wire connections are called PCB traces
- Most modern PCBs use surface-mount technology (SMT)
- The ICs are called SMDs (surface-mounted devices)
- They are mounted on PCB (usually by machine), with their leads bent, and held in place by a solder paste
- Then the entire PCB is passed through an oven to melt the solder paste
- Old DIP chips have long pins that poke through the board and are soldered on the underside

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Integrated circuits

Digital-Design Levels

### **Digital-Design Levels**

- Digital design can be done at several levels of abstraction and representation
- Usually a designer works at a certain level of design
- It's necessary for a designer to be able to move up or down one or two levels
- The digital-design levels are:
  - 1. The physical level
  - 2. The transistor level
  - 3. The logic-design level
  - 4. Computer design level (also called register-transfer level, or RTL)

- 5. System-design level
- The level of abstraction increases from physical to system level.

### Digital-Design Levels: physical level

- Deals with "device physics and IC manufacturing process" [Wakerly]
- Main responsible for the progress in IC design (speed and density) in the past decades
- Moore's Law, stated by Gordon Moore (Intel founder) in 1965: "the number of transistors per square inch in the newest IC will double every year"
- In the last years the doubling of density takes almost 2 years
- We do not study this level, but it influences digital design: the reducing of transistor sizes caused the decrease of power-supply voltages
- This produced major changes in digital design of ICs:
- New research domains have emerged: low-power design, low-power testing, low-power synthesis, etc

### **Digital-Design Levels**

- Transistor level
  - It is not the subject of the Digital Logic course
  - It will be the main topics of the Integrated Circuits course

#### Logic-design level

- It is the level of Digital Logic course
- We will learn how to synthesize RTL devices (multiplexers, demultiplexers, decoders, counters, registers, etc) from gates and flip-flops
- Computer design level, or Register-transfer level (RTL):
  - Courses: Computer Architecture, Computer Organization, Microprocessors
  - You will use what you learn at the Digital Logic course
- System-design level
  - Courses: Operating systems, Compilers, etc

# Digital-Design Levels representations of a multiplexer

#### Specification:

- Design a multiplexer (or MUX) circuit with two data inputs A and B, a control input S and an output Z
- If S=0 then the input A is transferred at the output Z (i.e. Z=A);
- If S=1 then the input B is transferred at the output Z (i.e. Z=B);
- All inputs and the output are one bit wide
- ► The functioning of the MUX as a switch is given is figure 13
- The truth table of the MUX is shown in figure 14
- From the truth table, we derive the equation for the MUX:

$$Z = S' \cdot A + S \cdot B$$

- The equation reads: "Z equals not S and A, or S and B"
- The gate-level logic diagram that corresponds to this equation is shown in figure 15, and the MSI IC in figure 16

### Digital-Design Levels representations of a multiplexer



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Figure 13 : Switch model for multiplexer function

Table 1-1Truth table for themultiplexer function.	S	А	В	Z
	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0
	0	1	0	1
	0	1	1	1
	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1
	1	1	0	0
	1	1	1	1

Figure 14 : Truth table for multiplexer function

### Digital-Design Levels representations of a multiplexer



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Figure 15 : Gate-level logic diagram for multiplexer function



Figure 16 : Logic diagram for a multiplexer using an MSI circuit

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