

## Lecture 9: Digital Electronics

### Introduction:

- We can classify the building blocks of a circuit or system as being either analog or digital in nature.
  - ◆ If we focus on voltage as the circuit parameter of interest:
    - Analog: The voltage can take on a range of voltages, e.g. any value between 0.1 and 2 Volts.
    - Digital: The voltage can have only two values, e.g. 0 or 5 Volts
      - We say the voltage is either on or off
      - ☞ Digital circuits are useful when we don't need a continuous range of voltage or current.
      - Examples: Representing numbers, binary logic, counting circuits.
      - Example: Represent base 10 numbers using the binary system:
$$2_{10} = 10_2 = 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$$
$$10_{10} = 1010_2 = 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0$$
- Digital circuits use standard voltages (or currents) to denote ON (high, 1) or OFF (low, 0).
  - ◆ These standards are called “Logic Families” and there are several families.
  - ◆ Two of the most popular families are:
    - TTL (**T**ransistor-**T**ransistor-**L**ogic): ON = 5 Volts, OFF = 0 Volts
    - ECL (**E**mitter-**C**oupled-**L**ogic): ON = -1 Volt, OFF = -1.6 Volts
  - ☞ For practical reasons both ON and OFF are given by a range of voltages or currents.
  - ◆ ON for an input to a circuit might have slightly different voltage than ON for an output to a circuit.

- A description of several logic families is given in the table below:

	Delay (ns)	Max. FF Rate (MHz)	Power/Gate (mW)	High (V)	Low (V)
Standard TTL (7400)	10	35	15	3.5	0.2
Low-power Schottky (74LS00)	9.0	33	2	3.5	0.2
Fast TTL (74F00)	3.5	125	5.5	2.7	0.5
CMOS (74C00)	25 @ 10 V 50 @ 25 V	10 @ 10 V 3.5 @ 5 V	0.01	5-15	0
High-speed CMOS (74HC00)	8.0	40	0.01	2-6	0.1
ECL	2	250	25	-0.9-1.8	
100k ECL	0.75	500	40	-1.0-1.7	

- ◆ Advantages of Digital:

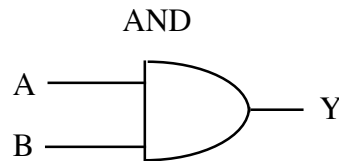
- only deal with two voltage levels (either ON or OFF)
- voltages (or currents) are standardized
- do not deal with individual transistors...

- ◆ Disadvantages of Digital:

- too many “black” boxes
- need good power supplies, clocks etc. for circuits to work properly

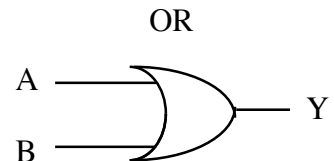
## Logic Gates:

- We want to make decisions based on digital information.
  - ◆ For now consider the basic building blocks with one or two inputs and one output.
- The basic logic units (gates) are: AND, OR, NOT.
  - ◆ These functions are defined by their truth tables.



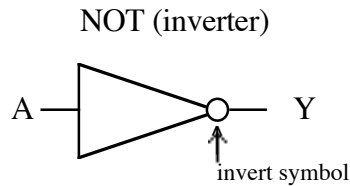
A	B	Y
0	0	0
1	0	0
0	1	0
1	1	1

$$A \cdot B = Y$$



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

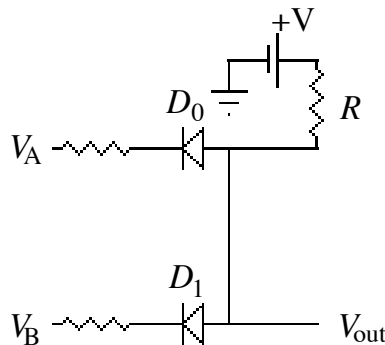
$$A + B = Y$$



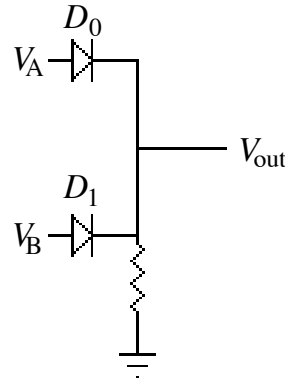
A	Y
0	1
1	0

$$\overline{A} = Y$$

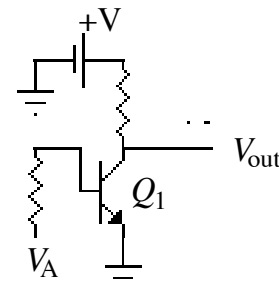
A and B stand for the inputs  
Y stands for the output  
0: low input or output  
1: high input or output



$V_{out} = +V$  if both diodes off  
 $= 0$  if one or more diodes conduct



$V_{out} = V_A$  or  $V_B$  if either diodes conduct  
 $= 0$  if both diodes are off



$V_A > 0.6 \text{ V}$ ,  $Q_1$  is on,  $V_{out} \sim 0$   
 $V_A < 0.6 \text{ V}$ ,  $Q_1$  is off,  $V_{out} = +V$

## Boolean Algebra or the Algebra of 1's and 0's

- Circuits consisting of logic gates are described by Boolean algebra.
  - ◆ Use of this algebra can greatly simplify circuit design, e.g. minimize the number of components.
- The following theorems can be proved using a truth table and the definition of OR, AND, and NOT.

1)  $A + A = A$ ,  $A + 1 = 1$ ,  $A + 0 = A$

2)  $AA = A$

3)  $AB = BA$

4)  $ABC = (AB)C = A(BC)$

5)  $A(B + C) = AB + AC$

6)  $\bar{1} = 0$ ,  $\bar{0} = 1$

7)  $A + \bar{A} = 1$ ,  $A\bar{A} = 0$ ,  $A \cdot 1 = A$

8)  $\bar{\bar{A}} = A$

9)  $\overline{A + B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$   
10)  $\overline{AB} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$  } DeMorgan's Theorem

- Example using Boolean algebra:

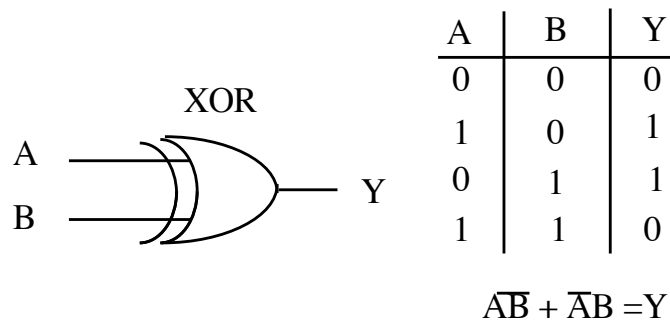
- ◆ **Prove:**  $X + YZ = (X + Y)(X + Z)$   
 $(X + Y)(X + Z) = XX + XZ + YX + YZ$  by 5)  
 $= X + X(Z + Y) + YZ$  by 2) and 5)  
 $= X(1 + Z + Y) + YZ$  by 5)  
 $= X + YZ$  by 1)

See Simpson page 540 for more theorems.

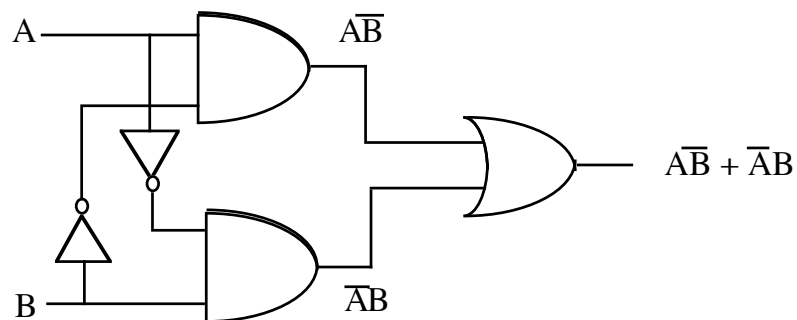
For clarity “.” (AND) is not shown in some theorems.

- ◆ We could also have proven the above using a truth table.
  - There are 8 ( $2^3$ ) possible combinations of X, Y, Z.
  - For a large number of inputs using a truth table becomes unwieldy.
  - Example, if there are 10 inputs
    - 👉  $2^{10} = 1024$  possible combinations!

- Example: Exclusive OR = XOR =  $A \oplus B$ .
  - ◆ Output is high if inputs are different.



- ◆ How do we make an exclusive OR with AND, OR, and NOT gates?



Brute force method

- ◆ Can we simplify this circuit with the use of less parts?

- Use logical theorems:

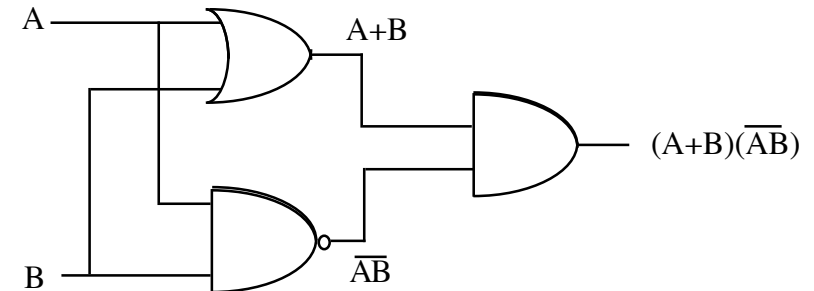
$$A \oplus B = A\bar{B} + \bar{A}B$$

$$= A\bar{A} + A\bar{B} + \bar{A}B + B\bar{B} \quad 7) \text{ and } 1)$$

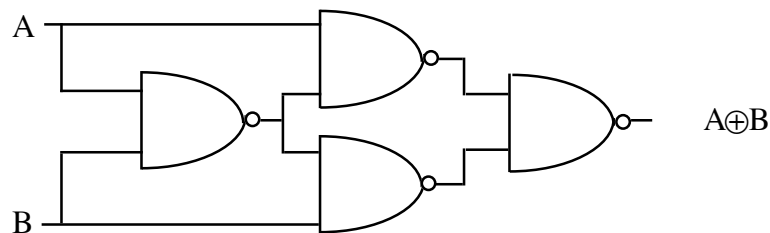
$$= A(\bar{A} + B) + B(\bar{A} + \bar{B}) \quad 5)$$

$$= A(\bar{A}B) + B(\bar{A}\bar{B}) \quad 10)$$

$$= (A + B)(\bar{A}\bar{B}) \quad 5)$$

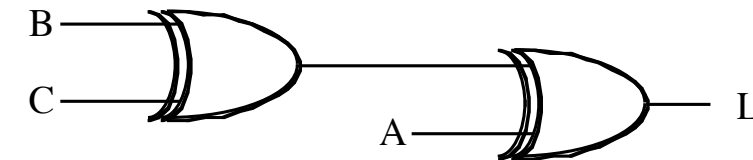


- The circuit uses only 3 parts (OR, NAND, AND), but each of them is different!
- Usually there are many ways to synthesize the same function (circuit).
- Must decide if you want to minimize:
  - number of components
  - types of components
  - number of connections
  - power consumption
- For example we can make an XOR using only 4 NAND gates:



- Final example: Suppose you have a light controlled by 3 switches.
  - You want the light to be on if any one of the 3 switches is on or if all 3 switches are on.

A	B	C	Light
1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	0	1	1
1	0	1	0
0	0	0	0

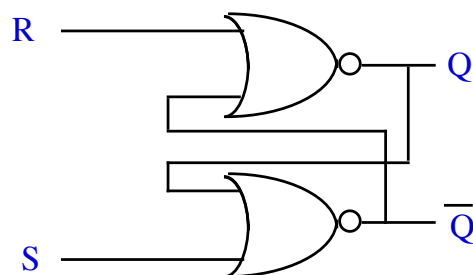


1 = ON  
0 = OFF

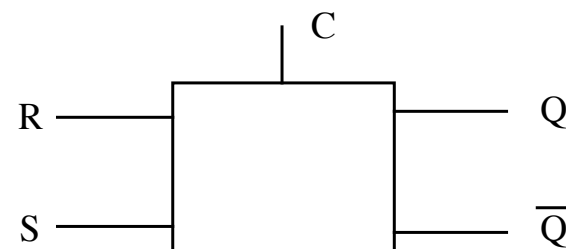
$$\begin{aligned}
 L &= ABC + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + \bar{A}BC + \bar{A}\bar{B}C \\
 &= A(BC + \bar{B}\bar{C}) + \bar{A}(BC + \bar{B}C) \\
 &= A(B + \bar{C})(\bar{B} + C) + \bar{A}(B \oplus C) \\
 &= \overline{A\bar{B}C\bar{B}C} + \bar{A}(B \oplus C) \\
 &= \overline{A\bar{B}C + B\bar{C}} + \bar{A}(B \oplus C) \\
 &= \overline{AB \oplus C} + \bar{A}(B \oplus C) \\
 &= A \oplus (B \oplus C)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Flip-Flops:

- Basic counting unit in computer:
  - counters
  - shift registers
  - memory
- Circuit whose output depends on the history of its inputs.
- Can make a flip-flop with just 2 transistors (or 2 vacuum tubes 1919!).
- Lots of different types of flip-flops (e.g. RS, JK, T, D).
- Example: RS flip-flop or Reset-Set flip-flop
  - Flip-flops, like logic gates are defined by their truth table.
  - Flip-flops are controlled by an external clock pulse.
  - All inputs and outputs are logic levels (e.g. TTL, ECL).
  - Can make an RSFF out of NOR gates:

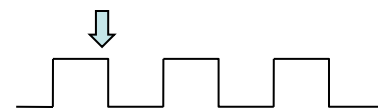


R	S	$Q_{n+1}$
0	0	$Q_n$
1	0	0
0	1	1
1	1	undefined



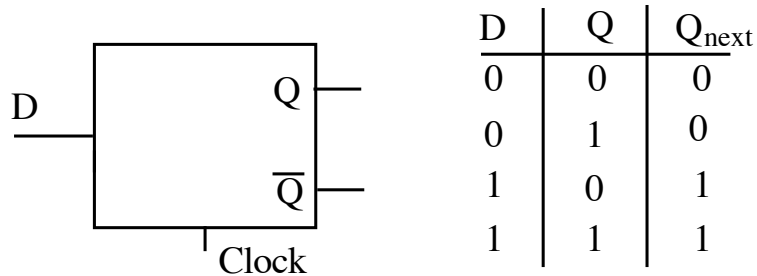
- $Q_n$  is the present state of the FF.
- $Q_{n+1}$  will be the output after the clock enables the FF to look at its inputs (R and S).
- Many FF change state ( $Q_n \rightarrow Q_{n+1}$ ) on the trailing edge of the clock.

*The state with  $R = S = 1$  is undefined. The output is not predictable!*



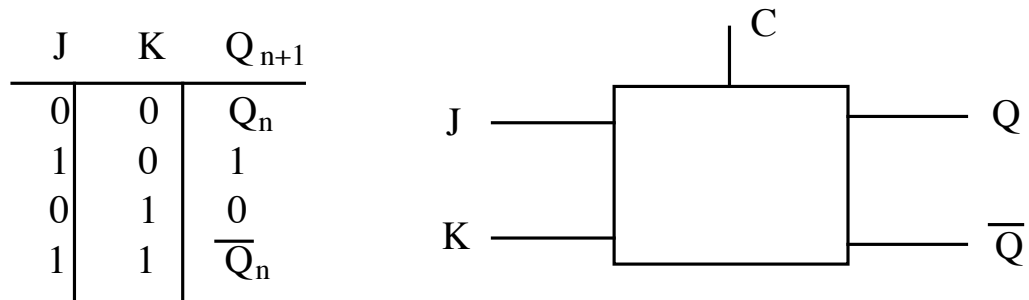


- Example: D flip-flop (Like RS but only one input)



- Example: JK flip-flop

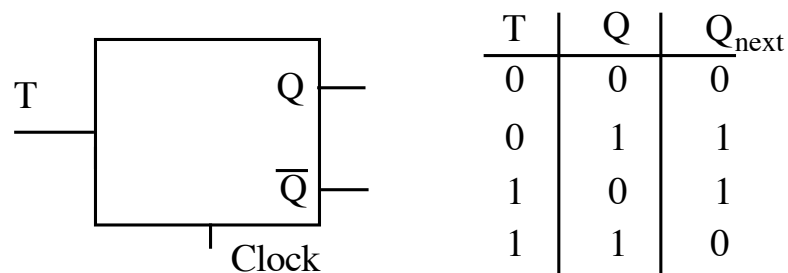
- ◆ JKFF is like the RSFF except that both inputs (J and K) can be high (1).



- ◆ Most JKFF's have a connection for forcing  $Q = 0$  (clear) or forcing  $Q = 1$  (preset).

- Example: T (*Toggle*) flip-flop

- ◆ T flip-flop is like the JKFF with both inputs (J and K) tied to each other.



- Flip-Flops are a class of circuits called “multivibrators”
  - ◆ Multivibrators are circuits with one or more stable states.
    - Monostable multivibrators (one shot) have one stable state.
      - If the circuit is forced out of its stable state (e.g. by an input pulse)
        - ☞ it eventually returns back to the stable state by itself.
    - Bistable multivibrators have two stable states.
      - Transitions between states occur only by an external action (e.g. voltage pulse for flip-flops).
      - Transition voltages can be different for the two states (e.g. Schmitt trigger).
    - Astable multivibrators are two-state devices which switch on their own accord.
      - ☞ Commonly used as oscillators.

◆ Example: Bistable Multivibrator.

- This circuit has two stable states.
- When either transistor conducts there is 4 mA flowing (by design) in the collector ( $I_{C1}$  or  $I_{C2}$ ).
- State 1: transistor 1 off, transistor 2 on
  - $V_{C1} \approx 11 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{B1} \approx 2 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{E1} \approx 4 \text{ V}$
  - $V_{C2} \approx 4 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{B2} \approx 5.5 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{E2} \approx 4 \text{ V}$   $T_2$  is saturated ( $V_{CE} \approx 0$ )
- Transition from state 1 to state 2:
  - Input pulse forces  $T_1$  to conduct,  $T_1$  conducting means that  $V_{C1}$  drops.
  - $V_{C1}$  causes  $V_{B2}$  to drop to the point where  $T_2$  is not conducting.
- State 2: transistor 1 on, transistor 2 off
  - $V_{C1} \approx 4 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{B1} \approx 5.5 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{E1} \approx 4 \text{ V}$   $T_1$  is saturated ( $V_{CE} \approx 0$ )
  - $V_{C2} \approx 11 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{B2} \approx 2 \text{ V}$ ,  $V_{E2} \approx 4 \text{ V}$

