

COURSE MATERIAL

UNIT 4

SEC1207-DIGITAL LOGIC CIRCUITS

SYLLABUS

UNIT IV DIGITAL LOGIC FAMILIES

9 Hrs.

Classification and characteristics of logic family - Bipolar logic family - Saturated logic family - RTL, DTL, DCTL, I²L, TTL, HTL - Non saturated family - SchottkyTTL, ECL - Unipolar family - MOS, CMOS logic families. Tristate logic. Interfacing of CMOS and TTL families. Comparison of logic families

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4.1 Classification and characteristics of logic family

The classification of digital ICs is given in Table

<i>IC Classification</i>	<i>Equivalent individual basic gates</i>	<i>Number of components</i>
Small-scale integration (SSI)	Less than 12	Up to 99
Medium-scale integration (MSI)	12–99	100–999
Large-scale integration (LSI)	100–999	1,000–9,999
Very large-scale integration (VLSI)	Above 1,000	Above 10,000

The various characteristics of digital ICs used to compare their performances are:

1. Speed of operation,
2. Power dissipation,
3. Figure of merit,
4. Fan-out,
5. Current and voltage parameters,
6. Noise immunity,
7. Operating temperature range,
8. Power supply requirements, and
9. Flexibilities available.

Speed of operation

The speed of a digital circuit is specified in terms of the propagation delay time. The input and output waveforms of a logic gate are shown in Fig. 4.1. The delay times are measured between the 50 per cent voltage levels of input and output waveforms. There are two delay times: t_{pHL} , when the output goes from the HIGH state to the LOW state and t_{pLH} , corresponding to the output making a transition from the LOW state to the HIGH state. The propagation delay time of the logic gate is taken as the average of these two delay times.

Power dissipation

Each gate is connected to a power supply V_{CC} (V_{DD} in the case of CMOS). It draws a certain amount of current during its operation. Since each gate can be in a High, Transition or Low state, there are three different currents drawn from power supply.

- I_{CCH} : Current drawn during HIGH state.
- I_{CCT} : Current drawn during HIGH to LOW, LOW to HIGH transition.
- I_{CCL} : Current drawn during LOW state.

For TTL, I_{CCT} the transition current is negligible, in comparison to I_{CCH} and I_{CCL} . If we assume that I_{CCH} and I_{CCL} are equal then,

$$\text{Average Power Dissipation} = V_{CC} * (I_{CCH} + I_{CCL}) / 2$$

For CMOS, I_{CCH} and I_{CCL} current is negligible, in comparison to I_{CCT} . So the Average power dissipation is calculated as below.

$$\text{Average Power Dissipation} = V_{CC} * I_{CCT}.$$

Figure of merit
Fan-In

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Fan-in is the number of inputs a gate has, like a two input AND gate has fan-in of two, a three input NAND gate as a fan-in of three. So a NOT gate always has a fan-in of one. The figure below shows the effect of fan-in on the delay offered by a gate for a CMOS based gate. Normally delay increases following a quadratic function of fan-in.

Fan-out

The number of gates that each gate can drive, while providing voltage levels in the guaranteed range, is called the standard load or fan-out. The fan-out really depends on the amount of electric current a gate can source or sink while driving other gates. The effects of loading a logic gate output with more than its rated fan-out has the following effects.

Logic levels

Logic levels are the voltage levels for logic high and logic low.

- VO_{Hmin} : The minimum output voltage in HIGH state (logic '1'). VO_{Hmin} is 2.4 V for TTL and 4.9 V for CMOS.
- VO_{Lmax} : The maximum output voltage in LOW state (logic '0'). VO_{Lmax} is 0.4 V for TTL and 0.1 V for CMOS.
- VI_{Hmin} : The minimum input voltage guaranteed to be recognised as logic 1. VI_{Hmin} is 2 V for TTL and 3.5 V for CMOS.
- VI_{Lmax} : The maximum input voltage guaranteed to be recognised as logic 0. VI_{Lmax} is 0.8 V for TTL and 1.5 V for CMOS.

Current levels

- IO_{Hmin} : The maximum current the output can source in HIGH state while still maintaining the output voltage above VO_{Hmin} .
- IO_{Lmax} : The maximum current the output can sink in LOW state while still maintaining the output voltage below VO_{Lmax} .
- I_{Imax} : The maximum current that flows into an input in any state (1 μ A for CMOS).

Noise Margin

Gate circuits are constructed to sustain variations in input and output voltage levels. Variations are usually the result of several different factors.

- Batteries lose their full potential, causing the supply voltage to drop
- High operating temperatures may cause a drift in transistor voltage and current characteristics
- Spurious pulses may be introduced on signal lines by normal surges of current in neighbouring supply lines.

All these undesirable voltage variations that are superimposed on normal operating voltage levels are called noise. All gates are designed to tolerate a certain amount of noise on their input and output ports. The maximum noise voltage level that is tolerated by a gate is called noise margin. It derives from I/P-O/P voltage characteristic,

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measured under different operating conditions. It's normally supplied from manufacturer in the gated documentation.

- **LNM (Low noise margin):** The largest noise amplitude that is guaranteed not to change the output voltage level when superimposed on the input voltage of the logic gate (when this voltage is in the LOW interval). $LNM = V_{ILmax} - V_{OLmax}$.
- **HNM (High noise margin):** The largest noise amplitude that is guaranteed not to change the output voltage level if superimposed on the input voltage of the logic gate (when this voltage is in the HIGH interval). $HNM = V_{OHmin} - V_{IHmin}$.

t_r (Rise time)

The time required for the output voltage to increase from V_{ILmax} to V_{IHmin} .

t_f (Fall time)

The time required for the output voltage to decrease from V_{IHmin} to V_{ILmax} .

t_p (Propagation delay)

The time between the logic transition on an input and the corresponding logic transition on the output of the logic gate. The propagation delay is measured at midpoints.

4.1.1 Bipolar logic family

The main elements of a bipolar IC are resistors, diodes (which are also capacitors) and transistors. Basically, there are two types of operations in bipolar ICs:

1. Saturated, and
2. Non-saturated.

In saturated logic, the transistors in the IC are driven to saturation, whereas in the case of non-saturated logic, the transistors are not driven into saturation.

The saturated bipolar logic families are:

1. Resistor–transistor logic (RTL),
2. Direct–coupled transistor logic (DCTL),
3. Integrated–injection logic (I²L),
4. Diode–transistor logic (DTL),
5. High–threshold logic (HTL), and
6. Transistor-transistor logic (TTL).

4.1.1.1 Saturated logic family

The non-saturated bipolar logic families are:

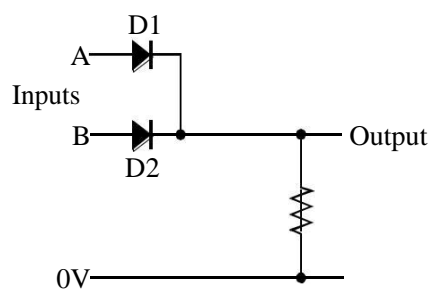
1. SchottkyTTL, and
2. Emitter-coupled logic (ECL).

Diode Logic (DL)

Diode logic gates use diodes to perform AND and OR logic functions. Diodes have the property of easily passing an electrical current in one direction, but not the other. Thus, diodes can act as a logical switch.

Diode logic gates are very simple and inexpensive, and can be used effectively in specific situations. However, they cannot be used extensively, as they tend to degrade digital signals rapidly. In addition, they cannot perform a NOT function, so their usefulness is quite limited.

Diode OR Circuit



Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	0V
0V	+5V	+4.3V
+5V	0V	+4.3V
+5V	+5V	+4.3V

The above figure shows two diodes D1&D2 with a resistor load. The table shows the voltage truth table for the circuit.

With **both inputs at 0V**, the output is at 0V.

With **either diode input at +5V**, the respective diode will be forward biased and current will flow through the diode and the load resistor. For silicon junction diodes, the output voltage will be approximately 0.7V less than the input voltage, due to the voltage drop across the forward biased diode.

With **both inputs at +5V**, the output will still be 0.7V less than the supply value (that is, 4.3V).

Note: If the input voltages for two inputs are different, then the two output voltages will depend on the inputs. Table below shows the voltage truth table for inputs of +3V & +5V.

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	0V
0V	+3V	+2.3V
+5V	0V	+4.3V
+5V	+3V	+4.3V

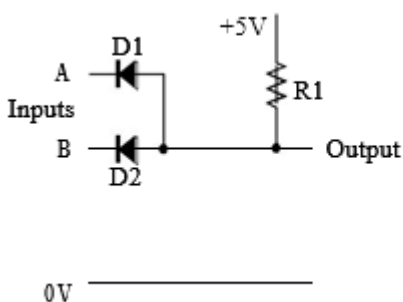
Converting the voltage levels of the above truth table to logic levels 0 & 1 and using **positive** logic gives the truth table shown below

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

From the above table it can be seen that the output is at logic 1 if input A OR B OR both inputs are at logic 1. The circuit therefore performs the **OR** function.

Circuits having inputs and an output, the output depending on the logic states of the inputs, are referred to as **gates**. A circuit with the OR characteristic is referred to as an **OR gate**.

Such a gate with two inputs would be referred to as a 2-input OR gate, one with three inputs a 3-input OR gate, etc.



Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	0.7V
0V	+5V	0.7V
+5V	0V	0.7V
+5V	+5V	+5V

The above figure shows two diodes D1&D2 and resistor R1 forming an AND circuit. The table shows the voltage truth table for the circuit.

With **both inputs at 0V**, both the diodes will be forward biased and the output will be 0.7V, this being the voltage drop across a forward biased silicon junction diode.

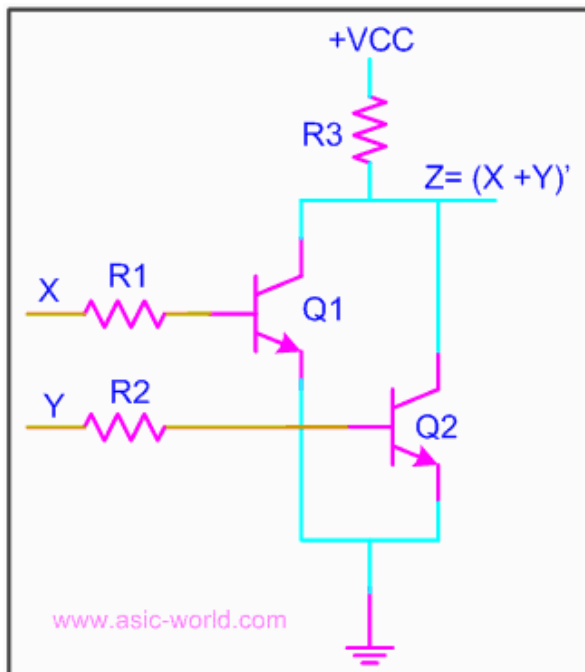
With **either diode input at 0V**, the respective diode will be forward biased and the output voltage will again be approximately 0.7V.

With **both inputs at +5V**, both diodes will be reverse biased and the output voltage will be the supply value (that is, +5V) provided there is no load resistor connected to the output circuit.

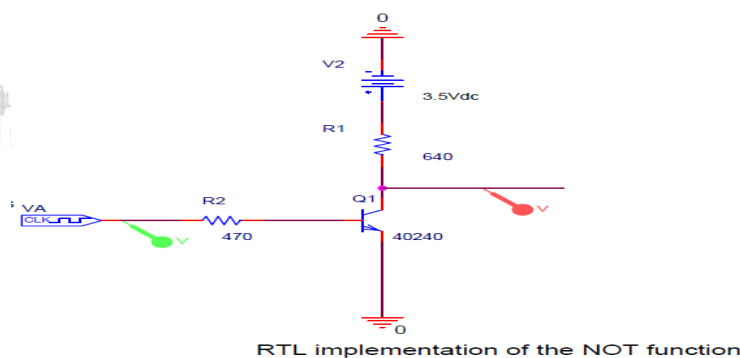
With a load resistor R_L connected to the output circuit the output voltage will be reduced to the value $5 \times R_L / (R_1 + R_L)$. This is illustrated in the figure below

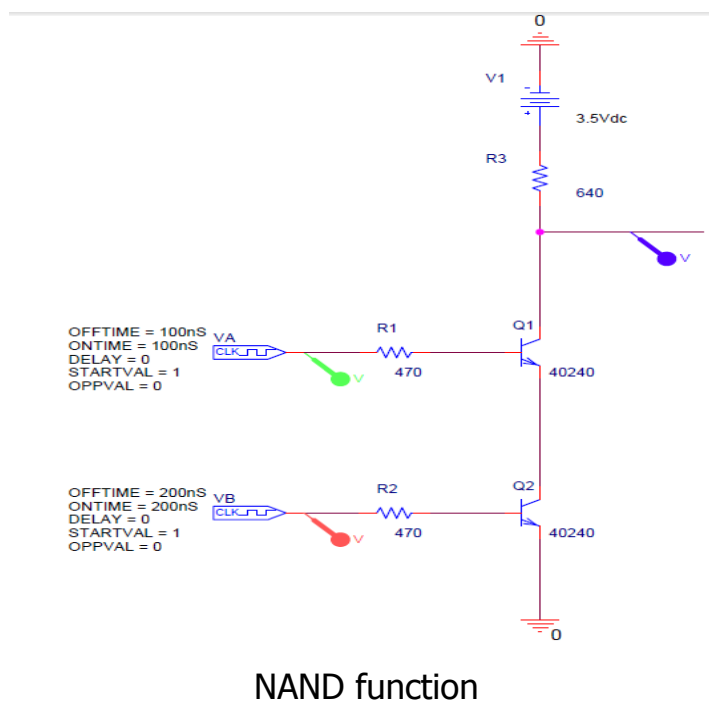
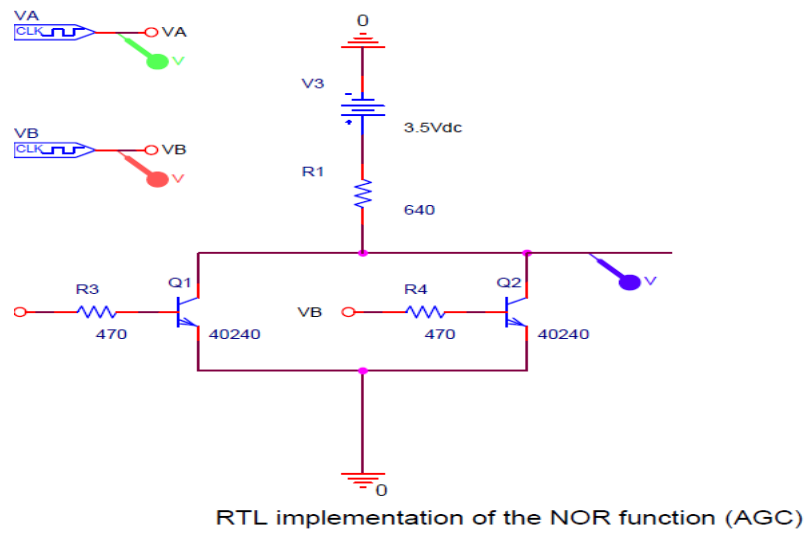
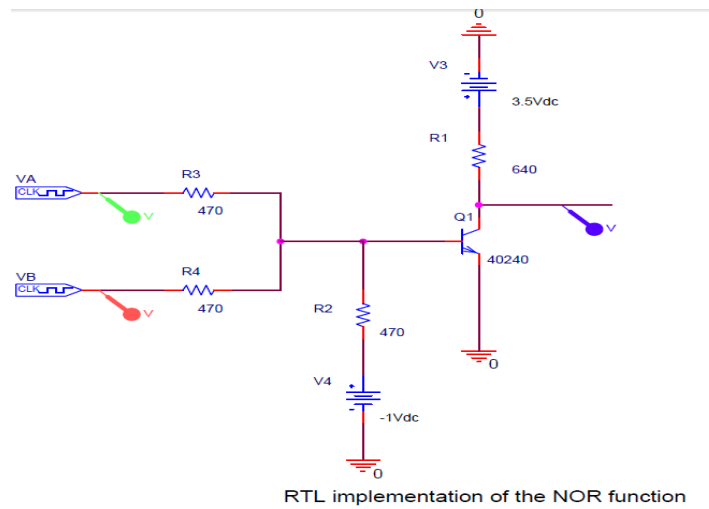
4.1.1.1 Resistor Transistor Logic (RTL)

In RTL (resistor transistor logic), all the logic are implemented using resistors and transistors. One basic thing about the transistor (NPN), is that HIGH at input causes output to be LOW (i.e. like an inverter). Below is the example of a few RTL logic circuits.



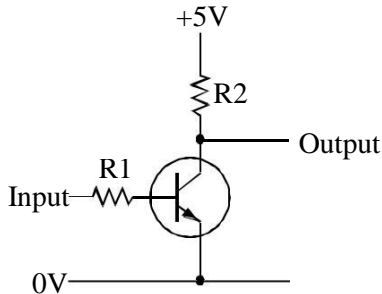
A basic circuit of an RTL NOR gate consists of two transistors Q1 and Q2, connected as shown in the figure above. When either input X or Y is driven HIGH, the corresponding transistor goes to saturation and output Z is pulled to LOW.





By letting diodes perform the logical AND or OR function and then amplifying the result with a transistor, we can avoid some of the limitations of RTL. DTL takes diode logic gates and adds a transistor to the output, in order to provide logic inversion and to restore the signal to full logic levels.

Transistor Application as a Switch



Input	Output
0V	+5V
+5V	0V

Voltage
Truth Table

Input	Output
0	1
1	0

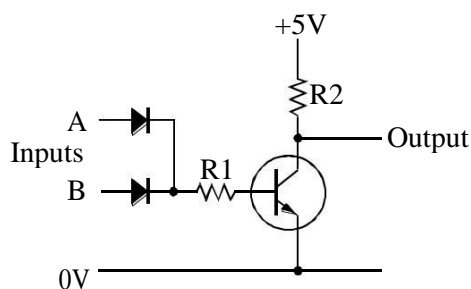
Positive Logic
Truth Table

The above figure shows an NPN transistor circuit with base feed resistor R1 and collector load resistor R2. The table shows the voltage and positive logic truth tables for the circuit.

With the input at 0V, there will be no base current and hence the transistor will be turned OFF. There will be no collector current, so the output voltage from the collector will be the supply value (+5V), provided there is no load resistance connected to the output.

With the input at +5V, there will be a current flow in the base-emitter circuit and the transistor will be turned ON. The value of R1 is arranged to allow sufficient collector current to flow for the collector voltage to fall to approximately zero. Under this condition the transistor is said to be **saturated**.

Diode-Transistor NOR Gate



Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	+5V
0V	+5V	0V
+5V	0V	0V
+5V	+5V	0V

Voltage
Truth Table

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

Positive Logic
Truth Table

The above figure shows a 2-input diode-transistor circuit and the table shows the voltage and logic truth tables for the circuit.

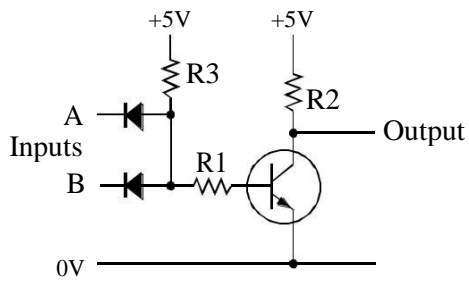
With **both inputs at 0V**, the transistor will be turned OFF and the output voltage will be at +5V.

With **either or both inputs at +5V**, the transistor will be saturated and the output will be at 0V.

The output states are the inverse of those for an OR gate. That is, it is a NOT OR gate and is referred to as a **NOR** gate.

Diode-Transistor NAND Gate

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Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	+5V
0V	+5V	+5V
+5V	0V	+5V
+5V	+5V	0V

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Voltage
Truth Table

Positive Logic
Truth Table

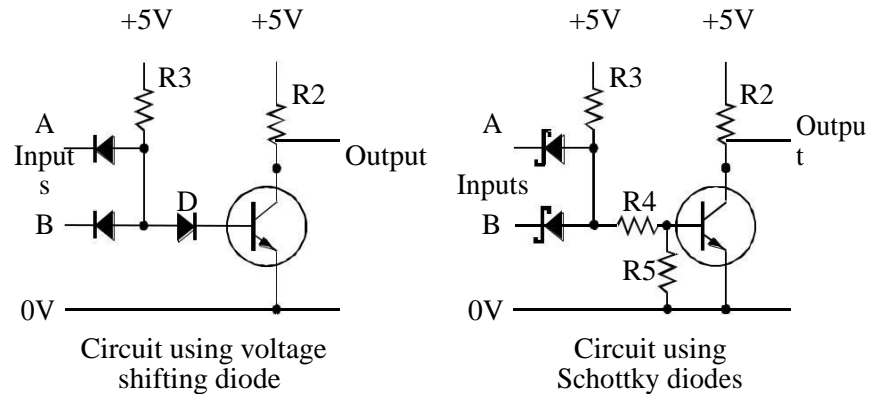
The above figure shows a 2-input diode-transistor circuit and the table shows the voltage and logic truth tables for the circuit.

With **either or both inputs at 0V**, the junction of R1&R3 will be held at 0.7V, due to the voltage drop across the forward biased diode. The transistor will be turned OFF and hence the output voltage will be at +5V.

With **both inputs at +5V**, the transistor base - emitter circuit will be fed via R3&R1, the transistor will be saturated and the output will be at 0V.

The output states are the inverse of those for an AND gate. That is, it is a NOT AND gate and is referred to as a **NAND** gate.

In practice, to ensure that the transistor base voltage is less than 0.7V with either input at 0V, the resistor R1 is normally replaced with a diode as shown below



Effect of Logic Convention on Gate Characteristics

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	0V
0V	+5V	0V
+5V	0V	0V
+5V	+5V	+5V

Voltage Truth Table

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Positive Logic Truth Table
AND Gate

Inputs		Output
B	A	
1	1	1
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

Negative Logic Truth Table
OR Gate

The above tables show the voltage truth table characteristics of a gate and also the logic truth tables for positive and negative logic conventions.

For **positive** logic the gate has an output of logic 1 only with both inputs at logic 1 and therefore represents an **AND** gate.

For **negative** logic convention, the gate has an output of logic 1 when either or both inputs are at logic 1 and therefore represents an **OR** gate.

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0V	0V	0V
0V	+5V	+5V

Inputs		Output
B	A	
0	0	0
0	1	1

Inputs		Output
B	A	
1	1	1
1	0	0

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+5V	0V	+5V	1	0	1	0	1	0
+5V	+5V	+5V	1	1	1	0	0	0

Voltage
Truth Table

Positive Logic
Truth Table
OR Gate

Negative
Logic
Truth Table
AND Gate

The above tables show the voltage truth table for a gate and its corresponding positive and negative logic truth tables. The gate represents an **OR** gate for **positive** logic and an **AND** gate for **negative** logic.

4.1.1.1.3 DCTL

In the RTL gate of Fig. 4.4, if the base resistors R_B are omitted, we obtain what is known as the direct-coupled transistor logic (DCTL) gate, in which the inputs are directly coupled to the bases. This circuit performs positive NOR logic and the voltages corresponding to logic 1 and 0 levels are $V_{BE,sat}$ (~ 0.8 V) and $V_{CE,sat}$ (~ 0.2 V) respectively. The separation between the logic 1 and 0 level voltages, which is referred to as the *logic swing*, is very small ($V_{BE,sat} - V_{CE,sat} = 0.6$ V). Therefore, the noise margin of this circuit is very poor.

Although the DCTL is simpler than RTL, it never became popular because of the problem of *current hogging*. The gate should be able to drive the transistors of the load gates to saturation corresponding to logic level 1.

This does not pose any problem if all the transistors have same input characteristics but, unfortunately, the input characteristics differ due to the manufacturing tolerances of different IC packages operating at different temperatures. Owing to these differences, the saturation voltages of the load transistors may be different. Let the base-emitter voltages of the transistors corresponding to saturation be 0.78, 0.79, and 0.80 V. The transistor with the base-emitter voltage of 0.78 V, when it enters saturation, will not allow other transistors to enter saturation and will take whole of the current supplied from the driver gate. This is known as *current hogging*.

4.1.1.1.4 I²L

As discussed above, the DCTL suffers from the difficulty of current hogging which makes it unsuitable. However, based on DCTL a new logic referred to as the integrated-injection logic

(I²L), has been developed. I²L has the simplicity of DCTL, uses very small silicon chip area, consumes very little power, and requires only four masks and two diffusions (compared to five masks and three diffusions for BJT) and hence, is easier and cheaper to fabricate. Due to these advantages it is eminently suited for medium- and large-scale integration. It is not used for small-scale integration and is the only saturated bipolar logic employed for large-scale integration. Texas Instruments SBP 9900 is a 16-bit microprocessor using I²L technology. The genesis of I²L technology is the concept of merging the components, viz. one semiconductor region is part of two or more devices. Because of this type of merging it is also referred to as the merged-transistor logic (MTL). There is considerable saving in the silicon chip area in this process.

4.1.1.1.5 Transistor Transistor Logic (TTL)

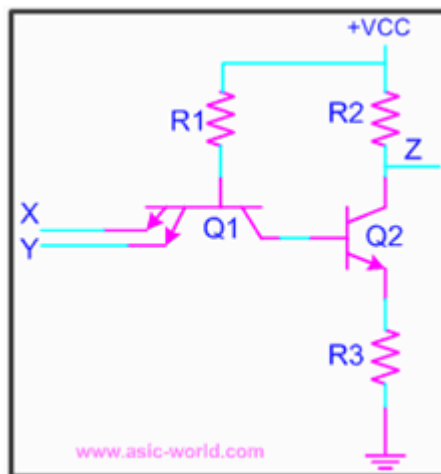
In Transistor Transistor Logic or just TTL, logic gates are built only around transistors. TTL was developed in 1965. Through the years basic TTL has been improved to meet performance requirements. There are many versions or families of TTL.

- Standard TTL.
- High Speed TTL
- Low Power TTL
- Schottky TTL

TTL families have three configurations for outputs.

- Totem-Pole output.
- Open Collector Output.
- Tri-state Output.

The input stage, which is used with almost all versions of TTL, consists of an input transistor and a phase splitter transistor. Input stage consists of a multi emitter transistor as shown in the figure below. When any input is driven low, the emitter base junction is forward biased and input transistor conducts. This in turn drives the phase splitter transistor into cut-off.



Totem-Pole Output

Below is the circuit of a totem-pole NAND gate, which has got three stages.

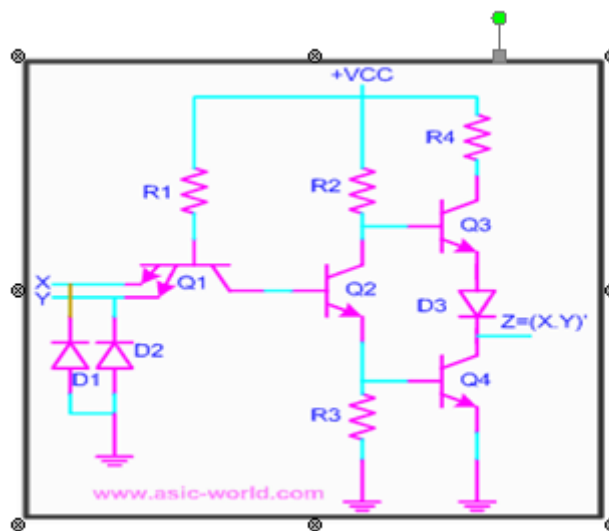
- Input Stage
- Phase Splitter Stage
- Output Stage

Input stage and Phase splitter stage have already been discussed. Output stage is called Totem-Pole because transistor Q3 sits upon Q4.

Q2 provides complementary voltages for the output transistors Q3 and Q4, which stack one above the other in such a way that while one of these conducts, the other is in cut-off.

Q4 is called pull-down transistor, as it pulls the output voltage down, when it saturates and the other is in cut-off (i.e. Q3 is in cut-off). Q3 is called pull-up transistor, as it pulls the output voltage up, when it saturates and the other is in cut-off (i.e. Q4 is in cut-off).

Diodes in input are protection diodes which conduct when there is large negative voltage at input, shorting it to the ground.



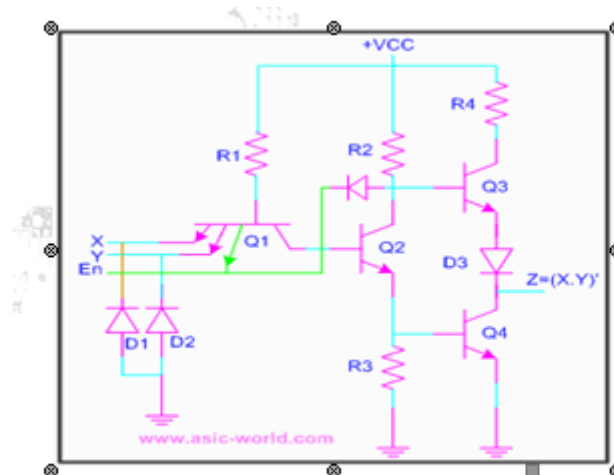
Tristate Output.

Normally when we have to implement shared bus systems inside an ASIC or externally to the chip, we have two options: either to use a MUX/DEMUX based system or to use a tri-state bus system.

In the latter, when logic is not driving its output, it does not drive LOW neither HIGH, which means that logic output is floating. Well, one may ask, why not just use an open collector for shared bus systems? The problem is that open collectors are not so good for implementing wire-ANDs.

The circuit below is a tri-state NAND gate; when Enable En is HIGH, it works like any other NAND gate. But when Enable En is driven LOW, Q1 conducts, and the diode connecting Q1 emitter and Q2 collector, conducts driving Q3 into cut-

off. Since Q_2 is not conducting, Q_4 is also at cut-off. When both pull-up and pull-down transistors are not conducting, output Z is in high-impedance state.



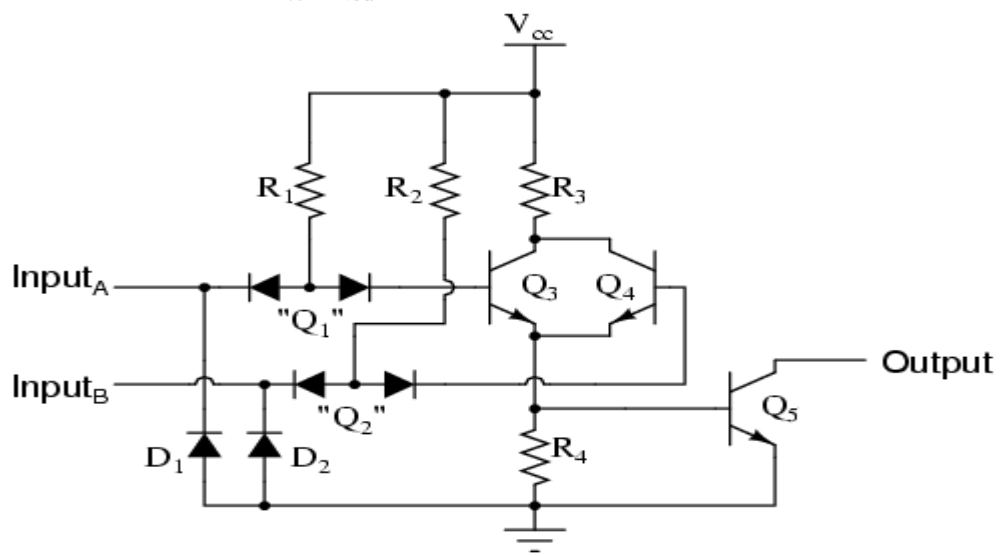
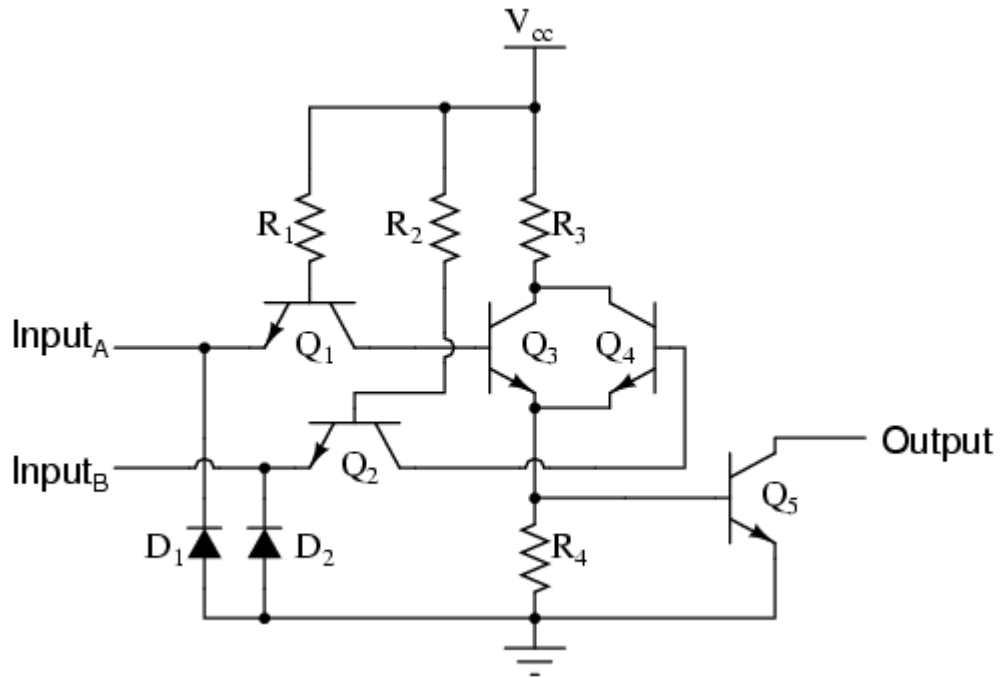
TTL NAND GATE

Let's examine the following TTL circuit and analyze its operation:

Transistors Q_1 and Q_2 are both arranged in the same manner that we've seen for transistor Q_1 in all the other TTL circuits. Rather than functioning as amplifiers, Q_1 and Q_2 are both being used as two-diode "steering" networks. We may replace Q_1 and Q_2 with diodes to help illustrate:

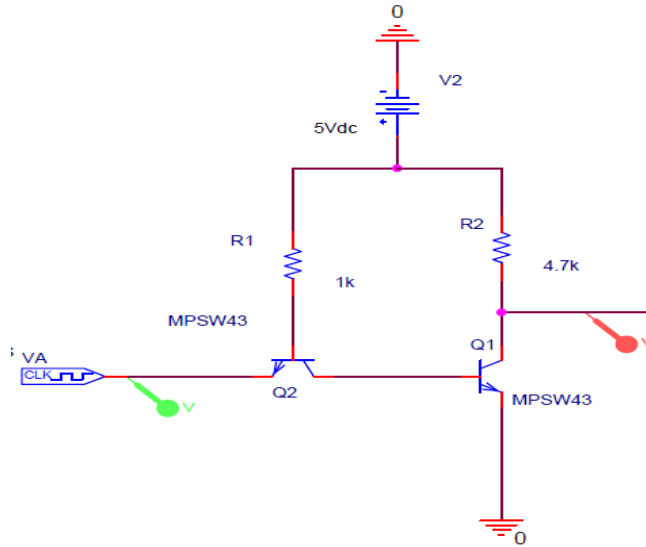
If input A is left floating (or connected to V_{cc}), current will go through the base of transistor Q_3 , saturating it. If input A is grounded, that current is diverted away from Q_3 's base through the left steering diode of " Q_1 ," thus forcing Q_3 into cutoff. The same can be said for input B and transistor Q_4 : the logic level of input B determines Q_4 's conduction: either saturated or cutoff.

Notice how transistors Q_3 and Q_4 are paralleled at their collector and emitter terminals. In essence, these two transistors are acting as a paralleled switches, allowing current through resistors R_3 and R_4 according to the logic levels of inputs A and B . If any input is a "high" (1) level, then at least one of the two transistors (Q_3 and/or Q_4) will be saturated, allowing current through resistors R_3 and R_4 , and turning on the final output transistor Q_5 for a "low" (0) logic level output. The only way the output of this circuit can ever assume a "high" (1) state is if both Q_3 and Q_4 are cutoff, which means both inputs would have to be grounded, or "low" (0).

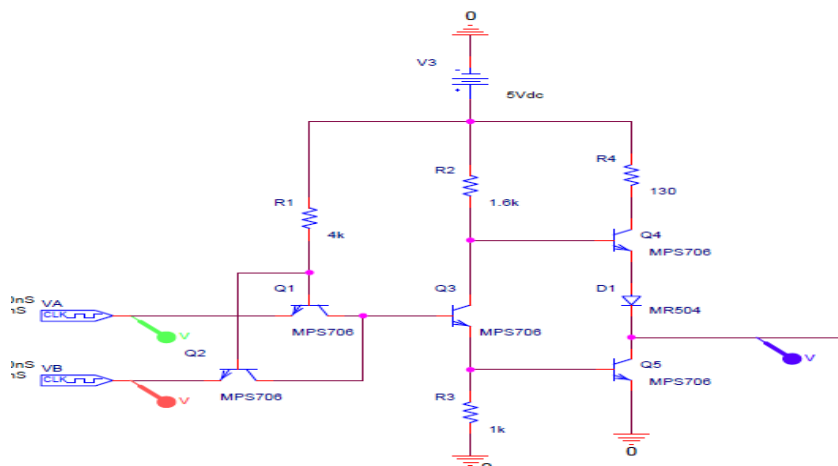


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Notice how transistors Q₃ and Q₄ are paralleled at their collector and emitter



TTL implementation of the NOT function

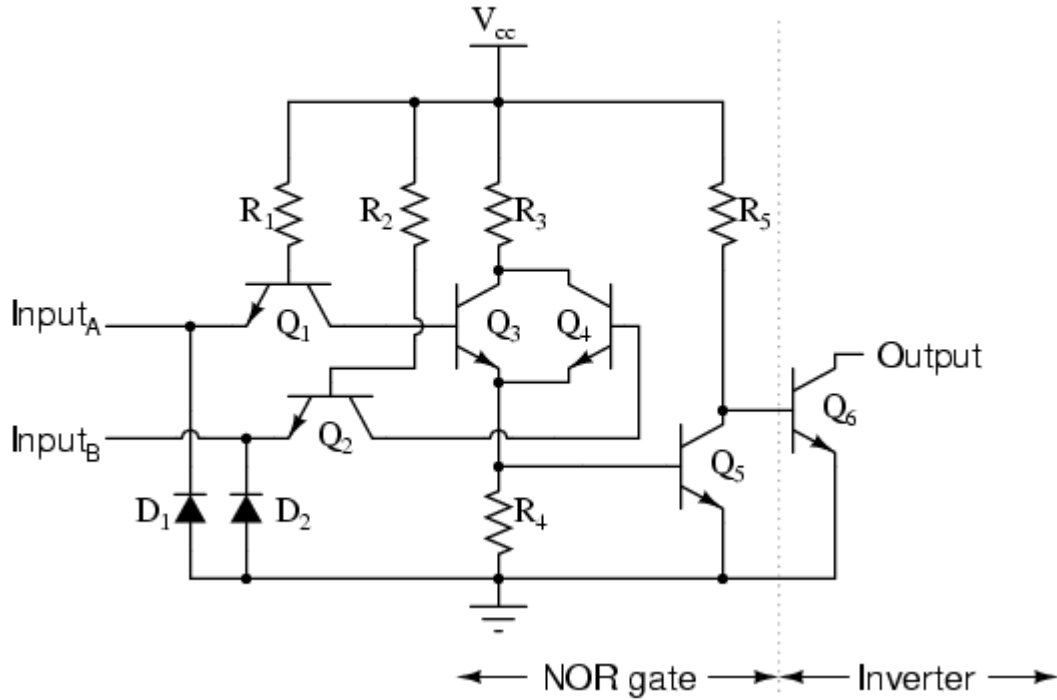


TTL implementation of the NAND function

This circuit's truth table, then, is equivalent to that of the NOR gate:

In order to turn this NOR gate circuit into an OR gate, we would have to invert the output logic level with another transistor stage, just like we did with the NAND-to-AND gate example:

OR gate with open-collector output



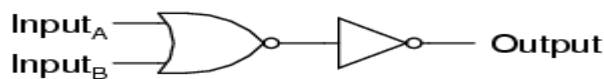
The truth table and equivalent gate circuit (an inverted-output NOR gate) are shown here:

OR gate



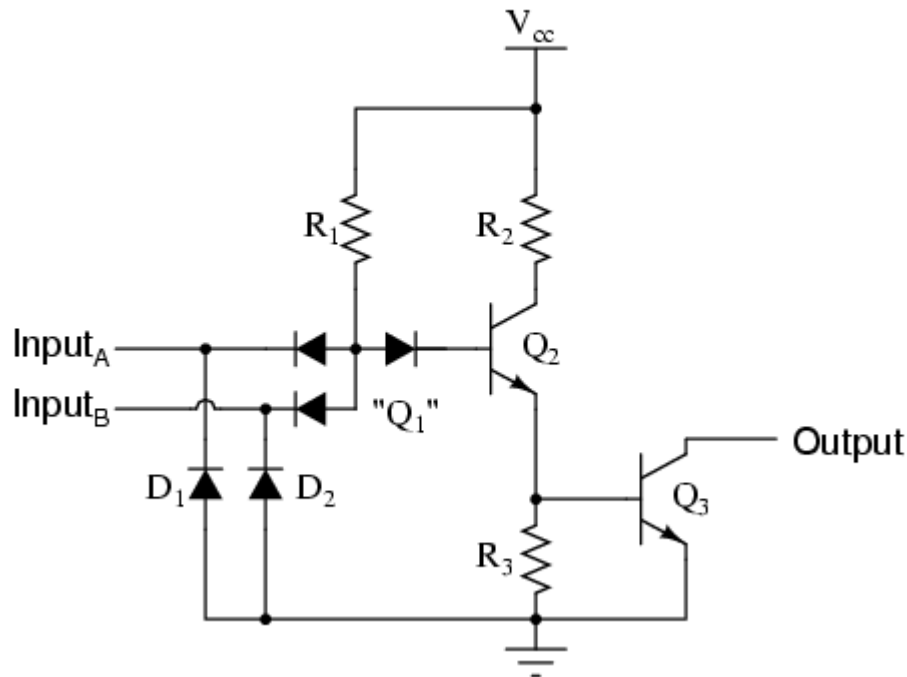
A	B	Output
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Equivalent circuit



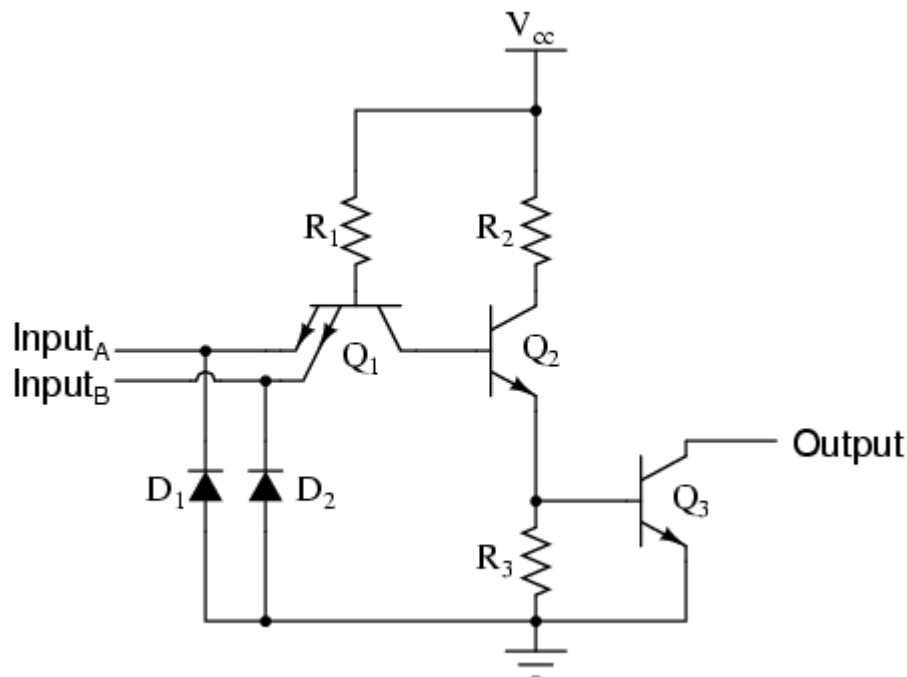
Of course, totem-pole output stages are also possible in both NOR and OR TTL logic circuits.

A two-input inverter circuit



This schematic illustrates a real circuit, but it isn't called a "two-input inverter." Through analysis we will discover what this circuit's logic function is and correspondingly what it should be designated as.

Just as in the case of the inverter and buffer, the "steering" diode cluster marked "Q₁" is actually formed like a transistor, even though it isn't used in any amplifying capacity. Unfortunately, a simple NPN transistor structure is inadequate to simulate the three PN junctions necessary in this diode network, so a different transistor (and symbol) is needed. This transistor has one collector, one base, and two emitters, and in the circuit it looks like this:



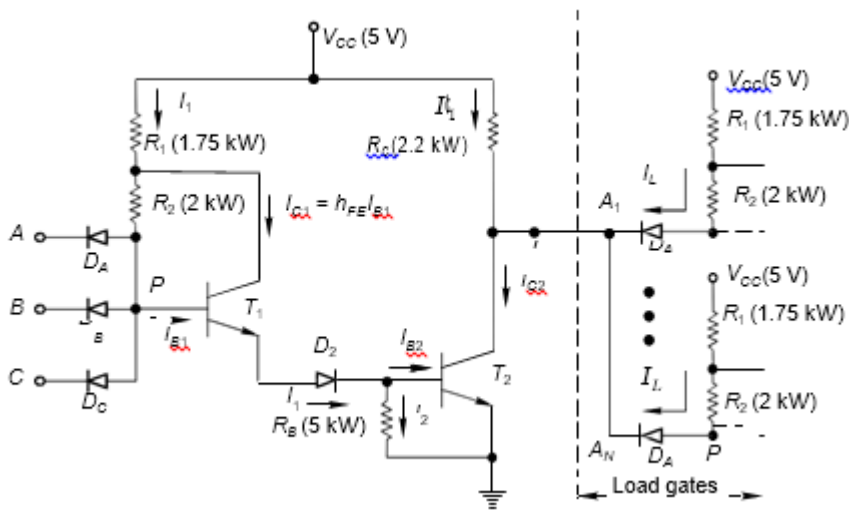
In the single-input (inverter) circuit, grounding the input resulted in an output that assumed the "high" (1) state. In the case of the open-collector output configuration, this "high" state was simply "floating." Allowing the input to float (or be connected to V_{cc}) resulted in the output becoming grounded, which is the "low" or 0 state. Thus, a 1 in resulted in a 0 out, and vice versa.

Since this circuit bears so much resemblance to the simple inverter circuit, the only difference being a second input terminal connected in the same way to the base of transistor Q_2 , we can say that each of the inputs will have the same effect on the output. Namely, if either of the inputs are grounded, transistor Q_2 will be forced into a condition of cutoff, thus turning Q_3 off and floating the output (output goes "high"). The following series of illustrations shows this for three input

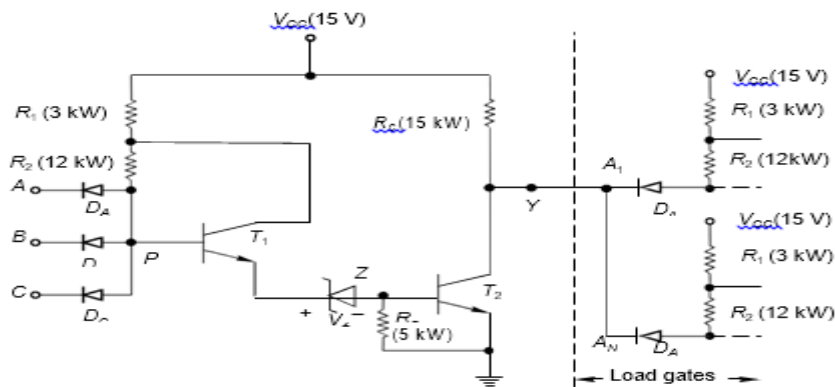
4.1.1.1.6 HTL

Due to the presence of electric motors, on-off control circuits, high voltage switches, etc. in an industrial environment, the noise level is quite high and the logic families discussed so far do

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not perform the intended functions. For this purpose, the DTL gate of Fig. has been redesigned with a higher supply voltage (15 V instead of 5 V). The diode D_2 has been replaced by a Zener diode with a Zener breakdown voltage of 6.9 V and the resistances have been modified so that approximately the same currents are obtained as in DTL. A 3-input HTLNANDgatewithafan-outofNisshowninFig. The circuit can be analysed to determine the noise-margins, fan-out and power dissipation (Prob. 4.10).



4.1.1.2 Non saturated family

The non-saturated bipolar logic families are:

1. SchottkyTTL, and
2. Emitter-coupled logic (ECL).

4.1.1.2.1 SchottkyTTL

The speed limitation of TTL is mainly due to the turn-off time delays involved in transistors while making transitions from saturation to cut-off. This can be eliminated by replacing the transistors of TTL gate by Schottky transistors.

With this, the transistors are prevented from entering saturation and hence, there is saving in turn-off time. SchottkyTTL gates have propagation delay time of the order of 2 ns which is very small in comparison with the propagation delay time of standard TTL which is of the order of 10 ns. It is a nonsaturating bipolar logic.

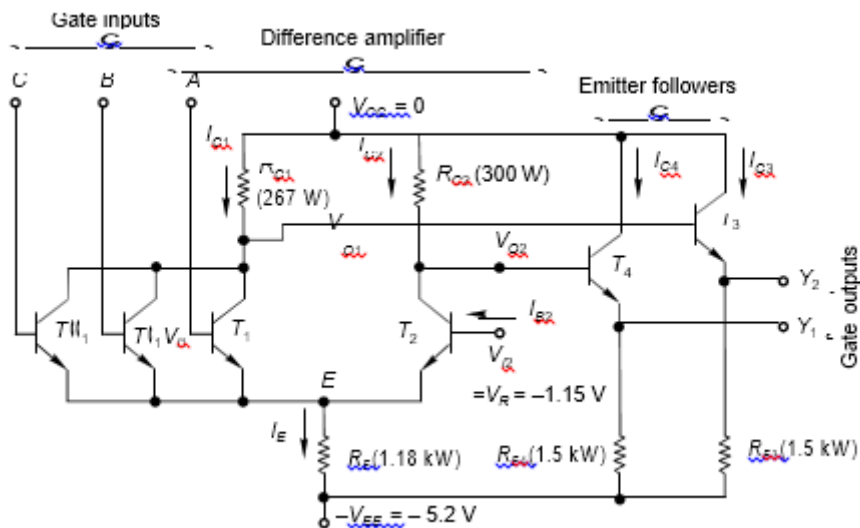
4.1.1.2.2 ECL

Emitter-coupled logic (ECL) is the fastest of all logic families and therefore is used in applications where very high speed is essential. High speeds have become possible in ECL because the transistors are used in difference amplifier configuration, in which they are never driven into saturation and thereby the storage time is eliminated. Here, rather than switching the transistors from ON to OFF and vice-versa, they are switched between cut-off and active regions. Propagation delay of less than 1 ns per gate have become possible in ECL.

Basically, ECL is realized using difference amplifier in which the emitters of the two transistors are connected and hence it is referred to as emitter-coupled logic. A 3-input ECL gate is shown in Fig. 4.19, which has three parts: The middle part is the difference amplifier which performs the logic operation.

Emitter follower are used for d.c. level shifting of the outputs, so that $V(0)$ and $V(1)$ are same for the inputs and the outputs. Note that two output Y_1 and Y_2 are available in this circuit which are complementary. Y_1 corresponds to OR logic and Y_2 to NOR logic and hence it is named as an OR/NOR gate.

Additional transistors are used in parallel to T_1 to get the required fan-in. There is a fundamental difference between all other logic families (including MOS logic) and ECL as far as the



A 3-input ECL OR/NOR gate.

supply voltage is concerned. In ECL, the positive end of the supply is connected to ground in contrast to other logic families in which negative end of the supply is grounded. This is done to minimize the effect of noise induced in the power supply (Prob. 4.22), and protection of the gate from an accidental short circuit developing between the output of a gate and ground (Prob. 4.23). The voltage corresponding to $V(0)$ and $V(1)$ are both negative due to positive end of the supply being connected to ground. The symbol of an ECL OR/NOR gate is shown in Fig. 4.20.

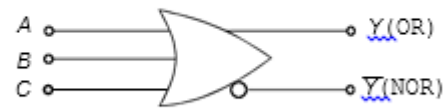


Fig. 4.20

The symbol for a 3-input OR/NOR gate.

4.1.2 Unipolar family

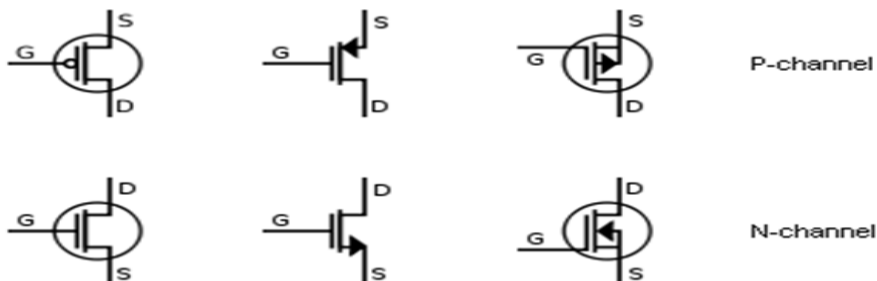
MOS devices are unipolar devices and only MOSFETs are employed in MOS logic circuits. The MOS logic families are:

1. PMOS,
2. NMOS, and
3. CMOS

While in PMOS only p -channel MOSFETs are used and in NMOS only n -channel MOSFETs are used, in complementary MOS (CMOS), both p - and n -channel MOSFETs are employed and are fabricated on the same silicon chip.

4.1.2.1 MOS

MOS types, symbols



NMOS Inverter:

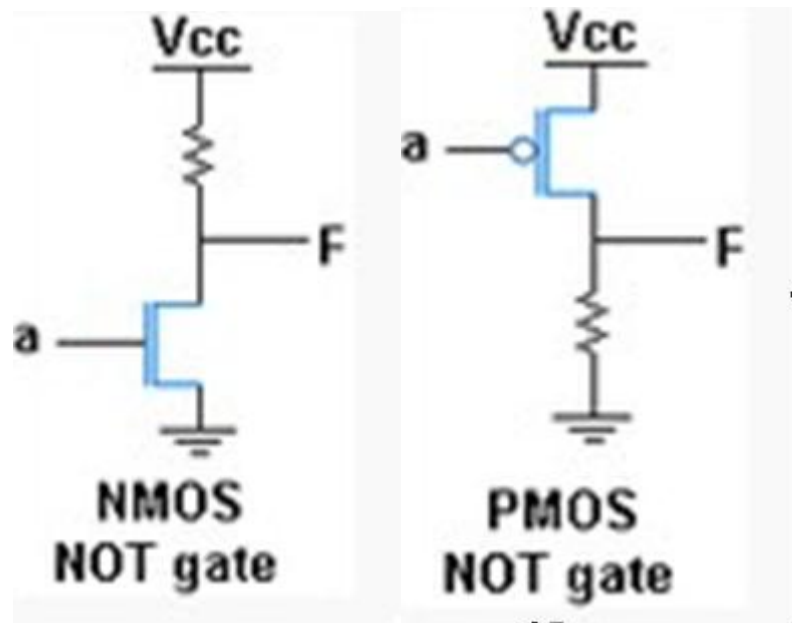
– when $a=1$, nMOS conducts, so $F=0$

– When $a=0$, nMOS is cut-off, so $F=V_{cc}=\text{logic } 1$

- PMOS Inverter

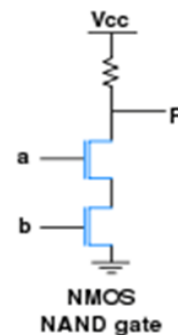
– when $a=1$, pMOS is cut-off, so $F=0$

- When $a=0$, pMOS is on, so $F=V_{cc}=\text{logic '1'}$



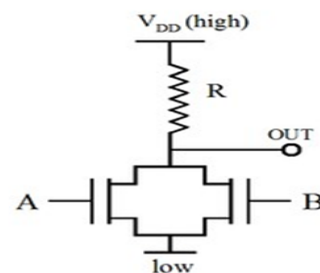
nMOS NAND

- When any input is '0'
 - corresponding of mos is off
 - So $F=V_{cc}=\text{'1'}$
- When both inputs are '1'
 - Both mos are on
 - $F = \text{Gnd} = \text{'0'}$



nMOS -NOR

- When any input is '1'
 - Corresponding mos is on
 - So $F=\text{Gnd}=\text{'0'}$
- When both inputs are '0'
 - Both mos are off
 - Out = $V_{DD} = \text{'1'}$

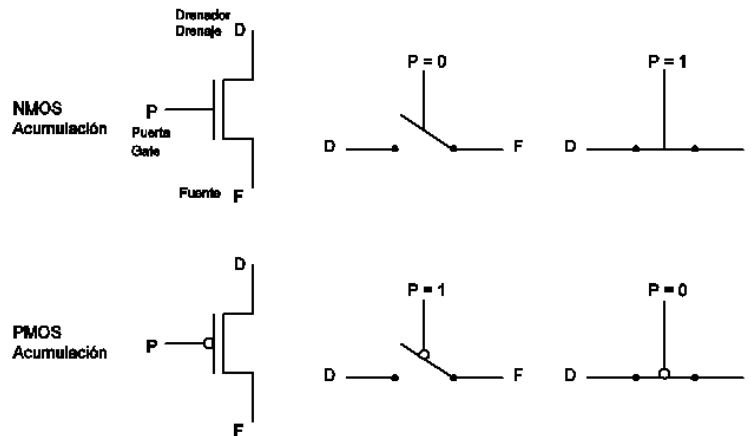


4.1.2.2 CMOS

Basic CMOS concepts

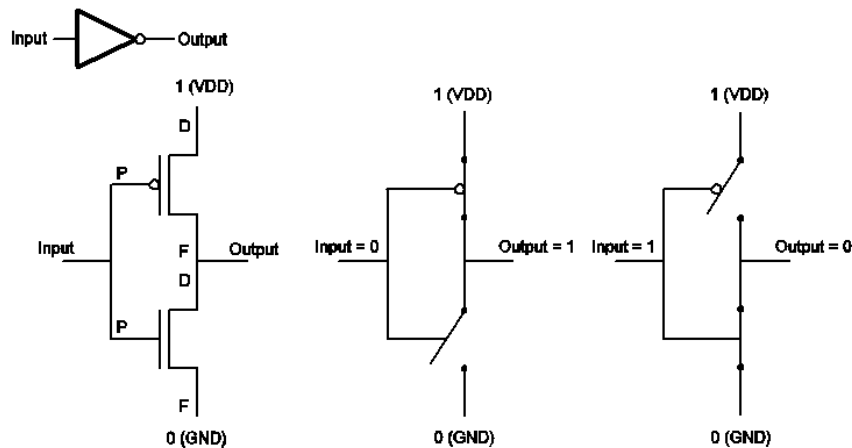
We will now see the use of transistor for designing logic gates. Further down in the course we will use the same transistors to design other blocks (such as flip-flops or memories)

Ideally, a transistor behaves like a switch. For NMOS transistors, if the input is a 1 the switch is on, otherwise it is off. On the other hand, for the PMOS, if the input is 0 the transistor is on, otherwise the transistor is off. Here is a graphical representation of these facts:



When a circuit contains both NMOS and PMOS transistors we say it is implemented in CMOS (Complementary MOS)

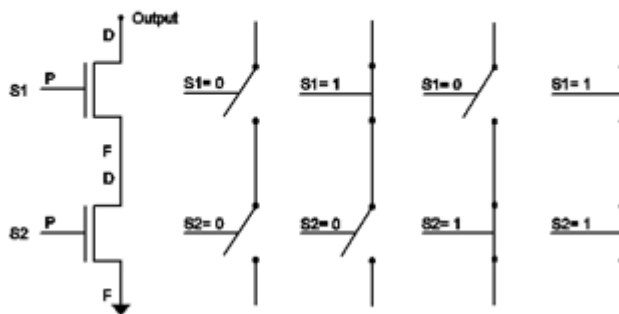
Understanding the basics of transistors, we can now design a simple NOR gate. Next figure shows the implementation in transistors of the NOR gate and how it works for different inputs (1 and 0). On the left there is the implementation, on the right the behavior. The symbol VDD is the source voltage (or the logic 1), GND is the ground (or the logic 0).



We have just seen how to implement a simple logic gate using transistors. To implement the rest of logical gates (and whatever circuit we might think off), we will analyze first the behavior of the transistors when connected in a "series" fashion or in a "parallel" way.

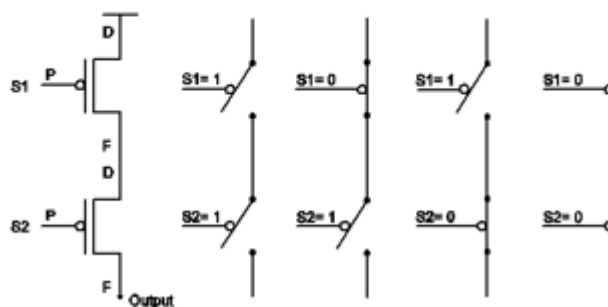
If we connect two NMOS transistors in series, we get the behaviour shown in next figure (the triangle in the bottom is a graphical representation of GND)

– Output = 0 si $S1=1$ i $S2=1$



Next figure shows the behavior of the PMOSes when connected in series. (The horizontal line on top of the first transistor is a graphical representation of VDD).

– Output = 1 si $S1=0$ i $S2=0$



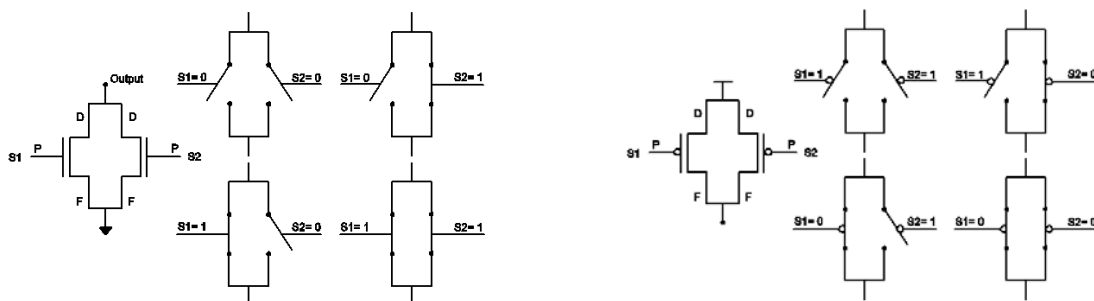
In the next figure, we can see the behavior of the NMOSes and PMOSes when connected in parallel.

Combinació paral·lela nMOS:

– Output = 0 si $S1=1$ o $S2=1$

Combinació paral·lela pMOS:

– Output = 1 si $S1=0$ o $S2=0$



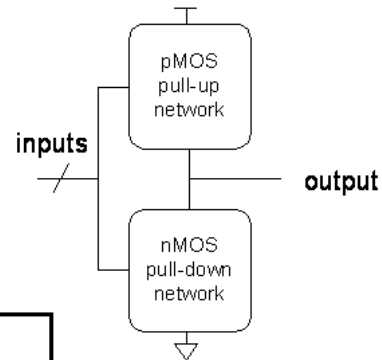
Summing up, NMOS transistors in series let the current flow when both inputs are 1; otherwise the output is undefined (Z). If we connect the NMOSes in parallel, then the current flows when any (or both) of the inputs are 1; otherwise the output is undefined (Z).

For the PMOSes, when connected in series the current flows when both inputs are 0; otherwise the output is undefined. Alternatively, when connected in parallel, if any (or both) of the inputs is 0 the current flows. Otherwise the output is undefined.

When using CMOS technology (and specifically static CMOS), we will design the circuits with two clearly defined parts. One (called *pull-up*) will be built of PMOS transistors and it has the duty of setting the output to 1 whenever the implemented function defines it. The other part (called *pull-down*) will be built of NMOS transistors and it will set the output to 0 whenever the implemented function defines it. All circuits will either set the output to 1 or 0 for any combination of the input values. Both *pull-up* and *pull-down* cannot be active at the same time (it makes no sense to set the output to 1 and 0 for the same inputs!!). Similarly, both the *pull-up* and the *pull-down* cannot be off at the same time (logic functions have always a defined output – either 0 or 1). Nevertheless, we will see further down the course that when not implementing logic functions we might be interested – sometimes- in setting the output to undetermined in certain cases.

- **Complementary CMOS logic gates**

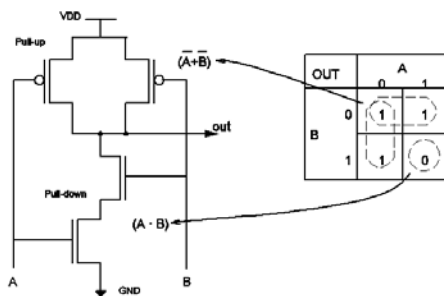
- nMOS *pull-down network*
- pMOS *pull-up network*
- a.k.a. static CMOS



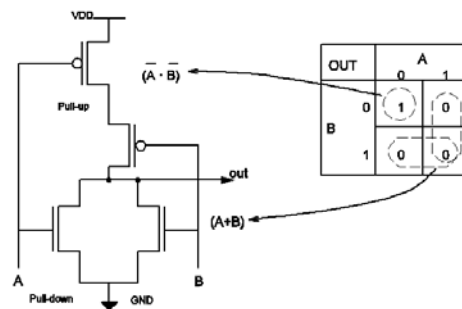
	Pull-up OFF	Pull-up ON
Pull-down OFF	Z (float)	1
Pull-down ON	0	X (crowbar)

Next figures show the implementations of the NAND and NOR gates in CMOS. For each one of them, there is the truth table and clear indications of what outputs are set by the pull-up and what outputs for the pull-down.

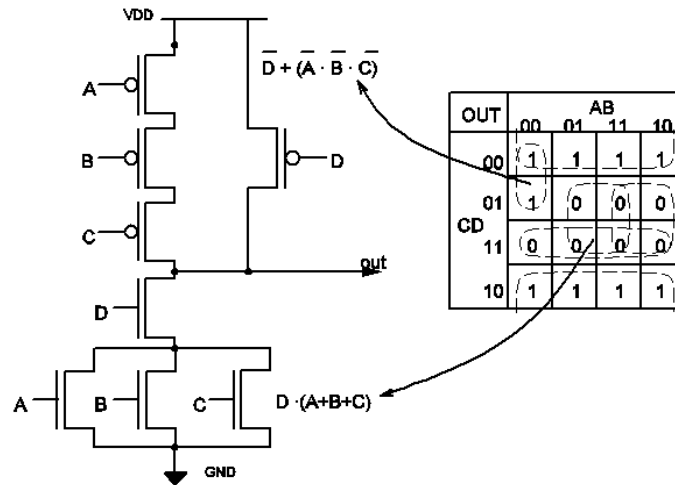
Porta NAND



Porta NOR



In the same way we implement the logic gates, we can implement any logic function. Next figure shows the implementation of the logic function $f(A, B, C, D) = D \cdot (A + B + C)$.



We can actually define a design methodology for turning logical functions into CMOS circuits:

- The logic function must be complemented. (i.e., it must look like $f(x, y, z) = \text{NOT}(\text{expression})$); in a logic expression, $f(x, y, z) = \text{expression}$
- AND operator (“.”):
 - Pull-down: NMOS transistors in series
 - Pull-up: PMOS transistors in parallel
- OR operator (“+”):
 - Pull-down: NMOS transistors in parallel
 - Pull-up: PMOS transistors in series

Problem sets to hand in:

Implement the following functions in CMOS logic.

- $Z = \overline{A \cdot B \cdot C \cdot D}$
- $Z = \overline{A + B + C + D}$
- $Z = \overline{((A \cdot B \cdot C) + D)}$
- $Z = \overline{(((A \cdot B) + C) \cdot D)}$
- $Z = \overline{(A \cdot B) + (C \cdot (A + B))}$

Implement the following functions in CMOS logic. Assume you can use a NOT gate whenever necessary.

- $Z = A$ (buffer)
- $Z = A \cdot \overline{B} + \overline{A} \cdot B$ (XOR)
- $Z = A \cdot B + \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$ (XNOR)
- $Z = A \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C} + \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot C + \overline{A} \cdot B \cdot \overline{C} + A \cdot B \cdot C$ (funció suma en un sumador binari)

4.2 Tristate logic

Normally, in logic circuits, there are two states, HIGH and LOW.

The output can be either HIGH or LOW.

But in complex circuits, group of logic outputs are connected to a line called *bus*. Thus *bus* should also drive many gate inputs. Thus *fan-in* and *fan-out* of the *bus* should be properly defined to drive many gates.

Some difficulties are encountered due to the following:

- 1 totem-pole outputs cannot be together because of a very large current drain from the supply and consequent heating of ICs which can get damaged.
2. Open-collector outputs can be connected together with a common-collector resistor connected externally. This causes the problems of loading and speed of operation.

To overcome these difficulties, special circuits have been developed in which there is one more state of the output, referred to as the *third state* or *high-impedance state*, in addition to the LOW and HIGH states. These circuits are known as *TRI-STATE*, *tri-state logic* (TSL) or *three-state logic*. (TRI-STATE)

There is a basic functional difference between wired-OR and the TSL. For the wired-OR connection of two functions Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$Y = Y_1 + Y_2$$

whereas for TSL, the result is not a Boolean function but an ability to multiplex many functions economically.

TSL Inverter

A TSL inverter circuit with tri-state output is shown in Fig. 4.2.1. When the control input is LOW, the drive is removed from T_3 and T_4 . Hence, both T_3 and T_4 are cut-off and the output is in the third state. When the control input is HIGH, the output Y is logic 1 or 0 depending on the data input. The logic symbol of a TSL inverter is shown in Fig. 4.2.2 and its truth table is given in Table 4.2.1. (where T_1 , T_2 , T_3 , T_4 and T_5 are Transistor shown in fig.4.2.2)

Table. 4.2.1 Truth Table of a TSL Inverter

DATA INPUT	CONTROL	DATA OUTPUT
0	0	HIGH-Z
1	0	HIGH-Z
0	1	1
1	1	0

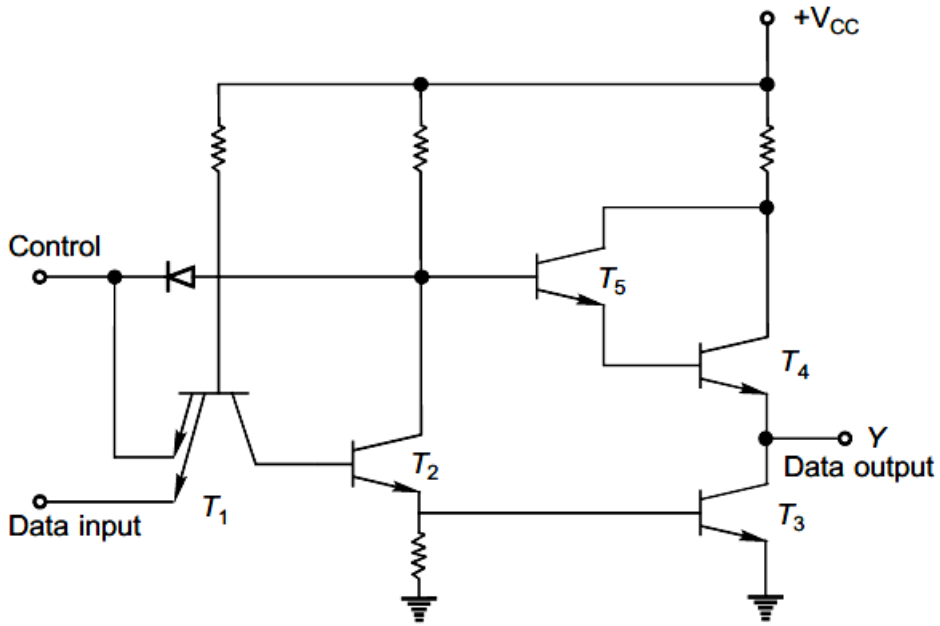


Fig. 4.2.1 TSL Inverter

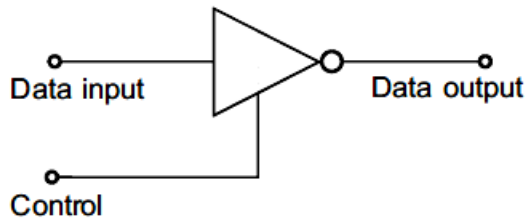


Fig. 4.2.2 Logic symbol of a TSL Inverter

4.3 Interfacing of CMOS and TTL families

Firstly we shall learn to interface LEDs (Light Emitting Diode) with TTL and CMOS circuits because LED being output indicators. For low currents and voltages LEDs are perfect since they need only 20 to 30 mA with about applied 2 V.

Here CMOS 400 series and TTL 74 series are considered.

CMOS to LED interfacing:

Six examples of CMOS-IC driving LED indicators are shown in the below figure 4.3.1 (a) to (f).

Figure 4.3.1 (a) and (b) shows CMOS supply voltage at +5 V. At this low voltage, no limiting resistors are needed in series with the LEDs.

In figure 4.3.1 (a), when output of CMOS inverter goes HIGH, the LED output indicator glows (LED connected in such a way that the *Anode* is connected to the Output of CMOS gate). In figure 4.3.1 (b), when output of CMOS inverter goes LOW, the LED output indicator glows (LED connected in such a way that the *Cathode* is connected to the Output of CMOS gate).

Figure 4.3.1 (c) and (d) shows CMOS operated in high supply voltage at +10 to +15 V. At this high voltage, *limiting resistors* (here 1 K Ω) is needed in series with the LEDs.

In figure 4.3.1 (c), when output of CMOS inverter goes HIGH, the LED output indicator glows (LED connected in such a way that the *Anode* is connected to the Output of CMOS gate). In figure 4.3.1 (d), when output of CMOS inverter goes LOW, the LED output indicator glows (LED connected in such a way that the *Cathode* is connected to the Output of CMOS gate).

Figure 4.3.1 (e) and (f) shows CMOS Buffer operated in high supply voltage at +5 to +15 V. At this high voltage, *limiting resistors* (here 1 K Ω) is needed in series with the LEDs.

The only difference is CMOS Buffer is used instead of CMOS gate.

TTL to LED interfacing:

Figure 4.3.1 (g) and (h) shows a standard TTL gate operated in high supply voltage at +5 to +15 V. At this high voltage, *limiting resistors* (here 1 K Ω) is needed in series with the LEDs.

In figure 4.3.1 (g), when output of Standard TTL gate goes HIGH, current will flow through the LED output indicator to make a glow (LED connected in such a way that the *Anode* is connected to the Output of TTL gate).

In figure 4.3.1 (h), when output of Standard TTL gate goes LOW, current will flow through the LED output indicator to make a glow (LED connected in such a way that the *Cathode* is connected to the Output of TTL gate).

The circuits in figure 4.3.1 are not proper for real-time critical use because they can exceed current ratings.

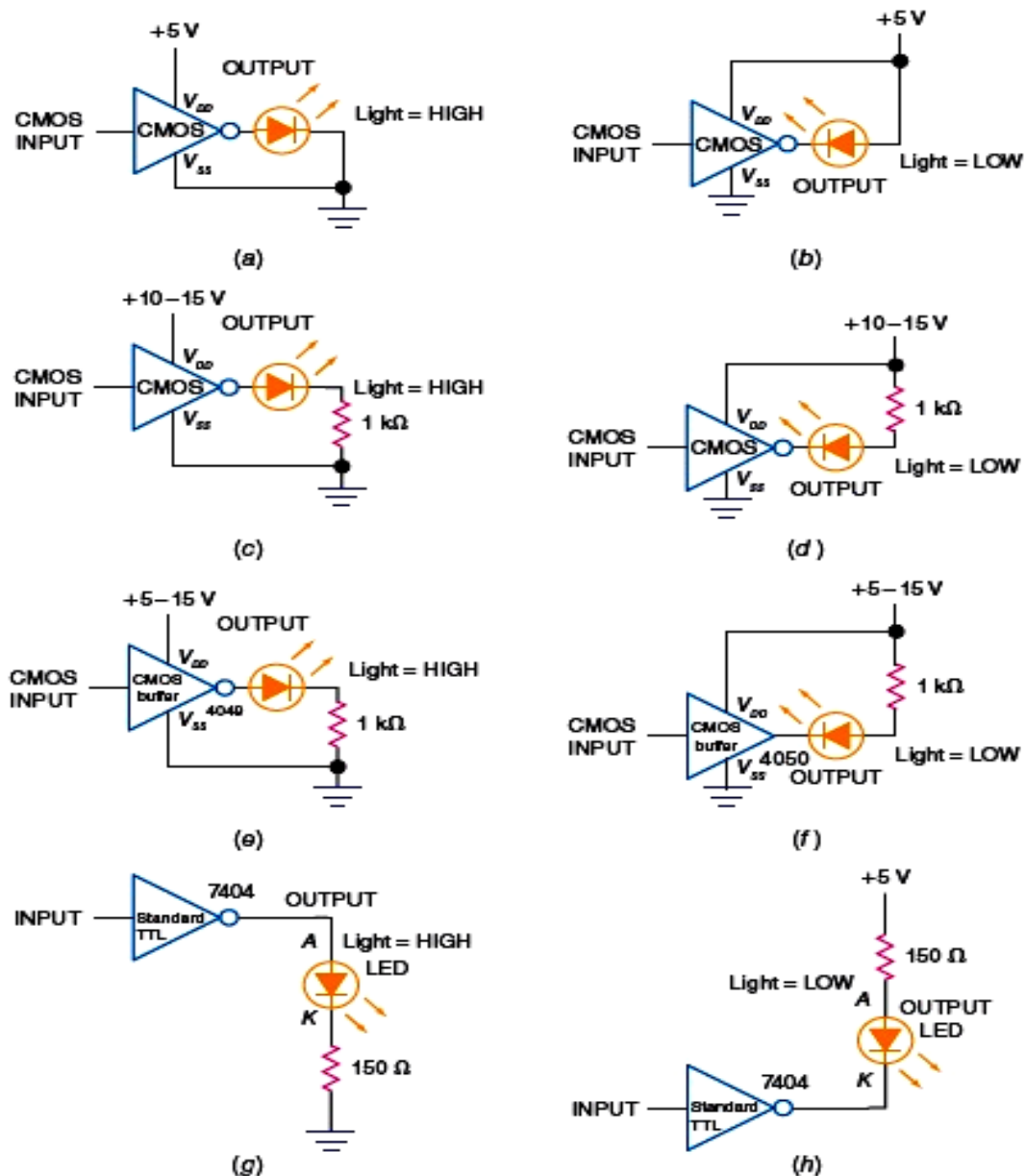


Fig. 4.3.1 A Simple LED interfacing with TTL and with CMOS.

(a.) CMOS Active HIGH (b.) CMOS Active LOW (c.) CMOS active HIGH, Supply Voltage = 10 to 15 V (d.) active LOW, Supply Voltage = 10 to 15 V (e.) CMOS inverting buffer to LED interfacing (f.) CMOS non-inverting buffer to LED interfacing (g.) TTL Active HIGH (h.) TTL Active LOW

Current Sourcing and sinking:

In figure 4.3.2 (a.) the output of the TTL AND gate is HIGH. This HIGH at the output of the AND gate makes the LED glow. The source current appears to “flow from the IC” through the external circuit (LED and limiting resistor) to ground.

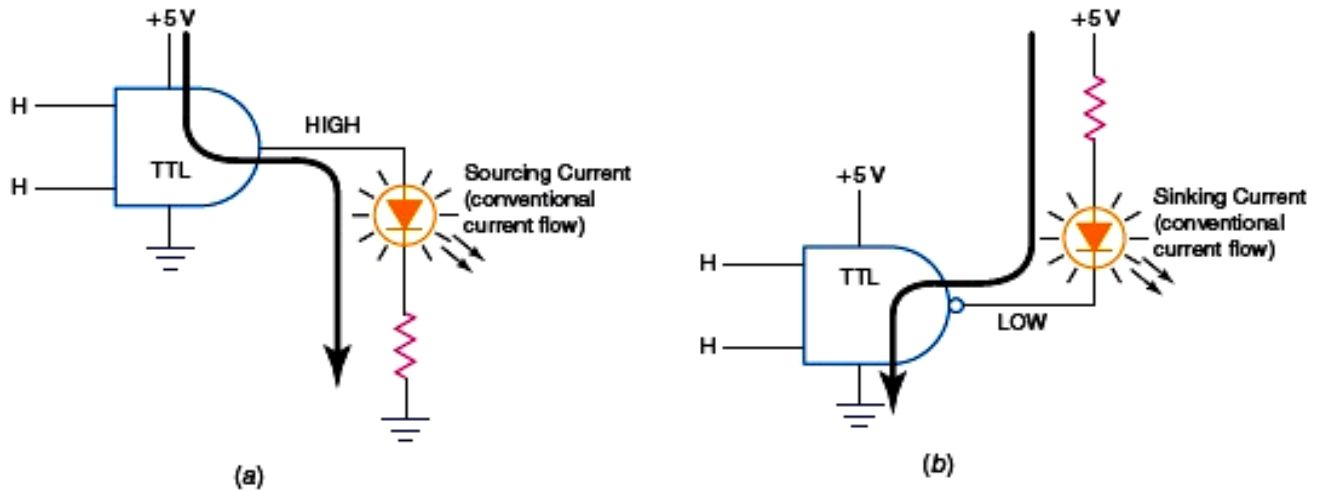


Fig. 4.3.2 (a.) TTL Current Sourcing (TTL-AND gate) (b.) TTL Current Sinking (TTL-NAND gate)

In figure 4.3.2 (b.) the output of the TTL NAND gate is LOW. This LOW at the output of the NAND gate makes the LED glow. The sink current appears to start with +5V above the external circuit (LED and limiting resistor) and “sink to ground” through the external circuit (LED and limiting resistor) and the output pin of the NAND IC.

TTL to CMOS interfacing:

CMOS and TTL logic voltage levels are differently defined. These differences are shown in figure 4.3.3 (a.). Due to these different voltage levels CMOS and TTL ICs cannot be connected together by using usual connectivity methods.

The Current and voltage levels are shown in the *Table 4.3.2 below.*

Table 4.3.2 – Current and Voltage levels of TTL and CMOS logics

Levels ➔	Current Levels		Voltage Levels	
	LOW	HIGH	LOW	HIGH
Standard TTL	16 mA	400 μ A	0 V - 0.8 V	2.4 V – 5 V
CMOS	1 μ A	1 μ A	0 V - 1.5 V	3.5 V – 5 V

As shown in the above table, Output drive currents of standard TTL are sufficient to drive CMOS input bands because the latter is 1 μA or less than TTL current levels.

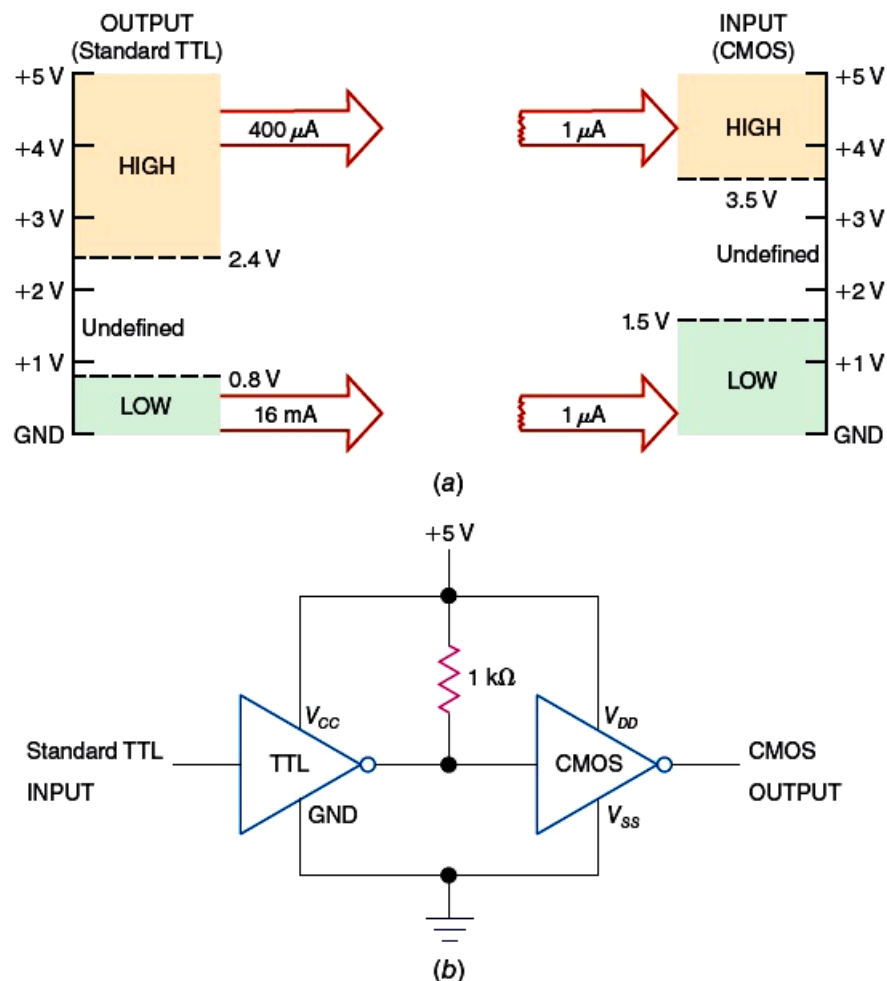


Fig. 4.3.3. TTL to CMOS interfacing (a.) TTL output and CMOS input (b.) TTL-CMOS interfacing using pull-up resistor

The HIGH voltage levels of TTL (2.4 V to 3.5 V) which are not compatible with HIGH voltage levels of CMOS (3.5 V to 5 V) and also LOW voltage levels of TTL (0 V to 0.8 V) which are not compatible with HIGH voltage levels of CMOS (0 V to 1.5 V) cause problems due to incompatibility. These problems are solved by using a pull-up resistor between gates to pull the HIGH output of standard TTL up closer to +5V as shown in the figure 4.3.3 (b.). Here a 1 K Ω is used as a pull-up resistor.

Examples of converting a TTL-to-CMOS and CMOS-to-TTL interfacing using a common 5 V power supply are shown in figure 4.3.4.

Figure 4.3.4 (a) shows the popular LS-TTL driving any CMOS gate. Notice the use of a 2.2-k Ω pull-up resistor. The pull-up resistor is being used to pull the TTL HIGH up near 5 V so that it will be compatible with the input voltage characteristics of CMOS ICs. In Fig. 4.3.4 (b), a CMOS inverter (any

series) is driving an LS-TTL inverter *directly*. Complementary symmetry metal-oxide semiconductor ICs can drive LS-TTL and ALS-TTL (advanced low-power Schottky) inputs: most CMOS ICs cannot drive standard TTL inputs without special interfacing.

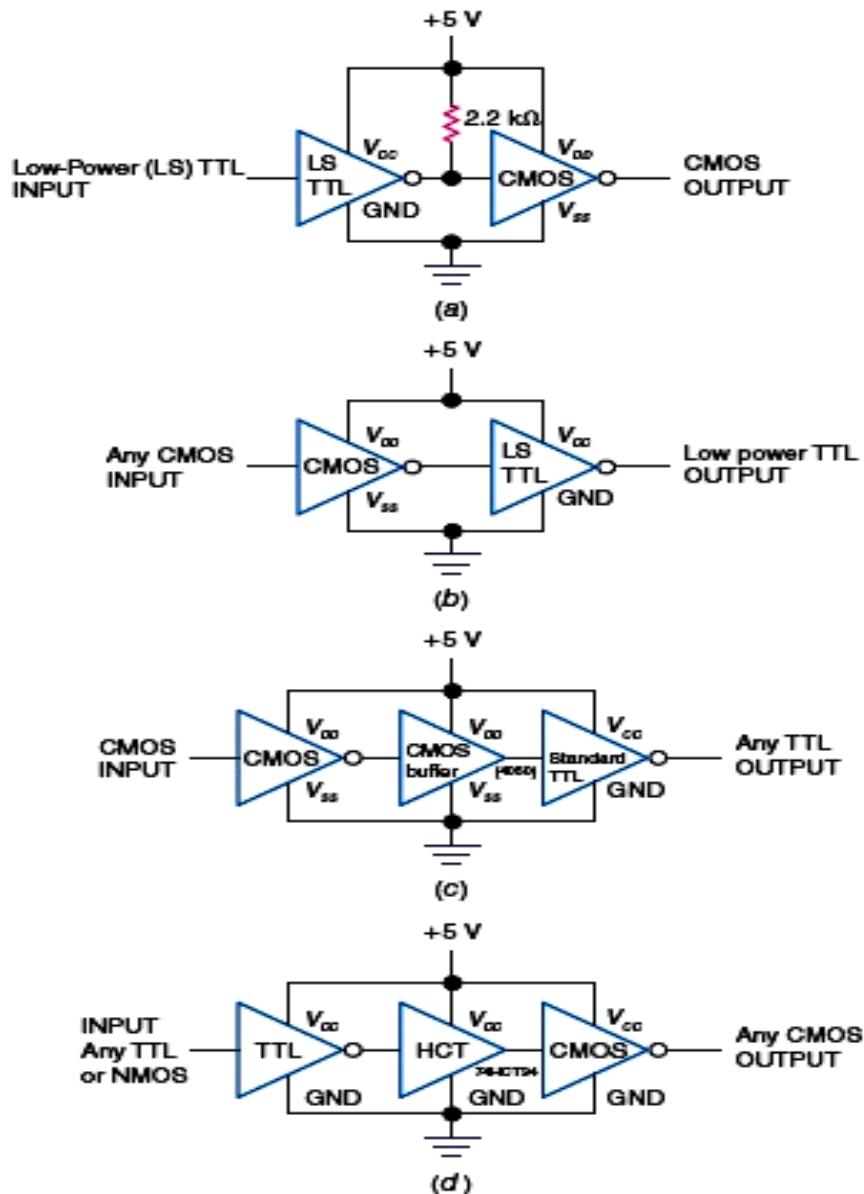


Fig. 4.3.4. Interfacing TTL and CMOS when both use common +5 V Power Supply (a.) Low-power Schottky TTL to CMOS interfacing using a pull-up resistor (b.) CMOS to low-power Schottky TTL interfacing (c.) CMOS to Standard-TTL interfacing using a CMOS buffer IC (d.) TTL to CMOS interfacing using 74HCT00 Series IC

Manufacturers have made interfacing easier by designing special buffers and other interface chips for designers. One example is the use of the 4050 non-inverting buffer in Fig. 4.3.4 (c). The 4050 buffer allows the CMOS inverter to have enough drive current to operate up to two standard TTL inputs. The

problem of voltage incompatibility from TTL (or NMOS) to CMOS was solved in Fig. 4.3.3 using a pull-up resistor.

Another method of solving this problem is illustrated in Fig. 4.3.4 (d). The 74HCT00 series of CMOS ICs is specifically designed as a convenient interface between TTL (or NMOS) and CMOS. Such an interface is implemented in Fig. 4.3.4 (d) using the 74HCT34 non-inverting IC. The *74HCT00 series of CMOS ICs* is widely used when interfacing between NMOS devices and CMOS.

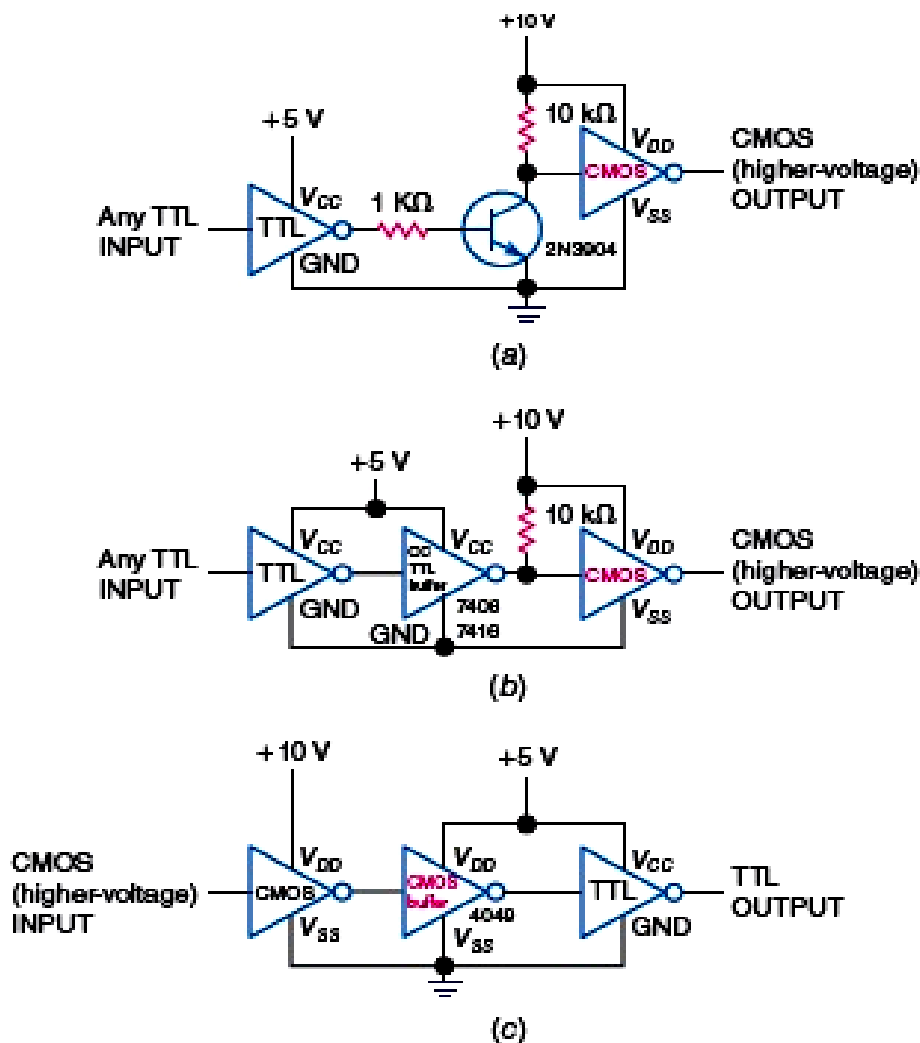


Fig. 4.3.5. Interfacing TTL and CMOS when each uses a different Power Supply voltage (a.) TTL-to-CMOS interfacing using a driver transistor (b.) TTL-to-CMOS interfacing using a an open-collector TTL buffer IC (c.) CMOS- to-TTL interfacing using a CMOS buffer IC

Interfacing CMOS devices with TTL devices takes some added components when each operates on a *different voltage power supply*. Figure 4.3.5 shows three examples of TTL-to-CMOS and CMOS-to-TTL interfacing. Figure 4.3.5 (a) shows the TTL inverter driving a general-purpose NPN transistor. The

SATHYABAMA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF ELECTRONICS AND ELECTRICAL ENGG.
DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRONICS AND TELECOMMUNICATION ENGINEERING
COURSE MATERIAL – SEC1207 – DIGITAL LOGIC CIRCUITS – UNIT 4

transistor and associated resistors translate the lower voltage TTL outputs to the higher-voltage inputs needed to operate the CMOS inverter. The CMOS output has a voltage swing from about 0 to almost 110 V. Figure 4.3.5 (b) shows an open-collector TTL buffer and a 10-k Ω pull-up resistor being used to translate the lower TTL to the higher CMOS voltages. The 7406 and 7416 TTL ICs are two inverting, open-collector (OC) buffers. Interfacing between a higher-voltage CMOS inverter and a lower-voltage TTL inverter is shown in Fig. 4.3.5 (c). The 4049 CMOS buffer is used between the higher-voltage CMOS inverter and the lower-voltage TTL IC. Note that the CMOS buffer is powered by the lower voltage (15 V) power supply in Fig. 4.3.5 (c).

4.4 Comparison of logic families

The table 4.4.1 shows the comparison of various logic families with some characteristics like Fan-out, power dissipation, Noise immunity, Propagation delay, speed-power product, Clock-Rate etc.

Table. 4.4.1 TSL Inverter

Logic family→	RTL	I ² L	DTL	HTL	TTL	SCHOTTKY TTL	ECL	MOS	CMOS
Parameter↓									
FAN OUT	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH
POWER DISSIPATION	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
NOISE IMMUNITY	MEDIUM	POOR	GOOD	EXCEL	V. GOOD	V. GOOD	POOR	V. GOOD	V. GOOD
PROPAGATION DELAY	LOW	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
SPEED-POWER PRODUCT	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
CLOCK RATE	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	V. HIGH	V. HIGH	HIGH	LOW	HIGH

V. = VERY