

CMSC 313
COMPUTER ORGANIZATION
&
ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE
PROGRAMMING

LECTURE 20, FALL 2012



TOPICS TODAY

- **Project 8**
- **Introduction to Digital Logic**
- **Semiconductors, Transistors & Gates**



INTRODUCTION TO DIGITAL LOGIC



Chapter 3 Objectives

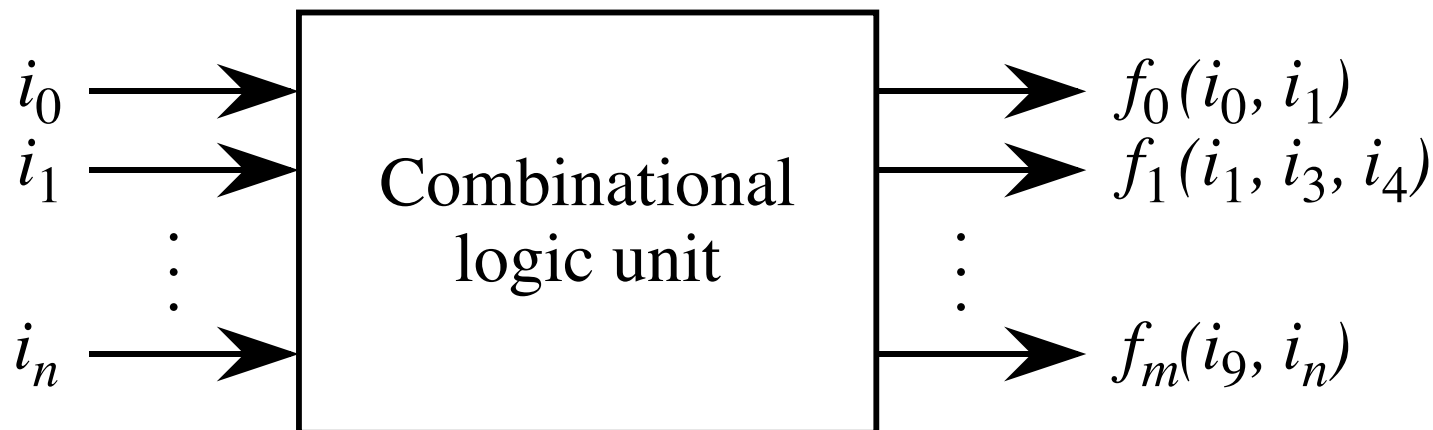
- Understand the relationship between Boolean logic and digital computer circuits.
- Learn how to design simple logic circuits.
- Understand how digital circuits work together to form complex computer systems.

Some Definitions

- ***Combinational logic***: a digital logic circuit in which logical decisions are made based only on combinations of the inputs. *e.g.* an adder.
- ***Sequential logic***: a circuit in which decisions are made based on combinations of the current inputs as well as the past history of inputs. *e.g.* a memory unit.
- ***Finite state machine***: a circuit which has an internal state, and whose outputs are functions of both current inputs and its internal state. *e.g.* a vending machine controller.

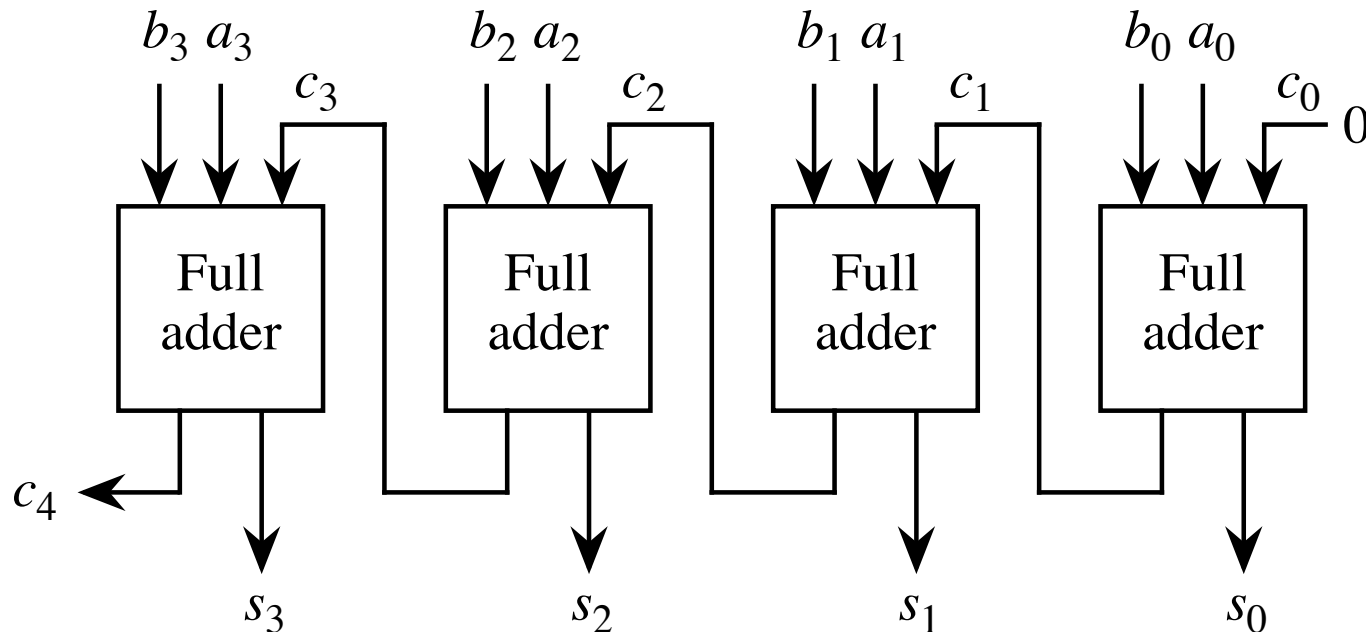
The Combinational Logic Unit

- Translates a set of inputs into a set of outputs according to one or more mapping functions.
- Inputs and outputs for a CLU normally have two distinct (binary) values: high and low, 1 and 0, 0 and 1, or 5 V and 0 V for example.
- The outputs of a CLU are strictly functions of the inputs, and the outputs are updated immediately after the inputs change. A set of inputs $i_0 - i_n$ are presented to the CLU, which produces a set of outputs according to mapping functions $f_0 - f_m$.



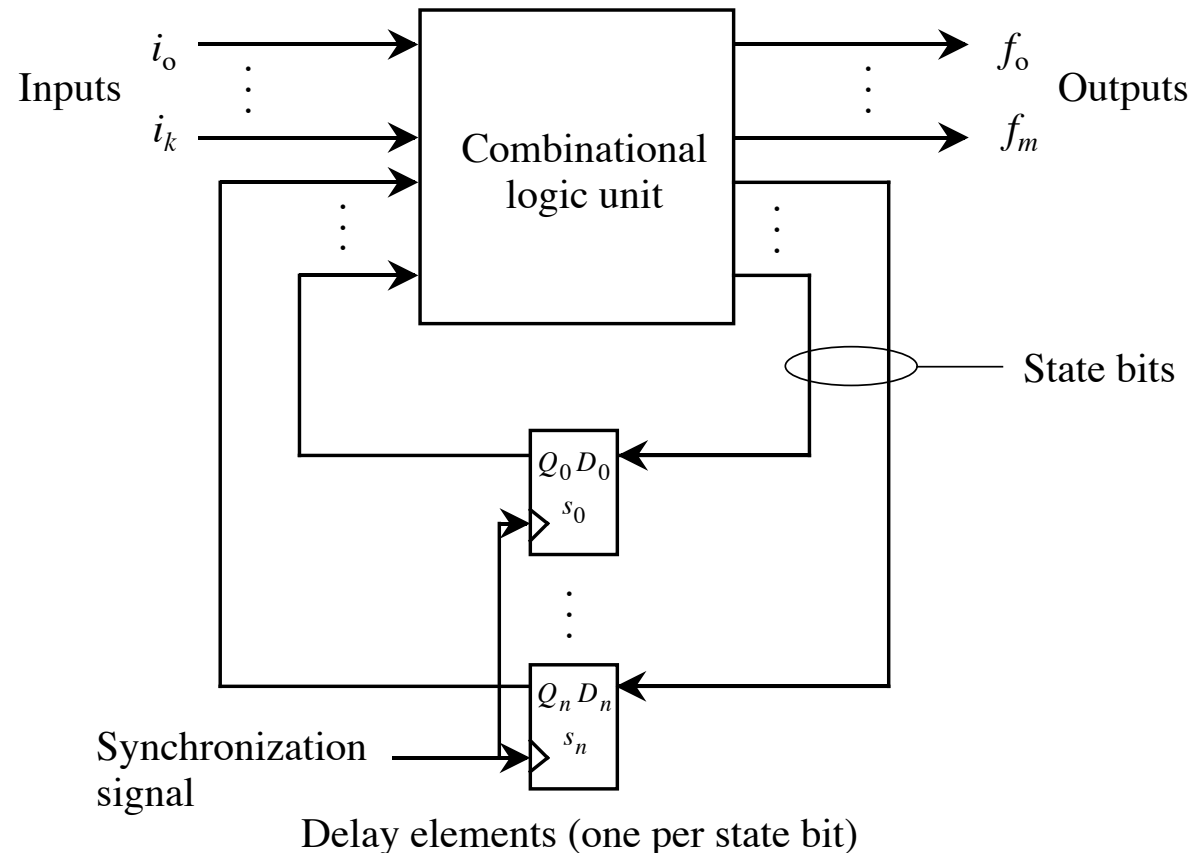
Ripple Carry Adder

- Two binary numbers A and B are added from right to left, creating a sum and a carry at the outputs of each full adder for each bit position.

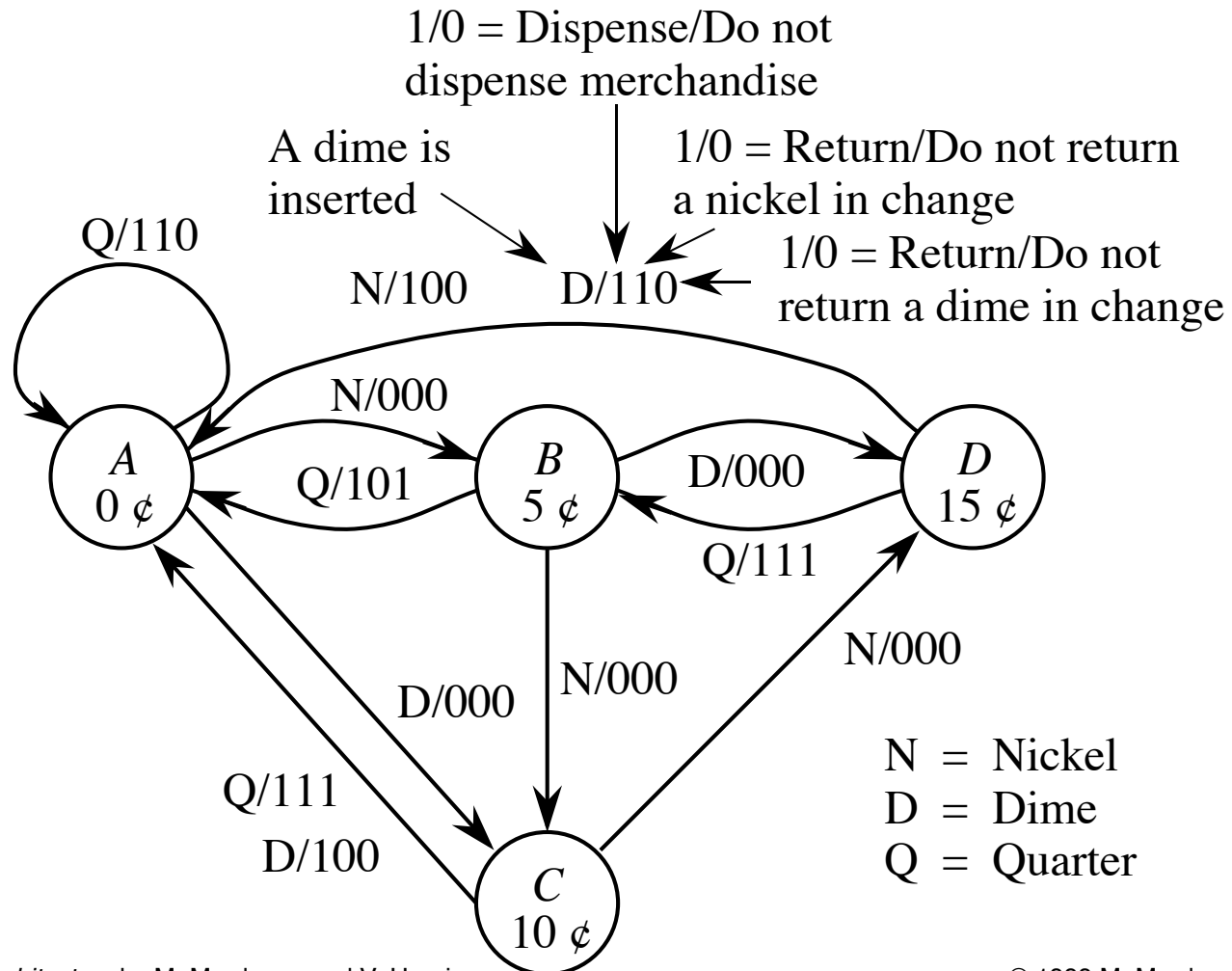


Classical Model of a Finite State Machine

- An FSM is composed of a combinational logic unit and delay elements (called *flip-flops*) in a feedback path, which maintains state information.



Vending Machine State Transition Diagram



3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Boolean algebra is a mathematical system for the manipulation of variables that can have one of two values.
 - In formal logic, these values are “true” and “false.”
 - In digital systems, these values are “on” and “off,” 1 and 0, or “high” and “low.”
- Boolean expressions are created by performing operations on Boolean variables.
 - Common Boolean operators include AND, OR, and NOT.

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- A Boolean operator can be completely described using a truth table.
- The truth table for the Boolean operators AND and OR are shown at the right.
- The AND operator is also known as a Boolean product. The OR operator is the Boolean sum.

X AND Y

X	Y	XY
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

X OR Y

X	Y	X+Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- The truth table for the Boolean NOT operator is shown at the right.
- The NOT operation is most often designated by an overbar. It is sometimes indicated by a prime mark (') or an “elbow” (\neg).

X	\bar{X}
0	1
1	0

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- A Boolean function has:
 - At least one Boolean variable,
 - At least one Boolean operator, and
 - At least one input from the set $\{0,1\}$.
- It produces an output that is also a member of the set $\{0,1\}$.

Now you know why the binary numbering system is so handy in digital systems.

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- The truth table for the Boolean function:

$$F(x, y, z) = x\bar{z} + y$$

is shown at the right.

- To make evaluation of the Boolean function easier, the truth table contains extra (shaded) columns to hold evaluations of subparts of the function.

$$F(x, y, z) = x\bar{z} + y$$

x	y	z	\bar{z}	$x\bar{z}$	$x\bar{z} + y$
0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- As with common arithmetic, Boolean operations have rules of precedence.
- The NOT operator has highest priority, followed by AND and then OR.
- This is how we chose the (shaded) function subparts in our table.

$$F(x, y, z) = x\bar{z} + y$$

x	y	z	\bar{z}	$x\bar{z}$	$x\bar{z} + y$
0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Digital computers contain circuits that implement Boolean functions.
- The simpler that we can make a Boolean function, the smaller the circuit that will result.
 - Simpler circuits are cheaper to build, consume less power, and run faster than complex circuits.
- With this in mind, we always want to reduce our Boolean functions to their simplest form.
- There are a number of Boolean identities that help us to do this.

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Most Boolean identities have an AND (product) form as well as an OR (sum) form. We give our identities using both forms. Our first group is rather intuitive:

Identity Name	AND Form	OR Form
Identity Law	$1x = x$	$0 + x = x$
Null Law	$0x = 0$	$1 + x = 1$
Idempotent Law	$xx = x$	$x + x = x$
Inverse Law	$x\bar{x} = 0$	$x + \bar{x} = 1$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Our second group of Boolean identities should be familiar to you from your study of algebra:

Identity Name	AND Form	OR Form
Commutative Law	$xy = yx$	$x+y = y+x$
Associative Law	$(xy)z = x(yz)$	$(x+y)+z = x+(y+z)$
Distributive Law	$x+yz = (x+y)(x+z)$	$x(y+z) = xy+xz$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Our last group of Boolean identities are perhaps the most useful.
- If you have studied set theory or formal logic, these laws are also familiar to you.

Identity Name	AND Form	OR Form
Absorption Law	$x(x+y) = x$	$x + xy = x$
DeMorgan's Law	$\overline{(xy)} = \bar{x} + \bar{y}$	$\overline{(x+y)} = \bar{x}\bar{y}$
Double Complement Law	$\overline{(\bar{x})} = x$	

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- We can use Boolean identities to simplify:

$$F(X, Y, Z) = (X+Y) (X+\bar{Y}) (\overline{XZ})$$

as follows:

$$(X + Y) (X + \bar{Y}) (\overline{XZ})$$

$$(X + Y) (X + \bar{Y}) (\bar{X} + Z)$$

$$(XX + X\bar{Y} + YX + Y\bar{Y}) (\bar{X} + Z)$$

$$((X + Y\bar{Y}) + X(Y + \bar{Y})) (\bar{X} + Z)$$

$$((X + 0) + X(1)) (\bar{X} + Z)$$

$$X(\bar{X} + Z)$$

$$X\bar{X} + XZ$$

$$0 + XZ$$

$$XZ$$

DeMorgan's Law

Double complement Law

Distributive Law

Commutative and Distributive Laws

Inverse Law

Idempotent and Identity Laws

Distributive Law

Inverse Law

Identity Law

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Sometimes it is more economical to build a circuit using the complement of a function (and complementing its result) than it is to implement the function directly.
- DeMorgan's law provides an easy way of finding the complement of a Boolean function.
- Recall DeMorgan's law states:

$$\overline{(xy)} = \bar{x} + \bar{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{(x+y)} = \bar{x}\bar{y}$$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- DeMorgan's law can be extended to any number of variables.
- Replace each variable by its complement and change all ANDs to ORs and all ORs to ANDs.
- Thus, we find the the complement of:

$$F(X, Y, Z) = (XY) + (\bar{X}Y) + (X\bar{Z})$$

is:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{F}(X, Y, Z) &= \overline{(XY) + (\bar{X}Z) + (Y\bar{Z})} \\ &= \overline{(XY)} \overline{(\bar{X}Z)} \overline{(Y\bar{Z})} \\ &= (\bar{X} + \bar{Y})(X + \bar{Z})(\bar{Y} + Z)\end{aligned}$$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- Through our exercises in simplifying Boolean expressions, we see that there are numerous ways of stating the same Boolean expression.
 - These “synonymous” forms are *logically equivalent*.
 - Logically equivalent expressions have identical truth tables.
- In order to eliminate as much confusion as possible, designers express Boolean functions in *standardized* or *canonical* form.

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- There are two canonical forms for Boolean expressions: sum-of-products and product-of-sums.
 - Recall the Boolean product is the AND operation and the Boolean sum is the OR operation.
- In the sum-of-products form, ANDed variables are ORed together.
 - For example: $F(x, y, z) = xy + xz + yz$
- In the product-of-sums form, ORed variables are ANDed together:
 - For example: $F(x, y, z) = (x+y)(x+z)(y+z)$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- It is easy to convert a function to sum-of-products form using its truth table.
- We are interested in the values of the variables that make the function true (=1).
- Using the truth table, we list the values of the variables that result in a true function value.
- Each group of variables is then ORed together.

$$F(x, y, z) = x\bar{z} + y$$

x	y	z	$x\bar{z} + y$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

3.2 Boolean Algebra

- The sum-of-products form for our function is:

$$F(x, y, z) = (\bar{x}\bar{y}\bar{z}) + (\bar{x}y\bar{z}) + (x\bar{y}\bar{z}) \\ + (x\bar{y}z) + (x\bar{y}z)$$

We note that this function is not in simplest terms. Our aim is only to rewrite our function in canonical sum-of-products form.

$$F(x, y, z) = x\bar{z} + y$$

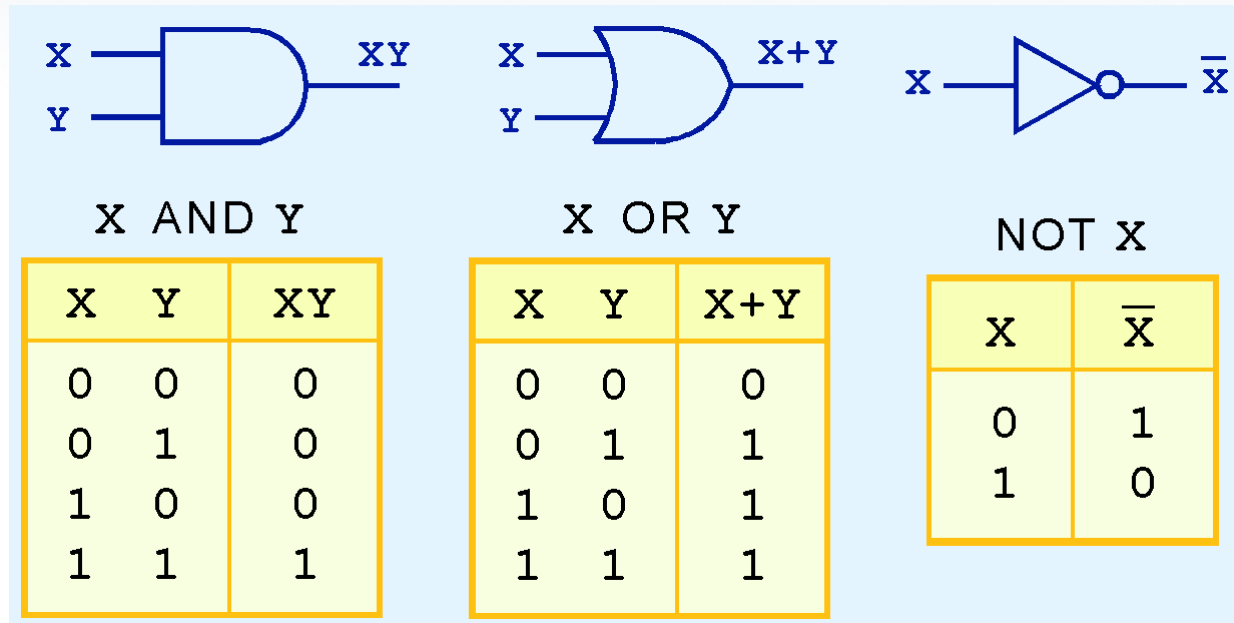
x	y	z	$x\bar{z} + y$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

3.3 Logic Gates

- We have looked at Boolean functions in abstract terms.
- In this section, we see that Boolean functions are implemented in digital computer circuits called gates.
- A gate is an electronic device that produces a result based on two or more input values.
 - In reality, gates consist of one to six transistors, but digital designers think of them as a single unit.
 - Integrated circuits contain collections of gates suited to a particular purpose.

3.3 Logic Gates

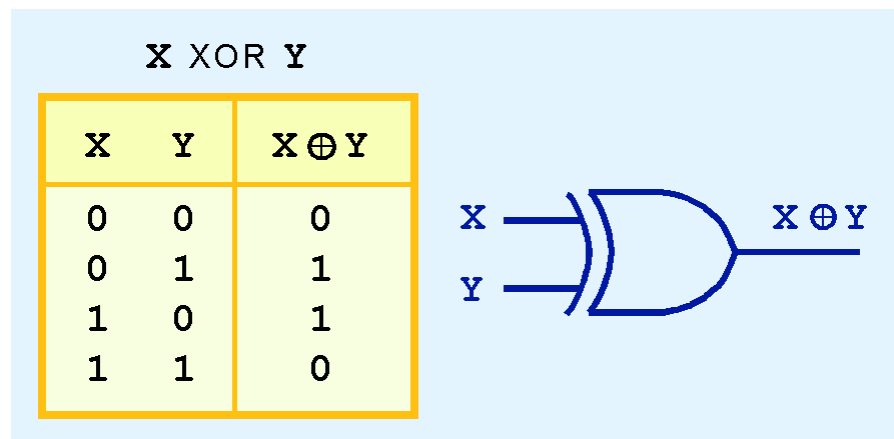
- The three simplest gates are the AND, OR, and NOT gates.



- They correspond directly to their respective Boolean operations, as you can see by their truth tables.

3.3 Logic Gates

- Another very useful gate is the exclusive OR (XOR) gate.
- The output of the XOR operation is true only when the values of the inputs differ.



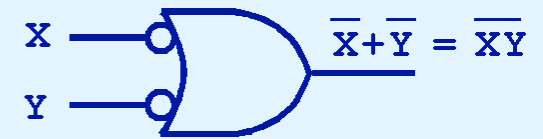
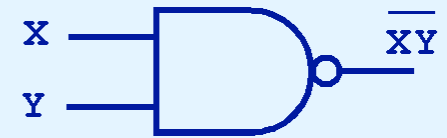
Note the special symbol \oplus for the XOR operation.

3.3 Logic Gates

- NAND and NOR are two very important gates. Their symbols and truth tables are shown at the right.

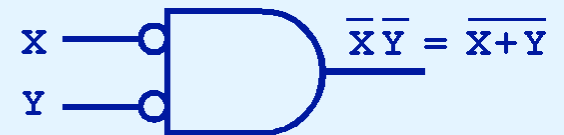
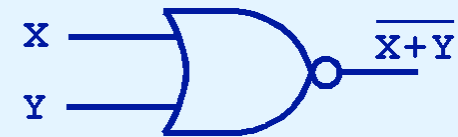
X NAND Y

X	Y	X NAND Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



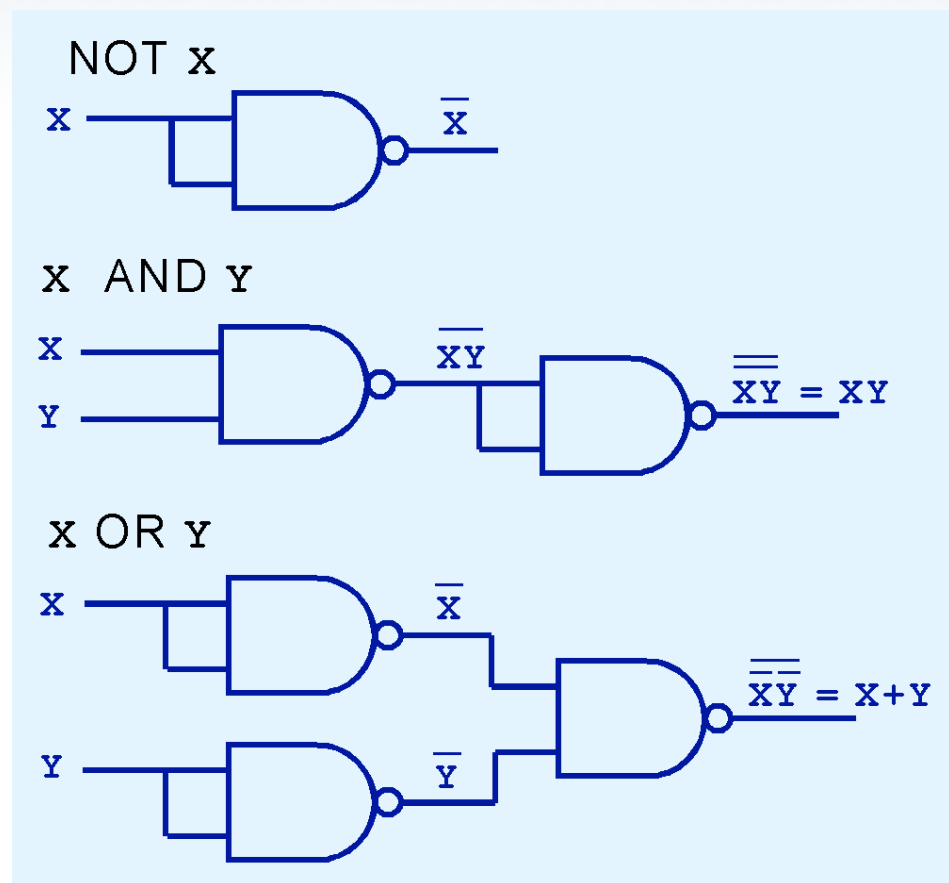
X NOR Y

X	Y	X NOR Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0



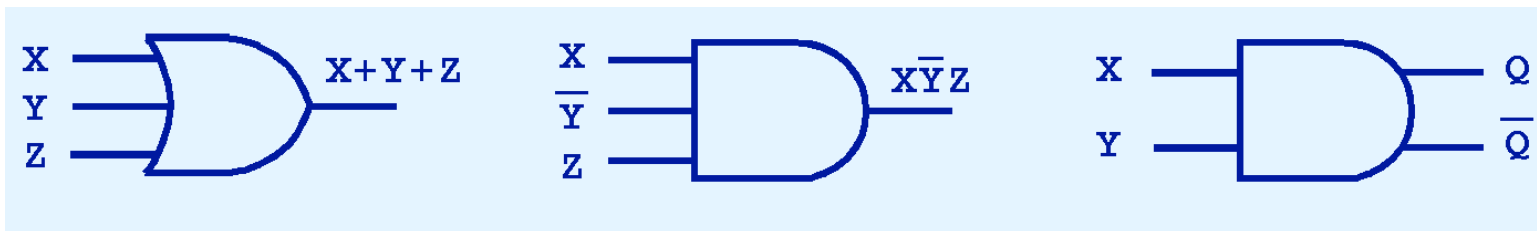
3.3 Logic Gates

- NAND and NOR are known as *universal gates* because they are inexpensive to manufacture and any Boolean function can be constructed using only NAND or only NOR gates.



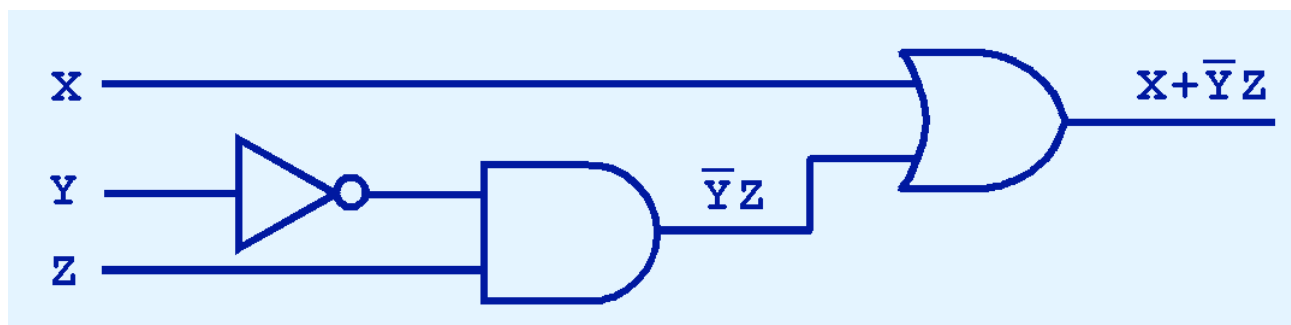
3.3 Logic Gates

- Gates can have multiple inputs and more than one output.
 - A second output can be provided for the complement of the operation.
 - We'll see more of this later.



3.3 Logic Gates

- The main thing to remember is that combinations of gates implement Boolean functions.
- The circuit below implements the Boolean function: $F(X, Y, Z) = X + \bar{Y}Z$



We simplify our Boolean expressions so that we can create simpler circuits.

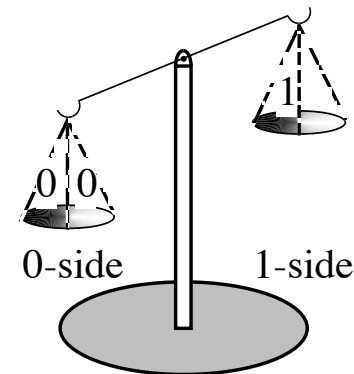
Sum-of-Products Form: The Majority Function

- The SOP form for the 3-input majority function is:

$$M = \overline{A}BC + A\overline{B}C + AB\overline{C} + ABC = m_3 + m_5 + m_6 + m_7 = \sum (3, 5, 6, 7).$$

- Each of the 2^n terms are called *minterms*, ranging from 0 to $2^n - 1$.
- Note relationship between minterm number and boolean value.

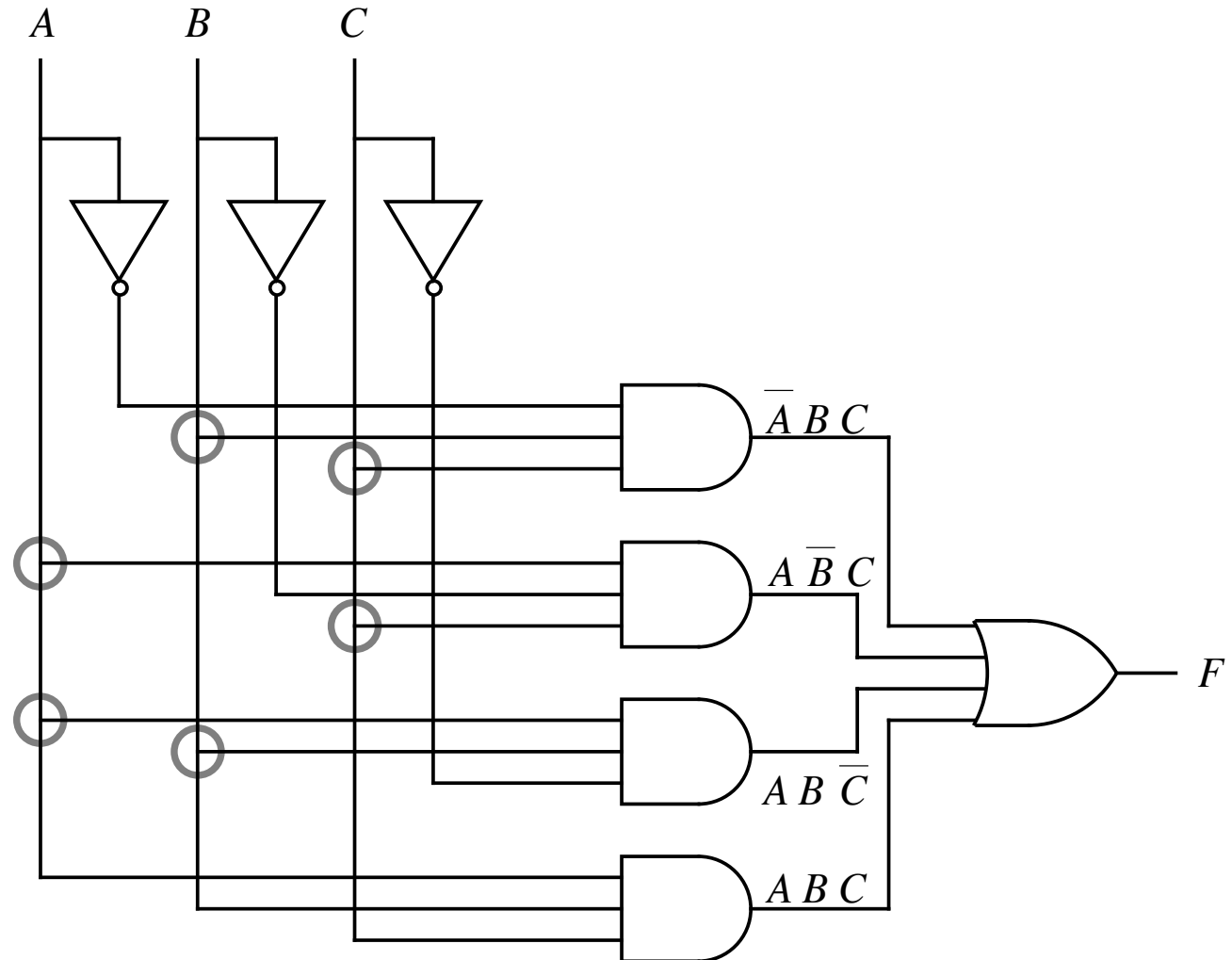
<i>Minterm Index</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>F</i>
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
2	0	1	0	0
3	0	1	1	1
4	1	0	0	0
5	1	0	1	1
6	1	1	0	1
7	1	1	1	1



A balance tips to the left or right depending on whether there are more 0's or 1's.

AND-OR Implementation of Majority

- Gate count is 8, gate input count is 19.



Sum of Products (a.k.a. disjunctive normal form)

- OR (i.e., sum) together rows with output 1
- AND (i.e., product) of variables represents each row
e.g., in row 3 when $x_1 = 0$ AND $x_2 = 1$ AND $x_3 = 1$
or when $\bar{x}_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3 = 1$
- $\text{MAJ3}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 + x_1 \bar{x}_2 x_3 + x_1 x_2 \bar{x}_3 + x_1 x_2 x_3 = \sum m(3, 5, 6, 7)$

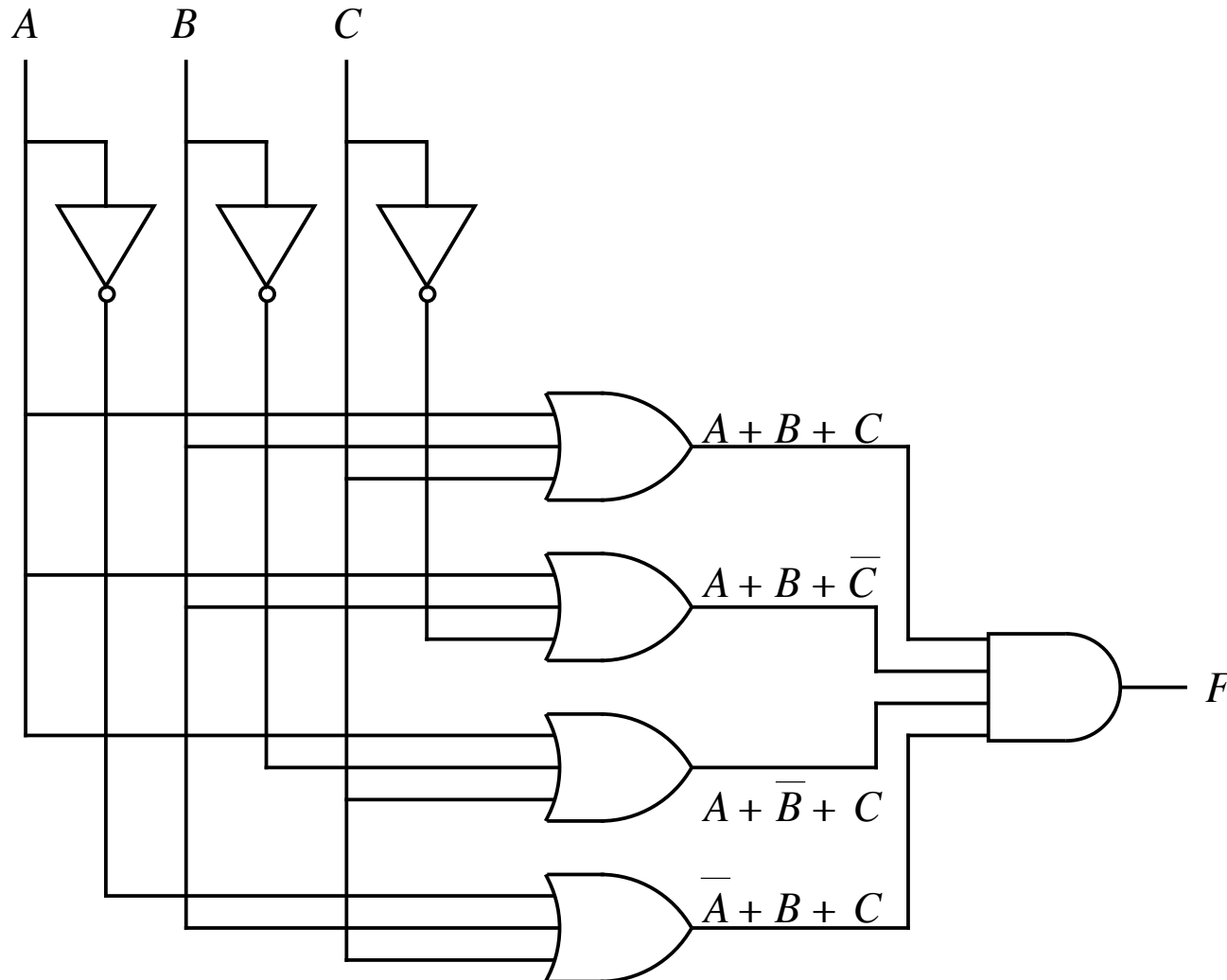
	x_1	x_2	x_3	MAJ3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
2	0	1	0	0
3	0	1	1	1
4	1	0	0	0
5	1	0	1	1
6	1	1	0	1
7	1	1	1	1

Product of Sums (a.k.a. conjunctive normal form)

- AND (i.e., product) of rows with output 0
- OR (i.e., sum) of variables represents negation of each row
e.g., NOT in row 2 when $x_1 = 1$ OR $x_2 = 0$ OR $x_3 = 1$
or when $x_1 + \overline{x_2} + x_3 = 1$
- $\text{MAJ3}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)(x_1 + x_2 + \overline{x_3})(x_1 + \overline{x_2} + x_3)(\overline{x_1} + x_2 + x_3)$
 $= \prod M(0, 1, 2, 4)$

	x_1	x_2	x_3	MAJ3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
2	0	1	0	0
3	0	1	1	1
4	1	0	0	0
5	1	0	1	1
6	1	1	0	1
7	1	1	1	1

OR-AND Implementation of Majority



Equivalences

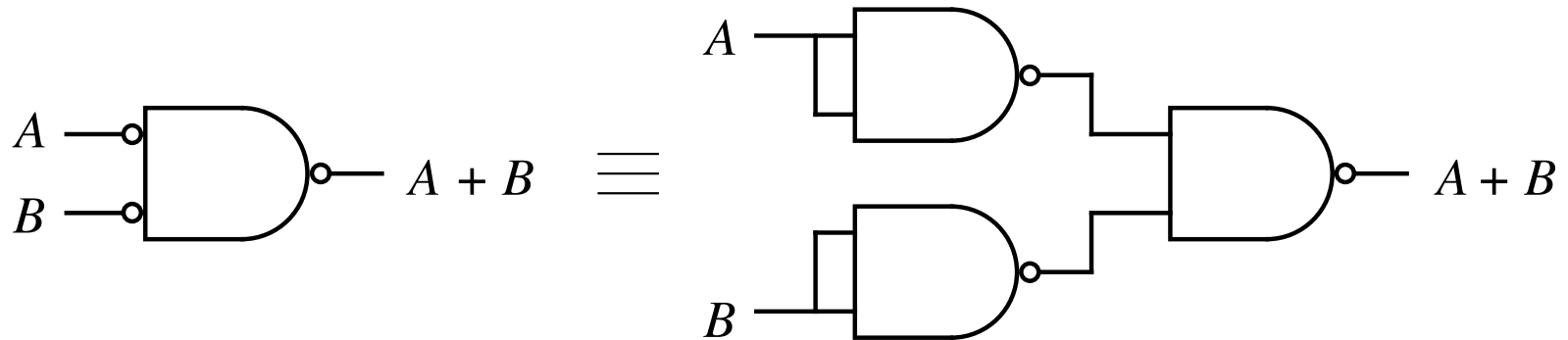
- Every Boolean function can be written as a truth table
- Every truth table can be written as a Boolean formula (SOP or POS)
- Every Boolean formula can be converted into a combinational circuit
- Every combinational circuit is a Boolean function
- Later you might learn other equivalencies:
finite automata \equiv regular expressions
computable functions \equiv programs

Universality

- Every Boolean function can be written as a Boolean formula using AND, OR and NOT operators.
- Every Boolean function can be implemented as a combinational circuit using AND, OR and NOT gates.
- Since AND, OR and NOT gates can be constructed from NAND gates, NAND gates are universal.

All-NAND Implementation of OR

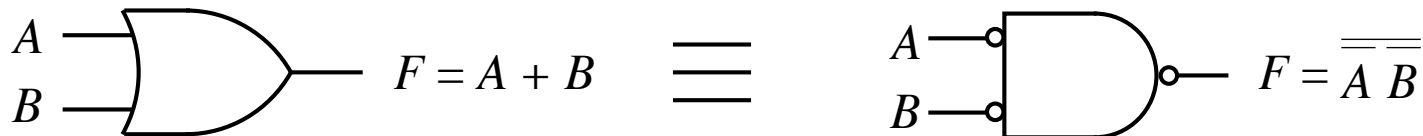
- NAND alone implements all other Boolean logic gates.



DeMorgan's Theorem

A B	$\overline{A B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$	$\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \overline{B}$
0 0	1 1	1 1
0 1	1 1	0 0
1 0	1 1	0 0
1 1	0 0	0 0

DeMorgan's theorem: $A + B = \overline{\overline{A + B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \overline{B}}$



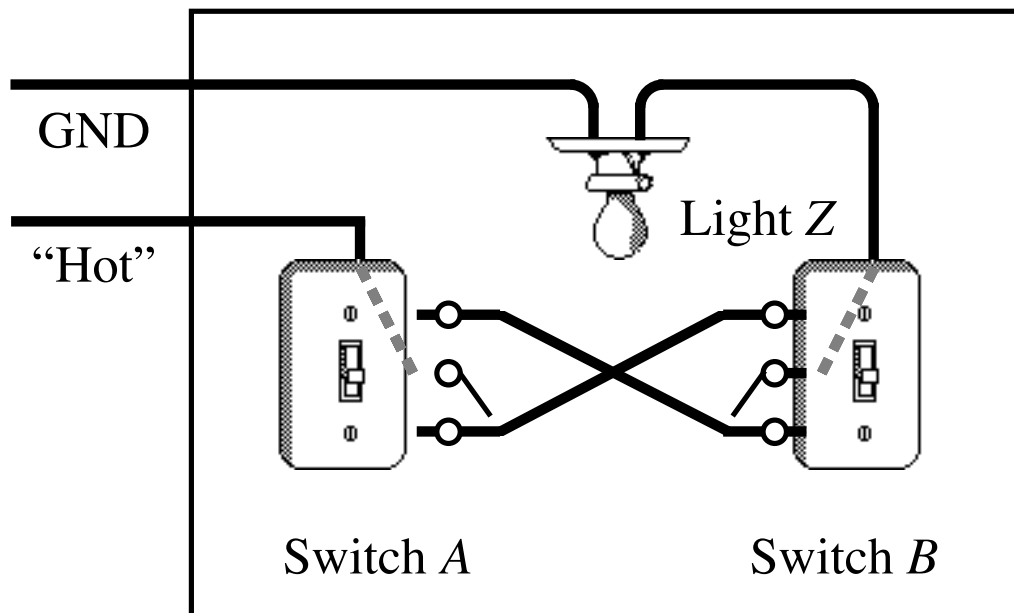
SEMICONDUCTORS, TRANSISTORS & GATES



How do we make gates???

A Truth Table

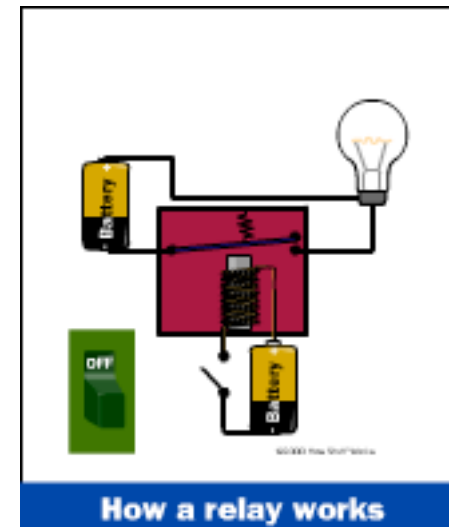
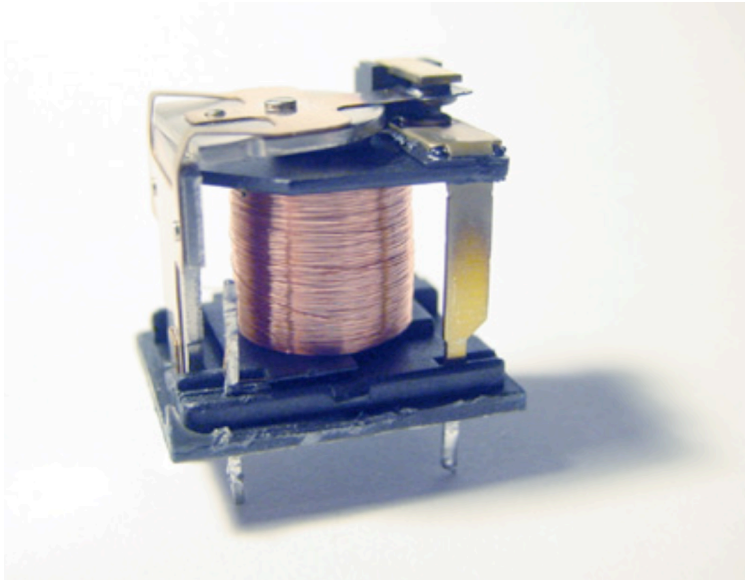
- Developed in 1854 by George Boole.
- Further developed by Claude Shannon (Bell Labs).
- Outputs are computed for all possible input combinations (how many input combinations are there?)
- Consider a room with two light switches. How must they work?



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

Electrically Operated Switch

- **Example: a relay**



source: <http://www.howstuffworks.com/relay.htm>

Semiconductors

- **Electrical properties of silicon**
- **Doping: adding impurities to silicon**
- **Diodes and the P-N junction**
- **Field-effect transistors**

Periodic Table of the Elements

Group																		
Period	1											13	14	15	16	17	18	
	IA											IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA	VIIIA	
	1A											3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	8A	
1	1 <u>H</u> 1.008	2 <u>He</u> 4.003											13 <u>B</u> 10.81	14 <u>C</u> 12.01	15 <u>N</u> 14.01	16 <u>O</u> 16.00	17 <u>F</u> 19.00	18 <u>Ne</u> 20.18
2	3 <u>Li</u> 6.941	4 <u>Be</u> 9.012											5 <u>B</u> 10.81	6 <u>C</u> 12.01	7 <u>N</u> 14.01	8 <u>O</u> 16.00	9 <u>F</u> 19.00	10 <u>Ne</u> 20.18
3	11 <u>Na</u> 22.99	12 <u>Mg</u> 24.31	3 IIIB 3B	4 IVB 4B	5 VB 5B	6 VIB 6B	7 VIIB 7B	8 ----- ----- 8	9 VIII ----- ----- 8	10 ----- ----- 8	11 IB 1B	12 IIB 2B	13 <u>Al</u> 26.98	14 <u>Si</u> 28.09	15 <u>P</u> 30.97	16 <u>S</u> 32.07	17 <u>Cl</u> 35.45	18 <u>Ar</u> 39.95
4	19 <u>K</u> 39.10	20 <u>Ca</u> 40.08	21 <u>Sc</u> 44.96	22 <u>Ti</u> 47.88	23 <u>V</u> 50.94	24 <u>Cr</u> 52.00	25 <u>Mn</u> 54.94	26 <u>Fe</u> 55.85	27 <u>Co</u> 58.47	28 <u>Ni</u> 58.69	29 <u>Cu</u> 63.55	30 <u>Zn</u> 65.39	31 <u>Ga</u> 69.72	32 <u>Ge</u> 72.59	33 <u>As</u> 74.92	34 <u>Se</u> 78.96	35 <u>Br</u> 79.90	36 <u>Kr</u> 83.80
5	37 <u>Rb</u> 85.47	38 <u>Sr</u> 87.62	39 <u>Y</u> 88.91	40 <u>Zr</u> 91.22	41 <u>Nb</u> 92.91	42 <u>Mo</u> 95.94	43 <u>Tc</u> (98)	44 <u>Ru</u> 101.1	45 <u>Rh</u> 102.9	46 <u>Pd</u> 106.4	47 <u>Ag</u> 107.9	48 <u>Cd</u> 112.4	49 <u>In</u> 114.8	50 <u>Sn</u> 118.7	51 <u>Sb</u> 121.8	52 <u>Te</u> 127.6	53 <u>I</u> 126.9	54 <u>Xe</u> 131.3
6	55 <u>Cs</u> 132.9	56 <u>Ba</u> 137.3	57 <u>La*</u> 138.9	72 <u>Hf</u> 178.5	73 <u>Ta</u> 180.9	74 <u>W</u> 183.9	75 <u>Re</u> 186.2	76 <u>Os</u> 190.2	77 <u>Ir</u> 190.2	78 <u>Pt</u> 195.1	79 <u>Au</u> 197.0	80 <u>Hg</u> 200.5	81 <u>Tl</u> 204.4	82 <u>Pb</u> 207.2	83 <u>Bi</u> 209.0	84 <u>Po</u> (210)	85 <u>At</u> (210)	86 <u>Rn</u> (222)
7	87 <u>Fr</u> (223)	88 <u>Ra</u> (226)	89 <u>Ac~</u> (227)	104 <u>Rf</u> (257)	105 <u>Db</u> (260)	106 <u>Sg</u> (263)	107 <u>Bh</u> (262)	108 <u>Hs</u> (265)	109 <u>Mt</u> (266)	110 --- (0)	111 --- (0)	112 --- (0)	114 --- (0)	116 --- (0)	118 --- (0)			

Lanthanide Series*

58 <u>Ce</u> 140.1	59 <u>Pr</u> 140.9	60 <u>Nd</u> 144.2	61 <u>Pm</u> (147)	62 <u>Sm</u> 150.4	63 <u>Eu</u> 152.0	64 <u>Gd</u> 157.3	65 <u>Tb</u> 158.9	66 <u>Dy</u> 162.5	67 <u>Ho</u> 164.9	68 <u>Er</u> 167.3	69 <u>Tm</u> 168.9	70 <u>Yb</u> 173.0	71 <u>Lu</u> 175.0
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Actinide Series~

90 <u>Th</u> 232.0	91 <u>Pa</u> (231)	92 <u>U</u> (238)	93 <u>Np</u> (237)	94 <u>Pu</u> (242)	95 <u>Am</u> (243)	96 <u>Cm</u> (247)	97 <u>Bk</u> (247)	98 <u>Cf</u> (249)	99 <u>Es</u> (254)	100 <u>Fm</u> (253)	101 <u>Md</u> (256)	102 <u>No</u> (254)	103 <u>Lr</u> (257)
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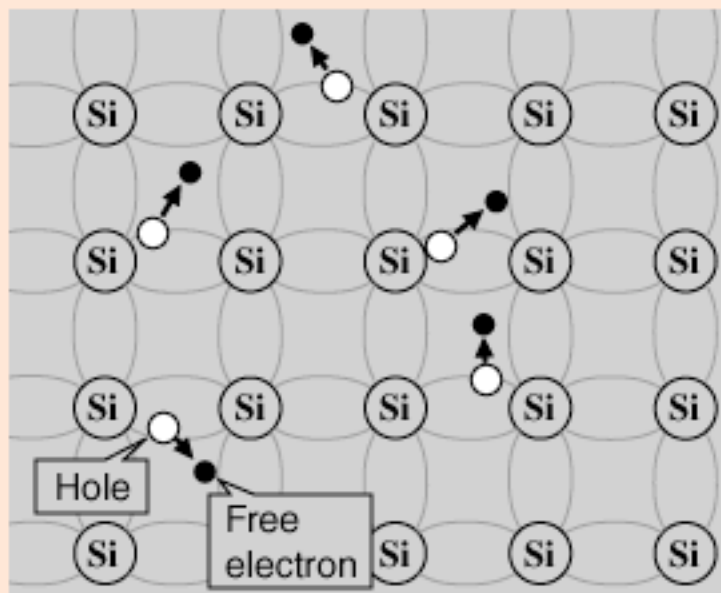
Intrinsic Semiconductor

A silicon crystal is different from an [insulator](#) because at any temperature above absolute zero temperature, there is a finite probability that an electron in the [lattice](#) will be knocked loose from its position, leaving behind an electron deficiency called a "[hole](#)".

If a voltage is applied, then both the electron and the hole can contribute to a small [current](#) flow.

The conductivity of a semiconductor can be modeled in terms of the [band theory](#) of solids. The band model of a semiconductor suggests that at ordinary temperatures there is a finite possibility that electrons can reach the [conduction band](#) and contribute to electrical conduction.

The term intrinsic here distinguishes between the properties of pure "intrinsic" silicon and the dramatically different properties of [doped n-type](#) or [p-type](#) semiconductors.

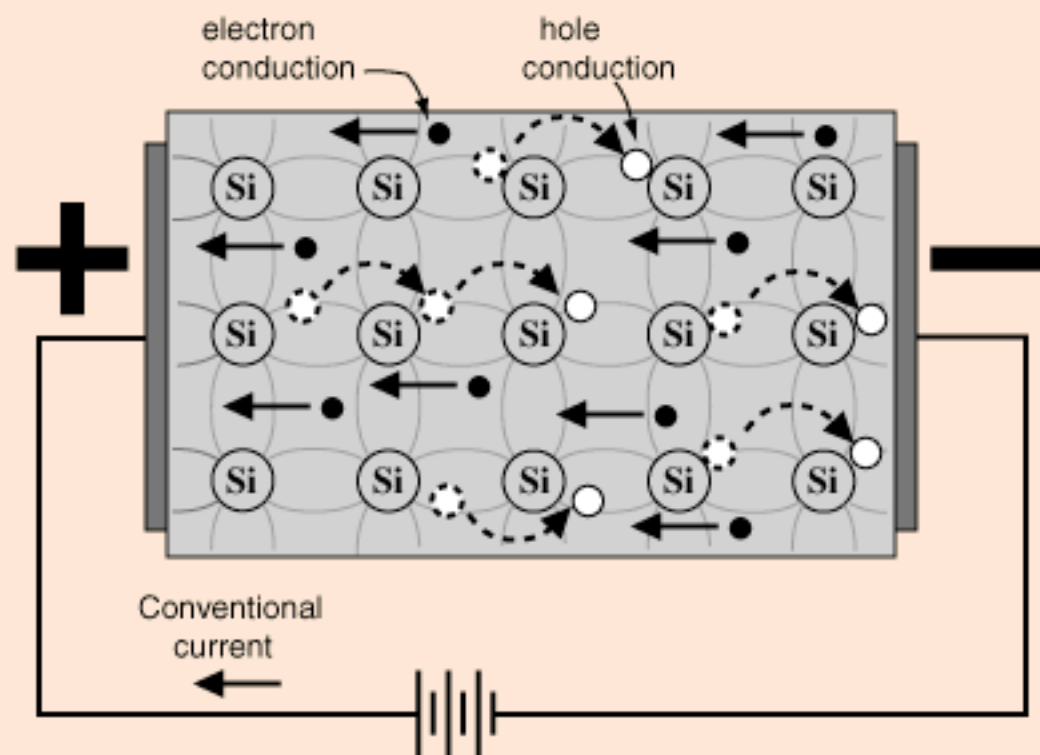


[Index](#)

[Semiconductor concepts](#)

Semiconductor Current

Both [electrons and holes](#) contribute to current flow in an [intrinsic semiconductor](#).



[Further discussion](#)

[Index](#)

[Semiconductor concepts](#)

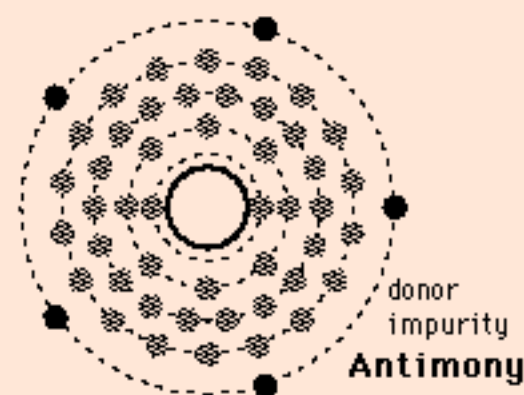
The Doping of Semiconductors

The addition of a small percentage of foreign atoms in the regular [crystal lattice](#) of silicon or germanium produces dramatic changes in their electrical properties, producing [n-type](#) and [p-type](#) semiconductors.

Pentavalent
impurities

(5 [valence electrons](#)) produce
n-type
semiconductors
by contributing
extra electrons.

Antimony
Arsenic
Phosphorous



Trivalent
impurities

(3 valence
electrons) produce
p-type
semiconductors by
producing a "[hole](#)
" or electron
deficiency.

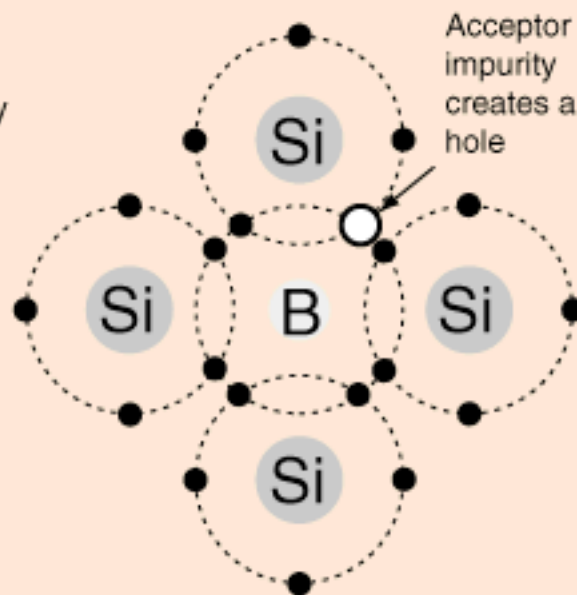
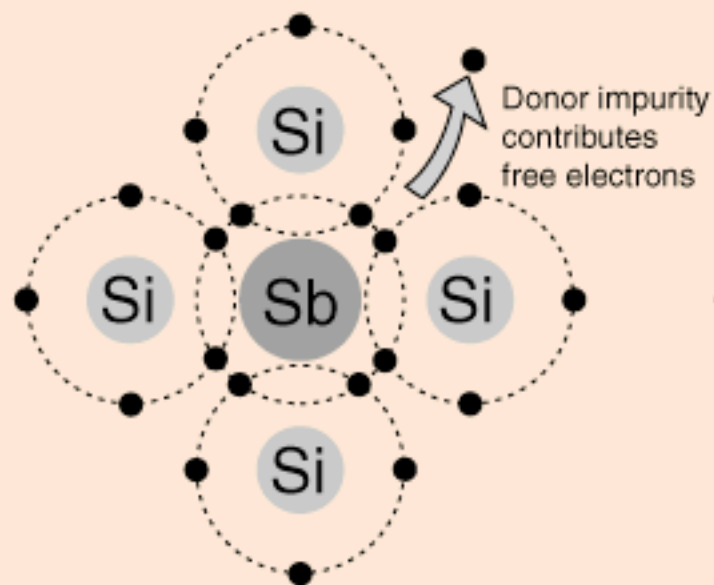
Boron
Aluminum
Gallium



[Index](#)

[Semiconductor
concepts](#)

P- and N- Type Semiconductors

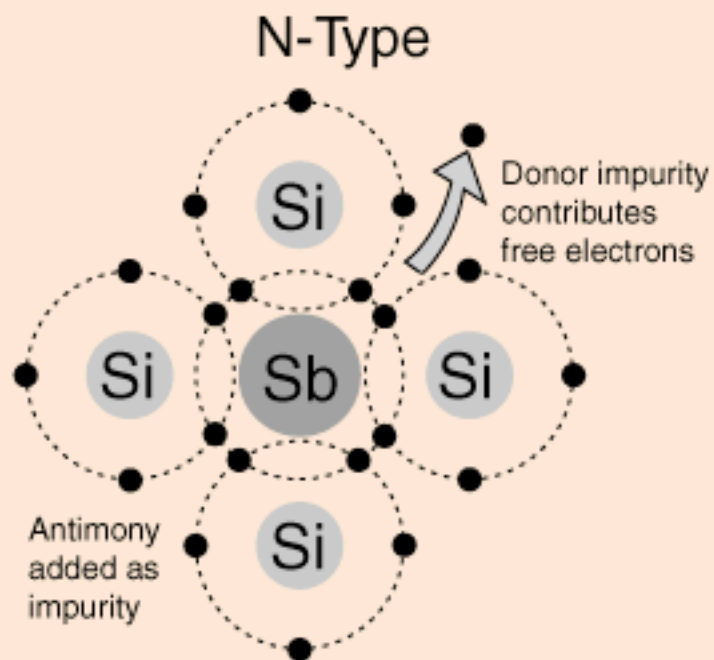


Click on either for further information.

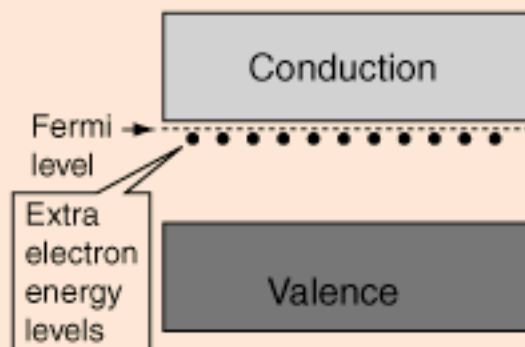
[Index](#)

[Semiconductor concepts](#)

N-Type Semiconductor



The addition of pentavalent impurities such as antimony, arsenic or phosphorous contributes free electrons, greatly increasing the conductivity of the intrinsic semiconductor. Phosphorous may be added by diffusion of phosphine gas (PH_3).

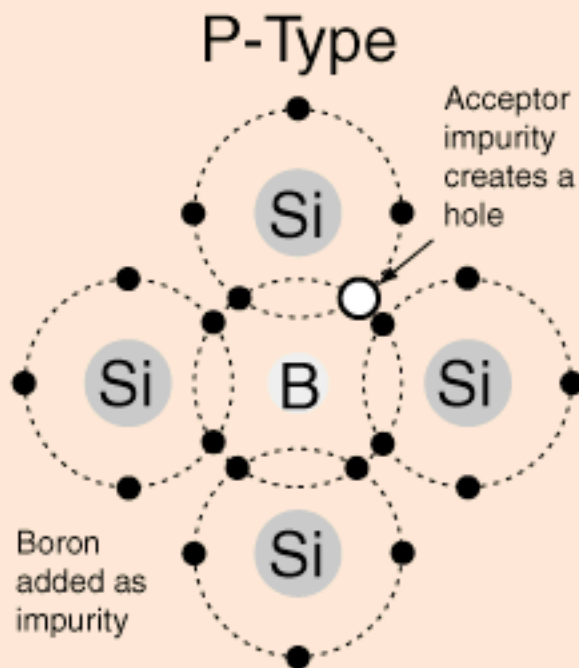
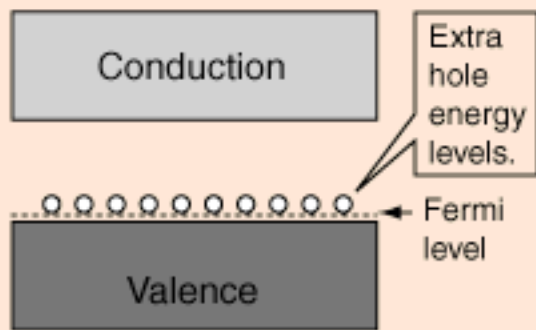


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[Semiconductor concepts](#)

P-Type Semiconductor

The addition of trivalent [impurities](#) such as boron, aluminum or gallium to an [intrinsic semiconductor](#) creates deficiencies of valence electrons, called "holes". It is typical to use B_2H_6 diborane gas to diffuse boron into the silicon material.

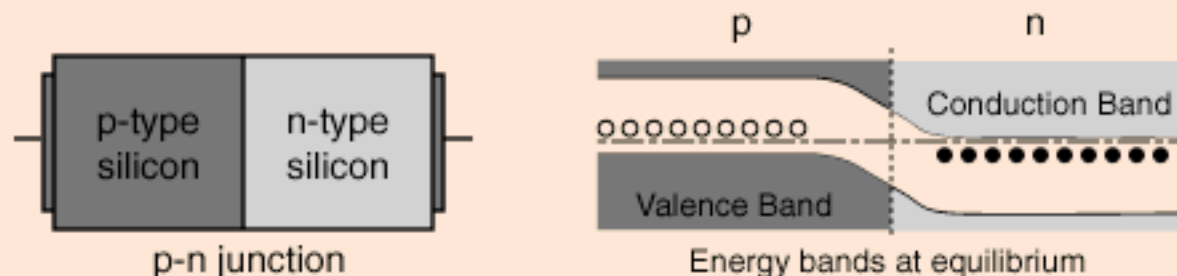


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[Semiconductor concepts](#)

P-N Junction

One of the crucial keys to [solid state electronics](#) is the nature of the P-N junction. When [p-type](#) and [n-type](#) materials are placed in contact with each other, the junction behaves very differently than either type of material alone. Specifically, current will flow readily in one direction ([forward biased](#)) but not in the other ([reverse biased](#)), creating the basic [diode](#). This non-reversing behavior arises from the nature of the charge transport process in the two types of materials.



The open circles on the left side of the junction above represent "holes" or deficiencies of electrons in the lattice which can act like positive charge carriers. The solid circles on the right of the junction represent the available electrons from the n-type dopant. Near the junction, electrons diffuse across to combine with holes, creating a "[depletion region](#)". The energy level sketch above right is a way to visualize the [equilibrium condition](#) of the P-N junction. The upward direction in the diagram represents increasing electron energy.

[Electron and hole conduction](#)

[Index](#)

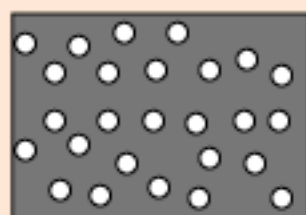
[Semiconductor concepts](#)

[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

Depletion Region

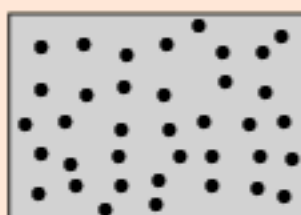
When a [p-n junction](#) is formed, some of the free electrons in the n-region diffuse across the junction and combine with [holes](#) to form negative ions. In so doing they leave behind positive ions at the donor [impurity](#) sites.

p-type
semiconductor
region



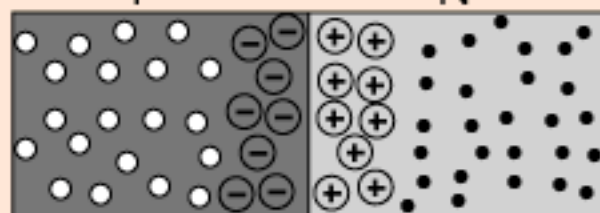
P

n-type
semiconductor
region



N

The combining of electrons and holes in the p-region and the electrons in the n-region near the junction.



depletion
region

- electron
- hole
- ⊖ negative ion from filled hole
- ⊕ positive ion from removed electron

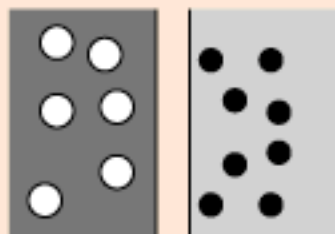
[Show more detail of depletion region.](#)

[Index](#)

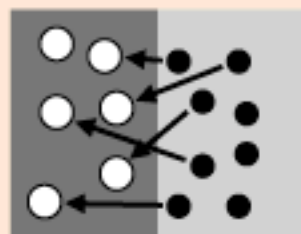
[Semiconductor concepts](#)

[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

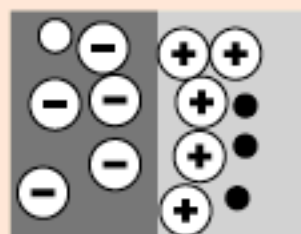
Depletion Region Details



In the [p-type](#) region there are holes from the acceptor [impurities](#) and in the [n-type](#) region there are extra electrons.



When a [p-n junction](#) is formed, some of the electrons from the n-region which have reached the [conduction band](#) are free to diffuse across the junction and combine with holes.



Filling a hole makes a negative ion and leaves behind a positive ion on the n-side. A space charge builds up, creating a [depletion region](#) which inhibits any further electron transfer unless it is helped by putting a [forward bias](#) on the junction.

- Electron ○ Hole
- ⊖ Negative ion from filling of p-type vacancy.
- ⊕ Positive ion from removal of electron from n-type impurity.

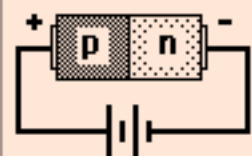
[Show effects of biasing.](#)

[Index](#)

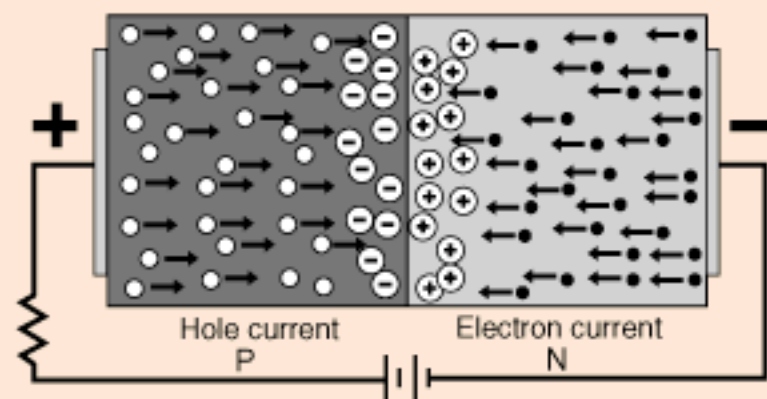
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[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

Forward Biased P-N Junction



Forward biasing the [p-n junction](#) drives holes to the junction from the [p-type](#) material and electrons to the junction from the [n-type](#) material. At the junction the electrons and holes [combine](#) so that a continuous current can be maintained.



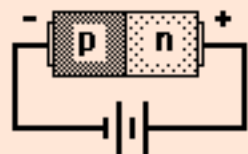
[Show energy bands.](#) [Compare to reverse bias.](#)

[Index](#)

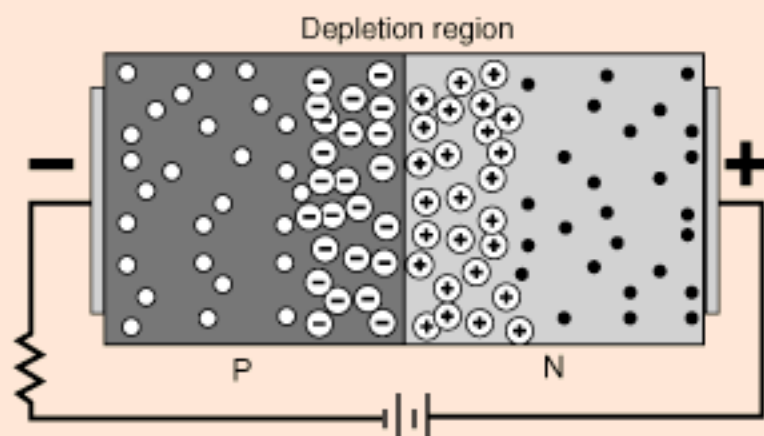
[Semiconductor concepts](#)

[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

Reverse Biased P-N Junction



The application of a reverse voltage to the [p-n junction](#) will cause a transient current to flow as both [electrons](#) and [holes](#) are pulled away from the junction. When the potential formed by the widened [depletion layer](#) equals the applied voltage, the current will cease except for the small [thermal current](#).



[Show energy bands.](#) [Compare to forward bias.](#)

[Index](#)

[Semiconductor concepts](#)

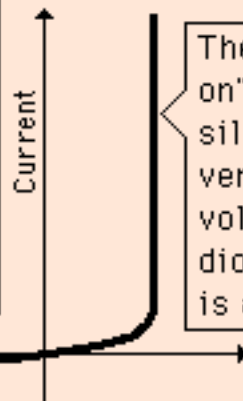
[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

The P-N Junction Diode



The nature of the [p-n junction](#) is that it will conduct current in the [forward](#) direction but not in the [reverse](#) direction. It is therefore a basic tool for [rectification](#) in the building of DC power supplies.

The reverse current is on the order of 10^{-8} amperes and is almost independent of voltage until the breakdown point is reached.



The forward current "turns on" at about 0.5 volts for a silicon diode and can reach very high currents by 0.7 volts. For a germanium diode the turn-on voltage is about 0.2 volts.

Reverse Voltage

Forward Voltage

[Diode varieties](#)

[PIN diode](#)

[Step-recovery diode](#)

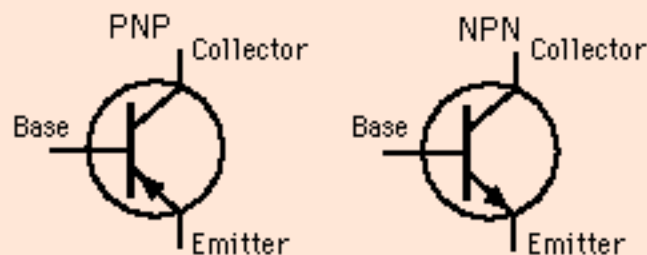
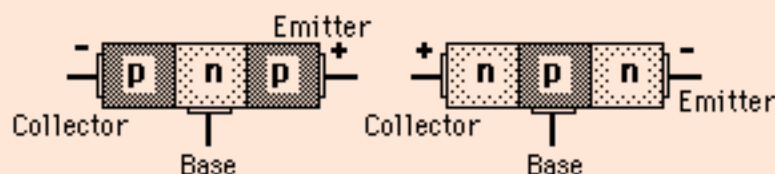
[Diode applications](#)

[Index](#)

[Semiconductor concepts](#)

[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

The Junction Transistor



A bipolar junction transistor consists of three regions of [doped](#) semiconductors. A small current in the center or base region can be used to control a [larger current](#) flowing between the end regions (emitter and collector). The device can be characterized as a [current amplifier](#), having many applications for [amplification](#) and [switching](#).

[Constraints on operation](#) [Transistor operating conditions](#)

[Varieties of Transistors](#) [Details about conduction in transistors](#)

[Determining collector current](#) [Details about base-emitter junction](#)

[Index](#)

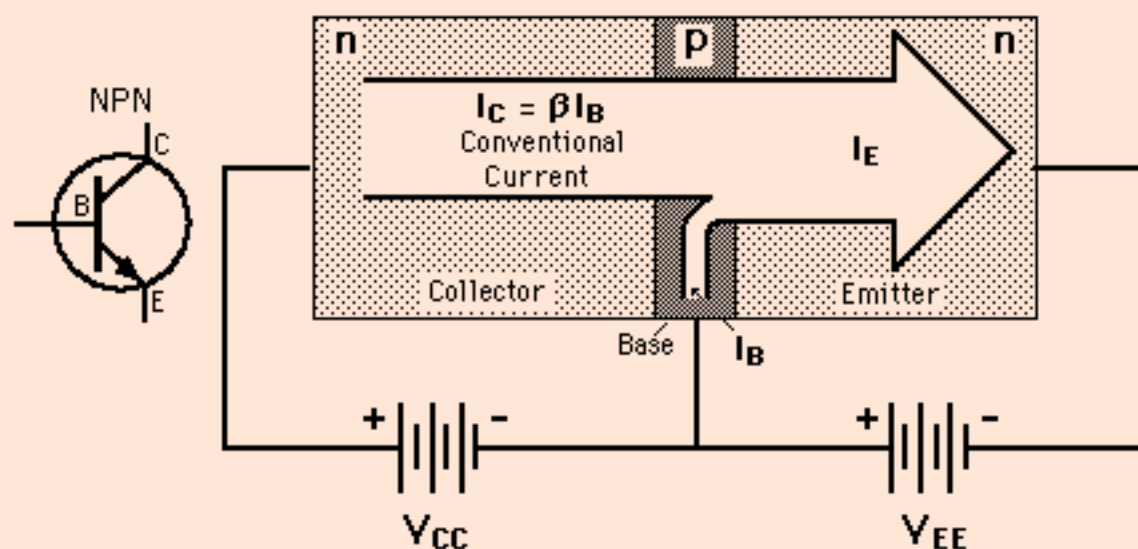
[Semiconductor concepts](#)

[Semiconductors for electronics](#)

[Electronics concepts](#)

Transistor as Current Amplifier

The larger [collector current](#) I_C is proportional to the base current I_B according to the relationship $I_C = \beta I_B$, or more precisely it is proportional to the base-emitter voltage V_{BE} . The smaller base current controls the larger collector current, achieving current amplification.

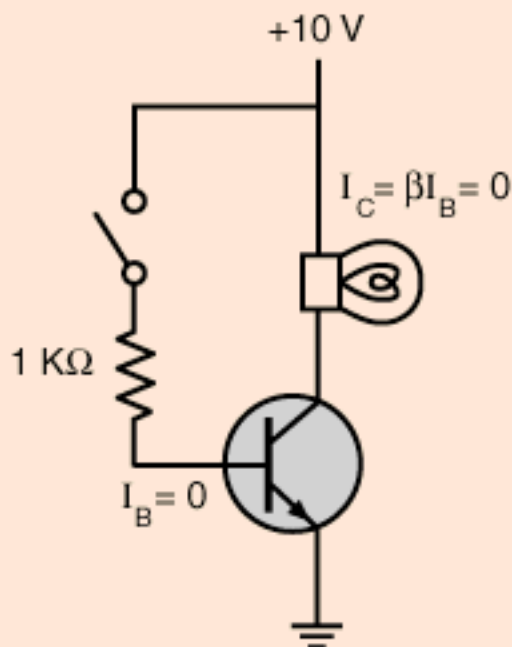

[Constraints on operation](#)
[Comments on structure](#)
[To pnp version](#)
[Index](#)
[Semiconductor concepts](#)
[Semiconductors for electronics](#)
[Electronics concepts](#)

Reference
[Diefenderfer / Holton](#)
 p156

Transistor Switch Example

The switch is open.

Close the switch



There is no current to the base, so the transistor is in the cut off condition with no collector current. All the voltage drop is across the transistor.

[Transistor operation for switch conditions](#)

[Transistor Switches](#)

[Index](#)

[Electronics concepts](#)

[Digital Electronics](#)

Reference
[Horowitz & Hill](#)
p52

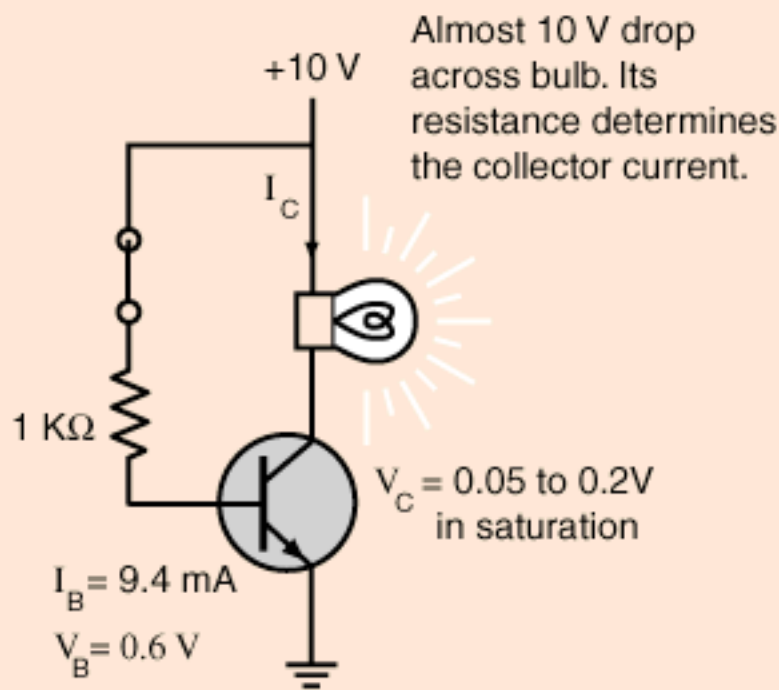
Transistor Switch Example

The switch is closed.

[Open the switch](#)

The base resistor is chosen small enough so that the base current drives the transistor into [saturation](#).

In this example the mechanical switch is used to produce the base current to close the transistor switch to show the principles. In practice, any voltage on the base sufficient to drive the transistor to saturation will close the switch and light the bulb.



[Transistor operation for switch conditions](#)

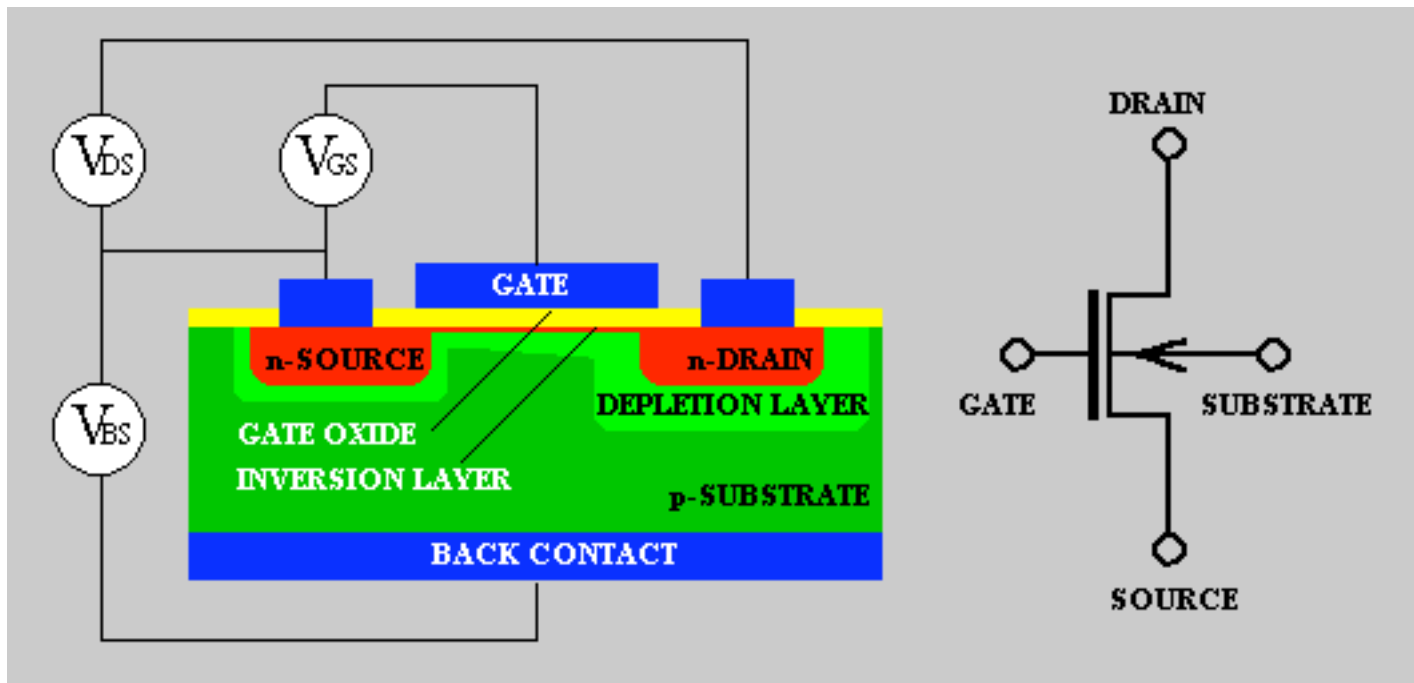
[Transistor Switches](#)

[Index](#)

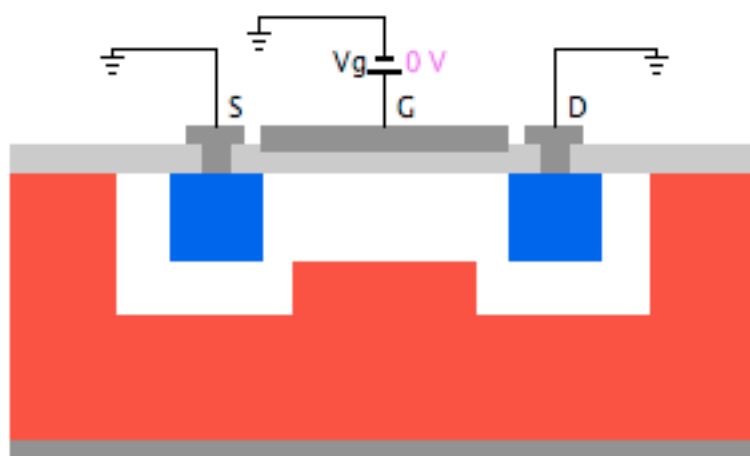
[Electronics concepts](#)

[Digital Electronics](#)

Reference
[Horowitz & Hill](#)
p52



from: <http://ece-www.colorado.edu/~bart/book/mosintro.htm>



Enhancement-mode (Normally-off) MOSFET

N-channel

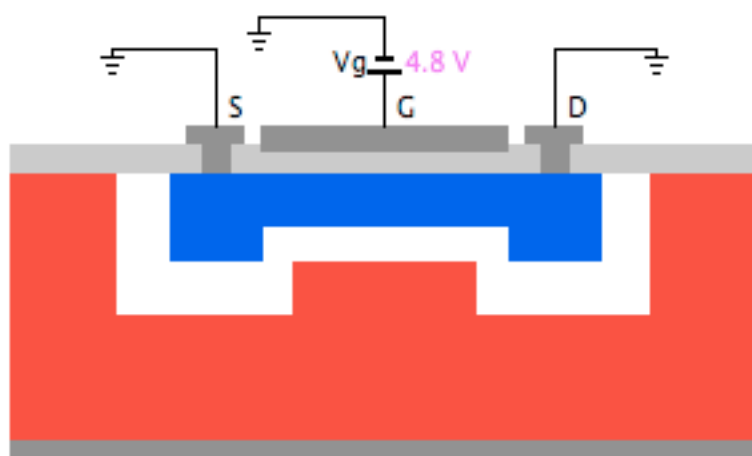
$V_g < V_t$: gate bias is less positive than the threshold voltage.

Not enough electrons and no inversion channel is formed.

V_g ▲
▼

VT = 1.0 V ▲
▼

N-channel ▲
▼



Enhancement-mode (Normally-off) MOSFET

N-channel

$V_g > V_t$: gate bias is more positive than the threshold voltage.
Sufficient electrons accumulate and forms the inversion channel.

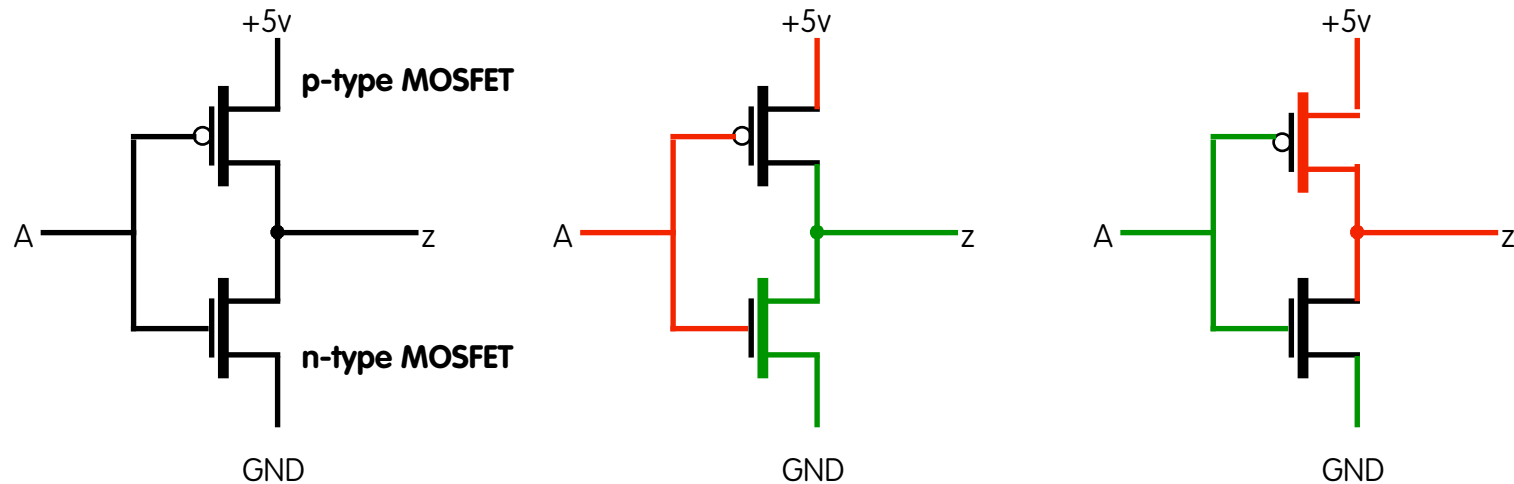
V_g ▲
▼

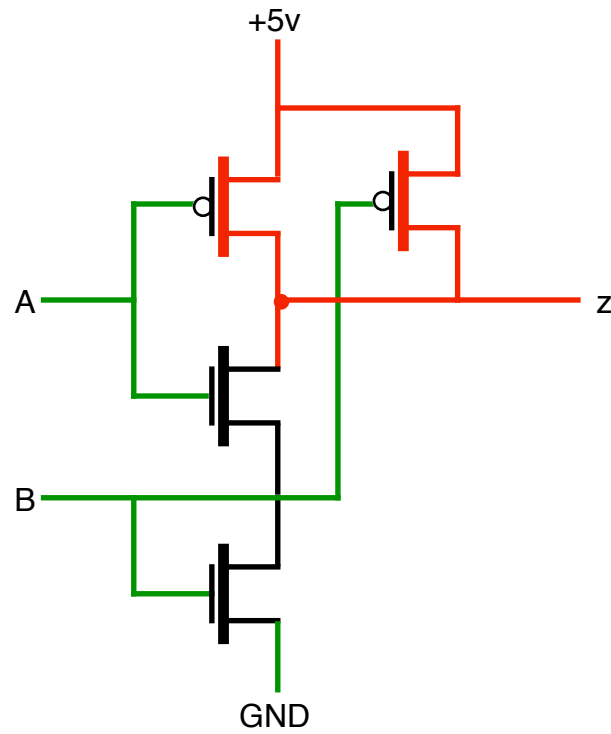
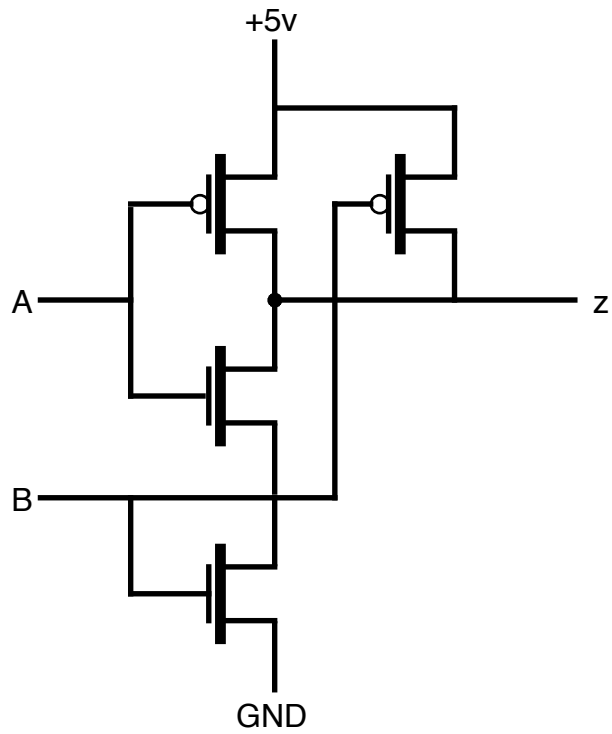
VT = 1.0 V

N-channel

An Inverter using MOSFET

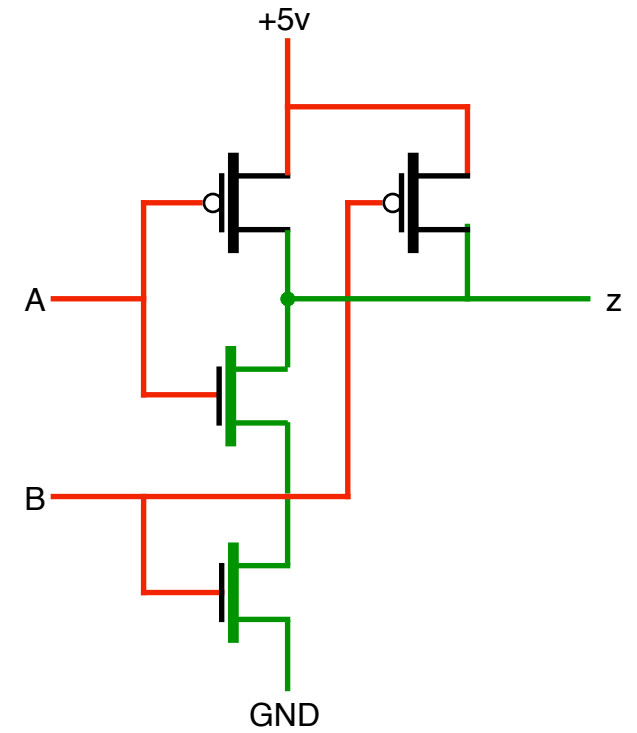
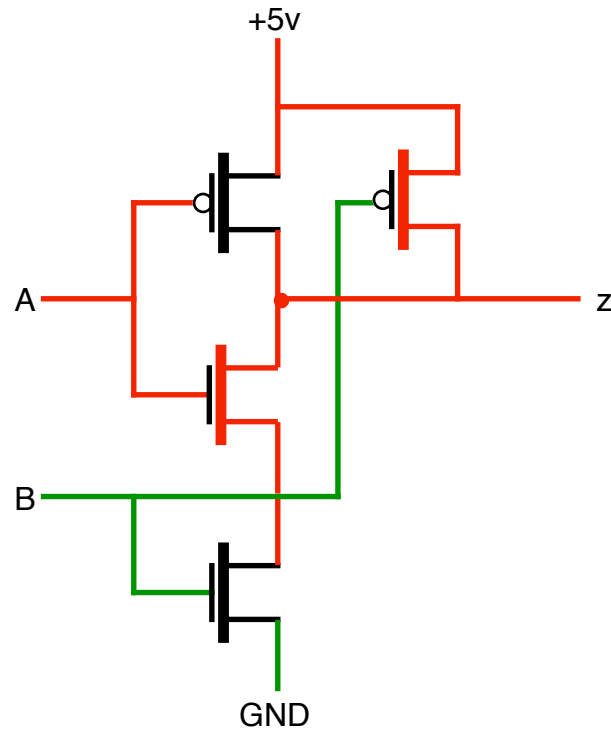
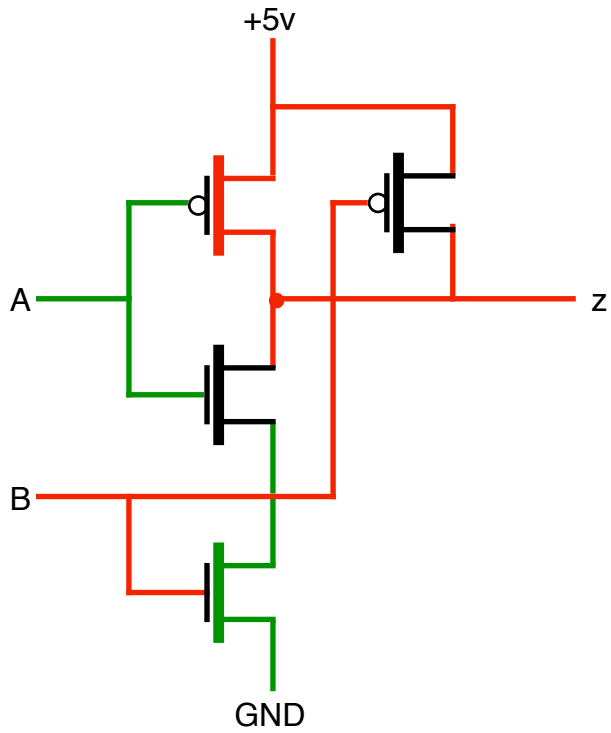
- **CMOS** = complementary metal oxide semiconductor
- **P-type transistor conducts when gate is low**
- **N-type transistor conducts when gate is high**

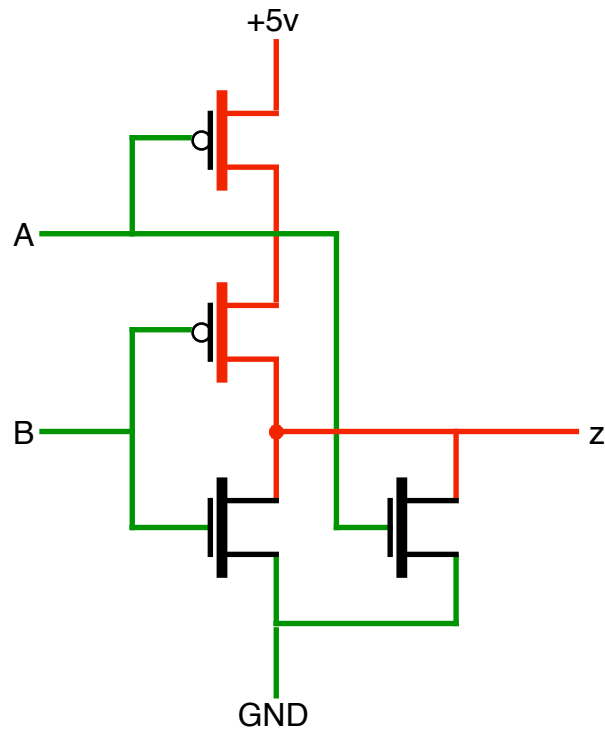
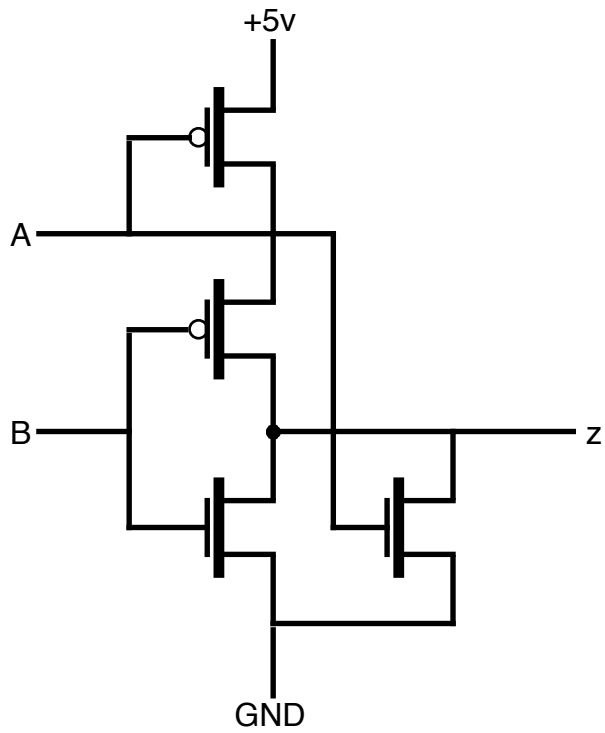




NAND GATE

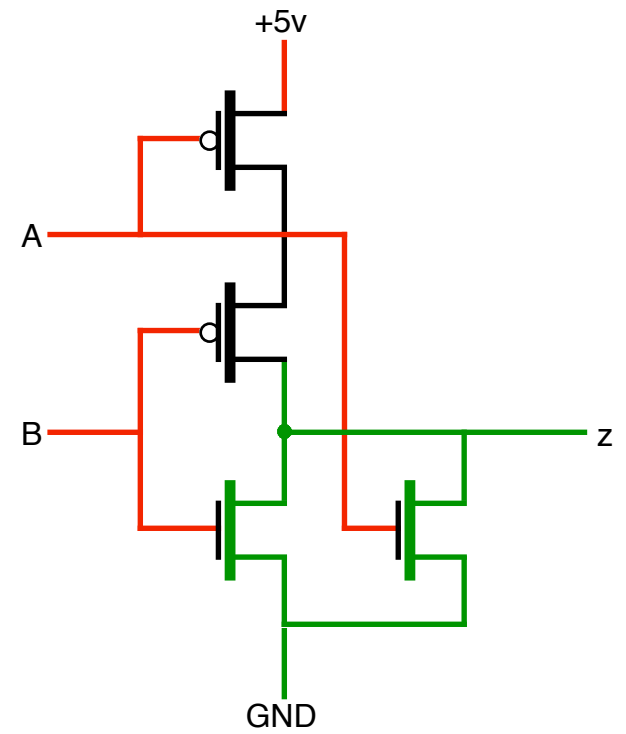
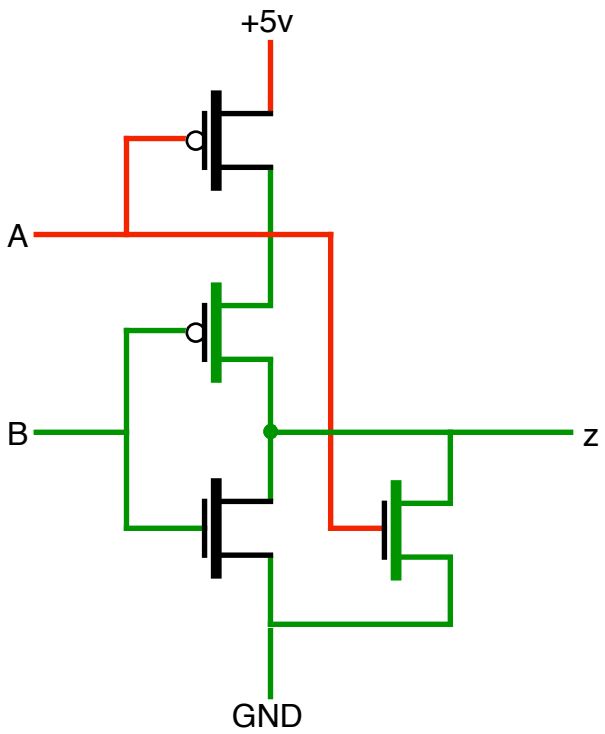
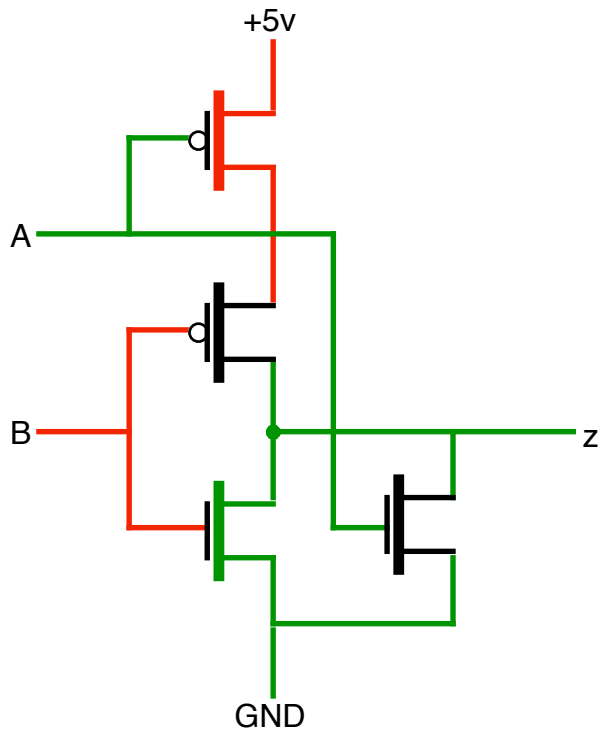
A	B	z
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0





NOR GATE

A	B	z
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0



CMOS Logic vs Bipolar Logic

- **MOSFET transistors are easier to miniaturize**
- **CMOS logic has lower current drain**
- **CMOS logic is easier to manufacture**

NEXT TIME

- **Midterm exams returned**
- **Finish semiconductors, transistors & gates**

References

- **Materials on semiconductors, PN junction and transistors taken from the HyperPhysics web site:**

<<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/hframe.html>>