

Electronics for Computer Scientists

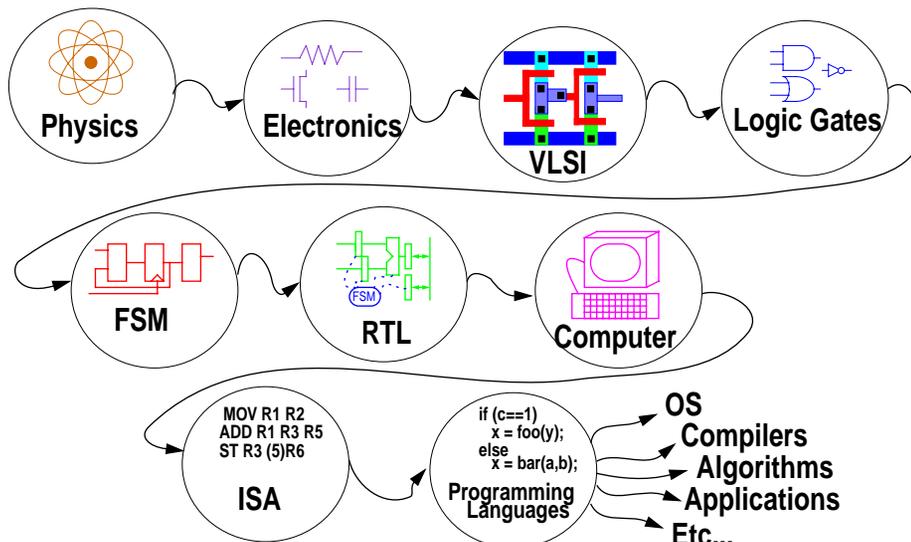
Ohm's Law to VLSI

Erik Brunvand

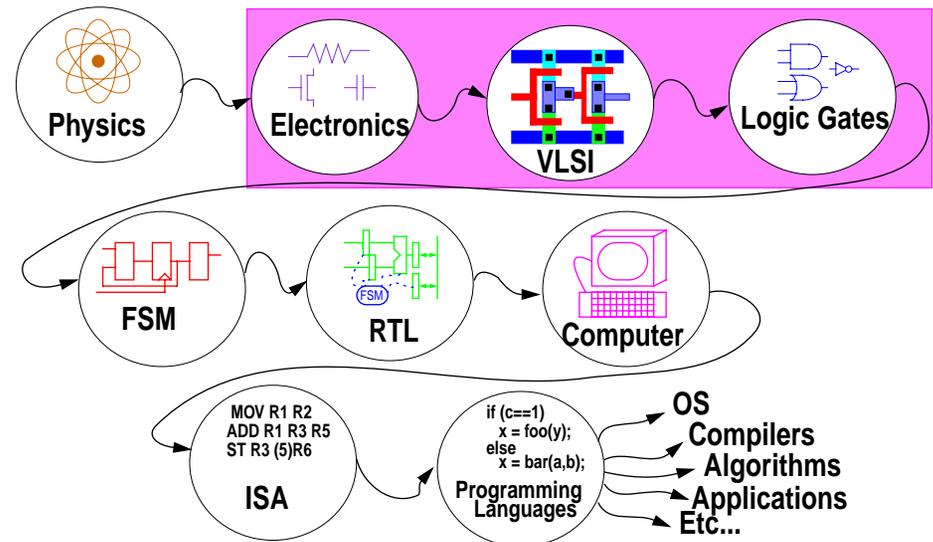
Why do we want to know?

- ❑ It's important to know something about computing hardware
- ❑ If only to not sound like a dummy...
 - How much power does your PC draw?
 - Why does your laptop only last a hour on a battery, but your watch lasts 2 years?
 - Why does a faster processor burn more power?
 - 700MHz is pretty fast. What are the issues in making things go faster?
 - How are logic gates built? How do they work?
 - How are logic gates used to build computing systems?
- ❑ It also lets you understand and appreciate limitations and advances in hardware

The Big Picture



This Talk



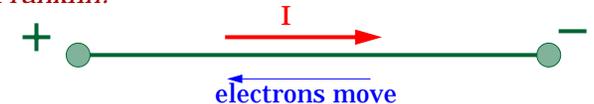
Electric Charge

- Atomic-level property
 - Positive charge = Proton
 - Negative charge = Electron
- Charges produce force against each other
 - Like charges repel
 - Different charges attract
- SI unit of charge is **Coulomb** (Q, q are quantity symbols)
 - Charge on electron is -1.602×10^{-19} Coulombs
 - 6.241×10^{18} electrons = 1 Coulomb

Electric Current

Results from charge moving in a conductor

- SI unit of current is **Ampere, Amp, A** (I, i are quantity symbols)
 - 1 Amp is 1 Coulomb of charge passing a point in 1 second
 - I (Amperes) = Q (Coulombs) / t (seconds)
- Current has a direction: it flows from positive to negative points (**positive current**)
 - But, electrons are really the things that move in the conductor
 - And, they move from negative to positive
 - So, the electrons move in the opposite direction as current flow
 - *Blame Ben Franklin!*



Voltage

Difference in electrical potential at two points in a circuit

- A measure of how much work is involved in moving charge between those points
 - W (joules) = F (newtons) * s (meters)
- Energy is the capacity to do work.
 - Potential energy is energy something has because of position
 - Voltage difference is a potential difference
- Voltage is the energy that causes current to flow
 - Current flows from higher potential to lower potential

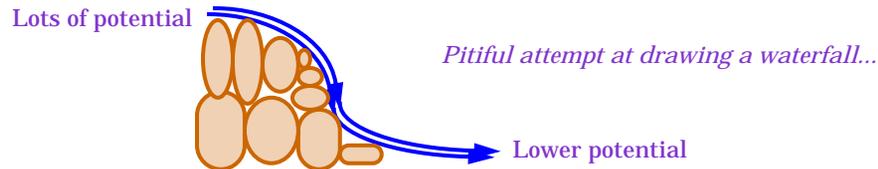
Voltage is Relative

Measured relative to two points in a system

- 1 Volt is the work required to move 1 Coulomb of charge from one point to another
 - V_{a-b} (volts) = W (joules) / Q (Coulombs)
- Raising the voltage of one Coulomb of charge by 1 volt takes 1 joule of energy..
- One point is arbitrarily called 0v or Ground (GND)
 - Which means that voltage can easily be negative with respect to that arbitrary point

Water Analogy

- Current flow = water flow
- Amount of current = how much water
- Voltage = potential energy of the water
 - 0v = stagnant pool of water, no flow
 - Small voltage = tiny waterfall, not much energy
 - Large voltage = large waterfall, lots of energy
 - Negative voltage = dig a hole under the pond
- More water analogy later...



Power

The rate at which something produces or consumes energy

$$\square P \text{ (watts)} = W \text{ (joules)} / t \text{ (seconds)}$$

$$P \text{ (watts)} = \frac{W \text{ (joules)}}{Q \text{ (coulombs)}} * \frac{Q \text{ (coulombs)}}{t \text{ (seconds)}}$$

$$P \text{ (watts)} = V \text{ (volts)} * I \text{ (Amperes)}$$

Example

- How much current flows in a light bulb from a steady movement of 10^{22} electrons in 1 hour?

$$\frac{10^{22} \text{ electrons}}{1\text{h}} * \frac{1\text{h}}{3600\text{s}} * \frac{-1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}}{1 \text{ electron}} = -0.445\text{C/s}$$
$$= -0.445\text{A}$$

Example

- How much current does a 1200w toaster draw from a 120v power connection?

$$P = V I$$

$$I = P/V = 1200\text{w}/120\text{v} = 10\text{A}$$

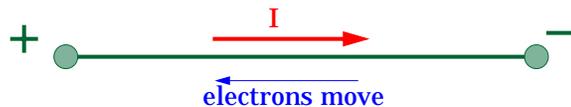
How fast do electrons move?

What is the “drift velocity” of an electron?

□ Example: 14 gauge copper wire, 10A current

- Copper wire has 1.38×10^{24} free electrons/in³
- 14 gauge cross section is $3.23/10^{-3}$ in²
- Electron velocity is (current)/(area * electron density)

Electrical impulse moves at 2.998×10^8 m/s
(i.e. close to speed of light)



How fast do electrons move?

What is the “drift velocity” of an electron?

□ Example: 14 gauge copper wire, 10A current

- Copper wire has 1.38×10^{24} free electrons/in³
- 14 gauge cross section is $3.23/10^{-3}$ in²
- Electron velocity is (current)/(area * electron density)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{velocity} &= \frac{10\text{C}}{1\text{s}} * \frac{1}{3.23 \times 10^{-3} \text{in}^2} * \frac{1 \text{in}^3}{1.38 \times 10^{24} \text{ electrons}} \\ &= \frac{10\text{C}}{1\text{s}} * \frac{1}{3.23 \times 10^{-3} \text{in}^2} * \frac{1 \text{in}^3}{1.38 \times 10^{24} \text{ electrons}} * \frac{0.0254\text{m}}{1 \text{in}} * \frac{1 \text{ electron}}{-1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}} \\ &= -3.56 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m/s} * 3600 \text{s/h} = -1.28 \text{m/h} \quad (\text{Very slow!!!}) \end{aligned}$$

Resistance

The property that opposes or resists current flow

□ Water analogy:

- friction of water in a small pipe

□ Electronics:

- Electrons collide with conductor atoms and lose energy in the form of heat

□ Current is proportional to applied voltage

- Unit is the Ohm, symbol is Ω
- Ohm's Law: I (amps) = V (volts) / R (Ohms)
- $I = V/R$ or $V = I R$

Resistance of Materials

Proportional to length
inversely proportional to cross-section area

□ Big Pipe = less force (voltage) required to push water (current) through

□ Little Pipe = more force (voltage) required to force the same amount of current through

- Resistance = $\rho (L / A)$ where ρ is “resistivity” in Ωm

Material	Resistivity	Material	Resistivity
Silver	1.64×10^{-8}	Nichrome	100×10^{-8}
Copper	1.72×10^{-8}	Silicon	2500
Aluminum	2.83×10^{-8}	Quartz	10^{17}

(note, this property is measurable over 25 orders of magnitude!)

Example

- Given a 240v heating element in a stove that has 24Ω resistance, what fuse to use?
 - Fuse must be able to carry the current of the heating element
 - $I = V / R = 240\text{v} / 24\Omega = 10\text{A}$
- How much power does this heating element dissipate?
 - Recall $P = V I$, and $V = I R$, so $P = I^2 R$
 - So $P = 10^2 * 24\text{W} = 2400 \text{ W}$

Example

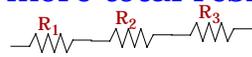
- What is the resistance of an Al wire 1000m long with diameter 1.626mm?
 - Cross sectional area = Πr^2 , $r=d/2 = 0.813 \times 10^{-3}\text{m}$
 - R (ohms) = $\rho (L / A)$

$$= \frac{(2.83 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \text{m}) (1000\text{m})}{\Pi (0.813 \times 10^{-3}\text{m})^2} = 13.6\Omega$$

Series and Parallel Connections of Resistors

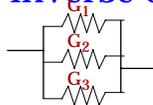
- Resistors in series = more total resistance

- $R_{\text{tot}} = R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n$



- Resistors in parallel = less total resistance
- Think about conductance as the inverse of resistance

- G (conductance) = $1 / R$ (resistance)
- $G_{\text{tot}} = G_1 + G_2 + \dots + G_n$
- $= 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \dots + 1/R_n$
- So, $R_{\text{tot}} = 1 / G_{\text{tot}} = 1 / (1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + \dots + 1/R_n)$



- Example, in case of 2 parallel resistors

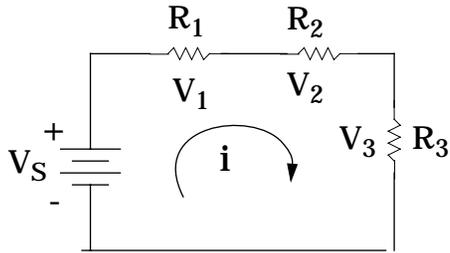
- $R_{\text{tot}} = (R_1 * R_2) / (R_1 + R_2)$

Series and Parallel DC Circuits

- Series connected:
 - All components see the same current
- Parallel connected:
 - All components see the same voltage drop
- Loop: A simple closed path in the circuit
- Brings us to Kirchhoff's Laws...

Kirchhoff's Voltage Law (KVL)

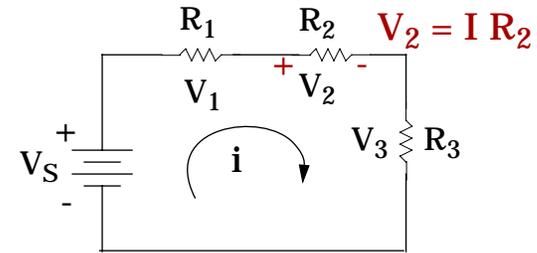
- Sum of voltages around a loop is 0



$$V_S = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 = I R_1 + I R_2 + I R_3 = I R_{tot}$$

Voltage Division

- Find V_2 , the voltage drop across R_2



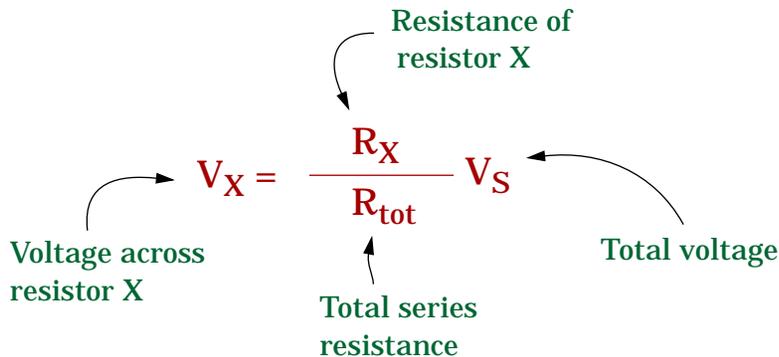
$$V_S = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 = I R_1 + I R_2 + I R_3 = I R_{tot}$$

$$I = V_S / (R_1 + R_2 + R_3)$$

$$\text{So } V_2 = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} V_S$$

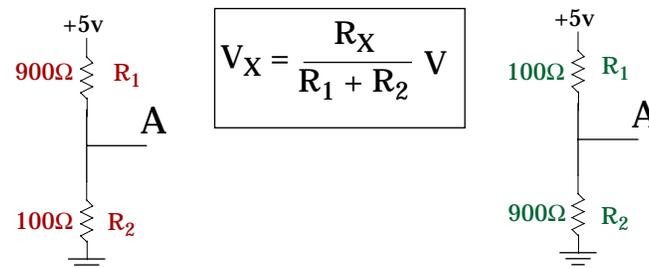
Voltage Division General Form

- Find voltage across any series-connected resistor



Example of Voltage Division

- Find voltage at point A with respect to GND



$$V_1 = (900/1000) 5v = 4.5v$$

$$V_2 = (100/1000) 5v = 0.5v$$

$$\text{So, } V_{A-GND} = 0.5v$$

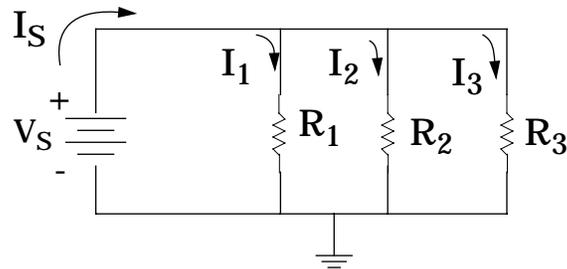
$$V_1 = (100/1000) 5v = 0.5v$$

$$V_2 = (900/1000) 5v = 4.5v$$

$$\text{So, } V_{A-GND} = 4.5v$$

Kirchhoff's Current Law

- Sum of currents at any node in a circuit is 0



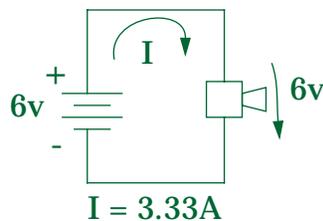
$$I_S = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$$

Example: Current limiting

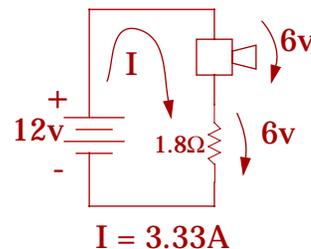
- Suppose you had a 20w horn from an old 6v car
- Want to put it in a new car with 12v system
- How do you make it work?
 - $P = V I$ so if you increase the voltage without limiting current, the power goes up and the horn burns out
 - So, you need to limit the total current so that the horn sees the same current it was designed for
 - How? $I = V / R$, so if V goes up, R must also go up to keep current constant
 - So, what size resistor should you put in series with the horn to make this work?

Example: Current Limiting

- First compute how much current the horn would have seen in the 6v car
 - $P = V I$ so $I = P / V = 20\text{w} / 6\text{v} = 3.33\text{A}$
- So, the series resistor should see the same current
 - $R = 6\text{v} / 3.33\text{A} = 1.8\Omega$



Original System



New System

Capacitors

Components that store electrical charge

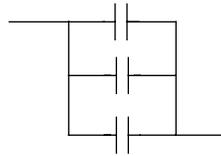
- Two conductors separated by an insulator
- Accumulates charge on the plates
- SI unit is Farad
- C (farads) = Q (Coulombs) / V (volts)
- Capacitance of 1 farad means that putting +1 and -1 coulomb of charge on the plates results in a voltage difference of 1 volt
- Or, a voltage of 1 volt forces 1 coulomb of charge on a capacitor
- Farad is *much* too large to be useful!
 - μF and pF are more common



Series and Parallel Capacitors

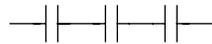
- Parallel connection: stores more charge

- $C_{\text{tot}} = C_1 + C_2 + \dots + C_n$



- Series connection: each plate steals charge from neighbor, so total capacitance is less

- $C_{\text{tot}} = 1 / (1 / C_1 + 1 / C_2 + \dots + 1 / C_n)$



Charging a Capacitor

Each electron that comes in one lead “pushes” one electron from the other plate through the other lead

- Changing the voltage across a capacitor requires changing the charge stored on each plate, which requires current



- In a resistor, fixed current causes a fixed voltage drop: $I = Q / t$
 - In a capacitor, a fixed current causes a steadily increasing voltage drop as charge accumulates on the plates: $i = dq / dt$
 - We can't change voltage instantly across a capacitor because that would require infinite current!

$$q = cv$$

But c is constant, so

$$i = \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(cv)$$

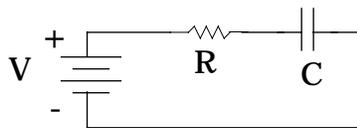
$$i = c \frac{dv}{dt} \quad \boxed{\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{i}{c}}$$

Time to Charge a Capacitor

Initially very fast, then slows down exponentially

- Precise relationship depends on both R and C
- R (ohms) * C (farads) = what unit?

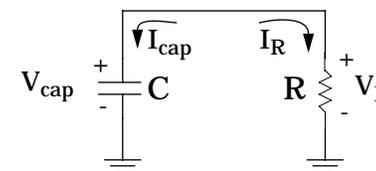
- Answer: t (seconds)!
 - $R = V / I$
 - $I = Q / t$
 - $C = Q / V$
 - So, $RC = (V) / (Q / t) * Q / V = (V)(t / Q)(Q / V) = t$



RC Time Constant

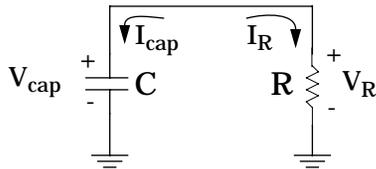
- Charging and discharging are exponential processes

- Changing the voltage across a capacitor requires current
 - If the current flows through a resistor, it requires voltage across that resistor
 - If voltage decreases as the capacitor discharges, the current, and the rate of discharging decrease exponentially with time
 - Consider discharging a fully charged capacitor



Discharging a Capacitor

- According to Kirchoff:
 - $V_R = V_{cap}$, and $I_R = -I_{cap}$
- Also:
 - $I_R = V_R / R$, and $dV_{cap} / dt = I_{cap} / C$
- Substituting, we get:
 - $dV_{cap} / dt = I_{cap} / C = -I_R / C = -V_{cap} / RC$
- Solving this differential equation:
 - $V_{cap}(t) = V_{cap}(0) * e^{-t/RC} = V_{cc} * e^{-t/RC}$



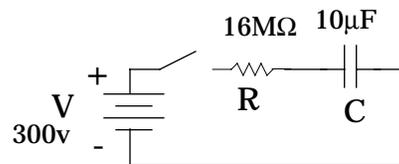
RC Time Constants

- General form:
 - $V(t) = V_{(oo)} + [V(0) - V_{(oo)}] e^{-t/RC}$
- Discharge from Vcc:
 - $V(t) = V_{cc} e^{-t/RC}$
- Charge from GND:
 - $V(t) = V_{cc} (1 - e^{-t/RC})$
- Short cut:
 - 99% of final charge or discharge in 5RC!

Example: RC Timer

Switch connects 300v, 16MΩ resistor,
uncharged 10μF capacitor

- How long is switch closed if charge on capacitor is 10v?
 - Charging equation: $V(t) = V_{cc} (1 - e^{-t/RC})$
 - $RC = 16,000,000 \Omega * 10 \times 10^{-6} F = 160s$, $V(t) = 10v$, $V_{cc} = 300v$
 - So, $10v = 300v (1 - e^{-t/160s})$
 - $300 - 10 = 300 * e^{-t/160}$
 - $290/300 = e^{-t/160}$
 - $\ln(290/300) = \ln(e^{-t/160})$
 - $\ln(290/300) = -t/160$
 - $t = -160 \ln(290/300)$
 - $t = 5.42s$



Energy Stored in a Capacitor

- Work must be done to separate charge
 - This energy is stored in the system and can be recovered by allowing the charge to come together again
 - I.e. a charged capacitor has potential energy equal to the work required to charge it
- Suppose at time t a charge of q(t) has been transferred from one plate to the other
 - The potential difference V(t) at this point is $Q(t) / C$
 - If an extra increment of charge dq is transferred, the extra work is $dw = V dq = (q/c)dq$
- So, the total work to move all the charge is

$$w = \int dw = \int_0^q (q/c)dq = 1/2 q^2 / c$$
- Since $q = cv$, $w = (1/2) cv^2$

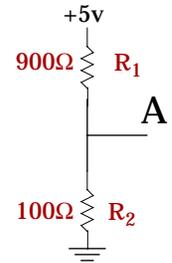
Whew! Electronics Summary...

- Voltage is a measure of electrical potential energy
- Current is moving charge caused by voltage
- Resistance reduces current flow
 - Ohm's Law: $V = I R$
- Power is work over time
 - $P = V I = I^2 R$
- Capacitors store charge
 - It takes time to charge/discharge a capacitor
 - Time to charge/discharge is related exponentially to RC
 - It takes energy to charge a capacitor
 - Energy stored in a capacitor is $(1/2) C V^2$

How Does All This Relate To VLSI?

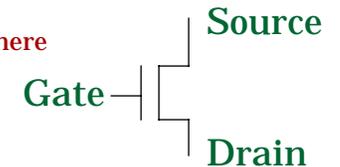
- Recall the voltage division example:

- Consider what we could do if we had a device that we could switch from high resistance to low resistance
- We could use it to force A high or low depending on the relative resistance of the elements

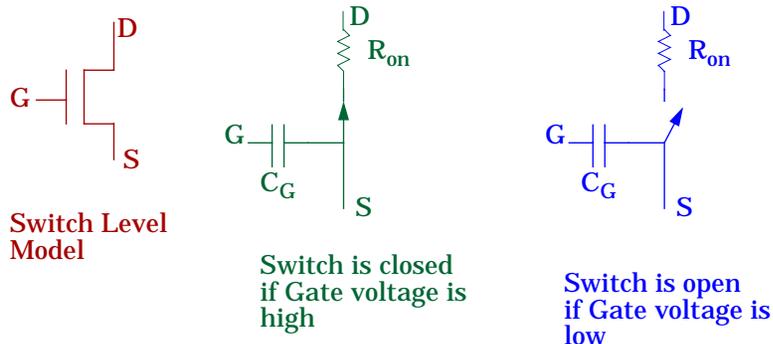


- This is a transistor

- Specifically a CMOS FET
- Complementary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor
- If voltage on Gate is high, then there is a low-resistance between Source and Drain, otherwise it's a very high-resistance



Electrical Model of a CMOS Transistor

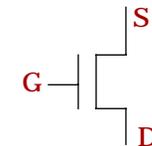


R_{on} = Some resistance in FET itself
 C_G = Capacitance of the gate

Two Types of CMOS Transistors

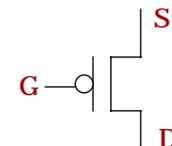
- N-type transistor

- High voltage on Gate connects Source to Drain
- Passes 0 well, passes 1 poorly



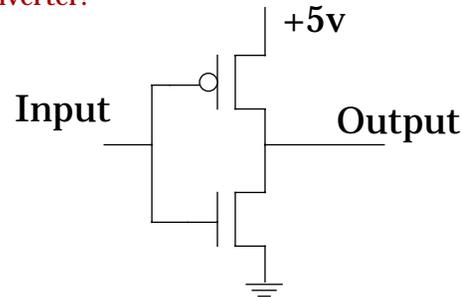
- P-type transistor

- Low voltage on Gate connects Source to Drain
- Passes 1 well, passes 0 poorly



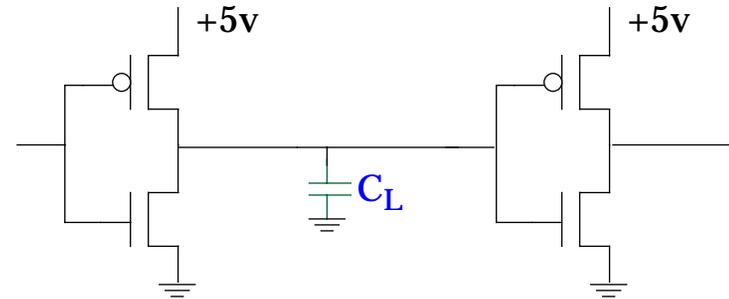
CMOS Inverter

- Consider this connection of transistors
 - If input is at a high voltage, output is low
 - If input is at a low voltage, output is high
- By changing the resistances, it becomes one of two different voltage dividers
 - It's a voltage inverter!

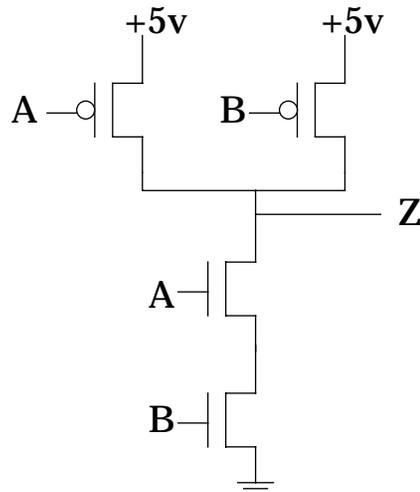


Timing Issues in CMOS

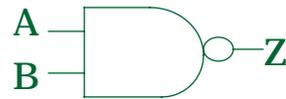
- Recall that it takes time to charge capacitors
- Recall that the gate of a transistor looks like a capacitor
- Wires have resistance and capacitance also!



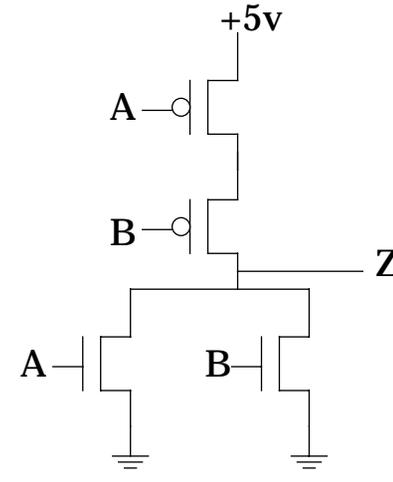
CMOS NAND Gate



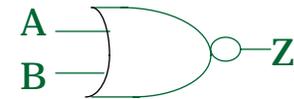
A	B	Z
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



CMOS NOR Gate



A	B	Z
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0



CMOS Power Consumption

- ❑ Power is consumed in CMOS by charging and discharging capacitors
 - Note that there no static power dissipation in CMOS
 - There's never a DC path to ground
- ❑ Good news:
 - You're not consuming power unless you're switching
- ❑ Bad news:
 - Switching activity is caused by clock, which is going faster and faster
- ❑ If the first-order power effect is capacitor charging/discharging, and the clock causes this:

$$P = (1/2) C V^2 f$$

Is That All There is to VLSI?

- ❑ We've got NAND, NOR, and INV gates
 - With those we should be able to build anything
- ❑ We've also got some idea of why things can't go infinitely fast
 - We've got to keep charging and discharging those darn capacitors!
- ❑ We've got some idea of where and why power is consumed
 - We've got to keep charging and discharging those darn capacitors!
- ❑ And a hint why power supply voltages are getting lower
 - $P = (1/2)CV^2f$, Which one would you optimize first?

Conclusions

- ❑ That's about all I have the stamina for
 - I'll be a little surprised if we even make it through all the slides to the end!
- ❑ A little knowledge of basic electronics can explain a lot about computer hardware
- ❑ A little more knowledge about VLSI could explain even more!
 - But that's a subject for another lecture!