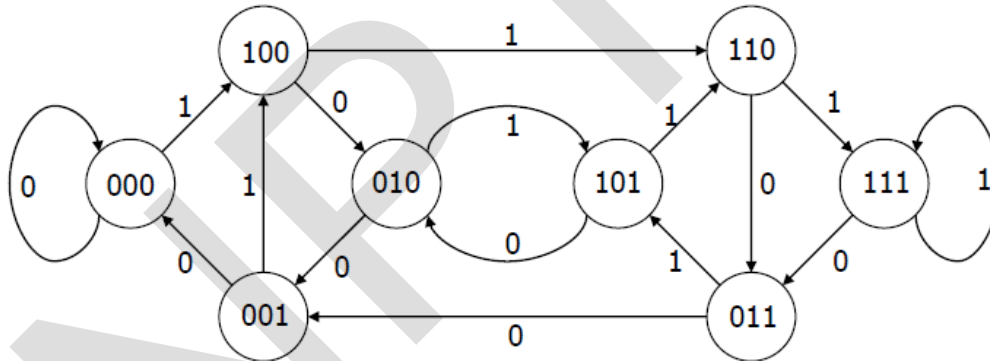
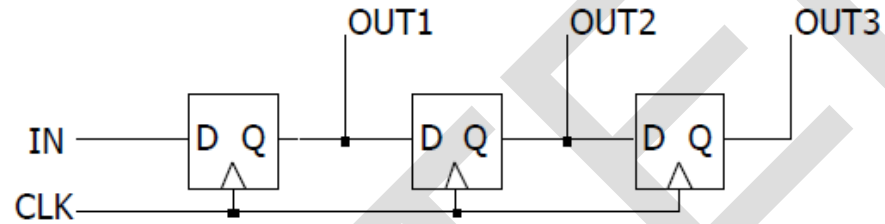


Shift Register

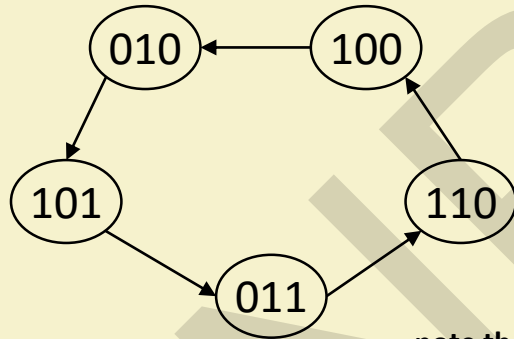


FSM design procedure

- Describe FSM behavior, e.g. state diagram
 - Inputs and Outputs
 - States (symbolic)
 - State transitions
- State diagram to state transition table, i.e. truth table
 - Inputs: inputs and current state
 - Outputs: outputs and next state
- State encoding
 - decide on representation of states
 - lots of choices
- Implementation
 - flip-flop for each state bit
 - synthesize combinational logic from encoded state table

Synthesis Example

- Implement simple count sequence: 000, 010, 011, 101, 110
- Derive the state transition table from the state transition diagram



Present State			Next State		
C	B	A	C+	B+	A+
0	0	0	x	x	x
0	0	1	x	x	x
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	x	x	x

note the don't care conditions that arise from the unused state codes

Don't cares in FSMs (cont'd)

- Synthesize logic for next state functions derive input equations for flip-flops

C^+	C			
A	X	1	1	0
	X	1	X	0
B				

B^+	C			
A	X	0	0	1
	X	1	X	1
B				

A^+	C			
A	X	1	0	0
	X	0	X	1
B				

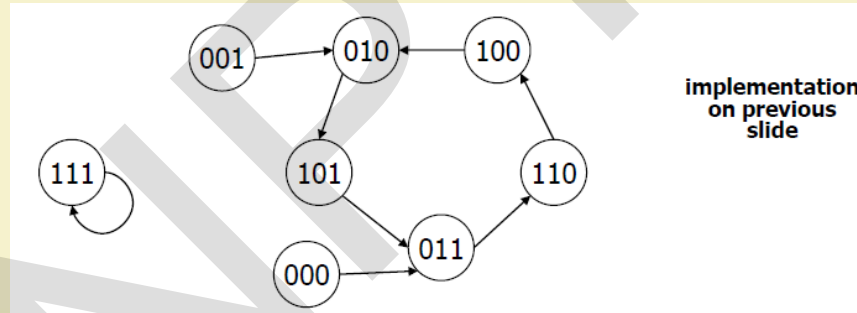
$$C^+ = B$$

$$B^+ = A + B' C$$

$$A^+ = A' C' + AC$$

Self-starting FSMs

- Start-up states
 - at power-up, FSM may be in an used or invalid state
 - design must guarantee that it (eventually) enters a valid state
- Self-starting solution
 - design FSM so that all the invalid states eventually transition to a valid state may limit exploitation of don't cares



Self-starting FSMs

Deriving state transition table from don't care assignment

C⁺

C			
0	1	1	0
A 0	1	1	0
B			

B⁺

C			
1	0	0	1
A 1	1	1	1
B			

A⁺

C			
1	1	0	0
A 0	0	1	1
B			

Present State			Next State		
C	B	A	C ⁺	B ⁺	A ⁺
0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	x

Comparison of Mealy and Moore machines

- Mealy machines tend to have fewer states
 - different outputs on arcs ($i \cdot n$) rather than states (n)
- Mealy machines react faster to inputs
 - react in same cycle – don't need to wait for clock
 - delay to output depends on arrival of input
- Moore machines are generally safer to use
 - outputs change at clock edge (always one cycle later)
 - in Mealy machines, input change can cause output change as soon as logic is done – a big problem when two machines are interconnected – asynchronous feedback

Implementing an FSM

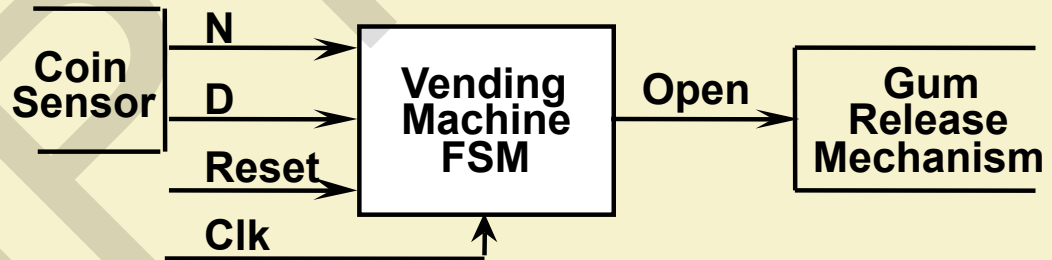
- 1. Perform state assignment
 - different assignments may give very different results
 - no really good heuristics
 - using an extra bit or two for state works well
 - FPGAs often use a 1-hot encoding
- 2. Convert state diagram to state table
 - equivalent representation
 - mechanical
- 3. State table gives truth table for next state and output functions
 - synthesize into logic circuit
 - e.g. 2-level logic implementation

Example: Vending Machine FSM

General Machine Concept:

- deliver package of gum after 15 cents deposited
- single coin slot for dimes, nickels
- no change

Step 1. *Understand the problem:* Draw a picture!



Block Diagram

Vending Machine Example

Step 2. Map into more suitable abstract representation

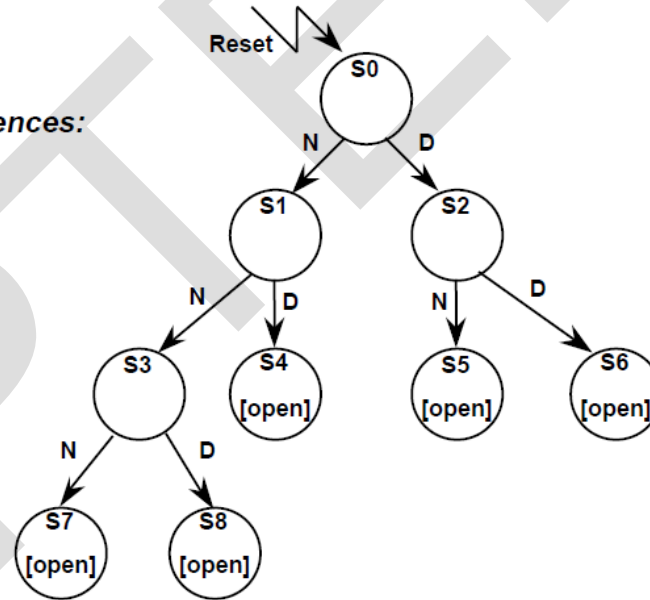
Tabulate typical input sequences:

three nickels
nickel, dime
dime, nickel
two dimes
two nickels, dime

Draw state diagram:

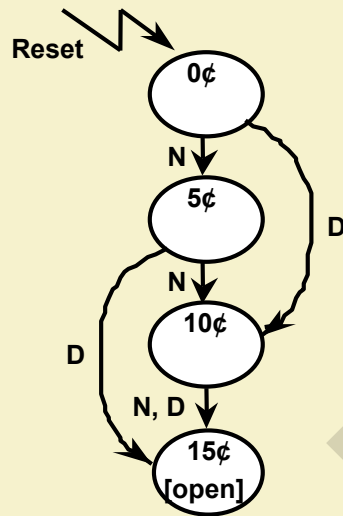
Inputs: N, D, reset

Output: open



Vending Machine Example

Step 3: State Minimization



reuse states whenever possible

Present State	Inputs		Next State	Output Open
	D	N		
0¢	0	0	0¢	0
	0	1	5¢	0
	1	0	10¢	0
	1	1	X	X
5¢	0	0	5¢	0
	0	1	10¢	0
	1	0	15¢	0
	1	1	X	X
10¢	0	0	10¢	0
	0	1	15¢	0
	1	0	15¢	0
	1	1	X	X
15¢	X	X	15¢	1

Symbolic State Table



Vending Machine Example

Step 4: State Encoding

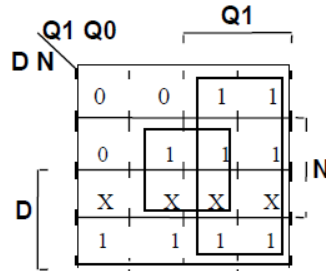
Present State		Inputs		Next State		Output
Q_1	Q_0	D	N	D_1	D_0	Open
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		0	1	0	1	0
		1	0	1	0	0
		1	1	X	X	X
0	1	0	0	0	1	0
		0	1	1	0	0
		1	0	1	1	0
		1	1	X	X	X
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
		0	1	1	1	0
		1	0	1	1	0
		1	1	X	X	X
1	1	0	0	1	1	1
		0	1	1	1	1
		1	0	1	1	1
		1	1	X	X	X



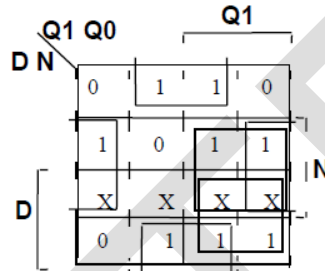
Vending Machine Example

Step 5. Choose FFs for implementation

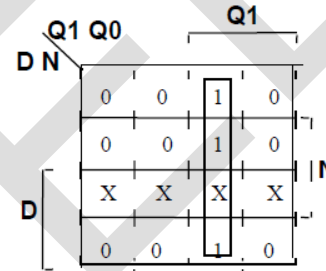
D FF easiest to use



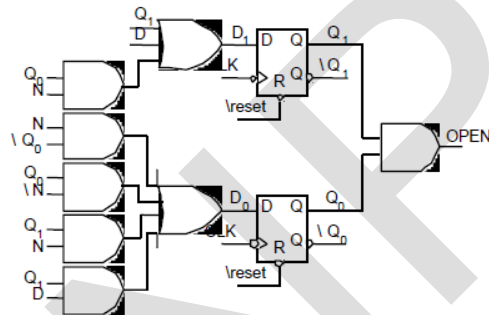
K-map for D1



K-map for D0



K-map for Open



$$D1 = Q1 + D + Q0 N$$

$$D0 = N \bar{Q0} + Q0 \bar{N} + Q1 N + Q1 D$$

$$OPEN = Q1 Q0$$

8 Gates

Data Converters

Santanu Chattopadhyay

Electronics and Electrical Communication Engineering



IIT KHARAGPUR



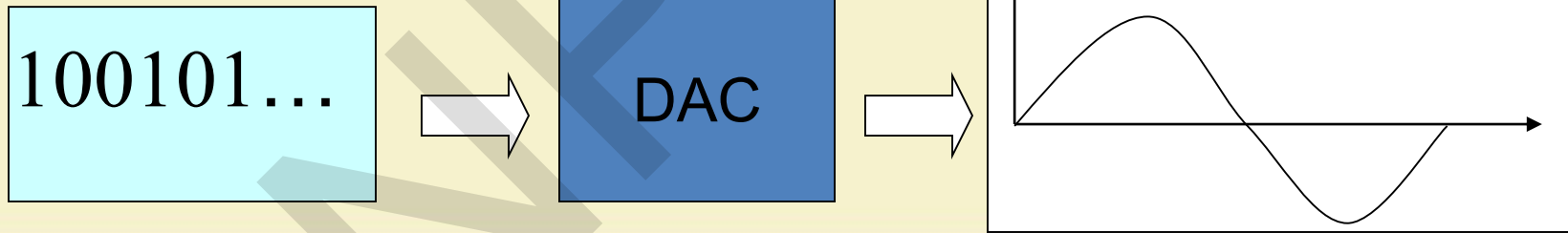
NPTEL ONLINE
CERTIFICATION COURSES

- Digital-to-Analog Converters (DACs)
- Analog-to-Digital Converters (ADCs)

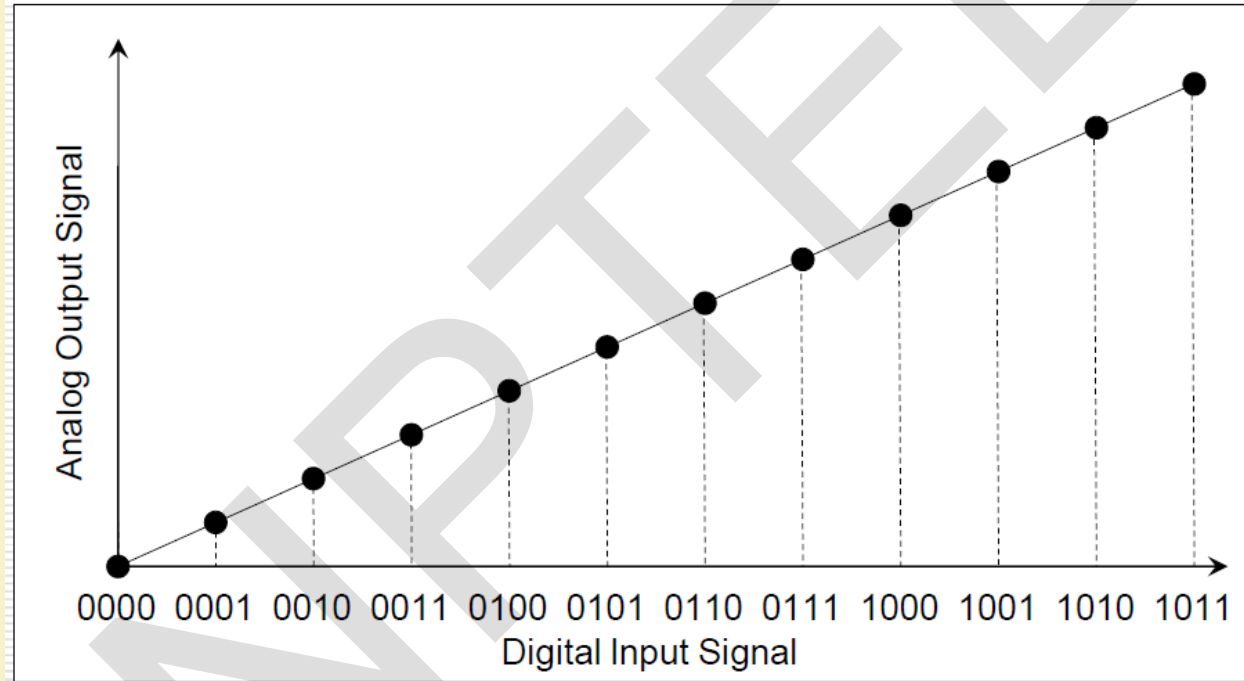
Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC)

What is a DAC?

- A digital to analog converter (DAC) converts a digital signal to an analog voltage or current output.



What is a DAC?



Types of DACs

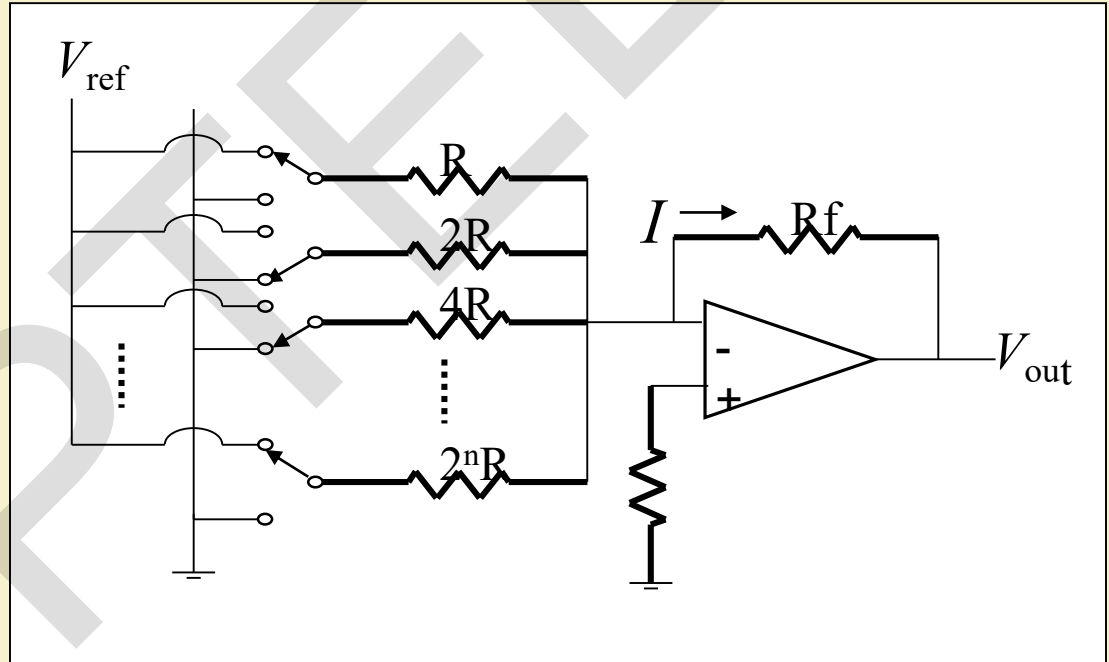
- Many types of DACs available
- Usually switches, resistors, and op-amps used to implement conversion
- Two Types:
 - Binary Weighted Resistor
 - R-2R Ladder

Binary Weighted Resistor

- Utilizes a summing op-amp circuit
- Weighted resistors are used to distinguish each bit from the most significant to the least significant
- Transistors are used to switch between V_{ref} and ground (bit high or low)

Binary Weighted Resistor

- Assume Ideal Op-amp
- No current into op-amp
- Virtual ground at inverting input
- $V_{out} = -IR_f$

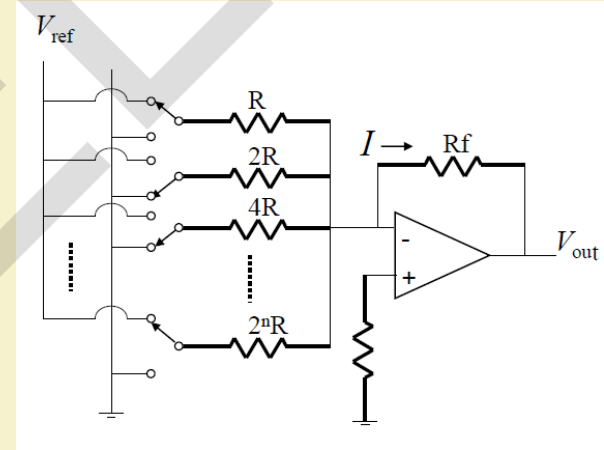


Binary Weighted Resistor

Voltages V_1 through V_n are either V_{ref} if corresponding bit is high or ground if corresponding bit is low

V_1 is most significant bit

V_n is least significant bit



$$V_{out} = -IR_f = -R_f \left(\overset{\text{MSB}}{\underbrace{\frac{V_1}{R}}_{V_1}} + \frac{V_2}{2R} + \frac{V_3}{4R} + \dots + \frac{\overset{\text{LSB}}{\underbrace{V_n}}_{V_n}}{2^{n-1}R} \right)$$

Binary Weighted Resistor

If $R_f = R/2$

$$V_{\text{out}} = -IR_f = -\left(\frac{V_1}{2} + \frac{V_2}{4} + \frac{V_3}{8} + \dots + \frac{V_n}{2^n}\right)$$

For example, a 4-Bit converter yields

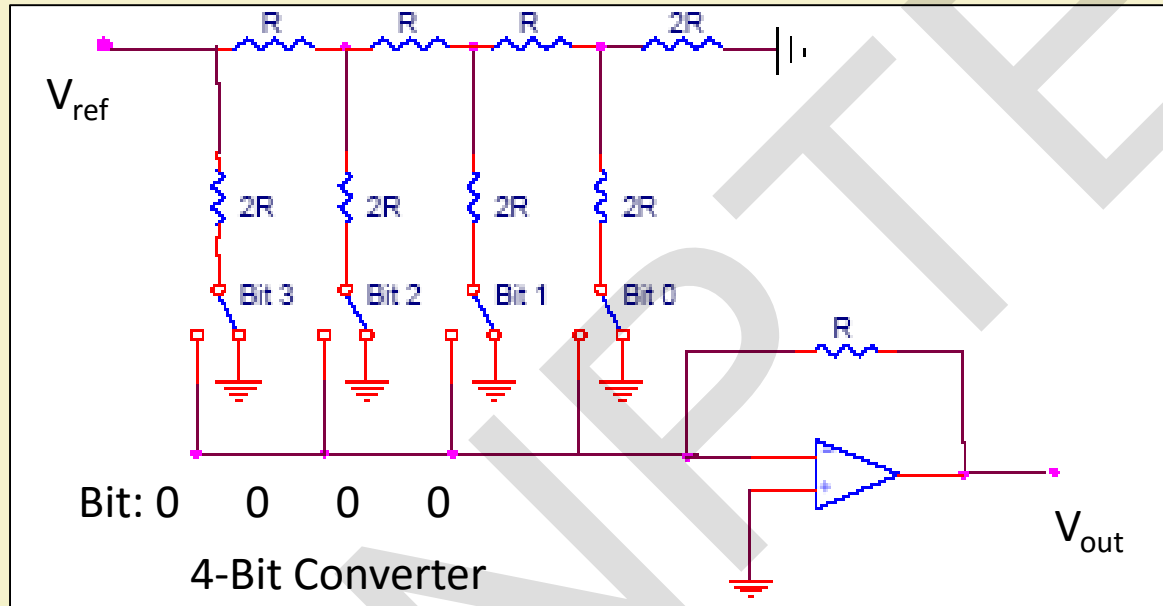
$$V_{\text{out}} = -V_{\text{ref}} \left(b_3 \frac{1}{2} + b_2 \frac{1}{4} + b_1 \frac{1}{8} + b_0 \frac{1}{16} \right)$$

Where b_3 corresponds to Bit-3, b_2 to Bit-2, etc.

Binary Weighted Resistor

- Advantages
 - Simple Construction/Analysis
 - Fast Conversion
- Disadvantages
 - Requires large range of resistors (2000:1 for 12-bit DAC) with necessary high precision for low resistors
 - Requires low switch resistances in transistors
 - Can be expensive. Therefore, usually limited to 8-bit resolution.

R-2R Ladder

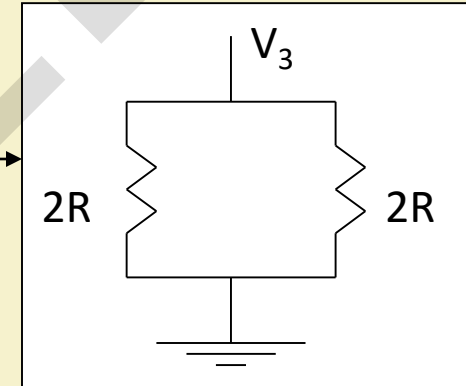
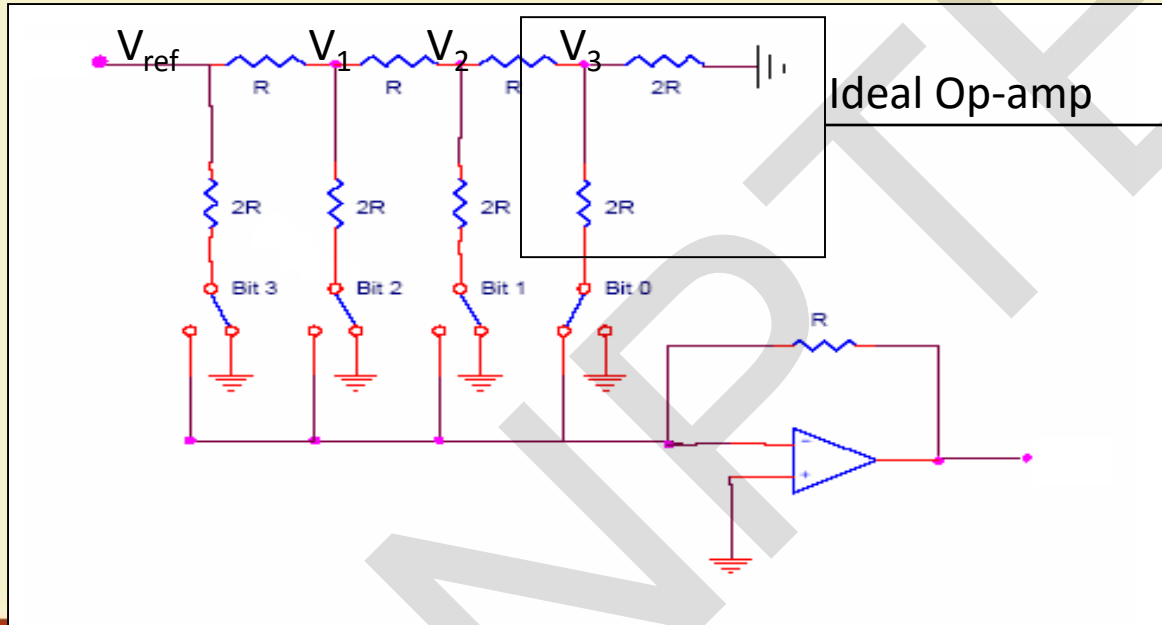


Each bit corresponds to a switch:

If the bit is high, the corresponding switch is connected to the inverting input of the op-amp.

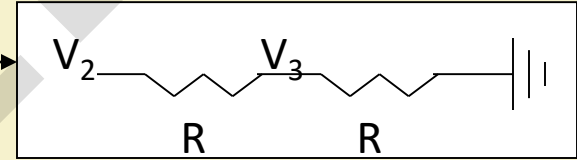
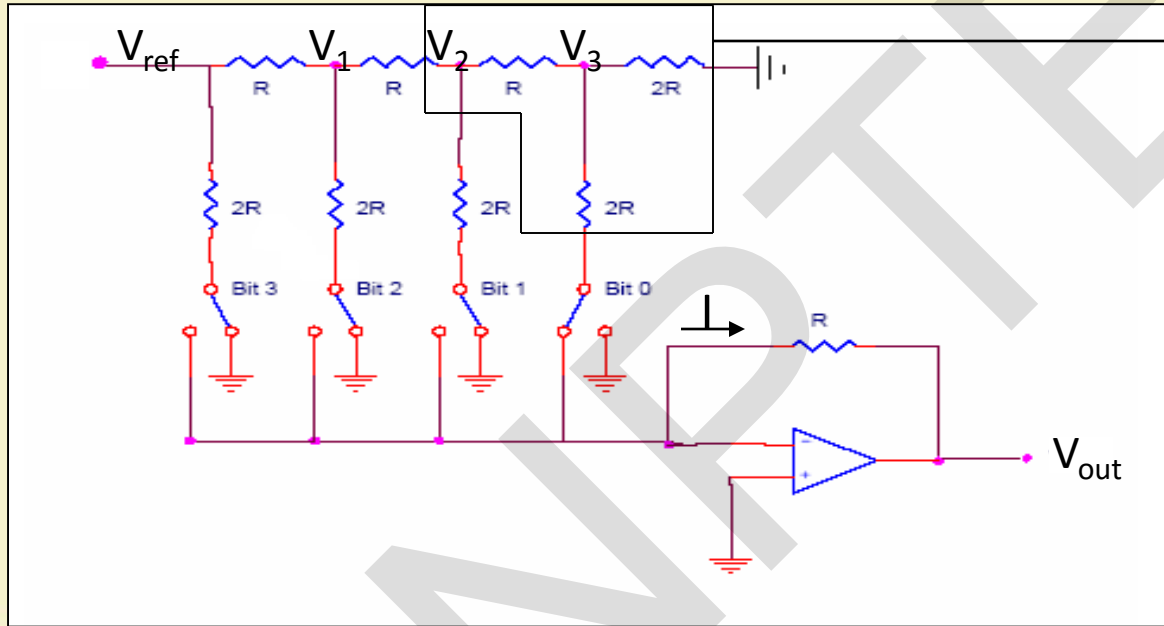
If the bit is low, the corresponding switch is connected to ground.

R-2R Ladder



$$R_{eq} = \frac{(2R)(2R)}{(2R + 2R)} = R$$

R-2R Ladder



$$V_3 = \left(\frac{R}{R + R} \right) V_2 = \frac{1}{2} V_2$$

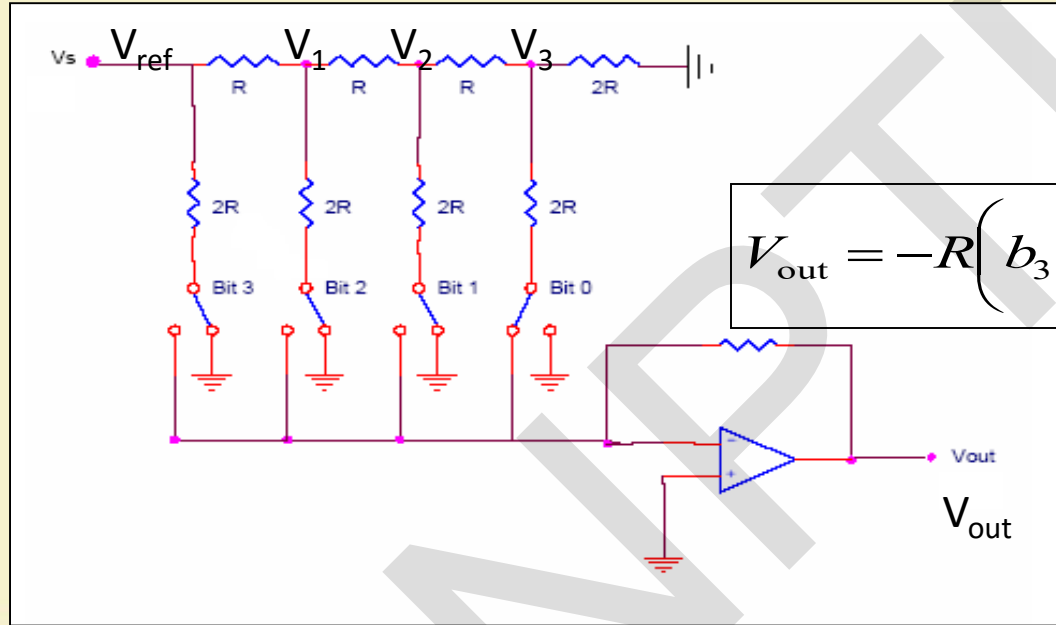
Likewise,

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{2} V_1$$

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{2} V_{\text{ref}}$$

$$V_{\text{out}} = -IR$$

R-2R Ladder



Results:

$$V_3 = \frac{1}{8} V_{\text{ref}}, V_2 = \frac{1}{4} V_{\text{ref}}, V_1 = \frac{1}{2} V_{\text{ref}}$$

$$V_{\text{out}} = -R \left(b_3 \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{2R} + b_2 \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{4R} + b_1 \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{8R} + b_0 \frac{V_{\text{ref}}}{16R} \right)$$

Where b_3 corresponds to bit 3,
 b_2 to bit 2, etc.

If bit n is set, $b_n = 1$

If bit n is clear, $b_n = 0$

R-2R Ladder

For a 4-Bit R-2R Ladder

$$V_{\text{out}} = -V_{\text{ref}} \left(b_3 \frac{1}{2} + b_2 \frac{1}{4} + b_1 \frac{1}{8} + b_0 \frac{1}{16} \right)$$

For general n-Bit R-2R Ladder or Binary Weighted Resistor DAC

$$V_{\text{out}} = -V_{\text{ref}} \sum_{i=1}^n b_{n-i} \frac{1}{2^i}$$

R-2R Ladder

- Advantages
 - Only two resistor values (R and $2R$)
 - Does not require high precision resistors
- Disadvantage
 - Lower conversion speed than binary weighted DAC

Specifications of DACs

- Resolution
- Speed
- Linearity
- Settling Time
- Reference Voltages
- Errors

Resolution

- Smallest analog increment corresponding to 1 LSB change
- An N-bit resolution can resolve 2^N distinct analog levels
- Common DAC has a 8-16 bit resolution

$$\text{Resolution} = V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{ref}}{2^N}$$

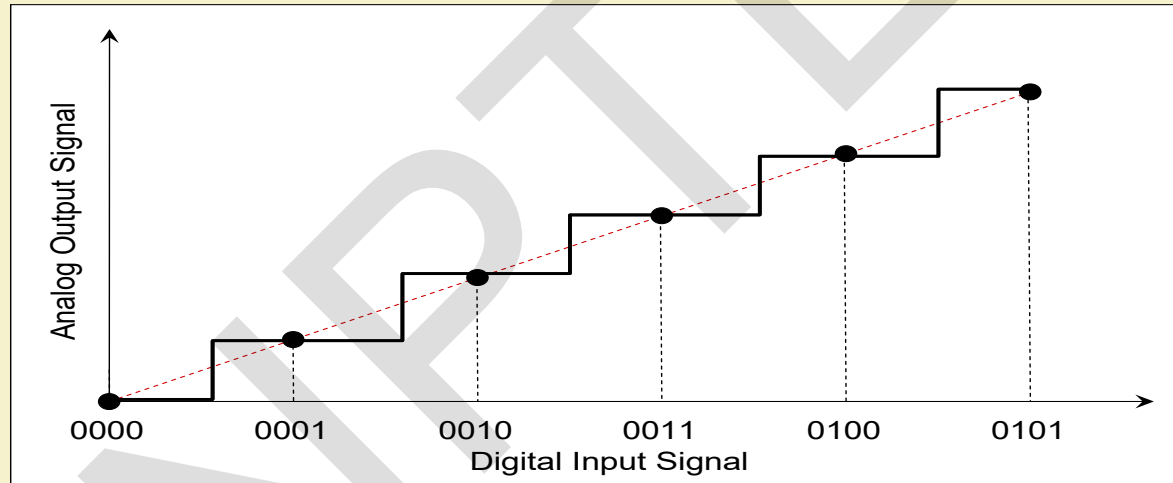
where $N = \text{number of bits}$

Speed

- Rate of conversion of a single digital input to its analog equivalent
- Conversion rate depends on
 - clock speed of input signal
 - settling time of converter
- When the input changes rapidly, the DAC conversion speed must be high.

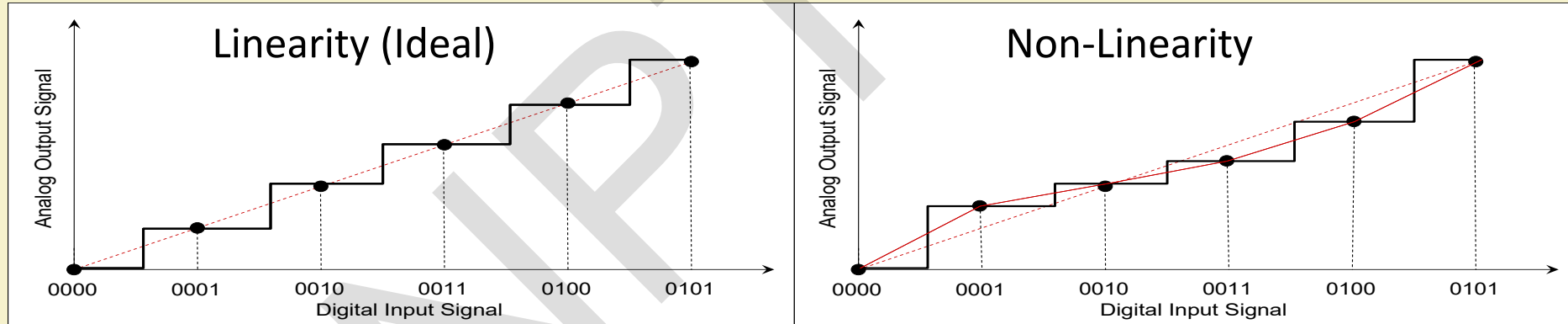
Linearity

- The difference between the desired analog output and the actual output over the full range of expected values



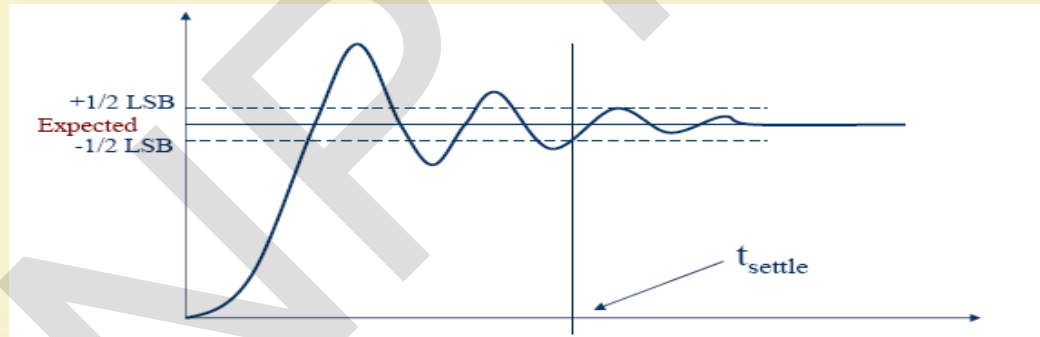
Linearity

- Ideally, a DAC should produce a linear relationship between the digital input and analog output



Settling Time

- Time required for the output signal to settle within $\pm 1/2$ LSB of its final value after a given change in input scale
- Limited by slew rate of output amplifier
- Ideally, an instantaneous change in analog voltage would occur when a new binary word enters into DAC



Reference Voltages

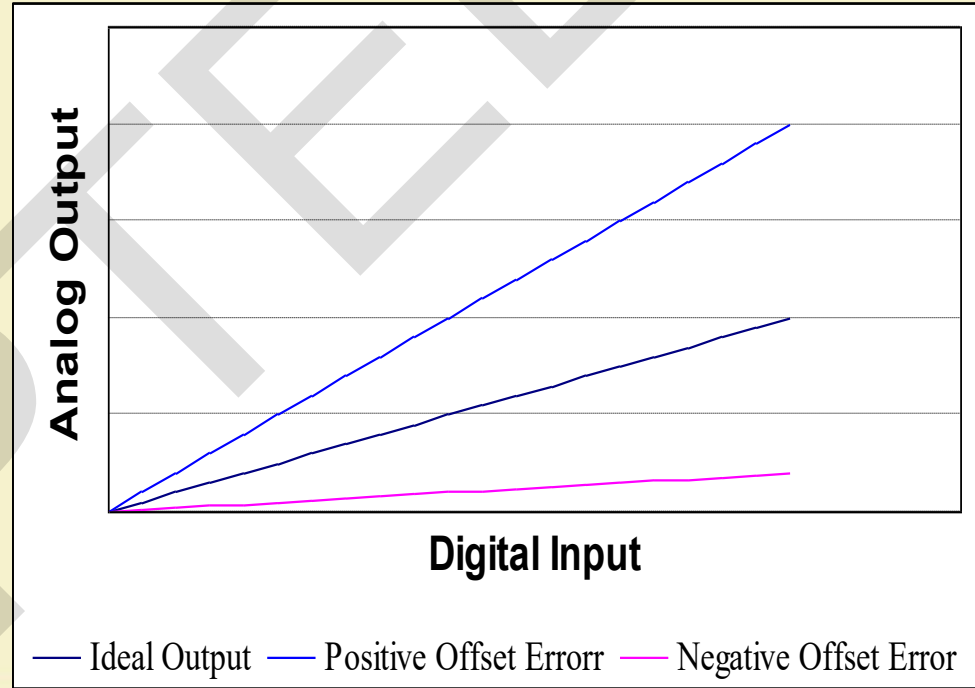
- Used to determine how each digital input will be assigned to each voltage division
- Types:
 - Non-multiplier DAC: V_{ref} is fixed
 - Multiplier DAC: V_{ref} provided by external source

Types of Errors Associated with DACs

- Gain
- Offset
- Full Scale
- Resolution
- Non-Linearity
- Non-Monotonic
- Settling Time and Overshoot

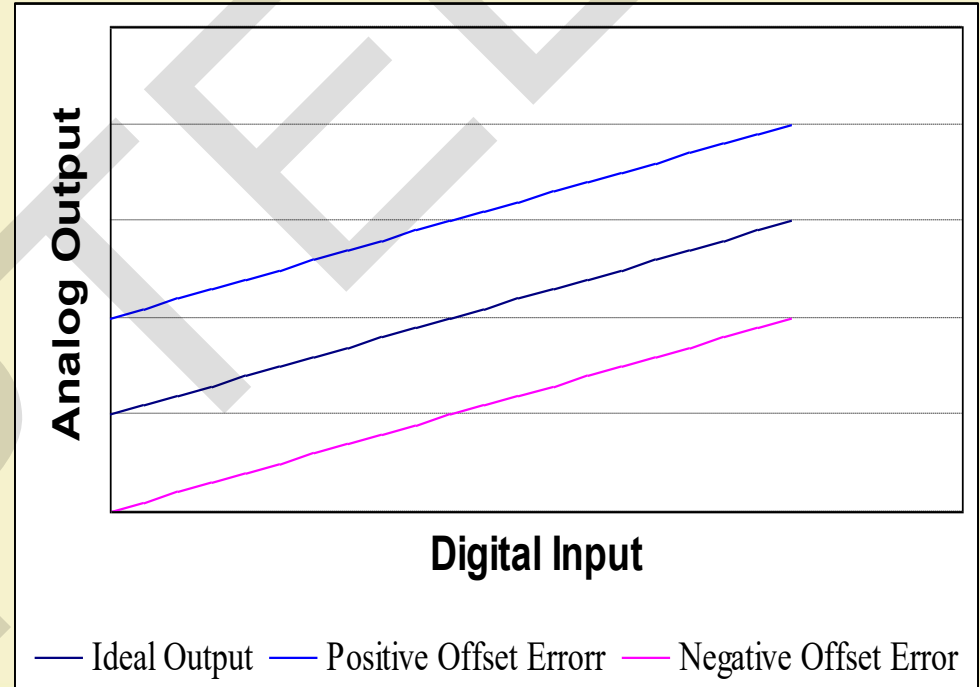
Gain Error

- Occurs when the slope of the actual output deviates from the ideal output



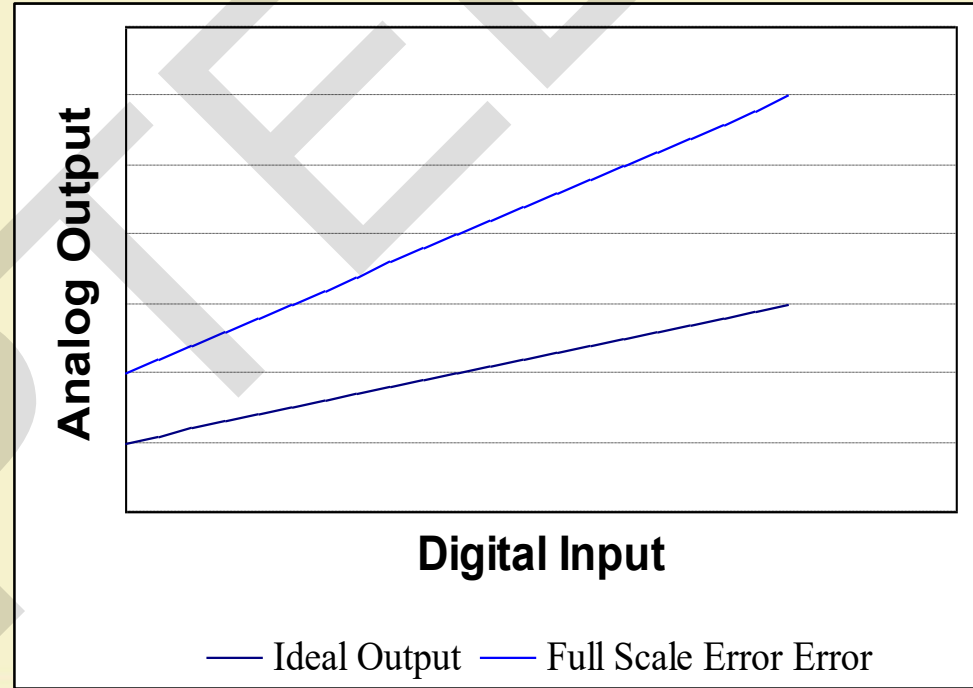
Offset Error

- Occurs when there is a constant offset between the actual output and the ideal output



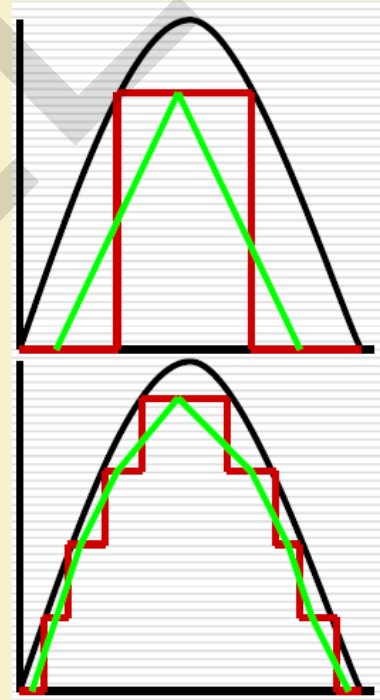
Full Scale Error

- Occurs when the actual signal has both gain and offset errors



Resolution Error

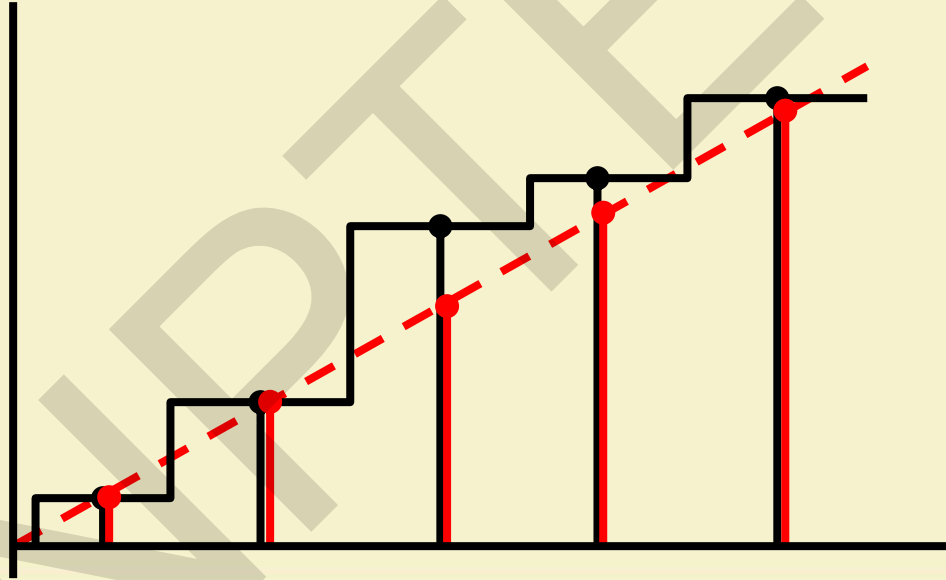
- Poor representation of ideal output due to poor resolution
- Size of voltage divisions affect the resolution



Non-Linearity Error

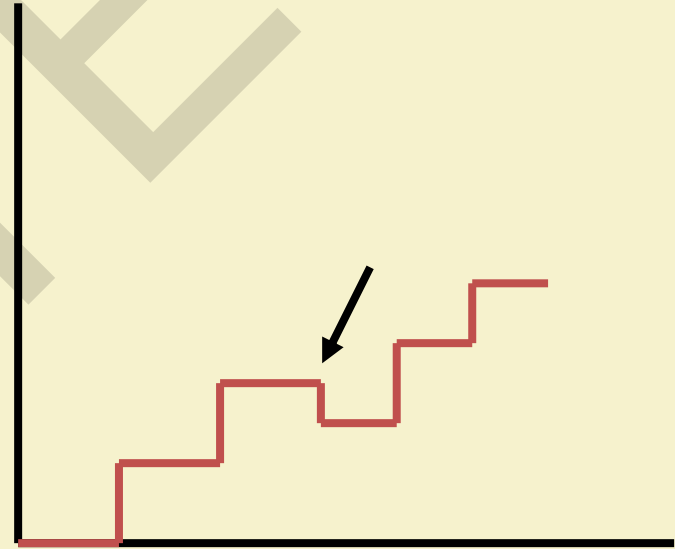
- Occurs when analog output signal is non-linear
- Two Types
 - Differential – analog step-size changes with increasing digital input (measure of largest deviation; between successive bits)
 - Integral – amount of deviation from a straight line after offset and gain errors removed; on concurrent bits

Non-Linearity Error, cont.



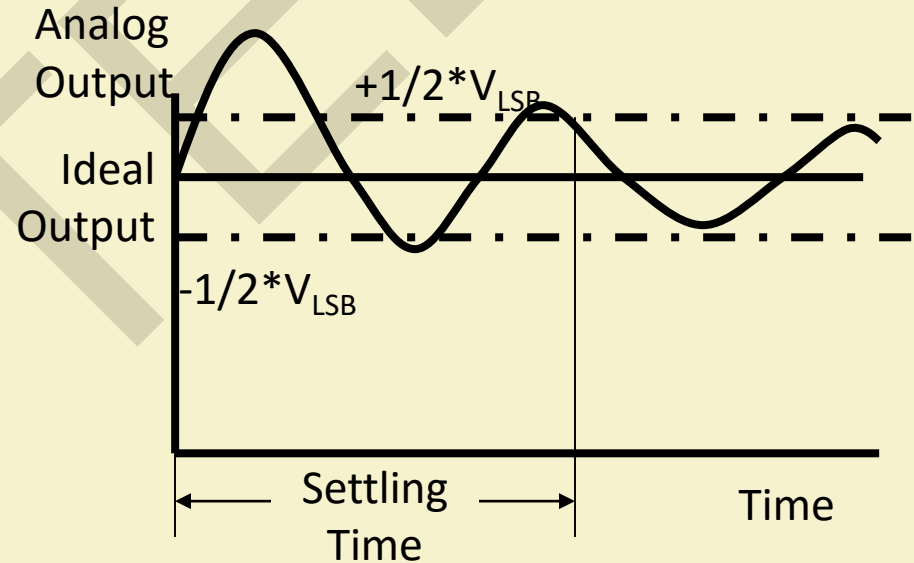
Non-Monotonic Error

- Occurs when an increase in digital input results in a decrease in the analog output



Settling Time and Overshoot Error

- Settling Time – time required for the output to fall within $\pm \frac{1}{2} V_{\text{LSB}}$
- Overshoot – occurs when analog output overshoots the ideal output



Applications

- Digital Motor Control
- Computer Printers
- Sound Equipment (e.g. CD/MP3 Players, etc.)
- Electronic Cruise Control
- Digital Thermostat

Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC)

Background Information

- What is ADC?
- Conversion Process
- Accuracy
- Examples of ADC applications

Signal Types

Analog Signals

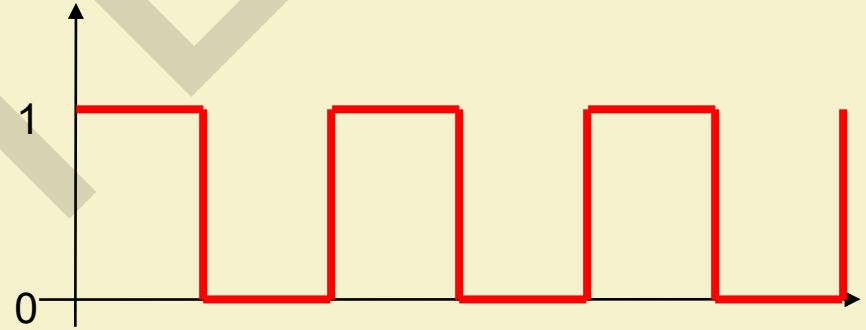
- Any continuous signal, that is a time varying variable of the signal, is a representation of some other time varying quantity
 - Measures one quantity in terms of some other quantity
 - Examples
 - Speedometer needle as function of speed
 - Radio volume as function of knob movement



Signal Types

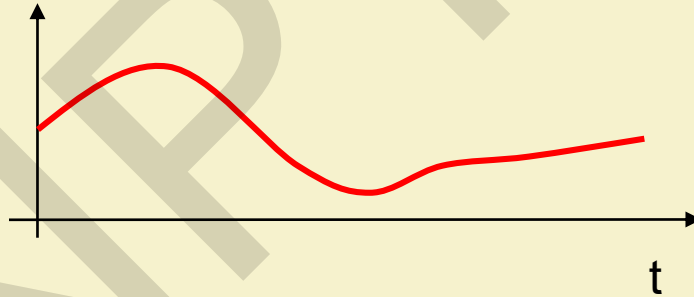
Digital Signals

- Consist of only two states
 - Binary States
 - On and off
- Computers can only perform processing on digitized signals



Analog-Digital Converter (ADC)

- An electronic integrated circuit which converts a signal from analog (**continuous**) to digital (discrete) form
- Provides a link between the analog world of transducers and the digital world of signal processing and data handling



Analog-Digital Converter (ADC)

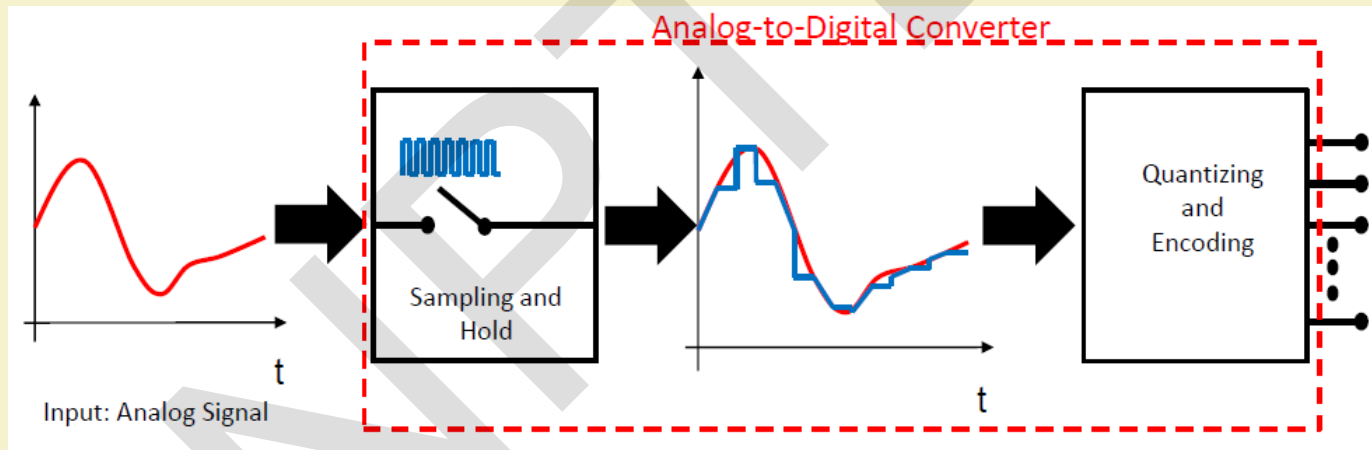
- An electronic integrated circuit which converts a signal from analog (continuous) to digital (**discrete**) form
- Provides a link between the analog world of transducers and the digital world of signal processing and data handling



ADC Conversion Process

Two main steps of process

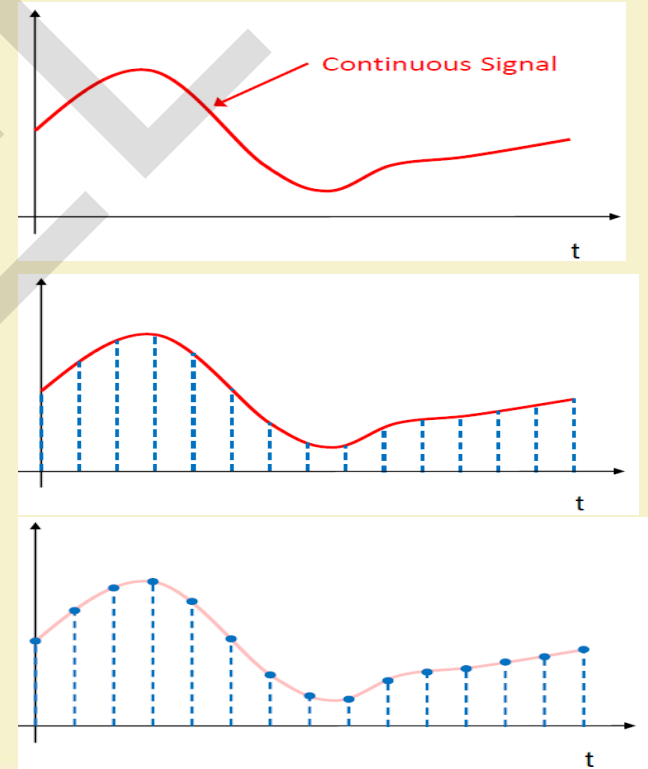
1. Sampling and Holding
2. Quantization and Encoding



ADC Process

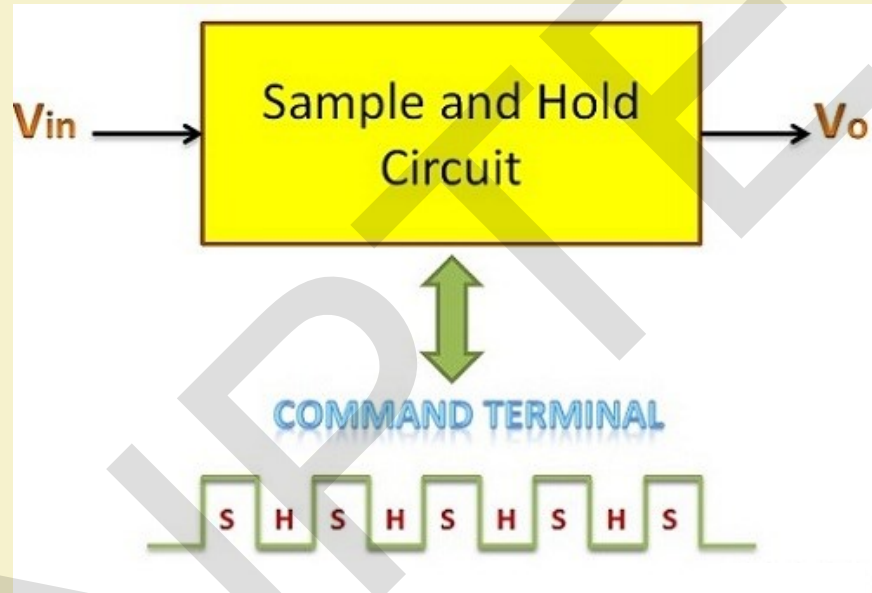
Sampling & Hold

- Measuring analog signals at uniform time intervals
 - Ideally twice as fast as what we are sampling
- Digital system works with discrete states
 - Taking samples from each location
- Reflects sampled and hold signal
 - Digital approximation

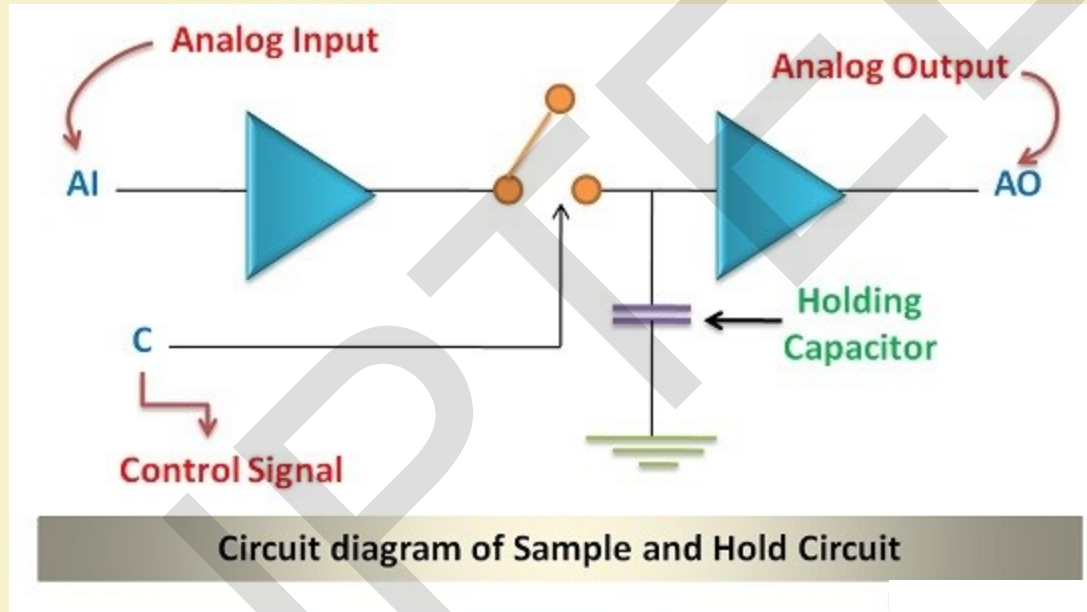


Sample and Hold Circuit

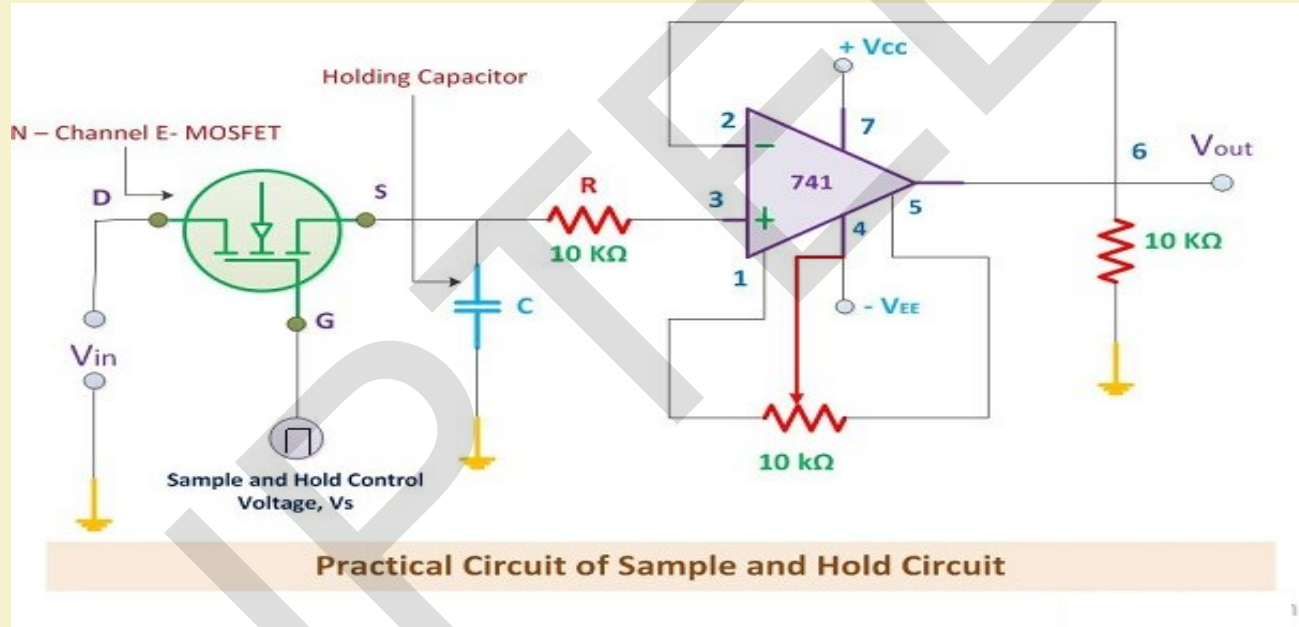
- The time during which sample and hold circuit generates the sample of the input signal is called **sampling time**.
- Similarly, the time duration of the circuit during which it holds the sampled value is called **holding time**.
- Sampling time is generally between **$1\mu\text{s}$ to $14\mu\text{s}$** while the holding time can assume any value as required in the application.
- Capacitor is the heart of sample and hold circuit. The capacitor charges to its peak value when the switch is closed, i.e. during sampling and holds the sampled voltage when the switch is open.



Circuit Diagram

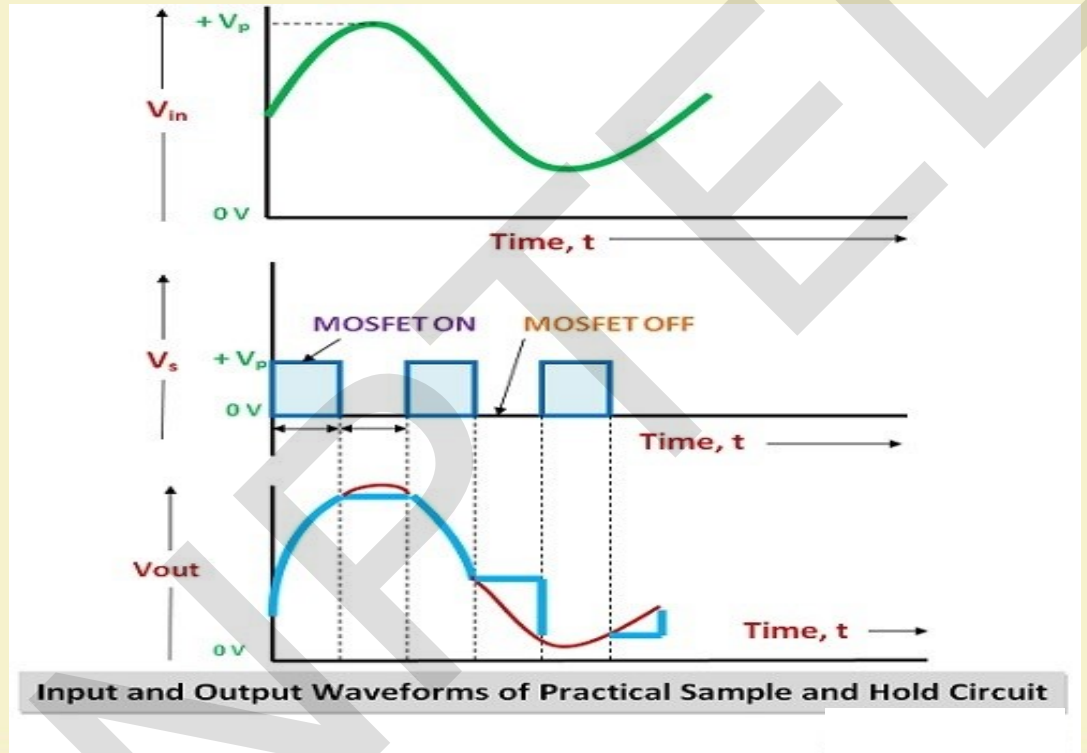


Circuit Diagram

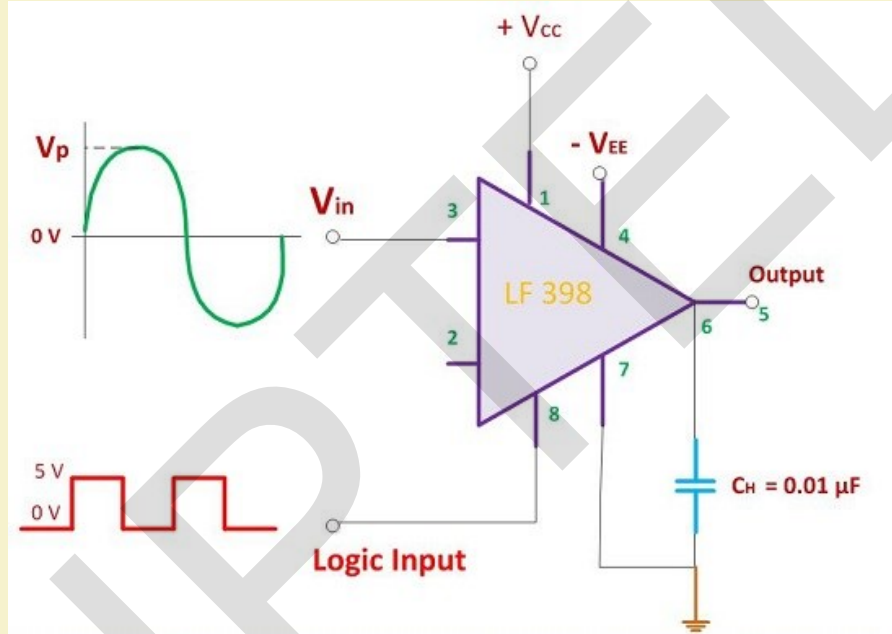


- The N-channel Enhancement MOSFET is used as the switching element.
- Input voltage is applied through its drain terminal and control voltage to its gate terminal.
- When the positive pulse of the control voltage is applied, the MOSFET will be switched to ON state - it acts as a closed switch.
- On the contrary, when the control voltage is zero then the MOSFET will be switched to OFF state - acts as an open switch.
- When the switch is closed, the analog signal applied to it through the drain terminal is fed to the capacitor.
- The capacitor charges to its peak value.
- When the MOSFET switch is opened, then the capacitor stops charging. Due to the high impedance operational amplifier connected at the end of the circuit, the capacitor experiences high impedance due to this it cannot get discharged.
- Charge is held by the capacitor for a definite amount of time - **holding period**.
- Time in which samples of the input voltage is generated - **sampling period**.

Input-Output Waveform



LF 398



Typical Connection Diagram of Sample and Hold Circuit

Applications of Sample and Hold Circuit

- Data Distribution System
- Sampling Oscilloscopes
- Data Conversion System
- Digital Voltmeters
- Analog Signal Processing
- Signal Constructional Filters

ADC Process

Quantizing

- Separating the input signal into discrete states with K increments
- $K=2^N$
 - N is the number of bits of the ADC
- Analog quantization size
 - $Q=(V_{\max}-V_{\min})/2^N$
 - Q is the **Resolution**

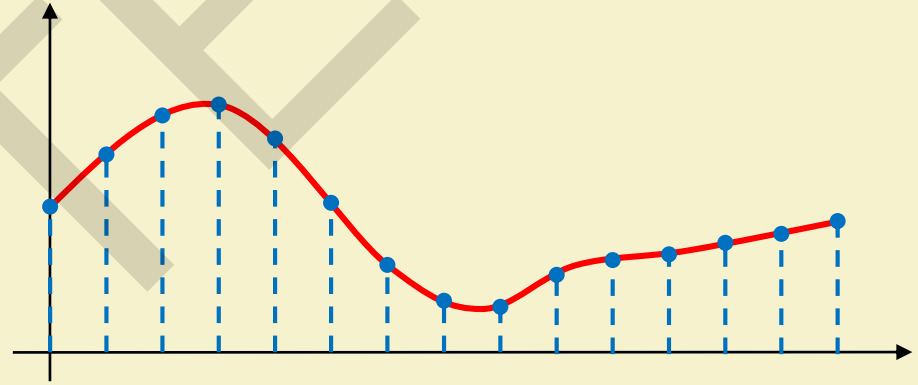
Encoding

- Assigning a unique digital code to each state for input into the microprocessor

ADC Process

Quantization & Coding

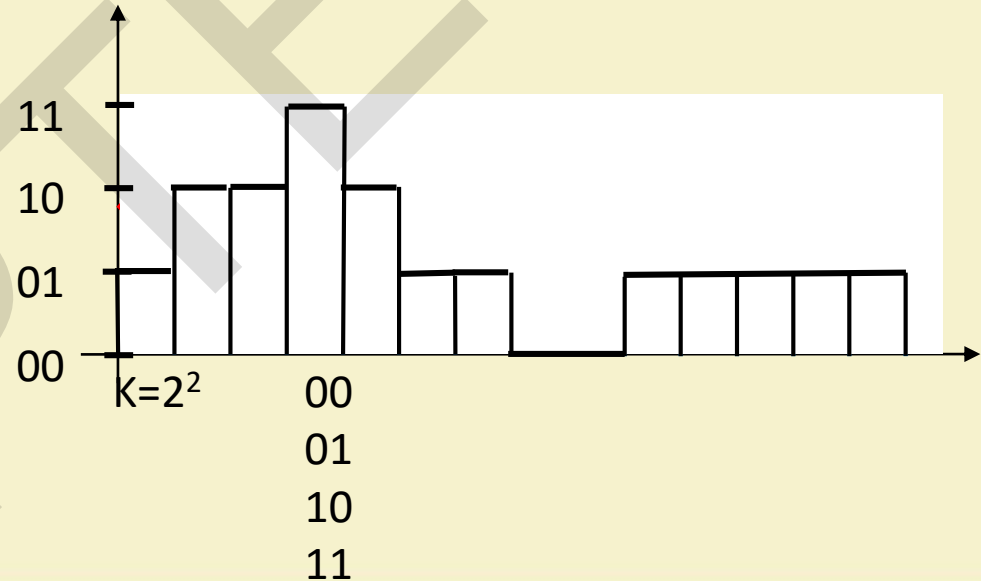
- Use original analog signal



ADC Process

Quantization & Coding

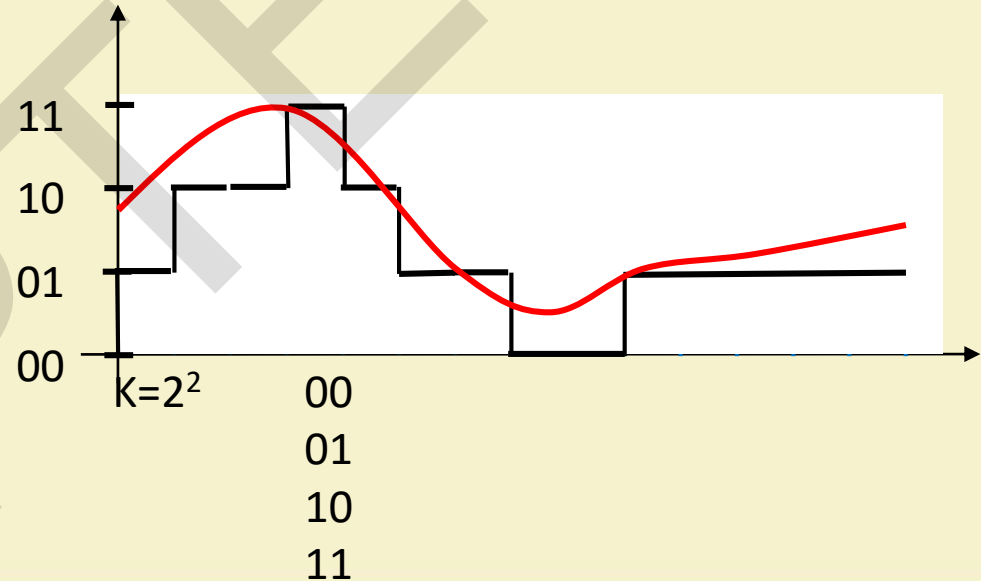
- Use original analog signal
- Apply 2 bit coding



ADC Process

Quantization & Coding

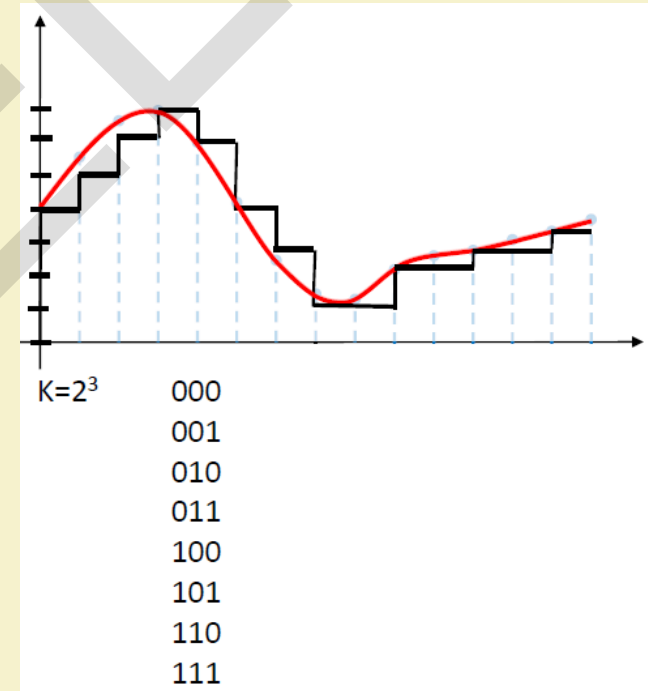
- Use original analog signal
- Apply 2 bit coding



ADC Process

Quantization & Coding

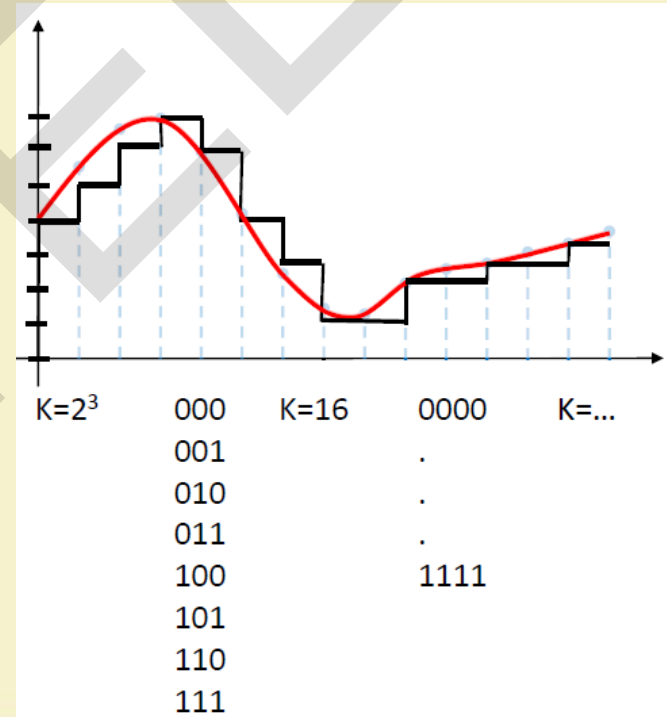
- Use original analog signal
- Apply **3** bit coding



ADC Process

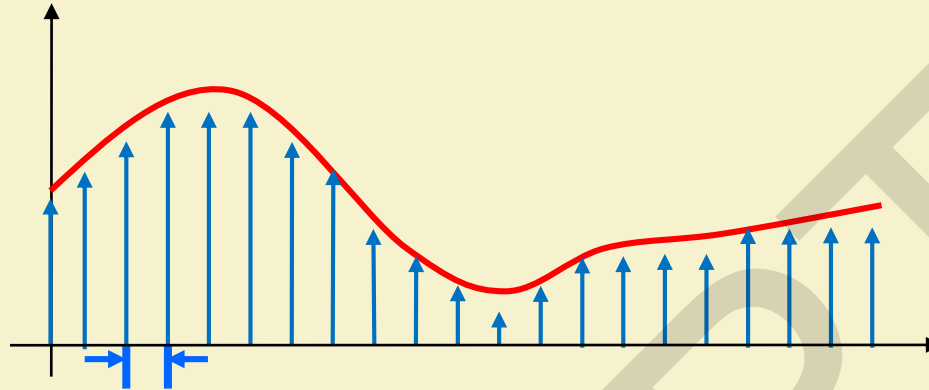
Quantization & Coding

- Use original analog signal
- Apply 3 bit coding
- Better representation of input information with additional bits
- MCS12 has max of 10 bits



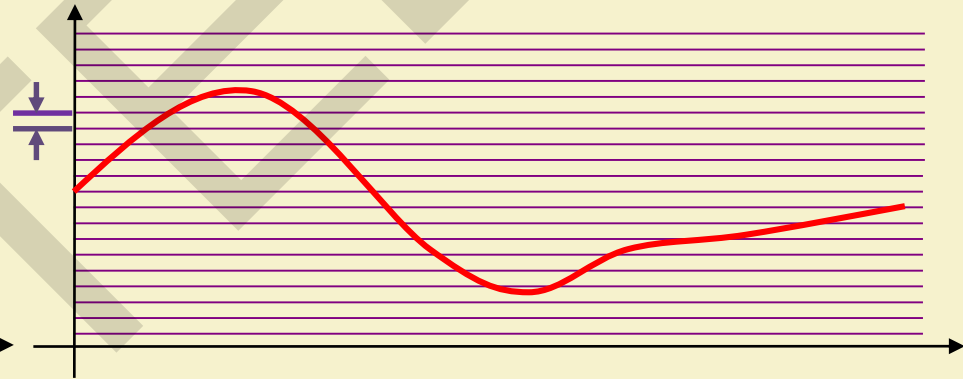
ADC Process-Accuracy

The accuracy of an ADC can be improved by increasing:



Sampling Rate, T_s

- Based on number of steps required in the conversion process
- Increases the maximum frequency that can be measured



Resolution (bit depth), Q

- Improves accuracy in measuring amplitude of analog signal

ADC-Error Possibilities

- Aliasing (sampling)
 - Occurs when the input signal is changing much faster than the sample rate
 - Should follow the **Nyquist Rule** when sampling
 - Answers question of what sample rate is required
 - Use a sampling frequency at least twice as high as the maximum frequency in the signal to avoid aliasing
 - $f_{\text{sample}} > 2 * f_{\text{signal}}$
- Quantization Error (resolution)
 - Optimize resolution
 - Dependent on ADC converter of microcontroller

ADC Applications

- ADC are used virtually everywhere where an analog signal has to be processed, stored, or transported in digital form
 - Microphones
 - Strain Gages
 - Thermocouple
 - Digital Multimeters

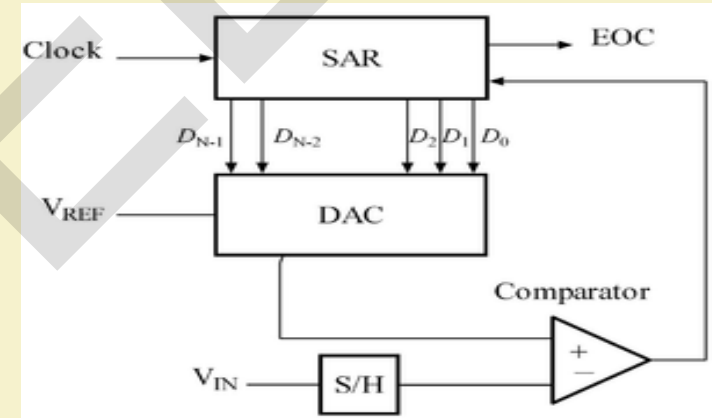
Types of ADC

- Successive Approximation A/D Converter
- Flash A/D Converter
- Dual Slope A/D Converter

Successive Approximation ADC

■ Elements

- DAC = Digital to Analog Converter
- EOC = End of Conversion
- SAR = Successive Approximation Register
- S/H = Sample and Hold Circuit
- V_{in} = Input Voltage
- Comparator
- V_{ref} = Reference Voltage



Successive Approximation ADC

■ Algorithm

- Uses an N-bit DAC and original analog results
- Performs a binary comparison of V_{DAC} and V_{in}
- MSB is initialized at 1 for DAC
- If $V_{in} < V_{DAC} (V_{REF} / 2^{(N=1)})$ then MSB is reset to 0
- If $V_{in} > V_{DAC} (V_{REF} / 2^{(N+1)})$ successive bit is set to 1
- Algorithm is repeated up to LSB
- At end DAC in = ADC out
- N-bit conversion requires N comparison cycles

Successive Approximation ADC - Example

- 5-bit ADC, $V_{in}=0.6V$, $V_{ref}=1V$

- Cycle 1 => MSB=1

$$SAR = \underline{1} 0 0 0 0$$

$$V_{DAC} = V_{ref}/2^1 = .5$$

- Cycle 2

$$SAR = 1 \underline{1} 0 0 0$$

$$V_{DAC} = .5 + .25 = .75$$

- Cycle 3

$$SAR = 1 0 \underline{1} 0 0$$

$$V_{DAC} = .5 + .125 = .625$$

- Cycle 4

$$SAR = 1 0 0 \underline{1} 0$$

$$V_{DAC} = .5 + .0625 = .5625$$

- Cycle 5

$$SAR = 1 0 0 1 \underline{1}$$

$$V_{DAC} = .5 + .0625 + .03125 = \underline{.59375}$$

DAC bit/voltage

Bit	4	3	2	1	0
Voltage	.5	.25	.125	.0625	.03125

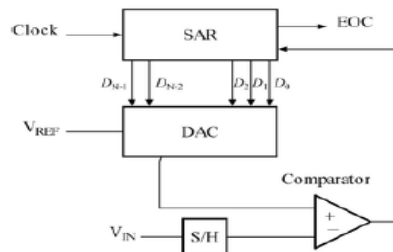
$$V_{in} > V_{DAC} \quad SAR \text{ unchanged} = 1 0 0 0 0$$

$$V_{in} < V_{DAC} \quad SAR \text{ bit3 reset to 0} = 1 0 0 0 0$$

$$V_{in} < V_{DAC} \quad SAR \text{ bit2 reset to 0} = 1 0 0 0 0$$

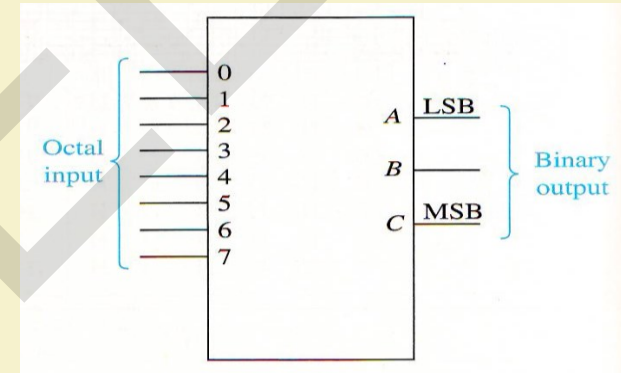
$$V_{in} > V_{DAC} \quad SAR \text{ unchanged} = 1 0 0 1 0$$

$$V_{in} > V_{DAC} \quad SAR \text{ unchanged} = 1 0 0 1 1$$



Flash ADC

- Also known as parallel ADC
- Elements
 - Encoder – *Converts output of comparators to binary*
 - Comparators

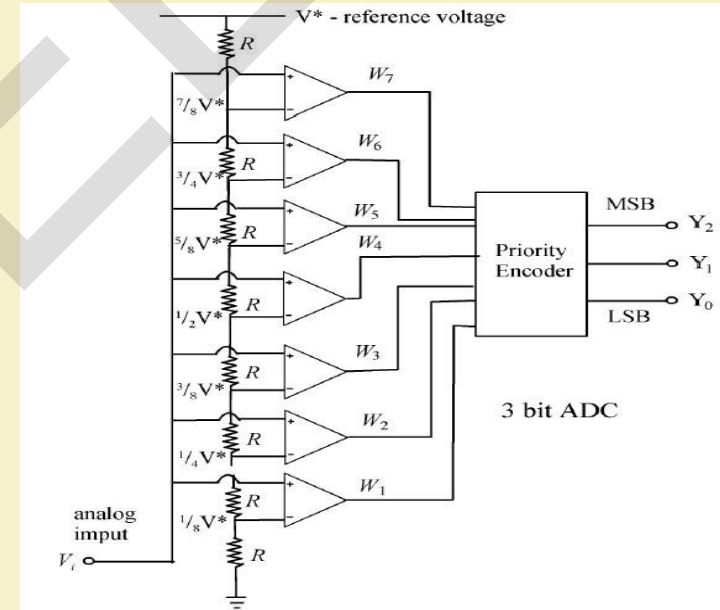


$$V_{out} = \begin{cases} V_{S+} & V_1 > V_2 \\ V_{S-} & V_1 < V_2 \end{cases}$$

■ Algorithm

Flash ADC

- V_{in} value lies between two comparators
- Resolution $\Delta V = \frac{V_{ref}}{2^N}$;
- N = Encoder Output bits
- Comparators $\Rightarrow 2^N - 1$
- Example: V_{ref} 8V, Encoder 3-bit
 - Resolution $\Delta V = \frac{8}{2^3} = 1.0V$
 - Comparators $2^3 - 1 = 7$
- 1 additional encoder bit $\rightarrow 2 \times \#$ Comparators



Flash ADC Example

$$V_{in} = 5.5V, V_{ref} = 8V$$

V_{in} lies in between V_{comp5} & V_{comp6}

$$V_{comp5} = V_{ref} * 5/8 = 5V$$

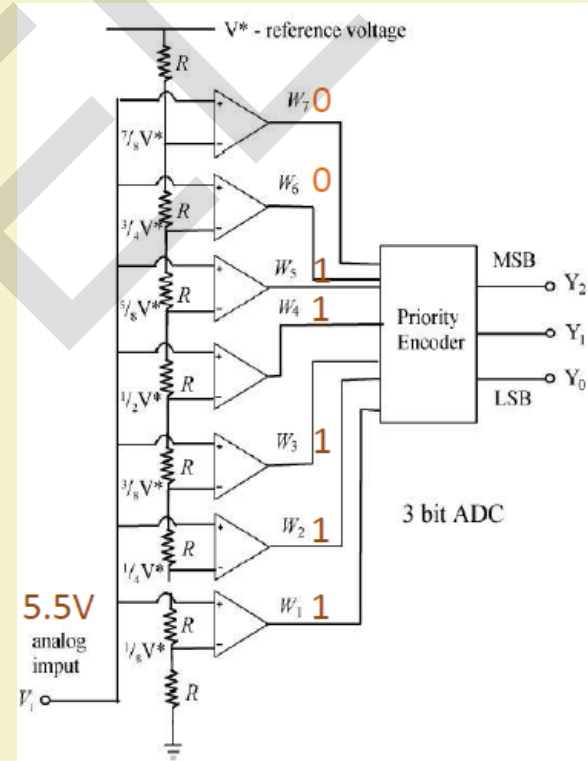
$$V_{comp6} = V_{ref} * 6/8 = 6V$$

Comparator 1 - 5 \Rightarrow output 1

Comparator 6 - 7 \Rightarrow output 0

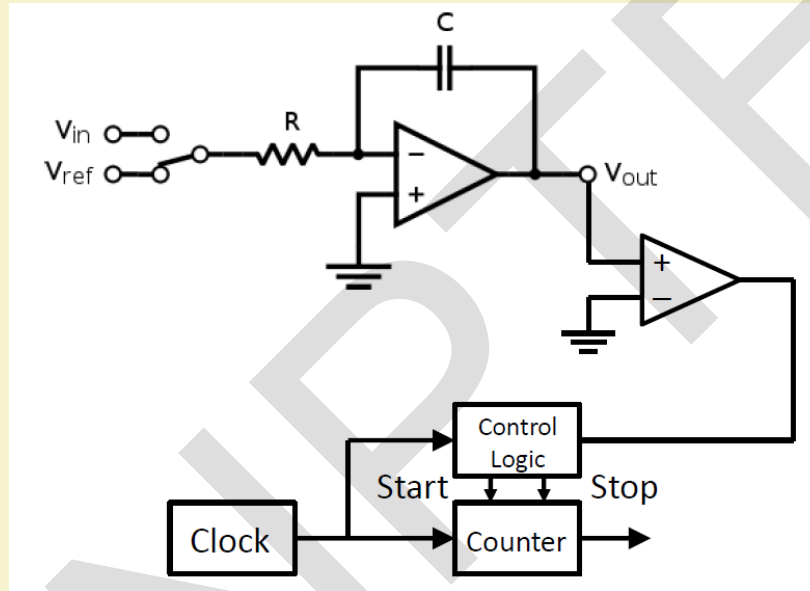
Encoder Octal Input = $\text{sum}(0011111) = 5$

Encoder Binary Output = 1 0 1



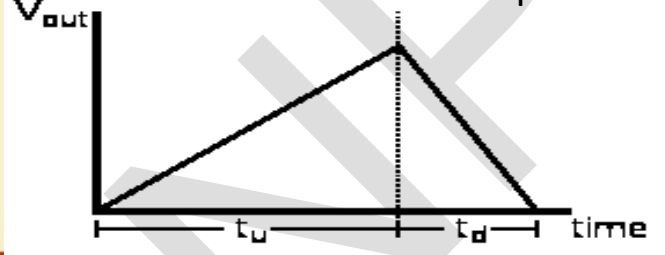
Dual Slope A/D Converter

- Also known as an Integrating ADC



Dual-Slope ADC – How It Works

- An unknown input voltage is applied to the input of the integrator and allowed to ramp for a fixed time period (t_u)
- Then, a known reference voltage of opposite polarity is applied to the integrator and is allowed to ramp until the integrator output returns to zero (t_d)
- The input voltage is computed as a function of the reference voltage, the constant run-up time period, and the measured run-down time period
- The run-down time measurement is usually made in units of the converter's clock, so **longer integration times allow for higher resolutions**
- The speed of the converter can be improved by sacrificing resolution



$$V_{in} = -V_{ref} \frac{t_d}{t_u}$$

Comparison of ADC's

Type	Speed (relative)	Cost (relative)	Resolution (bits)
Dual Slope	Slow	Med	12-16
Flash	Very Fast	High	4-12
Successive Approx	Medium – Fast	Low	8-16