

Human/natural language

Ch-2

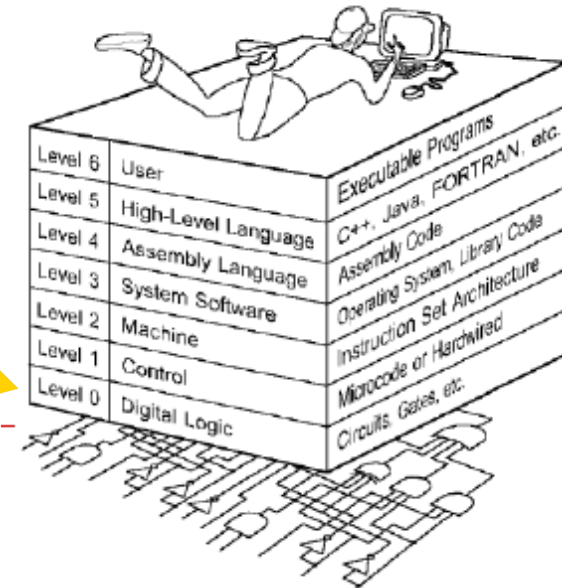
Machine language

(Decimal numbers, letters & special characters)

binary
2's complement
Floating-point
ASCII, Unicode

(Binary/digital form)

Ch3 – Boolean Algebra & Digital Logic



LO-2:

- Use **Boolean algebra** mathematical expressions and k-maps to:
 - **Describe** and manipulate the functions of simple combinational and sequential **logic circuits**.
 - **Design** simple **combinational and sequential logic circuits** using gates and flip-flops.

>>> Quiz-2 and **Test-2**


Application of Boolean Algebra

- ☐ Digital circuit
- ☐ Google search
- ☐ Database (SQL)
- ☐ Programming
- ☐

Boolean Algebraic simplifications helps to design efficient digital electronics circuits, computer programs, logical implementations, etc.

Simplification:

```
while (((A && B) || (A && !B)) || !A)
{
    // do something
}
```


$$\begin{aligned} &= AB + AB' + A' \\ &= A(B + B') + A' \\ &= A(1) + A' \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

3.2 Boolean Algebra

Boolean
Product
'.'

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

Boolean
Sum
'+'

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

- A mathematical system for manipulating binary variables with values:
 - “true” or “false” in formal logic
 - “on”/“off,” “high”/“low,” or “1”/“0” in digital systems
- Boolean operator function can be **completely** described using a **Truth Table**.
- A Boolean function has at least each of Boolean variable, Boolean operator, and input from the set of $\{0,1\}$.
- Produces an output from set $\{0,1\}$ – Either 0 or 1. 7

Boolean
Negation
overbar
($\bar{}$) or
Prime (')


NOT X	
X	\bar{X}
0	1
1	0

Rules Of Precedence

- Arithmetic has its rules of precedence
 - Like arithmetic, Boolean operations follow the **rules of precedence** (priority):
 - **NOT** operator > **AND** operator > **OR** operator .
- This explains why we chose the shaded partial function in that order in the 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



Rules Of Precedence

Use Boolean Algebra in Circuit Design

- Digital circuit designer always like achieve the following goals:
 - ***Cheaper*** to produce
 - Consume ***less power***
 - run ***faster***
- How to do it? -- We know that:
 - Computers contain circuits that implement Boolean functions → Boolean functions can express circuits
 - If we can simplify a Boolean function, that express a circuit, we can archive the above goals
- We always can reduce a Boolean function to its ***simplest*** form by using a number of Boolean laws can help us do so.

Boolean Algebra Laws

Summary/cheat-sheet: all in one page

Identity Name	AND Form	OR Form
Identity Law	$1x = x$	$0 + x = x$
Null (or Dominance) Law	$0x = 0$	$1 + x = 1$
Idempotent Law	$xx = x$	$x + x = x$
Inverse Law	$xx' = 0$	$x + x' = 1$
Commutative Law	$xy = yx$	$x + y = y + x$
Associative Law	$(xy)z = x(yz)$	$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
Distributive Law	$x + (yz) = (x + y)(x + z)$	$x(y + z) = xy + xz$
Absorption Law	$x(x + y) = x$	$x + xy = x$
DeMorgan's Law	$(xy)' = x' + y'$	$(x + y)' = x'y'$
Double Complement Law	$x'' = x$	

$$X + X' Y = X + Y$$

Most important ones:

Distributive: $x + yz = (x + y)(x + z)$

DeMorgan's: $(xy)' = x' + y'$

x XOR y = $x' y + x y'$
 = $(x + y) (x' + y')$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x + y)(x + z) &= xx + xz + xy + yz \\
 &= x + xz + xy + yz = x(1 + z) + xy + yz \\
 &= x + xy + yz = x(1 + y) + yz \\
 &= x + yz
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS} &= x(x + y) \\
 &= xx + xy \\
 &= x + xy \\
 &= x.1 + x.y \\
 &= x.(1 + y) \\
 &= x.1 \\
 &= x = \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

DeMorgan's Law

- DeMorgan's law can be extended to any number of variables.
 - Replace each variable by its negation (complement)
 - Change all ANDs to ORs and all ORs to ANDs.
- Let's say $F(X, Y, Z)$ is the following, what is \bar{F} ?

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

$$\begin{aligned} F' &= (X'+Y')(X+Y')(X'+Z) \\ &= (XX'+Y')(X'+Z) \\ &= X'Y'+Y'Z \end{aligned}$$

Logic simplification steps

- Apply De Morgan's theorems
- Expanding out parenthesis
- Find the common factors
- Popular rules used:

$$X + XY = X$$

$$XY + X\bar{Y} = X$$

$$X + \bar{X}Y = X + Y$$

$$X + X = X, \quad XX = X$$

$$X + 0 = X, \quad X + 1 = 1$$

$$X0 = 0 \quad X1 = X$$

Simplifying Boolean Functions

□ Let's use Boolean laws to simplify:

as follows: $F(X, Y, Z) = (X+Y) (X+\bar{Y}) (\bar{X}\bar{Z})$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$0 + XZ$$

$$XZ$$

DeMorgan's Law

Double complement Law

Distributive Law

Commutative and Distributive Laws

Inverse Law

Idempotent and Identity Laws

Distributive Law

Inverse Law

Identity Law

$$\overline{(\overline{xy})} = \overline{x} + \overline{y} \quad | \quad \overline{(x+y)} = \overline{x}\overline{y}$$

Example (1)

□ Apply De Morgan's theorem

$$\overline{WXYZ} = W' + X' + Y' + Z' \quad \overline{W+X+Y+Z} = W' X' Y' Z'$$

$$\overline{(A+B+C)D} = D' + A'B'C'$$

$$\overline{\overline{A}B + \overline{C}D + EF} = (A'+B)(C+D')(E'+F')$$

Example (2)

- $(\overline{A}\overline{B}(C+BD)+\overline{A}\overline{B})C$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (\overline{A}\overline{B}'C + \overline{A}\overline{B}'BD + \overline{A}\overline{B}') C \\ &= \overline{A}\overline{B}'CC + 0 + \overline{A}\overline{B}'C \\ &= (\overline{A}+\overline{A}') \overline{B}'C \\ &= \overline{B}'C \end{aligned}$$

Example (3)

■ $\bar{A}BC + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + \bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C} + A\bar{B}C + ABC$

$$= A'BC + B'C'(A+A') + AC(B+B')$$

$$= A'BC + B'C' + AC$$

$$= (A'B + A)C + B'C'$$

$$= (A' + A)(B + A)C + B'C' \quad [\text{Distributive Law}]$$

$$= AC + BC + B'C'$$

Example (4)

■ $\overline{(AB+AC)} + \bar{A}\bar{B}C$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (A'+B')(A'+C') + A'B'C \\ &= A' + A'C' + A'B' + A'B'C + B'C' \\ &= A' (1+C') + A'B' (1+C) + B'C' \\ &= A' + A'B' + B'C' \quad \text{Null law} \\ &= A' + B'C' \quad \text{Null law} \\ &= (A(B+C))' \end{aligned}$$

Example (5)

$$X + \overline{X}Y = X + Y$$

■ $A\overline{C} + A\overline{B}C + ABCD + AB\overline{D}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= A[(C' + CB') + B(D' + DC)] \\ &= A[(C' + B') + B(D' + C)] \\ &= A[C' + CB + B' + BD'] \\ &= A[C' + B + B' + D'] \\ &= A[C' + 1 + D'] \\ &= A[1 + D'] \\ &= A1 \\ &= A \end{aligned}$$

Example (6)

$$X + \overline{X}Y = X + Y$$

- $(\overline{A} + \overline{B} + \overline{C})(\overline{B} + C)(A + \overline{B})$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (A' + B' + C') (AB' + AC + B' + B'C) \\ &= (A' + B' + C') (AC + AB' + B') \\ &= (A' + B' + C') (AC + B') \text{ [Distributive Law]} \\ &= 0 + A'B' + AB'C + B' + 0 + B'C' \\ &= B' (A' + AC + 1 + C') \\ &= B' (A' + C + 1) \\ &= B' (A' + 1) \\ &= B' \end{aligned}$$

Revisiting and Simplifying the Example on Programming

```
while ((A && B) || (A && !B)) || !A)
{
    // do something
}
```

=

```
while (1)
```

```
{
```

```
    // do something
```

```
}
```

$$\begin{aligned} &= AB + AB' + A' \\ &= A(B + B') + A' \\ &= A(1) + A' \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Boolean Algebra: Standardization

- Through our exercises in simplifying Boolean expressions, we see that there are **more than one ways to express the same Boolean function**.
 - These “synonymous” forms are *logically equivalent*.
 - Logically equivalent expressions could produce confusions

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

- In order **to eliminate the confusion**, designers express Boolean expression in a unified and *standardized* form, called ***canonical form***.

Boolean Algebra: Minterm and Maxterm

X AND Y			X OR Y		
X	Y	XY	X	Y	X+Y
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	1

□ Some books uses sum-of-minterms form and product-of-maxterms form

■ A minterm is a logical expression of n variables that employs only the **complement** operator and the **product** operator.

□ For example, abc , $ab'c$ and abc' are 3 minterms for a Boolean function of the three variables a, b, and c.

■ A maxterm is a logical expression of n variables that employs only the **complement** operator and the **sum** operator.

Each variable appears only once in each minterm. Only one minterm based on all variables will be ON/1. Conversely, all but one terms will be OFF/0.

Each variable appears only once in each maxterm. Only one maxterm based on all variables will be OFF/0. Conversely, all but one terms will be ON/1.

2D Truth Table

	<u>x+y</u>	
x\y	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	1

Logic Reduction: Minterm / Maxterm

- Example using Karnaugh (K) map

Out = ABC
Minterm = ABC
Numeric = 1 1 1

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0

Out = ABC

Out = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C}$
Minterm = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C}$
Numeric = 0 1 0

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	0

Out = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C}$

Out = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C} + ABC$

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	0	0	1
1	0	0	1	0

Numeric = 0 1 0 1 1 1
Minterm = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C}$ ABC
Out = $\bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C} + ABC$

Out = (A + B + C)
Maxterm = A + B + C
Numeric = 1 1 1
Complement = 0 0 0

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

Out = (A + B + C)(A + B + \bar{C})
Maxterm = (A + B + C) Maxterm = (A + B + \bar{C})
Numeric = 1 1 1 Numeric = 1 1 0
Complement = 0 0 0 Complement = 0 0 1

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

Out = (A + B + C)(A + B + \bar{C})

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

A B C = 0 0 x
Complement = 1 1 x
Sum-term = (A + B)
Out = (A + B)

Out = ($\bar{A} + \bar{B} + \bar{C}$)
Maxterm = $\bar{A} + \bar{B} + \bar{C}$
Numeric = 0 0 0
Complement = 1 1 1

BC	00	01	11	10
A				
0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	1

Boolean Algebra: Standardization

- There are two canonical forms for Boolean expressions: **sum-of-products** and **product-of-sums**.
 - Boolean product (**x**) → **AND** → logical conjunction operator
 - Boolean sum (**+**) → **OR** → logical conjunction operator
- In the **sum-of-products form**, ANDed variables are **ORed together**.

The example below is SOP but not SOM. Every minterm is a product, opposite may not be true. A simple form is non-unique. SOM help us to find minimal simple form which almost becomes a unique simple form.

 - For example: $F(x, y, z) = xy + xz + yz$
- In the **product-of-sums form**, ORed variables are **ANDed together**.

The example below is POS but not POM. A maxterm is a sum, opposite may not be true. A simple form is non-unique. SOM help us to find minimal simple form which almost becomes a unique simple form.

 - For example: $F(x, y, z) = (x+y)(x+z)(y+z)$

Create Canonical Form Via Truth Table ('Cont)

- Look at this example:

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

$$= (\bar{x}\bar{y}\bar{z}) + (\bar{x}yz) + (x\bar{y}\bar{z}) + (x\bar{y}z) + (xy\bar{z}) + (xyz)$$

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

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

$(\bar{x}\bar{y}\bar{z})$

$(\bar{x}yz)$

$(x\bar{y}\bar{z})$

$(x\bar{y}z)$

(xyz)

- It may not be the simplest form. But, it is the standard **sum-of-products canonical form**

$$X + \overline{X}Y = X + Y$$

Exercise

□ **Convert** $ABC + A'BC + AB'C + A'B'C + ABC'$ **to its simplest form**

$$\begin{aligned} ABC + A'BC + AB'C + A'B'C + ABC' &= BC(A + A') + B'C(A + A') + ABC' \\ &= BC1 + B'C1 + ABC' \\ &= C(B + B') + ABC' \\ &= C + ABC' \\ &= C + AB \end{aligned}$$

Distributivity

$$\begin{aligned} C + AB &= (C + AB)(C + C') \\ &= C + 0 + ABC + ABC' = C(1 + AB) + ABC' \\ &= C1 + ABC' = C + ABC' \end{aligned}$$

Exercise

□ Convert $AB + C$ to the sum-of-products form

$$\begin{aligned}
 AB &= AB \cdot 1 && \text{By Th4} \\
 &= AB \cdot (C + C') && \text{By Th 15} \\
 &= ABC + ABC' && \text{By distributive law} \\
 &= CBA + C'BA && \text{By associative law}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= C \cdot 1 && \text{By Th4} \\
 &= C \cdot (A + A') && \text{By Th15} \\
 &= CA + CA' && \text{By distributive law} \\
 &= CA \cdot 1 + CA' \cdot 1 && \text{By Th4} \\
 &= CA \cdot (B + B') + CA' \cdot (B + B') && \text{By Th15} \\
 &= CAB + CAB' + CA'B + CA'B' && \text{By distributive law} \\
 &= CBA + CBA' + CB'A + CB'A' && \text{By associative law}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 AB+C &= (CBA + C'BA) + (CBA + CBA' + CB'A + CB'A') \\
 &= CBA + CBA' + CB'A + CB'A' + C'BA
 \end{aligned}$$

$$ABC + A'BC + AB'C + A'B'C + ABC'$$

Converting b/w Canonical Forms: by examples

when you want o/p logic **high**

SOP/SOM

x	y	F = $xy' + x'y$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Alternate representations by Cx1

using DeMorgan's Law

$$F = (xy' + x'y)' = (x' + y)(x + y')$$

1) Complementing
algebraic function

2) Complementing logic values

when you want o/p logic **low**

POS/POM

x	y	F' = $(x' + y)(x + y')$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

x	y	z	F = $xyz + xyz' + x'yz + x'yz' + xy'z + xy'z'$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

$$\implies F = y + xy' = x + y$$

$$\implies F' = x'y' = x'y'z' + x'y'z$$

$$\implies F = (x'y'z' + x'y'z)'$$

Dual representations by Cx2

x	y	z	F' = $x'y'$
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

SOP/SOM = (SOP')'
= Complement ("another") SOP

"another" SOP/SOM

when you want o/p logic **low**

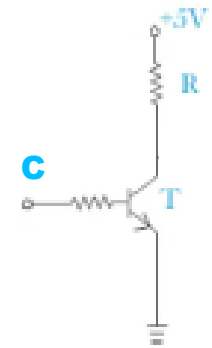
3.3 Digital Logic Gates

- We've seen Boolean functions in abstract terms.
- You may still ask:
 - *How could Boolean function be used in computer?*
- In reality, Boolean functions are implemented as digital circuits, which called *Logic Gates*.
- A logic gate is an **electronic device** that produces a result based on input values.
 - A logic gate may contain multiple transistors, but, we think them as **one integrated unit**.
 - **Integrated circuits** (IC) contain collections of gates, for a particular purpose.

Recap:

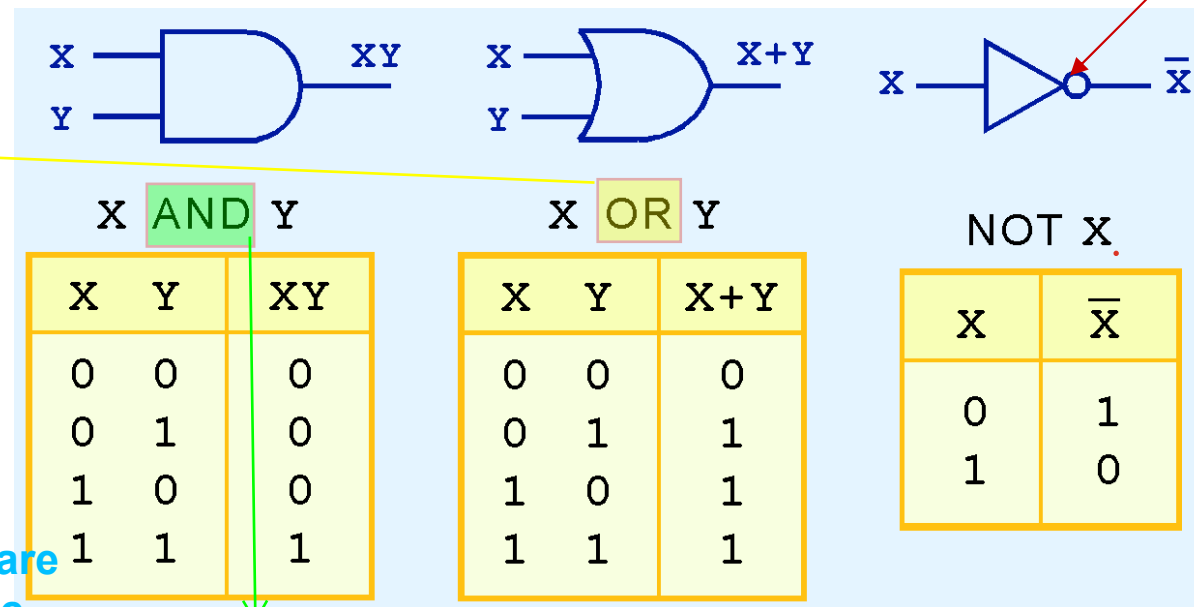
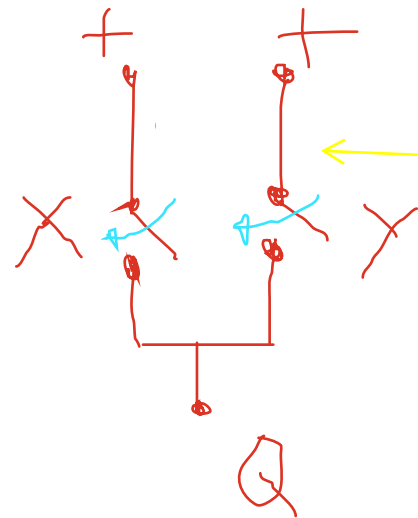
Transistor is an electronic switch!

Normally open mechanical switch **pressed** = transistor switched **on** = current can flow



AND, OR, and NOT Gates

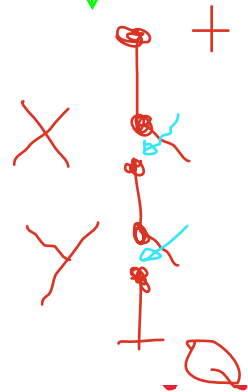
- Three simplest gates are the **AND**, **OR**, and **NOT** gates. Their symbol and truth tables are shown below.



"inversion bubble"

Normally closed switch is used in NOT logic circuit implementation.

Normally open switches are used in AND and OR logic circuit implementations.



NAND/NOR Gates

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

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

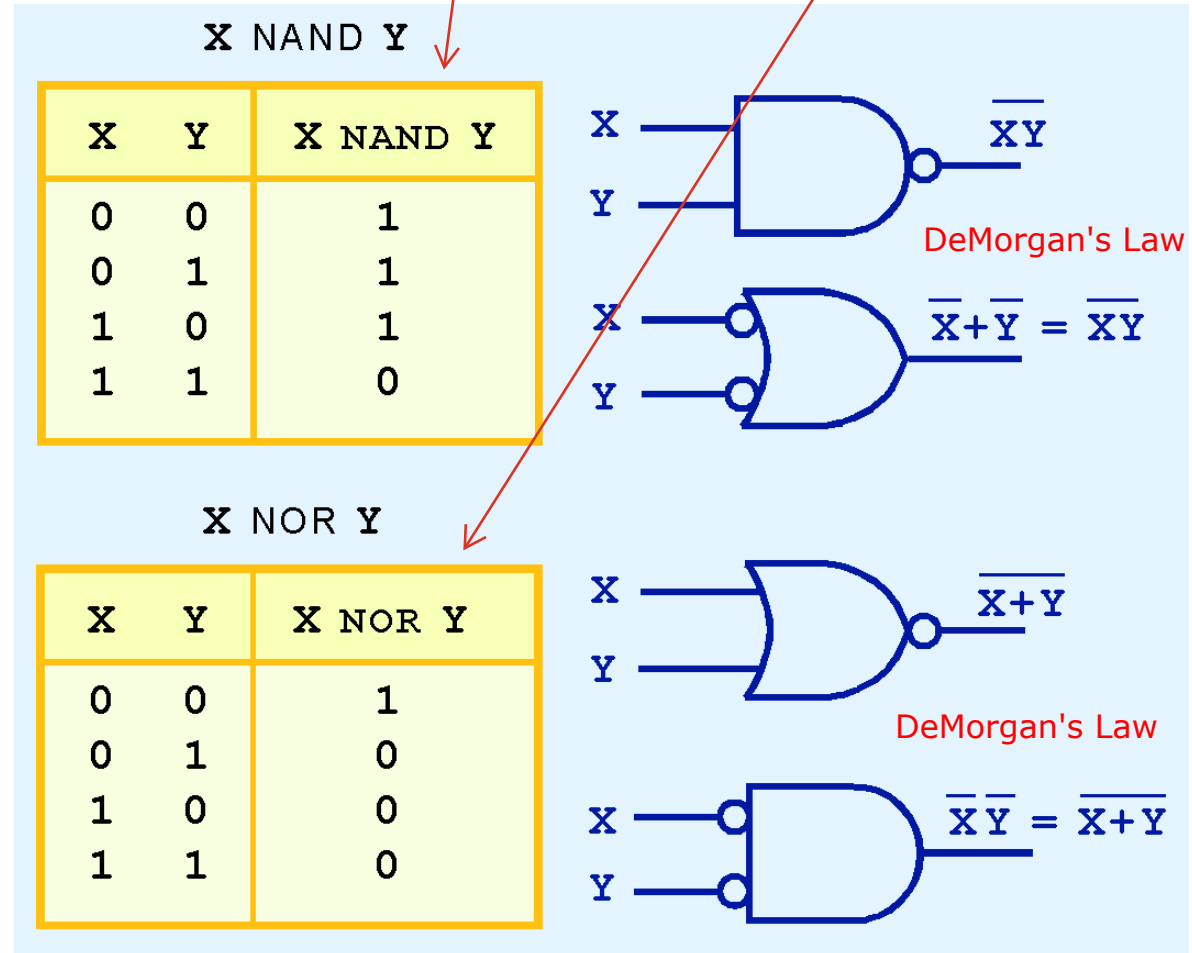
SOP <--> POS

□ **NAND** and **NOR** are two additional gates.

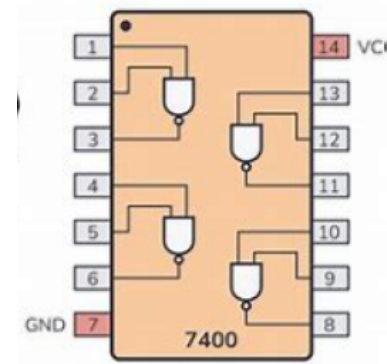
■ Their symbols and truth tables are shown on the right.

□ **NAND = NOT AND**

□ **NOR = NOT OR**



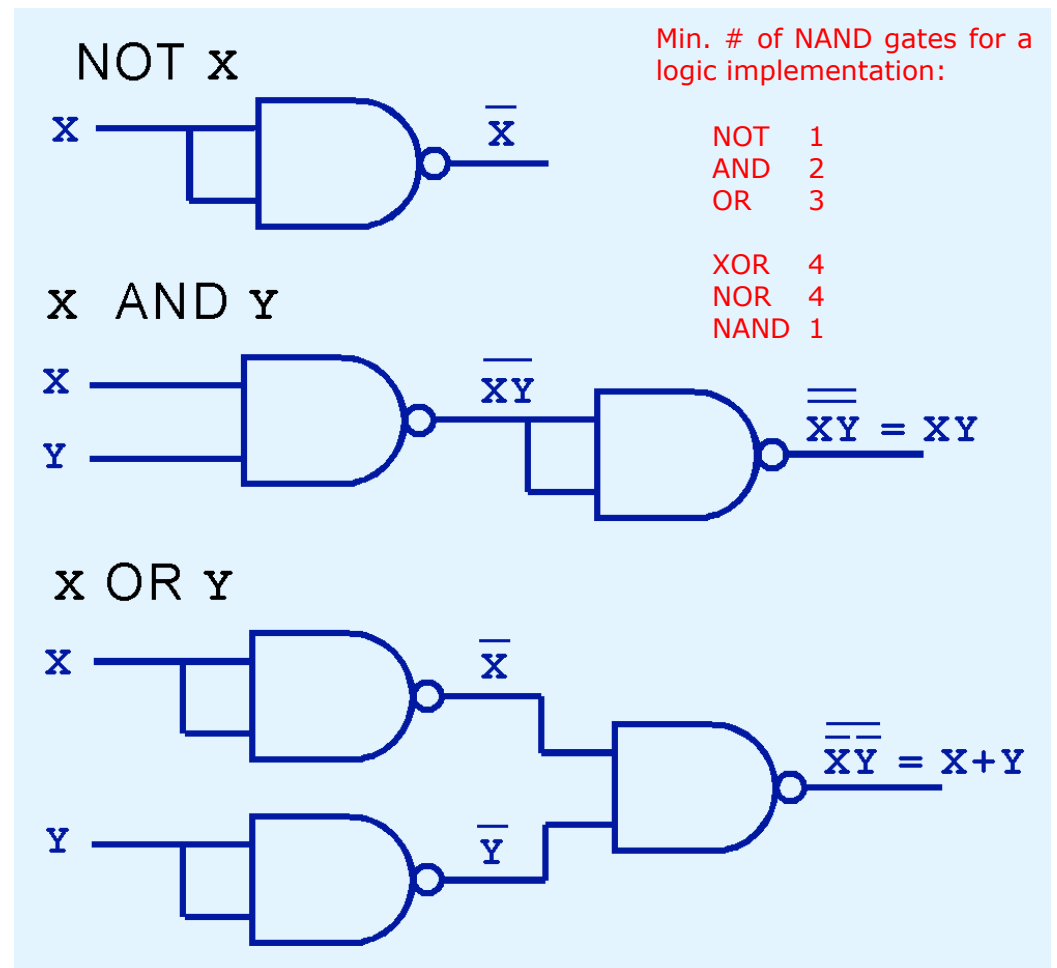
The Application of NAND/NOR Gates



□ NAND and NOR are known as universal gates! – gates of all gates

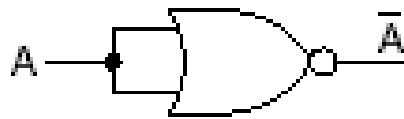
■ They are inexpensive to produce

□ More important: Any Boolean function can be constructed using only **NAND** or only **NOR** gates.

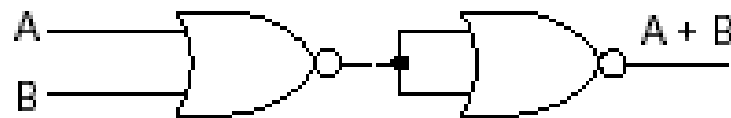


The Universal Gates: NOR Gate

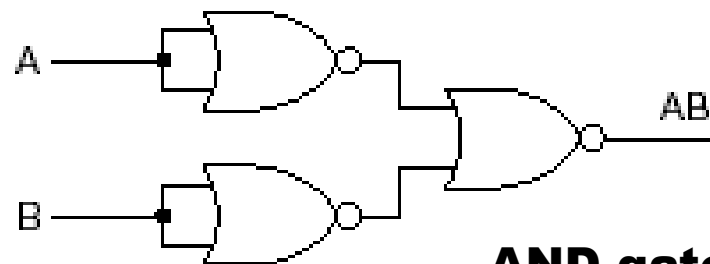
□ Using **NOR** gate to construct **AND**, **OR**, and **NOT** gates



Not gate



OR gate

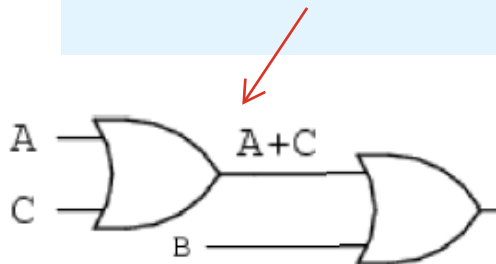
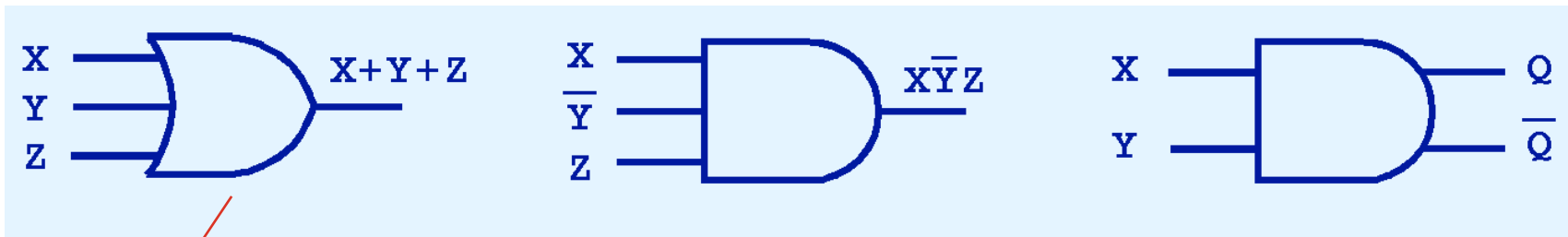


AND gate

logic	Min # NANDs	Min # NORs
NOT	1	1
AND	2	3
OR	3	2
XOR	4	4
NOR	4	1
NAND	1	4

Multiple Input/Output Gates

- The gates could have **multiple inputs** and/or **multiple outputs**.
 - The second output can be provided as the **complement** of the first output.
 - We'll see more integrated circuits, which have multiple inputs/outputs.

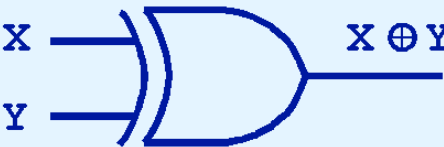


We construct MIMO gates as special circuits to simplify design process!

XOR Gates

- Another very useful gate is the **Exclusive OR (XOR)** gate.
- The output of the XOR operation is true (**1**) only when the values of inputs are different.

X XOR Y		
X	Y	$X \oplus Y$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



$$\begin{aligned}x \text{ XOR } y \\&= x' y + x y' \\&= (x+y) (x'+y')\end{aligned}$$

Can you implement an XOR gate?
Try it!

- The symbol for XOR is \oplus

Parity generator / checker

- ❑ Electrical **noise** in the transmission of binary information can **cause errors**
- ❑ **Parity can detect** these types of errors
- ❑ Parity systems
 - Odd parity
 - Even parity
- ❑ **Add a bit** to the binary information

Even parity check

□ Even parity check

□ Example: input: A(7...0), Output: even_parity bit

- If there are even numbers of 1 in A, even_parity = '0',
- If there are odd numbers of 1 in A, even_parity = '1'

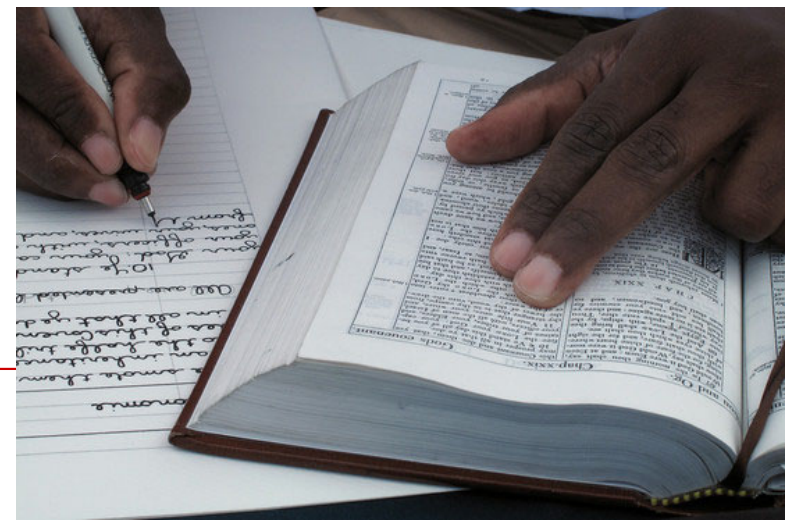
e.g., A = "10100001",

even_parity = '1'

A = "10100011",

even_parity = '0'

Odd parity check



❑ Odd parity check

❑ Example: input: $A(7..0)$, Output: odd_parity bit

- If there are odd numbers of 1 in A ,
odd_parity = '0',
- If there are even numbers of 1 in A ,
odd_parity = '1'

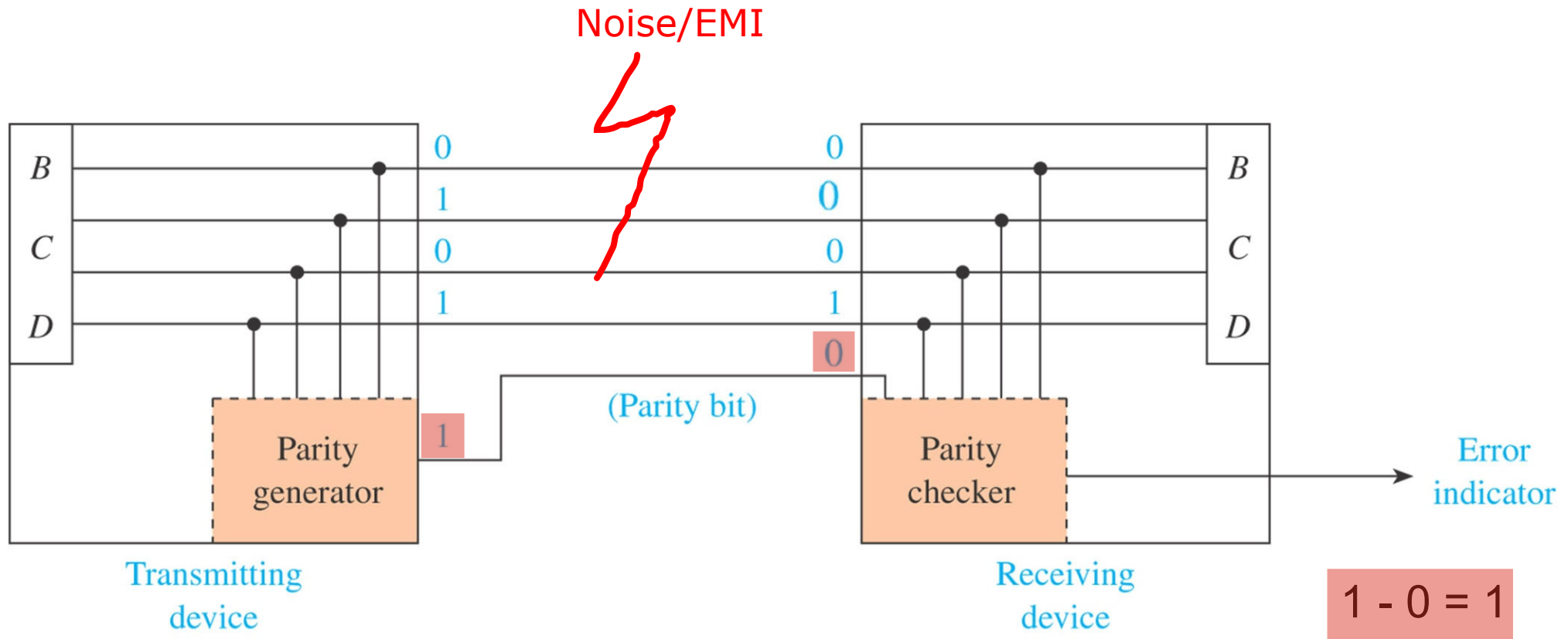
e.g., $A = "10100001"$,

odd_parity = '0'

$A = "10100011"$,

odd_parity = '1'

Odd-parity generator/checker system



Error detection

- ❑ **Transmitting end:** The parity generator creates the parity bit.
 - ❑ **Receiving end:** The parity checker determines if the parity is correct.
 - ❑ e.g., odd-parity check of 8-bit data
 - Data send: 10111101 + 1
 - Data received: 101011010
- odd-parity check: The number of 1's sent were even BUT received odd numbered → *ERROR*

Discussion point

- ❑ What are **disadvantages** of even parity (or odd parity) check to detect transmission errors? Consider the following case:
 - Protocol: 8-bit plus one even parity bit
 - Information sent: 11011100 + 1
 - Information received: 10010100 + 1
- ❑ The parity generator/checker system **detects only one error** that occur to 1 bit.

Parity check using XOR

- **$N-1$ XOR gates** can be **cascaded** to form a circuit with **N inputs** and a single output – *even-parity circuit*.

■ Example: $N=8$, Inputs=10111101, *even-parity output*

$$= ((\overset{1}{1} \oplus \overset{0}{0}) \oplus (\overset{1}{1} \oplus \overset{1}{1})) \oplus ((\overset{0}{1} \oplus \overset{1}{1}) \oplus (\overset{0}{0} \oplus \overset{1}{1})) = 0$$

- **Odd-parity check circuit: *even-parity check circuit* → Inverted → Odd-parity check**

■ Example: $N=8$, Inputs=10111101, *odd-parity output*

$$= \text{NOT}(((1 \oplus 0) \oplus (1 \oplus 1)) \oplus ((1 \oplus 1) \oplus (0 \oplus 1))) = 1$$

Two Types of Logic Circuits

□ Combinational Logic Circuit (*CLC*)

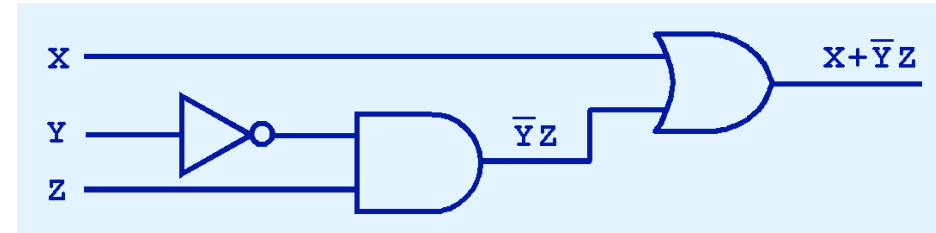
- *Good at designing computational components in the CPU, such as ALU*

□ Sequential Logic Circuit (*SLC*)

- *Good at designing memory components, such as registers and memory*

as well as Control Unit (CU) and State Machines

3.5 Combinational Circuits



- The circuit implements the Boolean function:

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

- The major characteristics of this kind of circuits:

- The circuit produces an output almost immediately after the inputs are given.

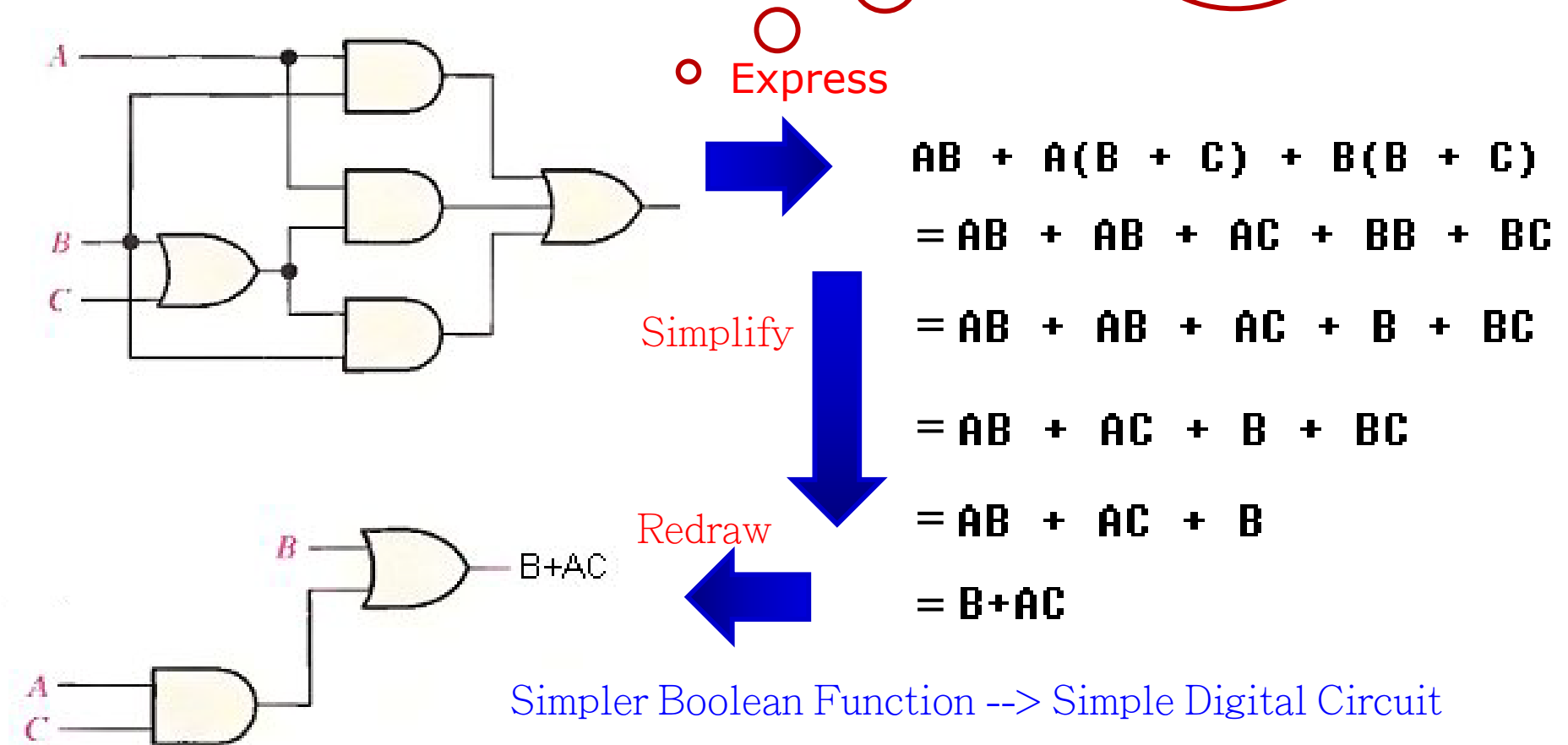
- This kind of circuits are called **combinational logic circuit (CLC)**.

- In a later section, we will explore circuits where this is not the case.

Simplify CLC via Boolean Algebra

Can we simplify this circuit? If yes, then how?

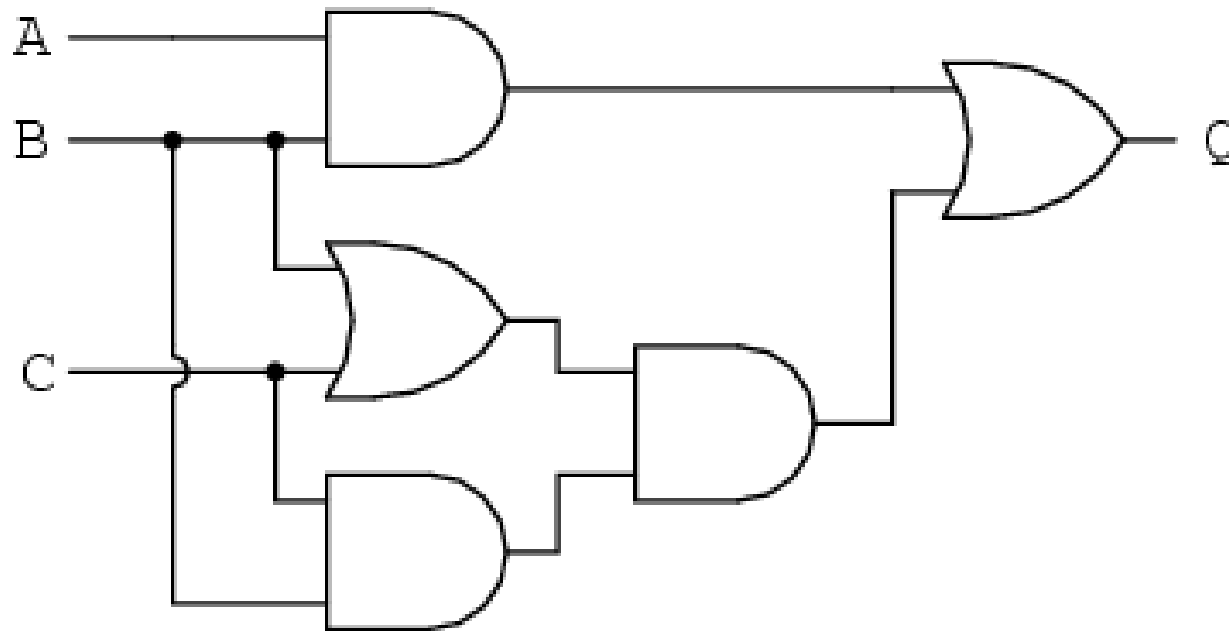
□ Look at this example



Simpler circuits are cheaper → consume less power
→ run faster than complex circuits.

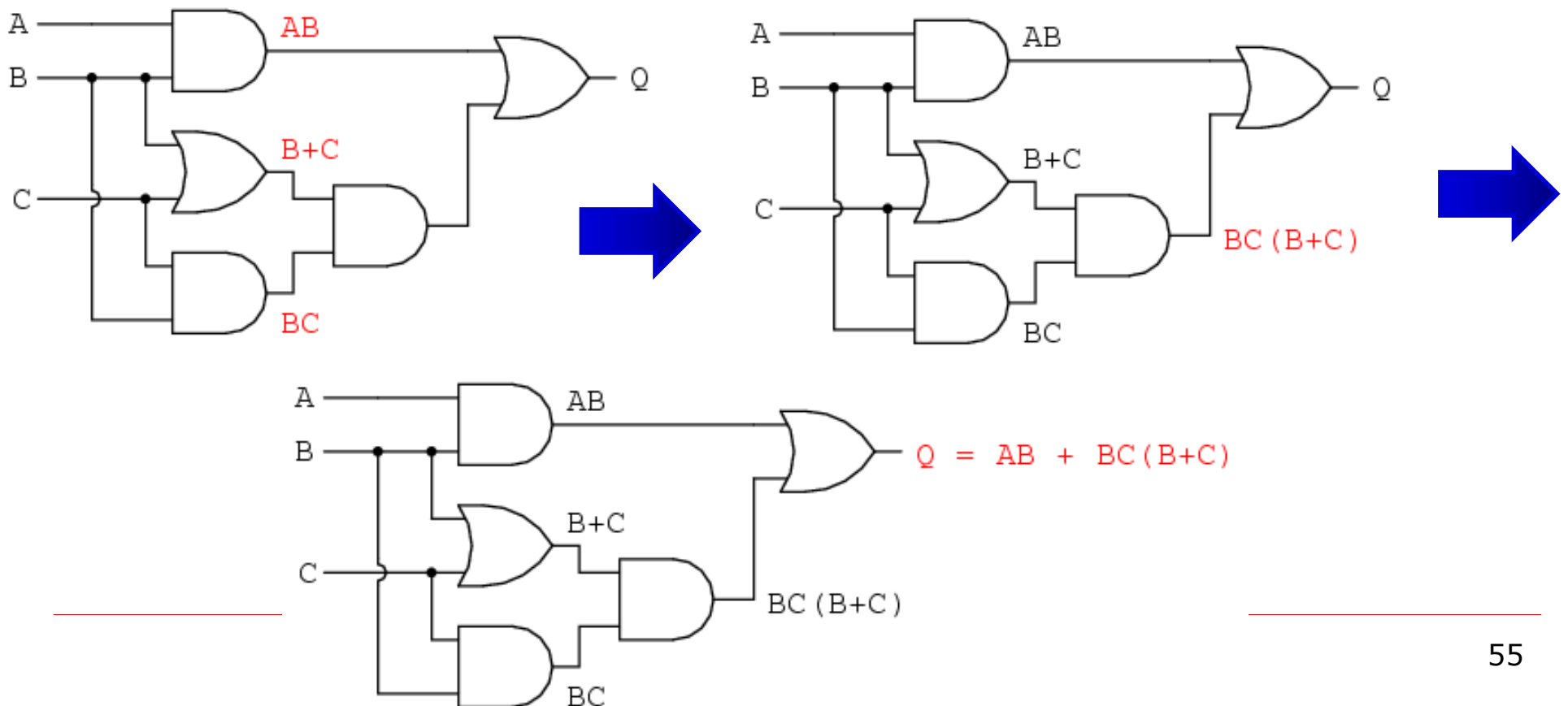
Example of Simplify a Logical Circuit

- Simplify the following circuit



Example of Simplify a Logical Circuit

- **Step1:** Express a logical circuit into a Boolean expression



Example of Simplify a Logical Circuit

- **Step2:** Simplify the Boolean expression as much as possible

$$AB + BC(B + C)$$



Distributing terms

$$AB + BBC + BCC$$



Applying identity $AA = A$
to 2nd and 3rd terms

$$AB + BC + BC$$



Applying identity $A + A = A$
to 2nd and 3rd terms

$$AB + BC$$

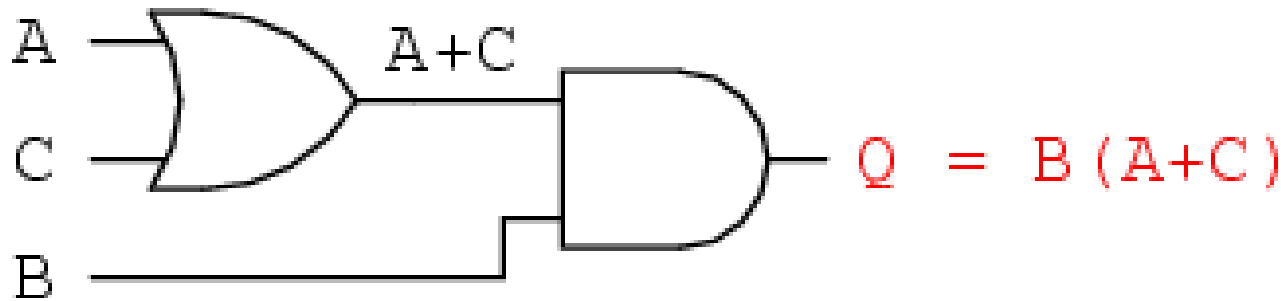


Factoring **B** out of terms

$$B(A + C)$$

Example of Simplify a Logical Circuit

- **Step3:** Re-express the simplified expression back to a circuit

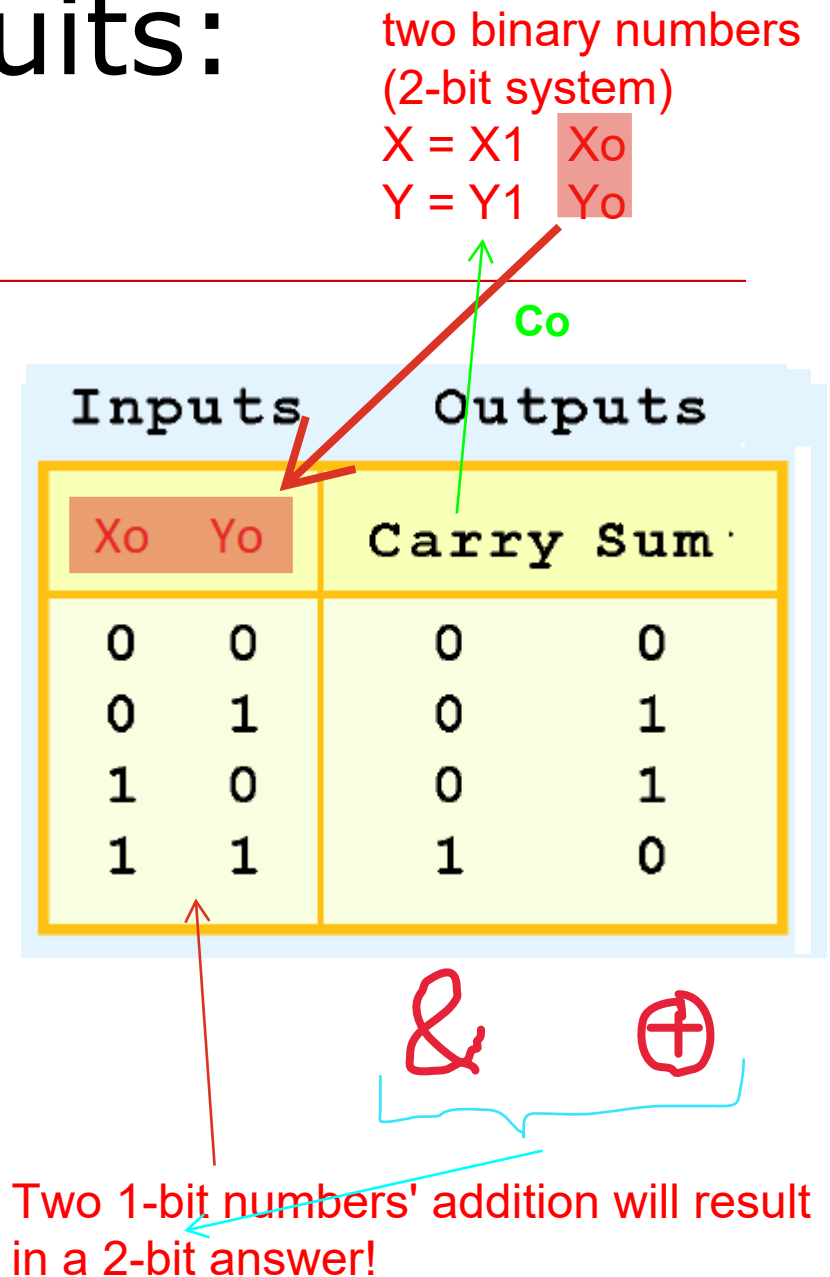


Obviously, the simplified circuit is much simpler than the original one

Combinational Circuits:

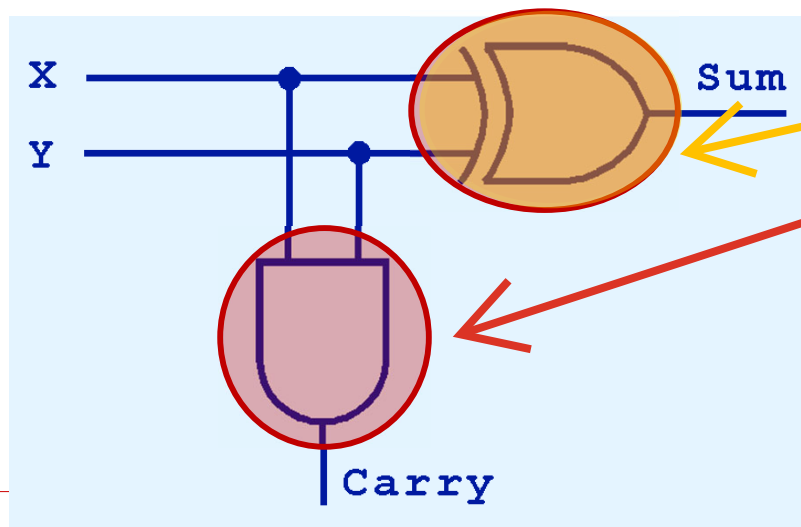
Half (bit) Adder

- Combinational logic circuits can be used to create many useful devices.
- *Half Adder*: Compute the sum of two bits.
- Let's gain some insight of how to construct a half adder by looking at its truth table on the right.



Combinational Circuits: *Half Adder* ('Cont)

- It consists two gates:
 - a **XOR** gate -- the sum bit
 - a **AND** gate -- the carry bit



Inputs		Outputs	
Xo	Yo	Carry	Sum
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

&

⊕

Combinational Circuits:

Full (bit) Adder

two binary numbers
(2-bit system)

X = $\begin{matrix} \text{Co} \\ \text{X1} \end{matrix}$ Xo
Y = $\begin{matrix} \text{Co} \\ \text{Y1} \end{matrix}$ Yo

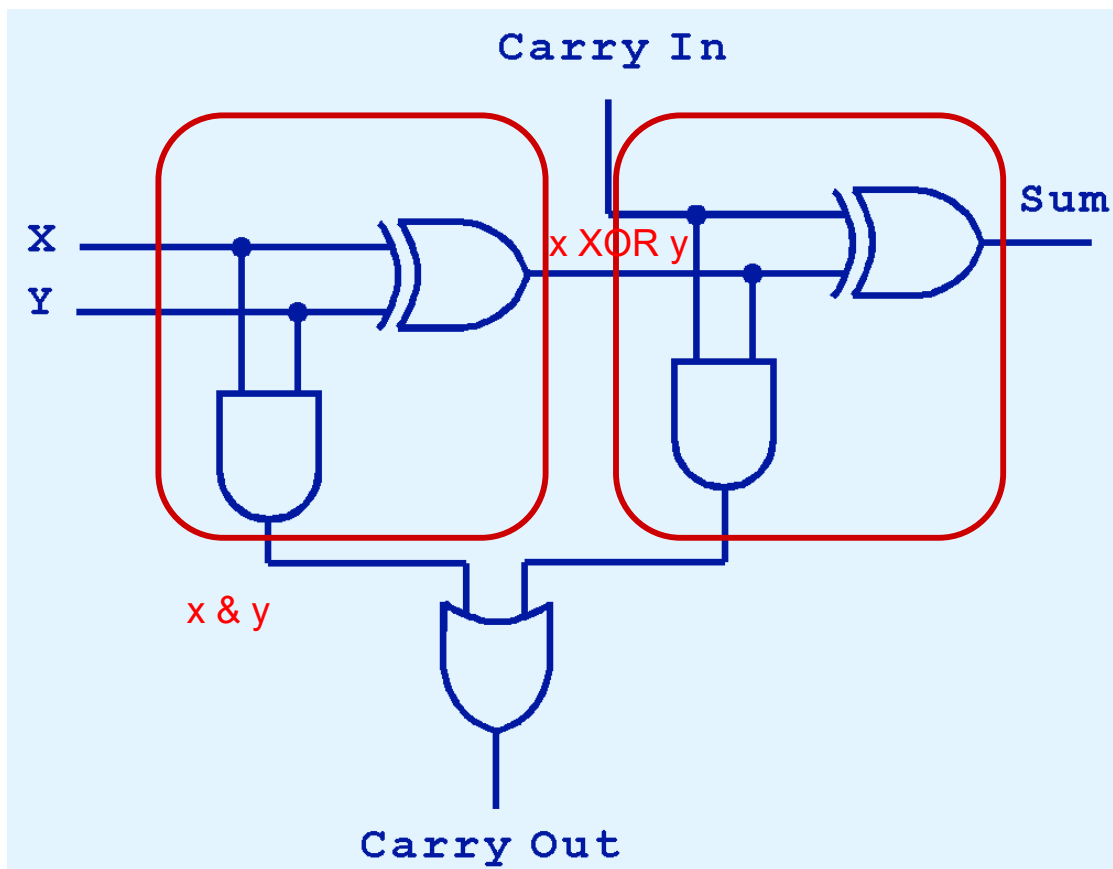
- We can extend the half adder to a full adder, which includes an **additional carry bit (Carry In)**
- The truth table for a full adder is shown on the right.

Inputs			Outputs	
X1	Y1	Carry In(Co)	Sum	Carry Out
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Three 1-bit numbers' addition will
ALSO result in just a 2-bit answer!

The Full Adder (3I-2O circuit)

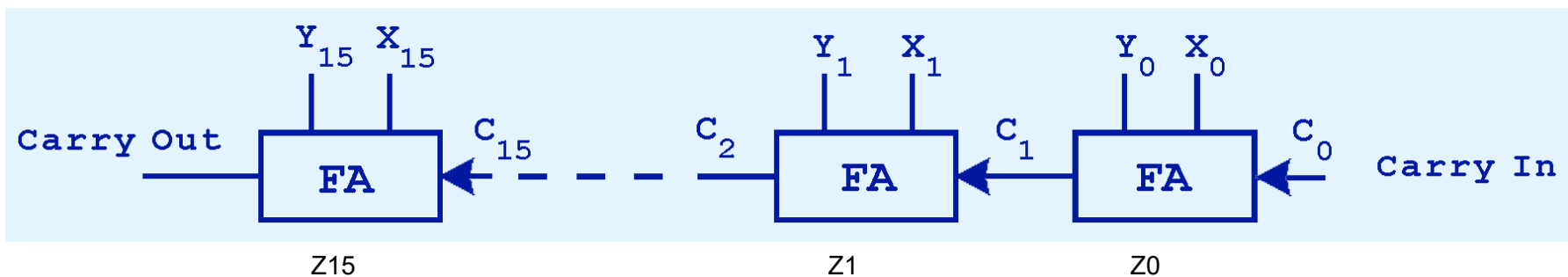
Lower order bits' addition



Inputs			Outputs	
X	Y	Carry In	Sum	Carry Out
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Ripple-carry Adder

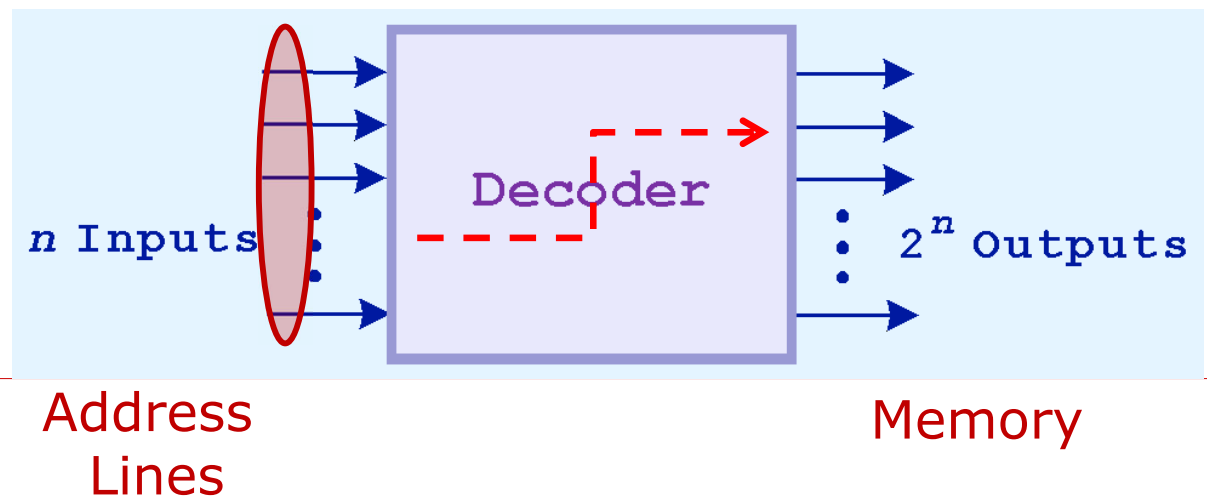
- Just as we combined half adders to construct a full adder, full adders can be connected in series.
- The carry bit “ripples” from one adder to the next. This configuration is called a **ripple-carry adder**.



- This is the full adder for two 16 bits!

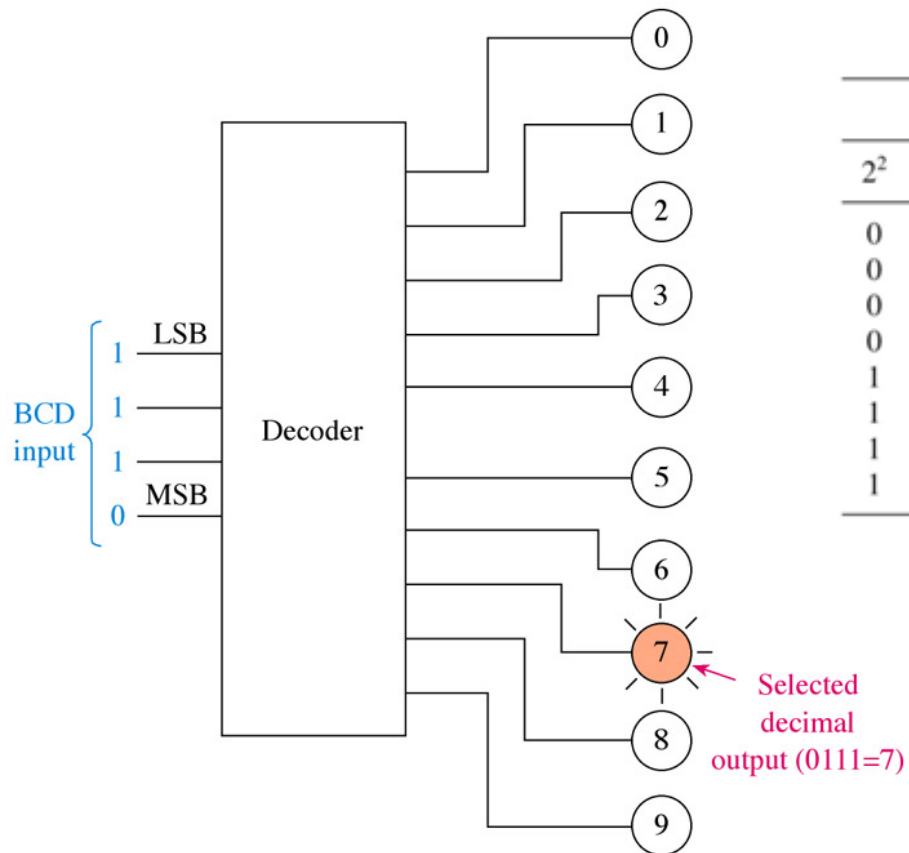
Decoder

- ❑ **Decoder** is another important combinational circuit.
- ❑ It is used to **select a memory location** according a address in binary form
 - Application: given a memory address → Obtain its memory content.
- ❑ Address decoder with n inputs can select one out of 2^n locations.



Not 10 but 4 switches to turn 10 bulbs on/off!!

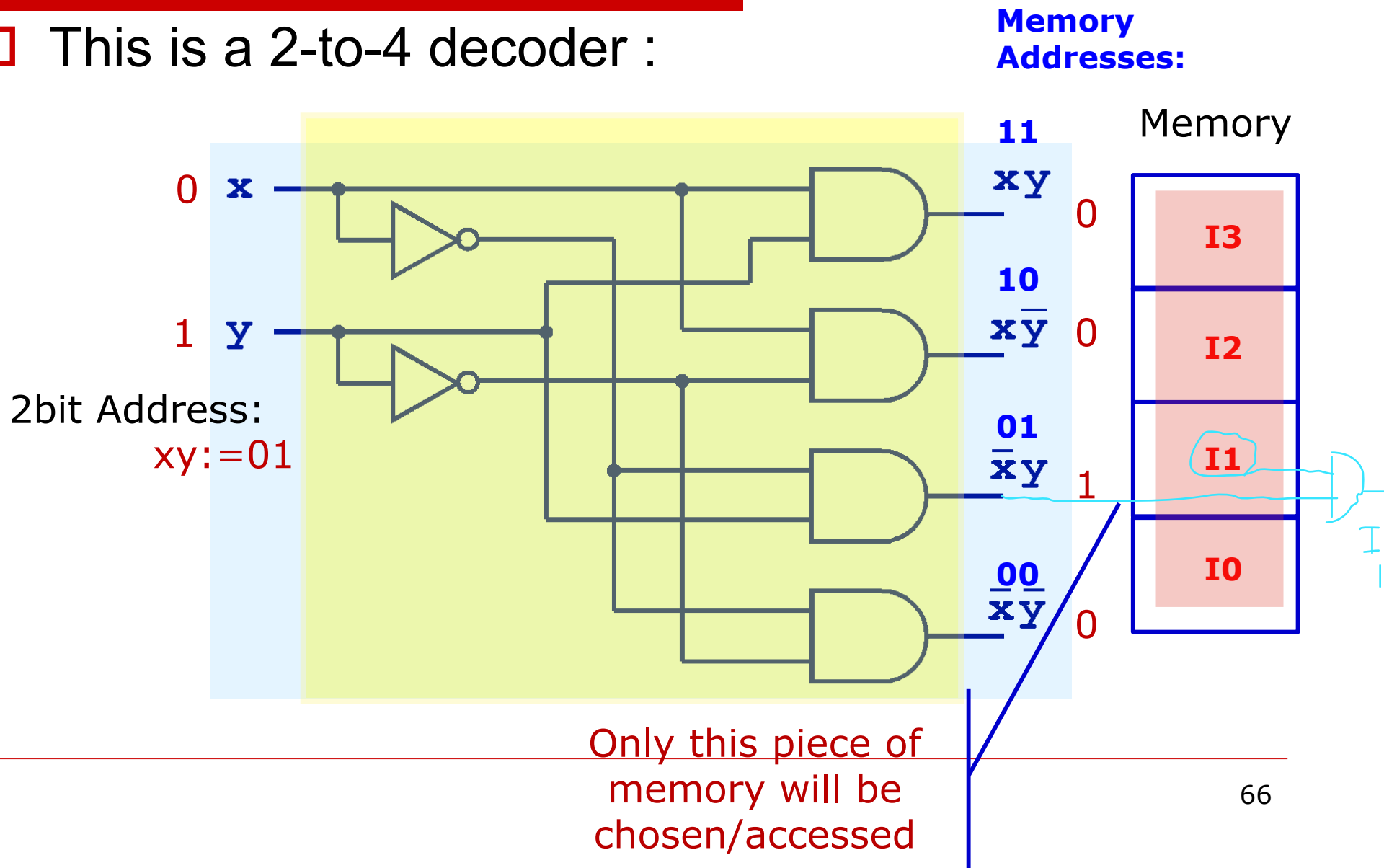
Decoder



Input			Output							
2^2	2^1	2^0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

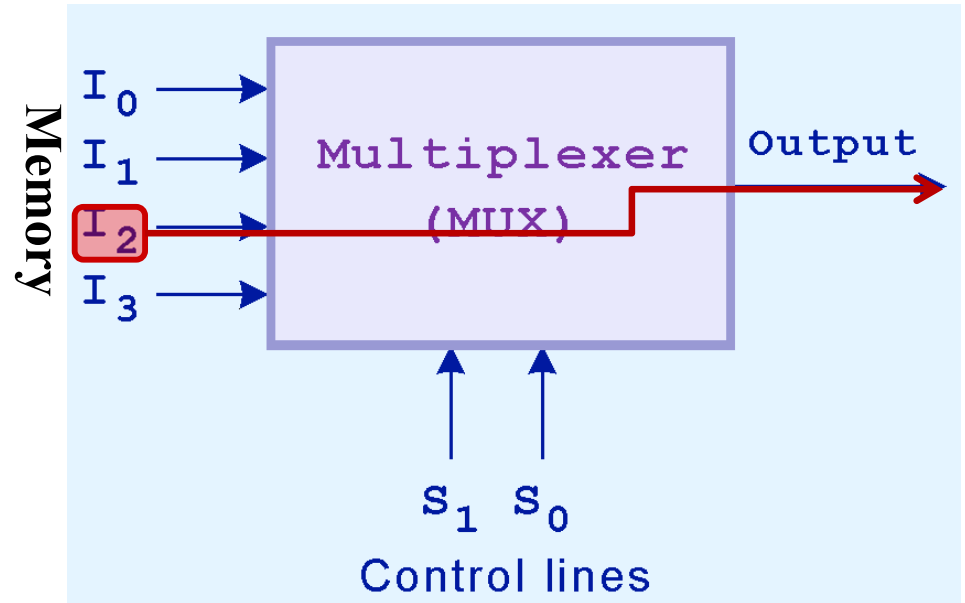
A 2-to-4 Decoder

□ This is a 2-to-4 decoder :



Multiplexer

- ❑ A multiplexer works just **the opposite** to a decoder.
- ❑ It selects a single value from multiple inputs.
- ❑ The chosen input for output is determined by the value of the multiplexer's control lines.
- ❑ To select from **n** inputs, **$\log_2 n$** control lines are required.

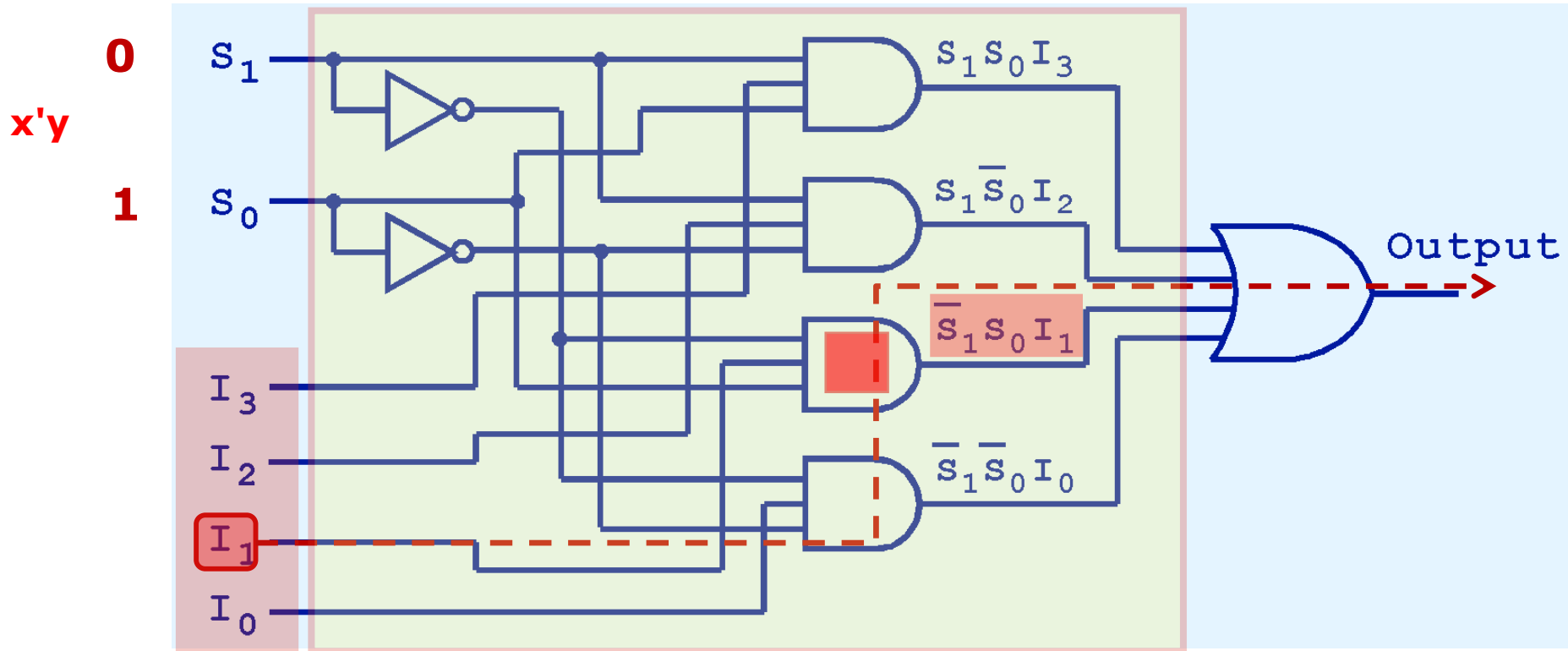


works like a decoder

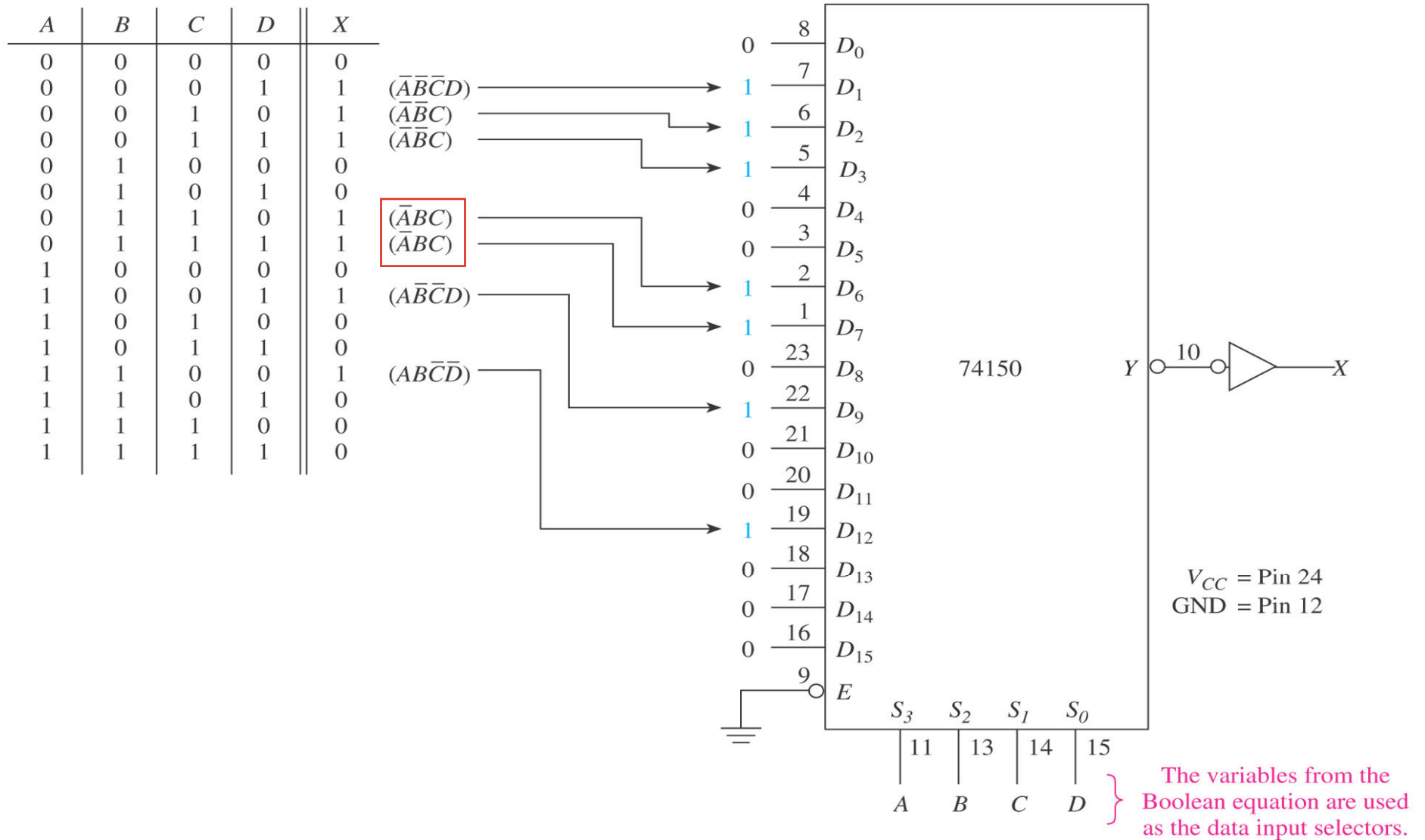
1 0 Address

Combinational Circuits

- Using a 2-to-4 decoder, this is a 4-to-1 multiplexer.



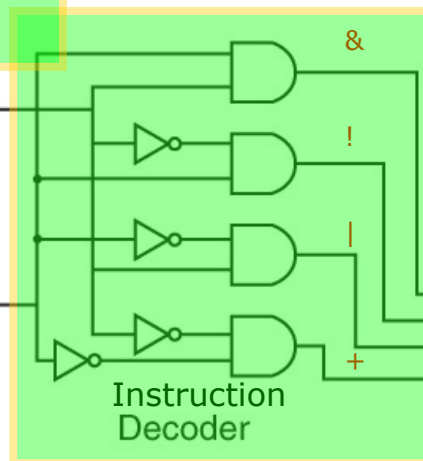
which input is transferred to the output?



Using a multiplexer to implement the Boolean equation

$$X = \bar{A} \bar{B} \bar{C} D + A \bar{B} \bar{C} D + A B \bar{C} \bar{D} + \boxed{\bar{A} B C} + \bar{A} \bar{B} C$$

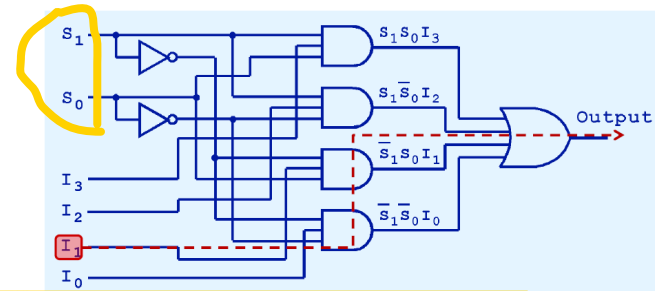
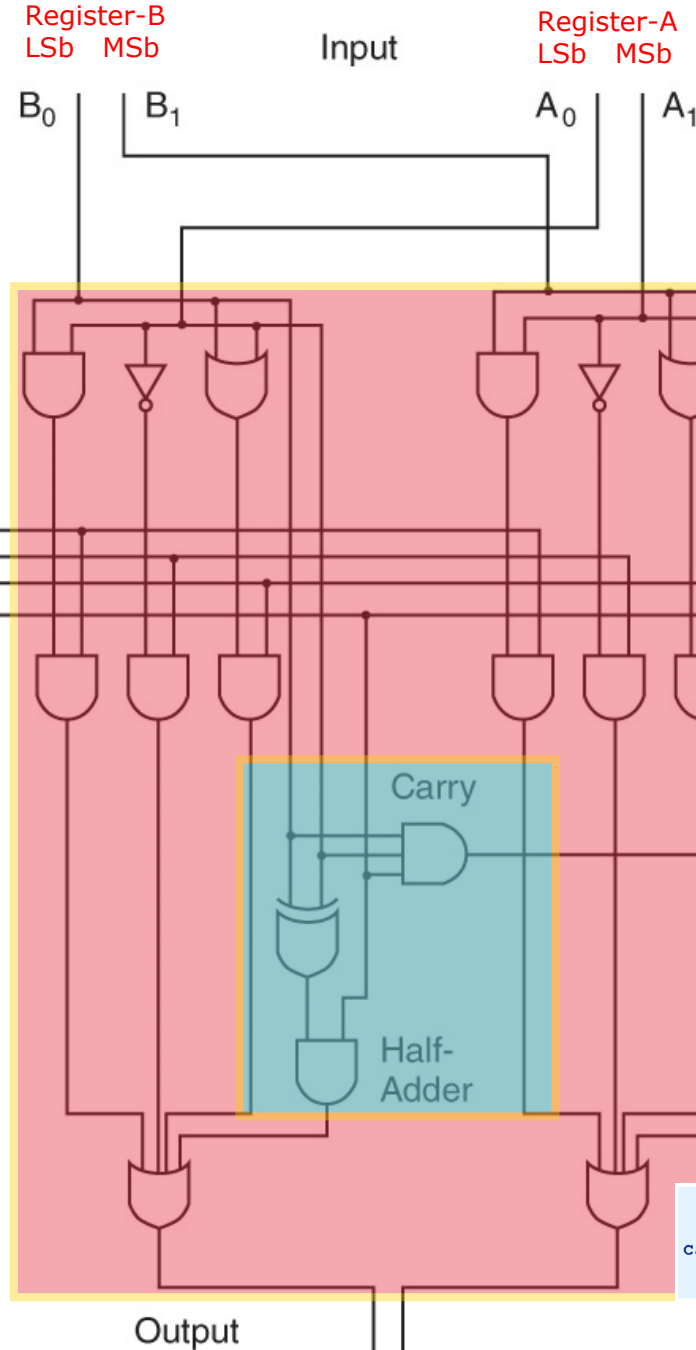
Opcode	Operation
$f_1 f_0$	
1 1	&
1 0	!
0 1	
0 0	+



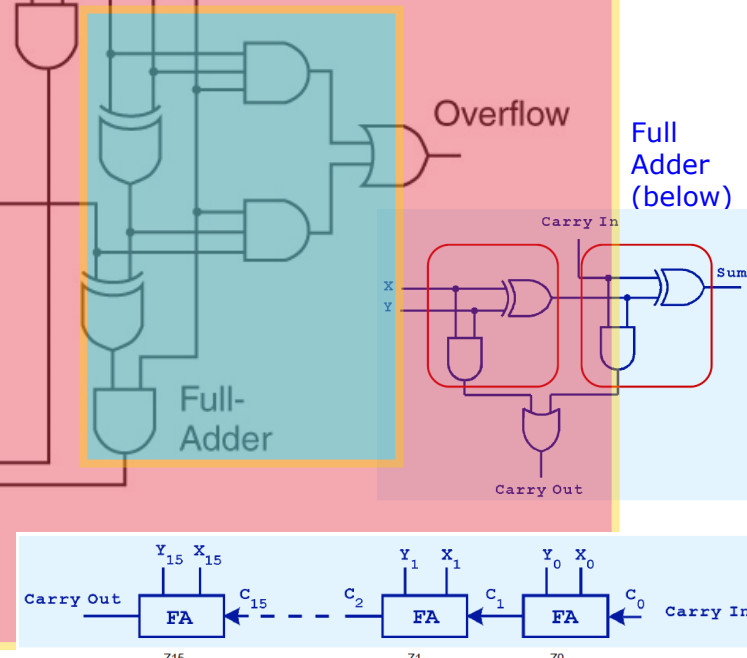
Instruction: Operation+Operand/s
(Opcode) (address)



A Simple Two-Bit ALU

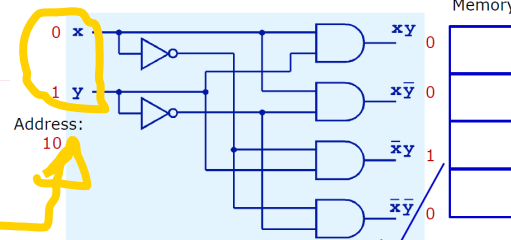


Registers-A&B could be Loaded by reading the memory using a Multiplexer (above) to address a location and route its contents into a register at a time



Ripple-carry Adder (above)

Register-C
LSb MSb



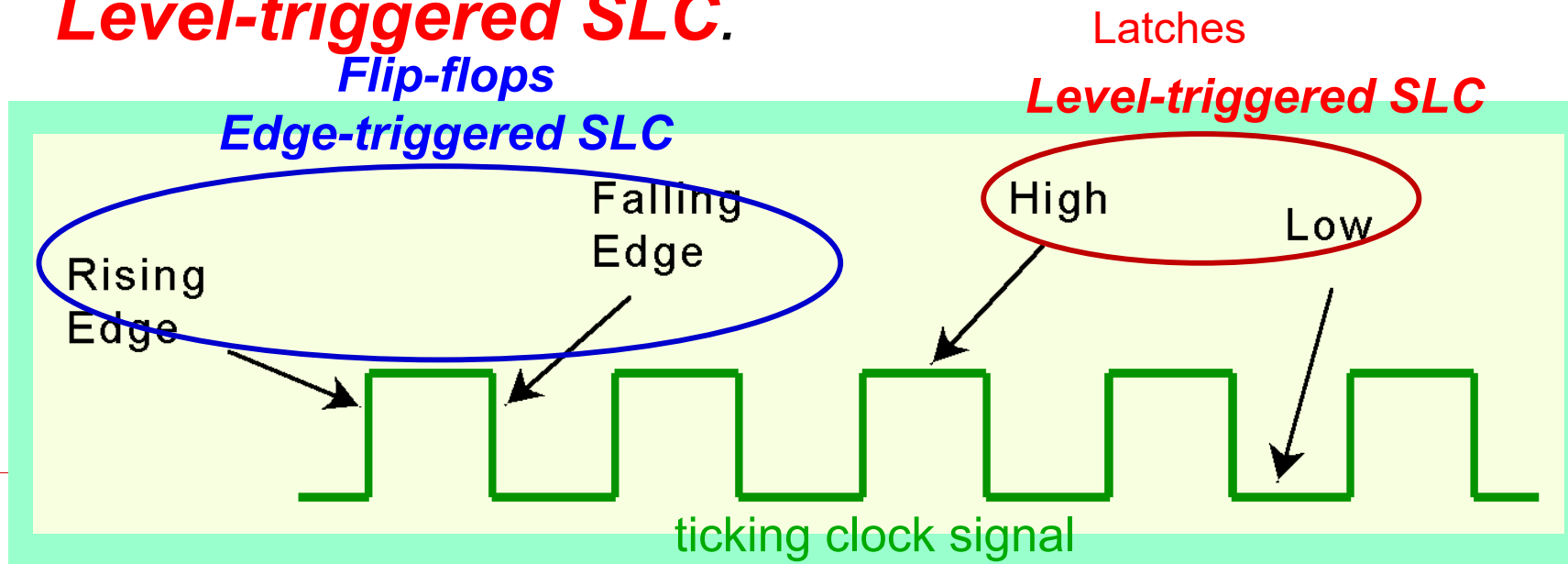
Register-C could be stored by writing to the memory using a Decoder (on left) to address a location

3.6 Sequential Logic Circuits (*SLC*)

- Combinational logic circuits are perfect for those applications when a Boolean function be **immediately evaluated**, given the current inputs.
 - Examples: multiplexer, ripple-carry adder, shifter, etc
 - However, sometimes, we need a kind of circuits that change value by considering **the current inputs** and **its current state**.
 - **Memory** is such an example that requires to remember the current state
 - The circuits need to “**remember**” their states.
 - *Sequential logic circuits* (*SLC*) provide this functionality.
-

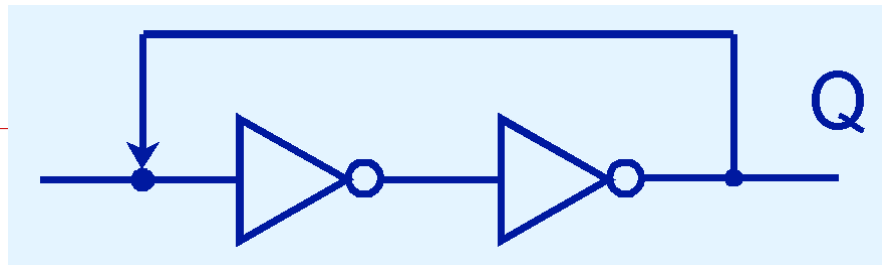
Edge-triggered Or Level-triggered?

- ❑ SLC that changes its state at the rising edge, or the falling edge of the clock pulse is called **Edge-triggered SLC**.
- ❑ SLC that changes its state when the clock voltage reaches to its highest or lowest level are called **Level-triggered SLC**.



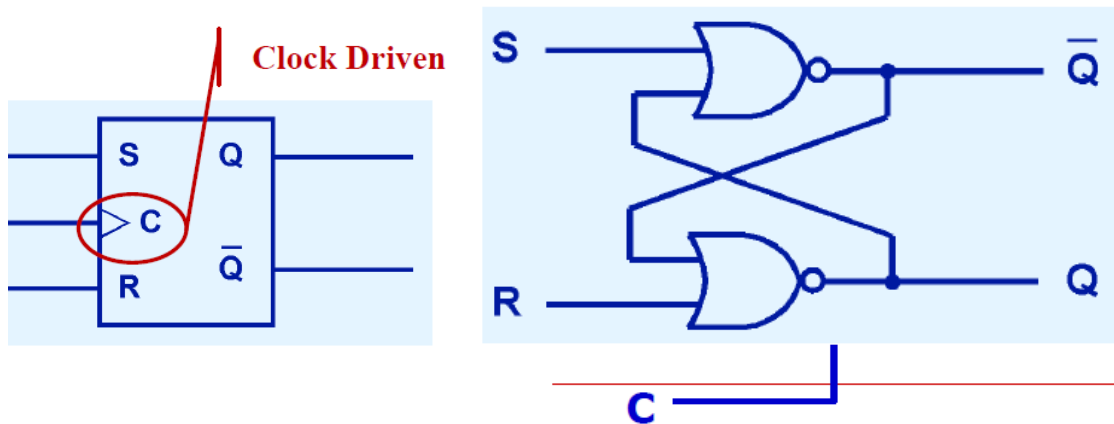
Essential Component Of Sequential Circuits: *Feedback*

- The most important design mechanism of SLC is *Feedback*
 - *Feedback* can retain the state of sequential circuits
- Feedback in digital circuits occurs when an output is looped back as an input.
- A simple example of this concept is shown below.
 - If Q is 0 it will always be 0, if it is 1, it will always be 1. --- *The motivation of Memory!*



Behavior Of An SR Flip-flop

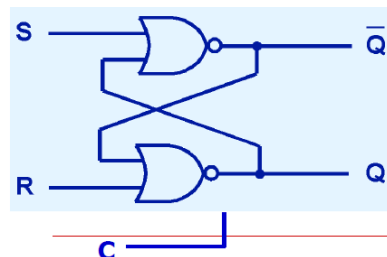
- The behavior of an SR flip-flop is illustrated in the following truth table. Note how feedback works.
 - Let's denote $Q(t)$ as the value of the output at time t , and
 - Denote $Q(t+1)$ is the value of Q at time $t+1$.



S	R	$Q(t+1)$
0	0	$Q(t)$ (no change)
0	1	0 (reset to 0)
1	0	1 (set to 1)
1	1	undefined

SR Flip-flop Truth Table

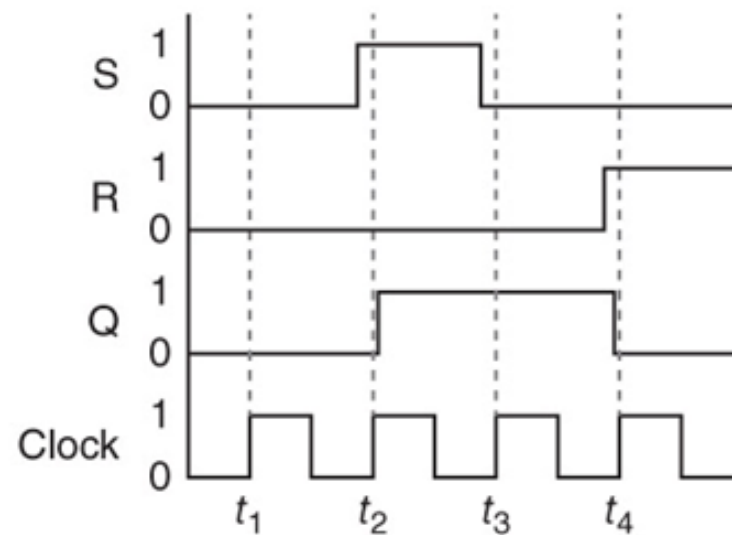
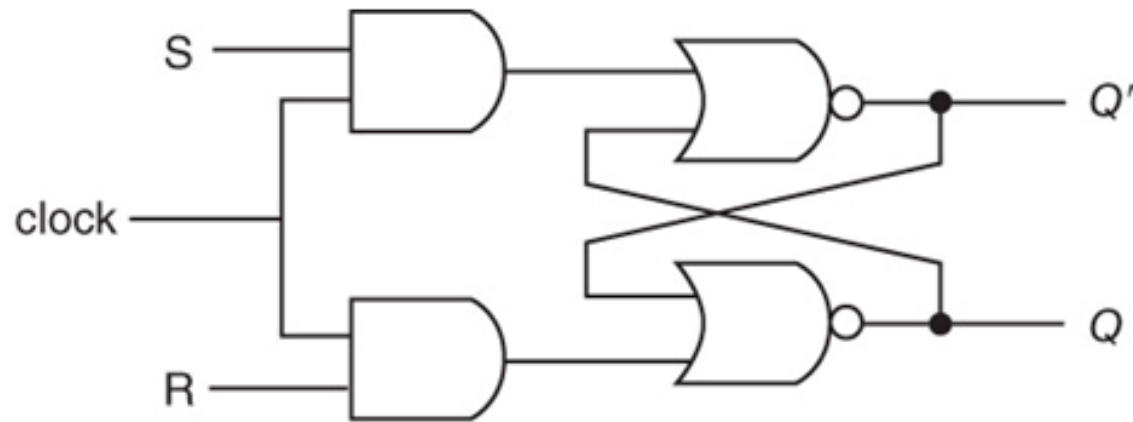
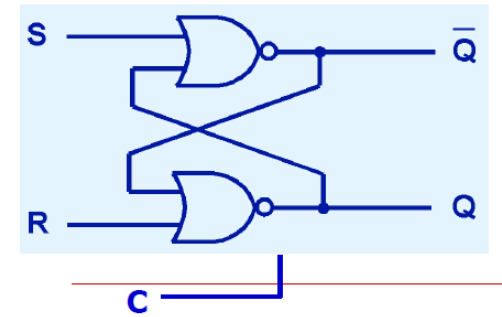
- We consider $Q(t)$, its current output, as the third input for SR flip-flop, besides S and R.
- The truth table for this circuit, as shown on the right.
- When both S and R are 1, the SR flip-flop is in forbidden state



Present State			Next State	
S	R	$Q(t)$	$Q(t+1)$	
0	0	0	0	$Q(t+1) = Q(t)$
0	0	1	1	
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	
1	0	0	1	1
1	0	1	1	
1	1	0	undefined	$Q=Q'=0$
1	1	1	undefined	

forbidden state

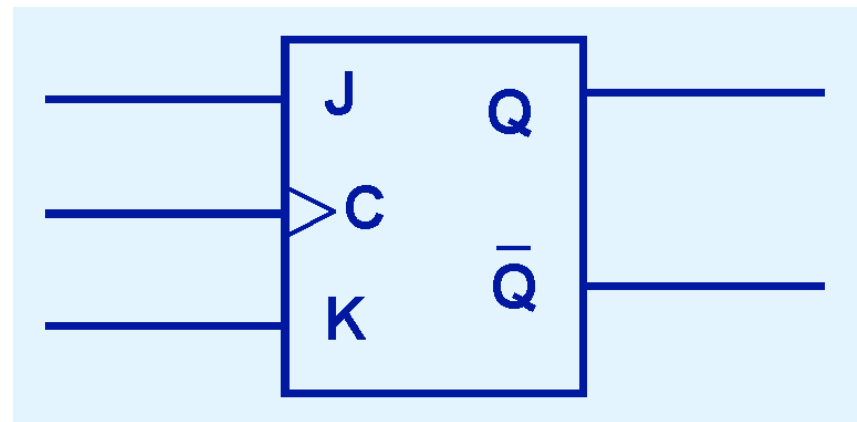
Clocked SR Flip-flop

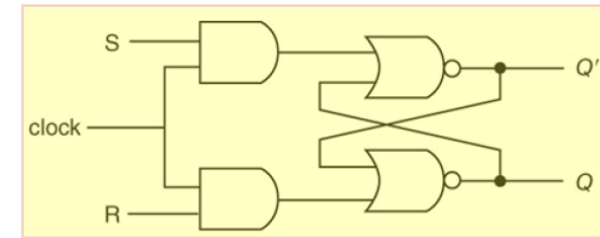
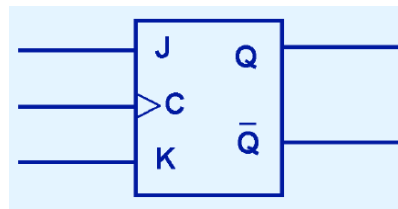


clock (rising edge)
enables S or R!

JK Flip-flop

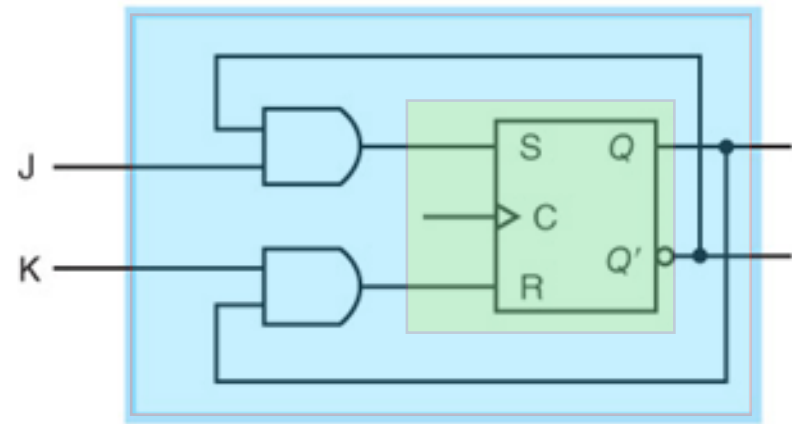
- ❑ One limitation of SR flip-flop is that, when S and R are both 1, the output is *undefined*.
 - This is not nice because it wastes a state
 - ❑ Therefore, SR flip-flop can be modified to provide a stable state when both S and R inputs are 1.
-
- This modified flip-flop is called a **JK flip-flop**, shown on the right.
 - The “JK” is in honor of Jack Kilby.





3.6 Sequential Circuits

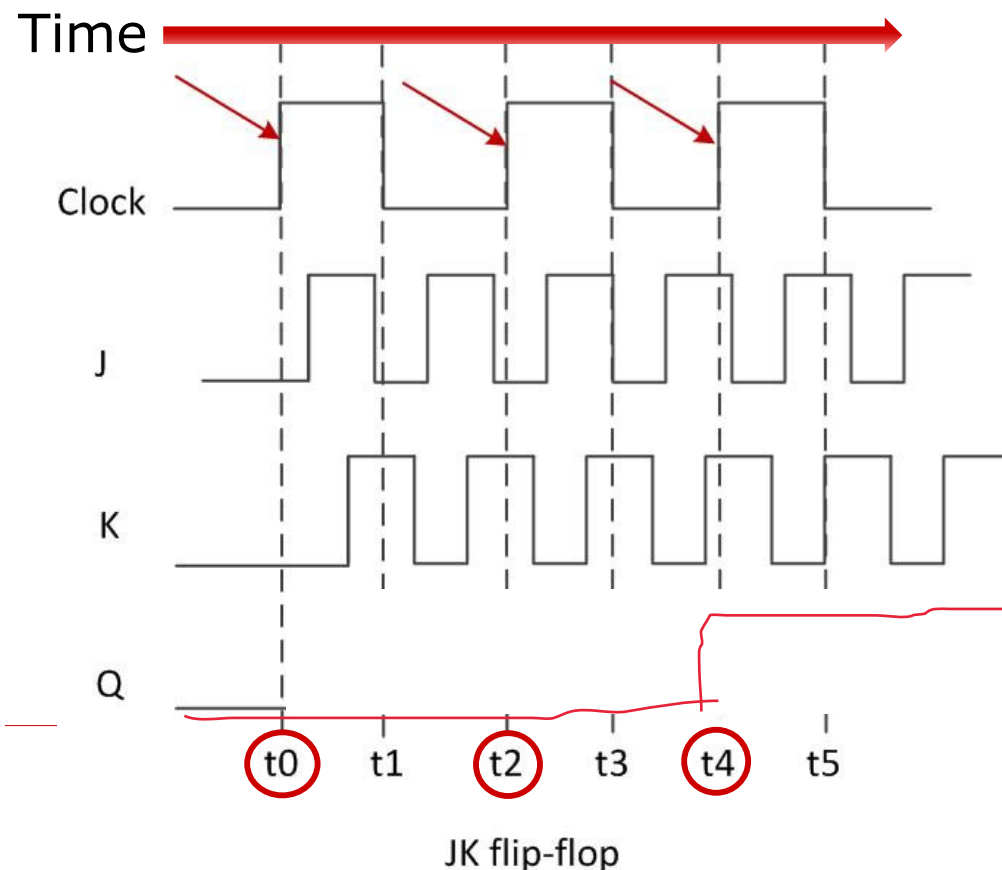
- On the right, we see how an SR flip-flop can be modified to create a JK flip-flop.
- The truth table indicates that the flip-flop is stable for all inputs.
 - When J and K are both 1, $Q(t+1) = \neg Q(t)$



J	K	$Q(t+1)$
0	0	$Q(t)$ (no change)
0	1	0 (reset to 0)
1	0	1 (set to 1)
1	1	$\bar{Q}(t)$

An Example

- Let's say a JK flip-flop is rising-edge triggered
- At t_0 , $Q(t) = 0$. What will be the changes of the value of Q over time?



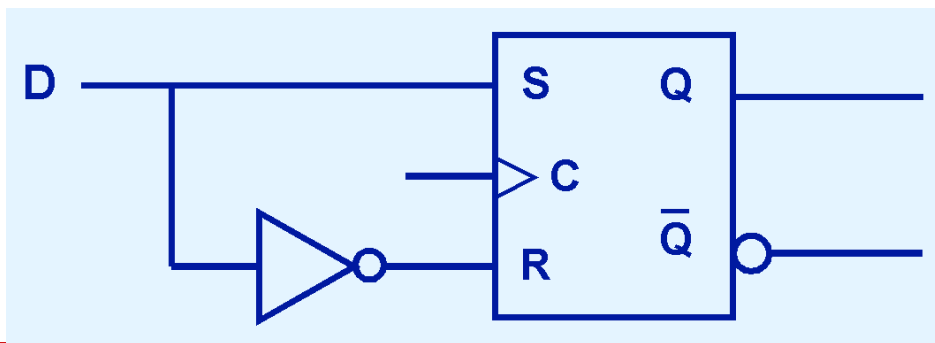
- Any time other than the rising edge won't trigger this JK flip-flop to change its state

J	K	$Q(t+1)$
0	0	$Q(t)$ (no change)
0	1	0 (reset to 0)
1	0	1 (set to 1)
1	1	$\bar{Q}(t)$

87

D Flip-flop

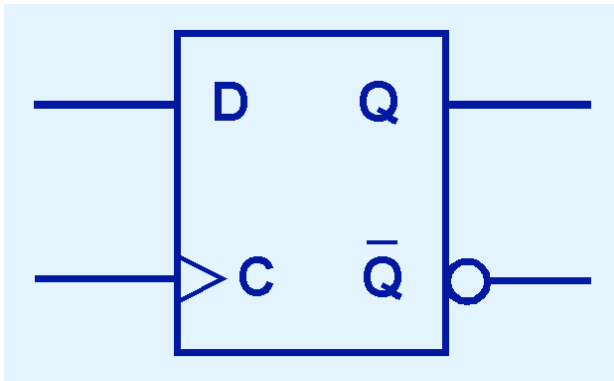
- Another modification of the SR flip-flop is the D flip-flop, shown below with its truth table.
- You will notice that the output of the flip-flop **remains the same** during subsequent clock pulses. The output changes **only when** the value of D changes.



D	$Q(t+1)$
0	0
1	1

D Flip-flop = 1-bit memory

- The D flip-flop is the **fundamental** circuit of computer **memory**.
 - D flip-flop and its truth table are illustrated as below.



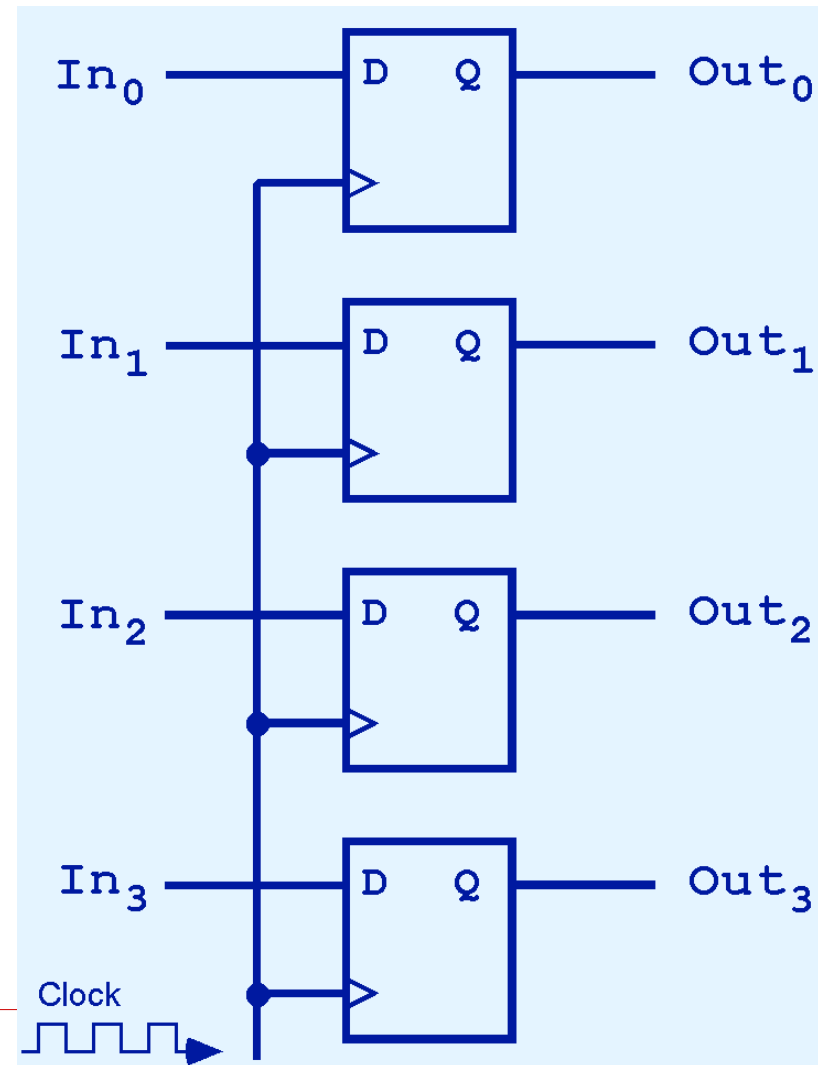
D	$Q(t+1)$
0	0
1	1

3.6 Sequential Circuits: Register

- This illustration shows a 4-bit **register** consisting of D flip-flops. You will usually see its block diagram (below) instead.



A larger memory configuration is shown on the next slide.

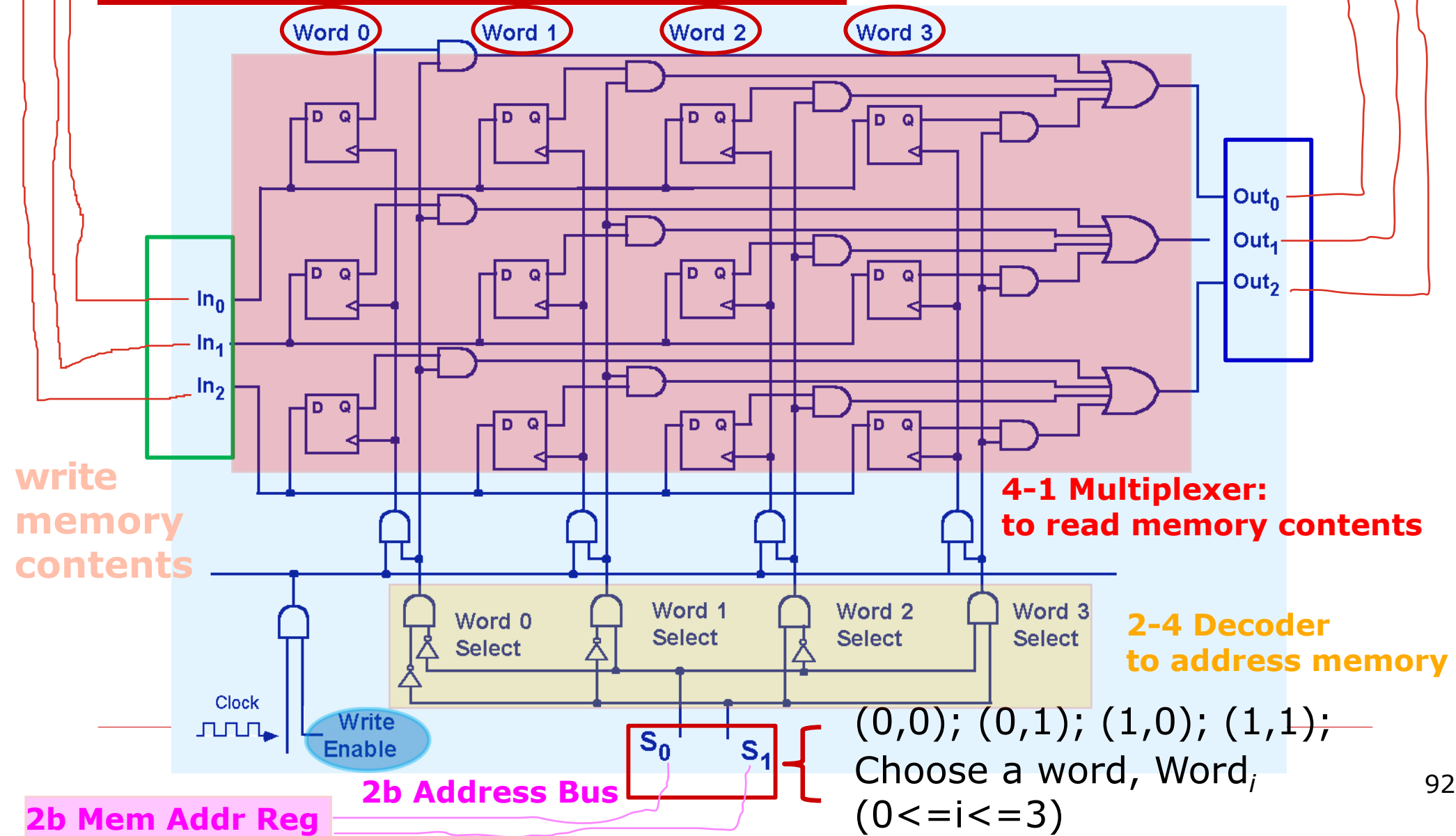


3b Data Bus / word size

STORE

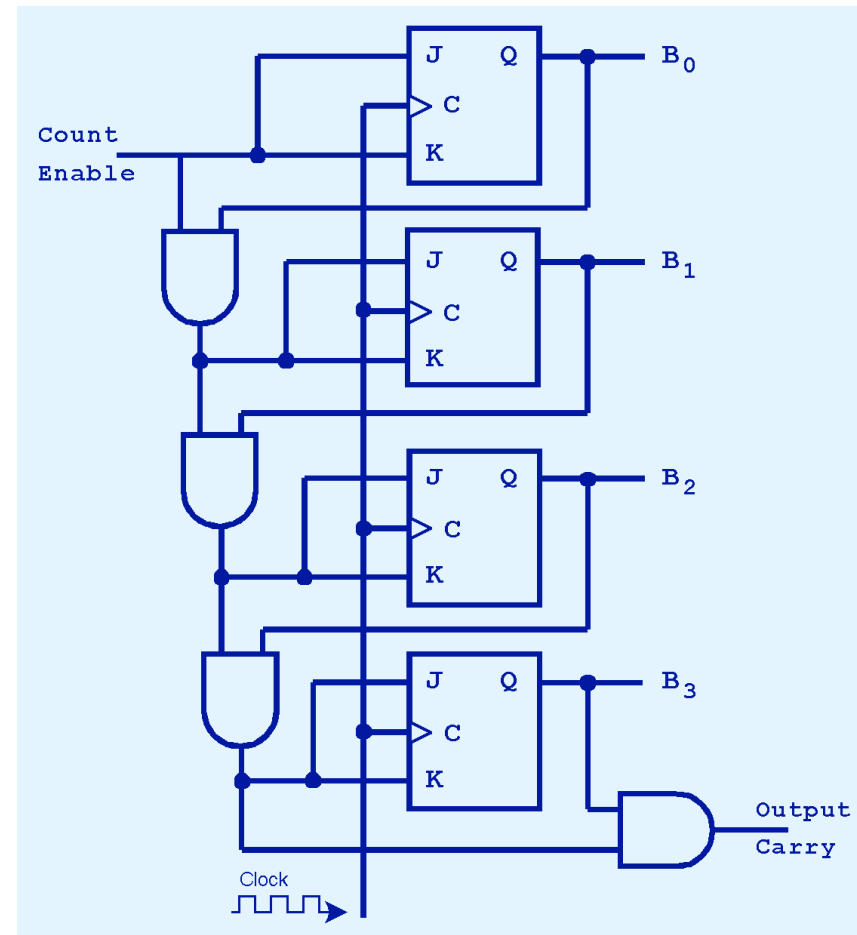
LOAD

3.6 4Wx3b Memory



3.6 Sequential Circuits: Counter

- A binary **counter** is another example of a sequential circuit.
- The low-order bit is **complemented** at each clock pulse.
- Whenever it changes from 0 to 1, the next bit is complemented, and so on through the other flip-flops.



3.6 Sequential Circuits: State Machines

$$Q(t+1) = f \{Q(t), S, R\}$$

$$SM = CLC + SLC$$

-
- Sequential circuits are used anytime that we need to design a “**stateful**” application.
 - A stateful application is one where the next state of the machine depends on the current state of the machine and the input.
 - A stateful application **requires both combinational and sequential logic.**
 - The following slides provide several examples of circuits that fall into this category.

Can you think of
others?

3.7 Designing Circuits

- Digital designers rely on **specialized software to create efficient circuits.**
 - Thus, software is an enabler for the construction of better hardware.
- Of course, **software** is in reality a collection of algorithms that could just as well be **implemented in hardware.**
 - Recall the **Principle of Equivalence of Hardware and Software.**

Designing Circuits

- ❑ When we need to implement a **simple, specialized algorithm** and its execution **speed** must be as **fast** as possible, a **hardware solution is often preferred**.
- ❑ This is the idea behind ***embedded systems***, which are small special-purpose computers that we find in many everyday things.
- ❑ Embedded systems **require special programming** that demands an **understanding of the operation of digital circuits**, the basics of which you have learned in this chapter.
- ❑ Assembly programming for performance. FPGA (hardware) design using HDL (e.g. VHDL, Verilog) languages!

Chapter 3 Conclusion

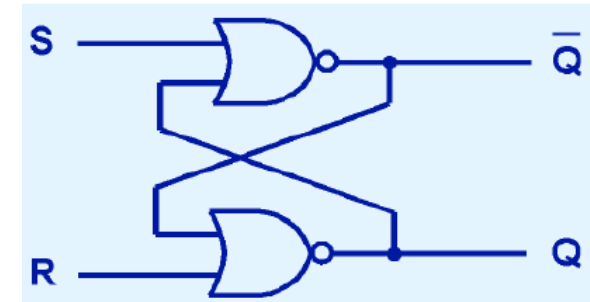
- ❑ Computers are implementations of Boolean logic.
- ❑ Boolean functions are completely described by truth tables.
- ❑ Logic gates are small circuits that implement Boolean operators.
- ❑ The basic gates are AND, OR, and NOT.
 - The XOR gate is very useful in parity checkers and adders.
- ❑ The “universal gates” are NOR and NAND.

Chapter 3 Conclusion

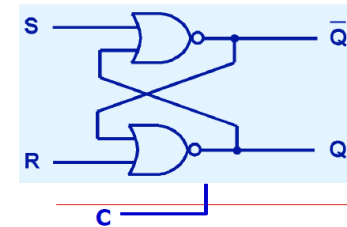
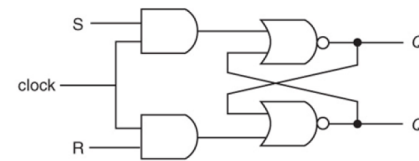
- ❑ **Computer circuits** consist of **combinational** logic circuits and **sequential** logic circuits.
- ❑ **Combinational** circuits **produce outputs almost immediately** when their inputs change.
- ❑ **Sequential** circuits **require clocks** to control their changes of state.
- ❑ The basic sequential circuit unit is the **flip-flop**:
The behaviors of the **SR, JK, and D** flip-flops are the most important to know.

0) CLC >>>>

1) got on/off controls.



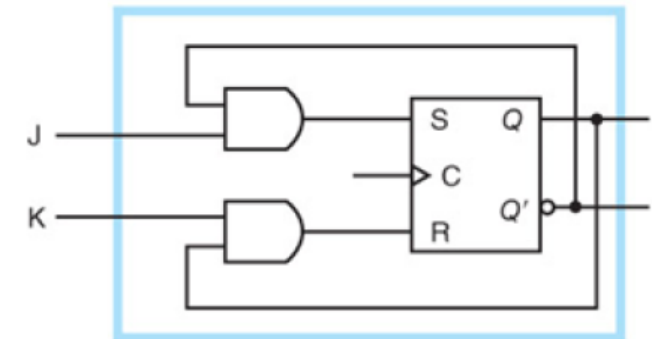
2) clock trigger



2b) mostly defined synchronized states.

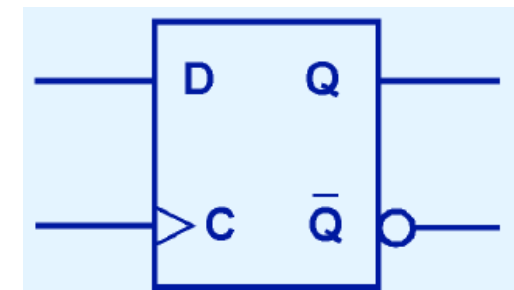
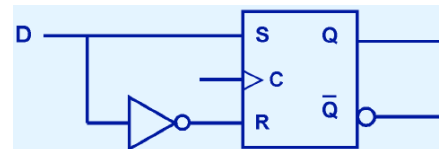
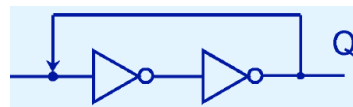
End of Chapter 3 Summary

3) fully defined states
"error free!"



4) Memory

"Preserving state"



Chapter 3 Summary

- Simplify using Boolean algebra and canonical forms
 - Digital logic circuits: simplifications, apps (error detector, half/full/RC adder, decoder, multiplexer, ALU)
 - SLC: SR-FF, JK-FF, D-FF, Register/Memory cells, Counter, State Machines,
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