

# LOGISIM-EVOLUTION LAB MANUAL

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George Self: *Logisim-Evaluation Lab Manual*,

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## PREFACE

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I have taught CIS 221, *Digital Logic*, for Cochise College since about 2003 and enjoy working with students on this topic. From the start, I wanted students to work with labs as part of our studies and actually design circuits to complement our theoretical instruction. As I evaluated circuit design software I had three criteria:

- **Open Educational Resource (OER).** It is important to me that students use software that is available free of charge and is supported by the entire web community.
- **Platform.** While most of my students use a Windows-based system, some use Macintosh and it was important to me to use software that is available for both of those platforms. As a bonus, most OER software is also available for the Linux system, though I'm not aware of any of my students who are using Linux.
- **Simplicity.** I wanted to use software that was easy to master so students could spend their time understanding digital logic rather than learning the arcane structures of a simulation language.

I originally wrote a number of lab exercises using *Logisim*, but the creator of that software, Carl Burch, announced that he would quit developing it in 2014. Because it was published as an open source project, a group of Swiss institutes started with the *Logisim* software and developed a new version that integrated several new tools, like a chronogram, and released it under the name *Logisim-Evolution*.

It is my hope that students will find these labs instructive and they will enhance their learning of digital logic. This lab manual is written with  $\text{\LaTeX}$  and published under a [Creative Commons Zero](#) license with a goal that other instructors can modify it to meet their own needs. The source code can be found at [my personal GITHUB page](#) and I always welcome comments that will help me improve this manual.

—George Self



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## LISTINGS

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## ACRONYMS

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ALU	Arithmetic Logic Unit
BCD	Binary Coded Decimal
CPU	Central Processing Unit
IC	Integrated Circuit
OER	Open Educational Resource
RAM	Random Access Memory
ROM	Read Only Memory

## Part I

### INTRODUCTION TO LOGISIM-EVOLUTION

LOGISIM-EVOLUTION is used to create and test simulations of digital circuits. This part of the lab manual includes only one lab designed to introduce *Logisim-evolution* and teach the fundamentals of using this application.



## INTRODUCTION TO LOGISIM-EVOLUTION

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### 1.1 PURPOSE

This lab introduces the *Logisim-evolution* logic simulator, which is used for all lab exercises in this manual.

### 1.2 PROCEDURE

#### 1.2.1 Installation

*Logisim-evolution* is a Java application, so a Java runtime environment will need to be installed before using the application. Many people already have a Java runtime on their computer and can skip this step, but people who do not will need to install the Java runtime. That process is not covered in this manual but information about installing the Java runtime environment is available at <http://www.oracle.com/technetwork/java/javase/downloads/index.html>. It can be confusing to know which version of Java to download but students working on the labs in this manual only need the runtime, called *JRE* on the website. Students who are also in programming classes will likely already have the runtime as part of the Java Developer's Kit (JDK). It can be tricky testing the Java installation since the Chrome, Firefox, and Edge browsers will not run Java apps, but students can open a command prompt and enter `java -version` to see what version of Java their computers are running, if any.

*Logisim-evolution* (<https://github.com/reds-heig/logisim-evolution>) is available as a free download. Visit the website and about halfway down the page find a section named "How to install logisim-evolution." Click the "here" link at the end of the first sentence in that section.

Since the *Logisim-evolution* file is a Java application, it does not need to be installed like most software. To start *Logisim-evolution*, double-click the *Logisim-evolution* shortcut. That will start Java and then run the *Logisim-evolution* application. Also, *Logisim-evolution* will not need to be uninstalled when it is no longer needed since it is not actually installed, the *Logisim-evolution* file can simply be deleted.

#### 1.2.2 Beginner's Tutorial

*Logisim-evolution* comes with a beginner's tutorial available in HELP -> TUTORIAL. That tutorial only takes a few minutes and introduces

students to the major components of the application. Students should complete that tutorial before starting this lab.

### 1.2.3 Logisim-evolution Workspace

Start *Logisim-evolution* by double-clicking its icon. The initial *Logisim-evolution* window will be similar to Figure 1.1.

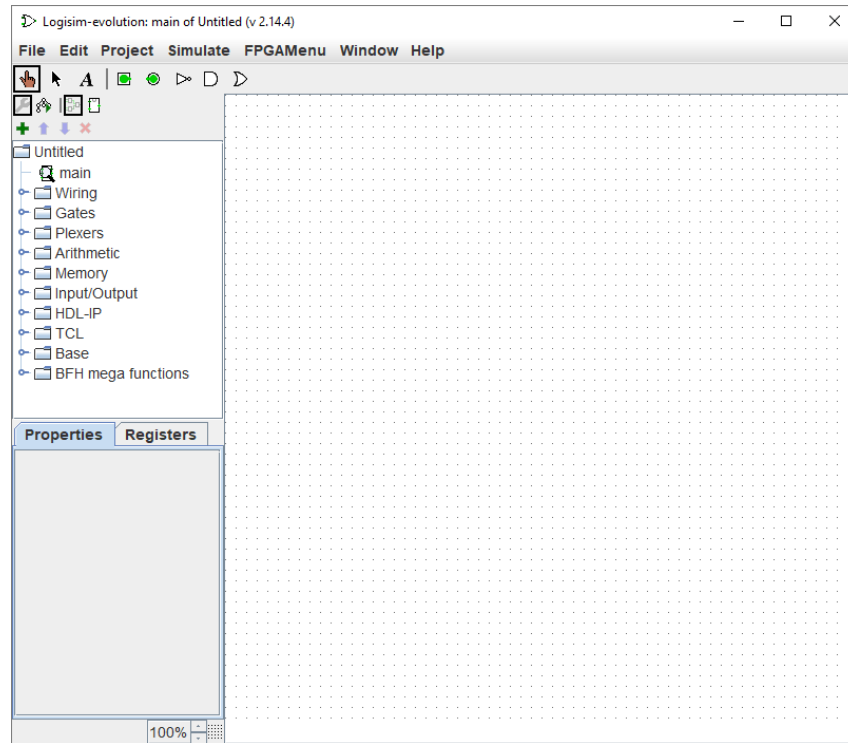


Figure 1.1: Logisim-evolution Initial Screen

The *Logisim-evolution* space is divided into several areas. Along the top is a text menu that includes the types of selections found in most programs. For example, the “File” menu includes items like “Save” and “Exit.” The “Edit” menu includes an “Undo” option that is useful. In later labs, the various options under “Project” and “Simulate” will be described and used. Items in the “FPGAMenu” are beyond the scope of this class and will not be used. Of particular importance at this point is “Library Reference” in the “Help” menu. It contains information about every logical device available in *Logisim-evolution* and is very useful while using those components in new circuits.

Under the menu bar is the Toolbar, which is a row of eight buttons that are the most commonly used tools in *Logisim-evolution*:

- **Pointing Finger:** Used to “poke” and change input values while the simulator is running.



- **Arrow:** Used to select components or wires in order to modify, move, or delete them.
- **A:** Activates the Text tool so text information can be added to the circuit.
- **Square Port:** Creates an input port for a circuit.
- **Round Port:** Creates an output port for a circuit.
- **NOT Gate:** Creates a NOT gate.
- **AND Gate:** Creates an AND gate.
- **OR Gate:** Creates an OR gate.

The Explorer Pane is on the left side of the workspace and contains a folder list with four small icons along its top edge. The folders contain “libraries” of components organized in a logical manner. For example, the “Gates” folder contains various gates (AND, OR, XOR, etc.) that can be used in a circuit. The four icons across the top of the Explorer Pane are used for advanced operations and will be covered as they are needed.

The Properties panel on the lower left side of the screen is where the properties for any selected component can be read and set. For example, the number of inputs for an AND gate can be set to a specific number.

The drawing canvas is the largest part of the screen. It is where circuits are constructed and simulated.

#### 1.2.4 Simple Multiplexer

A multiplexer is used to select which of two or more inputs will be connected to a single output. For this lab, a simple two-input, one-bit multiplexer will be built. Start by clicking the *And* button on the toolbar and placing two AND gates on the canvas. The canvas should resemble Figure 1.2

*Do not be concerned with the exact placement of components on the drawing canvas. They can be rearranged as the build progresses.*

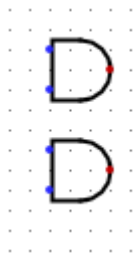


Figure 1.2: Two AND Gates

Click one of the AND gates to select it and observe the various properties available for that gate, as seen in Figure 1.3. The default

values do not need to be changed for this circuit; however, all circuits in this manual use the “Narrow” gate size in order to make the circuit fit the screen better. The other properties will be explained as they are needed.

Properties Registers	
Selection: AND Gate	
VHDL	Verilog
Facing	East
Data Bits	1
Gate Size	Narrow
Number Of I...	2
Output Value	0/1
Label	
Label Font	SansSerif B...
Negate 1 (T...	No
Negate 2 (B...	No

Figure 1.3: AND Gate Properties

The outputs of the two AND gates need to be combined with an OR gate. Add an OR gate as illustrated in Figure 1.4.

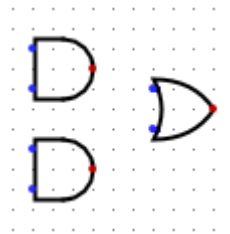


Figure 1.4: OR Gate Added to Circuit

The top input for the first AND gate needs two NOT gates (inverters) so the two AND gates can function as on/off switches. This is a rather common digital logic construct and when the circuit is complete it will become clear how the switching function works.

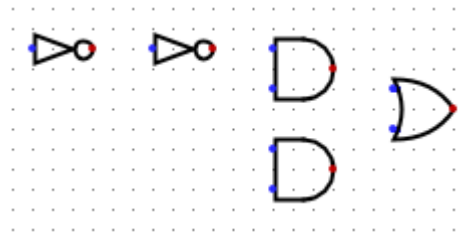


Figure 1.5: Two NOT Gates Added to Circuit

All inputs and outputs need to be added as in Figure 1.6. Note: inputs are square and outputs are round. The *Label* property for each input and output should be specified as in the figure. The pins are labeled according to their function in the circuit. Pin *Sel* carries a signal that selects which input to connect to the output, pins *In1* and *In2* are the two inputs, and pin *Out1* is the output. Note: output pins display a blue-colored X until they are actually wired to some device like the OR gate in the illustration.

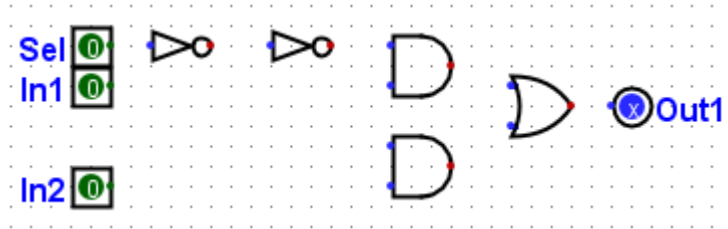


Figure 1.6: Inputs and Output Added

Finally, connect each device with a wire by clicking on the various ports and dragging a wire to the next port. To start the wire in the middle of the two NOT gates click the wire connecting those gates and drag downward. Wires will automatically “bend” one time but to get two bends, like between the output of an AND gate and the input of the OR gate, click-and-drag the wire from the output of the AND gate to a spot a short distance in front of that same gate, then release the mouse button and then immediately click again to start a new wire that will “bend” to the input of the OR gate. Only a little practice is needed to master this wiring technique.

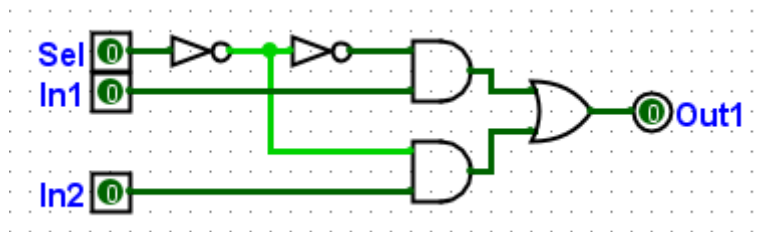


Figure 1.7: Circuit Wiring Added

To operate the circuit in a simulator, click the *Pointing Finger* and “poke” the various inputs. If it is working properly, when the *Sel* input is high then the value of *In2* should be transmitted to the output, but when *Sel* is low then the value of *In1* should be transmitted to the output. This circuit is used to select one of two inputs to be transmitted to the output.

### 1.2.5 Identifying Information

Before finishing, add standard identification information near the top left corner of the circuit using the text tool (the *A* button on the toolbar). That information should include the designer's name, the lab number and circuit name, and the date. Standard identification information for this lab would look like this:

George Self  
Lab 01: 2-Way, 1-Bit multiplexer  
February 13, 2018

The font properties in Figure 1.8 have been set to bold and a large size to make the text easier to read.

Note that *Logisim-evolution* will automatically center text in a new box, so text boxes will need to be aligned after they have been created. To align the text boxes, click the *Arrow* tool and use it to drag the boxes to their desired location. The completed circuit should look like Figure 1.8.

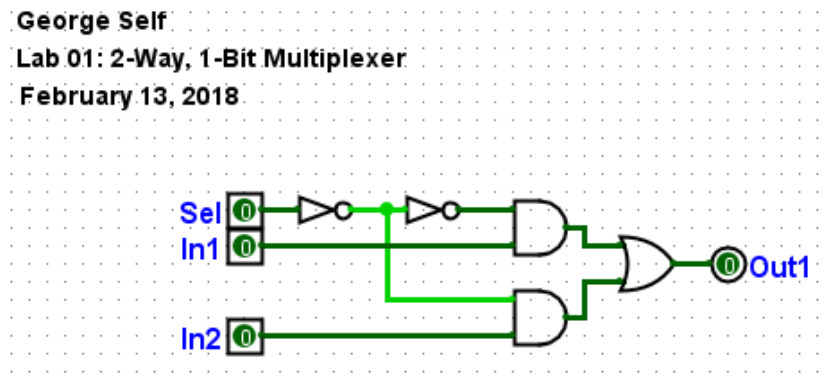


Figure 1.8: Simple multiplexer

## 1.3 DELIVERABLE

The purpose of this lab is to install and test the *Logisim-evolution* system and become comfortable creating a digital logic circuit.

To receive a grade for this lab, create the Simple Multiplexer as defined in this lab, be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the circuit, and then save the file with this name: *Lab01\_Mux21* (that stands for multiplexer, 2-way, 1-bit). Submit that circuit file for grading.

## Part II

### FOUNDATIONS

FOUNDATIONAL EXERCISES are designed to provide practice with simple logic circuits in order to both develop skill with *Logisim-evolution* and illustrate the foundations of digital logic.



## BOOLEAN LOGIC

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### 2.1 PURPOSE

This lab has three goals:

- Design circuits when given a Boolean expression.
- Create subcircuits.
- Create and exercise a test of the subcircuits.

*Logisim-evolution* permits designers to work with a main circuit and any number of subcircuits. Students who have studied programming languages are familiar with “functions” or “classes” that can be designed and built one time and then reused many times whenever they are needed. *Logisim-evolution* permits that same type of modular design by using subcircuits.

The *Logisim-evolution* starter for this lab includes a **main** circuit and one subcircuit, named **Equation\_1**. The starter subcircuit is used to practice creating a circuit from a Boolean expression and then a new subcircuit is added and a second Boolean expression is used to build that circuit.

### 2.2 PROCEDURE

#### 2.2.1 Subcircuit: Equation 1

The starter circuit includes a subcircuit named **Equation\_1**. Double-click that circuit in the Explorer Pane to activate it. The drawing canvas for this subcircuit is mostly blank except for a Boolean expression:  $(A'BC') + (AB'C') + (ABC)$ . Before starting to design a circuit, it is helpful to take a minute to analyze the expression.

*A magnifying glass icon is used to indicate which circuit is active on the drawing canvas.*

- There are only three variables used in the entire expression: *A*, *B*, and *C*. Therefore, there would be three inputs into the circuit.
- There are three groups of variables and within each group the variables are joined with an AND. Therefore, the circuit must include three AND gates with three inputs for each gate.
- The three groups of variables are joined with an OR. Therefore, the circuit must include an OR gate with three inputs.

- While the expression does not name an output variable, it is reasonable to assume that the circuit would output a logic 1 or 0. Therefore, a one-bit output variable must be specified.

*Do not be concerned  
with the exact  
placement of  
components on the  
drawing canvas.  
They can be  
rearranged as the  
build progresses.*

Start by placing three inputs and an output on the drawing canvas. Inputs are indicated by a square pin found on the tool bar above the drawing canvas. Click that tool and place three input pins named *In1A*, *In1B*, and *In1C* —that means “Input for Equation One, variable A” and so forth.

Outputs are indicated by a round pin found on the tool bar above the drawing canvas. Click that tool and place an output named *Out1*. The circuit should look like Figure 2.1.

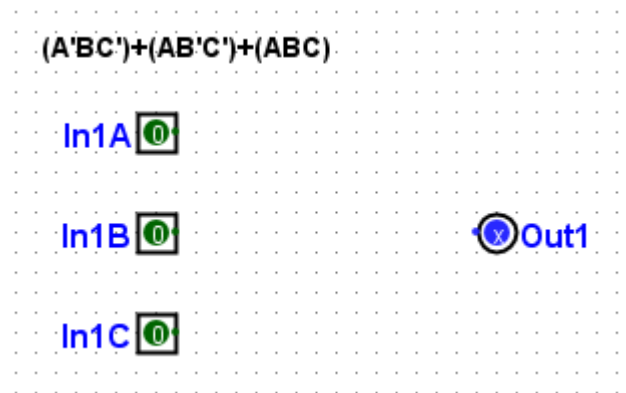


Figure 2.1: Equation 1 Inputs-Outputs

Next, the gates should be added. The AND gate tool can be found on the tool bar. Click that tool and place three AND gates on the circuit. Click each gate and in its properties panel set the *Number of Inputs* to 3.

The OR gate tool can be found on the tool bar. Click that tool and place one OR gate on the circuit. Click that gate and in its properties panel set the *Number of Inputs* to 3.

The circuit should look like Figure 2.2.

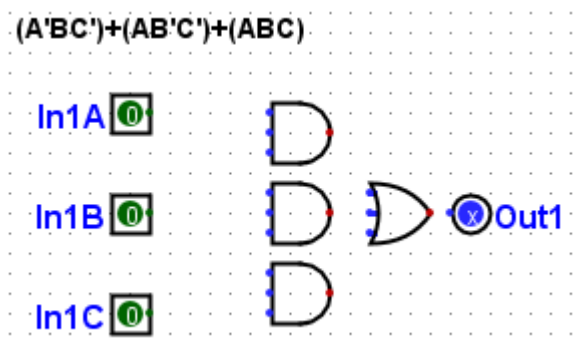


Figure 2.2: Equation 1 And-Or Gates



Next, the inputs for the AND gates should be set to match the Boolean expression. The top AND gate will match the first group of inputs,  $(A'BC')$ , so inputs  $A$  and  $C$  should be negated. To negate those two inputs, click the AND gate and in the properties panel set the *Negate* item for the top and bottom input to "Yes." When that is done, the two inputs on the AND gate should include a small "negate" circle.

In the same way, the middle and bottom input for the second AND gate should also be negated. The circuit should look like Figure 2.3.

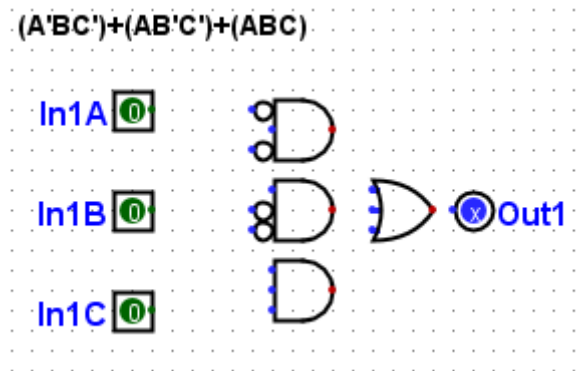


Figure 2.3: Equation 1 And Gate Inputs Set

Finally, connect all gates with wires, like Figure 2.4.

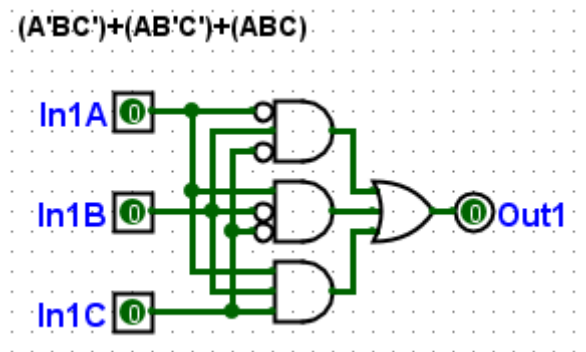


Figure 2.4: Equation 1 Circuit Completed

Test the circuit by selecting the *poke* tool in the tool bar (it looks like a pointing finger) and setting various combinations of 1 and 0 on the three inputs. The output pin should go high only when the inputs are set to  $(A'BC')$ ,  $(AB'C')$ , or  $(ABC)$ .

### 2.2.2 Subcircuit: Equation 2

A new subcircuit can be added to a circuit by clicking PROJECT -> ADD CIRCUIT. Name the new circuit **Equation\_2**. Open the new subcircuit by double-clicking its name in the Explorer Pane.

Because this is a new subcircuit, the drawing canvas is blank. To start this subcircuit, write the equation for the circuit near the top of the drawing canvas by clicking the “A” button on the Toolbar and then clicking near the top of the drawing canvas and typing the following:

$$(A'B'CD') + (A'BCD) + (AB'CD') + (ABCD')$$

It will save time to take a few minutes and analyze the expression.

- There are only four variables used in the entire expression:  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$ . Therefore, there would be four inputs into the circuit.
- There are four groups of variables and within each group the variables are joined with an AND. Therefore, the circuit must include four AND gates with four inputs for each gate.
- The four groups of variables are joined with an OR. Therefore, the circuit must include an OR gate with four inputs.
- While the expression does not name an output variable, it is reasonable to assume that the circuit would output a logic 1 or 0. Therefore, a one-bit output variable must be specified.

Design the subcircuit using these names for the inputs:  $In2A$ ,  $In2B$ ,  $In2C$ , and  $In2D$ . Also include an output named  $Out2$ . Set the AND gates so the their inputs are negated properly and then wire the entire subcircuit. Finally, test the circuit to ensure the output goes high only when the four specified combinations of inputs are present.

### 2.2.3 Main Circuit

Make the **main** circuit active by double-clicking its name in the Explorer Panel. Click once on the **Equation\_1** circuit and the cursor will change into an image of that circuit as it will appear on the drawing canvas. Click on the drawing canvas to drop that subcircuit. The circuit can later be moved by clicking it and dragging it to a new location. Wire the three inputs and output as shown in Figure 2.5. Notice that the input/output pins do not need to be named the same as in the subcircuit; for example, the output for **Equation\_1** is labeled  $Out1$  but it is connected to an output pin labeled  $True1$ .

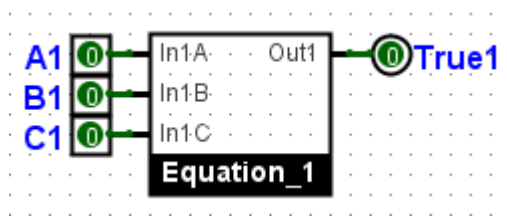


Figure 2.5: Main Circuit

Add the **Equation\_2** circuit in the same way and wire four inputs and one output to that circuit. The inputs should be labeled *A2*, *B2*, *C2*, and *D2* and the output labeled *True2*.

#### 2.2.4 Testing the Circuit

One way to test this circuit is to use the *poke* tool and click various input combinations for both subcircuits. If the subcircuits are correct then the output will only go high when the correct combination is set on the inputs. However, as digital logic circuits become more complex it is important to automate the testing process so no input combinations are overlooked. *Logisim-evolution* includes a SIMULATE -> TEST VECTOR feature that is used for automating circuit testing.

The first step in using automatic testing is to create a *Test Vector* file. This is a simple *.txt* file that can be created in any text processor, like *Notepad*. The format for a test vector is fairly simple.

- Every line is a single test of the circuit, except the first line.
- The first line defines the various inputs and outputs being tested.
- Any line that starts with a hash mark (#) is a comment and is ignored.

*Do not use a word processor to create the Test Vector since that would add unneeded codes for things like fonts.*

Following is the test vector file used to test the **Equation\_1** subcircuit.

---

```

1  # Test vector for Lab 2
2  # Equation 1
3  A1 B1 C1 True1
4  0   0  0     0
5  0   0  1     0
6  0   1  0     1
7  0   1  1     0
8  1   0  0     1
9  1   0  1     0
10 1   1  0     0
11 1   1  1     1

```

---

Following is an explanation for the *Test vector for Lab 2* file.

LINE 1 This is just the title of the file. Because this line starts with a hash (#) it is a comment and will be ignored by *Logisim-evolution*.

LINE 2 This is another descriptor line and is ignored by *Logisim-evolution*.

LINE 3 This line lists all of the inputs and outputs in the circuit under test. In this case, there are three inputs,  $A1$ ,  $B1$ , and  $C1$ , along with one output,  $True1$ . *Logisim-evolution* is able to determine whether the pin is an input or output from its properties. NOTE: each of the inputs and outputs in this circuit are single bits. If an input or output has more than one bit then that must be specified on this line. For example, if  $True1$  was actually a four-bit output then that pin would be listed as  $True1[4]$ .

LINE 4 This line contains the first test for the circuit. This line specifies that *Logisim-evolution* make  $A1$ ,  $B1$ , and  $C1$  equal to zero and then check to be certain that  $True1$  is also zero.

OTHER LINES All other lines set the three input bits and specify the expected response in the output bit.

The test vector for Equation 2 would look like this:

---

1	# Test vector for Lab 2
2	# Equation 2
3	A2 B2 C2 D2 True2
4	0 0 0 0 0
5	0 0 0 1 0
6	0 0 1 0 1
7	0 0 1 1 0
8	0 1 0 0 0
9	0 1 0 1 0
10	0 1 1 0 0
11	0 1 1 1 1
12	1 0 0 0 0
13	1 0 0 1 0
14	1 0 1 0 1
15	1 0 1 1 0
16	1 1 0 0 0
17	1 1 0 1 0
18	1 1 1 0 1
19	1 1 1 1 0

---

In practice, a circuit designer would usually not create two different test vectors but would, instead, create just one file to test all parts of the circuit. Combining the *Equation 1* test and the *Equation 2* test is not quite as easy as appending one after the other since all input and output pins for both circuits must be specified at the top of the file. Following is the test vector for a circuit that combines *Equation 1* and *Equation 2*. Notice that all input and output pins are defined on line three then each line beginning with line four tests both of the equation circuits. Because only eight tests are needed to fully exercise

Equation 1 but 16 are needed for Equation 2, the Equation 1 tests are repeated starting on Line 12.

---

1	# Test vector for Lab 2									
2	# Equation 1 - Equation 2									
3	A1	B1	C1	True1	A2	B2	C2	D2	True2	
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
5	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	
6	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	
7	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	
8	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	
9	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	
10	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	
11	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	
12	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	
13	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	
14	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	
15	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	
16	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	
17	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	
18	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	
19	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	

---

To start a test, click SIMULATE -> TEST VECTOR. The window illustrated in Figure 2.6 opens.

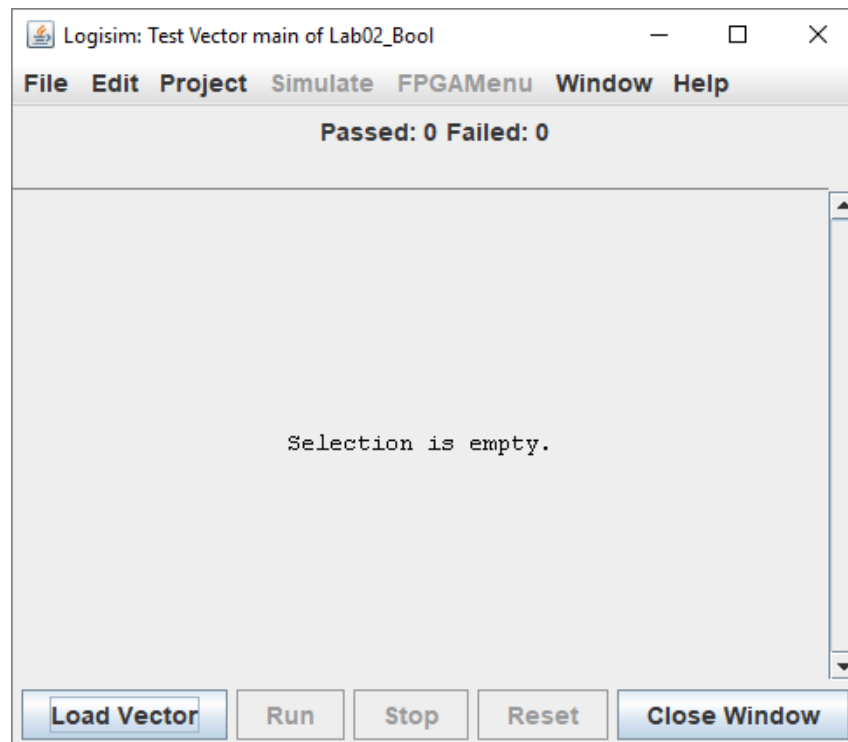
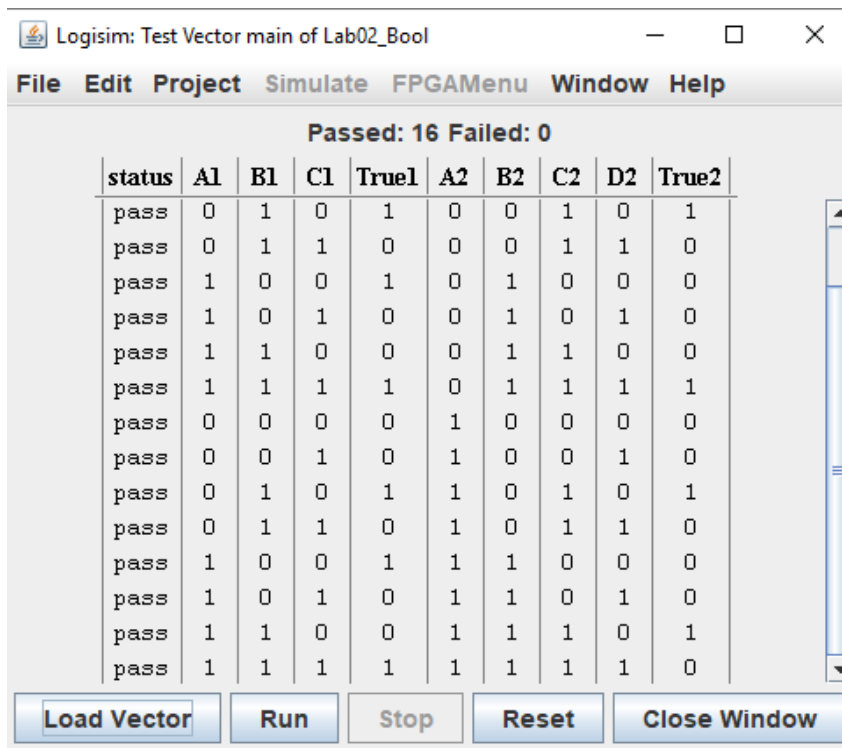


Figure 2.6: Test Vector Window

Click the *Load Vector* button at the bottom of the window and load the test vector file. The test will automatically start and Logisim-evolution will report the results, like in Figure 2.7.



Logisim: Test Vector main of Lab02\_Bool

File Edit Project Simulate FPGAMenu Window Help

Passed: 16 Failed: 0

status	A1	B1	C1	True1	A2	B2	C2	D2	True2
pass	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
pass	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
pass	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
pass	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
pass	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
pass	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
pass	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
pass	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
pass	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
pass	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
pass	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
pass	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
pass	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1
pass	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0

Load Vector Run Stop Reset Close Window

Figure 2.7: Test Completed

The test indicates all 16 lines passed and zero failed so it could be reasonably concluded that the circuits are functioning properly. Figure 2.8 illustrates a failed test. The circuit designer would then need to troubleshoot to determine what went wrong with the circuit.

Logisim: Test Vector main of Lab02\_Bool

File Edit Project Simulate FPGAMenu Window Help

Passed: 15 Failed: 1

status	A1	B1	C1	True1	A2	B2	C2	D2	True2
fail	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
pass	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
pass	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
pass	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
pass	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
pass	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
pass	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
pass	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
pass	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
pass	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
pass	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
pass	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
pass	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
pass	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0

Load Vector Run Stop Reset Close Window

Figure 2.8: Test Failure

### 2.3 DELIVERABLE

*It is important to name all inputs and outputs as specified in the lab since they are checked with a Test Vector file that depends on those names.*

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the **main** circuit and both subcircuits. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the **main** circuit, similar to:

George Self  
Lab 02: Boolean Equations  
February 18, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab02\_Bool* and submit that file for grading.



## PRIORITY ENCODER

---

### 3.1 PURPOSE

Often a circuit will receive data from several sources at one time and there must be a way to prioritize those inputs. This circuit creates a simple priority encoder for nine different inputs. This is a fairly simple circuit but is best explained by building and “playing around” with it rather than attempting to understand a printed text; thus, the explanation for this lab is somewhat limited.

### 3.2 PROCEDURE

Start *Logisim-evolution* and create a subcircuit named **Encoder**. Open that subcircuit and place 12 AND gates as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

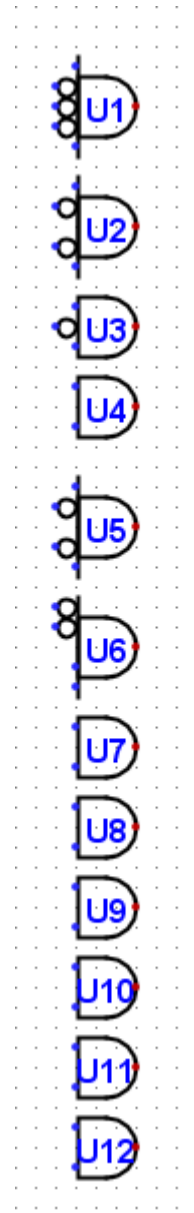


Figure 3.1: AND Gates

The gates have one data bit and these properties:

- U<sub>1</sub>: Five inputs, numbers two, three, and four negated.
- U<sub>2</sub>: Four inputs, numbers two and three negated.
- U<sub>3</sub>: Three inputs, number two negated.
- U<sub>4</sub>: Two inputs, none negated.
- U<sub>5</sub>: Four inputs, numbers two and three negated.
- U<sub>6</sub>: Four inputs, numbers one and two negated.
- U<sub>7</sub>-U<sub>12</sub>: Two inputs, none negated.

Many of the output signals need to be combined with OR gates and those should be added next, as in Figure 3.2. Note: U16 is a NOR (*Gates library*) gate.

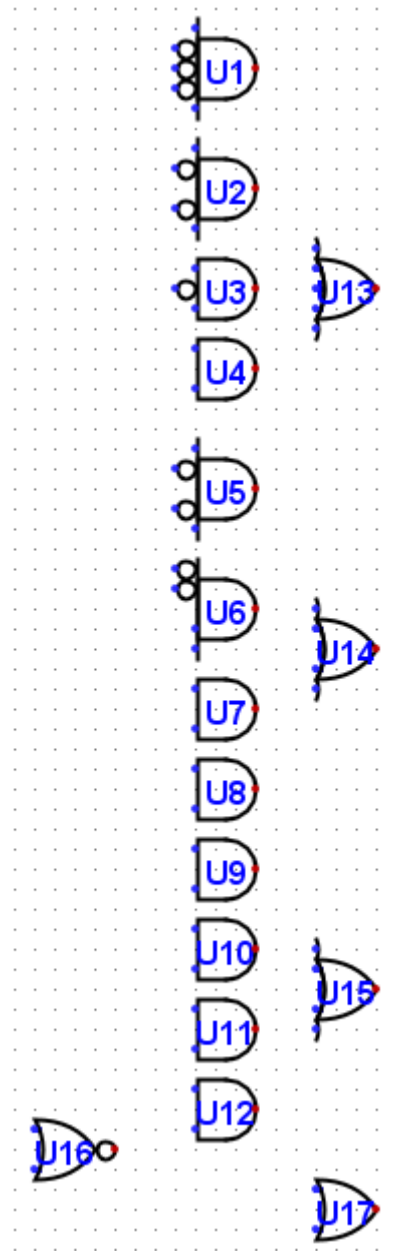


Figure 3.2: OR Gates Added

This encoder is designed to prioritize nine input lines so nine inputs must be added, as illustrated in Figure

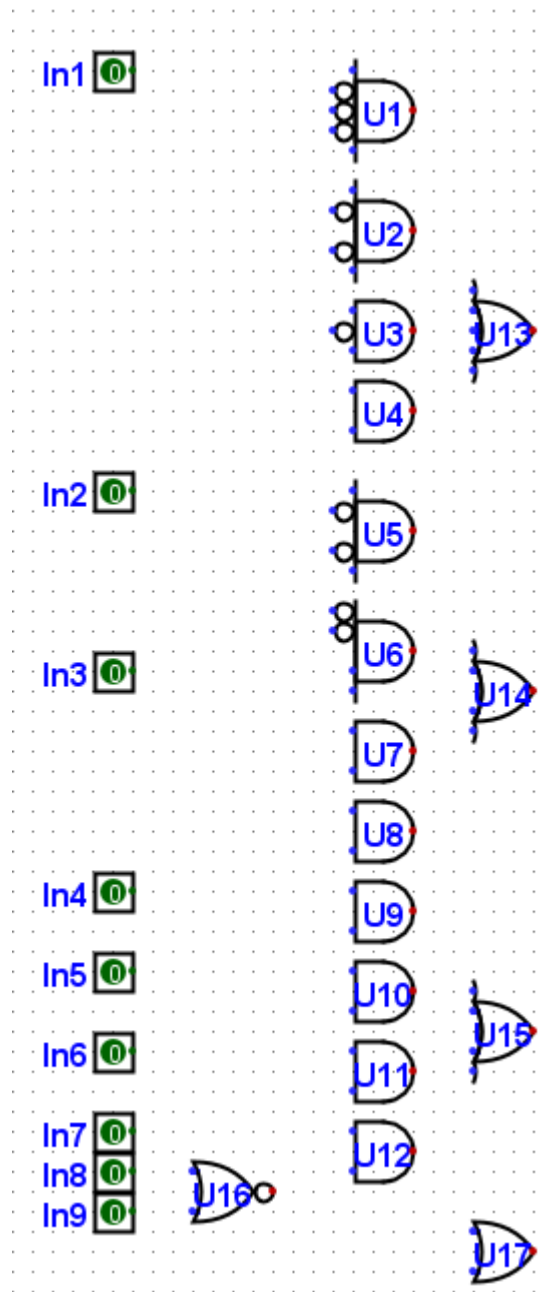


Figure 3.3: Inputs Added

Wiring this circuit is the most challenging part of the build. As illustrated in Figure 3.4, the inputs are wired to several different AND gates.

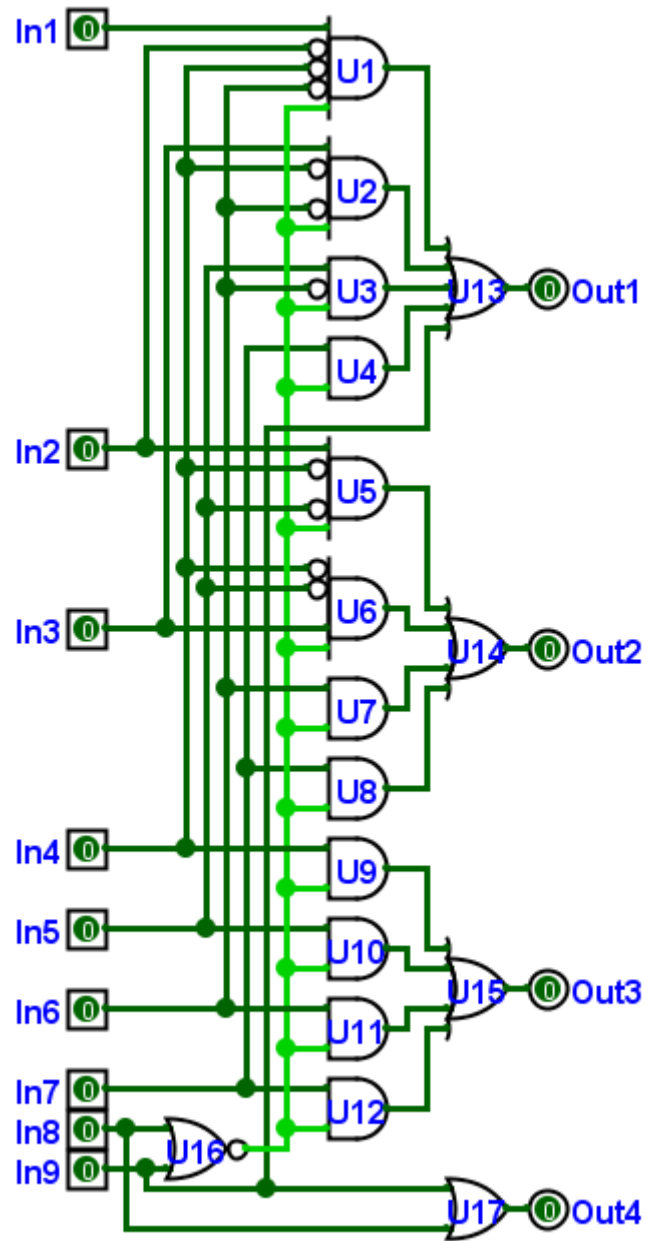


Figure 3.4: Wiring the Encoder

Finally, four output ports are added, as illustrated in Figure 3.5.

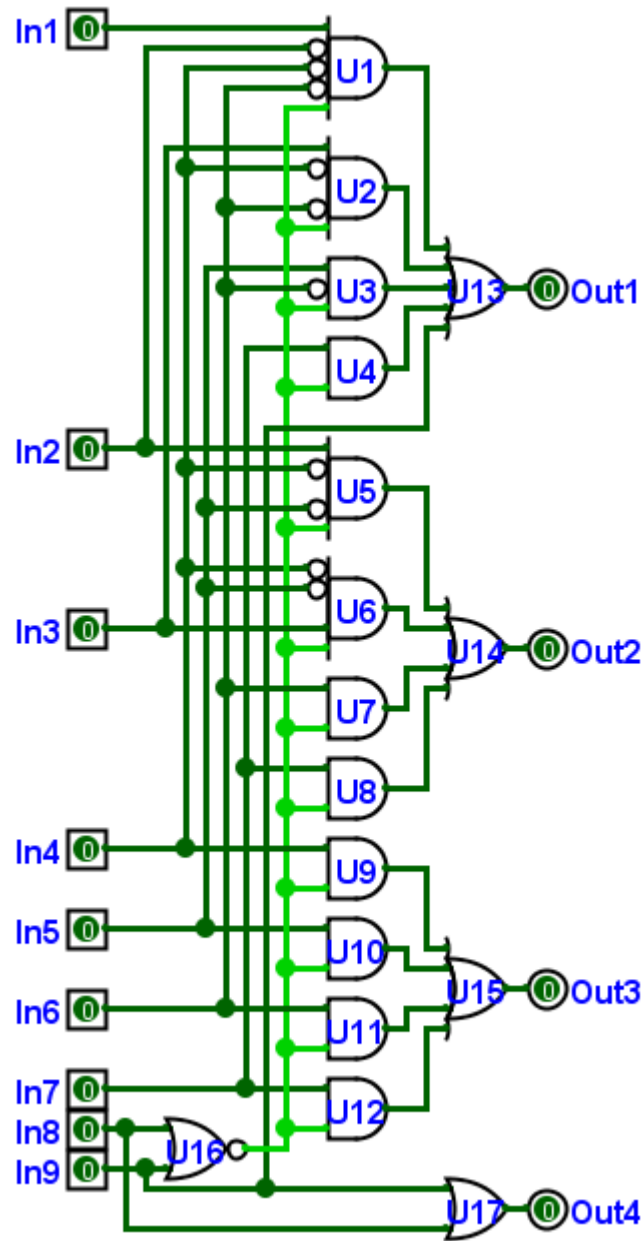


Figure 3.5: Nine-line Priority Encoder

This circuit is designed to output a Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) number, so no further conversion is needed to be able to read the highest priority input line. At this point, the circuit is complete and the *poke* tool can be used to change the inputs and observe how that high input bit drives the outputs.

To finish the project, open the **main** circuit and drop the **Encoder** on the drawing canvas. Add nine inputs and label them *In1* through *In9*. Place a Hex Digit Display (*Input/Output* library) and wire the

four outputs through a splitter to that display. The **main** circuit is illustrated in Figure 3.6.

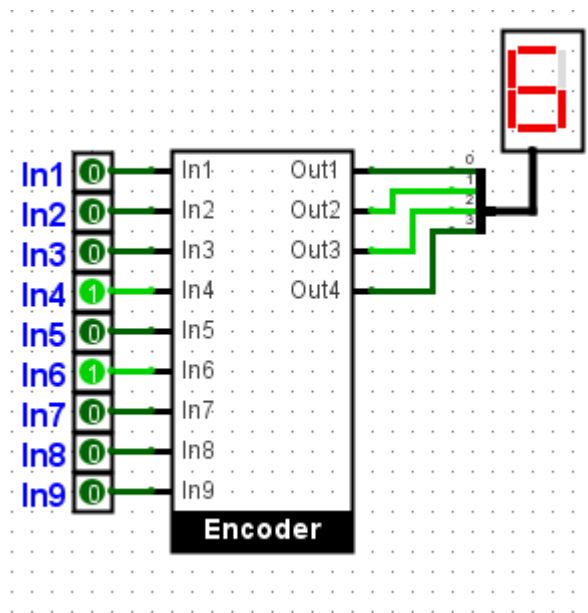


Figure 3.6: Main Circuit

### 3.2.1 Testing the Circuit

The circuit is now complete. It should be tested by entering various combinations of inputs and observing that the output always displays the highest numbered input. For example, in Figure 3.6 the output displays “6” even though both *In4* and *In6* are high.

## 3.3 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, create the Nine-line Priority Encoder circuit as defined in this lab. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the circuit, similar to this:

George Self  
 Lab 03: Nine-line Priority Encoder  
 February 18, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab03\_Encoder* and submit that file for grading.





## Part III

### COMBINATIONAL CIRCUITS

COMBINATIONAL LOGIC is the bedrock for all digital logic circuits. A combinational circuit's output is determined only by the status of the various inputs and an external clock signal is not necessary as in sequential circuits. All of the circuits completed so far in this manual have been combinational and the two labs in this part of the manual are designed to further develop the concepts of combinational digital logic with two relatively complex examples.



## ARITHMETIC LOGIC UNIT (ALU)

### 4.1 PURPOSE

In this lab you will build an Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU). An ALU is an important digital logic device used to perform all sorts of arithmetic and logic functions in a circuit. The commercial 74181 ALU has two four-bit data inputs along with a one-bit mode (M) and a four-bit select input. Depending on those settings, the device will complete one of the functions listed in Table 4.1.

Select	Logic (M=1)	Arithmetic (M=0)
0000	$A'$	$A$
0001	$(A + B)'$	$A + B$
0010	$A'B$	$A + B'$
0011	Logical 0	minus 1 (2's Comp)
0100	$(AB)'$	$A + AB'$
0101	$B'$	$(A + B)$ plus $AB'$
0110	$A \text{ XOR } B$	$A$ minus $B$ minus 1
0111	$AB'$	$AB'$ minus 1
1000	$A' + B$	$A$ plus $AB$
1001	$(A \text{ XOR } B)'$	$A$ plus $B$
1010	$B$	$(A + B')$ plus $AB$
1011	$AB$	$AB$ minus 1
1100	Logical 1	$A$ plus $A$
1101	$A + B'$	$(A + B)$ plus $A$
1110	$A + B$	$(A + B')$ plus $A$
1111	$A$	$A$ minus 1

Table 4.1: Function Table for 74181 ALU

Notes: in the "Arithmetic" column, the + sign indicates logic OR while the words *plus* and *minus* indicate arithmetic add and subtract operations. The value of  $A$  plus  $A$  is the same as shifting the bits left to the next most significant position.

The ALU built in this lab is not as complex as a 74181 Integrated Circuit (IC), however it demonstrates the basic functions of an ALU.

## 4.2 PROCEDURE

*This is a rather complex circuit so several completed subcircuits are provided.*

Load the **ALU** starter circuit in *Logisim-evolution*. That starter circuit already has the **main**, **ALU**, and **Arithmetic** subcircuits completed.

4.2.1 *main*

The **main** circuit does nothing more than provide a human-friendly interface for the rest of the **ALU**. That interface include two four-bit inputs (labeled *InA* and *InB*), a three-bit select, a one-bit mode, a carry-in and carry-out bit (so the **ALU** could be chained to another to create an eight-bit device), a *compare* output (TRUE if the two inputs are equal), and a four-bit output (labeled *ALUOut*). In operation, numbers are entered on *InA* and *InB*, the mode and select are set, and then the result is read on *ALUOut*.

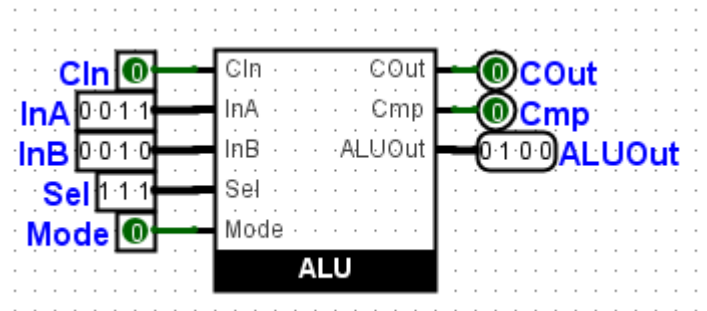


Figure 4.1: ALU main

4.2.2 *ALU*

The **ALU** subcircuit contains the logic that routes *InA*, *InB*, and *Sel* to two other subcircuits, **Arithmetic** or **Logic**. It then uses a multiplexer to route the output of one of those subcircuits to an output port depending on the setting of the *Mode* bit. Note that the inputs are sent to both subcircuits but only the output specified by the *Mode* is returned to the user. This type of logic is also used in the **Arithmetic** circuit.

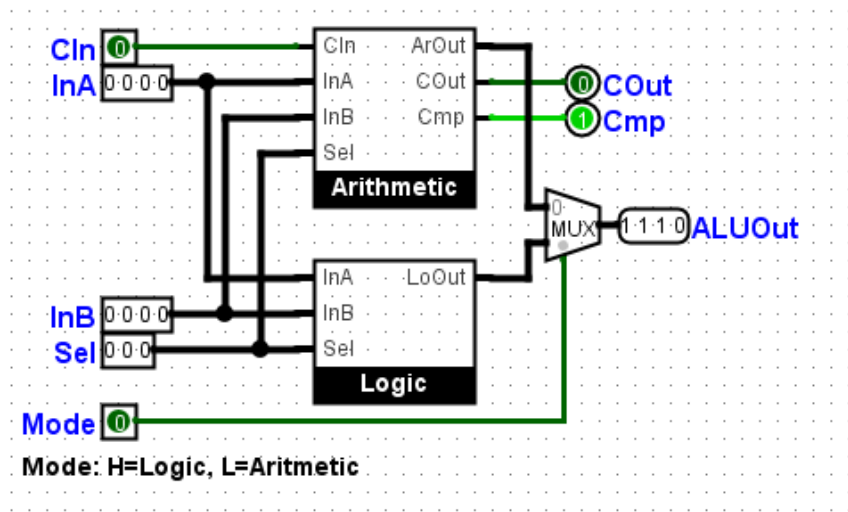


Figure 4.2: ALU Subcircuit

#### 4.2.3 Arithmetic

This subcircuit contains numerous devices from the *Arithmetic* library and they are all wired appropriately for whatever operation is selected. The concept for this subcircuit is rather simple but routing the wiring to all of the devices is challenging.

Notice that two multiplexers are necessary since the circuit provides two different outputs. The top multiplexer routes the four-bit solution and the bottom multiplexer routes the carry-out bit. The *compare* output is always active since it is comparing the input signals and does not rely on the function that is selected.

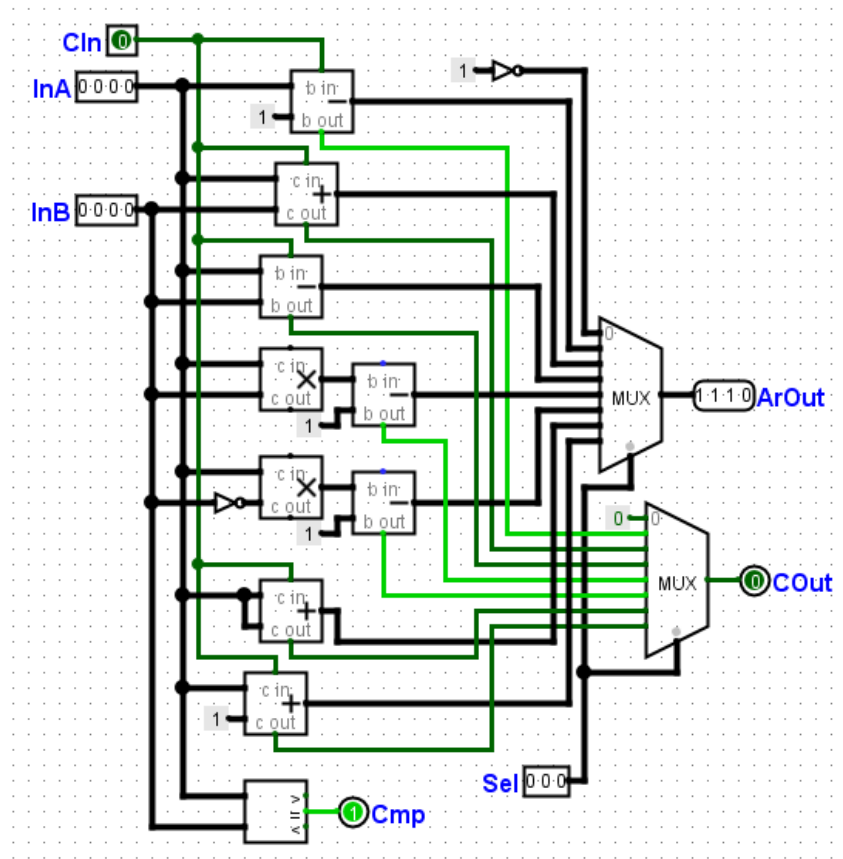


Figure 4.3: Arithmetic Subcircuit

#### 4.2.4 Challenge

In the starter circuit, the **Logic** subcircuit is only a shell with three inputs and one output.

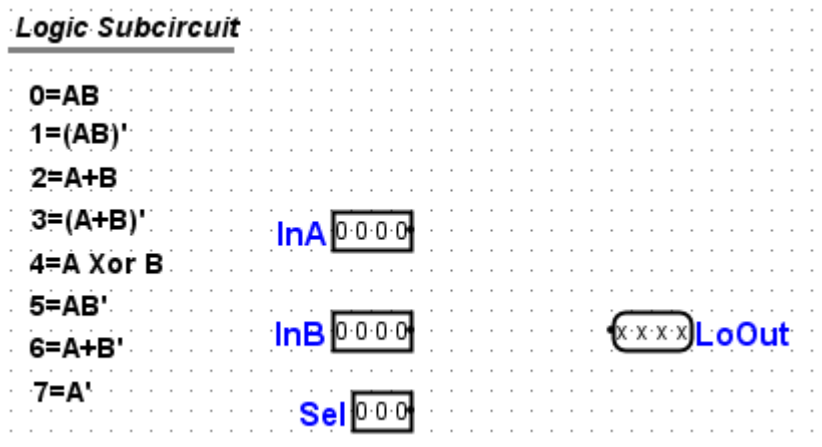


Figure 4.4: Logic Subcircuit

Complete that subcircuit by adding the necessary logic gates and wiring, similar to the **Arithmetic** subcircuit. This subcircuit is much simpler than the **Arithmetic** subcircuit since there are no carry-in, carry-out, or compare bits. When completed, the subcircuit only needs eight logic gates and a multiplexer added to the starter.

#### 4.2.5 *Testing the Circuit*

The **ALU** should be tested by entering several values on *InA* and *InB* and then select all possible arithmetic and logic operations. The outputs for each check should be accurate.

### 4.3 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the *main* circuit, similar to this:

George Self  
Lab 04: ALU  
February 18, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab04\_ALU* and submit that file for grading.





## VENDING MACHINE

---

### 5.1 PURPOSE

One of the important benefits of working with *Logisim-evolution* is being able to simulate real-world circuits before they are physically built. This lab simulates a vending machine that meets these requirements:

1. The customer can input the following coins: 5-cent, 10-cent, 25-cent.
2. When 75 cents is input, the machine will activate the dispenser and permit the customer to select a product.
3. When at least 75 cents is input no more coins will be accepted.
4. Change will be returned to the customer if more than 75 cents is deposited.
5. A reset button will return the customer's money.
6. When a product is dispensed, 75 cents will be added to the machine's "Total Money Collected" register.
7. No product is dispensed if less than 75 cents is deposited.
8. The current number of items available for each product is stored in a counter.
9. When a service technician restocks the machine the item count for each product is set to 15, which is the maximum number of items that can be stocked.
10. If the number of products available is zero for any one product the machine will light a "sold out" light and no action will be taken if that product is selected.

This circuit uses only combinational logic and is an example of a reasonably complex system.

### 5.2 PROCEDURE

The starter circuit for this lab is almost complete, but three of the requirements have not been met.

- Requirement three is that the coin input will stop once 75 cents is reached but this is not working so customers can continue depositing coins into the machine.
- When a product is dispensed, the coins deposited and change returned is not reset back to zero. This means that a customer could deposit 75 cents and then keep selecting products until the machine is empty.
- Requirement six is that the machine totals all of the money collected but that is not functional.

### 5.2.1 Testing the Circuit

To test the circuit:

1. Ensure simulation is enabled at SIMULATE -> SIMULATION ENABLED.
2. Poke the *Ena* input pin to enable the vending machine simulator.
3. Notice that the *SoldOut1*, *SoldOut2*, and *SoldOut3* LEDs are lit, indicating that those products are sold out.
4. Restock products by poking the *Restock1* and *Restock2* buttons. For this test, do not poke *Restock3* to keep that product empty. As a product is restocked the “SoldOut” LED for that product goes out.
5. Poke the *In5*, *In10*, and *In25* buttons to deposit coins. The total deposited is displayed and any amount over 75 cents is shown as change. Notice that the deposit circuit is not disabled after 75 cents is reached so customers can continue depositing coins.
6. Once at least 75 cents is deposited, poke *Vend1* to vend that product. The number of items available for that product decreases. Notice that once a product is dispensed the amount of money deposited is not reset and the machine can dispense additional products without additional money being deposited.
7. Poke *Vend3* and notice that nothing happens since that product is sold out.
8. Poke *Reset* to reset the amount of money deposited.

### 5.2.2 Subcircuit Descriptions

This simulator contains five subcircuits in addition to the `main` circuit and this section describes all of those components.

5.2.2.1 *main*

The **main** circuit is the interface between a human customer and the simulator, as shown in Figure 5.1.

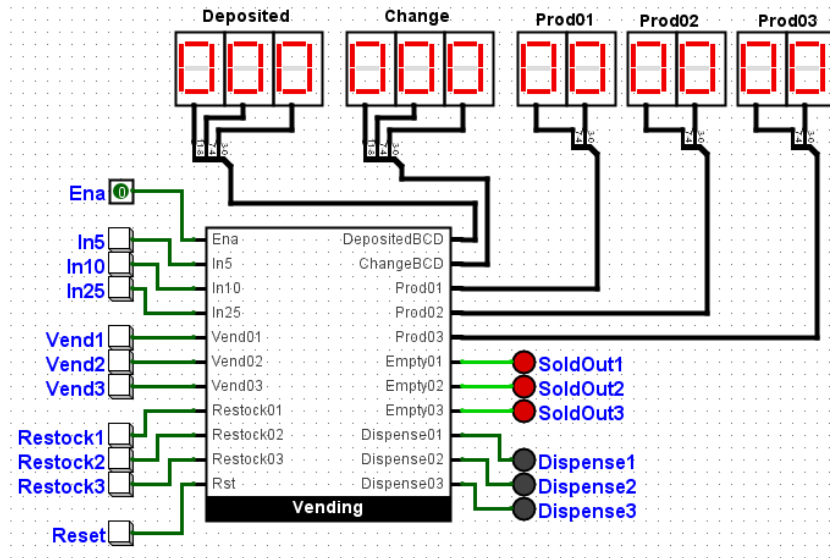


Figure 5.1: Vending Machine Main Circuit

The **main** circuit includes the following components.

- Numeric displays for the amount deposited, the change returned, and the number of items available for each of three products.
- An *Ena* (*Enable*) input so a technician can disable the machine for servicing.
- Buttons to simulate depositing coins, vending products, and restocking the machine.
- LEDs to indicate when products are sold out and dispensed.

5.2.2.2 *Activator*

The **Activator** subcircuit receives a signal from the **Bank** subcircuit that indicates how much money has been collected. The **Activator** returns the **BCD** Total and Change values and sets a signal to activate the **Dispenser** subcircuit once 75 cents has been deposited. Figure 5.2 illustrates the **Activator** subcircuit.

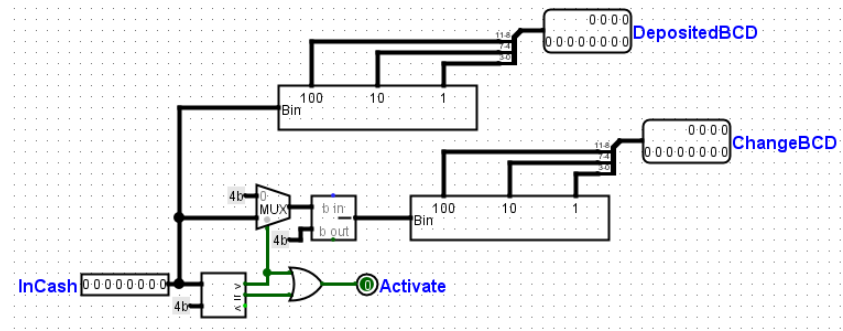


Figure 5.2: Activator Subcircuit

The **Activator** subcircuit has only one input, *InCash*. That input is connected to the **Bank** subcircuit output and contains the total amount of cash deposited. That input is connected to a *Bin2BCD* (*BFH mega functions* library) device and is then output as a *BCD* number on the *DepositedBCD* output pin.

The *InCash* input is also sent to a comparator where the amount is compared to 75. If the amount in the bank is equal to or greater than 75 then the **Activate** output goes high.

Finally, the *InCash* input is sent to a mux that outputs 75 until the comparator indicates that more than 75 is in the bank, then the mux passes the *InCash* amount to a subtractor where 75 is subtracted from it and the result sent to the *ChangeBCD* output.

### 5.2.2.3 Bank

The **Bank** subcircuit keeps a running total of the amount deposited and sends that total to the **Activator** subcircuit. Figure 5.3 illustrates the **Bank** subcircuit.

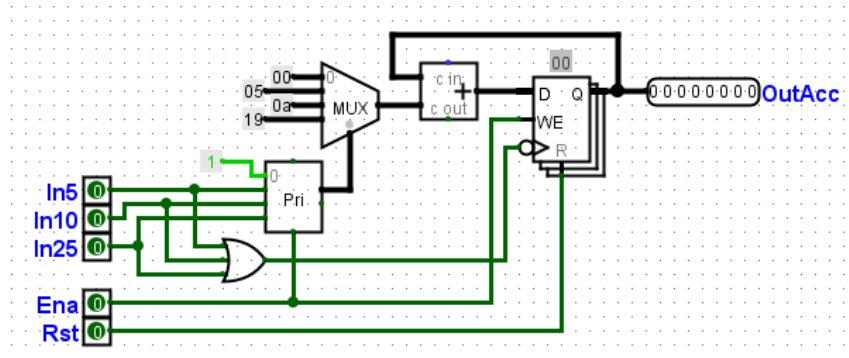


Figure 5.3: Bank Subcircuit

The **Bank** subcircuit has five inputs. *In5*, *In10*, and *In25* indicate the value of the coin dropped into the machine. When high, the *Ena* input enables the **Bank**. When high, the *Rst* input resets the total to zero.

The **Bank** subcircuit has only one output, *OutAcc*, that makes the total cash accumulated available to the **Activator** subcircuit.

For this description, imagine that a 5-cent coin is deposited. *In5* goes high which changes the output of the priority encoder from zero to one. That output is sent to a mux control where the number five, on mux input one, is passed to an adder. The output of the adder is sent to a register where it is remembered. The output of the register is sent to the *OutAcc* pin but is also looped back to the adder so each new coin is added to the previous total. Thus, the register keeps a running total of the money deposited.

The final logic function in this subcircuit is a three-input OR gate where each of the coin input pins are sent to the clock input of the register. As coins are dropped into the machine the register is clocked in order to capture each new deposit. It is important to note that *the register is set to activate on a falling edge* in order to give the input signal enough time to propagate through the priority encoder, mux, and adder.

#### 5.2.2.4 Dispenser

The **Dispenser** subcircuit dispenses the three products available in the machine. Figure 5.4 illustrates the **Dispenser** subcircuit.

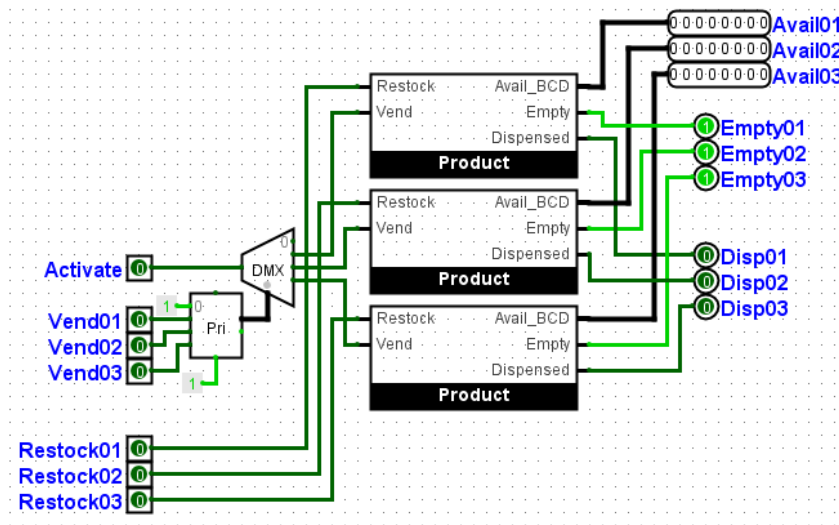


Figure 5.4: Dispenser Subcircuit

The Dispenser subcircuit has seven inputs and nine outputs.

Inputs:

- **Activate.** A high input on this pin permits a product to be dispensed. This signal is generated in the **Activator** subcircuit.
- **Vend.** These inputs cause one of three products to be dispensed.
- **Restock.** This resets the product count to 15, simulating a service technician restocking the machine.

Outputs:

- **Avail.** This is an 8-bit number (not **BCD**) that shows how many items each of the products have available for sale.
- **Empty.** This LED goes high when any product is sold out.
- **Disp.** This LED goes high when an item is dispensed.

Overall, this is a rather simple subcircuit. When one of the *Vend* inputs goes high the priority encoder sends the number for that input to the demux control port. Thus, if a customer selects product one then the priority encoder transmits a one to the demux.

The demux will transmit the value present on the *Activate* input to one of three **Product** subcircuits. When *Activate* is low then a zero is transmitted to the **Product** subcircuit which effectively disables the dispenser function. However, if *Activate* is high then a one is transmitted to one of the **Product** subcircuits and that will cause a product to be dispensed.

#### 5.2.2.5 *Product*

The **Product** subcircuit keeps count of the number of items available for a product. There are two inputs and three outputs.

Inputs:

- **Restock.** This resets the count of the item to 15. It is designed to simulate a service technician restocking the machine.
- **Vend.** When this goes high a single item is dispensed.

Outputs:

- **AvailBCD.** This is a count, in **BCD**, of the number of items available for sale.
- **Empty.** This goes high when there are no items available for sale.
- **Dispensed.** This goes high when an item is dispensed. It represents an item physically dropping out of the machine for the customer to retrieve.

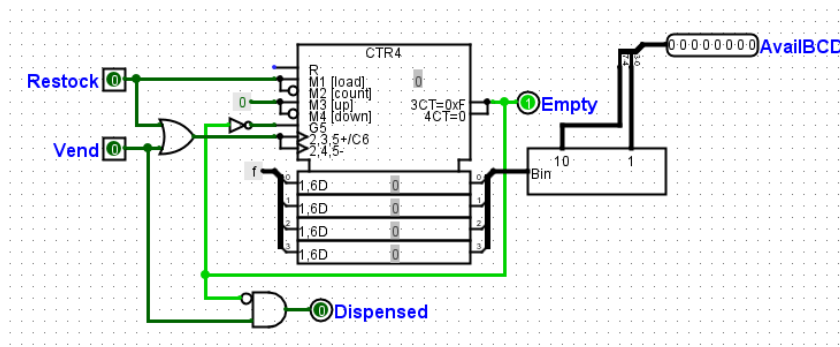


Figure 5.5: Product Subcircuit

This subcircuit is nothing more than a counter with a few controlling signals. The counter has a constant zero input on the  $M_3$  port. That sets the counter to decrement the count on each clock pulse.

The *Restock* input is wired to the counter's reset port and a high input will reset the counter to 15. Note, the counter's properties are pre-set for a maximum count of 15.

The *Vend* input is wired to the counter's clock port so when an item is sold the count will decrease. This input is also wired to the *Dispensed* output to indicate that an item was sold.

The counter has two outputs. The  $3CT=0xF$  output goes high when the count reaches zero (the item is sold out). That signal is used to disable the counter so no further sales are made. The second counter output is the count it contains and that is wired to a *Bin2BCD* (*BFH mega functions* library) device. The output of that device is sent to the *AvailBCD* port for other subcircuits to use.

#### 5.2.2.6 Vending

The **Vending** subcircuit consolidates the other subcircuits into an **IC** that is used in the **main** circuit. Figure 5.6 illustrates the **Vending** subcircuit.

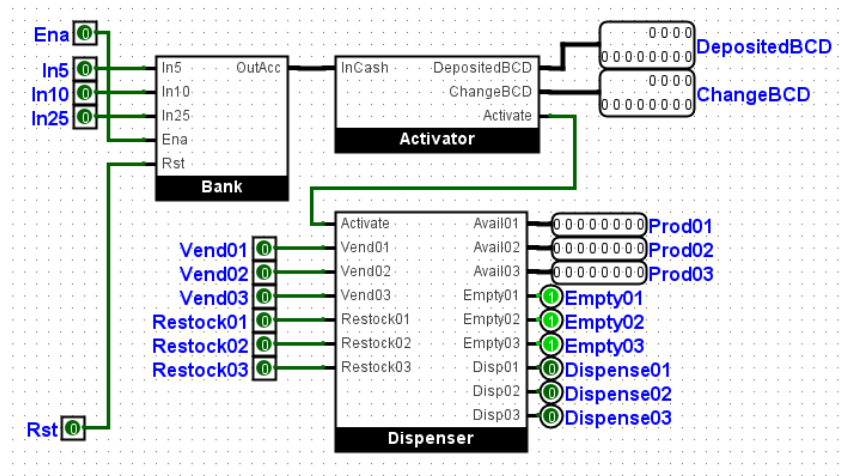


Figure 5.6: Vending Subcircuit

No further explanation is given for this subcircuit since it only wires the other subcircuits together and introduces no new logic.

### 5.3 CHALLENGE

The Vending Machine simulator has three vital flaws that must be corrected.

- Requirement three is that the coin input will stop once 75 cents is reached but this is not working so customers can continue depositing coins into the machine.
- When a product is dispensed, the coins deposited and change returned is not reset back to zero. This means that a customer could deposit 75 cents and then keep selecting products until the machine is empty.
- Requirement six is that the machine totals all of the money collected but that is not functional.

### 5.4 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, correct all three flaws identified in the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the *main* circuit, similar to:

George Self  
Lab 05: Vending Machine  
February 16, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab05\_Vend* and submit that file for grading.



## Part IV

### SEQUENTIAL CIRCUITS

SEQUENTIAL LOGIC circuits develop the concepts of clock-driven logic while creating several practical counters and memory circuits. These labs also introduce the *Logisim-evolution Chronogram*, which builds timing diagrams for sequential logic circuits.



## COUNTERS

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Counters are perhaps the most commonly-used circuits in electronic devices. They are found in virtually all electronics systems, from the simplest embedded computers to massive mainframes. Counters are designed to cycle through a specific predefined sequence of binary numbers when an input pulse is applied. Typically, counters simply count up or down from given start and end numbers, but they can be designed to produce unique output patterns for special uses.

Counters, though, are used for more than simple counting. They can measure time so devices like alarm clocks and watches include counters. They are used as frequency dividers so a fast input frequency can be output at a slower rate. In devices with memory they are used to increment memory addresses as a program steps through some process. They can activate a series of subcircuits in sequence as part of a complex process. They are, in short, one of the most important workhorses of the digital logic world.

### 6.1 PURPOSE

This lab has two goals:

1. Develop several different common counters using *D* flip-flops. Because there are two main families of counters, asynchronous and synchronous, this lab includes examples of both.
2. Introduce the *Logisim-evolution* chronogram feature that generates a timing diagram as a sequential circuit functions.

### 6.2 PROCEDURE

#### 6.2.1 Asynchronous Up Counter

A counter is built from a series of flip-flops and where the output from each flip-flop is combined to create the counter output, the trigger the next flip-flop, or both. Each flip-flop is considered a “stage” of the counter. A counter is triggered by a clock signal that is typically supplied by a timer with a regularly-recurring pattern of high/low levels, but it can also be triggered by an event of some sort, like the completion of a process.

One of the simplest counters is illustrated in Figure 6.1. This is an asynchronous four-stage up counter. A counter is considered “asynchronous” if the input clock signal is applied to only the first

*In all Counter circuits in this manual flip-flop U<sub>0</sub> provides the Least Significant Bit to the output and U<sub>3</sub> provides the Most Significant Bit.*

stage and then that signal ripples through each flip-flop in turn. Thus, an asynchronous counter is frequently called a “ripple” counter.

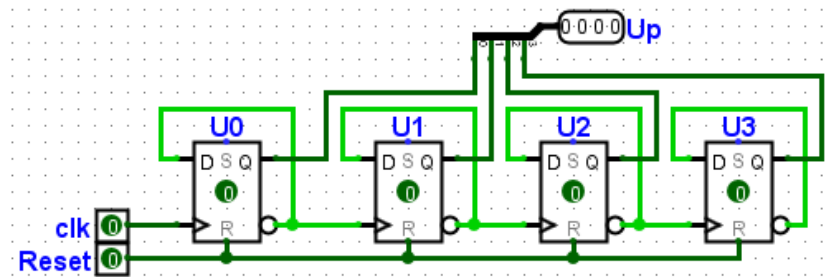


Figure 6.1: Asynchronous Up Counter

The following list describes the operation of the counter in Figure 6.1:

RESET IS ACTIVATED All flip-flops are reset so  $Q$  is low and  $Q'$  is high.

TICK 1  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 2  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_0 \uparrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_1 \downarrow$

TICK 3  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 4  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_0 \uparrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_1 \uparrow$

$U_2$  clocked:  $Q_2 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_2 \downarrow$

TICK 5  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 6  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_0 \uparrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_1 \downarrow$

TICK 7  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 8  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_0 \uparrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_1 \uparrow$

$U_2$  clocked:  $Q_2 \downarrow$  —  $Q'_2 \uparrow$

$U_3$  clocked:  $Q_3 \uparrow$  —  $Q'_3 \downarrow$

As the clock continues the counter would cycle through the binary values 1001 - 1111. The following table lists the  $Up$  counter output as indicated by the  $Q$  values at each tick listed above.

Tick	Output
Reset	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000

Table 6.1: Up Counter Output

### 6.2.2 Asynchronous Down Counter

The asynchronous down counter illustrated in Figure 6.2 is very similar to the up counter in Figure 6.1 except the stages are triggered from the  $Q$  output of the preceding stage rather than  $Q'$  and the *Reset* signal is applied to the flip-flop  $S$  input rather than  $R$ .

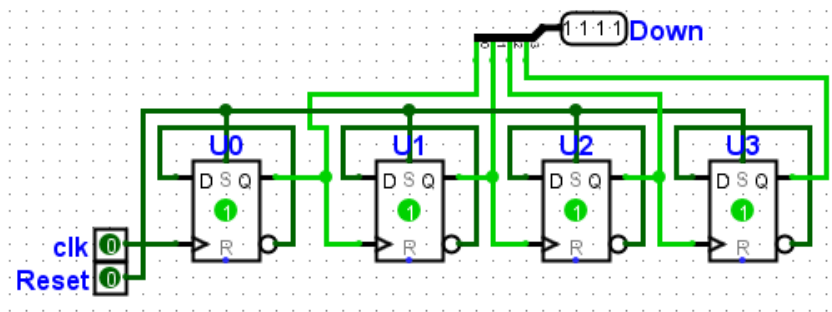


Figure 6.2: Asynchronous Down Counter

The following list describes the operation of the counter in Figure 6.2:

RESET IS ACTIVATED All flip-flops are set so  $Q$  is high and  $Q'$  is low.

TICK 1  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow \rightarrow Q'_0 \uparrow$

TICK 2  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow \rightarrow Q'_0 \downarrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \downarrow \rightarrow Q'_1 \uparrow$

TICK 3  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow \rightarrow Q'_0 \uparrow$

TICK 4  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow \rightarrow Q'_0 \downarrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \uparrow \rightarrow Q'_1 \downarrow$

$U_2$  clocked:  $Q_2 \downarrow - Q'_2 \uparrow$

TICK 5  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

TICK 6  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \downarrow - Q'_1 \uparrow$

TICK 7  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

TICK 8  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

$U_1$  clocked:  $Q_1 \uparrow - Q'_1 \downarrow$

$U_2$  clocked:  $Q_2 \uparrow - Q'_2 \downarrow$

$U_3$  clocked:  $Q_3 \downarrow - Q'_3 \uparrow$

As the clock continues the counter would cycle through the binary values 0110 - 0000. The following table lists the *Down* counter output as indicated by the  $Q$  values at each tick listed above.

Tick	Output
Reset	1111
1	1110
2	1101
3	1100
4	1011
5	1010
6	1001
7	1000
8	0111

Table 6.2: Down Counter Output

### 6.2.3 Asynchronous Decade Counter

Binary counters, like those considered in Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2 are only able to count to a value that is a power of two but it is often necessary to build a counter that stops at some other value. These types of counters are called “mod” counters (short for “modulus”) since they count up to a preset value then reset and start over, like modulus math. One of the most common mod counters is one that has ten states (it counts from zero to nine) and then resets, and that type of counter is referred to as a decade counter. Decade counters are found in any application that has to count in decimal for easy human interpretation.

The diagram shows a 4-bit counter implemented with four D flip-flops, labeled U0, U1, U2, and U3. Each flip-flop has a clock input (clk), a reset input (Reset), a data input (D), a set input (S), a clear input (C), and a data output (Q). The clock input (clk) is connected to the clock input of all four flip-flops. The reset input (Reset) is connected to the reset input of all four flip-flops. The data output (Q) of U0 is connected to the data input (D) of U1. The data output (Q) of U1 is connected to the data input (D) of U2. The data output (Q) of U2 is connected to the data input (D) of U3. The data output (Q) of U3 is connected to the data input (D) of a 4-bit decoder block labeled 'Decode'. The decoder block has four inputs (0, 1, 2, 3) and one output (0000). The output of the decoder block is connected to the data input (D) of U0. The data output (Q) of U0 is connected to the data input (D) of U1. The data output (Q) of U1 is connected to the data input (D) of U2. The data output (Q) of U2 is connected to the data input (D) of U3. The data output (Q) of U3 is connected to the data input (D) of the decoder block. The decoder block outputs '0000'.

Figure 6.3: Asynchronous Decade Counter

The following list describes the operation of the counter in Figure 6.3:

**RESET IS ACTIVATED** All flip-flops are reset so  $Q$  is low and  $Q'$  is high.

TICK 1  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 2  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

$$U_1 \text{ clocked: } Q_1 \uparrow - Q'_1 \downarrow$$

TICK 3  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 4  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

$$U_1 \text{ clocked: } Q_1 \downarrow - Q'_1 \uparrow$$

$U_2$  clocked:  $Q_2 \uparrow - Q'_2 \downarrow$

TICK 5  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 6  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

$$U_1 \text{ clocked: } Q_1 \uparrow - Q'_1 \downarrow$$

TICK 7  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 8  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q'_0 \uparrow$

$$U_1 \text{ clocked: } Q_1 \downarrow - Q'_1 \uparrow$$
$$U_2 \text{ clocked: } Q_2 \downarrow \text{ — } Q'_2 \uparrow$$
$$U_3 \text{ clocked: } Q_3 \uparrow - Q'_3 \downarrow$$

TICK 9  $U_0$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

TICK 10  $U_1$  clocked:  $Q_0 \uparrow - Q'_0 \downarrow$

Both inputs for the AND gate are momentarily high and that sends a reset signal that causes all outputs to go low.

As the clock continues the counter would cycle through the binary values 0000 - 1001. The following table lists the *Decade* counter output as indicated by the  $Q$  values at each tick listed above.

Tick	Output
Reset	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001
10	0000

Table 6.3: Decade Counter Output

#### 6.2.4 Synchronous Ring Counter

In a ring counter the high bit is shifted through all of the bits one at a time. This counter is very useful in controlling subcircuits since the high bit in the counter can activate the next subcircuit in the sequence.

The ring counter presented here is also a synchronous circuit; that is, each clock pulse is applied to all of the flip-flops instead of just the first stage. The  $Q$  output from each flip-flop is used but  $Q'$  is not needed at all. Also, there is a feedback line from  $U_3$  to the data input port of  $U_0$  so when the  $Q$  output of  $U_3$  goes high that is made available to  $U_0$  and loop that value back through the circuit.



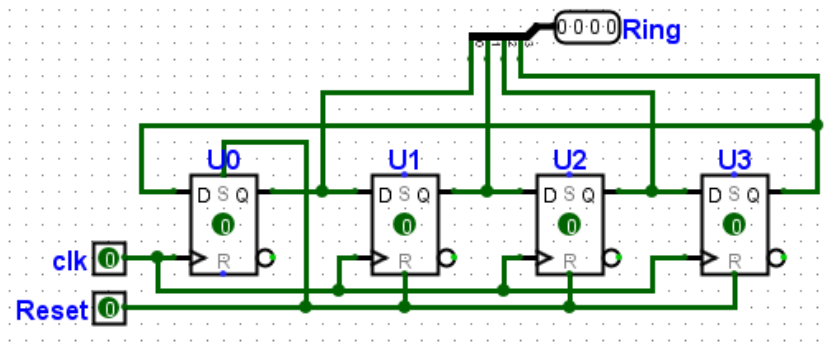


Figure 6.4: Synchronous Ring Counter

The following list describes the operation of the counter in Figure 6.4:

RESET IS ACTIVATED  $U_0$  is set and  $U_1$ - $U_3$  are reset so the counter is seeded with a single high bit to shift.

TICK 1  $Q_0 \downarrow - Q_1 \uparrow$

TICK 2  $Q_1 \downarrow - Q_2 \uparrow$

TICK 3  $Q_2 \downarrow - Q_3 \uparrow$

TICK 4  $Q_3 \downarrow - Q_0 \uparrow$

As the clock continues the counter would cycle through the binary values 0001 - 1000. The following table lists the *ring* counter output as indicated by the  $Q$  values at each tick listed above.

Tick	Output
Reset	0001
1	0010
2	0100
3	1000
4	0001
5	0010
6	0100
7	1000
8	0001

Table 6.4: Ring Counter Output

### 6.2.5 Synchronous Johnson Counter

A Johnson Counter is similar to a ring counter in that a high bit value is shifted through the entire binary word. The difference is that the

feedback loop comes from the  $Q'$  output of the last stage rather than the  $Q$  output. This type of counter is sometimes called a “twisted tail” counter since the  $Q'$  output is feedback.

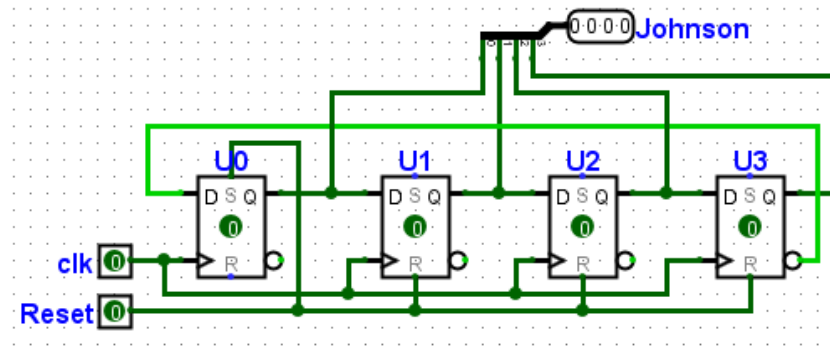


Figure 6.5: Synchronous Johnson Counter

The following list describes the operation of the counter in Figure 6.5:

RESET IS ACTIVATED  $U_0$  is set and  $U_1-U_3$  are reset so the counter is seeded with a single high bit to shift.

TICK 1  $Q_1 \uparrow$

TICK 2  $Q_2 \uparrow$

TICK 3  $Q_3 \uparrow$

TICK 4  $Q_0 \downarrow$

TICK 5  $Q_1 \downarrow$

TICK 6  $Q_2 \downarrow$

TICK 7  $Q_3 \downarrow$

TICK 8  $Q_0 \uparrow$

As the clock continues the counter would cycle through the binary values 0000 - 1111. The following table lists the *Johnson* counter output as indicated by the  $Q$  values at each tick listed above.

Tick	Output
Reset	0001
1	0011
2	0111
3	1111
4	1110
5	1100
6	1000
7	0000
8	0001

Table 6.5: Johnson Counter Output

### 6.2.6 Main

The `main` circuit provides a human interface to try out each of the counters by dropping them in place of the *Up* counter.

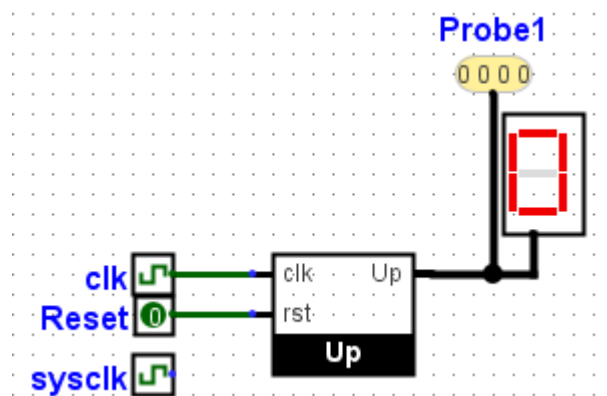


Figure 6.6: Main Circuit

Notice that there are two clocks in the `main` circuit. *Clk* is linked to the counter under test and needs no further explanation. *Sysclk* is used by the *Logisim-evolution* chronogram as described in the next section of this document.

### 6.2.7 Chronogram

*Logisim-evolution* can generate a timing diagram, called a *chronogram*, for a sequential circuit. That is a representation of the various signals in a circuit and how those signals change over time. Figure 6.7 is the timing diagram for an *Up* counter.

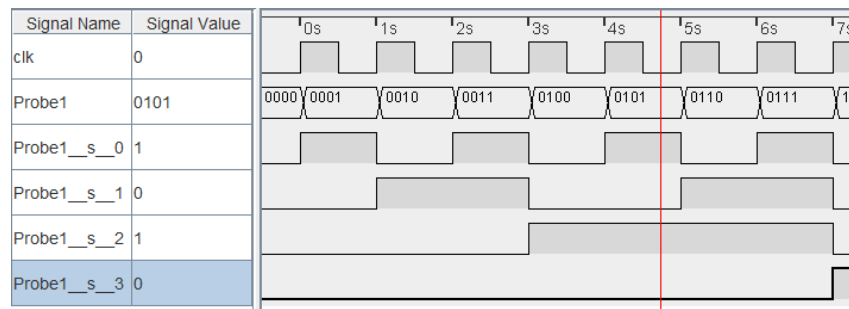


Figure 6.7: Timing Diagram for Up Counter

At the top of Figure 6.7 is a scale that indicates the number of seconds that the counter has been operating. The first trace is the input `clk` signal. The clock goes high at the start of each second and then goes low at the half-second mark. Under the clock is the “Probe1” signal. Because that is a four-bit number *Logisim-evolution* displays the number, but under that number is a breakout of the four bits that make up that number. Thus, at time zero “Probe1” is 0001 and “Probe1\_s\_0” (that stands for “Probe 1, Signal 0”) is high while the other bits are low. The *Logisim-evolution* chronogram includes a cursor indicated by a red line (found just before the five second tick in Figure 6.7) that can be placed anywhere along the diagram. The cursor sets the values of each signal in the area on the left edge of the diagram, so the cursor in Figure 6.7 is pointing to a spot where the `clk` is low, `Probe1` is at 0101, and so forth.

Follow the next steps to use the chronogram. Notes: the chronogram will only check subcircuits that are found on the `main` subcircuit. Therefore, in order to create a timing diagram all subcircuits need to be combined on `main`. The labs completed in this manual have been designed to use the `main` subcircuit as the human interface so the chronogram feature will work well with these circuits.

1. In the `main` subcircuit, add a “sampling clock” labeled `sysclk` (this name is important, do not change it to something else). The sampling clock is only used by the *chronogram* and will not show up in the timing diagram. It should not be connected to any other components and can be placed anywhere on `main`. Set the properties for `sysclk` to a 1 Tick high duration and a 1 Tick low duration (this is the default).
2. Add a circuit master clock labeled `clk`. This is the clock that will be used to trigger all components in the circuit. Set the properties for `clk` to a 4 Tick high duration and a 4 Tick low duration.
3. Set SIMULATE -> TICK FREQUENCY to 4 Hertz. This will simulate a clock that ticks once per second, as in Figure 6.7. While the

actual tick frequency can be changed later to “speed up” the circuit, a one-second tick is useful for learning how the *chronogram* works.

4. Click SIMULATE -> CHRONOGRAM to set up the *chronogram*. Figure 6.8 illustrates the initial setup screen for the *chronogram*.

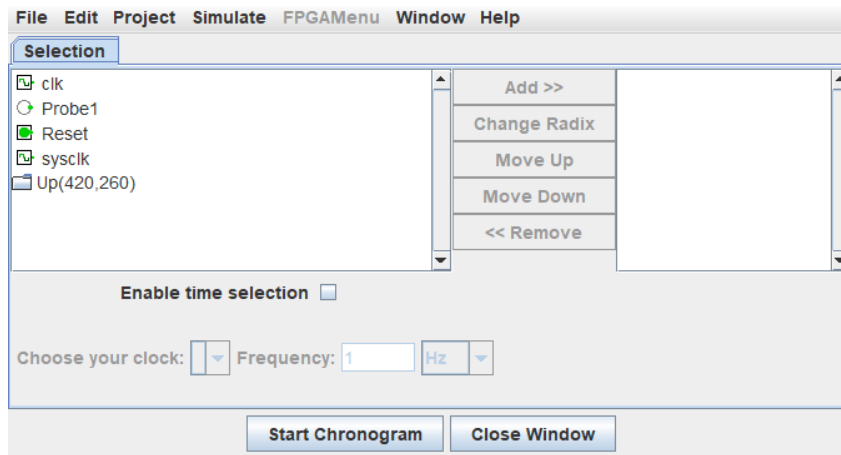


Figure 6.8: Set Up Chronogram

5. Click *sysclk* in the left panel and then click *Add »* to add that signal to the *chronogram*. The “-2” following the *sysclk* name in the right panel indicates that it is a binary signal. NOTE: *sysclk* must be added to the *chronogram* or it will not sample the circuit; however, the *sysclk* signal will not actually show up in the timing diagram. It is probably best to add the *sysclk* signal first so it is not overlooked.
6. Click *clk* in the left panel and then click *Add »* to add that signal to the *chronogram*.
7. Click *Probe1* in the left panel and then click *Add »* to add that signal to the *chronogram*.
8. Click “Enable time selection” and chose *clk* as the clock with a frequency of 1 Hertz.
9. The *chronogram* setup should look like Figure 6.9.

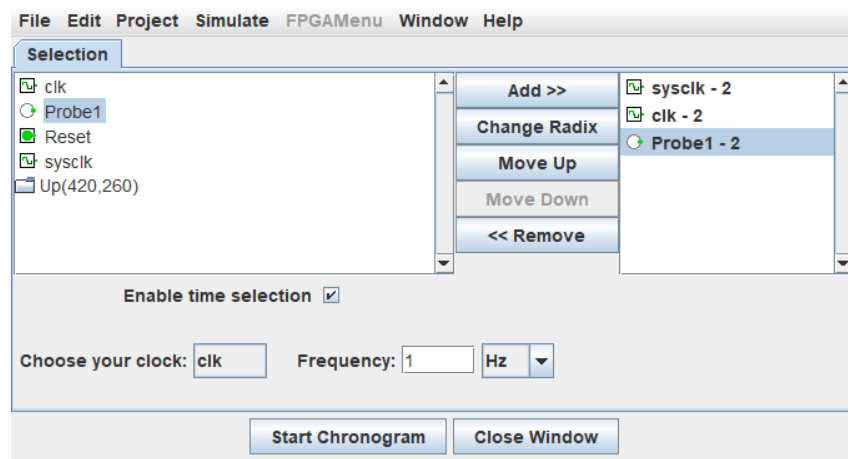


Figure 6.9: Chronogram Ready

10. Click *Start Chronogram* and the screen illustrated in Figure 6.10 pops up.

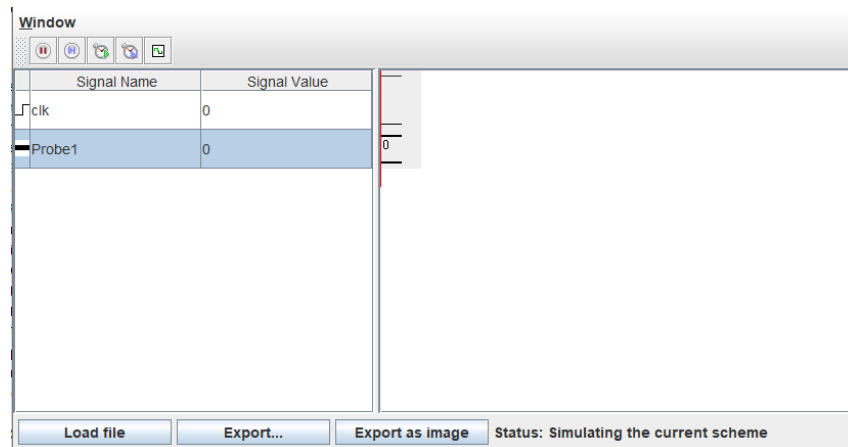


Figure 6.10: Chronogram Starting

11. Right-click on the *Probe1* signal and set the format for binary. The format can be set for any radix but to match this lab binary numbers should be specified.
12. Right-click on the *Probe1* signal and enable *Expand* to see all four signals that create *Probe1*.
13. At this point, the chronogram should look like Figure 6.11.

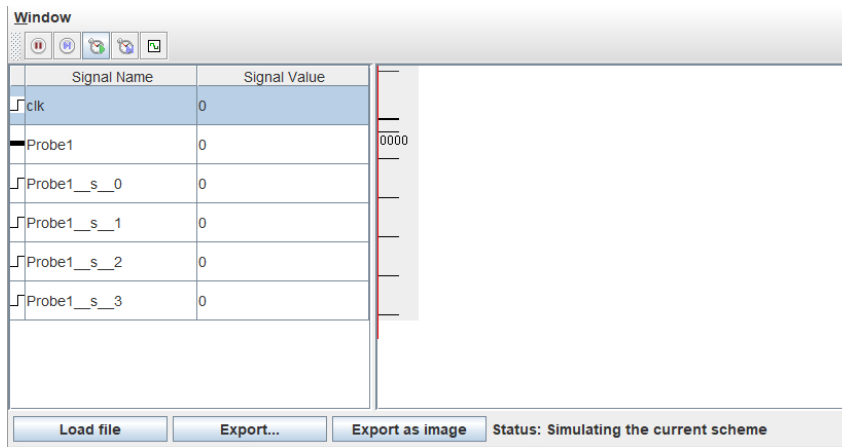


Figure 6.11: Chronogram At Zero Time

14. The *chronogram* has five buttons that control the simulator.



Figure 6.12: Chronogram Controls

- Button One: Start/Stop the simulation.
  - Button Two: Simulate one step.
  - Button Three: Start/Stop *sysclk*. This will “turn on” the chronogram and begin creating a timing diagram.
  - Button Four: Step one *sysclk* tick. This will tick the *sysclk* one time. Since this lab set up the *sysclk* for four ticks per second this button would need to be clicked four times to extend the timing diagram one second.
  - Button Five: Step one *clk* tick. This extends the timing diagram by one complete clock tick, or one second in this circuit.
15. Click button three to start the *chronogram* and watch the timing diagram unfold. After a few seconds click that button a second time to stop the *chronogram*.
16. The following can be done once the timing diagram is complete.
- Click on the timing diagram to set the cursor (indicated by a red line). Once the cursor is set the values for each signal at the cursor’s location are printed next to the signal’s label on the left edge of the timing diagram.
  - Hover the mouse over the timing diagram and roll the mouse wheel to zoom the timing diagram appearance.

- Click “Export” to save the timing diagram signal levels in a text file. That file can later be loaded to reevaluate the timing diagram.
- Click “Export as image” to save the timing diagram as a PNG file.

### 6.3 CHALLENGE

This lab includes several different timers. Place all of them on a single subcircuit named **Universal** that includes an output mux so a user can select the type of counter output desired. Place the **Universal** circuit on **main** and wire appropriate inputs and outputs.

Set up the chronogram for the ring counter and create a ten-second timing diagram for that counter. Save the timing diagram as a PNG image named “RingCounter.”

### 6.4 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the **main** circuit:

George Self  
Lab 06: Counters  
March 17, 2018

Save the circuit with this name: *Lab07\_counter* and submit that along with *RingCounter.PNG* for grading.



## TIMER

---

### 7.1 PURPOSE

A timer is used to time events. This lab creates a timer where the minimum and maximum counts can be set and counts both up and down. The timer assumes an input clock pulse at 1 Hz (or 60 pulses per minute) but for testing, the clock can be set to any value.

### 7.2 PROCEDURE

The lab starter circuit includes several versions of the timer as an illustration of the thought process used to develop the final product.

- **Timer\_V1.** This is little more than a test of the Counter (*Memory* library) component. The various inputs were wired so both the *Load* and *Up* input pins could be tested. Instead of a clock pulse, a Button (*Input/Output* library) was used for better control over the device. A Bin2BCD (*BFH mega functions* library) device was used for easier interpretation of the output.
- **Timer\_V2.** The first circuit was expanded such that both the minimum and maximum counts could be specified. Note that the multiplexer (*Plexers* library) selects whether the minimum or maximum number is loaded depending on whether the count is Up or Down.
- **Timer\_V3.** This is the version of the timer that will be completed for this lab.

#### 7.2.1 *Timer\_V3*

Complete the circuit to match Figure [7.1](#).

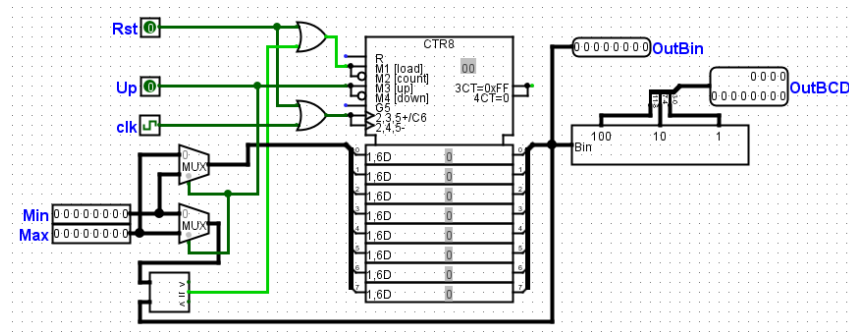


Figure 7.1: Completed Timer

In the timer circuit, the key is the comparator in the lower left corner. That device compares the binary output of the counter to either the minimum or maximum requested value and if they are equal the comparator sends a reset signal to start the count over.

There are two multiplexers with a subtle, but important, difference. The Maximum input value is wired to the top input of the top multiplexer but the bottom input of the bottom multiplexer. The result is the when the count is “Up” the Minimum input is loaded into the counter but the Maximum input is used in the compare, so the counter starts at the minimum and counts up to the maximum. The opposite is true for a “Down” count.

Finally, the BCD output is combined by a splitter (*Wiring* library) into a 12-bit bus for transmission.

### 7.2.2 Testing the Circuit

The **Timer\_V3** subcircuit should be added to the **main** circuit and wired as in Figure 7.2.

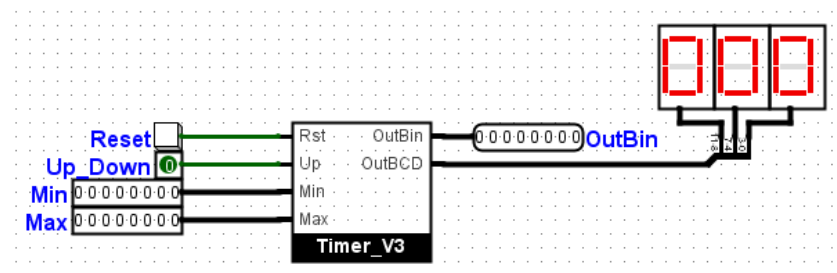


Figure 7.2: Timer Main Circuit

To test the circuit:

1. Enter binary four for a minimum value and eight for a maximum value. (Actually, any values can be entered but four and eight are enough to test the circuit.)

2. Poke *Up\_Down* to change its value to one so the circuit counts up.
3. Poke the Reset button and observe that the BCD out changes to 004.
4. Activate the clock SIMULATE -> TICKS ENABLED and observe that it counts up from four to eight and then resets to four. If the speed of the timer is not reasonable then the SIMULATE -> TICK FREQUENCY can be adjusted.
5. Poke *Up\_Down* to change the count to down and observe that the timer now counts from eight to four and resets.

### 7.3 CHALLENGE

As designed, the output of this circuit is an integer count. If it were set for counting seconds then the count of seconds would increase from 59 to 60 then 61 rather than going 0:59, 1:00, 1:01 as expected. Rewrite the *Timer\_V3* subcircuit so the output is two BCD numbers: minutes and seconds. As a hint, the Divider (*Arithmetic* library) device produces an integer (“modulus”) division along with a remainder.

### 7.4 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the *main* circuit, similar to:

George Self  
Lab 07: Timer  
March 1, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab07\_Timer* and submit that file for grading.



## REACTION TIMER

### 8.1 PURPOSE

This lab continues the exploration of timing circuits and is intended to provide additional practice with sequential circuit design. The project is to build a circuit that times a user's reaction speed. When complete, the **main** circuit should look something like Figure 8.1.

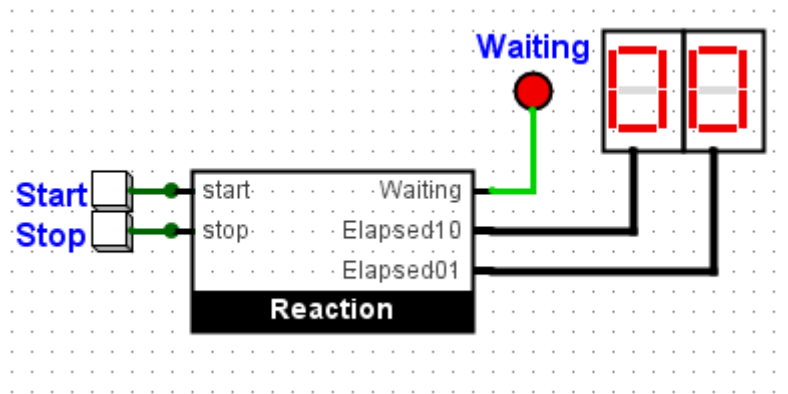


Figure 8.1: Reaction Timer

In operation:

1. The user clicks *start*.
2. An unseen timer begins and counts down a random length of time while the “Waiting” LED is lit.
3. When the unseen timer reaches zero the “Waiting” LED turns off and the numbers on the two hex displays begin to increase.
4. The user clicks the *Stop* button to stop the timer.
5. The reaction time is displayed on the two hex displays.

### 8.2 PROCEDURE

The design of this circuit is left to the student, but the timer built in Lab 7 would be a good starter for this lab. As a tip, *Logisim-evolution* includes a Random Generator (*Memory* library) that can be used to create a random countdown for the “Waiting” subcircuit. Finally, the **SIMULATE -> TICK FREQUENCY** can be set to a low number (maybe 4 Hz) to build and troubleshoot the circuit for convenience but it should

then be set somewhat faster to actually measure a user's reaction time.

### 8.3 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the circuit. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the `main` circuit, similar to:

```
George Self  
Lab 08: React  
March 11, 2018
```

Save the file with this name: *Lab08\_React* and submit that file for grading.

## ROM

### 9.1 PURPOSE

This lab introduces students to Read Only Memory (ROM) and builds a fun application: The Magic 8-Ball. This was a toy that was developed in the 1950s and was popular throughout the 1960s. It was a small sphere with the markings of an 8-ball. If the user “asked it a question” and then turned the ball upside down the answer would magically appear in a small window on the bottom of the ball.

### 9.2 PROCEDURE

Start a new *Logisim-evolution* project and create a subcircuit named **Magic\_8\_Ball**. Open that circuit and place a ROM (*Memory* library) device near the center of the drawing canvas. Set the ROM properties for an *Address Bit Width* of 12 and a *Data Bit Width* of 8.

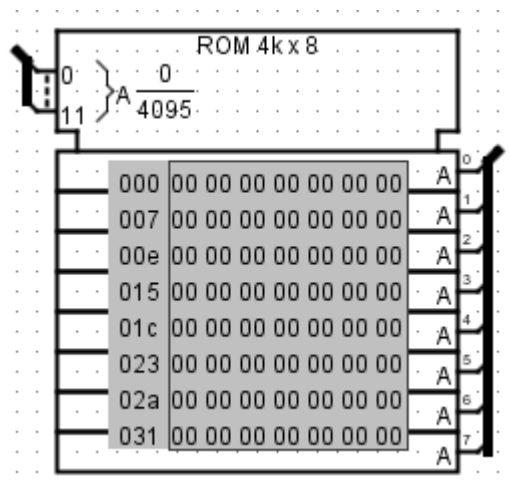


Figure 9.1: Placing ROM

A ROM stores data that is accessed by setting an address on the inputs at the top left of the device and then reading the contents of that address on the 8-bit bus on the right side of the device. By attaching a counter to the ROM address port several consecutive addresses can be “stepped through” to output a message. Attach a Counter (*Memory* library) with 12 Data Bits to the address port of the ROM, as in Figure 9.2.

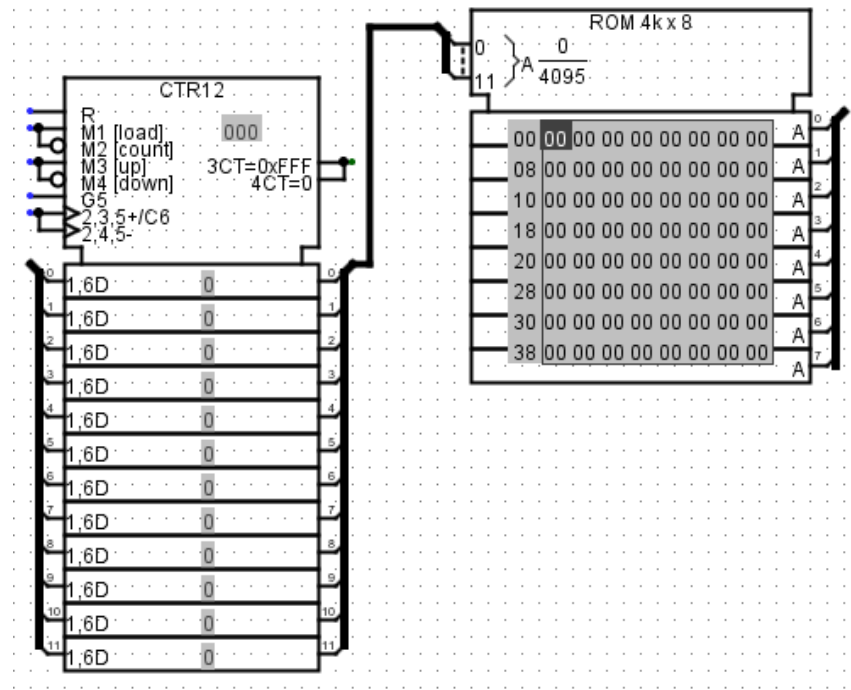


Figure 9.2: ROM With Counter

According to Wikipedia<sup>1</sup>, the Magic 8-Ball featured 20 sayings:

- 1 001 It is certain
- 2 00f It is decidedly so
- 3 022 Without a doubt
- 4 032 Yes definitely
- 5 041 You may rely on it
- 6 054 As I see it yes
- 7 064 Most likely
- 8 070 Outlook good
- 9 07d Yes
- 10 081 Signs point to yes
- 11 094 Reply hazy try again
- 12 0a9 Ask again later
- 13 0b8 Better not tell you now
- 14 0d1 Cannot predict now
- 15 0e4 Concentrate and ask again
- 16 0fe Do not count on it
- 17 111 My reply is no
- 18 120 My sources say no
- 19 132 Outlook not so good
- 20 146 Very doubtful

The Magic 8-Ball simulator built in this lab uses those same 20 saying. In the above chart, each saying is numbered and the start

<sup>1</sup> [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Magic\\_8-Ball](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Magic_8-Ball)



point in ROM for each saying is also noted. Thus, saying one starts on ROM byte 000, saying two starts on ROM byte 00f, saying three starts on ROM byte 022, and so forth.

The content of the ROM device must be loaded before it can be used and that content is provided in *Lab09\_ROM.txt* accompanying this lab. To load the ROM device, click it one time and then click the “(click to edit)” link in its properties panel. In the ROM editor window that pops up, click the “open” button and navigate to the ROM memory file. Click “close window” to load the ROM device and make it ready for service.

The start point for each saying, as indicated on the above table, is stored in Constants (*Wiring* library) and a Mux (*Plexers* library) with five select bits is used to channel the start byte in ROM Memory for a specific message to the counter. Figure 9.3 illustrates the circuit at this point.

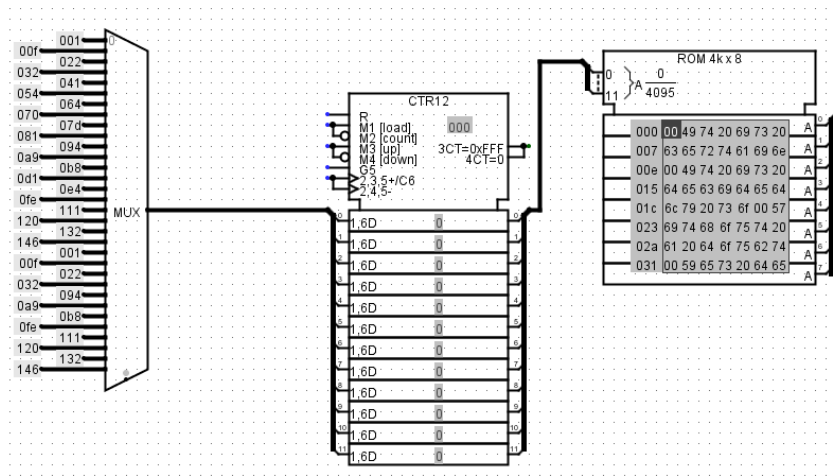


Figure 9.3: ROM Filter Mux

A five-bit Random Generator (*Memory* library) is used to select a message at random. Figure 9.4 illustrates the placement of the random generator.



- Four signals were added to control the counter. Those signals are made available from tunnels and are actually generated elsewhere in the circuit.
- Tho signals were added to the one-shot subcircuit. The enable is linked through an AND gate to the clock of the random generator. Thus, whenever a reset signal is received the random generator will choose another 8-ball saying at random. Also, *ttyClr* is generated to clear the teletype device on the *main* circuit.
- The output of the ROM device is connected to the *ttyOut* port in order to drive the teletype device on the *main* circuit.
- Note that at the output of the ROM device is a splitter. ASCII letters are only seven bits wide so this splitter passes bits 0-6 to the *ttyOut* port but bit 7 (the most significant bit) is simply discarded.
- Near the output of the ROM device, an AND gate feeds the *ttyClk* signal, which is used on the *main* circuit to clock the teletype device.
- The Bit Finder (*Arithmetic* library) attached to the output of the ROM device is used to find the lowest-order one in the ROM byte. If the ROM byte includes at least one one then the south port is high but it goes low if the ROM byte is all zeros. That is the *ena* signal that enables the clock and, when it goes low, permits a *rst* signal (generated on the *main* circuit when the user “asks another question”) to create a new answer.

Figure 9.6 illustrates the complete Magic 8-Ball circuit.

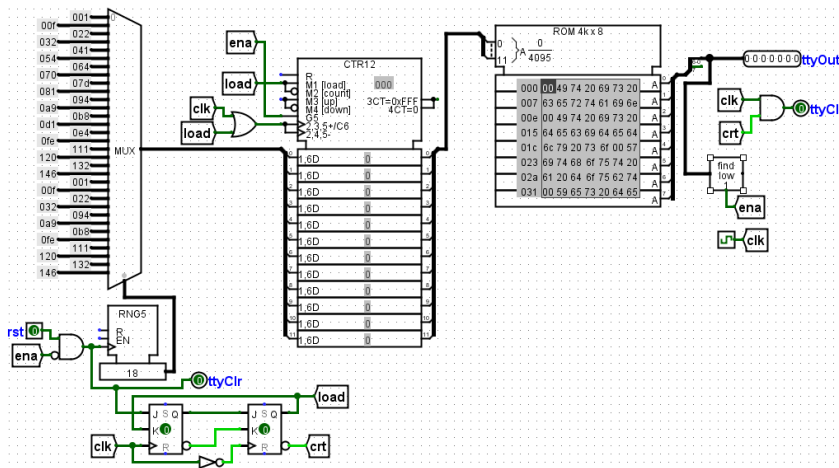


Figure 9.6: Complete Magic 8-Ball Circuit

The only remaining step is to create the *main* circuit. As in all labs in this manual, the *main* circuit does nothing more than provide a

user interface for the Magic 8-Ball Circuit. Figure 9.7 illustrates the **main** circuit.

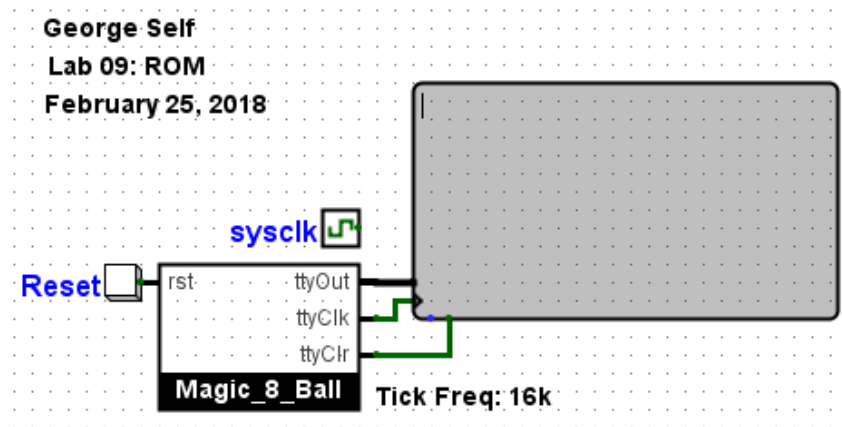


Figure 9.7: Magic 8-Ball Main Circuit

### 9.2.1 Testing the Circuit

Before the circuit can be tested the ROM device must be loaded. The ROM was loaded earlier in the lab but in case it does not have any content (it is filled with zeros), then load it with *Lab09\_ROM.txt*, which was provided with the lab. To load the ROM device, click it one time and then click the “(click to edit)” link in its properties panel. In the ROM editor window that pops up, click the “open” button and find the ROM memory file. Click “close window” to load the ROM device and make it ready for service.

The circuit should be tested by enabling the simulator clock at a frequency of 16K Hertz. Every time the *Reset* button is pressed a new random message will be displayed on the teletype screen.

## 9.3 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, build this circuit. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the **main** circuit, similar to:

George Self  
Lab 09: ROM  
February 16, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab09\_ROM* and submit that file for grading.

## RAM

### 10.1 PURPOSE

This lab is used to demonstrate how a Random Access Memory (RAM) device operates.

### 10.2 PROCEDURE

A RAM (*Memory* library) device is similar to a ROM device as used in Lab 9, [ROM](#). A RAM device has an address input port, a data port, and several control ports. An address is loaded in the Address Port then on the next clock signal the device either reads the data at that address and outputs it on the data port or inputs whatever is on the data port and writes it to that address. Figure 10.1 illustrates a counter connected to a RAM address port so as the counter outputs an increasing value the RAM will “step through” memory locations.

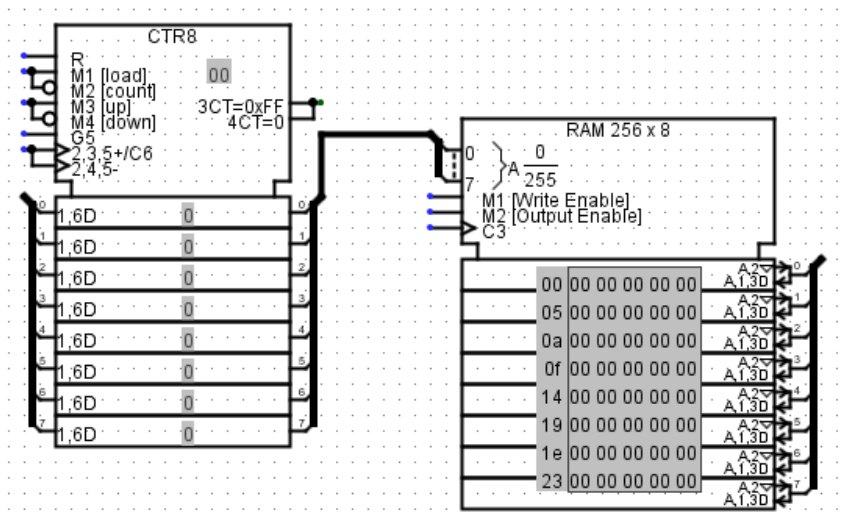


Figure 10.1: RAM Basics

In operation, a high signal on RAM port M1 enables the write function and the RAM device will store whatever is present on the data ports into the address pointed to on the address port. A high signal on port M2 enables the output function (a “read” function) and the RAM device will send whatever is present in the address pointed to on the address port to the data ports.

Notice that the data ports have both an in and out pointing arrow to indicate that those ports are designed for both input and output, depending on the setting of M1 and M2.

Figure 10.2 shows a RAM device with the various control signals.

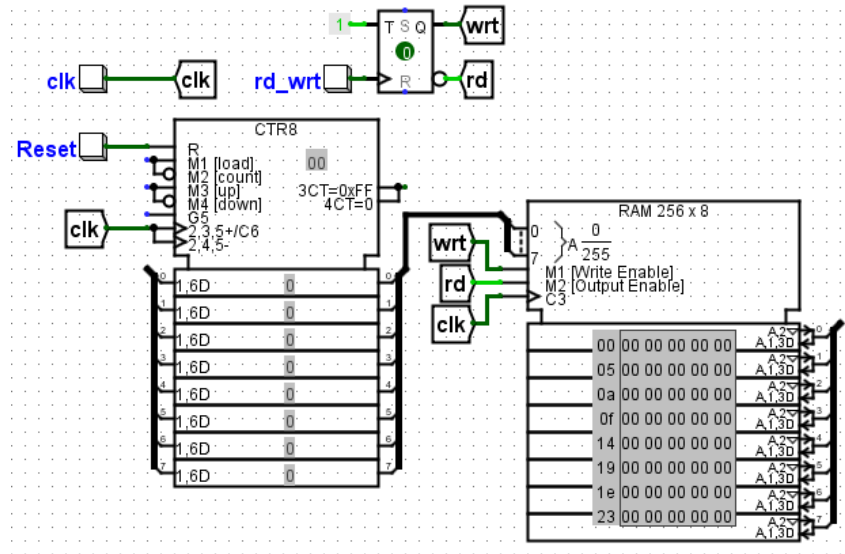


Figure 10.2: RAM With Control Signals

To simplify the circuit wiring, tunnels are used to transport various signals around the circuit.

At the top left of the subcircuit a button is used to generate a clock pulse. By using a button students can pulse the circuit slowly and observe how the RAM device operates. In an actual circuit that button would be replaced by a Clock (*Wiring* library).

At the top of the circuit is a T Flip-Flop (*Memory* library) that is used to control whether the RAM device is reading or writing data. Because it is important that M1 and M2, the two control ports on the RAM device, are never both high at one time a flip-flop is the perfect controller. The T input on the flip-flop is tied to a constant high so whenever the rd\_wrt button is pressed the RAM device toggles between read and write functions.

The Counter has a Reset button attached that will reset its count to zero so the RAM device will always either read or write from its lowest memory location. In actual practice the counter would need a much more complex circuit to set a specific start point for the RAM device to read or write but for this simple demonstration circuit it is enough to always start read/write operations from the lowest memory location.

The next step is to set up the data bus on the east side of the RAM device. It is important that the bus does not attempt to carry data out of the RAM device at the same time that data are being sent to the RAM device. Thus, control buffers are used to determine the direction of data flow between the RAM device and the data bus. Figure 10.3 shows the data bus with the control buffers.

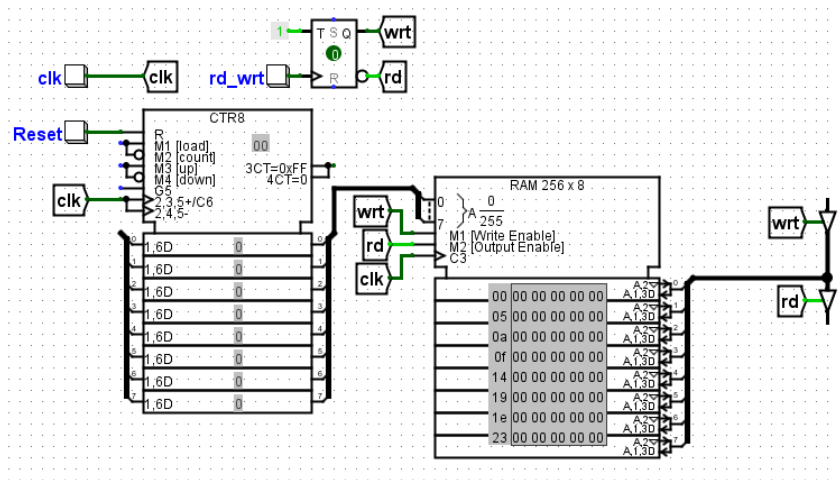


Figure 10.3: Data Bus

Notice that the outputs of the read/write flip-flop are being used to control the direction of the data flow for the RAM device.

To complete the demonstration circuit, a Keyboard (*Input/Output* library) device is added to write ASCII characters into RAM memory and a TTY (*Input/Output* library) device is used to display ASCII characters read from RAM memory. Figure 10.4 shows the input/output devices.

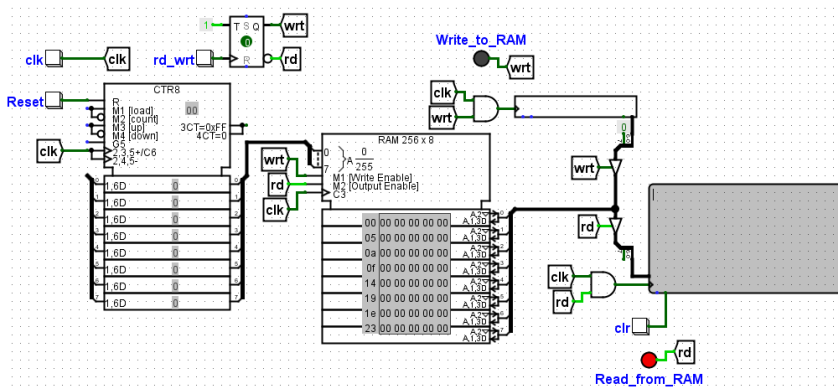


Figure 10.4: RAM With Input/Output Devices

To operate the keyboard device, click it and enter some text from the computer's keyboard. Then as that device is clocked one ASCII character at a time will be sent to the output port at its south-east corner. As in ASCII devices used in earlier labs, a splitter is used for both the keyboard and TTY display to strip the most significant bit from the data bus since the bus is eight bits wide but ASCII is only a seven-bit code.

Finally, two indicator LEDs have been added to make it clear whether data are being written to RAM or read from RAM.

### 10.2.1 Testing the Circuit

To test the complete circuit:

1. Click Reset to set the counter to zero.
2. Click the “rd\_wrt” button until the “Write\_to\_RAM” LED is on.
3. Click the keyboard device and enter some text.
4. Click the “clk” button to stream the text from the keyboard into RAM. Notice how the RAM device display changes to indicate the ASCII codes that have been stored.
5. Click Reset to set the counter to zero.
6. Click the “clr” button on the TTY device to clear that display.
7. Click the “rd\_wrt” button until the “Read\_from\_RAM” LED is on.
8. Click the “clk” button to stream text from RAM to the TTY device. Notice that this does not remove the text from RAM so it is still available for another reading if desired.

### 10.3 CHALLENGE

Build the circuit as described in this Lab and ensure that it operates as expected.

### 10.4 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the `main` circuit, similar to:

```
George Self  
Lab 10: RAM  
February 16, 2018
```

Save the file with this name: *Lab10\_RAM* and submit that file for grading.



## Part V

### SIMULATION

SIMULATION is the most complex topic covered in this lab manual. Included in this manual are a simple processor, designed to teach the foundations of a Central Processing Unit, and an elevator simulator, designed to be a capstone project.



## PROCESSOR

---

### 11.1 PURPOSE

A Central Processing Unit (CPU) is arguably one of the most important digital logic devices. CPUs are found in all computers and many other embedded logic devices. They are versatile circuits that can be used to control many processes and peripheral devices. The purpose of this lab is to lay the foundation of CPU operation.

#### 11.1.1 *A Definition*

When asked to define “CPU” many students offer poetic definitions like “it is the brain of the computer.” This may be somewhat artistic but is not very helpful in defining CPU for digital logic purposes. Here is a much better definition:

A Central Processing Unit (CPU) is a hardware device that is designed to translate binary codes stored in software into signals that control hardware. Thus, a CPU is the interface between software and hardware.

The purpose of this lab is to demonstrate how binary codes can be used to manipulate hardware devices, like registers and adders, to move data through a circuit and accomplish a purpose. While the circuit developed in this lab is not a practical start for a CPU it does serve as an introduction to the concept of hardware manipulation by software codes.

### 11.2 PROCEDURE

This processor contains only three subcircuits connected by several bus lines and each of the three subcircuits are reasonably simple to understand.

#### 11.2.1 *Arithmetic-Logic Unit*

This processor starts with a simple ALU, as in Figure 11.1.

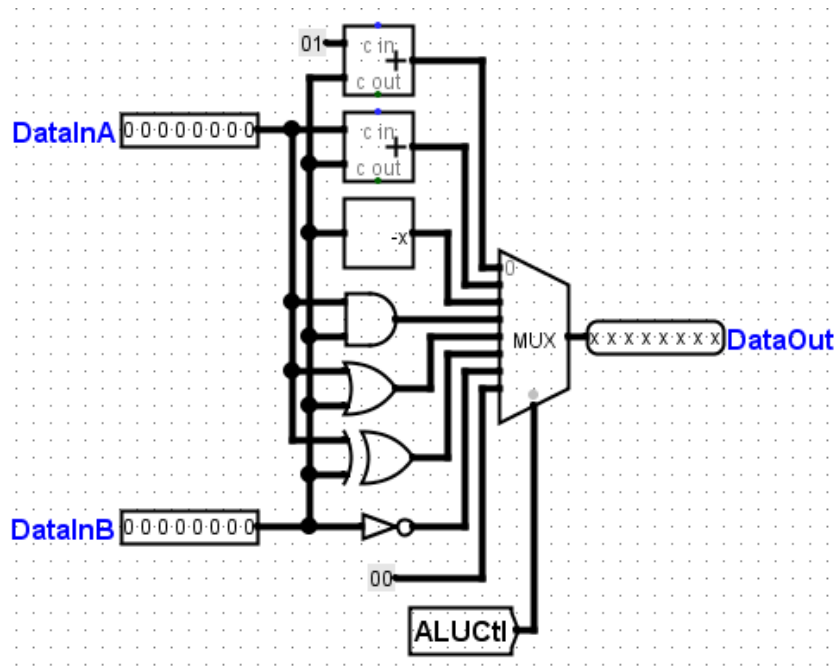


Figure 11.1: Simple ALU

To be sure, this ALU is not very complex but uses the same principles developed in Lab 4, **ARITHMETIC LOGIC UNIT (ALU)**. It contains only three arithmetic functions, increment, add, and negate, four logic functions, AND, OR, XOR, NOT, and one constant zero output. There are two data input ports but note that some of the functions only use the lower input, and one output port. The multiplexer determines which of the functions will be connected to the output and that is controlled by a signal named *ALUctl*.

The ALU is then expanded somewhat to make it usable in a CPU.

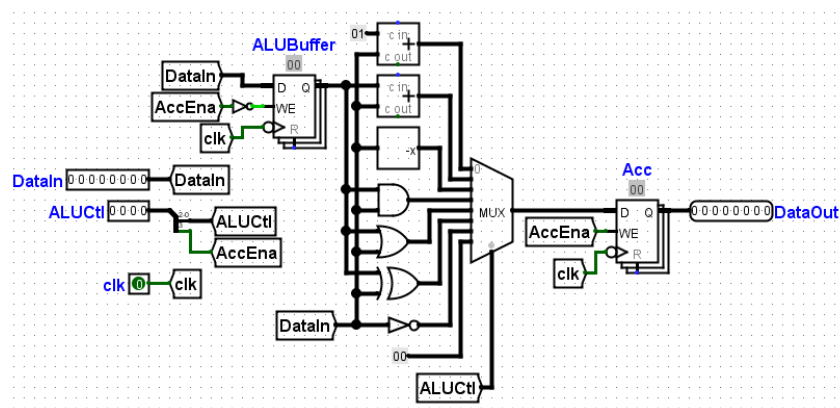


Figure 11.2: Full ALU

The simple ALU functions are found in the center of Figure 11.2. However, what started as *DataInA* has been replaced by a register

named *ALUBuffer*.<sup>1</sup> The *ALUBuffer*'s inputs are from Tunnels (*Wiring* library) because those inputs are used in more than one location in the subcircuit.<sup>2</sup>

The *ALU* output is routed through a register named *Acc*, for *Accumulator*, which is the commonly-used name for the *ALU* output in a *CPU* circuit.

On the left side of the subcircuit are the three input ports. *DataIn* is an eight-bit number that is sent to both the *ALUBuffer* and the lower *DataIn* bus. The *ALUCtl* signal is split into two components. Bits 0-2 are sent to the multiplexer to select which of the eight functions will be output. Bit 3 of the *ALUCtl* signal is sent to the *AccEna* tunnel and when that is high the *Acc* register will be enabled but when that signal is low then the *ALUBuffer* register will be enabled. Finally, the clock input is sent to both registers.

### 11.2.2 General Registers

A *CPU* must have several general registers available to hold data while an instruction is being carried out. For example, to temporarily hold the *Acc* output until it is needed in a later step that value can be stored in a register and then recovered when needed.

The processor circuit being built in this lab has four general registers. Figure 11.3 illustrates the *GenReg* subcircuit.

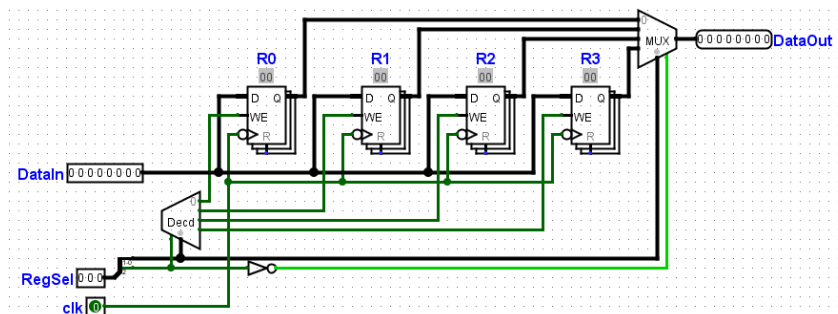


Figure 11.3: General Registers

The *GenReg* subcircuit does not require any novel digital logic concepts. Starting on the left side of the circuit:

- *DataIn* is connected to the data bus and is the main input port for the registers. Note that *DataIn* is connected to the *Data* port on all four registers.

<sup>1</sup> IMPORTANT NOTE: All registers in this Processor circuit are triggered on the Falling Edge of the clock. The reason for this will become evident when the circuit is tested.

<sup>2</sup> Tunnels are used extensively in this circuit to simplify the diagrams and aid in tracing signals.

- The register that actually stores the input data is determined by the Decoder (*Plexers* library) in the lower left corner of the subcircuit. The two low-order bits from the *RegSel* signal activate one of the output lines from the Decoder and that line is tied to the Write Enable port of the register. On the next clock pulse that register will lock in the data present on the *DataIn* port.
- The outputs from all of the registers are wired to a Multiplexer (*Plexers* library). The select bits from the Decoder that are used to select the storage register are also used to select the register output line which is, in turn, wired to the *DataOut* port.
- The high-order bit from the *RegSel* control signal is used to determine if data are stored to or read from a register. When that bit is high the decoder is active and will select a storage register but when that bit is low the output multiplexer will be activated and send a register's stored value to the output port.

### 11.2.3 Control

The **Control** subcircuit in this device is very simple and could, in all actuality, be eliminated. However, in a true **CPU** the **Control** subcircuit is rather complex and critical to the operation of the circuit so a **Control** subcircuit is included in this lab as an example. Figure 11.4 illustrates the **Control** subcircuit.

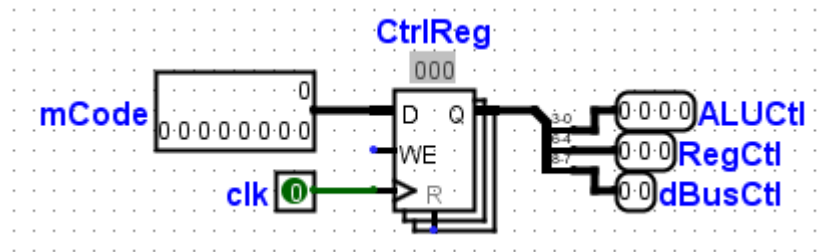


Figure 11.4: Control Subcircuit

The **Control** subcircuit includes a nine-bit input named *mCode* (for “Microcode”). That input is latched by a register<sup>3</sup> and the output of that register is split into three components.

**BITS 0-3** These are the **ALU** control bits and they are sent to the **ALU** subcircuit.

**BITS 4-6** These are the register control bits and are sent to that subcircuit.

<sup>3</sup> Note, as an exception to the other registers in the Processor circuit, the register in the control subcircuit must be set to trigger on the leading edge of the clock rather than the falling edge.

**BITS 7-8** These are the *dBus* (“Data Bus”) control bits. The data bus is found in the **main** circuit and carries the data to each of the subcircuits. The *dBus* control is just a multiplexer that controls which subcircuit’s output has control of the data bus.

#### 11.2.4 Main

The **main** circuit ties the three subcircuits together with three control busses and one data bus. Figure 11.5 illustrates the **main** circuit.

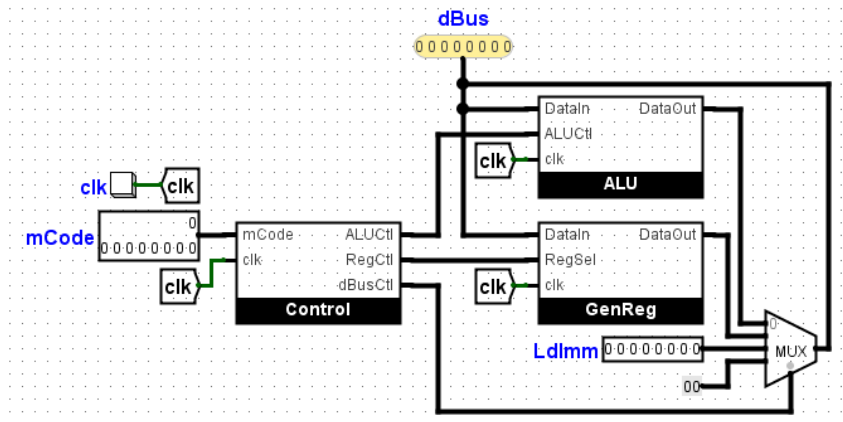


Figure 11.5: Main Circuit

There are no novel digital logic functions used in this circuit. The first input is *mCode* which is the microcode used to control the flow of data in the *dBus* (“data bus”). the other input, *LdImm* (“Load Immediate”) can contain an eight-bit number that is to be loaded into one of the registers for processing. In a full **CPU** that input would be wired to a **RAM** device.

#### 11.2.5 Testing the Circuit

The circuit should be tested by inputting these signals and observing the output.

##### 11.2.5.1 Copy *LdImm* To *Ro*

Enter some value in the *LdImm* input port, set the *mCode* input to 101001000 (the first three values in the table below), and then pulse the *clk*. When completed, the *dBus* and *Ro* should both contain the value of the *LdImm* port.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
10	100	1000	LdImm	R0 <- LdImm

Table 11.1: R0 &lt;- LdImm

#### 11.2.5.2 Copy LdImm To R1

Enter some value in the *LdImm* input port, set the *mCode* input to 101011000 (the first three values in the table below), and then pulse the *clk*. When completed, the *dBus* and *R1* should both contain the value of the *LdImm* port.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
10	101	1000	LdImm	R1 <- LdImm

Table 11.2: R1 &lt;- LdImm

#### 11.2.5.3 Copy LdImm To ALU

Enter some value in the *LdImm* input port, set the *mCode* input to 100110000 (the first three values in the table below), and then pulse the *clk*. When completed, the *dBus* and *ALU* should both contain the value of the *LdImm* port.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
10	011	0000	LdImm	ALU <- LdImm

Table 11.3: ALU &lt;- LdImm

#### 11.2.5.4 Increment dBus

Set the *mCode* input to 000001000 (the first three values in the table below), and then pulse the *clk*. When completed, the original value of the *dBus* will be incremented by one.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
00	000	1000	dBus+1	dBus <- Inc(dBus)

Table 11.4: dBus &lt;- Inc(dBus)

#### 11.2.5.5 Add R0 And R1, Store In R0

Use the *LdImm* function to initialize *R0* and *R1*.

Adding the values of *R0* and *R1* and storing the result in *R0* requires three steps. Set the *mCode* input to the first three values in the table



below and pulse the *clk* for each of the steps. When completed, the sum of the original values of *R0* and *R1* will be stored in *R0*.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
01	001	0001	R1	ALU <- R1
01	000	1001	R0	Acc <- R0 + R1
00	100	0001	Acc	R0 <- Acc

Table 11.5:  $R0 \leftarrow R0 + R1$ 

#### 11.2.5.6 Subtract *R1* From *R0*, Store In *R0*

Subtracting the value of *R1* from *R0* and storing the result in *R0* requires four steps. Set the *mCode* input to the first three values in the table below and pulse the *clk* for each of the steps. When completed, the difference of the original values of *R0* and *R1* will be stored in *R0*.

Use the *LdImm* function to initialize *R0* and *R1*.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
01	000	0010	R0	ALU <- R0
01	001	1010	R1	Acc <- ~R1
00	100	1001	R0-R1	dBus <- Acc
00	100	0111	dBus+1	R0 <- R0 - R1

Table 11.6:  $R0 \leftarrow R0 - R1$ 

#### 11.2.5.7 Copy *R0* to *R1*

Copying the value of *R0* to *R1* requires four steps. Set the *mCode* input to the first three values in the table below and pulse the *clk* for each of the steps. When completed, the value of *R0* will be stored in *R1*.

Use the *LdImm* function to initialize *R0*.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
00	000	1111	0	dBus <- 0
00	000	0100	0	ALU <- dBus
01	000	1100	Acc	Acc <- ALU OR R0
00	101	0111	Acc	R1 <- Acc

Table 11.7:  $R1 \leftarrow R0$ 

#### 11.2.5.8 Swap *R0* And *R1*

Swapping the values of *R0* and *R1* requires 12 steps. Set the *mCode* input to the first three values in the table below and pulse the *clk*

Use the *LdImm* function to initialize *R0* and *R1*.

for each of the steps. When completed, the values of *R0* and *R1* will be exchanged.

dBus	Reg	ALU	dBus	Notes
00	000	1111	0	dBus <- 0 (Move R0 to R2)
00	000	0100	0	ALU <- dBus
01	000	1100	Acc	Acc <- ALU OR R0
00	110	0111	Acc	R2 <- Acc
00	000	1111	0	dBus <- 0 (Move R1 to R0)
00	000	0100	0	ALU <- dBus
01	001	1100	Acc	Acc <- ALU OR R1
00	100	0111	Acc	R0 <- Acc
00	000	1111	0	dBus <- 0 (Move R2 to R1)
00	000	0100	0	ALU <- dBus
01	010	1100	Acc	Acc <- ALU OR R2
00	101	0111	Acc	R1 <- Acc

Table 11.8:  $R0 \leftrightarrow R1$

### 11.3 ABOUT PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

The codes that were input for the last example (swap *R0* and *R1*) would create the following program.

---

```

000001111
000000100
010001100
001100111
000001111
000000100
010011100
001000111
000001111
000000100
010101100
001010111

```

---

This group of instructions would be considered “CPU Microcode,” which is a very highly specialized form of programming. It is the code that is built into a CPU circuit and it determines what gates, registers, and other devices are active for each step of the code. When

Intel, AMD, Motorola, or other manufacturers create a new **CPU**, one of their main challenges is creating the microcode that will, for example, “add the contents of register one to the contents of register two and store the result in register zero.” The microcode must be able to activate and deactivate various devices within the **CPU** so data appear on the appropriate bus at the right time in order to achieve the objective. Normally, microcode steps must be executed over several clock cycles in order to do a single job. For example, in one clock cycle the contents of register one may be placed on the data bus, the next clock cycle will load that data into the ALU register, and so forth until the entire process is complete.

Microcode is usually stored in **ROM** that is built into the **CPU**. This is typically called “firmware” since it is a string of ones and zeros, like software, but it cannot be changed, like hardware.

It is important to keep in mind the difference between instructions contained in a software program (like Word) and those contained in microcode. A single instruction in software is interpreted and executed by the **CPU** using, perhaps, dozens of microcode steps. As an example, the software may want to move a single byte from **RAM** to the video card. The **CPU** may process that instruction by first moving the byte from **RAM** to register one and then moving it from there to the video card’s input register. Those moves may require several clock cycles as various multiplexers and other devices are activated in the correct sequence to move the data to its destination.

In summary, the CPU’s Control Unit controls all of the registers, buffers, buses, and other devices in the CPU in order to execute the instructions requested by the software program.

A computer program, as contained in software, is nothing more than a series of ones and zeros, organized into groups of 32 (or 64). Each group of bits forms a single “word” of information; or a single instruction which would then be used to trigger a microcode sequence within the **CPU**. When viewed at the level of ones and zeros, a program is said to be in “machine code,” and could look something like this:

---

```
10010100101100101001101011001010
01101001101011000111101011101011
00011011110010000111010111100101
```

---

If a programmer could master machine code, then those programs would be as concise and efficient as possible since they would be written in machine code the **CPU** can execute directly. Of course, as it is easy to imagine, no one actually writes machine code due to its complexity.

The next level higher than machine code is called “Assembly” code. Assembly uses easy-to-remember abbreviations to represent the various **CPU** instructions available; and it looks something like this:

---

```

INP
STA FIRST
INP
STA SECOND
LDA FIRST
SUB SECOND
OUT
HLT
FIRST DAT
SECOND DAT

```

---

Once the program has been written in Assembly, it must be “assembled” into machine code before it can be executed. An assembler is a fairly simply program that converts a file containing assembly codes into machine codes that can be executed by the [CPU](#).

Many programming languages have been developed that are considered “higher” than Assembly; for example, C++, Java, and Visual Basic. These languages tend to be easy to master and can enable a programmer to quickly create very complex programs. Programs written in each of these languages must be compiled, or changed into machine code, before they can be executed. Here is an example Java program:

---

```

public class HelloWorldExample{
    public static void main(String args[]){
        System.out.println("Hello World !");
    }
}

```

---

In the end, while there are dozens of different programming languages, they are all designed to be reduced into a series of machine codes, which the [CPU](#) can then execute.

#### 11.4 CHALLENGE

Using the examples in the “Testing the Circuit” section, create the microcode necessary to carry out these functions:

1. Store the value contained in *LdImm* in *R2* ( $R_2 \leftarrow LdImm$ ). (Assume that *LdImm* is pre-loaded with the value to store.)
2. Store the value contained in *LdImm* in *R3* ( $R_3 \leftarrow LdImm$ ). (Assume that *LdImm* is pre-loaded with the value to store.)
3. Store the 2s complement of the value in *Ro* back into *Ro* ( $R_o \leftarrow \sim R_o$ ). The subtraction example will help with this function.

4. Store the bitwise NOT of the value in  $R_0$  back into  $R_0$  ( $R_0 \leftarrow R_0'$ ).

#### 11.5 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, build the Processor circuit and then complete the Challenge. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the Processor `main` circuit, similar to:

```
George Self  
Lab 11: Processor  
April 5, 2018
```

Save the Processor circuit in a file with this name: *Lab11\_Processor*. Complete the code required in the Challenge and store that in a text file with the name *Lab11\_Code.txt*. Submit both files for grading.



## ELEVATOR

---

### 12.1 PURPOSE

This final lab is used as a capstone digital logic project.

### 12.2 CHALLENGE

For this lab, build a circuit that simulates an elevator. This lab does not include step-by-step directions; instead, this document only specifies the requirement and students are on their own to design and build the circuit.

Here are the specifications:

1. The elevator should be in a 3-story building and stop on each floor.
2. There should be a call button on each floor so a guest can request the elevator. When a guest presses the call button, if the elevator is not busy, then it should proceed to the requested floor. If the elevator is busy, it should return to the called floor as soon as it finishes the current trip.
3. The elevator car must have a button for each floor (for this lab, ignore buttons like “Open Door”). When one of the buttons is pressed, the elevator will move to the requested floor. If the elevator is already on the requested floor (for example, some guest on the second floor presses the “Floor 2” button), then the elevator will do nothing.
4. The simulator must have some way to indicate where the elevator is located (its current floor). That could be done with a numeric display (a 7-segment display) or with some sort of light system (an LED on each floor that will light up when the elevator is present). There may be other ways to indicate the elevator’s location, so creativity is encouraged.
5. The simulator must have some way to indicate the “door open” and “door close” process. For example, a row of LEDs could light in sequence to show the door opening and a few seconds later closing again.

Figure 12.1 is one student’s concept from an earlier class.

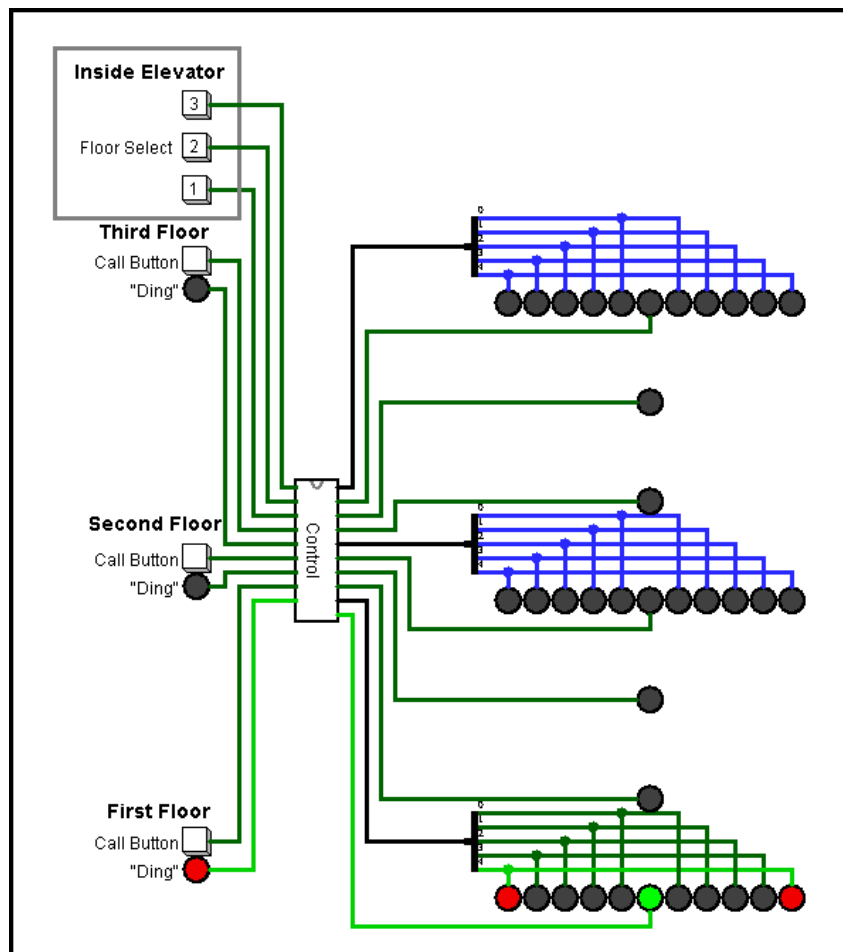


Figure 12.1: Example Elevator Simulator

### 12.3 DELIVERABLE

To receive a grade for this lab, complete the elevator simulator. Be sure the standard identifying information is at the top left of the **main** circuit:

George Self  
 Lab 12: Elevator  
 April 30, 2018

Save the file with this name: *Lab12\_elevator* and submit that file for grading.



## COLOPHON

This book was typeset using the typographical look-and-feel classicthesis developed by André Miede. The style was inspired by Robert Bringhurst's seminal book on typography "*The Elements of Typographic Style*". classicthesis is available for both L<sup>A</sup>T<sub>E</sub>X and L<sup>y</sup>X:

<https://bitbucket.org/amiede/classicthesis/>

Happy users of classicthesis usually send a real postcard to the author, a collection of postcards received so far is featured here:

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Hermann Zapf's *Palatino* and *Euler* type faces (Type 1 PostScript fonts *URW Palladio L* and *FPL*) are used. The "typewriter" text is typeset in *Bera Mono*, originally developed by Bitstream, Inc. as "Bitstream Vera". (Type 1 PostScript fonts were made available by Malte Rosenau and Ulrich Dirr.)







