Chapter 14: Digital Systems – Instructor Notes

Chapter 14 logically follows the material on combinational digital logic circuits introduced in Chapter 13. Section 14.1 contains a discussion of sequential logic modules; the box *Focus on Measurements: Digital Measurement of Angular Position and Velocity* (pp. 719-731) illustrates the use of a counter to measure the speed of rotation of a slotted wheel; this is a very common measurement in mechanical systems; the box *Focus on Measurements: Seven-Segment Display* (pp. 732-733) draws attention to a very common logic module. Section 14.2 provides an elementary introduction to sequential logic design, and Section 14.3 introduces microcomputers. This, and the two following sections on microcomputer architecture and microcontrollers, have been extensively revised, and are designed to provide an introduction to the concept of mechatronic design (see box on p. 688), recognizing that it is impossible to include a serious coverage of microcontrollers in a single chapter. Thus, the treatment is focused on an overview of the organization of microcontrollers, including a brief, qualitative illustration of computer interface issues presented in *Focus on Measurements: Reading Sensor Data By Using Interrupts* (pp. 747-748). The last section, 14.6, is dedicated to an example (courtesy of Delphi – Delco Electronic Systems) that describes a current automotive engine microcontroller. The example is a qualitative description, but will permit the instructor who desires to do so to motivate further study of this topic. The Find-It-On-The-Web references will provide students and instructor with additional reference material on the subject of automotive engine control.

In recent years mechanical and industrial engineering programs have seen a significant growth in courses related to mechatronics, or more specifically to microcontroller applications in industrial and mechanical systems. The objective of Chapter 14 is to serve as an introduction to such courses.

The homework problems are mostly devoted to sequential logic circuits; the last 6 problems review simple concepts related to the architecture and functions of microcomputers.

The 5th Edition of this book includes 8 new problems, increasing the end-of-chapter problem count from 19 to 26.

Learning Objectives

- 1. Analyze the operation of sequential logic circuits. Section 14.1.
- 2. Understand the operation of digital counters. Section 14.1.
- 3. Design simple sequential circuits using state transition diagrams. Section 14.2.
- 4. Study the basic architecture of microprocessors and microcomputers. *Sections 14.3*, 14.4, 14.5.

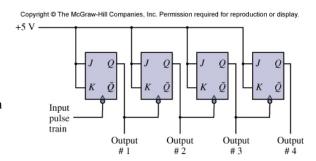
Section 14.1: Sequential Logic Modules

Problem 14.1

Solution:

Known quantities:

For the circuit shown in Figure P14.1, the input is a square wave having a period of 2 s, maximum value of 5 V, and minimum value of 0 V. Assume all flip-flops are initially in the RESET state.



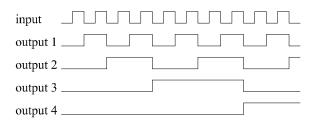
Find:

- a) Explain what the circuit does.
- b) Sketch the timing diagram, including the input and all four outputs.

Analysis:

a) The device is called a MOD-16 ripple counter. It can count clock pulses from 0 to (2^4-1) . The outputs divide the frequency by 2^1 , 2^2 , 2^3 , and 2^4 respectively. Therefore, you can use this circuit as a divide by N counter, where N is 2, 4, 8 and 16.

b)



Problem 14.2

Solution:

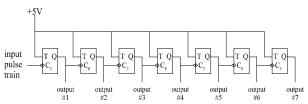
Find:

- a) How many flip-flops would be required to construct a binary pulse counter, which can count up to 100_{10} , by interconnecting T-type flip-flops in an appropriate manner.
- b) Sketch the circuit needed to implement this counter.

Analysis:

a) $100_{10} = 1100100_2 \Rightarrow 7$ flip flops required.

b)



This circuit could be modified with combinational logic if it is desired to have it reset at 100_{10} and start counting again from 0000000_2 .

Solution:

Known quantities:

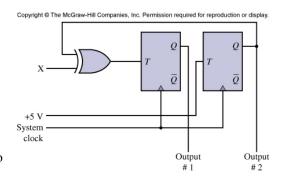
The circuit shown in Figure P14.3.

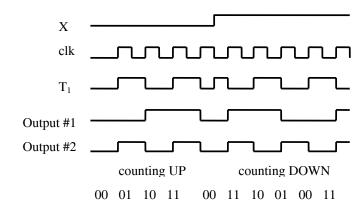
Find:

Explain what the circuit does and how it works.

Analysis:

The basic operation of the circuit is to count up when X = 0, and to count down when X = 1.





Clock	X	Output #2	T_1	Output #1
\uparrow	0	0	0	No change
\uparrow	1	1	0	No change
\uparrow	0	1	1	toggle
\uparrow	1	0	1	toggle

Solution:

Known quantities:

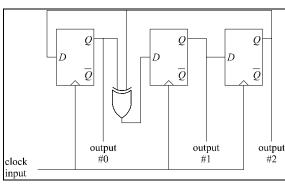
If a circuit is constructed from 3 *D-type* flip-flops, with: $D_0 = Q_2$ $D_1 = Q_2 \oplus Q_0$ $D_2 = Q_1$.

Find:

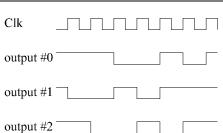
- a) Draw the circuit diagram.
- b) Assuming the circuit starts with all flip-flops SET, sketch a timing diagram which shows the outputs of all three flip-flops.

Analysis:

a)



b)

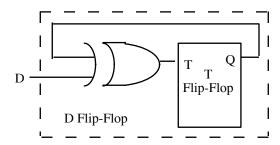


Solution:

Find:

Assuming you have all the logic gates available, make a D flip-flop using a T flip-flop and some logic gate(s).

Analysis:



Assume that Q is logic 0 initially. If the input D is logic 0, the output of the gate is logic 0 which means that the output of the T flip-flop will not be toggled (i.e., will remain logic 0). When the input D is logic 1, the output of the gate will be logic 1. Therefore, the output of the flip-flop will be 1. Thus, the circuit will operate as a D flip-flop.

Problem 14.6

Solution:

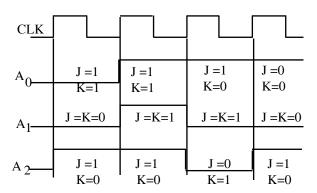
Known quantities:

For the circuit shown in Figure P14.6, assume that all the initial values are 0. Note that all the flip-flops are negative edge-triggered.

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Find:

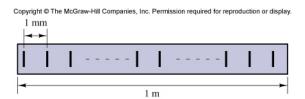
Draw a timing diagram (four complete clock cycles) for A_0 , A_1 , and A_2 .



Solution:

Known quantities:

Assume that the slotted encoder shown in Figure P14.7 has a length of 1 meter and a total of 1,000 slots (i.e., there is one slot per millimeter.

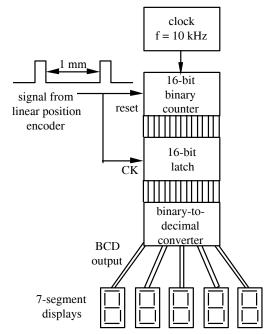


Find:

If a counter is incremented by 1 each time a slot goes past a sensor, design a digital counting system that determines the speed of the moving encoder (in meters per second).

Analysis:

Assuming a maximum speed of 10 m/s and a minimum speed of 1 mm/s, we can calculate the instantaneous speed of the slotted encoder by counting the number of clock pulses between slots using a fixed frequency clock. This resolution should be sufficient to measure the speed of the encoder over the range of interest. The figure depicts the arrangement: A 10 kHz clock increments a 16-bit binary counter. The choice for a 16-bit counter is due to the maximum speed requirement: $2^{16} = 65,536$, will be the maximum count between slots. At a speed of 10 m/s, the time for one slot to go by is 10^{-4} s, thus the number of counts would be 1 count; at the minimum speed of 1 mm/s the number of counts would be 10^{-4} . A 14-bit counter would be sufficient, but in practice it is easier to cascade two 8-bit counters; thus the choice of a 16-bit counter. The count is held by a latch, and then converted to BCD for use with seven-segment displays. The details of the seven-segment display encoders are not shown (see Focus on Measurements: Seven-Segment Display). If a decimal point is placed to the right of the second seven-segment display (starting from the left in the figure), the display will read the speed in m/s, up to a maximum of 10 m/s, with a resolution of 1 mm/s.



Solution:

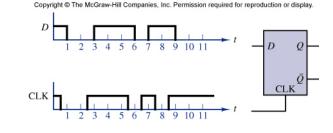
Known quantities:

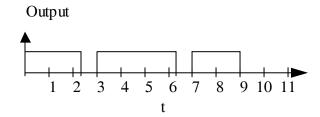
The circuit shown in Figure P14.8.

Find:

The output Q for the given circuit.

Analysis:





Problem 14.9

Solution:

Find:

Describe how the ripple counter works. Why is it so named? What disadvantages can you think of for this counter?

Analysis:

This is briefly discussed in the digital counters section (see Figure 14.12).

Solution:

Find:

Write the truth table for an RS flip-flop with enable (E), preset (P), and clear (C) lines.

Analysis:

Knowing that an input to the R or S line will be effective only when the enable input is 1, and the outputs are initially 0, the truth table for an RS flip-flop with set and preset is as follows:

F - F		- I		
S	R	P	C	Q
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	1

Problem 14.11

Solution:

Known quantities:

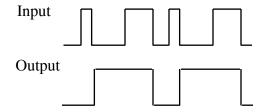
The *JK* flip-flop shown in Figure P14.11, with a given input signal.

Find:

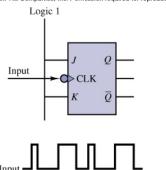
Assuming that Q is at logic 0 initially and the trailing edge triggering is effective, sketch the output Q.

Analysis:

J _n	Kn	Qn+1
1	1	$\overline{Q_n}$ (toggle)



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Solution:

Known quantities:

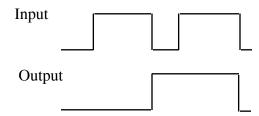
With reference to the JK flip-flop shown in figure P14.11, assume that the output at the Q terminal is made to serve as the input to a second JK flip-flop wired exactly as the first.

Find:

Sketch the output Q of the second flip-flop.

Analysis:

J _n	Kn	Qn+1
1	1	$\overline{Q_n}(toggle)$



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Problem 14.13

Solution:

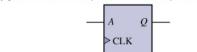
Known quantities:

The flip-flop with the characteristic given in Figure P 14.13, where A and B are the inputs to the flip-flop and Q is the next state output.

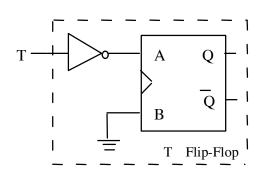
Find:

Using necessary logic gates, make a *T* flip-flop from the given flip-flop.

T	A	В	Q
0	1	0	q
1	0	0	\bar{q}



A	В	Q
0	0	\bar{q}
0	1	q
1	0	q
1	1	0



Section 14.3: Microprocessors

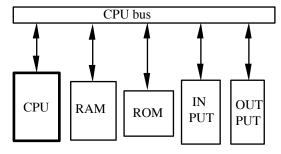
Problem 14.14

Solution:

Find:

Draw a block diagram that shows the bus structure of a microprocessor-based system and the subsystems connected by the bus connects.

Analysis:



Problem 14.15

Solution:

Find:

Explain the purpose of the ALU.

Analysis:

The arithmetic and logic unit (ALU) is where all computations take place, and is capable of performing the following operations on a binary data:

- Binary addition and subtraction
- Logical AND, OR, EX-OR
- Complement
- Rotate left or right

Solution:

Find:

Name the internal registers of a microprocessor, and explain their functions.

Analysis:

The internal registers include a program counter, the instruction register, general purpose registers and temporary registers. The sequence of instructions (often called micro instructions) is generated by a programming language, which is in principle similar to the FORTRAN, BASIC, or PASCAL languages. To keep track of which instruction is to be executed next, the control unit has a dedicated register, called the program counter (PC). The program counter holds the address of either the next instruction to be executed or the address of a multi-word instruction. When the control unit requests the memory to transfer the data to the microprocessor, the data will be transferred into the microprocessor through the data bus latch and then into the instruction register. Registers inside the microprocessor are interconnected by an internal data bus. Temporary registers are used by the control unit to hold information until it is transferred to another register or used in a computation. To allow greater flexibility, instructions can effect transfers between general purpose registers. The contents of the registers are stored in a stack during subroutine calls and interrupts. The stack consists of a group of specifically allocated read/write memory; a stack pointer is required to address a location or register in the stack.

Problem 14.17

Solution:

Find:

Name the three different systems buses, and explain their functions.

Analysis:

The system bus is divided into three busses each with a dedicated task.

The Address Bus, which is a unidirectional bus, holds the address of the device with which the CPU wishes to communicate.

The Data Bus, which is a bi-directional bus transfers information to or from the device.

The Control Bus contains the information about which operation is to be performed. This bus can be considered to act on the instruction, whereas the Address Bus controls the location of this action, and the Data Bus contains the result of the action or the input to the action.

G. Rizzoni, Principles and Applications of Electrical Engineering, 5th Edition Problem solutions, Chapter 14

Problem 14.18

Solution:

Known quantities:

Suppose a microprocessor has n registers.

Find:

- a) How many control lines do you need to connect each register to all other registors?
- b) How many control lines do you need if a bus is used?

Analysis:

- a) Since there is a line connected between every 2 registers, for every one register, there should be (n-1) lines connected. So, for n registers, there should be $(n-1) \times n$ lines connected. However, considering that we double-count the lines needed between 2 registers, we actually need $\frac{(n-1) \times n}{2}$ lines.
- b) If a bus is used, register is only required to connect to the bus and no need to connect to other registers. So only *n* lines are needed.

Problem 14.19

Solution:

Find:

Explain the function of the status register (flag register), and give an example.

Analysis:

The status register (flag register) is the one used when acting on comparison statements, such as "If Greater Than ...", etc. The Status Register is a 16-bit register, however only 9 bits are utilized. The register looks as follows:

The 'x' represents a bit which is not used, while the letters are bits which hold the following conditions:

- O Overflow Flag
- D Direction
- I Interrupts Enabled
- T Trap Flag
- S Sign of operation
- Z Zero Flag
- A Auxiliary Carry
- P Parity Flag
- C Carry Flag

As an example, when one compares two numbers and wishes to Jump to the location called Label in the program the operation which is in fact performed is the subtraction of the two numbers and a Jump is executed if the Zero Flag is set (i.e. Z=1). You may compare this to a GO TO statement in FORTRAN or Basic.

G. Rizzoni, Principles and Applications of Electrical Engineering, 5th Edition Problem solutions, Chapter 14

Problem 14.20

Solution:

Find:

What is the distinction between volatile and nonvolatile memory?.

Analysis:

"Static" means that memory contents do not have to be refreshed.

[&]quot;Nonvolatile" means that the information in the memory is not lost when the power is off.

Section 14.4: Computer System Architecture

Section 14.5: Microcontrollers

Problem 14.21

Solution:

Find:

If a typical PC has 32 Mbytes of standard memory:

- a) How many words is this?
- b) How many nibbles is this?
- c) How many bits is this?

Analysis:

 $32 \text{ Mbytes} = 32 \times 2^{20} \text{ bytes} = 33554432 \text{ bytes}$

a)
$$33554432 \text{ bytes} \times \frac{1 \text{ word}}{2 \text{ bytes}} = 16777216 \text{ words}$$

b)
$$33554432 \text{ bytes} \times \frac{2 \text{ nibbles}}{1 \text{ byte}} = 67108864 \text{ nibbles}$$

c)
$$33554432 \text{ bytes} \times \frac{8 \text{ bits}}{1 \text{ byte}} = 268435456 \text{ bits}$$

Problem 14.22

Solution:

Find:

Suppose a microprocessor has n registers.

- a) How many control lines do you need to connect each register to all other registers?
- b) How many control lines do you need if a bus is used?

- a) $n \cdot (n-1)$.
- b) 2n.

Solution:

Find:

Suppose it is desired to implement a 4K 16-bit memory.

- a) How many bits are required for the memory address register?
- b) How many bits are required for the memory data register?

Analysis:

- a) We need $2^N = 4$ Kbytes = 4096 bits $\Rightarrow N = 12$. Therefore, we need 12 bits for the memory address register.
- b) The data register must be at least as large as each word in memory. Therefore, the data register must be 16 bits in length.

Problem 14.24

Solution:

Find:

What is the distinction between volatile and nonvolatile memory.

Analysis:

"Volatile" memory is memory whose contents are lost when the power is turned off. This is the RAM in a computer. "Nonvolatile" means that the information in the memory is not lost when the power is off. This is a magnetic disk, magnetic tape or ROM in a computer.

Problem 14.25

Solution:

Known quantities:

Suppose that a particular magnetic tape can be formatted with 8 tracks per centimeter of tape width. The recording density is 200 bits/cm, and the transport mechanism moves the tape past the read heads at a velocity of 25 cm/s.

Find.

How many bytes/s can be read from a 2-cm-wide tape.

$$\frac{8 \text{tracks}}{\text{cm}} \times 2 \text{cm} = 16 \text{tracks}$$

$$16 \text{tracks} \times 200 \frac{\text{bits}}{\text{cm}} = 3200 \frac{\text{bits}}{\text{cm}}$$

$$3200 \frac{\text{bits}}{\text{cm}} \times \frac{16 \text{byte}}{86 \text{bits}} = 400 \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{cm}}$$

$$400 \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{cm}} \times 25 \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{s}} = 10000 \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{s}}$$

Solution:

Find:

Draw a block diagram of a circuit that will interface two interrupts, INT0 and INT1, to the INT input of a CPU so that INT1 has the higher priority and INT0 has the lower. In other words, a signal on INT1 is to be able to interrupt the CPU even when the CPU is currently handling an interrupt generated by INT0, but not vice versa.

Analysis:

There are two types of interrupts: non-maskable, and maskable. When a logic signal is applied to a maskable interrupt input (INT1 in this case), the microprocessor is immediately interrupted. When a logic signal is applied to a maskable input (INT0 in this case), the microprocessor is interrupted only if that particular input is enabled. Maskable interrupts are disabled or enabled under program control.

