Digital Systems

A Comprehensive Guide to Digital Electronics and System
Design for IT Applications

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1 Binary Foundation and Digital Representation

1.1 Introduction to Digital Systems

Digital systems process discrete signals (0s and 1s), forming the basis of computers, micro-processors, and IT hardware. They are reliable, scalable, and used in processors, memory, and communication devices.

- **Definition**: Systems using binary logic for computation and storage.
- IT Use: Found in CPUs, embedded systems, and network hardware.

Example 1.1.1. A digital system in a router processes binary packets to route network traffic.

Practice analyzing digital systems in IT hardware like servers.

1.2 Binary, Hexadecimal, and Octal Number Systems

Digital systems use different bases:

- **Binary**: Base-2 (0, 1), e.g., 1010 = 10 in decimal.
- **Hexadecimal**: Base-16 (09, AF), e.g., A = 10 in decimal.
- Octal: Base-8 (07), e.g., 12 = 10 in decimal.

Example 1.2.1. Convert 10110 (binary) to decimal: $1 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^0 = 22$.

Practice number system conversions for IT data encoding.

1.3 Number System Conversions

Convert between binary, decimal, hexadecimal, and octal using division or grouping methods.

Example 1.3.1. Convert 22 (decimal) to binary: Divide by 2 repeatedly, yielding 10110.

Practice conversions for IT applications like memory addressing.

1.4 Binary Codes (Weighted/Non-weighted)

- **Weighted**: BCD (Binary-Coded Decimal), e.g., 5 = 0101.
- Non-weighted: Gray code, where adjacent numbers differ by one bit.

Example 1.4.1. *BCD for 45: 0100 0101. Gray code for 3: 010.*

Practice encoding data for IT systems like digital displays.

1.5 Alphanumeric Codes (ASCII, EBCDIC)

- **ASCII**: 7-bit code for characters, e.g., A = 65 (1000001 in binary).
- **EBCDIC**: IBMs 8-bit code, used in mainframes.

Example 1.5.1. ASCII for Hello: 72, 101, 108, 108, 111 in decimal.

Practice using ASCII in IT for text processing.

1.6 Negative Number Representation

Negative numbers use sign-magnitude, 1s complement, or 2s complement.

- **Sign-Magnitude**: Bit for sign, e.g., -5 = 1101 (1 for negative).
- 2s Complement: Invert bits and add 1, e.g., -5 = 1011.

Example 1.6.1. For 5 = 0101, 2s complement: 1010 + 1 = 1011.

Practice 2s complement for IT arithmetic circuits.

1.7 Subtraction Using Complements

Subtraction is performed as addition using 2s complement: A - B = A + (-B).

Example 1.7.1. Subtract 3 (0011) from 7 (0111): -3 = 1101, so 0111 + 1101 = 0100 = 4.

Practice subtraction for ALU design in IT.

2 Boolean Building Blocks

2.1 Laws of Boolean Algebra

Boolean algebra simplifies logic expressions using laws:

- Commutative: A + B = B + A, $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$.
- **Distributive**: A(B+C) = AB + AC.
- **Identity**: A + 0 = A, $A \cdot 1 = A$.

Example 2.1.1. *Simplify*
$$A(A + B) = AA + AB = A + AB = A$$
.

Practice Boolean laws for circuit optimization.

2.2 De Morgans Theorems

- $\bullet \ \overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}.$
- $\bullet \ \overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}.$

Example 2.2.1. For $\overline{A+B}$, apply De Morgan: $\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$.

Practice De Morgans theorems for logic gate design.

2.3 Logic Gates and Symbols

Logic gates (AND, OR, NOT, XOR, etc.) are the building blocks of digital circuits.

3 Simplification of Boolean Functions

3.1 Minterms and Maxterms

Minterms are products (e.g., ABC), maxterms are sums (e.g., A + B + C).

Example 3.1.1. For three variables, minterm ABC is 1 when A = B = C = 1.

Practice writing minterms for IT logic functions.

3.2 Sum of Products (SOP) & Product of Sums (POS)

- **SOP**: Sum of minterms, e.g., Y = AB + BC.
- **POS**: Product of maxterms, e.g., Y = (A + B)(B + C).

Example 3.2.1. Express Y = AB + BC in SOP form.

Practice SOP/POS for circuit simplification.

3.3 Dual and Complement of Boolean Functions

The dual swaps AND/OR; the complement inverts the function.

Example 3.3.1. For Y = AB + C, dual is (A + B)C, complement is $\overline{AB + C}$.

Practice duality for logic optimization.

3.4 Karnaugh Maps (K-maps) & Dont-Care Conditions

K-maps simplify Boolean expressions by grouping 1s.

Example 3.4.1. For $Y = \sum m(0, 1, 2, 4)$, K-map yields $Y = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} + \overline{A} \cdot C$.

Practice K-maps for IT circuit design.

3.5 Two-Level and Multilevel Gate Implementations

Two-level uses AND-OR or NAND-NAND; multilevel reduces gate count. **Example 3.5.1.**

```
entity and_or is

port(A, B, C: in bit; Y: out bit);

end and_or;

architecture behave of and_or is

begin

Y <= (A and B) or C;

end behave;</pre>
```

Practice multilevel implementations for efficient IT circuits.

4 Combinational

Logic

4.1 Introduction to Combinational Circuits

Combinational circuits produce outputs based solely on current inputs, e.g., adders, multiplexers.

Example 4.1.1. A half-adder computes sum and carry for two bits.

Practice designing combinational circuits for IT processors.

4.2 Adders and Subtractors

• Half-Adder: Sum = $A \oplus B$, Carry = $A \cdot B$.

• Full-Adder: Includes carry-in.

• **Subtractor**: Uses 2s complement.

Example 4.2.1. *Half-adder: For* A = 1, B = 1, Sum = 0, Carry = 1.

Practice designing adders for IT arithmetic units.

4.3 Decoders and Encoders

• **Decoder**: Converts binary to one-hot, e.g., 2-to-4 decoder.

• **Encoder**: Converts one-hot to binary, e.g., 4-to-2 encoder.

Example 4.3.1. A 2-to-4 decoder outputs 0100 for input 10.

Practice decoders for IT memory addressing.

4.4 Multiplexers and Demultiplexers

- Multiplexer: Selects one input, e.g., 4-to-1 MUX.
- **Demultiplexer**: Routes input to one output.

Example 4.4.1. A 2-to-1 MUX selects between two data lines based on a control signal.

Practice MUX design for IT data routing.

4.5 Code Converters (BCD, Gray, Excess-3)

Convert between coding schemes, e.g., BCD to Excess-3 adds 3 to each digit.

Example 4.5.1. *BCD* 5 (0101) to Excess-3: 5 + 3 = 8 (1000).

Practice converters for IT data encoding.

4.6 Programmable Logic Devices (PROM)

PROM stores fixed logic, programmed once for specific functions.

Example 4.6.1. A PROM implements a truth table for a custom logic function.

Practice PROM programming for IT hardware.

5 Sequential

Logic

5.1 Types of Sequential Circuits

Sequential circuits depend on current and past inputs, e.g., flip-flops, counters.

- Synchronous: Clock-driven.
- **Asynchronous**: Event-driven.

Example 5.1.1. A counter increments on clock pulses, used in CPU timing.

Practice designing sequential circuits for IT systems.

5.2 Flip-Flop Triggering

Flip-flops store one bit, triggered by level or edge (rising/falling).

Example 5.2.1. A rising-edge D flip-flop updates output on clock pulse.

Practice flip-flop triggering for IT memory elements.

5.3 Flip-Flop Types (RS, JK, T, D, Master-Slave)

- RS: Set/reset, may have invalid states.
- **JK**: Resolves RS issues.
- T: Toggles state.

Example 5.3.1. –

• **D**: Stores input directly.

```
entity d_ff is
    port(D, CLK: in bit; Q: out bit);
end d_ff;
architecture behave of d_ff is
begin
process(CLK)
```

```
begin

if rising_edge(CLK) then

Q <= D;

end if;

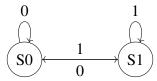
end process;

end behave;</pre>
```

Practice flip-flop designs for IT registers.

5.4 State Diagrams and Tables

State diagrams/tables represent sequential circuit behavior.



Example 5.4.1. A state table for a flip-flop lists inputs, current state, and next state.

Practice state diagrams for IT sequential logic.

6 Registers

and

Counters

6.1 Shift Registers

Shift registers store and shift bits, e.g., for data serialization.

Example 6.1.1. A 4-bit shift register shifts 1011 to 0110 on clock pulse.

Practice shift registers for IT data transfer.

6.2 Modes (SISO, SIPO, PISO, PIPO)

- SISO: Serial in, serial out.
- SIPO: Serial in, parallel out.
- **PISO**: Parallel in, serial out.
- **PIPO**: Parallel in, parallel out.

Example 6.2.1. A SIPO register converts serial data to parallel for processing.

Practice register modes for IT communication systems.

6.3 Asynchronous Counters (Binary Ripple, BCD)

Asynchronous counters update flip-flops sequentially, e.g., ripple counters.

Example 6.3.1. A 3-bit ripple counter counts from 000 to 111.

Practice asynchronous counters for IT timing circuits.

6.4 Synchronous Counters (Up/Down)

Synchronous counters update all flip-flops simultaneously.

Example 6.4.1

```
entity sync_counter is
port(CLK: in bit; Q: out bit_vector(3 downto 0));
```

```
end sync_counter;
architecture behave of sync_counter is
signal count: bit_vector(3 downto 0) := "0000";
begin
process(CLK)
begin
if rising_edge(CLK) then
count <= count + 1;
end if;
Q <= count;
end process;
end behave;</pre>
```

Practice synchronous counters for IT applications.

7 Digital

Systems

Design

7.1 4-Bit Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) Design

An ALU performs arithmetic (add, subtract) and logical operations (AND, OR).



Example 7.1.1. A 4-bit ALU adds 1010 and 0011, yielding 1101.

Practice ALU design for IT processors.

7.2 Accumulator

An accumulator stores results of ALU operations for iterative computations.

Example 7.2.1. An accumulator adds a new input to its stored value each cycle.

Practice accumulators for IT arithmetic units.

7.3 Status Registers and Flags

Flags (e.g., zero, carry) indicate ALU operation results.

Example 7.3.1. A zero flag is set if an ALU result is 0000.

Practice flag implementation for IT control units.

7.4 Processor Unit Design

A processor combines ALU, registers, and control units to execute instructions.

Example 7.4.1. A simple processor fetches instructions, decodes them, and uses the ALU to execute arithmetic operations.

Practice designing processors for IT embedded systems.