



Digital Electronics

Chapter 5 Combinational Logic with LSI and MSI



Outline of Chapter 5

- ▣ 5.1 Binary Parallel Adder
- ▣ 5.2 Decimal Adder
- ▣ 5.3 Magnitude Comparator
- ▣ 5.4 Decoder
- ▣ 5.5 Multiplexer
- ▣ 5.6 ROM
- ▣ 5.7 PLA
- ▣ 5.8 PAL



BINARY PARALLEL ADDER

- The full-adder forms the sum of two bits and a previous carry.
- Two binary numbers of n bits each can be added by means of this circuit.
- When pair of bits are added through the full adder, the circuit produces a carry to be used with the pair of bits one higher significant position.\
- The bits are added with full-adders, starting from the least significant position, to form the sum bit and carry bit.
- The sum of two n -bit binary numbers A and B can be generated in two ways: either in serial fashion or in parallel.



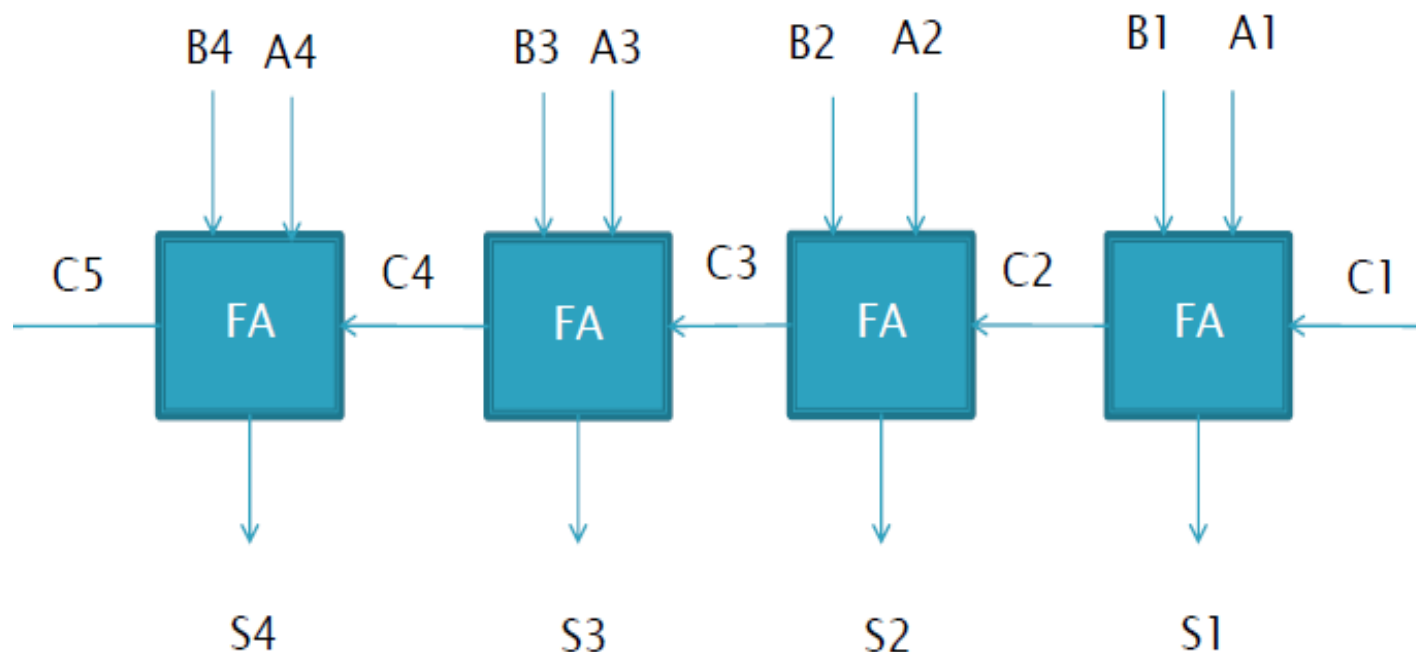
BINARY PARALLEL ADDER

- The sum of two n -bit binary numbers A and B can be generated in two ways: either in serial fashion or in parallel.
- The serial addition method uses only one full adder circuit and a storage device to hold the generated output carry and sum.
- The parallel method uses n full-adder circuit.
- A binary parallel adder is a digital function that produces the arithmetic sum of two binary numbers in parallel.



BINARY PARALLEL ADDER

■ Example:





BINARY PARALLEL ADDER

- An n -bit parallel adder requires n full-adders.
- It can be constructed from 4-bit, 2-bit and 1-bit full-adders ICs by cascading several packages.
- The 4-bit binary parallel adder is a typical example of an MSI function.
- It can be used in many applications involving arithmetic operations.

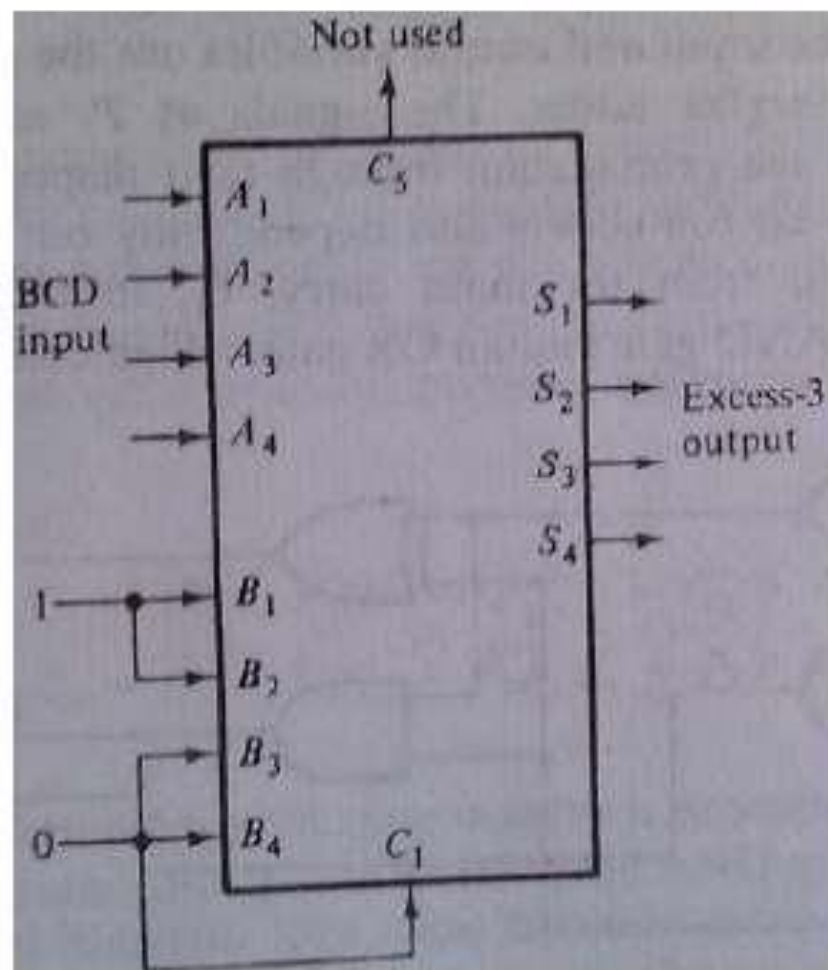


BINARY PARALLEL ADDER

- The application of this MSI function to the design of a combinational circuit is demonstrated in the example of BCD to excess-3 code converter.

- Example:

BCD to Excess-3 Code converter





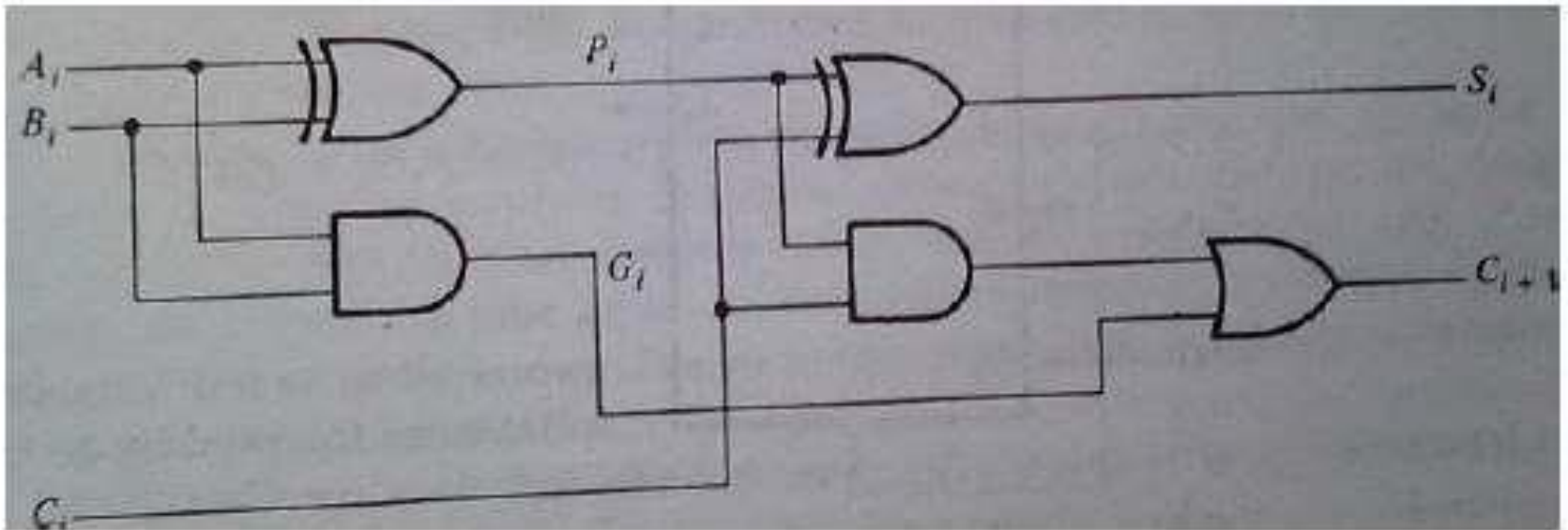
CARRY PROPOGATION

- The addition of two binary numbers in parallel implies that all the bits of the augend and the addend are available for computation at the same time.
- As in any combinational circuit, the signal must propagate through gates before the correct output sum is available in output terminals.
- The total propagation time is equal to the propagation delay of typical gate times the number of gate levels in the circuit.
- The longest propagation delay time in a parallel adder is the time it takes the carry to propagate through the full-adders.



CARRY PROPOGATION

- The number of gate levels for the carry propagation can be found from the circuit of the full adder.
- The signal from the carry (C_i) to the output carry (C_{i+1}) propagates through 2 gate levels.





CARRY PROPOGATION

- If there are four full-adders in the parallel adder, the output carry C5 would have $2*4=8$ gate levels from C1 to C5.
- The total propagation time in the adder would be the propagation time in one half adder plus eight gate levels.
- For an n-bit parallel adder, there are $2n$ gate levels for the carry to propagate through.
- The carry propagation time is a limiting factor on the speed with which two numbers are added in parallel.



CARRY PROPOGATION

- All other arithmetic operations are implemented by successive additions, the time consumed during the addition process is very critical.
- One way to reduce the carry propagation delay time is to employ faster gates with reduced delays.
- Another solution is to increase the equipment complexity in such a way that the carry delay time is reduced.
- The most widely used technique employs the principle of look-ahead carry.



CARRY PROPOGATION

- Look-ahead carry:
- If we define two variables:

$$P_i = A_i \oplus B_i$$
$$G_i = A_i B_i$$

- G_i is called a carry generated and it produced an output carry when both A_i and B_i one.
- P_i is called a carry propagate because it is the term associated with the propagation of the carry C_i to C_{i+1}
- The output sum and carry can be expressed as

$$S_i = P_i \oplus C_i$$
$$C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i C_i$$



CARRY PROPOGATION

- The Boolean functions for the carry output of each stage are:

$$C_2 = G_1 + P_1 C_1$$

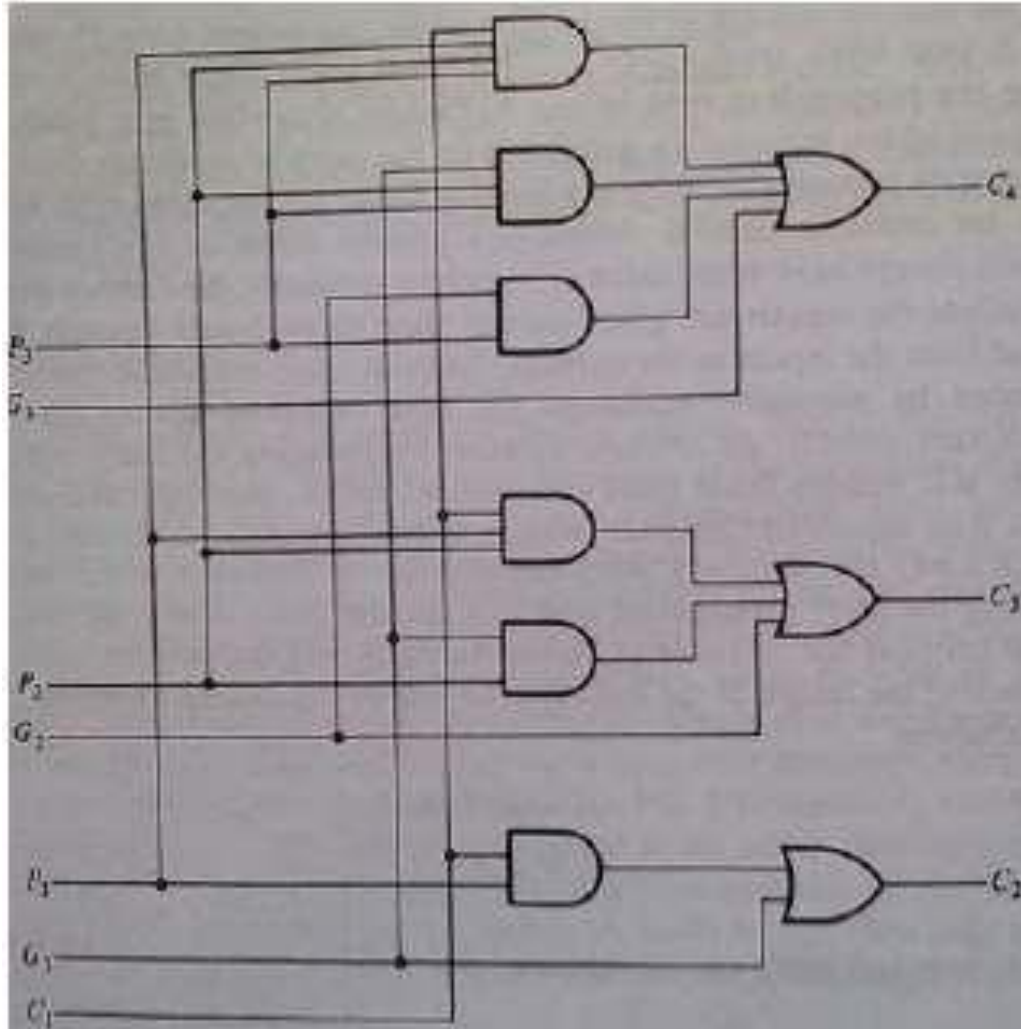
$$C_3 = G_2 + P_2 C_2 = G_2 + P_2(G_1 + P_1 C_1) = G_2 + P_2 G_1 + P_2 P_1 C_1$$

$$C_4 = G_3 + P_3 C_3 = G_3 + P_3 G_2 + P_3 P_2 G_1 + P_3 P_2 P_1 C_1$$



CARRY PROPOGATION

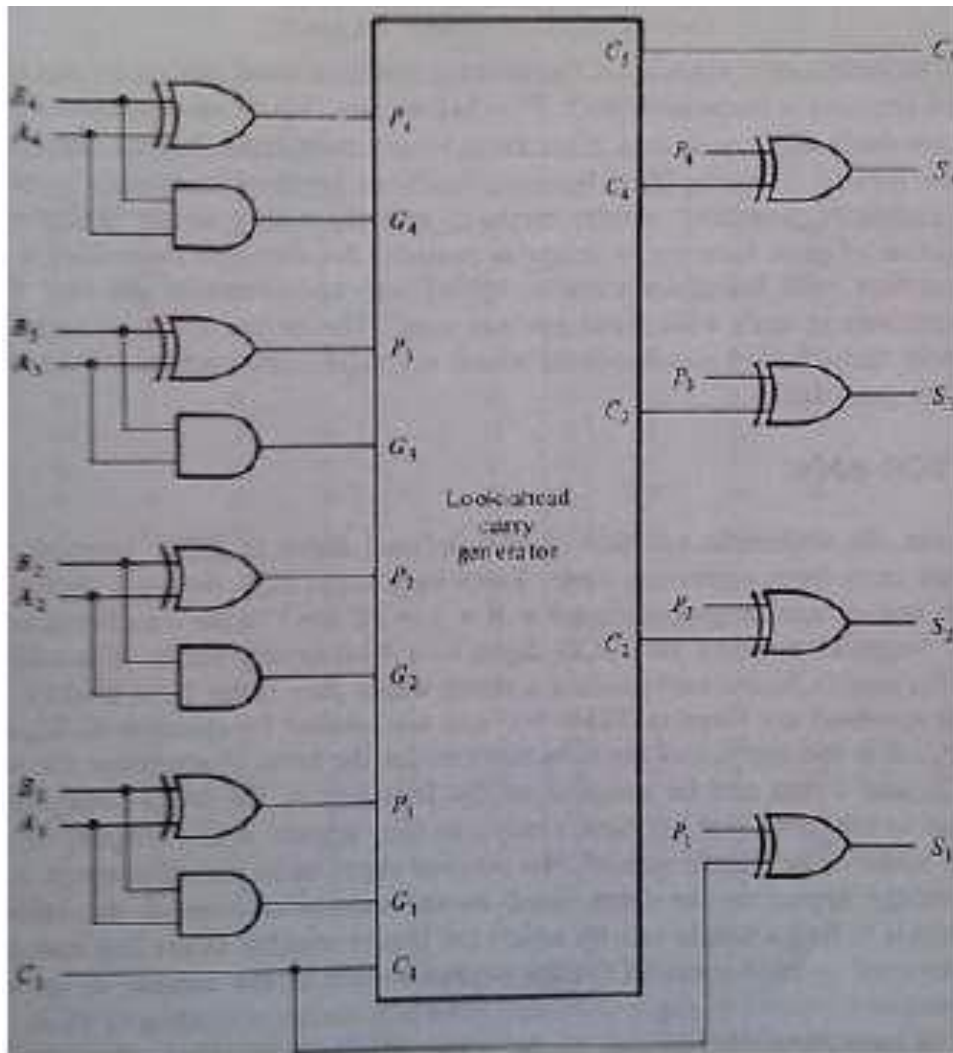
- Circuit diagram of a look-ahead carry generator:





CARRY PROPOGATION

4-bit Full-adders with look-ahead carry





DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER

- A decimal adder requires a minimum of nine inputs and five outputs, since four bits are required to code each decimal digit and the circuit must have an input and output carry.
- Consider the arithmetic addition of two decimal digits in standard BCD code (8421 code), together with an input carry from a previous stage.
- Since each input digit does not exceed 9, the output sum cannot be greater than $9+9+1=19$, the 1 in the sum being an input carry.
- Apply 2 BCD digits to a 4-bit binary adder.



DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER

- The adder will form the sum in binary and produce a result that ranges from 0 through 19.
- These binary numbers are listed in the table and are labelled by K, Z8,Z4,Z2,Z1 and K is carry.
- The columns under the binary sum list the binary value that appears in the outputs of the 4-bit binary adder



DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER

Derivation of a BCD Adder

K	Binary Sum				BCD Sum					Decimal
	Z ₈	Z ₄	Z ₂	Z ₁	C	S ₈	S ₄	S ₂	S ₁	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	3
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	5
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	6
0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	7
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	8
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	9
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	10
0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	11
0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	12
0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	13
0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	14
0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	15
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	16
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	17
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	18
1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	19



DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER

- From the table, when the binary sum is equal to or less than 1001, the corresponding BCD number is identical, and therefore no conversion is needed.
- When the binary sum is greater than 1001, non valid BCD representation is obtained.
- Addition of binary 6 (0110) to the binary sum converts it to the correct BCD representation and also produces an output carry as required.



DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER

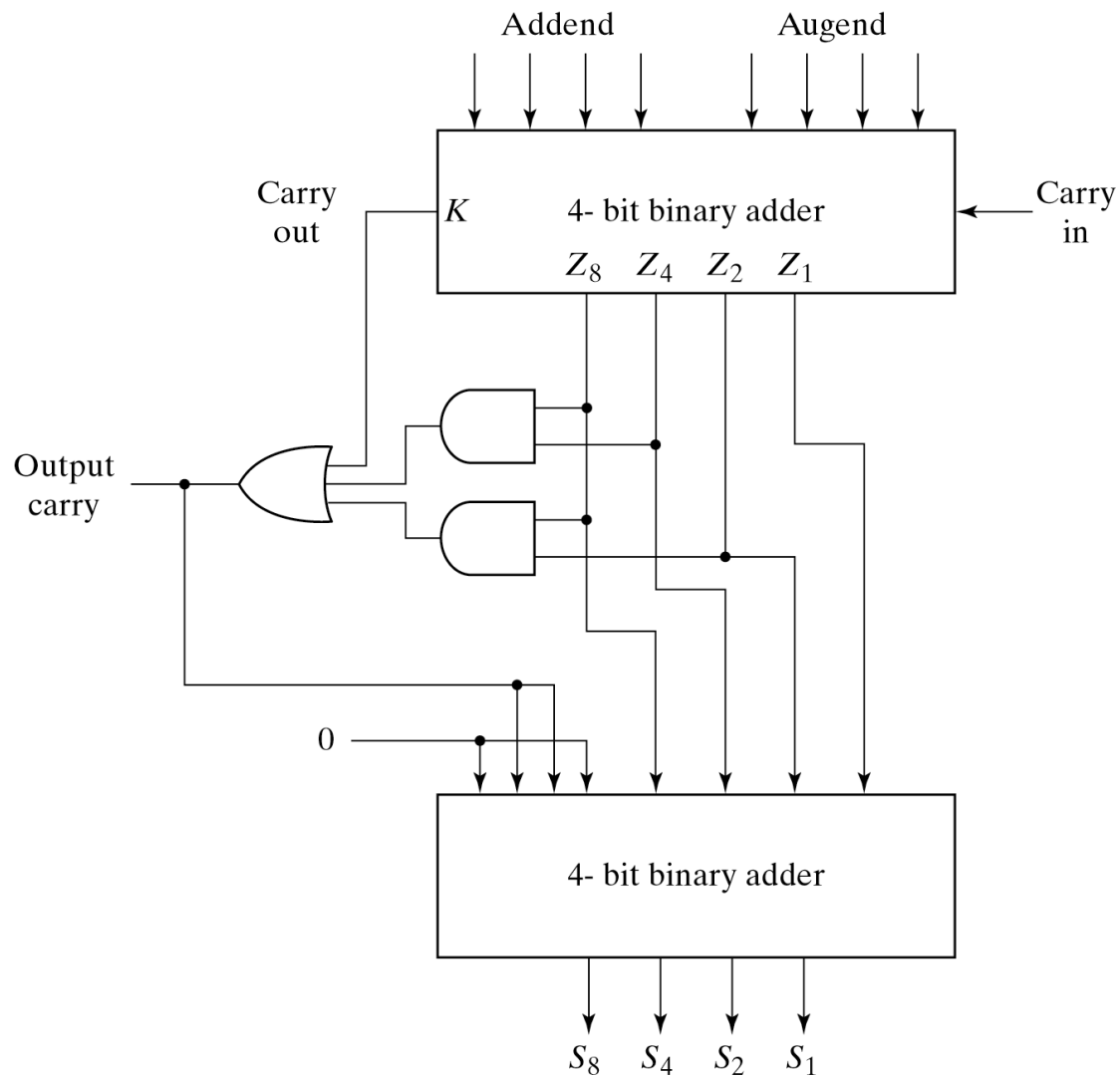
- A correction is needed when the binary sum has an output carry $K=1$. The other six combinations from 1010 through 1111 that need a correction have a 1 in position Z_8 . To distinguish them from binary 1000 and 1001, which also have a 1 in position Z_8 , it can be concluded that Z_4 or Z_2 must have a 1.
- Therefore, the condition for a correction and an output carry can be expressed by the Boolean function:

$$C = K + Z_8 Z_4 + Z_8 Z_2$$

- When $C = 1$, it is necessary to add 0110 to the binary sum and provide an output carry for the next stage.



DECIMAL(BCD) ADDER





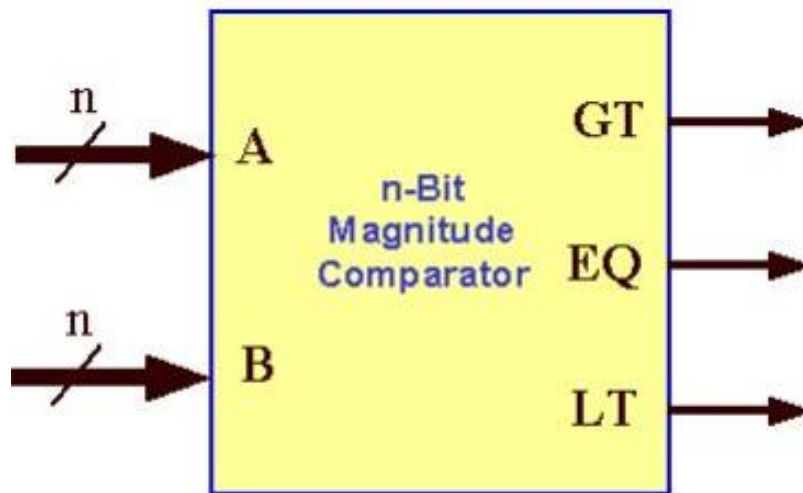
MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

- A magnitude digital comparator is a combinational circuit that compares two digital or binary numbers (consider A and B) and determines their relative magnitudes in order to find out whether one number is equal, less than or greater than the other digital number.
- Three binary variables are used to indicate the outcome of the comparison as $A > B$, $A < B$, or $A = B$.



MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

- The below figure shows the block diagram of a n-bit comparator which compares the two numbers of n-bit length and generates their relation between themselves.

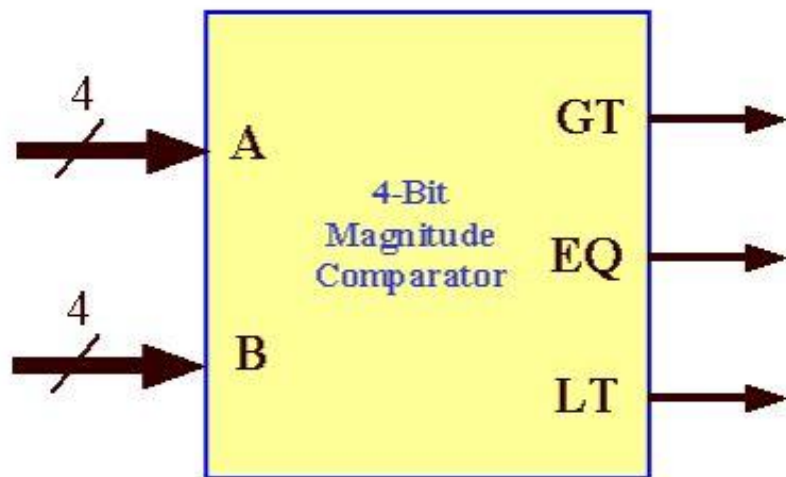




MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

4-bit Magnitude Comparator :

- ▣ Inputs: 8-bits
- ▣ A and B are two 4-bit numbers.
- ▣ Let $A = A_3A_2A_1A_0$ and Let $B = B_3B_2B_1B_0$
- ▣ Inputs have 2^8 (256) possible combinations
- ▣ Not easy to design using conventional techniques





MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

Design of the EQ output ($A = B$) in 4-bit magnitude comparator

- ▣ Define $X_i = (A_i B_i) + (A_i' B_i')$
- ▣ Thus $X_i = 1$ IFF $A_i = B_i \quad \forall i = 0, 1, 2 \text{ and } 3$
- ▣ $X_i = 0$ IFF $A_i \neq B_i$

Condition for $A = B$

- ▣ $EQ = 1$ (i.e., $A = B$) IFF
 1. $A_3 = B_3 \rightarrow (X_3 = 1)$, and
 2. $A_2 = B_2 \rightarrow (X_2 = 1)$, and
 3. $A_1 = B_1 \rightarrow (X_1 = 1)$, and
 4. $A_0 = B_0 \rightarrow (X_0 = 1)$.

Thus, $EQ = 1$ IFF $X_3 X_2 X_1 X_0 = 1$. In other words, $EQ = X_3 X_2 X_1 X_0$



MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

- In order to determine whether $A > B$ or $B > A$, the relative magnitudes of pairs of significant digits starting from the most significant position are inspected.
- If the two digits are equal, the next lower significant pair of digits are compared until a pair of unequal digits is reached.
- If the corresponding digit of A is 1 and that of B is 0, we conclude that $A > B$.
- If the corresponding digit of A is 0 and that of B is 1, we conclude that $A < B$.
- To summarize:

$$(A > B) = A_3 B_3' + X_3 A_2 B_2' + X_3 X_2 A_1 B_1' + X_3 X_2 X_1 A_0 B_0'$$

$$(A < B) = B_3 A_3' + X_3 B_2 A_2' + X_3 X_2 B_1 A_1' + X_3 X_2 X_1 B_0 A_0'$$



MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

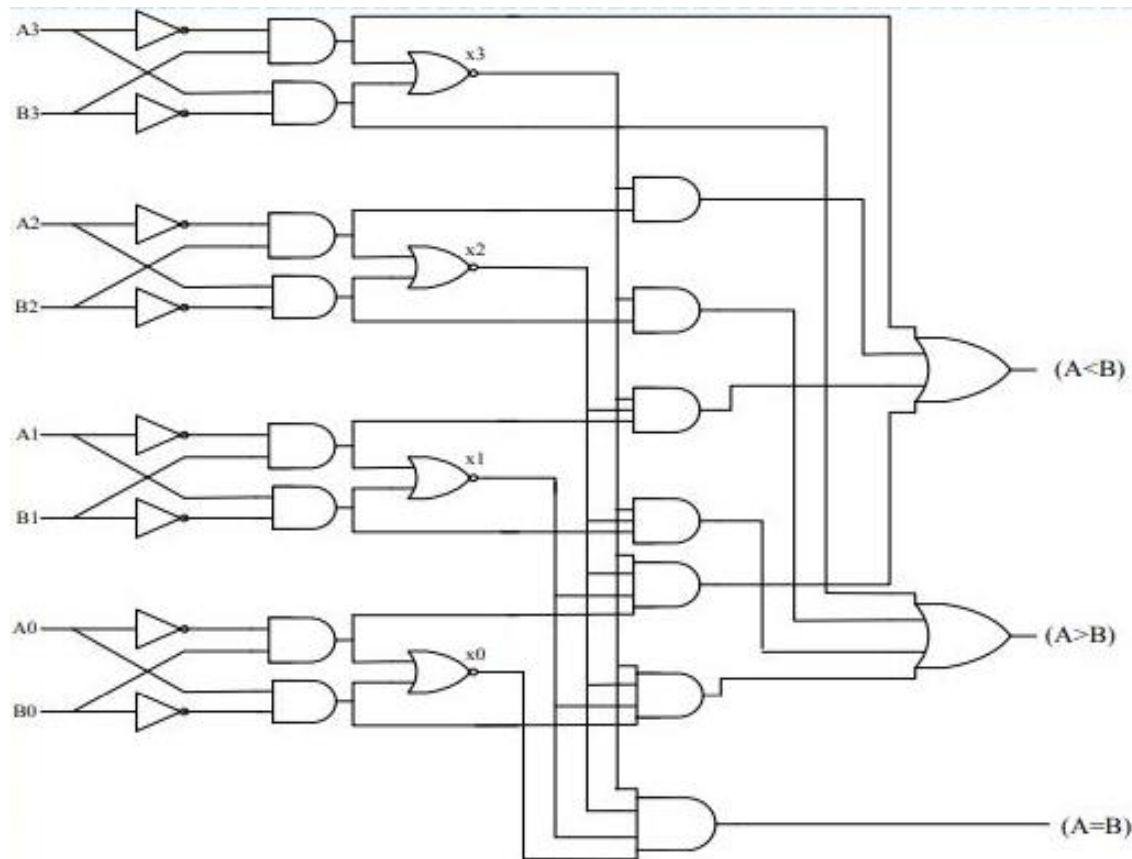
Truth table of 4-Bit Comparator

COMPARING INPUTS				OUTPUT		
A3, B3	A2, B2	A1, B1	A0, B0	A > B	A < B	A = B
A3 > B3	X	X	X	H	L	L
A3 < B3	X	X	X	L	H	L
A3 = B3	A2 > B2	X	X	H	L	L
A3 = B3	A2 < B2	X	X	L	H	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 > B1	X	H	L	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 < B1	X	L	H	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 = B1	A0 > B0	H	L	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 = B1	A0 < B0	L	H	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 = B1	A0 = B0	H	L	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 = B1	A0 = B0	L	H	L
A3 = B3	A2 = B2	A1 = B1	A0 = B0	L	L	H

H = High Voltage Level, L = Low Voltage, Level, X = Don't Care

MAGNITUDE COMPERATOR

4 Bit Magnitude Comparator



4-Bit Magnitude Comparator



DECODERS

▣ Definition:

A decoder is a combinational circuit that converts binary information from **n input lines** to a maximum of **2^n unique output lines**.

- ▣ If n-bit decoded information has unused or don't-care combinations, the decoder output will have less than 2^n outputs.
- ▣ The decoders presented here are called n-to-m line decoders where $m \leq 2^n$. Their purpose is to generate the 2^n (or less) minterms of n input variables.



DECODERS

■ Application:

- Decoders are greatly used in applications where the particular output or group of outputs to be activated only on the occurrence of a specific combination of input levels. Some important application of decoder circuit is given below-
- **Address Decoders:** Amongst its many uses, a decoder is widely used to decode the particular memory location in the computer memory system. Decoders accept the address code generated by the CPU which is a combination of address bits for a specific location in the memory.





DECODERS

- **Instruction Decoder:** Another application of the decoder can be found in the control unit of the central processing unit. This decoder is used to decode the program instructions in order to activate the specific control lines such that different operations in the ALU of the CPU are carried out.



DECODERS

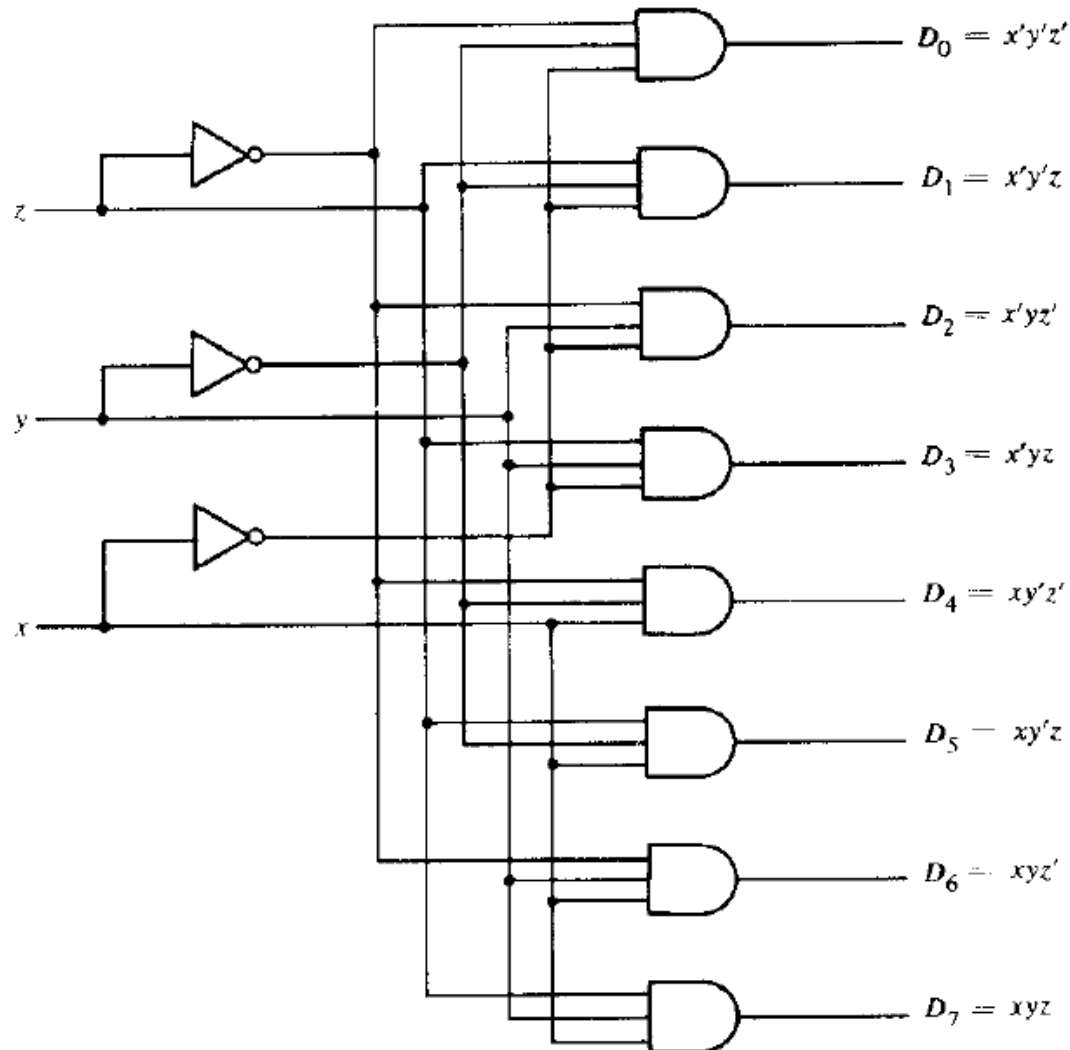
3 X 8 Decoder:

The three inputs are decoded into eight outputs, **each output representing one of the minterms** of the 3-input variables.

A particular application of this decoder would be a **binary-to-octal conversion**. The input variable may represent a binary number and the outputs will then represent the eight digits in the octal number system



DECODERS



3*8 LINE DECODER



DECODERS

Truth Table of 3 X 8 line decoder:

From the truth table it is observed that the output variables are mutually exclusive because only one output can be equal to 1 at any one time. The output line whose value is equal to 1 represents the minterm equivalent of the binary number presently available in the input lines.

Inputs			Outputs							
x	y	z	D_0	D_1	D_2	D_3	D_4	D_5	D_6	D_7
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

[illegible]



DECODERS

- Since the circuit has ten outputs, it would be necessary to draw ten maps to simplify each one of the output functions, Instead of drawing ten maps, we will draw only one map and write each of the output variables, D0 to d9, inside its corresponding minterm square.
- Six input combinations will never occur, so we mark them as don't care.
- **D0 and D1 is isolated, can't be grouped with don't care. D2 to D7 form pair with their adjacent don't care. D8 and D9 form Quad with their adjacent don't care**
- Finally we get **$D0=w'x'y'z'$ $D1=w'x'y'z$ $D2=x'yz'$ $D3=x'yz$ $D4=xy'z'$ $D5=xy'z$ $D6=xyz'$ $D7=xyz$ $D8=wz'$ $D9=wz$**



DECODERS

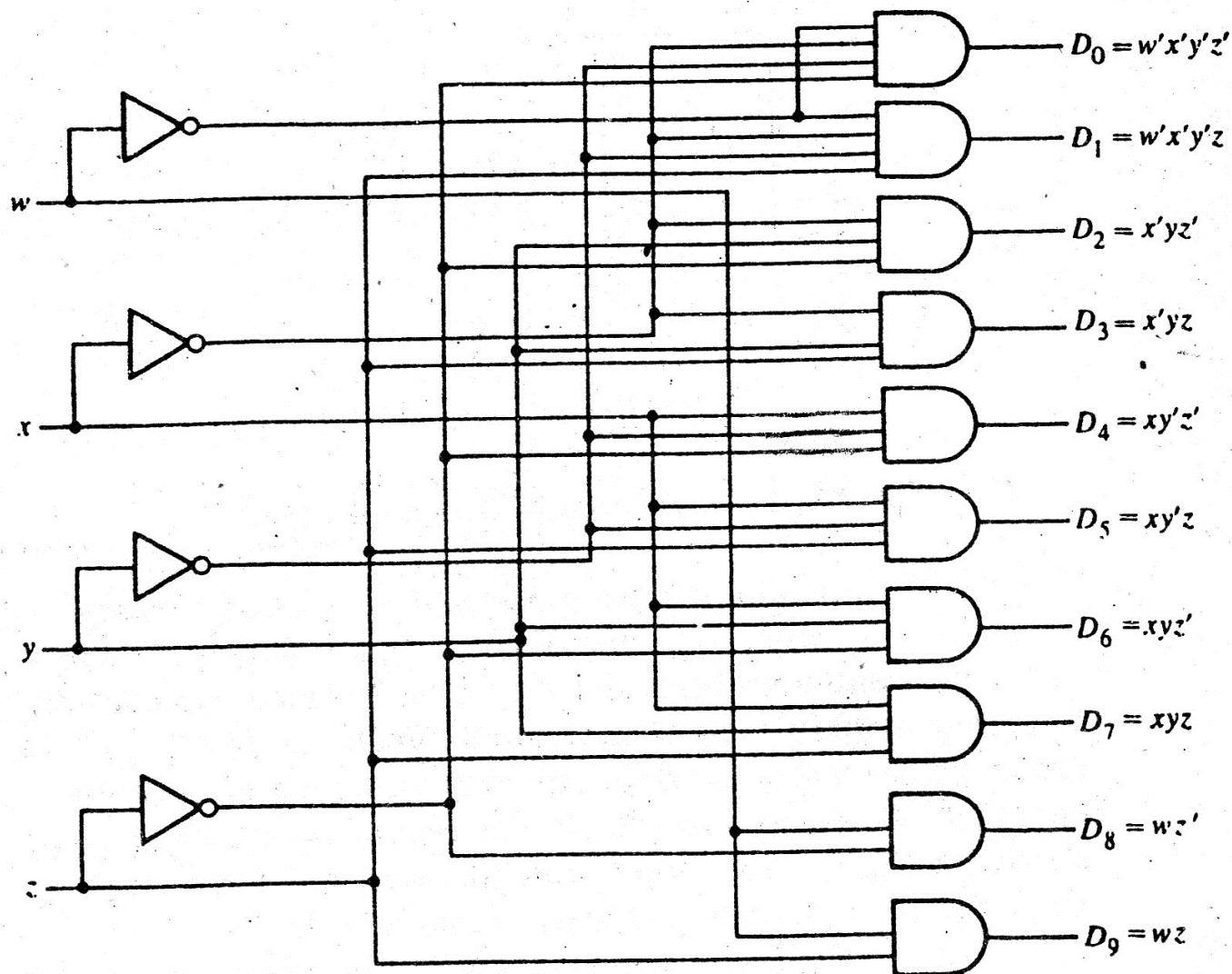
■ K-map for BCD to Decimal Decoder

		y			
		yz			
wx		00	01	11	10
w	00	D_0	D_1	D_3	D_2
	01	D_4	D_5	D_7	D_6
	11	X	X	X	X
	10	D_8	D_9	X	X

Diagram illustrating the K-map for a BCD to Decimal Decoder. The map is a 4x4 grid with rows labeled wx (00, 01, 11, 10) and columns labeled yz (00, 01, 11, 10). The output variables are D_0 through D_9 , and the inputs are w , x , y , and z . The map shows the mapping of BCD inputs to decimal outputs, with 'X' representing don't care conditions. Brackets indicate groupings for y , x , and z .



DECODERS





DECODERS

■ Combinational Logic Implementation

- Decoder provides 2^n minterms of n input variables.
- Since any Boolean function can be expressed in sum of minterms canonical form, one can use a decoder to generate the minterms and an external OR gate to form the sum.

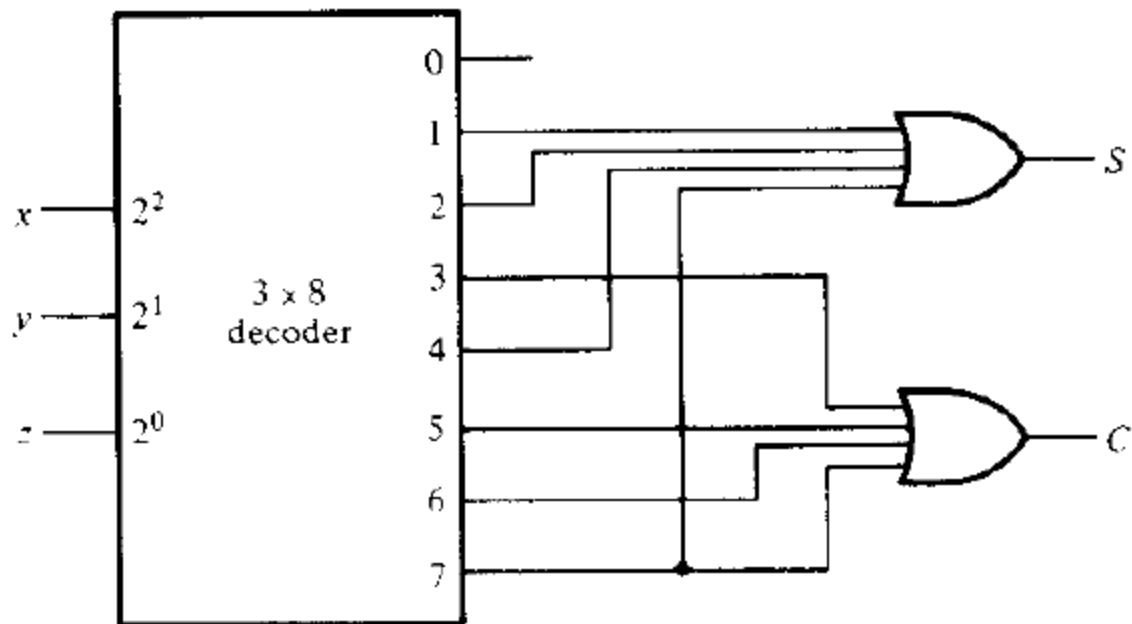
- ## ■ Example: Implement a full adder circuit with a decoder and two OR gates.

$$S(x, y, z) = \Sigma(1, 2, 4, 7)$$

$$C(x, y, z) = \Sigma(3, 5, 6, 7)$$

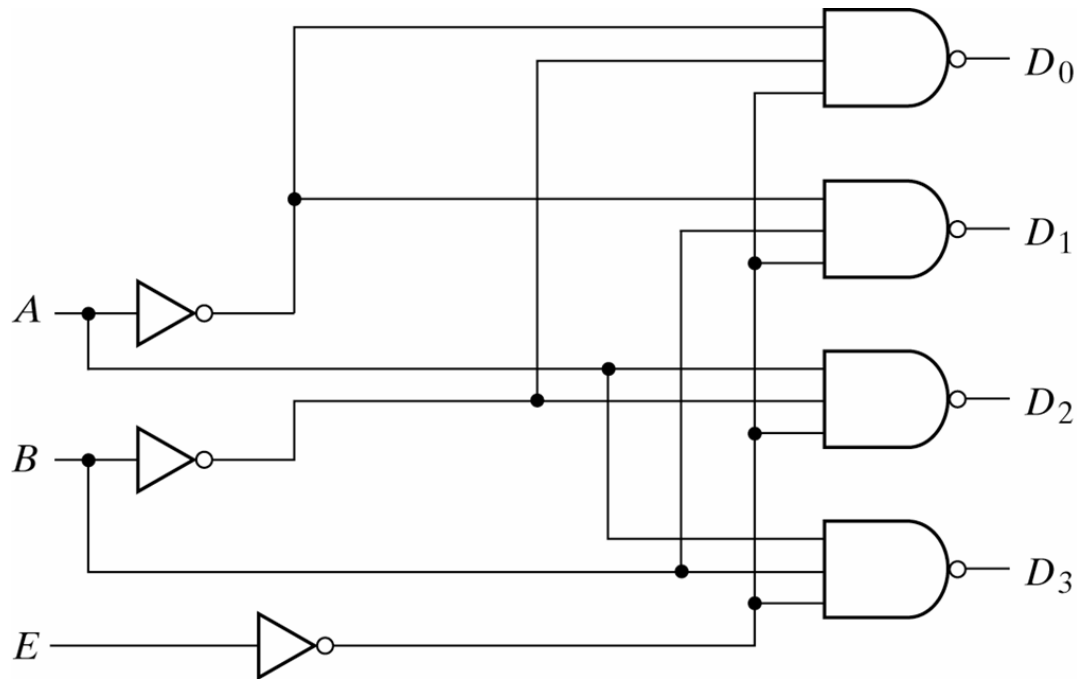


DECODERS





DECODER with Enable Input



(a) Logic diagram

E	A	B	D_0	D_1	D_2	D_3
1	X	X	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	0

(b) Truth table



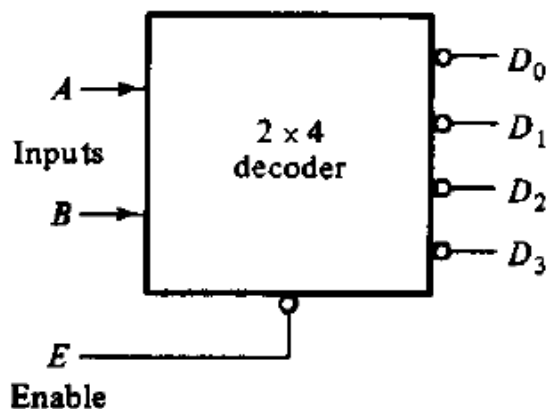
DECODER with Enable Input

- The circuit operates with complemented outputs and a complement enable input. The decoder is enabled when E is equal to 0.
- Only one output can be equal to 0 at any given time, all other outputs are equal to 1.
- The output whose value is equal to 0 represents the minterm selected by inputs A and B
- The circuit is disabled when E is equal to 1.

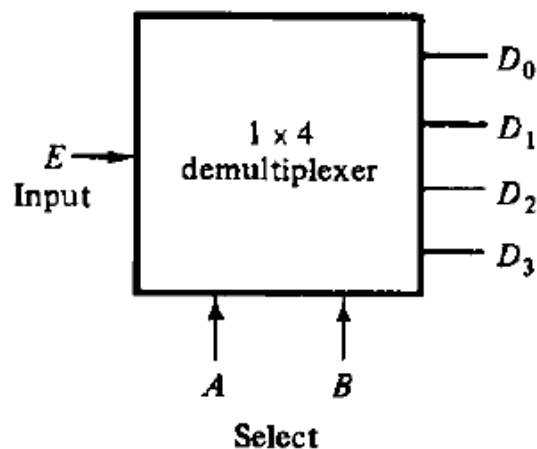


DECODER with Enable Input

- A Decoder with Enable input can function as demultiplexer.
- A demultiplexer is a circuit that receives information on a single line and transmits this information on one of 2^n possible output lines.
- The selection of a specific output line is controlled by the bit values of n selection lines.



(a) Decoder with enable



(b) Demultiplexer



MULTIPLEXER

- A **MULTIPLEXER** is a digital circuit that has multiple inputs and a single output.
- The selection of one of the n inputs is done by the select inputs
- It has one output selected at a time.
- It is also known as **DATA SELECTOR**.
- A multiplexer has
 - N data inputs(multiple)
 - 1 output (single)
 - M select inputs, with $2^M = N$

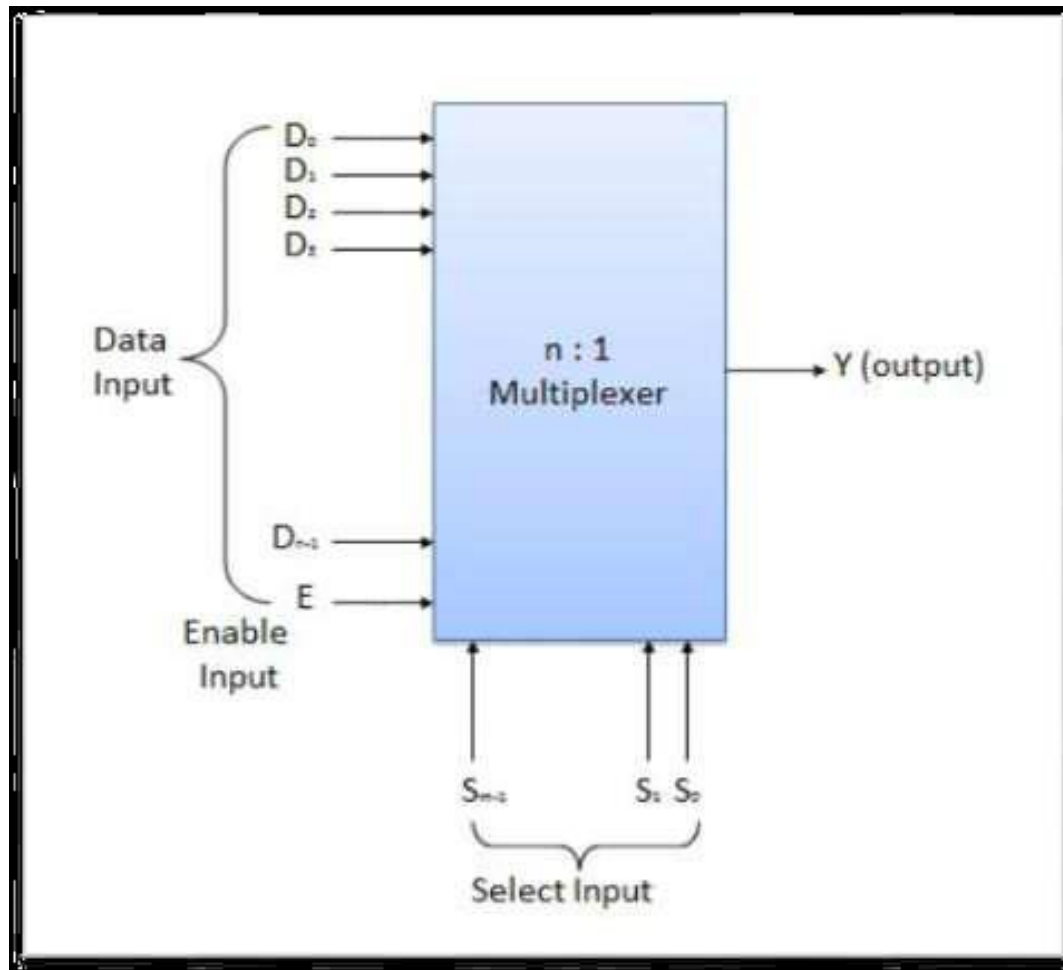


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MULTIPLEXER



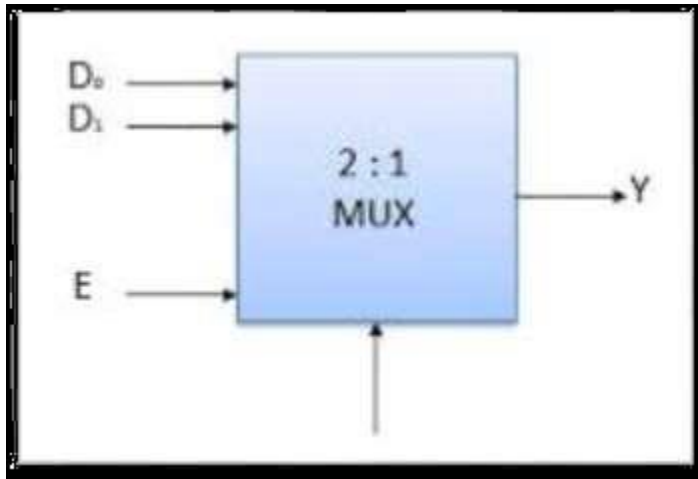
Block Diagram of Multiplexer



MULTIPLEXER

■ 2 to 1 line multiplexer:

■ Block Diagram



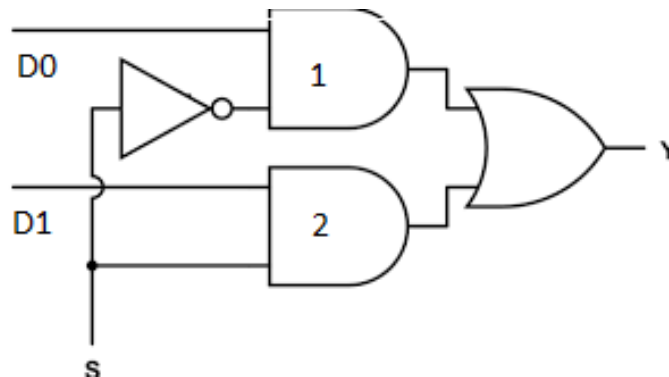
Truth Table

S	OUTPUT Y
0	D_0
1	D_1



MULTIPLEXER

- The logical level applied to the S input determines which AND gate is enabled, so that its data input passes through the OR gate to the output.
- The output, $Y = D_0S' + D_1S$
- When
 - $S=0$, AND gate 1 is enabled and AND gate 2 is disabled. So, $Y = D_0$
 - $S=1$, AND gate 1 is disabled and AND gate 2 is enabled. So, $Y = D_1$

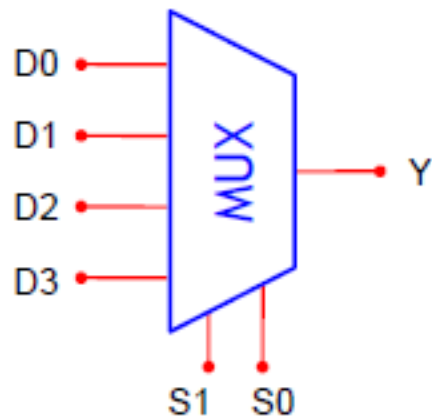




MULTIPLEXER

■ 4 to 1 line multiplexer:

■ Block Diagram



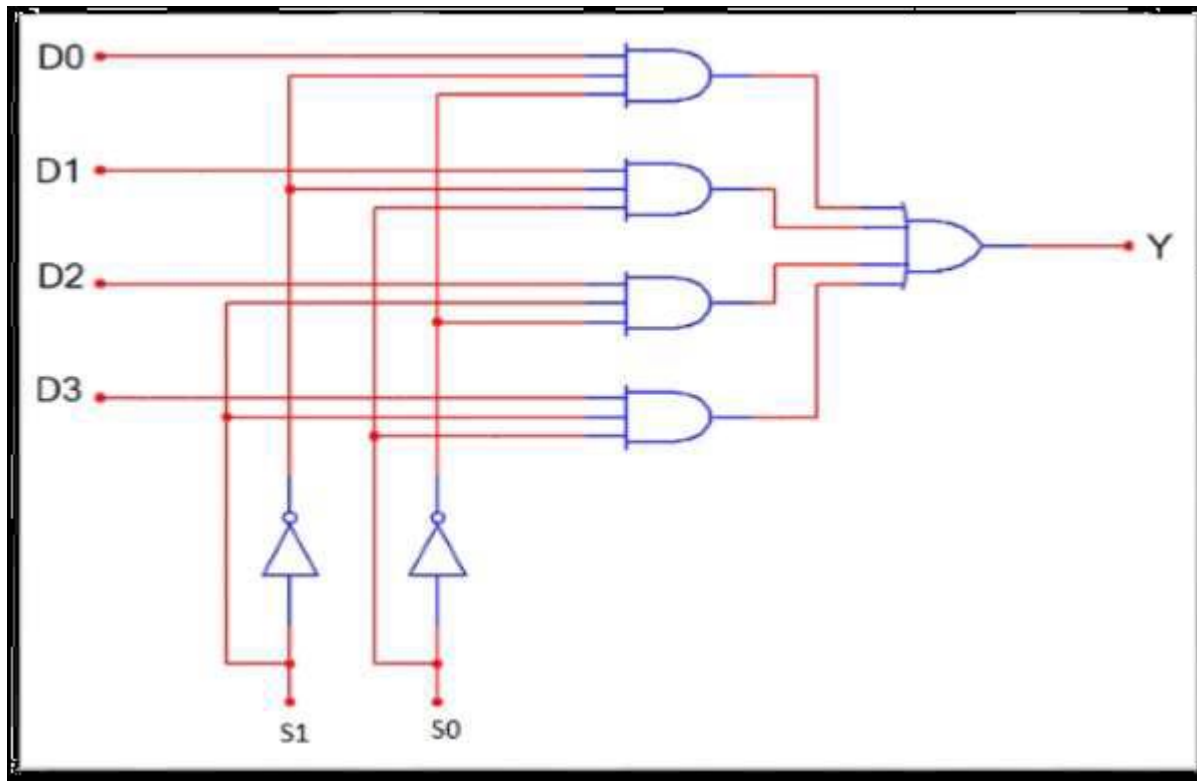
Truth Table

S1	S0	Y
0	0	D0
0	1	D1
1	0	D2
1	1	D3



MULTIPLEXER

- The logical level applied to the S input determines which AND gate is enabled, so that its data input passes through the OR gate to the output.
- The output, $Y = S_1'S_0'D_0 + S_1'S_0D_1 + S_1S_0'D_2 + S_1S_0D_3$

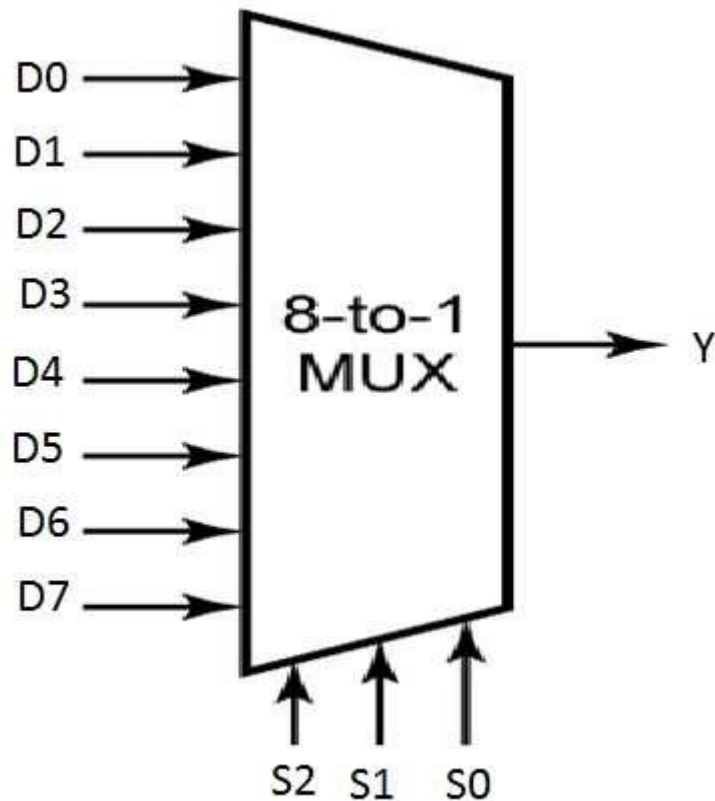




MULTIPLEXER

■ 8 to 1 line multiplexer:

■ Block Diagram



Truth Table

S2	S1	S0	Y
0	0	0	D0
0	0	1	D1
0	1	0	D2
0	1	1	D3
1	0	0	D4
1	0	1	D5
1	1	0	D6
1	1	1	D7

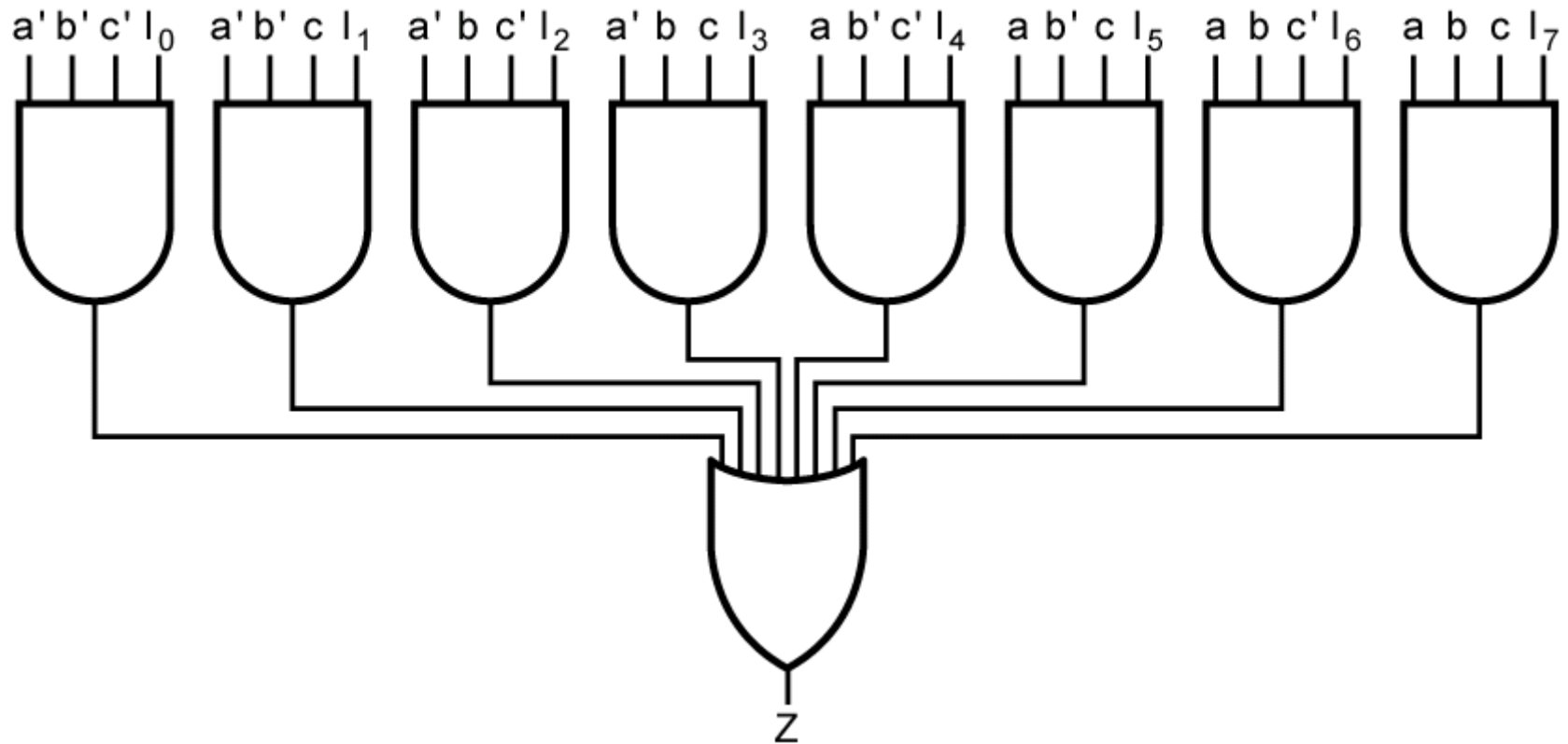
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MULTIPLEXER

- The logical level applied to the S input determines which AND gate is enabled, so that its data input passes through the OR gate to the output.





READ-ONLY MEMORY (ROM)

- A decoder generates the 2^n minterms of the n input variable. By inserting OR gates to sum the minterms of Boolean functions, we are able to generate any desired combinational circuit.
- **A read-only memory (ROM) is a device that includes both the decoder and the OR gates within a single IC package.** The connections between the outputs of the decoder and the inputs of the OR gates can be specified for each particular configuration by “programming” the ROM.
- A ROM is essentially a memory (or storage) device in which a fixed set of binary information is stored.



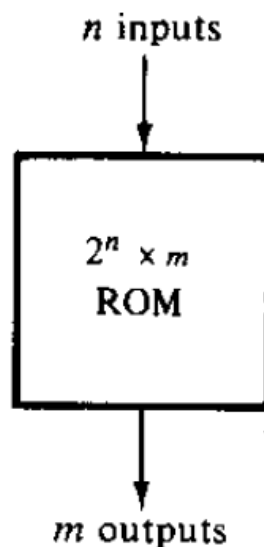
READ-ONLY MEMORY (ROM)

- The binary information must first be specified by the user and is then embedded in the unit to form the required interconnection pattern. ROM's come with special internal links that can be fused or broken. The desired interconnection for a particular application requires that certain links be fused to form the required circuit paths. Once a pattern is established for a ROM, it remain fixed even when power is turned off and then on again.



READ-ONLY MEMORY (ROM)

- A ROM consists of n input lines and m output lines.
- Each bit combination of input variables is called an address.
- Each bit combination that comes out of the output lines is called a word. The number of bits per word is equal to the number of output lines m .
- A ROM with n input lines has 2^n distinct addresses, so there are 2^n distinct words which are said to be stored in the unit.





Construction of ROM

- Each output of the decoder represents a memory address.
- Each OR gate must be considered as having 32 inputs.
- A $2^k \times n$ ROM will have an internal $k \times 2^k$ decoder and n OR gates.

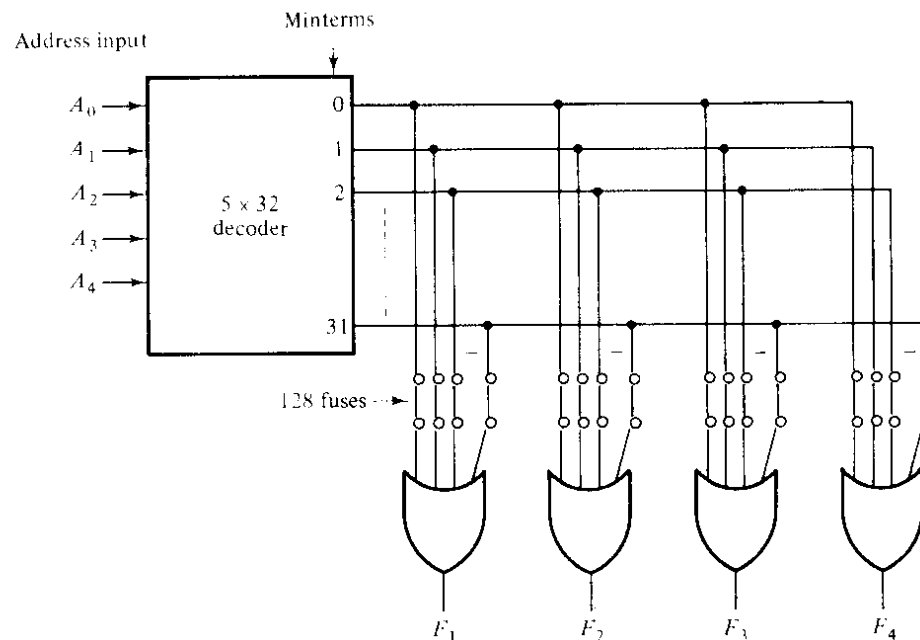


FIGURE 5-22

Logic construction of a 32×4 ROM



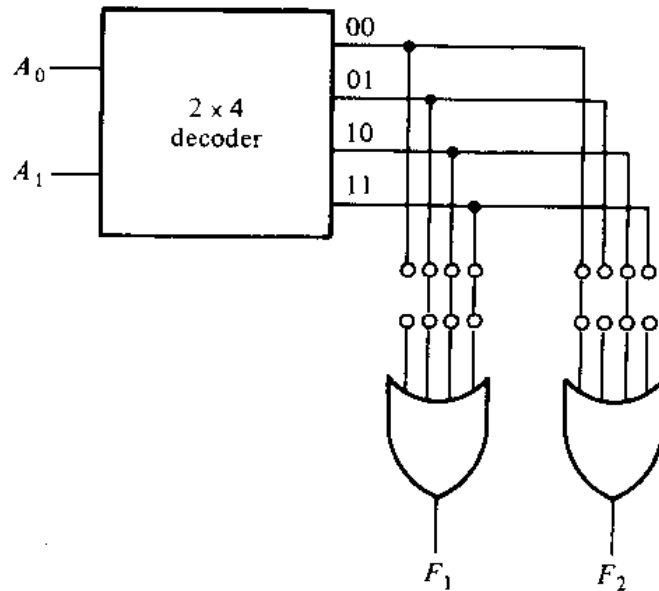
Example 1

$$F_1(A_1, A_0) = \Sigma(1, 2, 3)$$

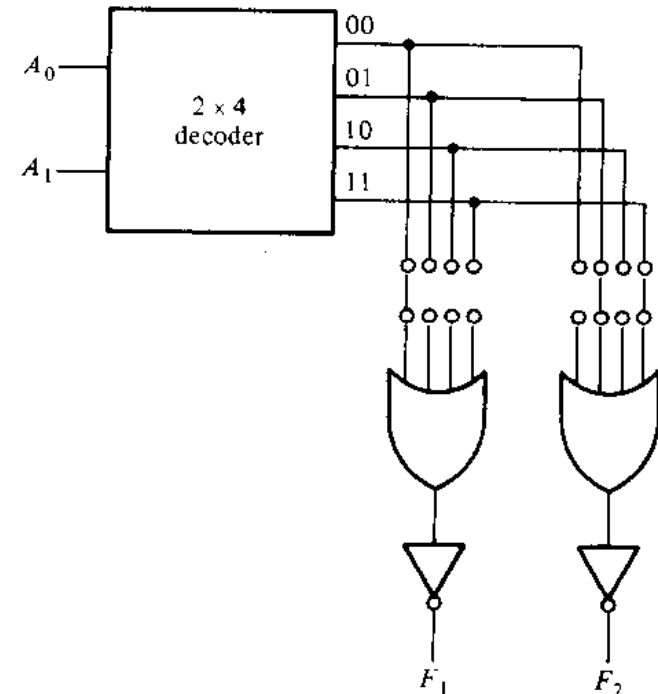
$$F_2(A_1, A_0) = \Sigma(0, 2)$$

A_1	A_0	F_1	F_2
0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	1
1	1	1	0

(a) Truth table



(b) ROM with AND-OR gates



(c) ROM with AND-OR-INVERT gates



Example 2

- Design a combinational circuit using a ROM. The circuit accepts a 3-bit number and generates an output binary number equal to the square of the input number.

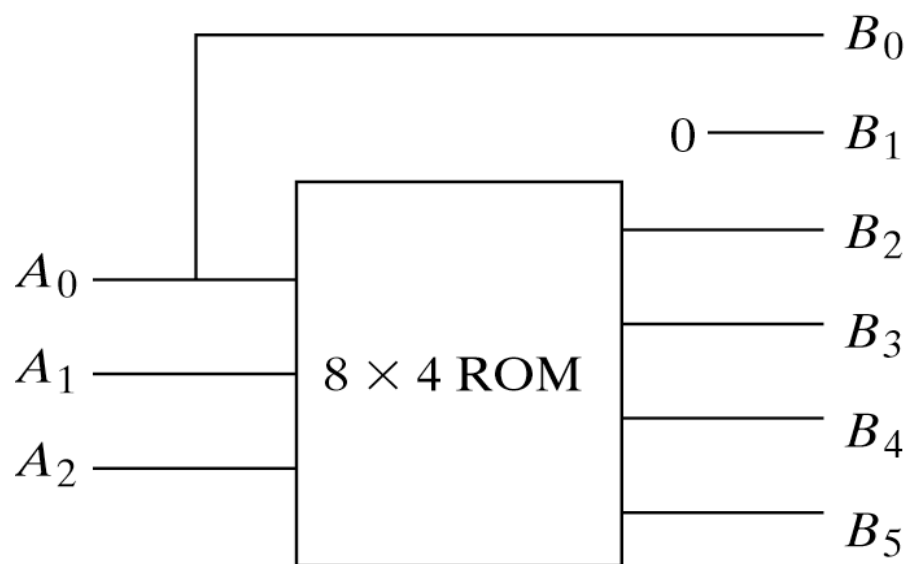
Derive truth table first

Table 7-4
Truth Table for Circuit of Example 7-1

Inputs			Outputs						Decimal
A_2	A_1	A_0	B_5	B_4	B_3	B_2	B_1	B_0	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4
0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	9
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	16
1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	25
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	36
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	49



Example 2



(a) Block diagram

A_2	A_1	A_0	B_5	B_4	B_3	B_2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0	0

(b) ROM truth table

Fig. 7-12 ROM Implementation of Example 7-1



TYPES OF ROM

☐ Mask-programmable (ROM):

Permanent programming done at fabrication time

Fabrication take place at factory as per customer order

Very expensive and therefore feasible only for large quantity orders

☐ Programmable ROM (PROM):

User programmed after purchase, called field-programmable ROM (FEPROM)

Reprogrammable by user, erasable by UV emission, called erasable, programmable ROM (EPROM)



TYPES OF ROM

- ❑ Electrically erasable, programmable ROM (EEPROM):

User can erase individual words; switching elements can be enabled/disabled

Can be erased and reprogrammed limited number of times, typically 100 to 1000 times

- ❑ Flash memory:

Like EEPROM, but all words (or large blocks of words) can be erased simultaneously

Become common relatively recently (late 1990s)



Combinational Programmable Logic Devices

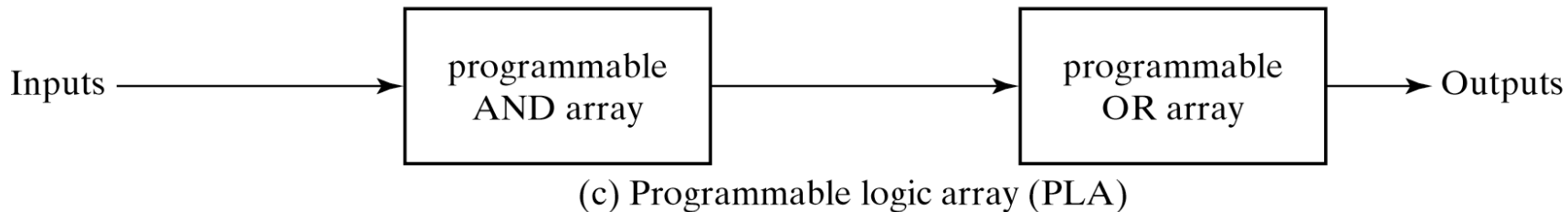
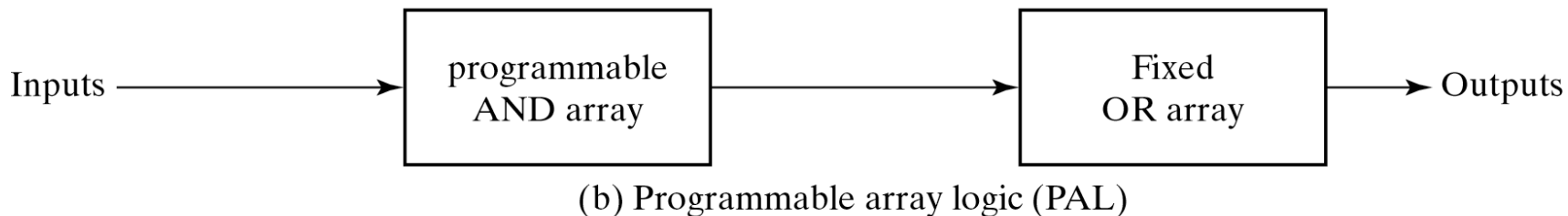
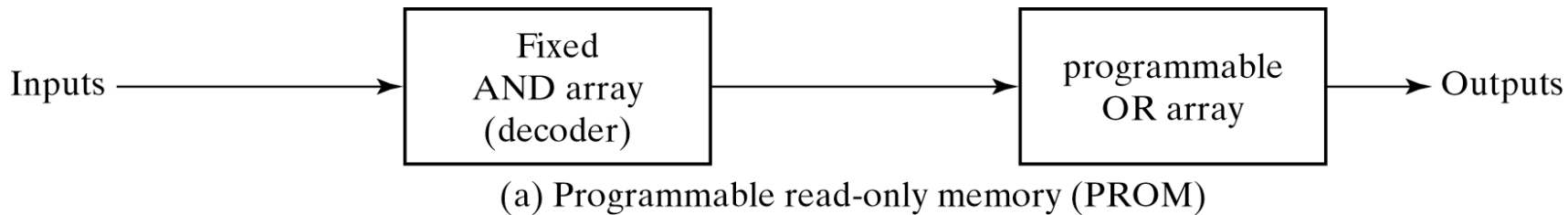


Fig. 7-13 Basic Configuration of Three PLDs



PROGRAMMABLE LOGIC ARRAY(PLA)

■ Why PLA?

A combinational circuit may occasionally have don't care conditions. When implemented with a ROM, a don't care condition becomes an address input that will never occur. The words at the don't care addresses need not be programmed and may be left in their original state (all 0's or all 1's). The result is that not all the bit patterns available in the ROM are used, which may be considered as waste of available equipment.

- For example, a combinational circuit that converts a 12-bit card code to a 6-bit internal alphanumeric code. * It consists 12 inputs and 6 outputs. The size of the ROM must be 4096×6 ($2^{12} \times 6$).
* There are only 47 valid entries for the card code, all other input combinations are don't care. The remaining 4049 words of ROM are not used and are thus wasted.

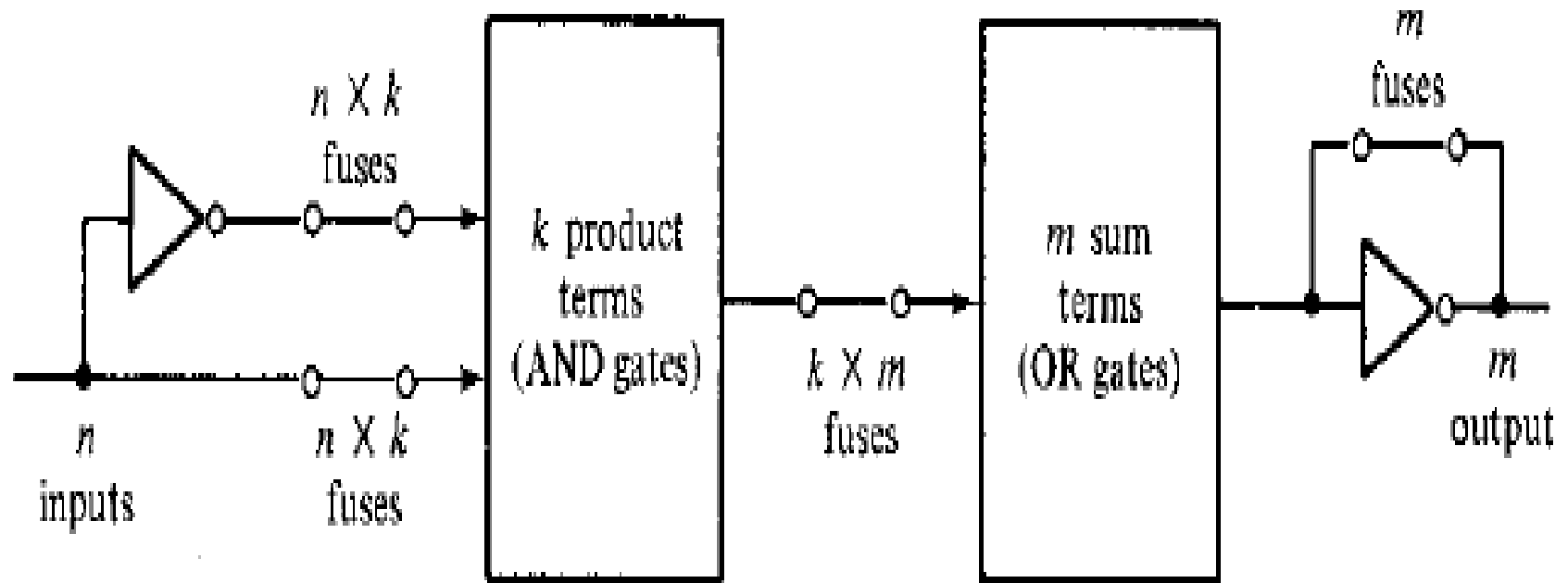


PROGRAMMABLE LOGIC ARRAY(PLA)

- So, for cases where the number of don't care conditions is excessive, it is more economical to use a second type of LSI component called Programmable Logic Array (PLA).
- PLA does not provide full decoding of the variables and does not generate all the minterms as in the ROM.
- A block diagram is shown in fig. It consists n inputs, m -outputs, k product terms and m sum terms. The product terms constitute a group of k AND gates and the sum terms constitute a group of m OR gates.

PROGRAMMABLE LOGIC ARRAY (PLA)

■ Blok Diagram of PLA





Example 1

Implement the following two Boolean functions with a PLA:

$$F_1(A, B, C) = \sum(0, 1, 2, 4)$$

$$F_2(A, B, C) = \sum(0, 5, 6, 7)$$

The two functions are simplified in the maps of Figure

		<i>BC</i>		<i>B</i>	
		00	01	11	10
<i>A</i>	0	1	1	0	1
	1	1	0	0	0

C

		<i>BC</i>		<i>B</i>	
		00	01	11	10
<i>A</i>	0	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1	1

C

1 element — $F_1 = A'B' + A'C' + B'C'$

0 elements — $F_1 = (AB + AC + BC)'$

$$F_2 = AB + AC + A'B'C'$$

$$F_2 = (A'C + A'B + AB'C')'$$



Example 1

- Both the **true** and **complement** of the functions are simplified in **sum of products**.
- We can find the same terms from the group terms of the functions of F_1 , F_1' , F_2 and F_2' which will make the minimum terms.

$$F_1 = (AB + AC + BC)'$$

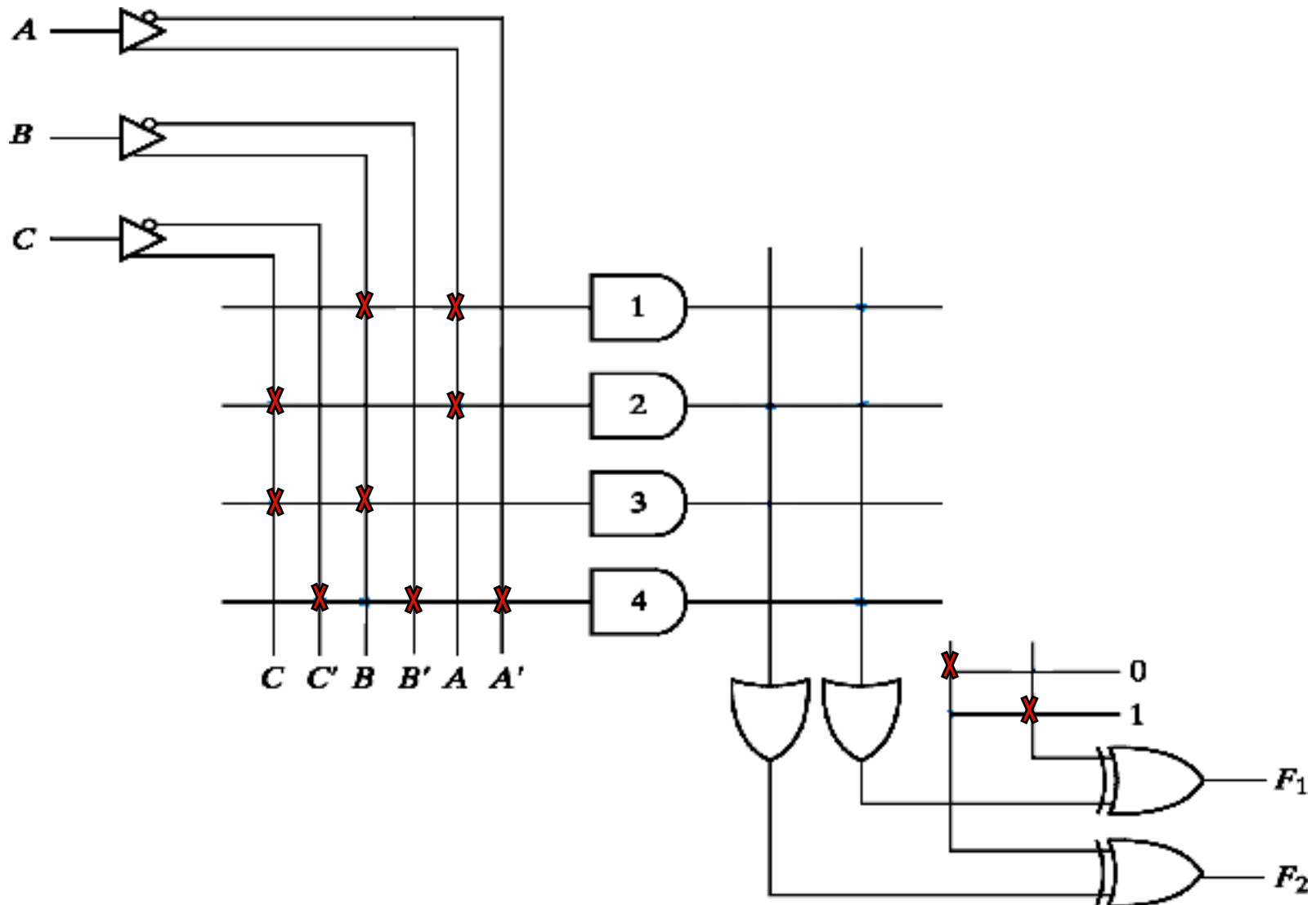
$$F_2 = AB + AC + A'B'C'$$

PLA programming table						
	Product term	Inputs			Outputs	
		<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	(C)	(T)
					F_1	F_2
<i>AB</i>	1	1	1	–	1	1
<i>AC</i>	2	1	–	1	1	1
<i>BC</i>	3	–	1	1	1	–
<i>A'B'C'</i>	4	0	0	0	–	1

Fig. 7-15 Solution to Example 7-2



Example 1





Example 2

$$F_1 = AB' + AC$$

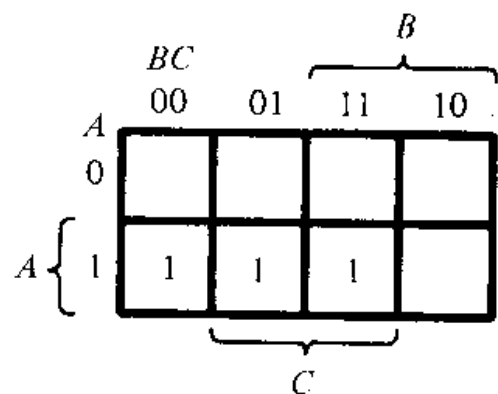
$$F_2 = AC + BC$$

<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>F</i> ₁	<i>F</i> ₂
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

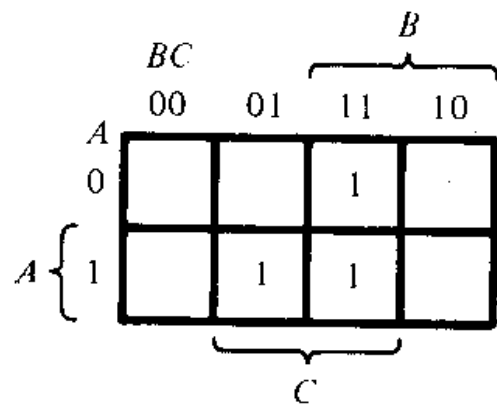
(a) Truth table



Example 2



$$F_1 = AB' + AC$$



$$F_2 = AC + BC$$

(b) Map simplification

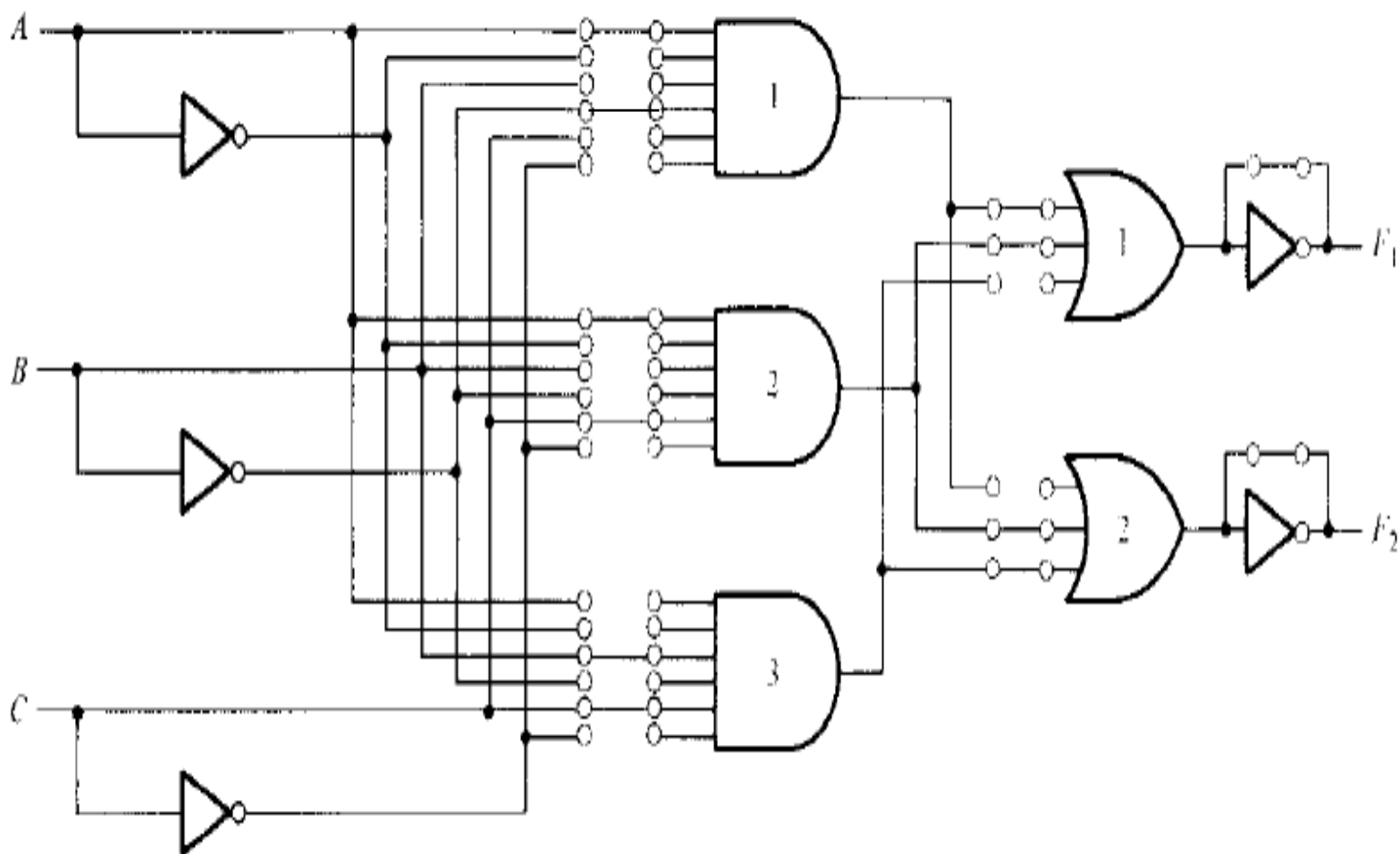
	Product term	Inputs			Outputs	
		A	B	C	F_1	F_2
AB'	1	1	0	—	1	—
AC	2	1	—	1	1	1
BC	3	—	1	1	—	1
					T	T
					T/C	

(c) PLA program table



Example 2

PLA with 3 inputs, 3 product terms and 2 outputs





Example 3

Example:

- ◆ $F_1(A,B,C) = \Sigma(3,5,6,7)$
- ◆ $F_2(A,B,C) = \Sigma(0,2,4,7)$

$$F_1 = (B'C' + A'C' + A'B')'$$

$$F_2 = B'C' + A'C' + ABC$$

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

$$F_1 = AC + AB + BC$$

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

$$F_2 = B'C' + A'C' + ABC$$

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

$$F_1' = B'C' + A'C' + A'B'$$

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

$$F_2' = B'C + A'C + ABC$$



Example 3

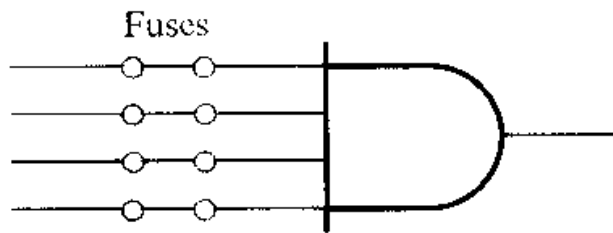
PLA program table

	Product term	Inputs			Outputs	
		A	B	C	F_1	F_2
$B'C'$	1	—	0	0	1	1
$A'C'$	2	0	—	0	1	1
$A'B'$	3	0	0	—	1	—
ABC	4	1	1	1	—	1
					C	T
					T/C	

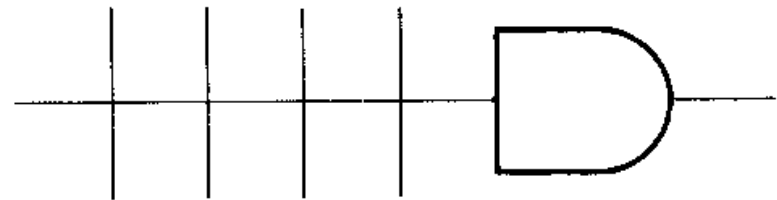


Programmable Array Logic (PAL)

- PLDs have hundreds of gates interconnected through hundreds of electronic fuses.
- It is sometimes convenient to draw the internal logic of such devices in a compact form referred as array logic.



(a) Conventional symbol



(b) Array logic symbol

FIGURE 5-29

Two graphic symbols for an AND gate



Programmable Array Logic (PAL)

- When designing with a PAL, the Boolean functions must be simplified to fit into each section.
- Unlike the PLA, a product term cannot be shared among two or more OR gates. Therefore, each function can be simplified by itself without regard to common product terms.
- The output terminals are sometimes driven by three-state buffers or inverters.

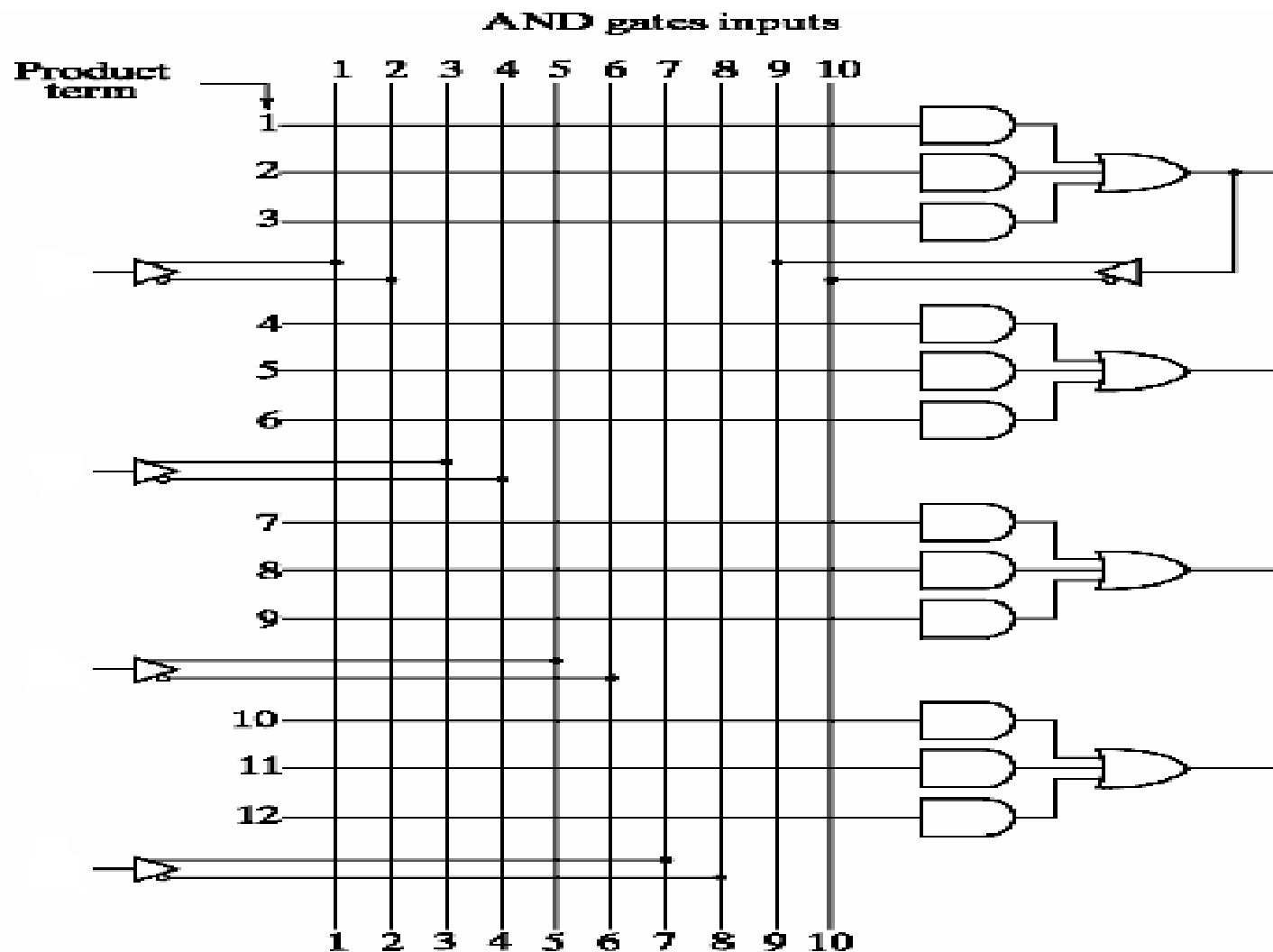


Programmable Array Logic (PAL)

- PAL is a programmable logic device with fixed OR array and programmable AND array.
- Because only AND gates are programmable, PAL is easier to program but not as flexible as PLA.



PAL implementation





Programmable Array Logic (PAL)

□ Example:

$$w(A, B, C, D) = \sum(2, 12, 13)$$

$$x(A, B, C, D) = \sum(7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15)$$

$$y(A, B, C, D) = \sum(0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 15)$$

$$z(A, B, C, D) = \sum(1, 2, 8, 12, 13)$$

Simplifying the four functions as following Boolean functions:

$$w = ABC' + A'B'CD'$$

$$x = A + BCD$$

$$y = A'B + CD + B'D'$$

$$z = ABC' + A'B'CD' + AC'D' + A'B'C'D = w + AC'D' + A'B'C'D$$



PAL Table

- ▣ z has four product terms, and we can replace by w with two product terms, this will reduce the number of terms for z from four to three.

Table 7-6
PAL Programming Table

Product Term	AND Inputs					Outputs
	A	B	C	D	W	
1	1	1	0	—	—	$w = ABC' + A'B'CD'$
2	0	0	1	0	—	
3	—	—	—	—	—	
4	1	—	—	—	—	$x = A + BCD$
5	—	1	1	1	—	
6	—	—	—	—	—	
7	0	1	—	—	—	$y = A'B + CD + B'D'$
8	—	—	1	1	—	
9	—	0	—	0	—	
10	—	—	—	—	1	$z = w + AC'D' + A'B'C'D$
11	1	—	0	0	—	
12	0	0	0	1	—	



Fuse map for example

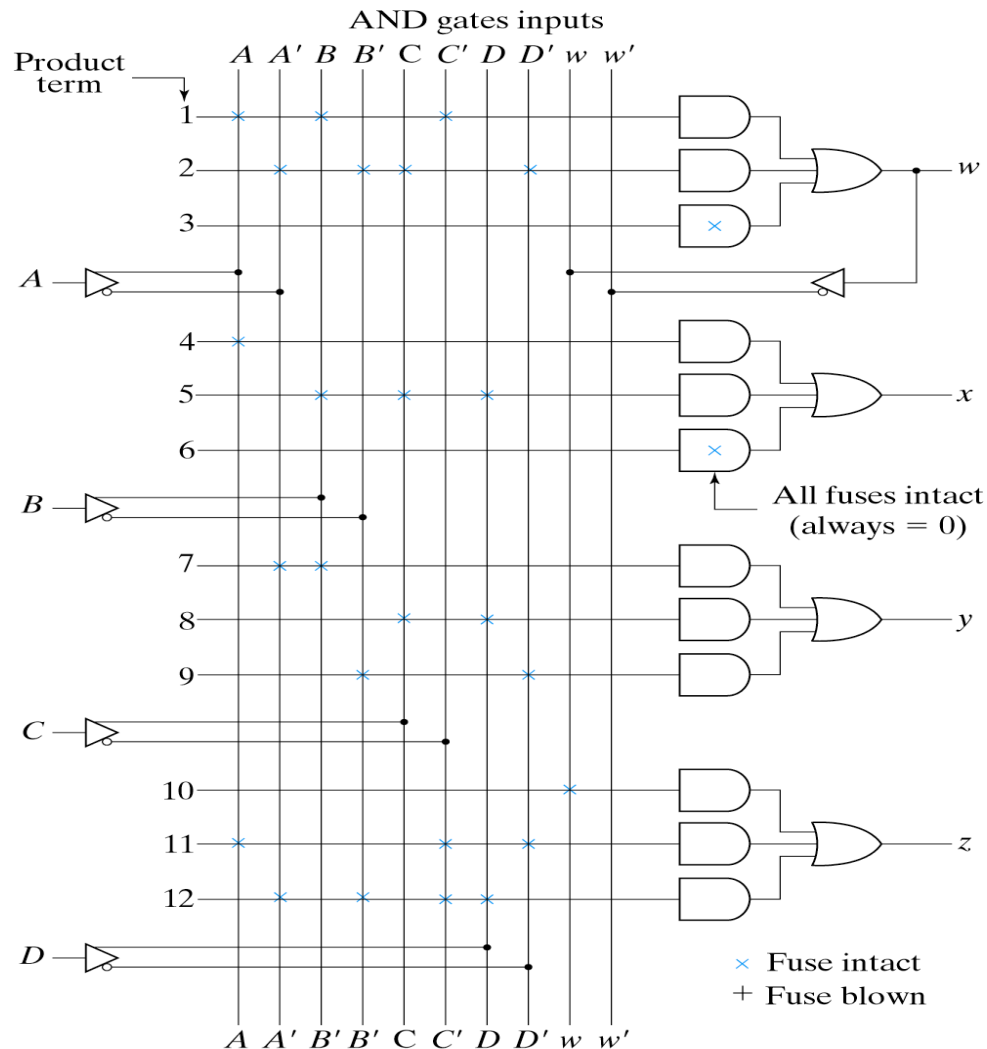


Fig. 7-17 Fuse Map for PAL as Specified in Table 7-6