

Module - 2

FLIP FLOPS

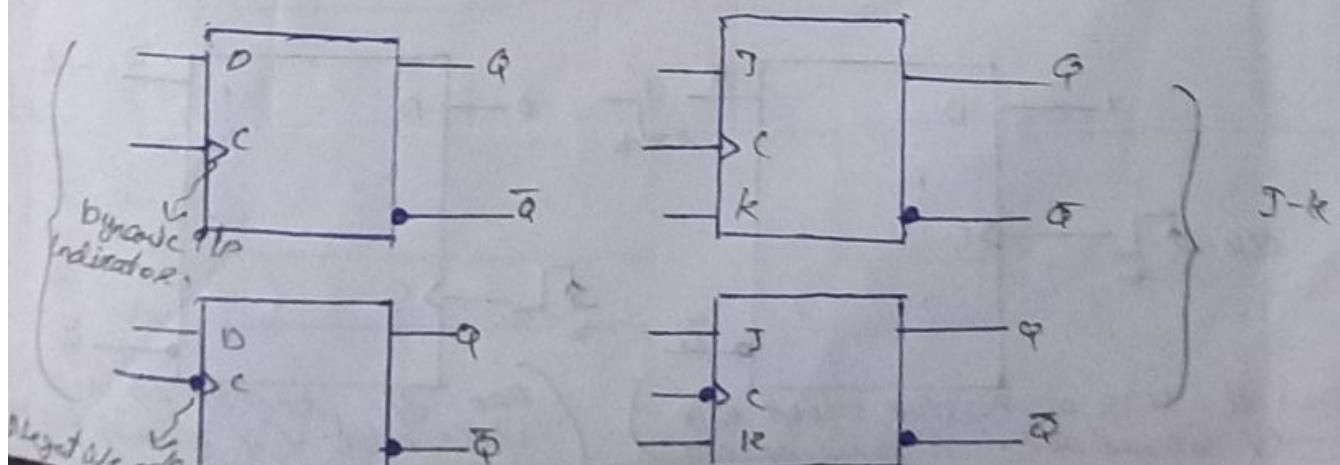
flip flops are synchronous bistable devices, also known as bistable multivibrators.

The term synchronous means that the output changes states only at a specified point - (leading / trailing edge) on the triggering IP called the clock (CLK), which is designated as a control IP, c; that is, changes in the flop occur in synchronization with the clock.

Flip flops are edge-triggered / edge-sensitive whereas gated latches are level-sensitive.

In edge-triggered flip-flop changes states either at the positive edge (raising edge) or at the negative edge (falling edge) of the clock pulse & is sensitive to this IP only at this transaction of the clock.

Two types of edge triggered flip-flops are considered here : D & J-K. The logic symbol for these flip-flops are given below.



Each type can be either positive edge-triggered (no bubble @ \bar{Q}) or negative edge-triggered (bubble @ \bar{Q}).

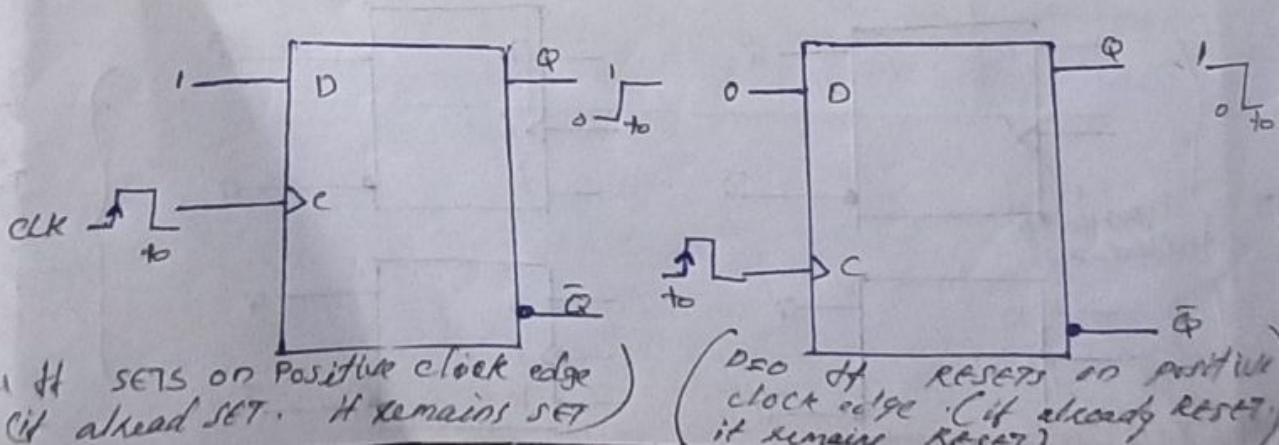
The key to indeed identifying an edge-triggered flip-flop by its logic symbol is the small triangle inside the block at the clock(C) input. This triangle is called the dynamic input indicator.

The D flip-flop:

The D input of the D flip-flop is a synchronous IIP because data on the IIP are transferred to the flip-flop's output only on the triggered edge of the clock pulse.

When D is HIGH, the Q output goes HIGH on the triggering edge of the clock pulse, & the flip-flop is SET, when D is LOW, the Q output goes LOW on the triggering edge of the clock pulse & the FF is RESET.

This basic operation of a positive edge-triggered D-FF is given in below:

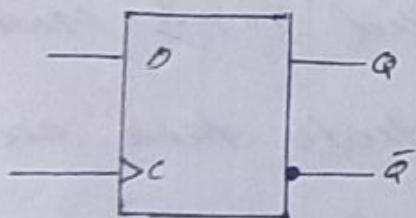


The truth table for positive-edge-triggered D flip-flop is given below:

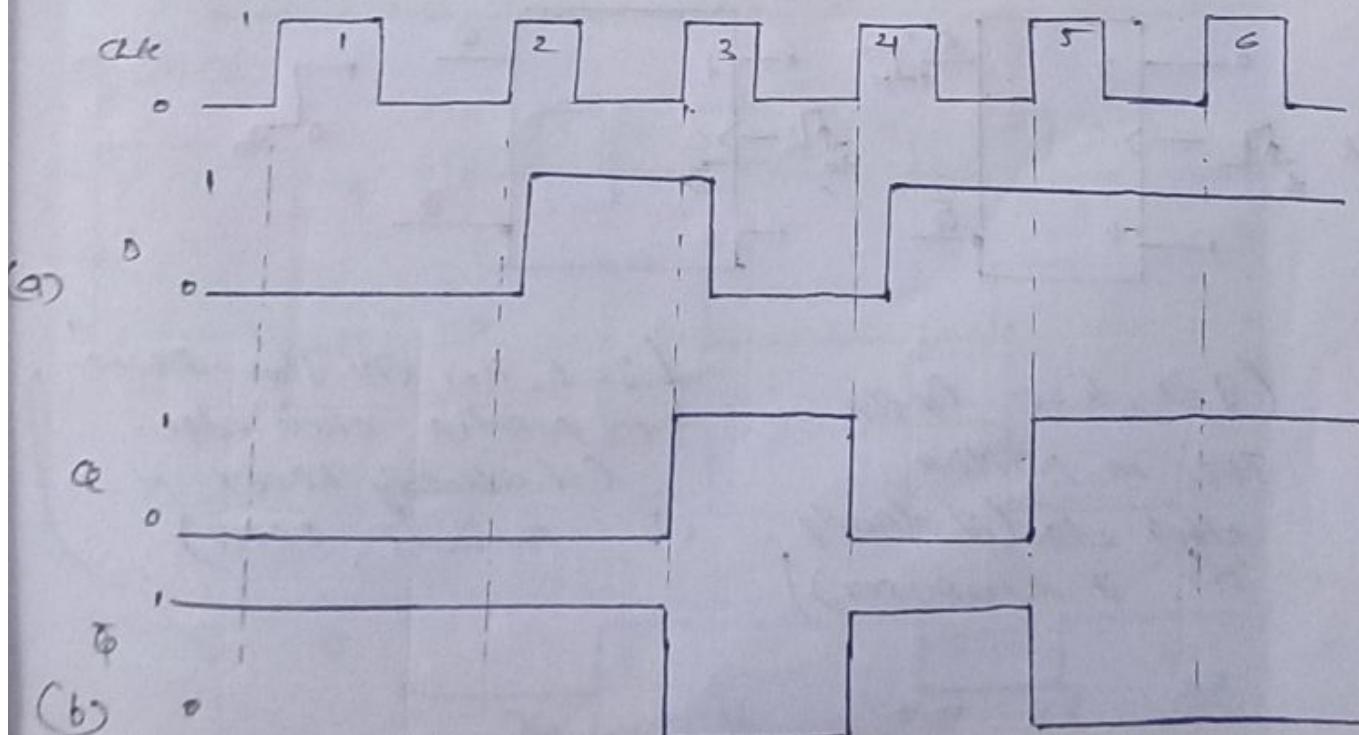
Inputs		Outputs		Comments
D	clock	Q	\bar{Q}	
0	↑	0	1	RESET
1	↑	1	0	SET

The operation and truth table for negative edge-triggered D flip-flop are the same as those for a positive edge-triggered device except that the falling edge of the clock pulse is the triggered edge.

Example :



(The clock pulse will restart when a set start is made.)



The JK flip-flop

The J and K inputs of the J-K flip-flop are synchronous inputs because data on these inputs are transferred to the flip-flop's outputs only on the triggering edge of the clock pulse.

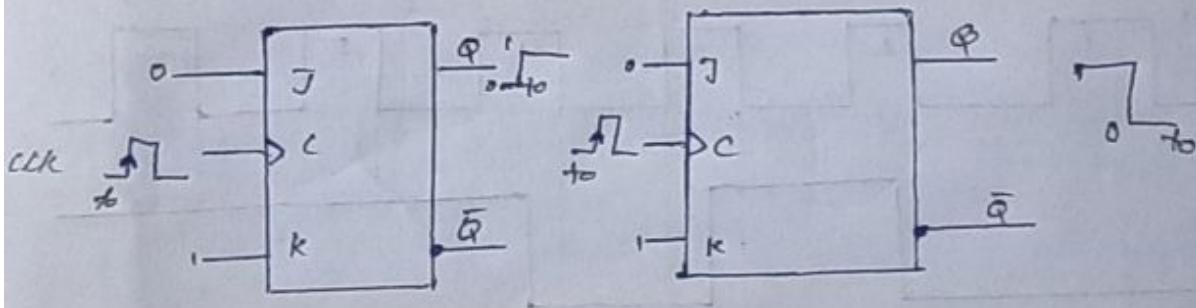
When J is HIGH & K is LOW, the Q output goes HIGH on the triggering edge of the clock pulse, & the flip-flop is SET.

When J is LOW & K is HIGH, the Q output goes LOW on the triggering edge of the clock pulse, & the flip-flop is RESET.

When both J and K are LOW, the Q output does not change from its prior state.

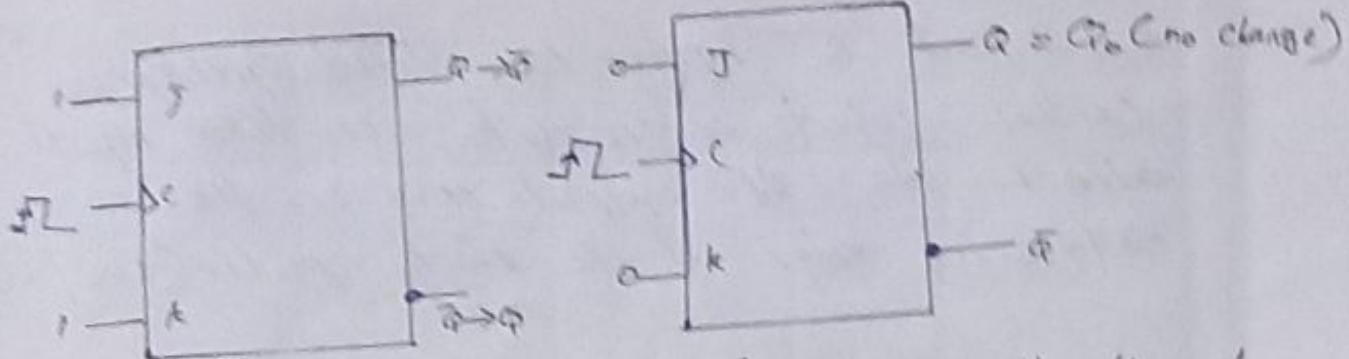
When J and K are both HIGH, the flip-flop changes state. This is called TOGGLE mode.

This operation and its truth table are as follows:



($J=1, K=0$ flip-flop
SETS on positive
clock edge (if already
SET, it remains set.))

($J=0, K=1$ flip-flop RESETS
on positive clock edge.
(If already RESET, it
remains RESET))

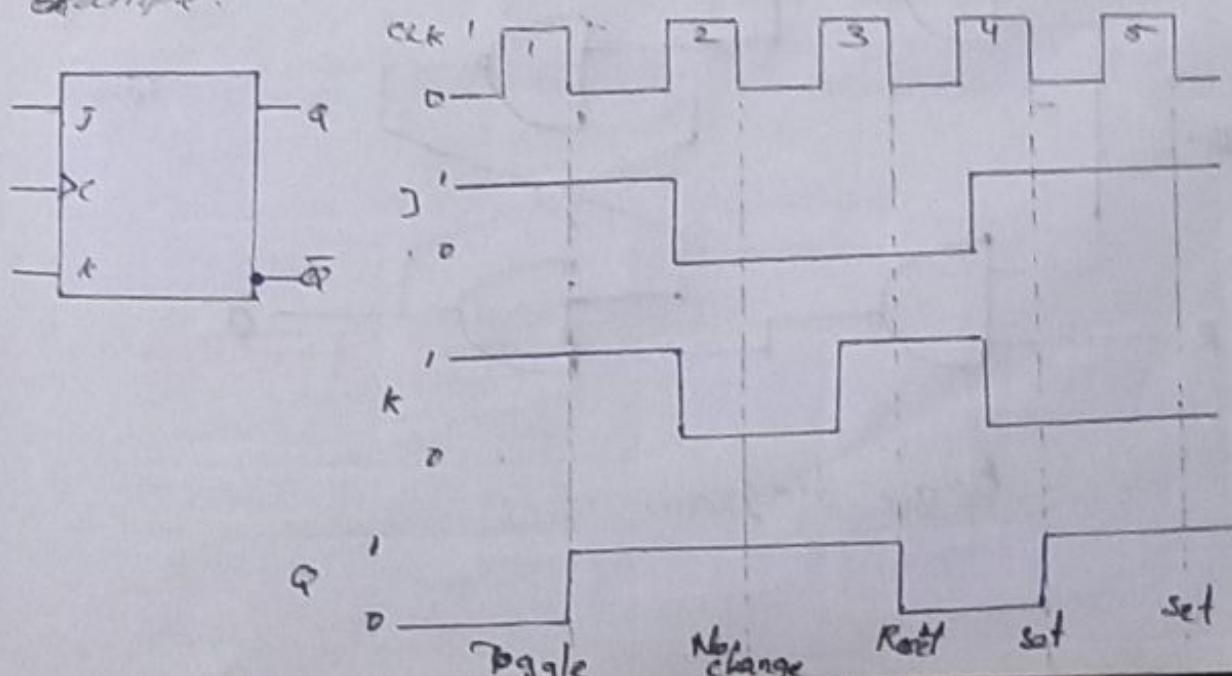


$(J=1, K=1)$ flip-flop changes state (toggle)

$(J=0, K=0)$ flip-flop does not change (if set, it remains set; if reset, it remains reset)

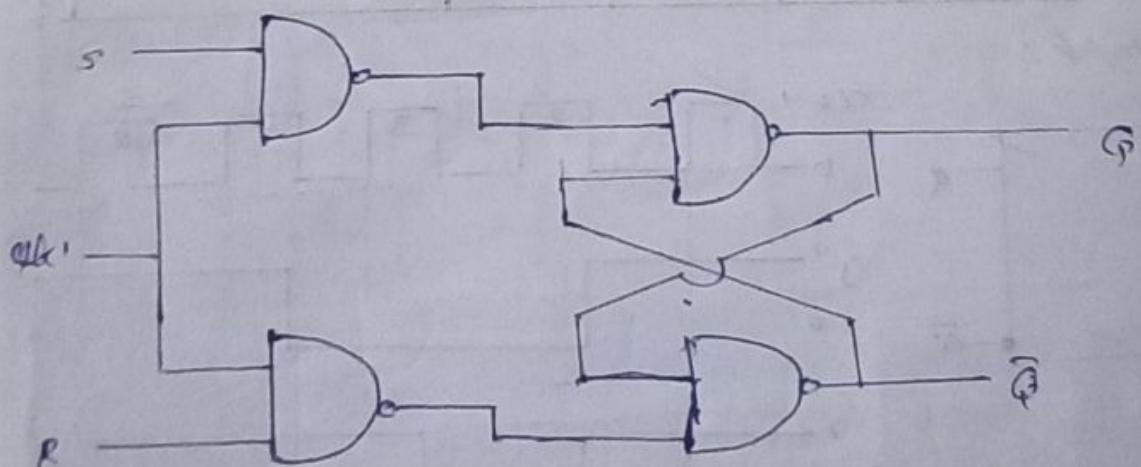
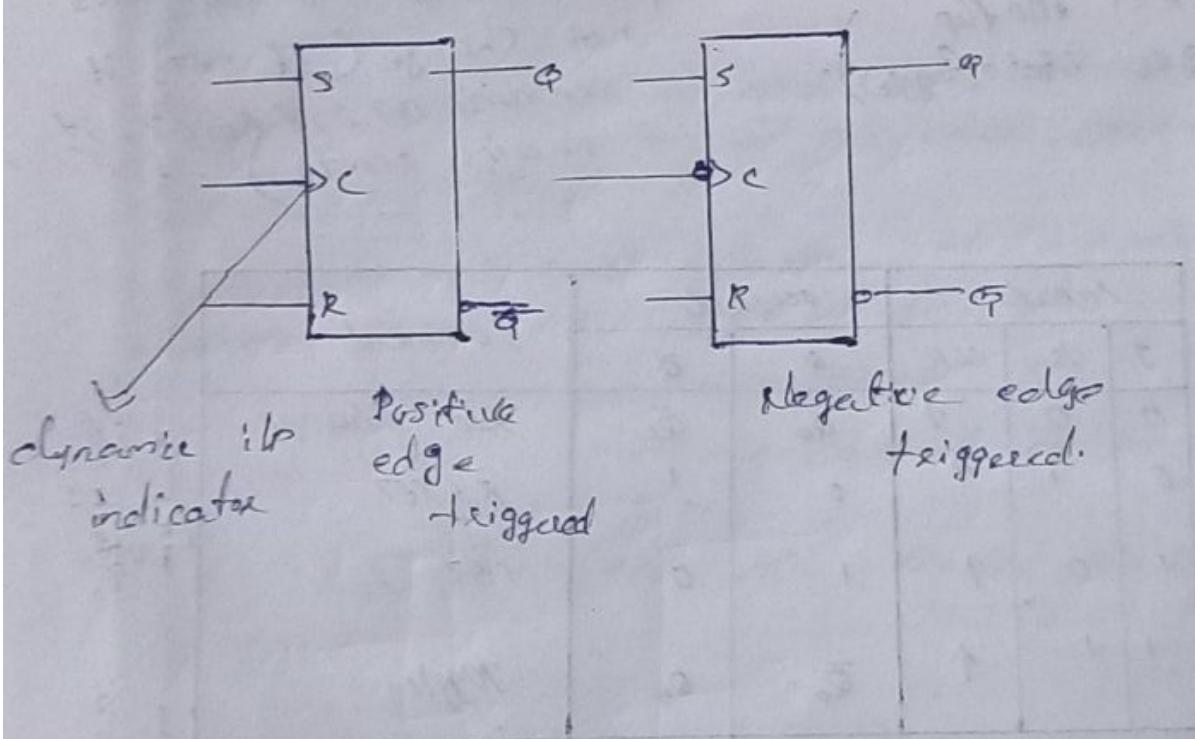
Inputs			outputs		Comments:
J	K	clk	\bar{Q}	Q	
0	0	↑	0	\bar{Q}_0	no change
0	1	↑	0	1	reset
1	0	↑	1	0	set
1	1	↑	\bar{Q}_0	Q_0	Toggle.

Example:



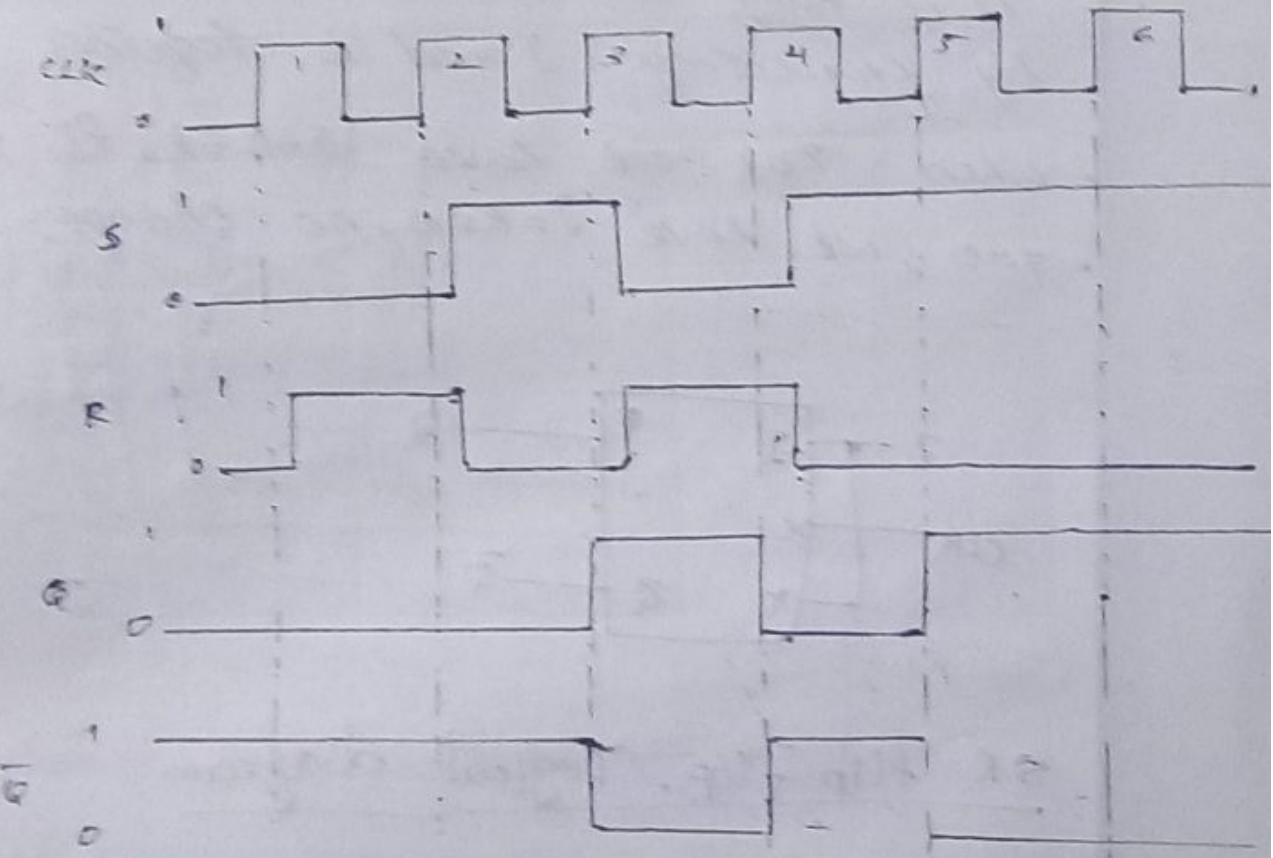
SR Flip flops :

The S and R inputs are called synchronous control inputs \rightarrow the data on these inputs affect the FF's output only on the triggering edge of the clock pulse (+ve/-ve)



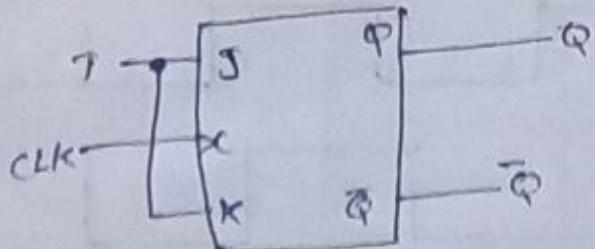
Logic diagram.

Inputs			Outputs		Comments
S	R	CLK	Q	\bar{Q}	
0	0	X	0	1	No change
0	1	1	0	1	Reset
1	0	1	1	0	Set
1	1	1	?	?	Invald.

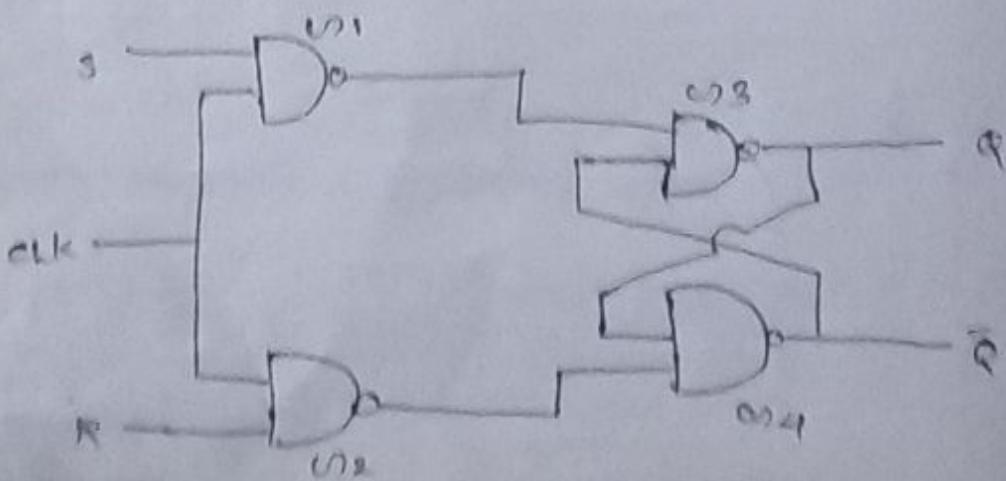


T flip flops:

- It has a single control input labelled T for Toggle.
- When a T is HIGH, the flip flop toggles on every new clock pulse.
- When T is low the flip flop remains in the same stage.
- It is easy to convert J-K ff to T ff by connecting J and K together
- When $T=1$, we have $J=K=1$, ff toggles.
- $T=0$, we have $J=K=0$ - no change.



SR flip flop Logical diagram



S	R	Q
0	0	No change
0	1	RESET
1	0	SET
1	1	Invalid.

Case:1 $S=R=0 \quad CLR = 1$

Let $Q=0$

$$g_1 = 0 \quad g_2 = 1$$

$$(g_3 = 0) \quad g_4 = 1$$

Let $Q=1$

$$g_1 = 1 \quad g_2 = 1$$

$$(g_3 = 1) \quad g_4 = 0$$

Case:2 $S=0 \quad R=1 \quad CLR=0 \Rightarrow Q=1 \quad Q=0$

Let $Q=0$

$$g_1 = 1 \quad g_2 = 0 \quad \text{RESET}$$

$$(g_3 = 1) \quad g_4 = 1$$

Case:3 $S=1 \quad R=1 \quad CLR=1 \quad CLR=1 \quad Q=1$

$$g_1 = 0 \quad (g_3 = 1)$$

$$g_2 = 1 \quad g_4 = 0$$



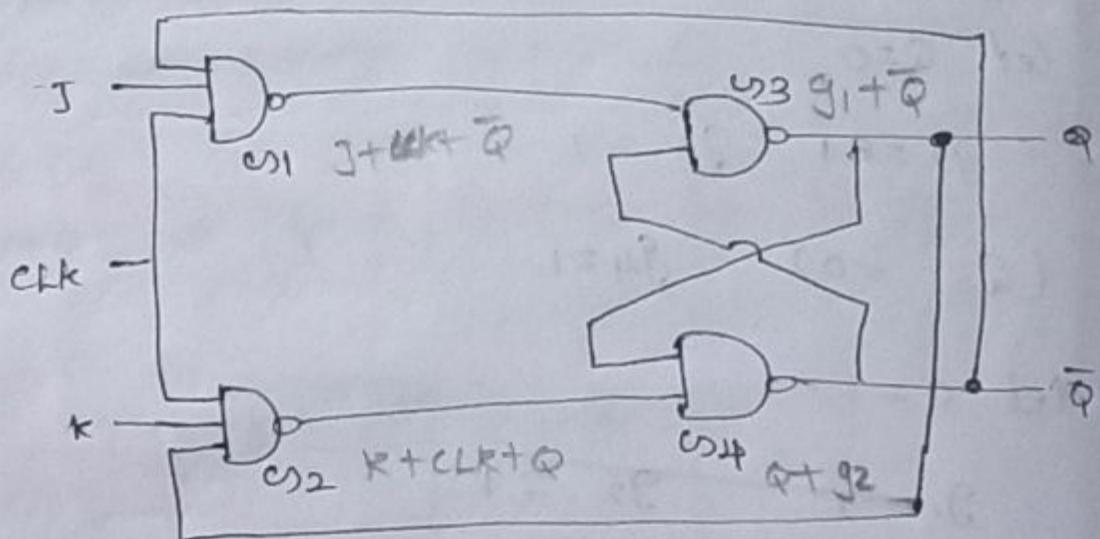
case : 4

$$S = 1 \quad R = 1 \quad CLK = 1$$

$$g_1 = 0 \quad (g_3 = 1)$$

$$g_2 = 0 \quad g_4 > 1 \quad Q$$

J_K flip flops Logic diagram



Case : 1

$$J = 0 \quad K = 0 \quad CLK = 1$$

$$\text{let } Q = 0 \quad \bar{Q} = 1$$

$$C1 = 1 \quad C3 = 0$$

$$C2 = 1 \quad C4 = 1$$

$$\text{let } Q = 1 \quad \bar{Q} = 0$$

$$g_1 = 1 \quad g_3 = 1$$

$$g_2 = 1 \quad g_4 = 0$$

Case : 2

$$J=1 \quad k=0$$

let $Q = 0 \quad \bar{Q} = 1$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = 0 & \cos_3 = 1 \\ \cos_2 = 1 & \cos_4 = 0 \end{array}$$

let $Q = 1 \quad \bar{Q} = 0$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = 1 & \cos_3 = 1 \\ \cos_2 = 1 & \cos_4 = 0 \end{array}$$

Case : 3

$$J=0 \quad k=1$$

let $Q = 0 \quad \bar{Q} = 1$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = 1 & \cos_3 = 0 \\ \cos_2 = 1 & \cos_4 = 1 \end{array}$$

let $Q = 1 \quad \bar{Q} = 0$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = 1 & \cos_3 = 0 \\ \cos_2 = 0 & \cos_4 = 1 \end{array}$$

Case : 4

$$J=1 \quad k=1$$

let $Q = 0$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = 0 & \cos_3 = 1 \\ \cos_2 = 1 & \cos_4 = 0 \end{array}$$

let $Q = 1 \quad \bar{Q} = 0$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \cos_1 = -1 & \cos_3 = 0 \\ \cos_2 = 0 & \cos_4 = 1 \end{array}$$

flip-flop operating characteristics

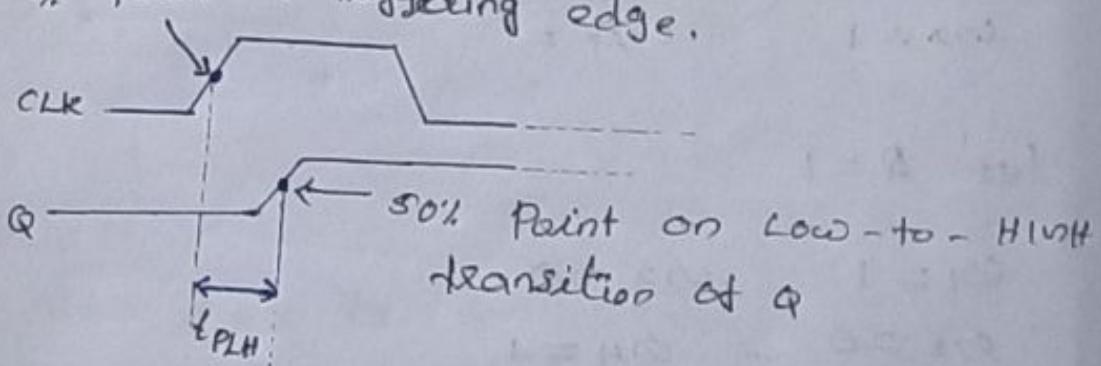
propagation Delay time:

Propagation delay time is the interval time required after an input signal has been applied for the resulting output change to occur.

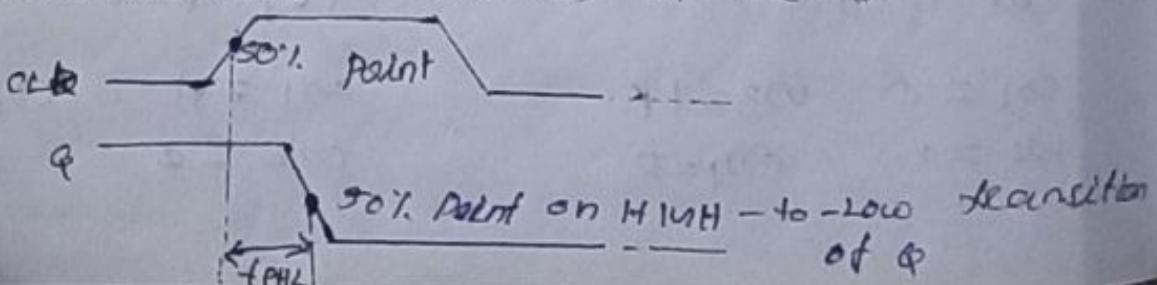
4 categories of propagation delay times are important in the operation of a ff :

* Propagation delay t_{PLH} as measured from the triggering edge of the clock pulse to the low-to-high transition of the output.

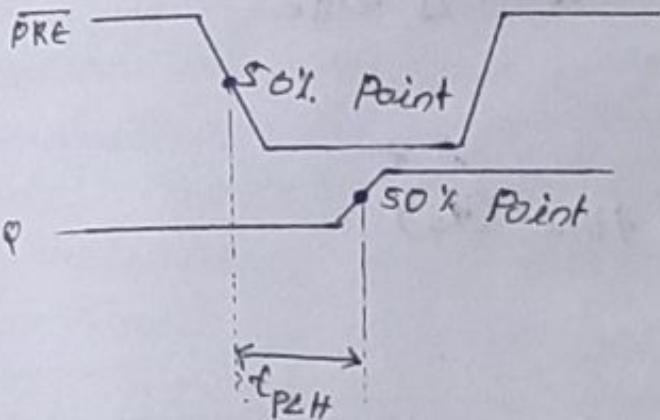
50% Point on triggering edge.



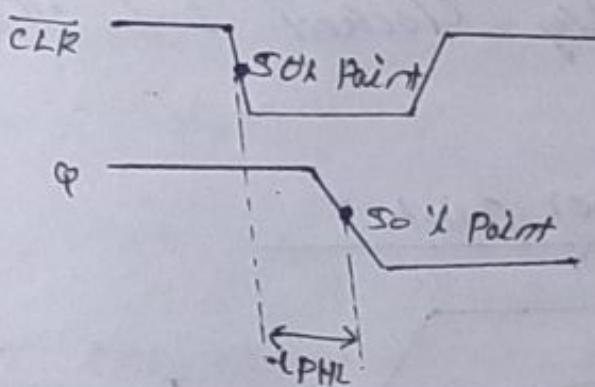
* Propagation delay t_{PHL} as measured from the triggering edge of the clock to the high-to-low transition of the o/p



* Propagation delay t_{PLH} as measured from the leading edge of the present IP to the low-to-HIGH transition of the CP.

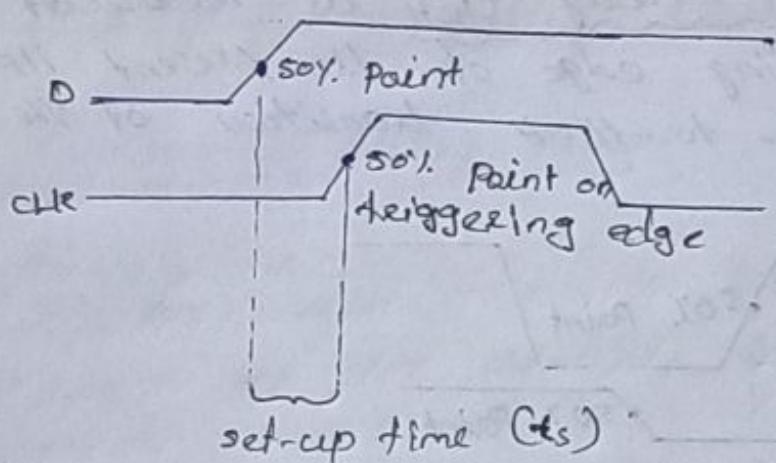


* Propagation delay t_{PHL} as measured from the leading edge of the clear IP to the HIGH-to-low transition of the CP.



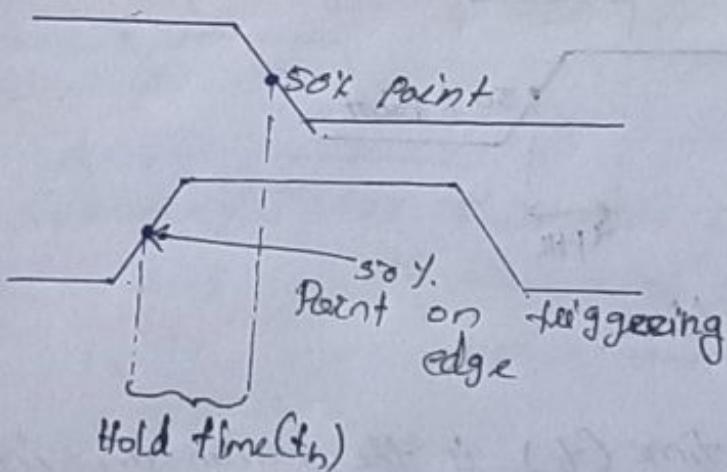
Set-up time:

The set-up time (t_S) is the minimum interval required for the logical levels to be maintained constantly on the inputs (J and K or D) prior to the triggering edge of the clock pulse in order for the levels to be reliably clocked into the D.



Hold time:

The hold time (t_h) is the minimum interval required for the logic state level to remain on the inputs after the triggering edge of the clock pulse in order for the levels to be reliably clocked into the ff .



Maximum clock frequency

The maximum clock frequency (f_{\max}) is the highest rate at which a ff can be reliably triggered. At clock frequencies above the maximum, the ff would be unable to respond.

quickly enough, and its operation would be impaired.

Pulse widths:

minimum pulse width (t_w) for reliable operation are usually specified by the manufacturer for the clock, preset, and clear inputs. Typically, the clock is specified by its minimum high time and its minimum low time.

Power dissipation:

The power dissipation of any digital circuit is the total power consumption of the device. For example, if the device operates on a 5V DC source and draws 5mA of current, the power dissipation is

$$P = V_{cc} \times I_{cc} = 5V \times 5mA = 25mW$$

SHIFT REGISTERS

Shift registers are a type of sequential logic circuit closely related to digital counters.

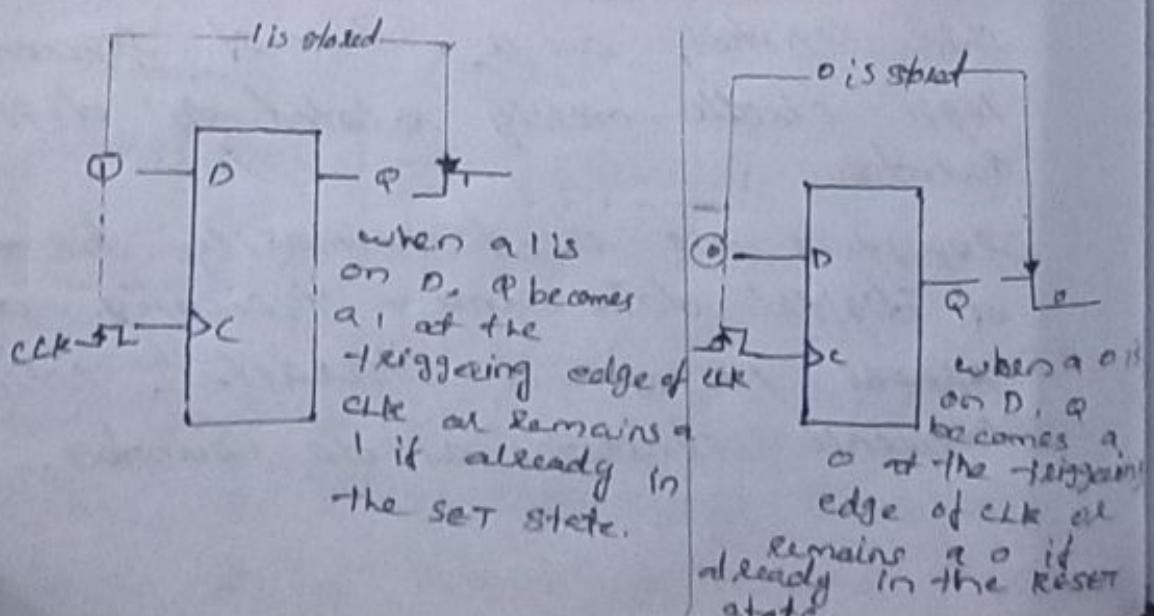
Registers are used primarily for the storage of digital data and typically do not ~~process~~ possess a characteristic internal sequence of states as do counters.

Shift registers consist of arrangements of flip-flops which are used to store and are important in applications involving the storage and transfer of data in digital system.

A register, unlike a counter, has no specified sequence of states, except in certain very specific specialised application.

A register, in general, is used solely for storing and shifting data (D & Q) entered into it from an external source and typically possesses no characteristics internal sequence of states.

A register is a digital circuit with 2 basic functions: data storage and data movement. It consists of one or more flip-flops which consists of are used to store & shift data. The storage capacity of registers makes it an important type of memory device.

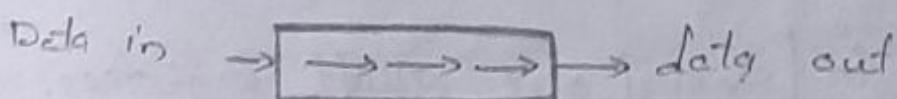


The storage capacity of a register is the total number of bits (1s and 0s) of digital data it can retain.

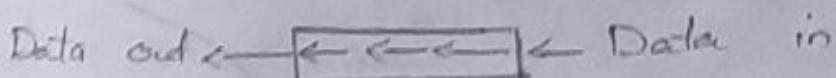
each stage (q_i) in a shift register represents one bit of storage capacity; therefore, the number of states in a register determines its storage capacity.

The shift capacity of a register permits the movement of data from stage to stage within the register or into or out of the register upon application of clock pulse.

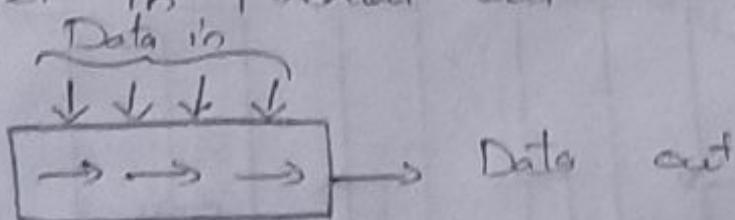
- Serial in / shift right / parallel out.



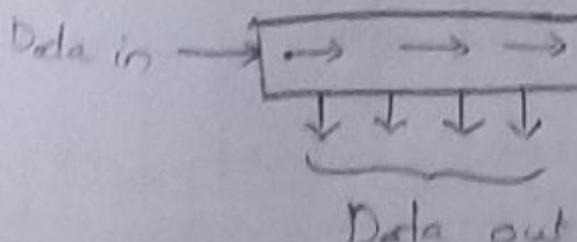
- Serial in / shift left / serial out



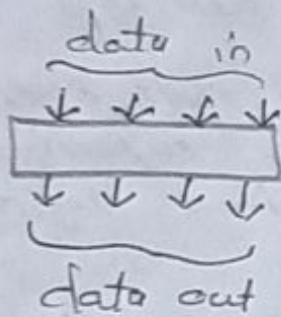
- Parallel in / serial out



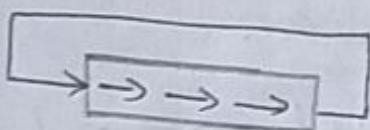
- Serial in / parallel out



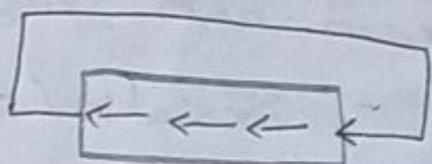
- parallel in / parallel out



- Rotate right

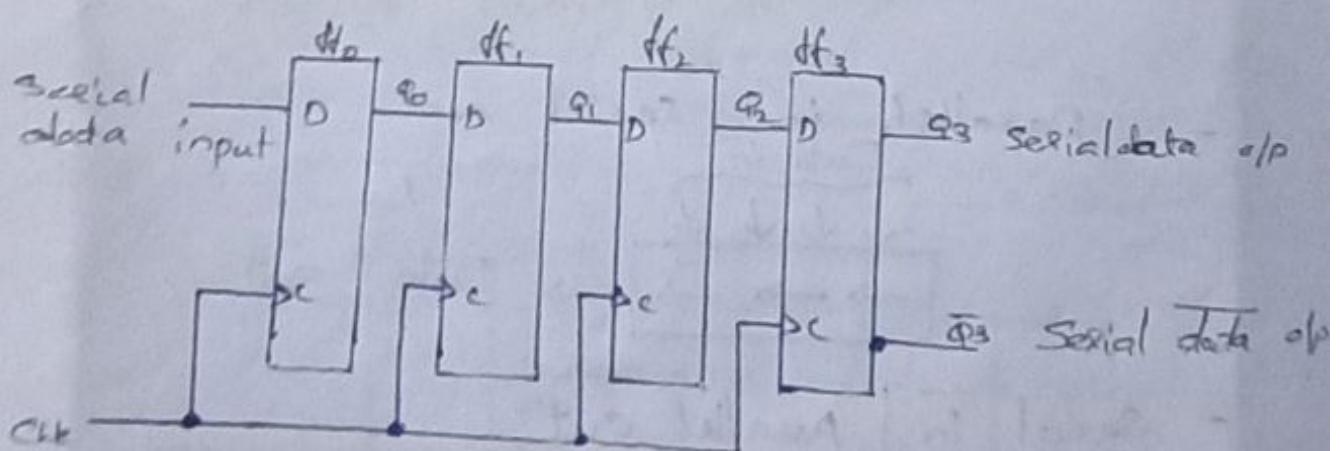


- Rotate left

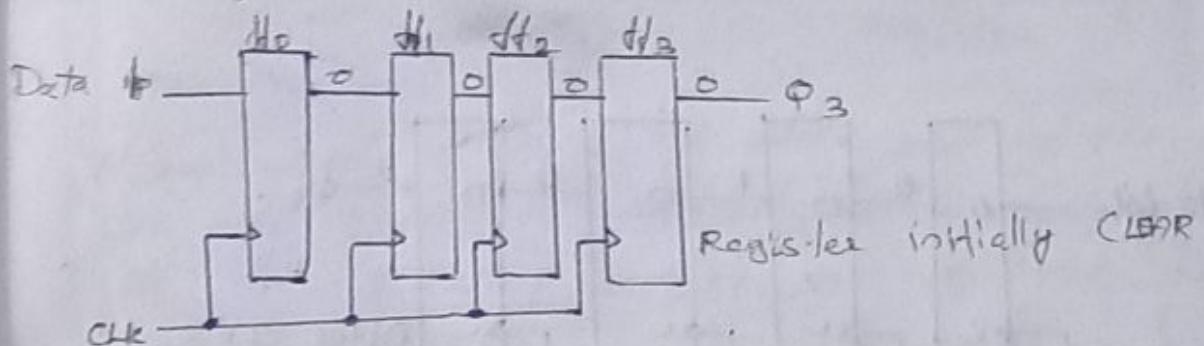


Serial In | serial out shift Registers:

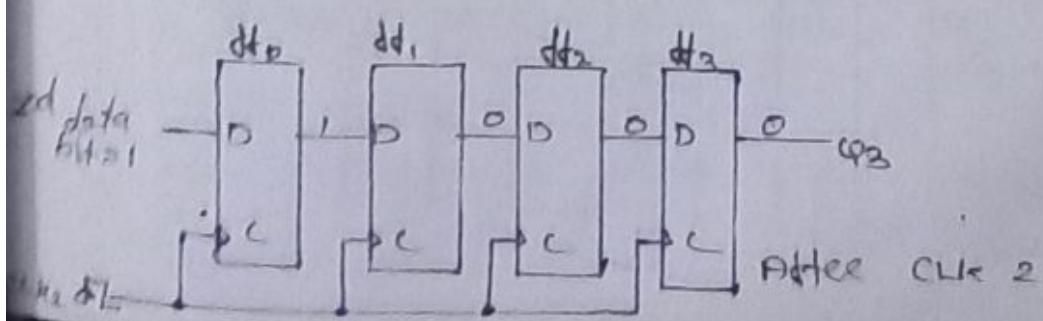
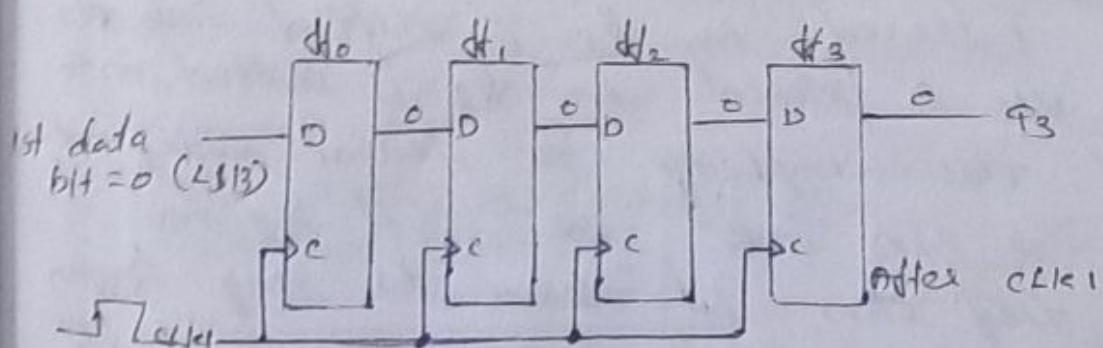
The serial in/serial out shift register accepts data serially - that is, one bit at a time on a single line. It produces the stored information on its output also in serial form.



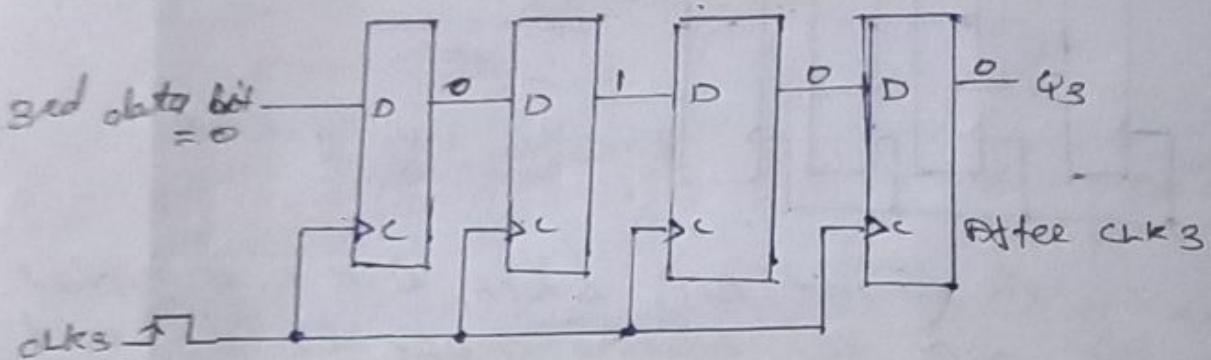
The following figure illustrates entry of the four bits 1010 into the register, beginning with the least significant bit. The register is initially clear. The 0 is put onto the data input line, making $D=0$ for Q_0 . When the first clock pulse is applied, Q_0 is reset, thus storing the 0.



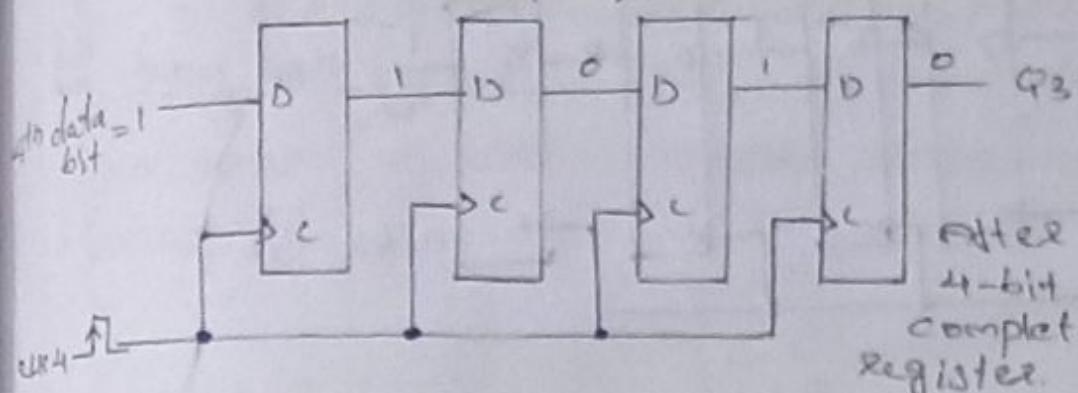
Next the second bit, which is a 1, is applied to the data input, making $D=1$ for Q_0 and $D=0$ for Q_1 , because the D input of Q_1 is connected to the Q_0 output. When the second clock pulse occurs, the 1 on the data input is shifted in to Q_0 , causing Q_0 to set; and the 0 that was in Q_0 is shifted into Q_1 .



The third bit, a 0, is now put onto the data-input line, and a clock pulse is applied. The 0 is entered into H₀, the 1 stored in H₀ is shifted into H₁, causing H₀ to set and the 0 stored in H₁ is shifted in to H₂.



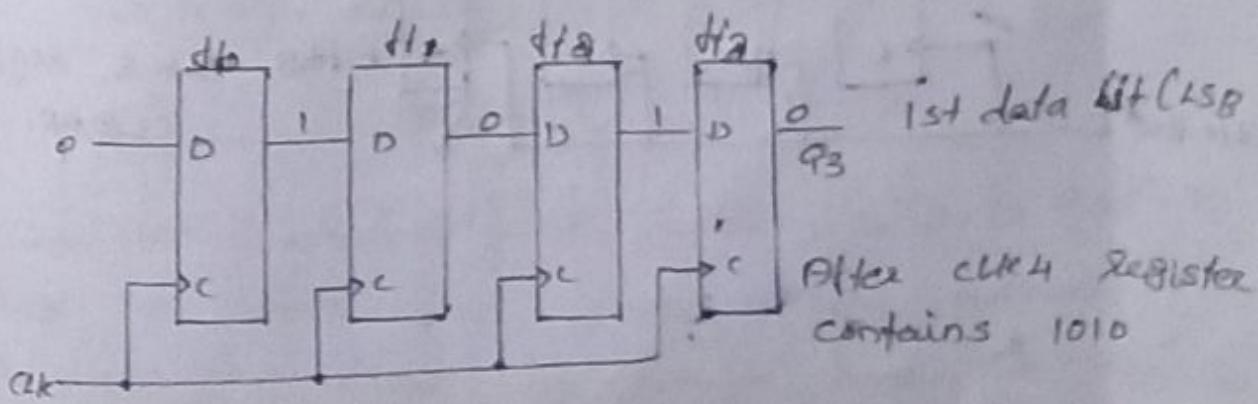
The last bit, a 1, is now applied to the data input, and a clock pulse is applied. This time the 1 is entered into H₀. The 0 stored in H₀ is shifted into H₁. The 1 stored in H₁ is shifted into H₂, and the 0 stored in H₂ is shifted into H₃. This completes the serial entry of the 4 bits into the shift register, where they can be stored for any length of time as long as the H_i have dc power.

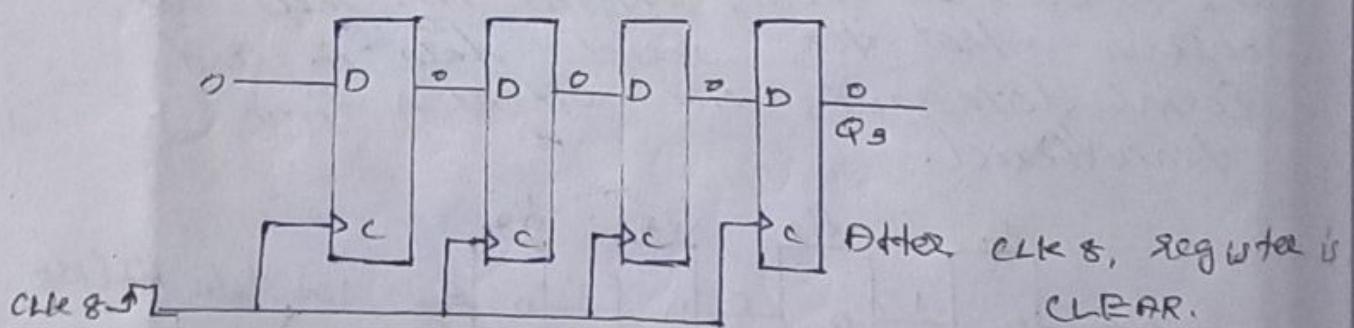
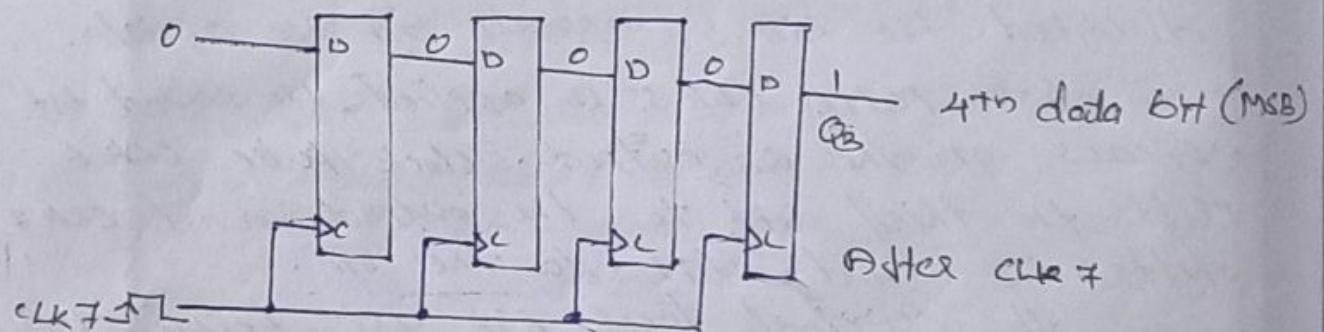
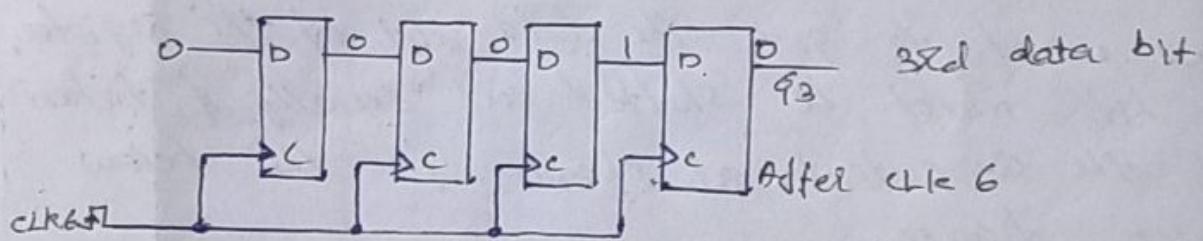
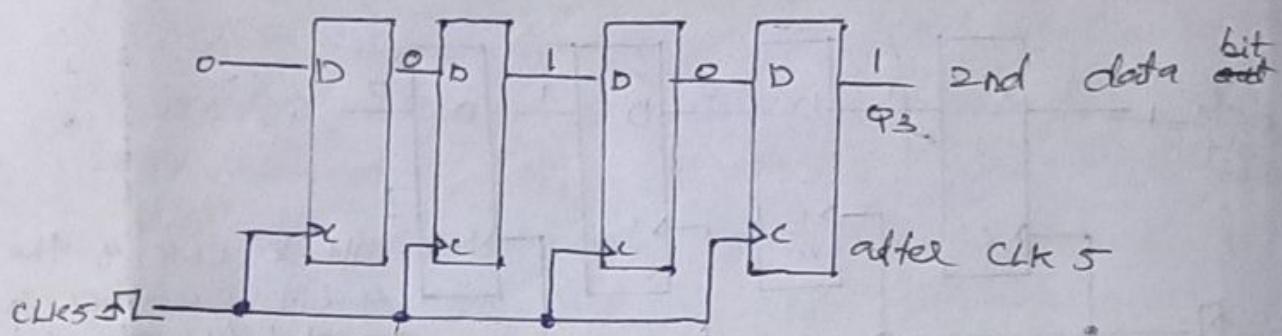


If we want to get the data out of the register, the bits must be shifted out serially & taken off the Q_3 output, as shown in the below given figure.

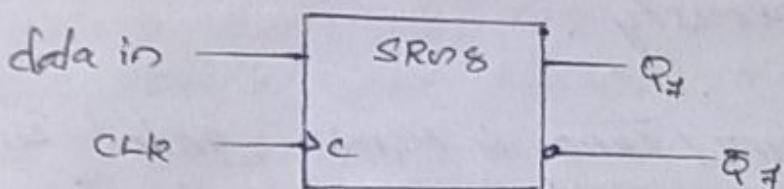
After CLK 4 in the data-enter operation just described, the 1100.0 appears on the Q_3 output. When clock pulse CLK 5 is applied, the second bit appears on the Q_3 output. Clock pulse CLK 6 shifts the third bit to the output, and CLK 7 shifts the fourth-bit to the output.

While the original four-bit are being shifted out, more bit can be shifted in. In. 1010 0000 are shown to be shifted in. Thus we observe that for serial data in and serial data out, one bit at a time is transferred.





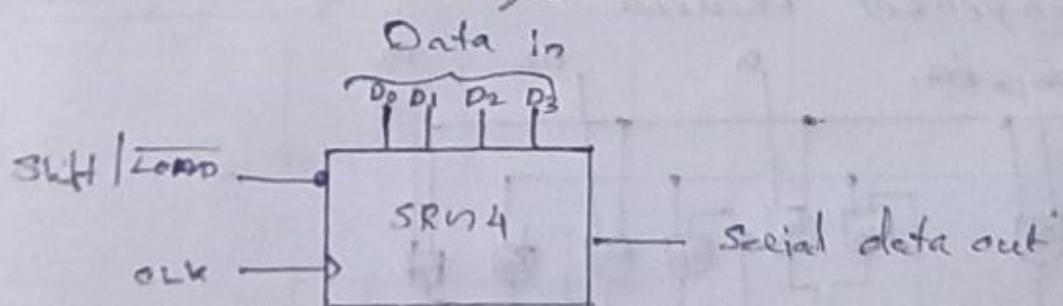
A more traditional logic block symbol for an 8-bit serial in/serial out shift register is shown below. The "SRu8" designation indicates a shift register (SRu) is an 8-bit capacity.



Parallel In | Serial out SRu:

For a register with parallel data inputs, the bits are entered simultaneously into their respective stages on parallel lines rather than on a bit-by-bit basis on one line as with serial data inputs.

The serial out is same as in serial in/serial out srus, once the data are completely stored in the register.

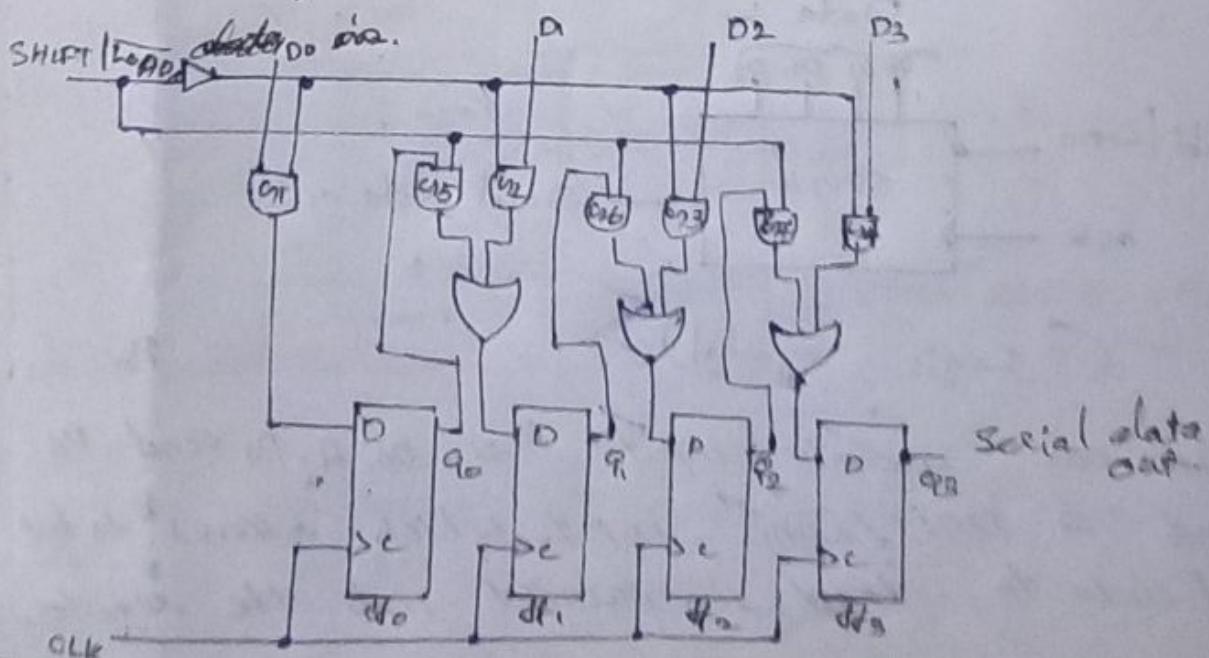


(Logic Symbol).

There are 4 data input lines, D_0, D_1, D_2 and D_3 and a SHIFT/LOAD input, which allows 4 bits of data to load in parallel into the register.

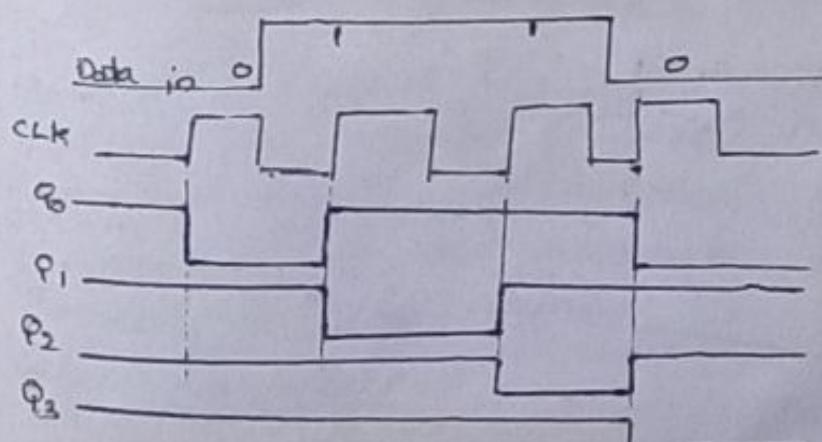
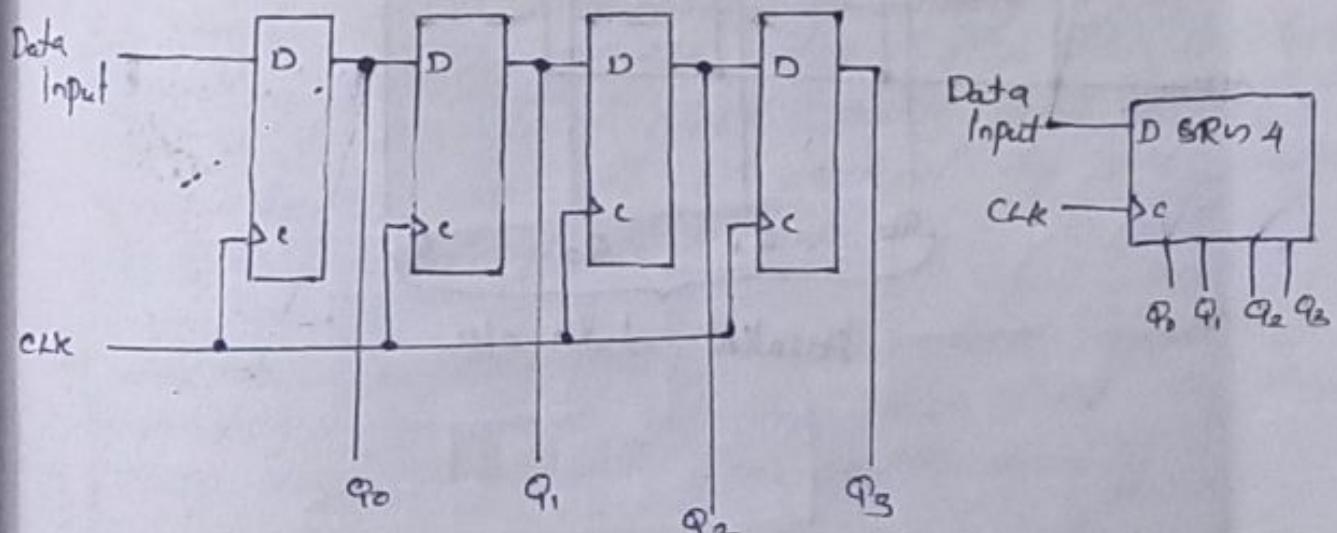
when SHIFT/LOAD is LOW, gates c_1 through c_{14} are enabled, allowing each data bit to be applied to the D input of its respective FF. When a clock pulse is applied, the FF with $D = 1$ will set and those with $D = 0$ will reset, thereby storing all four bits simultaneously.

When SHIFT/LOAD is HIGH, gates c_1 through c_{14} are disabled and gates c_{15} through c_{17} are enabled, allowing the data bits to shift right from one stage to the next. The OR gates allow either the normal shifting operation or the parallel data-enter operation, depending on which AND gates are enabled by the level on the SHIFT/LOAD input. Notice that FFO has a single AND to disable the parallel input, c_0 . It does not require an AND/OR arrangement because there is no serial data in.



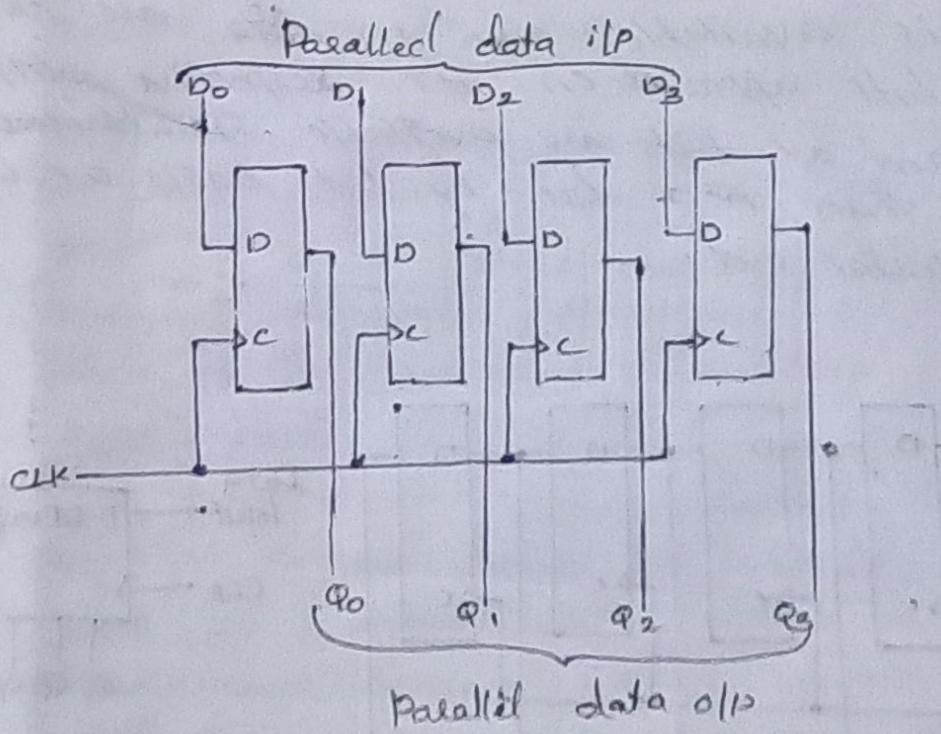
Serial in / Parallel out SRU:

Data bits are entered serially (left significant bit first) into a serial in / parallel out SRU in same manner as in serial in / serial out registers. The difference is the way in which the data bits are taken out of the register; in the parallel out register, the QD of each stage is available. Once the data are stored, each bits appears on its respective output line, and all bits are available simultaneously rather than on a bit-by-bit basis as with the serial out.



Parallel in | Parallel out 3Rn :

parallel entry and parallel output of data have been discussed. The parallel in/parallel out register employs both methods. Immediately following the simultaneous entry of all data bits, the bits appear on the parallel outputs.



COUNTERS

flip flop can be connected together to perform counting operations. such a group of ffs. is a counter, which is a type of finite state machine. The number of flip-flops used and the way in which they are connected determine the number of states (called the modulus) and also a specific sequence of states that the counter goes through during each complete cycle.

counters are classified into two broad categories according to the way they are clocked : asynchronous & synchronous.

A asynchronous counter, commonly called ripple counter, the first flip flop is clocked by the external clock pulse and then each successive ff. is clocked by the output of the preceding flip flop.

In synchronous counters, the clock input is connected to all of the flip flops so that they are clocked simultaneously.

Finite State Machines:

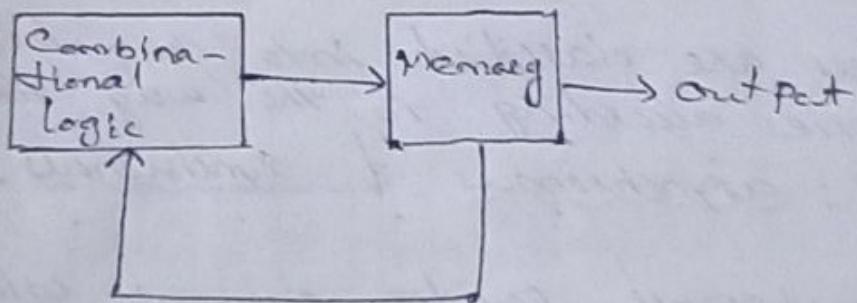
A state machine is a sequential circuit having a limited (finite) number of states occurring in a prescribed order.

A counter is an example of a state machine ; the number of states is called the modulus.

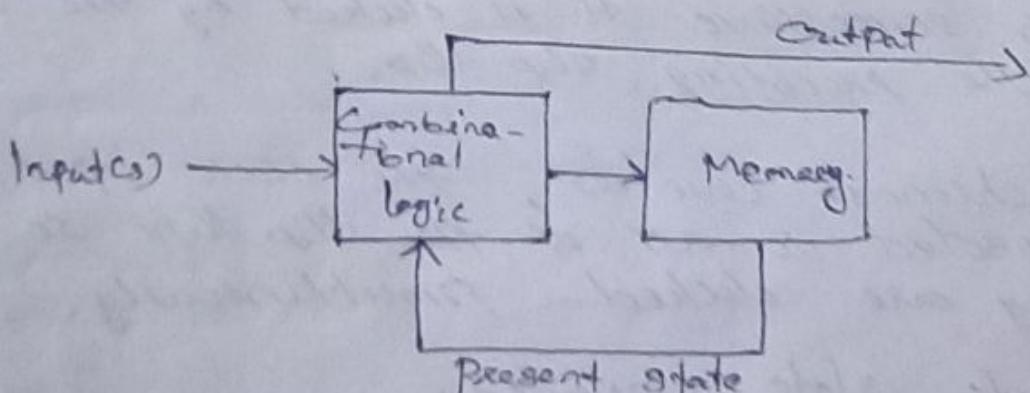
Two basic type of state machines are the Moore & the Mealy.

Moore state machine is one where the outputs depend only on the internal present state.

Mealy state machine is one where the outputs depend on both the internal present state and on the inputs.



(Moore machine)



(Mealy Machine)

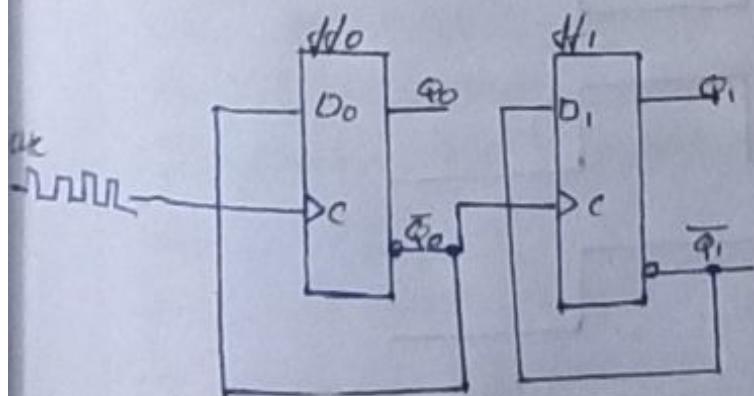
⇒ Asynchronous Counters:

The term asynchronous refers to events that do not have a fixed time relationship with each other and, generally, do not occur at the same time.

An Asynchronous Counter is one in which the FFs within the counter do not change states at exactly the same time because they do not have a common clock pulse.

The clock input of an asynchronous counter is always connected only to the 1st flip-flop.

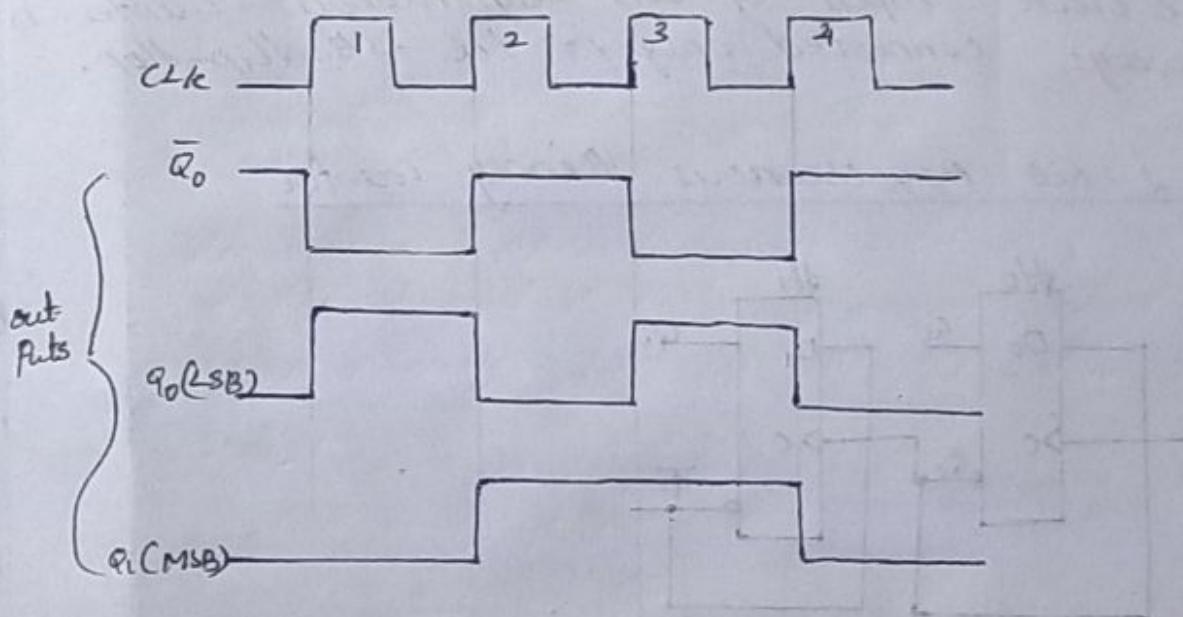
A 2-bit Asynchronous Binary counter



The given figure shows a 2-bit binary asynchronous counter connected for a synchronous operation. The clk is applied to the clock input of only the first flip-flop, FFO which is always the least significant bit (LSB).

Second flip-flop, FFI, is triggered by the Q₀ output of FFO. FFO changes state at the positive going edge of each clock pulse, but FFI changes state when triggered by a positive-

going transition of the \bar{Q}_0 output of H_0 . Because of the inherent propagation delay time through a flip flop, a transition of the $1/p$ clk and a transition of the \bar{Q}_0 out of H_0 can never occur at exactly the same time. Therefore, the two flip-flop are never simultaneously triggered, so the counter operation is asynchronous.



Applying 4 clock pulses to H_0 and observing the Q output of each H .

Both flip-flops are connected for toggle operation ($D = \bar{Q}$) and are assumed to be initially RESET (Q low).

The positive going edge of clk_1 causes the Q_0 output of H_0 to go HIGH.

At the same time \bar{Q}_0 o/p goes low, but it has no effect on H_1 , because a positive-going transition must occur to trigger the H_1 . After the leading edge of CLK_1 , $Q_0 = 1$ and $Q_1 = 0$. The positive-going edge of CLK_2 causes leading edge of counter, Q_0 to go low. output \bar{Q}_0 goes H_{LOW} and triggers H_1 , causing Q_1 to go H_{LOW}. After the leading edge of CLK_2 , $Q_0 = 0$ and $Q_1 = 1$.

The positive-going edge of CLK_3 causes Q_0 to go H_{LOW} again. o/p \bar{Q}_0 goes low and has no effect on H_1 . Thus, after the leading edge of CLK_3 , $Q_0 = 1$ and $Q_1 = 1$. The positive-going edge of CLK_4 causes Q_0 to go low, while \bar{Q}_0 goes H_{LOW} and triggers H_1 , causing Q_1 to go low.

After leading edge of CLK_4 , $Q_0 = 0$ and $Q_1 = 0$. The counter has now recycled to its original state. (Both H_1 s are RESET).

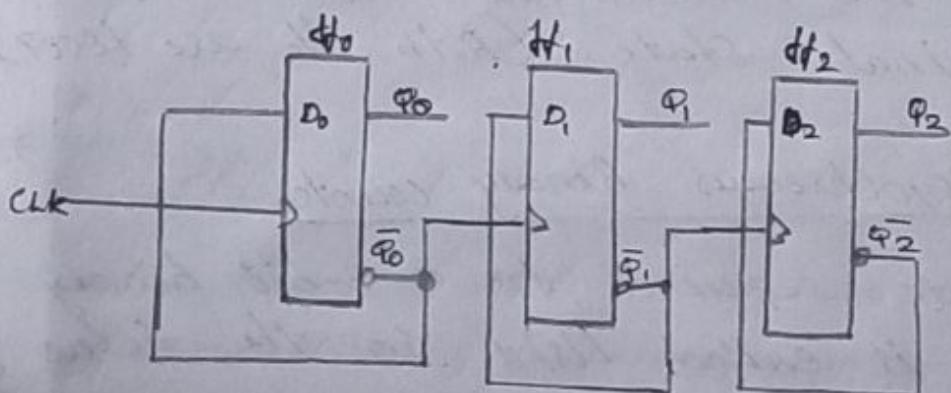
3 bit Asynchronous Binary counter

The state sequence for a 3-bit binary counter is ~~below~~ listed in the below given table. and a 3-bit asynchronous binary counter is shown in below figure.

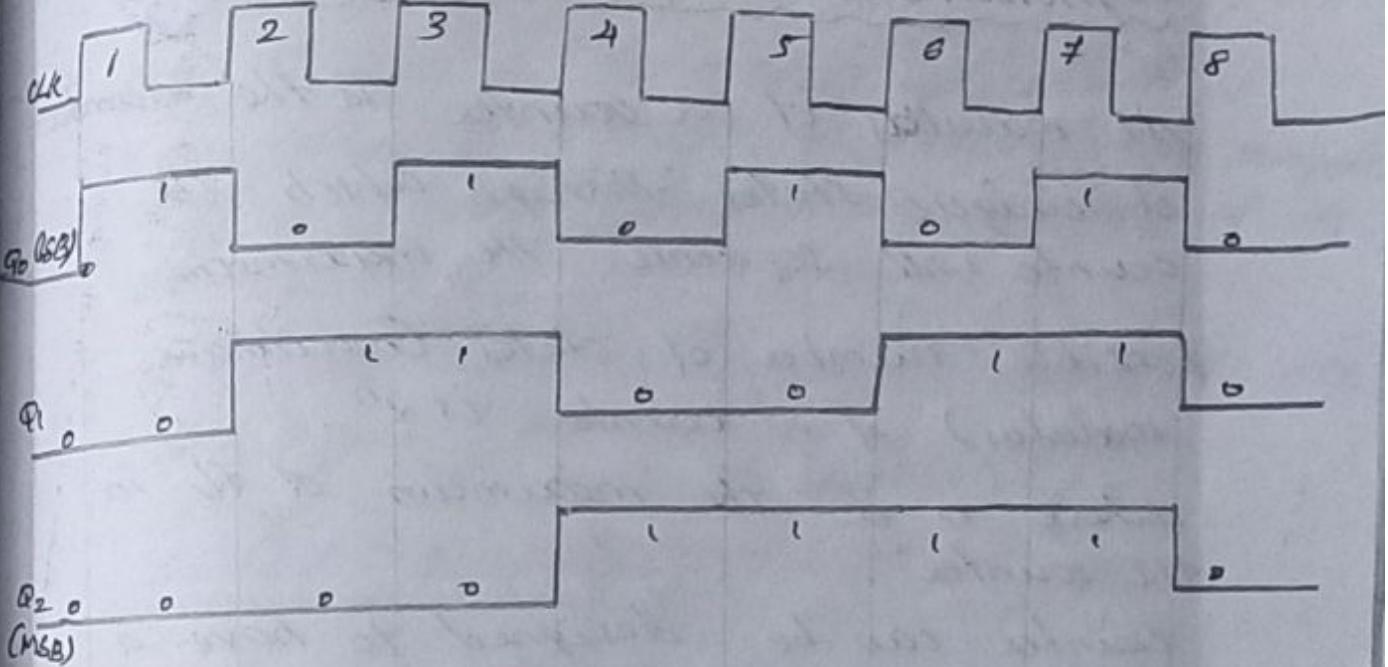
state sequence for a 3-bit
Binary Counter

Clock Pulse	Q_2	Q_1	Q_0
Initially	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
2	0	1	0
3	0	1	1
4	1	0	0
5	1	0	1
6	1	1	0
7	1	1	1
8(Cycles)	0	0	0

The basic operation is the same as that of the 2-bit counter except that the 3-bit counter has 8 states, due to its 3 bits.



A timing diagram is shown below.



Propagation delay:

Synchronous counters are commonly referred to as Ripple counters for following reason:

The effect of the input clock pulse is first "felt" by H_0 . This effect cannot get to H_1 immediately because of the propagation delay through H_0 .

Then there is a propagation delay through H_1 before H_2 can be triggered. Thus, the effect of an input clock pulse "ripples" through the counter, taking some time, due to propagation delays, to reach the last flip-flop.

Asynchronous Decade counters:

The modulus of a counter is the number of unique states through which the counter will sequence. The maximum possible number of states (maximum modulus) of a counter is 2^n .

where n is the maximum of bits in the counter.

counter can be designed to have a number of states in their sequence that is less than the maximum of 2^n . This type of sequence is called a truncated sequence.

One common modulus for counters with truncated sequence is ten (called MOD10).

Counters with 10 states in their sequence are called Decade counters.

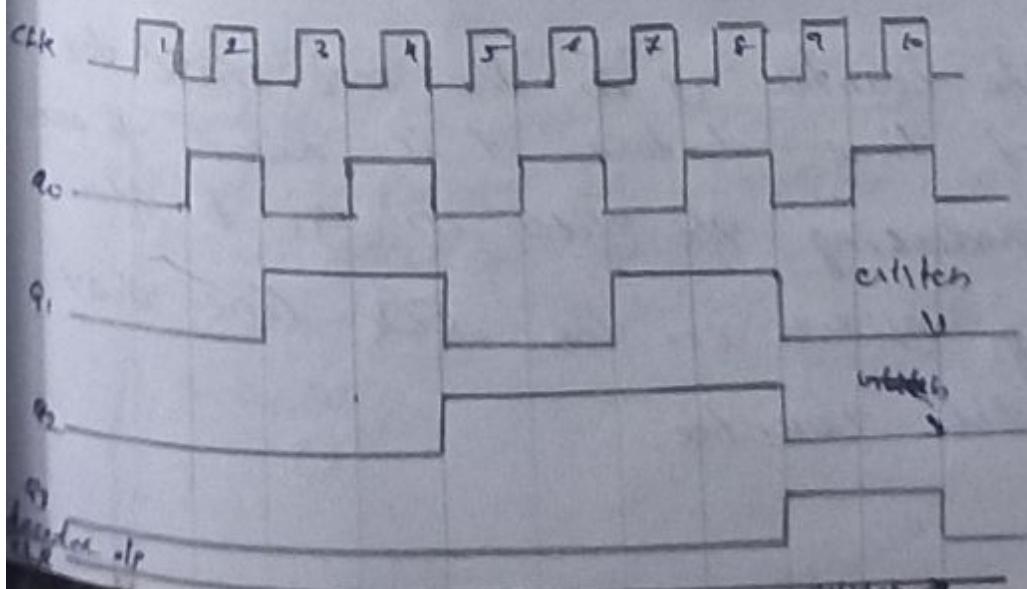
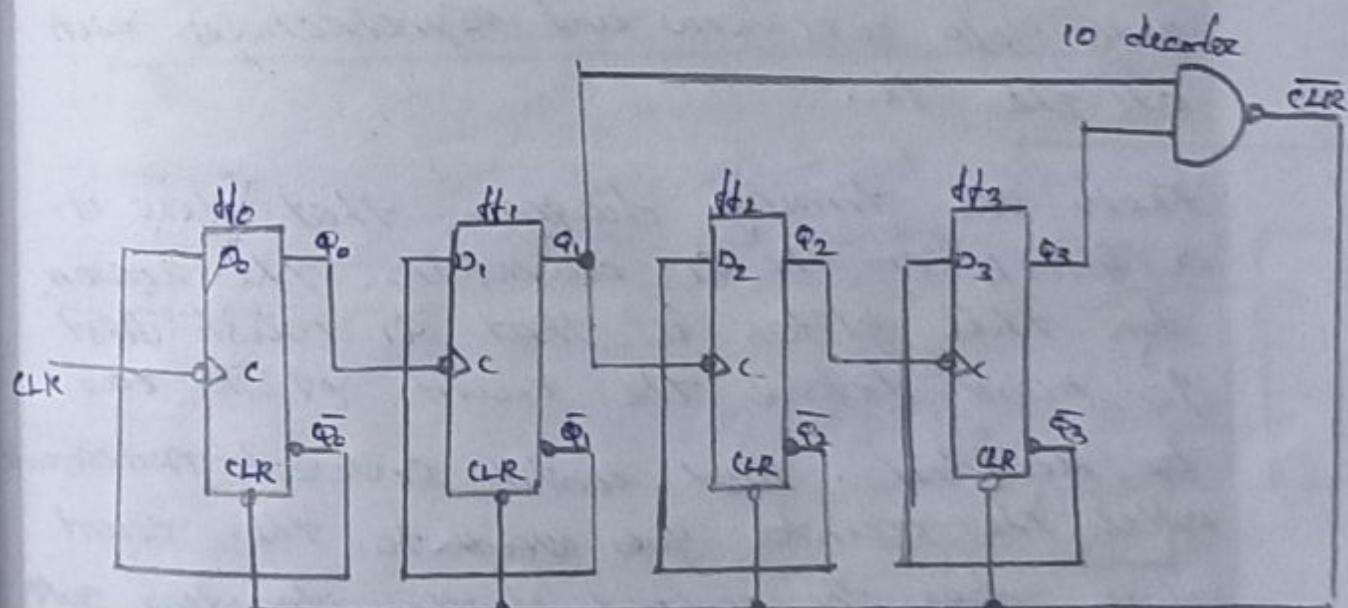
The decade counter with a count sequence of zero (0000) through nine (1001) is a BCD decade counter because its ten-state sequence produce the BCD counter. This type of counter is useful in display applications in which BCD is required for

conversion to a decimal readout.

To obtain a ~~truncated~~ sequence, it is necessary to take the counter to ~~cycle~~ recycle before going through all of its possible states.

A decade counter requires 4 bits (3 bits are insufficient because $2^3 = 8$)

Partial Decoding:



In the following given figure, that only q_1 & q_3 are connected to the NAND gate $i10$. This arrangement is an example of partial decoding, in which the 2 unique states ($q_1 = 1$ and $q_3 = 1$) are satisfied sufficient to decode the count of 10 because none of the other state (0 through 9) have both q_1 & q_3 HIGH at the same time. When the counter goes into count 10 (1010), the decoding gate $o10$ goes low and asynchronously resets all the q_i .

From the timing diagram, that there is a glitch on the q_1 waveform. The reason for this glitch is that q_1 must first go HIGH before the count of 10 can be decoded. Not until several nanoseconds after the counter goes ~~reaches~~ to the count of 10 does the output of the decoding gate go low. (Both inputs are HIGH).

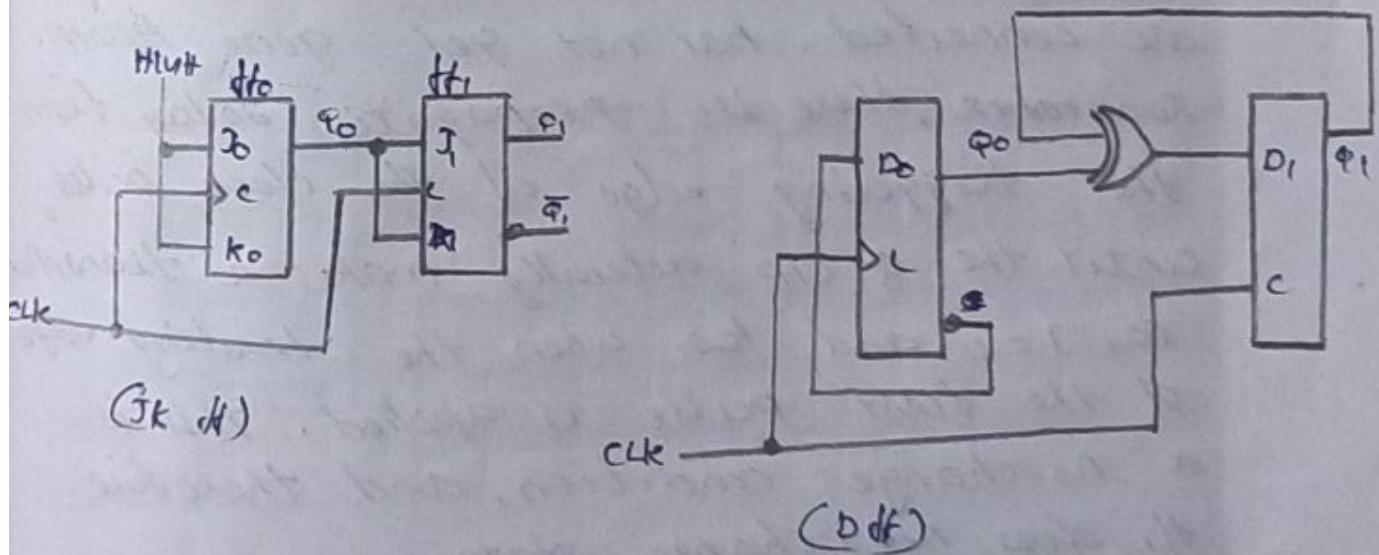
Thus the counter is in the 1010 state for a short time before it is reset to 000, thus producing the glitch on q_1 & the resulting glitch on the \overline{CCR} line that reset the counter.

⇒ Synchronous Counters :

The term synchronous refers to events that have a fixed time relationship with each other.

A synchronous counter is one in which all the flip-flops in the counter are clocked at the same time by a common clock pulse. J-K flip-flops are used to illustrate most synchronous counters.

2-bit Synchronous Binary Counter

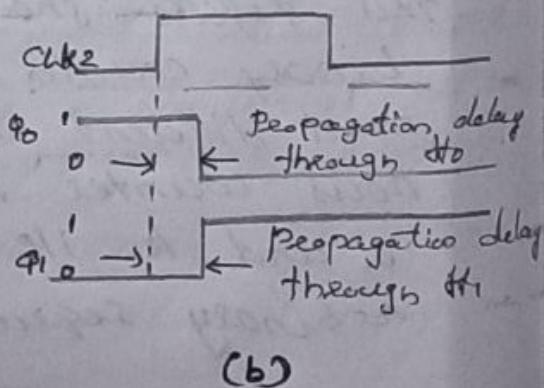
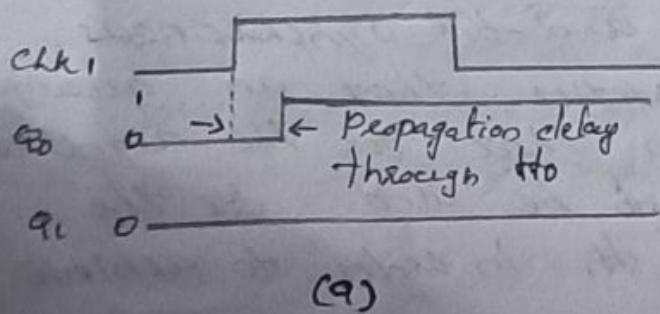


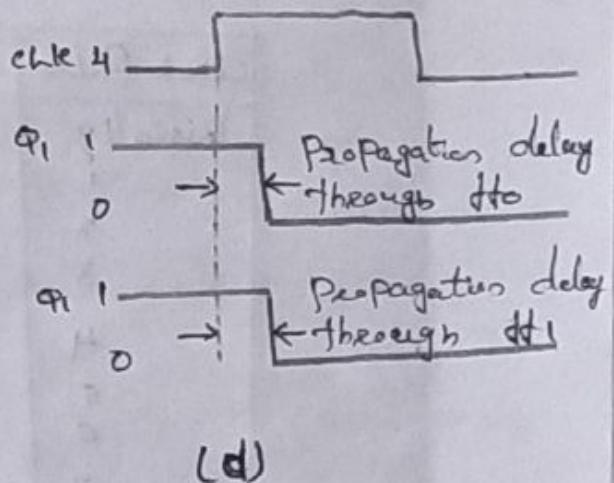
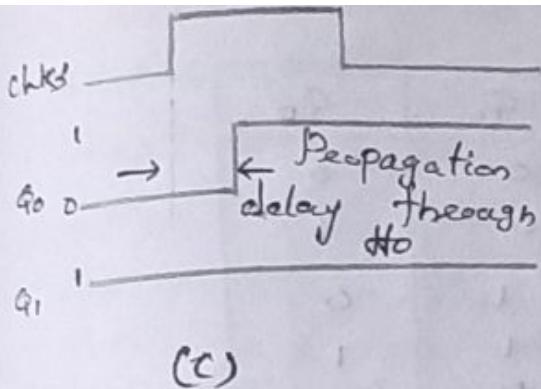
This figure shows a 2-bit synchronous binary counter. Notice that an arrangement different from that for the asynchronous counter must be used for the synchronous counter in order to achieve a binary sequence.

The operation of a J-K H. synchronous counter is as follows:

First, assume that the counter is initially in the binary 0 state; that is, both H_1 and H_0 are RESET. When the positive edge of the first clock pulse is applied, H_0 will toggle and Q_0 will therefore go HIGH.

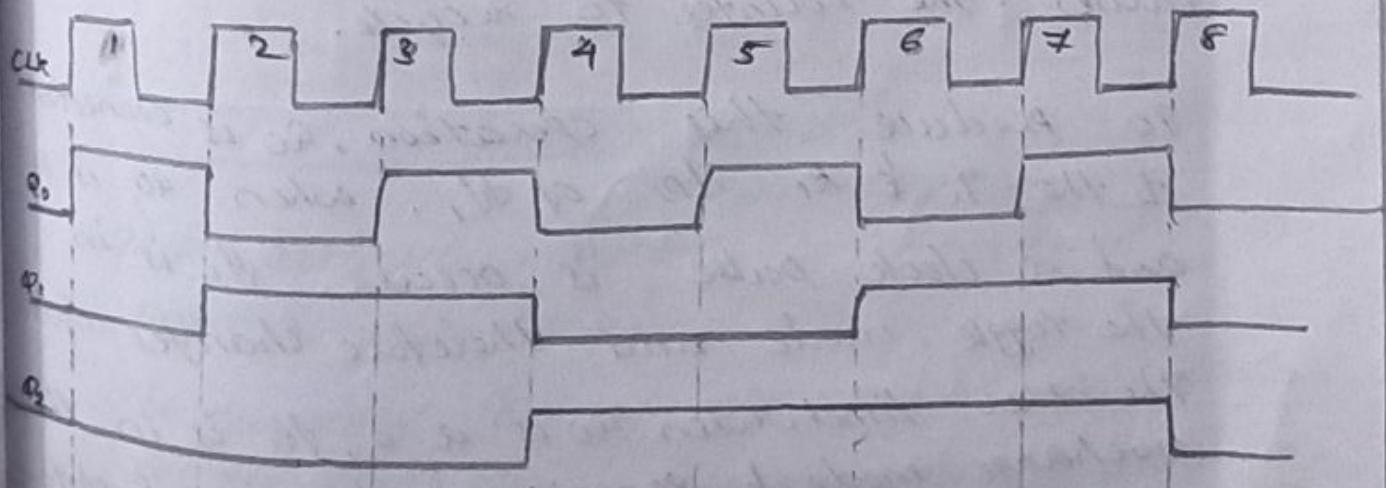
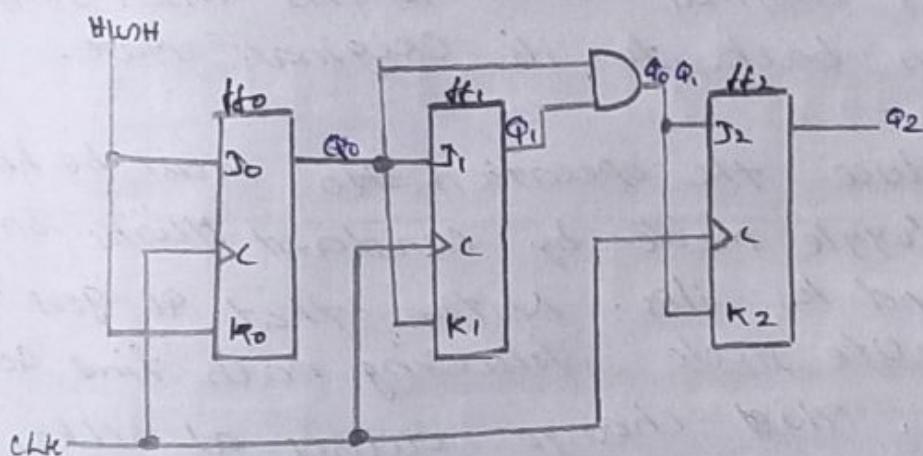
What happens to H_1 at the positive-going edge of clk ? To find out, let's look at the input conditions of H_1 . J_1 & K_1 are both low because Q_0 , to which they are connected, has not yet gone HIGH. Remember, there is propagation delay from the triggering edge of the clock pulse until the Q output actually makes a transition so, $J=0$ and $K=0$ when the leading edge of the first pulse is applied. This is a no-change condition, and therefore H_1 does not change state.





3bit Synchronous Binary Counter

A 3-bit synchronous binary counter and its timing diagram is shown below.



Clock Pulse	Q_2	Q_1	Q_0
Initially	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
2	0	1	0
3	0	1	1
4	1	0	0
5	1	0	1
6	1	1	0
7 (Recycle)	0	0	0

- First, let's look at Q_0 . Notice that Q_0 changes on each clock pulse as the counter progresses from its original state to its final state and then back to its original state.

To produce the operation, H_0 must be held in the toggle mode by constant HCLKs on its J0 and K0 pins. Notice that Q_1 goes to its opposite state following each time Q_0 is a 1. This change occurs at CLK2, CLK4 & K6 and CLK8. The CLK8 pulse causes the counter to recycle.

To produce this operation, Q_0 is connected to the J, K & K1 pins of H1. When Q_0 is 1 and a clock pulse is occurs, H1 is in the toggle mode and therefore changes state. The other times, when Q_0 is a 0, H1 is in the nochange mode & remains in its present state.

Next, let's see how H_2 is made to change at the proper times according to the binary sequence.

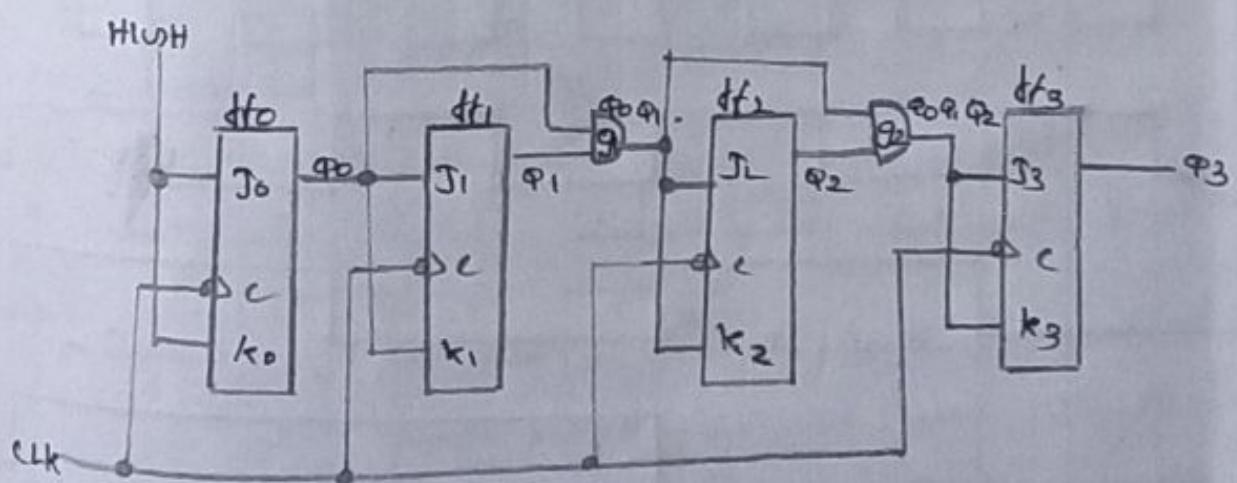
Notice that both times Q_2 changes state, it is preceded by the unique condition in which both Q_0 & Q_1 are HIGH.

This condition is detected by the AND gate and applied to the J_2 & k_2 inputs of H_2 .

Whenever both Q_0 & Q_1 are HIGH, the output of the AND gate makes the J_2 & k_2 inputs of H_2 HIGH, and H_2 toggles on the following clock pulse.

At all other times, the J_2 and k_2 inputs of H_2 are held low by the AND gate output, and H_2 does not change state.

4-bit Synchronous Binary Counter



This particular counter is implemented with negative edge-triggered flip-flops.

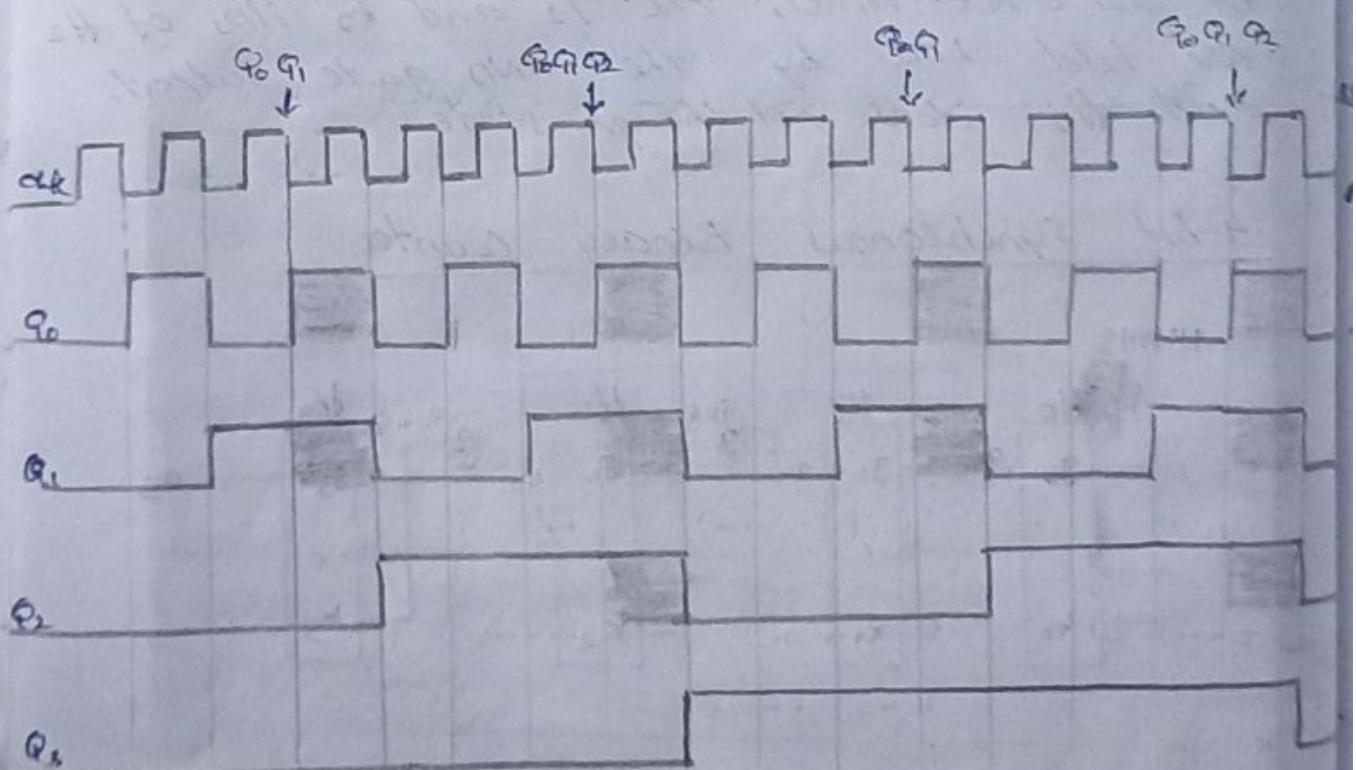
The reasoning behind the J & k input control for the first three flip-flops is the same as

3-bit counter.

The fourth stage, H_3 , changes only twice in the sequence. Notice that both of these transitions occur following the times that Q_0 , Q_1 , & Q_2 are all HIGH.

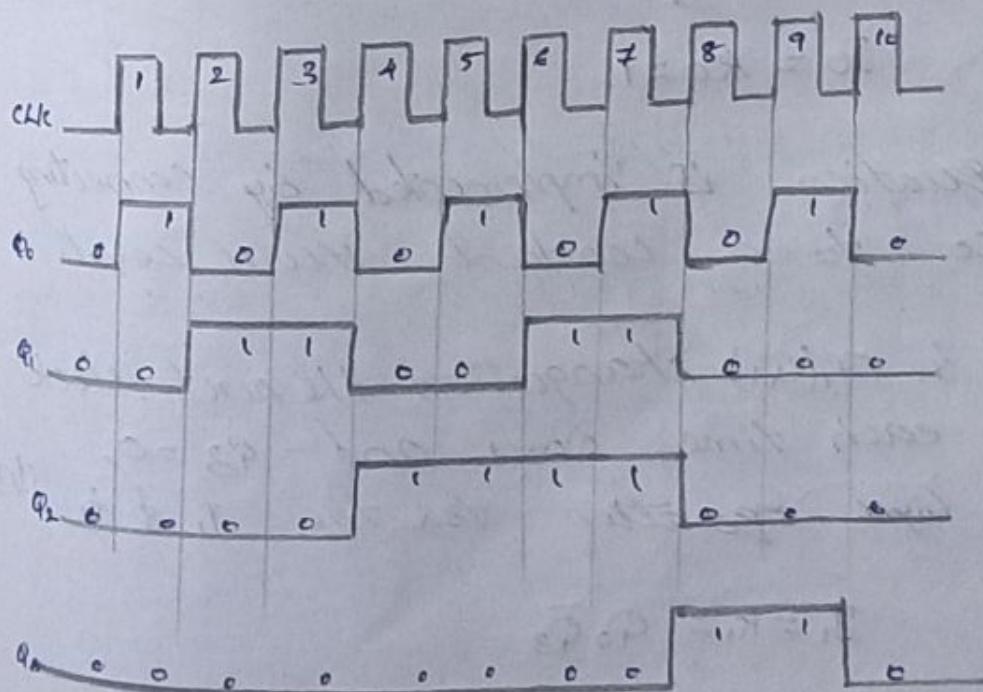
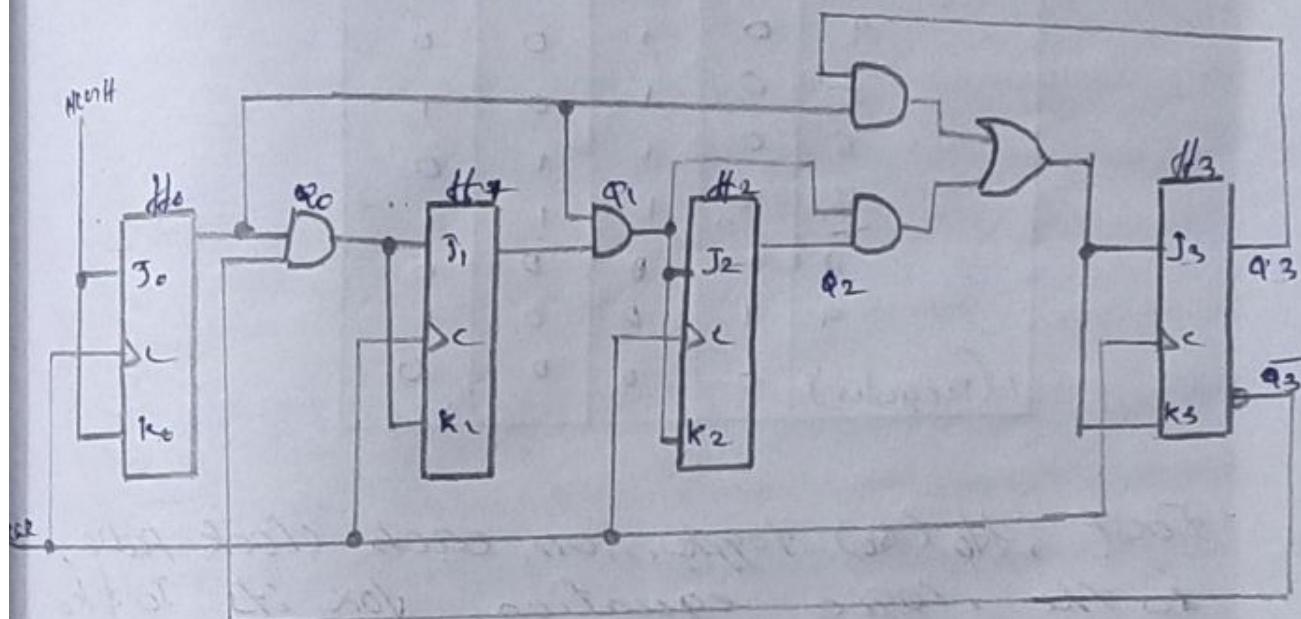
This condition is decoded by AND gate C_2 so that when a clock pulse occurs, H_3 will change state.

For all other times the I_3 & K_3 inputs of H_3 are low, and it is in a no-change condition.



4-BIT Synchronous Decade Counter:

A BCD decade counter exhibits a truncated binary sequence and goes from 0000 through the 1001 state. Rather than going from the 1001 state to the 1010 state, it recycle to the 0000 state.



states of a BCD decade counter

clock Pulse	Q_3	Q_2	Q_1	Q_0
Initially	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	0
5	0	1	0	1
6	0	1	1	0
7	0	1	1	1
8	1	0	0	0
9	1	0	0	1
10 (Recycles)	0	0	0	0

- First, $J_0(Q_0)$ toggles on each clock pulse, so the logic equation for its J_0 & k_0 inputs is

$$J_0 = k_0 = 1$$

The equation is implemented by connecting J_0 & k_0 to a constant HIGH level.

- Next, $J_{f1}(Q_1)$ changes on the next clock pulse each time $Q_0=1$ and $Q_3=0$, so the logic equation for the J_1 & k_1 is

$$J_1 = k_1 = Q_0 \bar{Q}_3$$

This equation is implemented by ANDing Q_0 & \bar{Q}_3 and connecting the gate o/p to all

J_1 & K_1 inputs of ff_1 .

- $ff_2(Q_2)$ changes on the next clock pulse each time both $Q_0=1$ and $Q_1=1$. This requires an MP logic equation as follows:

$$J_2 = k_2 = Q_0 Q_1$$

This equation is implemented by ANDing Q_0 & Q_1 and connecting the gate output to the J_2 & k_2 inputs of ff_2 .

- Finally, $ff_3(Q_3)$ changes to the opposite state on the next clock pulse each time $Q_0=1$, $Q_1=1$ and $Q_2=1$ (state 7) or when $Q_0=1$ & $Q_3=1$ (state 9). The equation for this is as follows:

$$J_3 = k_3 = Q_0 Q_1 Q_2 + Q_0 Q_3$$

This function is implemented with the AND/OR logic connected to the J_3 and k_3 inputs of ff_3 .

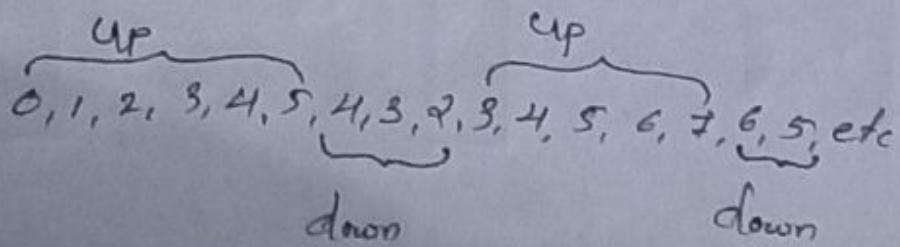
Up/Down Synchronous Counter:

The up/down counter is one that is capable of progressing in either direction through a certain sequence.

An up/down counter, sometimes called a bidirectional counter, can have any specific sequence of states.

A 3-bit binary counter that advances upward through its sequence (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) and then can be reversed so that it goes through the sequence in the opposite direction (7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0) is an illustration of up/down sequential operation.

In general, most up/down counters can be reversed at any point in their sequence: for instance, the 3-bit binary counter can be made to go through the following sequence:



up/down Sequence for a 3-bit binary Counter

clock Pulse	up	Q ₂	Q ₁	Q ₀	Down
0	↑ ↗	0	0	0	↗
1	↗	0	0	1	↗
2	↗	0	1	0	↖
3	↘	0	1	1	↗
4	↘	1	0	0	↑
5	↘	1	0	1	↑
6	↘	0	1	0	↑
7	↓	1	1	1	↖

- This table shows the complete up/down sequence for a 3-bit binary counter. The arrows indicate the state-to-state movement of the counter for both its up and its down modes of operation.

- An examination of Q₀ for both the up and down sequences shows that it toggles on each clock pulse. Thus, the J₀ & K₀ inputs of ff₀ are :

$$J_0 = K_0 = 1$$

- For the up sequence, Q₁ changes state on the next clock pulse when Q₀ = 1. For the down sequence, Q₁ changes on the next clock pulse when Q₀ = 0.

Thus, the J₁ & K₁ inputs of ff₁ must equal

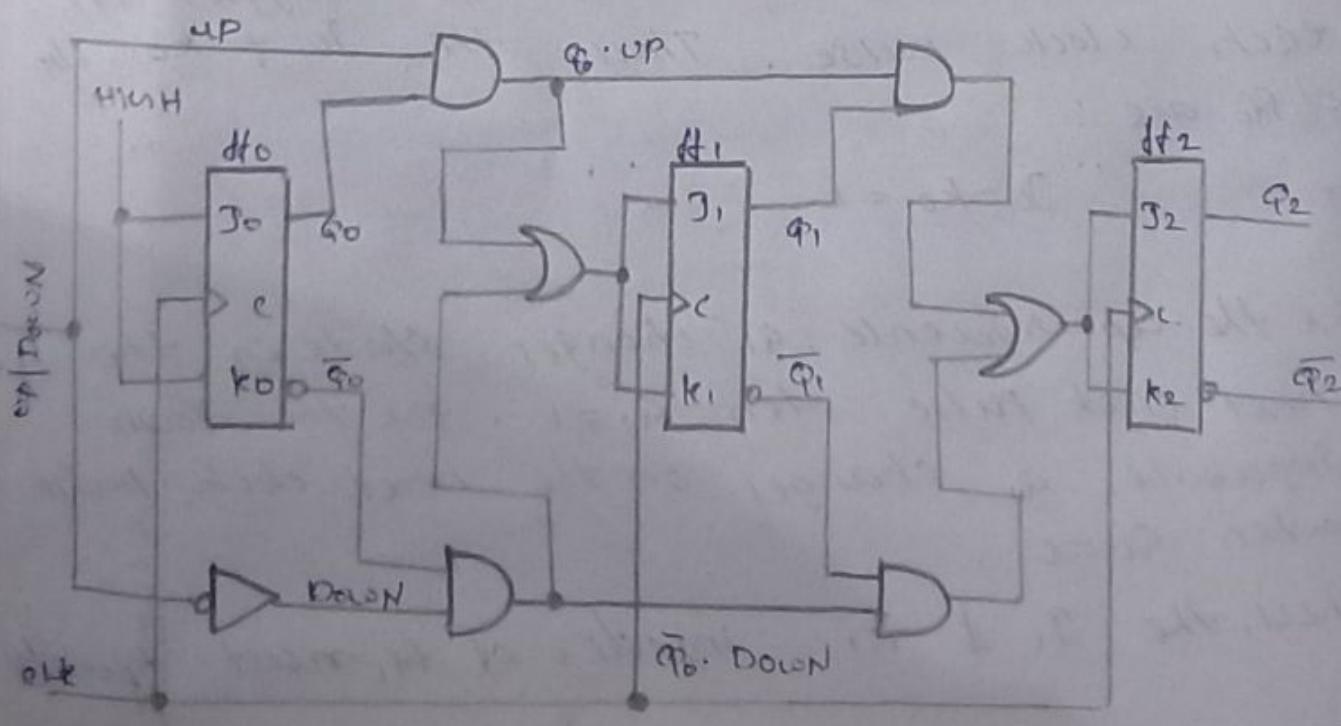
under the conditions expressed by the following equation:

$$J_1 = k_1 = (Q_0 \cdot UP) + (\bar{Q}_0 \cdot DOWN)$$

- for the up sequence, Q_2 changes state at the next clock pulse when $Q_0 = Q_1 = 1$.
- for the down sequence, Q_2 changes on the next clock pulse when $Q_0 = Q_1 = 0$. Thus, the J_2 & k_2 bits of ff_2 must equal 1 under the conditions expressed by the following equation:

$$J_2 = k_2 = (Q_0 \cdot Q_1 \cdot UP) + (\bar{Q}_0 \cdot \bar{Q}_1 \cdot DOWN)$$

- each of the conditions for the J and k bits of each ff produces a toggle at the appropriate point in the counter sequence.



This figure shows a basic implementation of a 3-bit up/down binary counter using the logic equations just developed for the S & K ILPs of each bit. Notice that the up/down control ILPs is HIGH for UP and LOW for DOWN.