Combinational Logic with MSI and LSI Contents: Binary Parallel Adder. BCD Adder. Magnitude Comparator.

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Decoders.

Encoders.

ROM

PLA

Multiplexer

Demultiplexer.

Binary Parallel Adder

- ➤ A binary parallel adder is a digital circuit that produces the arithmetic sum of two binary numbers in parallel. It consists of full-adders connected in cascade with the output carry from one full-adder connected to the input carry of the next full-adder.
- ➤ An n-bit parallel adder requires n full-adders.

| Input Carry | C4 | C3 | C2 | C1 | Subscript i | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---------------------|----|------------|----|------------|------------------|---|---------------|---|---------------|--|
| Augend | A4 | A3 | A2 | A 1 | Input carry | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | |
| Addend | B4 | В3 | B2 | B4 | Augend Addend | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | |
| Sum | S4 | S 3 | S2 | S 1 | Sum | 1 | <u>0</u> 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{0}$ | |
| Output Carry | C5 | C4 | C3 | C2 | Output carry | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | |

Fig. 1: Addition of two 4-bit numbers

Fig. 2: Addition of A=1011 and B=0011

Figure-3, shows the interconnection of four full-adder (FA) circuits to provide a 4-bit binary parallel adder. The augend bits of A and the addend bits of B are designated by subscript numbers from right to left. The input carry to adder is C1 and the output carry is C5.

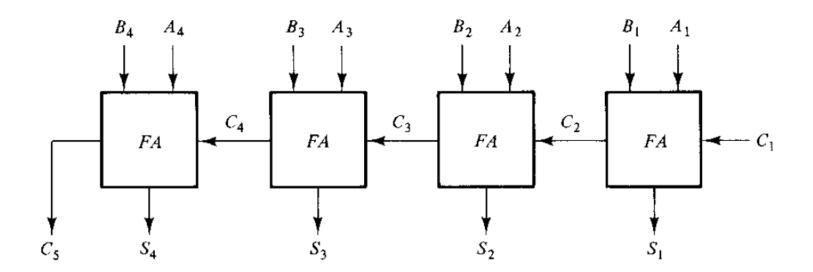
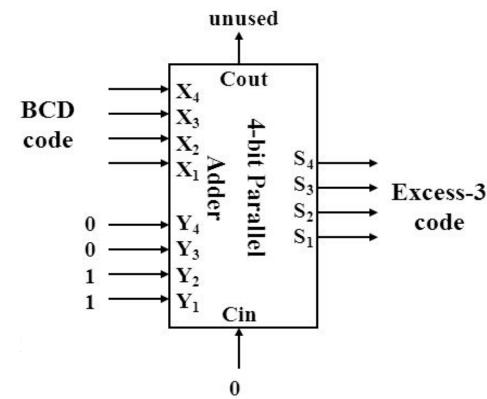


Fig. 3: 4-bit full adders

Example 5-1: Design a BCD-to-excess-3 code converter using a 4-bit full adders MSI circuit.

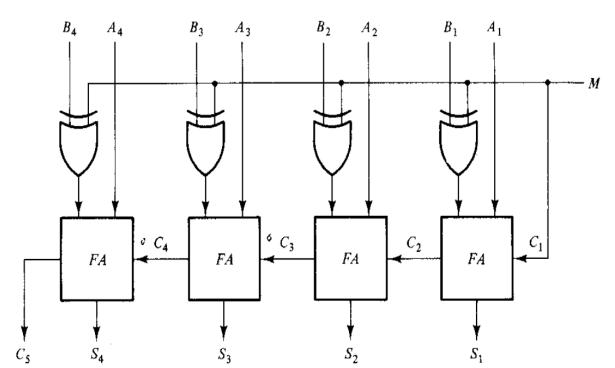
Excess-3 $code = BCD Code + (0011)_2$



Problem 5-1: Design an excess-3-to-BCD code converter using a 4-bit full adders MSI circuit

Hints: BCD code = Excess-3 Code $-(0011)^2$ => BCD Code = Excess-3 Code $+(1101)^2$

Problem 5-3: Using 4 exclusive-OR gates and a full-adders MSI circuit, construct a 4-bit parallel adder/subtractor. Use an input select variable M so that when M=0, the circuits adds and when M=1, the circuit subtracts.



Analysis:

If M=1, then
A+ (1's complement of B)+1
appears as the result
If M=0, then
A+B appears as the result.

Fig. 4: 4-bit parallel adder/subtractor

- ➤ Since each bit of the sum output depends on the value of the input carry, the value of Si in any given stage in the adder will be in its steady-state final value only after the input carry to that stage has been propagated.

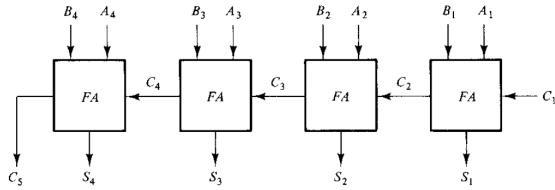


Fig. 5: 4-bit parallel adder

Carry Propagation (Cont....):

The number of gate levels for the carry propagation can be found from the circuit of the full-adder. $A_i \longrightarrow P_i$

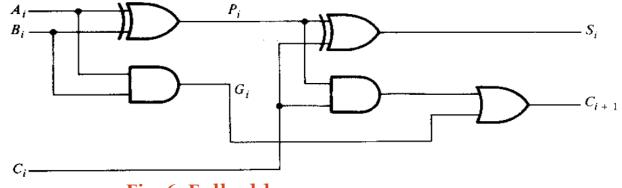


Fig. 6: Full adder

- The signals at **Pi** and **Gi** settle to their steady-state value after the propagation through the irrespective gates. These two signals are common to all FAs and depend only on the input augend and addend bits.
- \triangleright The signals from the input carry C_i , to the output carry C_{i+1} propagates through an AND and an OR gate, which constitute two gate levels.
- For an n-bit parallel adder, there are 2n gate levels for the carry to propagate through.

Carry Propagation (Cont....):

- ➤ There are several techniques for reducing the carry propagation time in aparallel adder.

 The most widely used technique employs the principle of Look-ahead carry.
- From previous circuit (Fig. 6), we can define two new variables, $P_i = A_i \oplus B_i$ $G_i = A_i B_i$

The output sum and carry can be expressed as:
$$S_i = P_i \oplus C_i$$

 $C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i C_i$

- \triangleright Gi is called a **carry generate** and it produces an output carry when both Ai and Bi are one, regardless of the input carry. Pi is called a **carry propagate** because it is the term associated with the propagation of the carry from C_i to C_{i+1}
- ➤ We now write the Boolean function for the carry output of each stage:

$$C_2 = G_1 + P_1 C_1$$

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

$$C_4 = G_3 + P_3C_3 = G_3 + P_3G_2 + P_3P_2G_1 + P_3P_2P_1C_1$$

Carry Propagation (Cont...): Note that C_4 does not have to wait for C_3 and C_2 to propagate, in fact, C_4 is propagated at the same time as C_2 and C_3 .

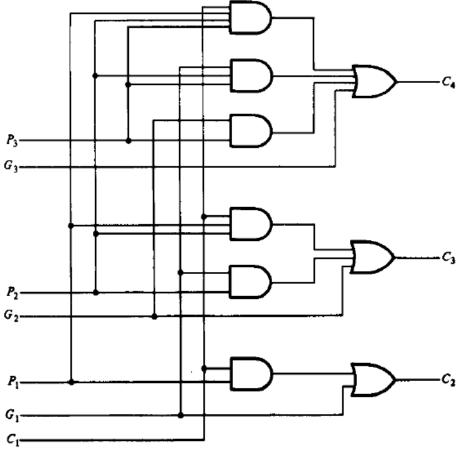


Fig. 7: Logic Diagram of a look-ahead carry generator

Carry Propagation (Cont....):

- ➤ The construction of a 4-bit parallel adder with a look-ahead carry scheme is shown in Fig. 8.
- ➤ A typical look-ahead carry generator is the IC type 74128

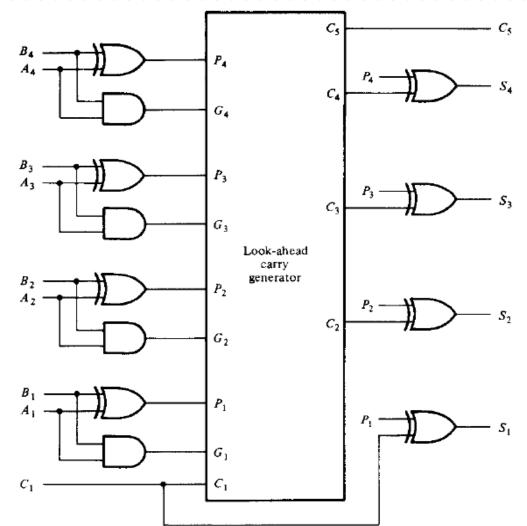


Fig. 8: 4-bit adder with look-ahead carry generator

BCD Adder

- ➤ A BCD adder is a circuit that adds two BCD digits in parallel and produces a sum digital so in BCD.
- ➤ Consider the arithmetic addition of two decimal digits in BCD, together with a previous carry from a previous stage. The output sum cannot be greater than 9+9+1=19, the 1 in the sum being an input carry.
- ➤ Suppose, we apply two BCD digits to a 4-bit binary adder. The adder will form the sum in binary and produce a result which may range from 0 to 19.

BCD Adder

- ➤ In examining the content of the table, it is apparent that 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, we obtain a non-valid BCD representation. The addition of binary 0110 (6 in decimal) to the binary sum converts it to the correct BCD representation and also produces an output carry.
- The condition for a correction and an output carry can be expressed by the Boolean function:

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

| | Bi | nary Su | ım | | | В | CD Su | m | | Decima |
|---|------------|------------|----------------|------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|
| K | 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 | O | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | O | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | O | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | O | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| 0 | 0 | O | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | O | 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 | O | 6 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | O | 0 | O | 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 | O | 0 | 1 | 11 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | O | 1 | O | 12 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 13 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | O | 14 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | O | 1 | 15 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | O | 16 |
| 1 | O | O | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 |
| 1 | O | O | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | O | 0 | O | 18 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | O | 0 | 1 | 19 |

BCD Adder

C=0, when binary sum is less or equal to 1001. In this case binary sum and BCD sum are same. So, nothing is added to the binary sum.

C=1, when binary sum is greater than 1001. binary 0110 is added to the binary sum through the bottom 4-bit binary adder to convert the binary sum into BCD sum.

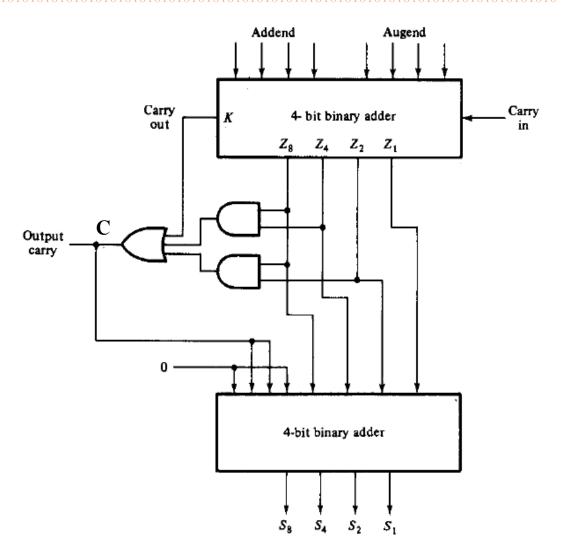


Fig. 9: Block diagram of a BCD adder

Magnitude Comparator

- ➤ A magnitude comparator is a combinational circuit that compares two numbers A & B and determines the irrelative magnitudes. The outcome of the comparison is specified by three binary variables that indicate whether A>B,A=B,or A<B.
- > Consider two numbers A and B with four digits each.

$$A = A_3 A_2 A_1 A_0$$

$$B = B_3 B_2 B_1 B_0$$

- The two numbers are equal if all pairs of significant digits are equal i.e. $A_3=B_3$ and $A_2=B_2$ and $A_1=B_1$ and $A_0=B_0$.
- ➤ The equality relation of each pair of bits can be expressed:

$$x_i = A_i B_i + A_i B_i$$
, i=0,1,2,3

Where $x_i = 1$ only if the pair of bits in position, i, are equal, i.e. if both are 1's or both are 0's.

Magnitude Comparator (Cont.)

 \triangleright For equity condition to exist, all x_i variables must be equal to 1.

$$(A=B) = x_3 x_2 x_1 x_0$$

A and B will be equal if $x_3 = x_2 = x_1 = x_0 = 1$ or, all pairs of digits of the two numbers are equal.

To determine if A is greater than or less than B, we inspect the relative magnitude of pairs of significant digits starting from most significant position. If the two digits are equal, we compare the next lower significant pair of digits. This comparison continues until a pair of unique digits is reached. If the digit of A is 1 and that of B is 0, we conclude A>B. If the corresponding digit of A is 0 and that of B is 1, we have that A<B.

$$(A > B) = A_3 B_3' + x_3 A_2 B_2' + x_3 x_2 A_1 B_1' + x_3 x_2 x_1 A_0 B_0'$$

$$(A < B) = A_3' B_3 + x_3 A_2' B_2 + x_3 x_2 A_1' B_1 + x_3 x_2 x_1 A_0' B_0$$

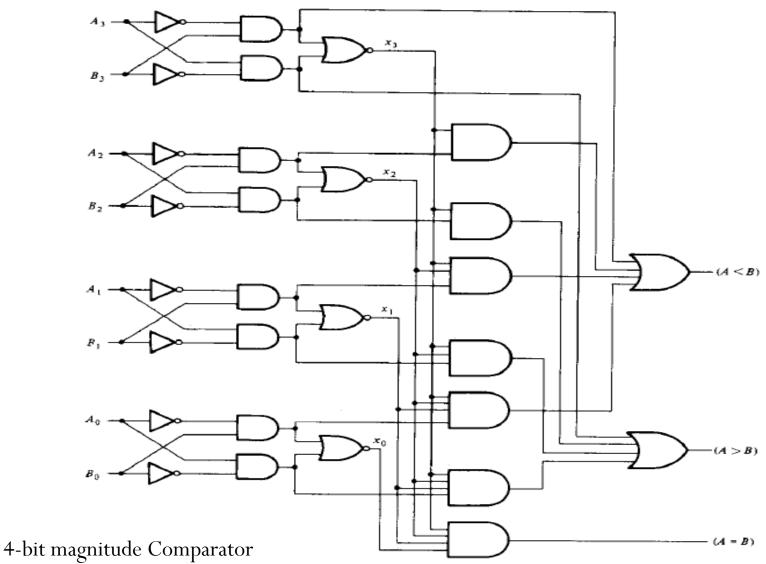
Magnitude Comparator (Cont.)

If this term is 1, it means A3=1 and B3=0. As in most significant bit, A **Analysis** is greater than B, we conclude A>B. But, if this term is zero, it means A3=B3. We should check next bit. x3=1 means A3=B3. $A_2 B_2 = 1$, indicates A2>B2. If x3=1, we conclude A>B $A_2 B_2 = 0$, indicates A2=B2. We should check next bit to take decision. x3 x2=1 means A3=B3 and A2=B2. $A_1 B_1 = 1$, indicates A1>B1. If x3 x2=1, we conclude A>B $A_2 \vec{B}_2 = 0$, indicates A1=B1. We should check next bit to take decision. $(A > B) = A_3 B_3' + x_3 A_2 B_2' + x_3 x_2 A_1 B_1' + x_3 x_2 x_1 A_0 B_0'$

 $x_3 x_2 x_1 = 1 \text{ means A}_3 = B_3, A_2 = B_2 \text{ and A}_1 = B_1.$

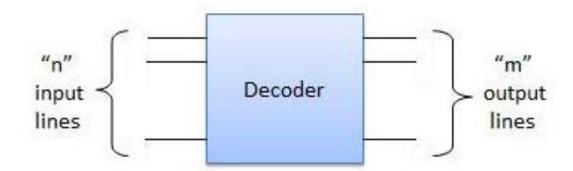
 $A_0 \vec{B_0} = 1$, indicates A0>B0. If x3 x2 x1=1, we conclude A>B $A_0 \vec{B_0} = 0$, indicates A0=B0. All bits are equal. i.e. $x_3 x_2 x_1 x_0 = 1$.

Magnitude Comparator (cont.)



Definition:

- \triangleright A decoder is a combinational circuit that converts binary information from **n** input lines to a maximum of 2^n unique output lines.
- \triangleright 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 $m \le 2^n$. Their purpose is to generate the 2^n (or less) minterms of n input variables.



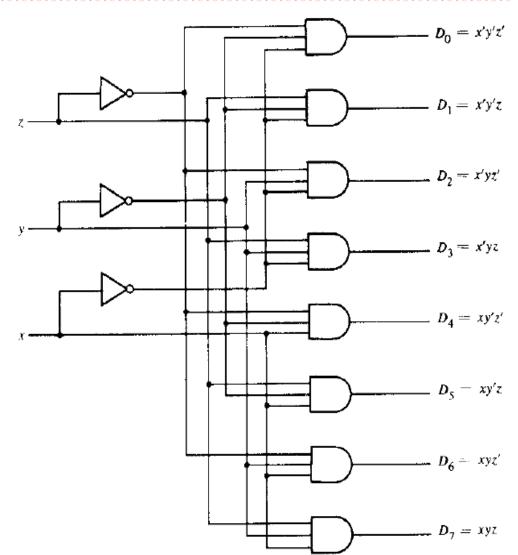
Application:

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.
- ➤ 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.

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



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 | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|---|-------|---------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|------------|--|--|--|
| <u>x</u> | У | Z | D_0 | D_1 | D ₂ | <i>D</i> ₃ | D ₄ | <i>D</i> ₅ | D ₆ | <u>D</u> 7 | | | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| 0 | C | 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 | | | |

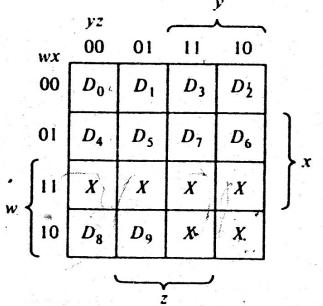
Example 5-2: Design a BCD-to-decimal decoder

| | | out | | | Output Decimal | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-----|---|----|-------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| w | X | у | Z | D0 | D1 | D2 | D3 | D4 | D5 | D6 | D7 | D8 | D9 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

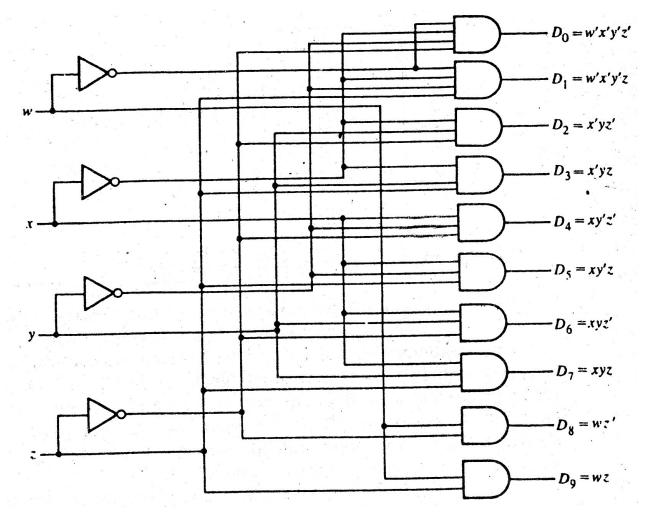
- Since the circuit has ten outputs, it would be necessary to draw ten maps to simplify each one of the output functions, Instead of drawing ten maps, we will draw only one map and write each of the output variables, D0 to d9, inside its corresponding minterm square.
- Six input combinations will never 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

$$D_0 = w'x'y'z'$$
 $D_1 = w'x'y'z$ $D_2 = x'yz'$ $D_3 = x'yz$ $D_4 = xy'z'$

$$D_5 = xy'z$$
 $D_6 = xyz'$ $D_7 = xyz$ $D_8 = wz'D_9 = wz$



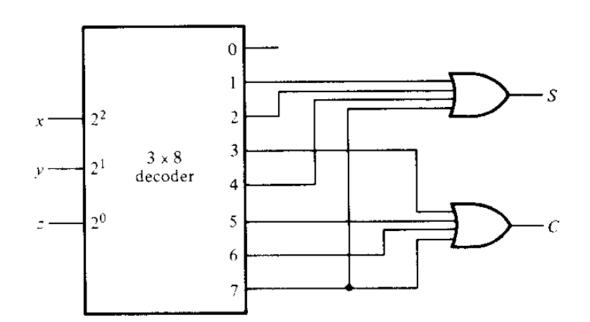
Logic diagram of BCD-to-decimal decoder



Example 5-3: Implement a full-adder circuit with a decoder and two OR gates

From the truth table of the full-adder circuit, we obtain the functions for this circuit in sum of minterms:

| X | У | Z | C | S |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |



$$S = \sum (1,2,4,7)$$

$$C = \sum (3,5,6,7)$$

Encoders

An encoder is a digital function that produces a reverse operation from that of a decoder. An encoder has 2^n input lines and n output lines.

The output lines generate the binary code corresponding to the input value.

Example: Octal to binary encoder which has 8 inputs and 3 outputs

Truth Table of binary to octal encoder.

From the truth table:

- Output bit z is 1 if octal digit is odd.
- Output y is 1 for octal digits 2,3,6 or 7.
- Output x is 1 for octal digits 4,5,6, 0r 7.

| D_2 | | outs | | | | 1 { | Dutpu | ts |
|----------|-----------------------|--|--|---|--|---|---|---|
| <u>_</u> | | | <i>D</i> ₅ | D ₆ | D ₇ | x | у | z |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ō | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | Ó | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | 0 1 0 0 0 | 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 | 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 | 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | $ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | $ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | $ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ |

Encoders

Boolean function of output variables

$$x = D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7$$
$$y = D_2 + D_3 + D_6 + D_7$$
$$z = D_1 + D_3 + D_5 + D_7$$

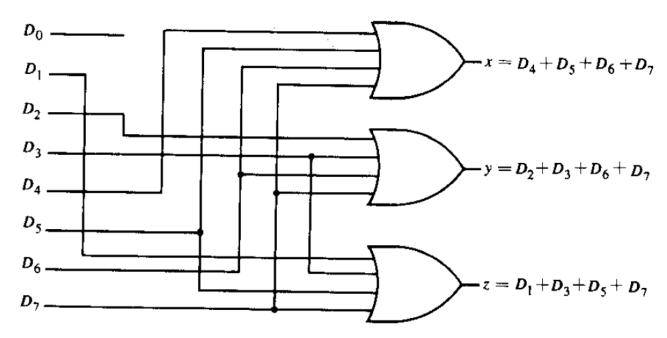
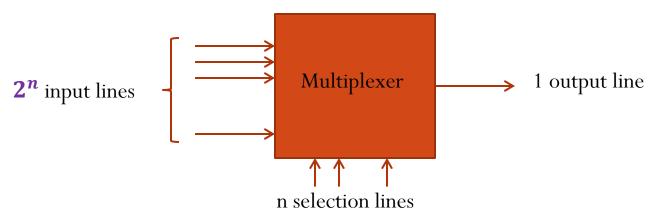
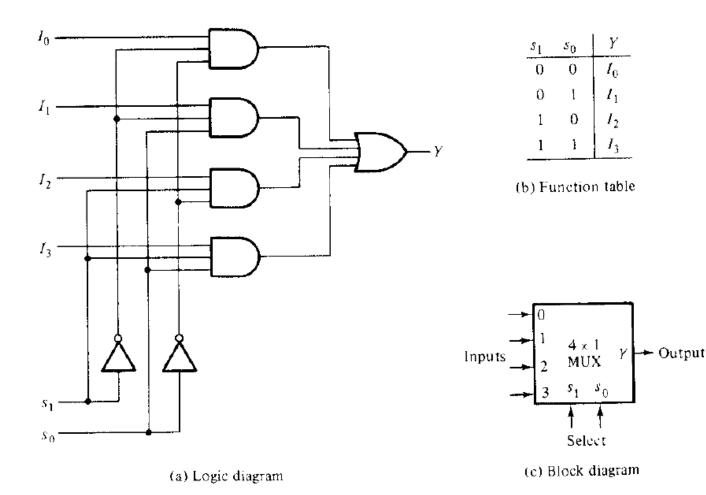


Fig. Octal to binary encoder

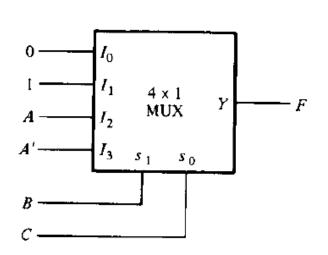
- Multiplexer means transmitting a large number of information units over a smaller number of channels or lines.
- ➤ A digital multiplexer is a combinational circuit that selects binary information from one of many input lines and directs it to a single output line.
- The selection of a particular input lines is controlled by a set of selection lines. Normally there are 2^n input lines and n selection lines whose bit combinations determine which input is selected.
- A multiplexer is also called a data selector, since it selects one of many inputs and steers the binary information to the output line.



4-line to 1-line multiplexer



Implementation of Boolean function $F(A, B, C) = \sum (1, 3, 5, 6)$ by multiplexer



| 4 | 1 |
|---|---|
| 5 | 1 |
| 6 | 1 |
| 7 | 1 |
| | |

Minterm

0

(a) Multiplexer implementation

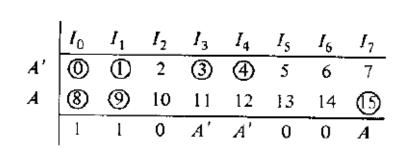
(b) Truth table

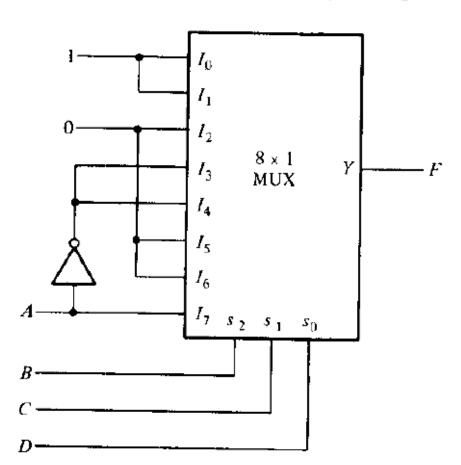
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(c) Implementation table

Example 5-4:

Implementation of Boolean function $F(A,B,C,D) = \sum (0,1,3,4,8,9,15)$ by multiplexer





A decoder with an enable input can function as a de-multiplexer.

A de-multiplexer is a circuit that **receives information on a single line** and transmit this information on one of 2^n **possible output lines**.

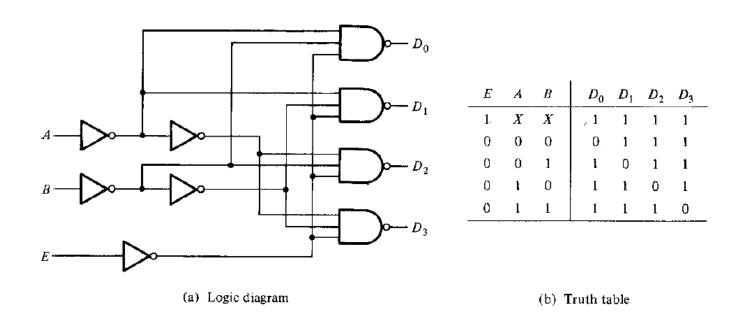
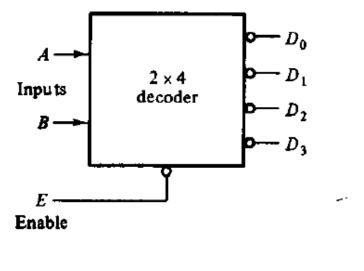
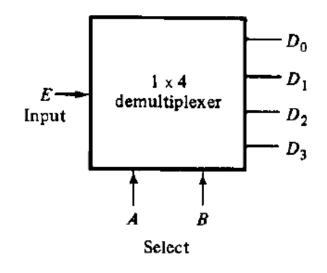


Fig: A 2-to-4 line decoder with enable (E) input

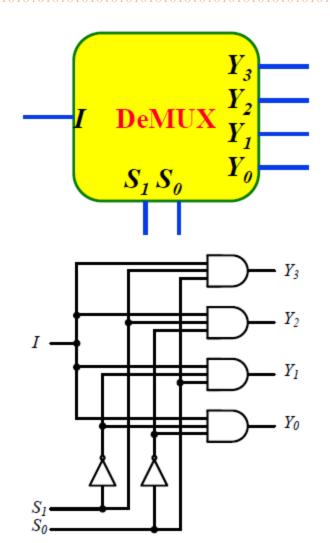
The decoder of fig can function as a de-multiplexer if the E line is taken as a data input line and lines A and B are taken as the selection lines.

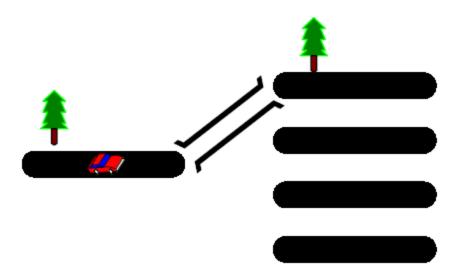


(a) Decoder with enable



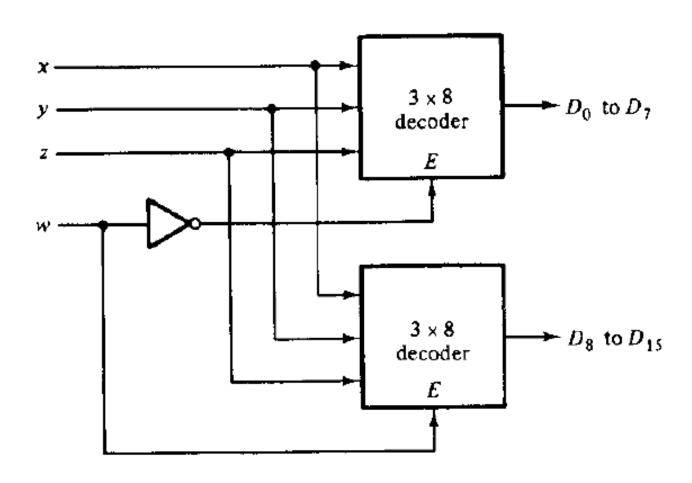
(b) Demultiplexer





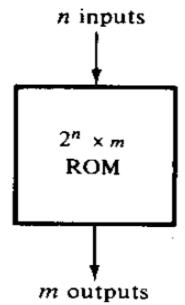
| $S_1 S_0$ | Y_3 | Y ₂ | Y_1 | Y_{o} |
|-----------|-------|-----------------------|-------|---------|
| 0 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Ι |
| 0 1 | 0 | 0 | Ι | 0 |
| 1 0 | 0 | Ι | 0 | 0 |
| 1 1 | Ι | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Decoder with enable/demultiplexer circuits can be connected together to form a larger decoder circuit. Fig. shows two 3X8 decoders with enable inputs connected to form a 4X16 decoder.

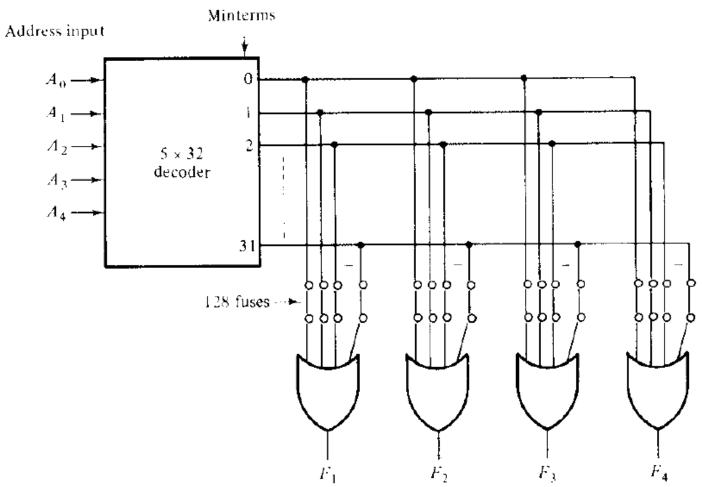


- \triangleright A decoder generates the 2^n minterms of the n input variable. By inserting OR gates to sum the minterms of Boolean functions, we are able to generate any desired combinational circuit.
- ➤ A read-only memory (ROM) is a device that includes both the decoder and the OR gates within a single 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.
- 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

- ➤ 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.
- \triangleright 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.



Internally, the ROM is a combinational circuit with AND gates connected as a decoder and a number of OR gates equal to the number of outputs in the unit. Figure shows the logic construction of a 32X4 ROM.

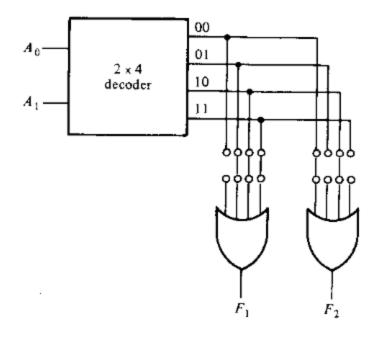


Combinational Logic Implementation

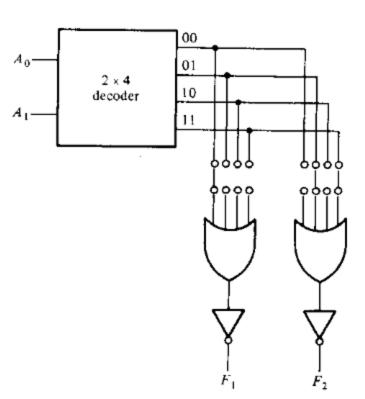
Implement the following combinational circuit with a 4X2 ROM

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

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



ROM with AND-OR gates



ROM with AND-OR-INVERT gates

Combinational Logic Implementation

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.

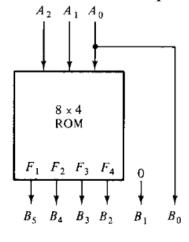
Solution:

Output B0 is always equal to input A0; so there is no need to generate B0 with a ROM since it is equal to an input variable. Moreover, output B1 is always 0, so this outputs is always known.

| T 1 | T 1 | 1 |
|---------|-----|-----|
| Truth | Tab | le. |
| 11 4411 | Luc | • |

| | Inputs | | | Outputs | | | | | | | |
|--------|----------------|----------------|---|---------|---|-----------------------|----|-------|---------|--|--|
| A, | A ₁ | A ₀ | | Bη | | <i>B</i> ₂ | В1 | B_0 | Decimal | | |
| | 0 | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
|)) | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | | |
| r D | 1 | 0 | Õ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 | | |
|)) | 1 | Ü | 0 | ŏ | ì | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 | | |
|) | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Ô | 0 | 0 | 0 | 16 | | |
| l • | 0 | 1 | 0 | i | ì | 0 | 0 | 1 | 25 | | |
| l 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ò | ñ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 36 | | |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ő | 0 | 0 | 1 | 49 | | |

Implementation by ROM



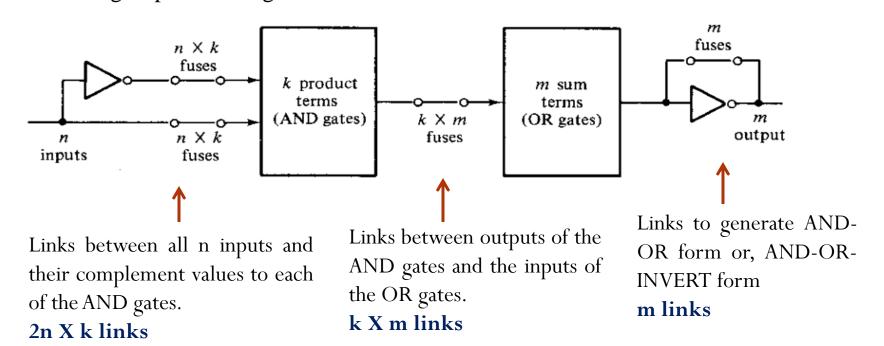
| (a) | Block | diagran |
|------|-------|------------|
| (**/ | | arragi arr |

| A_2 | A_1 | A_0 | F_1 | F_2 | F_3 | F_4 |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ì |
| 0 | 1 | i | 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

- 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 X 6 (2¹² X 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.
- 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 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.

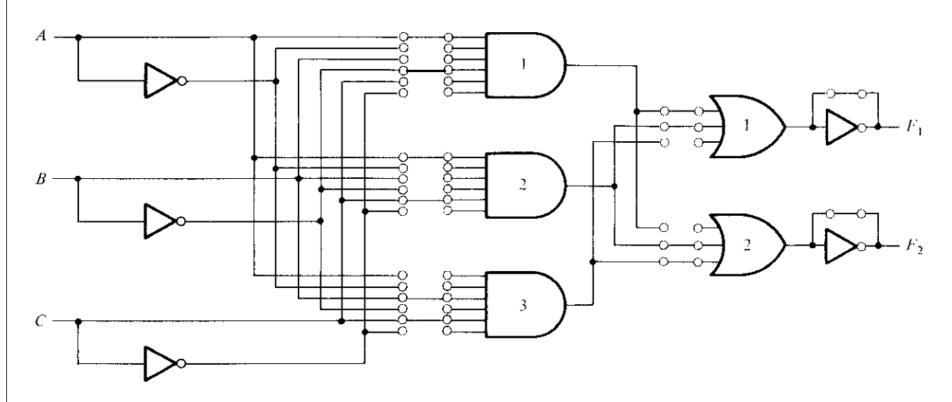


 \geq The number of programmed links is 2n X k + k X m +m, whereas that of a ROM is $2^n X m$

Implementation of combinational circuit by PLA.

$$F_1 = AB' + AC$$

$$F_2 = AC + BC$$



PLA Types.

- > PLA may be mask-programmable or field programmable.
- ➤ With a **mask programmable PLA**, the customer must submit a PLA program table to the manufacturer. This table is used by the vendor to produce a custom-made PLA that has the required internal paths between inputs and outputs.
- ➤ A second type of PLA available is called **field programmable logic array or FPLA**. The FPLA can be programmed by the user by means of certain recommended procedure. Commercial hardware programmable units are available for use in conjunction with certain FPLAs