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# Digital Logic III

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## Lecture Topics

- Combinational Circuits
  - Adders
    - Half Adder
    - Full Adder
  - Subtractors
    - Half Subtractor
    - Full Subtractor
  - Multipliers

- Sequential Circuits
  - Clocks
  - SR Latch
  - Flip-Flops
    - SR Flip-Flop
    - D Flip-Flop
    - JK Flip Flop
  - Registers

#### Adders

- Adders are combinational logic circuits capable of performing addition
- A half adder has two inputs (the two digits to add) and two outputs (the sum and the carry).

0 1 0 
$$1^{X_0}$$
  
 $+ 0$   $+ 1$   $+ 1^{X_1}$   
00 01 01 10  
 $C(Carry)$   $S(Sum)$ 

• Half adder truth table:

$X_1$	$X_0$	С	S
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

0 1 0 
$$1^{X_0}$$
  
 $+ 0$   $+ 1$   $+ 1^{X_1}$   
00 01 01 10  
 $c(carry)$   $s(Sum)$ 

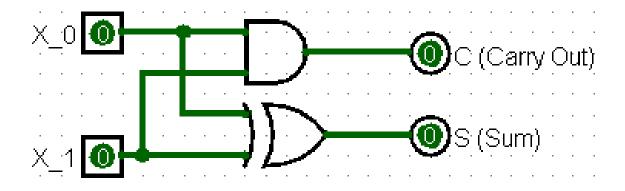
#### SOP Expressions:

$$C = X_1 X_0$$

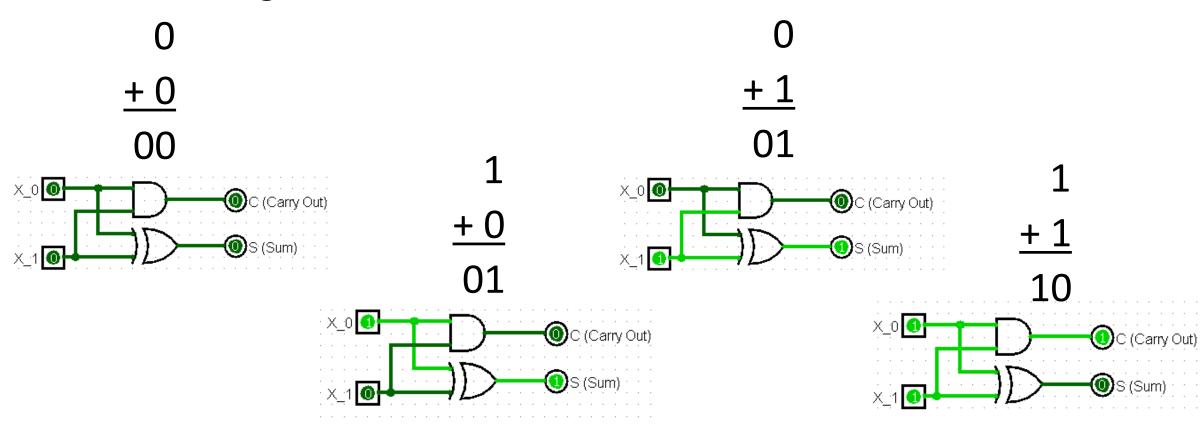
$$S = \overline{X_1}X_0 + X_1\overline{X_0} = X_1 \oplus X_0$$

$X_1$	$X_0$	С	S
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

#### Half Adder Logic Circuit:



#### Half Adder Logic Circuit:



• A **full adder** has three inputs (the two digits to add, plus a value carried in) and two outputs (the sum and the carry).

$$C_{IN}(Carry In) = X_1 - X_0 - C_{OUT}(Carry Out)$$

$$0 + 0 + 0 = 0 = 0$$

$$0 + 0 + 1 = 0 = 1$$

$$0 + 1 + 0 = 0 = 1$$

$$1 + 0 + 0 = 0 = 1$$

$$1 + 0 + 1 = 1 = 0$$

$$1 + 1 + 0 = 1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 + 1 = 1 = 1$$

• Full adder truth table:

$C_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	Cout	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

#### **SOP Expressions:**

$$C_{OUT} = \overline{C_{IN}} X_1 X_0 + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} X_0 + C_{IN} X_1 \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$$S = \overline{C_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{C_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} \, \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$C_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$C_{OUT}$	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

#### Simplifying:

$$C_{OUT} = \overline{C_{IN}} X_1 X_0 + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} X_0 + C_{IN} X_1 \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$$C_{OUT} = X_1 X_0 (\overline{C_{IN}} + C_{IN}) + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} X_0 + C_{IN} X_1 \overline{X_0}$$

$$C_{OUT} = X_1 X_0 (1) + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} X_0 + C_{IN} X_1 \overline{X_0}$$

$$C_{OUT} = X_1 X_0 + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} X_0 + C_{IN} X_1 \overline{X_0}$$

$$C_{OUT} = X_1 X_0 + C_{IN} (\overline{X_1} X_0 + X_1 \overline{X_0})$$

$$C_{OUT} = X_1 X_0 + C_{IN}(X_0 \oplus X_1)$$

#### Simplifying:

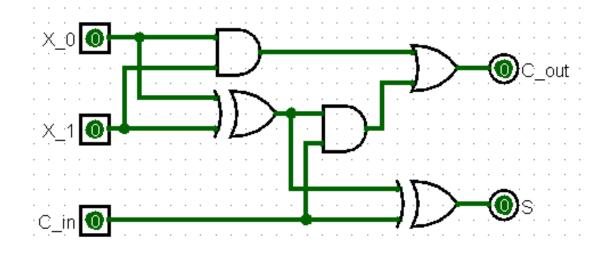
$$S = \overline{C_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{C_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} \overline{X_1} \, \overline{X_0} + C_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$$S = \overline{C_{IN}} \, (X_0 \oplus X_1) + C_{IN} (X_0 \odot X_1)$$

$$S = \overline{C_{IN}} \, (X_0 \oplus X_1) + C_{IN} (\overline{X_0} \oplus \overline{X_1}) \qquad \bar{X}Y + X\bar{Y} = X \oplus Y$$

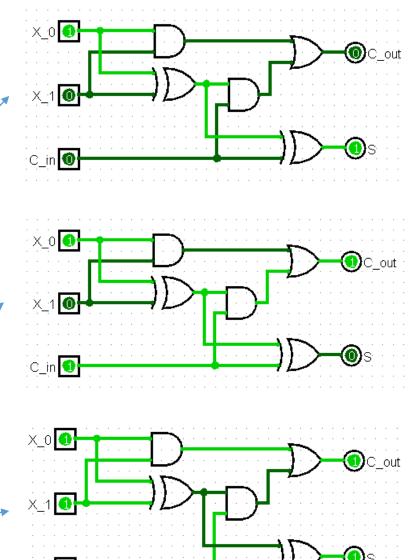
$$S = C_{IN} \oplus (X_0 \oplus X_1) = C_{IN} \oplus X_0 \oplus X_1$$

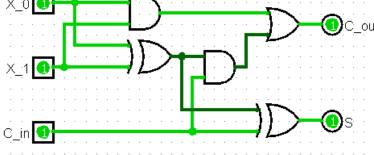
#### Full Adder Logic Circuit:



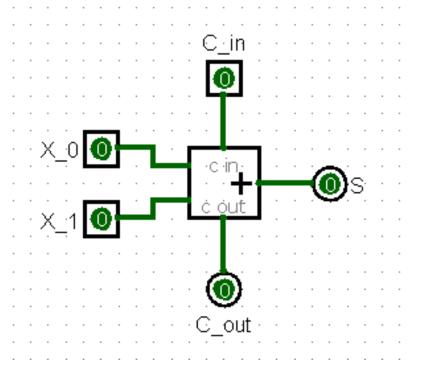
#### Full Adder Logic Circuit:

$C_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$C_{OUT}$	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	



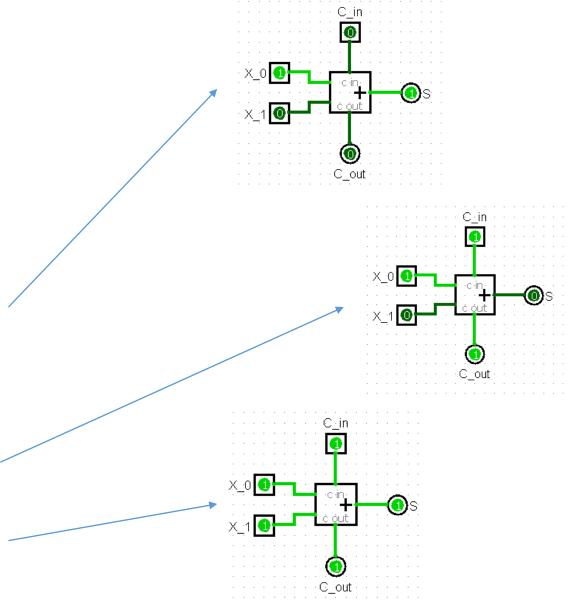


Abstracted Full Adder:



Abstracted Full Adder:

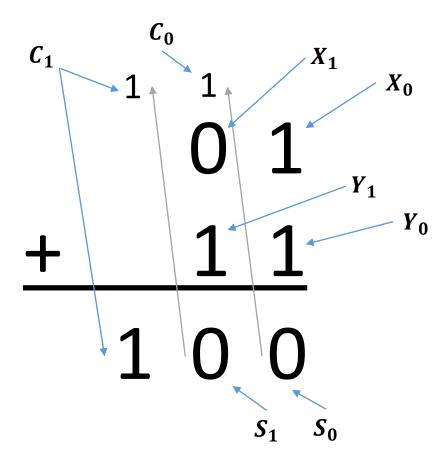
$C_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$C_{OUT}$	S
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1



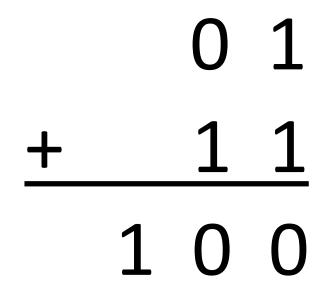
- So far, we've seen only how adders can add single digits together
  - 1+1+1 or 0+1 or 1+0+1 is no problem
  - What if we wanted to add 10+11 or 11101+10101?

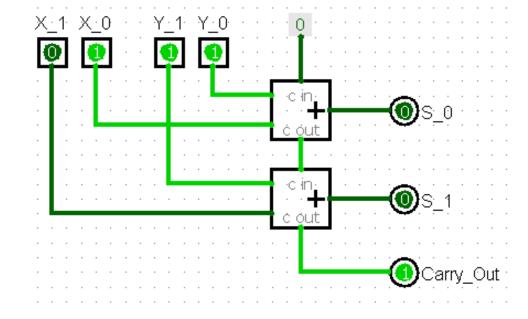
- Full adders can work together by providing the carry out of one full adder as the carry in for a second adder
  - The technique shown next is a *ripple-carry adder*

• For example:

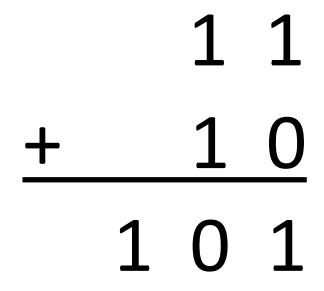


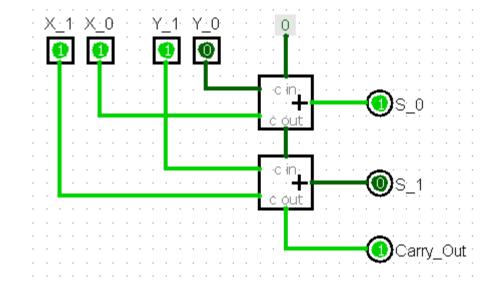
• A 2-bit Adder:



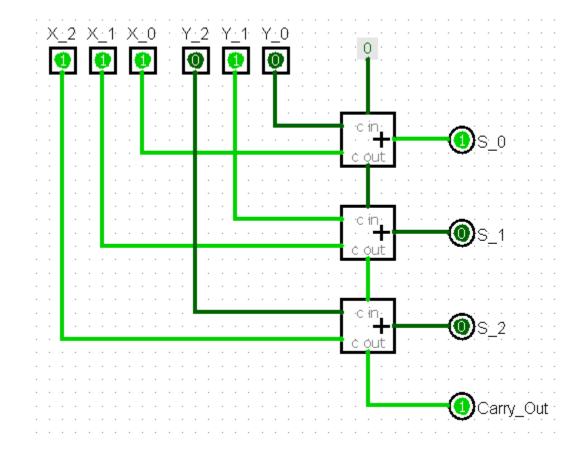


Another example:

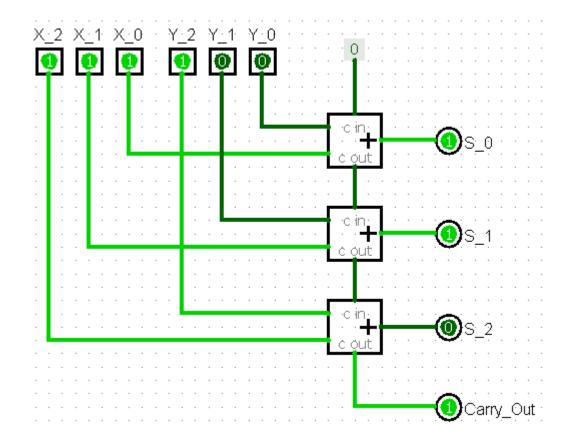




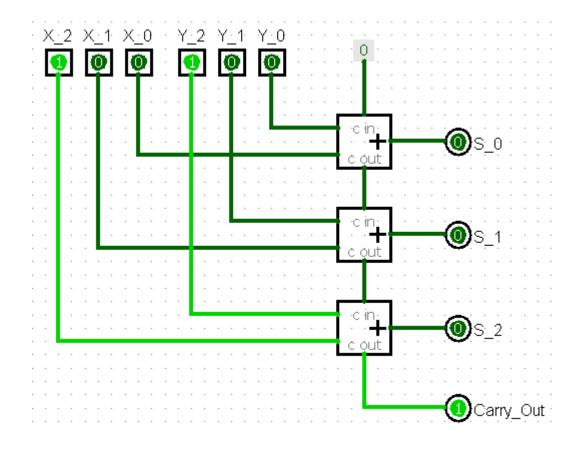
• A 3-bit Adder:



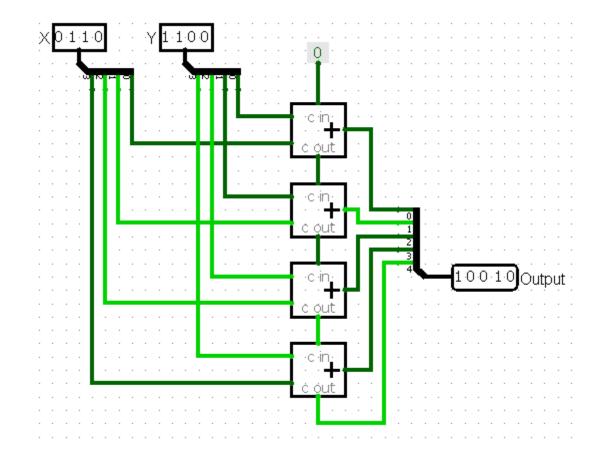
Another example:



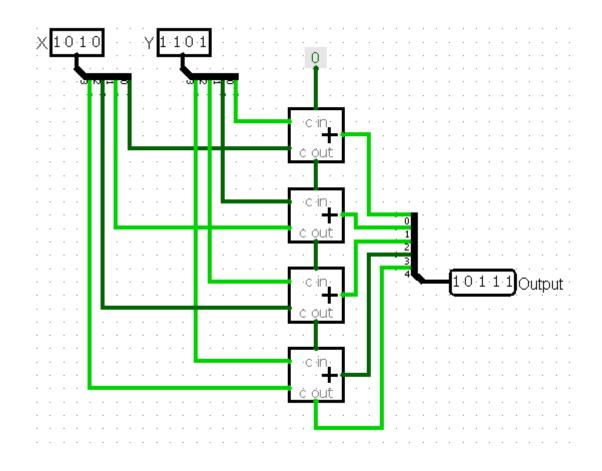
Another example:



• A 4-bit Adder (with buses):



Another example



#### Subtractors

- **Subtractors** are combinational logic circuits capable of performing subtraction
- A half subtractor has two inputs (the two digits to subtract) and two outputs (the difference and the borrow).

0 1 0 
$$1^{X_0}$$
- 0 - 1 -  $1^{X_1}$ 
00 01 11 00

B (Borrow) D (Difference)

Negative 1 in two's complement

### Half Subtractor

• Half subtractor truth table:

$X_1$	$X_0$	В	D
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	0

0 1 0 
$$1^{X_0}$$
- 0 - 0 - 1  $1^{X_1}$ 
00 01 11 00

B (Borrow) D (Difference)

### Half Subtractors

#### SOP Expressions:

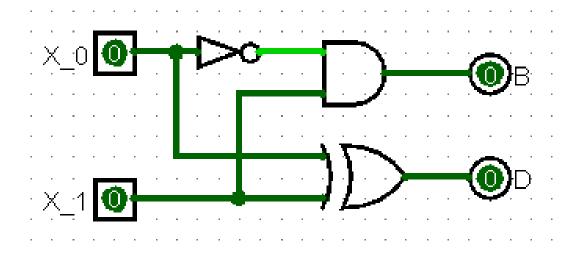
$$B = X_1 \overline{X_0}$$

$$D = \overline{X_1}X_0 + X_1\overline{X_0} = X_1 \oplus X_0$$

$X_1$	$X_0$	В	D
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	0

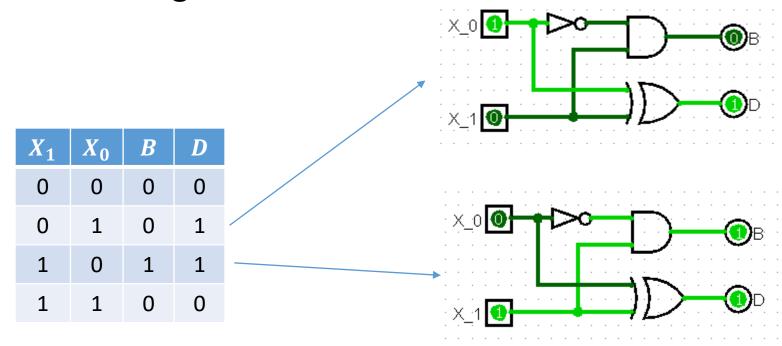
## Half Subtractor

#### Half Subtractor Logic Circuit:



## Half Subtractor

Half Subtractor Logic Circuit:



• A **full subtractor** has three inputs (the two digits to subtract, plus a value *borrowed in*) and two outputs (the different and the borrow).

$$B_{IN}(Borrow\ In)$$
 $0 - 0 - 0 = 0\ 0$ 
 $0 - 0 - 1 = 1\ 1$ 
 $0 - 1 - 0 = 1\ 1$ 
 $0 - 1 - 1 = 1\ 0$ 
 $1 - 0 - 0 = 0\ 0$ 
 $1 - 1 - 0 = 0\ 0$ 
 $1 - 1 - 1 = 1\ 1$ 

#### **SOP Expressions:**

$$B_{OUT} = \overline{B_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 X_0 + B_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

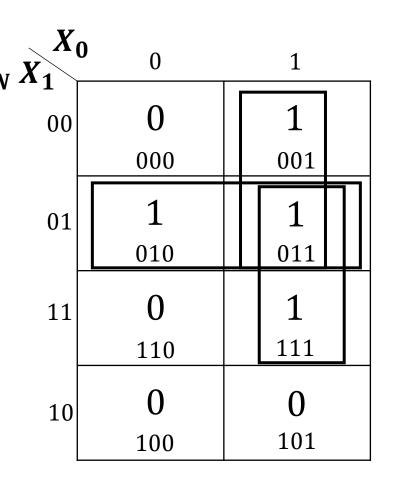
$$D = \overline{B_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + B_{IN} \overline{X_1} \, \overline{X_0} + B_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$B_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$B_{OUT}$	D
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

#### Simplifying:

$$B_{OUT} = \overline{B_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 X_0 + B_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$$B_{OUT} = \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 + \overline{B_{IN}} X_0 + X_1 X_0$$



#### Simplifying:

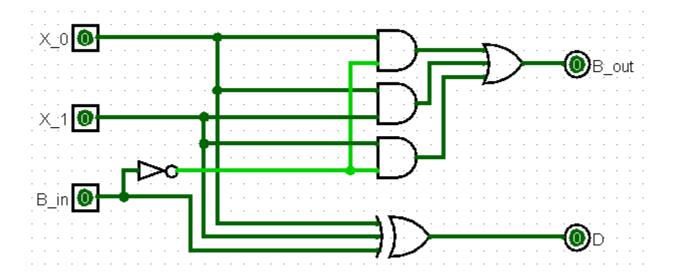
$$D = \overline{B_{IN}} \, \overline{X_1} X_0 + \overline{B_{IN}} X_1 \overline{X_0} + B_{IN} \overline{X_1} \, \overline{X_0} + B_{IN} X_1 X_0$$

$$D = \overline{B_{IN}} (X_0 \oplus X_1) + B_{IN} (X_0 \odot X_1)$$

$$D = \overline{B_{IN}} (X_0 \oplus X_1) + B_{IN} (\overline{X_0} \oplus \overline{X_1}) \qquad \overline{X}Y + X\overline{Y} = X \oplus Y$$

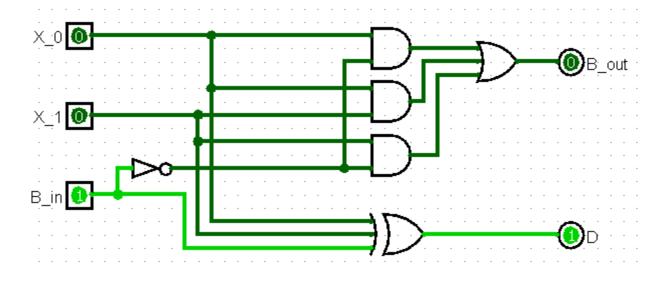
$$D = B_{IN} \oplus (X_0 \oplus X_1) = B_{IN} \oplus X_0 \oplus X_1$$

#### Full Subtractor Logic Circuit:



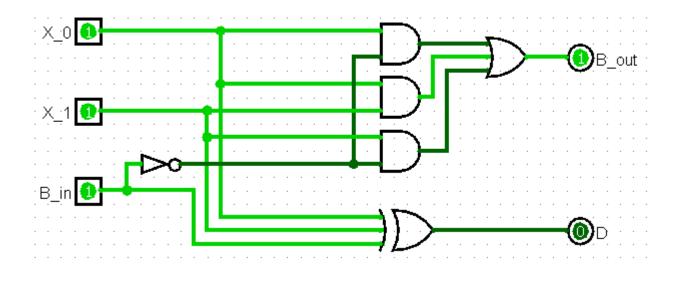
#### Full Subtractor Logic Circuit:

$B_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$B_{OUT}$	D
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1



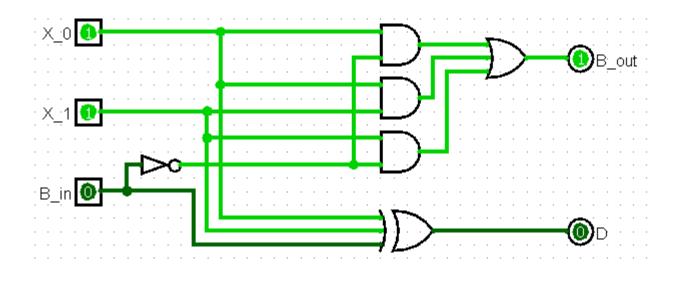
#### Full Subtractor Logic Circuit:

$B_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$B_{OUT}$	D
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

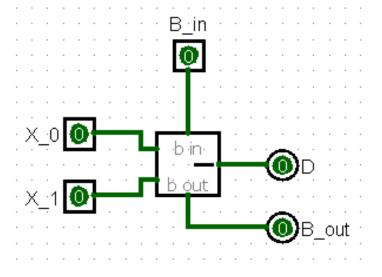


#### Full Subtractor Logic Circuit:

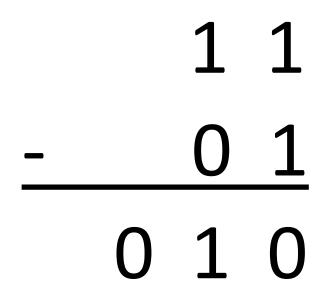
$B_{IN}$	$X_1$	$X_0$	$B_{OUT}$	D
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

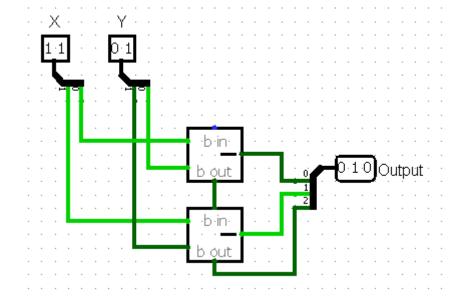


Abstracted Full Subtractor:

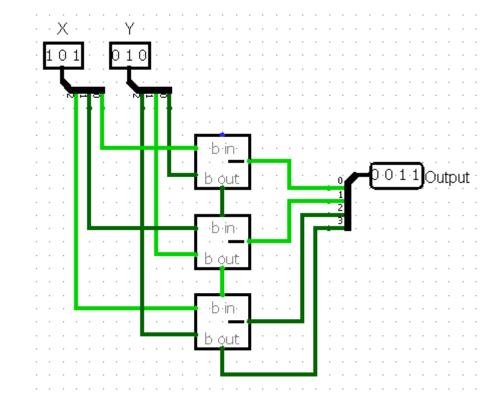


 Like full adders, full subtractors can work together by providing the borrow out of one full subtractor as the borrow in for a second subtractor



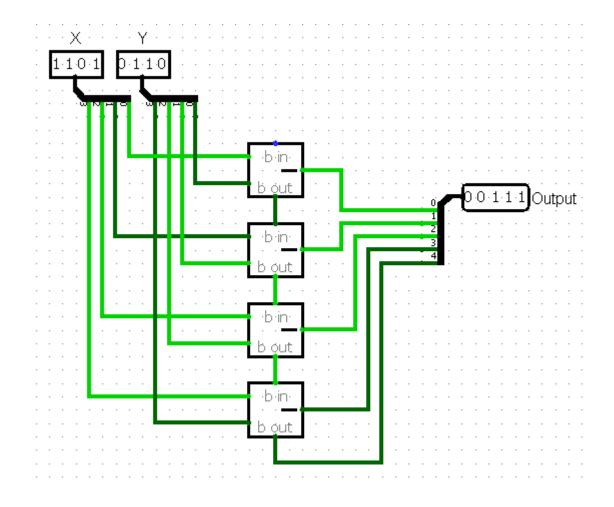


• A 3-bit Subtractor:



• A 4-bit Subtractor:

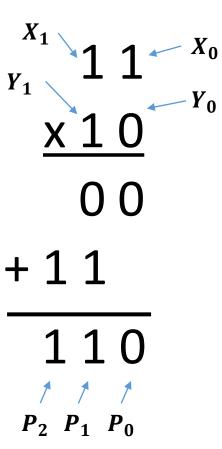
1 1 0 1
- 0 1 1 0
0 0 1 1 1



- Multipliers (not to be confused with multiplexers) are combinational logic circuits capable of performing multiplication
- Note that the multiplication of two 1-bit numbers is a simple and operation

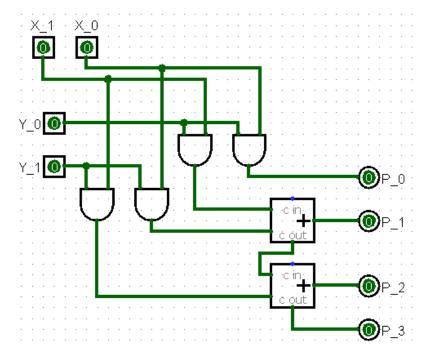
$X_{0}$	$Y_0$	$X_0 \times Y_0$	$X_0 \cdot Y_0$
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0

- However, addition will be required when multiplying numbers that are two or more bits.
- We will see how to construct multipliers using full and half adders.
- The largest product of multiplying two, 2-bit numbers is 9:
  - $11 \times 11 = 1001 (3 \times 3 = 9)$
  - Thus, our circuit must have 4 outputs
    - $P_0$  through  $P_3$

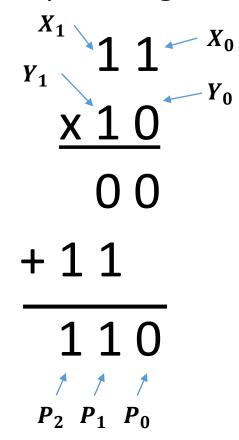


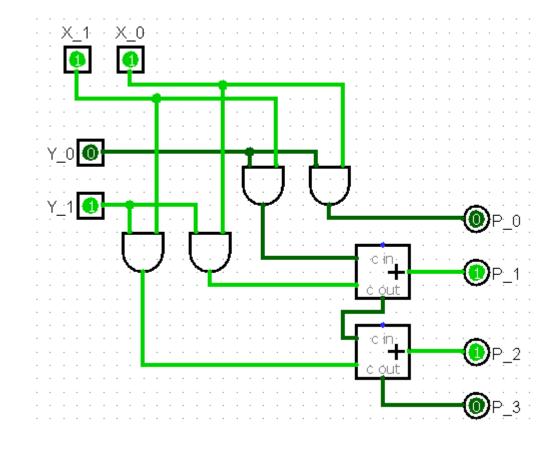
#### 2-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:

• (Uses 2 half adders)

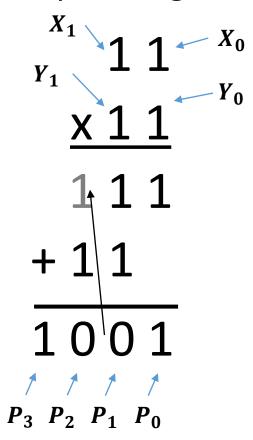


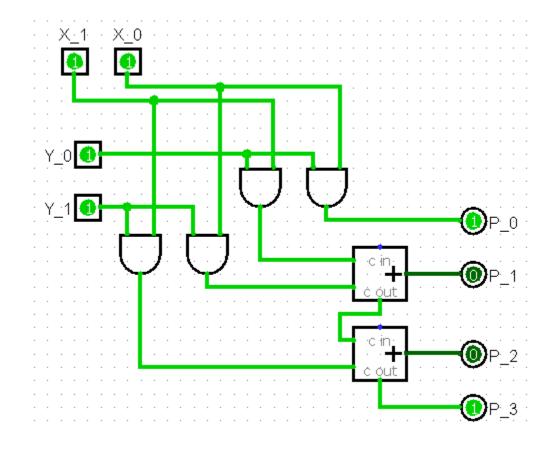
2-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:





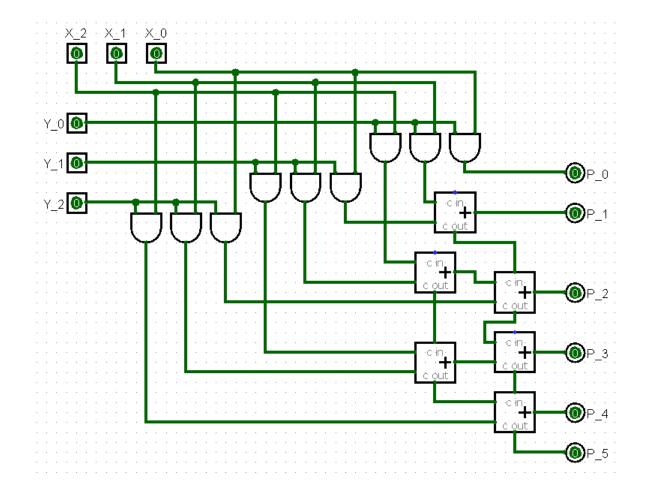
#### 2-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:



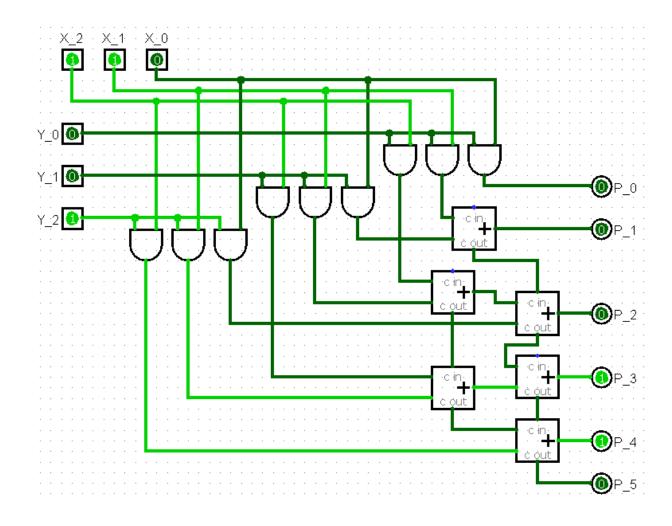


#### 3-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:

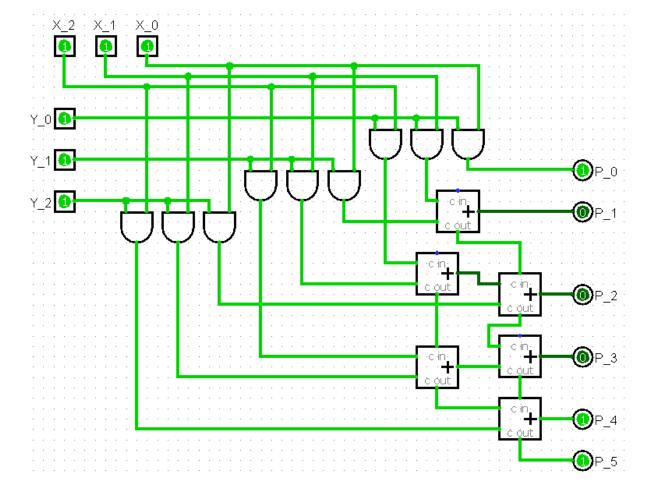
- (Uses 2 half adders)
- (Uses 3 full adders)



3-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:



3-bit Multiplier Logic Circuit:



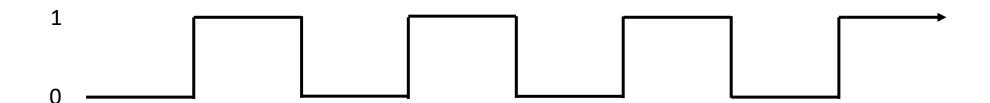
### Sequential Circuits

- The combinational logic circuits we've seen have the following limitations:
  - They have no memory capability
  - The output changes as soon as the input changes

- **Sequential logic circuits** maintain a state- The circuit's output is determined by both:
  - The input it currently has
  - The input it has received over time

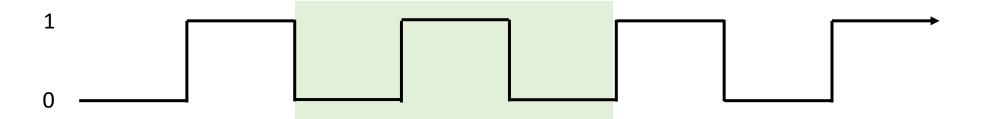
- In most cases, the components in a sequential circuit need to be synchronized
  - The components in the circuit must all update their states at the same time

- This is achieved with a clock signal
  - A 1-bit signal that alternates between 1 and 0 at regular intervals



 A clock cycle ("tick") is when the clock transitions from 0 to 1 and back to 0

• A clock period is the time it takes to complete 1 clock cycle



- The **clock frequency** (also called the **clock rate**) is the number of clock periods in some amount of (*wall clock*) time
  - Wall clock time is the seconds, minutes, hours, etc. that we experience
  - Time ticks by on a wall clock by the second, whereas these clocks may tick thousands (or millions or billions) of times per one second
- Clock frequency is measured in  $\frac{cycle}{second}$  or Hertz (abbreviated Hz)

• Clock frequency is the inverse of the clock period (and vice versa)

$$Period = \frac{seconds}{cycle} = \frac{1}{\frac{cycles}{second}} = \frac{1}{Frequency}$$
 Seconds per cycle

$$Frequency = \frac{cycles}{second} = \frac{1}{\frac{seconds}{cycle}} = \frac{1}{Period}$$
 Cycles per second

- Example: What is the clock rate of a processor with a clock period of 250 ps (picoseconds)?
  - $250ps = 250 * 10^{-12} seconds = 0.00000000025s$

• 
$$Period = \frac{250 \times 10^{-12} seconds}{1 \ cycle} = \frac{0.00000000025 \ seconds}{1 \ cycle} = 0.000000000005 \ \frac{seconds}{cycle}$$

• Frequency = 
$$\frac{1}{Period} = \frac{1}{\frac{250 \times 10^{-12} seconds}{1 cycle}} = \frac{250 \times 10^{-12} cycles}{1 second} = \frac{4,000,000,000 cycles}{1 second}$$
  
=  $4,000,000,000,000 \frac{cycles}{second} = 4.0 \text{ GHz}$ 

• Example: What is the clock period of a processor with a clock rate of 3.8GHz?

• Frequency = 3,800,000,000 
$$\frac{cycles}{second} = \frac{3,800,000,000 \ cycles}{1 \ second}$$

• 
$$Period = \frac{1}{Frequency} = \frac{1}{\frac{3,800,000,000 \, cycles}{1 \, second}} = \frac{1 \, second}{\frac{3,800,000,000 \, cycles}{1 \, second}}$$

$$= 2.63 \times 10^{-10} \frac{seconds}{cycle} = 263 \times 10^{-12} \frac{seconds}{cycle}$$

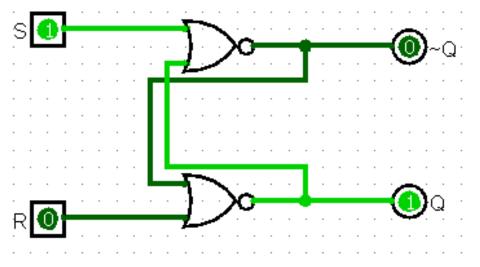
$$= 263 \frac{picoseconds}{cycle}$$

Abstraction of a clock:



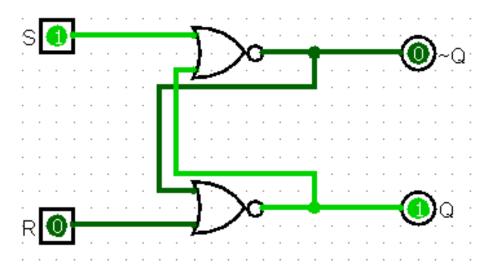
• A latch is a digital component that stores 1 bit of information

• An SR Latch has two inputs (Set and Reset) and two outputs (Q and its complement,  $\overline{Q}$ )



#### Feedback

- The output of the top NOR is one input to the bottom NOR
- The output of the bottom NOR is one input to the top NOR

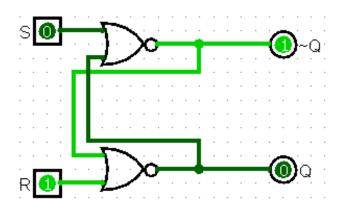


• Recall that, for a NOR gate, the output is 0 if either input is a 1

x	у	x NOR y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

- We'll start with the second row of the latch's truth table:
  - This is the Reset state

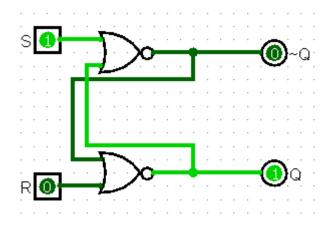
S	R	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0			
0	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0			
1	1			



- R is 1, meaning the bottom NOR must have an output (Q) of 0
- S is 0 and the output of the bottom NOR was 0, so the top NOR must have an output (Q) of 1
  - This is a valid state since Q and  $\overline{Q}$  are complements

- Next is the third row of the latch's truth table:
  - This is the Set state

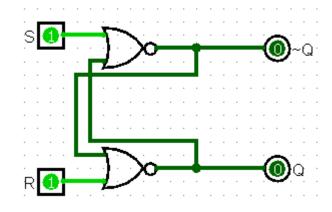
S	R	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0			
0	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
1	1			



- S is 1, meaning the top NOR must have an output ( $\overline{Q}$ ) of 0
- R is 0, and the output of the top NOR was 0, so the bottom NOR must have an output (Q) of 1
  - This is a valid state since Q and  $\overline{Q}$  are complements

- Next is the fourth row of the latch's truth table:
  - This is the Unknown state

S	R	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0			
0	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
1	1	0	0	Unknown



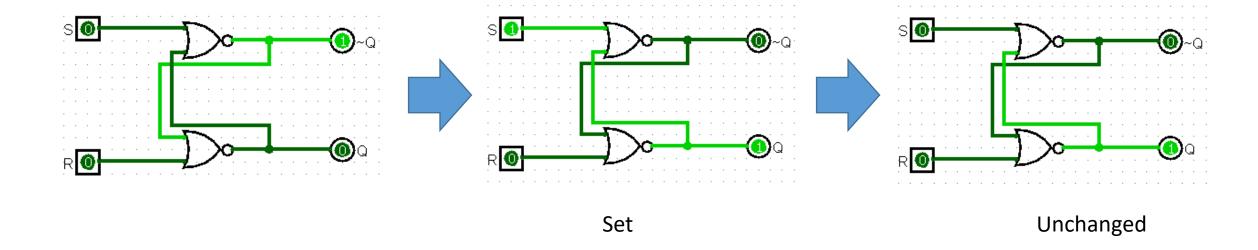
- S is 1 and R is 1 meaning both NOR gates must have an output of 0
- $\bullet$  This doesn't make sense since Q and  $\overline{Q}$  are supposed to be complements

- Back to the first row of the latch's truth table:
  - This is the Unchanged state

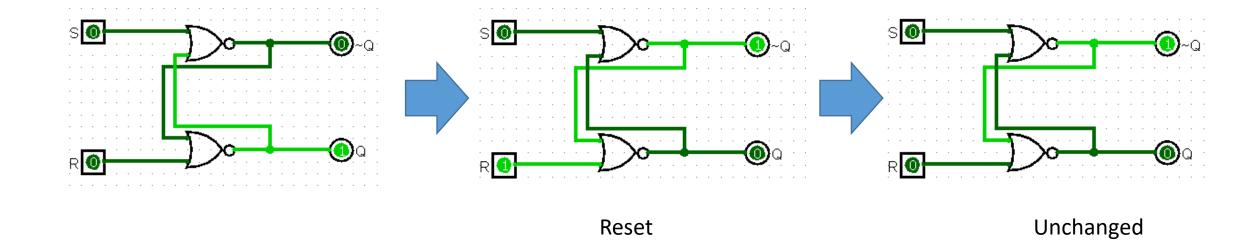
S	R	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged
0	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
1	1	0	0	Unknown

- S is 0 and R is 0, the current state will depend on the previous state
  - If the previous state was the set state, the current state will still be in the set state
  - If the previous state was the reset state, the current state will still be in the reset state

- Turning Q from 0 (Reset) to 1 (Set)
  - S = 0, S = 1, S = 0

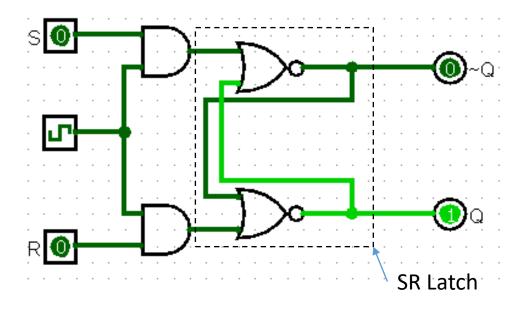


- Turning Q from 1 (Set) to 0 (Reset)
  - R = 0, R = 1, R = 0



### SR Flip-Flop

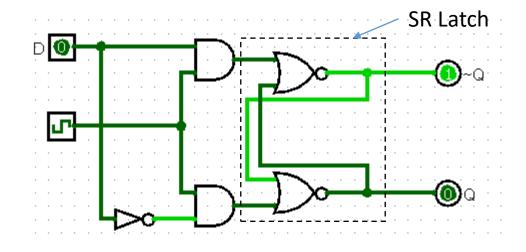
- An extension of the SR Latch is the SR Flip-Flop.
- The S and R inputs are each and'ed with a clock signal.
  - The state can only be changed when the clock signal is 1



S	R	Clock	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0	1	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged
0	1	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0	1	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
1	1	1	0	0	Unknown
Χ	X	0	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged

### D Flip-Flop

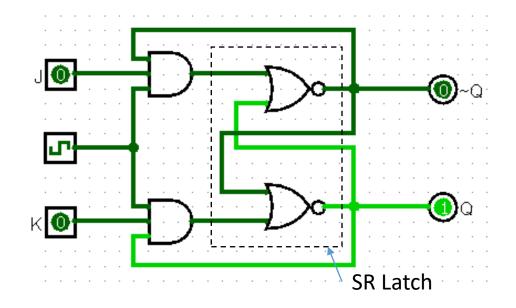
- A D Flip-Flop has one input (D) and two outputs (Q and its complement,  $\overline{Q}$ )
- The input is and'ed with a clock signal prior to the NOR gates.
  - The state can only be changed when the clock signal is 1



D	Clock	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	1	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
X	0	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged

### JK Flip-Flop

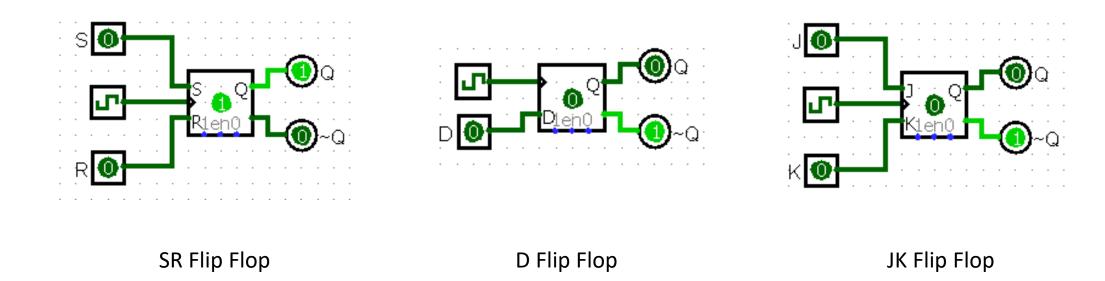
- In a JK Flip-Flop, the input is and'ed with a clock signal *and* an output prior to the NOR gates.
  - The state can only be changed when the clock signal is 1



J	K	Clock	$\overline{m{Q}}$	Q	State
0	0	1	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged
0	1	1	1	0	Reset $(Q = 0)$
1	0	1	0	1	Set (Q = 1)
1	1	1	Q	$ar{Q}$	Toggle
X	Χ	0	$ar{Q}$	Q	Unchanged

# Flip-Flops

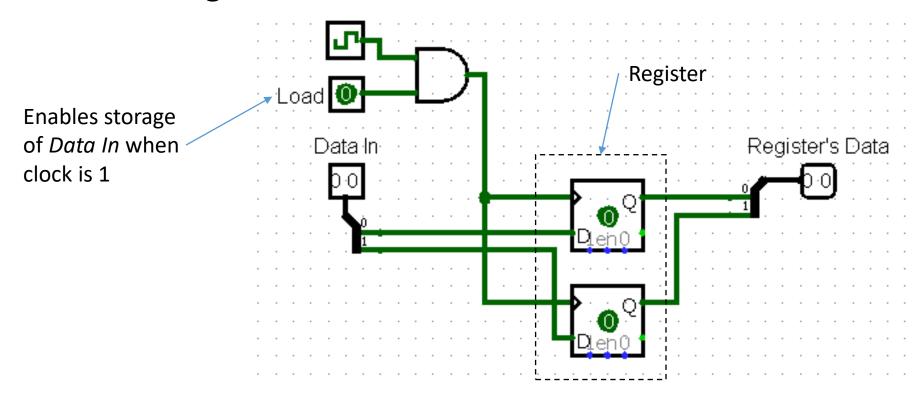
Abstractions of Flip-Flops:



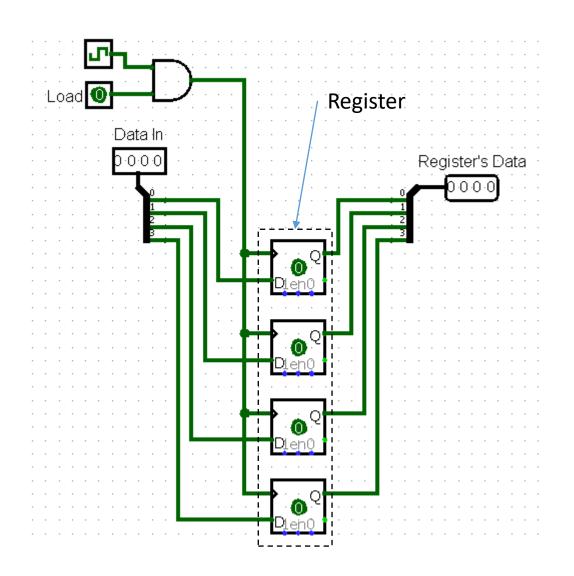
 By now, we are familiar with the use of registers from assembly programming to temporarily store data.

- Since flip-flops store 1 bit of information, we can create a register from a series of flip-flops
  - 4 flip-flops for a 4-bit register, 32 flip-flops for a 32-bit register, etc.

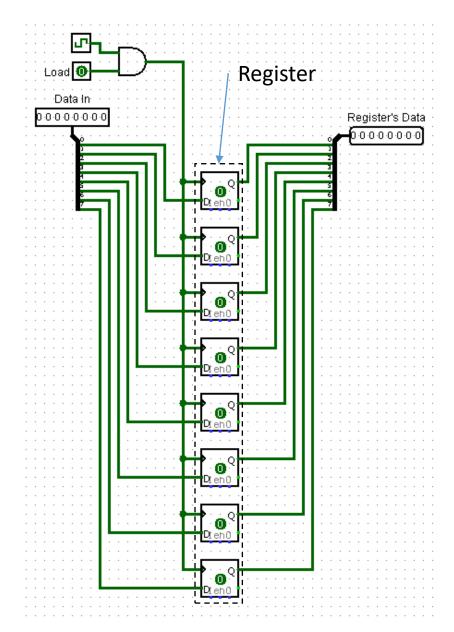
• A 2-bit register:



• A 4-bit register:



• An 8-bit register:



• Abstractions of Registers:

