Chapter 04 : Part 01: Boolean Algebra

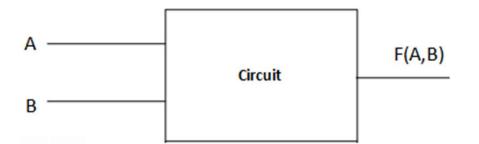
# Introduction: Boole Algebra

• Boolean algebra (named after George Boole, 1815 -1864) is a mathematical theory that proposes to translate electrical signals (in two states) into mathematical expressions. It is a means of designing electronic circuits that perform complex operations, where elementary signals are defined by logical variables and their processing is governed by logical functions. Methods such as truth tables are used to define the desired operations and to transcribe the result into an <u>algebraic expression</u>.

# Introduction: Boole Algebra

- Introduction
- Today, Boolean algebra finds numerous applications in computer science and the design of digital electronic circuits, such as <u>memories</u>, <u>computing</u> <u>circuits</u>, <u>microprocessors</u>, etc.
- Digital machines are composed of a set of electronic <u>circuits</u>, each providing a well-defined <u>logical function</u> (addition, comparison, etc.).

We signify by B the set consisting of two elements called truth values *TRUE* and *FALSE*. This set is also represented as B = {1, 0}. On this set, two operations can be defined: <u>AND</u> and <u>OR</u>, and a transformation called complement, inversion, or <u>negation</u>.



• The function F(A, B) could be the sum of A and B, or the result of the comparison of A and B, or another function.

- To design and implement this circuit, a mathematical model of the <u>function</u> performed by the circuit is obligatory.
- This model must take into account the <u>binary</u> <u>system</u>.
- The mathematical model used is that of Boolean algebra.

- Examples of two-state systems:
  - A switch is either open or not open (closed).
  - A lamp is either on or not on (off).
  - A door is either open or not open (closed).
- Note: The following conventions can be used:
  - YES  $\rightarrow$  TRUE (true)
  - NO  $\rightarrow$  FALSE (false)
  - YES  $\rightarrow$  1 (High Level)
  - NO  $\rightarrow 0$  (Low Level)

• Definitions and Conventions Logical Level:

When studying a logical system, it is essential to specify the level of operation.

| Level     | <b>Positive Logic</b> | Negative Logic |
|-----------|-----------------------|----------------|
| H (Hight) | 1                     | 0              |
| L (Low)   | 0                     | 1              |

#### Example:

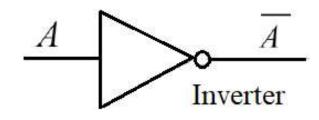
Positive Logic: Lamp on: 1, (L. Posi: 1)

Negative Logic: Lamp off: 0, (L. Neg: 0)

# Logical operators of Boolean algebra

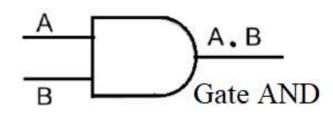
- Definition:
- We denote by B the set consisting of two elements called <u>truth values</u> {<u>TRUE</u>, <u>FALSE</u>}.
- This set is also represented as  $B = \{1, 0\}$ . On this set, two laws (operations or functions) can be defined:
- <u>AND</u> and <u>OR</u>, and a transformation called <u>NOT</u>, complement, inversion, or negation.
- These operations are referred to as the basic logical operations.

- **NOT**: (Negation): is a unary operator (operates on a single variable) that serves to reverse the value of a variable. The opposite of a variable "A" is TRUE if and only if A is FALSE.
- The negation of A is denoted :
   Ā (read as: A bar).
- $F(A) = NOT A = \overline{A}$



| Α | Ā |
|---|---|
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |

- (AND) operator:
- The AND operator is a binary operator (two variables) that aims to perform the logical product between two Boolean variables.
- AND performs the conjunction between two variables.
- The AND operator is defined
- by: **F(A,B)= A.B**



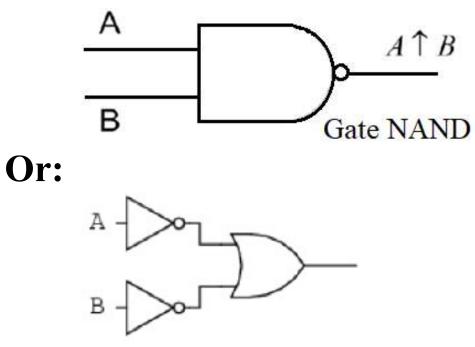
| Α | В | A.B |
|---|---|-----|
| 0 | 0 | 0   |
| 0 | 1 | 0   |
| 1 | 0 | 0   |
| 1 | 1 | 1   |

#### • (OR) operator

•The OR operator is a binary operator (two variables) that aims to perform the logical sum between two Boolean variables. OR performs A + B В the disjunction between two 0 n 0 variables. The OR operator 1 n is defined as: **F(A,B)=A+B** 1 (it should not be confused with А A+B arithmetic addition). Gate OR B

- Notes:
- In the definition of the AND, OR operators, we have delivered the basic definition with two logical variables.
- The AND operator can perform the product of multiple logical variables (e.g., A. B. C. D).
- The OR operator can also perform the logical sum of multiple logical variables (e.g., A + B + C + D).
- In an expression, parentheses can also be used.

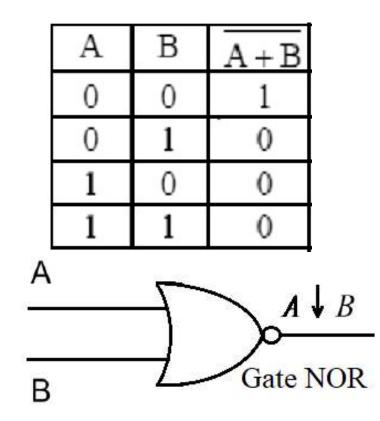
• The NOT-AND operator (NAND abbreviation) associates a result that has the value TRUE only if at least one of the two operands has the value FALSE. It is defined as follows:  $F(A,B) = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$ 



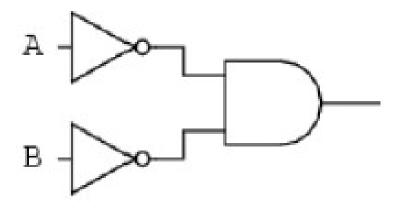
| (2):40:00000000   |      | 72034 | 440.046 |
|-------------------|------|-------|---------|
| EI A              | P =  | - A T | · D     |
| $\Gamma \cap A$ . | DI - | -/1   | D       |
| - ಮುಂದು ಮತ್ತು     |      |       | 1.00000 |

| Α | В | A•B |
|---|---|-----|
| 0 | 0 | 1   |
| 0 | 1 | 1   |
| 1 | 0 | 1   |
| 1 | 1 | 0   |

The NOT-OR operator (NOR Abbreviation) associates a result that has the value TRUE only if <u>both</u> operands have the value FALSE. It is defined as follows:



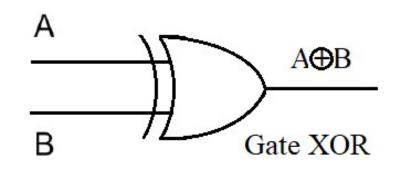
$$F(A,B) = \overline{A+B}$$
$$F(A,B) = A \downarrow B$$



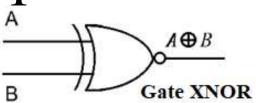
• The exclusive OR operator, often called XOR (eXclusive OR), associates a result that has the value TRUE only if the two operands have distinct values. It is defined as follows:  $F(A,B)=A \oplus B$ 

 $A \oplus B = \overline{A}.B + A.B$ 

| Α | В | А⊕В |
|---|---|-----|
| 0 | 0 | 0   |
| 0 | 1 | 1   |
| 1 | 0 | 1   |
| 1 | 1 | 0   |



• Note: It can be noted that:

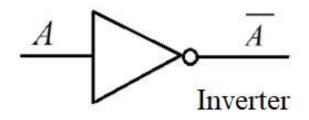


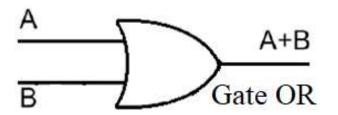
• A non XOR B is denoted as  $\underline{A \otimes B}$  and read as:

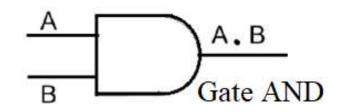
A XNOR B. The AND operator can perform the logical product of multiple variables (e.g., A . B . C . D). The OR operator can also perform the logical sum of multiple logical variables (e.g., A + B + C + D). In an expression, parentheses can also be used. The gates AND, OR, NAND, NOR can have more than two inputs. There is no exclusive OR with more than two inputs.

# logic Gates

• A logic gate is a fundamental electronic circuit that enables the implementation of a basic logical operator function.

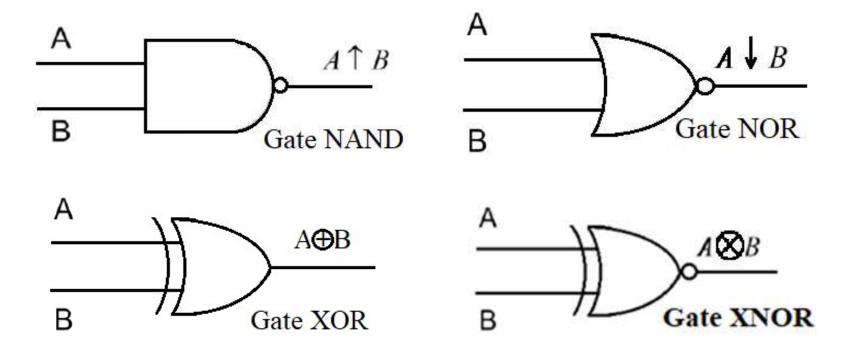






# logic Gates

Note: The AND, OR, NAND, NOR gates can have more than two inputs. There is no exclusive OR (XOR) with more than two inputs.



- Properties of the "OR" operator:
  - $\checkmark$  a + 1 = 1 Absorbing element
  - $\checkmark$  a + 0 = a Neutral element
  - $\checkmark$  a + a = a Idempotence
  - $\checkmark$  a +  $\bar{a} = 1$  Complementarity
  - $\checkmark$  a + b = b + a Commutativity
  - ✓ a+b+c = (a+b)+c = a + (b+c)Associativity

Properties of the "AND" operator:

✓ a \* 0 = 0 Absorbing element
✓ a \* 1 = a Neutral element
✓ a \* a = a Idempotence
✓ a \* ā = 0 Complementarity
✓ a \* b = b \* a Commutativity
✓ a \* b \* c = (a \* b) \* c = a \* (b \* c) Associativity

• Properties of the « NOT » operator:

$$\checkmark \neg \bar{a} = a$$

$$\checkmark \bar{a} + a = 1$$

$$\checkmark \bar{a} * a = 0$$

• Distributive property:

✓ 
$$a * (b + c) = a * b + a * c$$
  
✓  $(a + b) * (c + d) = a * c + a * d + b * c + b * d$   
✓  $a + (b * c) = (a + b) * (a + c)$ 

- Propriété de l'opérateur "NAND"
  - ✓ A↑0=1
  - $\checkmark$  A11= $\bar{A}$
  - ✓ A↑B=B↑A
  - ✓  $(A^B)^C \neq A^(B^C)$
- Propriété de l'opérateur "NOR"
  - ✓  $A\downarrow0=\bar{A}$
  - ✓ A↓1=0
  - ✓ A↓B=B↓A
  - ✓  $(A \downarrow B) \downarrow C \neq A \downarrow (B \downarrow C)$

- Note 1:
- All these formulas allow for the simplification of logical functions, meaning to <u>eliminate logical operators as much</u> <u>as possible</u> (without, of course, altering the initial function).
- Note 2:
- NAND and NOR are universal (complete) operators, meaning that by using them, any logical function can be expressed. To achieve this, it is sufficient to express the basic operators (NOT, AND, OR) with NAND and NOR.

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}$ 

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}}$ 

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} \checkmark \mathbf{A}$ 

A + B =

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

$$A + B = \overline{A + B}$$

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

$$A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B}$$

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

$$A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B} = (A \downarrow B) \downarrow (A \downarrow B)$$

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} \checkmark \mathbf{A}$ 

 $A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B} = (A \downarrow B) \downarrow (A \downarrow B)$  $A \cdot B = \overline{A \cdot B}$ 

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} \checkmark \mathbf{A}$ 

 $A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B} = (A \downarrow B) \downarrow (A \downarrow B)$  $A \cdot B = \overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{\overline{A + B}}$ 

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} \checkmark \mathbf{A}$ 

 $A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B} = (A \downarrow B) \downarrow (A \downarrow B)$  $A \cdot B = \overline{\overline{A \cdot B}} = \overline{\overline{A + B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \downarrow \overline{B}}$ 

• Exemple :

Implementation of basic operators using NOR gates.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}} = \overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{A} \checkmark \mathbf{A}$ 

 $A + B = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A \downarrow B} = (A \downarrow B) \downarrow (A \downarrow B)$  $A \cdot B = \overline{\overline{A \cdot B}} = \overline{\overline{A + B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \downarrow \overline{\overline{B}}} = (A \downarrow A) \downarrow (B \downarrow B)$ 

- Duality of Boolean algebra: Any logical expression remains true if we replace: AND with OR, OR with AND, 1 with 0, and 0 with 1.
- Exemple :

$$A + 1 = 1 \Rightarrow A \cdot 0 = 0$$
  
 $A + \overline{A} = 1 \Rightarrow A \cdot \overline{A} = 0$ 

• De Morgan's Theorem: The complemented logical sum of two variables is equal to the logical product of the complements of the two variables.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}} = \overline{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{B}}$ 

• The complemented logical product of two variables is equal to the logical sum of the complements of the two variables.

### $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$

 Generalization of De Morgan's Theorem to n variables.

$$\overline{A.B.C....} = \overline{A} + \overline{B} + \overline{C} + \dots$$
$$\overline{A + B + C} + \dots = \overline{A.B.C}...$$

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified

#### $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified
- By distributivity

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$  $S = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified
- By distributivity
- By distributivity

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $S = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $S = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified
- By distributivity
- By distributivity
- By Idempotence (x.x=x)

#### $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$

 $s = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $s = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$  $s = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$ 

- By distributivity
- By distributivity
- By Idempotence (x.x=x)
- By Complementarity y.y=0

 $s = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $s = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $s = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$  $s = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$ 

- By distributivity
- By distributivity
- By Idempotence (x.x=x)
- By Complementarity y.y=0
- By remarkable identity (1.x=x)

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $S = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = 1.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified
- By distributivity
- By distributivity
- By Idempotence (x.x=x)
- By Complementarity y.y=0
- By remarkable identity (1.x=x)
- By distributivity

#### $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $S = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = 1.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = 1.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$ 

- Exemple :
- Let S be simplified

 $S = (X + \overline{Y}).(X + Y) + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$ 

- By distributivity
- By distributivity
- By Idempotence (x.x=x)
- By Complementarity y.y=0
- By remarkable identity (1.x=x)
- By distributivity
- By remarkable identity (on + then \*) s = x + z.  $\overline{X} + z$ . Y
- $S = (X + \overline{Y}).X + (X + \overline{Y}).Y + Z.(\overline{X} + Y)$   $S = X.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + \overline{Y}.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = 1.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$   $S = 1.X + \overline{Y}.X + X.Y + Z.\overline{X} + Z.Y$

# Logic Circuit

#### Logic Circuit: Logigram (logic diagram)

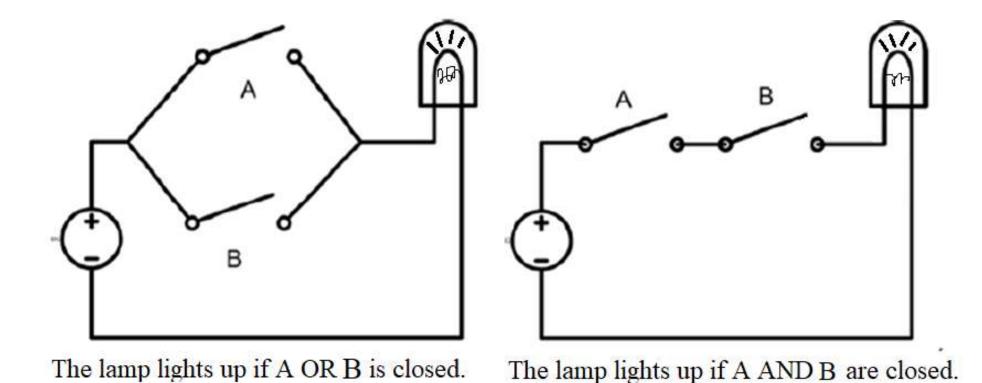
• Concept of a Logic Circuit (Flowchart)

The connection established between Boolean algebra and logic circuits dates back to the early 20th century. It was a true revolution whose consequences we are well aware of today.

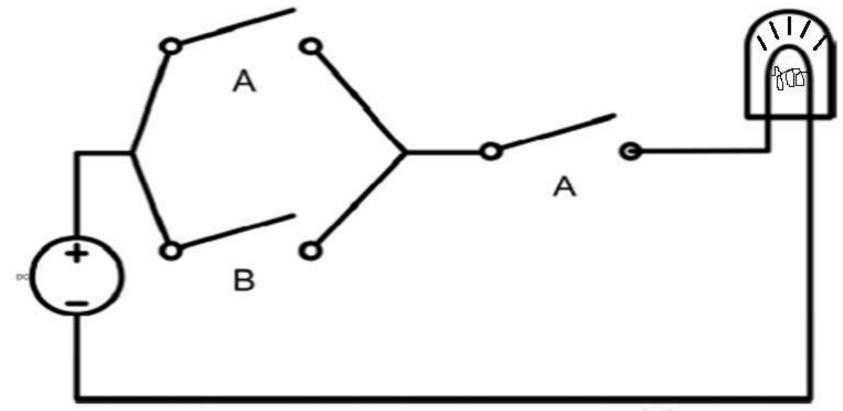
• It initially involved an application to relay circuits (a kind of buttons). If relays responded to the same command (variable), then a logical function could express its general operation:

#### Logic Circuit: Logigram (logic diagram)

• Examples of application to relay circuits:



#### Logic Circuit: Logigram (logic diagram)



The lamp lights up if (A OR B) AND A is closed. Therefore, the lamp lights up if A is closed, since: A(A+B)=A.

# Logic Circuit

A logic circuit is the translation of a logical function into an electronic schematic.

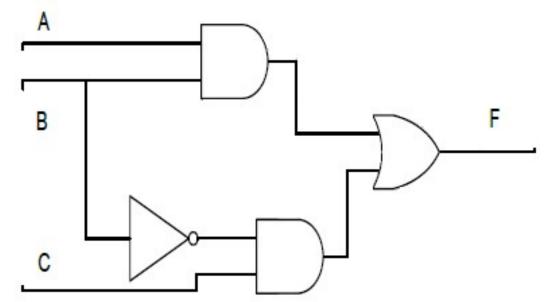
The principle involves replacing each logical operator with the corresponding logic gate.

Logic gates are the basic elements with which we can express any logical function. The variables of a logical function become the <u>inputs</u> of the circuit, and this circuit <u>outputs</u> the value of the logical function based on the input values.

# Logic Circuit

- We can connect <u>logic gates</u> to each other to implement a <u>logical function</u>. On the contrary, finding the logical function implemented by a circuit allows us to <u>manipulate it</u> for potential <u>simplifications</u>.
- Exemple :

 $F(A, B, C) = A.B + \overline{B.C}$ 



> Function that connects N logical variables with a set of basic logical operators. There are three basic operators: **<u>NOT</u>**, <u>AND</u>, <u>OR</u>. The value of a logical function is equal to: 1 or 0 based on the values of the logical variables.  $\succ$  If a logical function has N logical variables  $\rightarrow 2^{n}$ combinations  $\rightarrow$  the function has  $2^{n}$  values.  $\succ$  The 2<sup>n</sup> combinations are represented in a table called a truth table (TT),

• Example of a logical function

 $F(A, B, C) = \overline{A}.\overline{B}.C + \overline{A}.B.C + A.\overline{B}.C + A.B.C$ 

The function has: 3 variables,
 2<sup>3</sup> combinations

The truth table:

A table representing the values taken by a Boolean expression for each possible combination of its inputs.

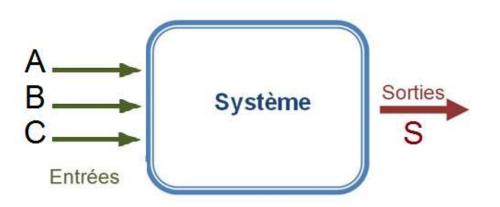
| A | В | С | F |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

- Textual definition of a logical function
- Generally, the definition of how a system operates is provided in <u>textual format</u>.
- Thus, to study and implement such a system, we must have its mathematical model (logical function)
- → it is necessary to derive (deduce) the logical function from the textual description.

- Exemple :
  - $\checkmark$  A security lock opens based on three keys.
  - $\checkmark$  The operation of the lock is defined as follows:
  - $\checkmark$  The lock is open if at least two keys are used.
  - $\checkmark$  The lock remains closed in other cases.
- Provide the circuit diagram that controls the opening of the lock.

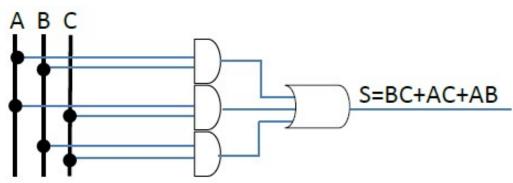
- The system has three inputs: each input represents a key.
- We will correspond each key to a logical variable: key1  $\rightarrow$  A, key2  $\rightarrow$  B, key3  $\rightarrow$  C
- If key1 is used, then variable A = 1, otherwise A = 0.
- If key2 is used, then variable B = 1, otherwise B = 0.
- If key3 is used, then variable C = 1, otherwise C = 0.

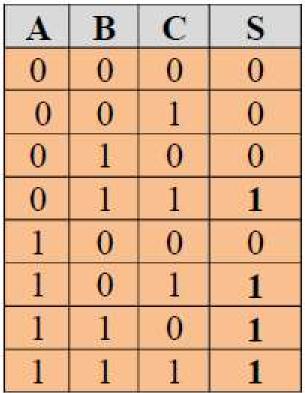
- Le système possède <u>une seule sortie</u> qui correspond à l'état de la serrure (ouverte ou fermé).
- On va correspondre une variable <u>S</u> pour designer la <u>sortie</u>
- <u>S=1</u> si la serrure est <u>ouverte</u>,
- <u>S=0</u> si elle est <u>fermée</u>,



 $S=F(A,B,C)=-\begin{cases}F(A,B,C)=1 \text{ si au moins deux clés sont introduites}\\F(A,B,C)=0 \text{ sinon }.\end{cases}$ 

- Thus, the truth table of the system will be as follows: According to the truth table, we have:  $S=F(A, B, C)=\overline{ABC} + A\overline{BC} + AB\overline{C} + AB\overline{C}$ 
  - S=BC+AC+AB
- Then the corresponding circuit
  - is as follows:





- Canonical Form of a Logical Function:
- The canonical form of a function is referred to as the form where each term of the function includes all variables.
- It is called canonical because it is unique for each function (however, a canonical expression is not necessarily optimal).

- According to the duality principle essential to Boolean algebra, two canonical forms are identified:
- 1- <u>Sum of products</u> (called <u>disjunctive</u> canonical form or the sum of <u>minterms</u>). A sum of products is in canonical form if all variables appear in all terms of the products that compose it.
- 2- <u>Product of sums</u> (called <u>conjunctive</u> canonical form or product of <u>maxterms</u>). A product of sums is in canonical form if all variables appear in all terms of sums that compose it.

| Line | A | В | С | F | Minterms<br>m <sub>i</sub> | Maxterms<br>M <sub>i</sub>        |
|------|---|---|---|---|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 0    | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ĀĒĊ                        | A + B + C                         |
| 1    | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | ĀĒC                        | $A + B + \overline{C}$            |
| 2    | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ĀBĒ                        | $A + \overline{B} + C$            |
| 3    | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ĀBC                        | $A + \overline{B} + \overline{C}$ |
| 4    | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | AĒĒ                        | $\bar{A} + B + C$                 |
| 5    | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | ABC                        | $\bar{A} + B + \bar{C}$           |
| 6    | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | ABĒ                        | $\bar{A} + \bar{B} + C$           |
| 7    | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ABC                        | $\bar{A} + \bar{B} + \bar{C}$     |

- From this, we deduce the expression of F in disjunctive canonical form (sum of minterms) and its condensed representations: F
  - $F(A, B, C) = \overline{ABC} + A\overline{BC} + AB\overline{C} + AB\overline{C} + ABC$ F(A, B, C)=m<sub>3</sub>+m<sub>5</sub>+m<sub>6</sub>+m<sub>7</sub>
- From this, we deduce the expression of F in conjunctive canonical form (product of maxterms) and its condensed representations:

FMinterms<br/> $m_i$ 0 $\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 0 $\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 0 $\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 0 $\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 1 $\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 1 $A\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 1 $A\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 1 $A\overline{B}\overline{C}$ 1 $AB\overline{C}$ 1 $AB\overline{C}$ 1 $AB\overline{C}$ 

 $F(A, B, C) = (A + B + C)(A + B + \overline{C})(A + B + C)(\overline{A} + B + C)$ F(A, B, C)=M<sub>0</sub>.M<sub>1</sub>.M<sub>2</sub>.M<sub>4</sub>

There is another representation of the canonical forms of a logical function, and this representation is called the numeric form.

**R** or  $\Sigma$ : to indicate the disjunctive form.

**P** or  $\Pi$ : to indicate the conjunctive form.

If we take the function from the previous example:

 $F(A, B, C) = \sum (3, 5, 6, 7) = R(011, 101, 110, 111)$ =  $\overline{ABC} + A\overline{BC} + AB\overline{C} + ABC$ .

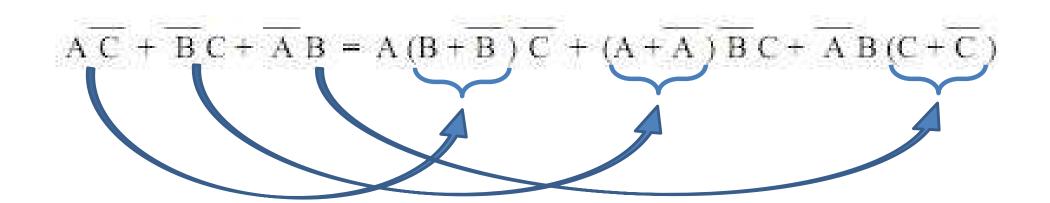
 $F(A, B, C) = \overline{\prod}(0, 1, 2, 4) = P(000, 001, 010, 100)$ =  $(A + B + C)(A + B + \overline{C})(A + \overline{B} + C)(\overline{A} + B + C)$ 

#### Note:

We can always reduce any logical function to one of the canonical forms. This involves adding the <u>missing</u> <u>variables</u> in terms that do not contain all variables (non-canonical terms), using the rules of Boolean algebra:

- Multiply a term by an expression that equals 1.
- Add to a term an expression that equals 0.
- Subsequently, perform distribution.

•The first and second canonical forms are equivalent. It is possible to transition from a disjunctive canonical expression to a conjunctive canonical expression (and vice versa) by considering the missing terms in the dual.



- Simplification of logical functions
- Why?
- To use the <u>fewest</u> possible components;
- To simplify the wiring diagram as much as possible by reducing the number of logic gates used → reducing the circuit cost.
- Therefore, it is necessary to find the minimal form of the considered logical expression, and for that, we must:
  - $\blacktriangleright$  Reduce the number of terms in a function;
  - $\succ$  Reduce the number of variables in a term.

- Three methods:
  - 1. Algebraic (using properties and theorems)
  - 2. Graphic (Karnaugh maps; ...)
  - 3. Programmable (Quine-McCluskey method)
- Algebraic Simplification This method does not have a specific approach; its principle is to apply the rules of Boolean algebra to eliminate variables or terms.

Thus, this simplification technique relies on the use of **fundamental theorems** and **properties** of Boolean algebra.

After finding the algebraic expression of the function, the next step is to minimize the number of terms in a function to obtain a smaller circuit, hence easier to construct with reduced cost.

Algebraic simplification is based on various actions; however, when the function is more complex (beyond three variables), this simplification method becomes less authentic.

- Supprimer les associations de termes multiples.
- Mettre en facteur des variables pour éliminer plusieurs termes.
- Mettre en facteur des variables pour faire apparaître des termes inclus.
- Ajouter un terme qui existe déjà à une expression logique.

- Eliminate associations of multiple terms.
- Factorize variables to eliminate multiple terms.
- Factorize variables to reveal included terms.
- Add a term that already exists to a logical expression.

- Some fundamental rules:
- Rule 1: In a sum, all multiples of a fundamental term can be eliminated. X + XY = X.
- Rule 2: (Absorption): In the sum of a term and a multiple of its complement, the complement can be eliminated.  $X + \overline{X}Y = X + Y$
- Rule 3: Assembly terms using the rules of Boolean algebra.

 $\overrightarrow{ABC} + \overrightarrow{ABC} + \overrightarrow{ABCD} = \overrightarrow{AB}(C + \overrightarrow{C}) + \overrightarrow{ABCD}$  $= \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{ABCD} = \overrightarrow{A}(B + \overrightarrow{B}(CD))$  $= \overrightarrow{A}(B + \overrightarrow{CD}) = \overrightarrow{AB} + \overrightarrow{ACD}$ 

- Rule 4: Add an existing term to an expression.  $A B C + \overline{ABC} + A\overline{BC} + A\overline{BC} =$   $= \overline{ABC} + \overline{ABC} + \overline{ABC} + A\overline{BC} + A\overline{BC} + A\overline{BC} + A\overline{BC}$  $= BC + AC + A\overline{BC}$
- Rule 5: It is possible to eliminate an unnecessary term (an extra term), meaning it is already included in the union of the other term F(A, B, C) = AB + BC + AC

$$= AB + BC + AC (B + B)$$
  
= AB + BC + ACB + ABC  
= AB + BC + ACB + ABC  
= AB (1+C) + BC (1+A)  
= AB + BC

• Rule 6: It is preferable to simplify the canonical form using the minimum number of terms.

F(A, B, C) = R(2,3,4,5,6,7)  $\overline{F(A, B, C)} = R(0,1) = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C} + \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot C$   $= \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} (\overline{C} + C)$   $= \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} = \overline{A + B}$   $F(A, B, C) = \overline{F(A, B, C)} = \overline{A + B} = A + B$ 

$$A \cdot B + \overline{A} \cdot B = B$$

$$A + A \cdot B = A$$

$$A + \overline{A} \cdot B = A + B$$

$$(A + B) (A + \overline{B}) = A$$

$$A \cdot (A + B) = A$$

$$A \cdot (\overline{A} + B) = A$$

• Example 1: Simplify the following expression using the rules of Boolean algebra.

 $F(A, B, C) = (A + B + C) \cdot (\overline{A} + B + C) + A \cdot B + B \cdot C$ =  $[A \cdot \overline{A} + (B + C)] + A \cdot B + B \cdot C$ =  $B + C + A \cdot B + B \cdot C$ =  $B \cdot (1 + A) + C \cdot (1 + B)$ = B + C

• Example 2: Simplify the following expression using the rules of Boolean algebra.

 $F(A, B, C) = \overline{A + B} + \overline{A} + \overline{C} + \overline{A} + \overline{C}$  $= (A + B).(\overline{A} + \overline{C}) + \overline{A}.\overline{C}$  $= A.\overline{A} + A.\overline{C} + \overline{A}.B + B.\overline{C} + \overline{A}.\overline{C}$  $= \overline{C}.(A + \overline{A} + B) + \overline{A}.B \text{ Because : A + \overline{A} = 1 et 1 + B = 1}$  $= \overline{A}.B + \overline{C}$ 

• Example 3: Simplify the following expression using the rules of Boolean algebra.

$$\begin{split} F(A, B, C, D) &= (\overline{A}.B + A.B + A.\overline{B}).(C.\overline{D} + \overline{C}.\overline{D}) + \overline{C}.D.(\overline{A}.B + A.B) \\ &= [B.(A + \overline{A}) + A.(B + \overline{B})].[\overline{D}.(C + \overline{C})] + \overline{C}.D.[B.(A + \overline{A})] \\ &= (A + B).\overline{D} + B.\overline{C}.D \\ &= A.\overline{D} + B.(\overline{D} + D.\overline{C}) \qquad X + \overline{X}Y = X + Y \\ &= A.\overline{D} + B.\overline{D} + B.\overline{C} \end{split}$$

End of Part 01 of Chapter 04