

# Chapter 2

## Counters

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## I. Definitions

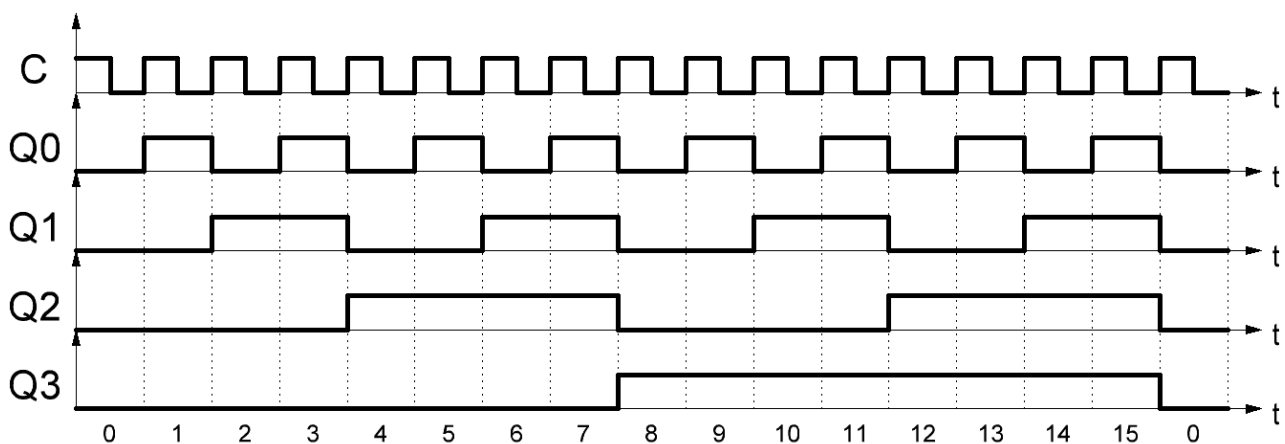
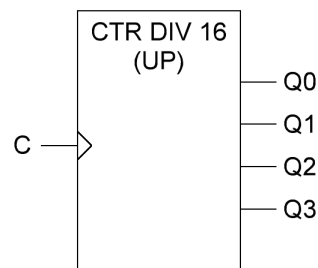
### 1. Binary Up Counters

A binary up counter is a sequential circuit with a clock input and an  $n$ -bit output. This output represents a natural binary number, which is incremented by one each time the counter is clocked.

We say that an up counter is ‘modulo  $m$ ’ when it counts from  $0$  to  $m - 1$ . For instance:

- A modulo-8 up counter counts from 0 to 7.
- A modulo-10 up counter counts from 0 to 9.
- A modulo-16 up counter counts from 0 to 15.

Example of a modulo-16 up counter:



It is noteworthy that an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **falling edge** of the previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ):

- $Q1$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q0$ .
- $Q2$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q1$ .
- $Q3$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q2$ .

#### Notes:

- A ‘modulo-10 up counter’ can also be called: ‘decade counter’, ‘decimal counter’ or ‘BCD counter’.
- A ‘modulo- $m$  up counter’ with  $m = 2^n$  is a ‘**full-sequence counter**’.
- A ‘modulo- $m$  up counter’ with  $m \neq 2^n$  is a ‘**truncated-sequence counter**’.

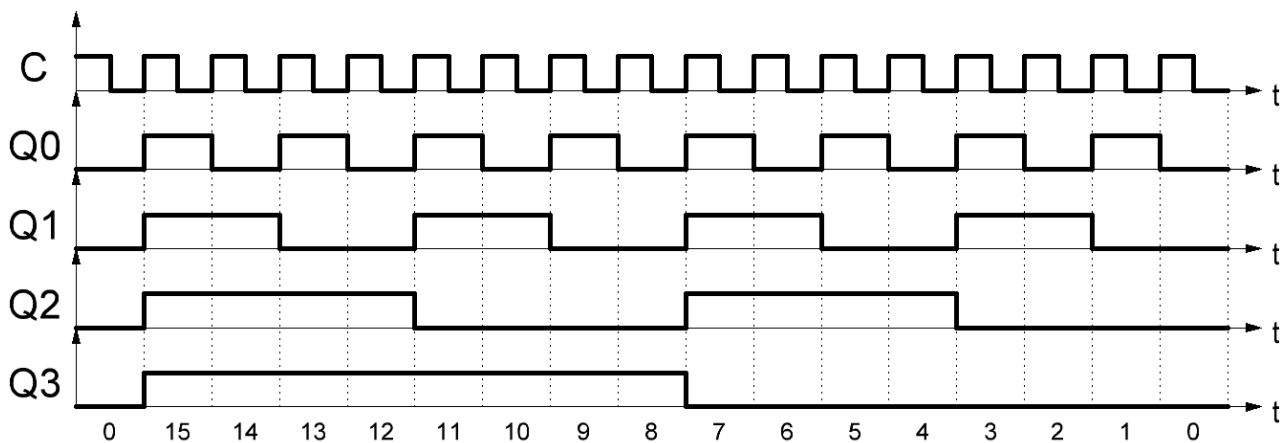
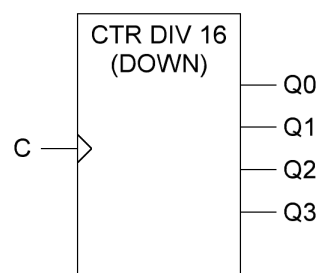
## 2. Binary Down Counters

A binary down counter is a sequential circuit with a clock input and an  $n$ -bit output. This output represents a natural binary number, which is decremented by one each time the counter is clocked.

We say that a down counter is ‘modulo  $m$ ’ when it counts backwards from  $m - 1$  to  $0$ . For instance:

- A modulo-8 down counter counts backwards from 7 to 0.
- A modulo-10 down counter counts backwards from 9 to 0.
- A modulo-16 down counter counts backwards from 15 to 0.

Example of a modulo-16 down counter:



It is noteworthy that an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **rising edge** of the previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ):

- $Q1$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q0$ .
- $Q2$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q1$ .
- $Q3$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q2$ .

### Notes:

- A ‘modulo-10 down counter’ can also be called: ‘decade down counter’, ‘decimal down counter’ or ‘BCD down counter’.
- A ‘modulo- $m$  down counter’ with  $m = 2^n$  is a **‘full-sequence down counter’**.
- A ‘modulo- $m$  down counter’ with  $m \neq 2^n$  is a **‘truncated-sequence down counter’**.

### **3. Other Types of Counters**

Actually, a counter can count through any arbitrary sequence. A sequence is not necessarily a natural binary sequence. For instance, a Gray (up) counter counts through the Gray code. A sequence can also be designed to satisfy the special needs of a circuit.

## II. Designing Asynchronous Counters

### 1. Principle

In a binary counter (up or down), the frequency of an output ( $Q_n$ ) is half the frequency of its previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ):

- The frequency of  $Q1$  is half the frequency of  $Q0$ .
- The frequency of  $Q2$  is half the frequency of  $Q1$ .
- And so forth.

The frequencies are successively divided by two (see the [timing diagram](#) of a binary up counter – [I.1 above](#)). This can also be seen in a natural binary sequence:

Q2	Q1	Q0
0	0	0 ↓
0	0	↓ 1
0	1	0
0	↓ 1	1
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	1

Therefore, the key principle of a counter is to divide frequencies by two. This can be easily achieved by connecting divide-by-two circuits in series.

Now, we have to understand what a divide-by-two circuit is and how it can be built.

### 2. Divide-by-Two Circuits or Toggle Flip-Flops

A divide-by-two circuit, **commonly called a ‘toggle flip-flop’**, divides the frequency of its input by two. There are several ways to build one; the most common include either a D or a JK flip-flop:

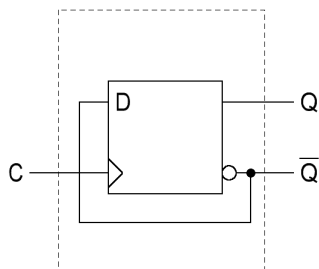


Figure 1

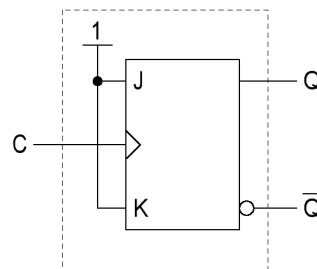
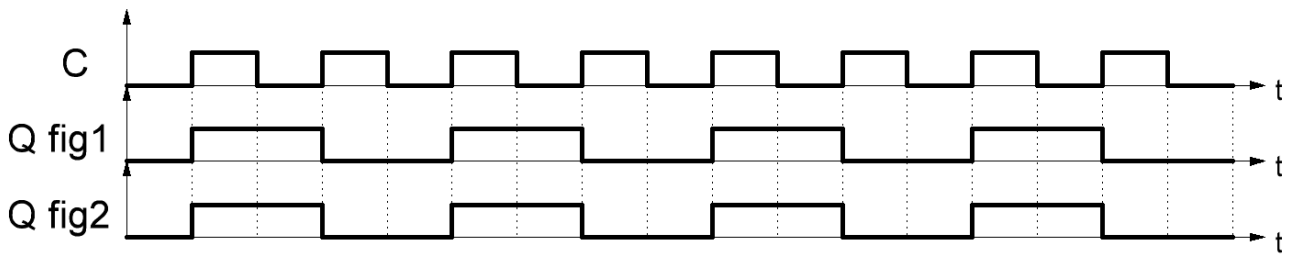
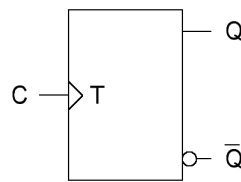


Figure 2

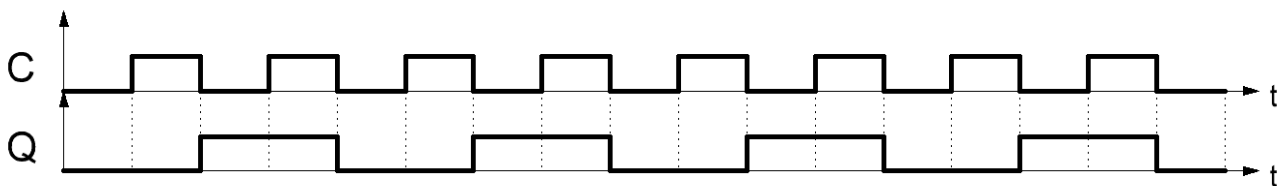
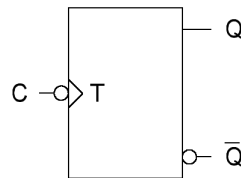
The timing diagrams of these two circuits are identical:



We can associate the toggle flip-flop with the following circuit symbol:

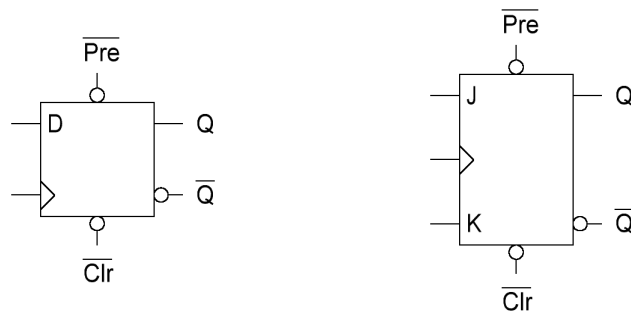


This toggle flip-flop is positive-edge-triggered, but if we use a D or JK negative-edge-triggered flip-flop, we can build a negative-edge-triggered toggle flip-flop. Its circuit symbol and timing diagram are as follows:

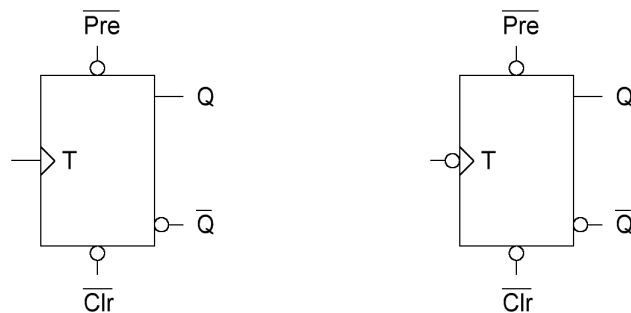


D or JK flip-flops usually come with two asynchronous active-low inputs called  $\overline{clear}$  and  $\overline{preset}$  (or  $\overline{reset}$  and  $\overline{set}$ ). In normal operation, both of these inputs are 1s. When  $\overline{preset} = 0$ ,  $Q$  is set to 1, and when  $\overline{clear} = 0$ ,  $Q$  is reset to 0. These inputs are unconditional, that is to say they override every other input of the flip-flop.

Their symbols are as follows:



Therefore, we can add these inputs to our toggle flip-flops:



These preset and clear inputs are not always required. Thus, when we do not need them, we will not represent them on diagrams assuming that they will always be inactive ( $\overline{clear} = \overline{preset} = 1$ ).

### 3. Full-Sequence Counters

#### 3.1. Up Counters

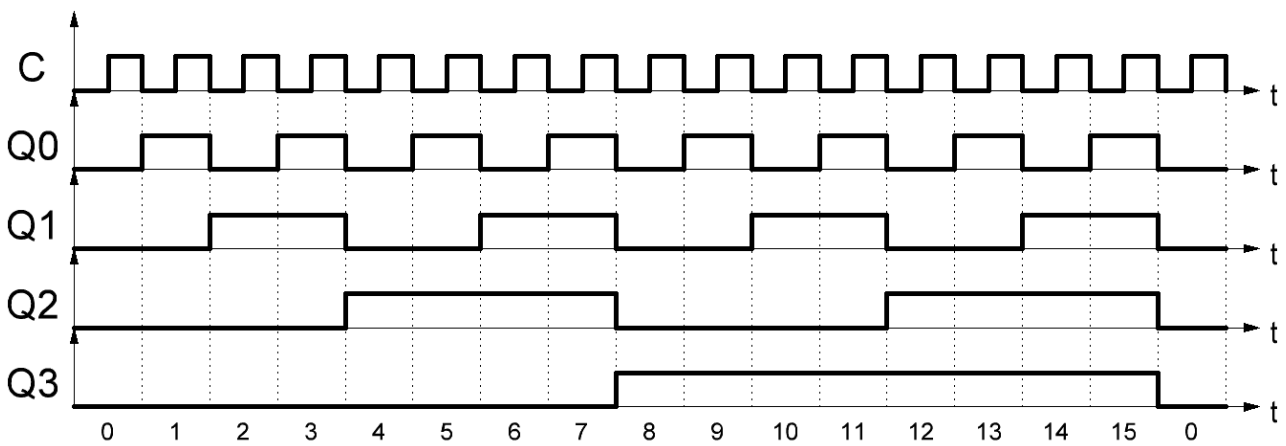
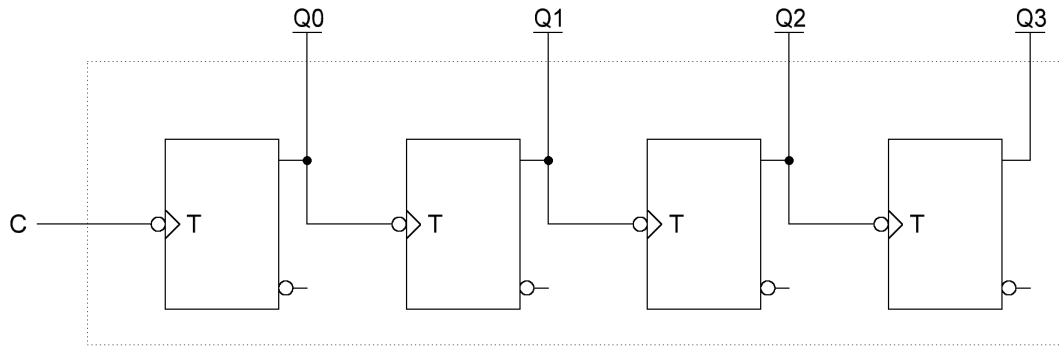
A full-sequence up counter is an  $n$ -bit up counter with a modulo of  $2^n$ . It cycles through the natural binary sequence from 0 to  $2^n - 1$ .

To design an  $n$ -bit up counter, we need  $n$  toggle flip-flops. Then, we should connect them in series so that an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **falling edge** of its previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ).

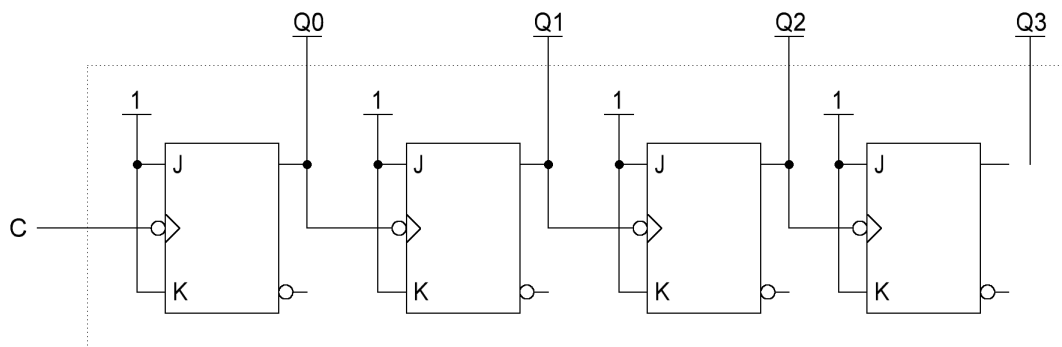
For instance, to design a 4-bit up counter, we should connect 4 toggle flip-flops in series so that:

- $Q_1$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q_0$ .
- $Q_2$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q_1$ .
- $Q_3$  toggles on each **falling edge** of  $Q_2$ .

If we use negative-edge-triggered flip-flops, this is what the circuit and timing diagrams should look like:

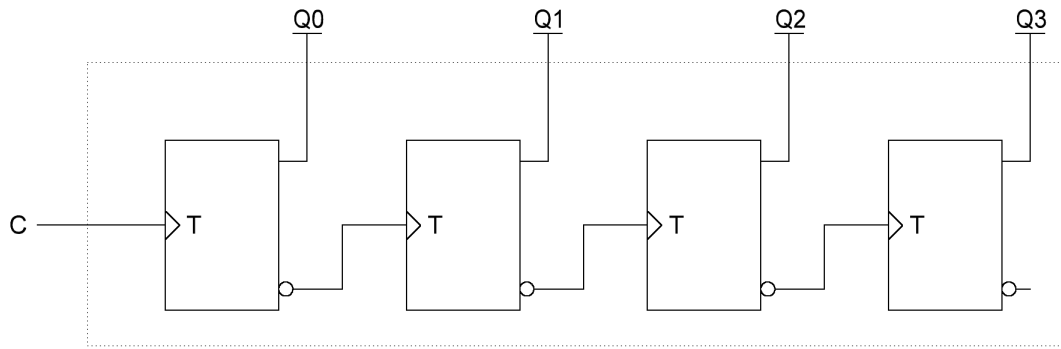


For example, if the toggle flip-flops are made up of JK flip-flops, the circuit diagram is as follows:





Of course, we can also use positive-edge-triggered flip-flops:

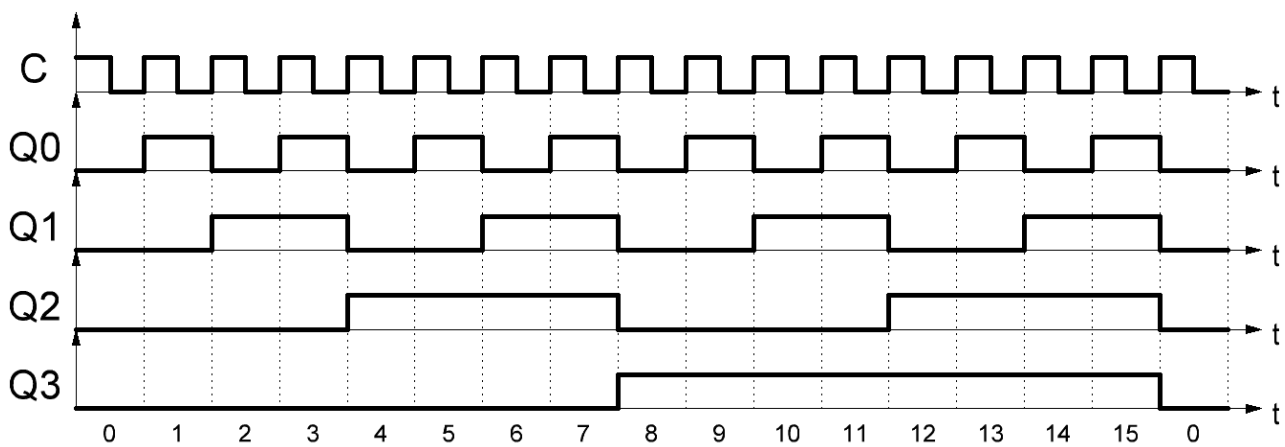


The circuit above is still an up counter because:

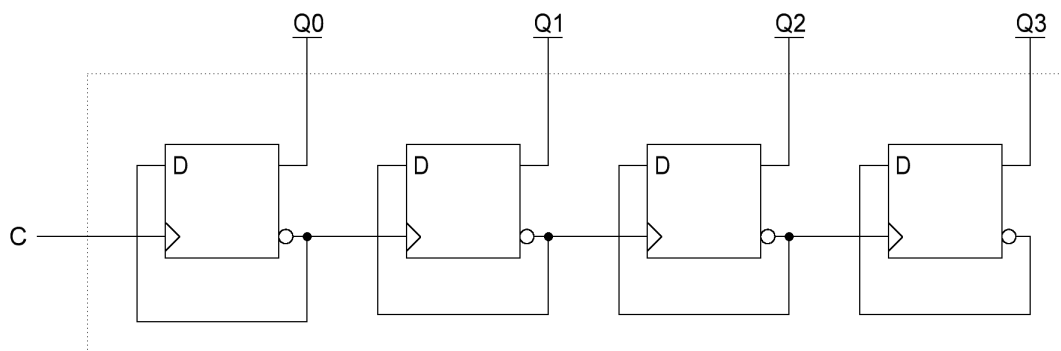
- $Q1$  toggles on each rising edge of  $\overline{Q0}$  (that is to say, on each **falling edge** of  $Q0$ ).
- $Q2$  toggles on each rising edge of  $\overline{Q1}$  (that is to say, on each **falling edge** of  $Q1$ ).
- $Q3$  toggles on each rising edge of  $\overline{Q2}$  (that is to say, on each **falling edge** of  $Q2$ ).

It is noteworthy that in an up counter, there is always **one bubble** on the wire that connects an output ( $Q_n$  or  $\overline{Q}_n$ ) to the next clock input.

Here is the timing diagram:



For example, if the toggle flip-flops are made up of D flip-flops, the circuit diagram is as follows:



### 3.2. Down Counters

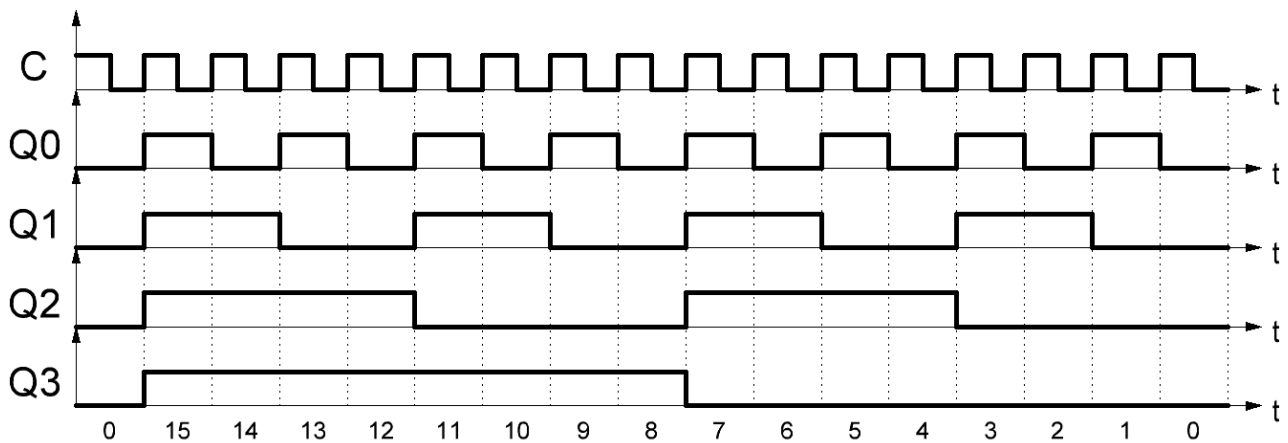
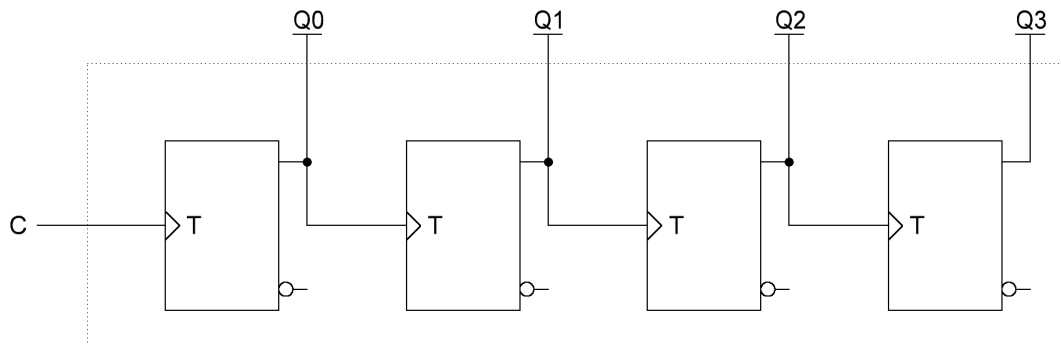
A full-sequence down counter is an  $n$ -bit down counter with a modulo of  $2^n$ . It cycles through the natural binary sequence from  $2^n - 1$  to 0.

To design an  $n$ -bit down counter, we need  $n$  toggle flip-flops. Then, we connect them in series so that an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **rising edge** of its previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ).

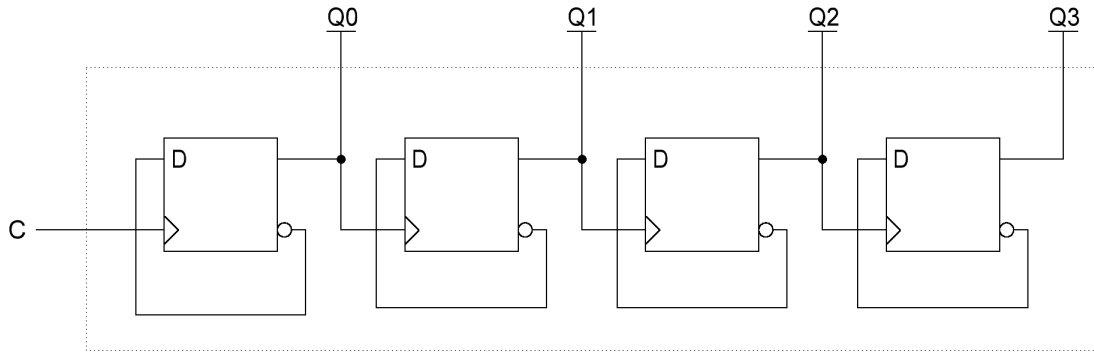
For instance, to design a 4-bit down counter, we should connect 4 toggle flip-flops in series so that:

- $Q1$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q0$ .
- $Q2$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q1$ .
- $Q3$  toggles on each **rising edge** of  $Q2$ .

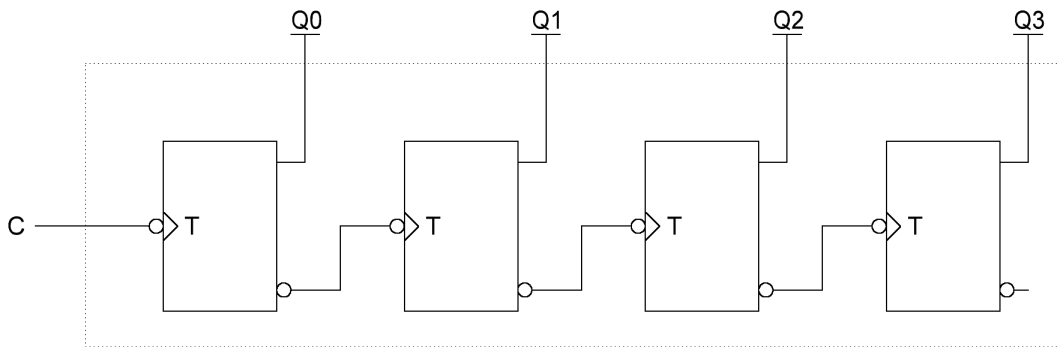
If we use positive-edge-triggered flip-flops, this is what the circuit and timing diagrams should look like:



For example, if the toggle flip-flops are made up of D flip-flops, the circuit diagram is as follows:



Of course, we can also use negative-edge-triggered flip-flops:

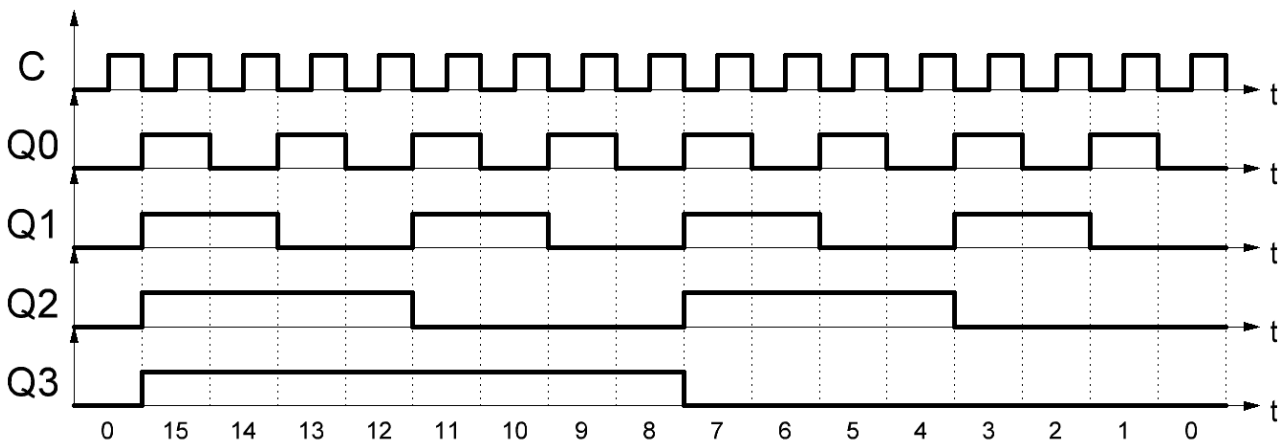


The circuit above is still a down counter because:

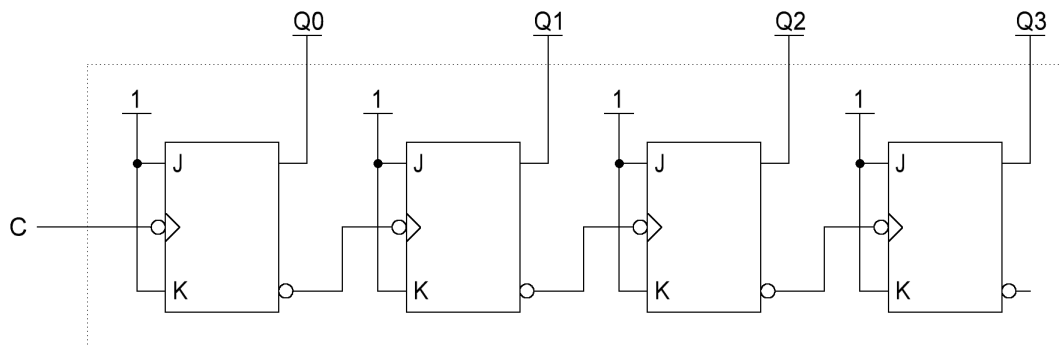
- $Q1$  toggles on each falling edge of  $\overline{Q0}$  (that is to say, on each **rising edge** of  $Q0$ ).
- $Q2$  toggles on each falling edge of  $\overline{Q1}$  (that is to say, on each **rising edge** of  $Q1$ ).
- $Q3$  toggles on each falling edge of  $\overline{Q2}$  (that is to say, on each **rising edge** of  $Q2$ ).

It is noteworthy that in a down counter, there are either **two bubbles or none at all** on the wire that connects an output ( $Q_n$  or  $\overline{Q}_n$ ) to the next clock input.

Here is the timing diagram:



For example, if the toggle flip-flops are made up of JK flip-flops, the circuit diagram is as follows:



## 4. Truncated-Sequence Counters

### 4.1. Up Counters

A truncated-sequence up counter is an  $n$ -bit up counter with a modulo lower than  $2^n$ . It cycles through the natural binary sequence from 0 to a value lower than  $2^n - 1$ .

The first step in designing a truncated-sequence counter is to build a full-sequence counter. Then, the value of the modulo must be detected and replaced by the value 0.

For instance, a modulo-11 up counter is a truncated-sequence counter because it requires a 4-bit output, which has 16 combinations, when only 11 are needed. In other words, it cycles through from 0 to 10 instead of cycling through from 0 to 15.

To design it, we have to build a modulo-16 up counter and replace the value 11 by the value 0:

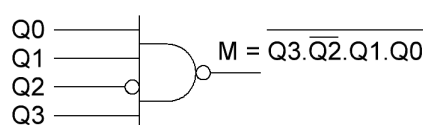
Mod-16:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	<b>11</b>	12	13	14	15
Mod-11:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	<b>0</b>	1	2	3	4

↑

The value 11 must be replaced by the value 0.

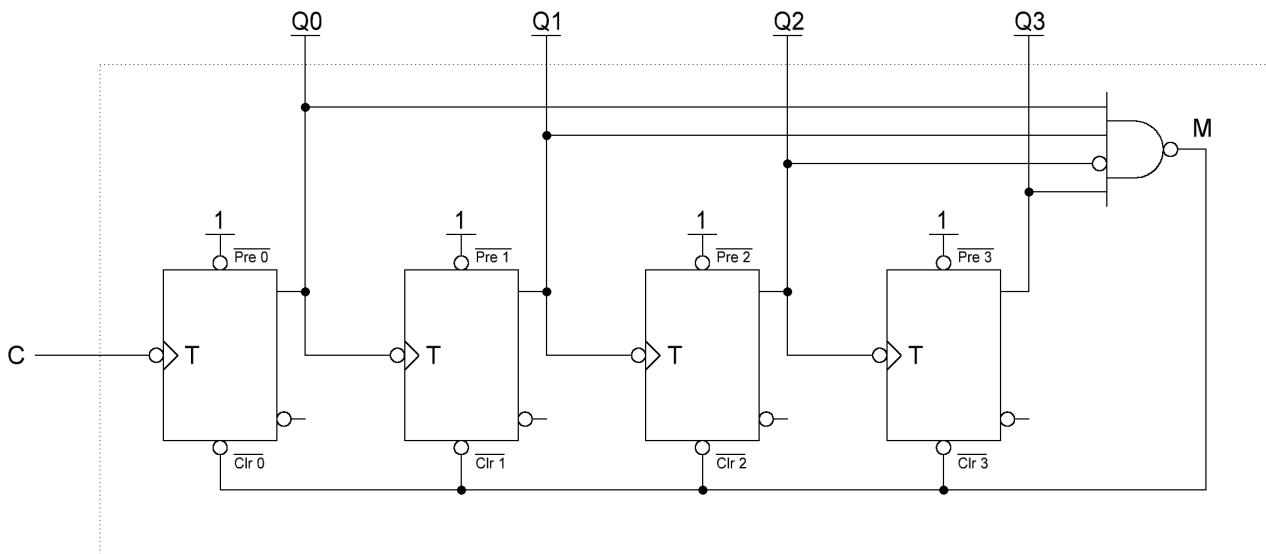
To set the 4-bit output of the counter to 0, we can use the asynchronous active-low clear inputs ( $\overline{clear}$ ).

To detect the value 11 we can use a 4-input NAND gate. The output of the NAND gate is called  $M$ :

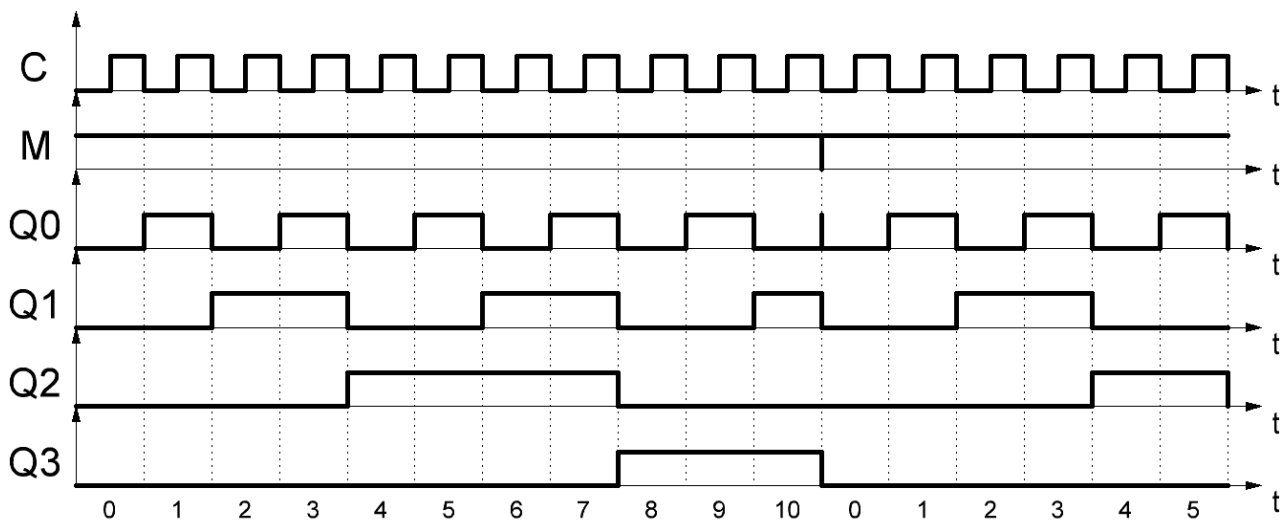


$$M = 0 \text{ if and only if } Q_{3:0} = 1011_2 = 11_{10}.$$

If we use negative-edge-triggered flip-flops, this is what the circuit diagram should look like:



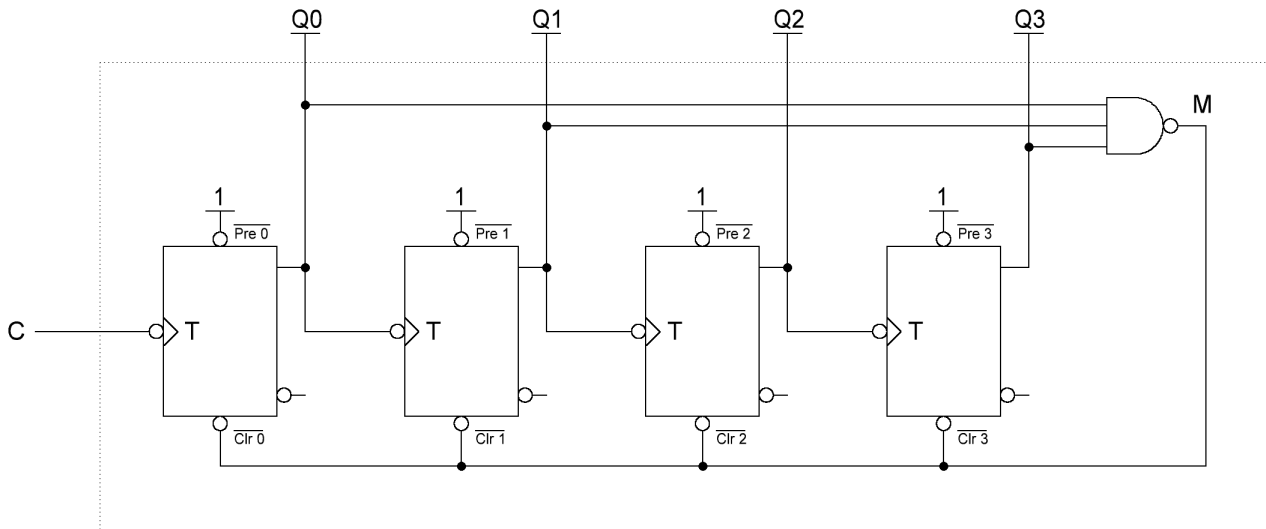
As soon as the counter reaches 11,  $M$  is set to 0. Therefore, the clear inputs become active and the outputs are reset to 0. Then,  $M$  goes back to 1, the clear inputs become inactive and the counter resumes counting.



The value 11 exists momentarily and will be long enough to reset all the flip-flops to 0. In practice, the reset pulse lasts a few nanoseconds and is related to the performance of the components.

We can optimize the detection of 11 slightly. It can be noticed that  $Q3 = Q1 = Q0 = 1$  when the output is either 11 ( $Q2 = 0$ ) or 15 ( $Q2 = 1$ ). Since 15 never appears in our sequence, we can conclude that when  $Q3 = Q1 = Q0 = 1$ , the output of the counter is 11. In other words, the value of  $Q2$  is irrelevant in this case.

After being optimized, here is what the circuit diagram should look like:



### 4.2. Down Counters

A truncated-sequence down counter is an  $n$ -bit down counter with a modulo lower than  $2^n$ . It cycles through the natural binary sequence from a value lower than  $2^n - 1$  to 0.

The first step in designing a truncated-sequence down counter is to build a full-sequence down counter. Then, the maximum value must be detected and replaced by the value of the modulo minus 1.

For instance, a modulo-11 down counter is a truncated-sequence counter because it requires a 4-bit output, which has 16 combinations, when only 11 are needed. In other words, it cycles through from 10 to 0 instead of cycling through from 15 to 0.

To design it, we have to build a modulo-16 down counter and replace the value 15 by the value 10:

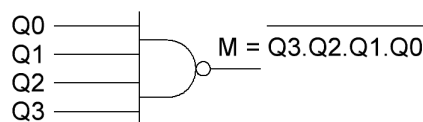
Mod-16:	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	15	14	13	12	11
Mod-11:	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	10	9	8	7	6

↑

The value 15 must be replaced by the value 10.

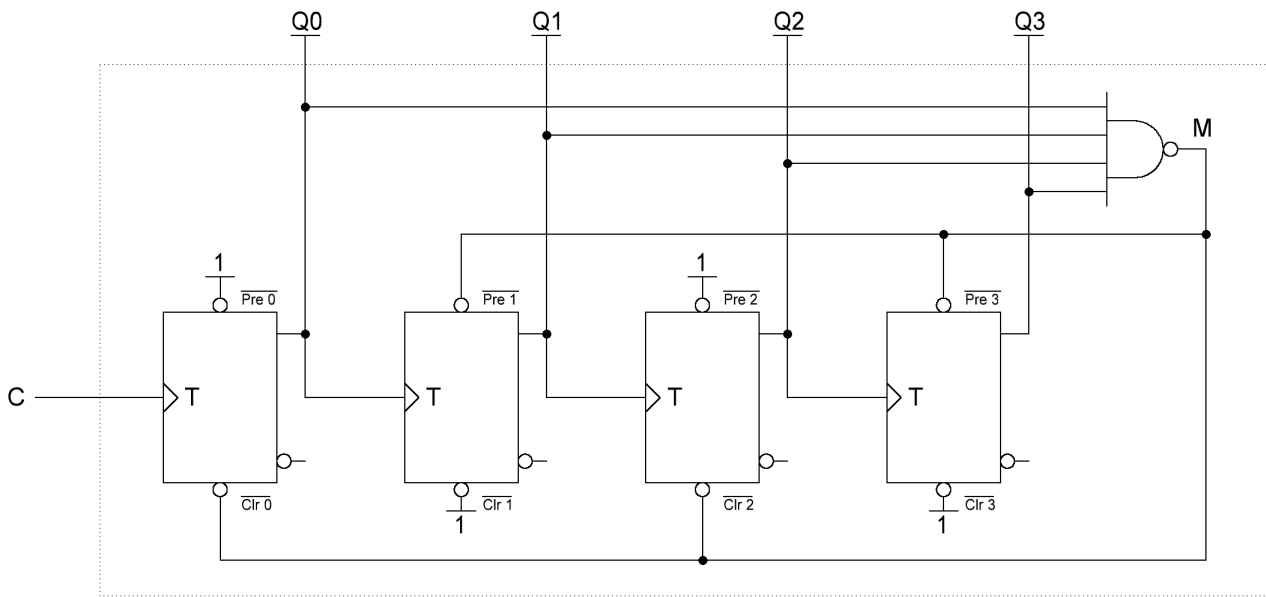
To set the 4-bit output of the counter to 10, we can use the asynchronous active-low preset and clear inputs (*preset* and *clear*).

To detect the value 15 we can use a 4-input NAND gate. The output of the NAND gate is called  $M$ :

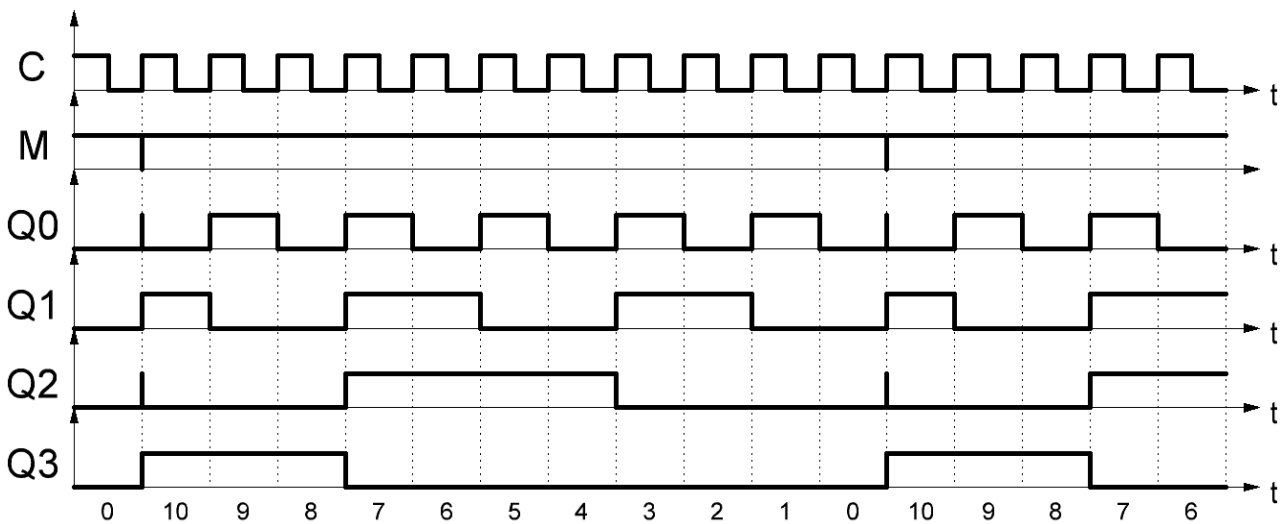


$$M = 0 \text{ if and only if } Q_{3:0} = 1111_2 = 15_{10}.$$

If we use positive-edge-triggered flip-flops, this is what the circuit diagram should look like:



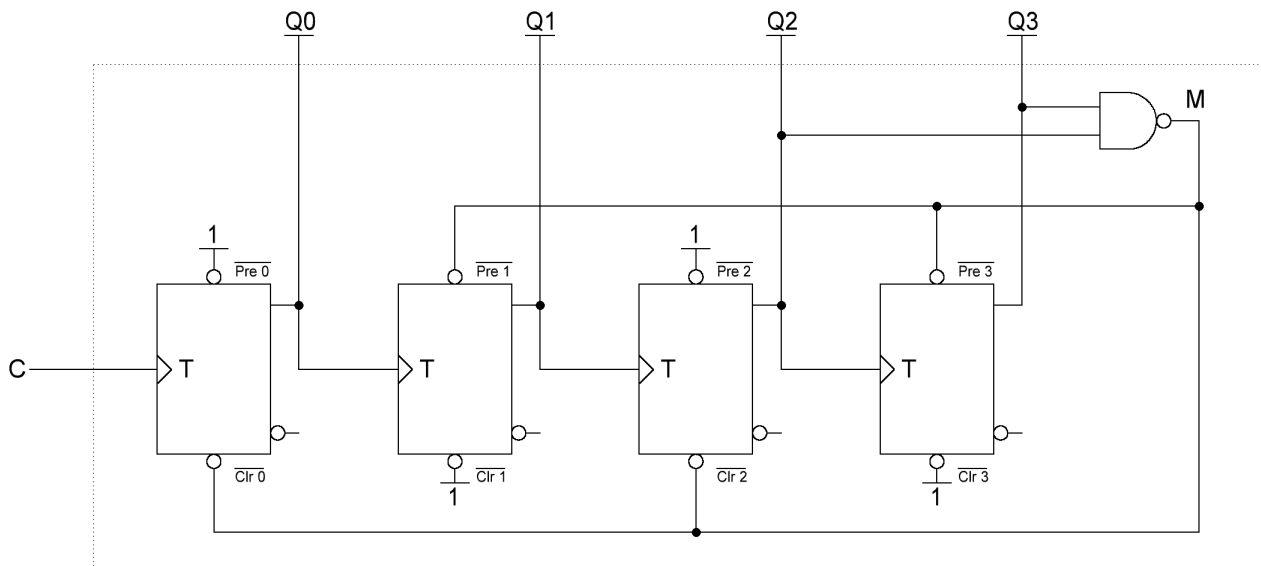
As soon as the counter reaches 15,  $M$  is set to 0. Therefore,  $Q0$  and  $Q2$  are reset to 0 and  $Q1$  and  $Q3$  are set to 1; that is to say the 4-bit output is set to 10 ( $10_{10} = 1010_2$ ). Then,  $M$  goes back to 1, the preset and clear inputs become inactive and the down counter resumes counting.



The value 15 exists momentarily and will be long enough to set the 4-bit output to 10. In practice, the set and reset pulses last a few nanoseconds and are related to the performance of the components.

We can optimize the detection of 15 slightly. It can be noticed that  $Q3 = Q2 = 1$  when the output is greater than or equal to 12. Since 12, 13 and 14 never appear in our sequence, we can conclude that when  $Q3 = Q2 = 1$ , the output of the counter is 15. In other words, the values of  $Q0$  and  $Q1$  are irrelevant in this case.

After being optimized, here is what the circuit diagram should look like:



## 5. Summary

- To design an asynchronous (up or down) counter you have to connect toggle flip-flops in series. The output of the first flip-flop triggers the output of the second flip-flop, the output of the second flip-flop triggers the output of the third flip-flop and so forth. This is why this type of counter is also called a ‘rippled counter’.
- In an up counter, an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **falling edge** of the previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ). This can be achieved by connecting  $Q_n$  or  $\overline{Q}_n$  to the next clock input so that there is only one bubble on the wire.
- In a down counter, an output ( $Q_n$ ) toggles on each **rising edge** of the previous output ( $Q_{n-1}$ ). This can be achieved by connecting  $Q_n$  or  $\overline{Q}_n$  to the next clock input so that there are either two bubbles or none at all on the wire.
- To design a truncated-sequence up counter, the value of the modulo must be detected and replaced by 0.
- To design a truncated-sequence down counter, the maximum value of the  $n$ -bit output ( $2^n - 1$ ) must be detected and replaced by the value of the modulo minus 1.



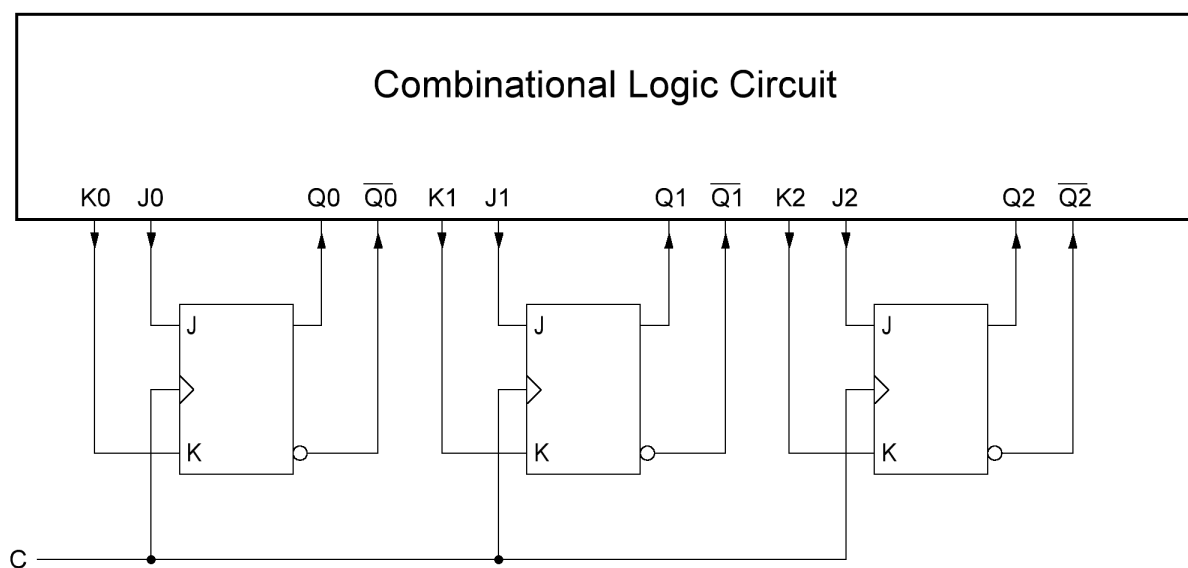
### III. Designing Synchronous Counters

#### 1. Principle

A synchronous counter is made up of several D or JK flip-flops that are all connected to the same clock signal. Therefore, every output changes at the same time.

The inputs and outputs of the flip-flops are connected to a combinational logic circuit, which is designed to generate a particular sequence. Any arbitrary sequence is possible.

For instance, let us take three JK flip-flops:



The outputs of the flip-flops are the inputs of the combinational logic circuit; and the outputs of the combinational logic circuit are the inputs of the flip-flops.

Designing the combinational logic circuit comes down to determining the expressions of its outputs ( $K_0$ ,  $J_0$ ,  $K_1$ ,  $J_1$ , etc.) in terms of its inputs ( $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$ , etc.).

To do this, we need to use excitation tables.

#### 2. Excitation Tables

An excitation table displays the input states required to have a given output transition.

## 2.1. The Excitation Table of a JK Flip-Flop

The excitation table of a JK flip-flop can be deduced from the truth table of a JK flip-flop.

	Q(t)	Q(t+1)	J	K
①▶	0	0	0	Φ
②▶	0	1	1	Φ
③▶	1	0	Φ	1
④▶	1	1	Φ	0

	C	J	K	Q	
①▶	↑	0	0	q	◀④
①▶	↑	0	1	0	◀③
②▶	↑	1	0	1	◀④
②▶	↑	1	1	$\bar{q}$	◀③

To determine the states of  $J$  and  $K$  for each line, you have to answer the following question: what could the states of  $J$  and  $K$  be when the output changes from  $Q(t)$  to  $Q(t+1)$ ?

- Line ① : Transition of  $Q$  from 0 to 0
- no change ( $J = 0, K = 0$ )
  - reset to 0 ( $J = 0, K = 1$ )
- Line ② : Transition of  $Q$  from 0 to 1
- toggle ( $J = 1, K = 1$ )
  - set to 1 ( $J = 1, K = 0$ )
- Line ③ : Transition of  $Q$  from 1 to 0
- toggle ( $J = 1, K = 1$ )
  - reset to 0 ( $J = 0, K = 1$ )
- Line ④ : Transition of  $Q$  from 1 to 1
- no change ( $J = 0, K = 0$ )
  - set to 1 ( $J = 1, K = 0$ )

## 2.2. The Excitation Table of a D Flip-Flop

The excitation table of a D flip-flop is very easy to obtain because a D flip-flop copies the value from the input  $D$  to the output  $Q$ .

Q(t)	Q(t+1)	D
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

To determine the state of  $D$  for each line, you have to answer the following question: what could the state of  $D$  be when the output changes from  $Q(t)$  to  $Q(t+1)$ ? Obviously:  $Q(t+1) = D$ .

### 3. Synchronous Counters Using JK Flip-Flops

We can design any arbitrary sequence as long as there are no identical combinations.

Let us take the example below:

We want to design a synchronous counter that cycles through the following sequence:

Q2	Q1	Q0
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	1
1	1	0
0	1	0
0	1	1

Using the excitation table, we can determine the inputs of the JK flip-flops.

Q2	Q1	Q0	J2	K2	J1	K1	J0	K0
1	0	0	$\Phi$	0	0	$\Phi$	1	$\Phi$
1	0	1	$\Phi$	0	1	$\Phi$	$\Phi$	0
1	1	1	$\Phi$	0	$\Phi$	0	$\Phi$	1
1	1	0	$\Phi$	1	$\Phi$	0	0	$\Phi$
0	1	0	0	$\Phi$	$\Phi$	0	1	$\Phi$
0	1	1	1	$\Phi$	$\Phi$	1	$\Phi$	1

According to the excitation table of a JK flip-flop, when Q0 rises from 0 to 1, J0 is 1 and K0 is either 0 or 1.

From this table, we can now determine the most simplified expressions of  $J0$ ,  $K0$ ,  $J1$ ,  $K1$ ,  $J2$  and  $K2$  in terms of  $Q0$ ,  $Q1$  and  $Q2$ .

- In an obvious way:
  - $K0 = Q1$
  - $J1 = Q0$
  - $J2 = Q0$

- Using Karnaugh maps:

		Q1 Q0			
		00	01	11	10
Q2	0	Φ	Φ	Φ	1
	1	1	Φ	Φ	0

$J0 = \overline{Q1} + \overline{Q2}$

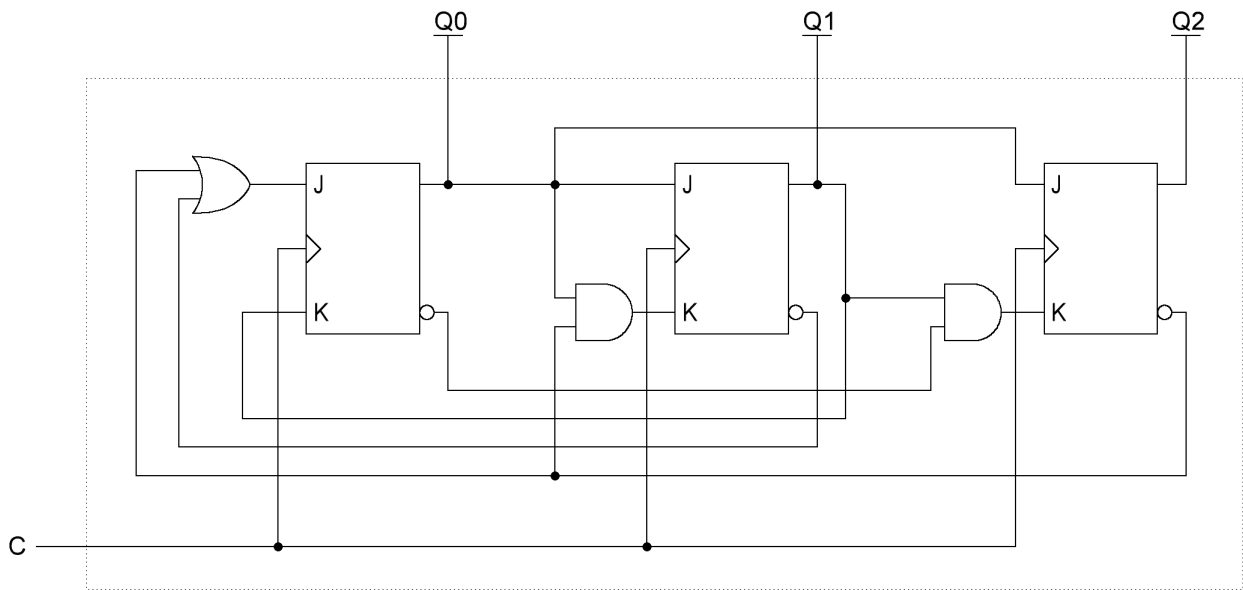
		Q1 Q0			
		00	01	11	10
Q2	0	Φ	Φ	1	0
	1	Φ	Φ	0	0

$K1 = Q0 \cdot \overline{Q2}$

		Q1 Q0			
		00	01	11	10
Q2	0	Φ	Φ	Φ	Φ
	1	0	0	0	1

$K2 = \overline{Q0} \cdot Q1$

Here is what the circuit diagram should look like:



We can use either positive- or negative-edge-triggered flip-flop, depending on which edge we want to synchronize the counter with.

## 4. Synchronous Counters Using D Flip-Flops

The method of designing a synchronous counter using D flip-flops is very similar to the method using JK flip-flops. You just have to replace the  $J$  and  $K$  inputs by the  $D$  inputs. We can design any arbitrary sequence as long as there are no identical combinations.

Let us take the example below:

We want to design a modulo-8 synchronous counter that cycles through the following sequence:

Q2	Q1	Q0
0	0	0
0	0	1
0	1	0
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	1

Using the excitation table, we can determine the inputs of the D flip-flops.

Q2	Q1	Q0	D2	D1	D0
0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	0

According to the excitation table of a D flip-flop, when Q0 rises from 0 to 1, D0 is 1.

From this table, we can now determine the most simplified expressions of  $D0$ ,  $D1$ , and  $D2$  in terms of  $Q0$ ,  $Q1$  and  $Q2$ .

- In an obvious way:
  - $D0 = \overline{Q0}$

- Using Karnaugh maps:

		Q1 Q0			
D1		00	01	11	10
Q2	0	0	1	0	1
	1	0	1	0	1

$$D1 = \overline{Q0}.Q1 + Q0.\overline{Q1}$$

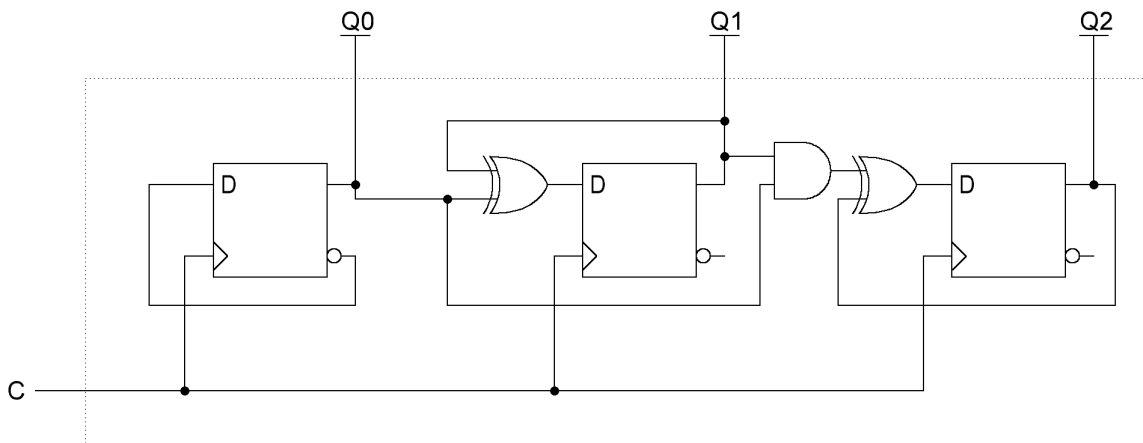
		Q1 Q0			
D2		00	01	11	10
Q2	0	0	0	1	0
	1	1	1	0	1

$$D2 = \overline{Q2}.Q1.Q0 + Q2.\overline{Q1} + Q2.Q0$$

These expressions can be simplified once more using EXCLUSIVE OR.

- $D1 = Q0 \oplus Q1$
- $D2 = \overline{Q2}.Q1.Q0 + Q2.(\overline{Q1} + \overline{Q0})$   
 $D2 = \overline{Q2}.Q1.Q0 + Q2.(\overline{Q1.Q0})$   
 $D2 = Q2 \oplus (Q1.Q0)$

Here is what the circuit diagram should look like:



We can use either positive- or negative-edge-triggered flip-flop, depending on which edge we want to synchronize the counter with.