

## Glossary of Common Terms

- SEQUENTIAL LOGIC CIRCUIT next output depends on its present inputs and its present state
- STATE collection of state variables whose values at any one time contain all the information about the past necessary to account for the circuit's future behavior
- BI-STABLE a logic device with two stable states
- LATCH sequential circuit that watches all of its inputs continuously and changes its outputs at any time it is enabled to do so (independent of a clocking signal)

## **Glossary of Common Terms**

- FLIP-FLOP sequential circuit that samples its inputs and *changes its outputs* <u>only</u> at times determined by a clocking signal
- FEEDBACK SEQUENTIAL CIRCUIT uses ordinary gates and feedback loops to create sequential circuit building blocks such as latches and flip-flops
- CLOCKED SYNCHRONOUS STATE MACHINE uses latches or flip-flops to create circuits whose inputs are examined and whose outputs change state in accordance with a controlling clock signal

## **Glossary of Common Terms**

- PRESENT STATE NEXT STATE ("NEXT STATE" or "PS-NS") EQUATIONS – equations that describe the next state of a sequential circuit based on its present inputs and present state
- CHARACTERISTIC EQUATION a next state equation that characterizes the behavior of a latch or flip-flop
- STATE TRANSITION DIAGRAM a graph that depicts the state transition behavior of a sequential circuit
- TIMING CHART a chart that depicts the timing behavior of a sequential circuit

## Glossary of Common Terms

- EXCITATION EQUATIONS equations that describe the inputs needed by sequential circuit memory elements (latches or flip-flops) to enable the circuit to transition from its present state to the desired next state
- SEQUENCE GENERATOR a state machine that generates a (periodic) pre-defined output pattern of signal assertions
- COUNTER a state machine that has a closed sequence of states
- SEQUENCE RECOGNIZER a state machine that responds to a pre-defined input pattern of signal assertions and produces corresponding output signal assertions

## Module 3

- Learning Outcome: "An ability to analyze and design sequential logic circuits"
  - A. Bi-stable Elements
  - B. Set-Reset (S-R) and Data (D) Latches
  - C. Data (D) and Toggle (T) Flip-Flops D. State Machine Structure and Analysis

  - E. Clocked Synchronous State Machine Synthesis
  - F. State Machine Design Examples: Sequence Generators
  - G. State Machine Design Examples: Counters and Shift Registers H. State Machine Design Examples: Sequence Recognizers



Reading Assignment: DDPP 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 521-526, DDPP 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 495-499 Learning Objectives: • Describe the difference between a combinational logic circuit and a

- Describe the difference between a combinational logic circuit and a sequential logic circuit
- Describe the difference between a feedback sequential circuit and a clocked synchronous state machine
- Define the state of a sequential circuit
- Define active high and active low as it pertains to clocking signals
- Define clock frequency and duty cycle
- Describe the operation of a bi-stable and analyze its behavior
- Define metastability and illustrate how the existence of a metastable equilibrium point can lead to a random next state

## Outline

- Overview
- Finite state machines
- Clock signal properties
- Types of sequential circuits
- Bi-stable elements
  - Digital analysis
  - -Analog analysis
- Metastable behavior

## Overview

- Logic circuits are classified into two types:
  - a combinational logic circuit is one whose outputs depend only on its current inputs
- a sequential logic circuit is one whose outputs depend not only on its current inputs, but also its current state (arrived at by its past sequence of inputs)
- The state of a sequential circuit is a collection of state variables whose values at any one time contain all the information about the past necessary to account for the circuit's future behavior

# **Finite State Machines**

- In a digital logic circuit, state variables are binary values a circuit with n binary state variables has 2<sup>n</sup> possible states
- Since there are a only finite number of states possible, sequential circuits are sometimes called *finite state* machines
- The state changes of most sequential circuits occur at times specified by a free-running CLOCK signal

## **Clock Signal Properties**

- By convention, a CLOCK signal is active high if state changes occur in response to the clock signal's rising edge (or when it is high)
- Similarly, a CLOCK signal is *active low* if state changes occur in response to the clock signal's *falling* edge (or when it is *low*)
- The *clock period* is the time between successive transitions in the same direction
- The *clock frequency* (measured in Hertz, or cycles-persecond) is the *reciprocal* of the clock period
- The *duty cycle* is the percentage of time that the clock signal is at its asserted level



# Types of Sequential Circuits

- There are two basic types of sequential circuits that account for the majority of practical discrete designs: – a feedback sequential circuit uses ordinary gates and feedback loops to create sequential circuit
  - building blocks such as latches and flip-flops
  - a *clocked synchronous state machine* uses latches and flip-flops (in particular, edge-triggered "D" flip-flops) to create circuits whose inputs are examined and whose outputs change state in accordance with a controlling clock signal

# **Bi-stable Elements**

• The "simplest" sequential circuit consists of a pair of inverters forming a feedback loop:



- This element has no inputs and therefore no way of controlling or changing its state
- When power is first applied, it randomly comes up in one state or the other and stays there forever ("not very useful")

# **Digital Analysis of Bi-stable** This circuit is called a bi-stable because, based on (strictly) digital analysis, it has two stable states:

- if Q is HIGH, then the bottom inverter has a high input and a LOW output, which forces the top inverter's output HIGH
- if Q is LOW, then the bottom inverter has a LOW input and a HIGH output, which forces Q to go LÓW
- Based on this analysis, a single state variable ("Q") could be used to describe the state of this circuit





# Analog Analysis of Bi-stable

- The equilibrium points can be found graphically they are the points at which the two transfer functions meet:
  - the two stable equilibrium points correspond to the two states identified in the "digital" analysis, with Q (Q\_L) either "0" (LOW) or "1" (HIGH)
  - the metastable equilibrium point occurs with V<sub>out1</sub> and V<sub>out2</sub> about halfway between a valid logic "1" voltage and a valid logic "0" voltage here, Q and Q\_L are not valid logic signals but the loop equations are satisfied

## Metastable Behavior

• The metastable point is not truly stable, because random noise will tend to drive a circuit operating at the metastable point toward one of the stable operating points







## **Reading Assignment:** *DDPP* 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 526-532, *DDPP* 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 499-504

Learning Objectives:

- Write present state next state (PS-NS) equations that describes the behavior of a sequential circuit
- Draw a state transition diagram that depicts the behavior of a sequential circuit
- Construct a timing diagram that depicts the behavior of a sequential circuit
  Draw a circuit for a set-reset latch and analyze its behavior
- Discuss what is meant by "transparent" (or "data following") in reference to the response of a latch



## Overview

- <u>Definition</u>: A *latch* is a sequential circuit that watches all of its inputs *continuously* and changes its outputs *at any time*
- When a latch is *enabled*, it is "open" (i.e., its outputs "follow" its inputs)
- When a latch is *disabled* (its enable input is negated), it is "closed" (i.e., its outputs are "frozen" or "latched")
- This behavior lends itself to the names "data following" and "transparent"
- <u>Note</u>: Latches do not utilize a "clocking" signal; rather, they are "enabled" to open/close









Exercise					
PS-NS table	:				
Q(t+τ) = R	'(t)•QN	'(t) QI	N(t+τ) ፡	= S′(t)•(	Q'(t)
-	Dros	ent Inn	ute S/t		1
Present State	00	01	40		
	00	01	10	11	
00	11	01	10	11 00	)
00	11 01	01 01 01	10 10 00	00 00	Next State
00 01 10	11 01 10	01 01 00	10 10 00 10	00 00 00	Next State Q(t+τ) QN(t+τ)



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- The propagation delay of a latch is the time it takes for a transition on an input signal to produce a transition on an output signal
- A given latch may have several different propagation delay specifications, one for each pair of input and output signals
- Also, the propagation delay may be different depending on whether the output makes a LOW-to-HIGH or HIGH-to-LOW transition
- <u>Example</u>: t<sub>pLH(S→Q)</sub> is the *rise propagation delay* of the Q output in response to the S input being asserted (latch being "set")





























# Q1. A "D" latch is called transparent because its output:

- A. is always equal to its input
- B. is equal to its input when the latch is closed
- C. is equal to its input when the latch is open
- D. changes state as soon as the latch is clocked
- E. none of the above



## Reading Assignment:

DDPP 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 532-535, 541-542; DDPP 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 504-506, 507-508

#### Learning Objectives:

- Draw a circuit for an edge-triggered data ("D") flip-flop and analyze its behavior
- Compare the response of a latch and a flip-flop to the same set of stimuli
- Define setup and hold time and determine their nominal values from a timing chart
- Determine the frequency and duty cycle of a clocking signal
- Identify latch and flip-flop propagation delay paths and determine their values from a timing chart
   Describe the operation of a toggle ("T") flip-flop and analyze its behavior
- Describe the operation of a toggle (1) hip-hop and analyze its be
   Derive a characteristic equation for any type of latch or flip-flop

## Outline

- Overview
- Positive edge-triggered D flip-flop
- Negative edge-triggered D flip-flop
- D flip-flop characteristic equation
- D flip-flop setup and hold times
- D flip-flop with enable
- Edge-triggered T flip-flop
- T flip-flop characteristic equation
- Flip-flop timing parameters
- Response of latch vs. flip-flop
- Summary

## Overview

- Definition: A flip-flop is a sequential circuit that samples its inputs and changes its outputs only at times determined by a clocking signal ("CLK")
- Flip-flops change state in response to the *transition* ("edge") of a clocking signal
  - positive-edge-triggered flip-flops change state on the *low-to-high* transition of a clocking signal
     negative-edge-triggered flip-flops change state on the high-to-low transition of a clocking signal

#### Positive Edge-Triggered D Flip-Flop

- A positive-edge-triggered D flip flop combines a pair of D latches to create a circuit that samples its D input and changes its Q and QN outputs at the rising edge of a controlling CLOCK (CLK) signal
  - the <u>first</u> latch, called the *master*, opens and follows the input when CLK is 0
  - the <u>second</u> latch, called the *slave*, opens and reads the master's output when CLK is 1 – this is when the output state change occurs (note that the master latch is *closed* at this point and thus "immune" to input changes)

#### Positive Edge-Triggered D Flip-Flop

- A triangle on the D flip-flop's CLK input indicates edge-triggered behavior and is called a dynamic input indicator
- The characteristic equation of a D flip-flop is  $Q^* = D i.e.$  the next state is the current input, shorthand for  $Q(t+\Delta) = D(t)$ , where  $\Delta$  is the *clocking period*
- D flip-flops are included in the macrocells of virtually all PLDs, and are therefore the "most popular" (and easiest) way to realize clocked synchronous state machines





















→ + 5 ns	
qL	

























#### Summary

- Latches and flip-flops are the basic building blocks of virtually all sequential circuits
  - a latch is a sequential device that watches all of its inputs continuously and changes its outputs at any time (independent of a clocking signal)
  - a flip-flop is a sequential device that samples its inputs and changes its outputs <u>only</u> at times determined by a clocking signal
- Because the *functional behavior* of latches and flip flops is quite *different*, it is important to know which type is being used in a design



## **Reading Assignment:**

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 542-553, DDPP 5th Ed. pp. 443-453

#### Learning Objectives:

- Identify the key elements of a clocked synchronous state machine: next state logic, state memory (flip-flops), and output logic
  Differentiate between Mealy and Moore model state machines, and draw a block diagram of each
- Analyze a clocked synchronous state machine realized as either a Mealy or Moore model

# Outline

- Overview
- State machine structure - Moore machine
  - Mealy machine
- State machine analysis
- Moore machine analysis
- Mealy machine analysis

## Overview

- "State machine" (or "finite state machine") is a generic name given to
- "Clocked" indicates that the flip-flops employ a CLOCK LK) input
- "Synchronous" means that all the flip-flops in the state machine use the same CLOCK signal
- "Analysis" means to analyze the behavior of a given state machine
  - construct a PS-NS table - derive PS-NS equations

  - draw a state transition diagram - draw a timing chart

## State Machine Structure

- Clocked synchronous state machines consist of three basic blocks:
  - next state logic combinational circuitry that provides the "excitation" necessary to transition to the next state, based on the current state and the present inputs
  - state memory (flip flops) set of N flip-flops that store the current state of the machine (providing 2<sup>N</sup> distinct states)
  - output logic combinational circuitry that uses the current state (and possibly current inputs) to determine the outputs generated

## Moore Machine

• In a Moore machine, the outputs are only a function of the (



## Mealy Machine

• In a Mealy machine, the outputs are a function of the the



# State Machine Structure

- With appropriate circuit or drawing manipulations, one state machine model can be mapped into another
- The exact classification of a state machine into one style or another is ultimately not very important
- What is important is how the structure chosen satisfies your design requirements

## Characteristic Equations (Review)

• The characteristic equations of the various flip-flops described previously are:

T: Q\* = Q ⊕ T

- We will use these characteristic equations as the basis for analyzing state machines
- Analysis in this context means *writing the next state* equations that describe the circuit's behavior

# State Machine Analysis

- The analysis of a clocked synchronous state machine has four basic steps:
  - Determine the *next state* and the *output* functions based on the circuit diagram
  - Use the next state and output functions to construct a present state next state / output table (PS-NS / O)
  - Draw a state transition diagram that presents the information tabulated in the present state - next state / output table in graphical form
  - Draw a timing diagram that shows the timing relationship between the input, output, and clocking signals







• STEP 1: Write the next state equations for each D flip-flop and the output logic function

 $Q0^* = EN^{-}Q0 + EN^{-}Q0^{-} = EN \oplus Q0^{-}$ 

Q1\* = EN'•Q1 + EN•(Q1 ⊕ Q0)

MAX = EN•Q0•Q1

5	0	DI		0	O
P	PS		NS Odt Odt		Output
Q1	QU	EN	Q1^	Q0^	WAX
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	1











erc	vise	2 onst	ruct	a PS-	NS / O ta	
PS		PI	PI NS		Output	
<b>Q1</b>	Q0	EN	Q1*	Q0*	MAXS	
0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	0	1	0	1	0	
0	1	0	0	1	0	
0	1	1	1	0	0	
1	0	0	1	0	0	
1	0	1	1	1	0	
1	1	0	1	1	1	
1	1	1	0	0	1	







# **Reading Assignment:**

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 553-566, 646-659, 682-689; DDPP 5th Ed. pp. 453-471, 676-680, 525-527 Learning Objectives:

- Outline the steps required for state machine synthesis
- Derive the excitation table for any type of latch or flip-flop
- Discuss reasons why formal state-minimization procedures are seldom used by experienced digital system designers Draw block diagrams for Moore and Mealy type state machines and explain how each block can be coded in Verilog
- Draw a circuit for an oscillator and calculate its frequency of operation
- Draw a circuit for a bounce-free switch based on an S-R latch and analyze its behavior

## Outline

- Overview
- State machine design steps - Derivation of flip-flop excitation tables - Flip-flop choice
- State machines in Verilog - Syntax and synthesis - Macrocell structure
- Clocking considerations
  - Periodic clock generation circuits
  - Timing diagram and specifications
  - Event clock generation circuits

## Overview

- Designing a finite state machine (FSM) is a creative process that is, in many ways, like writing a computer program:
  - You have a fairly good idea of what the input and output signals should be, but perhaps an *imprecise description* of the desired relationship between them
  - During the design you may have to identify and choose among different ways of doing things – sometimes using common sense, sometimes arbitrarily
  - You may have to identify and handle special cases that weren't included in the original description

## Overview

- Creative process...
- You will probably have to keep track of several ideas in your head during the design process
- Since the design process is not an algorithm, there's no guarantee that you can complete it using a finite number of states or lines of code
- When you finally run the state machine or program, it will do exactly what you told it to do – no more, no less
- There's no guarantee the thing will work the first time you may have to debug and iterate the entire process

# State Machine Design Steps

- State machine design steps
  - Given a word description, construct a state/output table or transition diagram
  - Minimize any "obvious" redundant states in the translated description
  - Choose a set of state variables and assign binary statevariable combinations to the named states
  - Substitute the state-variable combinations into the state/output table (and/or state transition diagram) to create a table that shows the desired next state-variable combination and output for each state/input combination

# State Machine Design Steps

- State machine design steps..
- If you haven't done so already, choose a *flip-flop or* latch type for the state memory
- Construct an excitation table that shows the excitation values required to obtain the desired next state for each state-input combination
- Derive excitation equations from the excitation table
- Derive output equations from the transition/output table
   Draw a logic diagram (or realize the equations directly in a PLD)























D	Q	Q*	Q	Q*	D	]
0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	1	1	
1	0	1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	· 1	1	1	



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Q1. Identify which statement concerning state machine models is true:

- Mealy and Moore models that represent equivalent state machines will Α. always have the same number of states
- В. Mealy and Moore models that represent equivalent state machines will always have a different number of states
- any Mealy model can be transformed into an equivalent Moore C. model, and vice-versa
- D. Mealy and Moore models that represent equivalent state machines, when realized, will exhibit the same observable behavior (i.e., if placed in a "black box", their observable behavior would be indistinguishable)
- E. none of the above

Q2. An FSM design has 212 states; to reduce the number of flip-flops required by one, you would have to identify and eliminate \_\_\_\_\_ redundant state(s).

- A. 1
- **B**. 2 C. 44
- D. 84
- E. none of the above

#### Q3. Formal state-minimization procedures are seldom used by most digital designers because:

- A. there are situations where increasing the number of states may simplify the design or reduce its cost
- the designer can do more to simplify a state machine [than using formal Β. state-minimization procedures] during the state-assignment phase of the desian
- C. by carefully matching state meanings to the requirements of the problem, experienced digital designers can produce state tables with a minimal or near-minimal number of states
- all of the above D.
- Ε. none of the above

Reference: <u>DDPP</u> p. 559 (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.), p. 461 (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.)

#### Blocking vs Non-Blocking Assignments in Verilog

#### Blocking Statements (Out = In)

- The = symbol represents a blocking procedural assignment Assignment is done immediately in a single step: new value is used by subsequent statements
- Execution flow within a procedure is blocked until the current assignment is complete Used to model combinational Logic

Non-Blocking Statements (Out <= In)

- The <= symbol represents a nonblocking procedural assignment
- Assignment is done in a two steps
- 1. The RHS is evaluated immediately
- The assignment to LHS is postponed until all other evaluations in the current time step are complete 2.
- Used to model sequential logic (like a "clocked assignment operator")



## Verilog Design Guidelines

- Do not mix blocking and non-blocking statements in the same block or procedure
- Combinational blocks use blocking statements
- Sequential blocks (registers) use non-blocking statements
- You will come across a lot of tri-state (Hi-Z) buffer implementations in this and the next module - it is important to understand this concept, but you will not be implementing tri-state buffers in lab
- This will be discussed in detail in ECE 337 (ASIC Design)

## State Machines in Verilog

- To specify a state machine in Verilog, an **always** block triggered on edges of the clock and other asynchronous signals (such as reset) is used.
- The registers are assigned next-state values with nonblocking statements
- The next-state values themselves are evaluated in a separate combinational always block or a dataflow
- Differences in *macrocell architecture* will determine the complexity of state machine that can be implemented with a given PLD

State Machines in Verilog <ul> <li>A trivial state machine</li> <li>module stateMachine(CLK, RST, state); input wire CLK, RST; output reg state;</li> </ul>	
reg next_state;	Variables assigned values in the
if (RST == 1'b1)] If active-high asynchronous reset (RST) is high	A D flip-flop triggered on positive edges of CLK and a reset signal RST
<pre>else state &lt;= next_state; end</pre>	Out of reset, state is assigned the value of next_state at every positive clock edge
<b>always</b> @ (state) begin next_state = ~state;	next_state logic evaluated in a separate combinational block
end	

















- State machines require a clocking signal in order to operate "sequentially
- There are two basic types of clocking signals that can be used: periodic ("continuously running"), generated using an oscillator circuit
  - event (non-periodic, single clock edge), generated using a bounce-free switch or sensor contact closure
- A timing diagram can be used to show the relationship between the clock and various input, output, and internal signals – it can also be used to help answer the key question facing computer system designers: "How fast can this thing run?



- Periodic clock signals can be generated using several different types of oscillator circuits:
  - based on an R-C time constant
  - based on a ceramic resonator
  - based on a quartz crystal (most accurate)
- Issues of interest include the following:
  - frequency of operation
  - duty cycle transition time

  - ringing (undershoot / overshoot) stability (long term drift / short term "jitter") driving capability / need for buffers

  - skew (different length paths on PCB)















S.P.D.T. ("single pushbutton with a	oole, double throw") an S' R' latch
SWU⊥ R'	Initial/Default State
SWU⊥ R'	(S-R latch reset)
L	74L500
SWU⊥ R'	QN
N.C.	H
SWD_L	DSW
S'	L

/* SR latch for use	in switch	debouncer on small PL	D */
module SR_LATCH(RN,	SN, Q, QN	);	
input wire RN;	<pre>// active</pre>	low reset	
input wire SN;	<pre>// active</pre>	low set	
output wire Q;	<pre>// active</pre>	high output	
output wire QN;	<pre>// active</pre>	low output	
assign QN = (~RN	~Q);		
assign $Q = (~SN)$	~QN);	WARNING: This method is only intended for	
endmodule		use on a small PLD	
		such as a 22v10 device	e









#### Reading Assignment: DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 566-576, DDPP 5th Ed. pp. 472-478

Learning Objectives:

- Design a clocked synchronous state machine and verify its operation
- Define minimum risk and minimum cost state machine design strategies, and discuss the tradeoffs between the two approaches
- Compare state assignment strategy and state machine model choice (Mealy vs. Moore) with respect to PLD resources (P-terms and macrocells) required for realization

## Outline

- Overview
- Simple character sequence display • "Dual mode" sequence generator
- Moore model realizations
- Mealy model realizations Summary

#### Overview

- A sequence generator state machine produces a (periodic) series of output signal assertions that constitute a pre-defined pattern:
  - vehicle tail lights (e.g., "T-bird")
- traffic control signs (e.g., "blinkers" and stoplights)
   character displays (e.g., "GO BOILERS")
   process control sequences (e.g., wash, rinse, dry)
- Either a Mealy or a Moore model can be used as the basis for designing
- a sequence generator
  - Two different design strategies can be employed: minimum cost – unused states are assumed to be don't cares, potentially reducing realization cost while increasing risk of undefined behavior if machine gets into an unknown (unused) state
     minimum risk – unused states are explicitly assigned a next state, eliminating risk of undefined behavior but potentially increasing realization cost



Q1. Designing a state machine based on minimum risk means:

- A. there are no hazards in the clocking signal
- B. there are no "don't cares" in the output equations
- C. there are no "don't cares" in the next state equations
- D. all of the above
- E. none of the above

Q2. Designing a state machine based on **minimum cost** means:

- A. there can be "don't cares" in the next state equations
- B. there can be "don't cares" in the excitation equations
- C. there can be "don't cares" in the output equations
- D. all of the above
- E. none of the above















## Example – Dual Mode Light Sequencer

 Design a clocked synchronous state machine that generates the following "light patterns" (using three LEDs)



#### Example – Dual Mode Light Sequencer

• Design a clocked synchronous state machine that generates the following "light patterns" (using three LEDs)



#### **Moore Model Realizations**

- To specify in which of the 4 modes we want the circuit to operate, we will need 2 "mode control" inputs, M1 and M0, where:
  - 0 0 → single dot, left-to-right
  - 0 1 → single dot, right-to-left
  - 1 0 → building dots, left-to-right
  - I 1 → building dots, right-to-left
- A separate output function needs to be determined for each of the 3 LED outputs: G, Y, and R (from left-to-right)
- A state will be needed corresponding to the "all LEDs off" condition







	STEP 4: Co	onstruct a	PS-NS/PO	Table	
MIMU	PS	PI	NS	PO	
GYR	Q2 Q1 Q0	M1 M0	Q2* Q1* Q0*	GYR	
	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 1	0 0 0	
		0 1	0 1 1		
		1 0	0 0 1		
		1 1	0 1 1		
	0 0 1	0 0	0 1 0	100	
		0 1	0 0 0		
		1 0	1 0 0		
	0 1 0	1 1		0 1 0	
	0 1 0	0 0		0 1 0	
		1 0			
		1 1			
	0 1 1	0 0	0 0 0	0 0 1	
	• • •	0 1	0 1 0		
		1 0	0 0 0		
		1 1	1 1 0		299

-	STE	P 4	4: C	onstruct	a PS	S-1	NS	/PO	Tab	ole.		
		PS		PI			NS			PO		]
STATE	Q2	Q1	Q0	M1 M0	- I C	Q2*	Q1*	Q0*	G	Υ	R	
GTR	1	0	0	0 0		0	0	0	1	1	0	1
				0 1		0	0	0				
				1 0		1	0	1				
				1 1		0	0	0				
	1	0	1	0 0		0	0	0	1	1	1	1
				0 1		0	0	0				
				1 0		0	0	0				
				1 1		0	0	0				
	1	1	0	0 0		0	0	0	0	1	1	1
				0 1		0	0	0				
				1 0		0	0	0				
				1 1		1	0	1				
	1	1	1	0 0		0	0	0	0	0	0	1
				0 1		0	0	0	-			
				1 0		0	0	0				
				1 1		0	0	0				300







<pre>nodule moorelsB(CLK, M, Q);</pre>	Note: Here the output functions are merely the state variables – G=Q[2], Y=Q[1], R=Q[0]
input wire CLK; // Input clock	5'b10000: next_Q = 3'b010;
input wire [1:0] M; // Mode select	5'b10001: next_Q = 3'b000;
output reg (210) 2; // serve as he hi ho	5'b10010: next_Q = 3'b110;
reg [2:0] next_Q;	5'bl0011: next_Q = 3'b000;
always @ (posedge CLK) begin	5(b)0100+ pext 0 = 3(b000+
Q <= next_Q;	51b10101, pert 0 = 31b000,
end	51b10110, pert 0 = 31b000,
always @ (0, M) begin	5 DIGITO, HERE_Q = 5 DOGO;
case({0,N})	S-BIOIII: hexc_Q = S-BOOO;
5'b00000: next_Q = 3'b100;	
5'b00001: next_Q = 3'b001;	5'b11000: next_Q = 3'b000;
5'b00010: next_Q = 3'b100;	5'b11001: next_Q = 3'b000;
5'b00011: next_Q = 3'b001;	5'b11010: next_Q = 3'b111;
	5'b11011: next_Q = 3'b000;
51b00100; next 0 = 31b010;	
5'b00110: next 0 = 3'b000;	5'blll00: next_Q = 3'b000;
5'b00111: next_Q = 3'b011;	5'bl1101: next_Q = 3'b000;
	5'b11110: next_Q = 3'b000;
5'b01000: next_Q = 3'b001;	5'b11111: next 0 = 3'b000;
5'b01001: next_Q = 3'b100;	endcase
5'b01010: next_Q = 3'b000;	end
5-bolo11: Maxe_0 = 5-booo;	
5'b01100: next_Q = 3'b000;	endmodule
5'b01101: next_Q = 3'b000;	
5'DUIIIU: next_Q = 3'D000;	This realization uses 3 macrocells
province: mexc_Q = 3'Bill;	















SIL		Cond	trunot	DC	NC/I	т ос	'oh	10	
	. 4.	Colls	uuuu	а г 5-	1/0/1	101	au	le	
PS		PI		N	NS		PO		
Q1	Q0	M1	MO	Q1*	Q0*	L2	L1	LO	
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		0	1	1	1	0	0	0	
		1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		1	1	1	1	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	
		0	1	0	0	1	0	0	
		1	0	1	0	1	0	0	
		1	1	0	0	1	1	1	
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	
		0	1	0	1	0	1	0	
		1	0	1	1	1	1	0	
		1	1	0	1	0	1	1	
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
		0	1	1	0	0	0	1	
		1	0	0	0	1	1	1	
		1	1	1	0	0	0	1	





De		PI		NC		-	PO		
01	00	M1	M0	01*	00*	12	11	10	
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		ō	1	0	1	0	0	0	
		1	0	0	1	0	0	0	
		1	1	0	1	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	
		0	1	1	0	0	0	1	
		1	0	1	0	1	0	0	
		1	1	1	0	0	0	1	
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	
		0	1	1	1	0	1	0	
		1	0	1	1	1	1	0	
		1	1	1	1	0	1	1	
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
		0	1	0	0	1	0	0	
		1	0	0	0	1	1	1	
		1	1	0	0	1	1	1	

/* Light Sequencer - Mealy Model B */	$4^{1}b0100; p05 = \{2^{1}b10, 3^{1}b100\};$
module mealy1sb(CLK, M, L);	$4'b0101; p0L = {2'b10,3'b001};$
	$4^{+}b0110; p0L = \{2^{+}b10, 3^{+}b100\};$
input wire CLK; // Clock input	$4^{+}b0111; p0L = \{2^{+}b10, 3^{+}b001\};$
input wire [1:0] M; // Mode select	
output wire [2:0] L;	4'b1000: ngL = {2'b11,3'b010};
	4'b1001: nQL = {2'b11,3'b010};
reg [1:0] Q;	4'b1010: nQL = {2'b11,3'b110};
wire [1:0] next_Q;	4'bl011: nQL = {2'b11,3'b011};
reg [4:0] nQL; // vector of {next_Q,L}	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	4'b1100: ngL = {2'b00,3'b001};
always @ (posedge CLK) begin	4'b1101: nQL = {2'b00,3'b100};
Q <= next_Q;	4'b1110: nQL = {2'b00,3'b111};
ena	4'b1111: nQL = {2'b00,3'b111};
and an area of a second state	endcase
assign next_Q = ngl[4:3];	end
appron - ngh[2:0];	
always @ (0 M) begin	endmodule
case ((0 M))	
$4^{+}b0000; p01 = \{2^{+}b01, 3^{+}b000\};$	This realization uses 5 macrocells
$4'b0001; p0I = {2'b01,3'b000};$	
$4'b0010; p01 = {2'b01,3'b000};$	
$4'b0011; p01 = {2'b01, 3'b000};$	



/* Mealy Model Implemented with State Diagram *	/ Same design realized using STATE constants
module mealy1sb_sd(CLK, M, L, Q);	always @ (Q, M) begin
	case ({Q,M})
input wire CLK; // Clock input	4'b0000: L = 3'b000;
input wire [1:0] M; // Mode select	4'b0001: L = 3'b000;
output reg [2:0] L;	4'b0010: L = 3'b000;
output reg [1:0] Q;	4'b0011: L = 3'b000;
reg [1:0] next_Q;	4'b0100: L = 3'b100;
	4'b0101: L = 3'b001;
// State declarations	4'b0110: L = 3'b100;
localparam A0 = 2'b00;	4'b0111: L = 3'b001;
localparam A1 = 2'b01;	
localparam A2 = 2'b10;	4'b1000: L = 3'b010;
localparam A3 = 2'b11;	4'b1001: L = 3'b010;
	4'b1010: L = 3'b110;
always @ (posedge CLK) begin	4'b1011: L = 3'b011;
Q <= next_Q;	
end	4'b1100: L = 3'b001;
	4'b1101: L = 3'b100;
always @ (Q) begin	4'b1110: L = 3'b111;
case (Q)	4'b1111: L = 3'b111;
A0: next_Q = A1;	endcase
Al: next_Q = A2;	end
A2: $next_Q = A3;$	
$A3: next_Q = A0;$	endmodule
endcase	
end	This realization uses 5 macrocells







#### Summary

- The choice of model (Mealy vs. Moore) can have a significant impact on the complexity of the realization and PLD resources (macrocells) consumed
- The state assignment *strategy* employed can make a *significant* difference in the amount of work required
- "Obvious" state minimization can also sometimes be useful (formal state-minimization procedures are seldom used by most digital designers, however)
- The only formal way to find the best state assignment is to try all the assignments – that's too much work (even for students)~
- To do this well, we need experience as well as have knowledge of some practical guidelines (see text)
- There is no substitute for *practice* in designing state machines much of engineering is *applied intuition*, and this is a good example of it~



#### Reading Assignment:

DDPP 4th Ed. pp. 710-718, 725-736; DDPP 5th Ed. pp. 554-561, 561-574

#### Learning Objectives:

- Compare and contrast the operation of binary and shift register counters
- Derive the next state equations for binary "up" and "down" counters
- Describe the feedback necessary to make ring and Johnson counters self-correcting
- Compare and contrast state decoding for binary and shift register counters
- Describe why "glitches" occur in some state decoding strategies and discuss how to eliminate them

## Outline

- Overview
- Binary counter registers
- UP and DOWN counter derivations
- Basic binary counter extensions
  - ENABLE input
  - ASYNCHRONOUS RESET
  - UP and DOWN count modes
- Synchronously resettable counters

   SYNCHRONOUS RESET
   MODULUS control
- Shift register counters
- State decoding
- Summary



• <u>Definition</u>: The name *counter* is used for any clocked sequential circuit whose state diagram contains a *single cycle* 



 <u>Definition</u>: A register is a collection of two or more flipflops with a common clock and, generally, a common purpose

## **Binary Counter Registers**

- <u>Definition</u>: The modulus of a counter is the number of states in the cycle – a counter with M states is called a modulo-M counter (or sometimes a divide-by-M counter)
- <u>Definition</u>: A synchronous counter connects all of its flip-flop clock inputs to the same common CLOCK signal, so that all the flip-flop outputs change state simultaneously
- The most commonly used counter type is an *n-bit binary* counter, with *n* flip-flops and 2<sup>n</sup> states, visited in the sequence 0, 1, 2, ..., 2<sup>n</sup>-1, 0, 1, 2, ...









• The design of a basic binary UP counter is derived as follows:

What is the next state equation for an arbitrary stage "K"  $({\sf Q}_{\sf K}{}^*)$  of a binary UP counter?

$$\mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}^*} = \mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}} \oplus (\mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}-1} \bullet \mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}-2} \bullet \dots \bullet \mathbf{Q}_1 \bullet \mathbf{Q}_0)$$

dule count8u()	CLK, Q);						
input wire CLI output reg [7	K; :0] Q;						
reg [7:0] nex	t_Q;						
Q <= next_Q end	;						
always @ (Q) ]	begin						
<pre>next_Q[0] =</pre>	~Q[0];						
<pre>next_Q[1] =</pre>	Q[1] ^ Q[0	1;					
<pre>next_Q[2] =</pre>	Q[2] ^ (Q[1	] & Q[0])	;				
<pre>next_Q[3] =</pre>	Q[3] ^ (Q[2	] & Q[1]	& Q[0]);				
$next_Q[4] =$	Q[4] ^ (Q[3	] & Q[2]	& Q[1] &	Q[0]);			
<pre>next_Q[5] =</pre>	Q[5] ^ (Q[4	] & Q[3]	& Q[2] &	Q[1] & (	;([0];		
<pre>next_Q[6] =</pre>	Q[6] ^ (Q[5	] & Q[4]	& Q[3] &	Q[2] & (	2[1] &	2[0]);	
<pre>next_Q[7] =</pre>	Q[7] ^ (Q[6	] & Q[5]	& Q[4] &	Q[3] & (	2[2] &	Q[1] & Q[0	)]);

Bi • ]	ina The s de	ry des erive	DC ign ed a	WN Counter Derivation of a basic binary DOWN counter s follows:	
	Q2	Q1	00		
	0	0	0	When does Q0 change state?	
	0	0	1		
	0	1	0	Every clock cycle	
	0	1	1		
	1	0	0	What is the equation for Q0*?	
	1	0	1		
	1	1	0	$Q0^* = Q0^2$	
	1	1	1		





# Binary DOWN Counter Derivation • The design of a basic binary DOWN counter is derived as follows:

What is the next state equation for an arbitrary stage "K"  $(\mathbf{Q_K}^*)$  of a binary DOWN counter?

 $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}}^* = \mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}} \oplus (\mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}-1}^{'} \cdot \mathbf{Q}_{\mathsf{K}-2}^{'} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathbf{Q}_{1}^{'} \cdot \mathbf{Q}_{0}^{'})$ 

nouure councou	(сык, ұ);
input wire C output reg [	.ж; 7:0] Q;
reg [7:0] ne	دt_Q;
<pre>always @ (po Q &lt;= next_ end</pre>	eage (LK) begin 17
always @ (Q)	begin
next_Q[0]	
next_Q[1]	
next_Q[2]	0[2] A (-0[2] E -0[1] E -0[0]).
next_Q[J]	
next_Q[4]	
next 0[6]	$0[6] ^{(0)} (-0[5] ) ^{(0)} (-0[4] ) ^{(0)} (-0[3] ) ^{(0)} (-0[2] ) ^{(0)} (-0[1] ) ^{(0)} $
next 0[7]	0[7] ^ (~0[6] & ~0[5] & ~0[4] & ~0[3] & ~0[2] & ~0[1] & ~0[0

# /\* Basic Binary Counter Extensions • Extensions to the basic binary counter commonly of interest include: providing both UP and DOWN COUNT modes providing an ENABLE input providing an ASYNCHRONOUS RESET









## **Resettable Counters**

- In addition to an asynchronous reset (which allows to the counter to be placed in a known initial state), it is sometimes useful to provide a synchronous reset capability
- Such a counter is useful in applications where the number of states in the counting sequence is determined dynamically
- Example: State counter in a computer's execute unit, where the number of cycles necessary to complete an instruction varies
- <u>Another variation</u>: Counter with a "programmable" final state (modulo M)

/* Resettable 8-bi	t binary UP Counter */	
module rcnt8U(CLK,	R, Q);	
input wire CLK; input wire R; output reg [7:0] reg [7:0] next_Q	// Synchronous Reset Q;	
always @ (posedg Q <= next_Q; end	e CLK) begin	
<pre>// If R = 1, co always @ (Q) beg if (R == 1/bl) next_Q = 8'b end</pre>	unter resets to 0 on the next clock edge in begin 0000000;	
else begin next_Q[0] =	-0[0], 0[1] ^ 0[0],	
next_Q[2] = next_Q[3] = next_Q[4] =	<pre>d[2] * (d[1] &amp; d[0]); d[3] * (d[2] &amp; d[1] &amp; d[0]); o[4] * (d[3] &amp; d[1] &amp; d[1] &amp; d[0]);</pre>	
<pre>next_Q[5] = next_Q[6] = next_Q[7] =</pre>	Q[5] * (Q[4] & Q[3] & Q[2] & Q[1] & Q[0]); Q[6] * (Q[5] & Q[4] & Q[3] & Q[3] & Q[1] & Q[0]); Q[7] * (Q[6] & Q[5] & Q[4] & Q[3] & Q[1] & Q[1] & Q[0]);	
end end		
endmodule		360



## Shift-Register Counters

- <u>Definition</u>: A shift register whose state diagram is cyclic is called a *shift-register counter*
- Unlike a binary counter, a shift-register counter does not count in an "up" or "down" binary sequence, but is useful in many "control" applications nonetheless
- The simplest shift-register counter uses an n-bit shift register to obtain a counter with n states, and is called a *ring counter*
- A ring counter sequence is sometimes referred to as "one hot"





## Self-Correcting Ring Counters

- Problem: The simple ring counter is *not robust* if it somehow gets off the normal 4-state cycle (e.g., due to noise), it stays off
- Solution: A self-correcting counter is designed so that all "abnormal" states have transitions leading to "normal" states
- uses an n-1 input NOR function to shift in a "1" only when the n-1 least significant bits of an n-bit ring counter are "0"
- (i.e., shifts in a "0" until the counter reaches state d000) – all *"abnormal" states* lead back into the normal n-state ring cycle

State Transition Diagrams for Simple 4-bit Ring Counter



## Johnson Counters

- <u>Definition</u>: An n-bit shift register with the *complement* of the serial output fed back into the serial input is a counter with 2n states and is called a *switchtail*, *twisted-ring*, or *Johnson counter*
- <u>Problem</u>: A Johnson counter has the same robustness problem that the simple ring counter has
- <u>Solution</u>: Make it *self-correcting* by using appropriate feedback, here to load "0001" as the next state whenever the current state is "0dd0" (or, for an n-bit counter, when the current state is 0d...d0)





# State Decoding

What is needed to decode the states of an n-bit (n state) ring counter?
 Nothing – just use state variables directly



## State Decoding

- What is needed to decode the states of an n-bit (n state) ring counter?
- What is needed to decode the states of an n-bit (2n state) Johnson counter?

2n 2-input AND or NAND gates







## State Decoding

- Problem: Because more than one bit position changes simultaneously in a binary count sequence, there will be "glitches" in the decoded outputs
- <u>Solution</u>: Connect the decoder outputs to a register that samples the stable decoded outputs on the next clock edge



## **Thought Questions**

• Give an example of an application where state decoding glitches can cause problems

When decoded outputs are used as "clocking" signals

• Given that 8 glitch-free decoded outputs are required for a given application, which solution would be best: a 3-bit binary counter, decoder, and de-glitching register; or a 4-bit self-correcting Johnson counter?

Johnson counter

# Thought Questions

• Is it possible to construct an n-bit counter with 2<sup>n</sup> states that can be decoded in a glitch-free fashion?

YES – a Gray-code counter

• If so, what property should the count sequence possess?

Each successive combination should differ in only a single bit position



## Summary

- Counters are a common building block used in sequential circuit design, particularly with sequence generator state machines
- There are two basic types of counters – binary
- shift register (types differ based on feedback)
- Counter states can be decoded different ways (some are glitch-free, others are not)
  - binary: standard decoders, not glitch-free
  - Gray-code: n-input AND gates, glitch-free
  - Johnson: 2-input AND gates, glitch-free
- ring: nothing (use flip-flop outputs directly), glitch-free (sometimes called "one hot")



#### Reading Assignment: *DDPP* 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 580-587, *DDPP* 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. pp. 642-648

Learning Objective:

- Identify states utilized by a sequence recognizer: accepting sequence, final, and trap
- Determine the embedded binary sequence detected by a sequence recognizer

## Outline

- Overview
- Simple pattern recognizer
- Digital lock
- Summary

#### Overview

- A sequence recognizer state machine responds to a pre-defined input pattern of signal assertions and produces corresponding output signal assertions
  - digital lock / access code control
    bit sequence detector
- Use of Monor models to design sequencer recognizer is generally protonol, because you typically don't want any output signals to change (based on input signal changes) <u>until</u> the machine is clocked to the next state (i.e., the outputs should <u>only</u> be a function of the state variables)
- Because "actions" (output signal assertions) occur in response to a pre-defined pattern, a sequence recognizer has different kinds of "final states" (denoted with concentric circles on ST diagram):
- final state of accepting sequence (e.g., "unlock")
- trap state (e.g., "alarm")







## Example - Digital Combination Lock

Implement using Moore model

- will need an initial "locked" state
- will need six states to accept digits of combination (the last is "unlocked")
- will need an "alarm" state
  - total number of states is eight; therefore, can
  - implement with three state variables
- Types of states
- accepting sequence (entering combination)
- final state (sequence correctly entered)
- trap state (error made while entering combination)





#### Summary

- A sequence recognizer is a state machine that produces output signal assertions in response to an input pattern
- Output signal assertions typically occur when the machine enters a "final state" associated with the accepting sequence
- Sequence recognizers are typically realized with Moore models, to prevent "spurious" behavior that might occur if the machine's outputs could potentially change in response to an input signal change without clocking it