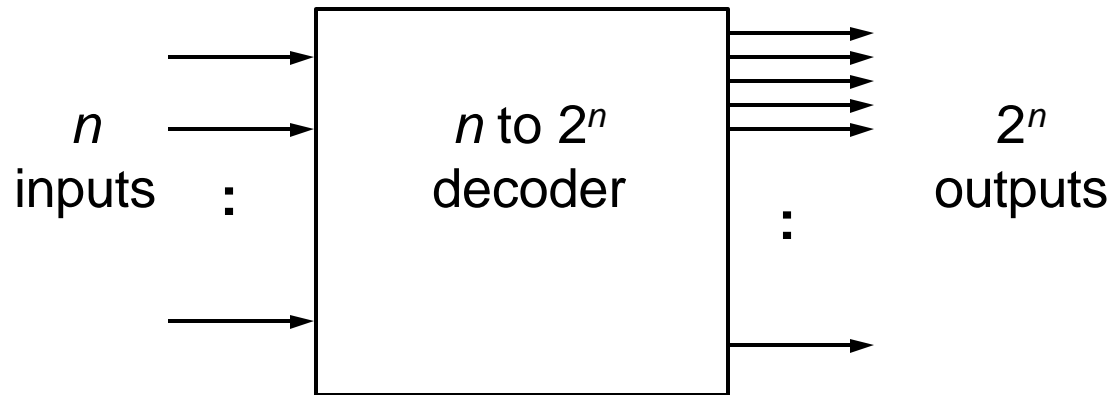


# Final Exam Review

- **Combinational Logic Building Blocks:**
  - Decoders, Encoders, Multiplexers, Demultiplexers
  - *Implementing functions using decoders, multiplexers.*
- **Combinational Arithmetic Circuits:**
  - Adders, Subtractors, Multipliers, Comparators, shifters.
- **Sequential Logic Circuits:**
  - Latches, Flip-Flips.
- **Clocked Synchronous State Machines:**
  - *State Machine Analysis*
  - *State Machine Design*
- **Registers & Counters.**

# Binary n-to- $2^n$ Decoders

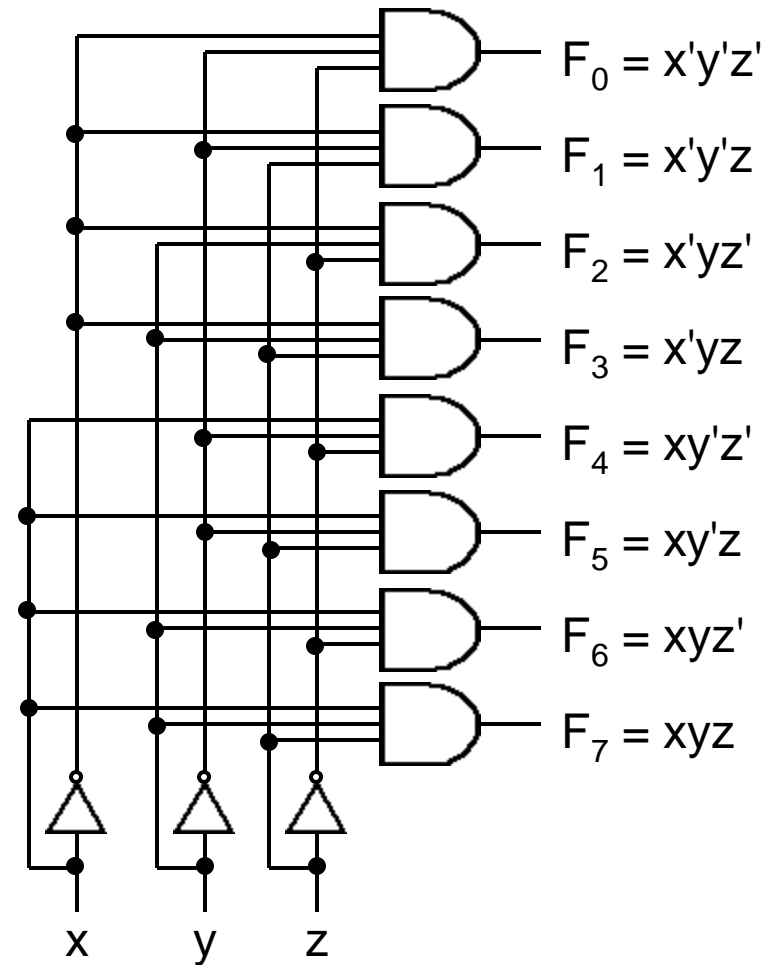
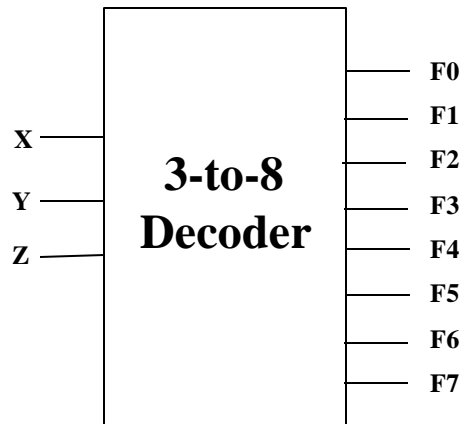
- A binary decoder has  $n$  inputs and  $2^n$  outputs.
- Only the output corresponding to the input value is equal to 1.



# 3-to-8 Binary Decoder

Truth Table:

x	y	z	F <sub>0</sub>	F <sub>1</sub>	F <sub>2</sub>	F <sub>3</sub>	F <sub>4</sub>	F <sub>5</sub>	F <sub>6</sub>	F <sub>7</sub>
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1



# Implementing Functions Using Decoders

- **Any  $n$ -variable logic function, in canonical sum-of-minterms form can be implemented using a single  $n$ -to- $2^n$  decoder to generate the minterms, and an OR gate to form the sum.**
  - The output lines of the decoder corresponding to the minterms of the function are used as inputs to the or gate.
- **Any combinational circuit with  $n$  inputs and  $m$  outputs can be implemented with an  $n$ -to- $2^n$  decoder with  $m$  OR gates.**
- **Suitable when a circuit has many outputs, and each output function is expressed with few minterms.**

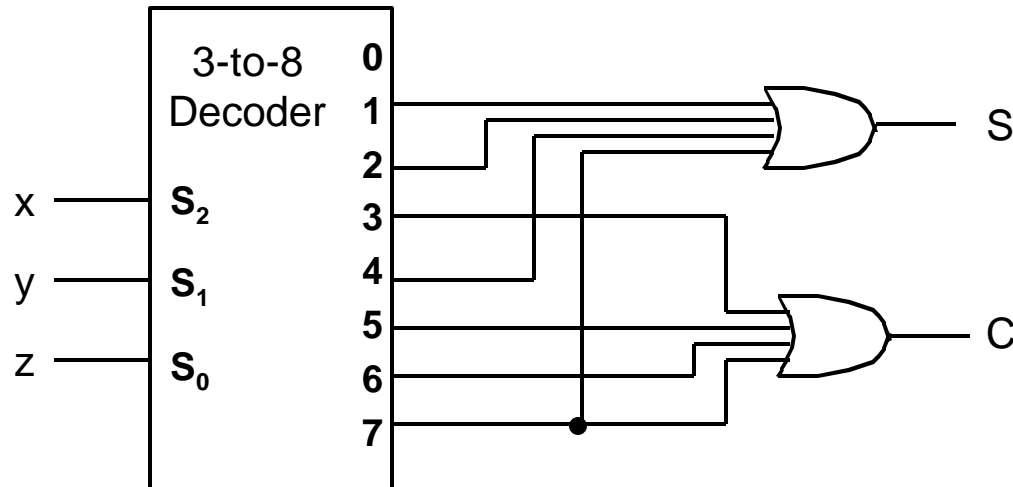
# Implementing Functions Using Decoders

- **Example: Full adder**

$$S(x, y, z) = \Sigma (1,2,4,7)$$

$$C(x, y, z) = \Sigma (3,5,6,7)$$

x	y	z	C	S
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	1



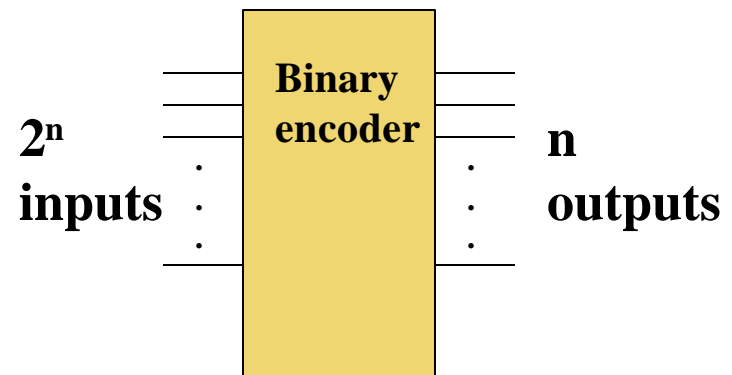
# Encoders

- If the a decoder's output code has fewer bits than the input code, the device is usually called an encoder.  
e.g.  $2^n$ -to- $n$ , priority encoders.
- The simplest encoder is a  $2^n$ -to- $n$  binary encoder, where it has only one of  $2^n$  inputs = 1 and the output is the  $n$ -bit binary number corresponding to the active input.
- For an 8-to-3 binary encoder with inputs  $I_0$ - $I_7$  the logic expressions of the outputs  $Y_0$ - $Y_2$  are:

$$Y_0 = I_1 + I_3 + I_5 + I_7$$

$$Y_1 = I_2 + I_3 + I_6 + I_7$$

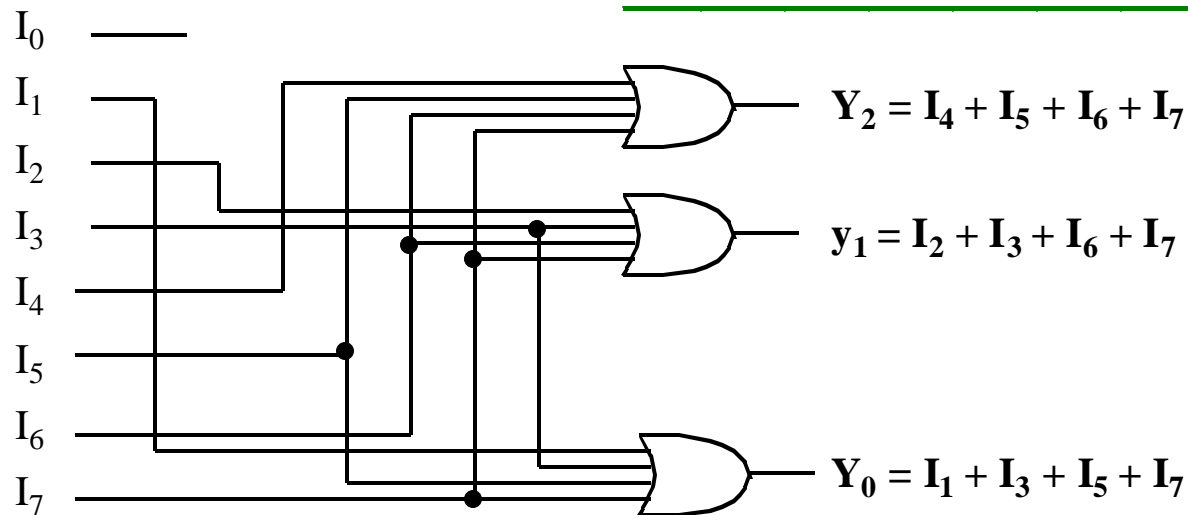
$$Y_2 = I_4 + I_5 + I_6 + I_7$$



# 8-to-3 Binary Encoder

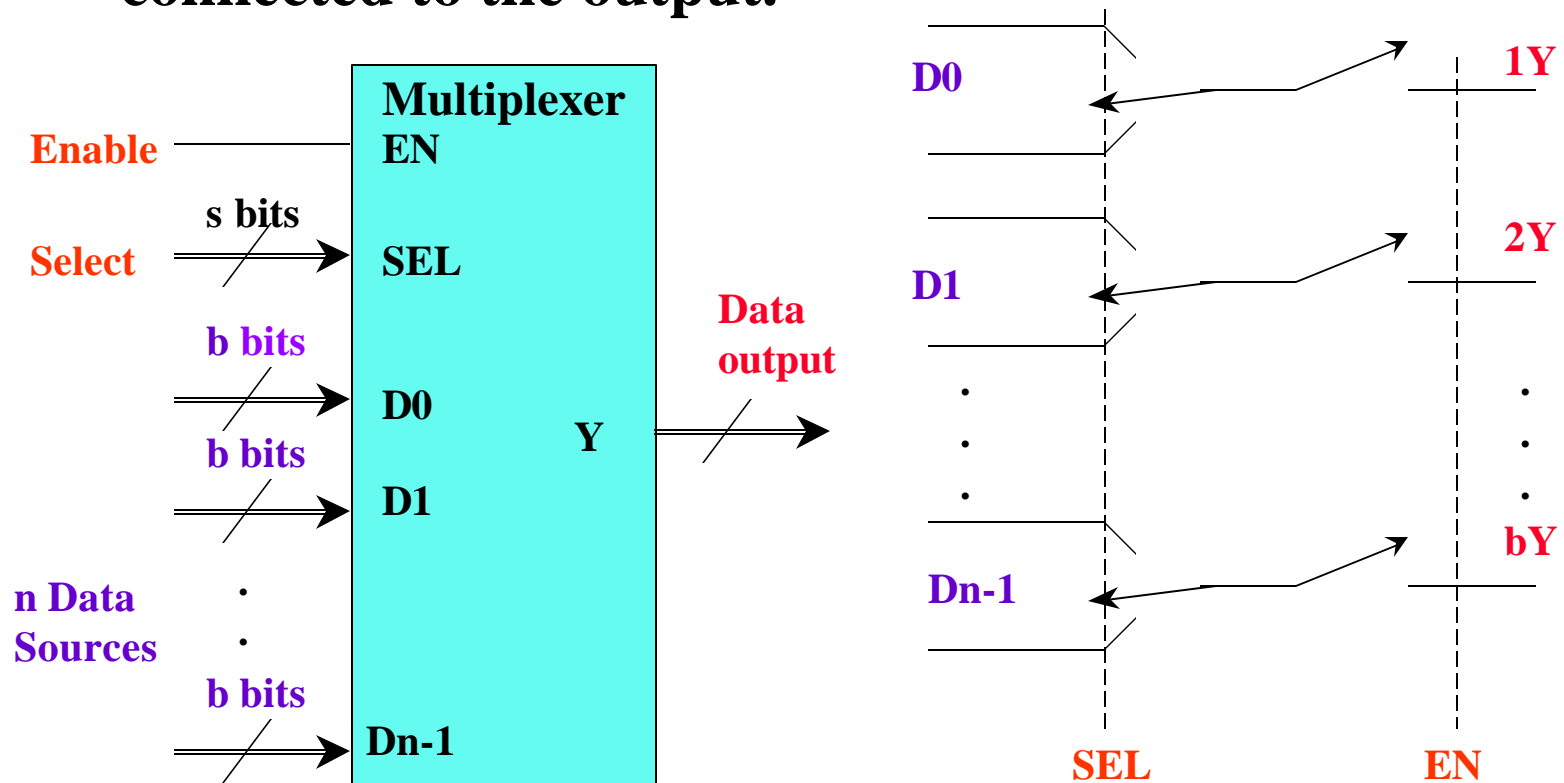
At any one time, only one input line has a value of 1.

Inputs								Outputs		
$I_0$	$I_1$	$I_2$	$I_3$	$I_4$	$I_5$	$I_6$	$I_7$	$y_2$	$y_1$	$y_0$
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1



# Multiplexers

- A multiplexer (MUX) is a digital switch which connects data from one of  $n$  sources to the output.
- A number of select inputs determine which data source is connected to the output.



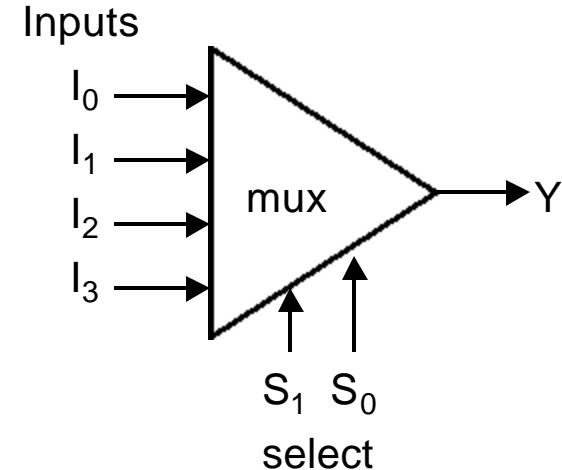
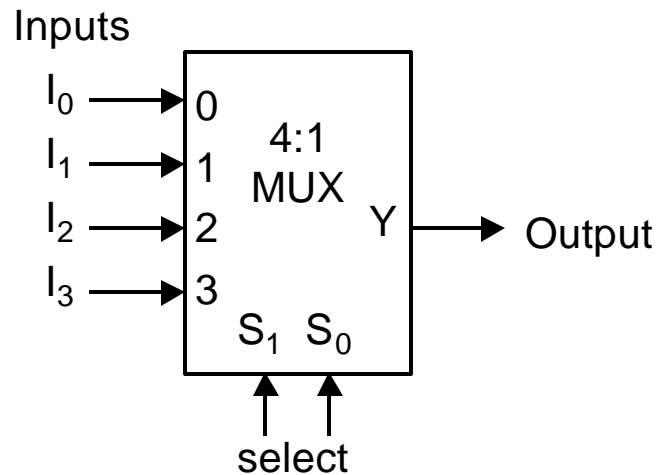


# 4-to-1 MUX

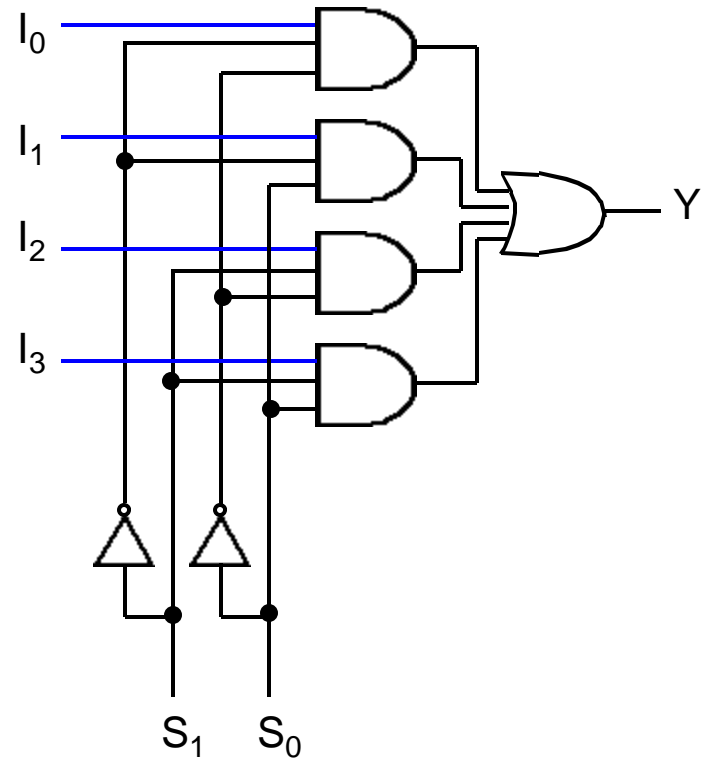
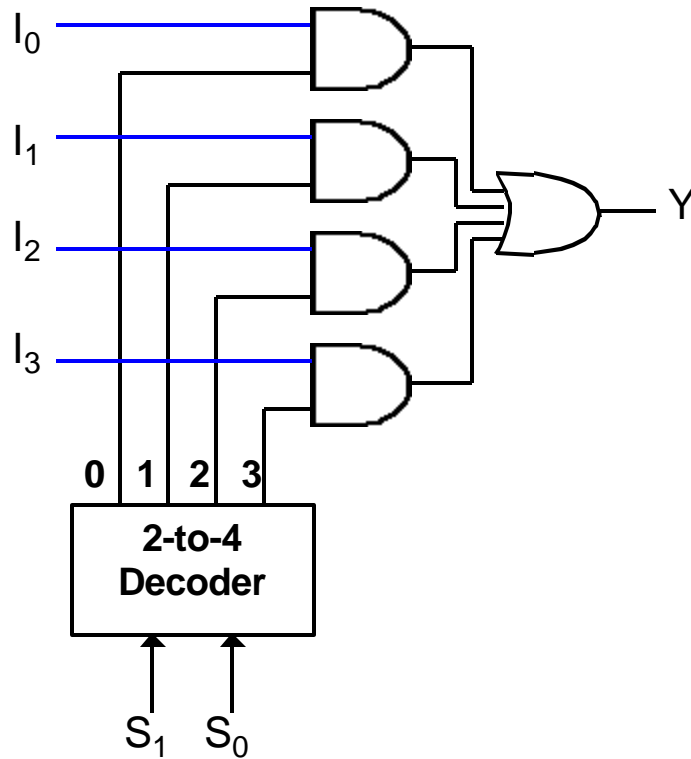
Truth table for a 4-to-1 multiplexer:

$I_0$	$I_1$	$I_2$	$I_3$	$S_1$	$S_0$	$Y$
$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	0	0	$d_0$
$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	0	1	$d_1$
$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	1	0	$d_2$
$d_0$	$d_1$	$d_2$	$d_3$	1	1	$d_3$

$S_1$	$S_0$	$Y$
0	0	$I_0$
0	1	$I_1$
1	0	$I_2$
1	1	$I_3$

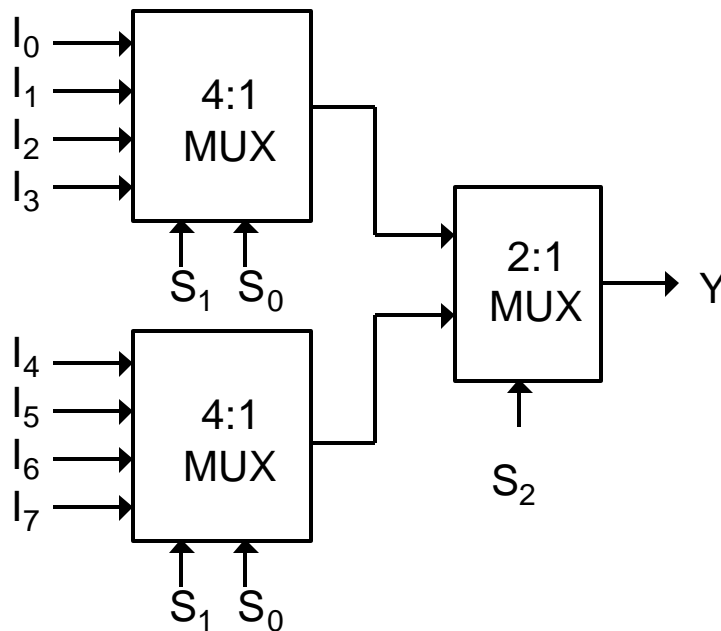


# 4-to-1 MUX Circuit



# Larger Multiplexers

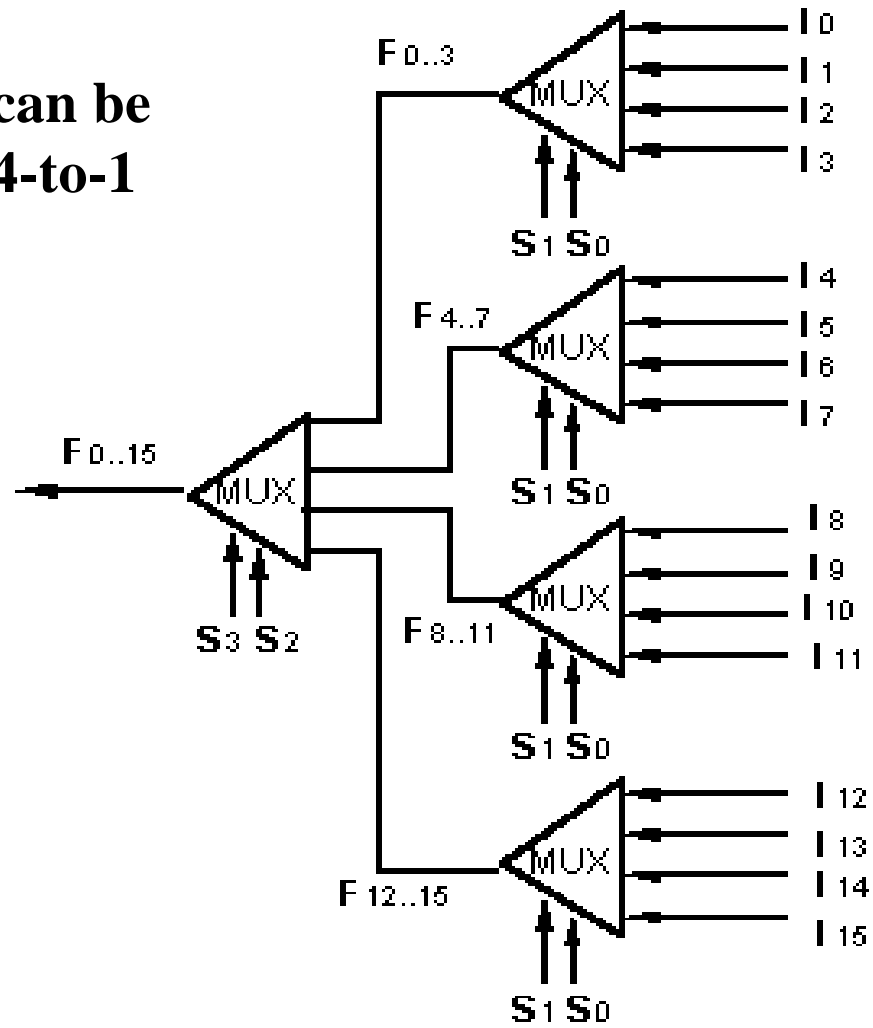
- Larger multiplexers can be constructed from smaller ones.
- An 8-to-1 multiplexer can be constructed from smaller multiplexers as shown:



$S_2$	$S_1$	$S_0$	$Y$
0	0	0	$I_0$
0	0	1	$I_1$
0	1	0	$I_2$
0	1	1	$I_3$
1	0	0	$I_4$
1	0	1	$I_5$
1	1	0	$I_6$
1	1	1	$I_7$

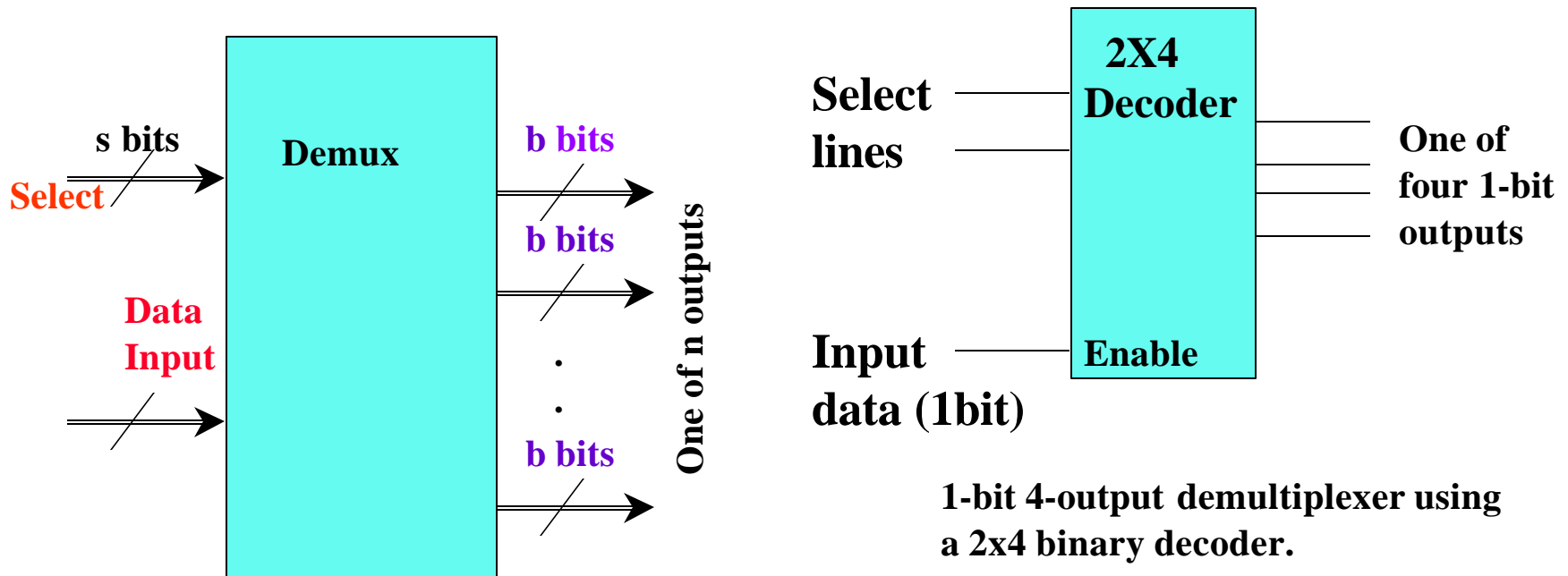
# Larger Multiplexers

- A 16-to-1 multiplexer can be constructed from five 4-to-1 multiplexers:

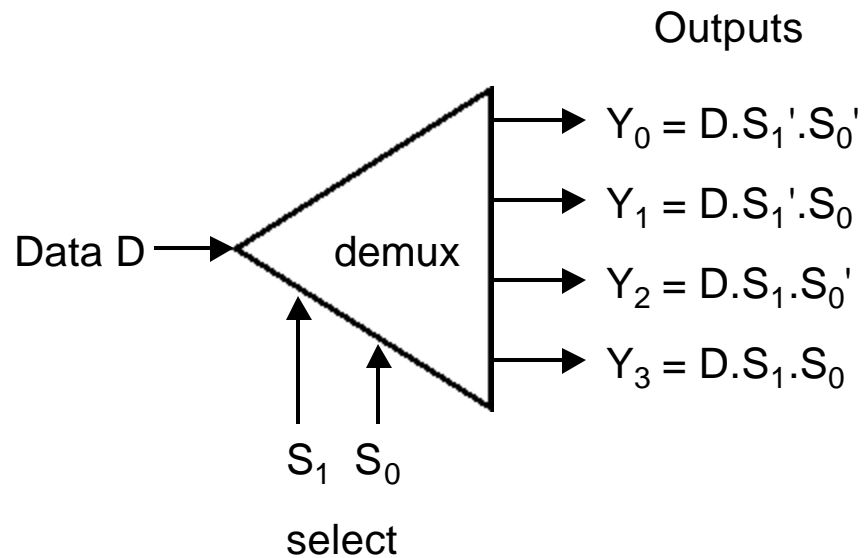


# Demultiplexers

- Digital switches to connect data from one input source to one of  $n$  outputs.
- Usually implemented by using  $n$ -to- $2^n$  binary decoders where the decoder's enable line is used for data input of the demultiplexer.

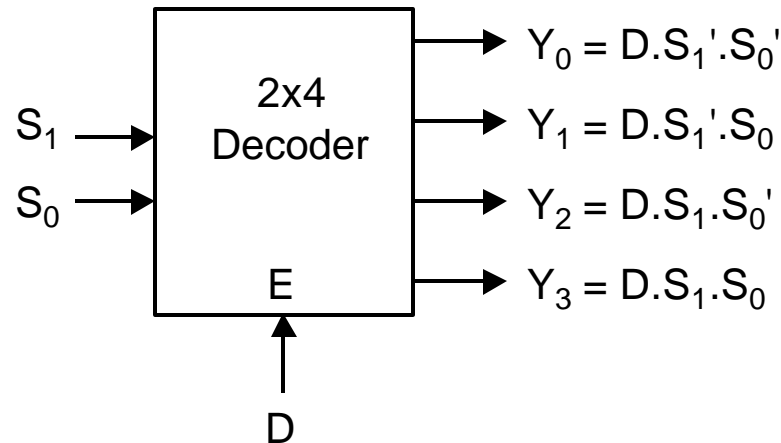


# 1-to-4 Demultiplexer



Outputs

$S_1$	$S_0$	$Y_0$	$Y_1$	$Y_2$	$Y_3$
0	0	D	0	0	0
0	1	0	D	0	0
1	0	0	0	D	0
1	1	0	0	0	D

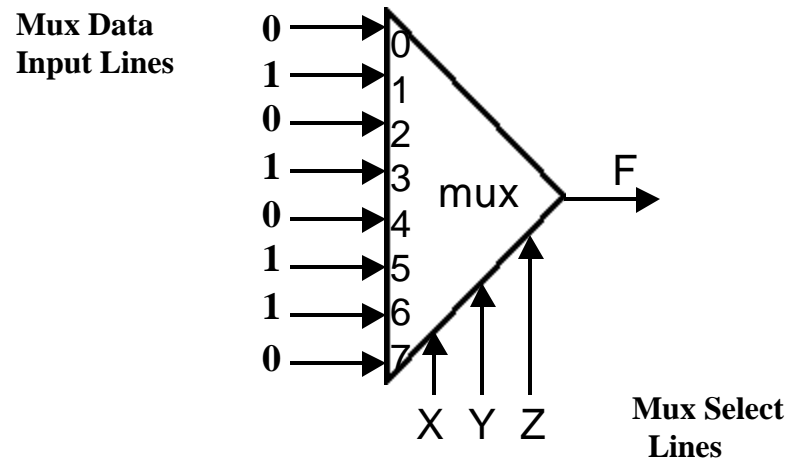


# Implementing n-variable Functions Using $2^n$ -to-1 Multiplexers

- Any n-variable logic function, in canonical sum-of-minterms form can be implemented using a single  $2^n$ -to-1 multiplexer:
  - The n input variables are connected to the mux select lines.
  - For each mux data input line  $I_i$  ( $0 \leq i \leq 2^n - 1$ ):
    - Connect 1 to mux input line  $I_i$  if  $i$  is a minterm of the function.
    - Otherwise, connect 0 to mux input line  $I_i$  (because  $i$  is not a minterm of the function thus the selected input should be 0).

# Example: 3-variable Function Using 8-to-1 mux

- Implement the function  $F(X,Y,Z) = S(1,3,5,6)$  using an 8-to-1 mux.
  - Connect the input variables X, Y, Z to mux select lines.
  - Mux data input lines 1, 3, 5, 6 that correspond to function minterms are connected to 1.
  - The remaining mux data input lines 0, 2, 4, 7 are connected to 0.





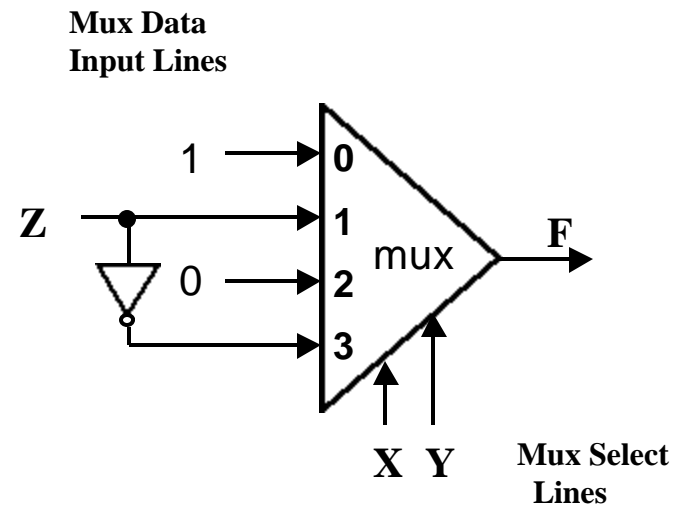
# Implementing n-variable Functions Using $2^{n-1}$ -to-1 Multiplexers

- Any n-variable logic function can be implemented using a smaller  $2^{n-1}$ -to-1 multiplexer and a single inverter (e.g 4-to-1 mux to implement 3 variable functions) as follows:
  - Express function in canonical sum-of-minterms form.
  - Choose n-1 variables as inputs to mux select lines.
  - Construct the truth table for the function, but grouping inputs by selection line values (i.e select lines as most significant inputs).
  - Determine multiplexer input line i values by comparing the remaining input variable and the function F for the corresponding selection lines value i:
    - Four possible mux input line i values:
      - Connect to 0 if the function is 0 for both values of remaining variable.
      - Connect to 1 if the function is 1 for both values of remaining variable.
      - Connect to remaining variable if function is equal to the remaining variable.
      - Connect to the inverted remaining variable if the function is equal to the remaining variable inverted.

# Example: 3-variable Function Using 4-to-1 mux

- Implement the function  $F(X,Y,Z) = S(0,1,3,6)$  using a single 4-to-1 mux and an inverter.
  - We choose the two most significant inputs X, Y as mux select lines.
  - Construct truth table:

Select Lines Value i	Select Lines			F	Mux Input i
	X	Y	Z		
0	0	0	0	1	1
	0	0	1	1	
1	0	1	0	0	Z
	0	1	1	1	
2	1	0	0	0	0
	1	0	1	0	
3	1	1	0	1	Z'
	1	1	1	0	



- We Determine multiplexer input line i values by comparing the remaining input variable Z and the function F for the corresponding selection lines value i:
  - when XY=00 the function  $F=1$  (for both  $Z=0, Z=1$ ) thus mux input0 = 1
  - when XY=01 the function  $F=Z$  thus mux input1 = Z
  - when XY=10 the function  $F=0$  (for both  $Z=0, Z=1$ ) thus mux input2 = 0
  - when XY=11 the function  $F=Z'$  thus mux input3 = Z'

# Combinational Arithmetic Circuits

- **Addition:**
  - **Half Adder (HA).**
  - **Full Adder (FA).**
  - **Carry Ripple Adders.**
  - **Carry Look-Ahead Adders.**
- **Subtraction:**
  - **Half Subtractor.**
  - **Full Subtractor.**
  - **Borrow Ripple Subtractors.**
  - **Subtraction using adders.**
- **Multiplication:**
  - **Combinational Array Multipliers.**

# Full Adder

- Adding two single-bit binary values, X, Y with a carry input bit C-in produces a sum bit S and a carry out C-out bit.

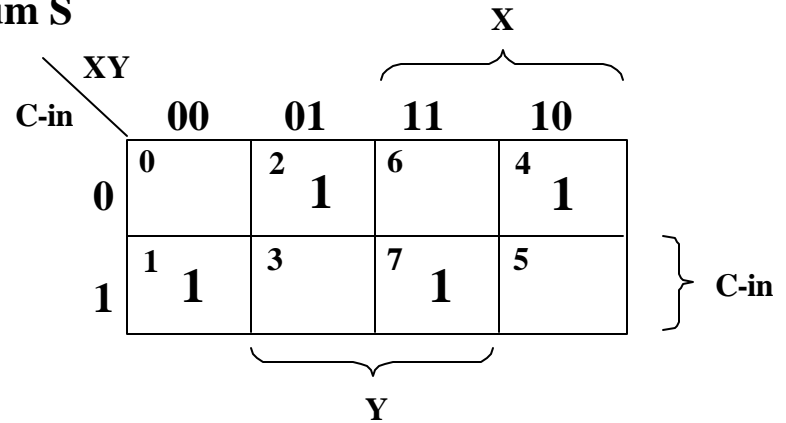
Full Adder Truth Table

Inputs			Outputs	
X	Y	C-in	S	C-out
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

$$S(X, Y, C\text{-in}) = S(1, 2, 4, 7)$$

$$C\text{-out}(x, y, C\text{-in}) = S(3, 5, 6, 7)$$

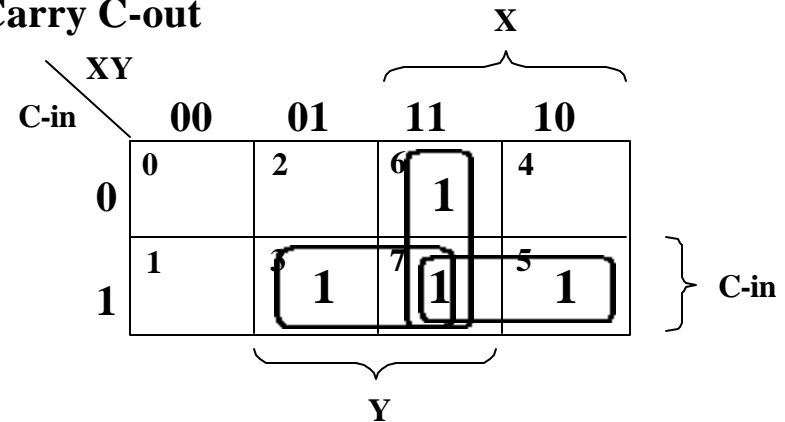
Sum S



$$S = X'Y'(C\text{-in}) + XY'(C\text{-in})' + XY'(C\text{-in})' + XY(C\text{-in})$$

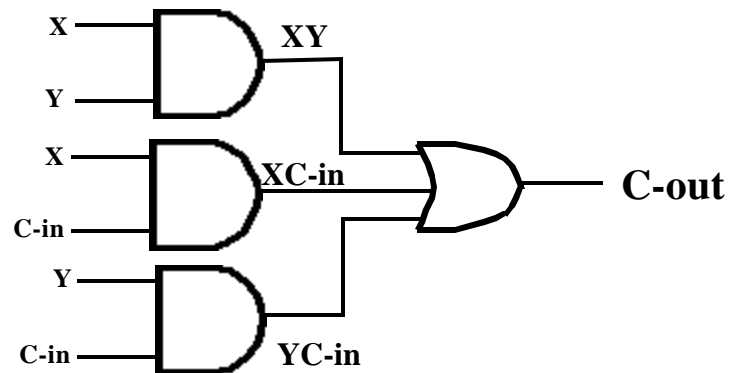
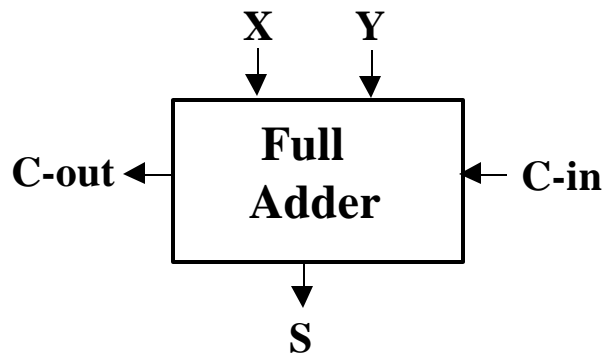
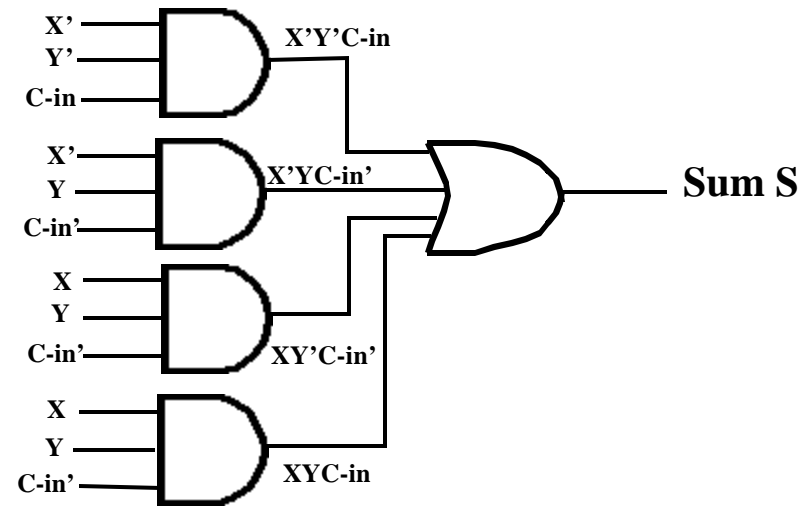
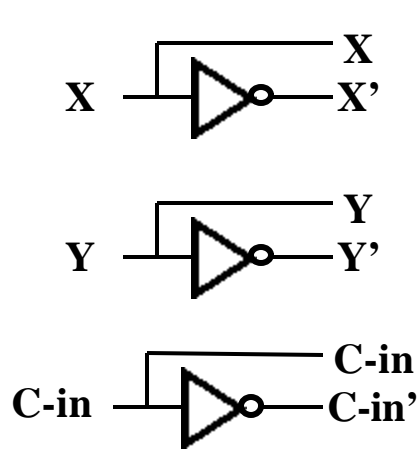
$$S = X \oplus Y \oplus (C\text{-in})$$

Carry C-out



$$C\text{-out} = XY + X(C\text{-in}) + Y(C\text{-in})$$

# Full Adder Circuit Using AND-OR



# n-bit Carry Ripple Adders

- An n-bit adder used to add two n-bit binary numbers can be built by connecting in series n full adders.
  - Each full adder represents a bit position j (from 0 to n-1).
  - Each carry out C-out from a full adder at position j is connected to the carry in C-in of the full adder at the higher position j+1.

- The output of a full adder at position j is given by:

$$S_j = X_j \oplus Y_j \oplus C_j$$

$$C_{j+1} = X_j \cdot Y_j + X_j \cdot C_j + Y_j \cdot C_j$$

- In the expression of the sum  $S_j$  must be generated by the full adder at the lower position j-1.
- The propagation delay in each full adder to produce the carry is equal to two gate delays = 2D
- Since the generation of the sum requires the propagation of the carry from the lowest position to the highest position, the total propagation delay of the adder is approximately:

$$\text{Total Propagation delay} = 2nD$$

# 4-bit Carry Ripple Adder

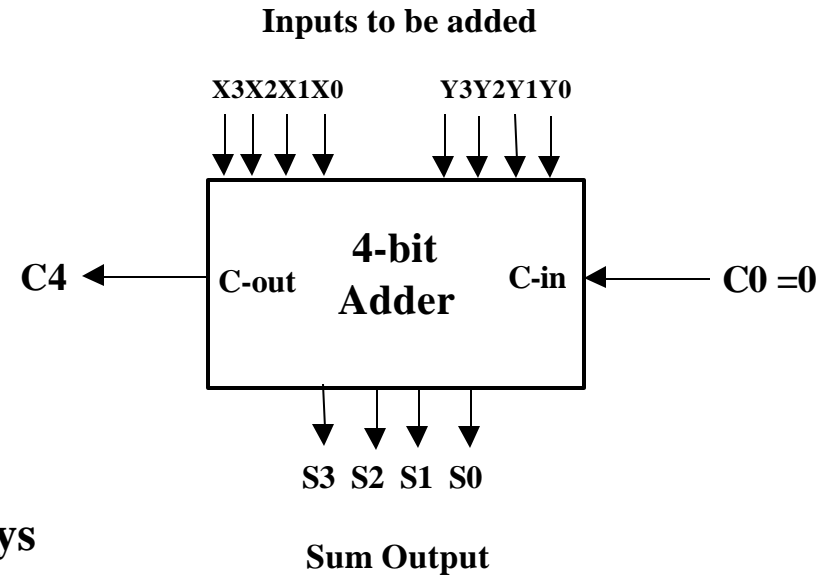
Adds two 4-bit numbers:

$$X = X_3 \ X_2 \ X_1 \ X_0$$

$$Y = Y_3 \ Y_2 \ Y_1 \ Y_0$$

producing the sum  $S = S_3 \ S_2 \ S_1 \ S_0$ ,

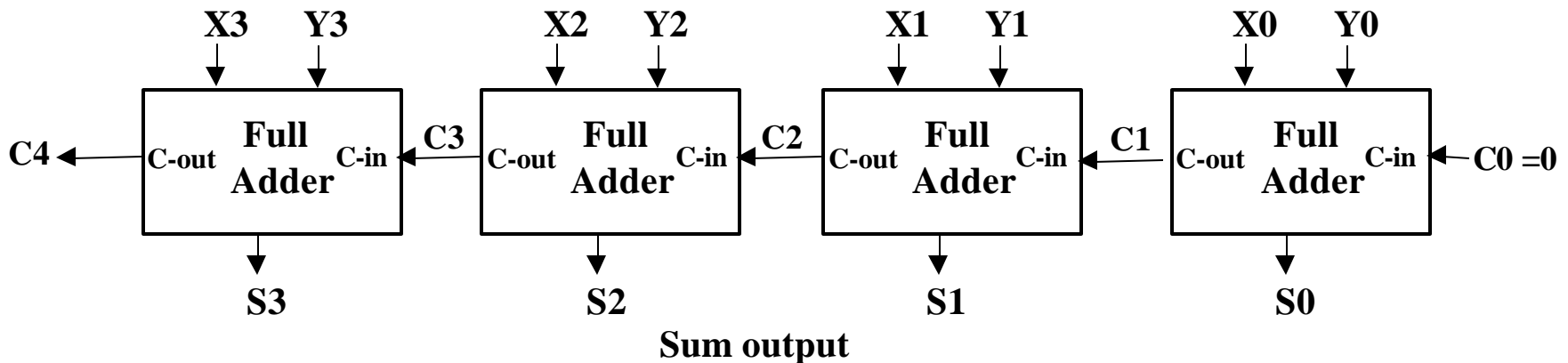
C-out =  $C_4$  from the most significant position  $j=3$



Total Propagation delay =  $2 nD = 8D$

or 8 gate delays

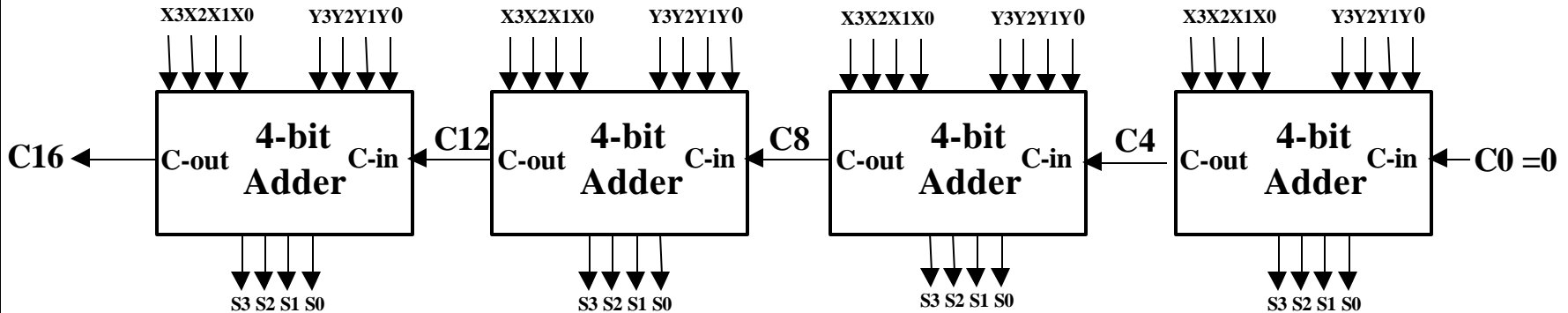
Data inputs to be added



# Larger Adders

- **Example: 16-bit adder using 4, 4-bit adders**
- **Adds two 16-bit inputs X (bits X0 to X15), Y (bits Y0 to Y15) producing a 16-bit Sum S (bits S0 to S15) and a carry out C16 from most significant position.**

**Data inputs to be added X (X0 to X15) , Y (Y0-Y15)**



**Sum output S (S0 to S15)**

**Propagation delay for 16-bit adder = 4 x propagation delay of 4-bit adder**  
**= 4 x 2 nD = 4 x 8D = 32 D**  
**or 32 gate delays**



# Carry Look-Ahead Adders

- The disadvantage of the ripple carry adder is that the propagation delay of adder ( $2nD$ ) increases as the size of the adder,  $n$  is increased due to the carry ripple through all the full adders.
- Carry look-ahead adders use a different method to create the needed carry bits for each full adder with a lower constant delay equal to three gate delays.
- The carry out C-out from the full adder at position  $i$  or  $C_{i+1}$  is given by:

$$\text{C-out} = C_{i+1} = X_i \cdot Y_i + (X_i + Y_i) \cdot C_i$$

- By defining:
  - $G_i = X_i \cdot Y_i$  as the carry generate function for position  $i$  (one gate delay)  
(If  $G_i = 1$   $C_{i+1}$  will be generated regardless of the value  $C_i$ )
  - $P_i = X_i + Y_i$  as the carry propagate function for position  $i$  (one gate delay)  
(If  $P_i = 1$   $C_i$  will be propagated to  $C_{i+1}$ )
- By using the carry generate function  $G_i$  and carry propagate function  $P_i$ , then  $C_{i+1}$  can be written as:

$$\text{C-out} = C_{i+1} = G_i + P_i \cdot C_i$$

- To eliminate carry ripple the term  $C_i$  is recursively expanded and by multiplying out, we obtain a 2-level AND-OR expression for each  $C_{i+1}$

# Carry Look-Ahead Adders

- For a 4-bit carry look-ahead adder the expanded expressions for all carry bits are given by:

$$C_1 = G_0 + P_0 \cdot C_0$$

$$C_2 = G_1 + P_1 \cdot C_1 = G_1 + P_1 \cdot G_0 + P_1 \cdot P_0 \cdot C_0$$

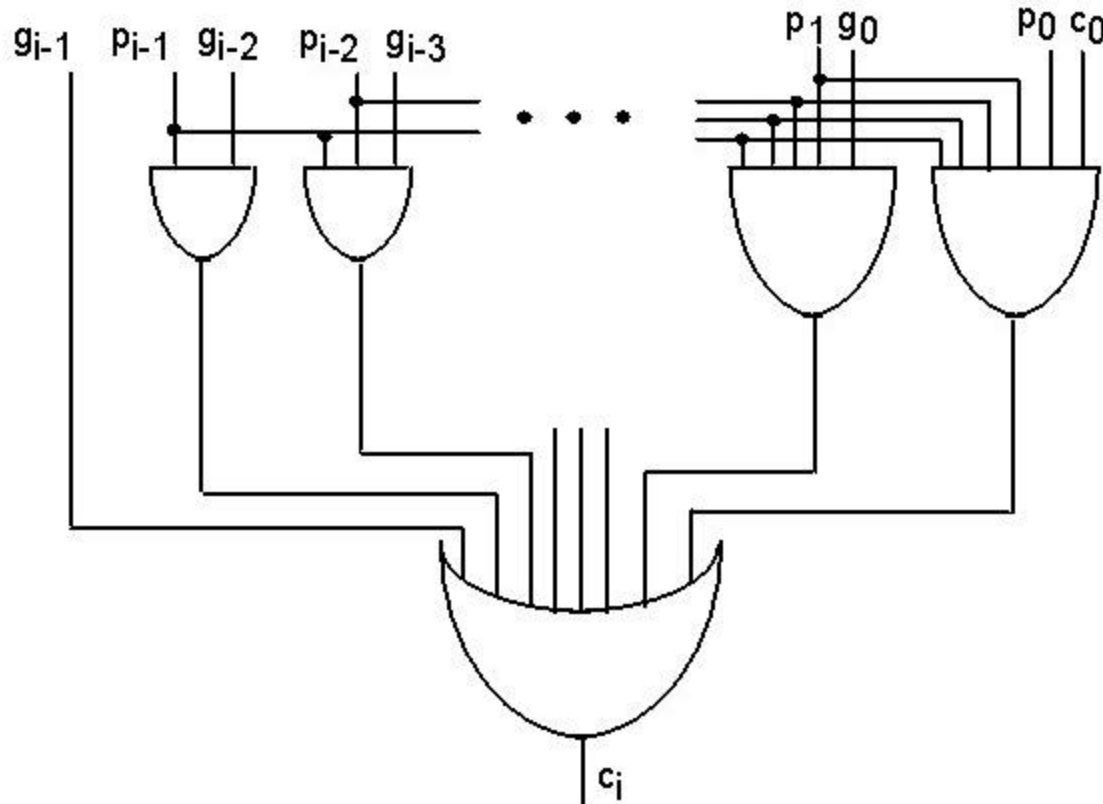
$$C_3 = G_2 + P_2 \cdot G_1 + P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot G_0 + P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_0 \cdot C_0$$

$$C_4 = G_3 + P_3 \cdot G_2 + P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot G_1 + P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot G_0 + P_3 \cdot P_2 \cdot P_1 \cdot P_0 \cdot C_0$$

where  $G_i = X_i \cdot Y_i$        $P_i = X_i + Y_i$

- The additional circuits needed to realize the expressions are usually referred to as the carry look-ahead logic.
- Using carry-ahead logic all carry bits are available after three gate delays regardless of the size of the adder.

# Carry Look-Ahead Circuit



$$C_i = G_{i-1} + P_{i-1} \cdot G_{i-2} + \dots + P_{i-1} \cdot P_{i-2} \cdot \dots \cdot P_1 \cdot G_0 + P_{i-1} \cdot P_{i-2} \cdot \dots \cdot P_0 \cdot C_0$$



# Full Subtractor

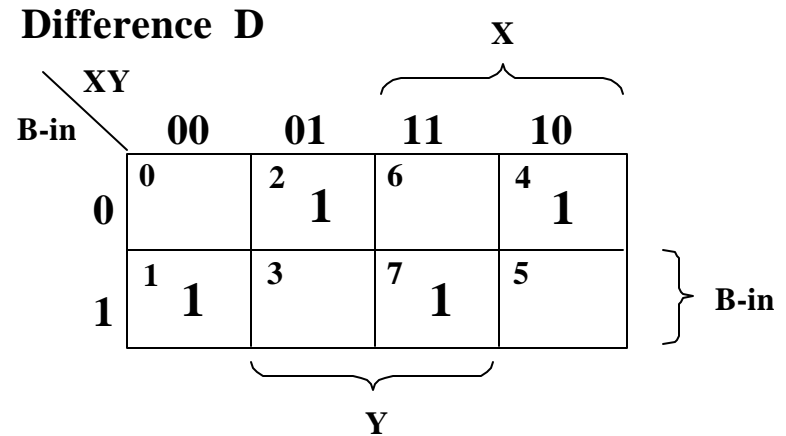
- Subtracting two single-bit binary values, Y, B-in from a single-bit value X produces a difference bit D and a borrow out B-out bit. This is called full subtraction.

## Full Subtractor Truth Table

Inputs			Outputs	
X	Y	B-in	D	B-out
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

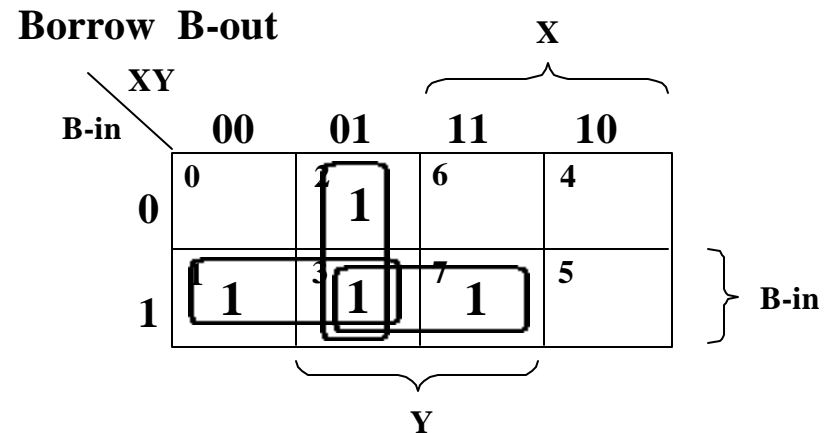
$$S(X, Y, C\text{-in}) = S(1, 2, 4, 7)$$

$$C\text{-out}(x, y, C\text{-in}) = S(1, 2, 3, 7)$$



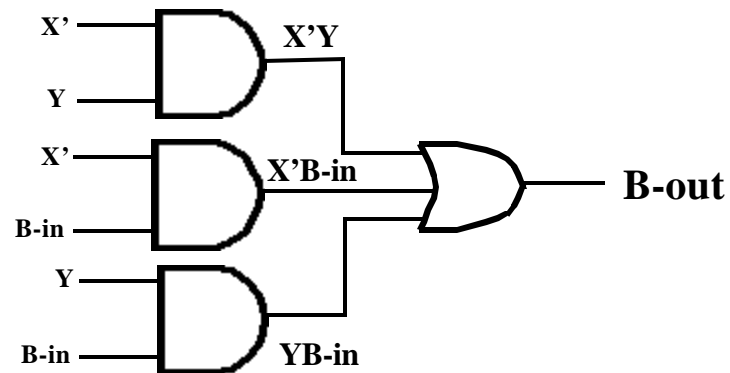
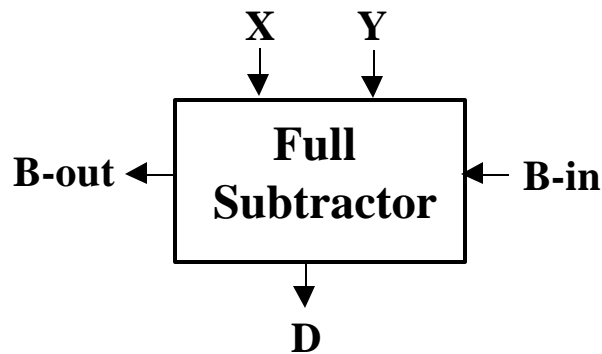
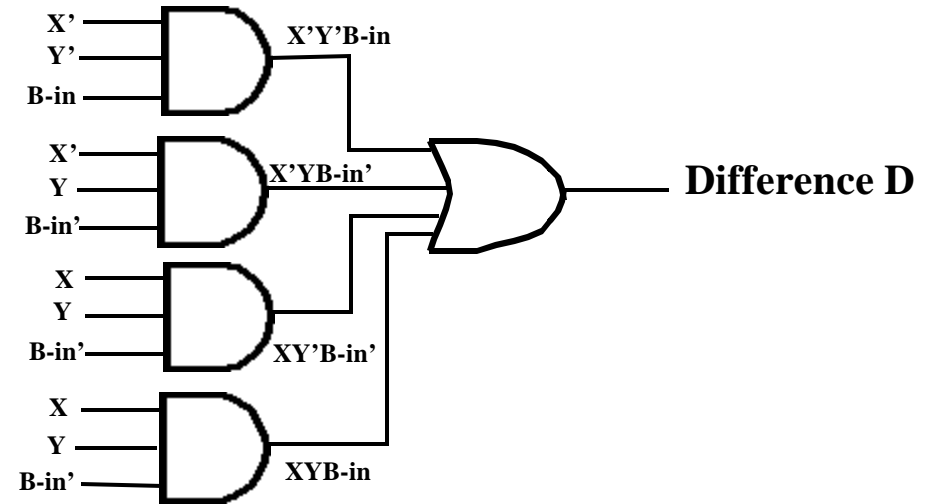
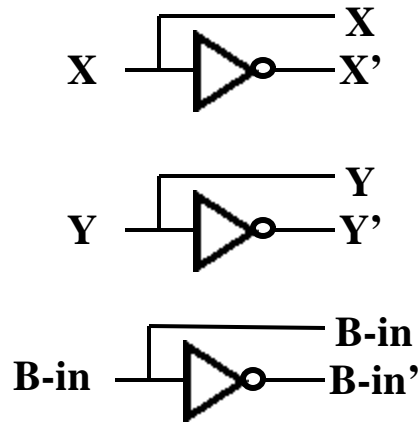
$$S = X'Y'(B\text{-in}) + XY'(B\text{-in})' + XY'(B\text{-in})' + XY(B\text{-in})$$

$$S = X \oplus Y \oplus (C\text{-in})$$



$$B\text{-out} = X'Y + X'(B\text{-in}) + Y(B\text{-in})$$

# Full Subtractor Circuit Using AND-OR



# n-bit Subtractors

An n-bit subtractor used to subtract an n-bit number  $Y$  from another n-bit number  $X$  (i.e  $X-Y$ ) can be built in one of two ways:

- **By using n full subtractors and connecting them in series, creating a borrow ripple subtractor:**
  - Each borrow out  $B_{out}$  from a full subtractor at position  $j$  is connected to the borrow in  $B_{in}$  of the full subtractor at the higher position  $j+1$ .
- **By using an n-bit adder and n inverters:**
  - Find two's complement of  $Y$  by:
    - Inverting all the bits of  $Y$  using the n inverters.
    - Adding 1 by setting the carry in of the least significant position to 1
  - The original subtraction ( $X - Y$ ) now becomes an addition of  $X$  to two's complement of  $Y$  using the n-bit adder.

# 4-bit Borrow Ripple Subtractor

Subtracts two 4-bit numbers:

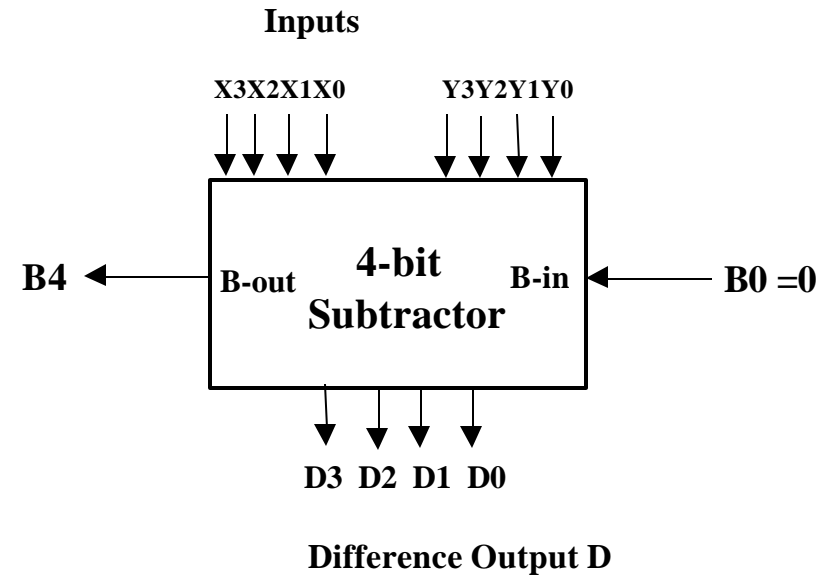
$Y = Y_3 Y_2 Y_1 Y_0$  from

$X = X_3 X_2 X_1 X_0$

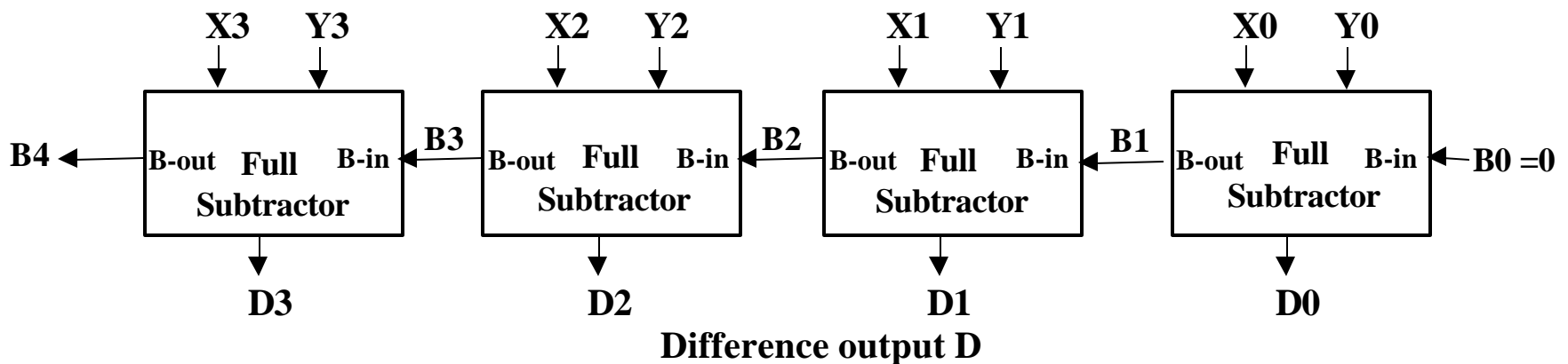
$Y = Y_3 Y_2 Y_1 Y_0$

producing the difference  $D = D_3 D_2 D_1 D_0$ ,

$B\text{-out} = B_4$  from the most significant position  $j=3$

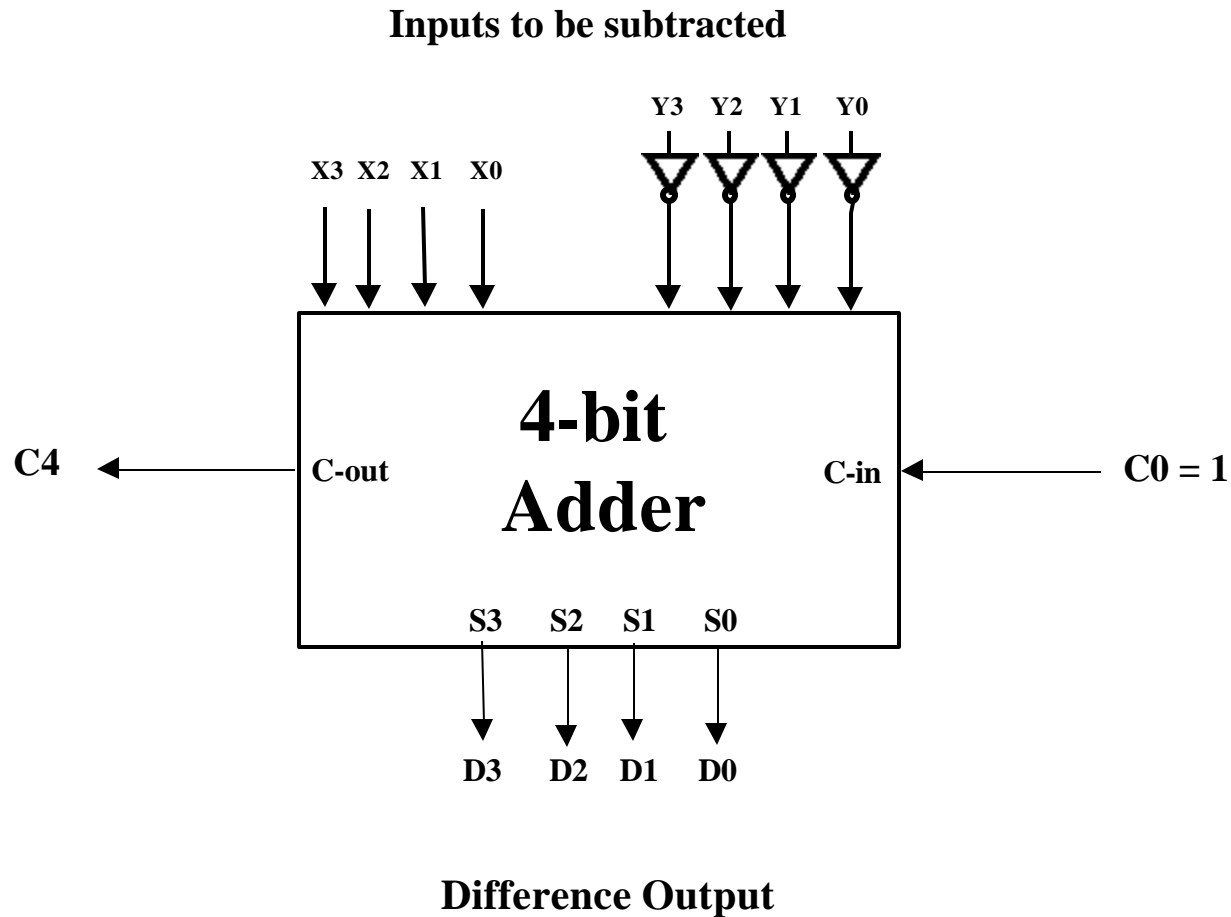


Data inputs to be subtracted





# 4-bit Subtractor Using 4-bit Adder



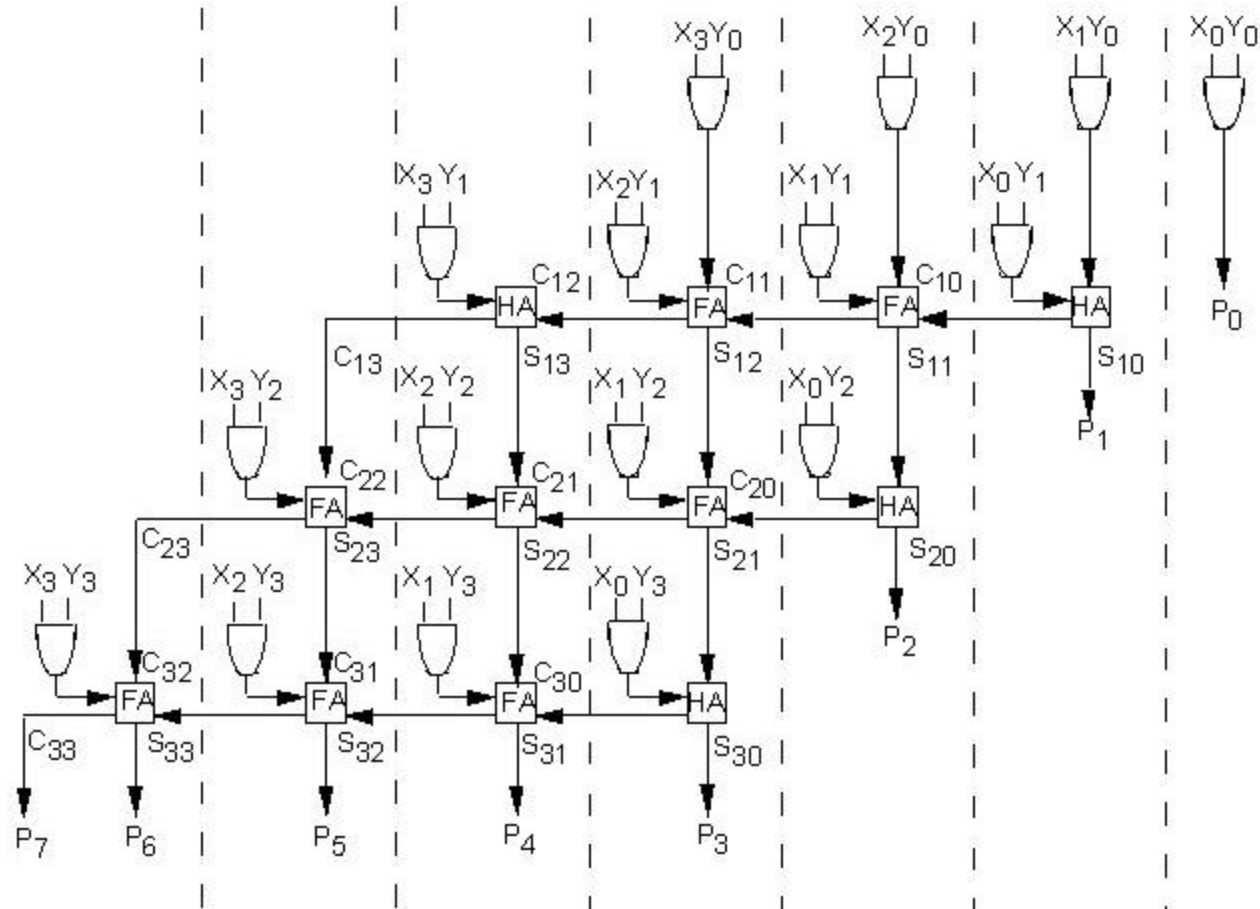
# Binary Multiplication

- Multiplication is achieved by adding a list of shifted multiplicands according to the digits of the multiplier.
- Ex. (unsigned)

<b>11</b>		<b>1 0 1 1</b>	<b>multiplicand (4 bits)</b>		<b>X3</b>	<b>X2</b>	<b>X1</b>	<b>X0</b>
<b>X 13</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>1 1 0 1</b>	<b>multiplier (4 bits)</b>	<b>x</b>	<b>Y3</b>	<b>Y2</b>	<b>Y1</b>	<b>Y0</b>
-----								
<b>33</b>		<b>1 0 1 1</b>			<b>X3.Y0</b>	<b>X2.Y0</b>	<b>X1.Y0</b>	<b>X0.Y0</b>
<b>11</b>		<b>0 0 0 0</b>			<b>X3.Y1</b>	<b>X2.Y1</b>	<b>X1.Y1</b>	<b>X0.Y1</b>
		<b>1 0 1 1</b>			<b>X3.Y2</b>	<b>X2.Y2</b>	<b>X1.Y2</b>	<b>X0.Y2</b>
					<b>X3.Y3</b>	<b>X2.Y3</b>	<b>X1.Y3</b>	<b>X0.Y3</b>
<b>143</b>		<b>1 0 1 1</b>						
					<b>P7</b>	<b>P6</b>	<b>P5</b>	<b>P4</b>
					<b>P3</b>	<b>P2</b>	<b>P1</b>	<b>P0</b>
		<b>1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1</b>						

- An n-bit X n-bit multiplier can be realized in combinational circuitry by using an array of n-1 n-bit adders where each adder is shifted by one position.
- For each adder one input is the multiplicand multiplied by 0 or 1 (using AND gates) depending on the multiplier bit, the other input is n partial product bits.

# 4x4 Array Multiplier

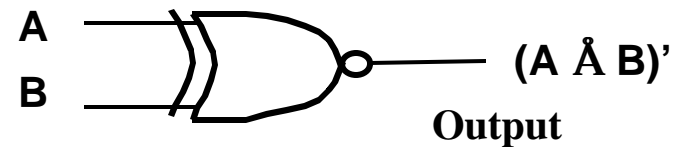


# Combinational Comparators

- Comparing two binary inputs  $A$ ,  $B$  each  $n$  bits for equality (i.e.  $A = B$ ) is a common operation in computers.
- A single output combinational circuit to accomplish this can be constructed using  $n$  2-input XNOR gates for bit-wise comparison plus one  $n$ -input AND gate. The output = 1 if  $A = B$
- This can also be done by subtraction ( $A - B$ ) and checking for a zero result using a single  $n$ -input NOR gate.
- Example: 1-bit comparator:  $A$ ,  $B$  1-bit each.
  - The 1-bit comparison requires a single XNOR gate

Truth table:                      Output

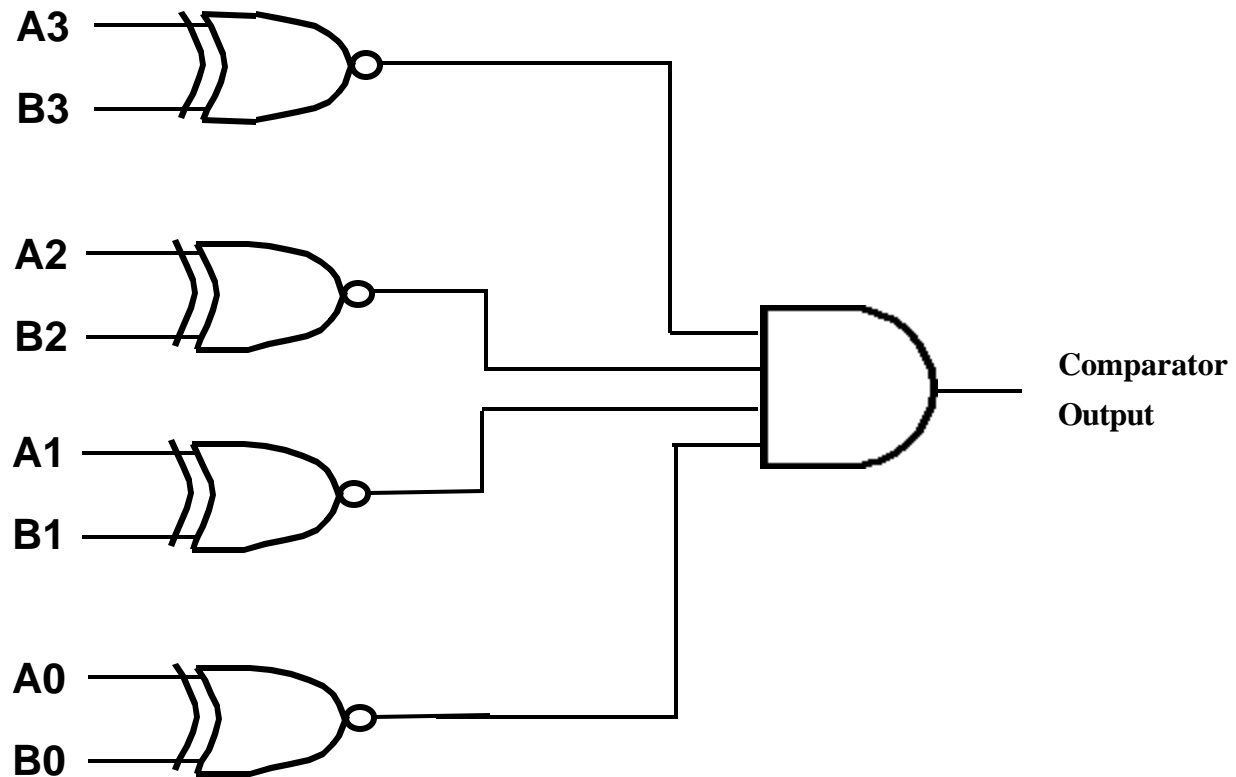
A	B	$(A \oplus B)'$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1



1-bit comparator

# Example: 4-bit Comparator

Compares  $A = A_3 A_2 A_1 A_0$  with  $B = B_3 B_2 B_1 B_0$   
Output = 1 if  $A = B$

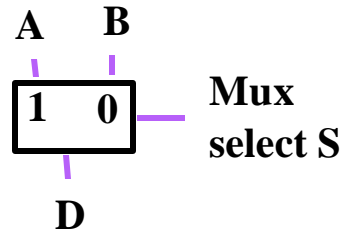


# Combinational Shift Circuits

- An n-bit shift circuit (shifter) has a single n-bit data input A, and a single n-bit output R and a number of control inputs to determine the shift amount (0 to n-1).
- Possible shift operations include:
  - Shift left or right:
    - Arithmetic right shift (the sign bit is shifted in),
    - logic shift (0 is shifted in)
    - Rotate left or right.
- Example: Original data input A = 11011
  - Shift left by one : 10110
  - Logic shift right by one: 01101
  - Arithmetic shift right by one: 11101
  - Rotate left by one: 10111
- Combinational shift circuits are usually constructed using a number of levels of multiplexeres.

# Example: Combinational 8-Bit Right Shifter

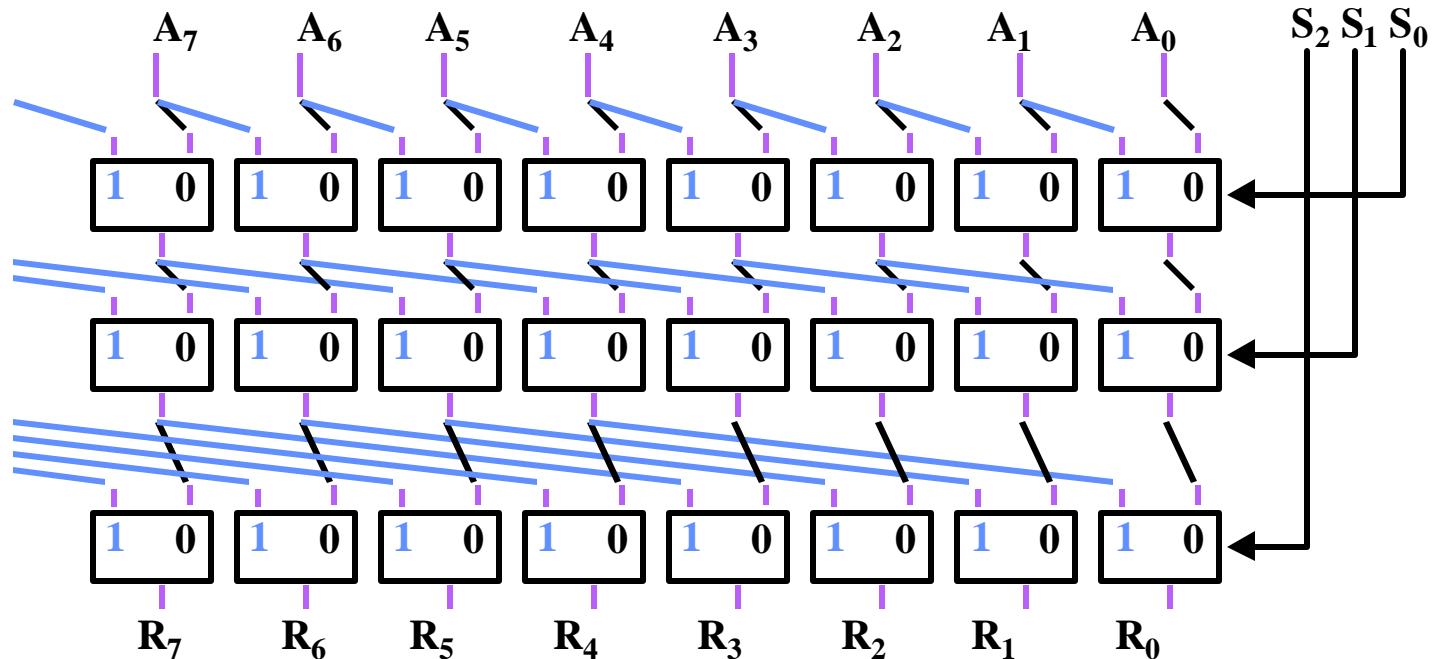
Basic Building Block 2-to-1 Mux



$S_2 S_1 S_0$   
shift amount from 0 to 7

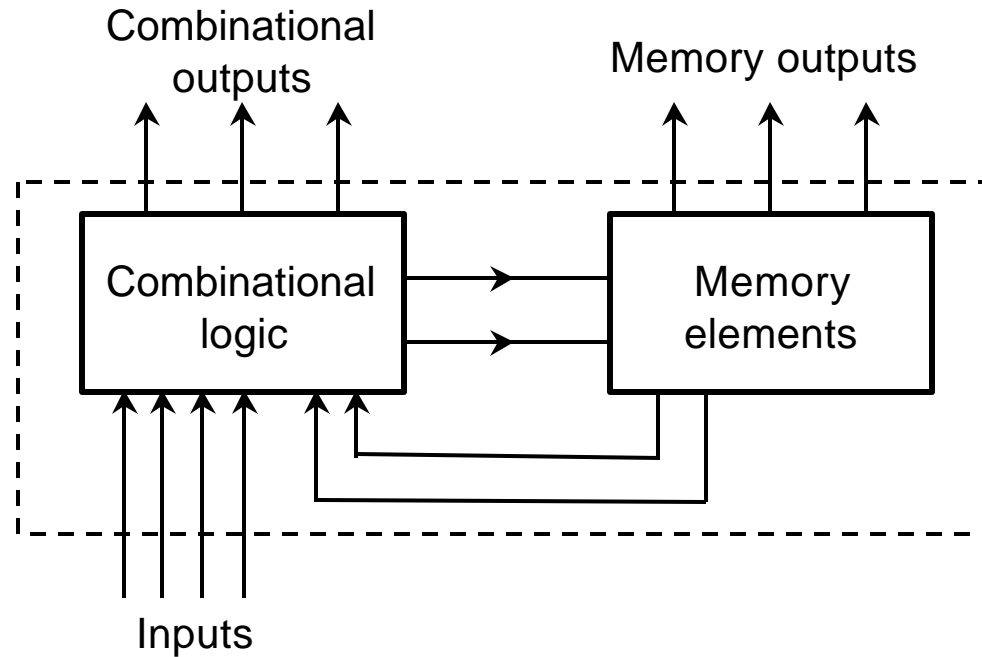
Three levels of Muxes used

Connect to:  
0 for logic  
right shift  
or to A7  
for arithmetic  
right shift  
or to A0 - A6  
for rotate right



- Propagation delay: 2 gate delays per level x 3 levels = 6 gate delays
- How many Mux levels for 32-bit shifter? Propagation delay?

# Sequential Logic Circuits



**Sequential circuit = Combinational logic + Memory Elements**

**Current State of A sequential Circuit: Value stored in memory elements (value of state variables).**

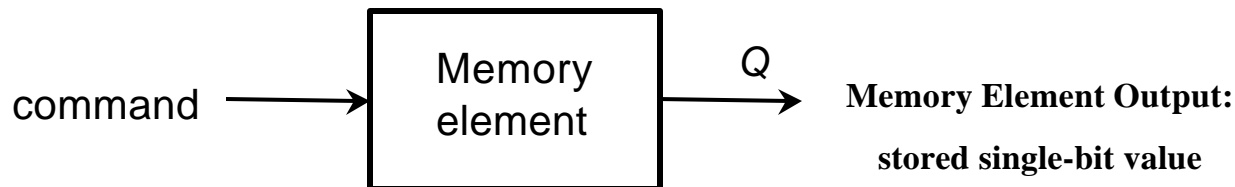
**State transition: A change in the stored values in memory elements thus changing the sequential circuit from one state to another state.**



## Sequential Circuit Building Blocks:

# Generic Memory Elements

- **A Memory Element:** A logic device that can remember a single-bit value indefinitely, or change its value on command from its inputs.



- **The output  $Q$  of the memory element represents the value stored in the memory element. This is also called the state variable of the memory elements. A memory element can be in one of two possible states:**
  - $Q = 0$  (the memory element has 0 stored), also said to be in state 0.
  - $Q = 1$  (the memory element has 1 stored), also said to be in state 1.
- **The commands to the memory element formed by its input(s) may include:**
  - **Set:** Store 1 ( $Q=1$ ) in the memory element.
  - **Reset:** Store 0 ( $Q=0$ ) in the memory element.
  - **Flip:** Change stored value from 0 to 1 or from 1 to 0.
  - **Hold value:** Memory value does not change.
- **Memory Element state transition:** A change in the stored value from 0 to 1, or from 1 to 0 such as that caused by a flip command.

# Sequential Circuit Memory Elements: Latches, Flip-Flops

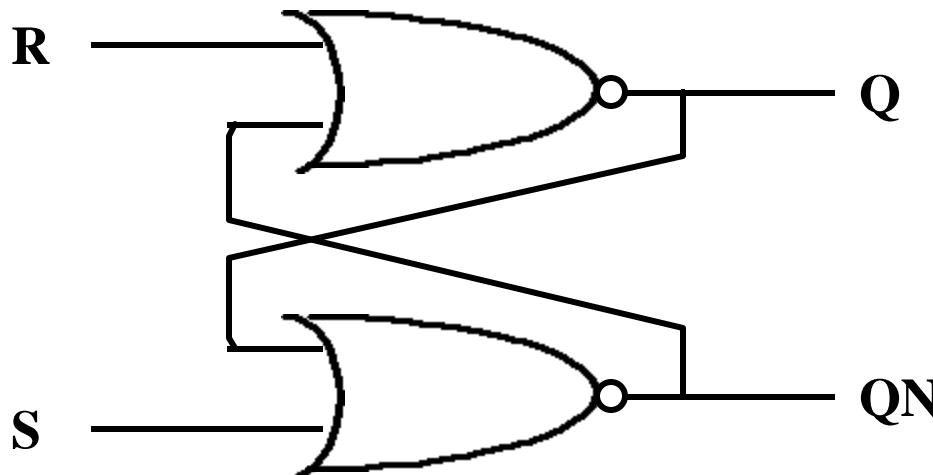
- **Latches and flip-flops are the basic single-bit memory elements used to build sequential circuit with one or two inputs/outputs, designed using individual logic gates and feedback loops.**
- **Latches:**
  - **The output of a latch depends on its current inputs and on its previous inputs and its change of state can happen at any time when its inputs change.**
- **Flip-Flops:**
  - **The output of a flip-flop also depends on current and previous input but the change in output (change of state or state transition) occurs at specific times determined by a clock input.**

# Sequential Circuit Memory Elements: Latches, Flip-Flops

- **Latches:**
  - **S-R Latch**
  - **S-R Latch With Enable**
  - **D-Latch**
- **Flip-Flops:**
  - **Edge-Triggered D Flip-Flop**
  - **Master/Slave S-R Flip-Flop**
  - **Master/Slave J-K Flip-Flop**
  - **Edge-Triggered J-K Flip-Flop**
  - **T Flip-Flop With Enable**

# S-R Latch

- An S-R (set-reset) latch can be built using two NOR-gates forming a feedback loop.
- The output of the S-R latch depends on current as well as previous inputs or state, and its state (value stored) can change as soon as its inputs change.



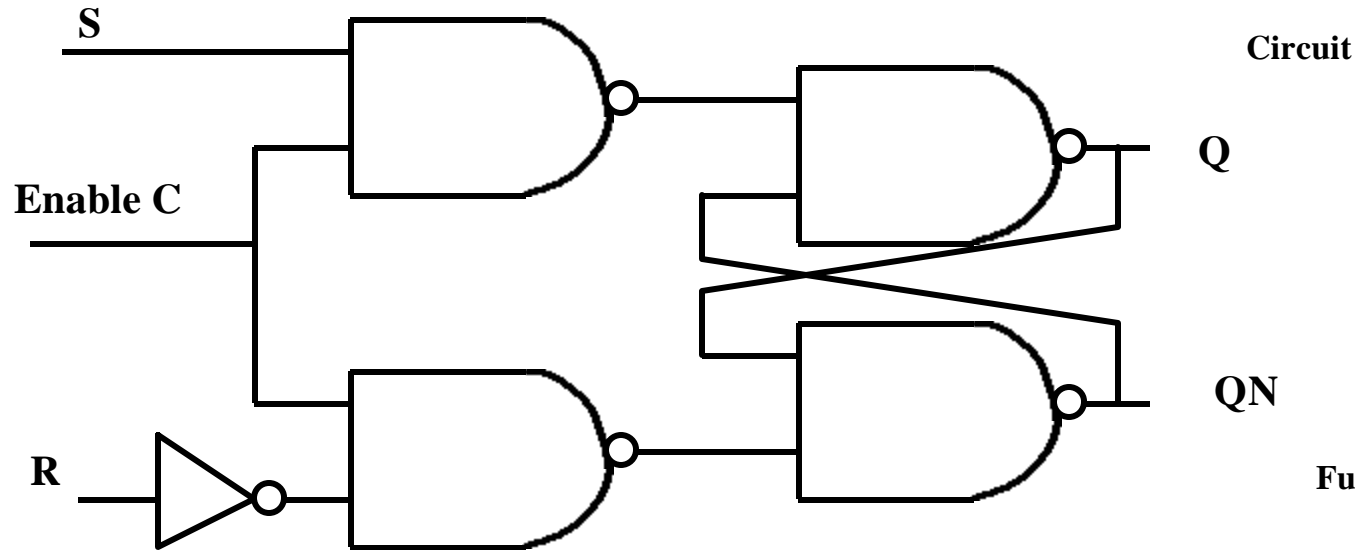
Circuit

Function Table

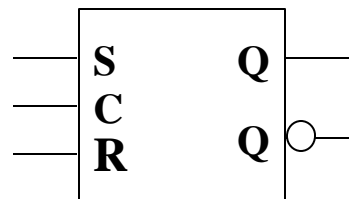
S	R	Q	QN
0	0	last Q	Last QN
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0

# S-R Latch With Enable

- Since the S-R latch is responsive to its inputs at all times an enable line C is used to disable or enable state transitions.
- Behaves similar to a regular S-R latch when enable C=1



R



Logic Symbol

Function Table

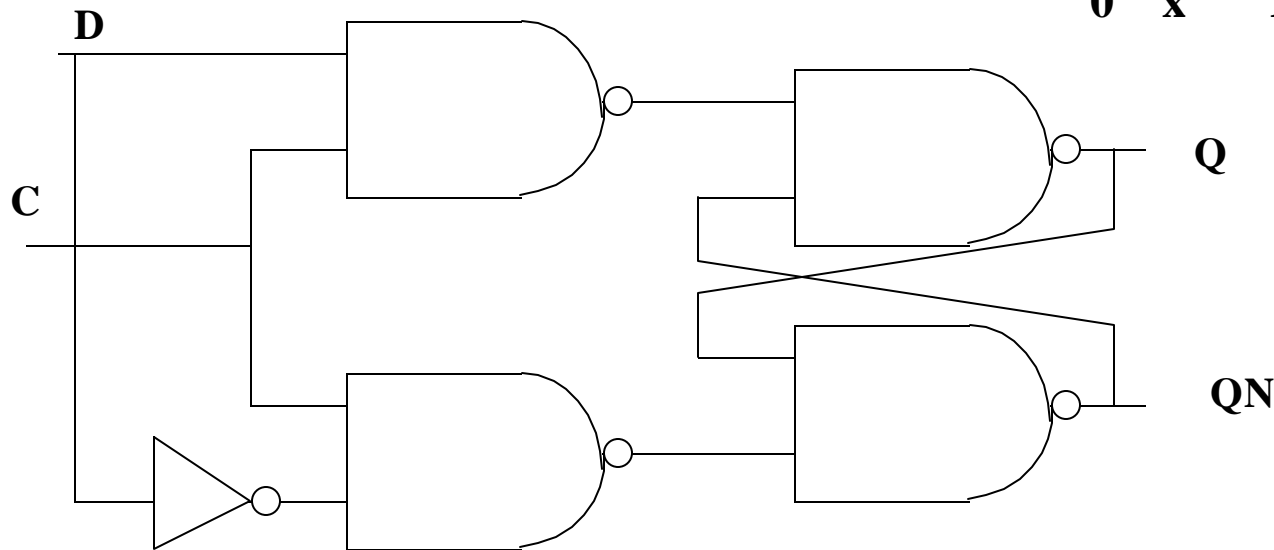
S	R	C	Q	QN
0	0	1	last Q	last QN
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	0
x	x	0	last Q	last QN

# D-Latch

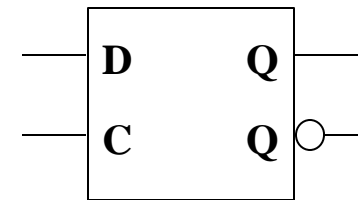
- Similar to S-R latch with an enable line, but both S, R are generated from one input D (data) and an inverter.
- Stores the value of its input D when enable C = 1.

Function Table

C	D	Q	QN
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0
0	x	Last Q	Last QN



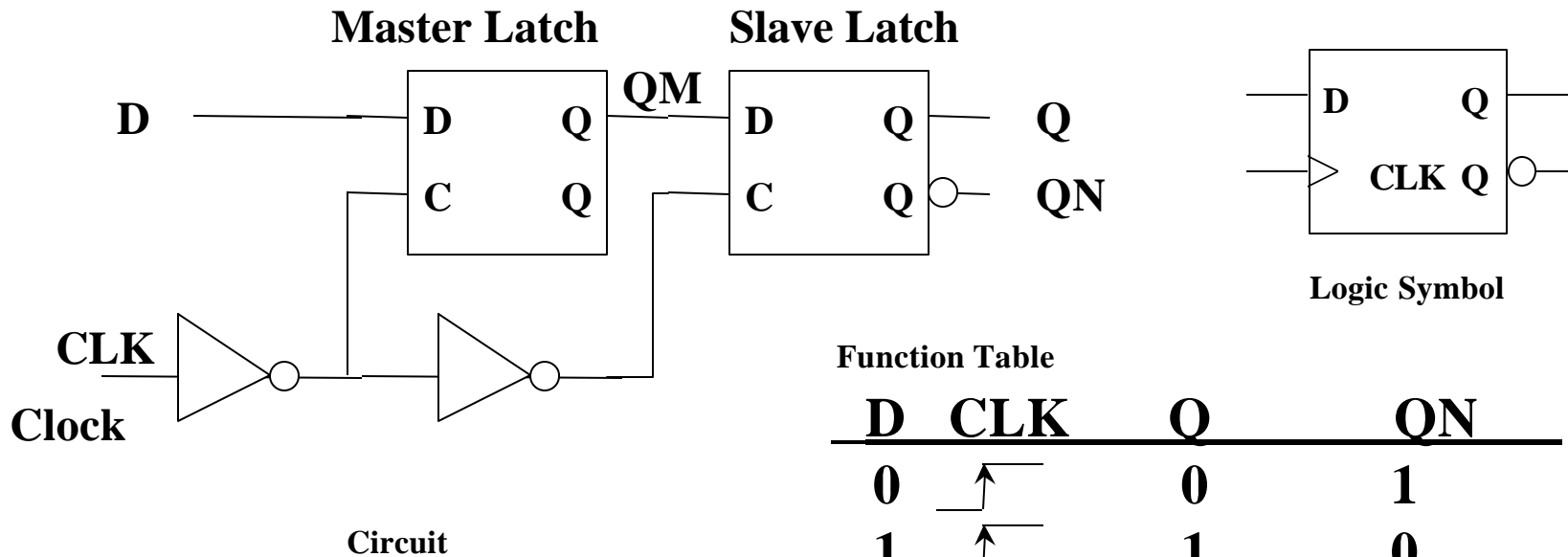
Circuit



Logic Symbol

# Edge-Triggered D Flip-Flop

- Uses a pair of D latches and inverters.
- Similar in behavior to a D latch except that output and state changes happen at the rising or falling edge of an input clock.
- A D Flip-Flop triggered on the rising edge of the clock is given by:

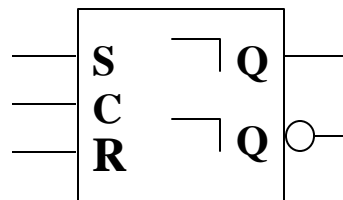
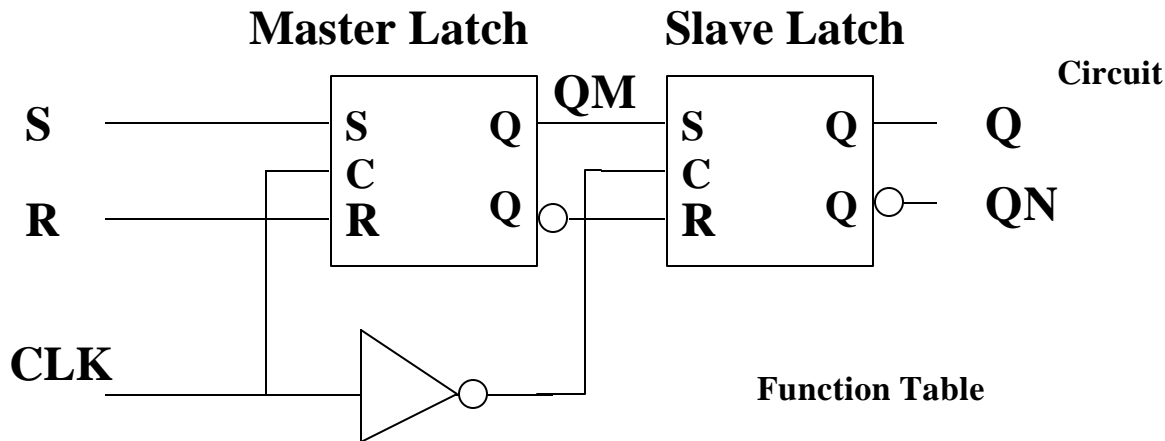


Function Table

D	CLK	Q	QN
0	$\uparrow$	0	1
1	$\uparrow$	1	0
x	0	Last Q	Last QN
x	x	Last Q	Last QN

# Master/Slave S-R Flip-Flop

- S-R latches are substituted for the D latches in the negative-edge triggered D flip flop



Logic Symbol

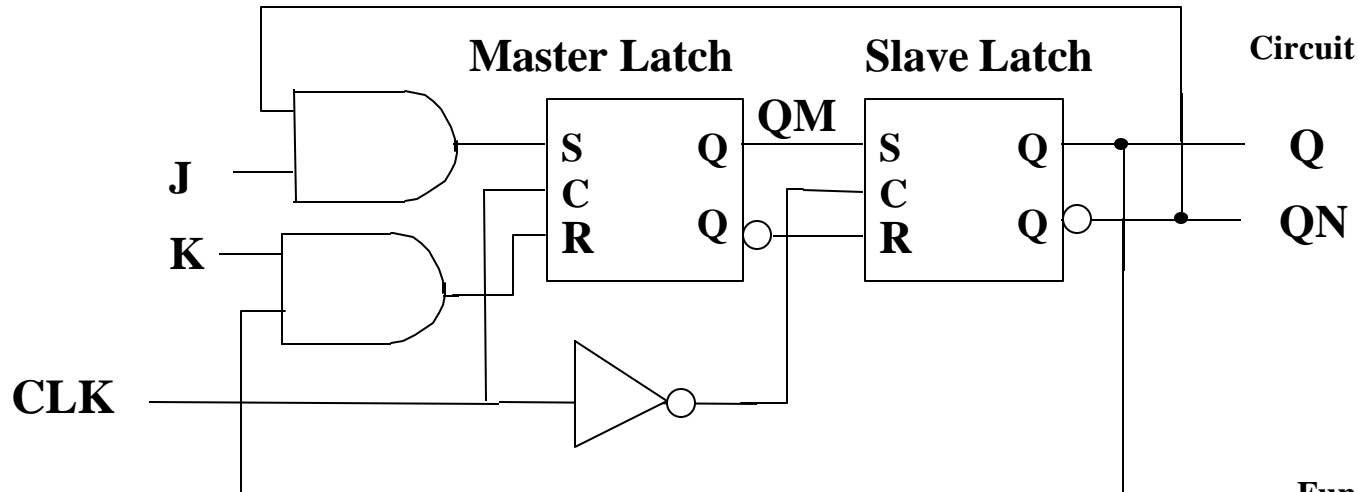
Function Table

S	R	C	Q	QN
x	x	0	last Q	last QN
0	0		last Q	last QN
0	1		0	1
1	0		1	0
1	1		undef.	undef.



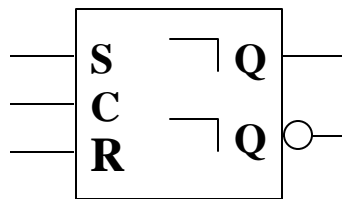
# Master/Slave J-K Flip-Flop

- Solves the problem when both  $S=R=1$
- When  $J=K=1$  the last state is inverted.



Function Table

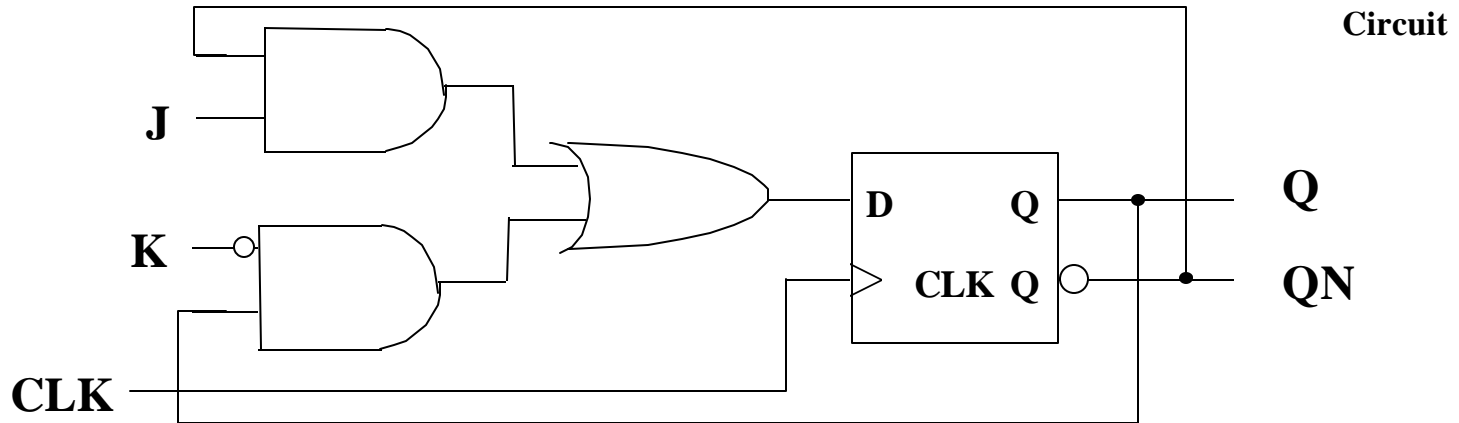
J	K	C	Q	QN
x	x	0	last Q	last QN
0	0	1	last Q	last QN
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	last QN	last Q



Logic Symbol

# Edge Triggered J-K Flip-Flop

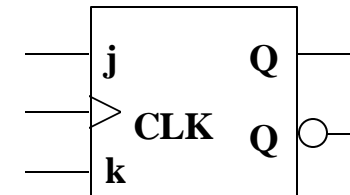
- Created from an edge-triggered D flip-flop



Function Table

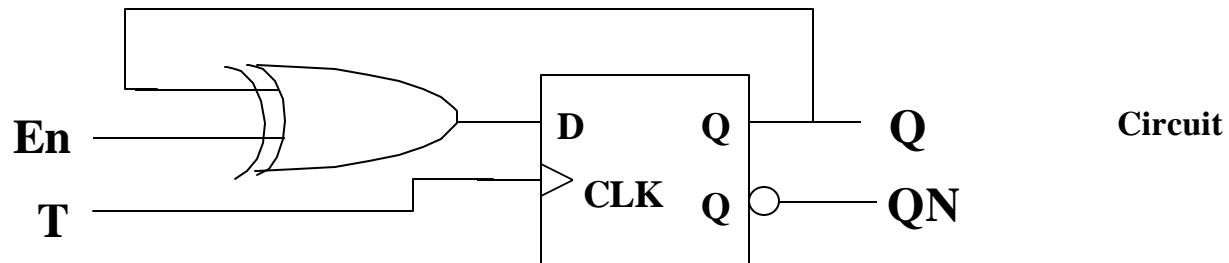
J	K	C	Q	QN
x	x	0	last Q	last QN
x	x	1	last Q	last QN
0	0	$\uparrow$	last Q	last QN
0	1	$\uparrow$	0	1
1	0	$\uparrow$	1	0
1	1	$\uparrow$	last QN	last Q

Logic Symbol

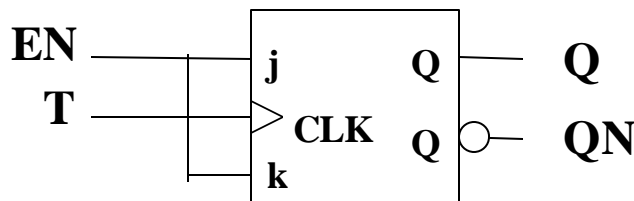


# T Flip-Flop With Enable

- Changes state on every clock cycle (rising edge of T).



OR



Function Table

T	En	Q	QN
x	0	last Q	last QN
$\uparrow$	1	last QN	last Q

# Clocked Synchronous State-Machines

- Such machines have the characteristics:
  - Sequential circuits designed using flip-flops.
  - All flip-flops use a common clock (clocked synchronous).
  - A machine using  $n$  flip-flops (state memory) has  $n$  state variables (the outputs of the flip-flops) and  $2^n$  states.
  - In general, the next state and output of the machine both depend on the current state of the machine and on the current input:

**Next state =  $F(\text{current state, input})$**

**output =  $G(\text{current state, input})$**

**This type of state machine is called Mealy Machine**

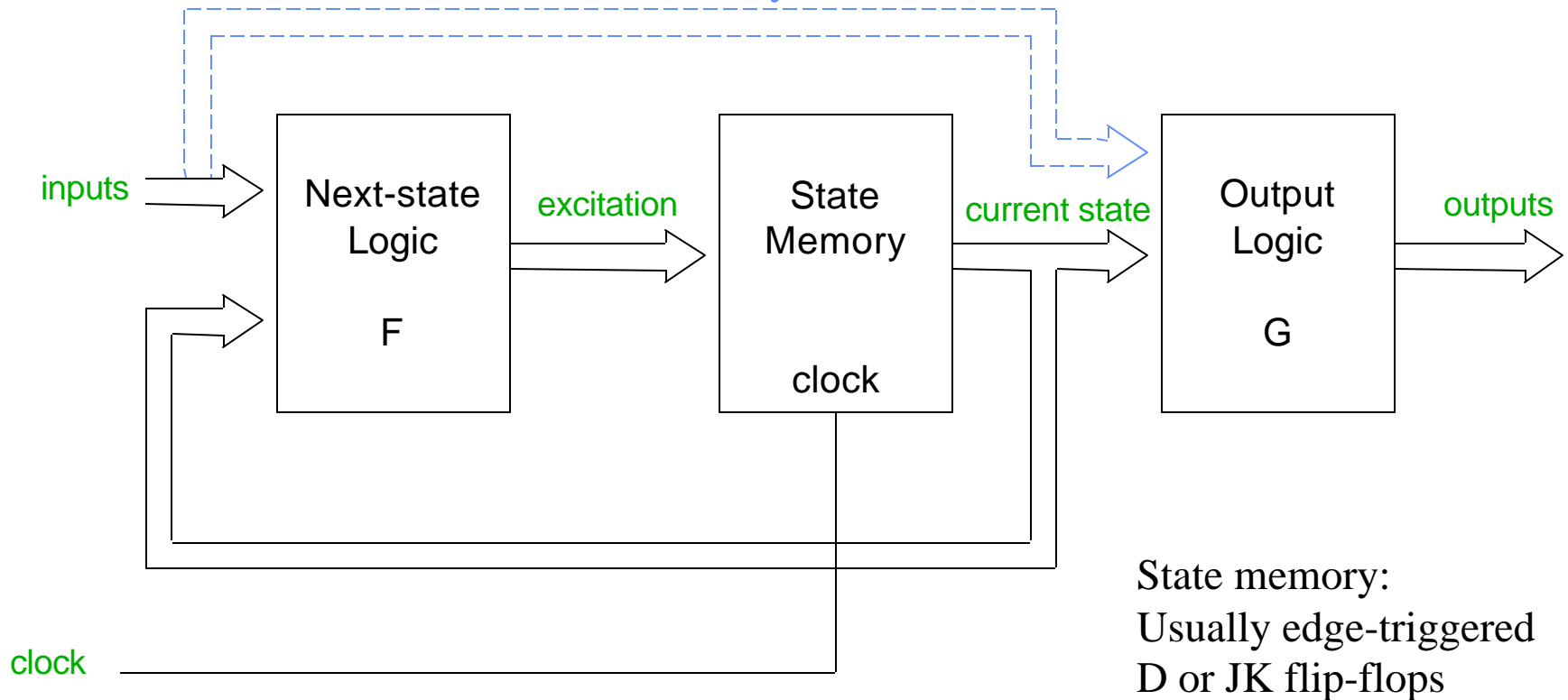
- In some cases the next output depends only on the current state and not directly on the current input

**Next state =  $F(\text{current state, input})$       output =  $G(\text{current state})$**

**Such machines are called Moore machines.**

# Clocked Synchronous State-Machine Model

(Mealy machine)



State memory:  
Usually edge-triggered  
D or JK flip-flops

**Moore Machine**

# Latch/Flip-Flop Characteristic Equations

<u>Device</u>	<u>Characteristic Equations</u>
S-R latch	$Q^* = S + R'.Q$
D latch	$Q^* = D$
Edge-triggered D flip-flop	$Q^* = D$
Master/Slave S-R flip-flop	$Q^* = S + R'.Q$
Master/Slave J-K flip flop	$Q^* = J.Q' + K'.Q$
Edge Triggered J-K flip-flop	$Q^* = J.Q' + K'.Q$
T flip-flop	$Q^* = Q'$
T flip-flop with enable	$Q^* = EN.Q' + EN'.Q$

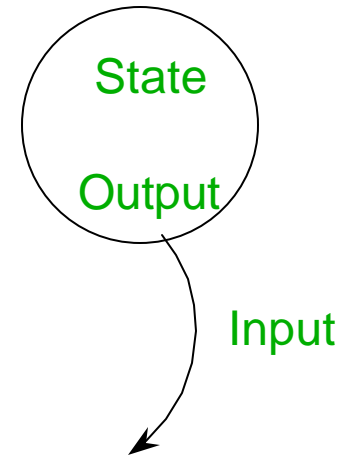
# Clocked Synchronous State-machine Analysis

Given the circuit diagram of a state machine:

- 1 Analyze the combinational logic to determine flip-flop input (excitation) equations:  $D_i = F_i(Q, \text{inputs})$ 
  - The input to each flip-flop is based upon current state and circuit inputs.
- 2 Substitute excitation equations into flip-flop characteristic equations, giving transition equations:  $Q_i^* = H_i(D_i)$
- 3 From the circuit, find output equations:  $Z = G(Q, \text{inputs})$ 
  - The outputs are based upon the current state and possibly the inputs.
- 4 Construct a state transition/output table from the transition and output equations:
  - Similar to truth table.
  - Present state on the left side.
  - Outputs and next state for each input value on the right side.
  - Provide meaningful names for the states in state table, if possible.
- 5 Draw the state diagram which is the graphical representation of state table.

# State Diagram

Basic Format:

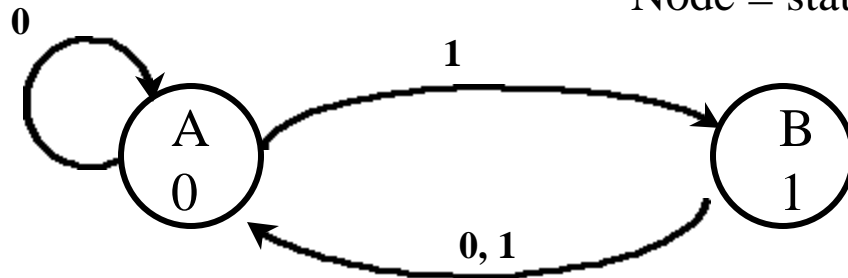


Moore

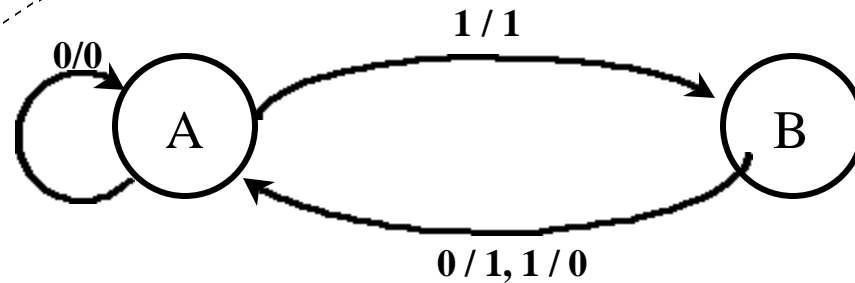
Format:

Arc = input X

Node = state/output Q



Mealy



Format:

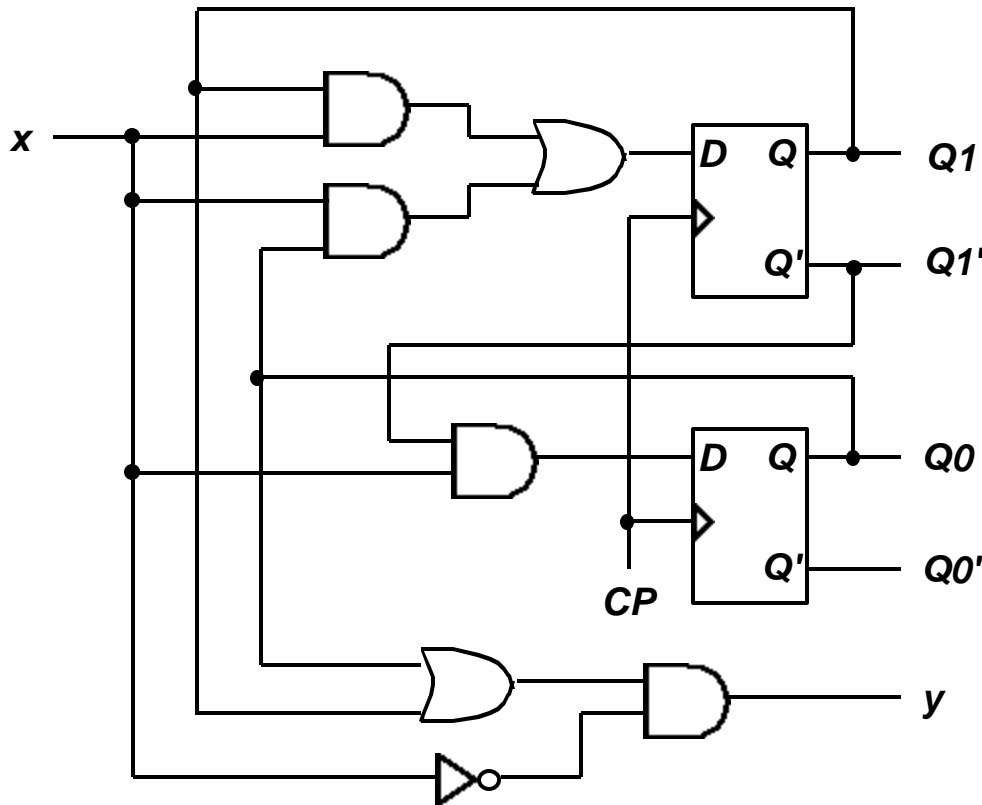
Arc = input X / mealy output Y

Node = state



# State Machine Analysis Example

Analyze the state machine:



1 Input (or excitation) equations:

$$D0 = Q1'. X$$

$$D1 = Q1 . x + Q0 . x$$

2 Characteristic equations:

$$Q0^* = D0$$

$$Q1^* = D1$$

Find State equations:

$$Q0^* = Q1'. x$$

$$Q1^* = Q1 . x + Q0 . x$$

3 Output equation:

$$y = (Q0 + Q1) . x'$$

This is a Mealy Machine since  $\text{output} = G(\text{current state, input})$

# State Machine Analysis Example

4 From the *state equations* and *output equation*, construct the *state transition/output table*:

State equations:

$$Q0^* = Q1' \cdot x$$

$$Q1^* = Q1 \cdot x + Q0 \cdot x$$

Output equation:

$$y = (Q0 + Q1) \cdot x'$$

		x ← Input	
		0	1
Q1	Q0		
0	0	00,0	01,0
0	1	00,1	11,0
1	0	00,1	10,0
1	1	00,1	10,0

Current State

Next State when x = 0

Output for current state when x = 0

Next State when x = 1

Output for current state when x = 1

$Q1^* Q0^* , y$

# State Machine Analysis Example

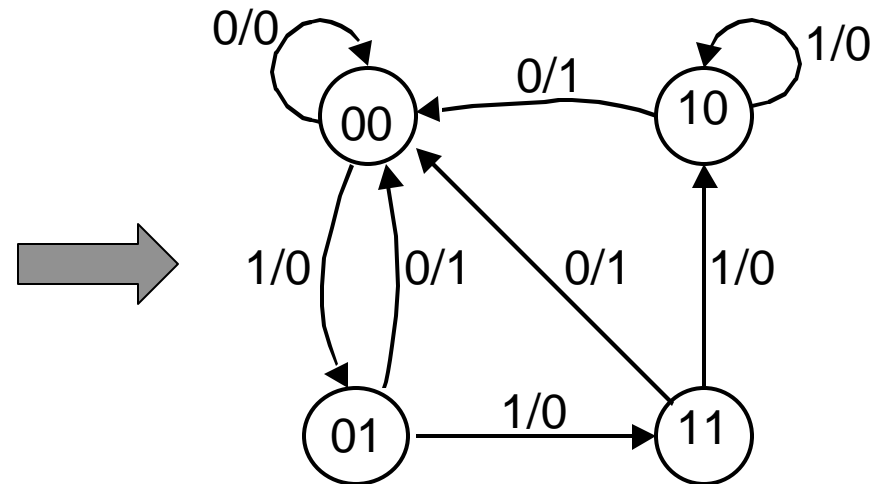
5 Draw the state diagram of the state machine.

*state transition/output table*

Q1	Q0	x	
		0	1
0	0	00,0	01,0
0	1	00,1	11,0
1	0	00,1	10,0
1	1	00,1	10,0

Q1\* Q0\* , y

*state diagram*



Arc = input x / output y  
Node = state

# Clocked State-machine Analysis: State Naming

- **State Naming:**
  - Optionally name the states and substitute state names S for state-variable combinations in transition/output table and in state diagram.
  - Example: For a circuit with two flip-flops:

Q1	Q0	State Name
0	0	A
0	1	B
1	0	C
1	1	D

# Clocked State-machine Analysis Example: Transition/Output Table Using State Names

For the last example  
naming The States:

Q1	Q0	State Name
0	0	A
0	1	B
1	0	C
1	1	D

Transition/output Table:

Transition/output Table using state names:

	Q1	Q0	X	
			0	1
<b>A</b>	0	0	00,0	01,0
<b>B</b>	0	1	00,1	11,0
<b>C</b>	1	0	00,1	10,0
<b>D</b>	1	1	00,1	10,0



S	X	
	0	1
A	A,0	B,0
B	A,1	D,0
C	A,1	C,0
D	A,1	C,0

Q1\* Q0\* , y

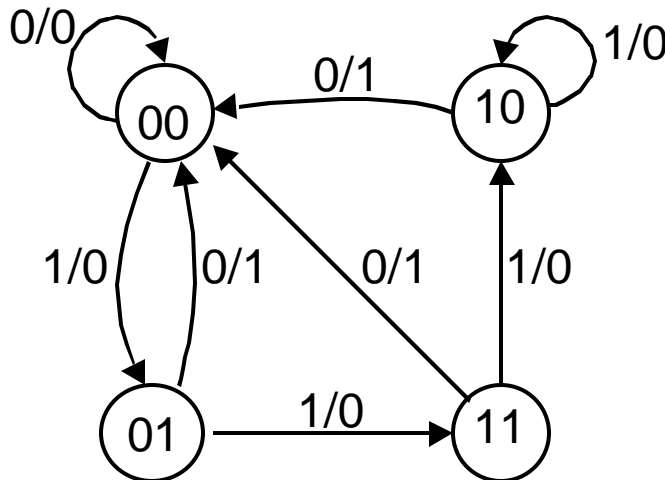
S\* , y

# Clocked State-machine Analysis Example: State Diagram Using State Naming

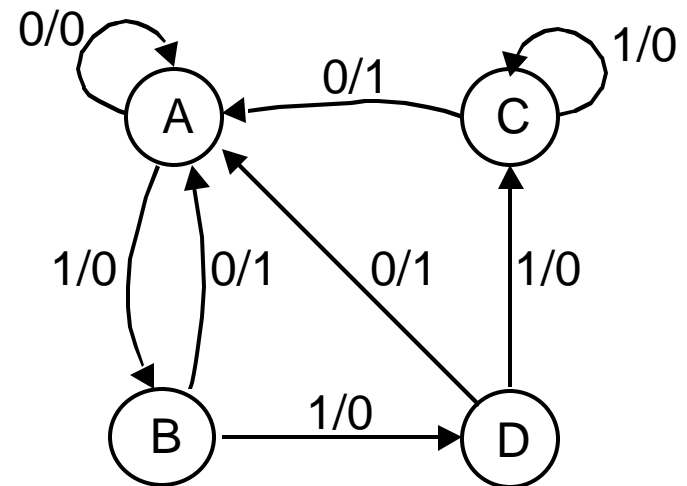
Naming The States:

Q1	Q0	State Name
0	0	A
0	1	B
1	0	C
1	1	D

State Diagram without state naming:



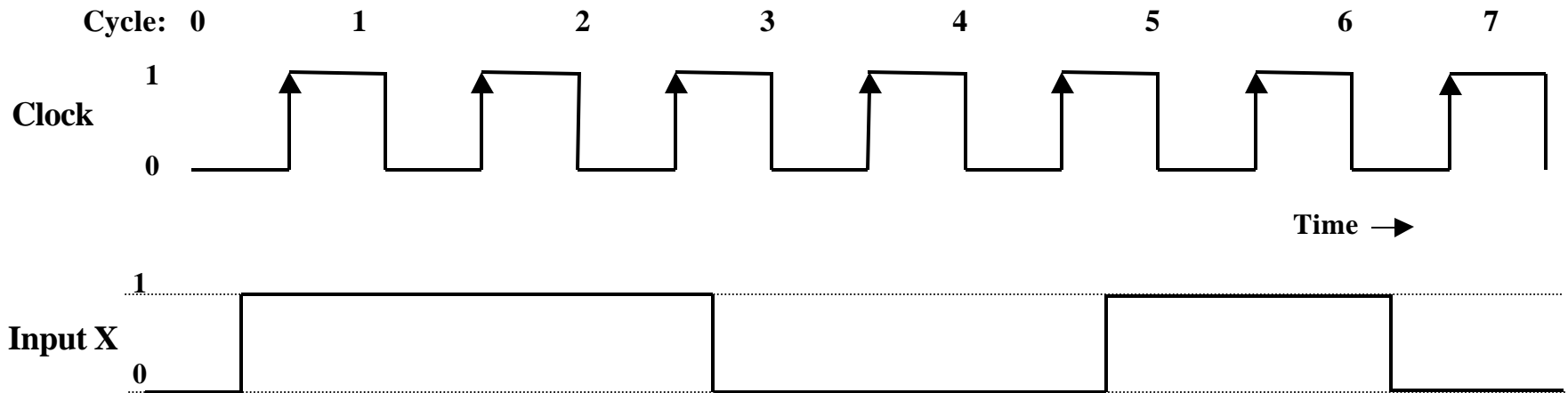
State Diagram with state naming:



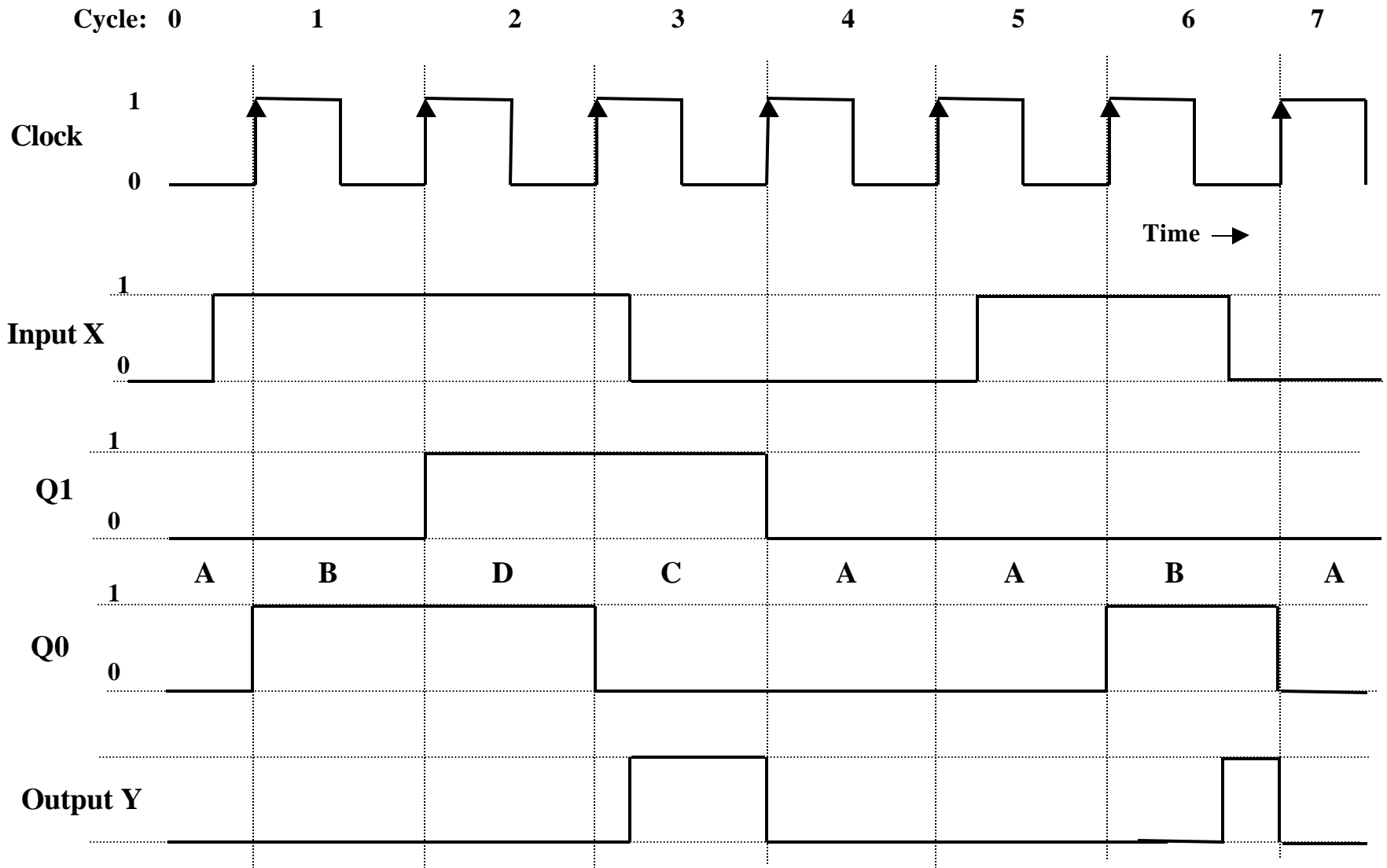
Arc = input x / output y  
Node = state

# Clocked State-machine Analysis: State Machine Timing Diagram

- The timing diagram for a state machine graphically shows the state machine response in terms of state variables and output signals vs. time for given time-varying input signals and a given initial state.
- State machine timing diagrams can be generated using transition/output tables or state diagrams.
- Timing diagrams can be used to account for both combinational and flip-flop propagation delays.
- **Example:** For the state machine in the previous example show the timing diagram for the following input, assuming an initial state A and ignoring propagation delays:



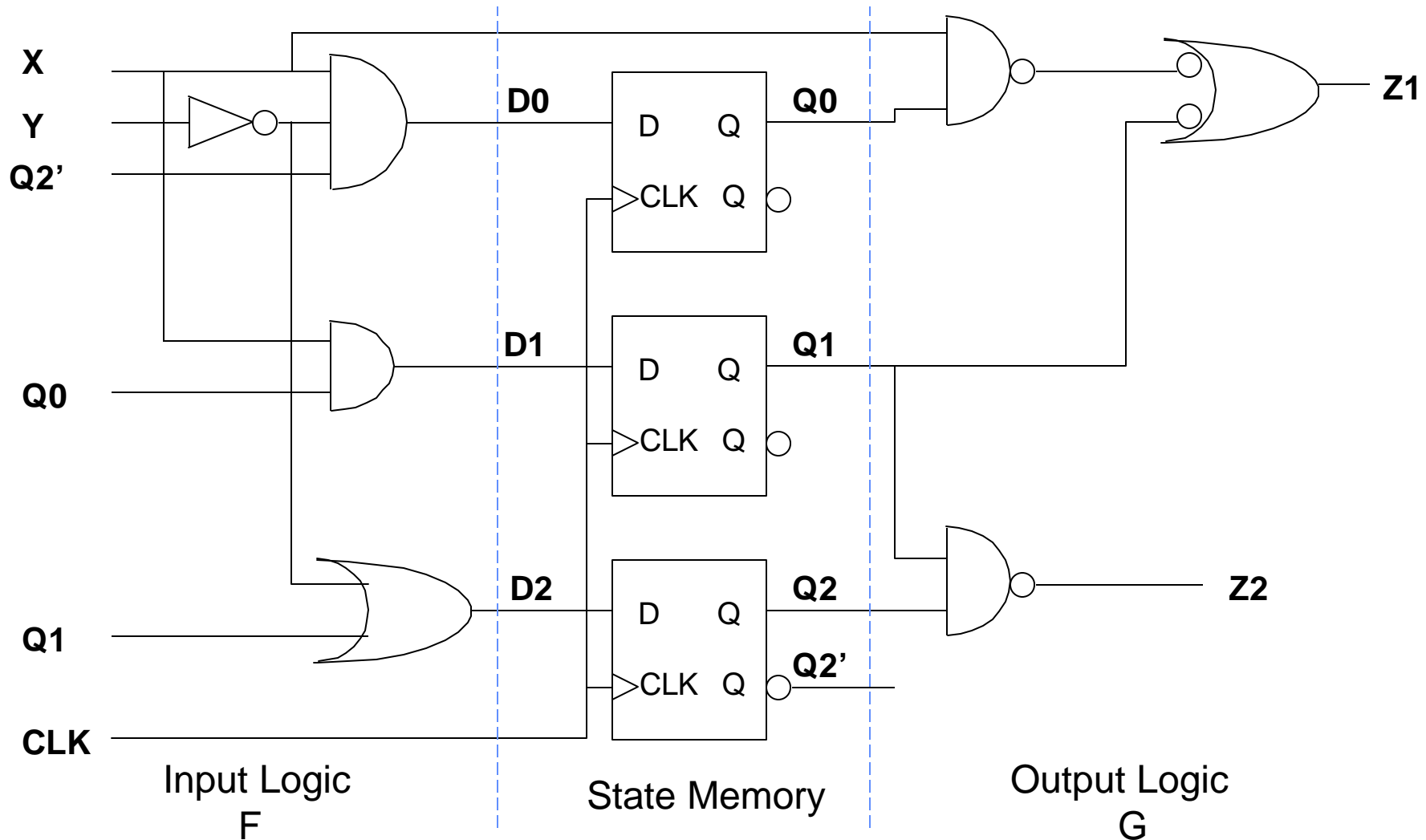
# State Machine Timing Diagram Example





# State Machine Analysis Example 2

Analyze the state machine:



# State Machine Analysis Example 2

## Excitation Equations

$$D0 = X \cdot Y' \cdot Q2$$

$$D1 = X \cdot Q0$$

$$D2 = Y' + Q1$$

1

## Characteristic Equations

$$Q0^* = D0$$

$$Q1^* = D1$$

$$Q2^* = D2$$

2

## State or Transition Equations

$$Q0^* = D0 = X \cdot Y' \cdot Q2'$$

$$Q1^* = D1 = X \cdot Q0$$

$$Q2^* = D2 = Y' + Q1$$

3

## Output Equations

$$Z1 = X \cdot Q0 + Q1'$$

$$Z2 = (Q1 \cdot Q2)'$$

# State Machine Analysis Example 2

4 From the *state equations* and *output equation*, construct the *state transition/output table*:

state name				XY			
	Q2	Q1	Q0	00	01	11	10
A	0	0	0	100, 11	000, 11	000, 11	101, 11
B	0	0	1	100, 11	000, 11	010, 11	111, 11
C	0	1	0	100, 01	100, 01	100, 01	101, 01
D	0	1	1	100, 01	100, 01	110, 11	111, 11
E	1	0	0	100, 11	000, 11	000, 11	100, 11
F	1	0	1	100, 11	000, 11	010, 11	110, 11
G	1	1	0	100, 00	100, 00	100, 00	100, 00
H	1	1	1	100, 00	100, 00	110, 10	110, 10

Q2\* Q1\* Q0\*, Z1 Z2  
(Next State, Outputs)

## Transition Equations

$$Q0^* = D0 = X \cdot Y' \cdot Q2'$$

$$Q1^* = D1 = X \cdot Q0$$

$$Q2^* = D2 = Y' + Q1$$

## Output Equations

$$Z1 = X \cdot Q0 + Q1'$$

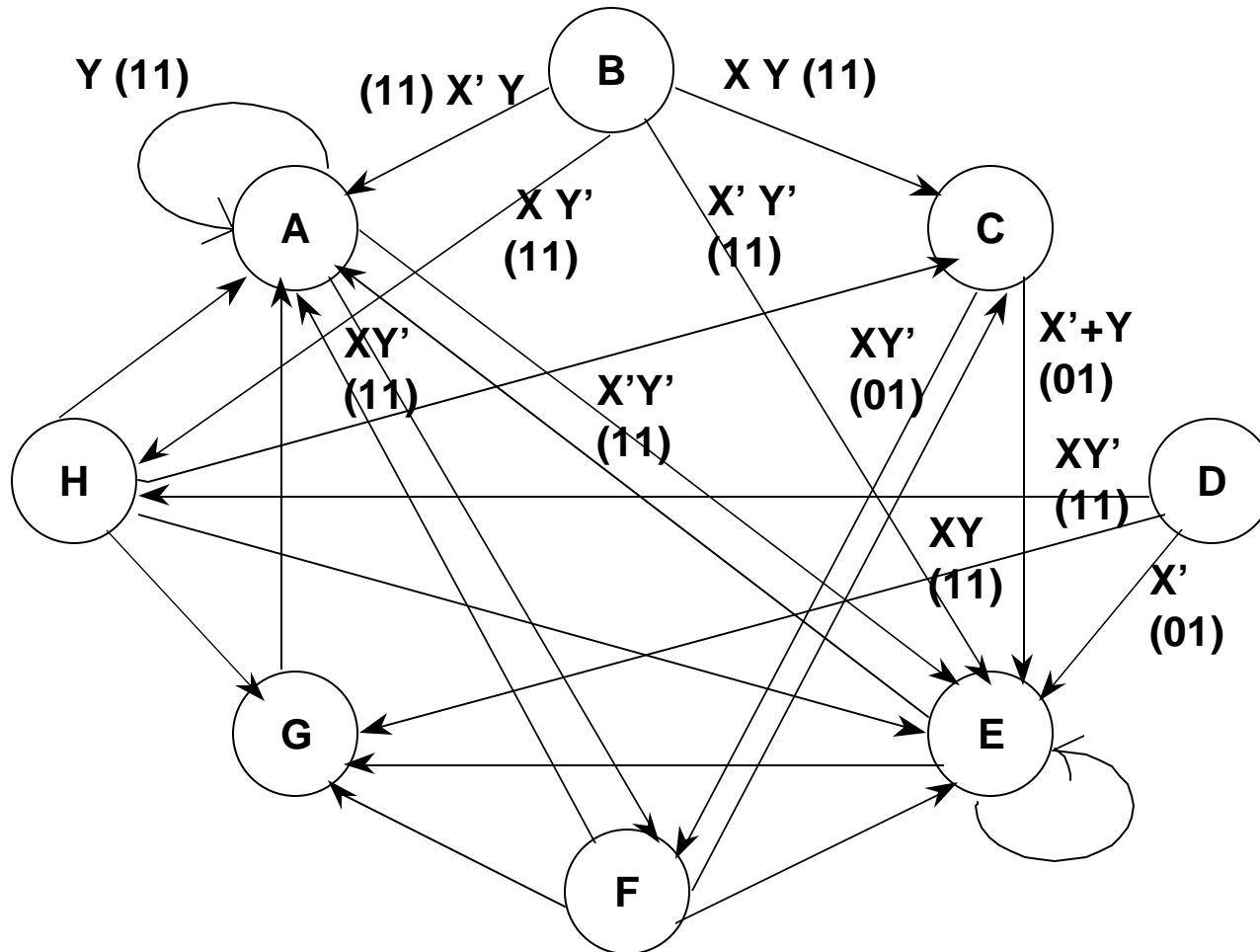
$$Z2 = (Q1 \cdot Q2)'$$

# State-machine Analysis Example 2: Transition/Output Table Using State Names

S	XY			
	00	01	11	10
A	E, 11	A, 11	A, 11	F, 11
B	E, 11	A, 11	C, 11	H, 11
C	E, 01	E, 01	E, 01	F, 01
D	E, 01	E, 01	G, 11	H, 11
E	E, 11	A, 11	A, 11	E, 11
F	E, 11	A, 11	C, 11	G, 11
G	E, 00	E, 00	E, 00	E, 00
H	E, 00	E, 00	G, 10	G, 10

S\*, Z1 Z2

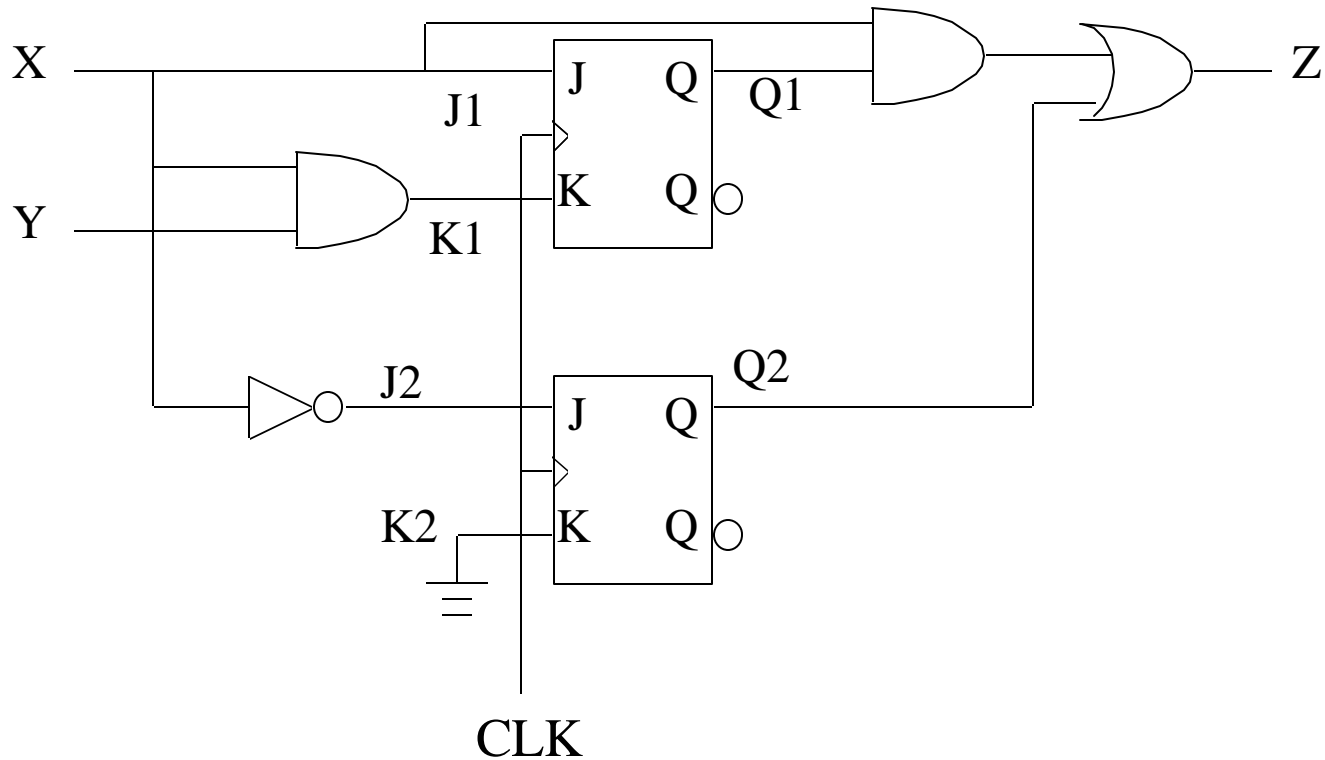
# State-machine Analysis Example 2: State Diagram (incomplete)



Arc: input expression (outputs) = expression (Z1 /Z2)

# State Machine Analysis Example 3

Analyze the state machine:



# State Machine Analysis Example 3

## Excitation Equations

$$J1 = X$$

$$K1 = X \cdot Y$$

$$J2 = X'$$

$$K2 = 0$$

1

## Characteristic Equations

$$Q^* = J \cdot Q' + K' \cdot Q$$

$$Q1^* = J1 \cdot Q1' + K1' \cdot Q1$$

$$Q2^* = J2 \cdot Q2' + K2' \cdot Q2$$

2

## Transition Equations

$$Q1^* = X \cdot Q1' + (X \cdot Y)' \cdot Q1 = X \cdot Q1' + X' \cdot Q1 + Y' \cdot Q1$$

$$Q2^* = X' \cdot Q2' + 0' \cdot Q2 = X' \cdot Q2' + Q2$$

3

## Output Equation

$$Z = X \cdot Q1 + Q2$$

# State Machine Analysis Example 3

4 From the *state equations* and *output equation*, construct the *state transition/output table*:

S	Q1 Q2		XY			
			00	01	11	10
A	0	0	01,0	01,0	10,0	10,0
B	0	1	01,1	01,1	11,1	11,1
C	1	0	11,0	11,0	00,1	10,1
D	1	1	11,1	11,1	01,1	11,1

Q1\* Q2\*, Z

Transition Equations

$$Q1^* = X \cdot Q1' + X' \cdot Q1 + Y' \cdot Q1$$

$$Q2^* = X' \cdot Q2' + Q2$$

Output Equation

$$Z = X \cdot Q1 + Q2$$



# State-machine Analysis Example 3: Transition/Output Table Using State Names

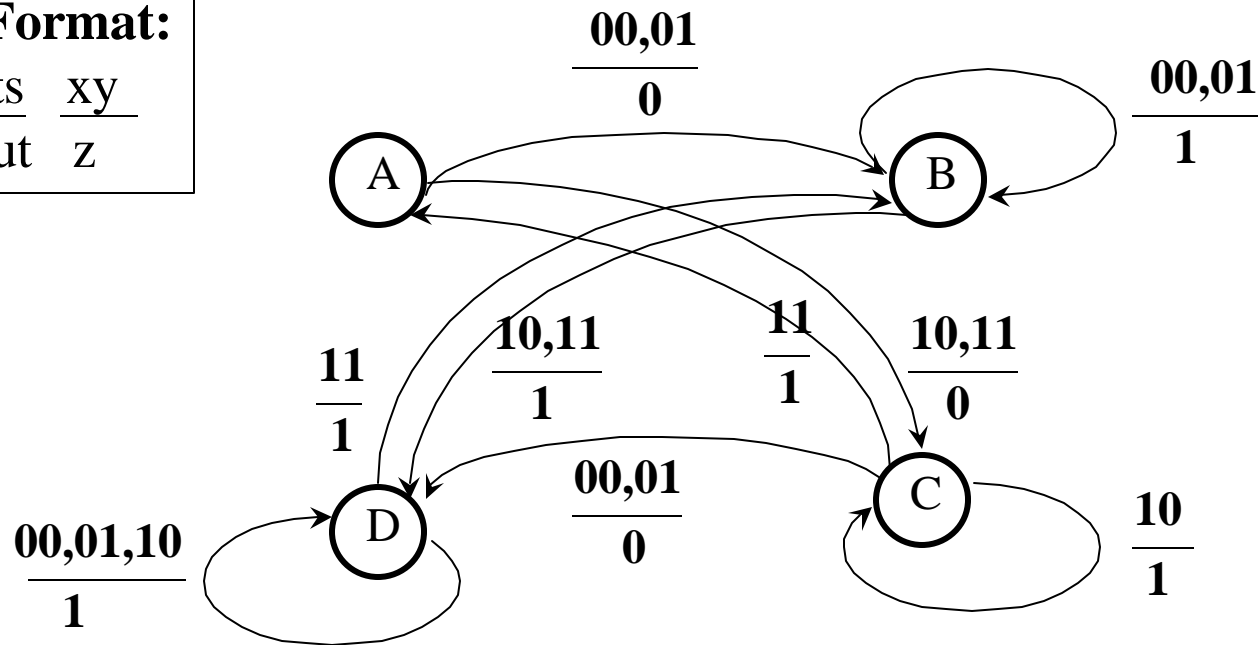
S	XY			
	00	01	11	10
A	B,0	B,0	C,0	C,0
B	B,1	B,1	D,1	D,1
C	D,0	D,0	A,1	C,1
D	D,1	D,1	B,1	D,1

$S^*, Z$

# State-machine Analysis Example 3: State Diagram

**Arc Format:**

inputs	$xy$
output	$z$

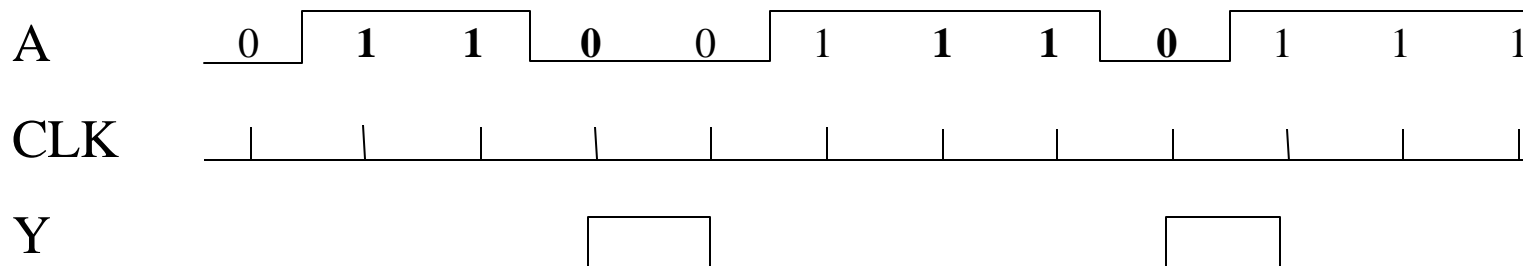


# State Machine Design Procedure

1. **Build state/output table (or state diagram) from word description using state names.**
2. **Minimize number of states (optional).**
3. **State Assignment: Choose state variables and assign bit combinations to named states.**
4. **Build transition/output table from state/output table (or state diagram) by substituting state variable combinations instead of state names.**
5. **Choose flip-flop type (D, J-K, etc.)**
6. **Build excitation table for flip-flop inputs from transition table.**
7. **Derive excitation equations from excitation table.**
8. **Derive output equations from transition/output table.**
9. **Draw logic diagram with excitation logic, output logic, and state memory elements.**

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

- **Word description (110 input sequence detector):**
  - Design a state machine with input A and output Y.
  - Y should be 1 whenever the sequence 1 1 0 has been detected on A on the last 3 consecutive rising clock edges (or ticks).
  - Otherwise, Y = 0
  - Note: this is a Moore machine, that is the output, Y, depends only on inputs at previous clocks rising edges , not on the current input.
- **Timing diagram interpretation of word description (only rising clock edges are shown):**



# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step1: Choosing States

- **Possible states (What does the state machine need to remember?):**
  - **Initial** : power up, no clocks yet  $Y = 0$
  - **No1s** : first 1 not found  $Y = 0$
  - **First1** : first 1 found  $Y = 0$
  - **Two1s** : at least 2 consecutive 1s found  $Y = 0$
  - **ALL** : found 1 1 0  $Y = 1$
- **Are all the states needed?**
  - **Notice: Initial is equivalent to NO1s**
  - **We can drop the state Initial and replace it with state No1s**

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step 1: State/Output Table and Diagram

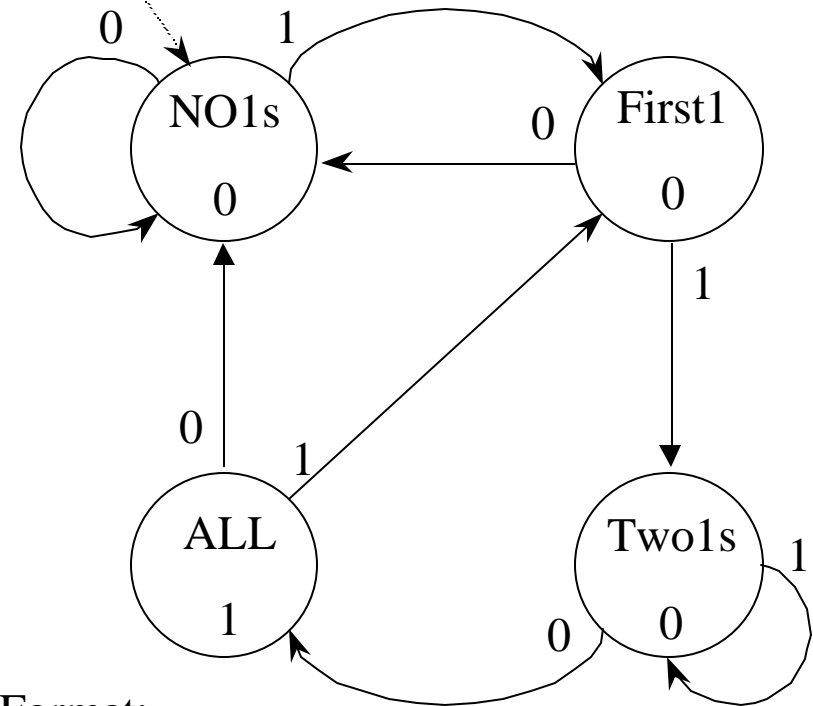
State Table

S	A		Y
	0	1	
No1s	No1s	First1	0
First1	No1s	Two1s	0
Two1s	ALL	Two1s	0
ALL	No1s	First1	1

S\*

Reset

State Diagram



Format:

Arc: input A

Node: state/output Y

# Step3: State Assignment Considerations

- **Why does the choice of state assignment matter?**
  - Has a big effect on the complexity of excitation and output equations and thus on the amount of combinational logic needed.
- **How to find the best state assignment?**
  - The only known way is to try all assignments and determine the resulting equations.
    - **N = 2:  $(2^2)! = 4! = 24$  assignments for 2 state bits**
    - **N = 3:  $(2^3)! = 8! = 40,320$  assignments for three state bits.**
    - **N = 4:  $(2^4)! = 16! = 20,922,789,888,000$  assignments for 4 state bits!!!**

**THIS IS NOT PRACTICAL APPROACH!**

∴ Use heuristic guidelines for pretty good assignments.

This is still an active area of research!

- **There is no effective way to guarantee a “best” assignment. The heuristic methods sometimes perform poorly!**

# State Assignment Strategies

- **Simplest Assignment:**
  - Straight binary, not best; purely arbitrary assignment.
- **One Hot Assignment:**
  - Redundant encoding, each flip-flop is assigned a state.
  - Uses the same number of bits as there are states (not useful in large designs).
  - Simple to assign; simple next state logic (no state decoding required)
  - Output logic is simple! One OR gate per Moore output!
- **Almost One Hot Assignment:**
  - Almost same as One Hot, but one less state bit.
  - Use all 0's to represent a state (usually INIT).
  - Must now decode state 0 if it is needed.
- **Decomposed Assignment:**
  - Use the “structure” of the state table to simplify next-state and output logic.
  - An “art” which requires much practice.



# Example: State Assignment Strategies

Alternative Assignments				AB					
$Q_1..Q_4$	$Q_1..Q_5$	$Q_1Q_2Q_3$	$Q_1Q_2Q_3$	S	00	01	11	10	Z
0000	00001	000	000	INIT	A0	A0	A1	A1	0
0001	00010	100	001	A0	OK0	OK0	A1	A1	0
0010	00100	101	010	A1	A0	A0	OK1	OK1	0
0100	01000	110	011	OK0	OK0	OK0	OK1	A1	1
1000	10000	111	100	OK1	A0	OK0	OK1	OK1	1

Almost One Hot      One Hot      Decomposed      Simplest

– Example decomposition:

- Initial State = all 0's for easy RESET
- INIT state is different, so use  $Q_1 = 1$  for non-INIT states; thus  $\underline{D1=1}$
- $Z = 1$  in only 2 states, so use  $Q_2 = 1$  for states when  $Z = 1$ ; thus  $\underline{Z=Q_2}$
- Use  $Q_3 = 1$  for state transitions caused by A having the value of 1 (all destination states cause by  $A = 1$ , i.e. states A1 and OK1); thus  $\underline{D3=A}$

THUS, simpler next state and output logic!

# State Assignment Heuristic Guidelines

Starting from the highest priority to the lowest:

- Choose initial coded state that's easy to produce at reset: (all 0's or 1's)
  - This simplifies the initialization circuitry.
- Freely use any of the  $2^n$  state codes for best assignment  
(i.e.. with  $s$  states, don't just use the first  $s$  integers  $0,1,\dots,s-1$ )
- Define specific bits or fields that have meaning with respect to input or output variables (decomposed codes).
- Consider using more than minimum number of state variables to allow for decomposed codes.
- Minimize number of state variables that change at each transition
- Simplify output logic.

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step 3: State Assignment

- **Choose state variable assignments:**
  - Initial state all 0s
  - $Q2 = \text{last } A$ , so  $Q2^* = A$
  - minimize number of transitions

				A		
Q1	Q2	S	0	1		Y
0	0	No1s	No1s	First1		0
0	1	First1	No1s	Two1s		0
1	1	Two1s	ALL	Two1s		0
1	0	ALL	No1s	First1		1

$S^*$

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step 4: Transition/Output Table

- **Step 4: Build transition/output table from state/output table by substituting state variable combinations instead of state names.**

		A		
Q1	Q2	0	1	Y
0	0	00	01	0
0	1	00	11	0
1	1	10	11	0
1	0	00	01	1

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{---} Q1^* \text{---} Q2^* \\ =D1 \quad D2 \quad \longleftarrow \text{Step 6} \end{array}$$

- **Step 5: Choose D Flip-Flops , so  $Q^* = D$**
- **Step 6: Excitation table:**
  - Same as Transition/output table with  $Q1^* = D1$ ,  $Q2^* = D2$

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Steps 7, 8 : Excitation/Output Equations

- Step 7: Excitation equations:  $D1, D2 = F(A, Q1, Q2)$

D1 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	0	0	1	0
	1	0	1	1	0

$D1 = Q1 \cdot Q2 + Q2 \cdot A$

D2 :

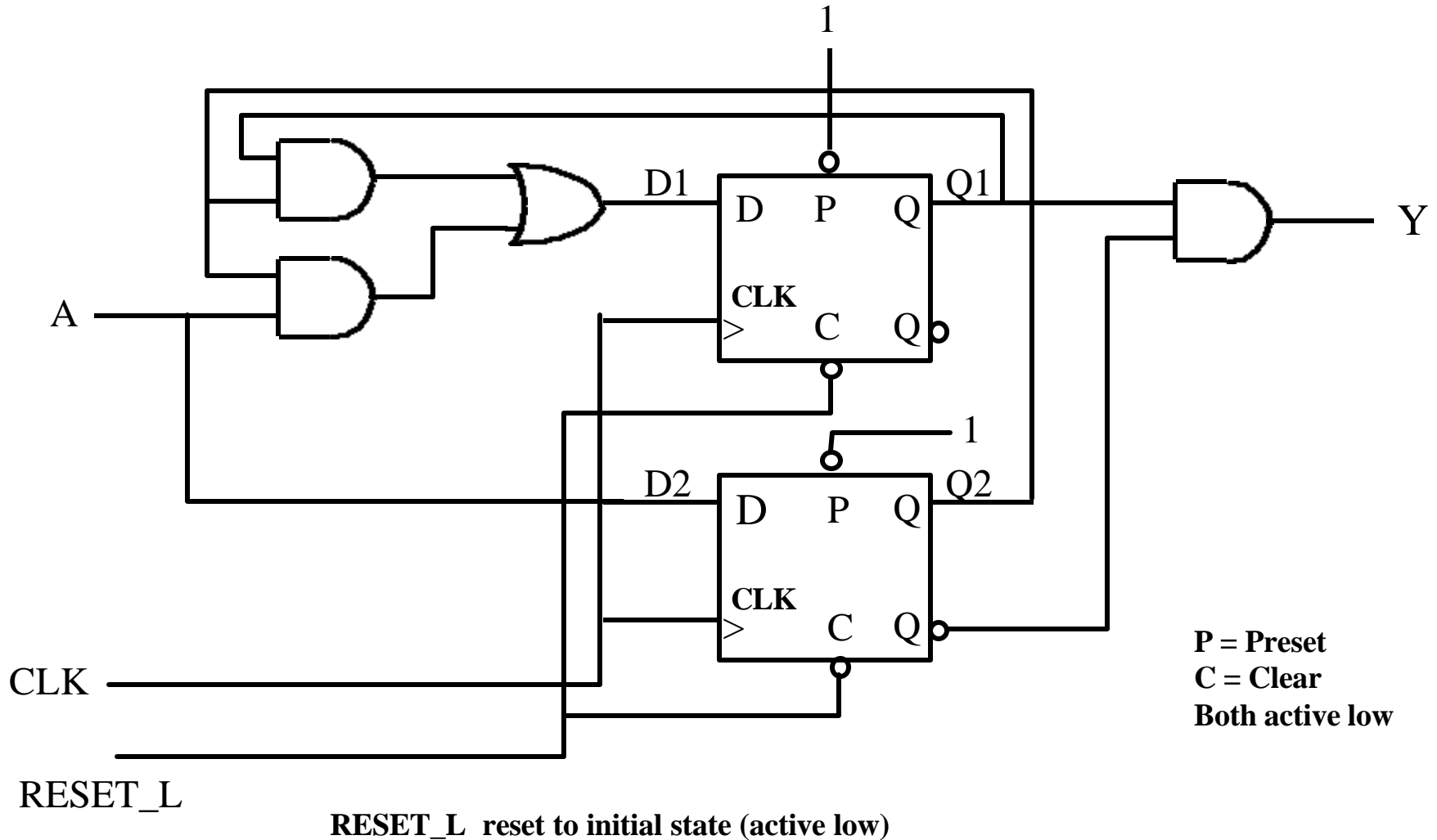
		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	0	0	0	0
	1	1	1	1	1

$D2 = A$  (as planned!)

- Step 8: Output equation:  $Y = G(Q1, Q2)$   
 $Y = Q1 \cdot Q2'$  (directly read from transition table)

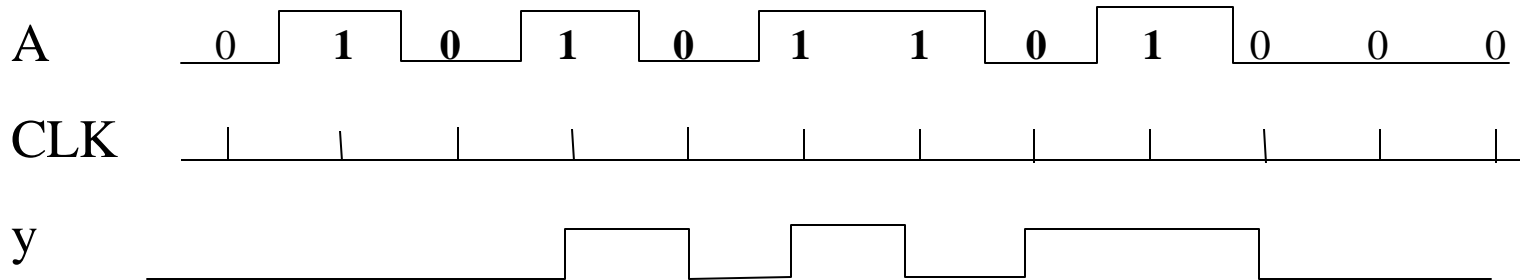
# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step 9: Logic Diagram



# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

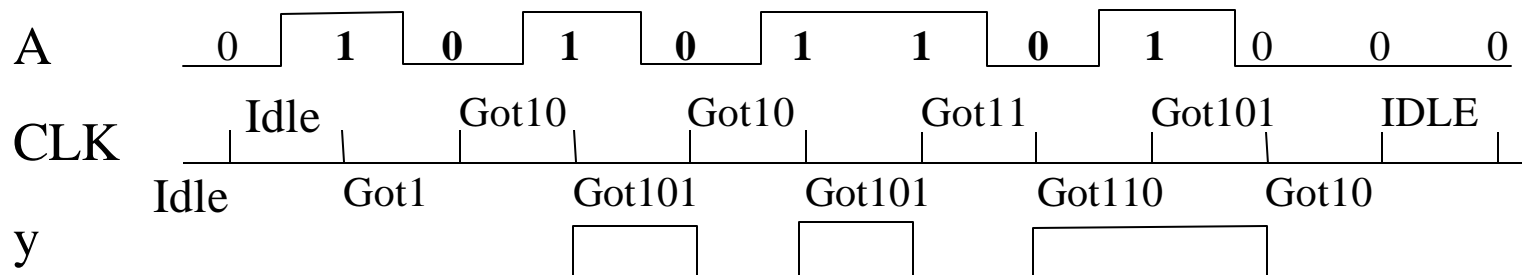
- **Word description (110/101 input sequence detector):**
  - Design a state machine with input A and output Y.
  - $Y = 1$  when either sequence 1 1 0 or 1 0 1 has been detected on input A on the last 3 consecutive rising clock edges (or ticks).
  - Otherwise  $Y = 0$
  - Note: Correct sequences may overlap and still be accepted.
- **Timing diagram interpretation of word description (only rising clock edges are shown):**



# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

## Step1: Choosing States

- Possible states (What does the state machine need to remember?):
  - Idle : Initial state, no starting 1 yet  $Y = 0$
  - Got1 : A = 1 on last tick  $Y = 0$
  - Got10 : Sequence A = 10 on last two ticks  $Y = 0$
  - Got101 : Sequence A = 101 on last three ticks  $Y = 1$
  - Got11 : Sequence A = 11 on last two ticks  $Y = 0$
  - Got110 : Sequence A = 110 on last three ticks  $Y = 1$





# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

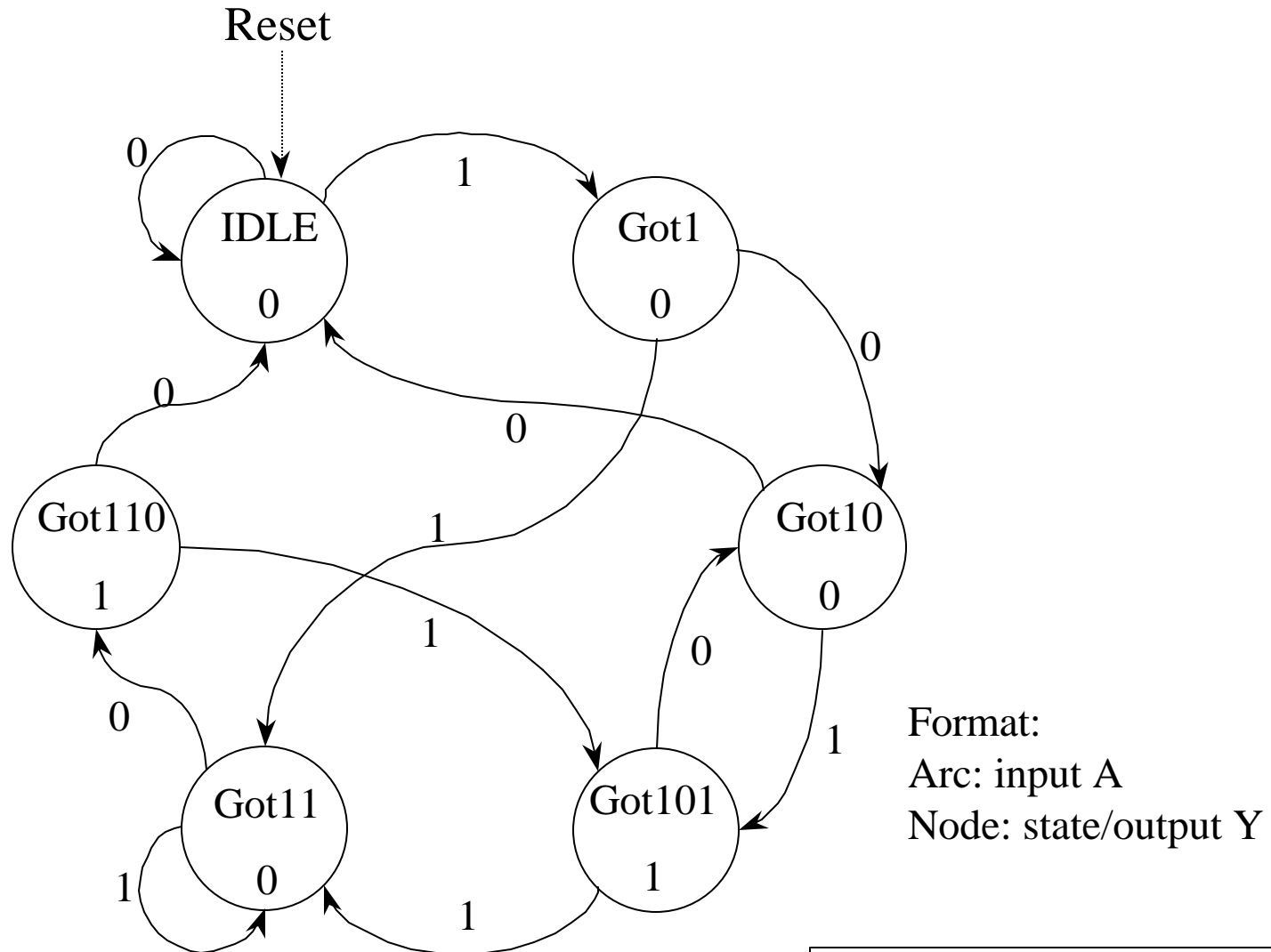
## Step 1: State/Output Table

S	A		Y
	0	1	
IDLE	IDLE	Got1	0
Got1	Got10	Got11	0
Got10	IDLE	Got101	0
Got101	Got10	Got11	1
Got11	Got110	Got11	0
Got110	IDLE	Got101	1

S\*

# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

## Step 1: State Diagram



# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

## Steps 3: State Assignment

- **Step 3: Choose state variable assignments :**

- Initial state all 0s
- $Q1 = Y$
- $Q3 = \text{last } A, \text{ so } Q3^* = A$
- minimum number of transitions

From Step 1:

			A			
			S	0	1	Y
Q1	Q2	Q3				
0	0	0	IDLE	IDLE	Got1	0
0	0	1	Got1	Got10	Got11	0
0	1	0	Got10	IDLE	Got101	0
1	1	1	Got101	Got10	Got11	1
0	1	1	Got11	Got110	Got11	0
1	1	0	Got110	IDLE	Got101	1

$S^*$

# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

- Step 4: Transition/output table
- Step 5: Choose D Flip-flops
- Step 6: Excitation table
  - Same as Transition table

			A					
Q1	Q2	Q3	0	1	Y			
0	0	0	000	001	0			
0	0	1	010	011	0			
0	1	0	000	111	0			
1	1	1	010	011	1			
0	1	1	110	011	0			
1	1	0	000	111	1			
Unused states?			1	0	0	ddd	ddd	d
			1	0	1	ddd	ddd	d

~~Q1\*Q2\*Q3\*~~  
 =D1 D2 D3

# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

## Steps 7: Excitation Equations

- Step 7: Excitation equations
  - $D1, D2, D3 = F(A, Q1, Q2, Q3)$

$$D1 = Q1' \cdot Q2 \cdot Q3 \cdot A' + Q2 \cdot Q3' \cdot A$$

$$D2 = Q2 \cdot A + Q3$$

$$D3 = A \quad (\text{as planned!})$$

D1 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
Q3 A	00				d
	01		1	1	d
	11				d
	10		1		d

D2 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
Q3 A	00				d
	01		1	1	d
	11	1	1	1	d
	10	1	1	1	d

D3 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
Q3 A	00				d
	01	1	1	1	d
	11	1	1	1	d
	10				d

# State Machine Design Example 2: 110/101 Detector

## Step 8: Output Equations

- **Step 8: Output equation**
  - $Y = Q1$  (as planned!)
  
- **Step 9: Logic diagram**
  - (3) D-Flip-flops + (3) 2-input gates + (1) 3-input AND gate + (1) 4-input AND gate
  - Draw the diagram.

$$D1 = Q1' \cdot Q2 \cdot Q3 \cdot A' + Q2 \cdot Q3' \cdot A$$

$$D2 = Q2 \cdot A + Q3$$

$$D3 = A$$

# State Machine Design Using J-K Flip-Flops

- **State machine design step 6 (building excitation table for flip-flop inputs from transition table):**
  - When using D flip-flops, since the next state  $Q^* = D$ , the excitation table is the same as the transition table with  $Q^*$  replaced with D.
  - In the case of J-K flip-flops, the next state is given by:  
 $Q^* = J \cdot Q' + K' \cdot Q$
  - In this case we cannot rearrange the characteristic equation to find separate equations for J, K.
  - Instead an application (or excitation) table for J-K flip-flops is used to obtain the corresponding values of J, K for a given  $Q$  to  $Q^*$  transition:

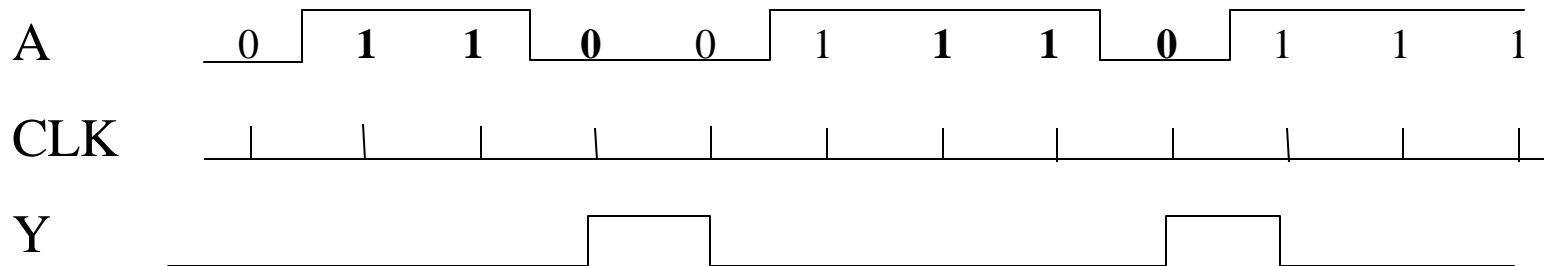
Q	Q*	J	K
0	0	0	d
0	1	1	d
1	0	d	1
1	1	d	0

J-K Flip-Flop Excitation Table

# State Machine Design Example 1:

## 110 Detector (Repeated Using J-K Flip-Flops)

- **Word description (110 input sequence detector):**
  - Design a state machine with input A and output Y.
  - Y should be 1 whenever the sequence 1 1 0 has been detected on A on the last 3 consecutive rising clock edges (or ticks).
  - Otherwise,  $Y = 0$
- **Timing diagram interpretation of word description (only rising clock edges are shown):**





# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Step 1: State/Output Table and Diagram

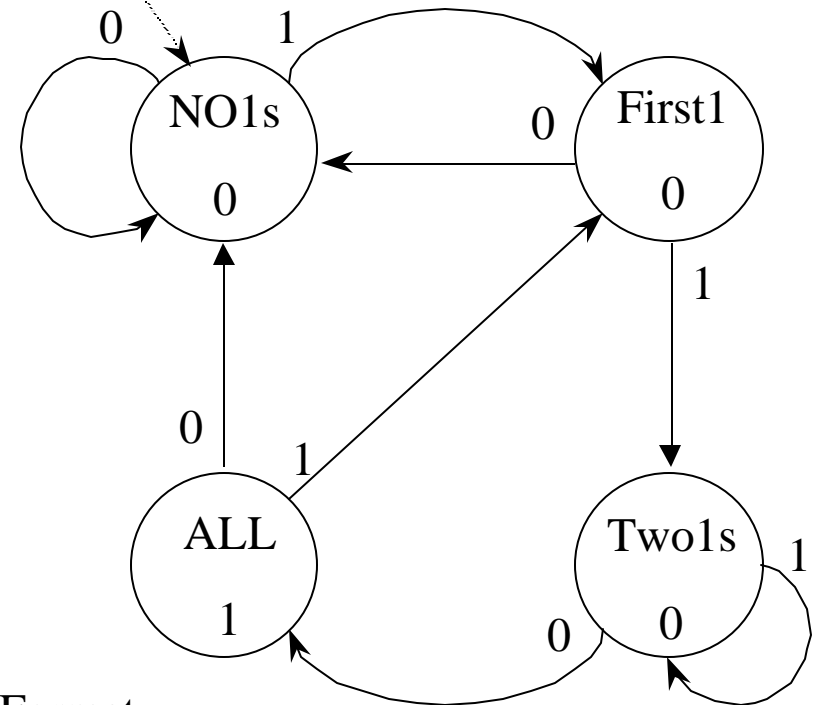
State Table

S	A		Y
	0	1	
No1s	No1s	First1	0
First1	No1s	Two1s	0
Two1s	ALL	Two1s	0
ALL	No1s	First1	1

S\*

Reset

State Diagram



Format:

Arc: input A

Node: state/output Y

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector

## Using J-K Flip-flops

- Steps 1-4: No change.

Transition Table (step 4):

		A		Y
Q1	Q2	0	1	
0	0	00	01	0
0	1	00	11	0
1	1	10	11	0
1	0	00	01	1

Q1\* Q2\*

Q	Q*	J	K
0	0	0	d
0	1	1	d
1	0	d	1
1	1	d	0

J-K Flip-Flop Excitation Table

Excitation table (Step 6):

		A		Y
Q1	Q2	0	1	
0	0	0d, 0d	0d, 1d	0
0	1	0d, d1	1d, d0	0
1	1	d0, d1	d0, d0	0
1	0	d1, 0d	d1, 1d	1

J1 K1, J2 K2

- Step 5: Choose J-K Flip-Flops
- Step 6: Excitation table: Use J-K Flip-Flop Excitation Table.

# State Machine Design Example 1: 110 Detector Using J-K FF

## Steps 7, 8 : Excitation/Output Equations

- Step 7: Excitation equations:  $J1, K1, J2, K2 = F(A, Q1, Q2)$

J1 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	0	0	d	d
	1	0	1	d	d

$$J1 = Q2 \cdot A$$

J2 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	0	d	d	0
	1	1	d	d	1

$$J2 = A$$

K1 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	d	d	0	1
	1	d	d	0	1

$$K1 = Q2'$$

K2 :

		Q1 Q2			
		00	01	11	10
A	0	d	1	1	d
	1	d	0	0	d

$$K2 = A'$$

- Step 8: Output equation:  $Y = G(Q1, Q2)$

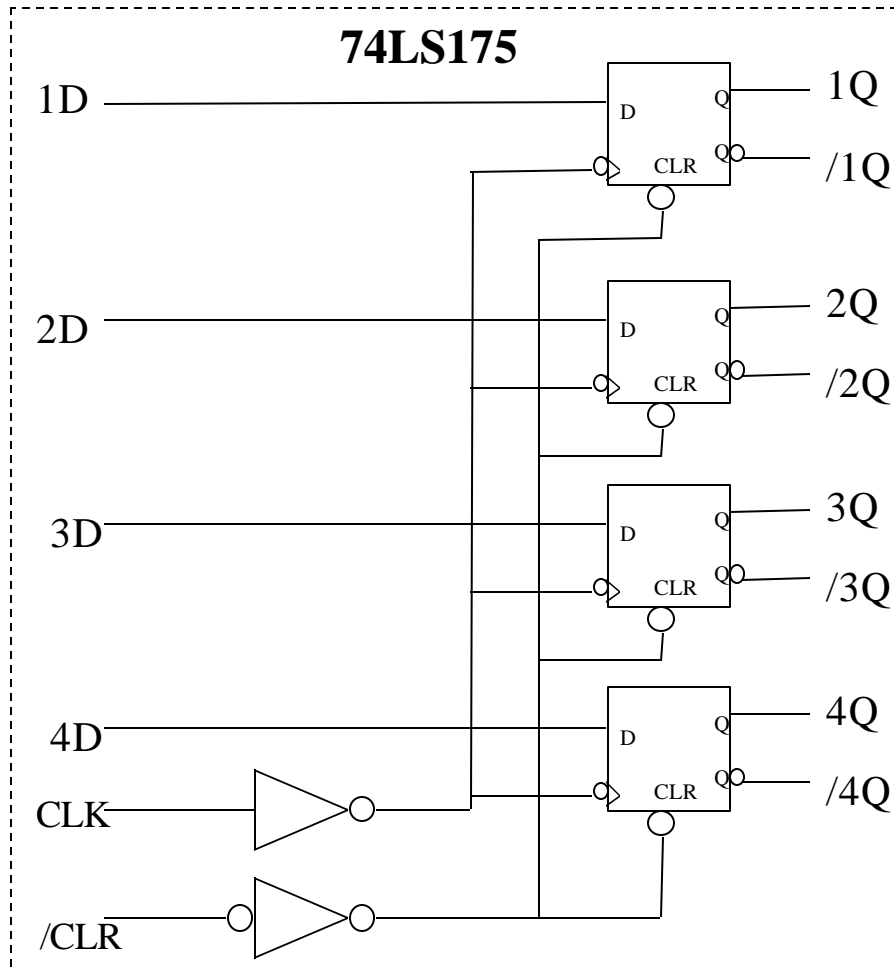
$$Y = Q1 \cdot Q2' \text{ (directly read from transition table)}$$

# Registers & Counters

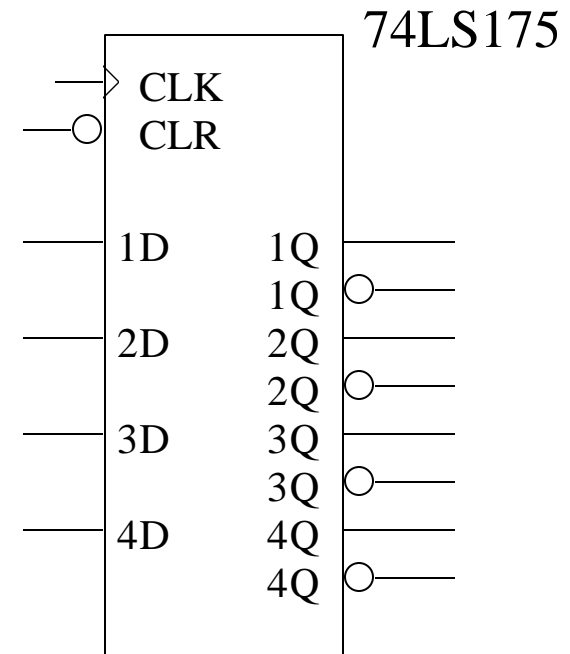
- **Registers.**
- **Shift Registers:**
  - Serial in, serial out shift register
  - Serial in, parallel out shift register
  - Parallel in, serial out shift register
  - Parallel in, parallel out shift register
  - Shift Register Applications
- **Counters:**
  - Ripple Counters
  - Synchronous Counters
  - Counter Applications

# Registers

- An n-bit register is a collection of n D flip-flops with a common clock used to store n related bits.



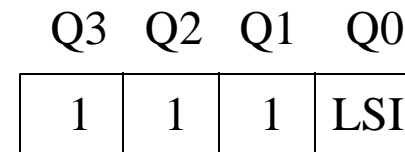
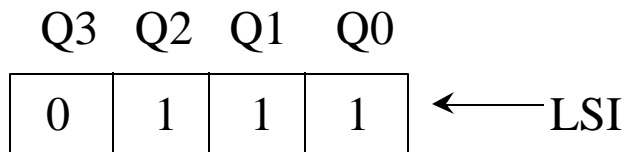
**Example: 74LS175  
4-bit register**



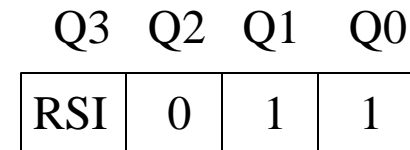
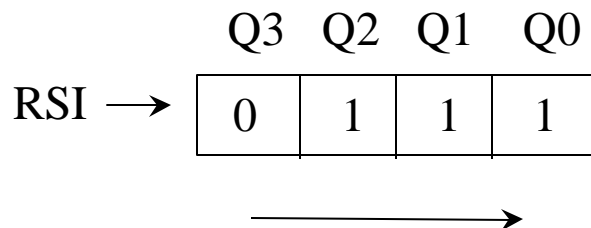
# Shift Registers

- **Multi-bit register that moves stored data bits left/right ( 1 bit position per clock cycle)**

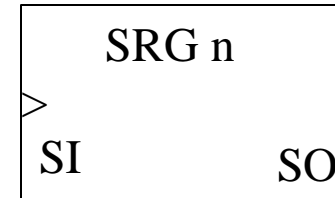
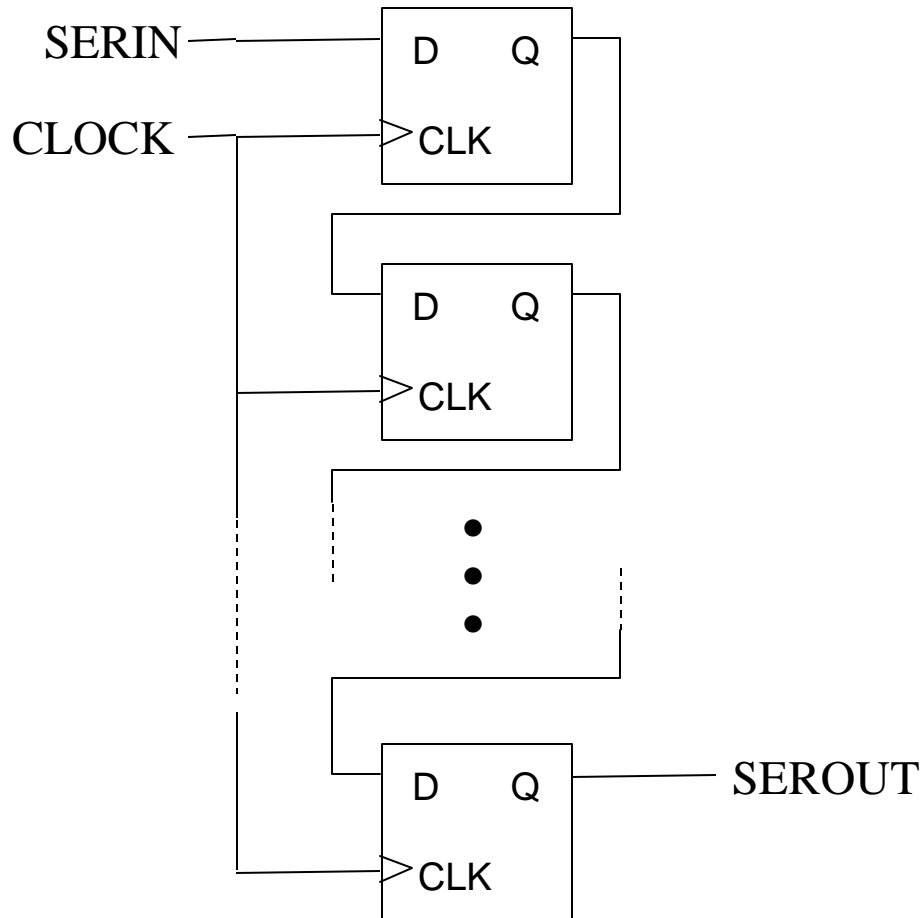
- **Shift Left is towards MSB**



- **Shift Right (or Shift Up) is towards MSB**



# Serial In, Serial Out Shift Register



For a n-bit SRG:  
 Serial Out = Serial In delayed  
 by n clock period

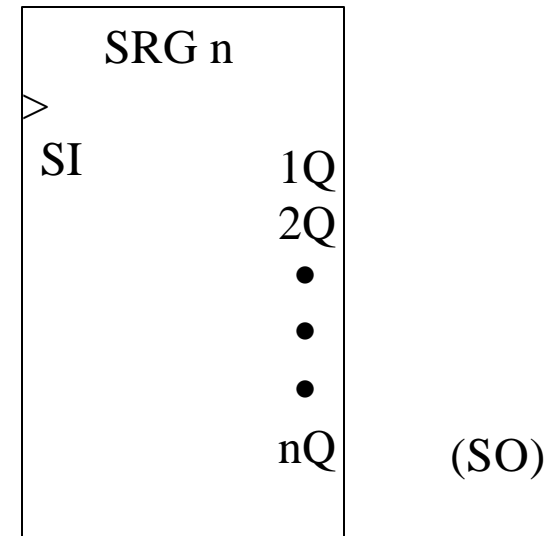
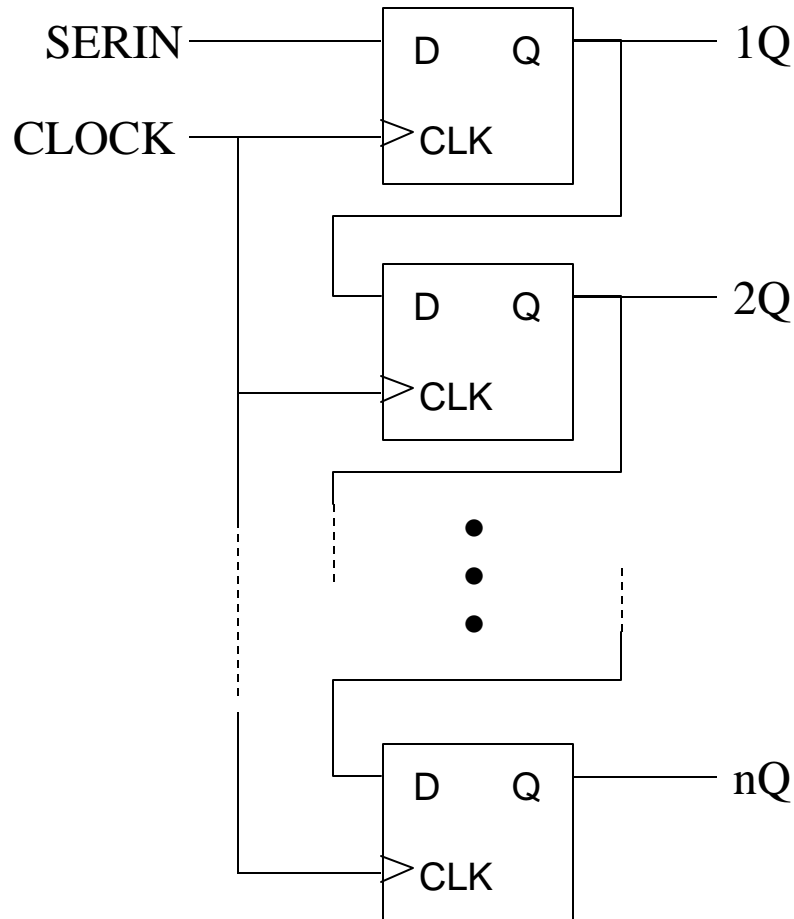
4-bit shift register example:

serin: 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0

serout: - - - - 1 0 1 1 0 0

clock:  $\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$

# Serial In, Parallel Out Shift register



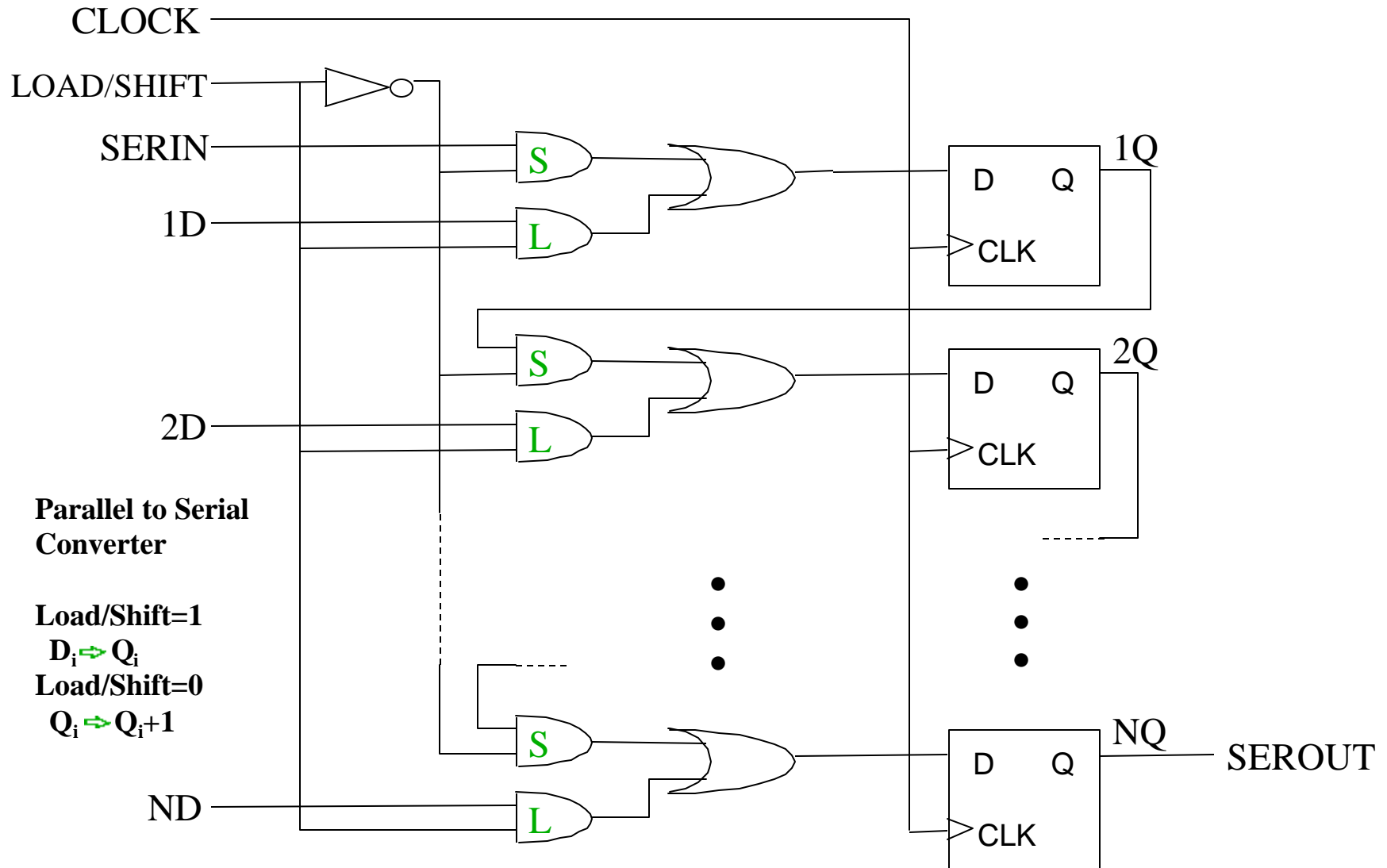
Serial to Parallel Converter

4-bit shift register example:

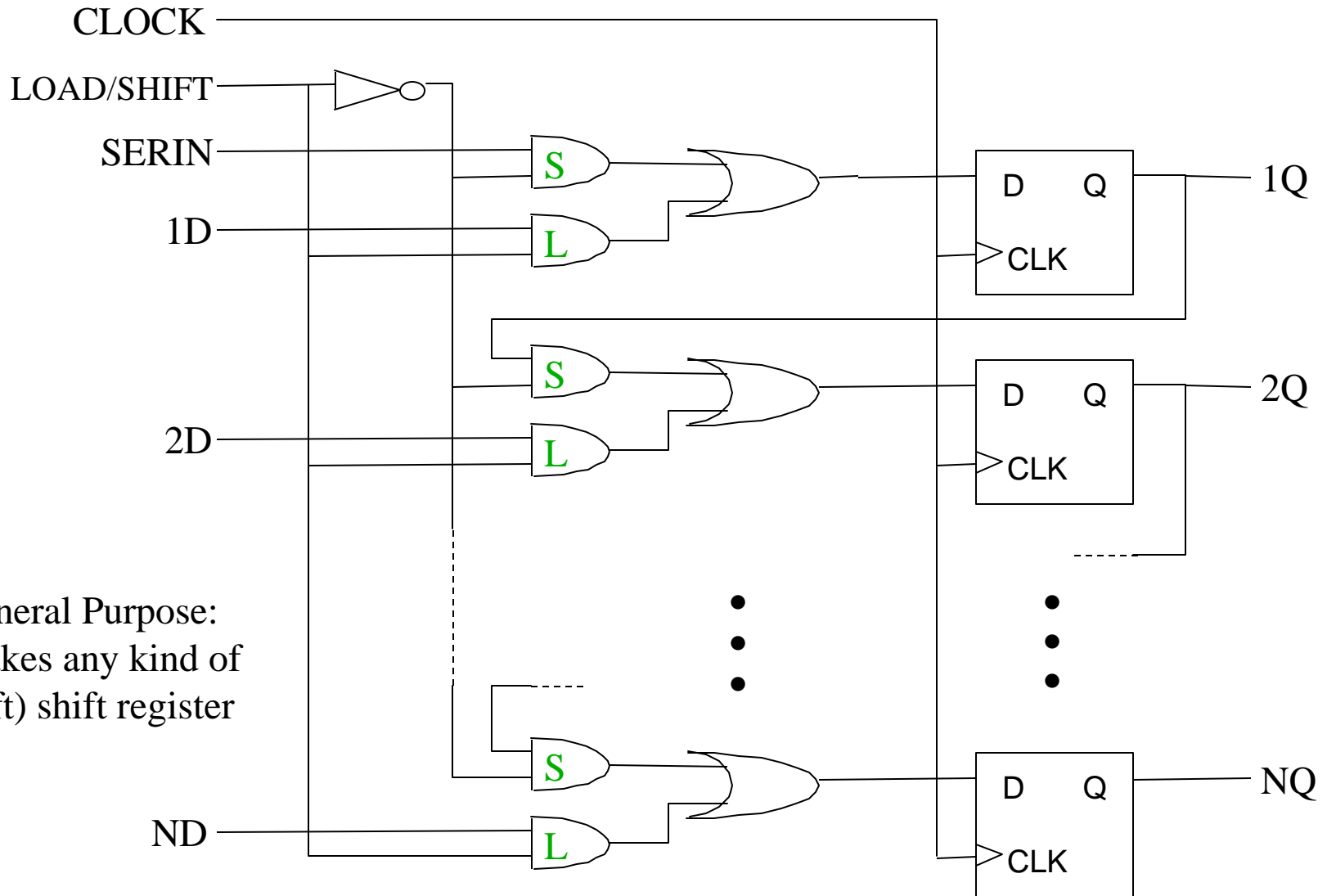
serin:	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
1Q:	-	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
2Q:	-	-	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
3Q:	-	-	-	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
4Q:	-	-	-	-	1	0	1	1	0	0
clock:	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑



# Parallel In, Serial Out Shift Register

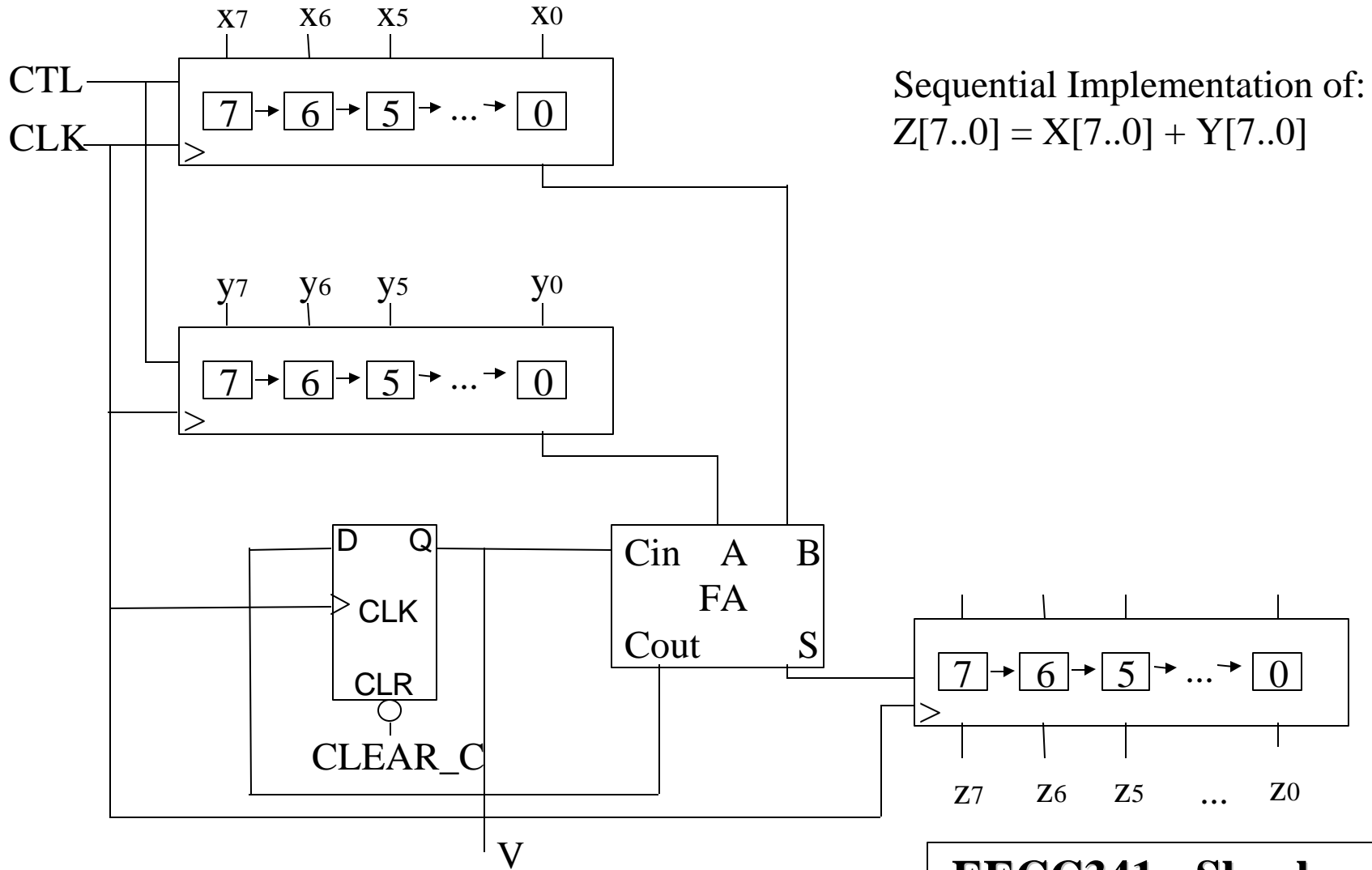


# Parallel In, Parallel Out Shift Register



General Purpose:  
Makes any kind of  
(left) shift register

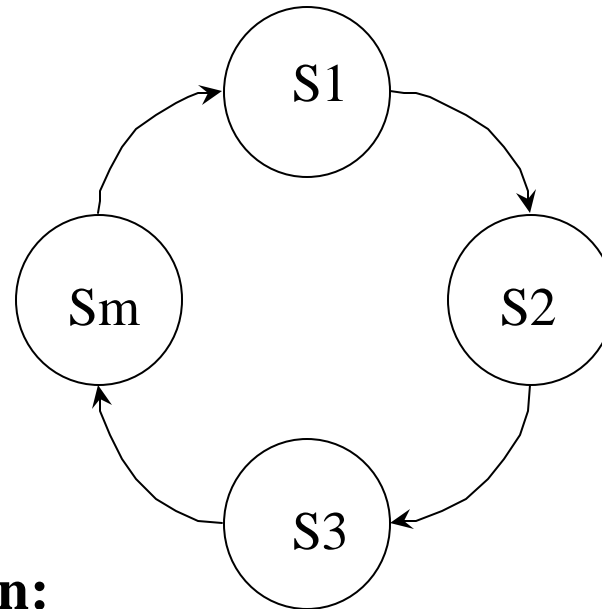
# Shift Register Applications Example: 8-Bit Serial Adder



Sequential Implementation of:  
 $Z[7..0] = X[7..0] + Y[7..0]$

# Counters

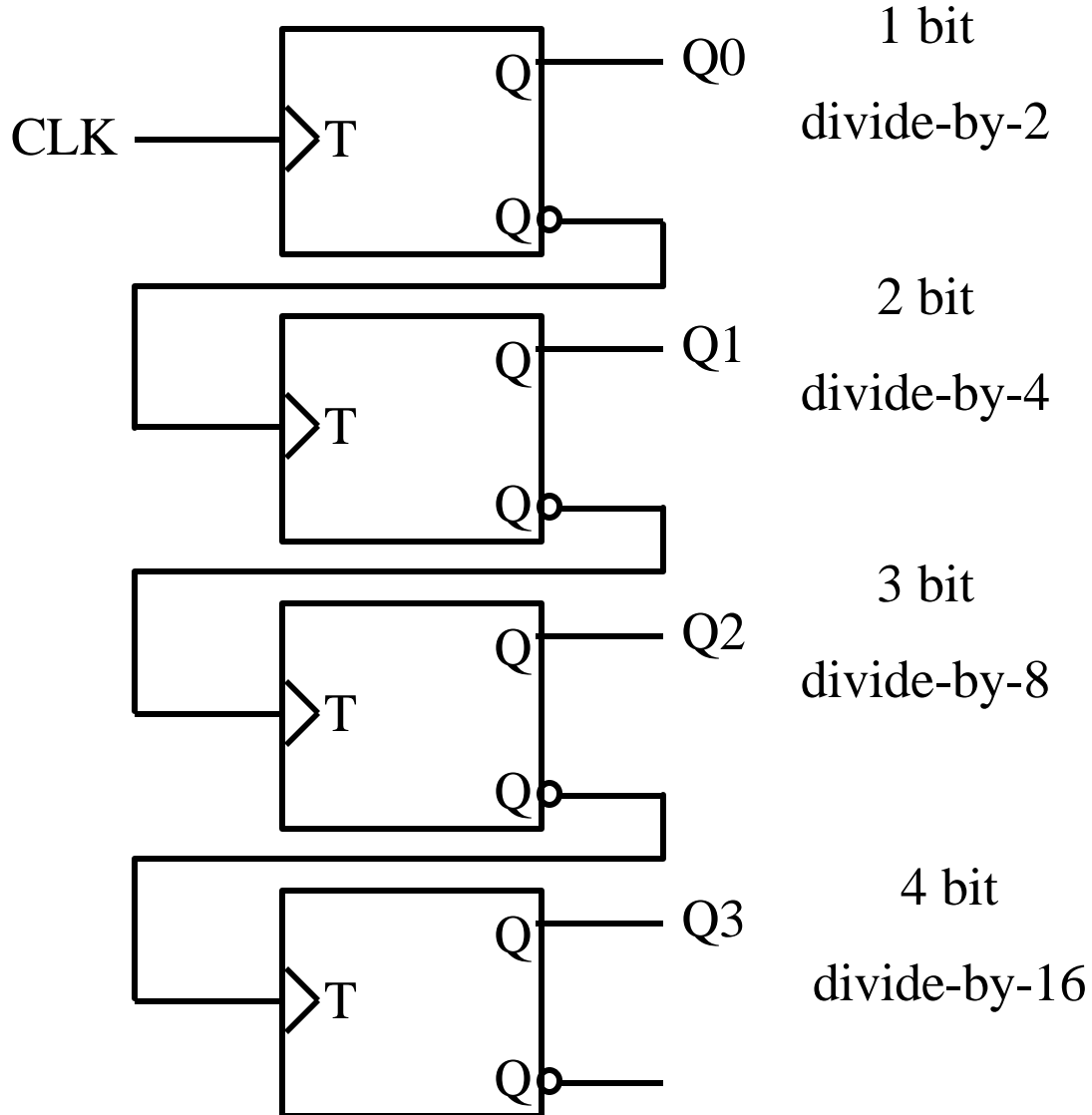
- **Clocked sequential circuit with single-cycle state diagram**
  - **Modulo-m counter = divide-by-m counter**



- **Most Common:**

n-bit binary counter, where  $m = 2^n \rightarrow$  n flip-flops,  
counts  $0 \dots 2^n - 1$

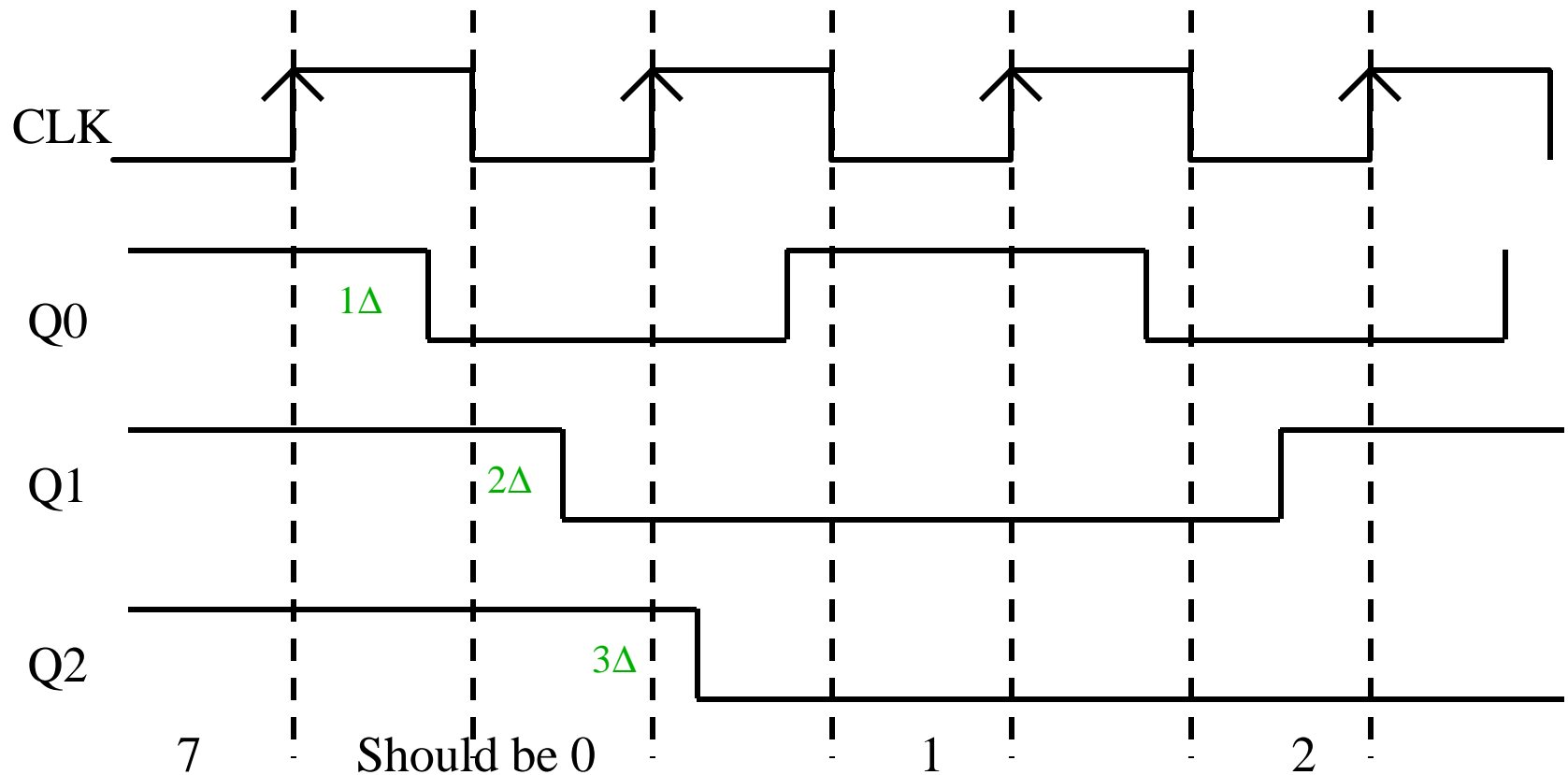
# 4-bit Ripple Counter



Uses  
Minimal  
Logic

# Ripple Counter Problem

$n \cdot T_{CQ}$  for MSB change for n-bit ripple counter  $\Rightarrow$  minimum clk period

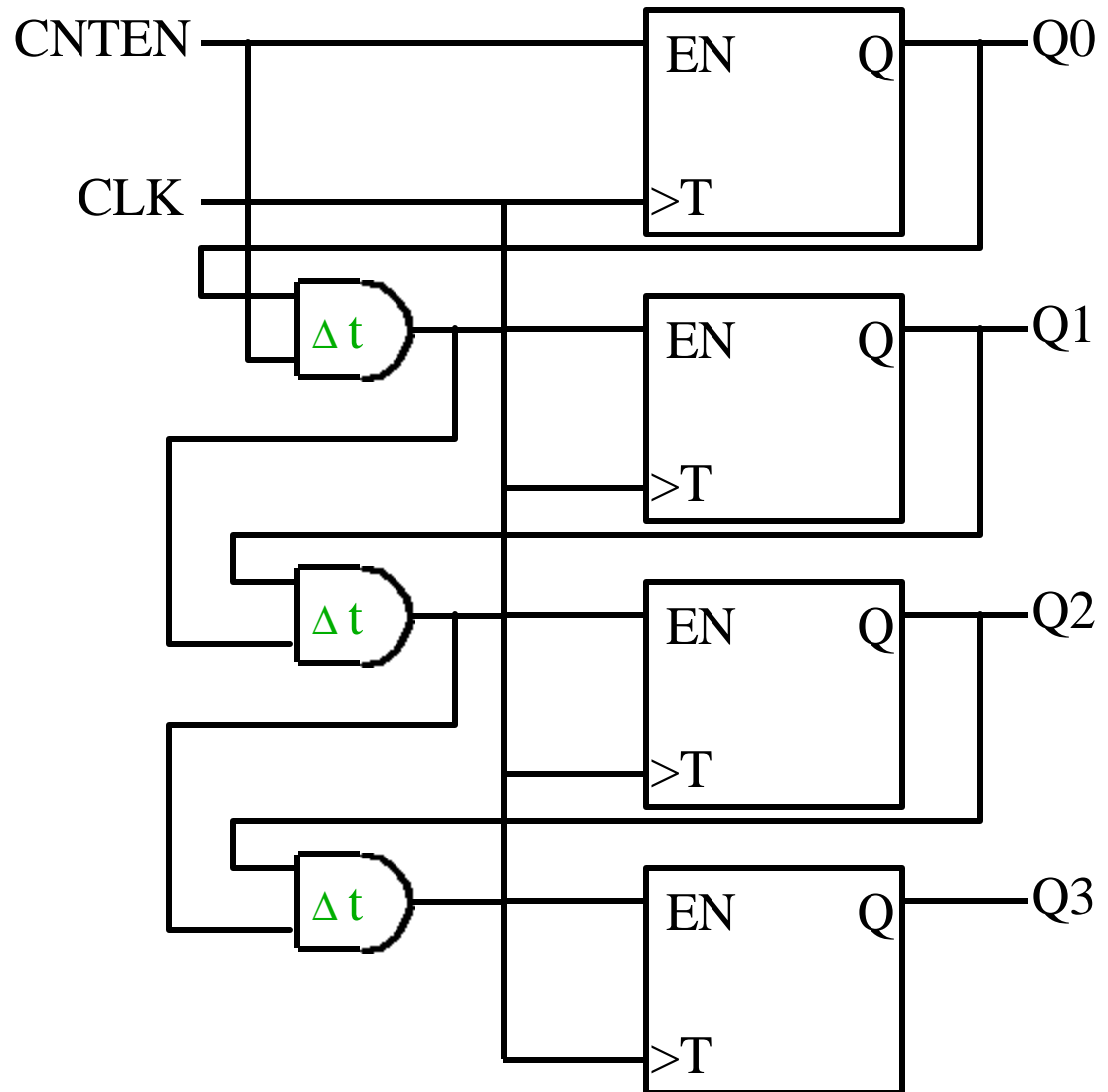


# Synchronous Counters

- **All clock inputs connected to common CLK signal**
  - **All flip-flop outputs change simultaneously  $t_{CQ}$  after CLK**
  - **Faster than ripple counters**
  - **More complex logic**
  - **Most frequently used type of counter**

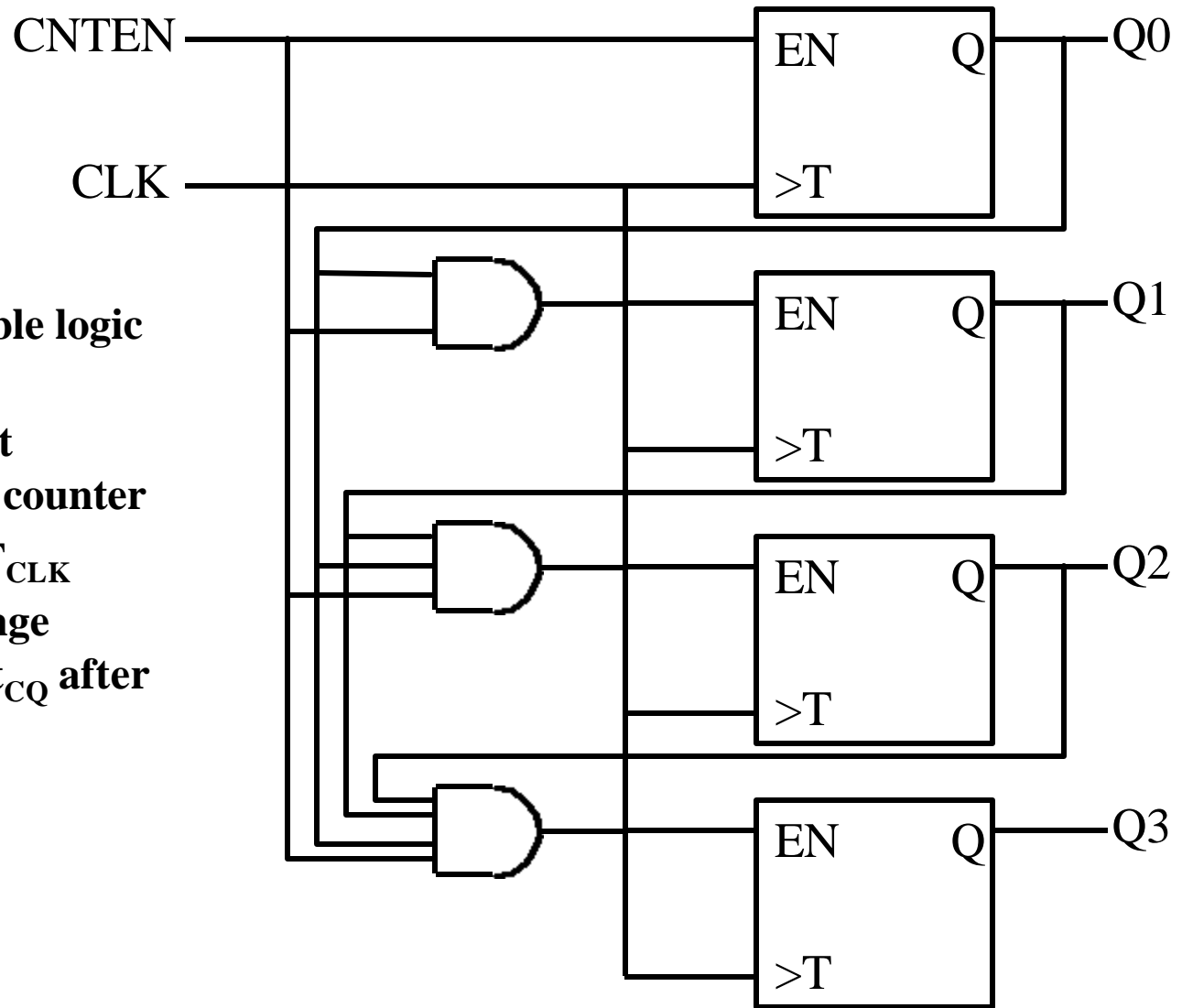
# Synchronous Serial Counter

- Flip-flops enabled when all lower flip-flops = 1.
- Enable propagates serially — limits speed
- Requires  $(n-1) \Delta t < T_{CLK}$
- All outputs change simultaneously  $t_{cQ}$  after  $CLK \uparrow$





# Synchronous Parallel Counter



- **Single-level enable logic per flip-flop**
- **Fastest and most complex type of counter**
- **Requires  $D t < T_{CLK}$**
- **All outputs change simultaneously  $t_{CQ}$  after CLK $\uparrow$**