


## Sequential Circuits

- Give sequence to events
- Have memory (short-term)
- Use feedback from output to input to store information


## State Elements

- The state of a circuit influences its future behavior
- State elements store state
- Bistable circuit
- SR Latch
- D Latch
- D Flip-flop

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## Bistable Circuit Analysis

- Consider the two possible cases:

- Bistable circuit stores 1 bit of state in the state variable, Q - (or $\overline{\mathrm{Q}}$ )
- But there are no inputs to control the state Copyrighte 2007 Elsevier

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## Bistable Circuit

- Fundamental building block of other state elements
- Two outputs: $Q, \bar{Q}$
- No inputs


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## SR (Set/Reset) Latch

- SR Latch

- Consider the four possible cases:

$$
-S=0, R=1
$$

- $S=1, R=0$
- $S=0, R=0$
- $S=1, R=1$

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$$
\begin{array}{ll}
R \frac{0}{1} \mathrm{~N} 100 & R
\end{array}
$$

Q remembers its previous value (state)

- This is a way to build memory


## SR Latch Analysis

$-S=1, R=1$ :
$Q=$
$\bar{Q}=$


## SR Latch Symbol

- SR stands for Set/Reset Latch
- Stores one bit of state ( $Q$ )
- Control what value is being stored with $S, R$ inputs
- Set: Make the output $1(S=1, R=0, Q=1)$
- Reset: Make the output 0 ( $S=0, R=1, Q=0$ )
- Must do something to avoid invalid state (when $S=R=1$ )
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| $-R$ | $Q-$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $S$ | $Q$ |



## D Latch

- Two inputs: $C L K, D$
- CLK: controls when the output changes
- $D$ (the data input): controls what the output changes to
- Function
- When $C L K=1, D$ passes through to $Q$ (the latch is transparent)
- When $C L K=0, Q$ holds its previous value (the latch is opaque)
- Avoids invalid case when $Q \neq \operatorname{NOT} \bar{Q}$


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## D Flip-Flop

- Two inputs: $C L K, D$
- Function
- The flip-flop "samples" $D$ on the rising edge of $C L K$
- When CLK rises from 0 to $1, D$ passes through to $Q$
- Otherwise, $Q$ holds its previous value
- $Q$ changes only on the rising edge of $C L K$
- A flip-flop is called an edge-triggered device because it is activated on the clock edge

D Flip-Flop
Symbols


$$
{ }_{3-16\rangle}
$$

## D Flip-Flop Internal Circuit

- Two back-to-back latches (L1 and L2) controlled by complementary clocks
- When $C L K=0$
-L 1 is
- L2 is
- D
- When $C L K=1$
-L 2 is

- L1 is
- N1
- Thus, on the edge of the clock (when $C L K$ rises from $0 \rightarrow 1$ ) - D

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D Flip-Flop vs. D Latch


## Enabled Flip-Flops

- Inputs: $C L K, D, E N$
- The enable input ( $E N$ ) controls when new data $(D)$ is stored
- Function
- $E N=1$
- D passes through to $Q$ on the clock edge
- $E N=0$
- the flip-flop retains its previous state Circuit

Circuit
Symbol

[^0]


## Resettable Flip-Flops

- Two types:
- Synchronous: resets at the clock edge only
- Asynchronous: resets immediately when Reset $=1$
- Asynchronously resettable flip-flop requires changing the internal circuitry of the flip-flop (see Exercise 3.10)
- Synchronously resettable flip-flop?

Internal
Circuit
CLK
$\frac{D}{\text { Reset }}$
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## Sequential Logic

- Sequential circuits: all circuits that aren't combinational
- A problematic circuit:

- This circuit has no inputs and 1-3 outputs


## Sequential Logic

- Sequential circuits: all circuits that aren't combinational
- A problematic circuit:

- This circuit has no inputs and 1-3 outputs
- It is an astable circuit that oscillates
- Its period depends on the delay of the inverters - which depends on the manufacturing process, temperature, etc
- The circuit has a cyclic path: output fed back to input



## Synchronous Sequential Logic Design

- Breaks cyclic paths by inserting registers
- These registers contain the state of the system
- The state changes at the clock edge, so we say the system is synchronized to the clock
- Rules of synchronous sequential circuit composition:
- Every circuit element is either a register or a combinational circuit
- At least one circuit element is a register
- All registers receive the same clock signal
- Every cyclic path contains at least one register
- Two common synchronous sequential circuits
- Finite State Machines (FSMs)
- Pipelines

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## Finite State Machines (FSMs)

- Next state is determined by the current state and the inputs
- Two types of finite state machines differ in the output logic:
- Moore FSM: outputs depend only on the current state
- Mealy FSM: outputs depend on the current state and the inputs





## FSM Encoded State Transition Table



| Current State |  | Outputs |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $S_{1}$ | $S_{0}$ | $L_{A 1}$ | $L_{A 0}, L_{B 1}, L_{B 0}$ |  |  |
| 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 1 |  |  |  |  |


| Output | Encoding |
| :---: | :---: |
| green | 00 |
| yellow | 01 |
| red | 10 |

$L_{A 1}=$
$L_{A 0}=$
$L_{B 1}=$
$L_{B 0}=$
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FSM Schematic: State Register


## FSM State Encoding

- Binary encoding: i.e., for four states, $00,01,10,11$
- One-hot encoding
- One state bit per state
- Only one state bit is HIGH at once
- I.e., for four states, $0001,0010,0100,1000$
- Requires more flip-flops
- Often next state and output logic is simpler


## Moore vs. Mealy FSM

- Alyssa P. Hacker has a snail that crawls down a paper tape with 1's and 0's on it. The snail smiles whenever the last four digits it has crawled over are 1101. Design Moore and Mealy FSMs of the snail's brain



Mealy FSM: arcs indicate input/output

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> Mealy FSM


State Transition Diagrams

## Moore FSM Output Table

| Current State |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Output |  |  |  |
| $S_{2}$ | $S_{1}$ | $S_{0}$ | $Y$ |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |  |

$Y=$

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| Mealy FSM State Transition and Output Table |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Curr | State | Input | Next State | Output |  |  |
| $S_{1}$ | $S_{0}$ | A | $S_{1}^{\prime} \quad S_{0}^{\prime}$ | $Y$ |  |  |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  | State | Encodin |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  | S0 | 00 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |  |  | S1 | 01 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  | S2 | 10 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  |  | S3 | 11 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
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Moore and Mealy Timing Diagram


## Factoring State Machines

- Break complex FSMs into smaller interacting FSMs
- Example: Modify the traffic light controller to have a Parade Mode.
- The FSM receives two more inputs: $P, R$
- When $P=1$, it enters Parade Mode and the Bravado Blvd. light stays green.
- When $R=1$, it leaves Parade Mode




## FSM Design Procedure

- Identify the inputs and outputs
- Sketch a state transition diagram
- Write a state transition table
- Select state encodings
- For a Moore machine:
- Rewrite the state transition table with the selected state encodings Write the output table
- For a Mealy machine:
- Rewrite the combined state transition and output table with the selected state encodings
- Write Boolean equations for the next state and output logic
- Sketch the circuit schematic


## Input Timing Constraints

- Setup time: $t_{\text {setup }}=$ time before the clock edge that data must be stable (i.e. not changing)
- Hold time: $t_{\text {hold }}=$ time after the clock edge that data must be stable
- Aperture time: $t_{a}=$ time around clock edge that data must be stable $\left(t_{a}=t_{\text {setup }}+t_{\text {hold }}\right)$



- Flip-flop samples $D$ at clock edge
- $D$ must be stable when it is sampled
- Similar to a photograph, $D$ must be stable around the clock edge
- If $D$ is changing when it is sampled, metastability can occur


## Timing





Timing Analysis

| Fixing Hold Time Violation |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Add buffers to the short paths: $\begin{aligned} & t_{p d}= \\ & t_{c d}= \end{aligned}$ <br> Setup time constraint: $\begin{aligned} & T_{c} \geq \\ & f_{c}=1 / T_{c}= \end{aligned}$ <br> Copyright © 2007 Elsevier | Timing Characteristics <br> Hold time constraint: $t_{\mathrm{ccq}}+t_{c d}>t_{\text {hold }} ?$ |



Setup Time Constraint with Clock Skew

- In the worst case, CLK2 is earlier than CLK1



## Flip-flop Internals

- Because the flip-flop has feedback, if $Q$ is somewhere between 1 and 0 , the cross-coupled gates will eventually drive the output to either rail ( 1 or 0 , depending on which one it is closer to).

$$
\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{N} 2-\mathrm{Q}
$$

- A signal is considered metastable if it hasn't resolved to 1 or 0
- If a flip-flop input changes at a random time, the probability that the output $Q$ is metastable after waiting some time, $t$, is:

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(t_{\text {res }}>t\right)=\left(T_{0} / T_{c}\right) \mathrm{e}^{-t / \tau}
$$

$t_{\text {res }}$ : time to resolve to 1 or 0
$T_{0}, \tau$ : properties of the circuit

## Metastability

- Intuitively:
$-T_{0} / T_{\mathrm{c}}$ describes the probability that the input changes at a bad time, i.e., during the aperture time

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(t_{\text {res }}>t\right)=\left(T_{0} / T_{c}\right) \mathrm{e}^{-t / \tau}
$$

- $\tau$ is a time constant indicating how fast the flip-flop moves away from the metastable state; it is related to the delay through the cross-coupled gates in the flip-flop

$$
\mathrm{P}\left(t_{\text {res }}>t\right)=\left(T_{0} / T_{c}\right) \mathrm{e}^{-t / \tau}
$$

- In short, if a flip-flop samples a metastable input, if you wait long enough $(t)$, the output will have resolved to 1 or 0 with high probability.

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## Synchronizer Internals

- A synchronizer can be built with two back-to-back flip-flops.
- Suppose the input D is transitioning when it is sampled by flip-flop 1, Fl.
- The amount of time the internal signal D2 can resolve to a 1 or 0 is
( $T_{c}-t_{\text {setup }}$ ).




## Synchronizers

- Asynchronous inputs $(D)$ are inevitable (user interfaces, systems with different clocks interacting, etc.).
- The goal of a synchronizer is to make the probability of failure (the output $Q$ still being metastable) low.
- A synchronizer cannot make the probability of failure 0 .



## Synchronizer Probability of Failure

For each sample, the probability of failure of this synchronizer is:


## Synchronizer Mean Time Before Failure

- If the asynchronous input changes once per second, the probability of failure per second of the synchronizer is simply $P$ (failure).
- In general, if the input changes $N$ times per second, the probability of failure per second of the synchronizer is:

$$
P(\text { failure }) / \text { second }=\left(N T_{0} / T_{c}\right) \mathrm{e}^{-\left(T_{c}-t_{\text {setup }}\right.}{ }^{1 / \tau}
$$

- Thus, the synchronizer fails, on average, $1 /[P($ failure $) /$ second $]$
- This is called the mean time between failures, MTBF:

MTBF $=1 /[P($ failure $) /$ second $]=\left(T_{c} / N T_{0}\right) e^{\left(T_{c}-t_{\text {setup }}\right.}{ }^{\prime / \tau}$

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- Suppose: $\quad T_{c}=1 / 500 \mathrm{MHz}=2 \mathrm{~ns} \quad \tau \quad=200 \mathrm{ps}$

$$
T_{0}=150 \mathrm{ps} \quad t_{\text {setup }}=100 \mathrm{ps}
$$

$$
P(\text { failure })=
$$

$P($ failure $) /$ second $=$
MTBF =
MTBF =
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## Parallelism Definitions

- Some definitions:
- Token: A group of inputs processed to produce a group of outputs
- Latency: Time for one token to pass from start to end
- Throughput: The number of tokens that can be produced per unit time
- Parallelism increases throughput.
- task is broken into multiple stages
- also called pipelining



## Parallelism Example

- Ben Bitdiddle is baking cookies to celebrate the installation of his traffic light controller. It takes 5 minutes to roll the cookies and 15 minutes to bake them. After finishing one batch he immediately starts the next batch. What is the latency and throughput if Ben doesn't use parallelism?

Latency $=$
Throughput $=$


## Parallelism Example

- What is the latency and throughput if Ben uses parallelism?
- Spatial parallelism: Ben asks Allysa P. Hacker to help, using her own oven
- Temporal parallelism: Ben breaks the task into two stages: roll and baking. He uses two trays. While the first batch is baking he rolls the second batch, and so on



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