CEG 3320 - Digital System Design

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Module IV: Design, optimization, and complexity

Sequential design optimization
Ad-hoc design
Registers
Register-level devices
Binary Arithmetic & ALUs
ROMs and other PLDs

Sequential Design Optimization

State minimization
State assignment
Mealy and Moore devices

Design Example



State Minimization

- Minimal state table use fewest possible states
 - desirable because it usually means less hardware
- If state table created from a word problem is <u>NOT</u> minimal, then:
 - Identify equivalent states:
 - Two states are equivalent if: both give the same current outputs for all inputs
 and all the next states are the same or equivalent for both states
 - e.g.: Two states are equivalent_if all future outputs are the same
 - Replace all equivalent states with a single state.
- For small designs, minimization should not be necessary if the designer is careful when creating the state table.
- For larger designs, formal state minimization procedures are sometimes necessary.



	X				
S	0 1	Y			
A	D B	0			
В	C D	1			
C	АВ	1			
D	CD_	1			
	S(t+1)	I			

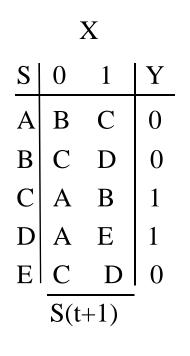


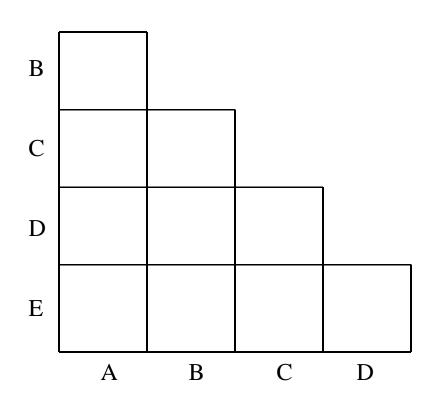
X					
S	0 1	Y			
A	D B	0			
В	C D	1			
C	A B	1			
D	_ C B	1			
$\frac{1}{S(t+1)}$					



	X					
S	0	1	Y	Z		
A	D	В	0	0		
В	C	D	1	0		
C	A	В	1	0		
D	C	D	1	1		
${S(t+1)}$						





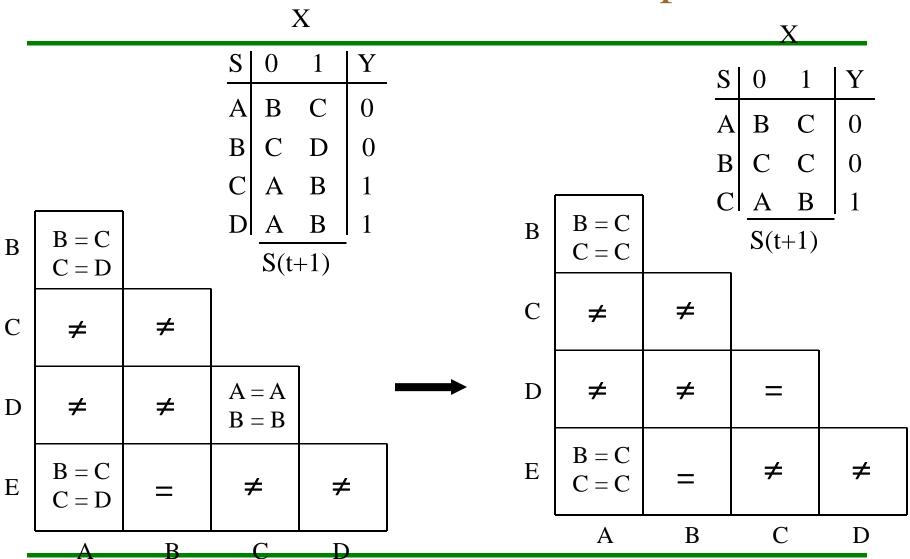


Implication Chart

Each cell contains information: e.g. A is equivalent to B iff ((B = C)) and (C = D).

			2	X				_	1	Δ
			$S \mid 0$	1 5	7				S 0	1 Y
			A B	C (<u></u>				A B	$C \mid 0$
			$\begin{array}{c c} B & C \end{array}$	\mathbf{D}					ВС	$D \mid 0$
Im	plication	Chart	C A	\mathbf{B}					C A	B 1
D	B = C		D A	E 1		В	B = C		$D \mid \underline{A}$	B 1
В	C = D		$E \mid C$	$D \mid 0$)	Z	C = D		S(t-	+1)
C	≠	≠	S(t-	+1)		C	≠	≠		
D	≠	≠	A = A $B = E$		→	D	≠	≠	A = A $B = B$	
E	B = C $C = D$	C = C $D = D$	≠	≠		Е	B = C $C = D$	=	≠	≠
	A	В	С	D			A	В	C	D

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{Each cell contains information: e.g. A is equivalent to B iff ((B=C) and (C=D)).} \\ \text{Dr. Doom, Computer Science \& Engineering} \\ \end{array}$



X					
S	0	1	Y		
A	A	В	1		
В	A	C	0		
C	A	В	0		
$\overline{S(t+1)}$					



	2	X			
S	0	1	Y		
A	A	D	0		
В	В	D	0		
C	C	Е	0		
D	F	G	1		
E	G	F	1		
F	D	В	1		
G	D	C	1		
$\overline{S(t+1)}$					



Mealy machines

- Mealy machine: a finite-state machine whose output is determined by a combination of both its current state AND its current input
 - George Mealy (1955)
- Moore machine: a finite-state machine whose output is determined by ONLY its current state
 - Edward Moore (1956)

Mealy and Moore machines solve similar but different problems. That
is, the timing behavior of the two types of devices are not identical

State Assignment

- <u>Example 2</u>: Given 5 states: A, B, C, D, E and minimum # of bits (3), How many possible state assignments are there?
 - Assume that the initial state is 'A'
 - Assume that we will use the assignment 000 for the initial state

Minimal Risk/Cost State Assignments

- If extra unused state codes exist (number of available states 2ⁿ > s), then two choices are possible:
- Minimal Risk = most reliable but most expensive
 - Assume it is possible to enter unused state by noise, weird inputs, etc.
 - So include all unused states as present states, but all corresponding next states go to "initial" or "idle"
- Minimal Cost = somewhat risky but least expensive
 - Assume unused states NEVER entered accidentally.
 - So the next state and outputs of all unused states = "don't care" to reduce next state and output logic
- Achieving both minimal risk and minimal cost is often possible!

Example: State Assignment Strategies

Alter	native A	ssignment	ts			/	4B		
Q_3Q_0	Q_4Q_0	$Q_2Q_1Q_0$	$Q_2Q_1Q_0$	S	00	01	11	10	Z
0000	00001	000	000	INIT	A0	A0	A1	A1	0
0001	00010	000	001	A 0	ОКО	OK0	A 1	A 1	0
0010	00100	010	010	A 1	A 0	A 0	OK1	OK1	0
0100	01000	100	011	OK0	OK0	OK0	OK1	A 1	1
1000	10000	101	100	OK1	A0	OK0	OK1	OK1	1
Almost One Hot	One Hot	Decompose	d Simplest	t			S*		<u> </u>

Example decomposition:

- Initial State = all 0's for easy RESET
- Make Q2 follow Z?
- Use simple assignment for remaining state variables
- Make CERTAIN each assignment is used only once!

THUS, simpler next state and output logic!



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 "structure" of the state table to simplify next-state/output logic



State Assignment - Heuristic Guidelines

Starting from the highest priority to the lowest:

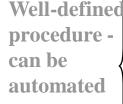
- Choose initial coded state that's easy to produce at reset: (all 0's or 1's)
 - This simplifies the initialization circuitry, but is not always wise.
- Freely use <u>any</u> of the 2ⁿ state codes for best assignment
 (i.e., with s states, don't just use the first s integers 0,1,...,s-1)
- Define specific 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
 - Prioritized adjacency schemes are often used in the field
- Simplify output logic



State Machine Design Procedure

Most difficult and creative

- ✓ 1. Build state/output table (or state diagram) from word description
- ✓2. Minimize number of states
- \checkmark 3. Choose state variables and assign bit combinations to named states
 - 4. Build transition/output table from state/output table (or state diagram)
 - 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



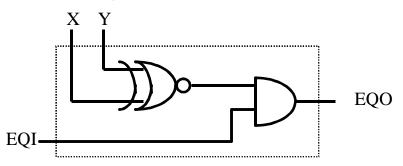
Ad hoc design

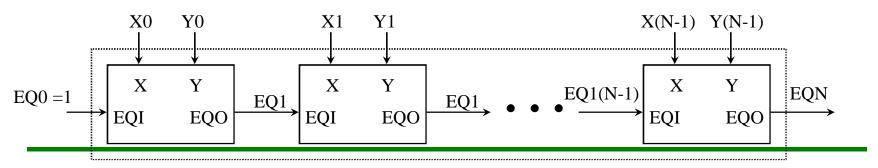
Combinational ad-hoc design Sequential ad-hoc design

Iterative Combinational Logic

- Iterative logic array: A device consisting of identical sub-circuits connected together in a chain to perform a larger overall function
- Iterative Comparator : cascaded 1-bit comparators
- 1-bit comparator :

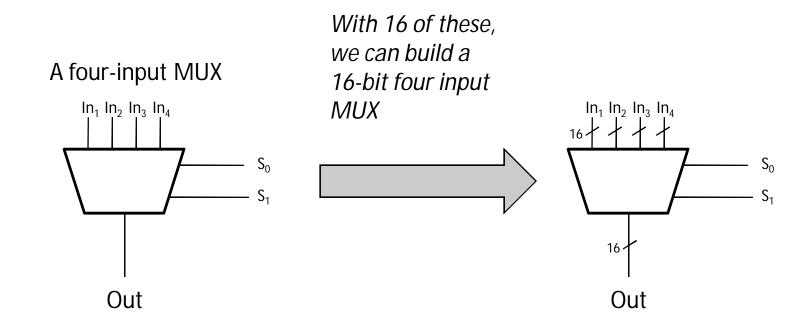
		' +			
Function Table					
EQI	Χ	Υ	EQO		
0	Χ	Χ	0		
1	0	0	1		
1	0	1	0		
1	1	0	0		
1	1	1	1		







Circuits: a Multiplexor



Ad-hoc maximum value selector



Ad Hoc Design

- Directly translate word description into a circuit
 - Use Flip-Flops to "remember" things
 - Use combinational logic to decode these remembered things
 - Usually simplifies the state assignment process because storage elements remember something meaningful.
- Useful only for small state machines
- May be easier or harder to design
- May require more or less complex hardware
- With an Ad Hoc design, the ease of design and complexity are unknown before the design is attempted
- Larger designs are often decomposed into smaller more easily solved problems and then recombined ad-hoc!
 - e.g.: Control and Data units



Example Ad Hoc Sequential problem

Design a state machine with inputs A, B and output Z. Z=1 if A and B inputs were EQUAL for the last 2 clock ticks <u>OR</u> if B has been 1 ever since the first condition was true. Else, Z=0.

Solve the two conditions separately, then OR the results:

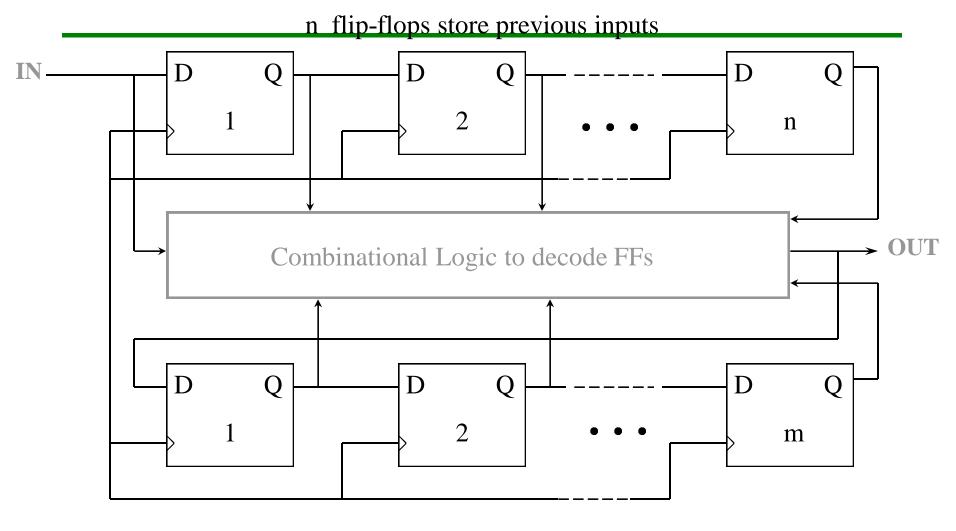
- a) <u>1st Condition</u> Serial Comparator. Remember last 2 comparison results, then AND together. --> SAMEBOTH output
- b) 2nd Condition Remember if B has been 1 since 1st condition true --> BOK output



Finite Memory Machine

- Finite Memory Machines (FMMs) are one type of Ad Hoc design
- Outputs are determined by:
 - Current inputs
 - and n previous inputs
 - and m previous outputs
- FMMs are a subclass of Finite State Machines, but FSMs are not necessarily FMMs
 - an FSM may depend on all past inputs (forever)
 - a FMM can only depend on a finite number of past inputs

Finite Memory Machine

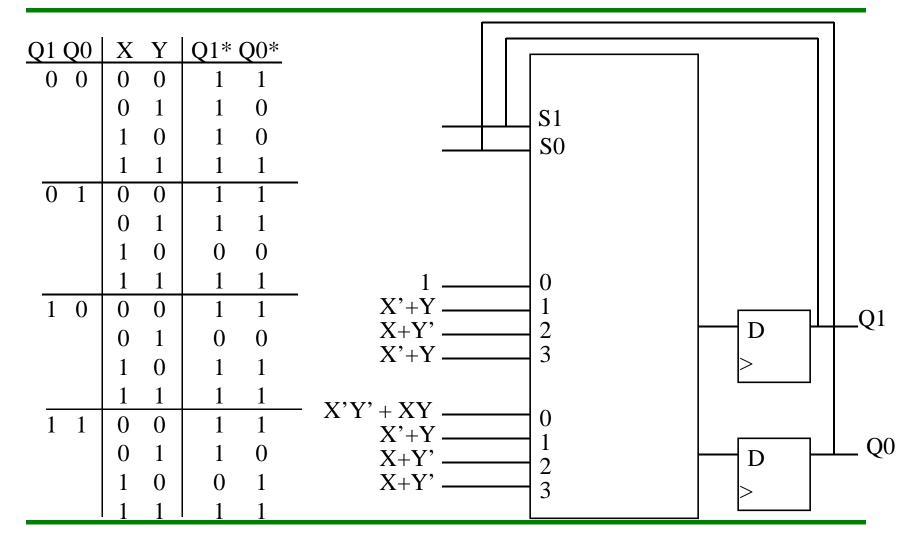


n flip-flops store previous outputs





Prototype Implementation with MUX





Computer Arithmetic

Standards all the use of elements for ad-hoc use!

Addition

Subtraction

Twos-complement

Overflow

Devices for Combinational Arithmetic: Adders, ALUs

Combinational/Sequential bit-serial operations

Unsigned Binary Integers

$$Y = "abc" = a.2^2 + b.2^1 + c.2^0$$

(where the digits a, b, c can each take on the values of 0 or 1 only)

$$N = number of bits$$
 Range is: $0 \le i < 2^N - 1$

$$Umin = 0$$

$$Umax = 2^{N} - 1$$

Problem:

 How do we represent negative numbers?

	3-bits	5-bits	8-bits
0	000	00000	00000000
1	001	00001	0000001
2	010	00010	0000010
3	011	00011	00000011
4	100	00100	00000100

Manipulating Binary numbers - 01

- Binary to Decimal conversion & vice-versa
 - A 4 bit binary number A = $a_3a_2a_1a_0$ corresponds to:

$$a_3 \times 2^3 + a_2 \times 2^2 + a_1 \times 2^1 + a_0 \times 2^0 = a_3 \times 8 + a_2 \times 4 + a_1 \times 2 + a_0 \times 1$$

(where $a_i = 0$ or 1 only)

 A decimal number can be broken down by iteratively determining the highest power of two that "fits" in the number:

e.g.
$$(13)_{10} =>$$

e.g.
$$(63)_{10} =>$$

e.g.
$$(0.75)_{10} =>$$

– A binary number can be broken down by iteratively adding powers of two:

e.g.
$$(00101100)_2 =>$$

e.g.
$$(10101100)_2 =>$$



Binary Arithmetic: Addition

Carries:	0000	101100
Augend:	01100	10110
Addend:	+10001	+10111
Sum	11101	101101



Binary Arithmetic: Subtraction

00000	Borrow	0 0 1 1 0 Borrow	
10110	Minuend	1 0 1 1 0 Minuend	
- 10010	Subtrahend	- 1 0 0 1 1 Subtrahend	
0 0 1 0 0	Difference	0 0 0 1 1 Difference	

Binary Arithmetic: Multiplication

			1	0	1	1	Multiplicand
X				1	0	1	Multiplier
			1	0	1	1	
		0	0	0	0		
	1	0	1	1			
	1	1	0	1	1	1	 Product



Signed Magnitude

Leading bit is the <u>sign</u> bit

$$Y = \text{``abc''} = (-1)^a (b.2^1 + c.2^0)$$

Range is:
$$-2^{N-1} + 1 < i < 2^{N-1} - 1$$

Smin =
$$-2^{N-1} + 1$$

Smax = $2^{N-1} - 1$

Problems:

- How do we do addition/subtraction?
- We have two numbers for zero (+/-)!

-4	10100
-3	10011
-2	10010
-1	10001
-0	10000
+0	00000
+1	00001
+2	00010
+3	00011
+4	00100

Two's Complement

Transformation

 To transform a into -a, invert all bits in a and add 1 to the result

Range is:
$$-2^{N-1} < i < 2^{N-1} - 1$$

 $Tmin = -2^{N-1}$
 $Tmax = 2^{N-1} - 1$

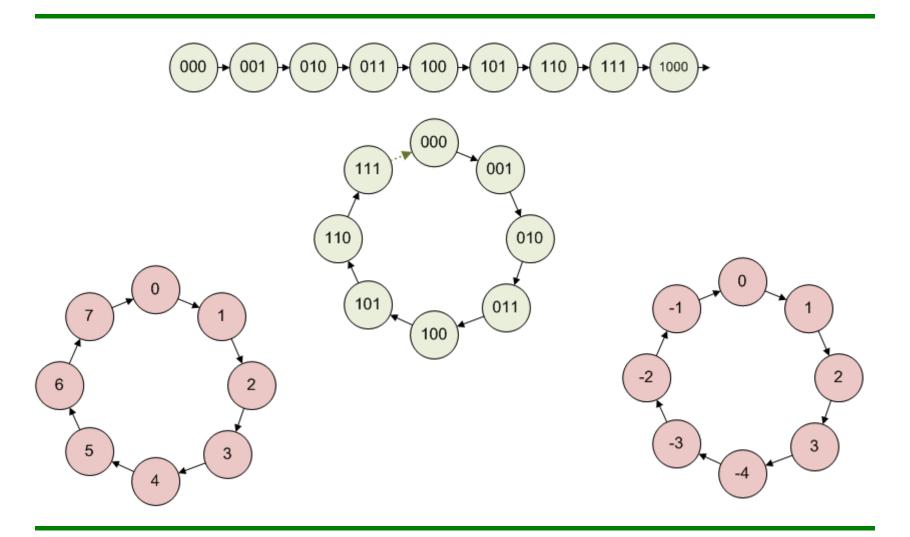
Advantages:

- Operations need not check the sign
- Only one representation for zero
- Efficient use of all the bits
- m + 2's complement $n \leftrightarrow m + (2^n n)$

$$\leftrightarrow$$
 m - n + 2ⁿ (ignored carry) \leftrightarrow m - n

-16	10000
•••	•••
-3	11101
-2	11110
-1	11111
0	00000
+1	00001
+2	00010
+3	00011
•••	•••
+15	01111

Binary Integer number lines/rings





Manipulating Binary numbers - 10

SIGN EXTENTION

– In the 2's complement representation, leading zeros <u>do not</u> affect the value of a positive binary number, and leading ones <u>do not</u> affect the value of a negative number. So:

$$01101 = 00001101 = 13$$
 and $11011 = 11111011 = -5$

00001101	x0D
<u>11111011</u>	<u>xFB</u>
$\overline{00001000} => 8 \text{ (as expected!)}$	x08



Manipulating Binary numbers - 11

OVERFLOW

- If we add the two (2's complement) 4 bit numbers representing 7 and 5 we get :

```
0111 => +7

0101 => +5

1100 => -4 (in 4 bit 2's comp.)
```

- We get -4, not +12 as we would expect !!
- We have overflowed the range of 4 bit 2's comp. (-8 to +7), so the result is invalid.
- Note that if we add 16 to this result we get back 16 4 = 12
 - this is like "stepping up" to 5 bit 2's complement representation
- In general, if the sum of two positive numbers produces a negative result, or vice versa, an overflow has occurred, and the result is invalid in that representation.
- The sign extension rules help us detect overflow. If the ignored bit is appropriate for sign extension, then no information is lost.



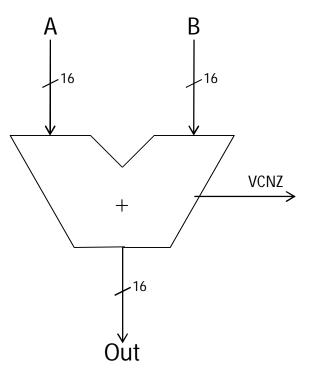
Binary Arithmetic: Subtraction

Carries: Augend:	0000 01100	101100 10110
Addend:	+10001	+10111
Sum	11101	101101

- two-'s complement subtraction:
 - Ignore carry/overflow
 - m n \leftrightarrow m n + 2ⁿ (ignored carry) \leftrightarrow m + (2ⁿ n) \leftrightarrow m + 2's complement n
 - The easiest way to add 2ⁿ?
 - Flipping all the bits is the same as adding 2ⁿ-1 (the one's complement)
 - So then we add one

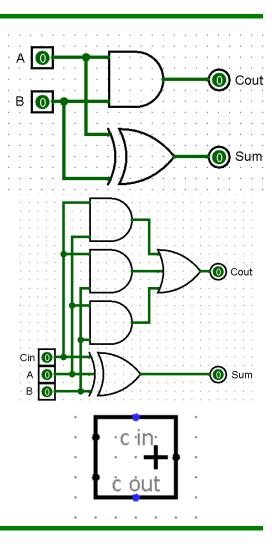


Circuits: an adder

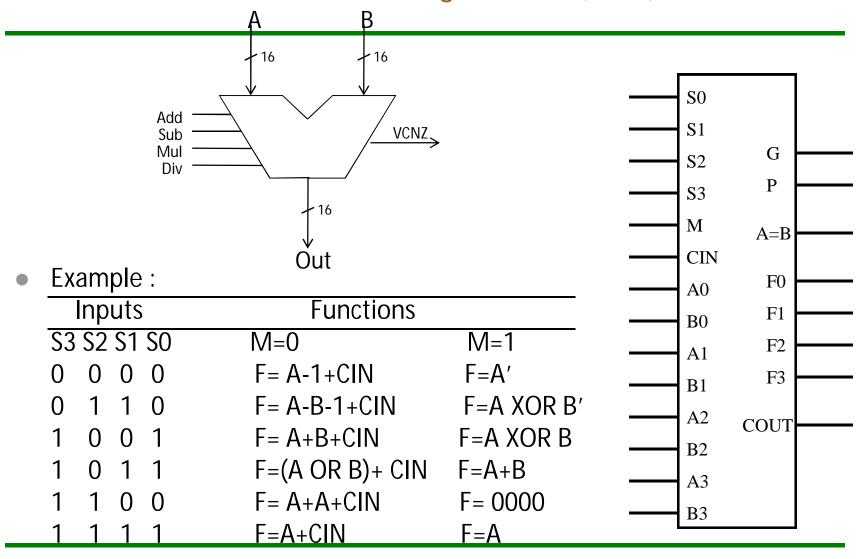


Half-Adder

- Two data inputs
- One data output
- One carry output
- Full-Adder
 - Two data inputs
 - One Carry input
 - One data output
 - One Carry Output
- Optional Status Outputs
 - V: Overflow
 - C: Carry
 - N: Negative
 - Z: Zero



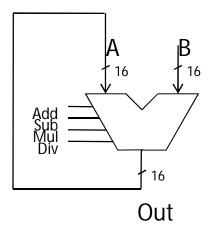
MSI Arithmetic Logic Units (ALU)



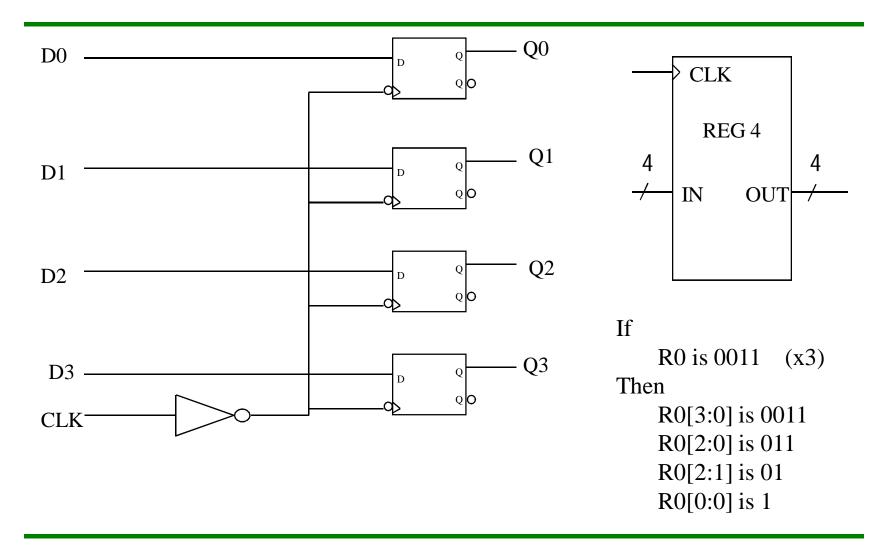


Keeping track of state

- Suppose we perform an addition (A + B) on our ALU.
- Where can we "put" the result?

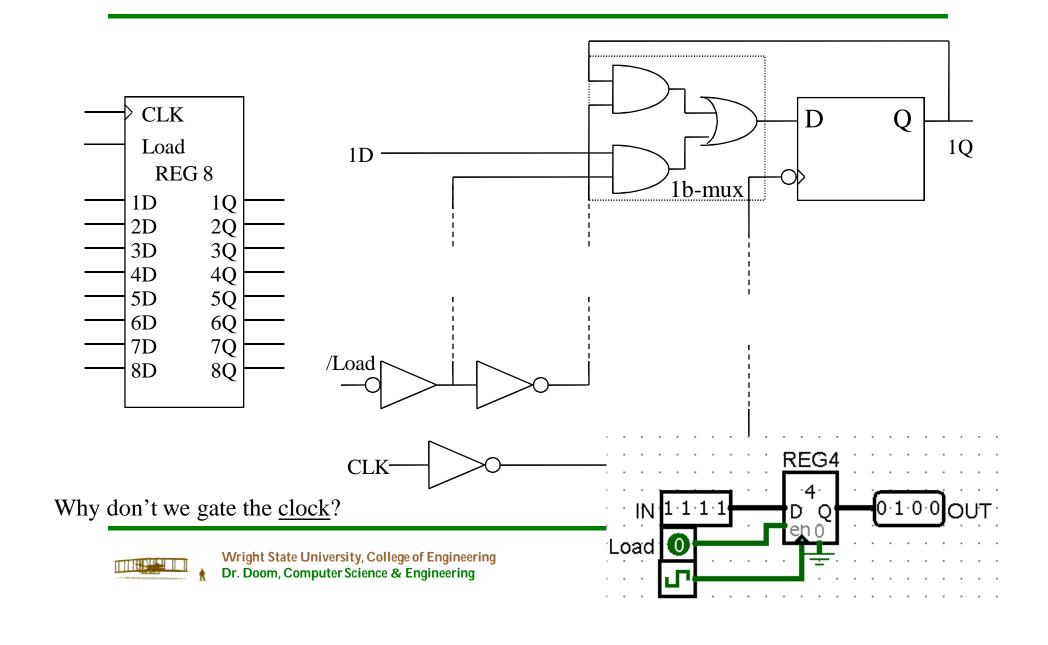


4-bit (Quad) Register

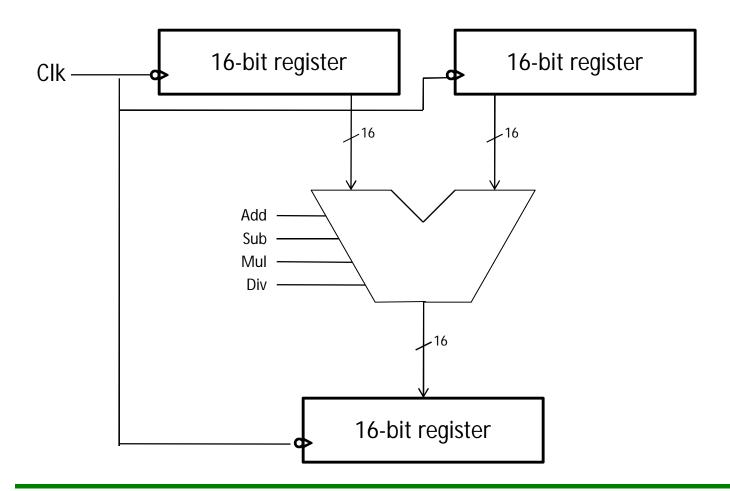




Register with Parallel Load Enable

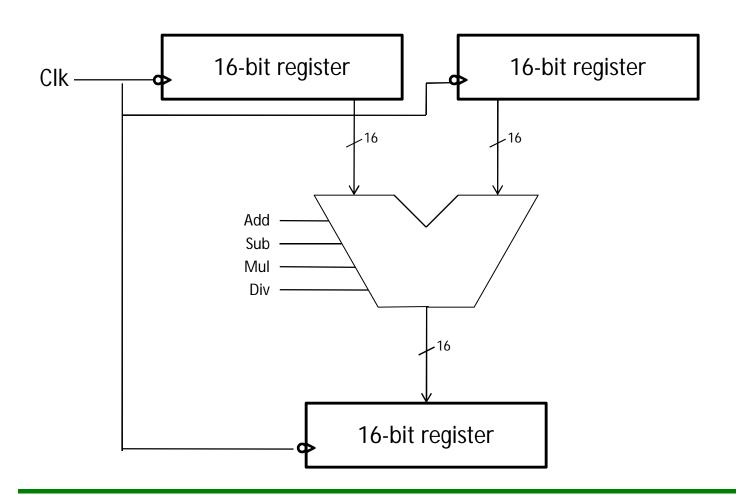


Computation + storage





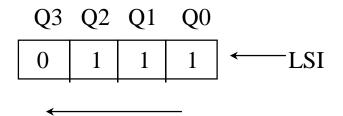
Bit serial operations

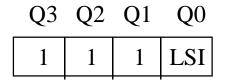




Shifting

- Moving moves data "sideways" left/right
 - Shift Left (or Shift Down) is towards MSB

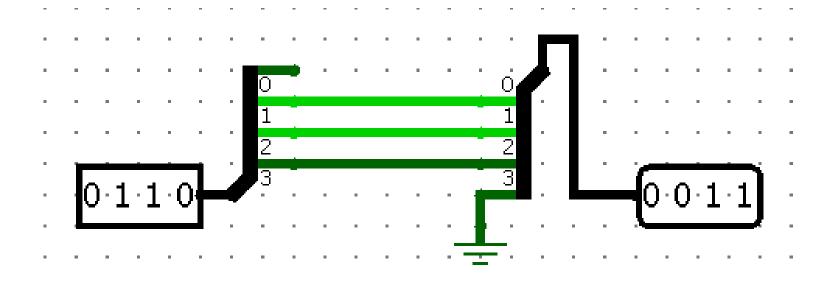




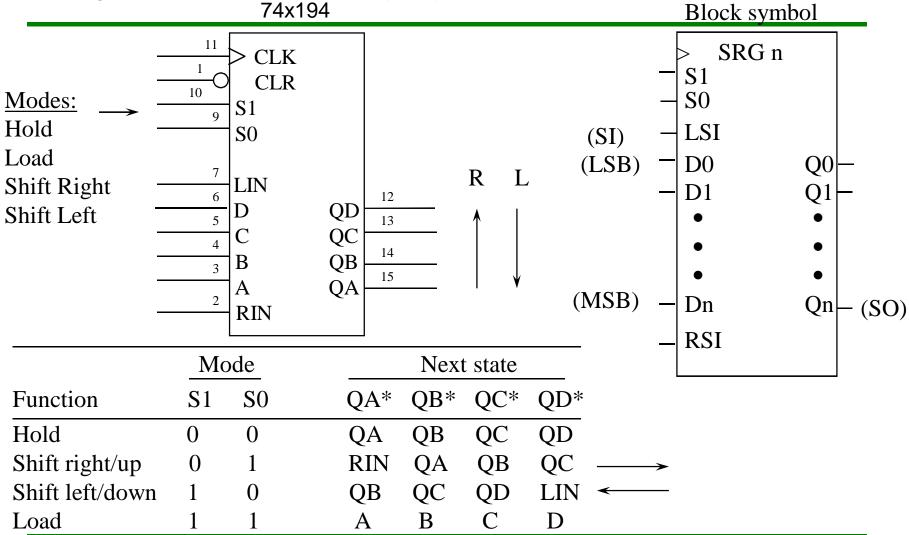
Shift Right (or Shift Up) is towards LSB

⇒ Often used to rearrange bits or Multiply/Divide by 2

Combinational Barrel Shifter



Bi-directional Universal Shift Registers Quad Bi-directional Universal (4-bit) PIPO





Universal SR Schematic RIGHT (11)CLK _ 74x194 /CLR ___(1) S1 S0 LEFT 、 LIN _ **OH** 00 (12)D QD Q LD CLK SR 01 **CLR** 10 00 (15)QA D 11 CLK RIN -**CLR**

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Shift Register Applications

