### Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 7: Sequential Logic Design

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### Readings

- Please study Slides 102-120 from Lecture 6 on your own
- This week
  - Sequential Logic
    - P&P Chapter 3.4 until end + H&H Chapter 3 in full
  - Hardware Description Languages and Verilog
    - H&H Chapter 4 in full
  - Timing and Verification
    - H&H Chapters 2.9 and 3.5 + Chapter 5
- Next week
  - Von Neumann Model, LC3, and MIPS
    - P&P Chapter 4-5 + H&H Chapter 6
  - Digital Building Blocks
    - H&H Chapter 5

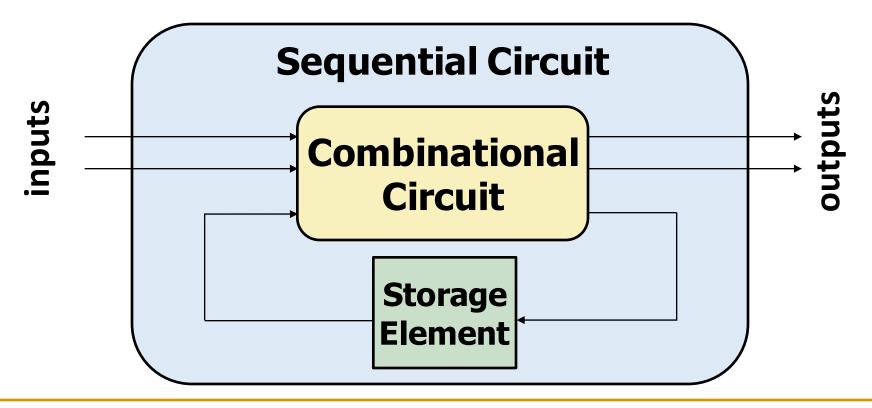
### What We Will Learn Today

- Circuits that can store information
  - R-S Latch
  - Gated D Latch
  - D Flip-Flop
  - Register
- Finite State Machines (FSM)
  - Moore Machine
  - Mealy Machine
- Verilog implementations of sequential circuits

# Circuits that Can Store Information

#### Introduction

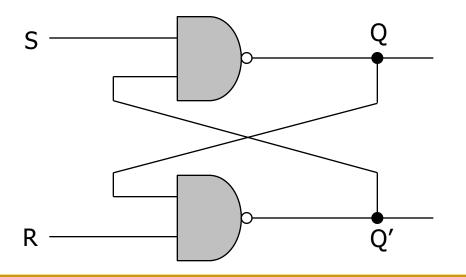
- Combinational circuit output depends only on current input
- We want circuits that produce output depending on current and past input values – circuits with memory
- How can we design a circuit that stores information?



### Basic Storage Element: The R-S Latch

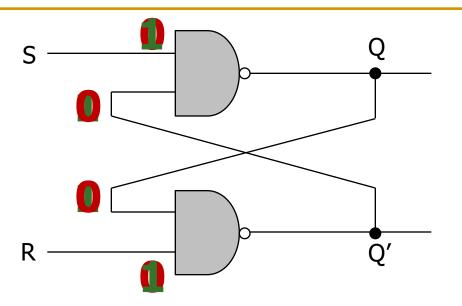
### The R-S (Reset-Set) Latch

- The simplest implementation of the R-S Latch
  - Two NAND gates with outputs feeding into each other's input
  - Data is stored at Q (inverse at Q')
  - S and R inputs are held at 1 in quiescent (idle) state
    - S (set): drive S to 0 (keeping R at 1) to change Q to 1
    - R (reset): drive R to 0 (keeping S at 1) to change Q to 0
- S and R should never both be 0 at the same time



Input		Output
R	S	Q
1	1	$Q_{prev}$
1	0	1
0	1	0
0	0	Invalid

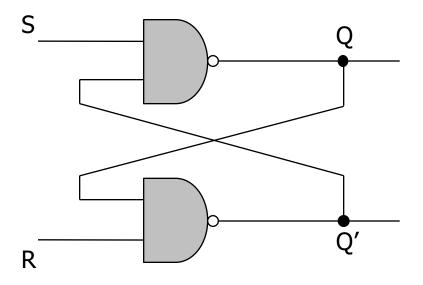
### Why not R=S=0?



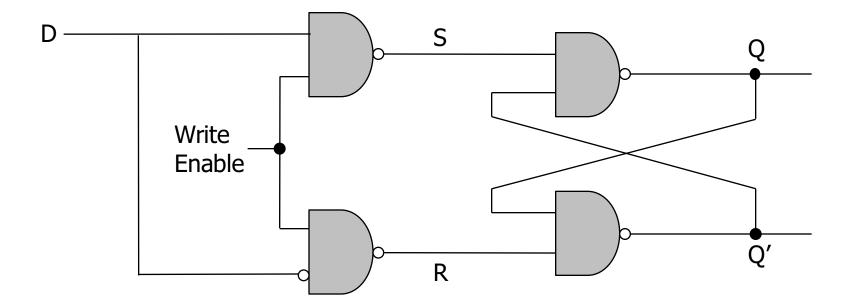
Input		Output
R	S	Q
1	1	$Q_{prev}$
1	0	1
0	1	0
0	0	Invalid

- 1. If **R=S=0**, **Q** and **Q'** will both settle to 1, which **breaks** our invariant that **Q** = !**Q'**
- 2. If **S** and **R** transition back to 1 at the same time, **Q** and **Q'** begin to oscillate between 1 and 0 because their final values depend on each other (**metastability**)
  - □ This eventually settles depending on variation in the circuits (more metastability to come in Lecture 8)

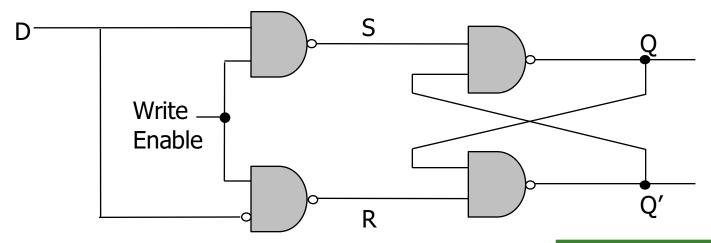
How do we guarantee correct operation of an R-S Latch?



- How do we guarantee correct operation of an R-S Latch?
  - Add two more NAND gates!



- Q takes the value of D, when write enable (WE) is set to 1
- S and R can never be 0 at the same time!



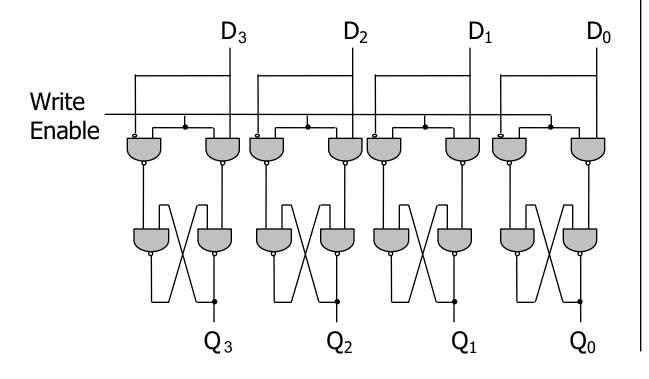
Input		Output
WE	D	Q
0	0	$Q_{prev}$
0	1	$Q_{prev}$
1	0	0
1	1	1

# The Register

### The Register

How can we use D latches to store **more** data?

- Use more D latches!
- A single WE signal for all latches for simultaneous writes



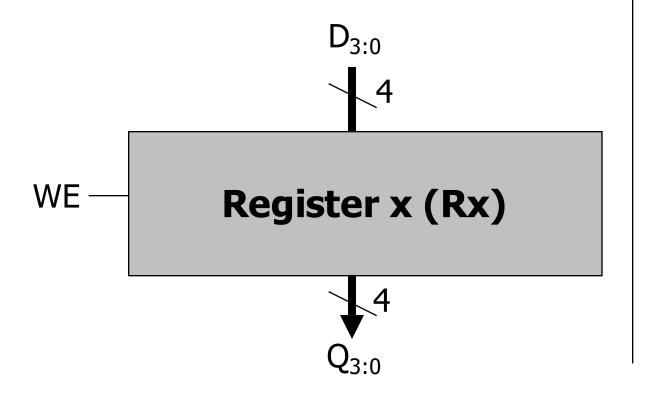
Here we have a register, or a structure that stores more than one bit and can be read from and written to

This **register** holds 4 bits, and its data is referenced as Q[3:0]

### The Register

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## Memory

### Memory

Memory is comprised of locations that can be written to or read from. An example memory array with 4 locations:

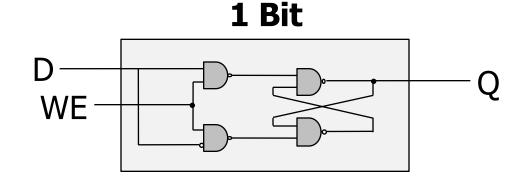
<b>Addr</b> (00):	0100 1001	<b>Addr</b> (01):	0100 1011
<b>Addr</b> (10):	0010 0010	<b>Addr</b> (11):	1100 1001

- Every unique location in memory is indexed with a unique address. 4 locations require 2 address bits (log[#locations]).
- Addressability: the number of bits of information stored in each location. This example: addressability is 8 bits.
- The full set of unique locations in memory is referred to as the address space.
- Typical memory is MUCH larger (billions of locations)

### Addressing Memory

#### Let's implement a simple memory array with:

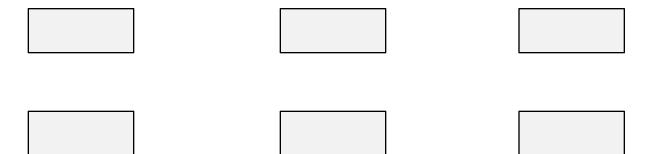
• 3-bit addressability & address space size of 2 (total of 6 bits)



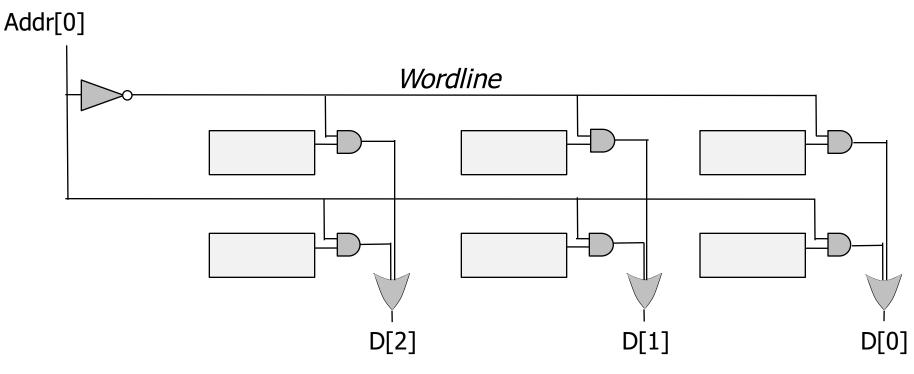
**6-Bit Memory Array** 

Addr(0)	Bit <sub>2</sub>	Bit <sub>1</sub>	Bit <sub>0</sub>
Addr(1)	Bit <sub>2</sub>	Bit <sub>1</sub>	Bit <sub>0</sub>

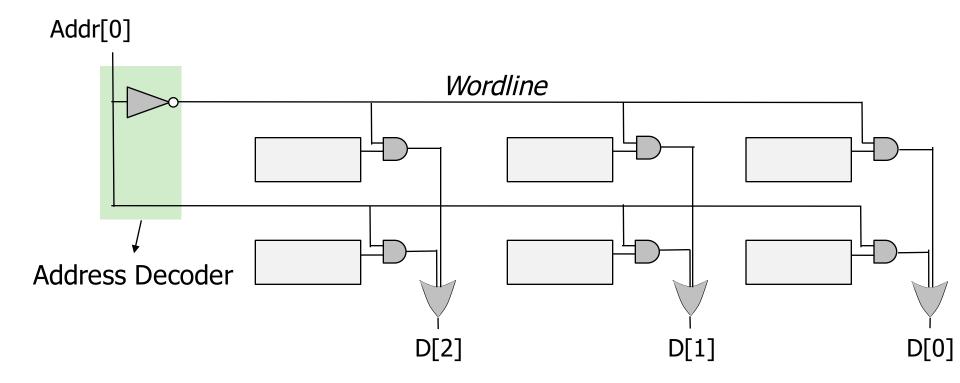
#### How can we select the address to read?



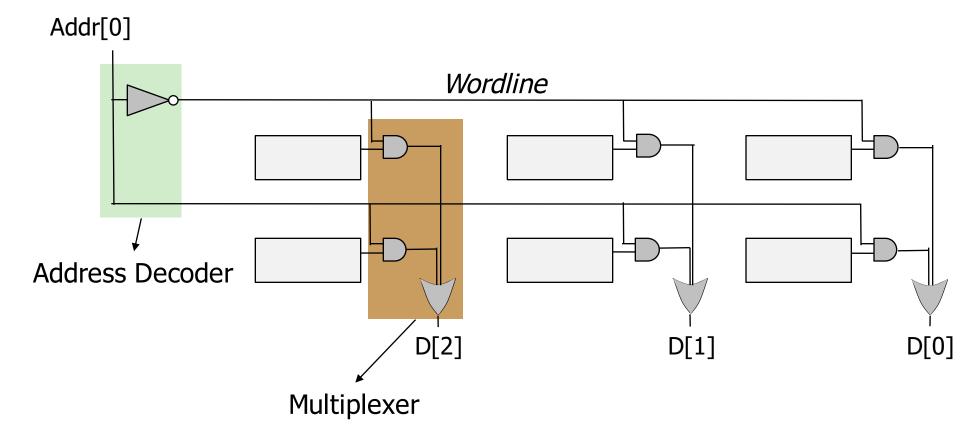
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#### How can we select the address to read?

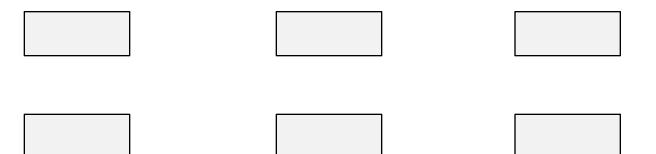


#### How can we select the address to read?



### Writing to Memory

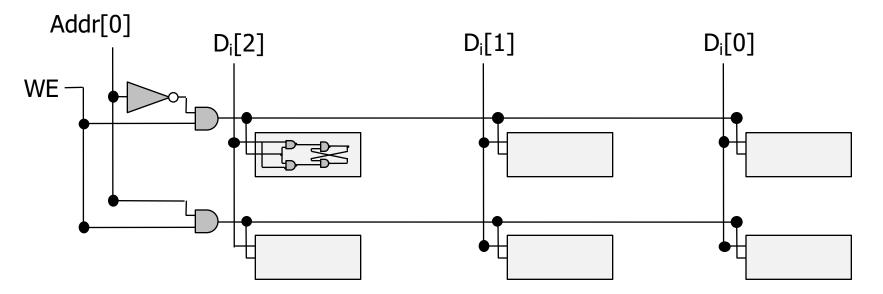
#### How can we select the address and write to it?



### Writing to Memory

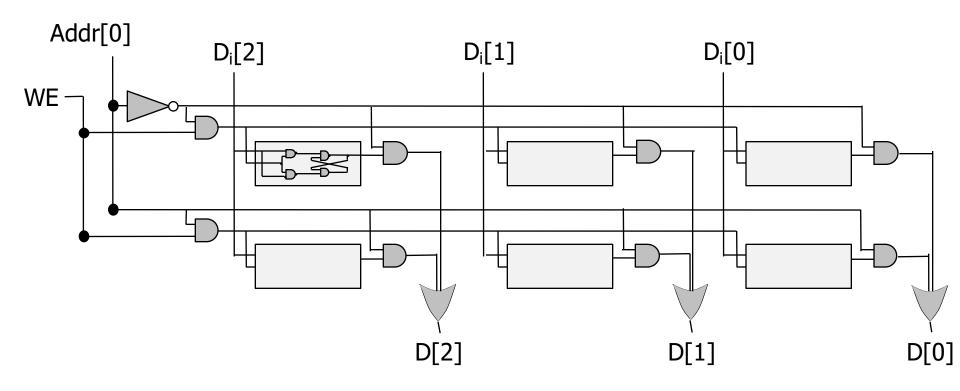
#### How can we select the address and write to it?

Input is indicated with D<sub>i</sub>

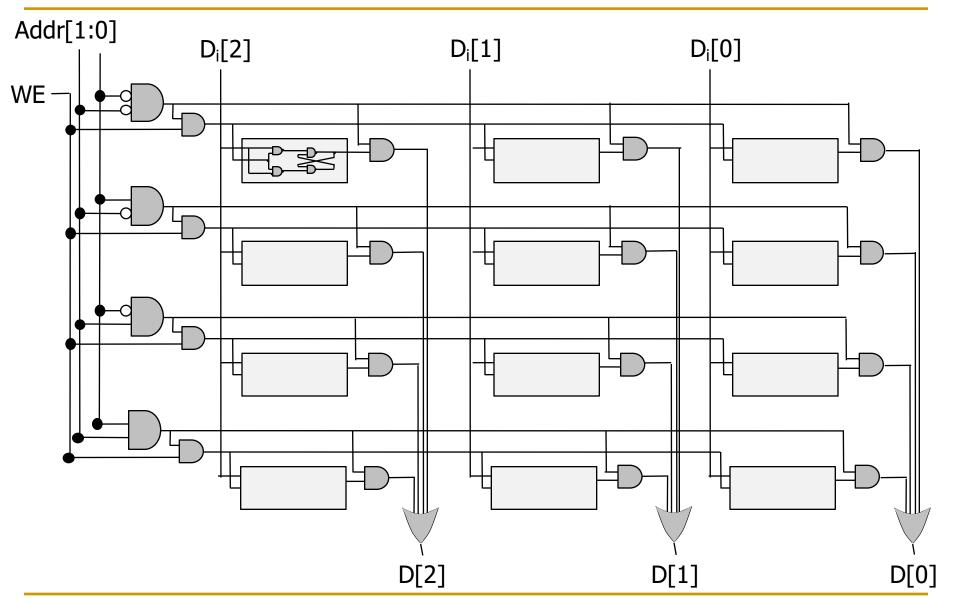


### Putting it all Together

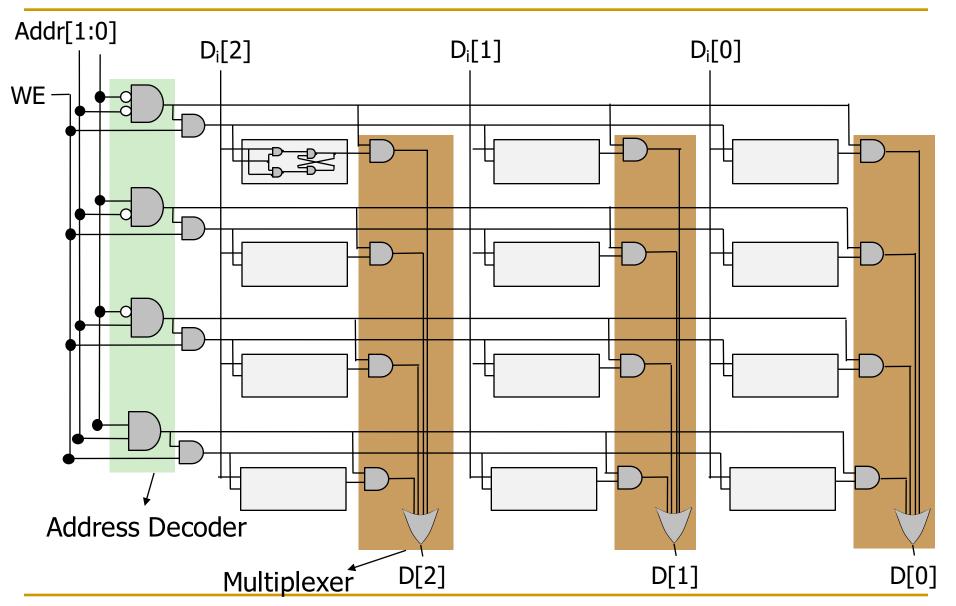
#### **Enable reading and writing to a memory array**



### A Bigger Memory Array



### A Bigger Memory Array



# Sequential Logic Circuits

### Sequential Logic Circuits

- We have looked at designs of circuit elements that can store information
- Now, we will use these elements to build circuits that remember past inputs







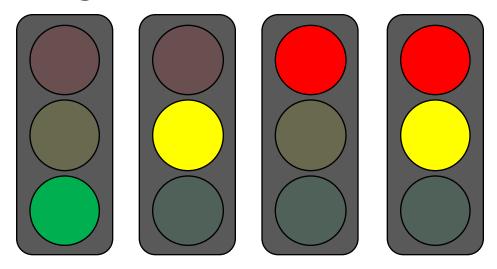
**Sequential**Opens depending on past inputs

#### State

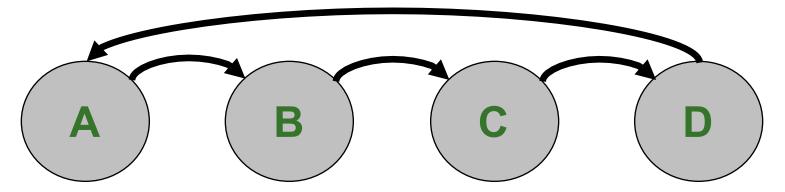
- In order for this lock to work, it has to keep track (remember) of the past events!
- If passcode is R13-L22-R3, sequence of states to unlock:
  - A. The lock is not open (locked), and no relevant operations have been performed
  - B. Locked but user has completed R13
  - C. Locked but user has completed L22
  - D. Locked but user has completed R3
  - E. The lock can now be opened
- The state of a system is a snapshot of all relevant elements of the system at the moment of the snapshot
  - □ To open the lock, **states A-E must be completed in order**
  - If anything else happens (e.g., L5), lock returns to state A

### Another Simple Example of State

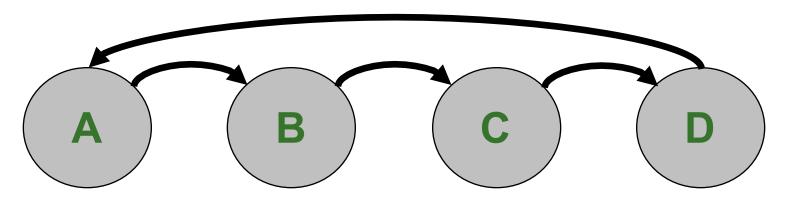
- A standard Swiss traffic light has 4 states
  - A. Green
  - B. Yellow
  - C. Red
  - D. Red and Yellow



The sequence of these states are always as follows



### Changing State: The Notion of Clock (I)



- When should the light change from one state to another?
- We need a clock to dictate when to change state
  - Clock signal alternates between 0 & 1

CLK: 0 CLK: 0

- At the start of a clock cycle ( ), system state changes
  - During a clock cycle, the state stays constant
  - In this traffic light example, we are assuming the traffic light stays in each state an equal amount of time

### Changing State: The Notion of Clock (II)

- Clock is a general mechanism that triggers transition from one state to another in a sequential circuit
- Clock synchronizes state changes across many sequential circuit elements
- Combinational logic evaluates for the length of the clock cycle
- Clock cycle should be chosen to accommodate maximum combinational circuit delay
  - More on this later, when we discuss timing

# Finite State Machines

#### Finite State Machines

- What is a Finite State Machine (FSM)?
  - A discrete-time model of a stateful system
  - Each state represents a snapshot of the system at a given time
- An FSM pictorially shows
  - the set of all possible states that a system can be in
  - how the system transitions from one state to another
- An FSM can model
  - A traffic light, an elevator, fan speed, a microprocessor, etc.
- An FSM enables us to pictorially think of a stateful system using simple diagrams

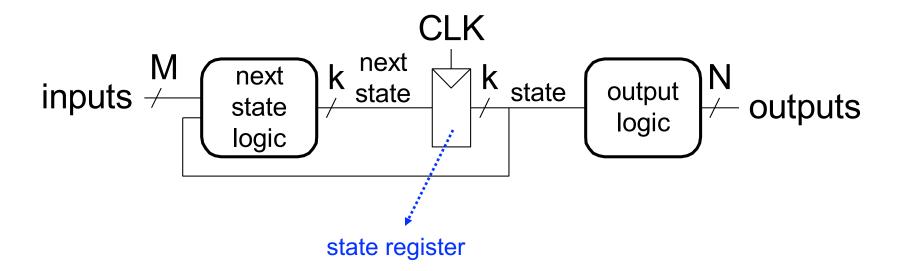
### Finite State Machines (FSMs) Consist of:

#### Five elements:

- 1. A finite number of states
  - State: snapshot of all relevant elements of the system at the time of the snapshot
- 2. A finite number of external inputs
- 3. A finite number of external outputs
- 4. An explicit specification of all state transitions
  - How to get from one state to another
- 5. An explicit specification of what determines each external output value

## Finite State Machines (FSMs)

- Each FSM consists of three separate parts:
  - next state logic
  - state register
  - output logic

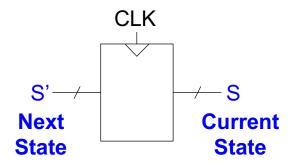


At the beginning of the clock cycle, next state is latched into the state register

### Finite State Machines (FSMs) Consist of:

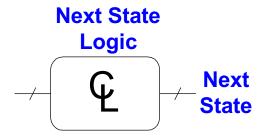
#### Sequential circuits

- State register(s)
  - Store the current state and
  - Load the next state at the clock edge

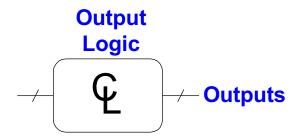


#### Combinational Circuits

- Next state logic
  - Determines what the next state will be



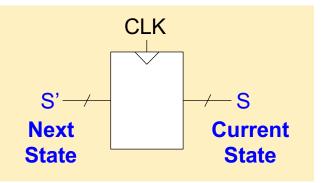
- Output logic
  - Generates the outputs



## Finite State Machines (FSMs) Consist of:

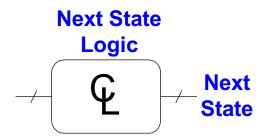
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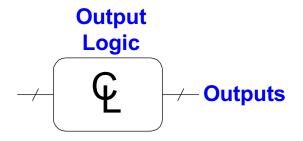


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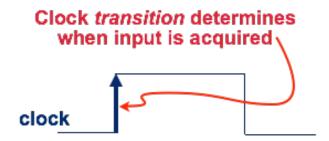


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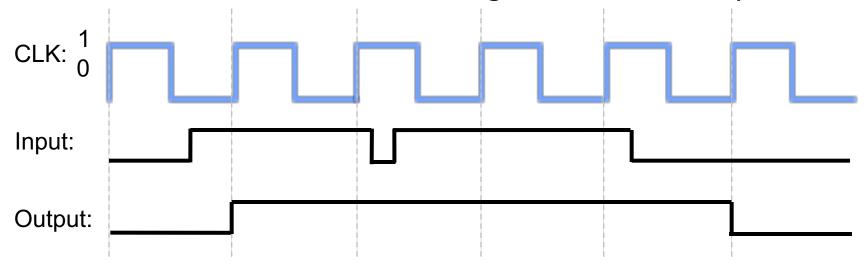


## State Register Implementation

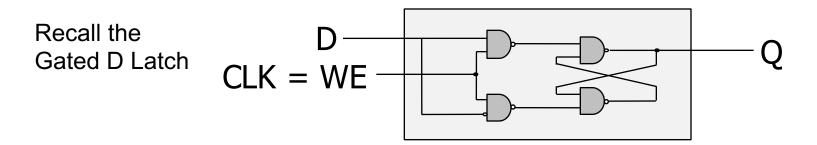
- How can we implement a state register? Two properties:
  - 1. We need to store data at the **beginning** of every clock cycle



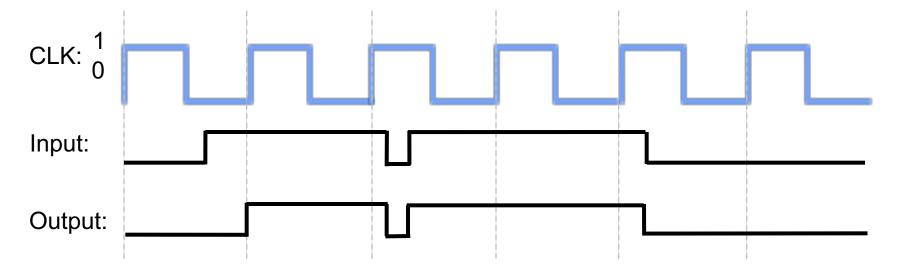
2. The data must be **available** during the entire clock cycle



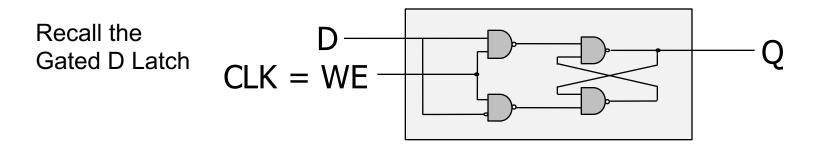
#### The Problem with Latches



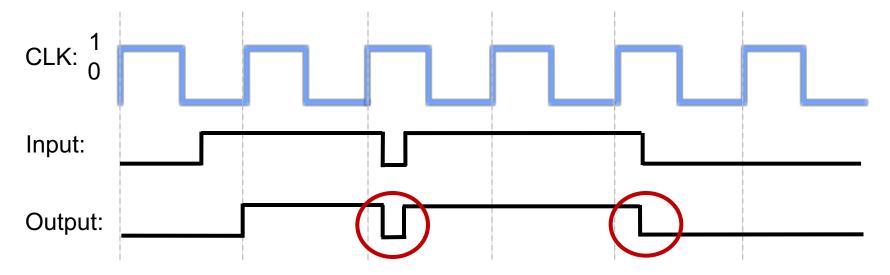
- Currently, we cannot simply wire a clock to WE of a latch
  - When the clock is high, Q will not take on D's value AND
  - When the clock is low, the latch will propagate D to Q



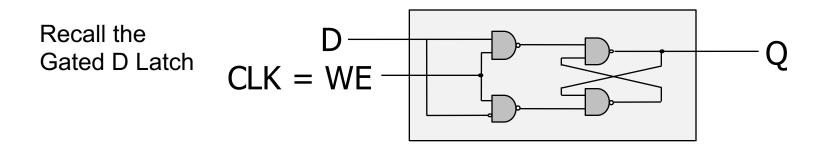
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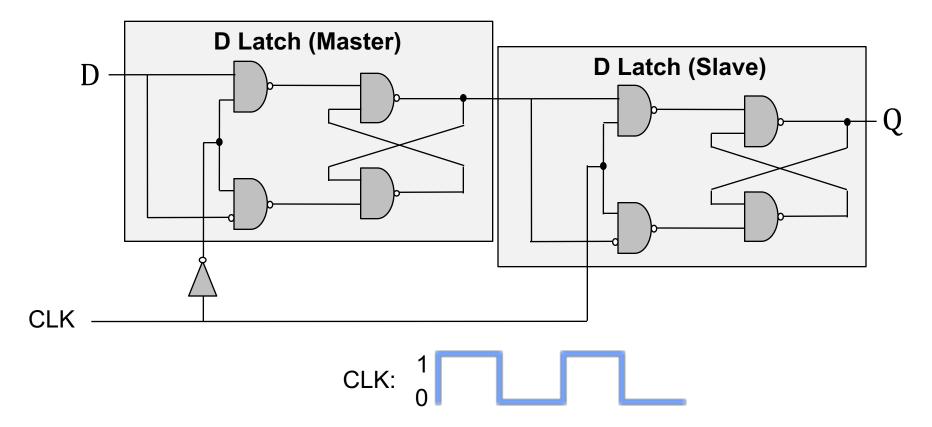


How can we change the latch, so that

- 1) D (input) is observable at Q (output) only at the beginning of next clock cycle?
  - 2) Q is available for the full clock cycle

#### The D Flip-Flop

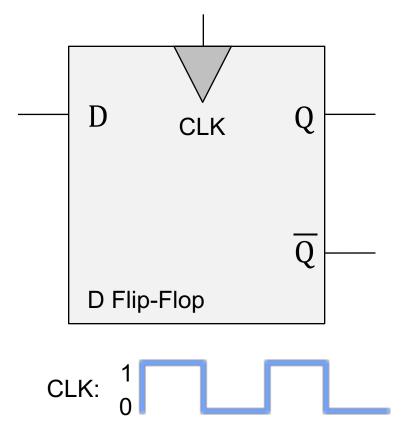
1) state change on clock edge, 2) data available for full cycle



- When the clock is low, master propagates D to the input of slave (Q unchanged)
- Only when the clock is high, slave latches D (Q stores D)
  - □ At the rising edge of clock (clock going from 0->1), Q gets assigned D

### The D Flip-Flop

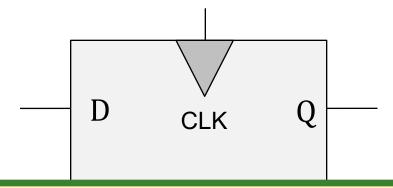
1) state change on clock edge, 2) data available for full cycle



- At the rising edge of clock (clock going from 0->1), Q gets assigned D
- At all other times, Q is unchanged

## The D Flip-Flop

How do we implement this?



We can use these Flip-Flops to implement the state register!

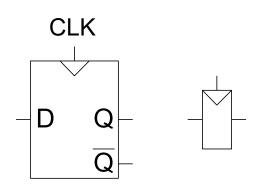
- At the rising edge of clock (clock going from 0->1), Q gets assigned D
- At all other times, Q is unchanged

# Rising-Edge Triggered Flip-Flop

Two inputs: CLK, D

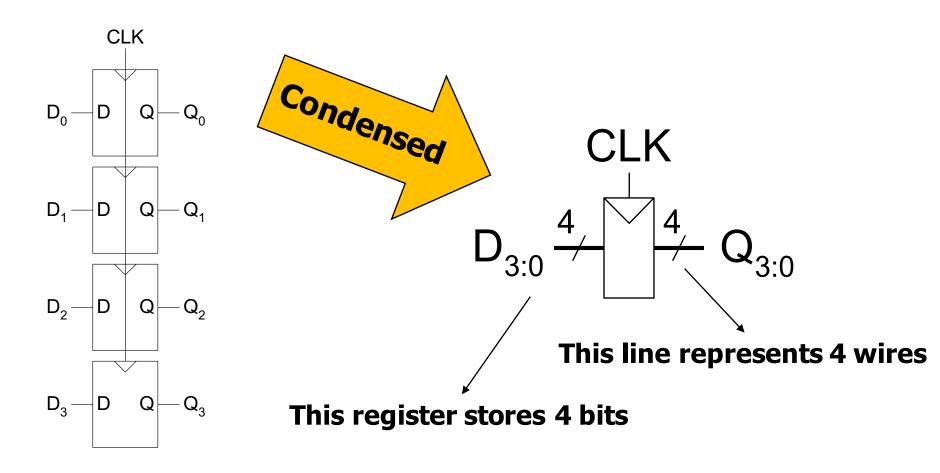
#### Function

- The flip-flop "samples" D on the rising edge
   of CLK (positive edge)
- 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 CLK
- A flip-flop is called an edge-triggered device because it is activated on the clock edge



## Register

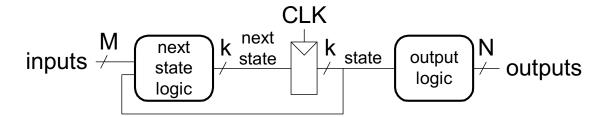
Multiple parallel flip-flops, each of which store 1 bit



## 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

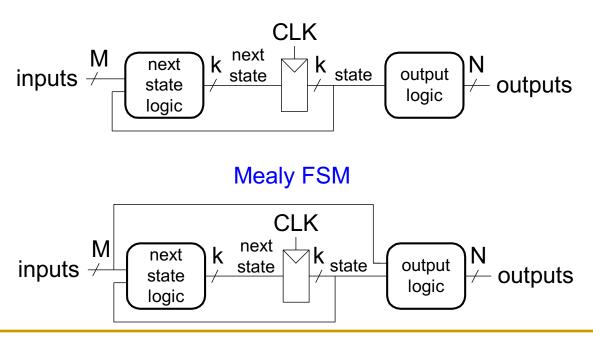
#### **Moore FSM**



## Finite State Machines (FSMs)

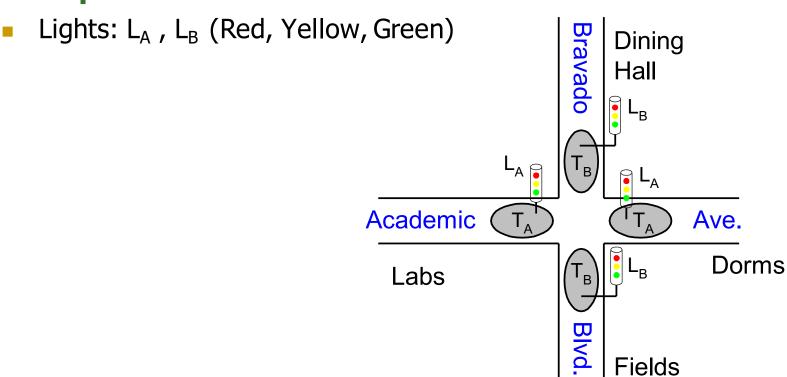
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  - Mealy FSM: outputs depend on the current state and the inputs

    Moore FSM



### Finite State Machine Example

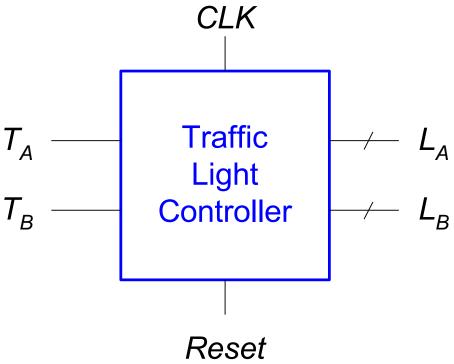
- "Smart" traffic light controller
  - 2 inputs:
    - Traffic sensors:  $T_A$ ,  $T_B$  (TRUE when there's traffic)
  - 2 outputs:



#### Finite State Machine Black Box

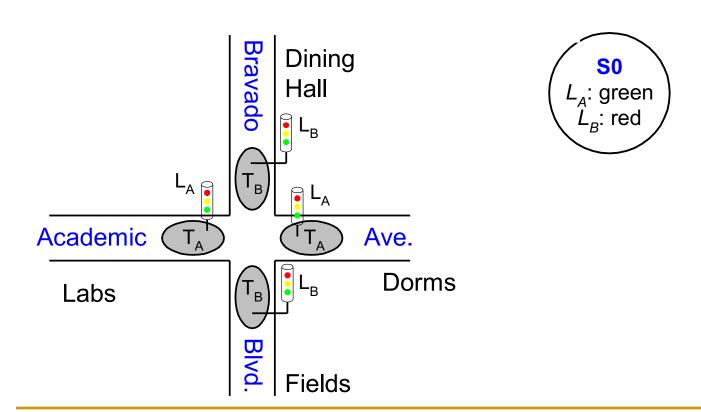
Inputs: CLK, Reset, T<sub>A</sub>, T<sub>B</sub>

Outputs: L<sub>A</sub>, L<sub>B</sub>



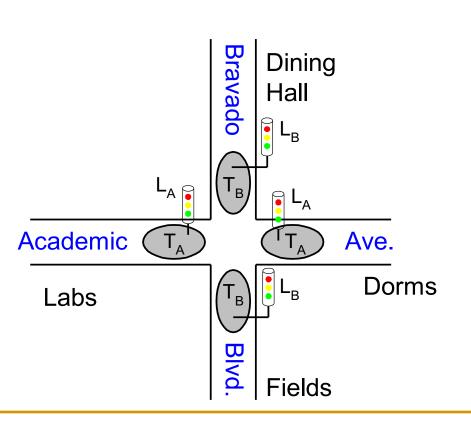
Moore FSM: outputs labeled in each state

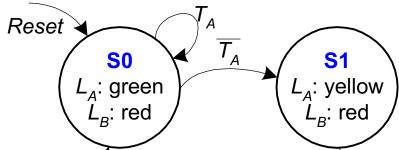
States: Circles



Moore FSM: outputs labeled in each state

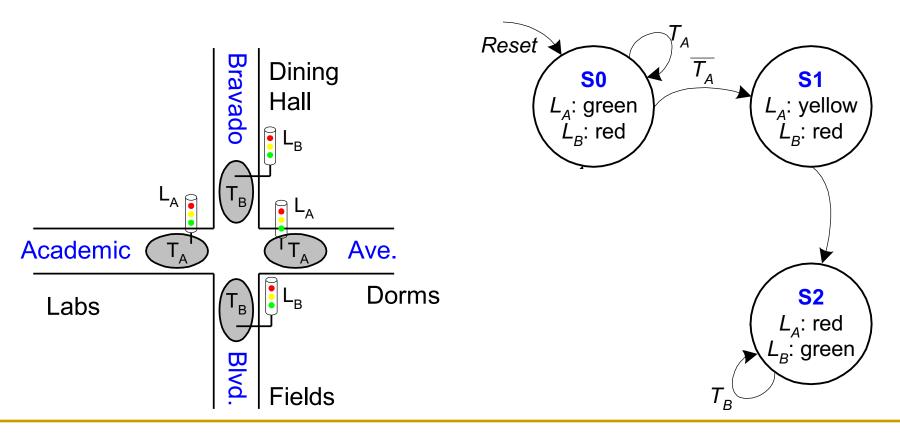
States: Circles





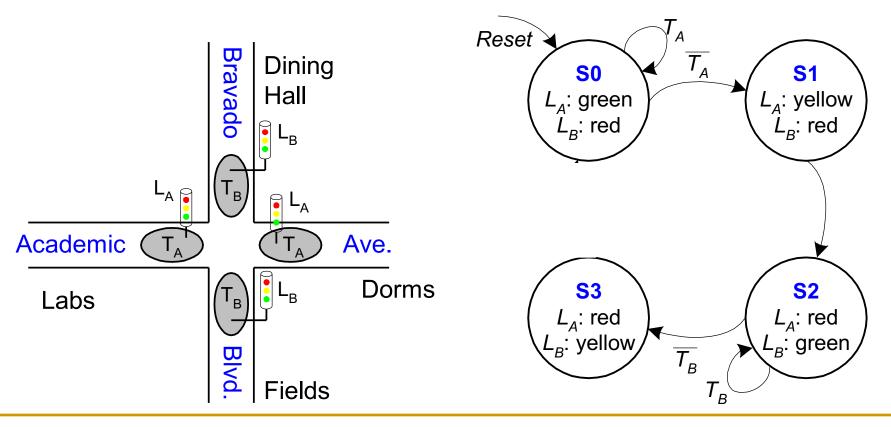
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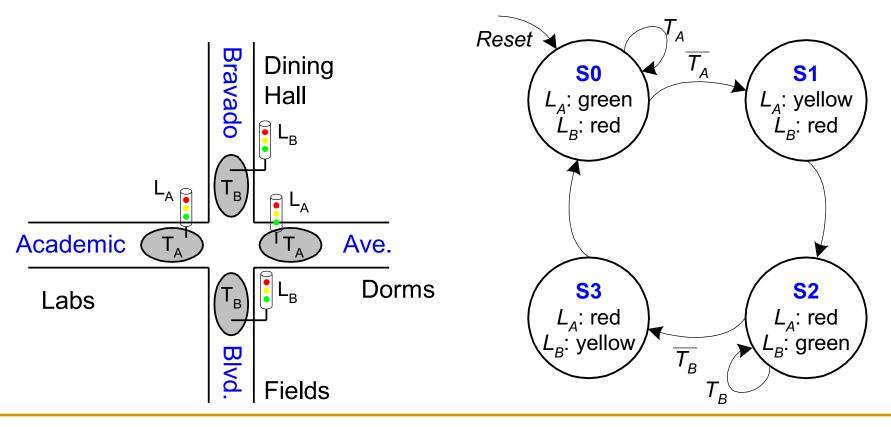
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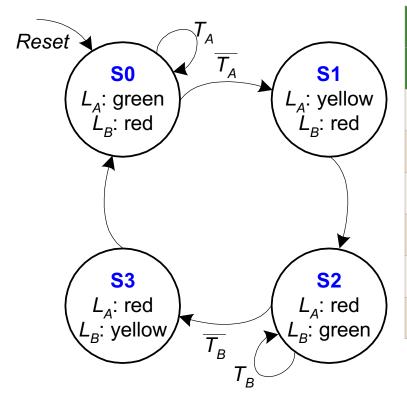


Moore FSM: outputs labeled in each state

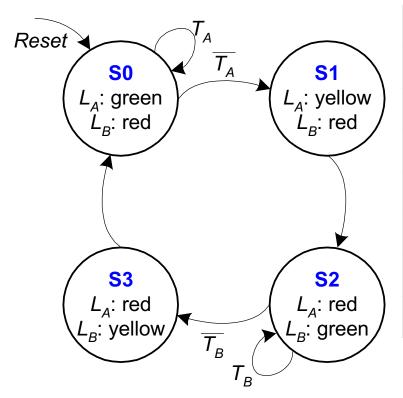
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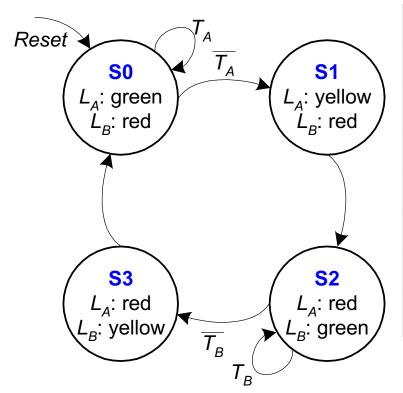
# Finite State Machines State Transition Table



<b>Current State</b>	Inputs		Next State
S	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S'
S0	0	X	
S0	1	X	
S1	X	X	
S2	X	0	
S2	X	1	
S3	X	X	

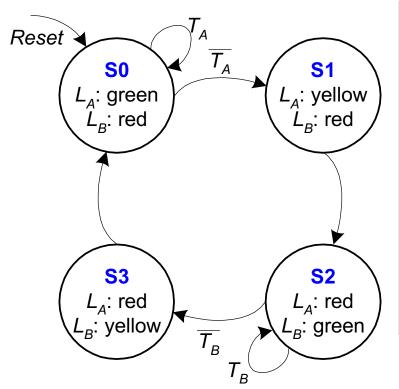


<b>Current State</b>	Inputs		Next State
S	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S'
S0	0	X	S1
S0	1	X	S0
S1	X	X	S2
S2	X	0	S3
S2	X	1	S2
S3	X	X	S0



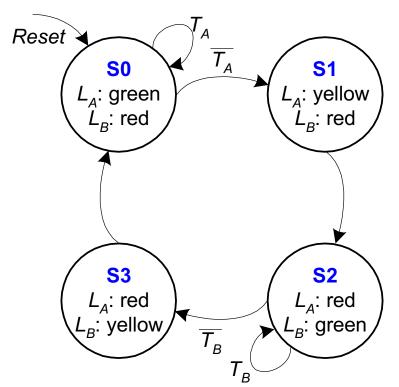
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S	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S'
S0	0	X	S1
S0	1	X	S0
S1	X	X	S2
S2	X	0	S3
S2	X	1	S2
S3	X	X	S0

State	Encoding
S0	00
S1	01
S2	10
S3	11



Currer	it State	Inputs		Next Stat	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

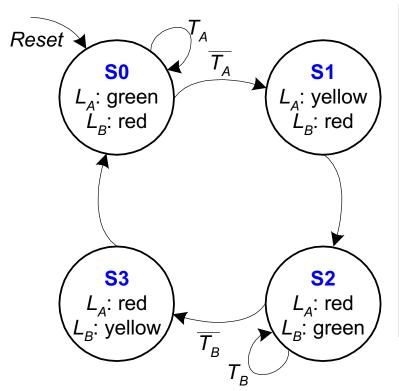
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Currer	ıt State	Inputs		Next State	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

S' <sub>1</sub>	=	?
U 1		•

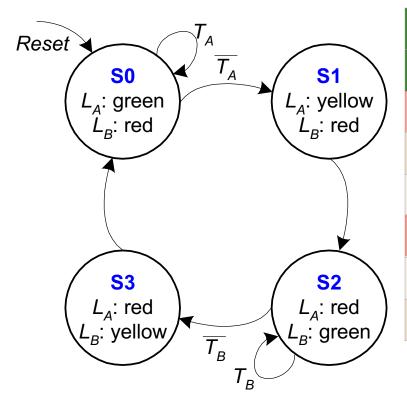
State	Encoding
S0	00
S1	01
S2	10
S3	11



Curren	it State	Inputs		Next	State
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

$$S'_1 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot S_0) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot T_B)$$

State	Encoding
S0	00
S1	01
S2	10
S3	11

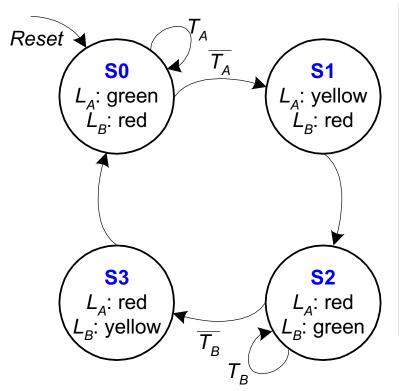


Curren	it State	Inputs		Next Stat	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

$$S'_1 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot S_0) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot T_B)$$

$$S'_0 = ?$$

State	Encoding
S0	00
S1	01
S2	10
S3	11

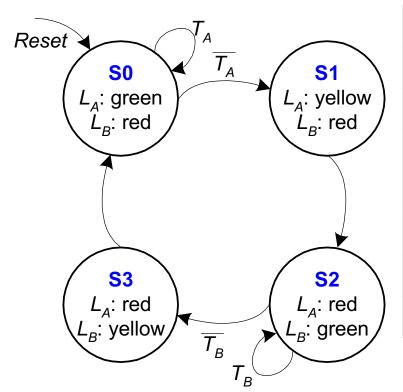


<b>Current State</b>		Inputs		Next State	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

$$S'_1 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot S_0) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot T_B)$$

$$S'_0 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_A) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B)$$

State	Encoding		
S0	00		
S1	01		
S2	10		
S3	11		



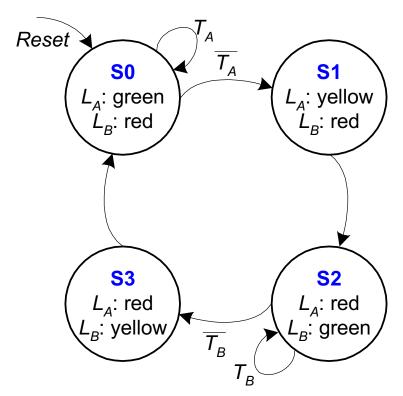
<b>Current State</b>		Inputs		Next State	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$T_A$	$T_{B}$	S' <sub>1</sub>	S' <sub>0</sub>
0	0	0	X	0	1
0	0	1	X	0	0
0	1	X	X	1	0
1	0	X	0	1	1
1	0	X	1	1	0
1	1	X	X	0	0

 $S'_1 = S_1 \times S_0$  (Simplified)

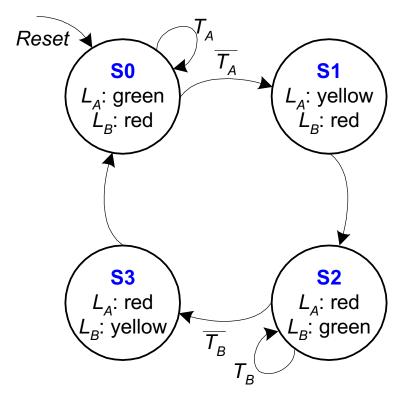
$$S'_0 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_A) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B)$$

State	Encoding
S0	00
S1	01
S2	10
<b>S</b> 3	11

# Finite State Machines Output Table

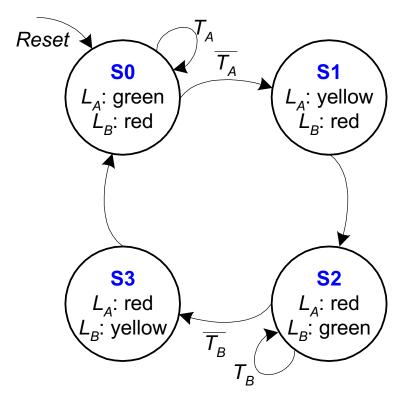


Currer	it State	Outputs		
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A}$	$L_{\mathrm{B}}$	
0	0	green	red	
0	1	yellow	red	
1	0	red	green	
1	1	red	yellow	



Currer	it State	Outputs		
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A}$	$L_{\mathrm{B}}$	
0	0	green	red	
0	1	yellow	red	
1	0	red	green	
1	1	red	yellow	

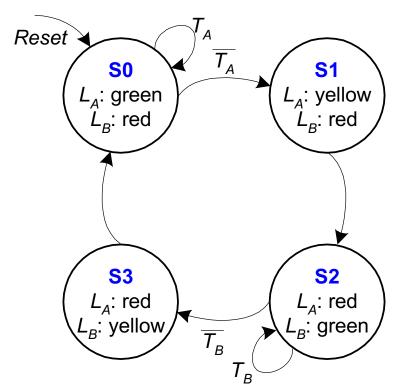
Output	Encoding
green	00
yellow	01
red	10



<b>Current State</b>		Outputs			
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A1}$	L <sub>A0</sub>	$L_{B1}$	$L_{B0}$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1

$L_{A1}$	=	$S_1$
-HI		

Output	Encoding
green	00
yellow	01
red	10

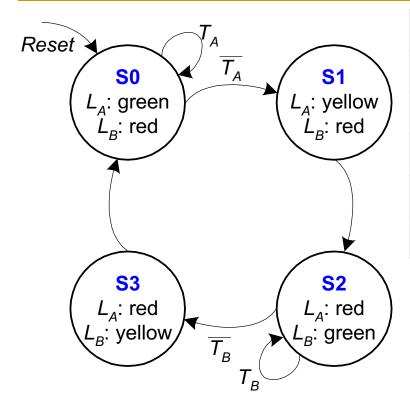


<b>Current State</b>		Outputs			
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A1}$	L <sub>A0</sub>	L <sub>B1</sub>	$L_{B0}$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1

$L_{\text{A1}}$	=	$S_1$		
$L_{A0}$	=	$\overline{S_1}$	•	$S_0$

Output	Encoding
green	00
yellow	01
red	10

# FSM Output Table

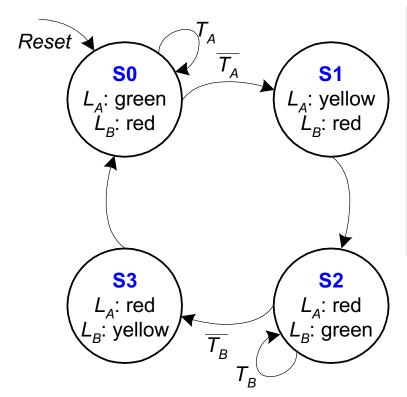


<b>Current State</b>		Outputs			
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A1}$	L <sub>A0</sub>	$L_{B1}$	$L_{B0}$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1

$L_{A1} =$	$S_1$	
$L_{A0} =$	$\overline{S_1}$ ·	$S_0$
$L_{B1} =$	$\overline{S_1}$	

Output	Encoding
green	00
yellow	01
red	10

# FSM Output Table



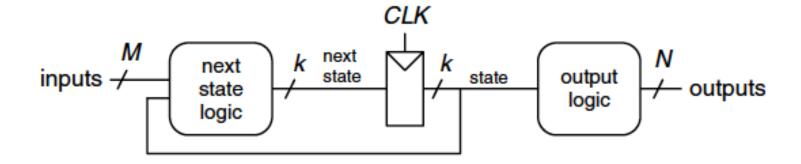
Curren	it State		Out	puts	
$S_1$	$S_0$	$L_{A1}$	L <sub>A0</sub>	$L_{B1}$	$L_{B0}$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	1

$L_{A1} =$	$S_1$	
$L_{A0} =$	$\overline{S_1}$ ·	$S_0$
$L_{B1} =$	$\overline{S_1}$	
$L_{B0} =$	$S_1$ ·	$S_0$

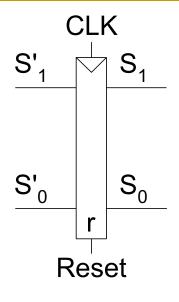
Output	Encoding
green	00
yellow	01
red	10

# Finite State Machines Schematic

# FSM Schematic: State Register

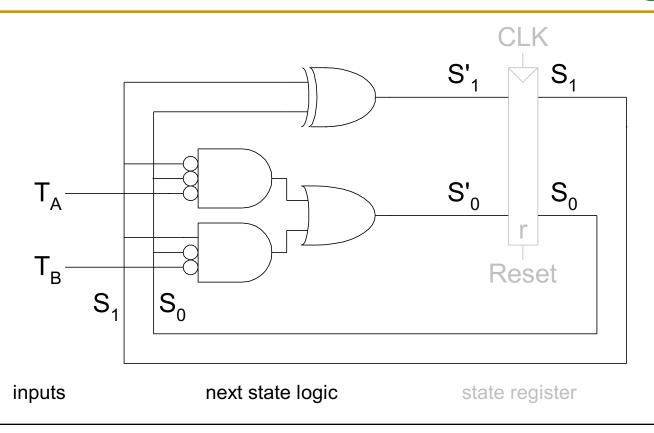


# FSM Schematic: State Register



state register

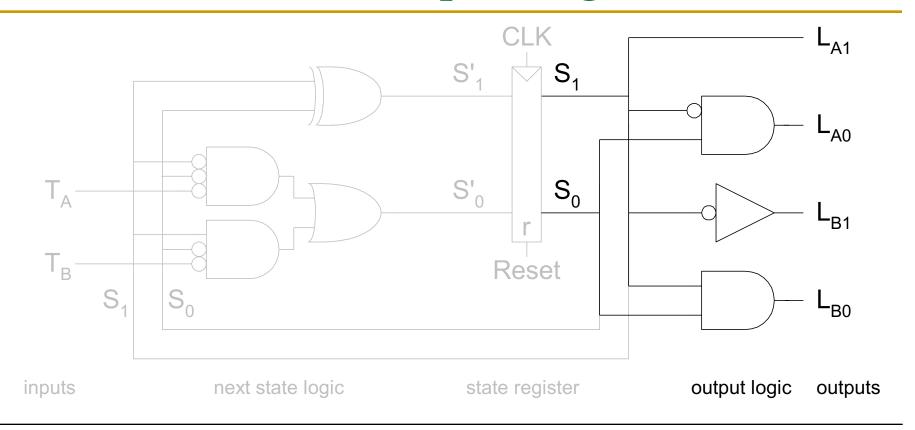
#### FSM Schematic: Next State Logic



$$S'_1 = S_1 \text{ xor } S_0$$

$$S'_0 = (\overline{S}_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_A) + (S_1 \cdot \overline{S}_0 \cdot \overline{T}_B)$$

#### FSM Schematic: Output Logic

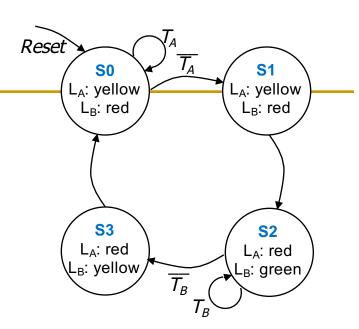


$$L_{A1} = \underline{S_1}$$

$$L_{A0} = \underline{S_1} \cdot S_0$$

$$L_{B1} = \overline{S_1}$$

$$L_{B0} = S_1 \cdot S_0$$



CLK\_

Reset

 $\mathsf{T}_\mathsf{A}_-$ 

 $\mathsf{T}_\mathsf{B}$  \_

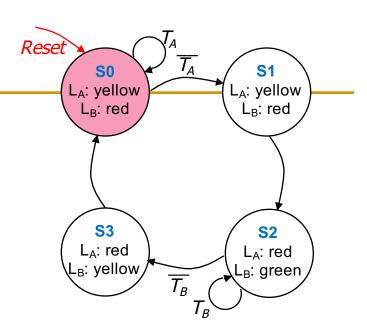
 $\mathrm{S'}_{1:0}^{\phantom{0}-}_{\phantom{0}-\phantom{0}}$ 

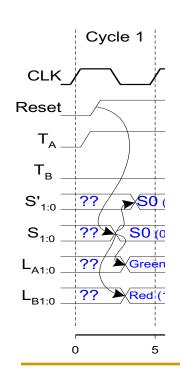
1.0 =

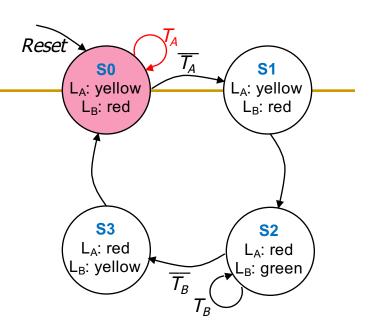
 $S_{1:0} \stackrel{-}{_-}$ 

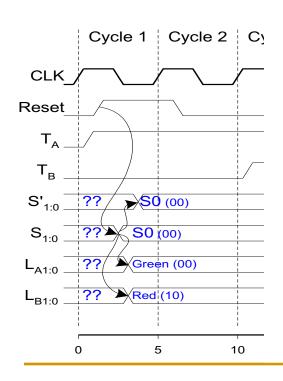
 $L_{\rm A1:0}$   $_{-}$ 

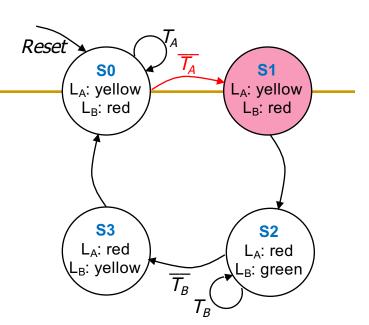
L<sub>B1:0</sub> \_

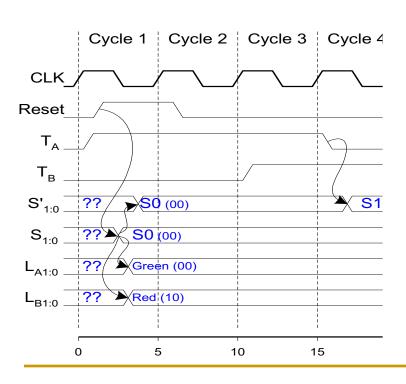


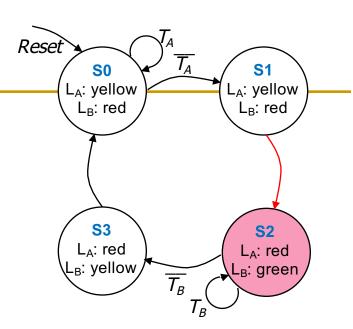


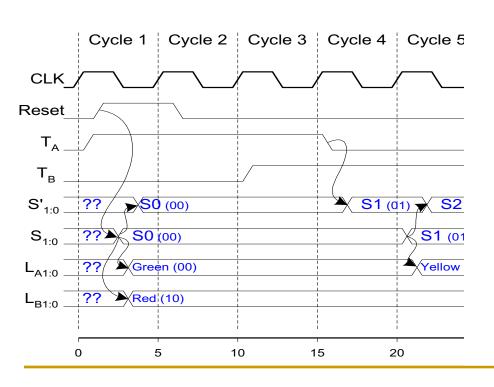


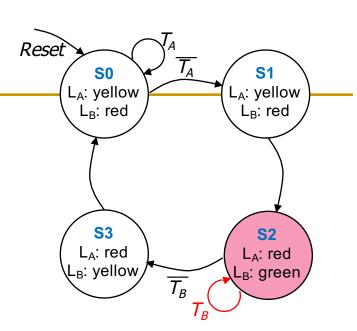


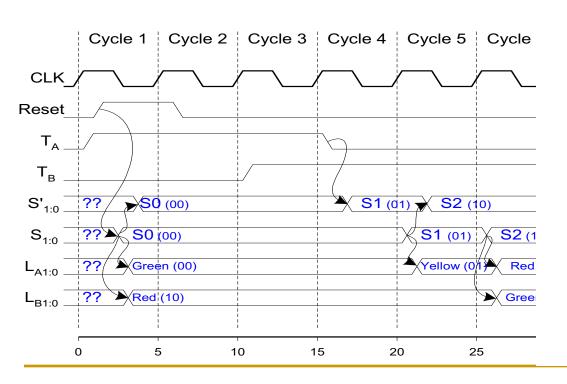


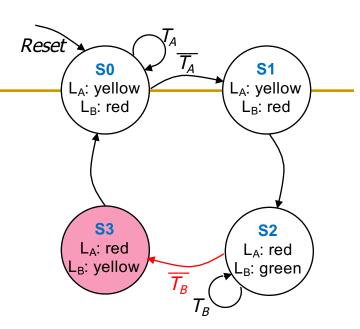


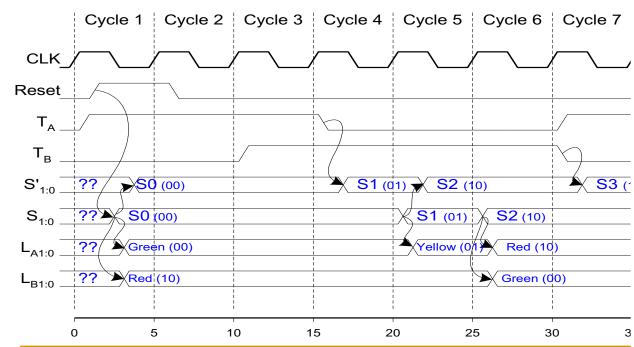


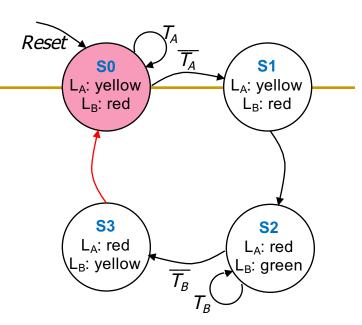


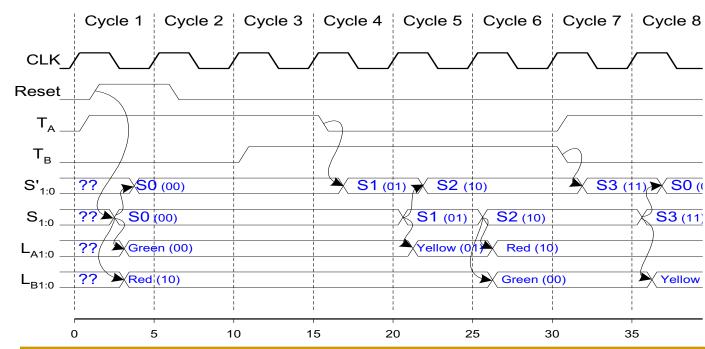


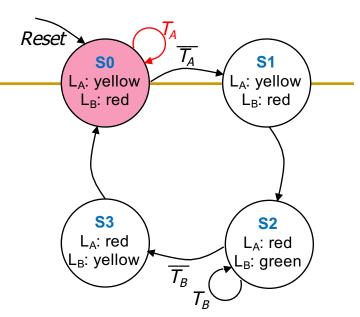


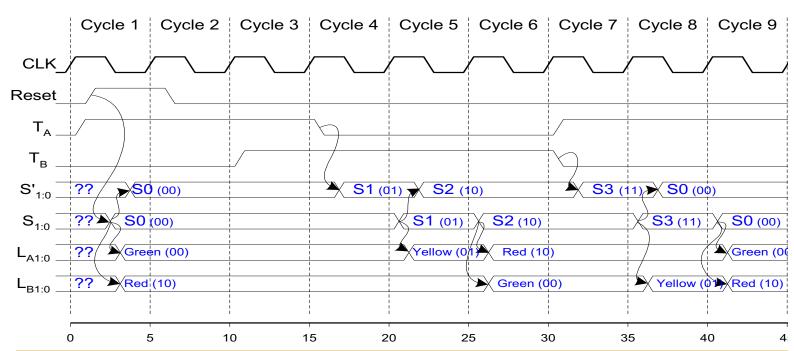


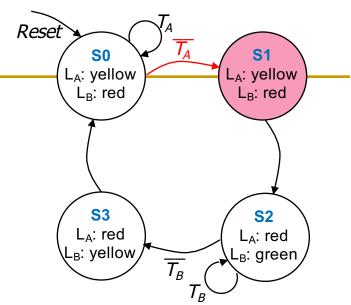


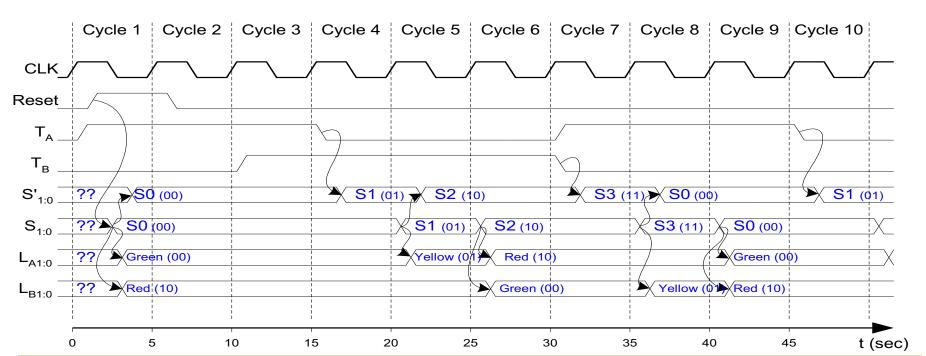




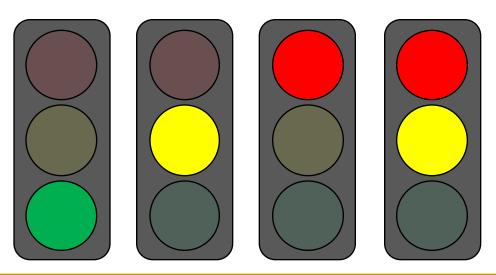








- 3 common state binary encodings with different tradeoffs
  - 1. Fully Encoded
  - 2. 1-Hot Encoded
  - 3. Output Encoded
- Let's see an example Swiss traffic light with 4 states
  - Green, Yellow, Red, Yellow+Red



#### 1. Fully Encoded:

- Minimizes # flip-flops, but not necessarily output logic or next state logic
- □ Use log<sub>2</sub>(num\_states) bits to represent the states
- Example states: 00, 01, 10, 11

#### 2. 1-Hot Encoded:

- Maximizes # flip-flops, minimizes next state logic
- Simplest design process very automatable
- Use num\_states bits to represent the states
- Example states: 0001, 0010, 0100, 1000

#### 3. Output Encoded:

- Minimizes output logic
- Only works for Moore Machines
- Each state has to be encoded uniquely, but the outputs must be directly accessible in the state encoding
- For example, since we have 3 outputs (light color), encode state with 3 bits, where each bit represents a color
- Example states: 001, 010, 100, 110
  - Bit<sub>0</sub> encodes green light output,
  - Bit<sub>1</sub> encodes **yellow** light output
  - Bit<sub>2</sub> encodes **red** light output

#### 3. Output Encoded:

- Minimizes output logic
- Only works for Moore Machines
- Fach state has to be encoded uniquely, but the outputs

The designer must carefully choose an encoding scheme to optimize the design under given constraints

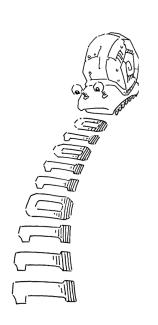
- Bit<sub>1</sub> encodes **yellow** light output
- Bit<sub>2</sub> encodes red light output

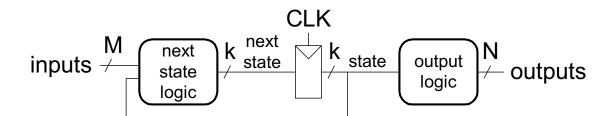
# Moore vs. Mealy Machines

#### 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.

#### **Moore FSM**





#### Moore vs. Mealy FSM

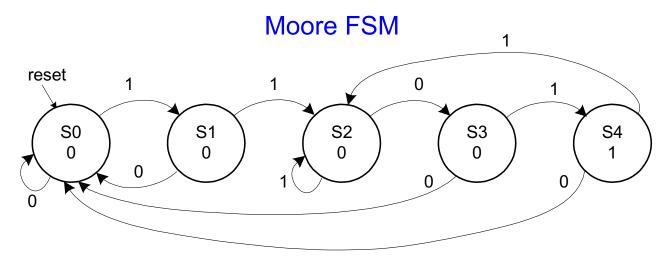
- Alyssa P. Hacker has a snail that crawls down a paper tape with 1's and 0's on it.
- The snail smiles whenever the last four digits it has crawled over are 1101.

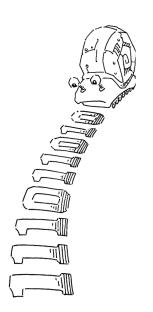
Moore FSM

Design Moore and Mealy FSMs of the snail's brain.

#### CLK inputs + state state output state outputs logic logic Mealy FSM CLK next k state next output state state outputs logic logic

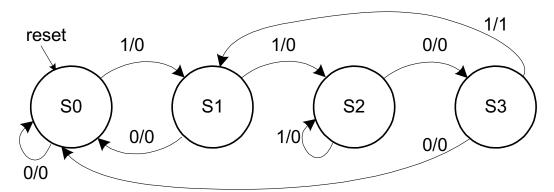
# State Transition Diagrams





#### What are the tradeoffs?

#### Mealy FSM



#### FSM Design Procedure

- Determine all possible states of your machine
- Develop a state transition diagram
  - Generally this is done from a textual description
  - You need to 1) determine the inputs and outputs for each state and
     2) figure out how to get from one state to another

#### Approach

- Start by defining the reset state and what happens from it this is typically an easy point to start from
- Then continue to add transitions and states
- Picking good state names is very important
- Building an FSM is **like** programming (but it is not programming!)
  - An FSM has a sequential "control-flow" like a program with conditionals and goto's
  - The if-then-else construct is controlled by one or more inputs
  - The outputs are controlled by the state or the inputs
- In hardware, we typically have many concurrent FSMs

# Implementing Sequential Logic Using Verilog

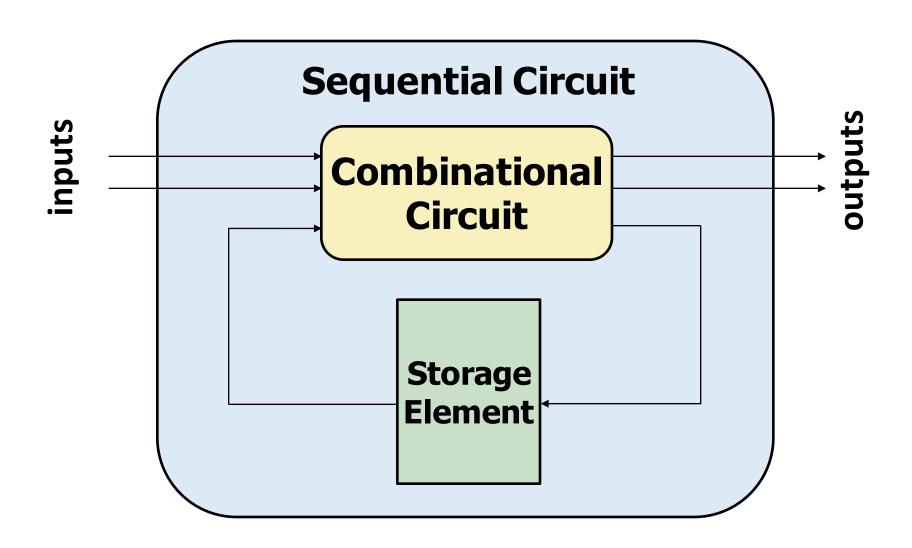
#### Verilog: Last Week vs. This Week

- We have seen an overview of Verilog
- Discussed structural and behavioral modeling
- Showed combinational logic constructs

#### This week

- Sequential logic constructs in Verilog
- Developing testbenches for simulation

# Combinational + Memory = Sequential



#### Sequential Logic in Verilog

- Define blocks that have memory
  - Flip-Flops, Latches, Finite State Machines
- Sequential Logic state transition is triggered by a 'CLOCK' event
  - Latches are sensitive to level of the signal
  - Flip-flops are sensitive to the transitioning of clock
- Combinational constructs are **not** sufficient
  - We need **new constructs**:
    - always
    - posedge/negedge

## The "always" Block

```
always @ (sensitivity list)
    statement;
```

Whenever the event in the sensitivity list occurs, the statement is executed

#### Example: D Flip-Flop

- posedge defines a rising edge (transition from 0 to 1).
- Statement executed when the clk signal rises (posedge of clk)
- Once the clk signal rises: the value of d is copied to q

#### Example: D Flip-Flop

- assign statement is **not** used within an always block
- <= describes a non-blocking assignment</p>
  - We will see the difference between blocking assignment and non-blocking assignment soon

#### Example: D Flip-Flop

- Assigned variables need to be declared as reg
- The name reg does not necessarily mean that the value is a register (It could be, but it does not have to be)
- We will see examples later

#### Asynchronous and Synchronous Reset

- Reset signals are used to initialize the hardware to a known state
  - Usually activated at system start (on power up)

#### Asynchronous Reset

- The reset signal is sampled independent of the clock
- Reset gets the highest priority
- Sensitive to glitches, may have metastability issues
  - Will be discussed in Lecture 8

#### Synchronous Reset

- The reset signal is sampled with respect to the clock
- The reset should be active long enough to get sampled at the clock edge
- Results in completely synchronous circuit

#### D Flip-Flop with Asynchronous Reset

- In this example: two events can trigger the process:
  - A *rising edge* on clk
  - A falling edge on reset

# D Flip-Flop with Asynchronous Reset

- For longer statements, a begin-end pair can be used
  - To improve readability
  - In this example, it was not necessary, but it is a good idea

# D Flip-Flop with Asynchronous Reset

- First reset is checked: if reset is 0, q is set to 0.
  - This is an asynchronous reset as the reset can happen independently of the clock (on the negative edge of reset signal)
- If there is no reset, then regular assignment takes effect

# D Flip-Flop with Synchronous Reset

- The process is only sensitive to clock
  - Reset *happens only* when the *clock rises*. This is a synchronous reset

# D Flip-Flop with Enable and Reset

- A flip-flop with enable and reset
  - Note that the en signal is not in the sensitivity list
- q gets d only when clk is rising and en is 1

# Example: D Latch

# Summary: Sequential Statements So Far

- Sequential statements are within an always block
- The sequential block is triggered with a change in the sensitivity list
- Signals assigned within an always must be declared as reg
- We use <= for (non-blocking) assignments and do not use assign within the always block.

# Basics of always Blocks

```
module example (input
                               clk,
               input [3:0] d,
               output reg [3:0] q);
 wire [3:0] normal;  // standard wire
  reg [3:0] special;  // assigned in always
  always @ (posedge clk)
                 // first FF array
   special <= d;</pre>
  assign normal = ~ special; // simple assignment
  always @ (posedge clk)
   q <= normal;</pre>
                     // second FF array
endmodule
```

You can have as many always blocks as needed

Assignment to the same signal in different always blocks is not allowed!

### Why Does an always Block Memorize?

- This statement describes what happens to signal q
- ... but what happens when the clock is not rising?
- The value of q is preserved (memorized)

## An always Block Does NOT Always Memorize

- This statement describes what happens to signal result
  - When inv is 1, result is ~data
  - When inv is not 1, result is data
- The circuit is combinational (no memory)
  - result is assigned a value in all cases of the if .. else block, always

# always Blocks for Combinational Circuits

- An always block defines combinational logic if:
  - All outputs are always (continuously) updated
  - 1. All right-hand side signals are in the sensitivity list
    - You can use always @\* for short
  - 2. All left-hand side signals get assigned in every possible condition of if .. else and case blocks
- It is easy to make mistakes and unintentionally describe memorizing elements (latches)
  - Vivado will most likely warn you. Make sure you check the warning messages
- Always blocks allow powerful combinational logic statements
  - □ if .. else
  - case

# Sequential or Combinational?

```
wire enable, data;
reg out_a, out_b;

always @ (*) begin
    out_a = 1'b0;
    if(enable) begin
    out a = data;
    out_b = data;
    end
end

No assignment for ~enable
```

```
wire enable, data;
reg out_a, out_b;

always @ (data) begin
    out_a = 1'b0;
    out_b = 1'b0;
    if enable begin
    out_a = data;
    out_b = data;
    end
end Not in the sensitivity list
```

**Sequential** 

**Sequential** 

# The always Block is NOT Always Practical/Nice

- Both statements describe the same multiplexer
- In this case, the always block is more work

# always Block for Case Statements (Handy!)

```
module sevensegment (input [3:0] data,
                    output reg [6:0] segments);
 always @ ( * )
                          // * is short for all signals
   case (data)
                                // case statement
     4'd0: segments = 7'b111_1110; // when data is 0
     4'd1: segments = 7'b011_0000; // when data is 1
     4'd2: segments = 7'b110_1101;
     4'd3: segments = 7'b111_1001;
     4'd4: segments = 7'b011_0011;
     4'd5: segments = 7'b101 1011;
     // etc etc
     default: segments = 7'b000_0000; // required
   endcase
endmodule
```

# Summary: always Block

If .. else can only be used in always blocks

- The always block is combinational only if all regs within the block are always assigned to a signal
  - Use the default case to make sure you do not forget an unimplemented case, which may otherwise result in a latch

Use casex statement to be able to check for don't cares

# Non-Blocking and Blocking Assignments

#### Non-blocking (<=)

```
always @ (a)
begin
    a <= 2'b01;
    b <= a;
// all assignments are made here
// b is not (yet) 2'b01
end</pre>
```

- All assignments are made at the end of the block
- All assignments are made in parallel, process flow is not-blocked

#### Blocking (=)

```
always @ (a)
begin
    a = 2'b01;
// a is 2'b01
    b = a;
// b is now 2'b01 as well
end
```

- Each assignment is made immediately
- Process waits until the first assignment is complete, it blocks progress

# Why use (Non)-Blocking Statements

- There are technical reasons why both are required
  - It is out of the scope of this course to discuss these
- Blocking statements allow sequential descriptions
  - More like a programming language
- If the sensitivity list is correct, blocks with non-blocking statements will always evaluate to the same result
  - This may require some additional iterations

# Example: Blocking Assignment

Assume all inputs are initially '0'

```
always @ ( * )
begin

p = a ^ b;  // p = 0 1

g = a & b;  // g = 0 0

s = p ^ cin;  // s = 0 1

cout = g | (p & cin); // cout = 0 0
end
```

- If a changes to '1'
  - All values are updated in order

# The Same Example: Non-Blocking Assignment

Assume all inputs are initially '0'

- If a changes to '1'
  - All assignments are concurrent
  - When s is being assigned, p is still 0

# The Same Example: Non-Blocking Assignment

After the first iteration, p has changed to '1' as well

- Since there is a change in p, the process triggers again
- This time s is calculated with p=1

# Rules for Signal Assignment

 Use always @(posedge clk) and non-blocking assignments (<=) to model synchronous sequential logic</li>

```
always @ (posedge clk)
  q <= d; // non-blocking</pre>
```

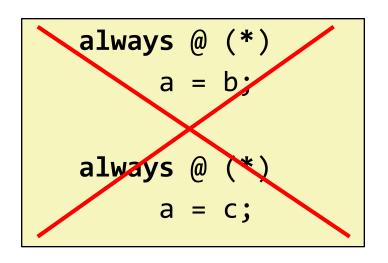
 Use continuous assignments (assign) to model simple combinational logic.

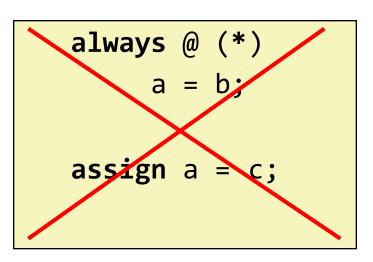
```
assign y = a & b;
```

# Rules for Signal Assignment (Cont.)

 Use always @ (\*) and blocking assignments (=) to model more complicated combinational logic.

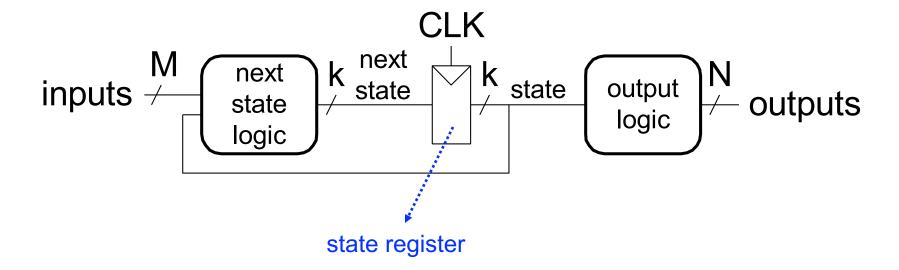
 You cannot make assignments to the same signal in more than one always block or in a continuous assignment





# Recall: Finite State Machines (FSMs)

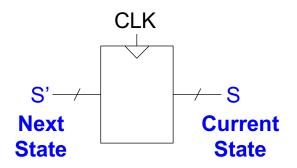
- Each FSM consists of three separate parts:
  - next state logic
  - state register
  - output logic



# Recall: Finite State Machines (FSMs) Comprise

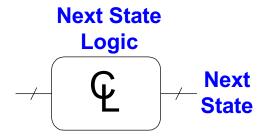
#### Sequential circuits

- State register(s)
  - Store the current state and
  - Load the next state at the clock edge

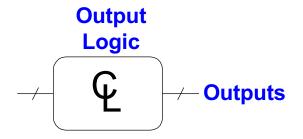


#### Combinational Circuits

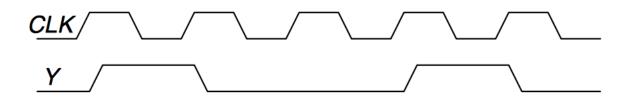
- Next state logic
  - Determines what the next state will be



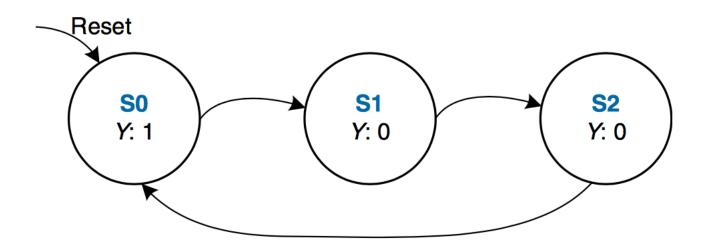
- Output logic
  - Generates the outputs



#### FSM Example 1: Divide the Clock Frequency by 3



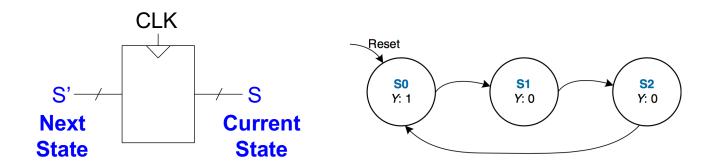
The output Y is HIGH for **one clock cycle out of every** 3. In other words, the output **divides the frequency of the clock by** 3.



# Implementing FSM Example 1: Definitions

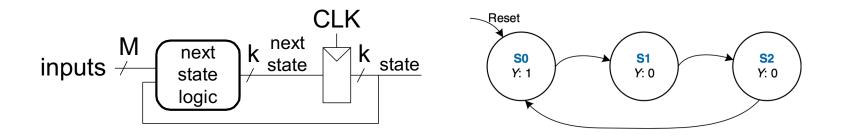
- We define state and nextstate as 2-bit reg
- The parameter descriptions are optional, it makes reading easier

# Implementing FSM Example 1: State Register

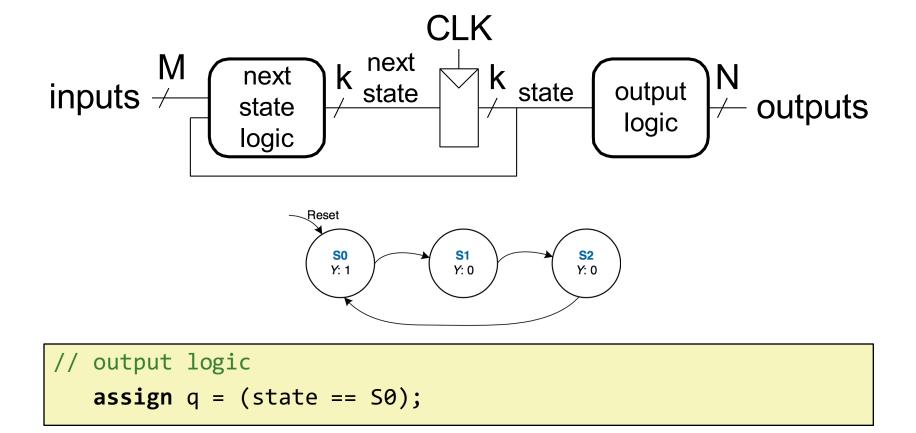


- This part defines the state register (memorizing process)
- Sensitive to only clk, reset
- In this example, reset is active when it is '1' (active-high)

# Implementing FSM Example 1: Next State Logic



# Implementing FSM Example 1: Output Logic



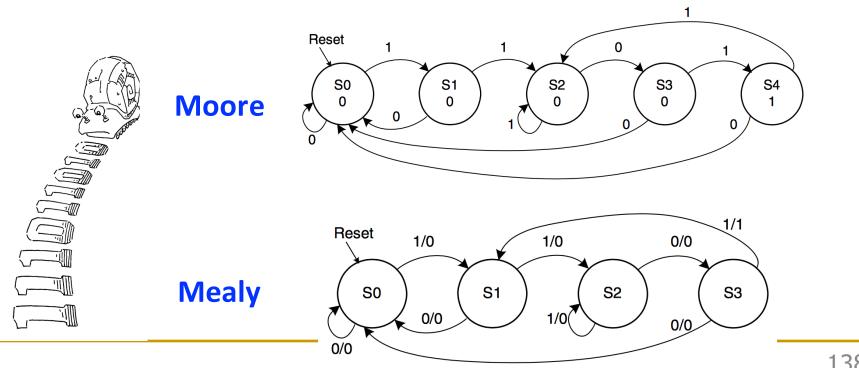
- In this example, output depends only on state
  - Moore type FSM

# Implementation of FSM Example 1

```
module divideby3FSM (input clk, input reset, output q);
   reg [1:0] state, nextstate;
   parameter S0 = 2'b00; parameter S1 = 2'b01; parameter S2 = 2'b10;
   always @ (posedge clk, posedge reset) // state register
     if (reset) state <= S0;</pre>
     else state <= nextstate;</pre>
   always @ (*)
                                       // next state logic
     case (state)
        S0: nextstate = S1;
        S1: nextstate = S2;
        S2: nextstate = S0;
        default: nextstate = S0;
     endcase
   assign q = (state == S0);  // output logic
endmodule
```

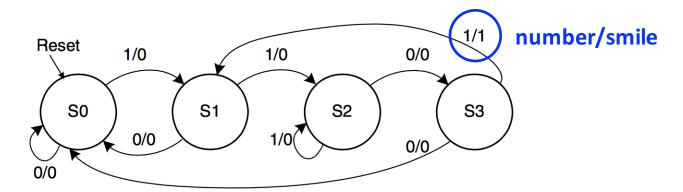
# FSM Example 2: Smiling Snail

- 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.



# We did not cover the following. They are for your preparation.

# Implementing FSM Example 2: Definitions

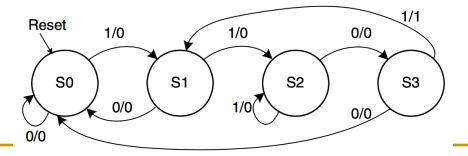


# Implementing FSM Example 2: State Register

- This part defines the state register (memorizing process)
- Sensitive to only clk, reset
- In this example reset is active when '1' (active-high)

## Implementing FSM Example 2: Next State Logic

```
// next state logic
 always @ (*)
    case (state)
       S0: if (number) nextstate = S1;
           else nextstate = S0;
       S1: if (number) nextstate = S2;
           else nextstate = S0;
       S2: if (number) nextstate = S2;
           else nextstate = S3;
       S3: if (number) nextstate = S1;
           else nextstate = S0;
       default: nextstate = S0;
    endcase
```



# Implementing FSM Example 2: Output Logic

```
// output logic
assign smile = (number & state == S3);
```

- In this example, output depends on state and input
  - Mealy type FSM
- We used a simple combinational assignment

# Implementation of FSM Example 2

```
module SmilingSnail (input clk,
                   input reset,
                    input number,
                   output smile);
  reg [1:0] state, nextstate;
   parameter S0 = 2'b00;
  parameter S1 = 2'b01;
   parameter S2 = 2'b10;
   parameter S3 = 2'b11;
  // state register
   always @ (posedge clk, posedge
reset)
     if (reset) state <= S0;</pre>
```

```
always @ (*) // next state logic
      case (state)
         S0: if (number)
                  nextstate = S1:
             else nextstate = S0;
         S1: if (number)
                  nextstate = S2;
             else nextstate = S0;
         S2: if (number)
                  nextstate = S2:
             else nextstate = S3;
         S3: if (number)
                  nextstate = S1;
             else nextstate = S0;
         default: nextstate = S0;
      endcase
   // output logic
assign smile = (number & state==S3);
endmodule
```

#### What Did We Learn?

- Basics of defining sequential circuits in Verilog
- The always statement
  - Needed for defining memorizing elements (flip-flops, latches)
  - Can also be used to define combinational circuits
- Blocking vs Non-blocking statements
  - = assigns the value immediately
  - <= assigns the value at the end of the block</p>
- Writing FSMs
  - Next state logic
  - State assignment
  - Output logic

# Next Lecture: Timing and Verification

# Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 7: Sequential Logic Design

Prof. Onur Mutlu

ETH Zurich

Spring 2018

15 March 2018

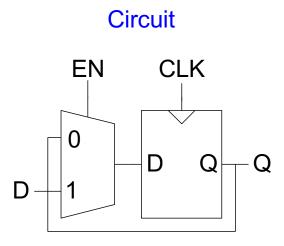
# Backup Slides

Different types of flip flops

# The D Flip-Flop

# Enabled Flip-Flops

- Inputs: CLK, D, EN
  - □ The enable input (EN) controls when new data (D) is stored
- Function:
  - □ **EN** = **1**: D passes through to Q on the clock edge
  - $\blacksquare$  **EN** = **0**: the flip-flop retains its previous state

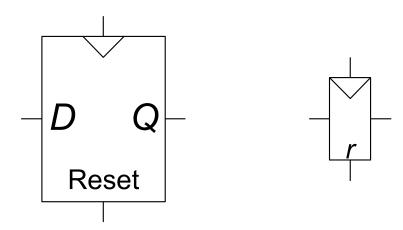


Internal

# Resettable Flip-Flop

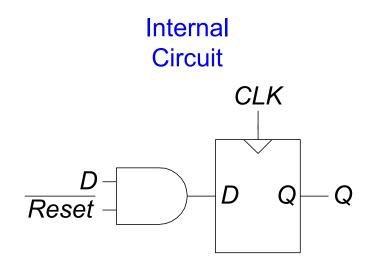
- **Inputs:** CLK, D, Reset
  - The Reset is used to set the output to 0.
- Function:
  - $\blacksquare$  **Reset** = 1: Q is forced to 0
  - Reset = 0: the flip-flop behaves like an ordinary D flip-flop

#### **Symbols**



# 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?



# Settable Flip-Flop

- Inputs: CLK, D, Set
- Function:
  - □ **Set** = **1**: Q is set to 1
  - Set = 0: the flip-flop behaves like an ordinary D flip-flop

#### **Symbols**

