Chapter 7.
finite state machines (FSMs)

In chapter 6, we looked at counters, whose values are useful for representing states. Normally the number of states is finite. And a circuit or a system is modeled as a machine that makes transitions among states. The state is the main theme of this chapter. Some counters are moving among states without external inputs but FSMs usually have external inputs. So FSM is a kind of a superset.
Finite State Machines

- Sequential circuits
  - primitive sequential elements
  - combinational logic
- Models for representing sequential circuits
  - finite-state machines
- Design procedure
  - State/output diagrams
  - State/output tables
  - next state/output equations
- Basic sequential circuits revisited
  - shift registers
  - counters
- Hardware description languages

These are the topics that will be discussed in this chapter. Of course the next state depends on the current state and the input values. The FSMs fall into two categories: Moore and Mealy machines. Also we will look at how inputs are handled in sequential systems. Still registers and counters are key parts of the sequential circuits.
Abstraction of state elements

- Divide circuit into combinational logic and state
- Localize the feedback loops and make it easy to break cycles
- Implementation of storage elements leads to various forms of sequential logic

Now we are gonna break down a sequential logic system into two parts: combinational logic part and memory part (states). Multiple storage elements will be used to abstract the system states. The state, together with inputs, will determine the system operation: e.g. what is the next state, output?
Forms of sequential logic

- Asynchronous sequential logic – state changes occur whenever state inputs change (elements may be simple wires or delay elements)
- Synchronous sequential logic – state changes occur in lock step across all storage elements (using a periodic waveform - the clock)

Asynchronous sequential logic circuits are operating without a clock, as shown on the left. The majority of sequential logic is synchronous logic circuits operating with clock signals, as illustrated on the right. With the clock signal, it is more convenient to control state transitions.
Finite state machine representations

- States: determined by possible values in sequential storage elements
- Transitions: change of state
- Clock: controls when state can change by controlling storage elements

- Sequential logic
  - sequences through a series of states
  - based on sequence of values on input signals
  - clock period defines elements of sequence

Now we use 5 states to describe the system behavior. The number in the circle represents the state. The state transition is determined by the current state and the input. Sometimes, the state transition takes place without an input, e.g. just by a clock tick.
Let’s revisit the door combination lock system briefly. In the example in chapter 1, there were 5 states. There are two kinds of transitions: self-transition, and ordinary transition.
Can any sequential system be represented with a state diagram?

- Shift register
  - input value shown on transition arcs
  - output values shown within state node

This state diagram shows all the possible states and transitions of a 3 bit shift register. In this case, the new state values are equal to output values. For example, when the system moves from 100 to 010, the output is 010. First of all, 3 bit will represent 8 states. And in each state, two kinds of input values are expected.
Counters are simple finite state machines

- Counters
  - proceed through well-defined sequence of states in response to enable
- Many types of counters: binary, BCD, Gray-code
  - 3-bit up-counter: 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111, 000, ...
  - 3-bit down-counter: 111, 110, 101, 100, 011, 010, 001, 000, 111, ...

In the case of a 3-bit up counter, every clock tick will make a transition without any inputs. In this case the numbers follow binary coding; hence it is called a binary counter.
How do we turn a state diagram into logic?

- Counter
  - 3 flip-flops to hold state
  - logic to compute next state
  - clock signal controls when flip-flop memory can change
    - wait long enough for combinational logic to compute new value
    - don't wait too long as that is low performance

This one is a 3bit binary (up) counter. Recall that when all the lower bits are true, the higher bit should be toggled at the next clock tick.
9-Step Design Approach

- Step 1: State/output table or diagram
- Step 2: Minimize # of states if possible
- Step 3: State variable assignment
- Step 4: Transition/output table
- Step 5: Choose a f/f type
- Step 6: Excitation table
- Step 7: Excitation equations
- Step 8: Output equations
- Step 9: Draw a logic diagram
Problem Statement

- Design a synchronous state-machine with one input X and an output Z. Whenever the input sequence consists of two consecutive 0’s followed by two consecutive 1’s or vice versa, the output will be 1. Otherwise, the output will be 0.
Problem Interpretation

- Problem statement is sometimes ambiguous
  - assume that input X is synchronous

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**Synch. X**

Mealy output Z

Moore output Z

**if x is asynch**

**Asynch. X**

Mealy output Z

Moore output Z
Mealy Machine

- Output are a function of P.S. and inputs
- Output associated with transition
- Tend to give the fewest states necessary
- Can cause problems when the inputs are asynchronous
Moore Machine

- Output are a function of P.S.
- Output associated with state
- Tend to have more states
- Output change only with a state change
  - do not rely on asynchronous inputs
Step 1: State/Output Diagram

- Draw bubbles for all correct sequences

![State/Output Diagram](image)

- Meanings: A state is a meaningful abstraction of previous history (How many differentiated states? Infinite? What you need to remember? What you can forget?)
  - (A – got nothing),
  - (B – got 0), (C – got 00), (D – got 001), (E – got 0011)
  - (F – got 1), (G – got 11), (H – got 110), (I – got 1100)
- In (E-got 0011), the future will not depend on 00 before 11 → E=G
- Similarly, I=C
Step 1: State/Output Diagram

- Adding other input sequences
Another approach
- A state is understood as remembering something (previous history)
- All we have to remember is the last three inputs
- Eight states will be needed
  - (a=000, b=001, c=010, d=011, e=100, f=101, g=110, h=111)
Step 2: State Minimization

- Identify equivalent states
  - Same output and next state (sometimes – use circular reasoning)
  - Formal minimization is beyond of scope

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P.S. X</th>
<th>N.S. Z</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>a</td>
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<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
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<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>e</td>
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<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>f</td>
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<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
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<td>f</td>
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<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>g</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- a = e (got x00) ↔ C (got 00)
- b (got 001) ↔ D (got 001)
- c (got 010) ↔ B (got 0)
- d = h (got x11) ↔ G (got 11)
- f (got 101) ↔ F (got 1)
- g (got 110) ↔ H (got 110)
Step 3: State Assignment

- Major effect on circuit cost
- Practical guidelines
  - 00...00 for initial state
  - Minimize # of state variables that change on transition
  - Maximize # of state variables that do not change in group of related states
  - Exploit symmetries – related states or group → one bit difference
  - Use unused states well: Minimal risk or Minimal cost
  - Decompose – into individual bits or fields such that each bit has well defined meaning w.r.t inputs and outputs
  - Consider using more than the minimum # of state variables
    - One-hot assignment → small excitation equations, good for 1-out-of-s coded output
# State Assignment Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Name</th>
<th>Simplest $Q_CQ_BQ_A$</th>
<th>Decomposed $Q_CQ_BQ_A$</th>
<th>Arbitrary $Q_CQ_BQ_A$</th>
<th>One-hot $Q_6-Q_1$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a (got 000)</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>0000001</td>
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<tr>
<td>b (got 001)</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>0000010</td>
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<td>c (got 010)</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>011</td>
<td>0001000</td>
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<tr>
<td>d (got 011)</td>
<td>011</td>
<td>011</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0010000</td>
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<tr>
<td>f (got 101)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>0100000</td>
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<tr>
<td>g (got 110)</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1000000</td>
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We will use this assignment although it is not particularly good.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P.S.</th>
<th>Q_CQ_BQ_A</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>N.S.</th>
<th>Q_CQ_BQ_A</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>D_CD_BD_A</th>
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<tr>
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<td>0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
<td>0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>0 0 0 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>0 0 1 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>0 0 1 0</td>
<td></td>
<td>c</td>
<td>0 1 1 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>0 0 1 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>d</td>
<td>0 1 0 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>0 1 1 0</td>
<td></td>
<td>e=a</td>
<td>0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>0 1 1 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>1 1 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>d</td>
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<td>g</td>
<td>1 1 1 0</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>0 1 0 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>h=d</td>
<td>0 1 0 0</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>f</td>
<td>1 1 0 0</td>
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<td>c</td>
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<td>0 1 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>1 1 1 0</td>
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<td>e=a</td>
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<td>g</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>h</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Step 7-8: Excitation/Output Eqs.

\[ D_C = \overline{Q_C} Q_B \overline{Q_A} X + Q_B Q_A X \]

\[ D_B = Q_B \overline{Q_A} + Q_B X + \overline{Q_B} Q_A \]

\[ D_A = Q_B \overline{Q_A} X + \overline{Q_B} Q_A X + \overline{Q_B} Q_A \overline{X} \]

\[ Z = \overline{Q_B} Q_A X + \overline{Q_C} Q_A \overline{X} \]
Step 9: Logic Diagram

- Will skip
- How much logic?
- 14 NANDs
- 3 F/Fs
- 1 Invertor
- Minimum Cost Design: Unused states assigned for “minimum cost”
- Risk?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>P.S. X</th>
<th>N.S.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100 0</td>
<td>000</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 1</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 0</td>
<td>011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 1</td>
<td>010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Little risk – go into used states
- If it is not acceptable, may have to change don’t care to specific states
3-bit Binary Counter

- Tabular form of state diagram
- Like a truth-table (specify output for all input combinations)
- Encoding of states: easy for counters – just use value

For the 3-bit up counter, here is the state transition table. It’s like there are three inputs and three outputs. In this case the literals for states are the inputs for the state transition. If there are other outside inputs, those should be also written in the table.
Implementation

- D flip-flop for each state bit
- Combinational logic based on encoding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D1</th>
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<tbody>
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</table>

\[
\begin{align*}
D1 & \leq Q1' \\
D2 & \leq Q1Q2' + Q1'Q2 \\
& \leq Q1 \text{ xor } Q2 \\
D3 & \leq Q1Q2Q3' + Q1'Q3 + Q2'Q3 \\
& \leq (Q1Q2)Q3' + (Q1' + Q2')Q3 \\
& \leq (Q1Q2)Q3' + (Q1Q2)'Q3 \\
& \leq (Q1Q2) \text{ xor } Q3
\end{align*}
\]
Diagram for the 3-bit Binary Counter
Here is the state transition table for a 3bit shift register. In this case, there is one external input in addition to the current states.
More complex counter example

- Complex counter
  - repeats 5 states in sequence
  - not a binary number representation

- Step 1: derive the state transition diagram
  - count sequence: 000, 010, 011, 101, 110

- Step 2: derive the state transition table from the state transition diagram

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present State</th>
<th>Next State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qc</td>
<td>Qb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 0</td>
<td>0 1 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>0 0 1</td>
<td>- - -</td>
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<tr>
<td>0 1 0</td>
<td>0 1 1</td>
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<td>0 1 1</td>
<td>1 0 1</td>
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<td>0 0 0</td>
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<td>1 1 1</td>
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</table>

Note the don’t care conditions that arise from the unused state codes.

In this case, only five states are used out of 8 possible binary values; so three don’t care cases appear. Note that the next state literals are denoted with + symbol.
More complex counter example (cont’d)

- Step 3: K-maps for next state functions

We see K-maps for three counter variables here.

\[
\begin{align*}
D_c &= Q_a \\
D_b &= Q_b' + Q_a'Q_c' \\
D_a &= Q_bQ_c'
\end{align*}
\]
Counters have two categories: self-starting and non self-starting. In self-starting, even though the system starts in one of all possible states, which may not be legal, the system will eventually go to one of valid states. And then, the system will remain in the set of legitimate states. Note that there are no don’t care terms.
Self-starting counters

- Start-up states
  - at power-up, counter may be in an unused or invalid state
  - designer must guarantee that it (eventually) enters a valid state

- Self-starting solution
  - design counter so that invalid states eventually transition to a valid state
  - may limit exploitation of don't cares

The left two counters are non-self-starting since if the system is in the state not shown in the state diagram, it will not work. Meanwhile the right one is self-starting.
Activity

- 2-bit up-down counter (2 inputs)
  - direction: D = 0 for up, D = 1 for down
  - count: C = 0 for hold, C = 1 for count

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q0</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>NQ1</th>
<th>NQ0</th>
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<tbody>
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Activity (cont’d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q0</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D0</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
D1 = C'S1 + CDS0'S1' + CDS0S1 + CD'S0S1' + CD'S0'S1
\]

\[
D0 = CS0' + C'S0
\]
**Counter/shift-register model**

- Values stored in registers represent the state of the circuit
- Combinational logic computes:
  - next state
    - function of current state and inputs
  - outputs
    - values of flip-flops

Here is the big picture of counter- or shift register-based sequential logic systems. The current state and the input will decide the next state by forming a combinational logic in the oval. In the case of counters or registers, the values in the storage elements form the output. What if the state is not exactly the output?
General state machine model

- Values stored in registers represent the state of the circuit
- Combinational logic computes:
  - next state
    - function of current state and inputs
  - outputs
    - function of current state and inputs *(Mealy machine)*
    - function of current state only *(Moore machine)*

If output is different from the state, there should be one more combinational logic, the upper oval. There is another important classification: depending on the combinational logic for outputs. If outputs are functions of only current state, that model is called a Moore machine. On the other hand, if outputs are also dependent on external inputs, this is called a Mealy machine (drawn by a blue arrow).
State machine model (cont’d)

- States: $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k$
- Inputs: $I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_m$
- Outputs: $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_n$
- Transition function: $F_s(S_i, I_j)$
- Output function: $F_o(S_i)$ or $F_o(S_i, I_j)$

Again, the state transition time is the reference time, which is typically positive- (or negative-) edge of the clock signal depending on FF types. The clock period should be long enough to allow full propagation of input and the current state signals through combinational logic parts.
Comparison of Mealy and Moore machines

- Mealy machines tend to have less states
  - different outputs on arcs \( (n^2) \) rather than states \( (n) \)

- Moore machines are safer to use
  - outputs change at clock edge (always one cycle later)
  - in Mealy machines, input change can cause output change as soon as logic is done – a big problem when two machines are interconnected – asynchronous feedback may occur if one isn’t careful

- Mealy machines react faster to inputs
  - react in same cycle – don’t need to wait for clock
  - in Moore machines, more logic may be necessary to decode state into outputs – more gate delays after clock edge

As outputs of a Mealy machine are functions of the external inputs and the present state, the number of states may be less. Information for the next state transition is split between inputs from outside and the state. In Moore machines, outputs are dependent only on the present state, the output will change synchronously if combinational logic has no problem. In Mealy machines, external inputs can change the output anytime with combinational logic delay somewhat independently of the clock. If two machines perform the same function, Mealy machines react faster since inputs are already changing the combinational logic for output.
Comparison of Mealy and Moore machines (cont’d)

- **Moore**

- **Mealy**

This slide illustrates the three types of sequential systems. Synchronous Mealy machines solve the potential glitches and asynchronous change of outputs of Mealy machines by inserting clock-triggered memory elements.
Specifying outputs for a Moore machine

- Output is only function of state
  - specify in state bubble in state diagram
  - example: sequence detector for 01 or 10

Let’s see how a Moore machine can be described. Here, X/Y is the tuple of state X and the output Y. The label in each incoming arc is the input. The output is associated with the current state. Actually, the output signal will be asserted until the system goes to the next state. This Moore machine detects whether the recent input string is 01 or 10.
Specifying outputs for a Mealy machine

- Output is function of state and inputs
  - specify output on transition arc between states
  - example: sequence detector for 01 or 10

In a Mealy machine, both the input and present state determine the next state. X/Y notation in each arrow means input X will generate output Y. Compare the number of states; the Mealy model has only 3 states. The problem of the Mealy machine is that we cannot be sure of the exact timing of output change, not to mention glitch.
Example: vending machine

- Release item after 15 cents are deposited
- Single coin slot for dimes, nickels
- No change

Dime: 10 cent coin
Nickel: 5 cent coin

Now we will see three or four implementations of the same vending machine that sells an item which costs 15 cents. We don’t need to figure out the exact mechanism of identifying dimes and nickels. Just assume that the corresponding wire will be asserted: N for nickel and D for dime. Also, for simplicity, we do not care about change.
Here is the simple state transition table for the vending machine. This is kind of a Moore machine since the output becomes 1 after the system moves to state 15¢. First of all, a dime and a nickel cannot be inserted at the same time, which implies don’t care terms.
Example: vending machine (cont’d)

- Uniquely encode states

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present state</th>
<th>inputs</th>
<th>next state</th>
<th>output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1 Q0 D N</td>
<td>NQ1 NQ0</td>
<td>open</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>1 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>1 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1 1 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>1 1 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So there are 4 states of the system (0,5,10,15¢), which requires minimum two FFs. The number of bits to represent states can be determined in many ways; we will look at two cases here. Two external inputs and one external output are already explained. This is a simple Moore machine since the output is dependent only on state.
Example: Moore implementation

- Mapping to logic

There are total 4 input variables for each output. OPEN seems to be the simplest logic. In this case, the external output is a function of only state variables. For simplicity, we skip the feedback parts of Q1 and Q0 wires.
## Example: vending machine (cont’d)

### One-hot encoding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>present state</th>
<th>inputs</th>
<th>next state output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q3 Q2 Q1 Q0</td>
<td>D N</td>
<td>D3 D2 D1 D0 open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 0 1</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0 0 1 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>- - - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 0 1 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>- - - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 1 0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 1</td>
<td>1 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 0</td>
<td>1 0 0 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>- - - - -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 0 0 0</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>1 0 0 0 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D0 = Q0 D’ N’

D1 = Q0 N + Q1 D’ N’

D2 = Q0 D + Q1 N + Q2 D’ N’

D3 = Q1 D + Q2 D + Q2 N + Q3

OPEN = Q3

One-hot encoding means only one bit is ON for each state; that is, only one state variable is set, or "hot," for each state. So the number of bits to represent states is the same as the number of states. The benefit is that the next state generation function may be simple since the number of product terms for each output is typically small. In this case, we use 4 bits or FFs.
Equivalent Mealy and Moore state diagrams

- **Moore machine**
  - outputs associated with state

- **Mealy machine**
  - outputs associated with transitions

This slide shows the complete state transition diagram of the vending machine in two versions. In the Moore model, the number in [ ] is the output. Whereas, in the Mealy model, the output is associated with each arc.
In the case of a Mealy machine, the output, OPEN, is a function of state and the inputs.
Example: Mealy implementation

\[
D_0 = Q_0'N + Q_0N' + Q_1N + Q_1D
\]
\[
D_1 = Q_1 + D + Q_0N
\]
\[
OPEN = Q_1Q_0 + Q_1N + Q_1D + Q_0D
\]

Here is the overall implementation of the vending machine based on the Mealy model.
Hardware Description Languages
VHDL for FSM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>00</th>
<th>01</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>Z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INIT</td>
<td>A0</td>
<td>A0</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A0</td>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A0</td>
<td>A0</td>
<td>OK1</td>
<td>OK1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>OK1</td>
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<tr>
<td>OK1</td>
<td>A0</td>
<td>OK0</td>
<td>OK1</td>
<td>OK1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S∗
library IEE8;
use IEE8.std_logic_1164.all;

entity smexamp is
  port ( CCLK, A, B: in STD_LOGIC;
         Z: out STD_LOGIC );
end;

architecture smexamp_arch of smexamp is
  type Sreg_type is (INIT, A0, A1, OK0, OK1);
signal Sreg: Sreg_type;
begin

  process (CCLK) -- state-machine states and transitions
    begin
      if CCLK'event and CCLK = '1' then
        case Sreg is
          when INIT => if A='0' then Sreg <= A0;
                    elsif A='1' then Sreg <= A1; end if;
          when A0 =>     if A='0' then Sreg <= OK0;
                        elsif A='1' then Sreg <= A1; end if;
          when A1 =>     if A='0' then Sreg <= A0;
                        elsif A='1' then Sreg <= OK1; end if;
          when OK0 =>     if A='0' then Sreg <= OK0;
                          elsif A='1' and B='0' then Sreg <= A1;
                          elsif A='1' and B='1' then Sreg <= OK1; end if;
          when OK1 =>     if A='0' and B='0' then Sreg <= A0;
                          elsif A='0' and B='1' then Sreg <= OK0;
                          elsif A='1' then Sreg <= OK1; end if;
          when others => Sreg <= INIT;
        end case;
      end if;
    end process;

  with Sreg select -- output values based on state
    Z <= '0' when INIT | A0 | A1,
        '1' when OK0 | OK1,
        '0' when others;
end smexamp_arch;
Assigning specific codes to the states?

- Not necessary since synthesis tools will do for you
- Sometimes necessary
  - Alternative 1: Use constant definition
  - Alternative 2: use Synopsys “attribute” enum_encoding
library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;

... 
architecture smexampc_arch of smexamp is 
subtype Sreg_type is STD_LOGIC_VECTOR (1 to 4);
custom constant INIT: Sreg_type := "0000";
custom constant A0 : Sreg_type := "0001";
custom constant A1 : Sreg_type := "0010";
custom constant OK0 : Sreg_type := "0100";
custom constant OK1 : Sreg_type := "1000";
signal Sreg: Sreg_type;
... 

library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
library SYNOPSYS;
use SYNOPSYS.attributes.all;

... 
architecture smexampe_arch of smexampe is 
type Sreg_type is (INIT, A0, A1, OK0, OK1);
attribute enum_encoding of Sreg_type: type is 
"0000 0001 0010 0100 1000";
signal Sreg: Sreg_type;
...
Finite state machines summary

- Models for representing sequential circuits
  - abstraction of sequential elements
  - finite state machines and their state diagrams
  - inputs/outputs
  - Mealy and Moore machines

- Finite state machine design procedure
  - deriving state diagram
  - deriving state transition table
  - determining next state and output functions
  - implementing combinational logic

- Hardware description languages

We start with simple FSMs like counters and shift registers, where states are outputs directly. We should differentiate Moore and Mealy models. With either model, we should be able to design a FSM.