

# 6 Sequential Logic

## Student Group

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## 6. Sequential Logic

“I Know What You Did Last Cycle”

### 6.1 State Diagram, State Transition Diagram

#### 6.1.1 Motivation

The diagrams of different states are well known from physics for example the state diagram (or better: phase diagram) of water, where its three states are: solid ice, liquid water and gaseous steam. The possible state transitions are due to temperature increase or decrease.

In [figure 9](#) image (1) the states of water are shown on the temperature axis. When only the state transitions are relevant, the states are simplified to a circle, showing the state name and behaviour. The transitions are depicted as arrows, where the needed condition is written onto (See [figure 9](#) image (2)). This diagram is called **state transition diagram**.

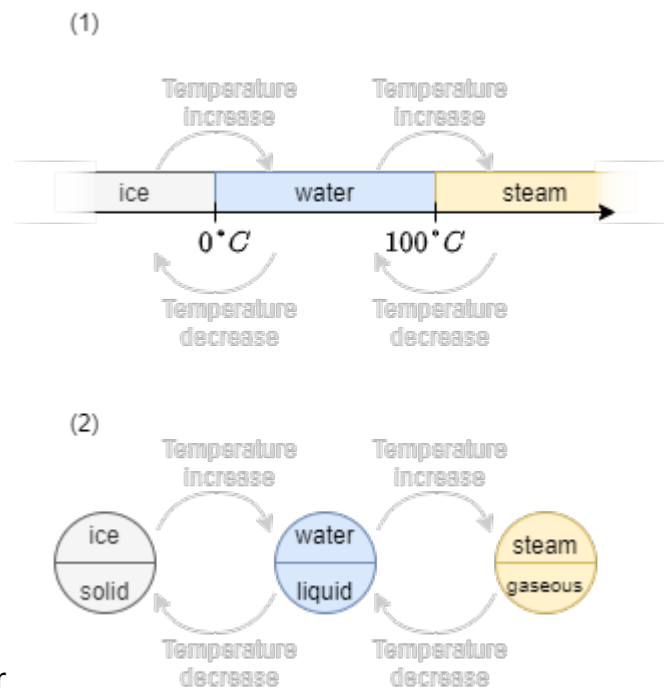


Fig. 9: States of Water

For matter not only the dimension “temperature” is important, but also the “pressure”. The full phase diagram is shown in [figure 10](#) image (1). By this, another variable is available and more transitions. These can be drawn into the state transition diagram ([figure 10](#) image (2)).

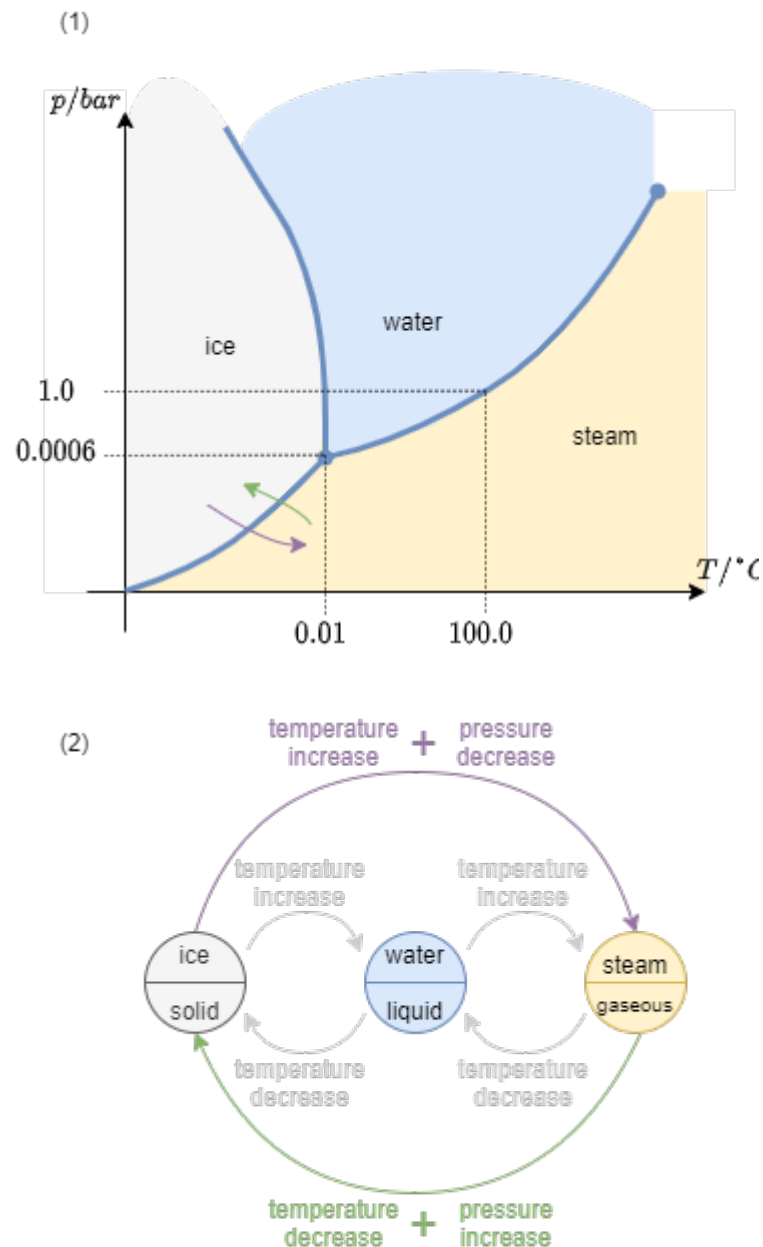


Fig. 10: States of Water

### 6.1.2 Simple logic Example

In German, often one has to pay for entering the toilet. An example of such an entrance control system is shown in [figure 11](#). At this (artificial) example, one can pay either 50ct or 1€.

Once paid, the turnstile will release and one can enter. Once the turnstile was pushed the entrance is closed again.



Fig. 11: Entrance Control for Toilets

The [figure 12](#) the state transition diagram is drawn.

- The two states are that (1) the turnstile is opened and one is able to go through and (2) the turnstile is closed and one cannot enter anymore.
- The transitions are given by the done actions: one can either insert a coin or push on the turnstile.

Important here are some additional considerations:

- For the state transition diagram one has to **look for all possible transitions**. So, also pushing a closed turnstile or inserting more coins have to taken into account.
- A state transition diagram is not complete without a **legend** and without an **beginning/reset point**. The reset point is given by an arrow with "reset" written onto it

Fig. 12: State Transition Diagramm of the Entrance Control for Toilets



Out of this state transition diagram one can create a table-like representation, see [figure 13](#).

Fig. 13: State Transition Diagramm of the Entrance Control for Toilets

| Toilet Entrance Control |                |                  |                   |
|-------------------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|
| current state           | input / event  | next state       | output / action   |
| turnstile closed        | push turnstile | turnstile closed | disallow entrance |
| turnstile closed        | insert coin    | turnstile opened | allow entrance    |
| turnstile opened        | push turnstile | turnstile closed | disallow entrance |
| turnstile opened        | insert coin    | turnstile opened | allow entrance    |

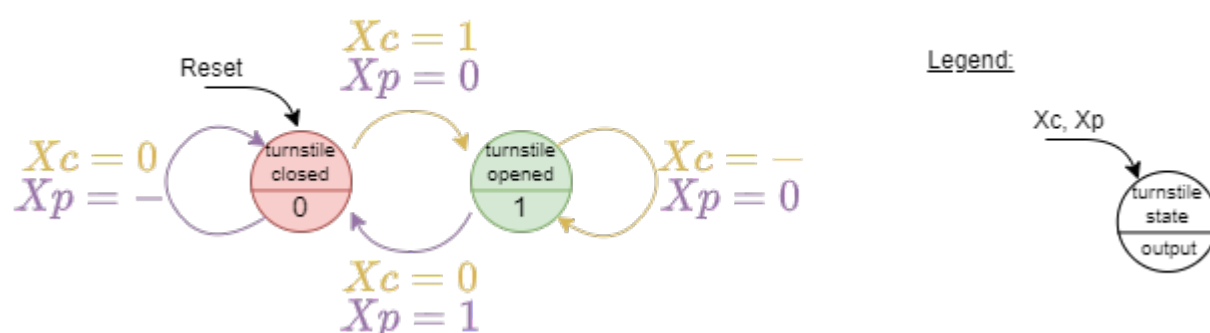
the inputs, outputs and states have to be encoded into binary, in order to investigate this table a bit more. How the binary value is connected to the outputs does not matter. We will choose the following coding:

- Encoding of the states: turnstile closed  $\triangleq \$Q=0\$, turnstile opened  $\triangleq \$Q=1\$,$$
- Encoding of the inputs: no coin inserted  $\triangleq \$X_c=0\$, coin inserted  $\triangleq \$X_c=1\$, turnstile not pushed  $\triangleq \$X_p=0\$, turnstile pushed  $\triangleq \$X_p=1\$,$$$$
- Encoding of the outputs: disallow entrance  $\triangleq \$Y=0\$, allow entrance  $\triangleq \$Y=1\$,$$

This table is shown in [figure 1](#) and is called **state transition table**.

Fig. 1: State Transition Diagramm of the Entrance Control for Toilets

| Toilet Entrance Control |        |       |       |                       |     |
|-------------------------|--------|-------|-------|-----------------------|-----|
| current state           | $Z(n)$ | $X_c$ | $X_p$ | next state $Z(n + 1)$ | $Y$ |
|                         | 0      | 0     | -     | 0                     | 0   |
|                         | 0      | 1     | 0     | 1                     | 1   |
|                         | 1      | 0     | 1     | 0                     | 0   |
|                         | 1      | -     | 0     | 1                     | 1   |



Interestingly, the logic circuit for this state transition table was already part of the course: it is the RS flip-flop! When looking deeper onto the table in [figure 1](#) one can substitute  $X_c$  with  $S$  (as in Set) and  $X_p$  with  $R$  (as in Reset) to directly get the truthtable of the RS flip flop.

### 6.1.3 First Terminology

Sequential logic is used to describe logic circuits which show internal states (“stateful”), and therefore have at least one memory element (= flip-flop). The following terminology is used in the upcoming explanations:

- The **input vector**  $\vec{X}$  represents the  $k$  inputs  $X_0 \dots X_{k-1}$
- The **output vector**  $\vec{Y}$  represents the  $l$  outputs  $Y_0 \dots Y_{l-1}$
- The **state vector**  $\vec{Q}$  represents the  $m$  inputs  $X_0 \dots X_{m-1}$
- The sign  $(n)$  or  $n$  marking the current point in time and therefore e.g. the current state  $Q_0(n)$
- The sign  $(n+1)$  or  $n+1$  marking the next upcoming point in time and therefore e.g. the next state  $Q_0(n+1)$
- Sequential logic circuits are also called **Finite State Machines** (FSM) or sometimes also shortened to “state machine”

The [figure 12](#) shows the different terms in an abstract diagram. The “current” output values are here the values, which are shown after the delay time of the gates (about some nanoseconds).

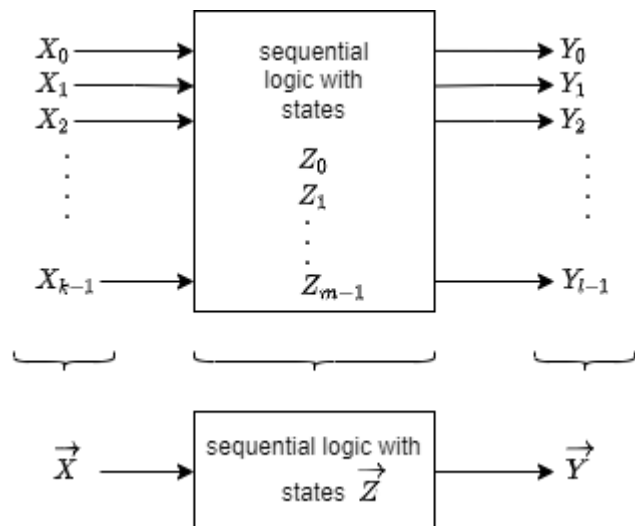
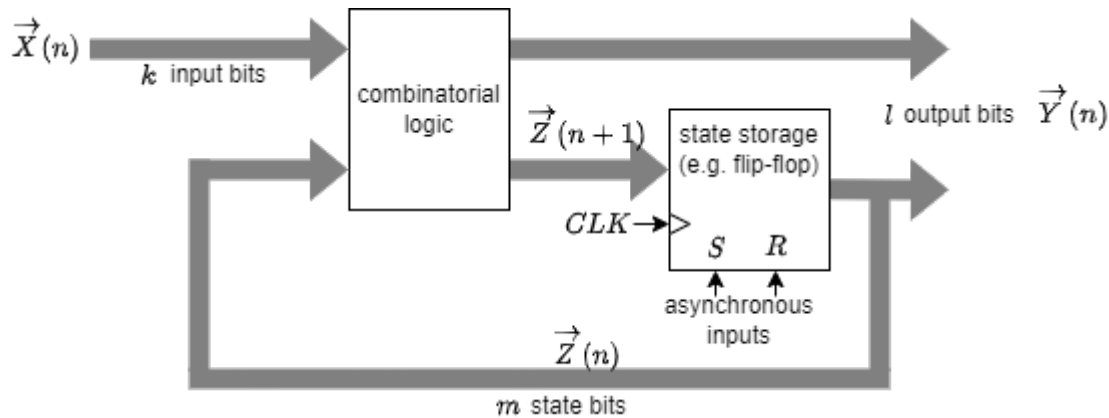


Fig. 1: Abstract View onto a Sequential Logic

The principle interior of the blackbox in [figure 12](#) was already shown in one practical application in the [previous chapter](#): We saw, that we need the combination of a combinatorial logic and some storage components. Additionally, both have to be connected by feeding back some of the outputs back to the combinatorial logic. The output bits  $\vec{Y}$  can result either from the combinatorial logic or the flip-flops. This is shown in [figure 13](#).

Fig. 2: One Step more into the Sequential Logic



### Exercise 6.1.3.1 Example of a State Machine

figure 1 depicts a state machine.

- What happens, when  $X$  is changed? On which edge the change is triggered?
- Write down how many components each vector  $\vec{X}$  and  $\vec{Y}$  has.
- How many might the state vector  $\vec{Q}$  need?

Fig. 3: Example for a sequential logic

One simple example of a sequential logic is shown in figure 4. There, the combinatorial logic is explicitly shown. Depending on the input  $X$  the output  $\vec{Y}$  shows an up-counting 2-bit value counting  $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots$ . This is a simple state machine which will be used in the net chapters

Fig. 4: State machine of an Up-Counter

### 6.1.4 Classical State Machine Types

The up-counter in the previous sub-chapter was able to count from  $0$  to  $3$ . But what can we do in order to count differently, like  $7, 6, 1, 5$ ? In order to understand this, a simpler situation will be investigated. So, let's look how one can create a up-counter counting  $1, 2, 3, 4$ .

#### Moore Machine

The first idea might be to use what we already have: an up-counter, which facilitate 2 flip-flops in order to result into 2-bit output. The wanted new state machine needs 3 bits for the output, since the binary representation of our outputs are  $001, 010, 011, 100$ .

An simple idea is to take the 2-bit up-counter and add an combinatorial logic in behind. This logic shall convert the 2-bit up-counter output  $00$  into  $001$ , the  $01$  into  $010$ ,  $10$  into  $011$  and  $11$  into  $101$ . This can be logic can be created by:

- writing down the truth table
- putting the values into a Karnaugh map
- extracting the formula with view onto the implicants

- generating the circuit with gates

When this is done, the result looks like [figure 5](#)

Fig. 5: Up-Counter 1..4 as a Moore Machine

This resembles a so called **Moore Machine**

### Note!

A state machine is a **Moore Machine**, when the output values  $\vec{Y}$  depends only on the state values  $\vec{Q}$ . For this the moore machine uses two combinatorial circuits:

- The input circuit, which process the input values  $X(n+1)$  and the state values  $Q(n)$  (of the previous step) in such a way that the new states  $Q(n+1)$  are generated.
- The output circuit, which transform the state values  $Q(n)$  into the output values  $Y(n)$ .

The properties of a moore machine are:

- The number of flip-flops is only given by number of states  $m$ .
- The output only changes when an edge on the clock input happen. The moore machine is a **synchronous state machine**.
- The moore machine usually need less logic gates. But this comes with the cost of optimizing two combinatorial logic circuits.

### Mealy Machine

When looking onto [figure 5](#) a bit more in detail, one can see, that the outputs  $Y_0$  and  $Y_1$  just equals output of the first combinatorial logic circuit. This is not surprising: the input logic circuit shows the  $Q(n+1)$  and this is for the counter always the stored value plus one, except when the maximum is reached.

With this information the state machine in [figure 5](#) can be simplified by using the outputs of the input circuit for  $Y_0$  and  $Y_1$ . This is shown in [figure 6](#).

Fig. 6: Up-Counter 1..4 as a Mealy Machine

### Note!

A state machine is a **Mealy Machine**, when the output values  $\vec{Y}$  depends not only on the state values  $\vec{Q}$ . For this the mealy machine uses two combinatorial circuits:

- The input circuit, which process the input values  $X(n+1)$  and the

state values  $\vec{Q}(n)$  (of the previous step) in such a way that the new states  $\vec{Q}(n+1)$  are generated.

- The output circuit, which transform the state values  $\vec{Q}(n)$  and some inputs from ahead of the flip-flops into the output values  $\vec{Y}(n)$ .

The properties of a mealy machine are:

- The number of flip-flops is only given by number of states  $m$ .
- The output **not** only changes when an edge on the clock input happen: It is also dependent on the input  $\vec{X}(n)$ . The mealy machine is an **asynchronous state machine**.
- The mealy machine usually need less logic gates.
- The mealy machine has to be designed properly in order not to get invalid outputs.

#### Exercise 6.1.4.1 Invalid States of the Mealy Machine

The mealy machine in [figure 6](#) can show invalid outputs. Try to find these by the correct timing of the input  $X=1$  or  $X=0$ .

- Which outputs can be created?

#### Medvedev Machine

Fig. 7: Up-Counter 1..4 as a Medvedev Machine

#### Note!

A state machine is a **Medvedev Machine**, when the output values  $\vec{Y}$  is directly given by the state values  $\vec{Q}$ . For this the medvedev machine uses only one combinatorial circuit. This circuit process the input values  $\vec{X}(n+1)$  and the state values  $\vec{Q}(n)$  (of the previous step) in such a way that the new states  $\vec{Q}(n+1)$  and the output values  $\vec{Y}(n+1) = \vec{Q}(n+1)$  are generated.

The properties of a medvedev machine are:

- The number of flip-flops is given by number of outputs  $l$ .
- The output only changes when an edge on the clock input happens: The mealy machine is an **synchronous state machine**.
- The medvedev machine usually need more logic gates.

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