

Outline

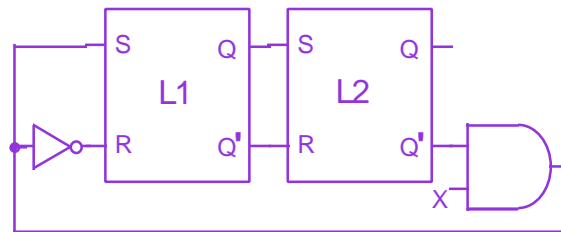
- Last time:
 - Race-free State Assignment
 - Excitation Equations
 - Design Example: Implementation
 - Summary of Asynchronous Design Process

- This lecture:
 - Asynchronous Examples
 - State Assignment in Asynchronous
 - Error Detection & Correction
 - Review: Bandwidth and Latency
 - Binary Decision Diagrams

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14.1.1

Race Conditions and Cycles



Q_1Q_2 \ X	0	1
00	⊙	10
01	00	00
11	01	01
10	01	11

Q_1Q_2 \ X	0	1
00	⊙	
01	00	
11	01	
10	01	11

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14.1.2

Race Conditions

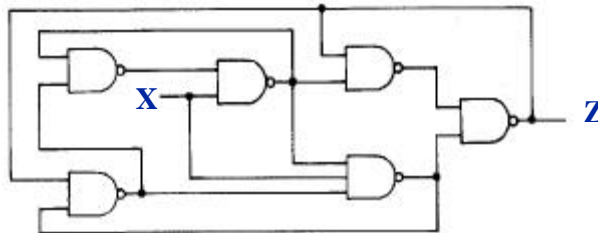
		X	
		0	1
Q ₁ Q ₂	00	00	11
	01	00	01
	11	01	11
	10	10	10

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14.1.3

Example 3: Asynchronous Analysis

- Analyze the following asynchronous network using a flow table. Starting in the stable total state for which $X=Z=0$, determine the state and the output sequences when the input sequence is $X=0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots$
- Find any critical races which are present in the table.



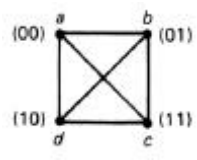
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14.1.4

Race-Free State Assignment

- A race-free state assignment for any 4-row table can be found using three state variables
- Example:

	00	01	11	10
a	(a)	c	d	(a)
b	a	d	(b)	(b)
c	d	(c)	b	a
d	(d)	(d)	(d)	b



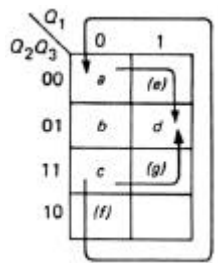
column 00	$b \rightarrow a, c \rightarrow d$
column 01	$a \rightarrow c, b \rightarrow d$
column 11	$a \rightarrow d, c \rightarrow b$
column 10	$c \rightarrow a, d \rightarrow b$

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14.1.5

Race-Free State Assignment

- The assignment below is a universal state-assignment map that will work for any 4-row table
- The example can then be expanded as shown, with the additional rows added



$Q_1 Q_2 Q_3$		00	01	11	10
000	a	(a)	f	e	(a)
001	b	a	d	(b)	(b)
011	c	g	(c)	b	f
101	d	(d)	(d)	(d)	b
100	e	-	-	d	-
010	f	-	c	-	a
111	g	d	-	-	-

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Race-Free State Assignment

- Another universal assignment for 4-row tables is shown below (M. Mano, *Logic and Computer Design*, Prentice Hall)
- Using this approach, the expanded example from before becomes as shown below right
- This approach faster than previous general approach above. Why?

Q_1	Q_2	Q_3		
			0	1
00	01	11	10	
	a ₁	a ₂		
	b ₁	b ₂		
	c ₁	c ₂		

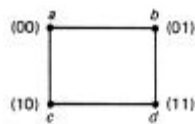
$Q_1 Q_2 Q_3$		00	01	11	10
000	a ₁	(a ₁)	c ₁	d ₁	(a ₁)
111	a ₂	(a ₂)	c ₂	d ₂	(a ₂)
011	b ₁	a ₂	d ₁	(b ₁)	(b ₁)
100	b ₂	a ₁	d ₂	(b ₂)	(b ₂)
010	c ₁	d ₂	(c ₁)	b ₁	a ₁
101	c ₂	d ₁	(c ₂)	b ₂	a ₂
001	d ₁	(d ₁)	(d ₁)	(d ₁)	b ₁
110	d ₂	(d ₂)	(d ₂)	(d ₂)	b ₂

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Race-Free State Assignment

- Don't cares can be used to make race-free assignment
- In example below-left, we need:
 $col_{00} d \rightarrow a$; $col_{01} a \rightarrow b$, $c \rightarrow d$; $col_{11} b \rightarrow c$; $col_{10} a \rightarrow c$, $b \rightarrow d$



- Looks like we need extra rows, but use the don't cares:

	00	01	11	10
a	(a)	b	-	c
b	(b)	(b)	c	d
c	-	d	(c)	(c)
d	a	(d)	(d)	(d)

	00	01	11	10
00 a	(a)	b	c	c
01 b	(b)	(b)	a	d
10 c	a	d	(c)	(c)
11 d	c	(d)	(d)	(d)

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Shared-Row Assignments

	00	01	11	10
a	①	2	5	4
b	⑦	②	3	⑩
c	1	8	③	4
d	7	⑧	5	④
e	1	⑨	⑤	6
f	⑪	8	3	⑥

column 00:	$e, c \rightarrow a$	$d \rightarrow b$
column 01:	$a \rightarrow b$	$c, f \rightarrow d$
column 11:	$b, f \rightarrow c$	$a, d \rightarrow e$
column 10:	$a, c \rightarrow d$	$e \rightarrow f$

Consider the example above. We need at least three state variables and maybe even four.

$e \rightarrow a, c \rightarrow a; e \rightarrow c \rightarrow a; c \rightarrow e \rightarrow a$

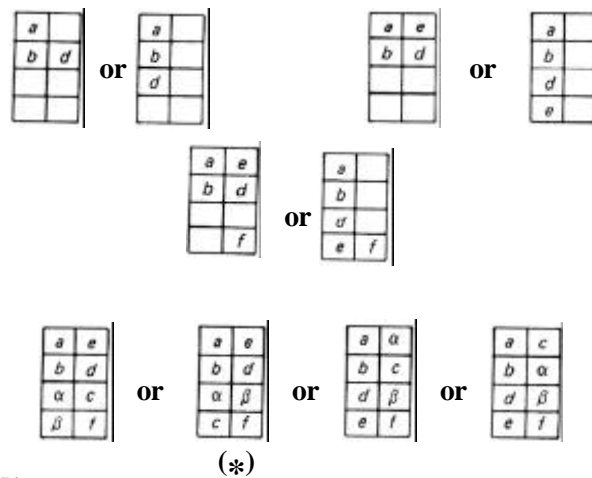
or any of these going through an intermediate state

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Shared-Row Assignment

○ How do we get there? Trial and error...

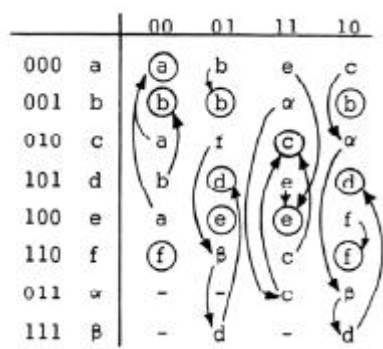


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Shared-Row Assignment

- Result of using second option from previous slide:



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Error Detection & Correction

- As transistors & wires become smaller, the number of electrons used to represent a stored 1 or 0 decreases
- The probability that a cosmic ray, alpha particle, local electric field (crosstalk) or some other disturbance will change a stored value (or even the value on a wire) increases
- Two aspects:
 - Error detection (e.g. parity)
 - Error correction (e.g. Hamming Codes)
 - 2-bit detect, 1-bit correct

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Hamming Codes

- Most common types of error-correcting codes used in RAM
- Based on work of R. W. Hamming
- k parity bits are added to an n-bit word, forming a new n+k bit word
- The positions numbered with powers of two are reserved for the parity bits
- Can be used with words of any length
- Example: 8-bit data word 11000100

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
P_1	P_2	1	P_4	1	0	0	P_8	0	1	0	0

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Hamming Codes

- Calculate parity bits as follows:

$$P_1 = \text{xor}(3,5,7,9,11) = 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 0$$

$$P_2 = \text{xor}(3,6,7,10,11) = 0$$

$$P_4 = \text{xor}(5,6,7,12) = 1$$

$$P_8 = \text{xor}(9,10,11,12) = 1$$

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0

- When bits are read from memory, compute check bits:

$$C_1 = \text{xor}(1,3,5,7,9,11)$$

$$C_2 = \text{xor}(2,3,6,7,10,11)$$

$$C_4 = \text{xor}(4,5,6,7,12)$$

$$C_8 = \text{xor}(8,9,10,11,12)$$

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Hamming Codes

○ $C=C_8C_4C_2C_1=0000$ indicates no error has occurred

○ Examples:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	no error
1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	error in bit 1
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	error in bit 5

C_8	C_4	C_2	C_1	
0	0	0	0	no error
0	0	0	1	error bit 1
0	1	0	1	error bit 5

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Hamming Codes

○ For n data bits and k check bits, $n+k \leq 2^k-1$

○ Grouping of bits for parity generation can be observed from listing of binary numbers:

	B_1	B_2	B_3	
0	0	0	0	
1	1	0	0	$B_1=1$ for (1,3,5,7)
2	0	1	0	$B_2=1$ for (2,3,6,7)
3	1	1	0	
4	0	0	1	$B_3=1$ for (4,5,6,7)
5	1	0	1	
6	0	1	1	
7	1	1	1	

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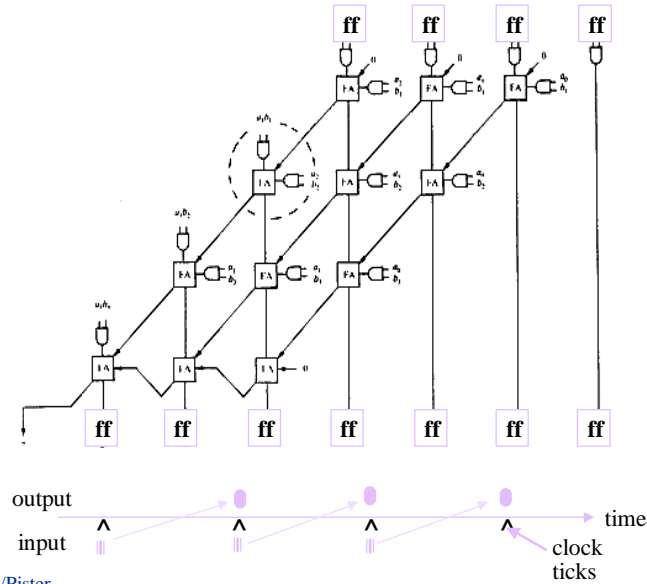
Hamming Codes

- Add P_{13} as an overall parity bit: $001110010100P_{13}$
- Detect/Correct Rules as follows:
 - If $C=0, P=0$ no error
 - If $C \neq 0, P=1$ single error, correctable
 - If $C \neq 0, P=0$ double error, uncorrectable
 - If $C=0, P=1$ error occurred in P_{13}
- Can also have far more sophisticated schemes
- Covered in detail in communication & information theory courses

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14.1.17

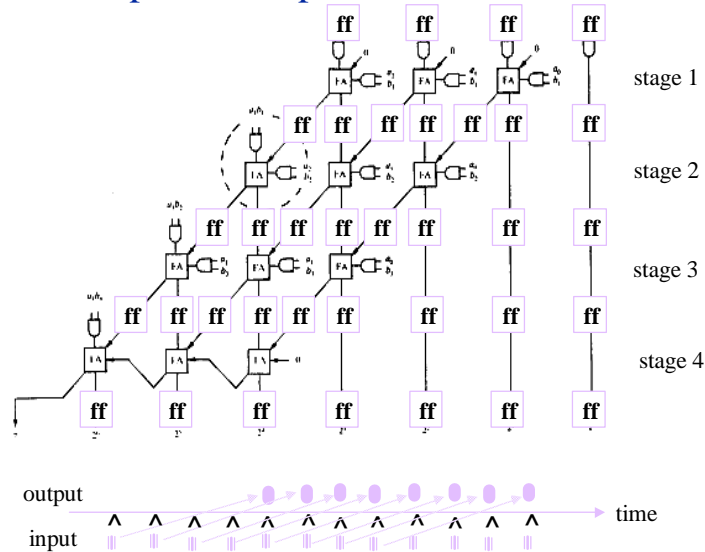
NMM: Combinational Implementation



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Pipelined Implementation



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14.1.19

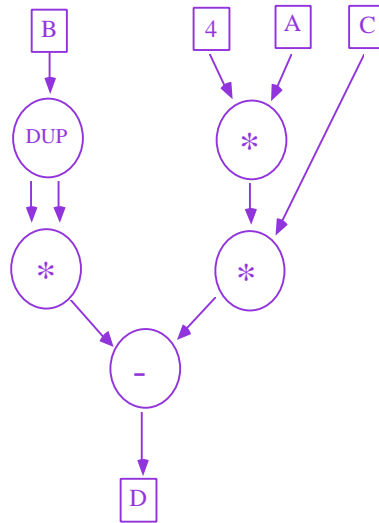
Bandwidth and Latency

- *Latency*: The minimum time to get the first result (sec.) - the one-time cost.
- *Bandwidth*: The maximum rate at which results can be produced in the steady-state (values/sec.) - the incremental cost
- For example, disc drives, RAM (normal, video), networks, signal-processors (e.g. HDTV, radar)

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Simple Dataflow Description: $B^2 - 4AC$



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14.1.21

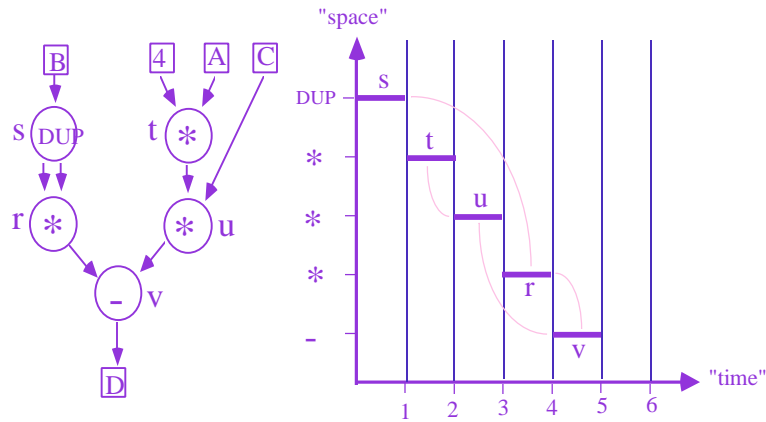
Scheduling of Functional Units

- Given a certain number of functional units (e.g. ALU's, RAM's), schedule a particular computation (from the HDL or software) onto a particular functional unit at a particular time relative to other operations.
- Analogous problem scheduling "wires"
- What about the values on the wires?

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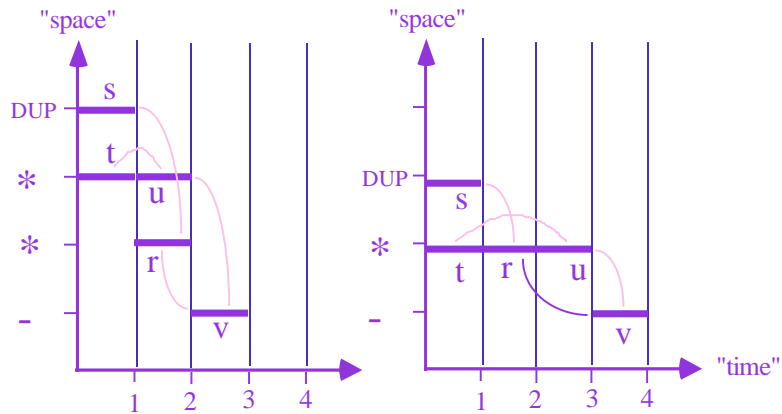
Allocation of Functional Units: Data Dependencies



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14.1.23

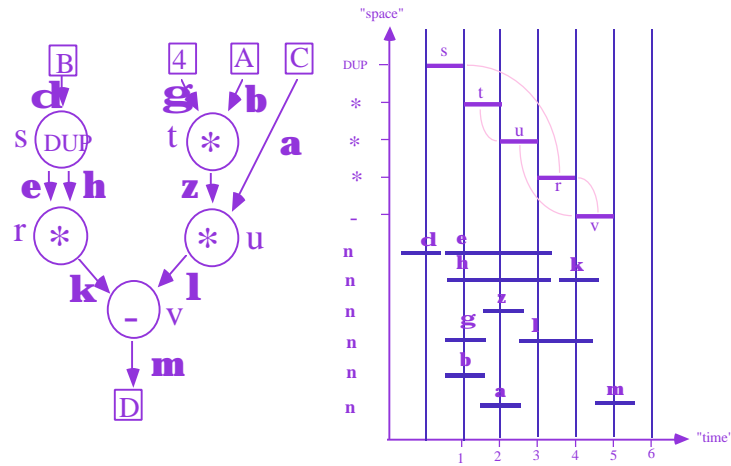
Allocation of Functional Units: Time-Space Tradeoffs



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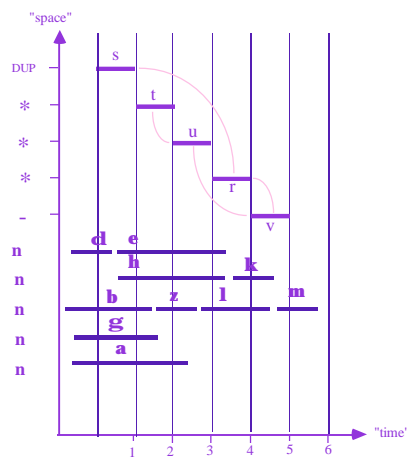
Allocation of Functional Units: Sharing of Signal Links



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Allocation of Functional Units: More Efficient Use of Links



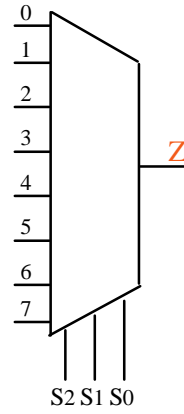
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Design Using Multiplexers

		AB		A			
		00	01	11	10		
CD	00	0	4	12	C		
	01	1	5	13			
	11	3	7	15			
	10	2	6	14			
		B					

$$Z = ABD + C + BD$$

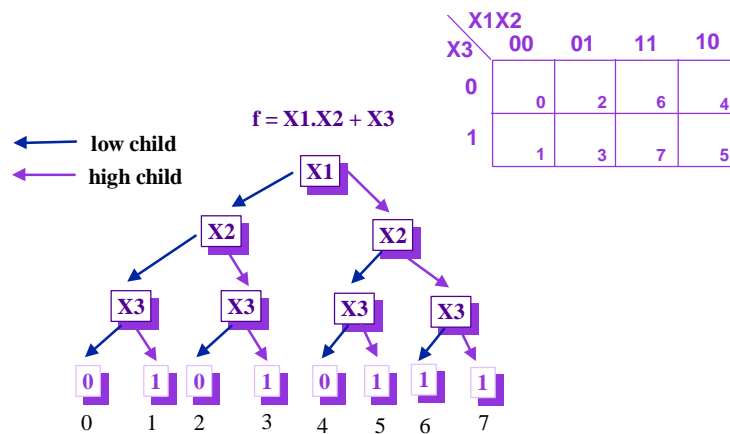


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Binary Decision Diagrams

○ In general: $f_v = Xv' \text{ flow} + Xv \text{ fhigh}$



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Implementation of Logic Using Switches

Shannon Expansion:

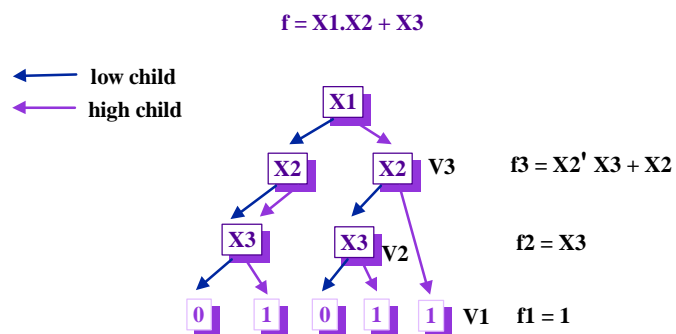
$$(T15) \quad F(X,Y,Z) = X \cdot F(1,Y,Z) + X' \cdot F(0,Y,Z)$$

$$(T15') \quad F(X,Y,Z) = (X + F(0,Y,Z)) \cdot (X' + F(1,Y,Z))$$

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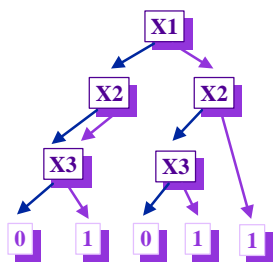
Binary Decision Diagrams



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14.1.30

Use of BDDs for Verification



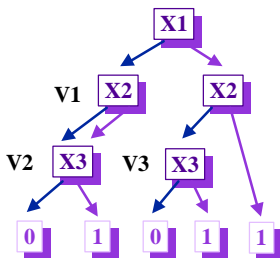
- Condition on edges forces order on variables.
- Order must be consistent with all edges.
- For each edge, parent before child in the order.
→ X1 X2 X3

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Use of BDDs for Verification

- V1 is a redundant vertex
- V2, V3 represent the same function
- A BDD is a reduced binary decision graph
→ Reduction is $O(N \cdot \log(N))$ for N vertices

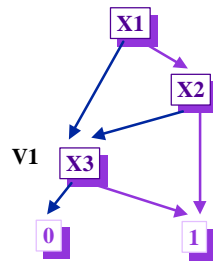


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Use of BDDs for Verification

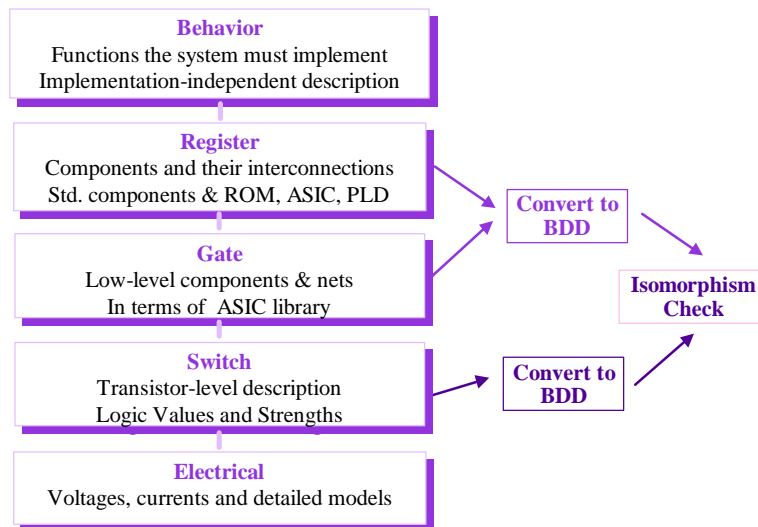
- Each vertex corresponds to a partial assignment of inputs.
→ V1: 0-, 10
- Result of reduction is a canonical form.



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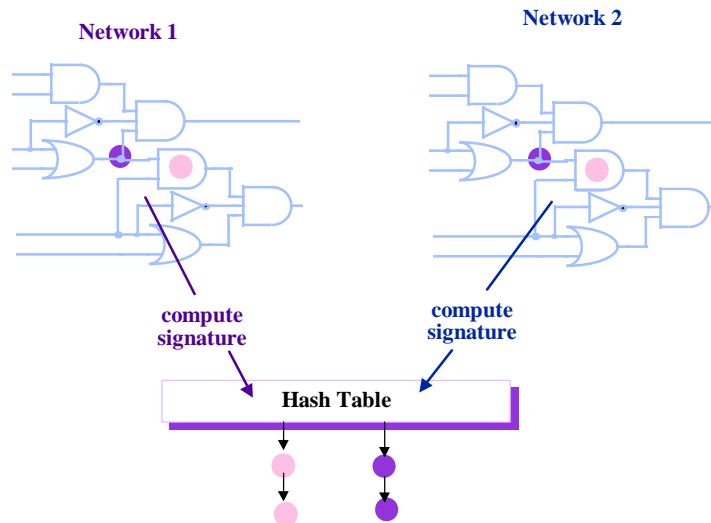
Combinational Verification Using Canonical Form



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Connectivity Verification



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Connectivity Verification

- (1) Read Network1 and Network2 into separate graph data structures (usually, node = transistor or gate, edge = connection).
- (2) Compute signatures for nodes or edges or both.
 - Type-specific: Gate type, #inputs, #outputs
 - Network-specific (local): Fanin types, #fanouts, fanout types
 - Network-specific (global): Distance from primary inputs, primary outputs, nodes that are known to be the same in each network (e.g. named, primary inputs or outputs ("seeds")).
- (3) Hash signatures from both networks into single hash table.
- (4) If a hash table cell has:
 - > 2 nodes: ignore for now
 - = 2 nodes: a match has been found
 - = 1 node: an (easy!) error has been found
- (5) Add links between networks for nodes that have been matched.
- (6) Recompute hash functions for un-bound nodes and repeat until done or no change.

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