

# Digital Design with Chisel

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These lecture notes, which shall become a book, are an introduction into digital design with the focus on using the hardware construction language [Chisel](#). The approach of this book is to present small to medium sized typical hardware components to explore hardware design with Chisel. We will walk through these examples in detail.



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# 1 Introduction

This book is an introduction to digital system design using a modern hardware construction language, [Chisel](#) [?]. In this book, we focus on a higher abstraction level than usual in digital design, to enable to build more complex, interacting digital systems in a shorter time.

This book and Chisel is targeting two groups of developers: (1) hardware designers fluid in VHDL or Verilog using other languages such as Python, Java, or TCL/TK to generate hardware to move to a single hardware construction language where hardware generation is part of the language and (2) software programmers who are becoming interested in hardware design, e.g., as future chips from Intel will include programmable hardware to speed up programs.

*TODO: Why Chisel*

Hardware is now commonly described with a hardware description language. The time of drawing hardware components, even with CAD tools, is definitely over. Some high-level schematics can give an overview of the system but are not intended to describe the system.

The two most common hardware description languages are Verilog and VHDL. Both languages are old, contain a lot of legacies, and have a moving line of what constructions of the language are synthesizable to hardware. Do not get me wrong: VHDL and Verilog are perfectly able to describe a hardware block that can be synthesized in an [ASIC](#). For hardware design in Chisel, Verilog serves as an intermediate language for testing and synthesis.

This book is not a general introduction to hardware design and the fundamentals of it. For an introduction of basics, such as how to build a gate out of CMOS transistors, refer to other digital design books. However, the intention of this book is to teach digital design at an abstraction level that is current practice to describe ASICs or designs targeting [FPGAs](#).<sup>1</sup> As prerequisites for this book we assume basic knowledge of [Boolean algebra](#) and the [binary number system](#). Furthermore, some programming experience in any programming language is assumed. No knowledge of Verilog or VHDL is needed. Chisel can be and shall be, your first programming language to describe digital hard-

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<sup>1</sup>As the author is more familiar with FPGAs than ASICs as target technology, some design optimizations shown in this book are targeting FPGA technology.

ware. As the build process in the examples is based on `sbt` and make basic knowledge of the command line interface (CLI, also called terminal or Unix shell) will be helpful.

*TODO: Think about: Chisel is not a large (big?) language, but this is good for hardware description. The basic constructs can be learned/fit on a page.... The power of the Chisel ecosystem comes from being embedded in Scala when programming hardware generators. Check also Rust book for structure, but better the Scala book.*

Chisel itself is not a big language, as it shall be for hardware design. Therefore, this book is not a big book as well. Chisel is for sure smaller than VHDL and Verilog, which carry a lot of legacies. The power of Chisel comes from the embedding of Chisel within [Scala](#), which is itself an expressive language. However, Scala is not the topic of this book. We provide a short section on Scala for hardware designers, but a general introduction to Scala is better served by the textbook by Odersky et al. [?].

This book is a tutorial in digital design and the Chisel language, it is not a Chisel language reference nor is it a book on complete chip design.

All code examples shown in this book are extracted from complete programs that have been compiled and tested. Therefore, the code shall not contain any syntax errors. The code examples are available from the [GitHub repository](#) of this book. Besides showing Chisel code, we have also tried to show useful designs and principles of good hardware description style.

This book is optimized for reading on a laptop or on a tablet (e.g., an iPad). We include links to further reading in the running text, mostly to [Wikipedia](#) articles.

## 1.1 Installing Chisel and FPGA Tools

Chisel is a Scala library and the easiest way to install Chisel and Scala is with `sbt`, the Scala build tool.

On Mac OS X, with the packet manager [Homebrew](#), `sbt` is installed with:

```
$ brew install sbt
```

For Ubuntu, which is based on Debian, software is usually installed from a Debian file (.deb). However, as of the time of this writing `sbt` is not available as a ready to install package. Therefore, the installation process is a little bit more involved:

```
echo "deb https://dl.bintray.com/sbt/debian /" | \
  sudo tee -a /etc/apt/sources.list.d/sbt.list
sudo apt-key adv --keyserver hkp://keyserver.ubuntu.com:80 \
  --recv 2EE0EA64E40A89B84B2DF73499E82A75642AC823
sudo apt-get update
```



```
sudo apt-get install sbt
```

Chisel and Scala can also be installed and used under Windows. For instructions see: [Installing sbt on Windows](#). *TODO: Test Windows version*

To build hardware for an FPGA you need a synthesize tool. The two major FPGA vendors, Intel<sup>2</sup> and Xilinx, provide free versions of their tools that cover small to medium sized FPGAs. Those medium sized FPGAs are large enough to build multicore RISC style processors. Intel provides the [Quartus Prime Lite Edition](#) and Xilinx the [Vivado Design Suite, WebPACK Edition](#).

## 1.2 Hello World

Each book on a programming language shall start with a minimal example, called the *Hello World* example. Following code is a first approach:

```
object HelloScala extends App{  
  println("Hello Chisel World!")  
}
```

Compiling and executing this short program with sbt

```
$ sbt "runMain HelloScala"
```

leads to the expected output of a Hello World program:

```
[info] Running HelloScala  
Hello Chisel World!
```

However, is this Chisel? Is this hardware generated to print a string? No, this is actually plain Scala code and not a representative Hello World program for a hardware design.

## 1.3 Chisel Hello World

What is then the equivalent of a Hello World program for a hardware design? The minimal useful and visible design? A blinking LED is the hardware (or even embedded software) version of Hello World. If a LED blinks, we are ready to solve bigger problems!

---

<sup>2</sup>former Altera

```
class Hello extends Module {  
  val io = IO(new Bundle {  
    val led = Output(UInt(1.W))  
  })  
  val CNT_MAX = (500000000 / 2 - 1).U;  
  
  val cntReg = RegInit(0.U(32.W))  
  val blkReg = RegInit(0.U(1.W))  
  
  cntReg := cntReg + 1.U  
  when(cntReg == CNT_MAX) {  
    cntReg := 0.U  
    blkReg := ~blkReg  
  }  
  io.led := blkReg  
}
```

Figure 1.1: A hardware Hello World in Chisel

Figure 1.1 shows a blinking LED, described in Chisel. It is not important that you understand the details of this code example. We will cover those in the following chapters. Just note that the circuit is usually clocked with a high frequency, e.g., 50 MHz, and we need a counter to derive timing in the Hz range to achieve a visible blinking. In the above example we count from 0 up to 250000000-1 and then toggle the blinking signal (`blkReg := ~blkReg`) and restart the counter (`cntReg := 0.U`). That hardware then blinks the LED at 1 Hz.

## 1.4 An IDE for Chisel

This book makes no assumptions about your programming environment or editor to use. Learning of the basics should be easy with just using `sbt` at the command line and an editor of your choice. In the tradition of other books, all commands that you shall type in a shell/terminal/CLI are preceded by a `$` character, which you shall not type in. As example here the Unix `ls` command, which lists files of the current folder:

```
$ ls
```

That said, an integrated development environment (IDE) with a compiler running in

the background can speedup coding. As Chisel is basically a Scala library, all IDEs that support Scala are also good IDEs for Chisel. It is possible in [Eclipse](#) and [IntelliJ](#) to generate a project from the sbt project configuration in `build.sbt`. You can create an Eclipse project via

```
$ sbt eclipse
```

and import that project in Eclipse. In IntelliJ you can create a new project from existing sources and then select from `build.sbt`.

## 1.5 Source Access

This book is open source and hosted at GitHub: [chisel-book](#). Small Chisel code snippets are included in the repository of the book. Larger examples are collected in the accompanying repository [chisel-examples](#). If you find an error or typo in the book, a GitHub pull request is the most convenient way to incorporate your improvement.

## 1.6 Further Reading

Here a list of further reading for digital design and Chisel:

- [Digital Design: A Systems Approach](#), by William J. Dally and R. Curtis Harting, is a modern textbook on digital design.

The official Chisel documentation and further documents are available online:

- [Chisel](#) home page, the official starting point to download and learn Chisel.
- The [Chisel Tutorial](#) provides a ready setup project containing small exercises with testers and solutions.
- The [Chisel Wiki](#) contains a short users guide to Chisel and links to further information.
- The [Chisel Testers](#) are in their own repository that contains a Wiki documentation.
- The [Generator Bootcamp](#) is a Chisel course focusing on hardware generators, as a Jupyter notebook
- A [Chisel Style Guide](#) by Christopher Celio.

## 1.7 Exercises

Each chapter ends with hands-on exercises. For the introduction exercise we will use an FPGA board to get one LED blinking. As a first step clone (or fork) the [chisel-examples](https://github.com/schoeberl/chisel-examples) repository from GitHub. The Hello World example is in its own folder `hello-world`, setup as a minimal project. You can explore the Chisel code of the blinking LED in `Hello.scala`. Compile the blinking LED with following steps:

```
$ git clone https://github.com/schoeberl/chisel-examples.git
$ cd chisel-examples/hello-world/
$ make
```

After some initial downloading of Chisel components, this will produce the Verilog file `Hello.v`. Explore this Verilog file. You will see that it contains two inputs `clock` and `reset` and one output `io_led`. When you compare this Verilog file with the Chisel module you will notice that the Chisel module does not contain `clock` or `reset`. Those signals are implicitly generated and in most designs it is convenient to not need to deal with these low-level details. Chisel provides register components and those are connected automatically to `clock` and `reset` (if needed).

We also provide an additional Verilog top level in `verilog/hello_top.v`, which can be used to avoid connecting a reset signal (as FPGA registers usually are set to 0 on FPGA configuration).

The next step is to setup an FPGA project file for the synthesizer tool, assign the pins, and compile<sup>3</sup> the Verilog code, and configure the FPGA with the resulting bitfile. We cannot provide the details of these steps. Please consult the manual of your Intel Quartus or Xilinx Vivado tool. However, the examples repository contains some ready to use Quartus projects in folder `quartus` for several popular FPGA boards (e.g., DE2-115). If it happens that the repository contains support for your board, start Quartus, open the project, compile it by pressing the *Play* button, and configure the FPGA board with the *Programmer* button and one of the LEDs should blink.

**Gratulation! You managed to get your first design in Chisel running in an FPGA!**

Now change the blinking frequency to a slower or a faster value and rerun the build process. Blinking frequencies and also blinking patterns communicate different “emotions”. E.g., a slow blinking LED signals that everything is ok, a fast blinking LED signals an alarm state. Explore which frequencies express best those two different emo-

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<sup>3</sup>The real process is more elaborated with following steps: synthesizing the logic, performing place and route, performing timing analysis, and generating a bitfile. However, for the purpose of this introduction example we simply call it “compile” your code.

tions.

As a more challenging extension to the exercise, generate following blinking pattern: the LED shall be on for 200 ms every second. For this pattern, you might decouple the change of the LED blinking from the counter reset. You will need a second constant where you change the state of the `blkReg` register. What kind of emotion does this pattern produce? Is it alarming or more like a sign of live signal?



## 2 Basic Circuits

In this section we introduce the basic components for digital design, combinational circuits and flip-flops. These essential elements can be combined to build larger, more interesting circuits.

### 2.1 Signal Types and Constants

Chisel provides three data types to describe signals, combinational logic, and registers: `Bits`, `UInt`, and `SInt`. `UInt` and `SInt` extend `Bits` and all three types represent a vector of bits. `UInt` gives this vector of bits the meaning of an unsigned integer and `SInt` of a signed integer.<sup>1</sup> Chisel uses [two's complement](#) as signed integer representation. Here is the definition of the different types, an 8-bit `Bits`, 8-bit unsigned integer, and an 10-bit signed integer:

```
Bits(8.W)
UInt(8.W)
SInt(10.W)
```

The width of a vector of bits is defined by a Chisel width type (`Width`). The following expression casts the Scala integer `n` to a Chisel width, which is used for the definition of the `Bits` vector:

```
n.W
Bits(n.W)
```

Constants can be defined by using a Scala integer and converting it to a Chisel type:

```
0.U // defines a UInt constant of 0
-3.S // defines a SInt constant of -3
```

Constants can also be defined with a width, by using the Chisel width type:

---

<sup>1</sup>The type `Bits` in the current version of Chisel is missing operations and therefore not very useful for user code.

```
8.U(4.W) // An 4-bit constant of 8
```

When you find the notion of 8.U and 4.W a little bit funny, consider it as a variant of an integer constant with a type. This notation is similar to 8L, representing a long integer constant in C, Java, and Scala.

Chisel benefits from Scala's type inference and in many places type information can be left out. The same is also valid for bit widths. In many cases, Chisel will automatically infer the correct width. Therefore, a Chisel description of hardware is more concise and better readable than VHDL or Verilog.

For constants defined in other bases than decimal, the constant is defined in a string with a preceding h for hexadecimal (base 16), o for octal (base 8), and b for binary (base 2). The following example shows the definition of constant 255 in different bases. In this example we omit the bit width and Chisel infers the minimum width to fit the constants in, in this case 8 bits.

```
"hff".U           // hexadecimal representation of 255
"o377".U          // octal representation of 255
"b1111_1111".U    // binary representation of 255
```

The above code also shows how to use an underscore to group digits in the string that represents a constant. The underscore is simply ignored.

To represent logic values, Chisel defines the type Bool. Bool can represent a *true* or *false* value. the following code shows the definition of type Bool and the definition of Bool constants, by converting the Scala Boolean constants true and false to Chisel Bool constants.

```
Bool()
true.B
false.B
```

## 2.2 Combinational Circuits

Chisel uses [Boolean algebra](#) operators, as they are defined in C, Java, Scala, and probably several other programming languages, to described combinational circuits. Following line of code defines a circuit that combines signals a and b with *and* gates and combines the result with signal c with *or* gates.

```
val logic = a & b | c
```



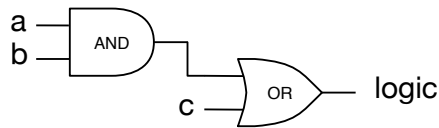


Figure 2.1: Logic for the expression  $a \& b \mid c$ . The wires can be single bit or multiple bits. The Chisel expression, and the schematics, are the same.

Figure 2.1 shows the schematic of this combinatorial expression. Note that this circuit may be for a vector of bits and not only single wires that are combined with the AND and OR circuits.

In this example we do not define the type nor the width of signal `logic`. Both are inferred from the type and width of the expression. The standard logic operations in Chisel are:

```

val and = a & b // bitwise and
val or  = a | b // bitwise or
val xor = a ^ b // bitwise xor
val not = ~a   // bitwise negation

```

The arithmetic operations use the standard operators:

```

val add = a + b // addition
val sub = a - b // subtraction
val neg = -a    // negate
val mul = a * b // multiplication
val div = a / b // division
val mod = a % b // modulo operation

```

The resulting width of the operation is the maximum width of the operators for addition and subtraction, the sum of the two widths for the multiplication, and usually the width of the numerator for divide and modulo operations.<sup>2</sup>

The full list of operators can be found at [builtin operators](#).

## 2.2.1 Multiplexer

A [multiplexer](#) is a circuit that selects between alternatives. In the most basic form it selects between two alternatives. Figure 2.2 shows such a 2:1 multiplexer, or mux for

<sup>2</sup>The exact details are available in the [FIRRTL specification](#).

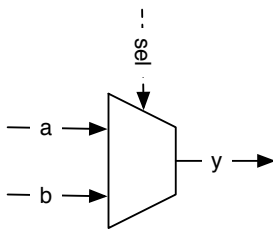


Figure 2.2: A basic 2:1 multiplexor.

short. Depending on the value of the select signal (`sel`) signal `y` will represent signal `a` or signal `b`.

A multiplexer can be simply built from logic. However, as multiplexing is such a common operation, Chisel provides a multiplexer,

```
val result = Mux(sel, a, b)
```

where `a` is selected when the `sel` is `true`. Otherwise, `b` is selected. The type of `sel` is a Chisel `Bool`; the inputs `a` and `b` can be any Chisel base type or aggregate (bundles or vectors) as long as they are the same type.

With logical and arithmetical operations and a multiplexer, every combinational circuit can be described. However, Chisel provides further components and control abstractions for a more elegant description of a combinational circuit, which are described in a later chapter.

The second basic component needed to describe a digital circuit is a state element, also called register, which is described next.

## 2.3 Register for State

Chisel provides a register, which is a collection of [D flip-flops](#). The register is implicitly connected to a global clock and is updated on the rising edge. When an initialization value is provided at the declaration of the register, it uses a synchronous reset connected to a global reset signal. A register can be any Chisel type that can be represented as a collection of bits. Following code defines an 8-bit register, initialized with 0 at reset:

```
val reg = RegInit(0.U(8.W))
```

An input is connected to the register with the `:=` update operator and the output of the

register can be used just with the name in an expression:

```
reg := d
val q = reg
```

A register can also be connected to its input at the definition:

```
val regNxt = RegNext(d)
```

A register can also be connected to its input and a constant as initial value at the definition:

```
val regBoth = RegNext(d, 0.U)
```

To distinguish from signals representing combinational logic and registers, a common practice is to prefix register names with `reg`. Another common practice, coming from Java and Scala, is to use `camelCase` for identifier consisting of several words. The convention is to start functions and variables with a lower case and classes (types) with an upper case.

### 2.3.1 Counting

Counting is a very basic operation in digital systems. One might count events. However, more often counting is used to define a time interval. Counting the clock cycles and triggering an action when the time interval has expired.

A simple approach is counting up to a value. However, in computer science, and in digital design, counting starts at 0. Therefore, if we want to count till 10 we count from 0 to 9. The following code shows such a counter that counts till 9 and wraps around to 0 when reaching 9.

If we want to count  $N$ , we start with 0 and count till  $N-1$ .

```
val cntReg = RegInit(0.U(8.W))

cntReg := Mux(cntReg === 100.U, 0.U, cntReg + 1.U)
```

## 2.4 Exercises

In the introduction you implemented a blinking LED on an FPGA board (from [chisel-examples](#)), which is a reasonable hardware *Hello World* example. It used only internal

state, a single LED output, and no input. Copy that project into a new folder and extend it by adding some inputs to the `io Bundle` with `val sw = Input(UInt(2.W))`.

```
val io = IO(new Bundle {  
    val sw = Input(UInt(2.W))  
    val led = Output(UInt(1.W))  
})
```

For those switches, you also need to assign the PIN names for the FPGA board. You can find examples of pin assignments in the Quartus project files of the ALU project (e.g., for the [DE2-115 FPGA board](#)).

When you have defined those inputs and the pin assignment, start with a simple test: drop all blinking logic from the design and connect one switch to the LED output; compile and configure the FPGA device. Can you switch the LED on an off with the switch? If yes, you have now inputs available. If not, you need to debug your FPGA configuration. This can also be done with the GUI version of the tool.

Now use two switches and implement one of the basic combinational functions, e.g., AND two switches and show the result on the LED. Change the function. The next step involves three input switches to implement a multiplexer: one acts as select signal and the other two are the two inputs for the 2:1 multiplexer.

Now you have been able to implement simple combinational functions and test them in real hardware in an FPGA. As a next step, we will take a first look at how the build process works to generate an FPGA configuration. Furthermore, we will also explore a simple testing framework from Chisel, which allows you to test circuits without configuring an FPGA and toggle switches.

## 3 Build Process and Testing

To get started with more interesting Chisel code we first need to learn how to compile Chisel programs, how to generate Verilog code for execution in an FPGA, and how to write tests for debugging and to verify that our circuits are correct.

Chisel is written in Scala, so any build process that supports Scala is possible with a Chisel project. One popular build tool for Scala is [sbt](#), which stands for Scala interactive build tool. Besides driving the build and test process, `sbt` also downloads the correct version of Scala and the Chisel libraries.

### 3.1 Building your Project with `sbt`

The Scala library that represents Chisel and the Chisel testers are automatically downloaded during the build process from a Maven repository. The libraries are referenced by `build.sbt`. It is possible to configure `build.sbt` with `latest.release` to always use the most actual version of Chisel. However, this means on each build the version is looked up from the Maven repository. This lookup needs an Internet connection for the build to succeed. Better use a dedicated version of Chisel and all other Scala libraries in your `build.sbt`. Maybe sometimes it is also good to be able to write hardware code and test it without an Internet connection. For example, it is cool to do hardware design on a plane.

#### 3.1.1 Source Organization

`sbt` inherits the source convention from the [Maven](#) build automation tool. Maven also organizes repositories of open-source Java libraries.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 3.1 shows the organization of the source tree of a typical Chisel project. The root of the project is the project home, which contains `build.sbt`. Optional also a `Makefile` for the build process, a `README`, and a `LICENSE` file. Folder `src` contains all source code. From there it is split between `main`, containing the hardware sources

---

<sup>1</sup>That is also the place where you downloaded the Chisel library on your first build: <https://mvnrepository.com/artifact/edu.berkeley.cs/chisel3>.

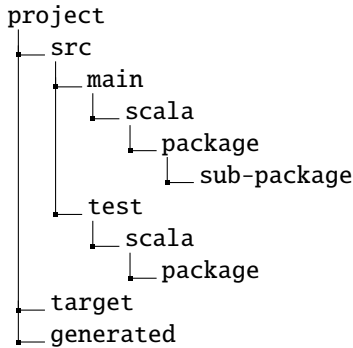


Figure 3.1: Source tree of a Chisel project (using sbt)

and test containing testers. Chisel inherits from Scala, which inherits from Java the organization of source in [packages](#). Packages organize your Chisel code into namespaces. Packages can also contain sub-packages. The folder `target` contains the class files and other generated files. I recommend to also use a folder for generated Verilog files, which is usually called `generated`.

To use the facility of namespaces in Chisel, you need to declare that a class/module is defined in a package, in this example in `mypack`:

```
package mypack

import chisel3._

class Abc extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle{})
}
```

Note that in this example we see the import of the `chisel3` packet to use Chisel classes.

To use the module `Abc` in a different context (package name space), the components of packet `mypack` need to be imported. The underscore (`_`) acts as wildcard, meaning that all classes of `mypack` are imported.

```
import mypack._

class AbcUser extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle{})
}
```

```
    val abc = new Abc()
}
```

It is also possible to not import all types from mypacket, but use the fully qualified name mypack.Abc to refer to the module Abc in packet mypack.

```
class AbcUser2 extends Module {
    val io = IO(new Bundle{})

    val abc = new mypack.Abc()
}
```

It is also possible to import just a single class and create an instance of it:

```
import mypack.Abc

class AbcUser3 extends Module {
    val io = IO(new Bundle{})

    val abc = new Abc()
}
```

### 3.1.2 Running sbt

A Chisel project can be compiled and executed with a simple sbt command:

```
$ sbt run
```

This command will compile all your Chisel code from the source tree and searches for classes that contain an object that contains a main method, or simpler that extends App. If there is more than one such object, all objects are listed and can be selected. You can also directly specify the object that shall be executed as parameter to sbt:

```
$ sbt "runMain mypacket.MyObject"
```

Per default sbt searches only the main part of the source tree and not the test part.<sup>2</sup> However, Chisel testers, as described here, contain a main, but shall be placed in the test part of the source tree. To execute a main in the tester tree use following sbt command:

---

<sup>2</sup>This is a convention from Java/Scala that the test folder contains unit tests and not objects with a main.

```
$ sbt "test:runMain mypacket.MyTester"
```

Now that we know the basic structure of a Chisel project and how to compile and run it with sbt, we can continue with a simple testing framework.

## 3.2 Testing with Chisel

Tests of hardware designs are usually called **test benches**. The test bench instantiates the design under test (DUT), drives input ports, observes output ports, and compares them with expected values.

Chisel provides test benches in the form of a `PeekPokeTester`. One strength of Chisel is that it can use the full power of Scala to write those test benches. One can, for example, code the expected functionality of the hardware in a software simulator and compare the simulation of the hardware with the software simulation. This method is very efficient when testing an implementation of a processor [?].

To use the `PeekPokeTester` following packages need to be imported:

```
import chisel3._
import chisel3.iotesters._
```

Testing a circuit contains (at least) three components: (1) the device under test (often simply called DUT), (2) the testing logic, also called test bench, and (3) the tester objects that contains the main function to start the testing.

The following code shows our simple design under test. It contains to input ports and one output port, all with a 2-bit width. The circuit does a bit-wise AND to it returns on the output:

```
class DeviceUnderTest extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val a = Input(UInt(2.W))
    val b = Input(UInt(2.W))
    val out = Output(UInt(2.W))
  })

  io.out := io.a & io.b
}
```

The test bench for this DUT extends `PeekPokeTester` and has the DUT as parameter for the constructor:



```

class TesterSimple(dut: DeviceUnderTest) extends
  PeekPokeTester(dut) {

  poke(dut.io.a, 0.U)
  poke(dut.io.b, 1.U)
  step(1)
  println("Result is: " + peek(dut.io.out).toString)
  poke(dut.io.a, 3.U)
  poke(dut.io.b, 2.U)
  step(1)
  println("Result is: " + peek(dut.io.out).toString)
}

```

A PeekPokeTester can set input values with `poke()` and read back output values with `peek()`. The simulation is advanced with one step (= one clock cycle) with `step(1)`. We can print the values of the outputs with `println()`.

The test is created and run with following tester main:

```

object TesterSimple extends App {
  chisel3.iotesters.Driver(() => new DeviceUnderTest()) { c =>
    new TesterSimple(c)
  }
}

```

When you run the test, you will see the results printed to the terminal (besides other information):

```

[info] [0.004] SEED 1544207645120
[info] [0.008] Result is: 0
[info] [0.009] Result is: 2
test DeviceUnderTest Success: 0 tests passed in 7 cycles
taking 0.021820 seconds
[info] [0.010] RAN 2 CYCLES PASSED

```

We see that 0 AND 1 results in 0; 3 AND 2 results in 2. Besides manually inspecting printouts, which is a fine starting point, we can also express our expectations in the test bench itself with `expect()`, having the output port and the expected value as parameters. The following example shows testing with `expect()`:

```

class Tester(dut: DeviceUnderTest) extends PeekPokeTester(dut) {

  poke(dut.io.a, 3.U)

```

```
poke(dut.io.b, 1.U)
step(1)
expect(dut.io.out, 1)
poke(dut.io.a, 2.U)
poke(dut.io.b, 0.U)
step(1)
expect(dut.io.out, 0)
}
```

Executing this test does not print out any values from the hardware, but that all tests passed as all expect values are correct.

```
[info] [0.001] SEED 1544208437832
test DeviceUnderTest Success: 2 tests passed in 7 cycles
taking 0.018000 seconds
[info] [0.009] RAN 2 CYCLES PASSED
```

A failed test, when either the DUT or the test bench contain an error, produces an error message describing the difference between the expected and actual value. In the following we changed the test bench to expect a 4, which is an error:

```
[info] [0.002] SEED 1544208642263
[info] [0.011] EXPECT AT 2   io_out got 0 expected 4 FAIL
test DeviceUnderTest Success: 1 tests passed in 7 cycles
taking 0.022101 seconds
[info] [0.012] RAN 2 CYCLES FAILED FIRST AT CYCLE 2
```

In this section we described the basic testing facility with Chisel for simple tests. However, in Chisel the full power of Scala is available to write testers. We will show these possibilities later.

### 3.2.1 ScalaTest

[ScalaTest](#) is a testing tool for Scala (and Java), which we can use to run Chisel testers. To use it, include the library in your build.sbt with following line:

```
libraryDependencies += "org.scalatest" %% "scalatest" % "3.0.5" % "test"
```

Tests are usually found in src/test/scala and can be run with:

```
$ sbt test
```

A minimal test (a testing hello world) to just test a Scala Integer addition:

```
import org.scalatest._

class ExampleSpec extends FlatSpec with Matchers {

  "Integers" should "add" in {
    val i = 2
    val j = 3
    i + j should be (5)
  }
}
```

Although Chisel testing is more heavyweight than unit testing of Scala programs, we can wrap a Chisel test into a ScalaTest class. For the Tester shown before this is:

```
class SimpleSpec extends FlatSpec with Matchers {

  "Tester" should "pass" in {
    chisel3.iotesters.Driver(() => new DeviceUnderTest()) { c =>
      new Tester(c)
    } should be (true)
  }
}
```

The main benefit of this exercise is to be able to run all tests with a simple `sbt test` (instead of a running main). You can run just a single test with `sbt`, as follows:

```
$ sbt "testOnly SimpleSpec"
```

## 3.3 Exercises

For this exercise we will revisit the blinking LED from [chisel-examples](#) and explore the ALU example.

### 3.3.1 A Minimal Project

First, let us find out what a minimal Chisel project is. Explore the files in the [Hello World](#) example. The `Hello.scala` is the single hardware source file. It contains the hardware description of the blinking LED (class `Hello`) and an App that generates the Verilog code.

Each file starts with the import of Chisel and related packages:

```
import chisel3._
```

Then follows the hardware description, as shown in Figure 1.1. To generate the Verilog description we need an application. A Scala object that extends `APP` is an application that implicitly generates a main function where the application starts. The only action of this application is to create a new `HelloWorld` object and pass it to the Chisel driver `execute` function. The first argument is an array of Strings, where build options can be set (e.g., the output folder). The following code will generate the Verilog file `HelloWorld.v`.

```
object Hello extends App {  
  chisel3.Driver.execute(Array[String]() , () => new Hello())  
}
```

Run the generation of the example manually with

```
$ sbt "runMain Hello"
```

and explore the generated `Hello.v` with an editor. The generated Verilog code may not be very readable, but we can find out some details. The file starts with a module `Hello`, which is the same name as our Chisel module. We can identify our LED port as output `io_led`. Pin names are the Chisel names with a prepended `io_`. Besides our LED pin, the module also contains `clock` and `reset` input signals. Those two signals are added automatically by Chisel. Furthermore, we can identify our two register `cntReg` and `blkReg` definitions. We may also find the reset and update of those registers at the end of the module definition. Note, that Chisel generates a synchronous reset.

For `sbt` to be able to fetch the correct Scala compiler and the Chisel library we need a `build.sbt`:

```
scalaVersion := "2.11.7"  
  
resolvers ++= Seq(  
  Resolver.sonatypeRepo("snapshots"),  
  Resolver.sonatypeRepo("releases")  
)  
  
libraryDependencies += "edu.berkeley.cs" %% "chisel3" % "3.1.2"
```

Note that in this example we have a concrete Chisel version number to avoid checking on each run for a new version (which will fail if we are not connected to the Internet).

Change the `build.sbt` configuration to use the latest Chisel version by changing the library dependency to

```
libraryDependencies += "edu.berkeley.cs" %% "chisel3" %  
    "latest.release"
```

and rerun the build with `sbt`. Is there a newer version of Chisel available and will it be automatically downloaded?

For convenience, the project also contains a `Makefile`. It just contains the `sbt` command, so we do not need to remember it and can simply generate the Verilog code with:

```
make
```

The project also contains a [Verilog top level](#), which wires the reset signal to 0. This works for our example in an FPGA, as registers usually power up 0. Besides a `README` file, the example project also contains project files for different FPGA board. E.g., in [quartus/altde2-115](#) you can find the two project files to define a Quartus project for the DE2-115 board. The main definitions (source files, device, pin assignments) can be found in a plain text file [hello.qsf](#). Explore the file and find out which pins are connected to which signals. If you need to adapt the project to a different board, there is where the changes are applied. If you have Quartus installed, open that project, compile with the green *Play* button, and then configure the FPGA.

Note that the *Hello World* is the very minimal Chisel project. More realistic projects have their source files organized and contain testers. The next exercise will explore such a project.

### 3.3.2 A Testing Exercise

In the last chapter's exercise you have extended the blinking LED example with some input to build an AND gate and a multiplexer and run this hardware in an FPGA. We will now use this example and test the functionality with a Chisel tester to automate testing and also to be independent from an FPGA. Use your designs from the prior chapter and add a Chisel tester to test the functionality. Try to enumerate all possible inputs and test the output with `except()`.

Testing within Chisel can really speedup the debugging of your design. However, it is always a good idea to synthesize your design for an FPGA and run tests with the FPGA. There you can perform a reality check on the size of your design (usually in LUTs and flip-flops) and your performance of your design in maximum clocking frequency. As a reference point, a decent pipelined RISC processor may consume about 300 4-bit LUTs and may run around 100 MHz in a low-cost FPGA (Intel Cyclone or Xilinx Spartan).

*TODO: Do we need more details here?*

### **3.3.3 A More Complete Project**

For this exercise we will use the ALU example from [chisel-examples](#).

*TODO: This example uses already quite some Scala and the switch statement. We should probably postpone this for later.*

## 4 Components

A larger digital design is structured into a set of components, often in a hierarchical way. Each component has an interface with input and output wires, usually called ports. These are similar to input and output pins in an IC. Components are connected by wiring up the inputs and outputs. Components may contain subcomponents to build the hierarchy.

Figure 4.1 shows an example design. Component C has two input ports and two output ports. The component itself is assembled out of two subcomponents: B and C, which are connected to the inputs and outputs of C. One output of A is connected to an input of B. Component D is at the same hierarchy level as component C and connected to it.

The outermost component, which is connected to physical pins in a chip, is called the top-level component.

In this chapter we will explain how components are described in Chisel and provide several examples of standard components. Those standard components serve two purposes: (1) they provide examples of Chisel code and (2) they provide a library of components ready to be reused in your design.

### 4.1 Components in Chisel are Modules

Hardware components are called modules in Chisel. Each module extends the class `Module` and contains a field `io` for the interface. The interface is defined by a `Bundle` that is wrapped into a call to `IO()`. The `Bundle` contains fields to represent input and output ports of the module. The direction is given by wrapping a field into either a call to `Input()` or `Output()`. The direction is from the view of the component itself.

The following code shows the definition of the two example components A and B from Figure 4.1:

```
class CompA extends Module {  
  val io = IO(new Bundle {  
    val a = Input(UInt(8.W))  
    val b = Input(UInt(8.W))  
    val x = Output(UInt(8.W))  
  })  
}
```

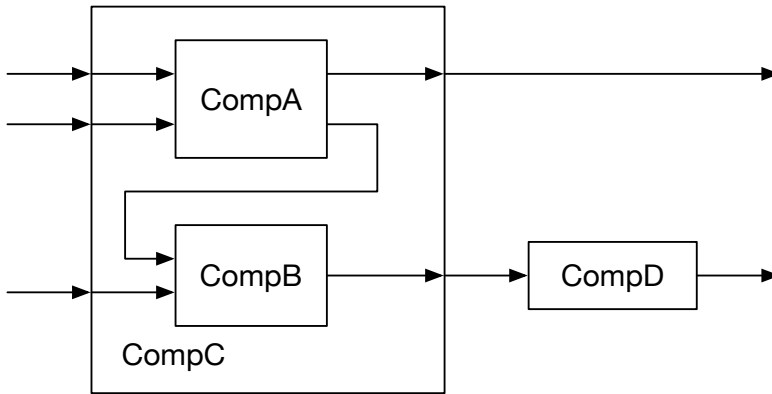


Figure 4.1: A design built of a hierarchy of components.

```
    val y = Output(UInt(8.W))
  })

  // function of A
}

class CompB extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val in1 = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val in2 = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val out = Output(UInt(8.W))
  })

  // function of B
}
```

Component A has two inputs, named a and b, and two outputs, named x and y. For the ports of component B we chose the names in1, in2, and out. All ports use an unsigned integer (UInt) with a bit width of 8. As this example code is about connecting components and building a hierarchy, we do not show any implementation within the components. The implementation of the component is written at the place where the comments states “function of X”. As we have no function associated with those example components, we used generic port names. For a real design use descriptive port names, such as data, valid, or ready.



Component C has three input and two output ports. It is built out of components A and B. We show how A and B are connected to the ports of C and also the connection between an output port of A and an input port of B:

```
class CompC extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val in_a = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val in_b = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val in_c = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val out_x = Output(UInt(8.W))
    val out_y = Output(UInt(8.W))
  })

  // create components A and B
  val compA = Module(new CompA())
  val compB = Module(new CompB())

  // connect A
  compA.io.a := io.in_a
  compA.io.b := io.in_b
  io.out_x := compA.io.x
  // connect B
  compB.io.in1 := compA.io.y
  compB.io.in2 := io.in_c
  io.out_y := compB.io.out
}
```

Components are created with `new`, e.g., `new CompA()`, and need to be wrapped into a call to `Module()`. The reference to that module is stored in a local variable, in this example `val compA = Module(new CompA())`.

With this reference we can access the IO ports by dereferencing the `io` field of the module and the individual fields of the IO Bundle.

The simplest component in our design has just an input port, named `in`, and an output port, named `out`.

```
class CompD extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val in = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val out = Output(UInt(8.W))
  })

  // function of D
}
```

```
}
```

The final missing piece of our example design is the top-level component, which itself is assembled out of components C and D:

```
class TopLevel extends Module {  
  val io = IO(new Bundle {  
    val in_a = Input(UInt(8.W))  
    val in_b = Input(UInt(8.W))  
    val in_c = Input(UInt(8.W))  
    val out_m = Output(UInt(8.W))  
    val out_n = Output(UInt(8.W))  
  })  
  
  // create C and D  
  val c = Module(new CompC())  
  val d = Module(new CompD())  
  
  // connect C  
  c.io.in_a := io.in_a  
  c.io.in_b := io.in_b  
  c.io.in_c := io.in_c  
  io.out_m := c.io.out_x  
  // connect D  
  d.io.in := c.io.out_y  
  io.out_n := d.io.out  
}
```

Good component design is similar to good design of functions or methods in software design. One of the main questions is how much functionality shall we put into a component and how large should a component be. The two extremes are very small components, such an adder, and very large components.

Beginners in hardware design often start with very tiny components. The problem is that design books use very small components to show the principles. But the sizes of the examples (in those books, and also in this book) is small to fit into a page and to not distract by too many details.

The interface to a component is a little bit verbose (with types, names, directions, IO construction). As a rule of thumb I would propose that the core of the component, the function, should be at least as long as the interface of the component.

For very small components, such as a counter, Chisel provides a more lightweight way to describe them as functions that return hardware.

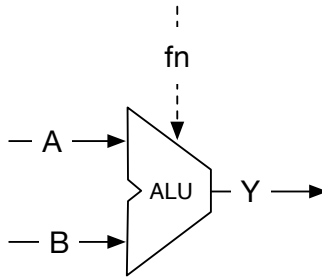


Figure 4.2: An arithmetic logic unit, or ALU for short.

## 4.2 An Arithmetic Logic Unit

One of the central components for circuits that compute, e.g., a microprocessor, is an **arithmetic-logic unit**, or ALU for short. Figure 4.2 shows the symbol of an ALU.

The ALU has two data inputs, labeled A and B in the figure, one function input *fn*, and an output, labeled Y. The ALU operates on A and B and provides the result at the output. The input *fn* selects the operation on A and B. The operations are usually some arithmetic, such as addition and subtraction, and some logical functions such as and, or, xor. That's why it is called ALU.

The operation is selected by the function input *fn*. The ALU is usually a combinational circuit without any state elements. An ALU might also have additional outputs to signal properties of the result, such as zero or the sign.

The following code shows an ALU with 16-bit inputs and outputs that supports: addition, subtraction, or, and and operation, selected by a 2-bit *fn* signal.

```
class Alu extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val a = Input(UInt(16.W))
    val b = Input(UInt(16.W))
    val fn = Input(UInt(2.W))
    val y = Output(UInt(16.W))
  })

  // some default value is needed
  io.y := 0.U

  // The ALU selection
  switch(io.fn) {
```

```
is(0.U) { io.y := io.a + io.b }
is(1.U) { io.y := io.a - io.b }
is(2.U) { io.y := io.a | io.b }
is(3.U) { io.y := io.a & io.b }
}
}
```

In this example we use a new Chisel construct, the `switch/is` construct to describe the table that selects the output of our ALU. To use this utility function we need to import another Chisel package:

```
import chisel3.util._
```

## 4.3 Lightweight Components with Functions

Modules are the general way to structure your hardware description. However, there is some boiler plate when declaring a module and when instantiating and connecting it. A lightweight way to structure your hardware is to use functions. Scala functions can take Chisel (and Scala) parameters and return generated hardware. As a simple example we generate an adder:

```
def adder(x: UInt, y: UInt) = {
  x + y
}
```

We can then create two adders by simply calling the function `adder`.

```
val x = adder(a, b)
// another adder
val y = adder(c, d)
```

Note that this is a *hardware generator*. You are not executing any add operation during elaboration, but create two adders (hardware instances). The adder example is artificial to be a simple example. Chisel has already an adder generation function, like `+(that: UInt)`.

Functions as lightweight hardware generators can also contain state (including a register). Following example returns a one clock cycle delay element (a register).

```
def delay(x: UInt) = {
  RegNext(x)
}
```

```
}
```

By calling the function with the function itself as parameter, this generated a two clock cycle delay.

```
val delOut = delay(delay(delIn))
```

Again, this is a too short example to be useful, as `RegNext()` already is that function creating the register for the delay.

Functions can be declared as part of a `Module`. However, functions that shall be used in different modules are better placed into a Scala object that just collects utility functions.



## 5 Combinational Building Blocks

In this chapter we explore various combinational circuits, basic building block that we can use to construct more complex systems. In principle all combinational circuits can be described with Boolean equations. However, more often a description in form of a table is more efficient. We let the synthesizer tool extract and minimize the Boolean equations. Two basic circuits, best described in a table form, are a decoder and an encoder.

### 5.1 Combinational Circuits

Before describing some standard combinational building blocks, we will explore how combinational circuits can be expressed in Chisel. The simplest form is a Boolean expression, which can be assigned a name:

```
val e = a & b | c
```

The Boolean expression is given a name (e) by assigning it to a Scala value. The expression can be reused in other expressions:

```
val f = ~e
```

Such an expression is considered fixed. A reassignment to e with = would result in a Scala compiler error: reassignment to val. A try with the Chisel operator :=, as shown below,

```
e := c & b
```

results in a runtime exception: Cannot reassign to read-only.

Chisel also supports describing combinational circuits with conditional updates. Such a circuit is declared as a `Wire` and uses conditional operations, such as `when` to describe the logic of the circuit. The following code declares a `Wire` w of type `UInt` and assigns a default value of 0. The `when` block takes a Chisel `Bool` and reassigns 3 to w if cond is `true.B`.

```
val w = Wire(UInt())

w := 0.U
when (cond) {
  w := 3.U
}
```

The logic of the circuit is a multiplexer, where the two inputs are the constants 0 and 3 and the condition `cond` the select signal. Keep in mind that we describe hardware circuits and not a software program with conditional execution.

The Chisel condition construct `when` has also a form of *else*, it is called `otherwise`. With assigning a value under any condition we can omit the default value assignment:

```
val w = Wire(UInt())

when (cond) {
  w := 1.U
} otherwise {
  w := 2.U
}
```

Chisel also supports a chain of conditionals (a if else if else chain) with `.elsewhen`:

```
val w = Wire(UInt())

when (cond) {
  w := 1.U
} .elsewhen (cond2) {
  w := 2.U
} otherwise {
  w := 3.U
}
```

Note the ‘.’ in `.elsewhen` that is needed to chain methods in Scala. Those `.elsewhen` branches can be arbitrary long. However, if the chain of conditions depends on a single signal, it is better to use the `switch` statement, which is introduced in the following subsection with a decoder circuit.

For more complex combinational circuits it might be practical to assign a default value to a `Wire`. This can be combined with the wire declaration with `WireDefault`.<sup>1</sup>

```
// TODO: change to WireDefault when 3.2 is out
```

---

<sup>1</sup>In the current version of Chisel it is called `WireInit`, but will change with the release of Chisel 3.2



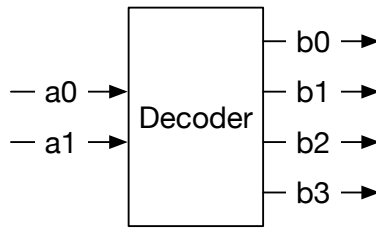


Figure 5.1: A 2-bit to 4-bit decoder.

a	b
00	0001
01	0010
10	0100
11	1000

Table 5.1: Truth table for a 2 to 4 decoder.

```

val w = WireInit(0.U)

when (cond) {
  w := 3.U
}
// ... and some more complex conditional assignments

```

One might question why using `when`, `.elsewhen`, and `otherwise` when Scala has `if`, `else if`, and `else`? Those statements are for conditional execution of Scala code, not generating Chisel (multiplexer) hardware. Those Scala conditionals have their use in Chisel when we write circuit generators, which take parameters to conditionally generate *different* hardware instances.

## 5.2 Decoder

A **decoder** converts a binary number of  $n$  bits to an  $m$ -bit signal, where  $m \leq 2^n$ . The output is one-hot encoded (where exactly one bit is one).

Figure 5.1 shows a 2-bit to 4-bit decoder. The function of the decoder can be described in a truth table, such as Table 5.2.

The representation of logic as a truth table can be directly described in Chisel with a switch based table. The switch statement is not part of the core Chisel language. Therefore, we need to include the elements of the package `chisel.util`.

```
import chisel3.util._
```

The following code introduces the switch statement of Chisel to describe a decoder:

```
result := 0.U

switch(sel) {
  is (0.U) { result := 1.U}
  is (1.U) { result := 2.U}
  is (2.U) { result := 4.U}
  is (3.U) { result := 8.U}
}
```

The above switch statement lists all possible values of the `sel` signal and assigns the decoded value to the `result` signal. Note that even if we enumerate all possible input values, Chisel still needs us to assign a default value, as we do by assigning 0 to `result`. This assignment will never be active and therefore optimized away by the backend tool. It is intended to avoid situations with incomplete assignments for combinational circuits (in Chisel a `Wire`) that will result in unintended latches in hardware description languages such as VHDL and Verilog. Chisel does not allow incomplete assignments.

In the example before we used unsigned integers for the signals. A maybe clearer representation of an encode circuit uses binary notation:

```
switch (sel) {
  is ("b00".U) { result := "b0001".U}
  is ("b01".U) { result := "b0010".U}
  is ("b10".U) { result := "b0100".U}
  is ("b11".U) { result := "b1000".U}
}
```

A table gives a very readable representation of the decoder function, but is also a little bit verbose. When examine the table, we see an regular structure: a 1 is shifted left by the number represented by `sel`. Therefore, we can express a decoder with the Chisel shift operation `<<`.

```
result := 1.U << sel
```

Decoders are used as a building block for a multiplexer by using the output as an

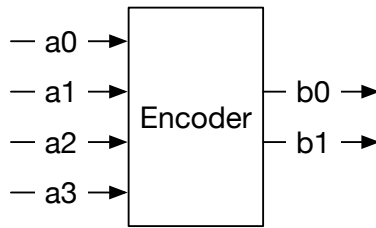


Figure 5.2: A 4-bit to 2-bit encoder.

a	b
0001	00
0010	01
0100	10
1000	11
????	??

Table 5.2: Truth table for a 4 to 2 encoder.

enable with an AND gate for the multiplexer data input. However, in Chisel we do not need to construct a multiplexer, as a Mux is available in the core library. Decoders can also be used for address decoding and then the outputs are used as select signals for e.g., different IO devices connected to a microprocessor.

## 5.3 Encoder

An **encoder** converts a one-hot encoded input signal into a binary encoded output signal. The encoder does the inverse operation of a decoder.

Figure 5.2 shows a 4-bit one-hot input to a 2-bit binary output encoder and Table 5.3 the truth table of the encode function. However, an encoder will only work as expected when the input signal is one-hot coded. For all other input values the output is undefined. As we cannot describe a function with undefined outputs we will use a default assignment that catches all undefined input patterns.

The following Chisel code assigns a default value of 00 and then uses the switch statement for the legal input values.

```
b := "b00".U
```

```
switch (a) {  
  is ("b0001".U) { b := "b00".U}  
  is ("b0010".U) { b := "b01".U}  
  is ("b0100".U) { b := "b10".U}  
  is ("b1000".U) { b := "b11".U}  
}
```

## 5.4 Exercise

Describe a combinational circuit to convert a 4-bit binary input to the encoding of a [7-segment display](#). You can either just define the codes for the decimal digits, which was the initial usage of a 7-segment display, or additionally define encodings for the remaining bit pattern to be able to display all 16 values of a single digit in [hexadecimal](#). When you have an FPGA board with a 7-segment display, connect 4 switches or buttons to the input of your circuit and the output to the 7-segment display.

## 6 Sequential Building Blocks

Sequential circuits are circuits where the output depends on the input *and* a previous value. As we are interested in synchronous design (clocked designs), we mean synchronous sequential circuits when we talk about sequential circuits.<sup>1</sup> To build sequential circuits we need elements that can store state: the so called registers.

### 6.1 Registers

The basic element to build sequential circuits are registers. A register is a collection of **D flip-flops**. A D flip-flop captures the value of its input at the rising edge of the clock and stores it at its output. Or in other words: the register updates its output with the value of the input on the rising edge of the clock.

Figure 6.1 shows the schematic symbol of a register. It contains an input D and an output Q. Each register also contains an input for a clock signal. As this global clock signal is connected to all registers in a synchronous circuit, it is usually not drawn in a schematic. The little triangle on the bottom of the box symbolizes the clock input and tells us that this is a register.

In Chisel a register with input d and output q is defined with:

```
val q = RegNext(d)
```

---

<sup>1</sup>We can also build sequential circuits with asynchronous logic and feedback, but this is a specific niche topic and cannot be expressed in Chisel.

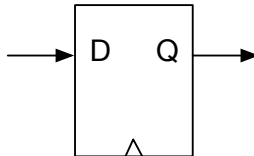


Figure 6.1: A D flip-flop based register.

Note that we do not need to connect a clock to the register, this is implicitly done by Chisel. A register's input and output can be arbitrary complex types made out of a combination of vectors and bundles.

A register can also be defined and used in two steps:

```
val regDelay = Reg(UInt(4.W))

regDelay := delayIn
```

First we define the register and give it a name, second we connect the signal `delayIn` to the input of the register. Note also the name of the register starting with `reg`. To easily distinguish elements between combinational circuits and sequential circuits it is common practice to prepend the marker `reg` to the name. Also note that names in Scala (and therefore also in Chisel) are usually in [CamelCase](#). Variable names start with lowercase and classes start with upper case.

A register can also be initialized on reset. The reset signal is, like the clock signal, implicit in Chisel. We supply the reset value, e.g., zero, as a parameter to the register constructor `RegInit`. The input for the register is connected with a Chisel assignment statement.

```
val regVal = RegInit(0.U(4.W))

regVal := inVal
```

The default implementation of reset in Chisel is a synchronous reset.<sup>2</sup> For a synchronous reset no change is needed on a D flip-flop, just a multiplexer needs to be added to the input that selects between the initialization value under reset and the data values.

Figure 6.2 shows the schematics of a register with a synchronous reset where the reset drives the multiplexer. However, as synchronous reset is used quite often modern FPGAs flip-flops contain a synchronous reset (and set) input to not waste LUT resources for the multiplexer.

Sequential circuits change their value over time. Therefore, their behavior can be described by a diagram showing the signals over time. Such a diagram is called waveform or timing diagram.

Figure 6.3 shows a waveform for the register with a reset and some input data applied to it. Time advances from left to right. On top of the figure we see the clock that drives our circuit. In the first clock cycle, before a reset, the register is undefined. In the second clock cycle reset is asserted high and on the rising edge of this clock cycle (labeled B) the register captures the initial value of 0. Input `inVal` is ignored. In the next clock cycle

---

<sup>2</sup>Support for asynchronous reset is currently under development

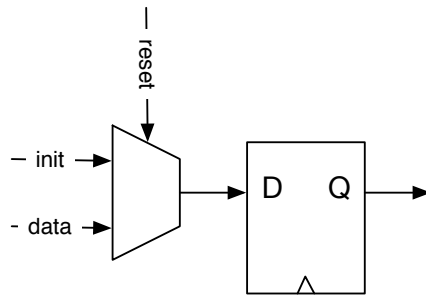


Figure 6.2: A D flip-flop based register with a synchronous reset.

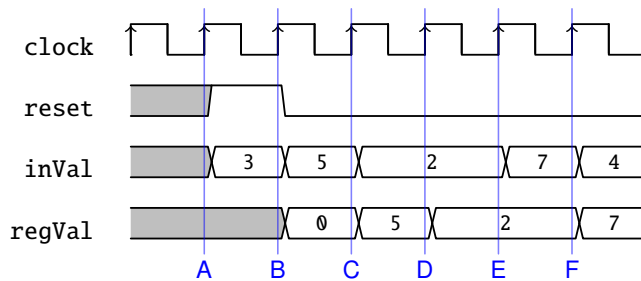


Figure 6.3: A waveform diagram for a register with a reset.

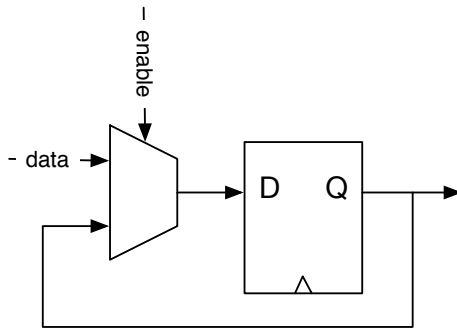


Figure 6.4: A D flip-flop based register with an enable signal.

reset is 0 and the value of `inVal` is captured on the next rising edge (labeled C). From then on reset stays 0, as it should be, and the register output follows the input signal with one clock cycle delay.

Waveforms are a good tool to specify the behavior of a circuit graphically. Especially in more complex circuits where many operations happen in parallel and data moves pipelined through the circuit, timing diagrams are very practical. Chisel testers can also produce waveforms during testing that can be displayed with a waveform viewer and used for debugging.

A common design pattern is a register with an enable signal. Only when the enable signal is true (high), the register captures the input, otherwise it keeps its old value. This enable behavior can be implemented, similar to the synchronous reset with a multiplexer at the input of the register, where one input is the feedback of the output of the register.

Figure 6.4 shows the schematics of a register with an enable. As this is also a very common design pattern, modern FPGA flip-flops contain a dedicated enable input, and no additional resources are needed.

Figure 6.5 shows an example waveform for a register with enable. Most of the time enable is high (true) and the register follows the input with one clock cycle delay. Only in the fourth clock cycle enable is low and the register keeps its value (5) at rising edge D.

Oh, and yes, a register with an enable can be described in a few lines of Chisel code with a conditional update:

```
val regEnable = Reg(UInt(4.W))

when (enable) {
```



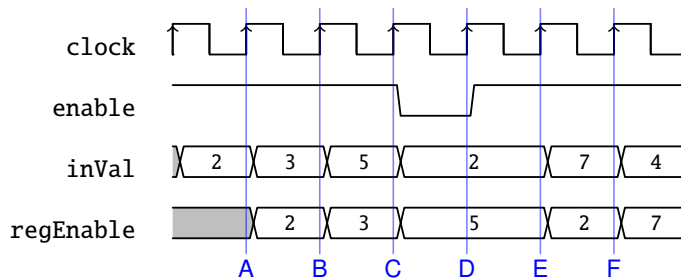


Figure 6.5: A waveform diagram for a register with an enable signal.

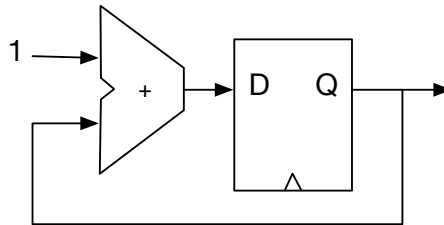


Figure 6.6: An adder and a register results in counter.

```
    regEnable := inVal
  }
```

And a register with enable can also be reset.

```
val regResetEnable = RegInit(0.U(4.W))

when (enable) {
  regResetEnable := inVal
}
```

Now that we have explored all basic uses of a register, we will put those registers to good use and build more interesting sequential circuits.

## 6.2 Counters

One of the most basic sequential circuit is a counter. In its simplest form, a counter is a register where the output is connected to an adder and the adder's output is connected to the input of the register. Figure 6.6 shows such a free-running counter.

A free-running counter with a 4-bit register will run from 0 to 15 and then wrap around to 0 again. A counter shall also be reset to a known value.

```
val regCnt = RegInit(0.U(4.W))

regCnt := regCnt + 1.U
```

When we want to count events, we simply use a condition to increment the counter.

```
val regEvents = RegInit(0.U(4.W))
when(event) {
    regEvents := regEvents + 1.U
}
```

### 6.2.1 Generating Timing with Counters

Besides counting events, counters are often used to generate timing. A synchronous circuit runs with a clock with a fixed frequency. The circuit proceeds in those clock ticks. There is no notion of time in a digital circuit other than counting clock ticks. If we know the clock frequency we can generate circuits that generate timed events, such as blinking a LED at some frequency as we have shown in the Chisel “Hello World” example.

A common practice is to generate single cycle *ticks* with a frequency  $f_{tick}$  that we need in our circuit. That tick occurs every  $n$  clock cycles, where  $n = f_{clock}/f_{tick}$  and is exactly one original clock cycle long. This tick is *not* used as a derived clock, but as an enable signal for registers in the circuit that shall logically operate at frequency  $f_{tick}$ .

In the following circuit we describe a counter that counts from 0 to the maximum value of  $N - 1$ . When the maximum value is reached, *tick* is true for a single cycle and the counter is reset to 0. When we count from 0 to  $N - 1$ , we generate one logical tick every  $N$  clock cycles.

```
val regTickCounter = RegInit(0.U(4.W))
val tick = regTickCounter === (N-1).U

regTickCounter := regTickCounter + 1.U
```

```

when (tick) {
  regTickCounter := 0.U
}

```

This logical timing of one tick every  $n$  clock cycles can then be used to advance other parts of our circuit with this slower, logical clock. In the following code we use just another counter that increments by 1 every  $n$  clock cycles.

```

val regLowFrequCnt = RegInit(0.U(4.W))
when (tick) {
  regLowFrequCnt := regLowFrequCnt + 1.U
}

```

Examples of the usage of this slower *logical* clock are: blinking an LED, generating the baud rate for a serial bus, generating signals for 7-segment display multiplexing, and subsampling input values for debouncing of buttons and switches.

Although width inference should size the registers values, it is better explicitly have the width specified with the type at register definition or with the initialization value. This can avoid surprises when a reset value of `0.U` results in a counter with a width of a single bit.

## 6.3 Stuff

*TODO: Notes on what to describe: edge detector, also using a function (e.g., one has more inputs to detect pressed buttons)*



## 7 Example Components

In this section we explore some medium sized digital designs, such as a FIFO buffer, which are used as building blocks for larger design. As an example we will design a serial interface (also called UART), which itself will use the FIFO buffer.

### 7.1 FIFO Buffer

To decouple a write (sender) and a reader (receiver) some form of buffering between the writer and the reader is inserted. A common buffer is a first-in, first-out (**FIFO**) buffer. Figure 7.1 shows a writer, the FIFO, and a reader. Data is put into the FIFO by the writer on `din` with an active `write` signal. Data is read from the the FIFO by the reader on `dout` with an active `read` signal.

A FIFO is initially empty, singled by the `empty` signal. Reading from an empty FIFO is usually undefined. When data is written and never read a FIFO will become `full`. Writing to a full FIFO is usually ignored and the data lost. In other words, the signals `empty` and `full` serve as handshake signals

Several different implementations of a FIFO are possible: E.g., using on-chip memory and read and write pointers or simply a chain of registers with a tiny state machine. For small buffers (up to tens of elements) a FIFO organized with individual registers connected into a chain of buffers is a simple and efficient implementation.

We start by defining the IO signals for the writer and the reader. The size of the data is configurable with `size`.

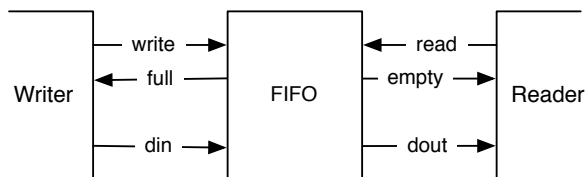


Figure 7.1: A writer, a FIFO buffer, and a reader.

```
class WriterIO(size: Int) extends Bundle {  
  val din = UInt(INPUT, size)  
  val write = Bool(INPUT)  
  val full = Bool(OUTPUT)  
}  
  
class ReaderIO(size: Int) extends Bundle {  
  val dout = UInt(OUTPUT, size)  
  val read = Bool(INPUT)  
  val empty = Bool(OUTPUT)  
}
```

## Start on Better Counters

This is straightforward. However, one might ask if this is the most efficient implementation of counting. The comparison against an end value, 10 in our example, involves some combinational circuit in an ASIC. More efficient in an ASIC (and as well as in loops of software programs) is counting down and exit when 0 is reached.

If we want to count N, we start with N-1 and count till 0.

*TODO: down counting code*

With a comparison against 0 we need only a NOR gat to detect the 0 condition. This optimization is valid for an ASIC, but not for an FPGA based on LUTs. With comparison using LUTs, there is no difference comparing against a '0' or '1' bit. In that case, use a better readable counting logic towards the end value.

However, there is still one more trick a clever hardware designer can pull off. Counting up or down needed a comparison against all counting bis, so far. What about counting down *one too many*? In that case, the counter becomes negative. Detecting a negative value is simply comparing the most significant bit against 'a'.

If we want to count N, we start with N-2 and count till -1.

*TODO: Show optimized down counting code.*

*TODO: discuss  $\hat{z}$  = and so on*

## 8 A Processor Design

As one of the last chapters in this book we present a medium size project: the design, simulation, and testing of a microprocessor. In order to keep this project manageable, we will design a simple accumulator machine. The processor is called **Leros** [?] and is available in open source at <https://github.com/leros-dev/leros>.

Leros is designed to be simple, but still a good target for a C compiler. The description of the instructions fits on one page, see Table 8.1. In that table A represents the accumulator, PC is the program counter, i is an immediate value (0 to 255), Rn a register n (0 to 255), o a branch offset relative to PC, and AR an address register for memory access.

### 8.1 Start with an ALU

A central component of a processor is the **arithmetic logic unit**, or ALU for short. Therefore, we start with coding of the ALU und a test bench. First, we define an Enum to represent the different operations of the ALU:

```
object Types {  
  val nop :: add :: sub :: and :: or :: xor :: ld :: shr :: Nil  
    = Enum(8)  
}
```

An ALU has usually two operand inputs (call them a and b), an operation op (or opcode) input to select the function and an output y. Figure 8.1 shows the ALU.

*TODO: draw a nice ALU, see Wikipedia*

We first define shorter names for the three inputs. The logic for res is computed with a switch statement. Therefore, it gets a default assignment of 0. The switch statement enumerates all operations and assigns the expression accordingly. All operations map directly to a Chisel expression. At the end we assign the result res to the ALU output y

For the testing we write the ALU function in plain Scala, as shown in Figure 8.2. While this duplication of hardware written in Chisel by a Scala implementation does not detect errors in the specification, it is at least some sanity check. We use some corner case values as test vector:

Opcode	Function	Description
add	$A = A + R_n$	Add register $R_n$ to A
addi	$A = A + i$	Add immediate value $i$ to A
sub	$A = A - R_n$	Subtract register $R_n$ from A
subi	$A = A - i$	Subtract immediate value $i$ from A
shr	$A = A \gg \gg 1$	Shift A logically right
load	$A = R_n$	Load register $R_n$ into A
loadi	$A = i$	Load immediate value $i$ into A
and	$A = A \text{ and } R_n$	And register $R_n$ with A
andi	$A = A \text{ and } i$	And immediate value $i$ with A
or	$A = A \text{ or } R_n$	Or register $R_n$ with A
ori	$A = A \text{ or } i$	Or immediate value $i$ with A
xor	$A = A \text{ xor } R_n$	Xor register $R_n$ with A
xori	$A = A \text{ xor } i$	Xor immediate value $i$ with A
loadhi	$A_{15-8} = i$	Load immediate into second byte
loadh2i	$A_{23-16} = i$	Load immediate into third byte
loadh3i	$A_{31-24} = i$	Load immediate into forth byte
store	$R_n = A$	Store A into register $R_n$
jal	$PC = A, R_n = PC + 2$	Jump to A and store return address in $R_n$
ldaddr	$AR = A$	Load address register AR with A
loadind	$A = \text{mem}[AR+(i \ll 2)]$	Load a word from memory into A
loadindbu	$A = \text{mem}[AR+i]_{7-0}$	Load a byte unsigned from memory into A
storeind	$\text{mem}[AR+(i \ll 2)] = A$	Store A into memory
storeindb	$\text{mem}[AR+i]_{7-0} = A$	Store a byte into memory
br	$PC = PC + o$	Branch
brz	if $A == 0$ $PC = PC + o$	Branch if A is zero
brnz	if $A \neq 0$ $PC = PC + o$	Branch if A is not zero
brp	if $A \geq 0$ $PC = PC + o$	Branch if A is positive
brn	if $A < 0$ $PC = PC + o$	Branch if A is negative
scall	scall A	System call (simulation hook)

Table 8.1: Leros instruction set.



```

class Alu(size: Int) extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val op = Input(UInt(3.W))
    val a = Input(SInt(size.W))
    val b = Input(SInt(size.W))
    val y = Output(SInt(size.W))
  })

  val op = io.op
  val a = io.a
  val b = io.b
  val res = WireInit(0.S(size.W))

  switch(op) {
    is(add) {
      res := a + b
    }
    is(sub) {
      res := a - b
    }
    is(and) {
      res := a & b
    }
    is(or) {
      res := a | b
    }
    is(xor) {
      res := a ^ b
    }
    is (shr) {
      // the following does NOT result in an unsigned shift
      // res := (a.asUInt >> 1).asSInt
      // work around
      res := (a >> 1) & 0x7fffffff.S
    }
    is(ld) {
      res := b
    }
  }

  io.y := res
}

```

Figure 8.1: The Leros ALU.

```
def alu(a: Int, b: Int, op: Int): Int = {  
  op match {  
    case 1 => a + b  
    case 2 => a - b  
    case 3 => a & b  
    case 4 => a | b  
    case 5 => a ^ b  
    case 6 => b  
    case 7 => a >>> 1  
    case _ => -123 // This shall not happen  
  }  
}
```

Figure 8.2: The Leros ALU function written in Scala.

```
// Some interesting corner cases  
val interesting = Array(1, 2, 4, 123, 0, -1, -2, 0x80000000,  
  0x7fffffff)
```

And testing all functions with those values on both inputs:

```
def test(values: Seq[Int]) = {  
  for (fun <- add to shr) {  
    for (a <- values) {  
      for (b <- values) {  
        poke(dut.io.op, fun)  
        poke(dut.io.a, a)  
        poke(dut.io.b, b)  
        step(1)  
        expect(dut.io.y, alu(a, b, fun.toInt))  
      }  
    }  
  }  
}
```

Full exhaustive testing for 32-bit arguments is not possible, which was the reason we selected some corner cases as input values. Beside testing against corner cases it is also useful to test against random inputs:

```
val randArgs = Seq.fill(100)(scala.util.Random.nextInt)
test(randArgs)
```

The tests can be run within the Leros project with

```
$ sbt "test:runMain leros.AluTester"
```

and shall produce a success message similar to:

```
[info] [0.001] SEED 1544507337402
test Alu Success: 70567 tests passed in 70572 cycles taking
3.845715 seconds
[info] [3.825] RAN 70567 CYCLES PASSED
```

## 8.2 Decoding Instructions

From the ALU we work backwards and implement the instruction decoder. However, first we define the instruction encoding in its own Scala class and in a *shared* package. We want to share the encoding constants between the hardware implementation of Leros, an assembler for Leros, and an instruction set simulator of Leros.

```
package leros.shared {

object Constants {
  val NOP = 0x00
  val ADD = 0x08
  val ADDI = 0x09
  val SUB = 0x0c
  val SUBI = 0x0d
  val SHR = 0x10
  val LD = 0x20
  val LDI = 0x21
  val AND = 0x22
  val ANDI = 0x23
  val OR = 0x24
  val ORI = 0x25
  val XOR = 0x26
  val XORI = 0x27
  val LDHI = 0x29
  val LDH2I = 0x2a
  val LDH3I = 0x2b
}
```

```
val ST = 0x30
// ...
```

*TODO: Update code when Leros is more complete, as stuff is missing.*

For the decode component we define a Bundle for the output, which is later fed partially into the ALU.

```
class DecodeOut extends Bundle {
  val ena = Bool()
  val func = UInt()
  val exit = Bool()
}
```

Decode takes as input an 8-bit opcode and delivers the decoded signals as output. Those driving signals are assigned a default value with WireInit.

```
class Decode() extends Module {
  val io = IO(new Bundle {
    val din = Input(UInt(8.W))
    val dout = Output(new DecodeOut)
  })

  val f = WireInit(nop)
  val imm = WireInit(false.B)
  val ena = WireInit(false.B)

  io.dout.exit := false.B
```

The decoding itself is just a large switch statement on part of the instruction that represents the opcode (in Leros for most instructions the upper 8 bits.)

```
switch(io.din) {
  is(ADD.U) {
    f := add
    ena := true.B
  }
  is(ADDI.U) {
    f := add
    imm := true.B
    ena := true.B
  }
  is(SUB.U) {
    f := sub
```

```

    ena := true.B
  }
  is(SUBI.U) {
    f := sub
    imm := true.B
    ena := true.B
  }
  is(SHR.U) {
    f := shr
    ena := true.B
  }
  // ...

```

## 8.3 Assembling Instructions

To write programs for Leros we need an assembler. However, for the very first test we can hard code a few instructions, and put them into a Scala array, which we will use to initialize the instruction memory.

```

val prog = Array[Int](
  0x0903, // addi 0x3
  0x09ff, // -1
  0x0d02, // subi 2
  0x21ab, // ldi 0xab
  0x230f, // and 0xf
  0x25c3, // or 0xc3
  0x0000
)

def getProgramFix() = prog

```

However, this is a very inefficient approach to test a processor. Writing an assembler with an expressive language like Scala is not a big project. Therefore, we write a simple assembler for Leros, which is possible within about 100 lines of code. We define a function `getProgram` that calls the assembler. For branch destinations we need a symbol table, which we collect in a `Map`. A classic assembler runs in two passes: (1) collect the values for the symbol table and (2) assemble the program with the symbols collected in the first pass. Therefore, we call `assemble` twice with a parameter to indicate which pass it is.

```
def getProgram(prog: String) = {
  assemble(prog)
}

// collect destination addresses in first pass
val symbols = collection.mutable.Map[String, Int]()

def assemble(prog: String): Array[Int] = {
  assemble(prog, false)
  assemble(prog, true)
}
```

The `assemble` function starts with reading in the source file<sup>1</sup> and defining two helper functions to parse the two possible operands: (1) an integer constant (allowing decimal or hexadecimal notation) and (2) to read a register number.

```
def assemble(prog: String, pass2: Boolean): Array[Int] = {

  val source = Source.fromFile(prog)
  var program = List[Int]()
  var pc = 0

  def toInt(s: String): Int = {
    if (s.startsWith("0x")) {
      Integer.parseInt(s.substring(2), 16)
    } else {
      Integer.parseInt(s)
    }
  }

  def regNumber(s: String): Int = {
    assert(s.startsWith("r"), "Register numbers shall start with 'r'")
    s.substring(1).toInt
  }
}
```

Figure 8.3 shows the core of the assembler for Leros. The core of the assembly function is covered by a Scala match expression. *TODO: Some more words on the code.*

---

<sup>1</sup>This function does not actually read the source file, but for this discussion we can consider it as the reading function.

```

for (line <- source.getLines()) {
  if (!pass2) println(line)
  val tokens = line.trim.split(" ")
  val Pattern = "(. *: )".r
  val instr = tokens(0) match {
    case "/" => // comment
    case Pattern(1) => if (!pass2) symbols +=
      (1.substring(0, 1.length - 1) -> pc)
    case "add" => (ADD << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "sub" => (SUB << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "and" => (AND << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "or"  => (OR  << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "xor" => (XOR << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "load" => (LD << 8) + regNumber(tokens(1))
    case "addi" => (ADDI << 8) + toInt(tokens(1))
    case "subi" => (SUBI << 8) + toInt(tokens(1))
    case "andi" => (ANDI << 8) + toInt(tokens(1))
    case "ori"  => (ORI  << 8) + toInt(tokens(1))
    case "xori" => (XORI << 8) + toInt(tokens(1))
    case "shr"  => (SHR << 8)
    // ...
    case "" => // println("Empty line")
    case t: String => throw new Exception("Assembler error:
      unknown instruction: " + t)
    case _ => throw new Exception("Assembler error")
  }
}

```

Figure 8.3: The main part of the Leros assembler.

## 8.4 Exercise

This last chapter exercise assignment is in a very free form. You are at the end of your learning tour through Chisel and ready to tackle design problems that you find interesting.

One option is to read the chapter again and read along all the source code in the [Leros repository](#), run the test cases, fiddle with the code by breaking it and see that tests fail.

Another option is to simply write your own implementation of Leros. The implementation in the repository is just one possible organization of a pipeline. You could write a Chisel simulation version of Leros with just a single pipeline stage, or go crazy and superpipeline Leros for the highest possible clocking frequency.

A third option is to design you own processor from scratch. Maybe the demonstration how to build the Leros processor and the needed tools has convinced you that processor design and implementation is no magic art, but engineering that can be very joyful.



## 9 Contributing to Chisel

Chisel is an open-source project under constant development and improvement. Therefore, you can also contribute to the project. Here we describe how to setup your environment for Chisel library development and how to contribute to Chisel.

### 9.1 Setup the Development Environment

Chisel consists of several different repositories, all hosted at the [freechips organization at GitHub](#).

Fork the repository, which you like to contribute, into your personal GitHub account. This can be easily done by pressing the Fork button in the GitHub web interface. Then from that fork, clone your fork of the repository. In our example we will change `chisel3` and the clone command for my local fork is:

```
$ git clone git@github.com:schoeberl/chisel3.git
```

To compile Chisel 3 and publish as a local library execute:

```
$ cd chisel3
$ sbt compile
$ sbt publishLocal
```

Watch out during the `publish local` command for the version string of the published library, which contains the string `SNAPSHOT`. If you use the tester and the published version is not compatible with the Chisel `SNAPSHOT`, fork and clone the [chisel-tester](#) repo as well and publish it local.

To test your changes in Chisel, you probably also want to setup a Chisel project, e.g., by forking/cloning an [empty Chisel project](#), renaming it, and removing the `.git` folder from it.

Change the `build.sbt` to reference the locally published version of Chisel. Furthermore, at the time of this writing, the head of Chisel source uses Scala 2.12, but Scala 2.12 has troubles with [anonymous bundles](#). Therefore, you need to add following Scala option: `"-Xsource:2.11"`. The `build.sbt` should look similar to:

```
scalaVersion := "2.12.6"

scalacOptions := Seq("-Xsource:2.11")

resolvers ++= Seq(
  Resolver.sonatypeRepo("snapshots"),
  Resolver.sonatypeRepo("releases")
)

libraryDependencies +=
  "edu.berkeley.cs" %% "chisel3" % "3.2-SNAPSHOT"
libraryDependencies +=
  "edu.berkeley.cs" %% "chisel-iotesters" % "1.3-SNAPSHOT"
```

Compile your Chisel test application and take a close look if it picks up the local published version of the Chisel library (there is also a SNAPSHOT version published, so if, e.g., the Scala version is different between your Chisel library and your application code, it will pickup the SNAPSHOT version from the server instead of your local published library.)

See also [some notes at the Chisel repo](#).

## 9.2 Testing

*TODO: I need more details here from the Chisel developers on what and how to test.*

When you change the Chisel library you should run the Chisel tests. In an sbt based project, this is usually run with:

```
$ sbt test
```

Furthermore, if you add functionality to Chisel you should also provide tests for the new features.

## 9.3 Contribute with a Pull Request

In the Chisel project no developer commits directly to the main repository. A contribution is organized via a [pull request](#) from a branch in a forked version of library. For further information see the documentation at GitHub on [collaboration with pull requests](#). The Chisel group started to document [contribution guide lines](#).

## 9.4 Exercise

Invent a new operator for the `UInt` type, implement it in the Chisel library, and write some usage/test code to explore the operator. It does not need to be a very useful operator, just anything, e.g., a `?` operator that delivers the lefthand side if it is different from 0 otherwise the righthand side. Sounds like a multiplexer, right? How many lines of code did you need to add?<sup>1</sup>

As simple as this was, please be not tempted to fork the Chisel project and add you little extensions. Changes and extension shall be coordinated with the main developers. This was just a simple exercise to get you started.

If you are getting bold, you could pick one of the [open issues](#) and try to solve it. Then contribute with a pull request to Chisel. However, probably first watch the style of development in Chisel by watching the GitHub repositories. See how changes and pull requests are handled in the Chisel open-source project.

---

<sup>1</sup>A quick a dirty implementation needs just two lines of Scala code.



## 10 Chisel 2

This book covers version 3 of Chisel. And Chisel 3 is recommended for new designs. However, there is still Chisel 2 code out in the wild, which has not yet been converted to Chisel 3. There is documentation available how to convert a Chisel 2 project to Chisel 3:

- [Chisel2 vs. Chisel3](#) and
- [Towards Chisel 3](#)

However, you might get involved in a project that still uses Chisel 2, e.g., the [Patmos](#) [?] processor. Therefore, we will provide here some information on Chisel 2 coding for those who have started with Chisel 3.

First, all documentation on Chisel 2 has been removed from the web sites belonging to Chisel. We have rescued those PDF documents and put them on GitHub at <https://github.com/schoeberl/chisel2-doc>. You can use the Chisel 2 tutorial by switching to the Chisel 2 branch:

```
$ git clone https://github.com/ucb-bar/chisel-tutorial.git
$ cd chisel-tutorial
$ git checkout chisel2
```

The main visible difference between Chisel 3 and 2 are: the definitions of constants, bundles for IO, wires, memories, and probably older forms of register definitions.

Chisel 2 constructs can be used, to some extend, in a Chisel 3 project by using the compatibility layer using as package Chisel instead of chisel3. However, using this compatibility layer should only be used in a transition phase. Therefore, we will not cover it here.

Here are two examples of basic components, the same that have been presented for Chisel 3. A module containing combinational logic:

```
import Chisel._

class Logic extends Module {
  val io = new Bundle {
```

```
    val a = UInt(INPUT, 1)
    val b = UInt(INPUT, 1)
    val c = UInt(INPUT, 1)
    val out = UInt(OUTPUT, 1)
  }

  io.out := io.a & io.b | io.c
}
```

Note that the Bundle for the the IO definition is *not* wrapped into an IO() class. Furthermore, the direction of the different IO ports is defined as part of type definition, in this example as INPUT and OUTPUT as part of UInt. The width is given as the second parameter.

The 8-bit register example in Chisel 2:

```
import Chisel._

class Register extends Module {
  val io = new Bundle {
    val in = UInt(INPUT, 8)
    val out = UInt(OUTPUT, 8)
  }

  val reg = Reg(init = UInt(0, 8))
  reg := io.in

  io.out := reg
}
```

Here you see a typical register definition with a reset value passed in as an UInt to the named parameter `init`. This form is still valid in Chisel 3, but usage of `RegInit` and `RegNext` is recommended for new Chisel 3 designs. Note also here the constant definition of an 8-bit wide 0 as `UInt(0, 8)`.

Chisel based testing and Verilog code is generated by calling `chiselMainTest` and `chiselMain`. Both “main” functions take a String array for further parameters.

```
import Chisel._

class LogicTester(c: Logic) extends Tester(c) {

  poke(c.io.a, 1)
  poke(c.io.b, 0)
```

---

```

    poke(c.io.c, 1)
    step(1)
    expect(c.io.out, 1)
  }

object LogicTester {
  def main(args: Array[String]): Unit = {
    chiselMainTest(Array("--genHarness", "--test",
      "--backend", "c",
      "--compile", "--targetDir", "generated"),
      () => Module(new Logic())) {
      c => new LogicTester(c)
    }
  }
}

import Chisel._

object LogicHardware {
  def main(args: Array[String]): Unit = {
    chiselMain(Array("--backend", "v"), () => Module(new
      Logic()))
  }
}

```

A memory with sequential registered read and write ports is defined in Chisel 2 as:

```

val mem = Mem(UInt(width = 8), 256, seqRead = true)
val rdData = mem(Reg(next = rdAddr))
when(wrEna) {
  mem(wrAddr) := wrData
}

```





# 11 Summary

## Acknowledgment

*TODO: Sometimes we received some help. Sometimes external funding.*

## Source Access

This book is available in open source. The repository also contains slides for a Chisel course and all Chisel examples are included.

<https://github.com/schoeberl/chisel-book>

A collection of medium sized examples, which most are referenced in the book, is also available in open source. This collection contains also projects for various popular FPGA boards.

<https://github.com/schoeberl/chisel-examples>



# 12 Headings

*TODO: Collect the headings here, but only elevate them to chapter level when some writing is going on.*

## 12.1 Introduction

\* Why Chisel, what is cool about it \* What this book is (and what not) \* Overview of the following Chapters

## 12.2 Basic Circuits

\* Combinational expressions (basic gates with logic tables) \* Combinational base circuits (chapter 8 in Culler) \* Multiplexer (just the simple one for a start) \* Registers  
1. base functions: +, -, and or, register (with reset, with enable)

## 12.3 Build Process and Testing

\* A full example (blinking LED again) \* Packages \* Source organization (Scala) \* Object to generate Verilog \* Testing \* sbt

## 12.4 Components/Modules

## 12.5 Building Blocks

\* building blocks (adder, mux, ALU, counter, memory) \* maybe split into combinational and sequential

## **12.6 Bundles and Vecs (better title needed)**

## **12.7 Medium Complex Circuits (better title needed)**

3. small designs (better name): UART, FIFO, PWM, VGA, sigma delta

## **12.8 State Machines and Data Path**

\* Is this still relevant? Or is this simple old stuff not in real use anymore?

## **12.9 Memory**

\* Vec based ROM with address register \* Vec based read/write \* All other variations \*  
Escape code in VHDL and Verilog for unsupported memories

## **12.10 Tips and Tricks (better title needed)**

Stuff that saves a little hardware, but might not worsen the less readable code

\* Counter to -1 \* Shared adder and subtractor \* Mux with one hot encoding of select  
5. little tricks: count down, add/sub

## **12.11 Scala for Hardware Developers**

\* Simple Scala (for, if else) \* functions for hardware generation \* Classes and constructor

## **12.12 More Complex Testing**

\* As we know now some Scala it is time to use the power of Scala for better testing

## **12.13 Hardware Generation**

\* More advanced stuff \* Table generation (sinus, assembler)

## 12.14 Leros

\* as a more complex design 4. full design(s): processor

## 12.15 Chisel 2

\* Some notes for reading Chisel 2 code \* Update Lipsi to Chisel 3 to work on the 2 to 3 documentation

## 12.16 Chisel Projects

\* Projects written in Chisel, as paper reference, some words and a URL.

## 12.17 Appendix

\* Basic digital circuits, e.g., transistor based inverter, half and full adder \* With lot of links to Wikipedia



# Snippets and Collect Stuff to Describe

## 12.18 Minor Pitfalls

How to define a 32 bit unsigned constant of 0xffffffff?

Comparing a 32-bit UInt against a large literal results in error message.

val x = UInt(32.W) when (x === 0xFFFFFFFF.U) ...

0xffffffff.U does not work, as Int is a signed integer and the value is -1.

solutions are BigInt or Strings:

From email: However! You can do this with either a String or a BigInt. I think both of the following work:

val x = UInt(32.W) when (x === "ffffffff".U — x === BigInt("ffffffff", 16))

...

from Richard: You can also use a long, 0xffffffffL.U, though this will break at 64 bits. For the String-to-UInt conversion, x also works as a hex radix specifier, eg "xffffffff".U

*TODO: Make an example and explain.*

## Is this below Chisel 2?

This chip was done in Chisel: <https://aiyprojects.withgoogle.com/edge-tpu>

See also <https://cloud.google.com/edge-tpu/>

Concatenation and subfield access. Cat is in util.

*TODO: A collection is Chisel snippets collected along some coding*

Initialize a Vec from a Scala array:

```
val program = new Array[Bits](3)
program(0) = Bits(0x01, 8)
program(1) = Bits(0x23, 8)
program(2) = Bits(0x16, 8)
```

```
val rom = Vec(program)
```

State machine:

```
val fetch :: execute :: load :: Nil = Enum(UInt(), 3)
val stateReg = Reg(init = fetch)

switch(stateReg) {
  is(fetch) {
    stateReg := execute
  }
  is(execute) {
    when(isLoad) {
      stateReg := load
    }.otherwise {
      stateReg := fetch
    }
  }
  is(load) {
    stateReg := fetch
  }
}
```

**No default assignment possible when declaring a signal! Need an extra one.**