



ECE-332:437

DIGITAL SYSTEMS DESIGN (DSD)

Fall 2016 – Lecture 7 – Hardware Description Language (HDL)

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October 6, 2016

Topics to cover today – October 6, 2016

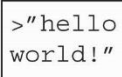


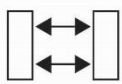
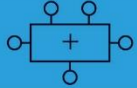

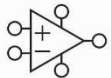


- Lecture 7 – Chapter 4 – HDL – Verilog, SystemVerilog

Announcements – October 6, 2016

- Mid Term 1 – Oct 13, 2016 – Closed Book - 15%
- Topics for Mid Term 1
 - Chapters 1 through 4
 - Lecture Slides 1-7
 - Basics of Digital Logic
 - Number Systems
 - Combinational Circuits
 - K-Map Minimization
 - Sequential Circuits
 - Finite State Machines
 - Digital Building Blocks
 - SystemVerilog

Chapter 4 :: Topics

- Introduction
- Combinational Logic
- Structural Modeling
- Sequential Logic
- More Combinational Logic
- Finite State Machines
- Parameterized Modules
- Testbenches

Application Software	
Operating Systems	
Architecture	
Micro-architecture	
Logic	
Digital Circuits	
Analog Circuits	
Devices	
Physics	



Digital Design

- *Digital:* circuits that use two voltage levels to represent information
 - *Logic:* use truth values and logic to analyze circuits
- *Design:* meeting functional requirements while satisfying constraints
 - Constraints: performance, size, power, cost, etc.

Design using Abstraction

- Circuits contain millions of transistors
 - How can we manage this complexity?
- Abstraction
 - Focus on aspects relevant aspects, ignoring other aspects
 - Don't break assumptions that allow aspect to be ignored!
- Examples:
 - Transistors are on or off
 - Voltages are low or high



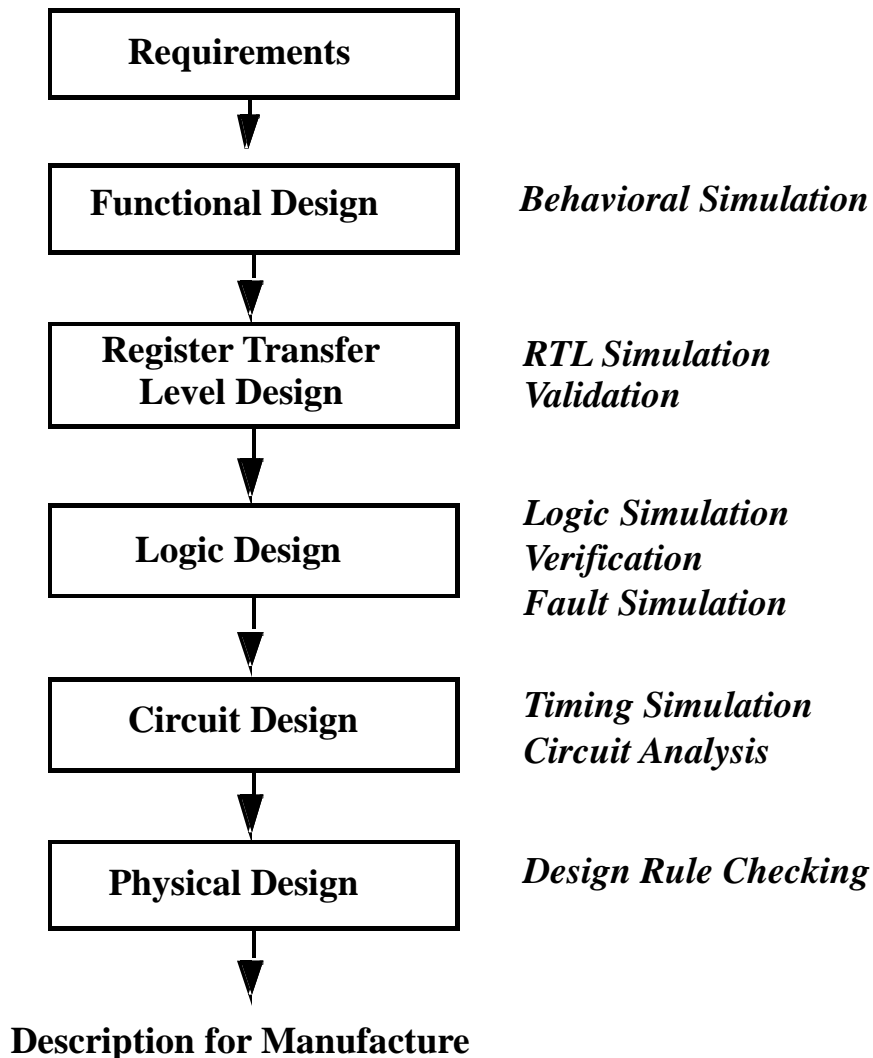
Binary Representation

- Basic representation for simplest form of information, with only two states
 - a switch: open or closed
 - a light: on or off
 - a microphone: active or muted
 - a logical proposition: false or true
 - a binary (base 2) digit, or bit: 0 or 1

Design Methodology

- Simple systems can be designed by one person using *ad hoc* methods
- Real-world systems are designed by teams
 - Require a systematic design methodology
- Specifies
 - Tasks to be undertaken
 - Information needed and produced
 - Relationships between tasks
 - dependencies, sequences
 - EDA tools used

Digital System Design



- Design flows operate at multiple levels of abstraction
- Need a uniform description to translate between levels
- Increasing costs of design and fabrication necessitate greater reliance on automation via CAD tools
 - \$5M - \$100M to design new chips
 - Increasing time to market pressures

Top-down vs. bottom-up

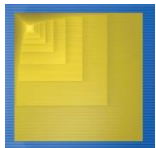
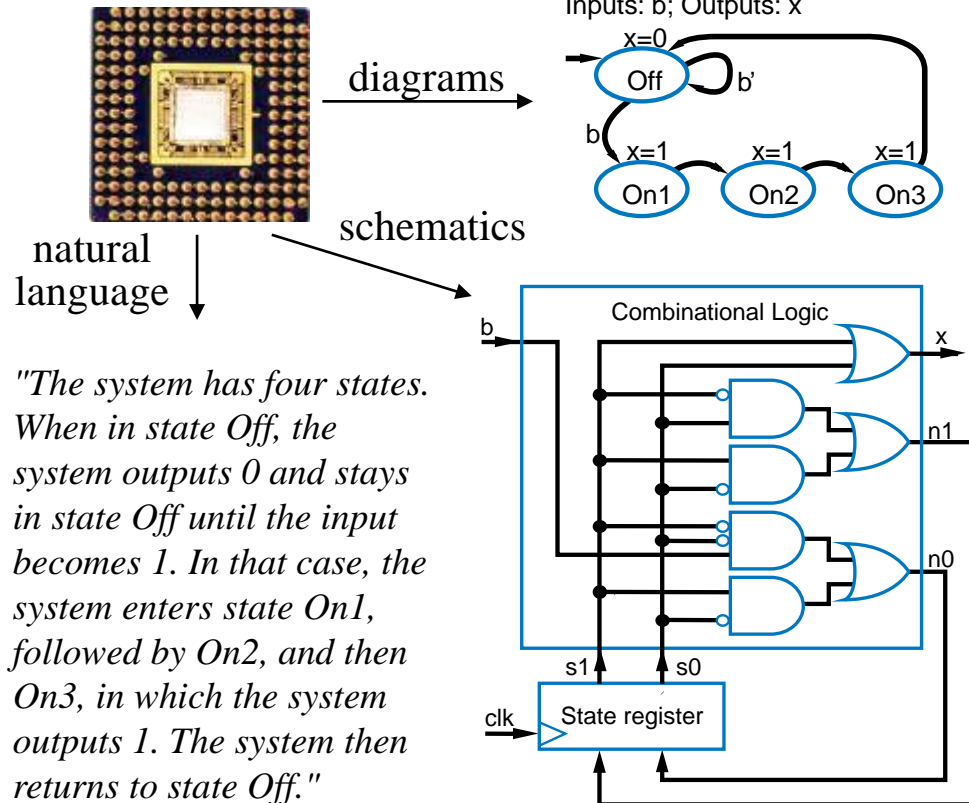
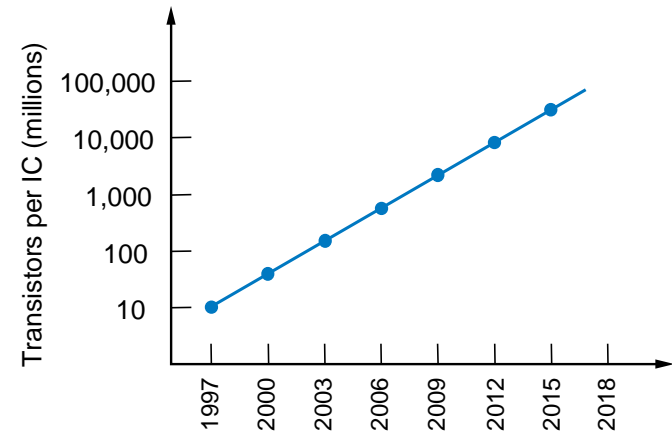
- Top-down design:
 - start from most abstract description;
 - work to most detailed.
- Bottom-up design:
 - work from small components to big system.
- Real design uses both techniques.

Hierarchical Design

- Circuits are too complex for us to design all the detail at once
- Design subsystems for simple functions
- Compose subsystems to form the system
 - Treating subcircuits as “black box” components
 - Verify independently, then verify the composition
- Top-down/bottom-up design

Digital Systems and HDLs

- Typical digital components per IC
 - 1960s/1970s: 10-1,000
 - 1980s: 1,000-100,000
 - 1990s: Millions
 - 2000s: Billions
- 1970s
 - IC behavior documented using combination of schematics, diagrams, and natural language (e.g., English)
- 1980s
 - Documentation was hundreds of pages for large ICs
 - Imprecise
 - Need for better documentation



Managing a design process

Taking a complex design from high level behavioral description (spec.) to detailed physical implementation is accomplished using:

- Hierarchy, Modularity & Regularity
 - Break design into **manageable** pieces
 - Pieces that have **well defined functionality** and **simple interface**
 - Pieces that can be **re-used** elsewhere in the hierarchy
 - Gradually refine design to greater levels of detail
- Set of computer aided design (CAD) tools that
 1. **Capture** design data (e.g., hardware description languages, text editors, schematic & layout editors)
 2. **Translate** from one representation to another (e.g., synthesis, component mapping, place & route)
 3. **Verify** correctness of translation (simulation, timing analysis, design rule check)
- Design Methodology
 - Recipe (or plan) of how to move from one design representation to another, which tools to use and how to rigorously verify each design step⁴

Managing a design process – Boolean Equations

- Function represented by truth tables & logic equations



$$Z = A.B$$

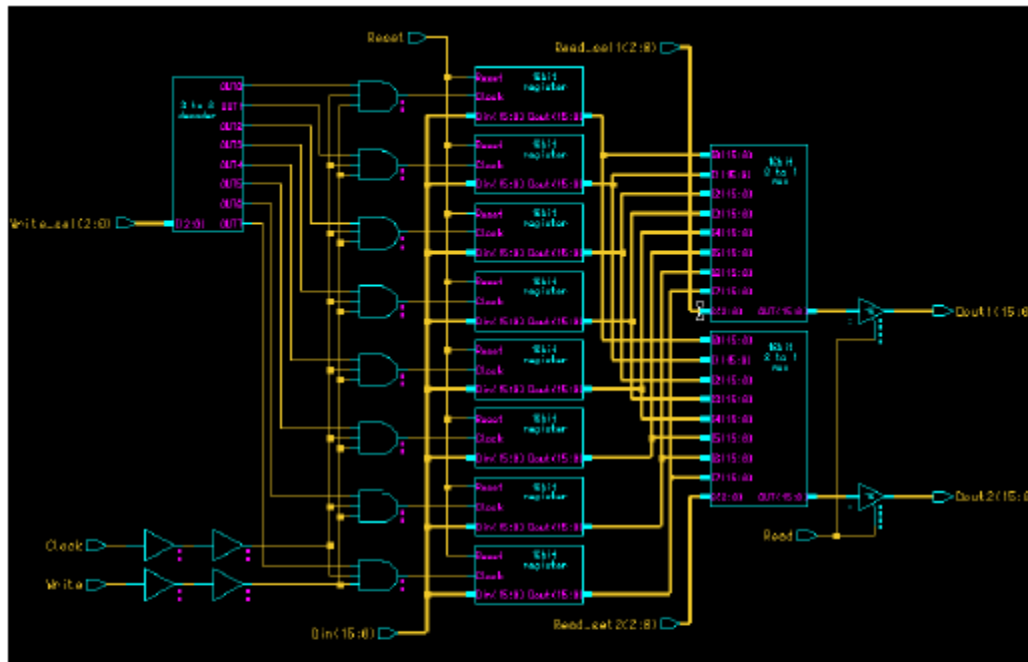
A	B	Z
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

- Function simplified using boolean arithmetic

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z &= \overline{B}.(A.(\overline{B} + C) + \overline{(A + B.C)}) \\
 &= \overline{B}.(A.(\overline{B} + C) + \overline{A}.(\overline{B} + C)) \\
 &= \overline{B}.((A + \overline{A}).(\overline{B} + C)) \\
 &= \overline{B}.(\overline{B} + C) \\
 &= \overline{B}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Captures behavior but impractical for more than few hundred gates

Managing a design process – Boolean Equations



- Graphical entry supporting hierarchy, regularity, higher level functions (register, multiplexer, ALU)
- Only captures structure – behavior must be inferred
- Limited to few thousand primitives (gates, registers etc.)

7

Motivation for HDL

- Digital System **Complexity** Continues to Increase
 - No longer able to **breadboard** systems
 - Number of chips
 - Number of components
 - Length of interconnects
 - Need to **simulate** before committing to hardware
 - Not just **logic**, but **timing**

Motivation: different models

- **Different Types of Models** are Required at **Various Development Stages**
 - Logic models
 - Performance models
 - Timing models
 - System Models

Traditional vs. Hardware Description Languages

- Procedural programming languages provide the *how* or recipes
 - for computation
 - for data manipulation
 - for execution on a specific hardware model
- Hardware description languages *describe* a system
 - Systems can be described from many different points of view
 - Behavior: what does it do?
 - Structure: what is it composed of?
 - Functional properties: how do I interface to it?
 - Physical properties: how fast is it?

Verilog

Verilog background

- 1983: Gateway Design Automation released Verilog HDL “Verilog” and simulator
- 1985: Verilog enhanced version – “Verilog-XL”
- 1987: Verilog-XL becoming more popular (same year VHDL released as IEEE standard)
- 1989: Cadence bought Gateway
- 1995: Verilog adopted by IEEE as standard 1364
 - Verilog HDL, Verilog 1995
- 2001: First major revision (cleanup and enhancements)
 - Standard 1364-2001 (or Verilog 2001)

SystemVerilog

- Enriched language derived from best features of other design and verification languages
- IEEE standard and unified language for design, specification and verification
- Contains many features of VHDL, C++ (classes)
- New Operators
- Includes assertion, coverage language
- Testbench features such as randomization

Verilog

Verilog - general comments

- VHDL is like ADA and Pascal in style
 - Strongly typed – more robust than Verilog
 - In Verilog it is easier to make mistakes
 - Watch for signals of different widths
 - No default required for case statement, etc
- Verilog is more like the ‘c’ language
- Verilog IS case sensitive
- White space is OK
- Statements terminated with semicolon (;)
- Verilog statements between
 - `module` and `endmodule`
- Comments `//` single line and `/*` and `*/`

HDL to Gates

- **Simulation**

- Inputs applied to circuit
- Outputs checked for correctness
- Millions of dollars saved by debugging in simulation instead of hardware

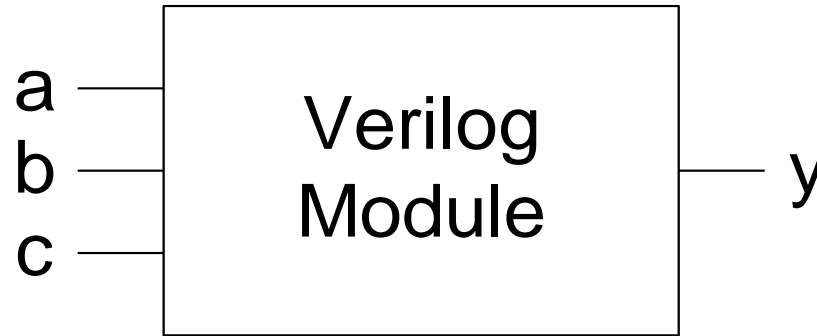
- **Synthesis**

- Transforms HDL code into a *netlist* describing the hardware (i.e., a list of gates and the wires connecting them)

IMPORTANT:

When using an HDL, think of the **hardware** the HDL should produce

SystemVerilog Modules



Two types of Modules:

- **Behavioral:** describe what a module does
- **Structural:** describe how it is built from simpler modules

Verilog

-
- Four-value logic system
 - 0 – logic zero, or false condition
 - 1 – logic 1, or true condition
 - x, X – unknown logic value
 - z, Z - high-impedance state
 - Number formats
 - b, B binary
 - d, D decimal (default)
 - h, H hexadecimal
 - o, O octal
 - 16'H789A – 16-bit number in hex format
 - 1'b0 – 1-bit

Verilog

- Constants

- `parameter` `DIME = 10;`
- `parameter` `width = 32, nickel = 5;`
- `parameter` `quarter = 8'b0010_0101;`

- Nets

- `wire` `clock, reset_n;`
- `wire[7:0]` `a_bus;`

- Registers

- `reg` `clock, reset_n;`
- `reg[7:0]` `a_bus;`

- Integer

- only for use as general purpose variables in loops
- `integer` `n;`

Verilog

Operators

- Bitwise

- ~ negation	Verilog	VHDL
- & and	<code>y = a & b;</code>	<code>y = a AND b;</code>
- inclusive or	<code>y = a b;</code>	<code>y = A OR b;</code>
- ^ exclusive or	<code>y = a ^ b;</code>	<code>y = a XOR b;</code>
-	<code>y = ~(a & b);</code>	<code>y = A NAND b;</code>
-	<code>y = ~ a;</code>	<code>y = NOT a;</code>

- Reduction (no direct equivalent in VHDL)

- Accept single bus and return single bit result
 - & and `y = & a_bus;`
 - ~& nand
 - | or `y = | a_bus;`
 - ^ exclusive or

Verilog

- Relational (return 1 for true, 0 for false)

- `<` less than, `<=`
- `>` greater than `>=`

- Equality

- `==` logical equality
- `!=` logical inequality

- Logical Comparison Operators

- `!` logical negation
- `&&` logical and
- `||` logical or

- Arithmetic Operators

- `+`
- `-`
- `*`

Verilog

- Shift
 - << logical shift left, (<<< arithmetic)
 - >> logical shift right (>>> arithmetic)
- Conditional
 - Only in Verilog - selects one of pair expressions
 - ? :
 - Logical expression before ? is evaluated
 - If true, the expression before : is assigned to output
 - If false, expression after : is assigned to output
 - `Y = (A > B) ? 1 : 0`
 - `Y = (A == B) ? A + B : A - B`

Verilog

Verilog wire and register data objects

- Wire – net, connects two signals together
 - `wire clk, en;`
 - `wire [15:0] a_bus;`
- Reg – register, holds its value from one procedural assignment statement to the next
 - Does not imply a physical register – depends on use
 - `reg [7:0] b_bus;`

Verilog

Verilog

Part 2 – Basics of Verilog



The Verilog Hardware Description Language

- These slides were created by Prof. Don Thomas at Carnegie Mellon University, and are adapted here with permission.
- The Verilog Hardware Description Language, Fifth Edition, by Donald Thomas and Phillip Moorby is available from Springer, <http://www.springer.com>.

Verilog Overview

- **Verilog is a concurrent language**
 - Aimed at modeling hardware — optimized for it!
 - Typical of hardware description languages (HDLs), it:
 - provides for the specification of concurrent activities
 - stands on its head to make the activities look like they happened at the same time
 - Why?
 - allows for intricate timing specifications
- **A concurrent language allows for:**
 - Multiple concurrent “elements”
 - An event in one element to cause activity in another. (An **event** is an output or state change at a given time)
 - based on interconnection of the element’s ports
 - Further execution to be delayed
 - until a specific event occurs

Simulation of Digital Systems

☐ Simulation —

- ☐ What do you do to test a software program you write?
 - Give it some inputs, and see if it does what you expect
 - When done testing, is there any assurance the program is bug free? — NO!
 - But, to the extent possible, you have determined that the program does what you want it to do

- ☐ Simulation tests a model of the system you wish to build
 - **Is the design correct?** Does it implement the intended function correctly? For instance, is it a UART
 - ☐ Stick in a byte and see if the UART model shifts it out correctly
 - Also, **is it the correct design?**
 - ☐ Might there be some other functions the UART could do?

Simulation of Digital Systems

- **Simulation checks two properties**
 - **functional correctness** — is the logic correct
 - correct design, and design correct
 - **timing correctness** — is the logic/interconnect timing correct
 - e.g. are the set-up times met?

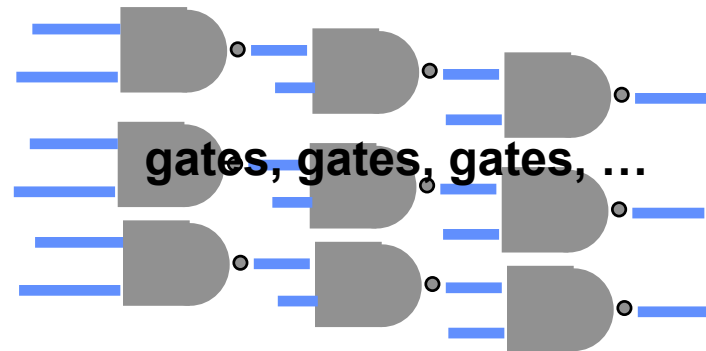
- **It has all the limitations of software testing**
 - Have I tried all the cases?
 - Have I exercised every path? Every option?

Modern Design Methodology

Simulation and Synthesis are components of a design methodology

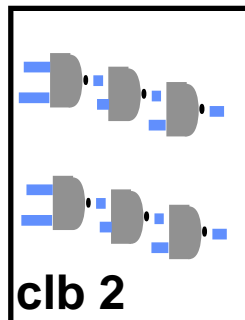
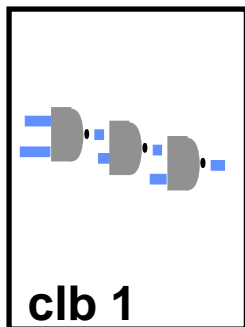
always
mumble
mumble
blah
blah

Synthesis

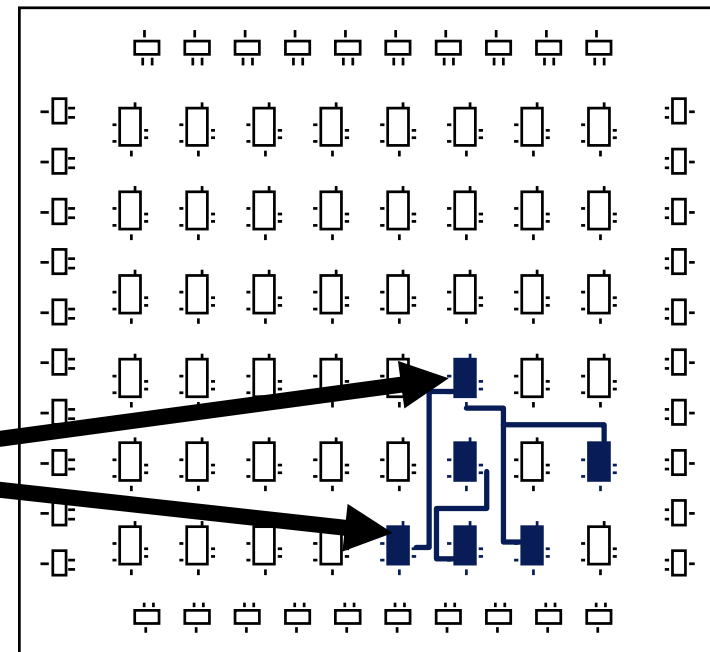


Synthesizable Verilog

Technology
Mapping



Place
and
Route



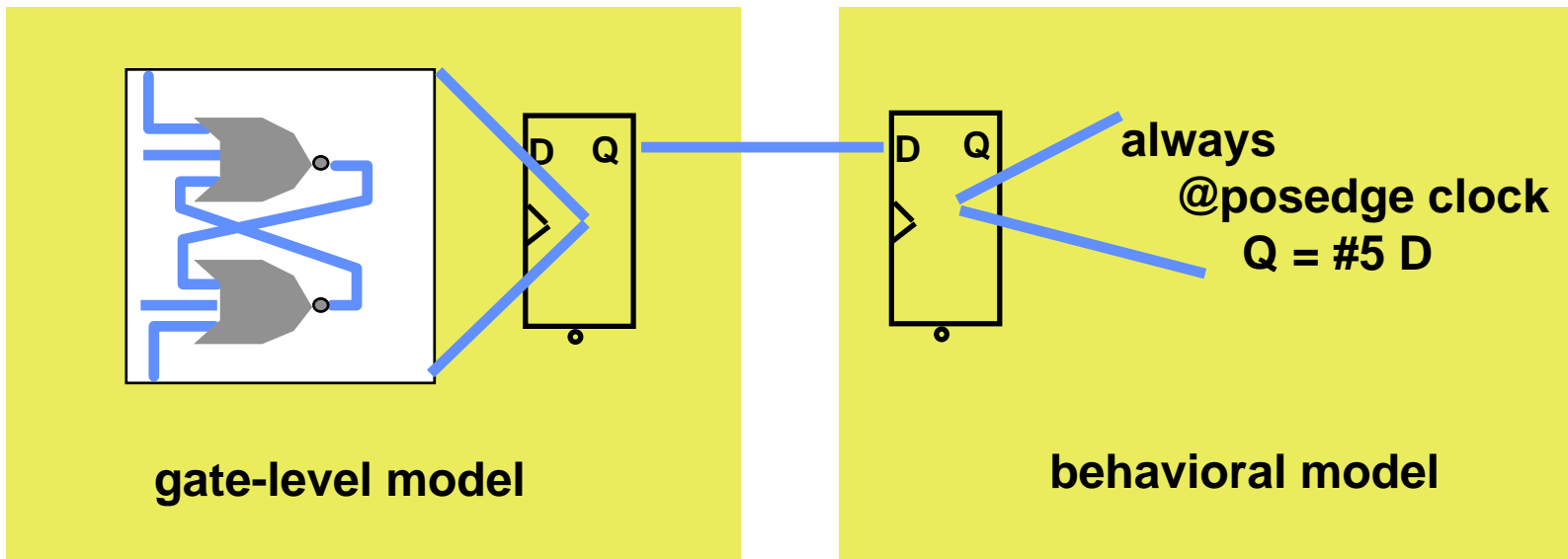
Verilog Levels of Abstraction

□ Gate modeling (Structural modeling)

- the system is represented in terms of primitive gates and their interconnections
 - NANDs, NORs, ...

□ Behavioral modeling

- the system is represented by a program-like language



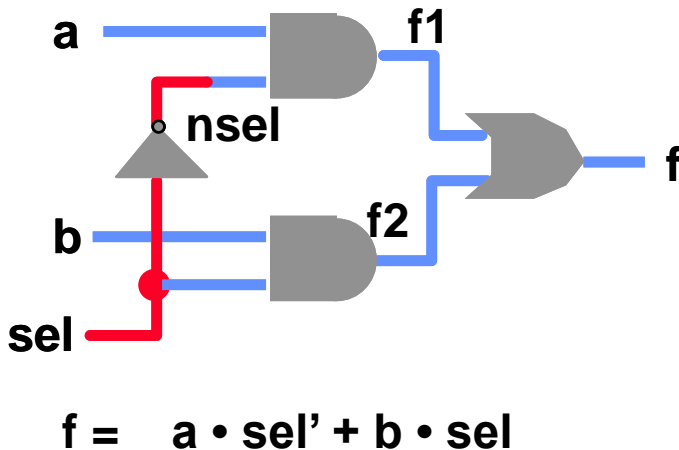
Representation: Structural Models

□ Structural models

- **Are built from gate primitives and/or other modules**
- **They describe the circuit using logic gates — much as you would see in an implementation of a circuit.**

☐ **Identify:**

- **Gate instances, wire names, delay from a or b to f .**
- **This is a multiplexor — it selects one of n inputs (2 here) and passes it on to the output**



```

module MUX (f, a, b, sel);
output          f;
input          a, b, sel;

    and #5      g1 (f1, a, nsel),
                g2 (f2, b, sel);
    or  #5      g3 (f, f1, f2);
    not         g4 (nsel, sel);
endmodule

```

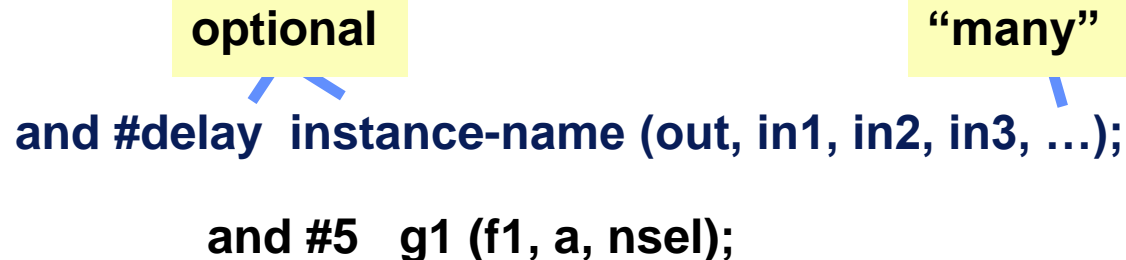

Representation: Gate-Level Models

☐ Need to model the gate's:

- ☐ Function
- ☐ Delay

☐ Function

- ☐ Generally, HDLs have built-in gate-level primitives
 - Verilog has NAND, NOR, AND, OR, XOR, XNOR, BUF, NOT, and some others
- ☐ The gates operate on input values producing an output value
 - typical Verilog gate instantiation is:


optional
"many"
and #delay instance-name (out, in1, in2, in3, ...);
and #5 g1 (f1, a, nsel);

a comma here let's you
list other instance names
and their port lists.

Four-Valued Logic

☐ Verilog Logic Values

- ☐ The underlying data representation allows for any bit to have one of four values
- ☐ 1, 0, x (unknown), z (high impedance)
- ☐ x — one of: 1, 0, z, or in the state of change
- ☐ z — the high impedance output of a tri-state gate.

☐ What basis do these have in reality?

- ☐ 0, 1 ... no question
- ☐ z ... A *tri-state* gate drives either a zero or one on its output. If it's not doing that, its output is high impedance (z). Tri-state gates are real devices and z is a real electrical affect.
- ☐ x ... not a real value. There is no *real* gate that drives an x on to a wire. x is used as a debugging aid. x means the simulator can't determine the answer and so maybe you should worry!

☐ BTW ...

- ☐ some simulators keep track of more values than these. Verilog will in some situations.

How to build and test a module

□ Construct a “test bench” for your design

- Develop your hierarchical system within a module that has input and output ports (called “**design**” here)
- Develop a separate module to generate tests for the module (“**test**”)
- Connect these together within another module (“**testbench**”)

```
module testbench ();  
    wire    l, m, n;  
  
    design  d (l, m, n);  
    test    t (l, m);  
  
    initial begin  
        //monitor and display  
        ...  
    end
```

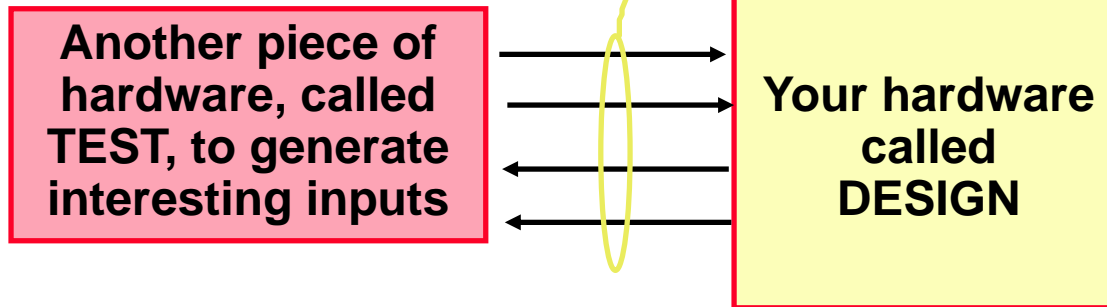
```
module design (a, b, c);  
    input    a, b;  
    output   c;  
    ...  
endmodule
```

```
module test (q, r);  
    output   q, r;  
  
    initial begin  
        //drive the outputs with signals  
        ...  
    end
```

Another view of this

- 3 chunks of Verilog, one for each of:

TESTBENCH is the final piece of hardware which connect **DESIGN** with **TEST** so the inputs generated go to the thing you want to test...



An Example

Module testAdd generates inputs for module halfAdd and displays changes. Module halfAdd is the *design*

```
module tBench;
    wire    su, co, a, b;

    halfAdd    ad(su, co, a, b);
    testAdd    tb(a, b, su, co);
endmodule
```

```
module halfAdd (sum, cOut, a, b);
    output    sum, cOut;
    input     a, b;

    xor #2    (sum, a, b);
    and #2    (cOut, a, b);
endmodule
```

```
module testAdd(a, b, sum, cOut);
    input     sum, cOut;
    output    a, b;
    reg       a, b;

    initial begin
        $monitor ($time,,
            "a=%b, b=%b, sum=%b, cOut=%b",
            a, b, sum, cOut);
        a = 0; b = 0;
        #10 b = 1;
        #10 a = 1;
        #10 b = 0;
        #10 $finish;
    end
endmodule
```

The test module

☐ It's the test generator

☐ \$monitor

- ☐ prints its string when executed.
- ☐ after that, the string is printed when one of the listed values changes.
- ☐ only one monitor can be active at any time
- ☐ prints at end of current simulation time

☐ Function of this tester

- ☐ at time zero, print values and set a=b=0
- ☐ after 10 time units, set b=1
- ☐ after another 10, set a=1
- ☐ after another 10 set b=0
- ☐ then another 10 and finish

```
module testAdd(a, b, sum, cOut);  
    input    sum, cOut;  
    output   a, b;  
    reg      a, b;  
  
    initial begin  
        $monitor ($time,,  
            "a=%b, b=%b, sum=%b, cOut=%b",  
            a, b, sum, cOut);  
        a = 0; b = 0;  
        #10 b = 1;  
        #10 a = 1;  
        #10 b = 0;  
        #10 $finish;  
    end  
endmodule
```

Another Version of a Test Module

□ Multi-bit constructs

- test is a two-bit register and output
- It acts as a two-bit number (counts 00-01-10-11-00...)
- Module tBench needs to connect it correctly — mod halfAdd has 1-bit ports.

```
module tBench;  
    wire  su, co;  
    wire [1:0] t;  
  
    halfAdd  ad (su, co, t[1], t[0]);  
    testAdd  tb (t, su, co);  
endmodule
```

```
module testAdd (test, sum, cOut);  
    input          sum, cOut;  
    output [1:0]  test;  
    reg   [1:0]  test;  
  
    initial begin  
        $monitor ($time,,  
            "test=%b, sum=%b, cOut=%b",  
            test, sum, cOut);  
        test = 0;  
        #10 test = test + 1;  
        #10 test = test + 1;  
        #10 test = test + 1;  
        #10 $finish;  
    end  
endmodule
```

Connects bit 0 of wire t to this port (b of the module halfAdder)

Yet Another Version of testAdd

□ Other procedural statements

- You can use “for”, “while”, “if-then-else” and others here.
- This makes it easier to write if you have lots of input bits.

```
module tBench;  
  wire  su, co;  
  wire [1:0] t;  
  
  halfAdd  ad (su, co, t[1], t[0]);  
  testAdd  tb (t, su, co);  
endmodule
```

```
module testAdd (test, sum, cOut);  
  input          sum, cOut;  
  output [1:0]    test;  
  reg   [1:0]     test;  
  
  initial begin  
    $monitor ($time,,  
      "test=%b, sum=%b, cOut=%b",  
      test, sum, cOut);  
    for (test = 0; test < 3; test = test + 1)  
      #10;  
    #10 $finish;  
  end  
endmodule
```

hmm... “<3” ... ?

Other things you can do

□ More than modeling hardware

- **\$monitor** — give it a list of variables. When one of them changes, it prints the information. Can only have one of these active at a time.

e.g. ...

- **\$monitor (\$time,,, “a=%b, b=%b, sum=%b, cOut=%b”,a, b, sum, cOut);**

extra commas
print as spaces

%b is binary (also,
%h, %d and others)

What if what you
print has the
value x or z?

- The above will print:
2 a=0, b=0, sum=0, cOut=0<return>

newline
automatically
included

- **\$display()** — sort of like printf()

- **\$display (“Hello, world — %h”, hexvalue)**

display contents of data item called
“hexvalue” using hex digits (0-9,A-F)

Structural vs Behavioral Models

☐ **Structural model**

- ☐ Just specifies primitive gates and wires
- ☐ i.e., the structure of a logical netlist
- ☐ You basically know how to do this now.

☐ **Behavioral model**

- ☐ More like a procedure in a programming language
- ☐ Still specify a module in Verilog with inputs and outputs...
- ☐ ...but inside the module you write code to tell what you want to have happen, NOT what gates to connect to make it happen
- ☐ i.e., you specify the behavior you want, not the structure to do it

☐ **Why use behavioral models**

- ☐ For testbench modules to test structural designs
- ☐ For high-level specs to drive logic synthesis tools

How do behavioral models fit in?

☐ How do they work with the event list and scheduler?

- ☐ Initial (and always) begin executing at time 0 in arbitrary order
- ☐ They execute until they come to a “#delay” operator
- ☐ They then suspend, putting themselves in the event list 10 time units in the future (for the case at the right)
- ☐ At 10 time units in the future, they resume executing where they left off.

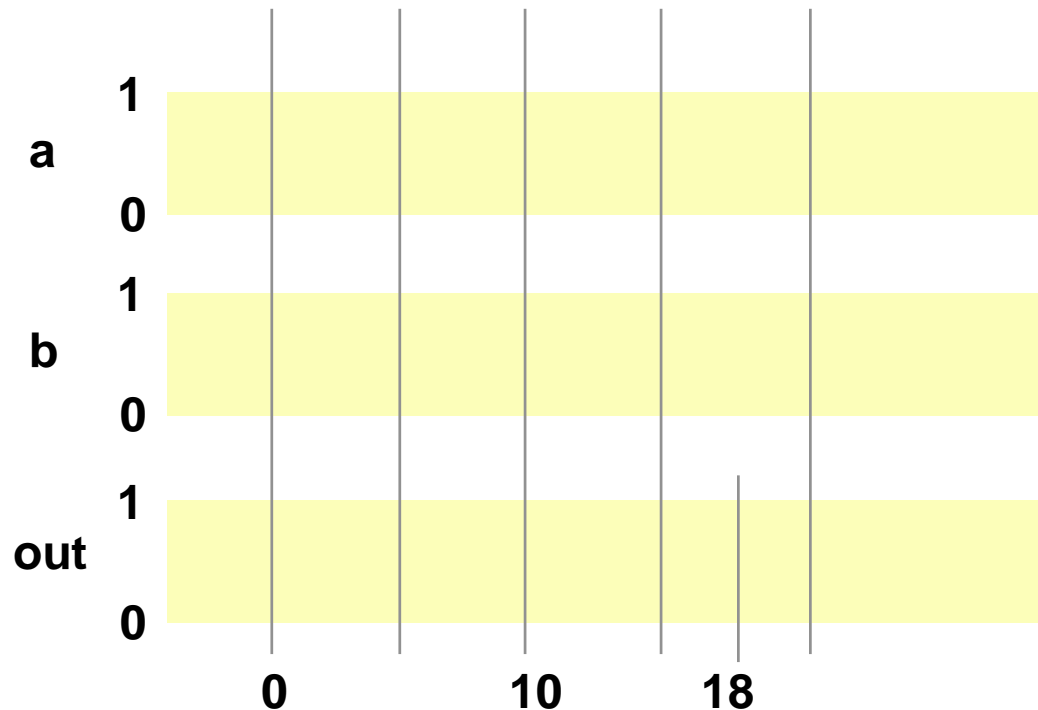
☐ Some details omitted

- ☐ ...more to come

```
module testAdd(a, b, sum, cOut);  
    input    sum, cOut;  
    output   a, b;  
    reg      a, b;  
  
    initial begin  
        $monitor ($time,,  
            “a=%b, b=%b,  
            sum=%b, cOut=%b”,  
            a, b, sum, cOut);  
        a = 0; b = 0;  
        #10 b = 1;  
        #10 a = 1;  
        #10 b = 0;  
        #10 $finish;  
    end  
endmodule
```

Two initial statements?

```
...  
initial begin  
    a = 0; b = 0;  
    #5 b = 1;  
    #13 a = 1;  
end  
...  
initial begin  
    #10 out = 0;  
    #8 out = 1;  
end  
...
```

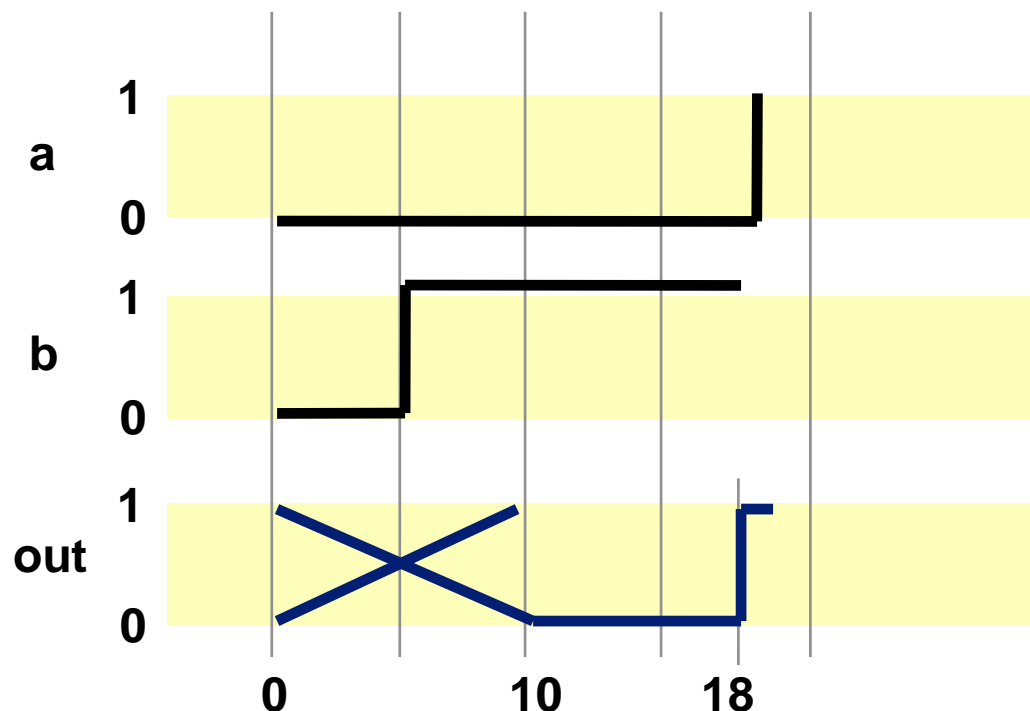


□ Things to note

- Which initial statement starts first?
- What are the values of a, b, and out when the simulation starts?
- These appear to be executing concurrently (at the same time). Are they?

Two initial statements?

```
...
initial begin
    a = 0; b = 0;
    #5 b = 1;
    #13 a = 1;
end
...
initial begin
    #10 out = 0;
    #8 out = 1;
end
...
```



□ Things to note

□ Which initial statement starts first?

They start at same time

□ What are the initial values of a, b, and out when the simulation starts?

Undefined (x)

□ These appear to be executing concurrently (at the same time). Are they?

Not necessarily

Behavioral Modeling

- **Procedural statements are used**
 - Statements using “initial” and “always” Verilog constructs
 - Can specify both combinational and sequential circuits
- **Normally don't think of procedural stuff as “logic”**
 - They look like C: mix of ifs, case statements, assignments ...
 - ... but there is a semantic interpretation to put on them to allow them to be used for simulation and synthesis (giving equivalent results)

Behavioral Constructs

- Behavioral descriptions are introduced by initial and always statements

Statement	Looks like	Starts	How it works	Use in Synthesis?
initial	initial begin ... end	Starts when simulation starts	Execute once and stop	Not used in synthesis
always	always begin ... end		Continually loop— while (sim. active) do statements;	Used in synthesis

□ Points:

- They all execute concurrently
- They contain behavioral statements like if-then-else, case, loops, functions, ...

Statements, Registers and Wires

□ Registers

- Define storage, can be more than one bit
- Can only be changed by assigning value to them on the left-hand side of a behavioral expression.

□ Wires (actually “nets”)

- Electrically connect things together
- Can be used on the right-hand side of an expression
 - Thus we can tie primitive gates and behavioral blocks together!

□ Statements

- left-hand side = right-hand side
- left-hand side must be a register
- Four-valued logic

```
module silly (q, r);  
  reg [3:0] a, b;  
  wire [3:0] q, r;  
  
  always begin  
    ...  
    a = (b & r) | q;  
    ...  
    q = b;  
    ...  
  end  
endmodule
```

Multi-bit
registers
and wires

Logic with
registers
and wires

Can't do — why?

Behavioral Statements

□ if-then-else

- What you would expect, except that it's doing 4-valued logic. 1 is interpreted as True; 0, x, and z are interpreted as False

```
if (select == 1)
    f = in1;
else    f = in0;
```

□ case

- What you would expect, except that it's doing 4-valued logic
- If “selector” is 2 bits, there are 4^2 possible case-items to select between
- There is no *break* statement — it is assumed.

```
case (selector)
    2'b00: a = b + c;
    2'b01: q = r + s;
    2'bx1: r = 5;
    default: r = 0;
endcase
```

□ Funny constants?

- Verilog allows for sized, 4-valued constants
- The first number is the number of bits, the letter is the base of the following number that will be converted into the bits.

8'b00x0zx10

assume f, a, q, and r
are registers for this
slide

Behavioral Statements

☐ Loops

- ☐ There are restrictions on using these for synthesis — don't.
- ☐ They are mentioned here for use in test modules and behavioral models not intended for synthesis

☐ Two main ones — for and while

- ☐ Just like in C
- ☐ There is also repeat and forever

```
reg [3:0] testOutput, i;  
...  
for (i = 0; i <= 15; i = i + 1) begin  
    testOutput = i;  
    #20;  
end
```

```
reg [3:0] testOutput, i;  
...  
i = 0;  
while (i <= 15)) begin  
    testOutput = i;  
    #20 i = i + 1;  
end
```

Important: Be careful with loops. Its easy to create infinite loop situations. More on this later.

Test Module, continued

□ Bit Selects and Part Selects

- This expression extracts bits or ranges of bits or a wire or register

The individual bits of register *i* are made available on the ports. These are later connected to individual input wires in module design.

```
module testgen (i[3], i[2], i[1], i[0]);  
reg [3:0] i; output i;  
always  
    for (i = 0; i <= 15; i = i + 1)  
        #20;  
endmodule
```

```
module top;  
wire w0, w1, w2, w3;
```

```
testgen t (w0, w1, w2, w3);  
design d (w0, w1, w2, w3);  
end
```

```
module design (a, b, c, d);  
input a, b, c, d;
```

```
mumble, mumble, blah, blah;  
end
```

Alternate:

```
module testgen (i);  
reg [3:0] i; output i;  
always  
    for (i = 0; i <= 15; i = i + 1)  
        #20;  
endmodule
```

```
module top;  
wire [3:0] w;
```

```
testgen t (w);  
design d (w[0], w[1], w[2], w[3]);  
end
```

Concurrent Constructs

- We already saw #delay

- Others

- @ ... Waiting for a *change* in a value — used in synthesis

- @ (var) w = 4;

- This says wait for var to change from its current value. When it does, resume execution of the statement by setting w = 4.

- Wait ... Waiting for a value to be a certain level — not used in synthesis

- wait (f == 0) q = 3;

- This says that if f is equal to zero, then continue executing and set q = 3.

- But if f is not equal to zero, then suspend execution until it does. When it does, this statement resumes by setting q = 3.

- Why are these concurrent?

- Because the event being waited for can only occur as a result of the concurrent execution of some other always/initial block or gate.

- They're happening concurrently

FAQs: behavioral model execution

- ☐ How does an *always* or *initial* statement start
 - ☐ That just happens at the start of simulation — arbitrary order
- ☐ Once executing, what stops it?
 - ☐ Executing either a `#delay`, `@event`, or `wait(FALSE)`.
 - ☐ All always blocks need to have at least one of these. Otherwise, the simulator will never stop running the model -- (it's an infinite loop!)
- ☐ How long will it stay stopped?
 - ☐ Until the condition that stopped it has been resolved
 - `#delay` ... until the delay time has been reached
 - `@(var)` ... until var changes
 - `wait(var)` ... until var becomes TRUE
- ☐ Does time pass when a behavioral model is executing?
 - ☐ No. The statements (if, case, etc) execute in zero time.
 - ☐ Time passes when the model stops for `#`, `@`, or `wait`.
- ☐ Will an *always* stop looping?
 - ☐ No. But an initial will only execute once.

Using a case statement

□ Truth table method

- List each input combination
- Assign to output(s) in each case item.

□ Concatenation

- {a, b, c} concatenates a, b, and c together, considering them as a single item

□ Example

a = 4'b0111

b = 6'b 1x0001

c = 2'bzx

then {a, b, c} =
12'b011111x0001zx

```
module fred (f, a, b, c);  
    output    f;  
    input     a, b, c;  
    reg       f;  
  
    always @ (a or b or c)  
        case ({a, b, c})  
            3'b000: f = 1'b0;  
            3'b001: f = 1'b1;  
            3'b010: f = 1'b1;  
            3'b011: f = 1'b1;  
            3'b100: f = 1'b1;  
            3'b101: f = 1'b0;  
            3'b110: f = 1'b0;  
            3'b111: f = 1'b1;  
        endcase  
endmodule
```

Check the rules ...

How about a Case Statement Ex?

□ Here's another version ...

```
module fred (f, a, b, c);  
  output  f;  
  input   a, b, c;  
  reg     f;
```

```
  always @ (a or b or c)  
    case ({a, b, c})
```

```
      3'b000: f = 1'b0;  
      3'b001: f = 1'b1;  
      3'b010: f = 1'b1;  
      3'b011: f = 1'b1;  
      3'b100: f = 1'b1;  
      3'b101: f = 1'b0;  
      3'b110: f = 1'b0;  
      3'b111: f = 1'b1;
```

```
    endcase
```

```
endmodule
```

check the rules...

Could put
a
function
here too

```
module fred (f, a, b, c);  
  output  f;  
  input   a, b, c;  
  reg     f;
```

```
  always @ (a or b or c)  
    case ({a, b, c})
```

```
      3'b000: f = 1'b0;  
      3'b101: f = 1'b0;  
      3'b110: f = 1'b0;  
      default: f = 1'b1;
```

```
    endcase
```

```
endmodule
```

Important: every control path is specified

Two inputs, Three outputs

```
reg [1:0]   newJ;
reg        out;
input      i, j;
always @(i or j)
  case (j)
    2'b00: begin
      newJ = (i == 0) ? 2'b00 : 2'b01;
      out = 0;
    end
    2'b01 : begin
      newJ = (i == 0) ? 2'b10 : 2'b01;
      out = 1;
    end
    2'b10 : begin
      newJ = 2'b00;
      out = 0;
    end
    default: begin
      newJ = 2'b00;
      out = 1'bx;
    end
  endcase
```

Works like the C
conditional operator.

$(\text{expr}) ? a : b;$

If the expr is true,
then the resulting
value is a, else it's b.

Behavioral Timing Model *(Not fully detailed here)*

☐ How does the behavioral model advance time?

- ☐ **#** — delaying a specific amount of time
- ☐ **@** — delaying until an event occurs (“posedge”, “negedge”, or any change)
 - this is edge-sensitive behavior
- ☐ **wait** — delaying until an event occurs (“wait (f == 0)”)
 - this is level sensitive behavior

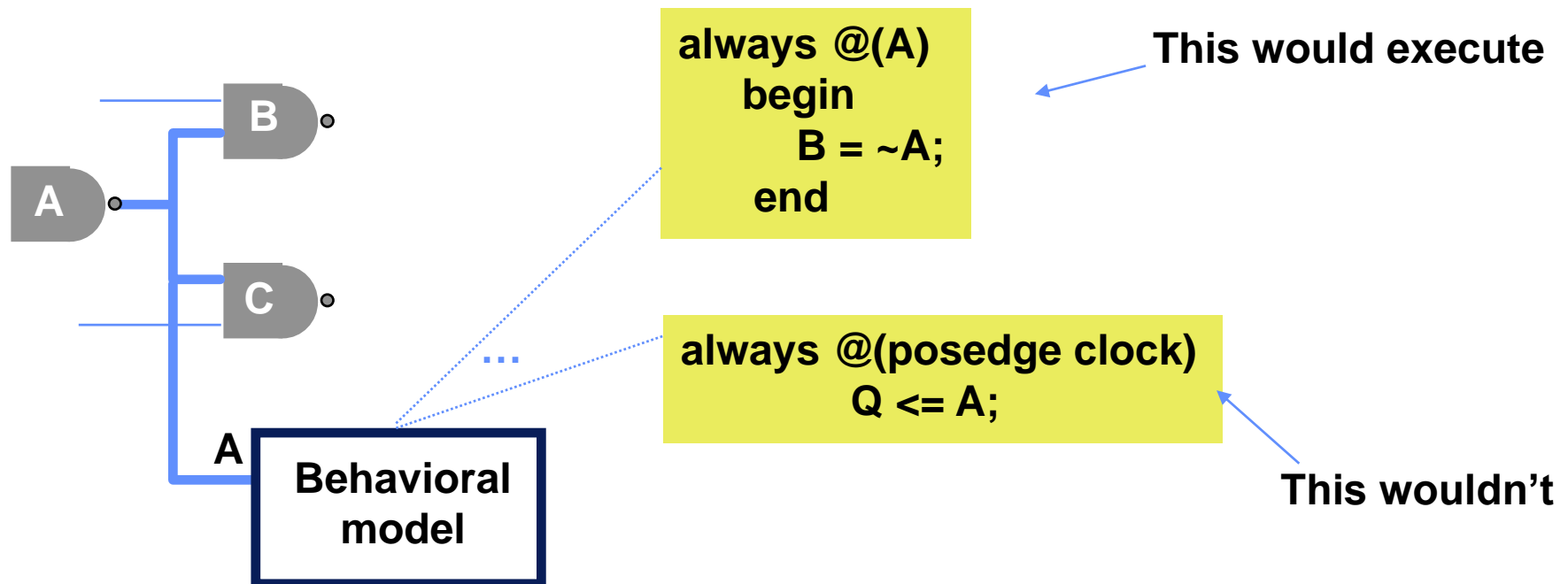
☐ What is a behavioral model sensitive to?

- ☐ any change on any input? — **No**
- ☐ any event that follows, say, a “posedge” keyword
 - e.g. @posedge clock
 - Actually “**no**” here too. — not always

What are behavioral models sensitive to?

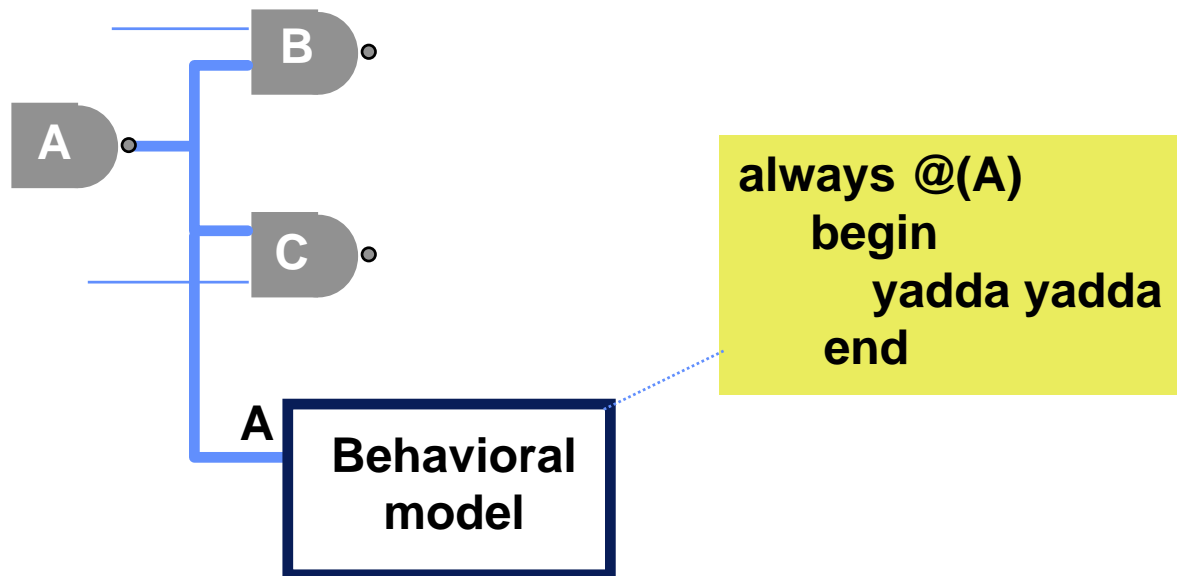
□ Quick example

- Gate A changes its output, gates B and C are evaluated to see if their outputs will change, if so, their fanouts are also followed...
- The behavioral model will only execute if it was waiting for a change on the A input



Order of Execution

- In what order do these models execute?
 - Assume A changes. Is B, C, or the behavioral model executed first?
 - Answer: the order is *defined* to be arbitrary
 - All events that are to occur at a certain time will execute in an arbitrary order.
 - The simulator will try to make them look like they all occur at the same time — but we know better.

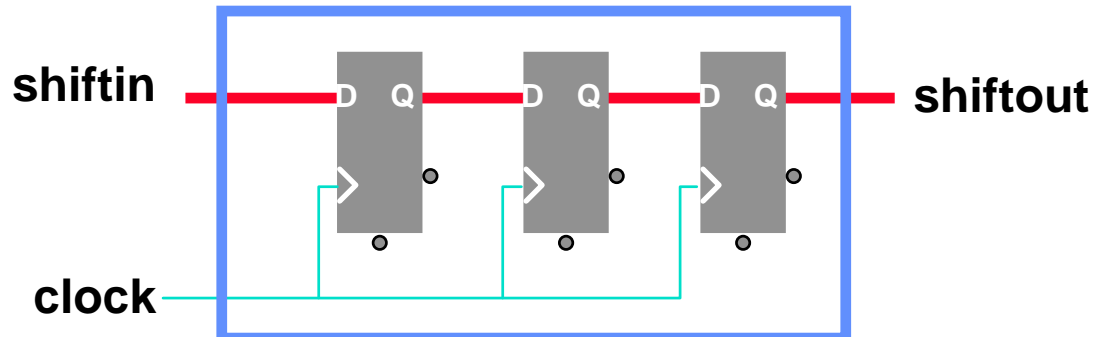


Arbitrary Order? Oops!

- Sometimes you need to exert some control
 - Consider the interconnections of this D-FF
 - At the positive edge of c, what models are ready to execute?
 - Which one is done first?

```
module dff(q, d, c);  
    ...  
    always @(posedge c)  
        q = d;  
endmodule  
  
module sreg (...);  
    ...  
    dff    a (q0, shiftin, clock),  
          b (q1, q0, clock),  
          c (shiftout, q1, clock);  
endmodule
```

Oops — The order of execution can matter!



Behavioral Timing Model

□ How does the behavioral model advance time?

- **#** — delaying a specific amount of time
- **@** — delaying until an event occurs — e.g. @v
 - “posedge”, “negedge”, or any change
 - this is edge-sensitive behavior
 - When the statement is encountered, the value v is sampled. When v changes in the specified way, execution continues.
- **wait** — delaying until an event occurs (“wait (f == 0)”)
 - this is level sensitive behavior
- While one model is waiting for one of the above reasons, other models execute — time marches on

☐ Wait — waits for a level on a line

- ☐ How is this different from an “@” ?

☐ Semantics

- ☐ wait (expression) statement;
 - e.g. wait ($a == 35$) $q = q + 4$;
- ☐ if the expression is FALSE, the process is stopped
 - when a becomes 35, it resumes with $q = q + 4$
- ☐ if the expression is TRUE, the process is not stopped
 - it continues executing

☐ Partial comparison to @ and

- ☐ @ and # always “block” the process from continuing
- ☐ wait blocks only if the condition is FALSE

An example of wait

```
module handshake (ready, dataOut, ...)
  input          ready;
  output [7:0]    dataOut;
  reg [7:0]       someValueWeCalculated;

  always begin
    wait (ready);
    dataOut = someValueWeCalculated;
    ...
    wait (~ready)
    ...
  end
endmodule
```



Do you always get the value right when ready goes from 0 to 1? Isn't this edge behavior?

Wait vs. While

□ Are these equivalent?

- No: The left example is correct, the right one isn't — it won't work
- *Wait* is used to wait for an expression to become TRUE
 - the expression eventually becomes TRUE because a variable in the expression is changed by another process
- *While* is used in the normal programming sense
 - in the case shown, if the expression is TRUE, the simulator will continuously execute the loop. Another process will never have the chance to change “in”. Infinite loop!
 - while can't be used to wait for a change on an input to the process. Need other variable in loop, or # or @ in loop.

```
module yes (in, ...);  
input    in;  
...  
        wait (in == 1);  
...  
endmodule
```

```
module no (in, ...);  
input    in;  
...  
        while (in != 1);  
...  
endmodule
```


Blocking procedural assignments and

- We've seen **blocking assignments** — they use =
 - Options for specifying delay

#10 a = b + c;
a = #10 b + c;  The difference?

- The differences:

Note the action of the second one:

- an ***intra-assignment*** time delay
- execution of the always statement is blocked (suspended) in the middle of the assignment for 10 time units.
- how is this done?

Events – @something

☐ Action

- ☐ when first encountered, sample the expression
- ☐ wait for expression to change in the indicated fashion

- ☐ This always blocks

☐ Examples

```
always @(posedge ck)
  q <= d;
```

```
always @(hello or goodbye)
  a = b;
```

```
always @(hello)
  a = b;
```

```
always begin
  yadda = yadda;
  @(posedge hello or negedge goodbye)
  a = b;
  ...
end
```

Part 3 – Basics of SystemVerilog

Summary of what we're building

❑ **Combinational**

always_comb

❑ **FSM/registers (edge sensitive)**

always_FF

❑ **Latch (level sensitive)**

always_latch

❑ **Testbench**

initial

always

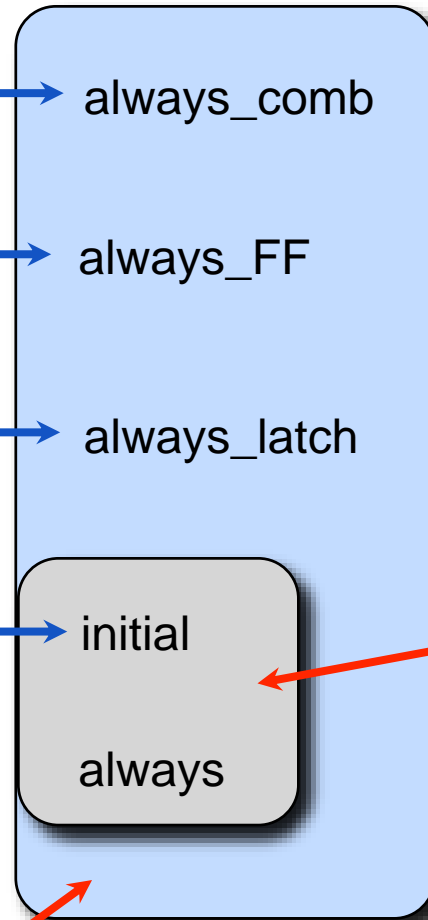
❑ **Other**

What is the “how to design”
view of this?

SystemVerilog

Verilog

There are other things to build, but we'll get to them. They're built up from these basic modeling blocks.



Two types of modeling

Carnegie Mellon

□ *Structural* modeling

- ◆ focuses on interconnections of things
- ◆ gate level designs — interconnections of gates
- ◆ module hierarchy and interconnection
 - regardless of what's inside each module

□ *Procedural* modeling

- ◆ modeling the functionality of logic blocks with statements that *look like* a programming language
 - look like, and execute like...
- ◆ using `always_i`, `initial`, `assign`

```
module mux1
  (output logic f,
   input      a, b, sel);

  and #5 g1 (f1, a, nsel),
          g2 (f2, b, sel);
  or  #5 g3 (f, f1, f2);
  not      g4 (nsel, sel);
endmodule: mux1
```

```
module mux2
  (output logic f,
   input      a, b, sel);

  always_comb
    if (sel)
      f = b;
    else
      f = a;
endmodule: mux2
```

Behavioral SystemVerilog

SystemVerilog:

```
module example(input  logic a, b, c,  
               output logic y);  
    assign y = ~a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & c;  
endmodule
```

Instantiation and hierarchy

Carnegie Mellon

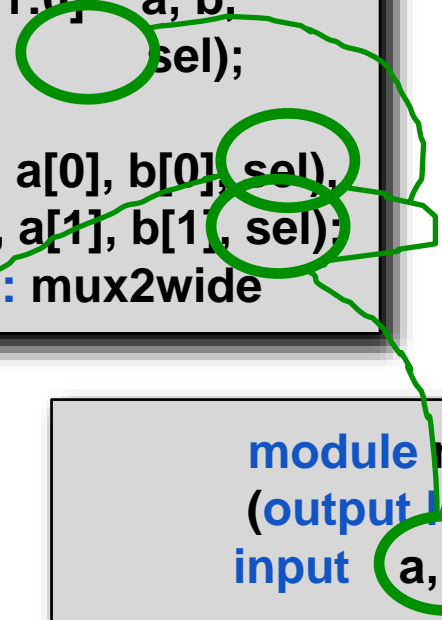
Namespace
How many sels?
Wires/nets
Bit-select

What's left?

Instantiation is structural — connects things together, regardless of what's inside!

```
module mux2wide
(output logic [1:0] f,
 input [1:0] a, b,
 input sel);

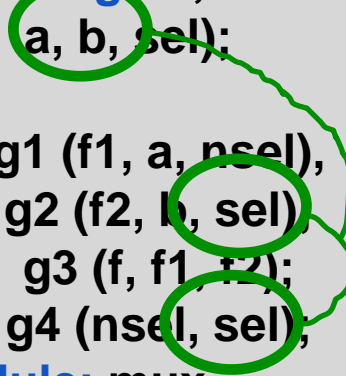
mux b0 (f[0], a[0], b[0], sel);
mux b1 (f[1], a[1], b[1], sel);
endmodule: mux2wide
```



b0

```
module mux
(output logic f,
 input a, b, sel);

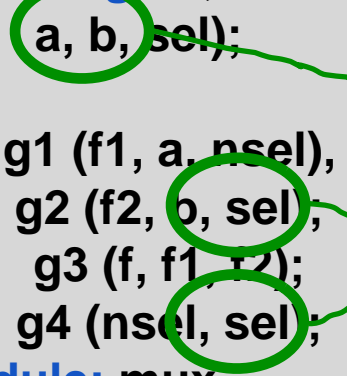
and #5 g1 (f1, a, nsel),
          g2 (f2, b, sel);
or #5 g3 (f, f1, f2);
not g4 (nsel, sel);
endmodule: mux
```



b1

```
module mux
(output logic f,
 input a, b, sel);

and #5 g1 (f1, a, nsel),
          g2 (f2, b, sel);
or #5 g3 (f, f1, f2);
not g4 (nsel, sel);
endmodule: mux
```



Port naming convention

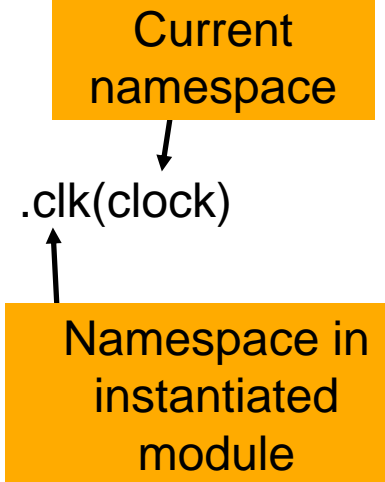
Carnegie Mellon

❑ Ordered-port connections

- ◆ The port connections are given in the order that they're defined in the module being instantiated — most of our examples have used this

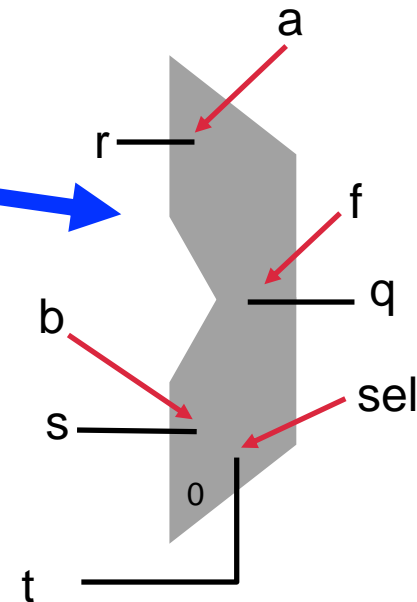
❑ Named-port connection — below

- ◆ The port connections are specified by naming the element in the module that is being connected to
- ◆ Many feel this is easier to follow/debug in a large description
- ◆ Connections can be given in any order



```
module top
  (output logic q,
   input  r, s, t);
  mux m1 (.sel(t), .f(q), .a(r), .b(s));
endmodule: top
```

```
module mux
  (output logic f,
   input  a, b, sel);
  ... // as before
endmodule: mux
```



Alternate naming approaches

Carnegie Mellon

Illustrations of
when the names
line up

All names match

All names match,
and self
documenting

```
module top
(output logic f,
input  a, b, sel);
mux m1 (.sel(sel), .f(f), .a(a), .b(b));
endmodule: top
```

```
mux m1 (*);
```

```
mux m1 (.sel, .f, .a, .b);
```

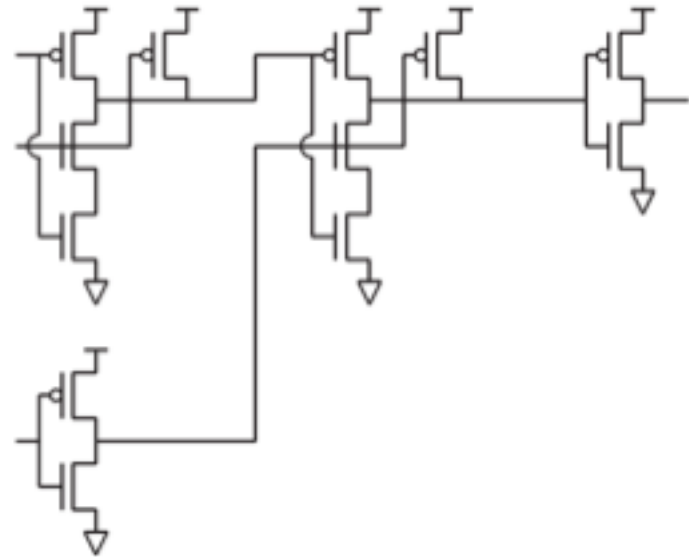
```
module mux
(output logic f,
input  a, b, sel);
... // as before
endmodule: mux
```

Alternate
instantiations

Combinational ckts: What's underneath?

Carnegie Mellon

□ How does it work?



Notice the natural flow through the circuitry
— assign and always_comb model that

How to design a combinational ckt

□ Two choices for most design

- ◆ assign statements
- ◆ always_comb statements (blocks)
- ◆ No one uses gates (gates are not often used in higher level design except as outputs of synthesis tools, or tri-state drivers)
- ◆ Use assign for “one-liners”
- ◆ Use always_comb for more complex statements (if, case, ...)

```
module adder
(output logic carryOut, sum,
 input      a, b, cIn);

assign sum = a ^ b ^ cIn,
        carryOut = (a & b) | (b & cIn)
                | (a & cIn);
endmodule: adder
```

```
module adder
(output logic f,
 input      sel, b, c);

always_comb begin
    sum = a ^ b ^ cIn;
    carryOut = (a & b) | (b & cIn)
                | (a & cIn);
end
endmodule: mux
```

What do you mean, “no gates”

□ In higher level logic design

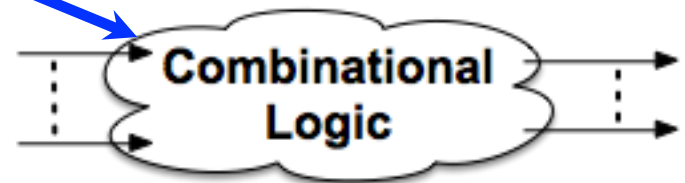
- ◆ People use synthesis tools to generate gate level logic
 - OK, they show up now and then
- ◆ But no one cranks Boolean algebra, Kmaps, QM, or Shannon Expansion by hand for sizable designs

□ We deal with blobs of combinational logic

- ◆ Gate details are left to the synthesis tools and library builders

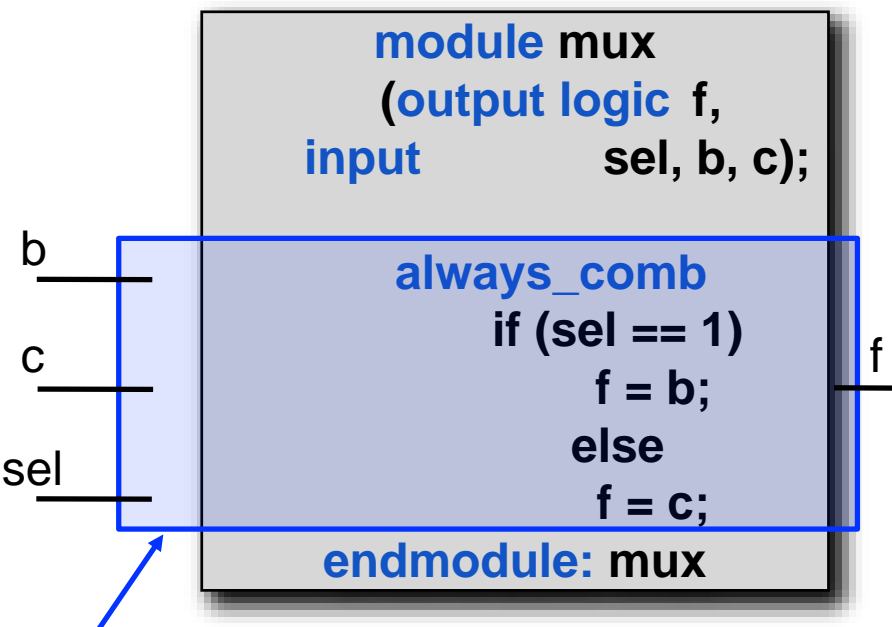
```
module adder
  (output logic f,
   input         sel, b, c);

  always_comb begin
    sum = a ^ b ^ cIn;
    carryOut = (a & b) | (b & cIn)
              | (a & cIn);
  end
endmodule: mux
```



Rules for Writing Combinational Logic

- ❑ It all boils down to writing a stateless function
- ❑ The rules for modeling combinational logic using procedural statements
 1. A change on any input of the function will cause it to execute
 2. The combinational output(s) must be assigned in any execution (thus in every control path)
 3. Nothing is remembered from execution to execution



Issue 1, handled by `always_comb` or `assign`

Issue 2, handled by **you!**

Issue 3, (another way of stating issue 2) the loop is *stateless*. Nothing remembered internally. Handled by **you!**

What about sequential elements?

□ What's a sequential element?

- ◆ a flip flop —
- ◆ a latch —
- ◆ Cross-coupled Nand or Nor gates

□ Huh? but they're just combinational logic...?

□ How to do it procedurally

- ◆ sequential elements are *not explicitly specified*
- ◆ rather, they are *inferred*
- ◆ *hmm, a stateless function was used to infer combinational logic*

□ That is,

- ◆ synthesis tools infer — figure out — deduce — that you need a sequential element
- ◆ need to write a loop that requires state to implement it
- ◆ and maybe clock edges, reset and preset

To infer a flip-flop

□ Flip-flops are edge-triggered

- ◆ need to use @ with posedge or negedge
- ◆ side effect — **every** variable on the left-hand side assigned with a “<=” will be an edge triggered flip-flop (or vector of flip-flops)
- ◆ Some combinational logic can be specified in certain places

```
module Dff
  (output logic Q,
   input      clk, d, resetN);

  always_ff @(posedge clk,
              negedge resetN)
    if (~resetN)
      Q <= 0;
    else
      Q <= d;
endmodule
```

What happens on the clock edge is inferred — it's the last (default) action.

The assignment is made to a logic (or bit ...) variable, not a reg as in old Verilog. Synthesis infers an FF

Q, d, clk, and resetN are not keywords

<= needed for synthesis and simulation

How reset works

□ reset is asynchronous ... hmm, but there's an edge

```
module Dff
  (output logic Q,
   input  clk, d, resetN);

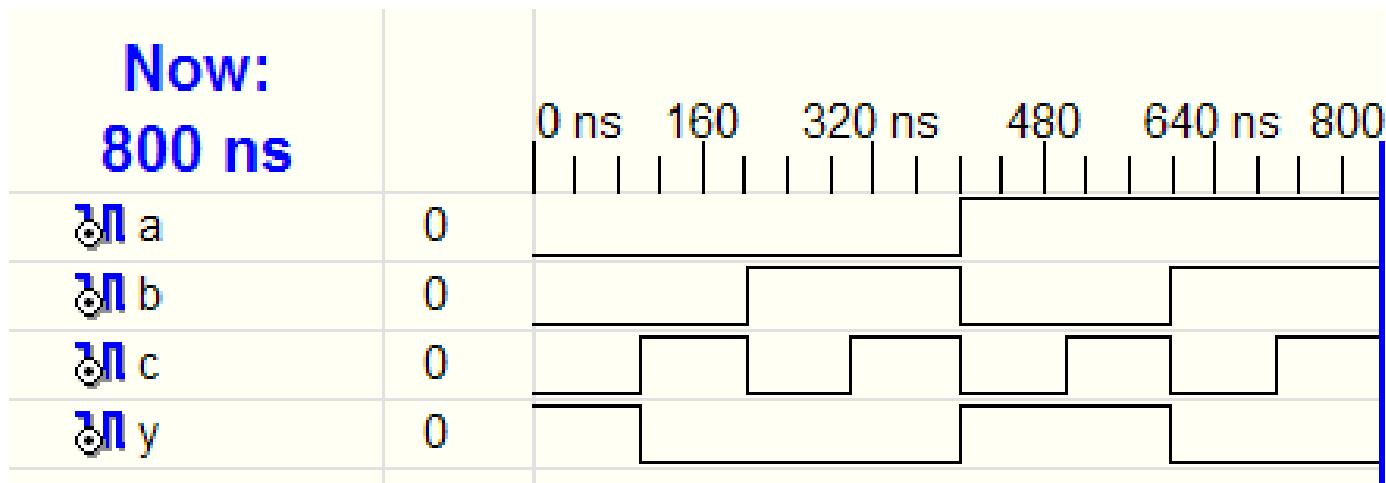
  always_ff @(posedge clk, negedge resetN)
    if (~resetN)
      Q <= 0;
    else
      Q <= d;

endmodule
```


HDL Simulation

SystemVerilog:

```
module example(input  logic a, b, c,
               output logic y);
    assign y = ~a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & c;
endmodule
```

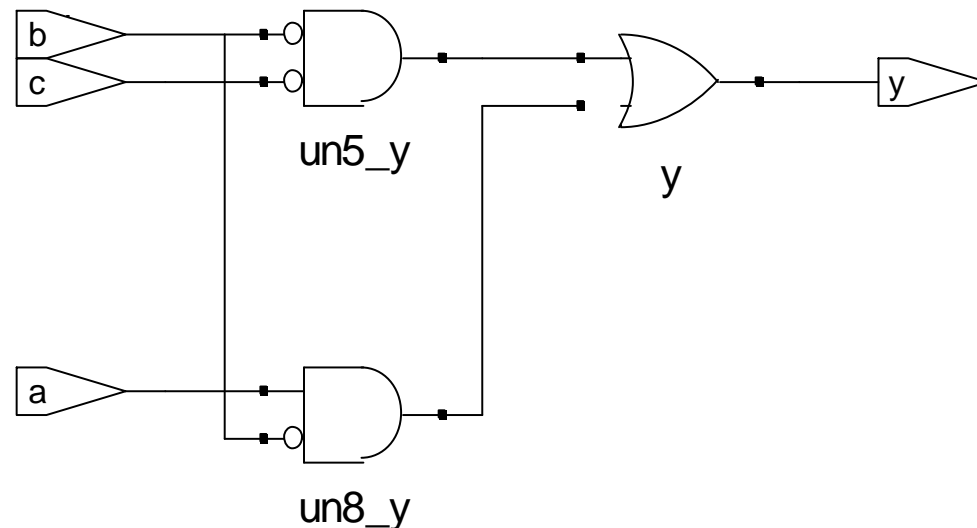


HDL Synthesis

SystemVerilog:

```
module example(input  logic a, b, c,  
               output logic y);  
    assign y = ~a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & ~c | a & ~b & c;  
endmodule
```

Synthesis:



SystemVerilog Syntax

- Case sensitive
 - **Example:** `reset` and `Reset` are not the same signal.
- No names that start with numbers
 - **Example:** `2mux` is an invalid name
- Whitespace ignored
- Comments:
 - `//` single line comment
 - `/*` multiline
comment `*/`

Structural Modeling - Hierarchy

```
module and3(input  logic a, b, c,  
            output logic y);  
    assign y = a & b & c;  
endmodule
```

```
module inv(input  logic a,  
           output logic y);  
    assign y = ~a;  
endmodule
```

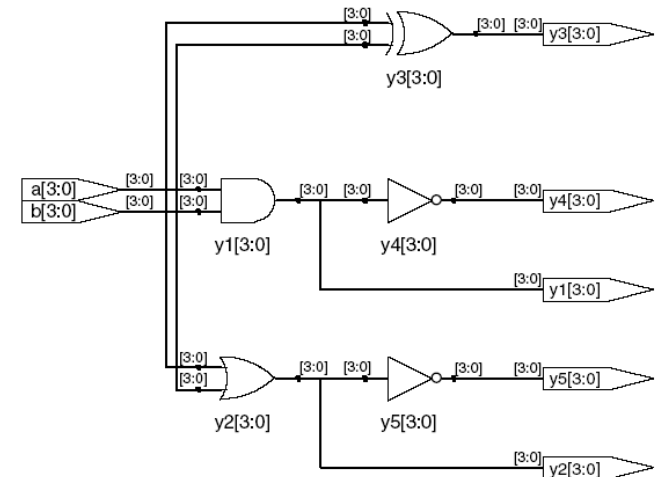
```
module nand3(input  logic a, b, c  
             output logic y);  
    logic n1;                                // internal signal  
  
    and3 andgate(a, b, c, n1);              // instance of and3  
    inv  inverter(n1, y);                   // instance of inverter  
endmodule
```



Bitwise Operators

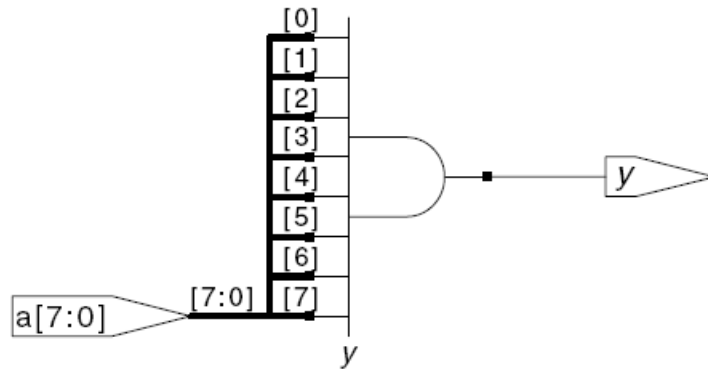
```
module gates(input  logic [3:0]  a, b,  
             output logic [3:0] y1, y2, y3, y4, y5);  
    /* Five different two-input logic  
       gates acting on 4 bit busses */  
    assign y1 = a & b;      // AND  
    assign y2 = a | b;      // OR  
    assign y3 = a ^ b;      // XOR  
    assign y4 = ~(a & b);   // NAND  
    assign y5 = ~(a | b);   // NOR  
endmodule
```

// single line comment
/*...*/ multiline comment



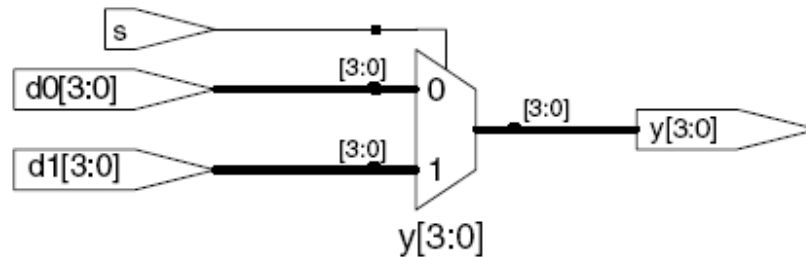
Reduction Operators

```
module and8(input  logic [7:0] a,
            output logic      y);
    assign y = &a;
    // &a is much easier to write than
    // assign y = a[7] & a[6] & a[5] & a[4] &
    //             a[3] & a[2] & a[1] & a[0];
endmodule
```



Conditional Assignment

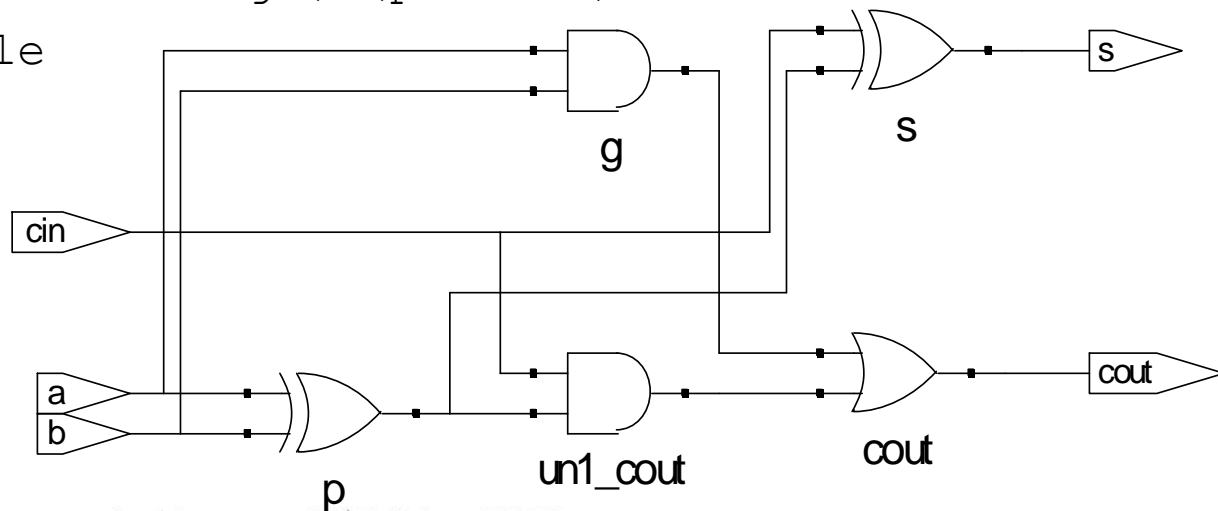
```
module mux2(input  logic [3:0] d0, d1,  
            input  logic      s,  
            output logic [3:0] y);  
    assign y = s ? d1 : d0;  
endmodule
```



? : is also called a *ternary operator* because it operates on 3 inputs: s, d1, and d0.

Internal Variables

```
module fulladder(input  logic a, b, cin,  
                 output logic s, cout);  
    logic p, g;    // internal nodes  
  
    assign p = a ^ b;  
    assign g = a & b;  
  
    assign s = p ^ cin;  
    assign cout = g | (p & cin);  
endmodule
```



Precedence

Order of operations

Highest

~	NOT
*, /, %	mult, div, mod
+, -	add, sub
<<, >>	shift
<<<, >>>	arithmetic shift
<, <=, >, >=	comparison
==, !=	equal, not equal
&, ~&	AND, NAND
^, ~^	XOR, XNOR
, ~	OR, NOR
?:	ternary operator

Lowest

Numbers

Format: N'Bvalue

N = number of bits, **B** = base

N'B is optional but recommended (default is decimal)

Number	# Bits	Base	Decimal Equivalent	Stored
3'b101	3	binary	5	101
'b11	unsized	binary	3	00...0011
8'b11	8	binary	3	00000011
8'b1010_1011	8	binary	171	10101011
3'd6	3	decimal	6	110
6'o42	6	octal	34	100010
8'hAB	8	hexadecimal	171	10101011
42	Unsize	decimal	42	00...0101010



Bit Manipulations: Example 1

```
assign y = {a[2:1], {3{b[0]}}}, a[0], 6'b100_010};
```

```
// if y is a 12-bit signal, the above statement produces:
```

```
y = a[2] a[1] b[0] b[0] b[0] a[0] 1 0 0 0 1 0
```

```
// underscores (_) are used for formatting only to make  
it easier to read. SystemVerilog ignores them.
```

Bit Manipulations: Example 2

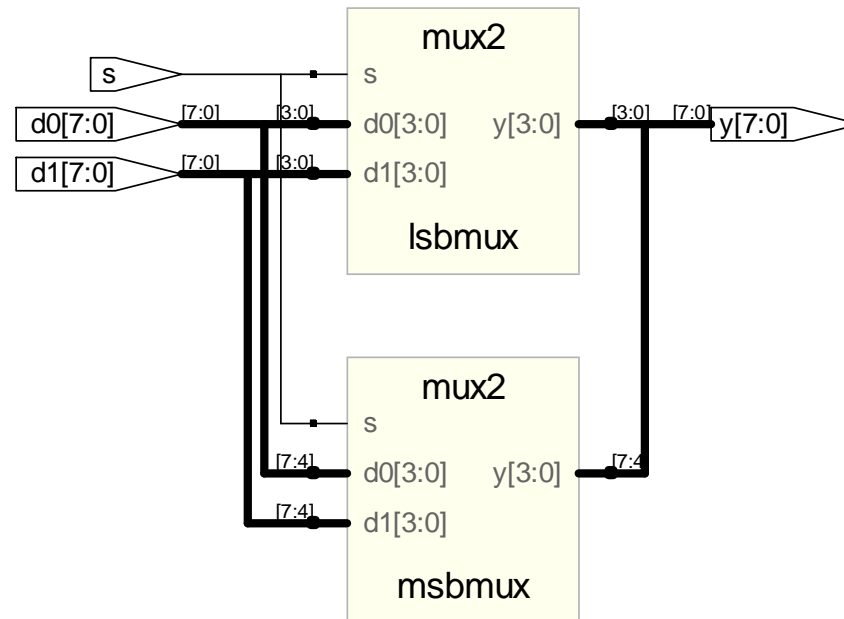
SystemVerilog:

```

module mux2_8(input  logic [7:0] d0, d1,
              input  logic      s,
              output logic [7:0] y);

    mux2 lsbmux(d0[3:0], d1[3:0], s, y[3:0]);
    mux2 msbmux(d0[7:4], d1[7:4], s, y[7:4]);
endmodule

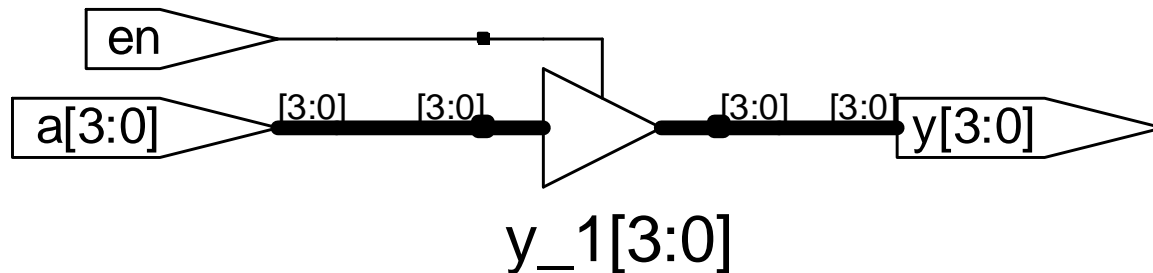
```



Z: Floating Output

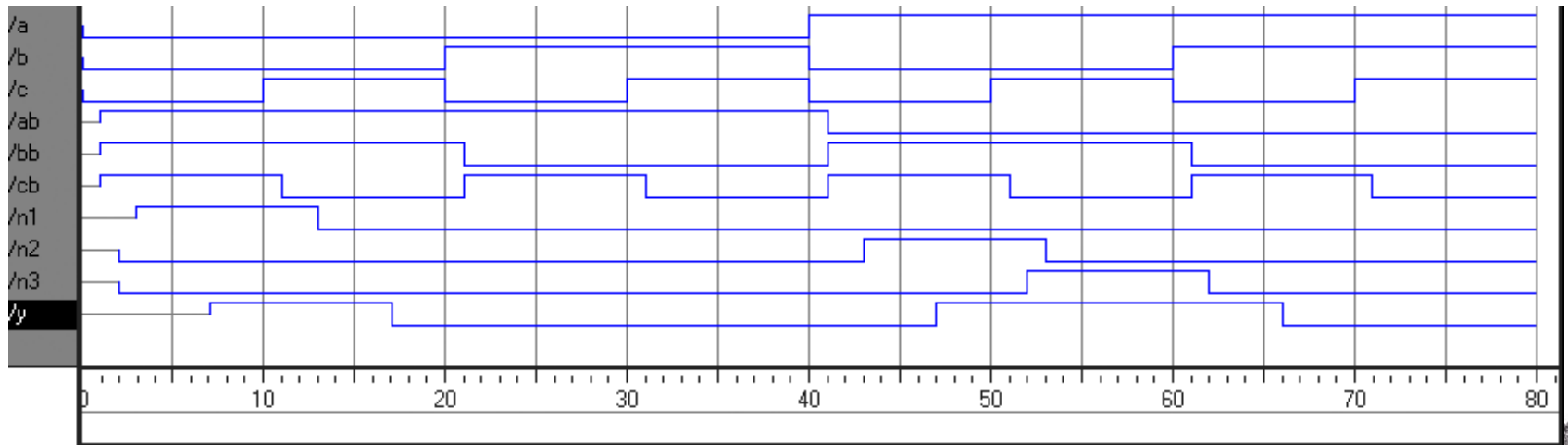
SystemVerilog:

```
module tristate(input  logic [3:0] a,  
                input  logic      en,  
                output logic [3:0] y);  
    assign y = en ? a : 4'bz;  
endmodule
```



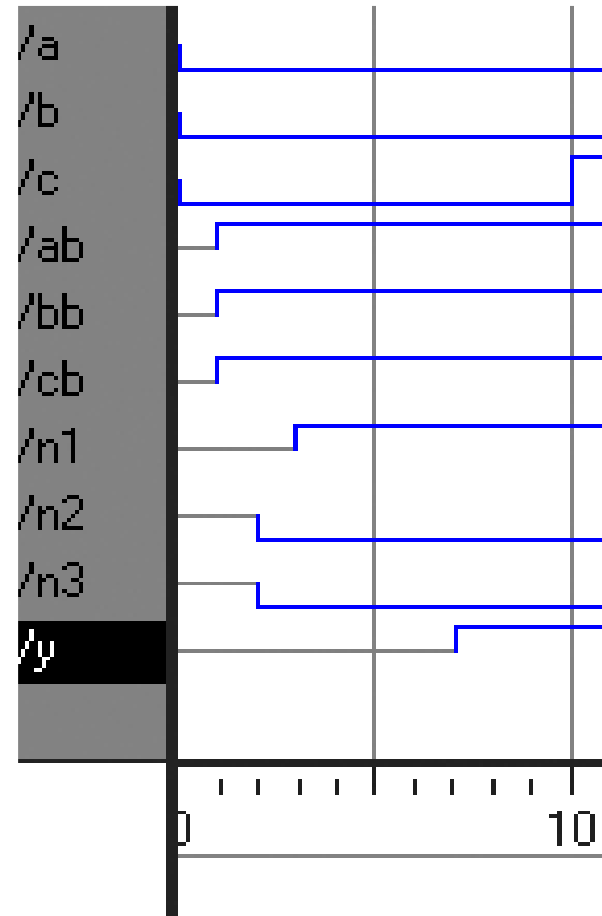
Delays

```
module example(input  logic a, b, c,  
               output logic y);  
    logic ab, bb, cb, n1, n2, n3;  
    assign #1 {ab, bb, cb} = ~{a, b, c};  
    assign #2 n1 = ab & bb & cb;  
    assign #2 n2 = a & bb & cb;  
    assign #2 n3 = a & bb & c;  
    assign #4 y = n1 | n2 | n3;  
endmodule
```



Delays

```
module example(input logic a, b, c,  
               output logic y);  
    logic ab, bb, cb, n1, n2, n3;  
    assign #1 {ab, bb, cb} =  
             ~{a, b, c};  
    assign #2 n1 = ab & bb & cb;  
    assign #2 n2 = a & bb & cb;  
    assign #2 n3 = a & bb & c;  
    assign #4 y = n1 | n2 | n3;  
endmodule
```



Sequential Logic

- SystemVerilog uses **Idioms** to describe latches, flip-flops and FSMs
- Other coding styles may simulate correctly but produce incorrect hardware

Always Statement

General Structure:

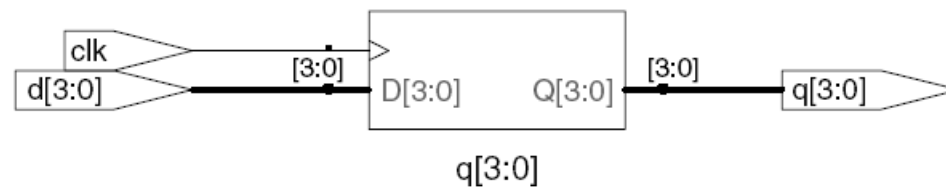
```
always @(sensitivity list)
    statement;
```

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



D Flip-Flop

```
module flop(input logic      clk,  
            input logic [3:0] d,  
            output logic [3:0] q);  
  
    always_ff @(posedge clk)  
        q <= d;           // pronounced "q gets d"  
  
endmodule
```

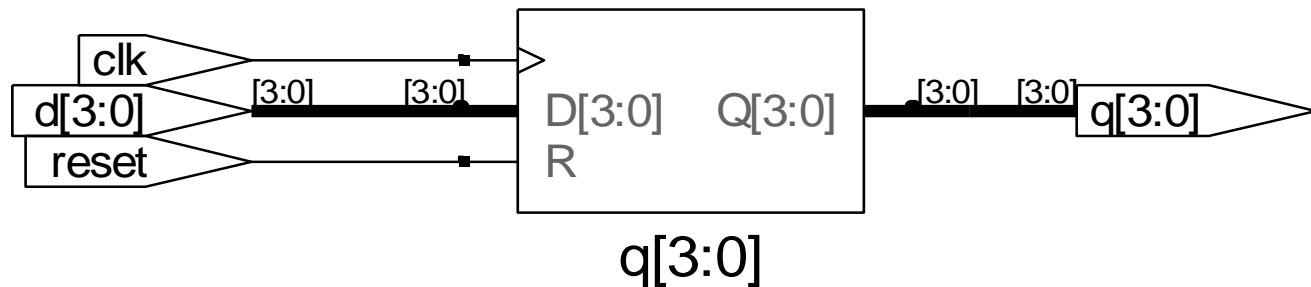


Resettable D Flip-Flop

```
module flopr(input  logic      clk,
             input  logic      reset,
             input  logic [3:0] d,
             output logic [3:0] q);

    // synchronous reset
    always_ff @(posedge clk)
        if (reset) q <= 4'b0;
        else      q <= d;

endmodule
```

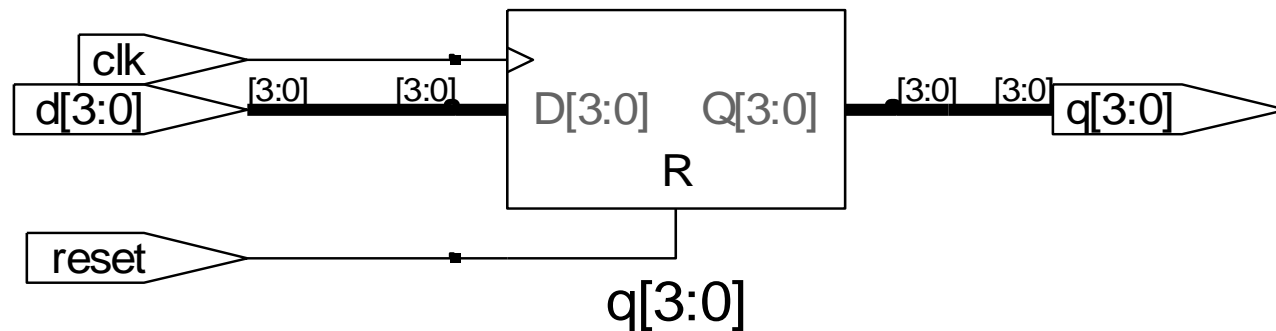


Resettable D Flip-Flop

```
module flopr(input logic clk,
             input logic reset,
             input logic [3:0] d,
             output logic [3:0] q);

    // asynchronous reset
    always_ff @(posedge clk, posedge reset)
        if (reset) q <= 4'b0;
        else      q <= d;

endmodule
```

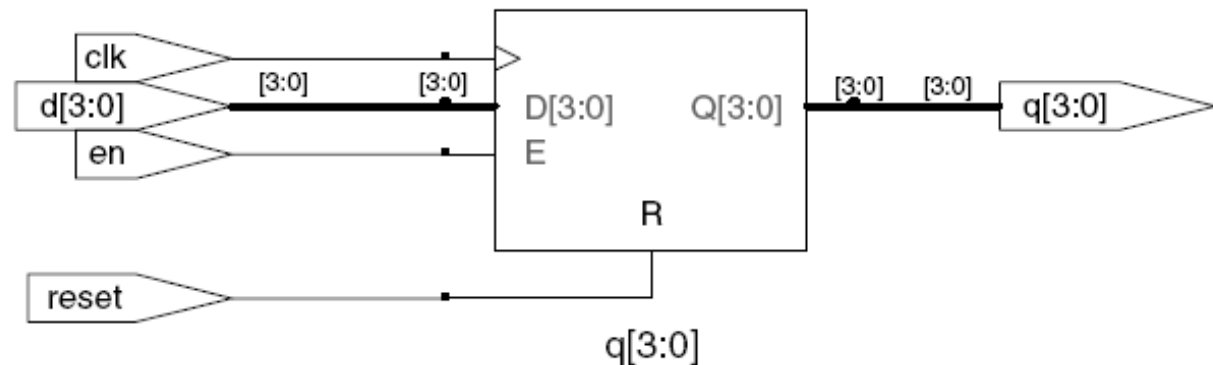


D Flip-Flop with Enable

```
module flopren(input  logic      clk,
               input  logic      reset,
               input  logic      en,
               input  logic [3:0] d,
               output logic [3:0] q);

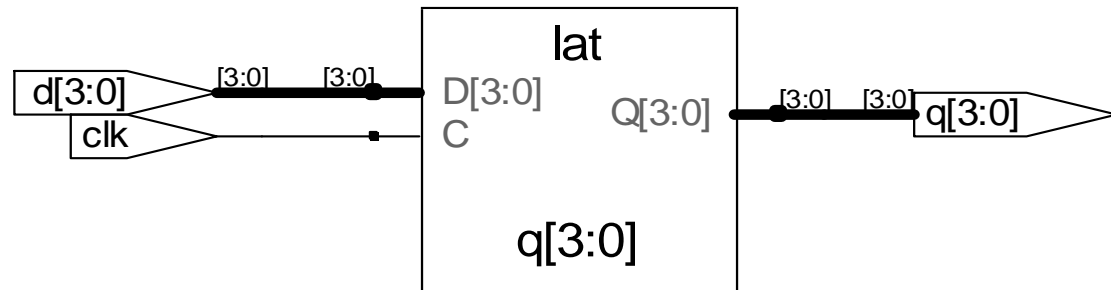
    // asynchronous reset and enable
    always_ff @(posedge clk, posedge reset)
        if      (reset) q <= 4'b0;
        else if (en)    q <= d;

endmodule
```



Latch

```
module latch(input  logic      clk,  
             input  logic [3:0] d,  
             output logic [3:0] q);  
  
    always_latch  
        if (clk) q <= d;  
  
endmodule
```



Warning: We don't use latches in this text. But you might write code that inadvertently implies a latch. Check synthesized hardware – if it has latches in it, there's an error.

Other Behavioral Statements

- Statements that must be inside `always` statements:
 - `if / else`
 - `case, casez`

Combinational Logic using always

```
// combinational logic using an always statement
module gates(input  logic [3:0] a, b,
              output logic [3:0] y1, y2, y3, y4, y5);
    always_comb          // need begin/end because there is
    begin                // more than one statement in always
        y1 = a & b;      // AND
        y2 = a | b;      // OR
        y3 = a ^ b;      // XOR
        y4 = ~(a & b);   // NAND
        y5 = ~(a | b);   // NOR
    end
endmodule
```

This hardware could be described with assign statements using fewer lines of code, so it's better to use assign statements in this case.

Combinational Logic using case

```
module sevenseg(input  logic [3:0] data,
                output logic [6:0] segments);

    always_comb
        case (data)
            //                abc_defg
            0: segments =      7'b111_1110;
            1: segments =      7'b011_0000;
            2: segments =      7'b110_1101;
            3: segments =      7'b111_1001;
            4: segments =      7'b011_0011;
            5: segments =      7'b101_1011;
            6: segments =      7'b101_1111;
            7: segments =      7'b111_0000;
            8: segments =      7'b111_1111;
            9: segments =      7'b111_0011;
            default: segments = 7'b000_0000; // required
        endcase
    endmodule
```



Combinational Logic using case

- case statement implies combinational logic **only if** all possible input combinations described
- Remember to use **default** statement



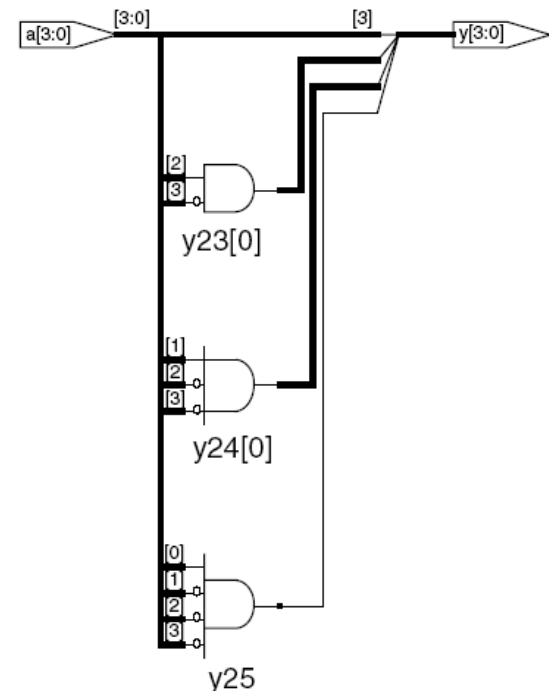
Combinational Logic using casez

```

module priority_casez(input  logic [3:0] a,
                      output logic [3:0] y);

  always_comb
    casez (a)
      4'b1???: y = 4'b1000; // ? = don't care
      4'b01??: y = 4'b0100;
      4'b001?: y = 4'b0010;
      4'b0001: y = 4'b0001;
      default: y = 4'b0000;
    endcase
endmodule

```

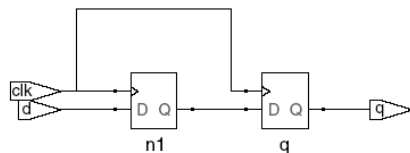


Blocking vs. Nonblocking Assignment

- `<=` is **nonblocking** assignment
 - Occurs simultaneously with others
- `=` is **blocking** assignment
 - Occurs in order it appears in file

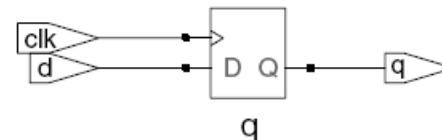
```
// Good synchronizer using
// nonblocking assignments
module syncgood(input  logic clk,
                input  logic d,
                output logic q);

  logic n1;
  always_ff @(posedge clk)
  begin
    n1 <= d;  // nonblocking
    q  <= n1; // nonblocking
  end
endmodule
```



```
// Bad synchronizer using
// blocking assignments
module syncbad(input logic clk,
               input logic d,
               output logic q);

  logic n1;
  always_ff @(posedge clk)
  begin
    n1 = d;  // blocking
    q  = n1; // blocking
  end
endmodule
```



Rules for Signal Assignment

- **Synchronous sequential logic:** use `always_ff` @ (`posedge clk`) and nonblocking assignments (`<=`)

```
always_ff @ (posedge clk)
    q <= d; // nonblocking
```

- **Simple combinational logic:** use continuous assignments (`assign...`)

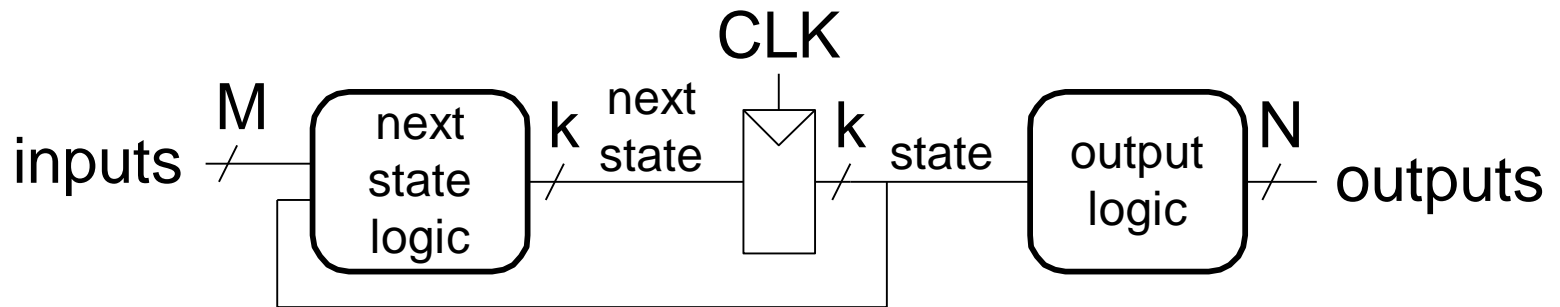
```
assign y = a & b;
```

- **More complicated combinational logic:** use `always_comb` and blocking assignments (`=`)
- Assign a signal in **only one** `always` statement or continuous assignment statement.

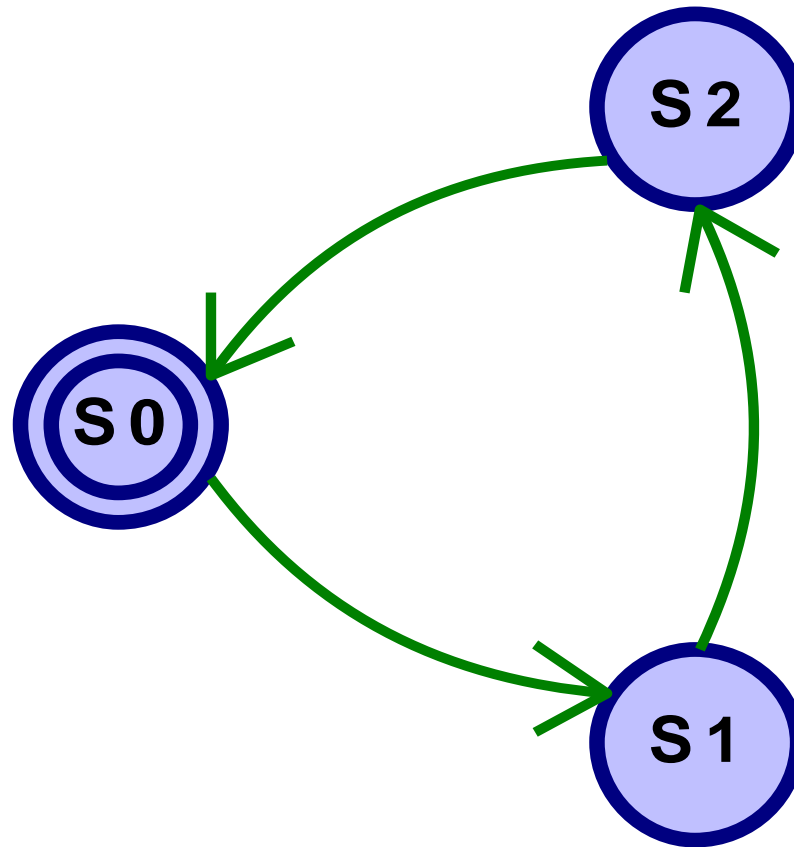


Finite State Machines (FSMs)

- **Three blocks:**
 - next state logic
 - state register
 - output logic



FSM Example: Divide by 3



The double circle indicates the reset state

FSM in SystemVerilog

```
module divideby3FSM (input  logic clk,
                    input  logic reset,
                    output logic q);
    typedef enum logic [1:0] {S0, S1, S2} statetype;
    statetype [1:0] state, nextstate;

    // state register
    always_ff @ (posedge clk, posedge reset)
        if (reset) state <= S0;
        else      state <= nextstate;

    // next state logic
    always_comb
        case (state)
            S0:      nextstate = S1;
            S1:      nextstate = S2;
            S2:      nextstate = S0;
            default: nextstate = S0;
        endcase

    // output logic
    assign q = (state == S0);
endmodule
```


Parameterized Modules

2:1 mux:

```
module mux2
    #(parameter width = 8)    // name and default value
    (input  logic [width-1:0] d0, d1,
     input  logic              s,
     output logic [width-1:0] y);
    assign y = s ? d1 : d0;
endmodule
```

Instance with 8-bit bus width (uses default):

```
mux2 mux1(d0, d1, s, out);
```

Instance with 12-bit bus width:

```
mux2 #(12) lowmux(d0, d1, s, out);
```



Testbenches

- HDL that tests another module: *device under test* (dut)
- Not synthesizable
- Types:
 - Simple
 - Self-checking
 - Self-checking with testvectors

Testbench Example

- Write SystemVerilog code to implement the following function in hardware:

$$y = \overline{b}\overline{c} + a\overline{b}$$

- Name the module `sillyfunction`

Testbench Example

- Write SystemVerilog code to implement the following function in hardware:

$$y = \overline{b}\overline{c} + a\overline{b}$$

```
module sillyfunction(input  logic a, b, c,
                    output logic y);
    assign y = ~b & ~c | a & ~b;
endmodule
```

Simple Testbench

```
module testbench1();  
    logic a, b, c;  
    logic y;  
    // instantiate device under test  
    sillyfunction dut(a, b, c, y);  
    // apply inputs one at a time  
    initial begin  
        a = 0; b = 0; c = 0; #10;  
        c = 1; #10;  
        b = 1; c = 0; #10;  
        c = 1; #10;  
        a = 1; b = 0; c = 0; #10;  
        c = 1; #10;  
        b = 1; c = 0; #10;  
        c = 1; #10;  
    end  
endmodule
```



Self-checking Testbench

```
module testbench2();  
    logic a, b, c;  
    logic y;  
    sillyfunction dut(a, b, c, y); // instantiate dut  
    initial begin // apply inputs, check results one at a time  
        a = 0; b = 0; c = 0; #10;  
        if (y !== 1) $display("000 failed.");  
        c = 1; #10;  
        if (y !== 0) $display("001 failed.");  
        b = 1; c = 0; #10;  
        if (y !== 0) $display("010 failed.");  
        c = 1; #10;  
        if (y !== 0) $display("011 failed.");  
        a = 1; b = 0; c = 0; #10;  
        if (y !== 1) $display("100 failed.");  
        c = 1; #10;  
        if (y !== 1) $display("101 failed.");  
        b = 1; c = 0; #10;  
        if (y !== 0) $display("110 failed.");  
        c = 1; #10;  
        if (y !== 0) $display("111 failed.");  
    end  
endmodule
```

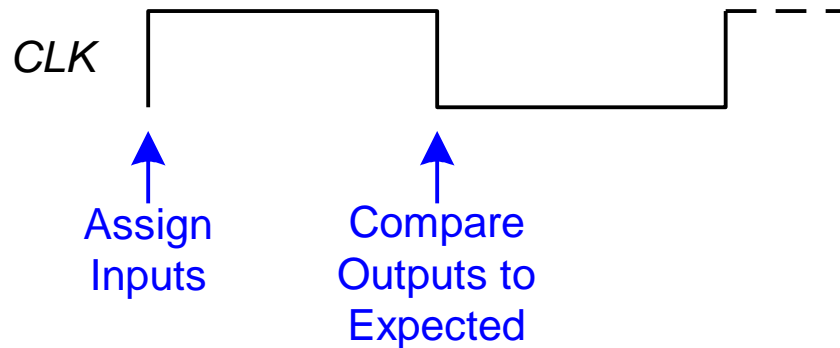


Testbench with Testvectors

- Testvector file: inputs and expected outputs
- Testbench:
 1. Generate clock for assigning inputs, reading outputs
 2. Read testvectors file into array
 3. Assign inputs, expected outputs
 4. Compare outputs with expected outputs and report errors

Testbench with Testvectors

- Testbench clock:
 - assign inputs (on rising edge)
 - compare outputs with expected outputs (on falling edge).



- Testbench clock also used as clock for synchronous sequential circuits

Testvectors File

- File: `example.tv`
- contains vectors of `abc_yexpected`

000_1

001_0

010_0

011_0

100_1

101_1

110_0

111_0



1. Generate Clock

```
module testbench3();  
    logic          clk, reset;  
    logic          a, b, c, yexpected;  
    logic          y;  
    logic [31:0] vectornum, errors;    // bookkeeping variables  
    logic [3:0] testvectors[10000:0]; // array of testvectors  
  
    // instantiate device under test  
    sillyfunction dut(a, b, c, y);  
  
    // generate clock  
    always          // no sensitivity list, so it always executes  
    begin  
        clk = 1; #5; clk = 0; #5;  
    end
```

2. Read Testvectors into Array

```
// at start of test, load vectors and pulse reset
```

```
initial
```

```
begin
```

```
    $readmemb("example.tv", testvectors);
```

```
    vectornum = 0; errors = 0;
```

```
    reset = 1; #27; reset = 0;
```

```
end
```

```
// Note: $readmembh reads testvector files written in
```

```
// hexadecimal
```

3. Assign Inputs & Expected Outputs

```
// apply test vectors on rising edge of clk
always @(posedge clk)
begin
    #1; {a, b, c, yexpected} = testvectors[vectornum];
end
```

4. Compare with Expected Outputs

```
// check results on falling edge of clk
always @(negedge clk)
    if (~reset) begin // skip during reset
        if (y !== yexpected) begin
            $display("Error: inputs = %b", {a, b, c});
            $display("  outputs = %b (%b expected)", y, yexpected);
            errors = errors + 1;
        end
    end

// Note: to print in hexadecimal, use %h. For example,
//          $display("Error: inputs = %h", {a, b, c});
```

4. Compare with Expected Outputs

```
// increment array index and read next testvector
    vectornum = vectornum + 1;
    if (testvectors[vectornum] === 4'bx) begin
        $display("%d tests completed with %d errors",
            vectornum, errors);
        $finish;
    end
end
endmodule
```

// `===` and `!==` can compare values that are 1, 0, x, or z.

