Introduction to VHDL programming

Juan Antonio Clemente Based on the material written by: Marcos Sánchez-Élez

September 30, 2014

Contents

1	Intr	troduction				
2	Bas	ic Eler	ments of VHDL	3		
	2.1	Entity	7	. 3		
	2.2	Archit	tecture	. 4		
	2.3	VHDI	objects	. 5		
	2.4	VHDI		. 6		
		2.4.1	Predefined types	. 6		
		2.4.2	User-defined types	. 7		
		2.4.3	Examples	. 8		
		2.4.4	Operators	. 9		
3	Bas	ic Stru	ucture of a Source File in VHDL	11		
	3.1	Concu	ırrent statements	. 11		
		3.1.1	WHEN-ELSE	. 11		
		3.1.2	WITH-SELECT-WHEN	. 12		
	3.2	Condi	tional statements	. 13		
		3.2.1	IF-THEN-ELSE	. 13		
		3.2.2	CASE-WHEN			
		3.2.3	FOR-LOOP			
		3.2.4	WHILE-LOOP			
	3.3	Proces	ss statement			
	3.4		tural description			
	3.5		ples			
4	Sim	ulatio	n of a VHDL Code	25		
-	4.1		of simulation			
		~ ccbp				

ii CONTENTS

	4.2	Simulation statements	26
	4.3	Simulation templates in VHDL	27
5	\mathbf{Des}	cription of Sequential Logic	31
	5.1	Sequential hardware	31
	5.2	Counters	34
	5.3	Examples	37
		5.3.1 8-bit register	37
		5.3.2 8-bit register built using 1-bit flip-flops	37
6	Des	ign of a Finite State Machine (FSM)	39
7	Fun	ctions, Procedures and Packages	43
7	Fun 7.1	ctions, Procedures and Packages Functions	43
7		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
7	7.1	Functions	43
8	7.1 7.2 7.3	Functions	43 44
•	7.1 7.2 7.3 Des	Functions	43 44 44
8	7.1 7.2 7.3 Des	Functions Procedures Examples ign of a RAM Memory	43 44 44 47
8	7.1 7.2 7.3 Des	Functions Procedures Examples ign of a RAM Memory pendixes	43 44 44 47 49

Chapter 1

Introduction

VHDL is a description language for digital electronic circuits that is used in different levels of abstraction. The VHDL acronym stands for VHSIC (Very High Speed Integrated Circuits) Hardware Description Language. This means that VHDL can be used to accelerate the design process.

It is very important to point out that VHDL is NOT a programming language. Therefore, knowing its syntax does not necessarily mean being able to designing digital circuits with it. VHDL is an HDL (Hardware Description Language), which allows describing both asynchronous and synchronous circuits. For this purpose, we shall:

- Think in terms of gates and flip-flops, not in variables or functions.
- Avoid combinatorial loops and conditional clocks.
- Know which part of the circuit is combinatorial and which one is sequential.

Why to use an HDL?

- To discover problems and faults in the design before actually implementing it in hardware.
- The complexity of an electronic system grows exponentially. For this reason, it is very convenient to build a prototype of the circuit previously to its manufacturing process.
- It makes easy for a team of developers to work together.

In particular, VHDL allows not only describing the structure of the circuit (description from more simple subcircuits), but also the specification of the functionality of a circuit using directives, in a similar way as most standard programming languages do.

The most important aim of an HDL is to be able to simulate the logical behavior of a circuit by means of a description language that has many similarities with software description languages.

Digital circuits described in VHDL can be simulated using simulation tools that reproduce the operation of the involved circuit. For this purpose, developers use a set of rules standardized by the IEEE, which explain the syntax of the language, as well as how to simulate it. In addition, there are many tools that transform a VHDL code into a downloadable file that can be used to program a reconfigurable device. This process is named **synthesis**. The way a given tool carries out the synthesis process is very particular, and it greatly differs from what other synthesis tools do.

For XilinxTM users: In this manual we will use the free synthesis tool provided by XilinxTM (Xilinx ISE Web Pack), which can be obtained through the following URL: http://www.xilinx.com/support/download/index.htm All the examples in this manual that may include any coding that is specific from the XilinxTM tool will be highlighted in a box like this one.

<u>TIP:</u> Throughout this manual, boxes like this one will be used to better highlight tips for an efficient programming in VHDL. These tips are a set of basic rules that make the simulation results independent of the programming style. Hence, these rules make the developed code synthesizable, so it can be easily implemented in any platform.

Webs and news related to VHDL programming and its simulation and synthesis tools:

<u>www.edacafe.com</u>: Web page dedicated to spread news related to the world of circuit design. It has a forum of VHDL programming (troubleshooting, free tools ...).

www.eda.org/vasg/: "Welcome to the VHDL Analysis and Standardization Group (VASG). The purpose of this web site is to enhance the services and communications between members of the VASG and users of VHDL. We've provided a number of resources here to help you research the current and past activities of the VASG and report language bugs, LRM ambiguities, and suggest improvements to VHDL..."

<u>www.cadence.com</u>: "Cadence Design Systems is the world's largest supplier of EDA technologies and engineering services. Cadence helps its customers break through their challenges by providing a new generation of electronic design solutions that speed advanced IC and system designs to volume..."

www.xilinx.com: "In the world of digital electronic systems, there are three basic kinds of devices: memory, microprocessors, and logic. Memory devices store random information such as the contents of a spreadsheet or database. Microprocessors execute software instructions to perform a wide variety of tasks such as running a word processing program or video game. Logic devices provide specific functions, including device-to-device interfacing, data communication, signal processing, data display, timing and control operations, and almost every other function a system must perform."

Chapter 2

Basic Elements of VHDL

A digital system is basically described by its inputs and its outputs, as well as how these outputs are obtained from the inputs.

The VHDL code of any circuit is divided into two separate parts: On the one hand, the entity specifies the input and output ports of the circuit. On the other hand, the architecture describes the behavior of that circuit. An architecture must be associated with an entity. It is also possible to associate several architectures to the same entity, so the programmer can select one of the available ones. This point is explained below in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.

<u>For XilinxTM users:</u> The IEEE library and the following three packets (whose meaning is explained below) appear by default in any source VHDL code created with the XilinxTM ISE tool.

```
library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
use ieee.std_logic_arith.all;
use ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
```

2.1 Entity

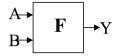
An entity is an abstraction of a circuit, either from a complex electronic system or a single logic gate. An entity externally describes the I/O interface of the circuit.

The ports of an entity can be inputs (in), outputs (out), input-outputs (inout) or buffer. The input ports can only be read, and they cannot be modified inside the architecture. On the other hand, the output ports can only be written, but not read. In case an output port needs to be read (for instance, to make a decision about its value) or an input port needs to be written, they must be instantiated as an inout or a buffer port. However, in this course we will try to avoid these situations, so the utilization of inout and buffer ports are beyond the learning outcomes of this course.

The interface described by an entity may also include a set of generic values that are used to declare properties and constants of the circuits, independently of its architecture. Generics can have multiple uses: On the one hand, they can be used to define delays in signals and clock cycles (these definitions will not be taken into account at the synthesis level, as explained later throughout this manual). On the other hand, generics can also be used as constants that will be used inside the architecture. These

constants help to make the code more understandable, portable and maintainable. For instance, the length of a register (in number of bits) can be defined by means of a generic parameter. This means that another VHDL code can instantiate this register several times, even if this code instantiates registers with different number of bits. Generic parameters are not necessary. Hence, a circuit that does not need them, it simply does not instantiate any generic statement in the entity declaration.

The example below shows a description of the entity of a circuit. This circuit has two N-bit inputs (A and B) and a single output (Y). Thus, in this case the entity description includes a generic statement defining a parameter named N whose value is set to 8. This parameter is also used in the declaration of the circuit inputs.



```
entity F is
generic (N: natural := 8);
port (A, B: in bit_vector (N-1 downto 0); Y: out bit);
end F;
```

2.2 Architecture

The pairs entity-architecture are used in VHDL to completely describe the operation of a circuit. An architecture defines how the circuit operates, by including a set of inner signals, functions, procedures, functions... and its description can be either structural or behavioral (details about this will be given in Chapter 3.4).

The code below shows an example of an architecture. The association between this architecture and the entity it refers to is made in the first line (architecture arch_name of entity_name is). Next, the code must include the signals, customized types, and components (whose I/O is known) that will be used inside the architecture.

```
architecture arch_name of entity_name is

— architecture declarations:
— types
— signals
— components
begin
— concurrent statements
— conditional statements
— components

process (sensitivity list) begin
— code
end process;
end arch_name;
```

The begin and the end reserved words mark the boundaries of the VHDL code that will actually describe the operation of the circuit. As shown in the example, this code may include: concurrent and

VHDL objects 2.3 5

conditional statements, components and processes. Chapter 3 will get into deeper details about these statements.

It is also possible to define several architectures for the same entity. This is better explained in Chapter 9, Section 9.3.

2.3 VHDL objects

VHDL source codes can include objects. There are three types of objects:

• Constant: Objects that have an initial value that is assigned before the simulation. This value shall never be modified during the synthesis or the operation of the circuit. They can be declared before the begin of an architecture, and/or before the begin of a process. A constant declaration MUST assign a value to it.

```
constant identifier: type := value;
```

• Variable: Objects that take a single value that can change during the simulation/execution by means of an assignment statement. Variables are usually used as indexes, mainly in loops, or to take values that allow to model other components. Variables DO NOT represent physical connections or memory elements. They can be declared before the begin of an architecture, and/or before the begin of a process. A variable declaration MAY or MAY NOT assign a value to it.

```
variable identifier: type [:= value];
```

The assignment of a value to a variable is done by means of the operator :=

```
name_variable := value;
i := 10;
```

• Signal: Objects that represent memory elements or connections between subcircuits. Contrarily to constants and variables, signals can be synthesized. In other words, a signal in a VHDL source code can be physically translated into a memory element (flip-flop, register...) in the final circuit. They must be declared before the begin of the architecture. The ports of an entity are implicitly declared as signals upon declaration, since they represent physical connections in the circuit.

```
signal identifier: type;
```

The assignment of a value to a signal is done by means of the operator <=

<u>TIP</u>: If the developed VHDL code only uses constant and signal objects, it will not show any malign effect in the operation of the circuit (see Chapter 9, Sections 9.1 and 9.2). In addition, the obtained code will be easily portable to any other tool. For this reason, unless otherwise stated, all the objects referenced in this manual will be signals.

2.4 VHDL types

In the previous definitions, as well as in the definition of the entity ports, it is necessary to define the type of the object. VHDL allows to use predefined types, as well as other user-defined ones.

2.4.1 Predefined types

The most commonly used predefined types are the following ones:

- bit: It only admits the values 0 and 1. In order to make an assignment between the object and its value, the latter must be written between single quotes ('0' or '1').
- bit_vector (range): The range, always written between brackets, indicates the number of bits of the bit_vector, which is an array of 0's and 1's. For an n-bit bit_vector, its range must be written in the format N-1 downto 0. The bit located to the far left is the most significant one (Most Significant Bit, or MSB), whereas the bit located to the far right is the least significant one (Least Significant Bit or LSB). In order to make an assignment between the object and its value, the latter must be written between quotation marks (i.e., "0011").
- boolean: It only can take the values true or false.
- character: It can take any ASCII value.
- string: Any chain consisting of ASCII characters.
- integer range: Any integer number within the range, which in this case is not written between brackets. For instance, 0 to MAX. The range is optional.
- natural range: Any natural number within the range. The range is optional.
- positive range: Any positive number within the range. The range is optional.
- real range: Any real number within the range. The range is optional.
- std_logic: Type predefined in the IEEE 1164 standard. This type represents a multivalued logic comprising 9 different possible values. The most commonly used ones are: '0', '1', 'Z' (for high impedance), 'X' (for uninitialized) and 'U' (for undefined), among others. In order to make an assignment between the object and its value, the latter must be written between single quotes ('0', '1', 'X', ...).
- std_logic_vector (range): It represents a vector of elements of type std_logic. Its assignment and definition rules are the same ones as the std_logic ones.

For XilinxTM users: For XilinxTM ISE, all the ports of the entity must be of type std_logic or std_logic_vector. The reason is that these two types allow simulating a circuit realistically. For instance, when a signal is instantiated but never initialized in the VHDL code, it will always take the 'U' (undefined) value. In addition, XilinxTM ISE translates natural and integer signals into std_logic_vector with the number of bits needed for its complete representation.

In order to use the type std_logic, it is necessary to include the following library:

VHDL types 2.4

```
use ieee.std_logic_1164.all;
```

In order to use the pre-defined arithmetic and logic functions:

```
use ieee.std_logic_arith.all;
```

For vectors that are represented as unsigned binary:

```
use ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
```

For vectors that are represented as signed binary:

```
use ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
```

For vectors that are represented in 2's complement:

```
use ieee.std_logic_signed.all;
```

<u>TIP:</u> It is strongly recommended to always use the std_logic_vector type independently of the operations that will be made on the involved objects. They can be used as integers or naturals thanks to the ieee.std_logic_arith.all and ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all libraries. Defining all the signals in the code as std_logic or std_logic_vector does not complicate the final VHDL code and helps a los in its integration with XilinxTMISE.

2.4.2 User-defined types

An enumerated type is a data type that comprises a number of user-defined values. Enumerated types are used mainly for the definition of finite state machines.

```
type name is (value1, value2, ...);
```

Assuming that A has been defined as an enumerated type, the assignment will be as follows: A <= valuei; where valuei must be one of the enumerated values in the type definition.

Enumerated types are sorted according to their values. Typically, synthesis tools automatically code the enumerated values in such a way that they can fe further synthesized. For that purpose, they usually select an ascending sequence or a coding that minimizes the circuit or that maximizes its operating frequency. It may also be possible to directly type the coding by means of ad-hoc directives.

A composed type is a data type comprised by elements of other data types. Composed types can be either arrays and records.

• An array is a data object that comprises a set of elements of the same type.

```
type name is array (range) of type;
```

The assignment of a value on a position of the array is done by means of integer numbers (see examples at Subsection 2.4.3).

• A record is a data object that comprises a set of elements of different types.

```
type name is record
element1: data_type1;
element2: data_type2;
end record;
```

The assignment of a value on an element from a record is done by means of a dot (see examples at Chapter 4, Subsection 4.2.3).

Once defined the composed and/or enumerated data type, any signal in the design can be declared of belonging to this new type and this will be done by using the operator defined for signals <=.

2.4.3 Examples

This subsection presents some examples showing how to define and to assign values to signals and variables.

```
Two dashes are used to introduce comments in the VHDL code
   -- Examples of definitions and assignments
   constant DATA WIDTH: integer := 8;
   signal CTRL: bit vector (7 downto 0);
   variable SIG1, S\overline{I}G2: integer range 0 to 15;
   type color is (red, yellow, blue);
   signal BMP: color;
   BMP \le red;
   type word is array (0 to 15) of std logic vector (7 downto 0);
   signal w: word;
    — w(integer/natural) <= vector of bits;</pre>
   w(0) \le "001111110";
   w(1) <= "00011010";
   w(15) <= "111111110";
   type matrix is array (0 to 15)(7 downto 0) of std logic;
   signal m: matrix;
   m(2)(5) <= '1';
24
   type set is record
    word: std logic vector (0 to 15);
    value: integer range -256 to 256;
   end record;
   signal data: set;
   data.value \ll 176;
```

VHDL types 2.4

2.4.4 Operators

Operators can be used to build a wide variety of expressions that allow to calculate data and/or to assign them to signals or variables.

- +, -, *, /, mod, rem: Arithmetic operations.
- \bullet +, -: Sign change.
- &: Concatenation.
- and, or, nand, nor, xor: Logical operations.
- :=: Value assignment to constants and variables.
- <=: Value assignment to signals.

Chapter 3

Basic Structure of a Source File in VHDL

As previously pointed out, the VHDL code modeling a digital circuit is composed of two parts: an entity and one or several architectures. The latter contains the statements describing the behavior of the circuit.

Inside the architecture, we can find:

- Types and intermediate signals needed to describe its behavior.
- Assignment statements to signals, as well as other concurrent statements.
- Processes, which may contain conditional and/or assignment statements to variables.

3.1 Concurrent statements

Concurrent statements are a kind of assignment statements to signals whose operation depends on a set of conditions. Two kinds of concurrent statements exist:

3.1.1 WHEN-ELSE

```
signal_to_modify <= value_1 when condition_1 else
value_2 when condition_2 else
...
value_n when condition_n else
default_value;
```

This statement modifies the value of a given signal depending on a set of conditions, being the assigned values and the conditions independent among each other. The order in which the conditions are sorted determines their preference with respect to the others. In other words, in the previous definition, if condition_i is true, then value_i will be assigned to signal_to_modify, even if any other condition_j is also true (j>i).

```
The second state of the se
```

3.1.2 WITH-SELECT-WHEN

```
with signal_condition select
signal_to_modify <= value_1 when value_1_signal_condition,
value_2 when value_2_signal_condition,
...
value_n when value_n_signal_condition,
default_value when others;
```

This statement is less general than when-else one. It modifies the value of a signal, depending on the values that signal_condition may have.

```
2 — Example WITH-SELECT-WHFN

4 with input select
output <= "00" when "0001",
"01" when "0010",
"10" when "0100",
"11" when others;
```

From the point of view of the hardware, these two statements give as a result pure combinatorial hardware; in other words, logic gates, multiplexers, decoders...

<u>TIP:</u> A good VHDL programmer should be used to use these two kinds of sequential statements, since it will avoid having many problems associated to the if-then-else statements inside processes (explained in Section 3.3).

Conditional statements 3.2

3.2 Conditional statements

These statements are assignment statements to variables that may or may not be based on a condition. As previously pointed out, they MUST be placed inside a process. The following conditional statements exist in VHDL:

3.2.1 IF-THEN-ELSE

```
process (sensitivity list)
begin

if condition_1 then
— assignments

elsif condition_2 then
— assignments

else
— assignments

end if;
end process;
```

It is possible to chain as many if-then-else statements as desired, as in software description languages, such as Pascal, C, Java...

<u>TIP</u>: if-then-else statements should always have an else. In addition, as explained in Section 3.3, it is convenient to assign values to the same signals in each one of the branches of the statement, even if the value of some signals should be a *don't care*.

3.2.2 CASE-WHEN

```
process (sensitivity list)
begin
case signal_condition is
when value_condition_1 => -- assignments
...
when value_condition_n => -- assignments
when others => -- assignments
end case;
end process;
```

In this case, assignments may also be if-then-else statements. The when others clause must appear in the statement, but it is not necessary to write any assignment associated to it.

```
The end of case;

The end of c
```

As in other software programming languages, several types of loops are possible:

3.2.3 FOR-LOOP

The range can be defined as 0 to N or as N downto 0.

```
2 — Example FOR-LOOP

4 process (A)
begin
6 for i in 0 to 7 loop
B(i+1) <= A(i);
8 end loop;
end process;
```

3.2.4 WHILE-LOOP

```
process (sensitivity list)
begin
while condition loop
— assignments
end loop;
end process;
```

Process statement 3.3

For Xilinx **Musers: For loops are supported as long as the index range is static (0 to N or N downto 0, where N is a constant) and the loop body does not contain any wait statement. In general, while loops are not supported.

3.3 *Process* statement

VHDL presents a particular structure named process that defines the limits of a code that will be simulated (or executed) if and only if any of the signals included in its sensitivity list has been modified in a previous simulation step.

A process features the following structure:

Process statements are VERY used in VHDL programming, since, for software programmers, it is very easy to code the behavior of a hardware circuit as if it was a software program. However, this is an important drawback for beginners, since the software-like description of the behavior of the circuit may not actually synthesize into hardware. For this reason, a number of good coding practices exist, which are directly related with the properties of the process statement. One should be VERY aware of them in order to code a hardware circuit that simulates and synthesizes correctly.

Property I

Statements existing inside a process only run in the instant 0 of simulation OR if any of the signals of the sensitivity list changes.

Problem: The result of the simulation of the circuit may be unexpected due to the "malign effect" of the sensitivity list.

Solution: The sensitivity list MUST include all the signals that are read inside the process.

```
(signal_written <= signal_read).</pre>
```

Let us explain this point by means of an example (Figures 3.1 and 3.2). In this example, no value is assigned to C until the instant 10 ns, although B changes at 5 ns. This happens because the code inside the process is not executed unless A changes (this happens at 10 ns). However, at the hardware level, one would expect C to take the value of A as soon as B changes to 1 (at 5 ns). Thus, following the solution proposed above, the correct code should be as follows:

t (ns)	0	5	10
A	0	0	1
В	0	1	1
С	U	U	1

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.1: Example for $Property\ I$ of processes (1)

t (ns)	0	5	10
A	0	0	1
В	0	1	1
C	U	0	1

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.2: Example for $Property\ I$ of processes (2)

Property II

Assignments to signals made inside a process have memory.

Problem: If, in a given simulation step, a process is executed and as a consequence, a signal S is modified; and if in a subsequent simulation step, the process is again executed but S is not modified inside the code of the process, then C will conserve the value assigned in the first process execution. This may lead to an expected behavior because of the "malign effect" of the process memory.

Solution: Conditional statements inside processes MUST assign a value to the same set of signals in any of the branches of the statements. In addition, unless it is strictly forbidden at the design level (see Chapter 5), all the conditions MUST have their corresponding else branch.

This is explained in the examples of Figures 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. The first code includes an else branch, which means that there is a by-default value for C (in this example, at 5 ns). However, the second code does not include this else branch. Hence, at 5 ns, both for Case_1 and Case_2, the value of C differs in both codes ("00" vs. "10" and "00" vs. "11", respectively). The reason is that processes have memory and in this case, the input combination A = "11"; B = "10" does not match any branch in the second code. Hence, the value for C at 5 ns ("10" for Case_1 and "11" for Case_2) is the same one as in the previous simulation step (i.e., at 0 ns, see the table in Figure 3.4b). In addition, note that, for the code in Figure 3.3a, the output value for C is "00" in both Case_1 and Case_2 at 5 ns (in both cases, A = "11" and B = "10"). This is correct; however, this is not true for Case_2.

The code in Figure 3.5 is another example of an incomplete conditional statement. in this case, two different values at 5 ns are obtained for C and D in Case_3 and Case_4, even though the input values are

Process statement 3.3

Case_1						
t (ns)	5	10				
A	01	11	11			
В	10	10	11			
C	10	00	11			
Case_2						
A	01	11	11			
В	11	10	11			
С	11	00	11			

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.3: Example for Property II of processes (1)

(a) Example code

Case_3						
t (ns) 0 5 10						
A	01	11	11			
В	10	10	11			
С	10	00	11			
	Case_4					
A	01	11	11			
В	11	10	11			
С	11	11	11			

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.4: Example for *Property II* of processes (2)

exactly the same in both cases (A = "10"; B = "10"). This shows us that it is EXTREMELY important to make sure that not only the if-then-else statement has else branch, but also that the very same set of signals are assigned in all the branches. In this case, the problem arises because the if branch assigns a value to C, but not to C; whereas the elsif assigns a value to C, but not to C.

Property III

All the statements inside a process run in parallel, in a similar way as the statements outside a process do. However, if inside a process a signal is given a value at two different points, the final result will be the one of the last assignment, similarly as what happens in software programming languages. This may turn problematic and not synthesizable if not properly coded.

Solution: It is convenient to double-check that a signal is not assigned twice in the same process (this can be done in two different branches of an if-then-else statement).

In the following example, at 0 ns and at 10 ns, two values are assigned to C. When the process finishes, C takes the last assigned value, the one in the if and elsif branches, respectively. At 5 ns, C is assigned only one value "00", which is its final value.

Case_3							
t (ns) 0 5 10							
A	01	10	11				
В	10	10	10				
C	UU	10	00				
D	10	10	11				
Case_4							
A	11						
В	00	10	10				
C	00	10	00				
D	11	11	11				

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.5: Example for Property II of processes (3)

```
B 10 10
C 10 00
```

t (ns)

Α

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

0

01

5

11

10

01

11

11

Figure 3.6: Example for $Property\ III$ of processes

Property IV

All process statements run in parallel.

Problem: In two processes P1 and P2 modify the same signal, then it is impossible to know its actual value. (The one assigned by P1 or P2?).

Solution: One should always double-check that a signal is not modified in two or more different processes. In that case, a possible solution is to merge the involved processes.

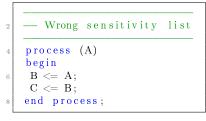
Property V

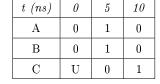
The values of all the signals that are modified inside a process are not updated until the whole process finishes.

Problem: If the sensitivity list is not correctly coded, the update of a signal may be postponed one

or several simulation events. This can be observed in the example of Figure 3.7, where only A is included in the sensitivity list. The example in Figure 3.8 does not present this problem any more.

Solution: As in $Property\ IV$, always double-check that a signal is not modified in two or more different processes.





(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.7: Example for $Property \ V$ of processes (1)

 A
 0
 1
 0

 B
 0
 1
 0

 C
 0
 1
 0

0

10

t (ns)

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 3.8: Example for $Property \ V$ of processes (2)

3.4 Structural description

This description is used to create an architecture that instantiates other entities that have already been defined elsewhere. This makes possible to build hierarchical descriptions of circuits, which improves their reusability and scalability.

In order to do this, such an architecture must declare the entities that will be instantiated as components, and add as many instances of these components as needed in the body of the architecture, as the following code illustrates. Structural descriptions are very useful in bottom-up hierarchical designs.

```
This can be combined with behavioral descriptions end circuit;
```

The architecture may add as many instances of the same component as needed. The only restriction that VHDL imposes is that each one of the component instances must be given a different name in the body of the architecture.

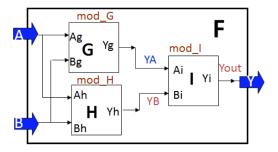


Figure 3.9: Example of a structural description of an entity

The code below is an example of a structural description of the circuit depicted in Figure 3.9. Note that, in order to make the interconnections needed between the output of a component and the input of another one, intermediate signals are needed.

```
Example structural description
   library IEEE;
   use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
use ieee.std_logic_arith.all;
use ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
    entity F is
     port (A, B: in std logic; Y: out std logic);
    architecture structural of F is
     component G
       port (Ag, Bg: in std logic; Yg: out std logic);
     end component;
     component H
       port (Ah, Bh: in std logic; Yh: out std logic);
     end component;
     component I
       port (Ag, Bg: in std_logic; Yg: out std logic);
     end component;
     signal YA, YB, Yout: std logic;
25
    mod_G: G port map (A, B, YA);
     mod_H: H port map (A, B, YB);
     mod_I: I port map (YA, YB, Yi);
     Y \stackrel{-}{<=} Yout;
   end structural;
```

<u>IMPORTANT:</u> In this example, note that the Y intermediate signals are needed, whereas no intermediate signal is needed in order to connect the inputs of the entity F (A and B) and the inputs of components mod_G and mod_H .

Structural descriptions of circuits can also be made by means of generate statements. These statements are used to automatically create an array of instances of the same component and/or other concurrent statements. The syntax of the generate statement is as follows:

The two following examples show how generate instances are instantiated and used in a VHDL code:

```
Example GENERATE 1

signal a, b: std_logic_vector(0 to 7)

...

gen1: for i in 0 to 7 generate
 a(i) <= not b(i);
end generate gen1;
```

Component instantiatons in generate statements can also include conditions, as long as they are referred to the index of the for in the generate statement. The following code shows an example of this:

This example assigns the values of the vector **b** to the vector **a**, by left-shifting them 1 position. However, it does not assign any value to **a(0)**, since in that case, the condition in the **generate** statement is not met.

However, the following code (which is NOT correct), the generated hardware depends on the value of b(i), which is not known at design time. Since the actual value of the b vector depends on the execution of the circuit at any point of time, it is not possible to generate any hardware with this generate statement.

3.5 Examples

2:1 multiplexer

A possible entity description for this module would be as follows:

Table 3.1: Truth table of a 2:1 multiplexer

S0	0
0	D0
1	D1

Table 3.1 summarizes the operation of a 2:1 multiplexer, which can be coded in VHDL as follows:

or as follows:

Examples 3.5

However, we also know that the operation of this circuit is equivalent to the truth table of the circuit depicted in Figure 3.10.

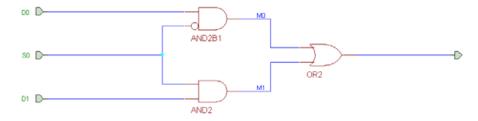


Figure 3.10: Structural description of a multiplexer

Which is equivalent to the following structural code:

```
Structural VHDL code for a 2:1 MUX
   architecture structural of mux2 is
     - component declarations
    component AND2
      port (I0, I1: in std_logic; O: out std_logic);
    end component;
    component OR2
      port (I0, I1: in std_logic; O: out std_logic);
    end component;
12
    component INV
      port (IO, I1: in std logic; O: out std logic);
    end component;
    - signal declarations
    signal S1, S2, S3: std_logic;
    U1: INV port map (S0,S1);
    U2: AND2 port map (D0,S1,S2);
    U3:\ AND2\ \textbf{port}\ \textbf{map}\ (S0\,,D1\,,S3\,)\,;
    U4: OR2 port map (S2,S3,O);
   end structural;
```

Or the following behavioral code:

Chapter 4

Simulation of a VHDL Code

Typically, simulation tools used for VHDL programming follow a discrete event time model for simulating circuits described in this language. This means that these simulators model the operation of a system as a discrete sequence of events in time. Events occur each time any signal changes its value. This marks a potential change of state in the circuit. Between two consecutive events, no change in the system is assumed to occur. Thus, the simulation can directly jump in time from one event to the next one, independently of the time elapsed between them (i.e., just a few picoseconds or several seconds).

4.1 Steps of simulation

VHDL simulations comprise three steps:

- Step 0: All the signals are initialized and the time count is set to 0.
- Step 1: All the transitions scheduled for that time are carried out.
- Step 2: All the signals that are modified as a consequence of transitions occurring at instant = t are written down in the list of events and scheduled for instant = $t + \delta$, where δ is infinitesimal.

Steps 1 and 2 are repeated as many times as necessary until no more transitions exist. As previously stated, the values assigned to signals remain constant from one event to the following one.

The examples in Figures 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 illustrate these three simulation steps. On the one hand, Examples 1 and 2 simulate two concurrent assignments that are placed outside a process, where A takes value '0' at 0 ns, and '1' at 5 ns.



(a) Example code

t (ns)	0	$0\!+\!\delta$	8 d	5	$5\!+\!\delta$	s e
A	0	0	more	1	1	mor nge
В	U	0	No more changes	0	1	No mor change
С	U	0		0	1	

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 4.1: Example 1: Simulation steps in VHDL

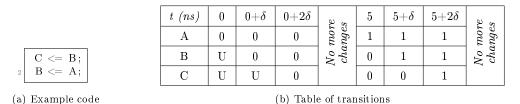


Figure 4.2: Example 2: Simulation steps in VHDL

On the other hand, in the following example, the two assignments are made inside a process with a sensitivity list:

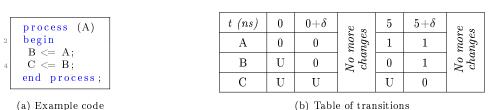


Figure 4.3: Example 3: Simulation steps in VHDL

In this case, we can observe that the output value at the end of the simulation in Figure 4.3b differs from what was obtained in Figures 4.1b and 4.2b (B='1' and C='0'). Let us analyze in detail what is happening in this example: At 0 ns, the process is executed, B is assigned the value of A, and C is assigned the value that B had before the process execution (which is 'U' or "undefined"). At $0 + \delta$, A does not change, hence the process is not executed again and all the signals keep their values. The simulation is resumed at 5 ns, when A changes (from '0' to '1'). Hence, the process is executed again and as a consequence, B is assigned the value of A, and C is assigned the value that B had before this new process execution (which is '0'). In this new simulation step $(5 + \delta)$, A does not change, hence the process is not executed again and the signal values do not change. Figures 4.4 and 4.5 show what could be seen in any VHDL simulator. Note that δ is infinitesimal and therefore, not visible in the simulation.

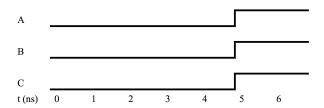


Figure 4.4: Simulation results for Examples 1 and 2

Obviously, the simulation result obtained in the table of Figure 4.5 is incorrect. This can be easily solved by adding B to the sensitivity list of the process.

4.2 Simulation statements

VHDL features the wait statement, which stops the simulation of the code until a condition is met. A process must include a wait statement if it does not have any sensitivity list. In addition, it is also

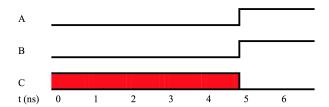
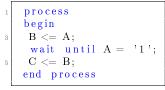


Figure 4.5: Simulation results for Example 3

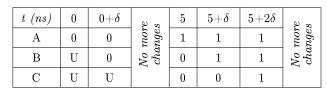
possible to generate sequential hardware by using wait statements. Chapter 5 makes a deeper discussion about this. There are three types of wait statements:

- wait on list_of_signals; The simulation stops until any signal in the list_of_signals is modified.
- wait for time; The simulation stops for the time specified in the time variable.
- wait until condition; The simulation stops until the condition is met.

The following code illustrates the operation of the wait statement. In this example, C cannot be updated unless A is '1', which occurs at 5 ns.



(a) Example code



(b) Table of transitions

Figure 4.6: Example: Operation of the wait statement

4.3 Simulation templates in VHDL

Many simulation and synthesis tools include a graphical user interface (GUI) to help to set the stimuli to the circuit inputs in order to check if the design works correctly. However, for large circuits and/or large test benches, it is much more practical to create a testbench directly using VHDL.

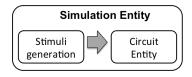


Figure 4.7: RTL description of a simulation template for testbenches in VHDL

Either if the testbench has been created by using the GUI or it has directly typed, the final result will be a VHDL file containing an entity without any inputs or outputs, and that instantiates two process and a component, as indicated in Figure 4.7. The latter actually instantiates the circuit under test.

It is important to know what a VHDL testbench file looks like. First of all, it must include the following libraries:

```
Libraries to be added in a VHDL testbench

library IEEE;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_1164.ALL;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_ARITH.ALL;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_UNSIGNED.ALL;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_TEXTIO.ALL;
use STD.TEXTIO.ALL;
```

Next, an entity without any inputs or outputs must be created:

```
entity simulation is end simulation;
```

Next, the architecture is described, which includes the processes and the components of the circuit under test (if any), as described above. A possible template to instantiate the circuit under test and the process to set stimuli to its input signals could be as follows:

```
- Template for VHDL testbench architecture
    architecture testbench arch of simulation is
     component circuit
       port (input: in std logic; ...; output: out std logic);
     end component;
     -\!-\! Intermediate signals, with the same name and type than -\!-\!- those of the circuit under test
     signal input: std logic := '0';
     signal output: std logic;
       - Output signals are not initialized
16
18
    \label{eq:uut} \text{UUT : circuit port map (input, ..., output);}
     process
     begin
       wait for 200 ns;
       input <= '1';
24
       wait for 100 ns; -- Total: 300 ns
       input <= '0';
28
       wait for T ns; -- Total: 300 + T ns
       input \ll '1';
       . . .
       wait for ...
36
       . . .
```

```
wait for 100 ns;
end process;
end testbench_arch;
```

The first wait of the code (wait for 200 ns;) keeps the input signal to its initial value ('0') for the first 200 ns. Then, the following statements are executed, among which the assignment input <= '1'. The second wait (wait for 100 ns;) keeps this new value for another 100 ns.

The following code is another example, which simulation result is depicted in Figure 4.8.

```
Example for the input stimuli process in a VHDL testbench
    process
    begin
     wait for 5 ns;
    A <= '1';
     wait for 5 ns;
                             Total: 10 ns
    A <= '0';
     wait for 10 ns;
                             Total: 20 ns
    A <= '1';
13
     wait for 5 ns;
                             Total: 25 ns
          '0';
    A \le =
     wait \quad for \quad 10 \quad ns; \\
   end process;
```

```
A t (ns) 0 5 10 15 20 25 30
```

Figure 4.8: Example of a signal simulation, whose values are set manually

The second process included in the VHDL template defines the clock signal very easily:

```
Template for the process that defines the clock

process
begin

wait for 10 ns;
CLOCK_LOOP: loop
clk <= '0';
wait for time_low ns;
clk <= '1';
wait for time_high ns;
end loop CLOCK_LOOP;
end process;
```

Through the loop statement, this process generates a signal (clk) whose value is set to '0' and to '1' alternatively, according to the times specified in the time_low and time_high constants. The first

wait statement keeps the initial value of clk for the first 10 ns. Then, the second wait indicates the time that clk is set to its low value ('0'). Finally, the last wait indicates the time that clk is set to its high value ('1'). This sequence is repeated forever. Note that this is possible thanks to the loop statement. Actually, this is a slight variation with respect to the for-loop and while-loop ones statements, already described in Chapter 3, Section 3.2. In this case, since the loop statement does not have any condition, it never stops iterating. In other words, it will iterate until the final execution of the testbench.

Chapter 5

Description of Sequential Logic

As previously explained in Chapter 3, Section 3.3, one of the most important properties of processes is their ability to keep the values assigned to signals inside them, as long as the process is not executed again or a subsequent execution of that process does not assign any other value to that signal (see *Property II* in Chapter 3, Section 3.3). For this reason, processes can be used to describe sequential logic.

<u>IMPORTANT:</u> Processes being used to described sequential logic DOES NOT mean that the statements comprised in that process run sequentially.

5.1 Sequential hardware

Processes can be used in order to describe flip-flops and registers. To this end, the 'event attribute can be used on the clock signal as follows:

```
if (clk'event and clk='1') then ...
```

The 'event attribute on a signal returns true if that signal has just been modified, and it returns false otherwise. The previous if-then statement checks if there has been any modification on the clk signal, and if its new value is '1'. Thus, it recognizes a rising edge in the clock signal. Using this concept, a D flip-flop can be described as follows:

However, typically a D flip-flop has also a reset signal. In case this signal was asynchronous, it could be implemented as follows:

As this code shows, the process runs if there is any change in the clk, reset or d signals, as indicated in its sensitivity list. Then, the if-then statement checks if the reset signal has been set to '1'. In that case, the output value of the FF is set to '0'. Otherwise, the clk signal is checked in a similar way as in the D flip-flop example.

Finally, a possible code for a D flip-flop with synchronous reset could be as follows:

<u>For XilinxTM users:</u> In general, in order to create sequential hardware with the expected behavior, the following rules must be fulfilled:

- An if-then statement used to detect a clock edge cannot have an else branch. Otherwise, the else branch would always run, except the precise moments when the clock signal changes.
- In if-then-elsif statements, the edge in a clock signal can only be detected in the last branch of the if-then-elsif sentence (which MUST NOT have an else branch).
- An if-then statement used to detect a clock edge can have as many chained if-else statements as necessary.
- A process can only have one edge detection. Otherwise, it would mean that the specified hardware would be sensible to several clock signals. This is far beyond the objectives of this course.

These ideas are illustrated by means of the examples depicted in Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. The difference between the codes in Figures 5.1a and 5.2a is the order in the assignment of values to a, b and c. In Figure 5.1a, this assignment would be done as in any other software description language. However, in Figure 5.2a, one could think that the assignments are incorrect. In order to understand the results, one should remember Properties IV and V, already described in Chapter 3, Section 3.3:

Property IV: All process statements run in parallel. Hence, the order in which the assignments appear in the code is not relevant to the final result. This explains why, for Figures 5.1b and 5.2b, the values of the outputs b and c are the same ('1' and '0' at 5 ns; '1' and '1' at 10 ns) in both cases.

Property V: The values of all the signals that are modified inside a process are not updated until the whole process finishes. This explains why the value of c is not updated at 5 ns, but at 10 ns.

(a) Example code

$clk\ edge$	0 ns	5 ns	10 ns
reset	1	0	0
a	1	1	1
b	0	1	1
С	0	0	1

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 5.1: Example 1: Sequential hardware description

Finally, in the code of Figure 5.3a, b and c are directly assigned the value of a. As a consequence, both signals are updated simultaneously.

$clk\ edge$	0 ns	5 ns	10 ns
reset	1	0	0
a	1	1	1
b	0	1	1
С	0	0	1

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 5.2: Example 2: Sequential hardware description

clk edge	0 ns	5 ns	10 ns
reset	1	0	0
a	1	1	1
Ъ	0	1	1
С	0	1	1

(a) Example code

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 5.3: Example 3: Sequential hardware description

5.2 Counters

One of the most common components of digital circuits are counters. A "possible" way of describing a counter would be by means of the following code. However, it does not work as a counter. WHY?

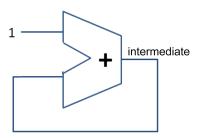
```
-- Counter: Wrong code

entity contador is
   port (reset : in std_logic; n : out std_logic_vector(3 downto 0));
end contador;

architecture arch of contador is
   signal intermediate: std_logic_vector(3 downto 0);
begin

process (reset , intermediate)
begin
```

Counters 5.2 35



(a) Scheme for a feedback counter

t (ns)	0	$0\!+\!\delta$	re es	5	$5{+}\delta$	$5{+}2\delta$	$5+3\delta$	$5{+}4\delta$	
reset	0	0	mo	0	0	0	0	0	0
intermediate	U	0	No	0000	0001	0010	0011	0100	

(b) Table of transitions

Figure 5.4: Example of a badly coded counter

The reason is simple: The code above does not manage the update of the output signal in a controlled way (i.e., following a clock signal). This means that the inferred circuit from that code would look like as in Figure 5.4a. This is not a sequential circuit, but a combinatorial one, which implementation makes no sense whatsoever. A behavioral simulation of this circuit would not make any sense either. This is illustrated in Figure 5.4b, where the counter never stops iterating after its input has been set to '1' (in this example, this is assumed to happen at 5 ns).

As we already know, a counter is a sequential circuit that is controlled by means of a clock signal. This makes possible to generate an ascending or descending sequence whose values are generated each new clock cycle. Therefore, a VHDL code for a counter must include clock edge recognition (for instance, with the 'event attribute).

```
intermediate <= "000";
elsif clk'event and clk = '1' then
intermediate <= intermediate + 1;
end if;
end process;
n <= intermediate;

end arch;</pre>
```

The signal intermediate is defined as a std_logic_vector(3 downto 0). By applying the rules of the IEEE standard, we have "1111" + '1' = "0000". Thus, the code above implements an ascending count that is follows the sequence [0...15] and then, it starts over again.

For XilinxTM users: XilinxTM tools need VHDL descriptions of circuits to include a reset signal. It can be either asynchronous (as in the previous example) or synchronous. This makes possible to design counters that are updated until they reach a given maximum value and then they are initialized to 0; or counters that stay in that maximum value; or counters that start from a given value that can be previously loaded using a load signal. All these functionalities can be described by using if-then-else statements inside the elsif clk'event and clk = '1' then... branch.

Thus, the following example describes a generic counter that, once it reaches a maximum value, is re-initialized and starts over again.

```
Example of a counter that is re-initialized after reaching a maximum value
    generic (maximum: natural := max; N: natural := 8);
    port (reset, clk: in std logic; n: out std logic vector(N-1 downto 0));
   end counter;
   architecture arch of counter is
    signal intermediate: std logic vector(N-1 downto 0);
    process (reset , clk , intermediate)
13
    begin
      if (reset = '1')
        intermediate <= "000";
       elsif clk'event and clk = '1' then
         if \quad intermediate \ < \ max
           intermediate <= intermediate + 1;
            - This statement sets all the bits in "intermediate" to 0
21
          intermediate \ll (others = > '0');
        end if;
      end if;
    end process;
    n <= intermediate;
   end arch;
```

Examples 5.3 37

5.3 Examples

5.3.1 8-bit register

5.3.2 8-bit register built using 1-bit flip-flops

```
8-bit register: structural description
   entity FF is
    port (clk, reset, C: in bit; D: out bit);
   end FF;
   architecture arch of FF is
   begin
    process(clk, reset)
    begin
       if reset = '1' then D <= '0';
       elsif (clk'event and clk='1') then D <= C;
      end if:
    end process;
   end arch;
   entity register 8 is
    port (clk, reset: in bit;
    A: in bit_vector(7 downto 0);
          B: out bit vector (7 downto 0));
   end register_8;
   architecture structural of register_8 is
25
      port(clk, reset, c: in bit; d: out bit);
27
    end component FF;
    signal F: bit vector(7 downto 0);
```

```
begin
    gen: for i in 0 to 7 generate
    u: FF port map(clk, reset, A(i), F(i));
    end generate gen;
    B <= F;
    end structural;
</pre>
```

Design of a Finite State Machine (FSM)

VHDL allows to describe finite state machines (FSMs) at the algorithmic level. This makes possible to easily coding the operation of any FSM without having to actually write the state transition and the output functions.

The register transfer level description of a FSM looks like as indicated in Figure 6.1. There are many ways of describing FSMs in VHDL. The one proposed in this chapter is valid to any synthesis tool that works with this programming language.

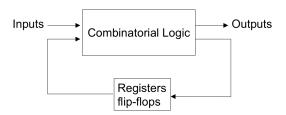


Figure 6.1: RTL description of a finite state machine (FSM)

First of all, one must define an enumerated type including all the identifiers of the states. It is practical to select representative names for the states. The synthesis tool will be able to assign a binary code to each one of them.

```
_{1} type STATES is (up, down, stop, ...);
```

Next, the body of the architecture must define the state transition function (F) and the output function (G); as well as the ability to change from one state to the following one. For this purpose, two processes are defined:

- The first one codes F and G functions. In other words, depending on the current state, it specifies the new values of the state and the output(s).
- The second one is a sequential process that models the flip-flops for the state. Hence, its only objective is to update the current state of the FSM.

Let us illustrate this in greater detail by means of an example. Let a FSM be a sequence recognizer that detects the sequence "001" that comes through a serial input E. It is assumed that E is synchronized with a clock signal. This sequence recognizer can be implemented as the Moore machine depicted in Figure 6.2 with the following four states:

- S1: Wait for the first '0' in the sequence.
- S2: Wait for the second '0' in the sequence.
- S3: Wait for the '1' in the sequence.
- S4: Activate the output signal.

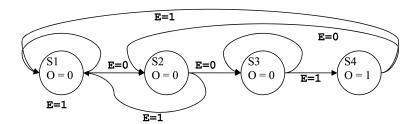


Figure 6.2: Example Moore machine for a FSM

Thus, for the VHDL implementation, the first step is to define an enumerated type that comprises the 4 states involved:

```
type STATES is (S1, S2, S3, S4); signal STATE, NEXT_STATE: STATES;
```

Next, a couple of processes must determine the value of the next state (NEXT_STATE) and the output (0), depending on the value of current state (STATE) and the input (E). This is illustrated by means of the code below. On the one hand, the SYNCHRONOUS process implements the transition of the FSM from its current state to its next state each clock cycle. On the other hand, the COMBINATORIAL process defines both the next state depending on the current state and the value of the FSM input E, as well as the value of the output 0, which in this case, only depends on the current state.

```
library IEEE;
use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;

entity FSM is
port(reset, E, clk: in bit; O:
out bit);
end FSM;

architecture ARCH of FSM is
type STATES is (S1, S2, S3,S4);
signal STATE, NEXT_STATE: STATES;
begin

SYNCHRONOUS: process(clk,reset)
begin
if reset = '1' then
STATE <= S1;
```

```
elsif clk'event and clk='1'
         STATE <= NEXT\_STATE;
       end if;
     end process SYNCHRONOUS;
    COMBINATORIAL: process (STATE, E)
       case STATE is
24
       when S1 =>
O <= '0';
          if (E=',0',) then
            \overrightarrow{NEXT}STATE <= S2;
            NEXT\_STATE <= S1;
3.0
          end if;
       when S2 =>
         O\,<=\,\overset{,}{0},;
          if (E='0') then
            NEXT STATE <= S3;
            NEXT STATE \leq S1;
          end if \overline{;}
       when S3 =>
         O <= '0';
40
          if (E='0') then
            NEXT STATE <= S3;
            NEXT STATE <= S4;
          end if;
       when S4 =>
46
         O \ll (1, 1)
          if (E='0') then
48
            \stackrel{\circ}{\text{NEXT}} STATE <= S2;
            NEXT STATE <= S1;
          end if;
       end case;
     end process COMBINATORIAL;
    end ARCH;
```

<u>For XilinxTM users:</u> XilinxTM might not be able to recognize a FSM. In this case, it may delete many intermediate signals and group conditions. If we want XilinxTM to recognize the FSM, the following two rules must be fulfilled:

- The state machine must include a reset so it can be initialized.
- The combinatorial process must ALWAYS assign a value to NEXT_STATE (even if this may seem redundant).

Functions, Procedures and Packages

VHDL supports two kinds of subprograms (functions and procedures) that greatly help to improve the description, scalability and reusability of the code. A number of these subprograms can be gathered under a common structure named package, as shown in the code below:

```
package p is
    function fname (input_signals) return type;
    procedure pname (input_signals; output_signals);
end p;

package body p is
...
end p;
```

7.1 Functions

They are used to carry out punctual calculations and they return a value instantly.

- They cannot modify their input parameters.
- They cannot modify signals or variables externally declared to the function.
- They always return a value whose type has been specified in the function declaration.
- Their execution time is 0. Hence, they cannot contain any wait statement.

The syntax of functions is as follows:

7.2 Procedures

Procedures constitute another way to describe small circuits.

- They can exchange data bidirectionally with the outside world.
- They can contain wait statements.
- They can assign values to signals.
- They are defined in the declarations zone of the architecture.

```
procedure name(parameters)
— signals, variables
begin
— body of the procedure
end procedure name;
```

7.3 Examples

The package pf the code below includes various functions for converting data from vector to natural and viceversa, as well as a procedure to add vectors.

```
library IEEE;
   use IEEE.std logic 1164.all;
   package arith_operations is
    function vector_to_natural (v:in std_logic_vector) return natural;
    function natural_to_vector (nat : in_natural; length : in natural)
                                  return std_logic_vector;
    procedure \ vector\_add \ (v1,\ v2 : in \ std\_logic\_vector; \ vo : out \ std\_logic\_vector);
   end arith operations;
   package body arith operations is
13
    function vector to natural (v:in std logic vector) return natural is
      variable aux = natural := 0;
    begin
      for i in v'range loop
         if v(i) = '1' then
          aux := aux + (2**i);
        end if;
      end loop;
      return aux;
21
    end vector_to_natural;
    function natural to vector (nat: in natural; length: in natural)
                                  return std_logic_vector is
25
       variable v: std_logic_vector(length_{-1} downto 0);
27
       variable quotient, aux, i, remainder: natural;
    begin
      aux := nat;
29
      i := 0;
      while (aux/=0) and (i<length) loop
31
        quotient := aux/2;
```

Examples 7.3 45

```
remainder := aux \mod 2;
         if \ remainder = 0 \ then \ v\,(\,i\,) := \, '0\,\, '; \ else \ v\,(\,i\,) := \, '1\,\, ';
         end if;
         i := i+1;
         aux := quotient;
       end loop;
       for j in to length -1 loop v(j) := 0;
39
       end loop;
41
       return v;
    end natural to vector;
     procedure\ vector\_add\ (v1,\ v2\ :\ in\ std\_logic\_vector;\ vo\ :\ out\ std\_logic\_vector)\ is
      variable sum, long: natural;
47
       long := v1' length;
      sum:= vector_to_natural(v1) + vector_to_natural(v2);
49
       v_result := natural_to_vector(sum, long);
    end vector add;
   end arith_operations;
   library IEEE;
   use IEEE.std_logic_1164.all;
   use work.arith_operations.all; — The packet must be included in order to use it
57
    port (v1, v2: in std logic vector; v result : out std logic vector);
   end sum;
    architecture beh of sum is begin
    p1: process(v1, v2)
variable sum_var: natural;
63
     begin
65
       vector_addu(v1, v2, sum);
       v_result <= sum_var;
    end process p1;
   end beh;
```

Design of a RAM Memory

By reusing all the concepts that have been described throughout this document, we can now design a kind of memory that is very common in digital circuits design and computer architecture: a RAM memory with synchronous write and asynchronous read:

```
library ieee;
use ieee.std_logic_1164.all;
use ieee.std_logic_arith.all;
use ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
-- RAM memory with 32 8-bit words
entity ram is
 port (addr: in std_logic_vector (4 downto 0);
        we, clk: in std_logic;
data_i: in std_logic_vector(7 downto 0);
        data o: out std logic vector(7 downto 0));
end ram;
architecture archxi of ram is
 type ram table is array (0 to 31) of std logic vector (7 downto 0);
 signal rammemory: ram_table;
 process (we, clk, addr)
   if clk'event and clk='1' then
if we = '1' then
       rammemory (conv\_integer(addr)) <= data\_i;
      end if;
   end if;
 end process;
 data o <= rammemory(conv integer(addr));
end archxi;
```

For XilinxTM users: Xilinx TM recognizes the previous code as a memory, but it not synthesizes that code using the memory blocks that typically exist in FPGAs for that purpose (Block RAMs or BRAMs). In order to achieve this, one can either directly instantiate BRAMs by means of specific primitives provided by Xilinx TM, or to code a generic synchronous memory with read and write ports, as well as enable, write and read signals, as in the code below.

The conv_integer function is defined in the packet ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all. It converts a binary vector to an integer value. Note that, in VHDL, the access index to the vectors are integer values.

```
library ieee;
   use ieee.std_logic_1164.all;
use ieee.std_logic_arith.all;
   use ieee.std logic unsigned.all;
   entity SRAM is generic(w: integer := 4; -- word width
                               d: integer := 4; — number of words
                               a: integer := 2); — address width
    port (Clock:
                        in std logic;
         Enable:
                        in std_logic;
         Read:
                        in std_logic;
         Write: in std_logic;
Read_Addr: in std_logic_vector(a-1 downto 0);
         Write_Addr: in std_logic_vector(a-1 downto 0);
Data_in: in std_logic_vector(w-1 downto 0);
                       out std logic vector (w-1 downto 0)
         Data out:
   );
   end SRAM;
18
   architecture behavioral of SRAM is
     - We use an array to store the memory values
    type ram type is array (0 \text{ to } d-1) of std logic vector (w-1 \text{ downto } 0);
    signal tmp ram: ram type;
   begin
    -- Read
     process (Clock, Read)
       if (Clock'event and Clock = '1') then
         if Enable = '1' then
if Read = '1' then
3.0
              Data_out <= tmp_ram(conv_integer(Read_Addr));
32
             Data out <= (Data out 'range => 'Z'); -- All bits of Data out are set to 'Z'
34
            end if:
         end if;
       end if;
     end process;
     -- Write
40
     process (Clock, Write)
42
       if (Clock'event and Clock = '1') then
          if Enable = '1' then
  if Write = '1' then tmp ram(conv integer(Write Addr)) <= Data in;</pre>
              end if;
46
         end if;
       end if;
48
     end process;
   end behavioral;
```

Appendixes

9.1 Discussion about using signals vs. variables

Signals are used to connect different components in a circuit, whereas variables are used inside process to compute certain values. The following example illustrates this point:

```
entity \quad sig\_var \quad is
     port(d1, d2, d3: in std logic; res1, res2: out std logic);
    end sig_var;
    architecture behv of sig var is
    signal sig_s1: std_logic;
    begin
     \verb|proc1: process|(d1, d2, d3)|
       variable var_s1: std_logic;
10
       var_s1 := d1 \text{ and } d2;
       res1 <= var s1 xor d3;
     end process;
14
     proc2: process(d1, d2, d3)
     begin
       sig \quad s1 \ <= \ d1 \quad and \quad d2 \ ;
       res\overline{2} <= sig\_s1 xor d3;
     end process:
    end behv;
```

One could think that both process should return exactly the same result, since the operations that are carried out are exactly the same.

However, this is not true. Let us take a look at the simulation in Figure 9.1.

Why is res2 set to '1' later than res1? The reason is that the variable var_s1 and the signal res1 are updated in the same simulation step in proc1, whereas the signals sig_s1 and res2 need several simulation steps in proc2 for the update of these two signals, respectively.

When d1=1, d2=1 and d3=0, the process proc1 updates var_s1 to its new value (which is '0'), and this new value is taken in the same simulation step to update res1. Therefore, res1 is automatically set to 1. However, in proc2, at this same instant of time, sig_s1 is set to 1, but nothing

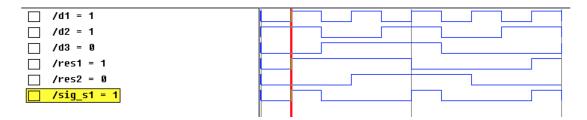


Figure 9.1: Simulation example showing the difference between the update of signals and variables

happens to res2 at that simulation step. Since a change in sig_s1 does not trigger the execution of the process proc2 (note that sig_s1 is not in the sensitivity list of this process), res2 remains unchanged until a new modification of d1, d2 or d3. The next simulation step (occurring when d1=0, d2=0 and d3=1) does not trigger the change of res2 either. The following one (when d1=0, d2=0 and d3=1) does trigger the modification of res2 from 0 to 1. The problem in this case is that this modification comes too late.

As previously hinted, looking at the code of both proc1 and proc2, one would expect the behavior obtained for proc1 in both cases. Hence, proc2 returns a wrong simulation result. Does this mean that we should better using variables inside processes instead of signals, in order to guarantee a proper and immediate update? NOT AT ALL. What we should do is to double-check the sensitivity list of proc2 and to realize that the signal sig_s1, which is updated in that process, is missing in that sensitivity list. If added, the simulation result of proc2 will be exactly the same as that of proc1. This is closely related with what is explained in Section 9.2.

9.2 Discussion about the effect of incorrectly coding the sensitivity list in a process

<u>For XilinxTM users:</u> When implementing a circuit, XilinxTM does not take into account the sensitivity list of a process whatsoever. This means that, if the VHDL code is not properly written, the simulation and the final implementation results will differ. Thus, it is very important to remember that the sensitivity list of a process MUST include all the signals that are read inside it.

The code below and the simulation in Figure 9.2 illustrate this point:

```
library IEEE;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_1164.ALL;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_ARITH.ALL;
use IEEE.STD_LOGIC_UNSIGNED.ALL;

entity das is
port(din, sel, clk: in std_logic; dout: out std_logic);
end das;

architecture Behavioral of das is
signal A, B, C: std_logic;
begin

Type C: process(clk)
```

```
begin
dout <= not C;
end process Type_C;

Type_B: process(clk)
begin
if clk'event and clk='1' then B <= not din;
end if;
end process Type_B;

Type_A: process(clk)
begin
A <= not din;
end process Type_A;

C<=A when (sel='0') else B;

end Behavioral;
```

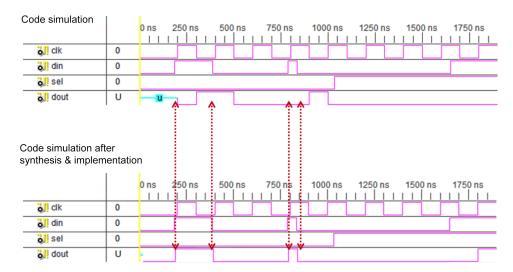


Figure 9.2: Simulation example that illustrates the effect of an incomplete sensitivity list

9.3 How to use an entity with several architectures

As previously hinted in Chapter 2, it is possible to define several architectures for the same entity. However, in this case, when instantiating this entity as a component in another source code, one must explicitly especify the name of the architecture that will be implemented.

The code below illustrates this by means of an example. In this case, two different architectures (BEHAVIORAL and STRUCTURAL) are defined for the entity NbitsAdder. Next, the entity testbench includes two instances of NbitsAdder (uut1 and uut2), each one of them implementing the BEHAVIORAL and STRUCTURAL architectures, respectively. This is done by means of the code in lines 43 and 45.

In this code, the difference existing with respect to a typical component instantiation is in the words work.... and (STRUCTURAL) and (BEHAVIORAL), in Lines 43 and 45. work is the by-default name selected by the XilinxTMISE tool for the user workspace.

```
entity NbitsAdder is
     port (X: in std_logic_vector (3 downto 0);
    Yn: in std_logic_vector (3 downto 0);
          Cinn: in std_logic;
Zn: out std_logic_vector (3 downto 0);
          Coutn: out std_logic);
    end NbitsAdder;
    architecture BEHAVIORAL of NbitsAdder is
10
     process (Cinn, X, Yn)
        variable carry: std_logic;
12
     begin
        carry := Cinn;
        for i in 0 to 3 loop
          \begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Zn}(i) <= (X(i) \text{ xor } \operatorname{Yn}(i)) \text{ xor carry}; \\ \operatorname{carry} := (X(i) \text{ and } \operatorname{Yn}(i)) \text{ or } ((X(i) \text{ xor } \operatorname{Yn}(i)) \text{ and carry}); \end{array}
18
        Coutn <= carry;
     end process;
    end BEHAVIORAL;
    architecture STRUCTURAL of NbitsAdder is
    -- Component declaration for "1bitAdder"
24
     signal aux: std logic vector (3 downto 0);
26
    begin
     a\bar{d}der0:\ 1\,bit\,Adder\ port\ map\ (X(0)\,,\ Yn(0)\,,\ Cinn\,,\ Zn(0)\,,\ aux\,(0)\,)\,;
     gen: for i in 1 to 3 generate
       adderi: 1bitAdder \underbrace{port map}(X(i), Yn(i), aux(i-1), Zn(i), aux(i));
     end generate gen;
     Coutn \le aux(3);
32
    end STRUCTURAL;
    entity testNbitsAdder vhd is
    end testNbitsAdder vhd;
    architecture BEHAVIORAL of testbench is
     -- Declaration of the component "NbitsAdder"
     -- Declaration of intermediate signals
    begin
42
     uut1: entity work. NbitsAdder (STRUCTURAL) port map (X, Y, Cin, Z, Cout);
44
     uut2: entity work. NbitsAdder (BEHAVIORAL) port map (X, Y, Cin, Zb, Coutb);
46
     -- Process to define the input stimuli for the adders.
     -- This will be better explained in Chapter 4.3
48
    end BEHAVIORAL;
```