

Chapter 2

Review of Number Systems & Verilog

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Number Systems

Four Important Number Systems

System	Why?	Remarks
Decimal	Base 10 (10 fingers)	Most used system
Binary	Base 2. On/Off systems	3 times more digits than decimal
Octal	Base 8. Shorthand notation for working with binary	3 times less digits than binary
Hex	Base 16	4 times less digits than binary

Positional Number Systems

- Have a radix r (base) associated with them.
- In the decimal system, $r = 10$:
 - Ten symbols: 0, 1, 2, ..., 8, and 9
 - More than 9 move to next position, so each position is power of 10
 - Nothing special about base 10 (used because we have 10 fingers)
- What does 642.391_{10} mean?

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 6 \times 10^2 & + & 4 \times 10^1 & + & 2 \times 10^0 & . & 3 \times 10^{-1} + 9 \times 10^{-2} + 1 \times 10^{-3} \\
 \leftarrow & & & & \uparrow & & \rightarrow \\
 \text{Increasingly +value} & & & & \text{Radix point} & & \text{Increasingly -value} \\
 \text{powers of radix} & & & & & & \text{powers of radix}
 \end{array}$$

Positional Number Systems

- What does 642.391_{10} mean?

Radix point
↓

Base 10 (r)	10^2 (100)	10^1 (10)	10^0 (1)	10^{-1} (0.1)	10^{-2} (0.01)	10^{-3} (0.001)
Coefficient (a_j)	6	4	2	3	9	1
Product: $a_j \times r^i$	600	40	2	0.3	0.09	0.001
Value	$= 600 + 40 + 2 + 0.3 + 0.09 + 0.001 = 642.391$					

- Multiply each digit by appropriate power of 10 and add them together
- In general:
$$\sum_{i=-m}^n a_j \times r^i$$

Positional Number Systems

Number system	Radix	Symbols
Binary	2	{0,1}
Octal	8	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7}
Decimal	10	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}
Hexadecimal	16	{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,a,b,c,d,e,f}

Binary Number System

Decimal	Binary	Decimal	Binary
0	0000	8	1000
1	0001	9	1001
2	0010	10	1010
3	0011	11	1011
4	0100	12	1100
5	0101	13	1101
6	0110	14	1110
7	0111	15	1111

Octal Number System

Decimal	Octal	Decimal	Octal
0	0	8	10
1	1	9	11
2	2	10	12
3	3	11	13
4	4	12	14
5	5	13	15
6	6	14	16
7	7	15	17

Hexadecimal Number System

Decimal	Hex	Decimal	Hex
0	0	8	8
1	1	9	9
2	2	10	A
3	3	11	B
4	4	12	C
5	5	13	D
6	6	14	E
7	7	15	F

Four Number Systems

Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex	Decimal	Binary	Octal	Hex
0	0000	0	0	8	1000	10	8
1	0001	1	1	9	1001	11	9
2	0010	2	2	10	1010	12	A
3	0011	3	3	11	1011	13	B
4	0100	4	4	12	1100	14	C
5	0101	5	5	13	1101	15	D
6	0110	6	6	14	1110	16	E
7	0111	7	7	15	1111	17	F

Conversion Between Number Systems

Conversion: Binary to Decimal

Binary \longrightarrow Decimal

$1101.011_2 \longrightarrow (??)_{10}$

r	$2^3(8)$	$2^2(4)$	$2^1(2)$	$2^0(1)$	2^{-1} (0.5)	2^{-2} (0.25)	2^{-3} (0.125)
a_j	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
$a_j * r$	8	4	0	1	0	0.25	0.125
$(1101.011)_2 = 8 + 4 + 1 + 0.25 + 0.125 = 13.375$							

$$1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 + 0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} = 13.375_{10}$$

↑
Binary point

Conversion: Decimal to Binary

- A decimal number can be converted to binary by repeated division by 2 if it is an integer

number	+2	Remainder	
155	77	1	Least Significant Bit (LSB)
77	38	1	
38	19	0	
19	9	1	
9	4	1	
4	2	0	
2	1	0	
1	0	1	Most Significant Bit (MSB)

Arrange remainders in reverse order

$155_{10} = 10011011_2$

Conversion: Decimal to Binary

- If the number includes a radix point, it is necessary to separate the number into an integer part and a fraction part, each part must be converted differently.

Decimal \longrightarrow Binary
 $(27.375)_{10} \longrightarrow (??)_{2}$

number	+2	Remainder	
27	13	1	
13	6	1	
6	3	0	
3	1	1	
1	0	1	

number	X2	Integer	
0.375	0.75	0	
0.75	1.50	1	
0.50	1.0	1	

Arrange in order: 011

Arrange remainders in reverse order: 11011

$\Rightarrow 27.375_{10} = 11011.011_2$

Conversion: Octal to Binary

Octal \longrightarrow Binary
 $345.5602_8 \longrightarrow (??)_2$

3	4	5	.	5	6	0	2
⏟	⏟	⏟		⏟	⏟	⏟	⏟
011	100	101		101	110	000	010

$345.5602_8 = 11100101.101110000010_2$

Conversion: Binary to Octal

Binary \longrightarrow Octal
 $11001110.0101101_2 \longrightarrow (??)_8$

Note trailing zeros

11001110	.	010110100
⏟ ⏟ ⏟		⏟ ⏟ ⏟
3 1 6		2 6 4

Group by 3's
 Add leading zeros if necessary

Group by 3's
 Add trailing zeros if necessary

$11001110.0101101_2 = 316.264_8$

Conversion: Binary to Hex

Binary \longrightarrow Hex

$11100101101.1111010111_2 \longrightarrow (??)_{16}$

Note trailing zeros

$\underbrace{111}_7 \underbrace{0010}_2 \underbrace{1101}_D \mid \underbrace{1111}_F \underbrace{0101}_5 \underbrace{1100}_C$

Group by 4's
Add leading zeros if necessary

Group by 4's
Add trailing zeros if necessary

$= 72D.F5C_{16}$

Conversion: Hex to Binary

Hex \longrightarrow Binary

$B9A4.E6C_{16} \longrightarrow (??)_2$

$\underbrace{1011}_B \underbrace{1001}_9 \underbrace{1010}_A \underbrace{0100}_4 \mid \underbrace{1110}_E \underbrace{0110}_6 \underbrace{1100}_C$

$1011100110100100.111001101100_2$

Conversion: Hex to Decimal

Hex \longrightarrow Decimal

$B63.4C_{16} \longrightarrow (??)_{10}$

16^2	16^1	16^0	16^{-1}	16^{-2}
B (=11)	6	3	4	C (=12)
$= 2816 + 96 + 3 + 0.25 + 0.046875 = 2915.296875$				

$$11 \times 16^2 + 6 \times 16^1 + 3 \times 16^0 + 4 \times 16^{-1} + 12 \times 16^{-2} = 2915.296875_{10}$$

Quiz Time!!!

- Convert $(10111100.00001110)_2$ to Octal form
 - A. $(274.034)_8$
 - B. $(570.016)_8$
 - C. $(270.014)_8$
 - D. $(574.034)_8$

Binary Arithmetic

Binary Addition

$a + b$

Let $a = 1$, $b = 1$, what is the sum?

Truth Table			
	a	b	sum carry
1	0	0	0 0
+1	0	1	1 0
	1	0	1 0
2	1	1	0 1

1
+1
(sum=0, carry=1) 1 0

Binary Addition – Examples

1 1 0	6
1 1	3
+ 1 1 1	7
1 0 0 0 0	16

1 1 0 1 1 . 1 0 1	27.625
+ 1 0 1 0 . 1 1 1	10.875
1 0 0 1 1 0 . 1 0 0	38.5

Note: Addition rule for binary non-integers same as for integers.

Binary Subtraction

a - b a = minuend
 b = subtrahend

Truth table

a	b	Difference	Borrow
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0

0
- 1
(diff=1, borrow=1) 1

Binary Subtraction – Examples

	<table><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td>-</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr><tr><td colspan="4"><hr/></td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	1	1	1	0	-	1	0	0	<hr/>				1	0	1	0	<table><tr><td>14</td></tr><tr><td>- 4</td></tr><tr><td colspan="2"><hr/></td></tr><tr><td>10</td></tr></table>	14	- 4	<hr/>		10																														
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Note: Subtraction rule for binary non-integers same as for integers.

Binary Multiplication

a x b

Truth table

a	b	Product
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Binary Multiplication – Example

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ .\ 1 \\
 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ .\ 1 \\
 \hline
 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\
 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\
 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\
 0\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0 \\
 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1 \\
 \hline
 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ .1\ 1
 \end{array}$$

Note: Rule for positioning binary point identical to that in decimal number system.

Binary Numbers

- How many distinct numbers can be represented by n bits?

No. of bits	Distinct nos.
1	2 {0,1}
2	4 {00, 01, 10, 11}
3	8 {000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111}
n	2^n

- Number of permutations double with every extra bit
- 2^n unique numbers can be represented by n bits

Signed Binary Numbers

Negative numbers representation

- Three kinds of representations are common:
 1. Signed Magnitude (SM)
 2. One's Complement
 3. Two's Complement

Signed Magnitude Representation

$[0,1] \{ \dots \dots \dots \}$
↑ ↑
Sign bit $(n-1)$
(left most) magnitude bits

- 0 indicates +value
- 1 indicates -value

8 bit representation for +13 is 0 0001101

8 bit representation for -13 is 1 0001101

1's Complement Notation

Let N be an n -bit number and $\tilde{N}(1)$ be the 1's Complement of the number. Then,

$$\tilde{N}(1) = 2^n - 1 - N$$

- The idea is to leave positive numbers as is, but to *represent negative numbers by the 1's Complement of their magnitude.*
- *Example:* Let $n = 4$. What is the 1's Complement representation for +6 and -6?
 - +6 is represented as 0110 (as usual in binary)
 - -6 is represented by 1's complement of its magnitude (6)

1's Complement Notation

- 1's C representation can be computed in 2 ways:
 - Method 1: 1's C representation of -6 is:
 $2^4 - 1 - |N| = (16 - 1 - 6)_{10} = (9)_{10} = (1001)_2$
 - Method 2: For -6, the magnitude = 6 = $(0110)_2$
 - The 1's C representation is obtained by complementing the bits of the magnitude:
 $(1001)_2$
 - $2^4 - 1 - |N| = (16)_{10} - 1 - |N| = (15)_{10} - |N| = (1111)_2 - |N|$

2's Complement Notation

Let N be an n bit number and $\tilde{N}(2)$ be the 2's C of the number. Then,

$$\tilde{N}(2) = 2^n - N$$

- Again, the idea is to leave positive numbers as is, but to *represent negative numbers by the 2's C of their magnitude*.
- Example: Let $n = 5$. What is the 2's C representation for +11 and -13?
 - +11 is represented as 01011 (as usual in binary)
 - -13 is represented by 2's complement of its magnitude (13)

2's Complement Notation

- 2's C representation can be computed in 2 ways:
 - Method 1:** 2's C representation of -13 is:
 $2^5 - |N| = (32 - 13)_{10} = (19)_{10} = (10011)_2$
 - Method 2:** For -13, the magnitude = 13 = $(01101)_2$
 - The 2's C representation is obtained by adding 1 to the 1's C of the magnitude
 - $2^5 - |N| = (2^5 - 1 - |N|) + 1 = 1's\ C + 1$

$$01\ 101 \xrightarrow{1's\ C} 10010 \xrightarrow{add\ 1} 10011$$

Comparing all Signed Notations (4-bit)

4-bit No.	SM	1's C	2's C
0000	+0	+0	0
0001	1	1	1
0010	2	2	2
0011	3	3	3
0100	4	4	4
0101	5	5	5
0110	6	6	6
0111	7	7	7
1000	-0	-7	-8
1001	-1	-6	-7
1010	-2	-5	-6
1011	-3	-4	-5
1100	-4	-3	-4
1101	-5	-2	-3
1110	-6	-1	-2
1111	-7	-0	-1

- In all 3 representations, a -ve number has a 1 in MSB location
- To handle -ve numbers using n bits,
 - $\cong 2^{n-1}$ symbols can be used for positive numbers
 - $\cong 2^{n-1}$ symbols can be used for negative numbers
- In 2's C notation, only 1 combination used for 0

Addition of Signed Numbers

- SM notation awkward for computations
- 1's C is better, but not as widely used as 2's C which is very convenient
- The 4 combinations that need to be considered for signed number addition are
 1. (+) + (+)
 2. (-) + (+)
 3. (+) + (-)
 4. (-) + (-)

Addition of Signed Numbers

Examples below are shown for 4-bit **2's C arithmetic**.

1.	(+5)	0101
	+(+2)	+0010
		<hr/>
	(+7)	0111

2.	(-5)	1011
	+(+2)	+0010
		<hr/>
	(-3)	1101

3.	(+5)	0101
	+(-2)	+1110
		<hr/>
	(+3)	1 0011
		ignore the carry

4.	(-5)	1011
	+(-2)	+1110
		<hr/>
	(-7)	1 1001
		ignore the carry

What's the meaning of overflow? When does it occur?
How can subtraction be done in 2's C arithmetic?

Overflow

- Example: 7 + 6 (each number in signed 4-bit)

```
+ 7:  0111
+ 6:  0110
-----
+13:  1101 → -3
```

Overflow

- Overflow if result out of range

Operation	Operand A	Operand B	Result Indicating overflow
A+B	≥ 0	≥ 0	< 0
A+B	< 0	< 0	≥ 0
A-B	≥ 0	< 0	< 0
A-B	< 0	≥ 0	≥ 0

CSE4210 Architecture & Hardware for DSP

Verilog

Basic Verilog Concepts

Comments
Identifiers
Logic Values
Data Types
Numbers
Strings

Verilog Comments

- **Single line comments:**
 - Begin with "//" and end with a carriage return
 - May begin anywhere on the line.
- **Multiple line comments:**
 - Begin with "/*" and end with a "*/"
 - May begin and end anywhere on the line
 - Everything in between is commented out
- **Coding style tip** - Use single line comments for comments. Reserve multi-line comments for commenting out a section of code.

An Example

```
module pound_one;
reg [7:0] a,a$b,b,c; // register declarations
reg clk;

initial
begin
    clk=0; // initialize the clock
    c = 1;
    forever #25 clk = !clk;
end
/* This section of code implements
a pipeline */
always @ (posedge clk)
begin
    a = b;
    b = c;
end
endmodule
```

Identifiers

- Identifiers are names assigned by the user to Verilog objects such as modules, variables, tasks etc.
- An identifier may contain any sequence of letters, digits, a dollar sign '\$' , and the underscore '_' symbol.
- The first character of an identifier must be a letter or underscore; it cannot be a dollar sign '\$' , for example. We cannot use characters such as '-' (hyphen), brackets, or '#' in Verilog names (**escaped identifiers** are an exception).

Escaped Identifiers

- The use of escaped identifiers allow any character to be used in an identifier.
 - Escaped identifiers start with a backslash (\) and end with white space (White space characters are space, tabs, carriage returns).
 - Gate level netlists generated by EDA tools (like DC) often have escaped identifiers
- Examples:
 - Vclock = 0;
 - \a*b = 0;
 - \5-6
 - \bus_a[0]
 - \bus_a[1]

```
module identifiers; /* Multiline comments in Verilog look like C comments
and // is OK in here. */
```

```
// Single-line comment in Verilog.
```

```
reg legal_identifier, two__underscores;
reg _OK,OK,_OK_$,OK_123,CASE_SENSITIVE, case_sensitive;
reg Vclock ,\a*b ; // Add white_space after escaped identifier.
//reg $_BAD,123_BAD; // Bad names even if we declare them!
initial begin
    legal_identifier = 0; // Embedded underscores are OK,
    two__underscores = 0; // even two underscores in a row.
    _OK = 0; // Identifiers can start with underscore
    OK_ = 0; // and end with underscore.
    OK$ = 0; // $ sign is OK.
    OK_123 = 0; // Embedded digits are OK.
    CASE_SENSITIVE = 0; // Verilog is case-sensitive (unlike VHDL).
    case_sensitive = 1;
    Vclock = 0; // An escaped identifier with \ breaks rules
    \a*b = 0; // but be careful to watch the spaces!
    $display("Variable CASE_SENSITIVE= %d",CASE_SENSITIVE);
    $display("Variable case_sensitive= %d",case_sensitive);
    $display("Variable Vclock = %d",Vclock );
    $display("Variable \\a*b = %d",\a*b );
end
endmodule
```

An Example

Simulation Result of the Example

Variable CASE_SENSITIVE= 0

Variable case_sensitive= 1

Variable /clock = 0

Variable \a*b = 0

Logic values

- Verilog has 4 logic Values:
 - '0' represents zero, low, false, not asserted.
 - '1' represents one, high, true, asserted.
 - 'z' or 'Z' represent a high-impedance value, which is usually treated as an 'x' value.
 - 'x' or 'X' represent an uninitialized or an unknown logic value--an unknown value is either '1' , '0' , 'z' , or a value that is in a state of change.

Data Types

- Three data type classes:
 - Nets
 - Physical connections between devices
 - Registers
 - Storage devices, variables.
 - Parameters
 - Constants

Nets

- Most common Net types
 - **wire** and **tri** (which are identical);
 - **supply1** and **supply0** (which are equivalent to the positive and negative power supplies respectively).
- The wire data type is analogous to a wire in an ASIC. A wire cannot store or hold a value. A wire must be continuously driven by an assignment statement. The default initial value for a wire is 'z'

example:

```
wire a,b;
```

```
// scalar wires
```

Registers

- A register data type is declared using the keyword **reg** and is comparable to a variable in a programming language.
- A storage device. But a **reg** is not always equivalent to a hardware register, flip-flop, or latch.
- On the LHS of an assignment a register data type is updated immediately and holds its value until changed again.
- The default initial value for a reg is 'x' .

```
reg a; // scalar reg variable
reg [7:0] in_bus; // vectored reg variable
```

Parameters

- **parameters:**
 - run-time constant
 - used anywhere a literal may
 - for synthesis, must be integer and must be defined before being used

syntax:
parameter <[msb:lsb]> **identifier** = **value** <, **identifier** = **value** ...> ;

examples:
parameter [2:0] a = 1; // 3-bit
parameter
depth = 32, // default depth
width = 8; // default width

Numbers

- Constant numbers are integer or real constants .
- Integers may be sized or unsized.
 - Syntax: <size>'<base><value>
where:
 - <size> is the number of bits
 - <base> is b or B (binary), o or O (octal), d or D (decimal), h or H (hex)
 - <value> is 0-9 a-f A-F x X z Z ? _
 - Examples: 2'b01, 6'o243, 78, 4'ha,
- Default radix is decimal, i.e. 1=1'd1
- underscores (_) are ignored (use them as you would commas), e.g. 836_234_408_566_343
- a "?" is interpreted as Z (high impedance), 2'b?? =2'bzz
- When <size> is **less** than <value> - the upper bits are truncated, e.g. 2'b101->2'b01, 4'hfcb->4'ha

Points to Note

- When <size> is **greater** than <value>, and the **left-most bit** of <value> is **0 or 1**, then **zero's** are extended to <size> bits.
 - 4'b01 -> 4'b0001, 16'h0 -> 16'h0000
 - 4'b11 -> 4'b0011, 16'h1 -> 16'h0001
- When <size> is **greater** than <value>, and the **left-most bit** of <value> is an **x** then the **x** value is extended to <size> bits
 - 4'bx1 -> 4'bxxx1, 16'hx -> 16'hxxxx
- When <size> is **greater** than <value>, and the **left-most bit** of <value> is a **z** then the **z** value is extended to <size> bits
 - 4'bz1 -> 4'bzzz1, 16'hz -> 16'hzzzz
- Real numbers may be either in decimal or scientific notation
 - Syntax: <value>.<value> or <mantissa>e<exp>
 - 6.439 or 5.3e6

Examples

- 3.14 decimal notation
- 6.4e3 scientific notation for 6400.0
- 16'bz 16 bit z (z is extended to 16 bits)
- 83 unsized decimal
- 8'h0 8 bits with 0 extended to 8 bits
- 2'ha5 2 bits with upper 6 bits truncated (binary equivalent = 01)
- 2_000_000 2 million
- 16'h0x0z 16'b0000xxxx0000zzzz
- **Coding style tip** - don't use " ? " in a number to indicate high impedance. It only adds confusion. If you want high impedance use " z "!!

Strings

- Strings are enclosed in double quotes and are specified on one line.
- Verilog recognizes normal C escape Characters (\t, \n, \\", \", %%).

examples:

```
parameter A_String = "abc";  
// string constant, must be on one line  
parameter Say = "Say \"Hey!\"";  
// use escape quote \" for an embedded quote  
parameter Tab = "\t"; // tab character
```

Code Structure

Design Entities

Verilog Module Basics

Design Entities

- The **module** is the basic unit of code in the Verilog language.

- Example

```
module holiday_1(sat, sun, weekend);  
  input sat, sun;  
  output weekend;  
  assign weekend = sat | sun;  
endmodule
```

Verilog Module

- **Modules contain**
 - **declarations**
 - **functionality**
 - **timing**

```

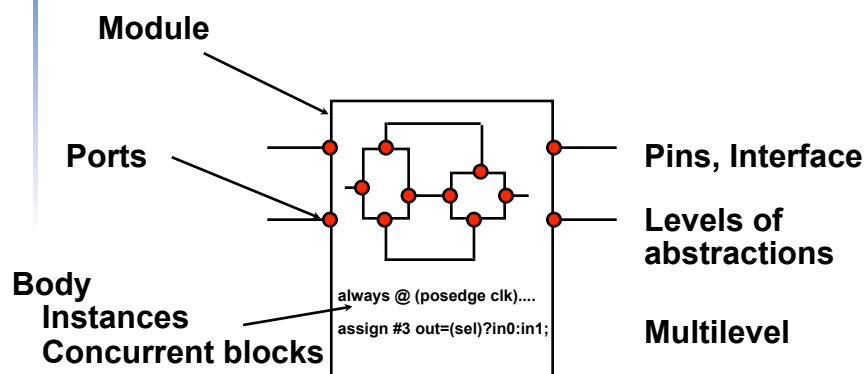
module name (port_names);
    module port declarations
    data type declarations
    procedural blocks
    continuous assignments
    user defined tasks & functions
    primitive instances
    module instances
    specify blocks
endmodule
    
```

syntax:

```

module module_name (signal, signal,... signal ) ;
    .      ; //content of module
    .
    .
    ..
    .
endmodule
    
```

Basic Modeling Structure



Module Port Declarations

- Scalar (1bit) port declarations:
 - *port_direction port_name, port_name ... ;*
- Vector (Multiple bit) port declarations:
 - *port_direction [port_size] port_name, port_name ... ;*
- *port_direction* : input, inout (bi-directional) or output
- *port_name* : legal identifier
- *port_size* : is a range from [msb:lsb]

```
input a, into_here, george; // scalar ports
input [7:0] in_bus, data;    // vectored ports
output [31:0] out_bus;       // vectored port
inout [maxsize-1:0] a_bus; // parameterized port
```

Port Connection Rules

- **Inputs:**
 - Internally must be of net data type.
 - Externally the inputs may be connected to a reg or net data type.
- **Inouts**
 - Internally must be of net data type.
 - Externally must be connected to a net data type.
- **Outputs**
 - Internally may be of net or reg data type.
 - Externally must be connected to a net data type.

Module Instances

- A module may be instantiated within another module.
- There may be multiple instances of the same module.
- Ports are either by order or by name.
- Use by order unless there are lots of ports
- Use by name for libraries and other peoples code
- Can not mix the two syntax's in one instantiation

syntax for instantiation with port order:

module_name instance_name (signal, signal,...);

syntax for instantiation with port name:

module_name instance_name (.port_name(signal), .port_name (signal),...);

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

example ex_inst_1(in_1, in_2, w, z);
example ex_inst_2(in_1, in_2, , z); // skip a port
example ex_inst_3 (.a(w), .d(x), .c(y), .b(z));
```

Gate-level Primitives

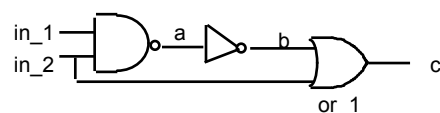
- Verilog has pre-defined primitives that implement basic logic functions.
- Structural modeling with the primitives is similar to schematic level design.

and	nand	or	nor	xor	xnor
buf	not	bufif0	bufif1	notif0	notif1

```
module
gate_level_ex(in_1,in_2,c);
output c;
input in_1,in_2;

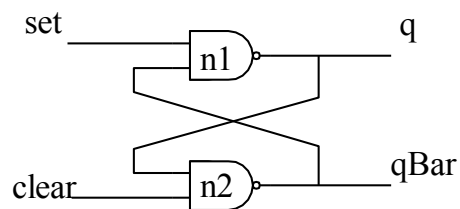
nand (a, in_1, in_2);
not (b, a);
or or_1(c, in_2, b);

endmodule
```



An Example

```
Module simple_latch (q, qBar, set, clear);  
  input set, clear;  
  output q, qBar;  
  nand #2 n1(q,qBar,set);  
  nand #2 n2(qBar,q,clear);  
endmodule
```



User-Defined Primitives

- We can define primitive gates (a **user-defined primitive** or **UDP**) using a truth-table specification. The first port of a UDP must be an output port, and this must be the only output port (we may not use vector or inout ports).

- An example

```
primitive Adder(Sum, InA, InB);  
  output Sum;  
  input InA, InB;  
  table // inputs : output  
    00 : 0;  
    01 : 1;  
    10 : 1;  
    11 : 0;  
  endtable  
endprimitive
```

User-Defined Functions

- Similar to functions in other programming languages. Functions are useful to model combinational logic (rather like a subroutine)

syntax:

```
function <[ size or type ]> name_of_function;  
input declarations  
local variable declarations  
statement or statement_group  
endfunction
```

- size is optional and is of form [msb:lsb]
- type is optional and is either *integer* or *real*
- Returns the value assigned to the name of the function.
- Functions may not contain timing controls.
- Functions must have at least one input.
- Looks local first then global to module for referenced variables.
- Functions may be called
 - within a continuous assignment e.g. assign b = func(a);
 - indirectly within an instantiation e.g. mod U1 (one, func (a, b));
 - nested within another function

Function - Example

```
`define FALSE 0  
`define TRUE 1  
module function_ex (clk);  
input clk;  
reg r1,r2,r3;  
  
function error; // the function definition  
input[7:0] a,b,c;  
if ((a !=b) && (a !=c))  
    error = `FALSE; // assign value to the name of the function  
else error = `TRUE;  
endfunction  
  
always @(posedge clk)  
if (error(r1,r2,r3)) // call of the function  
$display ("error in reg compare");  
  
// another example call below  
reg d;  
always @(posedge clk)  
d = error(r1,r2,r3);  
endmodule
```

- A function can be called where a value may be placed in your code

Operators

■ Verilog operators (in increasing order of precedence)

- ?: (conditional)
- || (logical or)
- && (logical and)
- | (bitwise or)
- ~| (bitwise nor)
- ^ (bitwise xor)
- ^~ ~^ (bitwise xnor, equivalence)
- & (bitwise and)
- ~& (bitwise nand)
- == (logical) != (logical) === (case) !== (case)
- < (lt)
- <= (lt or equal)
- > (gt)
- >= (gt or equal)
- << (shift left)
- >> (shift right)
- + (addition)
- - (subtraction)
- * (multiply)
- / (divide)
- % (modulus)

CSE4210 Architecture & Hardware for DSP

Procedures and Assignments

Procedural Assignment
Continuous Assignment
Control Statement

Procedures

- A Verilog **procedure** is an **always** or **initial** statement, a task , or a function .
- The statements within a sequential block (statements that appear between a **begin** and an **end**) that is part of a procedure execute sequentially in the order in which they appear, but the procedure executes concurrently with other procedures.

Procedural Blocks

- There are two types of procedural blocks:
 - initial blocks - executes only once
 - always blocks - executes in a loop
- Multiple Procedural blocks may be used, if so the multiple blocks are concurrent.
- Procedural blocks may have:
 - Timing controls - which delays when a statement may be executed
 - Procedural assignments
 - Programming statements

Procedural Statement Groups

- When there is more than one statement within a procedural block the statements must be grouped.
- Sequential grouping: statements are enclosed within the keywords **begin** and **end**.

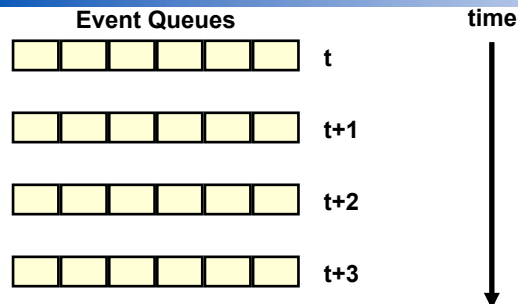
- An example

```
always
begin
    a = 5;          // executed 1st
    c = 4;          // executed 2nd
    wake_up = 1;    // executed 3rd
end
```

Timing Controls (procedural delays)

- **#delay** - simple delay
 - Delays execution for a specific number of time steps.
 - **#5 reg_a = reg_b;**
- **@ (edge signal)** - edge-triggered timing control
 - Delays execution until a transition on **signal** occurs.
 - **edge** is optional and can be specified as either **posedge** or **negedge**.
 - Several **signal** arguments can be specified using the keyword **or**.
 - An example : **always @ (posedge clk) reg_a = reg_b;**
- **wait (expression)** - level-sensitive timing control
 - Delays execution until **expression** evaluates true.
 - **wait (cond_is_true) reg_a = reg_b;**

Time & Event Queues



- Time can only advance forward.
- Time advances when every event scheduled at that time step is executed.
- Simulation completes when all event queues are empty
- An event at time t may schedule another event at time t or any other time $t+n$

Procedural assignments

- Assignments made within procedural blocks are called procedural assignments.
 - Value of the RHS of the equal sign is transferred to the LHS
 - LHS must be a register data type (reg, integer, real). NO NETS!
 - RHS may be any valid expression or signal

```
always @ (posedge clk)
begin
    a = 5;           // procedural assignment
    c = 4*32/6;      // procedural assignment
    wake_up = $time; // procedural assignment
end
```

Blocking Assignments

- Blocking assignments.
 - RHS expression evaluated and assignment is scheduled.
- Delayed Blocking assignments.
 - Evaluation of the assignment is delayed by the timing control.
 - RHS expression evaluated and assignment is scheduled.

```
Blocking assignment:
initial
begin
  a = b;
  c = d;
end
```

```
Delayed Blocking assignments:
initial
begin
  #1 a = b;
  #1 c = d;
end
```

Blocking Assignments Example

- RHS expression evaluated.
- Assignment is scheduled in sequence.

```
initial
begin
  a = b;
  c = d;
  e = f;
end
```

Event Queues			Time
e<-f(t)	c<-d(t)	a<-b(t)	t
			t+1
			t+2
			t+3

<-- Execution order

Non Blocking Assignments

- The **nonblocking procedural assignment statement** allows execution in a sequential block to continue and registers are all updated together at the end of the current time step.
 - **RHS expression evaluated.**
 - **Assignment is scheduled at the end of the queue .**
 - **Assignment is made at end of the time step.**

```
initial
begin
  a <= b;
end
```

Non-blocking Assignments Example

- **RHS expression evaluated.**
- **Assignment is scheduled at the end of the queue .**

```
initial
begin
  a <= b;
end
```

Event Queues				Time
a<-b(t)				t
				t+1
				t+2
				t+3

<-- Execution order

Assignments and Synthesis (1)

```
module two_stage(Q, D, CLK);
input D, CLK;
output Q;

reg Q, P;

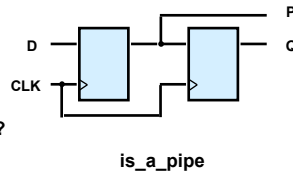
always @ (posedge CLK)
begin
    Q = P;
    P = D;
end
```

Q1. Does this simulate a pipe ?

A1. _____

Q2. Which does it synthesize into?

A2. _____



```
module two_stage(Q, D, CLK);
input D, CLK;
output Q;

reg Q, P;

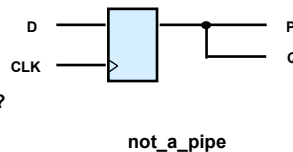
always @ (posedge CLK)
begin
    P = D;
    Q = P;
end
```

Q3. Does this simulate a pipe ?

A3. _____

Q4. Which does it synthesize into?

A4. _____



Conclusion: Blocking assignments are order dependent!
(for both simulation and synthesis)

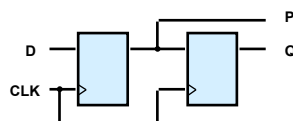
Assignments and Synthesis (2)

```
module two_stage(Q, D, CLK);
input D, CLK;
output Q;

reg Q, P;

always @ (posedge CLK)
begin
    Q <= P;
    P <= D;
end
```

Synthesizes into this...

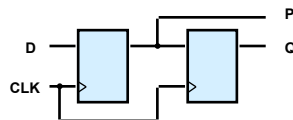


```
module two_stage(Q, D, CLK);
input D, CLK;
output Q;

reg Q, P;

always @ (posedge CLK)
begin
    P <= D;
    Q <= P;
end
```

Synthesizes into this...



Conclusion: Non-blocking assignments are order independent!

An Example

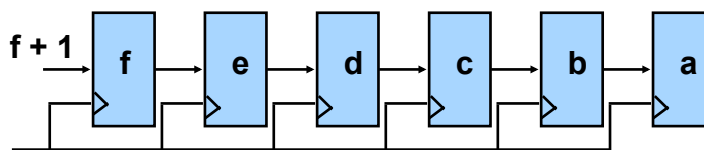
```

module pound;

reg [7:0] a,b,c,d,e,f;
reg clk;
initial
begin
    clk=0;
    f = 1;
    forever
        #25 clk = !clk;
end
/** group 1 */
always @ (posedge clk) // group 1
begin
    e = f;
end
/** group 2 */
always @ (posedge clk) // group 2
begin
    c = d;
    d = e;
end
/** group 3 */
always @ (posedge clk) // group 3
begin
    a = b;
    b = c;
end
/** group 4 */
always @ (posedge clk) // group 4
begin
    f = f + 1;
end
initial
$monitor (f,,d,,c,,b,,a);
initial
#700 $stop;
endmodule

```

Procedural Assignment Example



Expected output:

```

f e d c b a
1 x x x x x
2 1 x x x x
3 2 1 x x x
4 3 2 1 x x
5 4 3 2 1 x
6 5 4 3 2 1
7 6 5 4 3 2
and so on

```

Continuous Assignment

- Continuous assignment assigns a value to a **wire** in a similar way that a real logic gate drives a real wire.
- The main use for continuous assignments is to model combinatorial logic.

syntax: Explicit continuous assignment:
assign net_name = expression;
where **net_name** is a **net** that has been previously declared

```
module continuous (Ain, Aout);  
    input Ain;  
    output Aout;  
    assign Aout = ~Ain //continuous assignment.  
endmodule
```

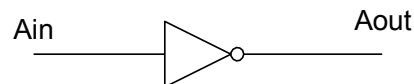


Illustration of Assignment Statements

module assignments

//... Continuous assignments go here.

always // beginning of a procedure

begin // beginning of sequential block

//... Procedural assignments go here.

end

endmodule

Control Statements

- Two types of programming statements:
 - Conditional
 - Looping
- Programming statements only used in procedural blocks

if and if-else

syntax:

if(expression) statement

If the expression evaluates to true then execute the statement (or statement group)

if(expression) statement1

else statement2

If the expression evaluates to true then execute statement1, if false, then execute statement2 (or corresponding statement groups).

```
module if_ex(clk);
  input clk;
  reg red,blue,pink,yellow,orange,color,green;
  always @ (posedge clk)
  if (red || (blue && pink))
  begin
    $display ("color is mixed up");
    color <= 0; // reset the color
  end
  else if (blue && yellow)
    $display ("color is greenish");
  else if (yellow && (green || orange))
    $display ("not sure what color is");
  else $display ("color is black");
endmodule
```

case

syntax:

```
case (expression)
  case_item_1:      statement or statement_group
  case_item_2,
  case_item_3:      statement or statement_group
  case_item_n:      statement or statement_group
  default:          statement or statement_group
endcase
```

- Does an identity comparison (But only simulation will match x, z)
- Compares expression with each case_item_(n) in turn.
- If none match, the default code is executed.
- default clause is ideal to catch unknown/unspecified values

```
reg [2:0] reg_a, reg_b;
always @ (posedge clk)
  case (reg_a)
    3'b000: reg_b <= 0;
    3'b001: reg_b <= 1;
    3'b010,
    3'b011: reg_b <= 3;
    default: reg_b <= 5;
  endcase
```

casez, casex

- **casez** - special version of case that allows the Z logic value in the case-items (z or ? treated as a don't care).
- **casex** - special version of case that allows the Z or X logic value in the case-items (x or z or ? treated as don't cares).

```
reg [2:0] reg_a, reg_b;
always @ (posedge clk)
  casex (reg_a)
    3'b000: reg_b <= 0;
    3'b001: reg_b <= 1;
    3'b01?: reg_b <= 2;
    3'b011: reg_b <= 3;
    3'b1x0: reg_b <= 4;
    default: reg_b <= 5;
  endcase
```

Coding style tip - to save confusion use " ? " as the don't care indicator.

Which to use: case or if-else ?

- Some general rules to remember:
 - Use **if-else** where you **MUST** have priority encoded logic
 - Use **case** for non-priority encoded logic
 - case items are mutually exclusive
 - Always specify a default clause in **case** statements

Inferred latches in Synthesis

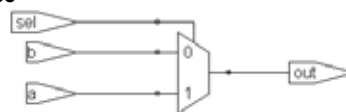
Latches can be accidentally inferred from Verilog RTL code

An example:

When using if - else and case all possible states and values must be specified including default or else storage devices are added

The following generates a mux:

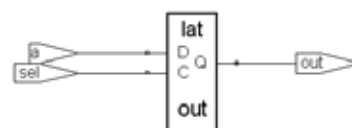
```
reg out, sel, a, b;  
always @ (sel or a or b)  
if(sel)  
    out = a;  
else out = b;
```



The following infers a latch:

```
always @ (sel or a or b)  
if(sel)  
    out = a;
```

Can you see why?



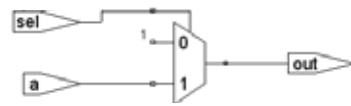
Avoiding Inferred latches

Specify all case/if structures thoroughly!

-or-

Assign a default value to all outputs before the if/case structure:

```
module default (out, sel, a);
input sel; a;
output out;
reg out, sel, a;
always @(sel or a)
begin
    out = 1'b1;
    if(sel) // no else is no problem now!
        out = a;
end
endmodule
```



forever

syntax:

forever statement or statement_group

- statement or statement_group is continuously executed.
- An infinite loop.

```
module clock_gen;
reg clk;
initial
begin
    clk = 0;
    forever #25 clk = !clk; //50 time step clock
end
endmodule
```

while

syntax:

***while (expression) statement
or statement_group***

- statement or statement_group is continuously executed as long as expression evaluates true (or non zero).
- In synthesis, the loop must contain an edge-triggered timing control, i.e. @(posedge clk) or @(negedge clk)

```
module while_ex (clk, a,b,c);
input clk;
input [1:0] a,b;
output [1:0] c;
reg [1:0] c;

always
begin
@ (posedge clk)
while (c < b)
@ (posedge clk)
c = c + a;
end
endmodule
```

for

syntax:

***for (assignment_init; expression; assignment)
statement or statement_group***

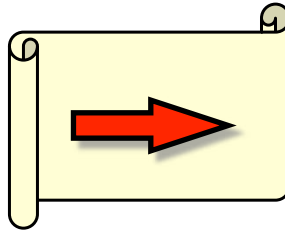
- The ***assignment_init*** is executed once at the start of the loop.
- Loop executes as long as ***expression*** is true.
- The ***assignment*** is executed at the completion of each loop.

```
module for_ex1 (clk);
input clk;
reg [31:0] mem [0:9]; // 10x32 memory
integer i;
always @ (posedge clk)
for (i = 9; i >= 0; i = i-1)
mem[i] = 0; // init the memory to zeros
endmodule
```


Ever see a hardware for?

HDL Compiler® simply unrolls the loop...

```
module for_ex2(start_cnt,cnt);
input start_cnt;
output [7:0] cnt;
integer i;
reg [7:0] vec,cnt;
always @ (start_cnt)
  for (i = 0; i <= 3; i = i+1)
    if (vec[i] == 1'b0)
      cnt = cnt + 1;
endmodule
```



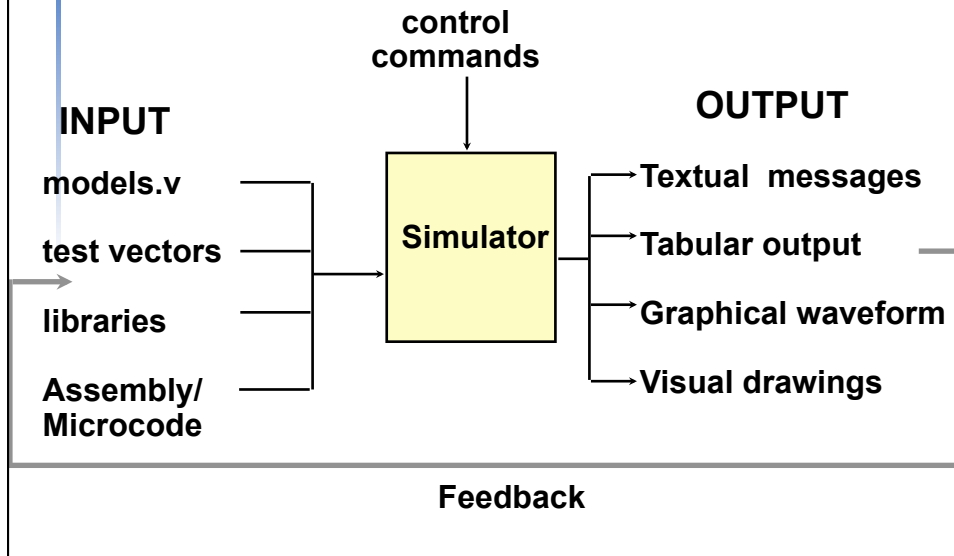
```
module for_ex3(start_cnt,cnt);
input start_cnt;
output [7:0] cnt;
integer i;
reg [7:0] vec,cnt;
reg start_cnt;
always @ (start_cnt)
begin
  if (vec[0] == 1'b0)
    cnt = cnt + 1;
  if (vec[1] == 1'b0)
    cnt = cnt + 1;
  if (vec[2] == 1'b0)
    cnt = cnt + 1;
  if (vec[3] == 1'b0)
    cnt = cnt + 1;
end
endmodule
```

- You can't re-assign the loop variable from within the for loop. It's supposed to be a constant!
- Beware using complex functions inside a for-loop. They can easily be replicated unnecessarily by the unrolling. The example here generates 4 adders!
- For synthesis you can't embed edge-triggered timing controls in **for loops**
- Must use constants in expression limit.

CSE4210 Architecture & Hardware for DSP

Simulation

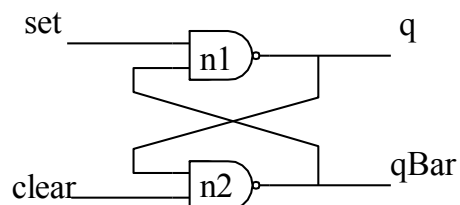
Simulation Environment



Simulating the Verilog Code

- Verilog code of NAND Latch

```
Module simple_latch (q, qBar, set, clear);  
  input set, clear;  
  output q, qBar;  
  nand #2 n1(q,qBar,set);  
  nand #2 n2(qBar,q,clear);  
endmodule
```



Testbench

- A testbench generates a sequence of input values (we call these **input vectors**) that test or **exercise** the verilog code.
- It provides stimulus to the statement that will monitor the changes in their outputs.
- Testbenches do not have a port declaration but must have an instantiation of the circuit to be tested.

A testbench for NAND Latch

```
Module test_simple_latch;  
  wire q, qBar;  
  reg set, clear;  
  simple_latch SL1(q,qBar,set,clear);  
  initial  
  begin  
    #10 set = 0; clear = 1;  
    #10 set = 1;  
    #10 clear = 0;  
    #10 clear = 1;  
    #10 $stop;  
    #10 $finish;  
  end  
  initial  
  begin  
    $monitor ("%d set= %b clear= %b q=%b qBar=%b", $time,  
              set,clear,q,qBar);  
  end  
endmodule
```