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1. Introduction

This tutorial briefly reviews the basics of the Verilog hardware description language. In this class, we will primarily be using the open-source tool Verilator (verilator) as our Verilog simulator. We will also be using GTKWave (gtkwave) for viewing waveforms and lccv to generate coverage reports.

To follow along with the tutorial, access the ECE computing resources, and type the commands without the `%` character. In addition to working through the commands in the tutorial, you should also try the more open-ended tasks marked with the ★ symbol.

Before you begin, make sure that you have sourced the setup-ece4750.sh script or that you have added it to your .bashrc script, which will then source the script every time you login. Sourcing the setup script sets up the environment required for this class.

You get the code for tutorial by on the course canvas site.

To get started, access an ecelinux machine and download a local copy of the tutorial files from the course website and extract it into a directory titled sim with the following commands:

```bash
% source setup-ece4750.sh
% mkdir -p ${HOME}/ece4750
% cd ${HOME}/ece4750
% wget https://www.csl.cornell.edu/courses/ece4750/handouts/ece4750-tut-verilog.tar.gz
% tar -xvzf ece4750-tut-verilog.tar.gz
% cd sim
% make setup
```
2. Verilog Modeling: Synthesizable vs. Non-Synthesizable RTL

Verilog is a powerful language that was originally intended for building simulators of hardware as opposed to models that could automatically be transformed into hardware (e.g., synthesized to an FPGA or ASIC). Given this, it is very easy to write Verilog code that does not actually model any kind of realistic hardware. Indeed, we actually need this feature to be able to write clean and productive assertions and line tracing. Non-synthesizable Verilog modeling is also critical when implementing test harnesses. So students must be very diligent in actively deciding whether or not they are writing synthesizable register-transfer-level models or non-synthesizable code. Students must always keep in mind what hardware they are modeling and how they are modeling it!

Students’ design work will almost exclusively use synthesizable register-transfer-level (RTL) models. It is acceptable to include a limited amount of non-synthesizable code in students’ designs for the sole purpose of debugging, assertions, or line tracing. If the student includes non-synthesizable code in their actual design (i.e., not the test harness), they must explicitly demarcate this code by wrapping it in `ifndef SYNTHESIS and `endif. This explicitly documents the code as non-synthesizable and aids automated tools in removing this code before synthesizing the design. If at any time students are unclear about whether a specific construct is allowed in a synthesizable concurrent block, they should ask a member of the course staff, as the penalty for incorrect usage of non-synthesizable code starts at 25% in labs.

Appendix A includes a table that outlines which Verilog constructs are allowed in synthesizable RTL, which constructs are allowed in synthesizable RTL with limitations, and which constructs are explicitly not allowed in synthesizable RTL. There are no limits on using the Verilog preprocessor, since the preprocessing step happens at compile time.

3. Verilog Basics: Data Types, Operators, and Conditionals

We will begin by writing some very basic code to explore Verilog data types, operators, and conditionals. We will not be modeling actual hardware yet; we are just experimenting with the language.

3.1. Hello World

Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_hello-world.v` with the contents shown in Figure 1 using your favorite text editor. A module is the fundamental hardware building block in Verilog, but for now we are simply using it to encapsulate an initial block. The initial block specifies code which should be executed “at the beginning of time” when the simulator starts. Since real hardware cannot do anything “at the beginning of time” initial blocks are not synthesizable and you should not use them in the synthesizable portion of your designs. However, initial blocks can be useful

```
1 `include "vc/trace.v"
2 module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
3   initial begin
4     $display( "Hello World!" );
5     $finish();
6   end
7 endmodule
```

Figure 1: Verilog Basics: Display Statement – The obligatory “Hello, World!” program to compiling a basic Verilog program.
Logical Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&amp;</th>
<th>bitwise AND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bitwise OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~</td>
<td>bitwise XOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~~</td>
<td>bitwise XNOR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reduction Operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&amp;</th>
<th>reduce via AND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>reduce via XOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^~</td>
<td>reduce via XNOR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boolean Operators

| && | boolean AND |
| || | boolean OR |
| ! | boolean NOT |

Relational Operators

| == | equal |
| != | not equal |
| > | greater than |
| >= | greater than or equals |
| < | less than |
| <= | less than or equals |

Arithmetic Operators

| + | addition |
| - | subtraction |

Reduction Operators

| >> | shift right |
| << | shift left |
| >>> | arithmetic shift right |

Other Operators

| {} | concatenate |
| {N{}} | replicate N times |

Table 1: Table of Verilog Operators – Not all Verilog operators are shown, just those operators that are acceptable for use in the synthesizable RTL portion of students’ designs.

for test harnesses and when experimenting with the Verilog language. The initial block in Figure 1 contains a single call to the display system task which will output the given string to the console.

We will be using verilator to compile Verilog models into simulators in the beginning of this tutorial before we turn our attention to using Verilator. You can make and run utb_hello-world.v as follows.

```
% cd ${HOME}/ece4750/sim/tut4_verilog
% make utb_hello-world.v
```

★ To-Do On Your Own: Edit the string that is displayed in this simple program, recompile, and rerun the simulator.

3.2. Logic Data Types

To understand any new modeling language we usually start by exploring the primitive data types for representing values in a model. Verilog uses a combination of the wire and reg keywords which interact in subtle and confusing ways. SystemVerilog has simplified modeling by introducing the logic data type. We will be exclusively using logic as the general-purpose, hardware-centric data type for modeling a single bit or multiple bits. Each bit can take on one of four values: 0, 1, X, Z. X is used to represent unknown values (e.g., the state of a register on reset). Z is used to represent high-impedance values. Although we will use variables with X values in this course, we will not use variables with Z values (although you may see Z values if you forget to connect an input port of a module).

Table 1 shows the operators that we will be primarily using in this course. Note that Verilog and SystemVerilog support additional operators including * for multiplication, / for division, % for modulus, ** for exponent, and ===/!== for special equality checks. There may occasionally be reasons to use one of these operators in your assertion or line tracing logic. However, these operators are either not synthesizable or synthesize poorly, so students are not allowed to use these operators in the synthesizable portion of their designs.
include "vc/trace.v"

module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

// Declare single-bit logic variables.
logic a;
logic b;
logic c;

initial begin

// Single-bit literals
a = 1'b0; $display( "1'b0 = %x ", a );
a = 1'b1; $display( "1'b1 = %x ", a );
a = 1'bx; $display( "1'bx = %x ", a );
a = 1'bz; $display( "1'bz = %x ", a );

// Bitwise logical operators for doing AND, OR, XOR, and NOT

// Bitwise logical operators for doing AND, OR, XOR, and NOT with X

// Boolean logical operators

$finish();
end
endmodule

Figure 2 shows an example program that illustrates single-bit logic types. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_logic-sbit.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 13–16 illustrate how to write single-bit literals to express constant values. Lines 23–26 illustrate basic bitwise logical operators (&, |, ^, ~). Whenever we consider an expression in Verilog, we should
always ask ourselves, “What will happen if one of the inputs is an X?” Lines 33–36 illustrate what happens if the second operand is an X for bitwise logical operators. Recall that X means “unknown”. If we OR the value 0 with an unknown value we cannot know the result. If the unknown value is 0, then the result should be 0, but if the unknown value is 1, then the result should be 1. So Verilog specifies that in this case the value of the expression is X. Notice what happens if we AND the value 0 with an unknown value. In this case, we can guarantee that for any value for the second operand the result will always be 0, so Verilog specifies the value of the expression is 0.

In addition to the basic bitwise logical operators, Verilog also defines three boolean logical operators (&&, ||, !). These operators are effectively the same as the basic logical operators (&, |, ~) when operating on single-bit logic values. The difference is really in the designer’s intent. Using &&, ||, ! suggests that the designer is implementing a boolean logic expression as opposed to doing low-level bit manipulation.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with more complicated multi-stage logic expressions by writing the boolean logic equations for a one-bit full-adder. Use the display system task to output the result to the console. Experiment with using X input values as inputs to these logic expressions.
Multi-bit logic types are used for modeling bit vectors. Figure 3 shows an example program that illustrates multi-bit logic types. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_logic-mbit.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 5–8 declares multi-bit logic variables. The square brackets contain the index of the most-significant and the least-significant bit. In this course, you should always use zero as the index of the least significant bit. Note that to declare a four-bit logic value, we use [3:0] not [4:0].

Lines 14–17 illustrate multi-bit literals that can be used to declare constant values. These literals have the following general syntax: \(<\text{bitwidth}>'<\text{base}><\text{number}\>\) where \(<\text{base}\>\) can be \(b\) for binary, \(h\) for hexadecimal, or \(d\) for decimal. It is legal to include underscores in the literal, which can be helpful for improving the readability of long literals.

Lines 24–28 illustrate multi-bit versions of the basic bitwise logic operators. As before, we should always ask ourselves, “What will happen if one of the inputs is an X?” Lines 35–39 illustrate what happens if two bits in the second value are Xs. Note that some bits in the result are X and some can be guaranteed to be either a 0 or 1.

Lines 45–50 illustrate the reduction operators. These operators take a multi-bit logic value and combine all of the bits into a single-bit value. For example, the OR reduction operator (\(|\)) will OR all of the bits together.

★ To-Do On Your Own: We will use relational operators (e.g., ==) to compare two multi-bit logic values, but see if you can achieve the same effect with the bitwise XOR/XNOR operators and OR/NOR reduction operators.
module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

// Declare multi-bit logic variables
logic [ 3:0] A; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [ 3:0] B; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [ 3:0] C; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [11:0] D; // 12-bit logic variable

initial begin

// Multi-bit literals
A = 4’b0101; $display( "4'b0101 = %x", A );
D = 12’b1100_1010_0101; $display( "12'b1100_1010_0101 = %x", D );
D = 12’hca5; $display( "12'hca5 = %x", D );
D = 12’d1058; $display( "12'd1058 = %x", D );

// Bitwise logical operators for doing AND, OR, XOR, and NOT
C = A & B; $display( "4'b0101 & 4'b0011 = %b", C );
C = A | B; $display( "4'b0101 | 4'b0011 = %b", C );
C = A ^ B; $display( "4'b0101 ^ 4'b0011 = %b", C );
C = A ^~ B; $display( "4'b0101 ^~ 4'b0011 = %b", C );
C = ~B; $display( "~4'b0011 = %b", C );

// Bitwise logical operators when some bits are X
A = 4’b0101;
B = 4’b00xx;
C = A & B; $display( "4'b0101 & 4'b00xx = %b", C );
C = A | B; $display( "4'b0101 | 4'b00xx = %b", C );
C = A ~ B; $display( "4'b0101 ~ 4'b00xx = %b", C );
C = ~B; $display( "~4'b00xx = %b", C );

// Reduction operators
A = 4’b0101;
C = &A; $display( " & 4'b0101 = %b", C );
C = ^~A; $display( "^~ 4'b0101 = %b", C );

$finish();
end
endmodule

Code at tut4-verilog/utb_ex-basics-logic-mbit.v

Figure 3: Verilog Basics: Multi-Bit Logic and Logical Operators – Experimenting with multi-bit logic variables and literals, bitwise logical operators, and reduction operators.
3.3. Shift Operators

Figure 4 illustrates three shift operators on multi-bit logic values. Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_logic-shift.v` and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Notice how the logical shift operators (`<<`, `>>`) always shift in zeros, but the arithmetic right shift operator (`>>>`) replicates the most-significant bit. Verilog requires that the left-hand operand to the arithmetic shift operator be explicitly denoted as signed, which we have done using the `signed` system task. We recommend this approach and avoiding the use of signed data types.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Experiment different multi-bit logic values and shift amounts.
module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

logic [7:0] A;
logic [7:0] B;
logic [7:0] C;

initial begin

    // Fixed shift amount for logical shifts
    A = 8'b1110_0101;
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 << 1 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 << 2 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 << 3 = %b", C );
    C = A >> 1; $display( "8'b1110_0101 >> 1 = %b", C );
    C = A >> 2; $display( "8'b1110_0101 >> 2 = %b", C );
    C = A >> 3; $display( "8'b1110_0101 >> 3 = %b", C );

    // Fixed shift amount for arithmetic shifts
    A = 8'b0110_0100;
    $display( "8'b0110_0100 >>> 1 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b0110_0100 >>> 2 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b0110_0100 >>> 3 = %b", C );
    A = 8'b1110_0101;
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 >>> 1 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 >>> 2 = %b", C );
    $display( "8'b1110_0101 >>> 3 = %b", C );

    // Variable shift amount for logical shifts
    A = 8'b1110_0101;
    B = 8'd2;
    C = A << B; $display( "8'b1110_0101 << 2 = %b", C );
    C = A >> B; $display( "8'b1110_0101 >> 2 = %b", C );

$finish();
end

dmodule
tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-logic-shift.v

Figure 4: Verilog Basics: Shift Operators – Experimenting with logical and arithmetic shift operators and fixed/variable shift amounts.
3.4. Arithmetic Operators

Figure 5 illustrates the addition and subtraction operators for multi-bit logic values. Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_logic-arith.v` and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

These operators treat the multi-bit logic values as unsigned integers. Although Verilog does include support for signed arithmetic, these constructs may not be synthesizable so you are required to use only unsigned arithmetic. Also recall that *, /, %, ** are not allowed in the synthesizable portion of your design.

Note that carefully considering the bitwidths of the input and output variables is important. Lines 22–23 illustrate overflow and underflow. You can see that if you overflow the bitwidth of the output variable then the result will simply wrap around. Similarly, since we are using unsigned arithmetic negative numbers wrap around. This is also called modular arithmetic.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Try writing some code which does a sequence of additions resulting in overflow and then a sequence of subtractions that essentially undo the overflow. For example, try $200 + 400 + 400 - 400 - 400$. Does this expression produce the expected answer even though the intermediate values overflowed?

```
#include "vc/trace.v"
module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

logic [7:0] A;
logic [7:0] B;
logic [7:0] C;

initial begin
  // Basic arithmetic with no overflow or underflow
  A = 8'd28;
  B = 8'd15;
  C = A + B; $display( "8'd28 + 8'd15 = %d", C );
  C = A - B; $display( "8'd28 - 8'd15 = %d", C );

  // Basic arithmetic with overflow and underflow
  A = 8'd250;
  B = 8'd15;
  C = A + B; $display( "8'd250 + 8'd15 = %d", C );
  C = B - A; $display( "8'd15 - 8'd250 = %d", C );
  $finish();
end
endmodule
```

Code at `tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-logic-arith.v`

Figure 5: Verilog Basics: Arithmetic Operators – Experimenting with arithmetic operators for addition and subtraction.
3.5. Relational Operators

Figure 6 illustrates the relational operators used for comparing two multi-bit logic values. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_logic-relop.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 28–33 illustrate what happens if some of the bits are Xs for these relational operators. Notice that we can still determine two values are not equal even if some bits are unknown. If the bits we do know are different then the unknown bits do not matter; we can guarantee that the full bit vectors are not equal. So in this example, since we know that the top-two bits in $4'b1100$ and $4'b10xx$ then we can guarantee that the two values are not equal even though the bottom two bits of one operand are unknown.

The $<$, $>$, $<=$, $>=$ operators behave slightly differently than the $==$ and $!=$ operators when considering values with Xs. In this example, we should be able to guarantee that $4'b1100$ is always greater than $4'b10xx$ (assuming these are unsigned values), since no matter what the bottom two bits are in the second operand it cannot be greater than the first operand. However, if you run this simulation, then you will see that the result is still X. This is not a bug and is correct according to the Verilog language specification. This is a great example of how Verilog has relatively complicated and sometimes inconsistent language semantics. Originally, there was no Verilog standard. The most common Verilog simulator was the de-factor language standard. I imagine the reason there is this difference between how $==$ and $<$ handle X values is simply because in the very first Verilog simulators it was the most efficient solution. These kind of “simulator implementation issues” can be found throughout the Verilog standard.

Lines 40–43 illustrates signed comparisons using the `signed` system task to interpret the unsigned input operands as signed values. To simplify our designs, we do not allow students to use signed types. We should explicitly use the `signed` system task whenever we need to ensure signed comparisons.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Try composing relational operators with the boolean logic operators we learned about earlier in this section to create more complicated expressions.
\texttt{include "vc/trace.v"}

\texttt{module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );}

\texttt{// Declare multi-bit logic variables}

\texttt{logic a; // 1-bit logic variable}
\texttt{logic [ 3:0] A; // 4-bit logic variable}
\texttt{logic [ 3:0] B; // 4-bit logic variable}

\texttt{initial begin}

\texttt{// Relational operators}
\texttt{A = 4'd15;} \texttt{B = 4'd09;}
\texttt{a = ( A == B ); $display( "(15 == 9) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A != B ); $display( "(15 != 9) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A > B ); $display( "(15 > 9) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A >= B ); $display( "(15 >= 9) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A < B ); $display( "(15 < 9) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A <= B ); $display( "(15 <= 9) = \%x", a );}

\texttt{// Relational operators when some bits are X}
\texttt{A = 4'b1100; B = 4'b10xx;}
\texttt{a = ( A == B ); $display( "(4'b1100 == 4'b10xx) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A != B ); $display( "(4'b1100 != 4'b10xx) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A > B ); $display( "(4'b1100 > 4'b10xx) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A < B ); $display( "(4'b1100 < 4'b10xx) = \%x", a );}

\texttt{// Signed relational operators}
\texttt{A = 4'b1111; // -1 in twos complement}
\texttt{B = 4'd0001; // 1 in twos complement}
\texttt{a = ( A > B ); $display( "(-1 > 1) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( A < B ); $display( "(-1 < 1) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( \$signed(A) > \$signed(B) ); $display( "(-1 > 1) = \%x", a );}
\texttt{a = ( \$signed(A) < \$signed(B) ); $display( "(-1 < 1) = \%x", a );}

\texttt{$finish();}

end}
\texttt{endmodule}

\textit{Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-logic-relop.v}

\textbf{Figure 6: Verilog Basics: Relational Operators} – Experimenting with relational operators.
3.6. Concatenation Operators

Figure 7 illustrates the concatenation operators used for creating larger bit vectors from multiple smaller bit vectors. Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_logic-concat.v` and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 18–20 illustrate concatenating three four-bit logic variables and then assigning the result to a 12-bit logic variable. Lines 25–26 illustrate concatenating a four-bit logic variable with an eight-bit logic variable. The repeat operator can be used to duplicate a given logic variable multiple times when creating larger bit vectors. On Line 33, we replicate a four-bit logic value three times to create a 12-bit logic value.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with different variations of concatenation and the repeat operator to create interesting bit patterns.

```verilog
`include "vc/trace.v"
module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

logic [ 3:0] A; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [ 3:0] B; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [ 3:0] C; // 4-bit logic variable
logic [ 7:0] D; // 18-bit logic variable
logic [11:0] E; // 12-bit logic variable

initial begin

// Basic concatenation
A = 4'ha;
B = 4'hb;
C = 4'hc;
D = 8'hde;
E = { A, B, C }; $display( "{ 4'ha, 4'hb, 4'hc } = %x", E );
E = { C, A, B }; $display( "{ 4'hc, 4'ha, 4'hb } = %x", E );
E = { B, C, A }; $display( "{ 4'hb, 4'hc, 4'ha } = %x", E );
E = { A, D }; $display( "{ 4'ha, 8'hde } = %x", E );
E = { D, A }; $display( "{ 8'hde, 4'ha } = %x", E );
E = { A, 8'hf0 }; $display( "{ 4'ha, 8'hf0 } = %x", E );
E = { 8'hf0, A }; $display( "{ 8'hf0, 4'ha } = %x", E );

// Repeat operator
A = 4'ha;
B = 4'hb;
E = 3{ A }; $display( "{ 4'ha, 4'ha, 4'ha } = %x", E );
E = { A, {2{B}} }; $display( "{ 4'ha, 4'hb, 4'hb } = %x", E );
$finish();
end
endmodule

Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-logic-concat.v

Figure 7: Verilog Basics: Concatenation Operators – Experimenting with the basic concatenation operator and the repeat operator.

3.7. Enum Data Types

The `logic` data type will be the most common data type we use in our synthesizable RTL since a `logic` variable has a direct one-to-one correspondence with a bit vector in hardware. However, there are certain cases where using a `logic` variable can be quite tedious and error prone. SystemVerilog has introduced two new kinds of user-defined types that can greatly simplify some portions of our designs. In this subsection, we introduce the `enum` type which enables declaring variables that can only take on a predefined list of labels.

Figure 8 illustrates creating and using an `enum` type for holding a state variable which can take on one of four labels. Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_enum.v` and copy all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 3–8 declare a new `enum` type named `state_t`. Note that `state_t` is not a new `variable` but is instead a new `type`. We will use the `_t` suffix to distinguish type names from variable names. Note that after the `enum` keyword we have included a `base type of logic` `[clog2(4)-1:0]`. This base type specifies how we wish variables of this new type to be stored. In this case, we are specifying that `state_t` variables should be encoded as a two-bit `logic` value. The `clog2` system task calculates the number of bits in the given argument; it is very useful when writing more parameterized code. So in this situation we just need to pass in the number of labels in the enum to `clog2`. SystemVerilog actually provides many different ways to create `enum` types including anonymous types, types where we do not specify the base type, or types where we explicitly define the value for each label. In this course, you should limit yourself to the exact syntax shown in this example.

Line 14 declares a new variable of type `state_t`. This is the first time we have seen a variable which has a type other than `logic`. The ability to introduce new user-defined types is one of the more powerful features of SystemVerilog. Lines 21–24 sets the `state` variable using the labels declared as part of the new `state_t` type. Lines 28–40 compare the value of the `state` variable with these same labels, and these comparisons can be used to take different action based on the current value.

There are several advantages to using an `enum` type compared to the basic `logic` type to represent a variable that can hold one of several labels including: (1) more directly capturing the designer’s intent to improve code quality; (2) preventing mistakes by eliminating the possibility of defining labels with the same value or defining label values that are too large to fit in the underlying storage; and (3) preventing mistakes when assigning variables of a different type to an `enum` variable.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Create your own new `enum` type for the state variable we will use in the GCD example later in this tutorial. The new `enum` type should be called `state_t` and it should support three different labels: STATE_IDLE, STATE_CALC, STATE_DONE. Write some code to set and compare the value of a corresponding `state` variable.
```verilog
#include "vc/trace.v"

// Declare enum type

typedef enum logic [\$clog2(4)-1:0] {
  STATE_A,
  STATE_B,
  STATE_C,
  STATE_D
} state_t;

module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

// Declare variables
state_t state;
logic result;

initial begin

  // Enum label literals
  state = STATE_A; $display( "STATE_A = %d", state );
  state = STATE_B; $display( "STATE_B = %d", state );
  state = STATE_C; $display( "STATE_C = %d", state );
  state = STATE_D; $display( "STATE_D = %d", state );

  // Comparisons
  result = ( state == STATE_A );
  $display( "( STATE_A == STATE_A ) = %x", result );
  result = ( state == STATE_B );
  $display( "( STATE_A == STATE_B ) = %x", result );
  result = ( state != STATE_A );
  $display( "( STATE_A != STATE_A ) = %x", result );
  result = ( state != STATE_B );
  $display( "( STATE_A != STATE_B ) = %x", result );

end

endmodule

Figure 8: Verilog Basics: Enum Data Types – Experimenting with enum data types including setting the value of an enum using a label and using the equality operator.

Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-enum.v
3.8. Struct Data Types

User-defined structures are now supported in SystemVerilog. Figure 9 illustrates creating and using a struct type for holding a variable with predefined named bit fields. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_struct.v and copy all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 3–7 declare a new struct type named point_t. Again note that point_t is not a new variable but is instead a new type. As before we use the _t suffix to distinguish type names from variable names. Note that after the struct keyword we have included the packed keyword which specifies that variables of this type should have an equivalent underlying logic storage. SystemVerilog also includes support for unpacked structs, but in this course, you should limit yourself to the exact syntax shown in this example. In addition to declaring the name of the new struct type, we also declare the named bit fields within the new struct type. The order of these bit fields is important; the first field will go in the most significant position of the underlying logic storage, the second field will go in the next position, and so on.

Lines 13–14 declare two new variables of type point_t. Line 18 declares a new logic variable with a bitwidth large enough to hold a variable of type point_t. We can use the bits system task to easily determine the total number of bits required to store a struct type. Lines 24–26 set the three fields of the point variable and Lines 28–30 read these three fields in order to display them. Line 34 copies one point variable into another point variable. Line 42 and 49 illustrate how to convert a point variable to/from a basic logic variable.

There are several advantages to using a struct type compared to the basic logic type to represent a variable with a predefined set of named bit fields including: (1) more directly capturing the designer’s intent to improve code quality; (2) reducing the syntactic overhead of managing bit fields; and (3) preventing mistakes in modifying bit fields and in accessing bit fields.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Create a new struct type for holding the an RGB color pixel. The struct should include three fields named red, green, and blue. Each field should be eight bits. Experiment with reading and writing these named fields.
3.9. Ternary Operator

Figure 10 illustrates using the ternary operator for conditional execution. Create a new Verilog source file named `utb_ternary.v` and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

Lines 12–19 illustrate using the ternary operator to choose what value to assign to the logic variable c. We can nest multiple ternary operators to compactly create expressions with multiple conditions. Lines 23–31 illustrate using four levels of nesting to choose among four different values for assigning c.

Lines 35–53 illustrate how the ternary operator functions if the conditional is unknown. In lines 35–43, all bits of the conditional are unknown, while in lines 45–53 only one bit of the conditional is unknown. If you examine the output from this simulator, you will see that Verilog semantics require any bits which can be guaranteed to be either 0 or 1 to be set as such, while the remaining bits are set to X. Regardless of the condition, the upper five bits of c are guaranteed to be 00001.

Note that the four ternary operators cover all possible combinations of the two-bit input, so the final value (i.e., 8’h0e) will never be used. In other words, if the conditionals contain unknowns this does not mean the condition evaluates to false. This is very different from the if statements described in the next subsection.

Aside: For some reason, many students insist on writing code like this:

```verilog
a = ( cond_a ) ? 1'b1 : 1'b0;
b = ( cond_b ) ? 1'b0 : 1'b1;
```

This obfuscates the code and is not necessary. We are using a ternary operator to simply choose between 0 or 1. You should just assign the result of the conditional expression to a and b like this:

```verilog
a = ( cond_a );
b = ! ( cond_b );
```

★ To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with different uses of the ternary operator.

---

```verilog
// include "vc/trace.v"
module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
logic [7:0] a;
logic [7:0] b;
logic [7:0] c;
logic [1:0] sel;
initial begin

// ternary statement
a = 8'd30;
b = 8'd16;
c = ( a < b ) ? 15 : 14;
$display( "c = %d", c );
c = ( b < a ) ? 15 : 14;
$display( "c = %d", c );

// nested ternary statement
sel = 2'b01;
c = ( sel == 2'b00 ) ? 8'h0a :
   ( sel == 2'b01 ) ? 8'h0b :
   ( sel == 2'b10 ) ? 8'h0c :
   ( sel == 2'b11 ) ? 8'h0d :
   8'h0e;
$display( "sel = 1, c = %b", c );

// nested ternary statement w/ X
sel = 2'bx0;
c = ( sel == 2'b00 ) ? 8'h0a :
   ( sel == 2'b01 ) ? 8'h0b :
   ( sel == 2'b10 ) ? 8'h0c :
   ( sel == 2'b11 ) ? 8'h0d :
   8'h0e;
$display( "sel = x, c = %b", c );
endmodule
```

Figure 10: Verilog Basics: Ternary Operator – Experimenting with the ternary operator including nested statements and what happens if the conditional includes an unknown.
1 `include "vc/trace.v"
2
3 // Declare struct type
4
typedef struct packed { // Packed format:
5    logic [3:0] x; // 11 8 7 4 3 0
6    logic [3:0] y; // +----+----+----+
7    logic [3:0] z; // | x | y | z |
8 } point_t; // +----+----+----+
9
10 module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
11
12 // Declare variables
13
14 point_t point_a;
15 point_t point_b;
16
17 // Declare other variables using $bits()
18
19 logic [$bits(point_t)-1:0] point_bits;
20
21 initial begin
22
23 // Reading and writing fields
24
25 point_a.x = 4'3h;
26 point_a.y = 4'4h;
27 point_a.z = 4'5h;
28
29 $display( "point_a.x = %x", point_a.x );
30 $display( "point_a.y = %x", point_a.y );
31 $display( "point_a.z = %x", point_a.z );
32
33 // Assign structs
34
35 point_b = point_a;
36
37 $display( "point_b.x = %x", point_b.x );
38 $display( "point_b.y = %x", point_b.y );
39 $display( "point_b.z = %x", point_b.z );
40
41 // Assign structs to bit vector
42
43 point_bits = point_a;
44
45 $display( "point_bits = %x", point_bits );
46
47 // Assign bit vector to struct
48
49 point_bits = { 4'd13, 4'd9, 4'd3 }; point_a = point_bits;
50
51 $display( "point_a.x = %x", point_a.x );
52 $display( "point_a.y = %x", point_a.y );
53 $display( "point_a.z = %x", point_a.z );
54
55 $finish();
56 end
57
58 endmodule

Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-struct.v

Figure 9: Verilog Basics: Struct Data Types – Experimenting with struct data types including read/writing fields and converting to/from logic bit vectors.
3.10. If Statements

Figure 11 illustrates using if statements. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_if.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

The if statement resembles similar constructs in many other programming languages. Lines 11–20 illustrate basic if statements and lines 24–33 illustrate if/else statements.

There are some subtle issues involved in how an if statement handles X values in the conditional. Lines 37–46 illustrate this issue. The sel value in this example is a single-bit X. What would we expect the value of a to be after this if statement? Since the conditional is unknown, we might expect any variables that are written from within the if statement to also be unknown. In other words, we might expect the value of a to be X after this if statement. If you run this example code, you will see that the value of a is actually 8’h0b. This means that an X value in the conditional for an if statement is not treated as unknown but is instead simply treated as if the conditional evaluated to false! This issue is called X optimism since unknowns are essentially optimistically turned into known values. X optimism can cause subtle simulation/synthesis mismatch issues. If you are interested, there are several resources on the public course webpage that go into much more detail. For this course, we don’t need to worry too much about X optimism since we are not actually synthesizing our designs.

To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with different if statements including nested if statements. Experiment with what happens when the conditional is unknown.

```
module top ( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
logic [7:0] a;
logic [7:0] b;
logic sel;
initial begin
  // if statement
  a = 8'd30;
b = 8'd16;
if ( a == b ) begin
  $display( "30 == 16" );
end
if ( a != b ) begin
  $display( "30 != 16" );
end
  // if else statement
  sel = 1'b1;
if ( sel == 1'b0 ) begin
  a = 8'h0a;
end
else begin
  a = 8'h0b;
end
$display( "sel = 1, a = %x ", a );
  // if else statement w/ X
  sel = 1'bx;
if ( sel == 1'b0 ) begin
  a = 8'h0a;
end
else begin
  a = 8'h0b;
end
$display( "sel = x, a = %x ", a );
endmodule
```

Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-if.v

Figure 11: Verilog Basics: If Statements – Experimenting with if statements including what happens if the conditional includes an unknown.
3.11. Case Statements

Figure 12 illustrates using case statements. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_case.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

The case statement resembles similar constructs in many other programming languages. Lines 12–22 illustrate a basic case statement where a two-bit sel variable is used to choose one of four case items.

There are similar issues as with the if statement in terms of how case statements handle X values in the conditional. In lines 26–36, the sel variable is set to all Xs. We might expect since the input to the case statement is unknown the output should also be unknown. However, if we look at the value of a after executing this case statement it will be $8’h0e. In other words, if there is an X in the input to the case statement, then the case statement will fall through to the default case. In order to avoid X optimism, we recommend students always include a default case that sets all of the output variables to Xs.

Notice that it is valid syntax to use X values in the case items, as shown on lines 48–49. These will actually match Xs in the input condition, which is almost certainly not what you want. This does not model any kind of real hardware; we cannot check for Xs in hardware since in real hardware an unknown must be known (i.e., all Xs will either be a 0 or a 1 in real hardware). Given this, you should never use Xs in the case items for a case statement.

★ To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with a larger case statement for a sel variable with three instead of two bits.

```
1 `include "vc/trace.v"
2 module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
3 // Declaring Variables
4 logic [1:0] sel;
5 logic [7:0] a;
6 initial begin
7 // case statement
8 sel = 2’b01;
9 case ( sel )
10    2’b00 : a = 8’h0a;
11    2’b01 : a = 8’h0b;
12    2’b10 : a = 8’h0c;
13    2’b11 : a = 8’h0d;
14    default : a = 8’h0e;
15 endcase
16 $display( "sel = 01, a = %x", a );
17 // case statement w/ X
18 sel = 2’bxx;
19 case ( sel )
20    2’b00 : a = 8’h0a;
21    2’b01 : a = 8’h0b;
22    2’b10 : a = 8’h0c;
23    2’b11 : a = 8’h0d;
24    default : a = 8’h0e;
25 endcase
26 $display( "sel = xx, a = %x", a );
27 // Do not use x's in the case
28 // selection items
29 sel = 2’bx0;
30 case ( sel )
31    2’b00 : a = 8’h0a;
32    2’b01 : a = 8’h0b;
33    2’b10 : a = 8’h0c;
34    2’b11 : a = 8’h0d;
35    2’bx0 : a = 8’h0e;
36    default : a = 8’h0f;
37 endcase
38 $display( "sel = x0, a = %x", a );
39 end
40 endmodule
```

Figure 12: Verilog Basics: Case Statements – Experimenting with case statements including what happens if the selection expression and/or the case expressions includes an unknown.

Code at tut4_verilog/utb_ex-basics-case.v
3.12. Casez Statements

Figure 13 illustrates using casez statements. Create a new Verilog source file named utb_casez.v and copy some or all of this code. Compile this source file and run the resulting simulator.

The casez statement is very different from what you might find in other programming languages. The casez statement is a powerful construct that can enable very concise hardware models, but must be used carefully. A casez statement enables a designer to do “wildcard” matching on the input variable. Lines 10–23 illustrate using a casez statement to implement a “leading-one detector”. This kind of logic outputs the bit position of the least-significant one in the input variable. We can use ? characters in the case items as wildcards that will match either a 0 or 1 in the input variable. So both 4'b0100 and 4'b1100 will match the fourth case item. Implementing similar functionality using a case statement would require 16 items. Besides being more verbose, using a case statement also opens up additional opportunities for errors.

A casez statement behaves similarly to a case statement when there are Xs in the input. Lines 27–40 illustrate a situation where two of the bits in the input variable are unknown. This will match the default case and the output will be Xs.

Aside: Verilog includes a casex statement which you should never use. The reasoning is rather subtle, but to be safe stick to using casez statement if you need wildcard matching (and only if you need wildcard matching).

To-Do On Your Own: Experiment with a larger casez statement to implement a leading-one detector for an input variable with eight instead of four bits. How many case items would we need if we used a case statement to implement the same functionality?

4. Registered Incrementer

In this section, we will create our very first Verilog hardware model and learn how to test this module using waveforms, ad-hoc testing, and a simple unit testing framework. It is good design practice to usually draw some kind of diagram of the hardware we wish to model before starting to develop the corresponding Verilog model. This diagram might be a block-level diagram, a datapath diagram, a
finite-state-machine diagram, or even a control signal table; the more we can structure our Verilog code to match this diagram the more confident we can be that our model actually models what we think it does. In this section, we wish to model the eight-bit registered incrementer shown in Figure 14.

4.1. RTL Model of Registered Incrementer

Figure 14 shows the Verilog code which corresponds to the diagram in Figure 14. Every Verilog file should begin with a header comment as shown on lines 1–9 in Figure 16. The header comment should identify the primary module in the file, and include a brief description of what the module does. Reserve discussion of the actual implementation for later in the file. In general, you should attempt to keep lines in your Verilog source code to less than 74 characters. This will make your code easier to read, enable printing on standard sized paper, and facilitate viewing two source files side-by-side on a single monitor. Note that the code in Figure 16 is artificially narrow so we can display two code listings side-by-side. Lines 11–12 create an “include guard” using the Verilog pre-processor. An include guard ensures that even if we include this Verilog file multiple times the modules within the file will only be declared once. Without include guards, the Verilog compiler will likely complain that the same module has been declared multiple times. Make sure that you have the corresponding end of the include guard at the bottom of your Verilog source file as shown on line 43.

Verilog does not have a clean way to manage namespaces for macros and module names. This means that if you use the same macro or module name in two different files it will create a namespace collision which can potentially be very difficult to debug. We will follow very specific naming conventions to eliminate any possibility of a namespace collision. Our convention will to use the subdirectory path as a prefix for all Verilog macro and module names. Since the registered incrementer is in the directory tut4_verilog/regincr, we will use TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_ as a prefix for all macro names and tut4_verilog_regincr_ as a prefix for all module names. You can see this prefix being used for the macros on lines 11–12 and for the module name on line 14. To reiterate, _Verilog macro and module name must use the subdirectory path as a prefix._ While a bit tedious, this is essential to avoiding namespace collisions.

As always, we begin by identifying the module’s interface which in this case will include an eight-bit input port, eight-bit output port, and a clock input. Lines 15–20 in Figure 16 illustrate how we represent this interface using Verilog. A common mistake is to forget the semicolon (;) on line 20. A couple of comments about the coding conventions that we will be using in this course. All module names should always include the subproject name as a prefix (e.g., ex_regincr_). The portion of the name after this prefix should usually use CamelCaseNaming; each word begins with a capital letter without any underscores (e.g., RegIncr). Port names (as well as variable and module instance names) should use underscore_naming; all lowercase with underscores to separate words. As shown on lines 16–19, ports should be listed one per line with a two space initial indentation. The bitwidth specifiers and port names should all line up vertically. As shown on lines 15 and 20, the opening and closing parenthesis should be on their own separate lines. Carefully group ports to help the reader understand how these ports are related. Use port names (as well as variable and module instance
//======================================
// Registered Incrementer
//======================================
// This is a simple example of a module for a registered incrementer which
// combines a positive edge triggered register with a combinational +1
// incrementer. We use flat register-transfer-level modeling.

ifndef TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_V
define TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_V
module tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr
(input logic clk,
input logic reset,
input logic [7:0] in,
output logic [7:0] out);

// Sequential logic
logic [7:0] reg_out;
always_ff @( posedge clk ) begin
if ( reset )
reg_out <= 0;
else
reg_out <= in;
end

// Combinational logic
logic [7:0] temp_wire;
always_comb begin
temp_wire = reg_out + 1;
end
assign out = temp_wire;
endmodule
endif /* TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_V */

Code at regincr/ex-regincr-RegIncr.v

Figure 15: Registered Incrementer – An eight-bit registered +1 incrementer corresponding to the diagram in Figure 14.

names) that are descriptive; prefer longer descriptive names (e.g., write_en) over shorter confusing names (e.g., wen).

Lines 22–39 model the internal behavior of the module. We usually prefer using two spaces for each level of indentation; larger indentation can quickly result in significantly wasted horizontal space. You should always use spaces and never insert any real tab characters into your source code. You must limit yourself to synthesizable RTL for modeling your design. We will exclusively use two kinds of always blocks: always_ff concurrent blocks to model sequential logic and always_comb concurrent blocks to model combinational logic. We require students to clearly distinguishing between the portions of your code that are meant to model sequential logic from those portions meant to model combinational logic. This simple guideline can save significant frustration by making it easy to see subtle errors. For example, by convention we should only use non-blocking assignments in sequential logic.
(e.g., the <= operator on line 27) and we should only use blocking assignments in combinational logic (e.g., the = operator on line 36). We use the variable reg_out to hold the intermediate value between the register and the incrementer, and we use the variable temp_wire to hold the intermediate value between the incrementer and the output port. reg_out is modeling a register while temp_wire is modeling a wire. Notice that both of these variables use the logic data type; what makes one model a register while the other models a wire is how these variables are used. The sequential concurrent block update to reg_out means it models a register. The combinational concurrent block update to temp_wire means it models a wire.

The register incrementer illustrates the two fundamental ways to model combinational logic. We have used an always_comb concurrent block to model the actual incrementer logic and a continuous assignment statement (i.e., assign) to model connecting the temporary wire to the output port. We could just have easily written logic as part of the assign statement. For example, we could have used assign out = reg_out + 1 and skipped the always_comb concurrent block. In general, we prefer continuous assignment statements over always @(*) concurrent blocks to model combinational logic, since it is easier to model less-realistic hardware using always_comb concurrent blocks. There is usually a more direct one-to-one mapping from continuous assignment statements to real hardware. However, there are many cases where it is significantly more convenient to use always_comb concurrent blocks or just not possible to use continuous assignment statements. Students will need to use their judgment to determine the most elegant way to represent the hardware they are modeling while still ensuring there is a clear mapping from the model to the target hardware.

Figure 15 illustrates a few new SystemVerilog constructs. Figure 16 illustrates the exact same registered incrementer implemented using the older Verilog-2001 hardware description language. Verilog-2001 uses reg and wire to specify variables instead of logic. All ports are of type wire by default. Determining when to use reg and wire is subtle and error prone. Note that reg is a misnomer; it does not model a register! On line 34, we must declare temp_wire to be of type reg even though it is modeling a wire. Verilog-2001 requires using reg for any variable written by an always concurrent block. Verilog-2001 uses a generic always block for both sequential and combinational concurrent blocks. While the always @(*) syntax is an improvement over the need in Verilog-1995 to explicitly define sensitivity lists, always_ff and always_comb more directly capture designer intent and allow automated tools to catch common errors. For example, a Verilog simulator can catch errors where a designer accidentally uses a non-blocking assignment in an always_comb concurrent block, or where a designer accidentally writes the same logic variable from two different always_comb concurrent blocks. SystemVerilog is growing in popularity and increasingly becoming the de facto replacement for Verilog-2001, so it is worthwhile to carefully adopt new SystemVerilog features that can improve designer productivity.

Edit the Verilog source file named RegIncr.v in the tut4_verilog/regincr subdirectory using your favorite text editor. Add the combinational logic shown on lines 34–39 in Figure 16 which models the incrementer logic. We will be using verilator to simulate this registered incrementer module, and verilator does not currently support always_ff and always_comb, which is why we are using the Verilog-2001 construct for now.

4.2. Simulating a Model using verilator

```verilog
module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );
```
// Clocking
logic clk = 1;
always #5 clk = ~clk;

// Instantiate the design under test
logic reset = 1;
logic [7:0] in;
logic [7:0] out;

tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr reg_incr
(
.clk (clk),
.reset (reset),
in (in),
.out (out)
);

// Verify functionality
initial begin
  // Dump waveforms
  $dumpfile("regincr-iverilog-sim.vcd");
  $dumpvars;

  // Reset
  #11;
  reset = 1'b0;

  // Test cases
  in = 8'h00;
  #10;
  if ( out != 8'h01 ) begin
    $display( "ERROR: out, expected = %x, actual = %x", 8'h01, out );
    $finish;
  end
  in = 8'h13;
  #10;
  if ( out != 8'h14 ) begin
    $display( "ERROR: out, expected = %x, actual = %x", 8'h14, out );
    $finish;
  end
  in = 8'h27;
  #10;
  if ( out != 8'h28 ) begin
    $display( "ERROR: out, expected = %x, actual = %x", 8'h28, out );
    $finish;
  end
  $display( "*** PASSED ***" );
  $finish;
endmodule

Figure 17: Simulator for Registered Incrementer – A Verilog simulator for the eight-bit registered incrementer in Figure 16.
Now that we have developed a new hardware module, we can test its functionality using a simulation harness. Figure 17 shows an ad-hoc test using non-synthesizable Verilog. Note that we must explicitly include any Verilog files which contain modules that we want to use; Line 5 includes the Verilog source file that contains the registered incrementer. Lines 11–12 setup a clock with a period of 10 time steps. Notice that we are assigning an initial value to the clk net on line 11 and then modifying this net every five timesteps; setting initial values such as this is not synthesizable and should only be used in test harnesses. If you need to set an initial value in your design, you should use properly constructed reset logic.

Lines 19–24 instantiate the device under test. Notice that we use underscore Naming for the module instance name (e.g., reg_incr). You should almost always use named port binding (as opposed to positional port binding) to connect nets to the ports in a module instance. Lines 21–23 illustrate the correct coding convention with one port binding per line and the ports/nets vertically aligned. As shown on lines 20 and 24 the opening and closing parenthesis should be on their own separate lines. Although this may seem verbose, this coding style can significantly reduce errors by making it much easier to quickly visualize how ports are connected.

Lines 28–62 illustrate an initial block which executes at the very beginning of the simulation. initial blocks are not synthesizable and should only be used in test harnesses. Lines 32–33 instruct the simulator to dump waveforms for all nets. Line 35 is a delay statement that essentially waits for one timestep. Delay statements are not synthesizable and should only be used in test harnesses. Lines 39–44 implement a test by setting the inputs of the device under test, waiting for 10 time steps, and then checking that the output is as expected. If there is an error, we display an error message and stop the simulation. We include two more tests, and if we make it to the bottom of the initial block then the test has passed.

Edit the Verilog simulation harness named utb_regincr-iverilog-sim.v in the tut4_verilog/regincr subdirectory using your favorite text editor. Add the code on lines 20–26 in Figure 17 to instantiate the registered incrementer model. Then use verilator to compile this simulator and run the simulation as follows:

% cd ${TUTROOT}
% make regincr/utb_RegIncr.v

If everything goes as expected, then the ad-hoc test should display *** PASSED ***.

4.3. Reusing a Model with Structural Composition

We can use modularity and hierarchy to structurally compose small, simple models into large, complex models. Figure 18 shows a two-stage registered incrementer that uses structural composition to instantiate and connect two instances of a single-stage registered incrementer. Figure 19 shows the corresponding Verilog module. Line 11 uses a ‘include to include the child model that we will be
reusing. Notice how we must use the full path (from the root of the project) to the Verilog file we want to include.

Lines 25–31 instantiate the first registered incrementer and lines 35–41 instantiate the second registered incrementer. As mentioned above, we should almost always use named port binding to connect nets to the ports in a module instance. Lines 27–30 illustrate the correct coding convention with one port binding per line and the ports/nets vertically aligned. As shown on lines 26 and 31 the opening and closing parenthesis should be on their own separate lines. We usually declare signals that will be connected to output ports immediately before instantiating the module.

4.4. Parameterizing a Model with Static Elaboration

To facilitate model reuse and productive design-space exploration, we often want to implement parameterized models. A common example is to parameterize models by the bitwidth of various input and output ports. The registered incrementer in Figure 16 is designed for only for only eight-bit input values, but we may want to reuse this model in a different context with four-bit input values or 16-bit input values. We can use Verilog parameters to parameterize the port bitwidth for the registered incrementer shown in Figure 16; we would replace references to constant 7 with a reference to \( n\text{bits}-1 \).

Now we can specify the port bitwidth for our register incrementer when we construct the model. We have included a library of parameterized Verilog RTL models in the vc subdirectory. Figure 20 shows a combinational incrementer from vc that is parameterized by both the port bitwidth and the incrementer amount. The parameters are specified using the special syntax shown on lines 2–5. By convention, we use a p_ prefix when naming parameters.

**Figure 18: Block Diagram for Two-Stage Registered Incrementer** – An eight-bit two-stage registered incrementer that reuses the registered incrementer in Figure 14 through structural composition.
//========================================================================
// RegIncr2stage
//========================================================================
// Two-stage registered incrementer that uses structural composition to
// instantiate and connect two instances of the single-stage registered
// incrementer.

ifndef TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_2STAGE_V
#define TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_2STAGE_V

include "tut4_verilog/regincr/RegIncr.v"

module tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr2stage
(input logic clk,
input logic reset,
in[7:0] in,
output logic [7:0] out);

// First stage
logic [7:0] reg_incr_0_out;
tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr reg_incr_0
(clk (clk),
reset (reset),
in (in),
out (reg_incr_0_out));

// Second stage
tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr reg_incr_1
(clk (clk),
reset (reset),
in (reg_incr_0_out),
out (out));
endmodule

endif /* TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_2STAGE_V */

Figure 19: Two-Stage Registered Incrementer – An eight-bit two-stage registered incrementer corresponding to Figure 18. This model is implemented using structural composition to instantiate and connect two instances of the single-stage register incrementer.

module vc_Incrementer
#(
parameter p_nbits = 1,
parameter p_inc_value = 1)
(input logic [p_nbits-1:0] in,
output logic [p_nbits-1:0] out);

assign out = in + p_inc_value;
endmodule

Figure 20: Parameterized Incrementer from vc – A combinational incrementer from vc that is parameterized by both the port bitwidth and the incrementer amount.
// RegIncrNstage
// Registered incrementer that is parameterized by the number of stages.

`ifndef TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_NSTAGE_V
`define TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_NSTAGE_V

`include "tut4_verilog/regincr/RegIncr.v"

module tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncrNstage
  #(
    parameter p_nstages = 2
  )
  (input logic clk,
   input logic reset,
   input logic [7:0] in,
   output logic [7:0] out);

  // This defines an array of signals. There are p_nstages+1 signals
  // and each signal is 8 bits wide. We will use this array of signals to
  // hold the output of each registered incrementer stage.
  logic [7:0] reg_incr_out [p_nstages+1];

  // Connect the input port of the module to the first signal in the
  // reg_incr_out signal array.
  assign reg_incr_out[0] = in;

  // Instantiate the registered incrementers and make the connections
  // between them using a generate block.
  genvar i;
  generate
    for ( i = 0; i < p_nstages; i = i + 1 ) begin: gen
      tut4_verilog_regincr_RegIncr reg_incr
        (
          .clk (clk),
          .reset (reset),
          .in (reg_incr_out[i]),
          .out (reg_incr_out[i+1])
        );
    end
  endgenerate

  // Connect the last signal in the reg_incr_out signal array to the
  // output port of the module.
  assign out = reg_incr_out[p_nstages];
endmodule

`endif /* TUT4_VERILOG_REGINCR_REG_INCR_NSTAGE_V */

Figure 21: N-Stage Registered Incrementer – A parameterized registered incrementer where the number of stages is specified using a Verilog parameter.

// tb_RegIncrNstage
// A Verilog test bench for our parametrized N-stage RegIncr unit
default_nettype none

include "regincr/RegIncrNstage.v"
include "vc/TestRandDelaySource.v"
include "vc/TestRandDelaySink.v"

// Testbench defines

localparam NUM_TESTS = 3;
localparam NUM_STAGES = 5;
localparam INPUT_TEST_SIZE = 8;
localparam OUTPUT_TEST_SIZE = 8;

module top( input logic clk, input logic linetrace );

// DUT signals
logic reset;
logic [ INPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0] istream_msg;
logic ostream_val;
logic [OUTPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0] ostream_msg;
logic [ INPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0 ] src_msgs [ NUM_TESTS-1:0 ];
logic [ OUTPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0 ] snk_msgs [ NUM_TESTS-1:0 ];

// Source and sink messages

logic src_done;
logic snk_done;

// Module instantiations

vc_TestSource
#(
    .p_msg_nbits ( INPUT_TEST_SIZE ),
    .p_num_msgs ( NUM_TESTS )
) src (;
    .clk ( clk ),
    .reset ( reset ),
    .val ( istream_val ),
    .rdy ( 1'b1 ), // Always rdy
    .msg ( istream_msg ),
    .done ( src_done )
);

assign src.m = src_msgs;
```verilog
// DUT
// DUT

// DUT
// DUT

module tut3_verilog_regincr_RegIncrNstage #(NUM_STAGES) dut
    ( .clk (clk),
      .reset (reset),
      .in_ (istream_msg),
      .out (ostream_msg)
    );

// Test sink
// Test sink

module vc_TestSink
    #( .p_msg_nbits (OUTPUT_TEST_SIZE),
      .p_num_msgs (NUM_TESTS),
      .p_sim_mode (1)
    ) sink
    ( .clk (clk),
      .reset (reset),
      .val (ostream_val),
      /* verilator lint_off PINCONNECTEMPTY */
      .rdy ( ), // Unused
      /* verilator lint_off PINCONNECTEMPTY */
      .msg (ostream_msg),
      .done ( snk_done )
    );

assign sink.m = snk_msgs;

// Keep track of message validity
// Keep track of message validity

logic val_arr [NUM_STAGES:0];
assign val_arr[0] = istream_val;
assign ostream_val = val_arr[NUM_STAGES];

generate
    for( i = 0; i < NUM_STAGES; i++ ) begin
        always @(posedge clk) begin
            val_arr[ i + 1 ] <= val_arr[ i ];
        end
    end
endgenerate

// Task for adding test cases
// Task for adding test cases

task test_case(
    input logic [INPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0] src_msg,
    input logic [OUTPUT_TEST_SIZE-1:0] snk_msg
);
begin
    integer idx = 0;
end
```
// Add messages to test arrays
src_msgs[idx] = src_msg;
snk_msgs[idx] = snk_msg;
idx = idx + 1;
end
dendtask

// Test cases
// Don’t forget to change NUM_TESTS above when adding new tests!
initial begin
  // Test cases
  test_case( 8’d1, 8’d1 + NUM_STAGES );
  test_case( 8’d4, 8’d4 + NUM_STAGES );
  test_case( 8’d9, 8’d9 + NUM_STAGES );
end

// Run the Test Bench
initial begin
$display( "Starting tb_RegIncrNstage..." );
reset = 1;

// Wait a bit, then de-assert reset on negedge
#10
@( negedge clk );
reset = 0;

// Wait for the test to finish
while( !snk_done ) @( negedge clk );

// Check that the source is also done
if( !src_done )
  $error( "[ FAILED ] Our sink received more messages than our source has!" );
else
  $display( "The testbench has finished" );

// Delay for a bit for a better waveform
#100
$finish;
end

// Timeout
// This is to ensure that our test eventually finishes, even if the sink
// isn’t receiving messages
initial begin
  for( integer j = 0; j < 1000000; j = j + 1 ) begin
    @( negedge clk );
  end

  $error( "TIMEOUT: Testbench didn’t finish in time" );
  $finish;
end
Unfortunately, writing highly parameterized models in Verilog-2001 can be very tedious or even impossible, which is one key motivation for the SystemVerilog. Having said this, Verilog-2001 does provide `generate` statements which are meant for static elaboration. Recall that static elaboration happens at compile time, not runtime. We can use static elaboration to generate hardware which is fundamentally different from modeling hardware. Figure 21 illustrates using `generate` statements to create a multi-stage registered incrementer that is parameterized by the number of stages. The number of stages is specified using the the `p_nstages` parameter shown on line 13. We create a array of signals to hold the intermediate values between stages (line 25), and then we use a `generate` for loop to instantiate and connect the stages. Using `generate` statements is one of the more advanced parts of Verilog, so we will not go into more detail within this tutorial. We can test the design as follows:

```
% cd ${HOME}/ece4750/sim/tut4_verilog
% make regincr/utb_RegIncrNstage.v
```

### 5. Sort Unit

The previous section introduces the key Verilog concepts and primitives that we will use to implement more complex RTL models including: declaring a port-based module interface; declaring internal state and wires using `logic` variables; declaring `always @(posedge clk)` concurrent blocks to model logic that executes on every rising clock edge; declaring `always @(*)` concurrent blocks to model combinational logic that executes one or more times within a clock cycle.

In this section, we will explore how we can implement the same sorting unit using the Verilog hardware description language. As a reminder, the simple pipelined four-element sorter is shown in Figure 22. Each min/max unit compares its inputs and sends the smaller value to the top output port and the larger value to the bottom output. This specific implementation is pipelined into three stages, such that the critical path should be through a single min/max unit. Input and output valid
module tut4_verilog_sort_SorterFlat #(
  parameter p_nbits = 1
) (
  input logic clk,
  input logic reset,
  input logic in_val,
  input logic [p_nbits-1:0] in0,
  input logic [p_nbits-1:0] in1,
  input logic [p_nbits-1:0] in2,
  input logic [p_nbits-1:0] in3,
  output logic out_val,
  output logic [p_nbits-1:0] out0,
  output logic [p_nbits-1:0] out1,
  output logic [p_nbits-1:0] out2,
  output logic [p_nbits-1:0] out3
);

Figure 23: Interface for the Four-Element Sorter – The interface corresponds to the diagram in Figure 22 and is parameterized by the bitwidth of each element.

signals indicate when the input and output elements are valid. Most of the code for this section is provided for you in the tut4_verilog/sort subdirectory.

5.1. Flat Sorter Implementation

We will begin by exploring a flat implementation of the sorter that does not instantiate any additional child modules. This implementation is provided for you in the file named SortUnitFlat.v. Figure 23 illustrates the Verilog code that describes the interface for the sorter. Notice how we have parameterized the interface by the bitwidth of each element. Lines 2–4 declare a parameter named p_nbits and give it a default value of one bit. We use this parameter when declaring the bitwidth of the input and output ports, and we will also use this parameter in the implementation.

Figure 24 shows the first pipeline stage of the flat implementation of the sorter. Notice how we use the parameter p_nbits to declare various internal registers and wires. We cleanly separate the sequential logic from the combinational logic. We use comments and explicit suffixes to make it clear what pipeline stage we are modeling.

We can run the unit tests for this module as follows:

```
% cd ${HOME}/ece4750/sim/tut4_verilog
% make sort/tb_SortFlat.v DESIGN=SortUnitFlat
```

The design should pass all of the tests.

★ To-Do On Your Own: The sorter currently sorts the four input numbers from smallest to largest. Change to the sorter implementation so it sorts the numbers from largest to smallest. Recompile and rerun the unit test and verify that the tests are no longer passing. Modify the tests so that they correctly capture the new expected behavior. Make a copy of the sorter implementation file so you can put things back to the way they were when you are finished.
always_ff @(posedge clk) begin
    val_S1 <= (reset) ? 0 : in_val;
    elm0_S1 <= in0;
    elm1_S1 <= in1;
    elm2_S1 <= in2;
    elm3_S1 <= in3;
end

always_comb begin
    // Sort elms 0 and 1
    if (elm0_S1 <= elm1_S1) begin
        elm0_next_S1 = elm0_S1;
        elm1_next_S1 = elm1_S1;
    end
    else if (elm0_S1 > elm1_S1) begin
        elm0_next_S1 = elm1_S1;
        elm1_next_S1 = elm0_S1;
    end
    else begin
        elm0_next_S1 = x;
        elm1_next_S1 = x;
    end
    // Sort elms 2 and 3
    if (elm2_S1 <= elm3_S1) begin
        elm2_next_S1 = elm2_S1;
        elm3_next_S1 = elm3_S1;
    end
    else if (elm2_S1 > elm3_S1) begin
        elm2_next_S1 = elm3_S1;
        elm3_next_S1 = elm2_S1;
    end
    else begin
        elm2_next_S1 = 'x;
        elm3_next_S1 = 'x;
    end
end
5.2. Using Verilog Line Traces

Line traces are concise, text-based diagrams that show how signals propagate through your design. We have implemented a small library that enables implementing line tracing code directly within your Verilog modules. Verilog line tracing is an essential way to visualize our designs. You can use the the `RUN_ARG=--trace` command-line option to see a line trace of the four-element sorter.

```
% cd ${HOME}/ece4750/sim/tut4_verilog
% make sort/tb_SortFlat DESIGN=SortUnitFlat RUN_ARG=--trace
```

Figure 25 shows a portion of a representative line trace with some additional annotation. The first column indicates the current cycle. There are fixed-width columns showing the inputs and outputs of the module along with the state in the S1, S2, and S3 pipeline registers at the beginning of the cycle. Notice that we use spaces when the data is invalid which improves readability and makes it easy to see when the hardware is actually doing useful work.

As mentioned above, we provide a verilog component (VC) library with various useful Verilog modules, including one module in `vc/trace.v` which makes it easier to create line traces in your own Verilog modules. Figure 26 shows a small snippet of code that is used in the sorter implementation.

```
`ifndef SYNTHESIS
logic [VC_TRACE_NBITS-1:0] str;
`VC_TRACE_BEGIN
begin
  // Inputs
  $sformat( str, "{"%x,%x,%x,%x}" , in0, in1, in2, in3 );
  vc_trace.append_val_str( trace_str, in_val, str );
  vc_trace.append_str( trace_str, "|" );
  ...
end
`VC_TRACE_END
`endif /* SYNTHESIS */
```

Figure 26: Example of Line Tracing Code – This code generates the first fixed-width column for the line trace shown in Figure 25.
to trace the input ports. Notice how we have wrapped the line tracing code in `ifndef SYNTHESIS and `endif to clearly indicate that this code is not synthesizable even though it is included in our design. Line 3 declares a temporary string variable that we will use when converting nets into strings. Lines 4–16 use helper macros to declare a task called `trace which takes a special argument called `trace_str that holds the current line trace string. The job of this task is to append trace information to the `trace_str that describes the current state and operation of this module. The `vc_trace.append_str and `vc_trace.append_val_str helper tasks add strings to the line trace. You can also build line traces hierarchically by explicitly calling the `trace task on a child module. Although we will provide significant line tracing code in each lab harness, you are also strongly encouraged to augment this code with your own line tracing.

To-Do On Your Own: Modify the line tracing code to show the pipeline stage label (in, S1, S2, S3, out) before each stage. After your modifications, the line trace might look something like this:

```
24: in:{05,07,08}|S1:{a5,a3,a2,a7}|S2:{03,04,02}|S3: |out:
```

5.3. Structural Sorter Implementation

The flat implementation in `SortUnitFlat.v` is complex and monolithic and it fails to really exploit the structure inherent in the sorter. We can use modularity and hierarchy to divide complicated designs into smaller more manageable units; these smaller units are easier to design and can be tested independently before integrating them into larger, more complicated designs. We have started a structural implementation in `SortUnitStruct.v`; the structural implementation will have an identical interface and behavior as the flat implementation in `SortUnitFlat.v`.

Figure 27 shows the first pipeline stage of the structural implementation of the sorter. Our design instantiates three kinds of modules: `vc_ResetReg`, `vc_Reg`, and `tut4_verilog_sort_MinMaxUnit`. The register modules are provided in the VC library. Notice how we still use the parameter `p_nbits to declare various internal variables, but in addition, we use this parameter when instantiating parameterized sub-modules. For example, the `vc_Reg module is parameterized, and this allows us to easily create pipeline registers of any bitwidth. Even though we are using a structural implementation strategy, we still cleanly separate the sequential logic from the combinational logic. We still use comments and explicit suffixes to make it clear what pipeline stage we are modeling.
// Stage S0->S1 pipeline registers

logic val_S1;

vc_ResetReg#(1) val_S0S1(
    .clk (clk),
    .reset (reset),
    .d (in_val),
    .q (val_S1)
);

// This is probably the only place where it might be acceptable to use
// positional port binding since (a) it is so common and (b) there are
// very few ports to bind.

logic [p_nbits-1:0] elm0_S1;
logic [p_nbits-1:0] elm1_S1;
logic [p_nbits-1:0] elm2_S1;
logic [p_nbits-1:0] elm3_S1;

vc_Reg#(p_nbits) elm0_S0S1( clk, elm0_S1, in0 );
vc_Reg#(p_nbits) elm1_S0S1( clk, elm1_S1, in1 );
vc_Reg#(p_nbits) elm2_S0S1( clk, elm2_S1, in2 );
vc_Reg#(p_nbits) elm3_S0S1( clk, elm3_S1, in3 );

// Stage S1 combinational logic

logic [p_nbits-1:0] mmuA_out_min_S1;
logic [p_nbits-1:0] mmuA_out_max_S1;

tut4_verilog_sort_MinMaxUnit#(p_nbits) mmuA_S1(
    .in0 (elm0_S1),
    .in1 (elm1_S1),
    .out_min (mmuA_out_min_S1),
    .out_max (mmuA_out_max_S1)
);

logic [p_nbits-1:0] mmuB_out_min_S1;
logic [p_nbits-1:0] mmuB_out_max_S1;

tut4_verilog_sort_MinMaxUnit#(p_nbits) mmuB_S1(
    .in0 (elm2_S1),
    .in1 (elm3_S1),
    .out_min (mmuB_out_min_S1),
    .out_max (mmuB_out_max_S1)
);

Figure 27: First Stage of the Structural Sorter Implementation – First pipeline stage of the sorter using a structural implementation corresponding to the diagram in Figure 22.
6. Greatest Common Divisor: Verilog Design Example

In this section, we will apply what we have learned in the previous section to study a more complicated hardware unit that calculates the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two input operands. The code and unit test bench for this section is provided for you in the `tut4_verilog/gcd` subdirectory.

As a reminder, Figure 28 illustrates the interface for our module. The GCD unit will take two n-bits operands and produce an n-bit result. For flow-control, we use the same latency-insensitive val/rdy interface, where the sender indicates when the message is valid and the receiver indicates when they are ready. The transaction is defined to occur on the clock edge when both signals are high. Our implementation will use Euclid’s algorithm to iteratively calculate the GCD. Figure 29 illustrates this algorithm as an executable Python function.

**To-Do On Your Own:** Experiment with the algorithm using a Python interpreter. Try calculating the GCD for different input values. Add additional debugging output to track what the algorithm is doing each iteration.
6.1. Control/Datapath Split Implementation

We will usually divide more complicated designs into two parts: the datapath and the control unit. The datapath contains the arithmetic operators, muxes, and registers that work on the data, while the control unit is responsible for controlling these components to achieve the desired functionality. The control unit sends control signals to the datapath and the datapath sends status signals back to the control unit. Figure 30 illustrates the datapath for the GCD unit and Figure 31 illustrates the corresponding finite-state-machine (FSM) control unit. The Verilog code for the datapath, control unit, and the top-level module which composes the datapath and control unit is in \texttt{GcdUnitRTL.v}.

Take a look at the datapath interface which is also shown in Figure 33. We cleanly identify the data signals, control signals, and status signals. Figure 33 also shows the first two datapath components, but take a look in \texttt{GcdUnitRTL.v} to see the entire datapath. Notice how we use a very structural implementation that exactly matches the datapath diagram in Figure 30. We leverage several modules from the VC library (e.g., \texttt{vc\_Mux2}, \texttt{vc\_ZeroComparator}, \texttt{vc\_Subtractor}). You should use a similar structural approach when building your own datapaths for this course. For a net that moves data from left to right in the datapath diagram, we usually declare a dedicated wire right before the module instance (e.g., \texttt{a\_mux\_out} and \texttt{a\_reg\_out}). For a net that moves data from right to left in the datapath diagram, we need to declare a dedicated wire right before it is used as an input (e.g., \texttt{b\_reg\_out} and \texttt{b\_sub\_out}).

Take a look at the control unit and notice the stylized way we write FSMs. An FSM-based control unit should have three parts: a sequential concurrent block for the state, a combinational concurrent block for the state transitions, and a combinational concurrent block for the state outputs. We often use case statements to compactly represent the state transitions and outputs. Figure 34 shows the portion of the FSM responsible for setting the output signals. We use a task to set all of the control signals in a single line; as long as the task does not include non-synthesizable constructs (e.g., delay statements or system tasks) the task itself should be synthesizable. Essentially, we have created a “control signal table” in our Verilog code which exactly matches what we might draw on a piece of
Figure 32: Verifying GCD Using Test Sources and Sinks – Parameterized test sources send a stream of messages over a val/rdy interface, and parameterized test sinks receive a stream of messages over a val/rdy interface and compare each message to a previously specified reference message. Clock and reset signals are not shown.

Figure 35 shows a portion of the top-level module that connects the datapath and control unit together. Lines X and Y use the new implicit connection operator (.* ) provided by SystemVerilog. Using the implicit connection operator during module instantiation means to connect every port to a signal with the same name. So these two lines take care of connecting all of the control and status signals. This is a powerful way to write more compact code which avoids connectivity bugs, especially when connecting the datapath and control unit.

Figure 32 illustrates the overall connectivity in the test harness, which uses a source/sink approach. The test source is responsible for providing input stimulus to the Design Under Test (DUT), and the test sink is responsible for taking the outputs and verifying them. Both of these modules are provided for you, and are parametrized to work with an arbitrary size of message on our val/rdy interface. The test source includes the ability to randomly delay messages going into the DUT and the test sink includes the ability to randomly apply back-pressure to the DUT. By using various combinations of these random delays we can more robustly ensure that our flow-control logic is working correctly. We can run the tests in the test harness as follows:

% cd ${HOME}/ece4750/sim/gcd
% make gcd/utb_GCD.v RUN_ARG=--trace

Figure 36 illustrates a portion of the line trace for the randomized testing. We use the line trace to show the state of the A and B registers at the beginning of each cycle and use specific characters to indicate which state we are in (i.e., I = idle, Cs = calc with swap, C- = calc with subtract, D = done). We can see that the test source sends a new message into the GCD unit on cycle 296. The GCD unit is in the idle state and transitions into the calc state. It does five subtractions and a final swap before transitioning into the done state on cycle 304. The result is valid but the test sink is not ready, so the GCD unit waits in the done state until cycle 310 when it is able to send the result to the test sink. On cycle 311 the GCD unit accepts a new input message to work on. This is a great example of how an effective line trace can enable you to quickly visualize how a design is actually working.
module tut4_verilog_gcd_GcdUnitDpath
(
    input logic clk,
    input logic reset,

    // Data signals
    input logic [31:0] req_msg,
    output logic [15:0] resp_msg,

    // Control signals
    input logic a_reg_en, // Enable for A register
    input logic b_reg_en, // Enable for B register
    input logic [1:0] a_mux_sel, // Sel for mux in front of A reg
    input logic b_mux_sel, // sel for mux in front of B reg

    // Status signals
    output logic is_b_zero, // Output of zero comparator
    output logic is_a_lt_b // Output of less-than comparator
);

localparam c_nbits = 16;

// Split out the a and b operands
logic [c_nbits-1:0] req_msg_a = req_msg[31:16];
logic [c_nbits-1:0] req_msg_b = req_msg[15:0];

// A Mux
vc_Mux3#(c_nbits) a_mux
(
    .sel (a_mux_sel),
    .in0 (req_msg_a),
    .in1 (b_reg_out),
    .in2 (sub_out),
    .out (a_mux_out)
);

// A register
vc_EnReg#(c_nbits) a_reg
(
    .clk (clk),
    .reset (reset),
    .en (a_reg_en),
    .d (a_mux_out),
    .q (a_reg_out)
);

Code at tut4_verilog/gcd/GcdUnit.v

Figure 33: Portion of GCD Datapath Unit – We use struct types to encapsulate both control and status signals and we use a preprocessor macro from the GCD message struct to determine how to size the datapath components.
Figure 34: Portion of GCD FSM-based Control Unit for State Outputs — We can use a task to create a “control signal table” with one row per state or Mealy transition and one column per control signal. Local parameters can help compactly encode various control signal values.
module tut4_verilog_gcd_GcdUnitRTL
(
  input logic clk,
  input logic reset,
  input logic req_val,
  output logic req_rdy,
  input logic [31:0] req_msg,
  output logic resp_val,
  input logic resp_rdy,
  output logic [15:0] resp_msg
);

// Connect Control Unit and Datapath
// Connect Control Unit and Datapath

// Control signals
logic a_reg_en;
logic b_reg_en;
logic [1:0] a_mux_sel;
logic b_mux_sel;

// Data signals
logic is_b_zero;
logic is_a_lt_b;

// Control unit
tut4_verilog_gcd_GcdUnitCtrl ctrl
(
  .*
);

// Datapath
tut4_verilog_gcd_GcdUnitDpath dpath
(
  .*
);
endmodule

Code at tut4_verilog/gcd/tb_GcdUnit.v

Figure 35: Portion of GCD Top-Level Module – We use the new implicit connection operator (.* ) to automatically connect all of the control and status signals to both the control unit and datapath.
★ **To-Do On Your Own:** [t] Optimize the GCD implementation to improve the performance on the given input datasets.

A first optimization would be to transition into the done state if either $a$ or $b$ are zero. If $a$ is zero and $b$ is greater than zero, we will swap $a$ and $b$ and then end the calculation on the next cycle anyways. You will need to carefully modify the datapath and control so that the response can come from either the $a$ or $b$ register.

A second optimization would be to avoid the bubbles caused by the IDLE and DONE states. First, add an edge from the CALC state directly back to the IDLE state when the calculation is complete and the response interface is ready. You will need to carefully manage the response valid bit. Second, add an edge from the CALC state back to the CALC state when the calculation is complete, the response interface is ready, and the request interface is valid. These optimizations should eliminate any bubbles and improve the performance of back-to-back GCD transactions.

A third optimization would be to perform a swap and subtraction in the same cycle. This will require modifying both the datapath and the control unit, but should have a significant impact on the overall performance.

**Acknowledgments**

Socrates Wong, Aidan McNay, and José Martínez prepared this version of the tutorial as part of the course ECE 4750 Computer Architecture at Cornell University. Significant parts were adopted from earlier versions created by Christopher Batten.
### Appendix A: Constructs Allowed in Synthesizable RTL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs Allowed in Synthesizable RTL</th>
<th>Allowed in Explicitly Not Allowed in Synthesizable RTL With Limitations</th>
<th>Synthesizable RTL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>logic always</td>
<td>always¹</td>
<td>wire, reg¹³, integer, real, time, realtime signed¹⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logic [N-1:0]</td>
<td>enum²</td>
<td>===, !==</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>~</td>
<td>~ ~ (bitwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;&amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td>!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp; ~</td>
<td>~</td>
<td>~ ~ (reduction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ -</td>
<td>= (blocking assignment)⁶</td>
<td>initial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;&gt; &lt;&lt; &gt;&gt;&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;= (non-blocking assignment)⁷</td>
<td>variable initialization¹⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>== !== &gt; &lt;= &lt;=</td>
<td>typedef⁸</td>
<td>negedge¹⁸</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{}</td>
<td>packed⁹</td>
<td>for, while, repeat, forever¹⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{N{}} (repeat)</td>
<td>$bits()¹⁰</td>
<td>fork, join</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?:</td>
<td>$signed()¹¹</td>
<td>deassign, force, release</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>always_ff, always_comb</td>
<td>read-modify-write¹²</td>
<td>specify, endspecify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if else</td>
<td></td>
<td>nmos, pmos, cmos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case, endcase</td>
<td></td>
<td>rmnmos, rpmos, rcmos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin, end</td>
<td></td>
<td>tran, tranif0, tranif1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>module, endmodule</td>
<td></td>
<td>rtran, rtranif0, rtranif1</td>
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<tr>
<td>input, output</td>
<td></td>
<td>supply0, supply1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assign</td>
<td></td>
<td>strong0, strong1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parameter</td>
<td></td>
<td>weak0, weak1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>localparam</td>
<td></td>
<td>primitive, endprimitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>genvar</td>
<td></td>
<td>defparam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generate, endgenerate</td>
<td></td>
<td>unnamed port connections²⁰</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generate for</td>
<td></td>
<td>unnamed parameter passing²¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generate if else</td>
<td></td>
<td>all other keywords</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generate case</td>
<td></td>
<td>all other system tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>named port connections</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>named parameter passing</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. Students should prefer using `always_ff` and `always_comb` instead of `always`. If students insist on using `always`, then it can only be used in one of the following two constructs: `always @(posedge clk)` for sequential logic, and `always @(*)` for combinational logic. Students are not allowed to trigger sequential blocks off the negative edge of the clock or create asynchronous resets, nor can they use explicit sensitivity lists.

2. `enum` can only be used with an explicit base type of `logic` and explicitly setting the bitwidth using the following syntax: `typedef enum logic [$clog2(N)-1:0] { ... } type_t;` where `N` is the number of labels in the enum. Anonymous enums are not allowed.

3. `struct` can only be used with the `packed` qualifier (i.e., `unpacked` structs are not allowed) using the following syntax: `typedef struct packed { ... } type_t;` Anonymous structs are not allowed.

4. `casez` can only be used in very specific situations to implement priority encoder-style hardware structures compactly.

5. `task` and `function` blocks must themselves contain only synthesizable RTL.

6. Blocking assignments should only be used in `always_comb` blocks and are explicitly not allowed in `always_ff` blocks.
Non-blocking assignments should only be used in always_ff blocks and are explicitly not allowed in always_comb blocks.

defined should only be used in conjunction with enum and struct.

packed should only be used in conjunction with struct.

The input to $clog2/$bits must be a static-elaboration-time constant. The input to $clog2/$bits cannot be a signal (i.e., a wire or a port). In other words, $clog2/$bits can only be used for static elaboration and not to model actual hardware.

$s[signed]() can only be used around the operands to $>$, $$, $<$, $<=$ to ensure that these operators perform the signed equivalents.

Reading a signal, performing some arithmetic on the corresponding value, and then writing this value back to the same signal (i.e., read-modify-write) is not allowed within an always_comb concurrent block. This is a combinational loop and does not model valid hardware. Read-modify-write is allowed in an always_ff concurrent block with a non-blocking assignment, although we urge students to consider separating the sequential and combinational logic. Students can use an always_comb concurrent block to read the signal, perform some arithmetic on the corresponding value, and then write a temporary wire; and use an always_ff concurrent block to flop the temporary wire into the destination signal.

wire and reg are perfectly valid, synthesizable constructs, but logic is much cleaner. So we would like students to avoid using wire and reg.

signed types can sometimes be synthesized, but we do not allow this construct in the course.

Multipliers can be synthesized, and small multipliers can even be synthesized efficiently, but we do not allow this construct in the course. You can use the left and right shift operators if you need to multiply or divide by a power of two.

Ports with inout can be used to create tri-state buses, but tools often have trouble synthesizing hardware from these models.

Variable initialization means assigning an initial value to a logic variable when you declare the variable. This is not synthesizable; it is not modeling real hardware. If you need to set some state to an initial condition, you must explicitly use the reset signal.

Triggering a sequential block off a signal's negedge is certainly synthesizable. Still, we will be exclusively using a positive-edge-triggered flip-flop-based design style.

If you want to generate hardware using loops, you should use generate blocks.

In very specific and rare cases, unnamed port connections might make sense, usually when there are just one or two ports and their purpose is obvious from the context.

In very specific and rare cases, unnamed parameter passing might make sense, usually when there are just one or two parameters and their purpose is obvious from the context.