

More Verilog

This lecture describes Verilog modules and parameters, arrays and the relationship between numbers, logic levels and truth values.

After this lecture you should be able to:

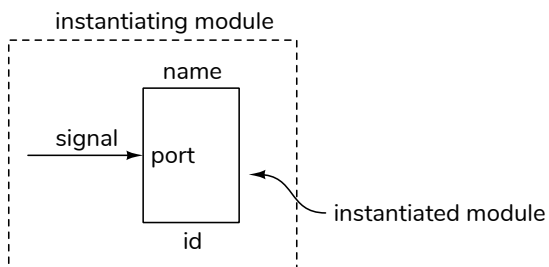
- declare modules with parameters and ports
- instantiate modules using positional, named and wildcard parameters and signals
- declare arrays of arrays and use initialized arrays as lookup tables
- convert between high/low logic levels and true/false truth values for active-high and active-low interfaces

Modules

It's good practice to divide designs into smaller parts¹ because small, simple circuits are easier to design and test than large ones.

With careful partitioning there can be other advantages. A larger part could use several copies of the same part. Or a part might be re-used in future designs.

In Verilog each part is a **module**. Modules describe logic that can be “instantiated” (duplicated and inserted into) another module:



The module's interfaces are defined by a header describing ports and parameters. Ports are **in**, **out** or **inout** (bidirectional) signals while parameters are values that can customize each instance of a module. The module's body contains additional signal declarations and parallel (concurrently executing) statements between **module** and **endmodule**. These define the structure or behaviour of the module.

¹How small? A good rule of thumb is to make sure each part can be described on a single page.

Here's an example of a module named **bits** that defines an **nb**-bit register:

```
module bits
  #(parameter nb=1)
  (
    input logic [nb-1:0] d,
    output logic [nb-1:0] q,
    input logic clock
  ) ;

  logic [nb-1:0] q_next ;

  assign q_next = d ;

  always_ff @(posedge clock) q = q_next ;

endmodule
```

The parameter **nb** has a default value of 1 which is used if a value is not given when the module is instantiated. There are two input ports (named **d** and **clock**) and one output port (named **q**).

A module instantiation starts with the name of the module followed by parameter values (if any), an instance name (to identify individual instances of the same module), and a description of how to connect signals in the instantiating module to the ports in the instantiated module. For example:

```
bits b0 (a,b,c) ;
```

Would instantiate a **bits** module with instance name **b0** that connected the signals **a**, **b** and **c** to the corresponding ports in the **bits** module (**d**, **q** and **clock** respectively).

Exercise 1: Draw a diagram labelling the module, instance, signal and port names as in the diagram above.

An 8-bit, 3-stage shift register could be built using three **bits** modules:

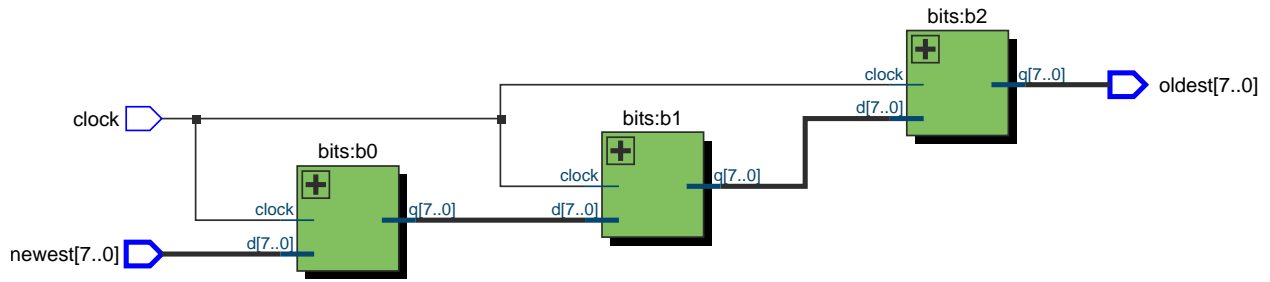
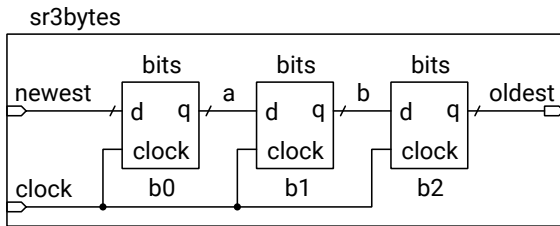


Figure 1: Shift Register Synthesis



```

module sr3bytes
(
  input logic [7:0] newest,
  output logic [7:0] oldest,
  input logic clock
);

localparam nbits = 8 ;

logic [nbits-1:0] a, b ;

// matching by order
bits #(nbits) b0 (newest,a,clock);

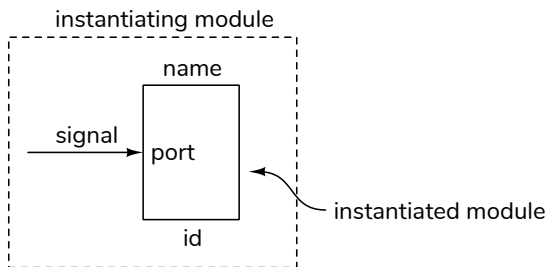
// matching by name (order does not matter)
bits #(.nb(nbites)) b1 (.q(b),.clock,.d(a));

// wildcards for names that match
bits #(.nb(nbites)) b2 (.d(b),.q(oldest),.*);

endmodule

```

Exercise 2: Identify the module instantiation statements in the code above. For each one, what is the instantiated module's name? The instance name?



When one module is instantiated in another, a signal can be connected to module port by:

- port order (**signal**),

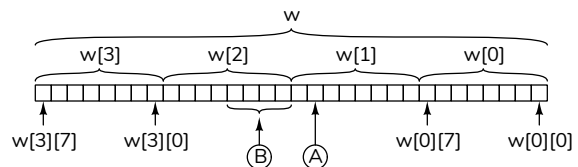
- port name and explicit signal name (**.port(signal)**),
- port name only – connecting to the matching signal name (**.port**),
- wildcard that matches all remaining matching port and signal names (**.***).

The signal name can be an expressions (e.g. **word[15:8]**) instead of a signal. Matching of values to parameters can be done by order (**value**) or explicitly, **.parameter(value)**.

The synthesis result, shown above, is as expected.

Arrays of Arrays

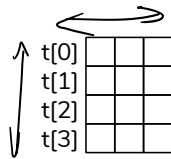
We can also declare arrays of arrays. For example, **logic[3:0][7:0] w;** declares **w** as an array of four arrays of eight bits. A single index selects one of the bytes, two indices selects a byte and a bit from that byte:



Exercise 3: How would you specify the bit labelled A in the diagram above? The bits labelled B?

Lookup Tables

Initialized arrays can serve as “lookup tables” – tables where the index value selects a row. For example, a lookup table with four three-bit values would be declared as **logic [0:3][2:0] t ;** and drawn as:



Note that the rows indices are labelled in the conventional order – increasing from top to bottom.

Lookup tables can implement any function by initializing the rows with the function value for the corresponding row index.

For example, the `onebits` lookup table in the following code contains the number of ‘1’ bits in a binary number:

```

logic [0:7][2:0] onebits = '{0,1,1,2,1,2,2,3} ;
logic [3:0] n ;
...
assign ... = onebits[n] ;

```

and the value of the expression `onebits[n]` is the number of ‘1’ bits in `n`.

Exercise 4: Write a Verilog lookup table to look up whether a value between 0 and 7 is a prime number or not. The result should be 1 if the value is a prime or else 0. *Hint: The primes are 2, 3, 5 and 7.*

Unpacked Arrays

Arrays may also have “unpacked” dimensions that appear after the signal name and model memories. For example: `logic [7:0] rom [32] ;` would model a 32-byte memory with array indices 0 to 31.

In array references, the unpacked dimension(s) (if any) are specified first, followed by the packed dimensions (if any). For example, `rom[31][0]` would be the least-significant bit of the last word in the `rom` above.

Numbers, Logic Levels and Truth Values

Numbers are used for counting, logic levels are voltages, and truth values can be true or false. These are different, but related.

Almost universally, 1 and 0 are synonymous with true and false respectively. But there are two common conventions for the relationship between logic levels and truth values:

Number	Truth	Active High (Verilog)	Active Low
0	F	L	H
1	T	H	L

Verilog uses the active-high convention for inputs and outputs: `0` and `1` are treated as low and high respectively.

But whether `1` or `0` indicates that a signal is true or false depends on the context. In a logical expression, `1` would mean that the signal was true. But as an input or output level `1` could mean that the signal was true (for active-high signals) or false (for active-low signals).

Active-low signals can be denoted by:

- a bar over the signal name ($\overline{\text{reset}}$)
- an asterisk after the signal name (`RESET*`)
- a suffix of N (or n) after the signal name (`reset_n`)

In addition to the two ways to represent truth values with voltages (active-high and active-low) there are also two ways to represent binary digits (“bits”) with voltages. A high voltage may represent either a 0 or a 1. Signals where a 1 is represented by a low voltage typically, but not always, use active-low notation.

Exercise 5: Is a signal named `overload` active-high or active-low? Is there an overload if this signal is high? What if the signal was named `overload*`?

Exercise 6: Come up with active-high and an active-low names for a signal that is at 3 V when a door is open and 0 V when the door is closed.

Exercise 7: If \bar{D} is a data bus and $\overline{D0}$ is low, is the value on the data bus an even or odd number?

A Bit More Syntax

The notations `'0` and `'1` are convenient abbreviations for a literal constant that is all-zeros or all-ones.