# Digital Design using HDLs <br> LSU EE 4755 <br> Final Examination 

Wednesday, 8 December 2021 7:30 CST

Problem 1 (30 pts)
Problem $2 \longrightarrow(35 \mathrm{pts})$
Problem $3 \longrightarrow$ (15 pts)
Problem $4 \longrightarrow(20 \mathrm{pts})$

Alias Good Luck JWST!
Exam Total $\quad$ (100 pts)

Problem 1: $[30 \mathrm{pts}]$ For the modules in this problem input sample holds a new value each cycle, and output $r_{\text {_ }}$ avg holds the average of the last $n_{-}$samples inputs. (Ignore the fact that the module needs but lacks a reset.)
(a) For the module below show the hardware that will be inferred when instantiated with default parameters. Be sure to optimize for the default value of $n_{-}$samples.

```
module ravg2 #( int w = 8, n_samples = 4 )
    ( output logic [w-1:0] r_avg,
        input uwire [w-1:0] sample, input uwire clk);
    logic [w-1:0] samples[n_samples];
    parameter int wm = $clog2( n_samples );
    parameter int ws = w + wm;
    logic [ws-1:0] tot;
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) begin
        samples[0] <= sample;
        for ( int i=1; i<n_samples; i++ ) samples[i] <= samples[i-1];
        tot <= tot - samples[n_samples-1] + samples[0];
    end
    always_comb r_avg = tot / n_samples;
endmodule
```

Solution on next page.
$\checkmark$ Show hardware for the module above using default parameter values.
$\checkmark$ Optimize for these parameter values.

Solution shown below. Notice that because non-blocking assignments were used to assign samples [i], the computation of tot uses the register outputs. In particular samples [0] is the register output, which is the value of sample from the previous cycle.

Because n_samples=4 is a power of 2 , the division, tot/n_samples, can be done by shifting right by two bits. Since the shift is constant just use bits 7:2 of tot and place two bits of zero in the MSB of the output.

(b) The module to the right is similar to ravg2 except that it has three arithmetic unit instantiations: an adder, a subtractor, and a divide-by-constant unit. Modify ravg3 so that it uses these modules. For full credit connect them so that the critical path passes through at most one module per cycle. In a correct solution $r_{\text {_ }}$ avg will arrive at the output of ravg3 later than it would in module ravg2.
$\checkmark$ Modify ravg3 so that it uses the three arithmetic units.
$\checkmark$ For full credit, the critical path can go through at most one arithmetic unit per cycle.
$\checkmark$ The connections to the arithmetic units can be changed (say from aa1 to something else).

- Do not add unnecessary cost or delay.

Solution appears below.
Please be sure to understand the following important points.
So that the critical path passes through at most one arithmetic module, the inputs to the arithmetic modules cannot connect to arithmetic module outputs. Instead, they connect to registers, such as tot and samples [0].

So that the running sum is correct, the values of samples [0] and samples [n_samples-1] must be used in the same cycle. For that reason the subtractor is used to compute samples[0] - samples[n_samples-1]. It would not be correct to compute diff = tot - samples[n_samples-1] in one cycle and tot = diff-samples[0] in the next cycle because samples [0] is the wrong value.

Notice that samples [0] was directly connected to the subtractor input. That's more convenient than using an intermediate variable, say sa1.

```
module ravg3 #( int w = 8, n_samples = 4 )
    ( output logic [w-1:0] r_avg,
        input uwire [w-1:0] sample,
        input uwire clk );
    logic [w-1:0] samples[n_samples];
    parameter int wm = $clog2( n_samples );
    parameter int ws = w + wm;
    logic [ws-1:0] tot;
    // SOLUTION - Declare a register to hold output of subtractor.
    logic [ws-1:0] pl_diff;
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) begin
        samples[0] <= sample;
        for ( int i=1; i<n_samples; i++ ) samples[i] <= samples[i-1];
        // tot <= tot - samples[n_samples-1] + samples[0]; // Modify or eliminate this line.
        // SOLUTION - Write output of subtractor and adder into registers.
        pl_diff <= diff;
        tot <= sum;
    end
    // always_comb r_avg = tot / n_samples; // Modify or eliminate this line.
    // SOLUTION - Remove unneeded declarations. (aa1, etc.)
    uwire [ws-1:0] sum, diff;
    // SOLUTION - Use subtract to compute samples[0] - samples[n_samples-1]
    our_sub #(ws,w) sub2( diff, samples[0], samples[n_samples-1] );
    // SOLUTION - Use adder to compute new value of tot.
    our_adder #(ws,ws) adder1( sum, tot, pl_diff );
    // SOLUTION - Use divider to compute r_avg.
    our_div_by #(w,ws,n_samples) div3( r_avg, tot );
endmodule
```

Problem 2: [35 pts] Appearing below is a Verilog description of a lower-cost version of the bit_keeper module from Homework 4 and a diagram of the hardware.

```
typedef enum { Cmd_Reset=0, Cmd_Rot_To=1, Cmd_Write=2, Cmd_Nop=3, Cmd_SIZE } Command;
module rot_left #( int w = 10, amt = 1 )
    ( output uwire [w-1:0] r, input uwire [w-1:0] a);
    assign r = { a[w-amt-1:0], a[w-1:w-amt] };
endmodule
module bit_keeper_lite #( int wb = 64, wi = 8, ws = $clog2(wb) )
    ( output logic [wb-1:0] bits, output uwire ready,
        input uwire [1:0] cmd, input uwire [wi-1:0] din,
        input uwire [ws-1:0] pos, input uwire clk );
    localparam int ramt_a = 1; // Specify Rotation Amounts
    localparam int ramt_b = 1 << ( ws >> 1 );
    uwire [wb-1:0] ra, rb;
    rot_left #(wb,ramt_a) rl1(ra,bits);
    rot_left #(wb,ramt_b) rl8(rb,bits);
    logic [ws-1:0] rot_to_do; // Remaining amount of rotation to do.
    assign ready = rot_to_do == 0;
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) case ( cmd )
        Cmd_Reset: begin bits = 0; rot_to_do = 0; end
        Cmd_Rot_To: rot_to_do = pos; // Initialize rotation. Rotate during Nop.
        Cmd_Write: bits[wi-1:0] = din;
        Cmd_Nop: // Continue Executing a Cmd_Rot_To
                if ( rot_to_do >= ramt_b ) begin
                bits = rb; // Use output of larger rot module.
                rot_to_do -= ramt_b; // Decrement remaining rot amt.
                end else if ( rot_to_do >= ramt_a ) begin
                bits = ra; // Use output of smaller rot module.
                rot_to_do -= ramt_a; // Decrement remaining rot amt.
            end
        endcase
endmodule
```

(a) Find the cost and delay of the illustrated hardware using the simple model. Take into account the presence of constants. For the addition and comparison units assume a ripple implementation. Show any assumptions made. (See the next part before solving this one.)

Show cost in terms of $w_{b}, w_{i}$, and $w_{s} . \nabla$ Take into account constants.
The hardware consists of registers, multiplexors, adders, comparison units, and constant shifters.
Shifters: Since they shift by a constant amount the total shifter cost is zero.
Registers: The cost of a $w$-bit register is $7 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. There are two registers, bits and rot_to_do. There sizes are $w_{b}$ and $w_{s}$, so their combined cost is $7\left(w_{b}+w_{s}\right) \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.

Two-Input Multiplexors: The cost of a $w$-bit, 2 -input mux is $3 w u_{c}$. In the illustrated hardware there are two $w_{b}$-bit 2 -input muxen and two $w_{s}$-bit 2-input muxen. (None of their inputs are constant.) Their total cost is $\left[2 \times 3 w_{b}+2 \times 3 w_{s}\right] \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}=6\left(w_{b}+w_{s}\right) \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.

Four-Input Multiplexors: A $w$-bit four-input mux can be constructed from three 2 -input muxen, and so its cost would is $3 \times 3 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}=9 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. The cost of a $w$-bit, 2-input mux with a constant data input is $w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. Each of the four-input muxen has a
constant data input, reducing the cost to $(2 \times 3+1) w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}=7 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. The total cost of the two four-input muxen accounting for the constant input is $7\left(w_{b}+w_{s}\right) \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.

Adders: An ordinary $w$-bit ripple adder costs $9 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. A $w$-bit ripple adder with one constant input costs $4 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. The two adders each have one constant input. Based on just that their costs are $4 \times 2 w_{s} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. But the value of ramt_b is $2^{w_{s} / 2}$, and so the $w_{s} / 2$ least-significant bits of ramt_b are zero. That means the adder passes those low bits through unchanged, reducing the adder cost to just $w_{s} / 2 \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. Looking at the ramt_a adder in isolation one would have to conclude that its cost is $4 w_{s} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$ with ramt_a $=1$. But the output of the adder is ignored if rot_to_do>ramt_b meaning that we can assume the input to the ramt_a adder is no greater than ramt_b and so we only need a $w_{s} / 2$-bit adder. With both of those optimizations the total adder cost is $2 \times 4 \frac{w_{s}}{2} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}=4 w_{s} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.

Comparison Unit: Recall that a ripple comparison unit is constructed from the carry logic of ripple subtractor. The cost of a $w$-bit comparison is $4 w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. But one constant input reduces the cost to just $w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$. With no further optimizations the cost of the two comparison units is $2 w_{s} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.
The ramt_a comparison is irrelevant if rot_to_to is greater than ramt_b, and so only $w_{s} / 2$ bits need be examined. If the ramb_b comparison operation were $\geq$ then it could just examine $w_{s} / 2$ bits. But since the operation is strictly greater than all bits must be considered. But using the output of the ramt_a comparison the >ramt_b comparison could be done by examining $w_{s} / 2$ more bits. The total comparison cost is $2 \times \frac{w_{s}}{2} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}=w_{s} \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{c}}$.
$\nabla$
Show delays and arrival times on the diagram, and $\nabla$ highlight the critical path. These should be in terms of $w_{b}, w_{i}$, and $w_{s}$.

The timings and critical path are shown on the diagram. Blue shows the delay through a component, such as 2 for two-input multiplexors. Circled times show the delay of the longest path starting at module inputs and register outputs. A critical path is shown as a red dotted line. Note that there are several critical paths in this circuit though only one is illustrated.

Multiplexor Delay: The delay of an ordinary twoinput mux is $2 \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$. If one input is constant the delay is $1 \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$. The delay of an $n$-input mux is $\lceil\lg n\rceil 2 \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$, which works out to $4 u_{t}$ for a four-input mux. The next sub-problem shows how that delay can effectively be reduced to $2 u_{t}$ on the critical path. The diagram to the right does not reflect that optimization.

Adder Delay: The delay of a $w$-bit ripple adder with a constant input is $w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$. The timings in the
 diagram are based on $w_{s} / 2$-bit adders.

Comparison Delay: The delay of a $w$-bit ripple comparison unit with a constant input is $w \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$. The timings in the diagram are based on $w_{s} / 2$-bit comparison units.
(b) In class we assume that a four-input mux is implemented using a reduction tree of 3 two-input muxen. For the illustrated hardware that would result in a longer critical path than is necessary. Modify the diagram on the right to show a better way of implementing the four-input multiplexors.
$\checkmark$ Replace four-input multiplexors with two-input muxen connected to reduce critical path.
Solution appears on the lower half of the next page. The four-input mux has been replaced by three two-input muxen, but not connected in a reduction tree. The benefit of this non-tree connection is that one of the inputs, the fourth as used here, has a delay of only $2 u_{\mathrm{t}}$. That is the input that carries the critical path, and so the critical path delay is reduced by $2 \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{t}}$.
(c) Notice that care was taken to ensure that ramt_b is a power of 2. Explain how the fact that ramt_b is a power of two reduces the cost of the adder and comparison unit operating on ramb_b. Also explain how a power-of- 2 ramb_b can reduce the cost of the other adder and comparison unit, if the synthesis program is clever enough. Hint: Consider the binary representation of rot_to_do.

Since ramt_b is a power of 2 the adder and comparison unit connected to ramt_b are lower cost because:
Because the lower $w_{s} / 2$ bits of ramt_b are all zero. Because ramt_b is also a constant there is no need for an adder at all for the least significant $w_{s} / 2$ bits.
$\checkmark$ Since ramt_b is a power of 2 the adder and comparison unit connected to ramt_a (yes, a) are lower cost because:

Because the output of the ramt_a adder is only used if rot_to_do <= ramt_b. Therefore there is no point in providing an adder that can handle more than $w_{s} / 2$ bits. For the same reason the comparison unit need only consider the lower $w_{s} / 2$ bits.


Solution appears below.

(d) Appearing below is a version of bit_keeper_lite with four ready outputs, r1, r2, r3, and r4. On the diagram add hardware that will be synthesized for each.

```
module bit_keeper_lite #( int wb = 64, wi = 8, ws = $clog2(wb) )
    ( output logic [wb-1:0] bits, output uwire r1, output logic r2, r3, r4,
        input uwire [1:0] cmd, input uwire [wi-1:0] din,
        input uwire [ws-1:0] pos, input uwire clk );
    localparam int ramt_a = 1;
    localparam int ramt_b = 1 << ( ws >> 1 );
    uwire [wb-1:0] ra, rb;
    rot_left #(wb,ramt_a) rl1(ra,bits);
    rot_left #(wb,ramt_b) rl8(rb,bits);
    logic [ws-1:0] rot_to_do;
    assign r1 = rot_to_do == 0; // [V] Show hardware for r1.
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) begin
        r2 = rot_to_do == 0;
        // [V] Show hardware for r2.
        case ( cmd )
            Cmd_Reset: begin bits = 0; rot_to_do = 0; end
            Cmd_Rot_To: rot_to_do = pos;
            Cmd_Write: bits[wi-1:0] = din;
            Cmd_Nop: begin
                if ( rot_to_do >= ramt_b ) begin
                    bits = rb;
                        rot_to_do -= ramt_b;
                end else if ( rot_to_do >= ramt_a ) begin
                    bits = ra;
                rot_to_do -= ramt_a;
                end
                r3 = rot_to_do == 0; // [V/ Show hardware for r3.
            end
        endcase
        r4 = rot_to_do == 0; // [V] Show hardware for r4.
    end
endmodule
```

Show hardware that will be synthesized for r1, r2, r3, and r4.
Solution appears on the next page. Because they are assigned in an always_ff, the values of $r 2, r 3$, and $r 4$ visible outside the block come from registers. Pay close attention to where rot_to_do is assigned and where its value is referenced. For r1 it is referenced outside of the always ff block and so the value is from the register. The value of rot_to_do used for r2 also comes from the register output because it had not been assigned yet in the block. For r3 the value of rot_to_do assigned in the cmd=Cmd_Nop case is used. A mux keeps r3 unchanged when cmd is not Cmd_Nop. (The value of enumeration constant Cmd_Nop is 3.) Finally, $r 4$ is assigned at the end of the block, so it uses the value of rot_to_do that will be written to the register.


Problem 3: [15 pts] Consider the modules below.

```
module ba
    ( output logic [15:0] next_x, next_y, x, y,
        input uwire [15:0] a, c, input uwire clk );
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) x = next_x;
    assign next_x = a;
    assign next_y = x + c;
    always_ff @( posedge clk ) y = next_y;
endmodule
module test_ba;
    uwire [15:0] x, y, next_x, next_y;
    logic [15:0] a, c;
    logic clk;
    ba bal( next_x, next_y, x, y, a, c, clk );
    initial begin
        // t = 0
        clk = 0;
        a = 0; c = 0;
        #1; // t = 1
        clk = 1;
        #1; // t = 2
        clk = 0;
        #1; // t = 3
        clk = 1;
        #1; // t = 4
        clk = 0; a <= 1; c <= 10; // Line t4
        #1; // t = 5
        clk = 1;
        #1; // t = 6
        clk = 0;
        #1; // t = 7
        clk = 1; a <= 2; c <= 20; // Line t7
        #1; // t = 8
        clk = 0;
    end
endmodule
```


(a) Complete the timing diagram so that it shows the values of next_x, next_y, x , and y that would be produced with the modules above. Note: In the original exam test \_ba did not use non-blocking assignments to a and c.

Complete timing diagram from $t=4$ to $t=8.1$. $\nabla$ Note that there is a negative clock edge at $t=4$.
Solution appears above.
(b) At $t=5$ we can be sure that $\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{nex}_{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{t}_{-} \mathrm{y}$ will execute before next_y=x+c. Explain how this ordering is assured by the rules for the event queue.

Explain how event queue regions assure $\mathrm{y}=$ next_y executes before next_y $=\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{c}$ at $t=5$.
At $t=5$ clk changes from 0 to 1 , resulting in the two always_ff items being scheduled. The two will eventually reach the active region of the event queue, and one of them will be chosen first. Assume that the first always_ff is chosen first. The next_y assignment has x and c in its sensitivity list, and so it is only scheduled for execution when at least one of these changes. At $t=5$ x changes, and that will result in the next_y assignment being placed in the inactive region of the event queue. The scheduler will continue to remove and execute events from the active region until the active region is empty. Therefore the second always_ff is guaranteed to execute before the next_y assignment.
(c) Notice that a and c are assigned using non-blocking assignments on Lines $t 4$ and t7. Explain why the order of execution would be ambiguous at $t=7$ if line $t 7$ used blocking assignments: $\mathrm{a}=1$; $\mathrm{c}=10$; . Note: This question was not in the original exam.

Describe ambiguity (more than one possible execution order) if blocking assignments were used.Would non-blocking assignments x <= next_x and y <= next_y remove the ambiguity?Explain.

Problem 4: [20 pts] Answer each question below.
(a) The foolish sqrt module below has several issues.

```
module sqrt #( int w = 16 )
        ( output logic [w-1:0] r, input uwire [w-1:0] a );
        always_comb begin
            r = 0;
            while ( r * r < a ) r++;
        end
    endmodule
```

$\checkmark$ Explain why, due to the Verilog rules for bit widths, the expression $r * r<a$ won't compute the intended result.

Because $r$ and a are 16 bits the computation will be done to 16 bits of precision, and so due to overflow $r * r<a$ can be false when it should be true.
$\checkmark$ Why is the sqrt module likely not synthesizeable?
Because the maximum number of iterations of the while loop cannot be directly determined. The maximum number of iterations in fact will be about $2^{w / 2}$, and it's not impossible that a synthesis program would figure that out. It's just not likely because this is not the typical loop that would be used to deseribe hardware.
$\checkmark$ What would be the problem with the hardware if it were synthesizable?
The maximum number of iterations is $2^{w / 2}$. For the default value that's $2^{8}=256$. There would need to be 256 multiply units, 256 comparison units, and 256 muxen. That's alot of hardware. And anyway there are much better ways of computing a square root.
(b) Consider the two division modules below. In the first a2 is a parameter, in the second it is a module port. Use the div_demo module for your answers to the questions below.

```
module our_div_by
    #( int wq = 5, wd = 10, logic [wd-1:0] a2 = 4 )
        ( output uwire [wq-1:0] quot, input uwire [wd-1:0] a1 );
        assign quot = a1/a2;
endmodule
module our_div
    #( int wq = 5, wd = 10 )
        ( output uwire [wq-1:0] quot, input uwire [wd-1:0] a1, a2 );
        // cadence inline
        assign quot = a1/a2;
endmodule
module div_demo
    #( int w = 21 )
        ( output uwire [w-1:0] d1, d2,
                input uwire [w-1:0] x1, x2, x3, x4 );
    localparam logic [w-1:0] y1 = 4755;
    // Could replace our_div with our_div_by because y1 is constant.
    our_div #(w,w) dwould_work(d1, x1, y1);
    // Could not replace our_div with our_div_by because
    // divisor (x2) not a constant.
    our_div #(w,w) dwould_not_work(d2, x1, x2);
endmodule
```

$\checkmark$ Show an instantiation of our_div for which our_div_by could work.
Show an instantiation of our_div for which our_div_by could not work.
Solution appears above. To use our_div_by the divisor needs to be a constant. That's the case in the first example, but not in the second example
$\checkmark$ Explain how the use of the cadence inline pragma in our_div makes it possible to instantiate our_div in places that otherwise might need our_div_by.

It ensures that each instantiation of our_div will be optimized separately based on its arguments. Without the pragma the synthesis program might optimize our_div once, assuming two non-constant inputs, and then copy the optimized description to places where there are constant inputs.
(c) Answer the following questions about latency and throughput.
$\checkmark$ Define latency.
Latency is the amount of time needed to compute a result from start to finish. What a result is depends on the context. The result might be computed combinationally, or sequentially over several cycles.
$\checkmark$ Define throughput.
Throughput is the number of results computed per unit time. For example, if over 10 seconds 200 results are computed, the throughput is $200 / 10=20$ results per second.

Consider a sequential circuit (such as mult_step from Homework 6) and a pipelined version of the sequential circuit (such as multi_step_pipe). Assume that both have the same clock frequency.
$\checkmark$ Remembering that the clock frequencies are the same, compared to the sequential version, does the pipelined version typically have $\bigcirc$ lower latency, $\bigotimes$ the same latency, or $\bigotimes$ higher latency. $\downarrow$ Explain.

It depends. In a reasonable design the latency of the sequential version will be equal to or possibly greater than the pipelined version. A sequential design can re-use hardware, and so if it prioritizes low cost it will use less hardware over a greater number of cycles resulting in a higher latency than a pipelined design.

Compared to the sequential version, does the pipelined version typically have $\bigcirc$ lower throughput, $\bigcirc$ the same throughput, or $X$ higher throughput. $\checkmark$ Explain. By definition, a pipelined circuit computes a result each clock cycle, and so its throughput is high. A sequential circuit will require several cycles to compute something and so its throughput will be lower.
$\checkmark$ Ignoring the cost of registers, compared to the sequential version, does the pipelined version typically have $\bigcirc$ lower cost, $\bigcirc$ the same cost, or $X$ higher cost. $\bigvee$ Explain.
The sequential version re-uses units (such as arithmetic units) over multiple cycles. The pipelined version must have one unit for each operation, and so its cost will be higher.

