## Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 6: Combinational Logic, Hardware Description Lang. \& Verilog

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## Required Lecture Video

- Why study computer architecture?
- Why is it important?
- Future Computing Architectures
- Required Assignment
- Watch my inaugural lecture at ETH and understand it
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kgiZISOcGFM
- Optional Assignment
- Write a summary of the lecture
- What are your key takeaways?
- What did you learn?
- What did you like or dislike?


## Required Readings

- This week
- Combinational Logic
- P\&P Chapter 3 until $3.3+\quad$ H\&H Chapter 2
- Hardware Description Languages and Verilog
- H\&H Chapter 4 until 4.3 and 4.5
- Next week
- Sequential Logic
- P\&P Chapter 3.4 until end $+\quad$ H\&H Chapter 3 in full
- Hardware Description Languages and Verilog
- H\&H Chapter 4 in full
- Make sure you are done with
- P\&P Chapters 1-3 + H\&H Chapters 1-4


## Recall: CMOS NOT, NAND, AND Gates





## Recall: General CMOS Gate Structure

- The general form used to construct any inverting logic gate, such as: NOT, NAND, or NOR
- The networks may consist of transistors in series or in parallel
- When transistors are in parallel, the network is $\mathbf{O N}$ if one of the transistors is $\mathbf{O N}$
- When transistors are in series, the network is ON only if all transistors are $\mathbf{O N}$
pMOS transistors are used for pull-up nMOS transistors are used for pull-down


## Digging Deeper: Why This Structure?

- MOS transistors are not perfect switches
- pMOS transistors pass 1's well but 0's poorly
- nMOS transistors pass 0's well but 1's poorly
- pMOS transistors are good at "pulling up" the output
- nMOS transistors are good at "pulling down" the output



## Digging Deeper: Latency

- Which one is faster?
- Transistors in series
- Transistors in parallel
- Series connections are slower than parallel connections
- More resistance on the wire
- How do you alleviate this latency?
- See H\&H Section 1.7.8 for an example: pseudo-nMOS Logic


## Digging Deeper: Power Consumption

- Dynamic Power Consumption
- C * V ${ }^{*}$ f
- C = capacitance of the circuit (wires and gates)
- $\mathrm{V}=$ supply voltage
- $\mathrm{f}=$ charging frequency of the capacitor
- Static Power consumption
- V * $\mathrm{I}_{\text {leakage }}$
- supply voltage * leakage current
- See more in H\&H Chapter 1.8


## Recall: DeMorgan's Law (Continued)

These are conversions between different types of logic functions They can prove useful if you do not have every type of gate

$$
A=\overline{(X+Y)}=\bar{X} \bar{Y}
$$

NOR is equivalent to AND with inputs complemented

$$
B=\overline{(X Y)}=\bar{X}+\bar{Y}
$$

NAND is equivalent to OR with inputs complemented



| $X$ | $Y$ | $\overline{X+Y}$ | $\bar{X}$ | $\bar{Y}$ | $\bar{X} \bar{Y}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |





| $X$ | $Y$ | $\overline{X Y}$ | $\bar{X}$ | $\bar{Y}$ | $\bar{X}+\bar{Y}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Using Boolean Equations
to Represent a Logic Circuit

## Sum of Products Form: Key Idea

- Assume we have the truth table of a Boolean Function
- How do we express the function in terms of the inputs in a standard manner?
- Idea: Sum of Products form
- Express the truth table as a two-level Boolean expression
- that contains all input variable combinations that result in a 1 output
- If ANY of the combinations of input variables that results in a 1 is TRUE, then the output is 1
- $F=O R$ of all input variable combinations that result in a 1


## Some Definitions

- Complement: variable with a bar over it $\bar{A}, \bar{B}, \bar{C}$
- Literal: variable or its complement $A, \bar{A}, B, \bar{B}, C, \bar{C}$
- Implicant: product (AND) of literals $(\boldsymbol{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{B} \cdot \overline{\boldsymbol{C}}),(\overline{\boldsymbol{A}} \cdot \boldsymbol{C}),(\boldsymbol{B} \cdot \overline{\boldsymbol{C}})$
- Minterm: product (AND) that includes all input variables $(\boldsymbol{A} \cdot \boldsymbol{B} \cdot \overline{\boldsymbol{C}}),(\overline{\boldsymbol{A}} \cdot \overline{\boldsymbol{B}} \cdot \boldsymbol{C}),(\overline{\boldsymbol{A}} \cdot \boldsymbol{B} \cdot \overline{\boldsymbol{C}})$
- Maxterm: sum (OR) that includes all input variables $(A+\bar{B}+\bar{C}),(\bar{A}+B+\bar{C}),(A+B+\bar{C})$


## Two-Level Canonical (Standard) Forms

- Truth table is the unique signature of a Boolean function ...
- But, it is an expensive representation
- A Boolean function can have many alternative Boolean expressions
- i.e., many alternative Boolean expressions (and gate realizations) may have the same truth table (and function)
- Canonical form: standard form for a Boolean expression
- Provides a unique algebraic signature
- If they all say the same thing, why do we care?
- Different Boolean expressions lead to different gate realizations


## Two-Level Canonical Forms

## Sum of Products Form (SOP)

Also known as disjunctive normal form or minterm expansion


- Each row in a truth table has a minterm
- A minterm is a product (AND) of literals
- Each minterm is TRUE for that row (and only that row)

All Boolean equations can be written in SOP form

## SOP Form - Why Does It Work?



- Only the shaded product term $-\mathbf{A} \overline{\mathbf{B}} \mathbf{C}=\mathbf{1} \cdot \overline{\mathbf{0}} \cdot \mathbf{1}-$ will be 1
- No other product terms will "turn on" - they will all be 0
- So if inputs A B C correspond to a product term in expression,
- We get $0+0+\ldots+1+\ldots+0+0=1$ for output
- If inputs A B C do not correspond to any product term in expression
- We get $0+0+\ldots+0=0$ for output


## Aside: Notation for SOP

- Standard "shorthand" notation
- If we agree on the order of the variables in the rows of truth table...
- then we can enumerate each row with the decimal number that corresponds to the binary number created by the input pattern

| A | B | C | F |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

100 = decimal 4 so this is minterm \#4, or m4
111 = decimal 7 so this is minterm \#7, or m7
$\mathrm{f}=$
We can write this as a sum of products
Or, we can use a summation notation

## Canonical SOP Forms

| $\mathbf{A}$ | $\mathbf{B}$ | $\mathbf{C}$ | minterms |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | $\bar{A} \bar{B} \bar{B} \bar{C}$ | $=\mathrm{m} 0$ |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | $\bar{A} \bar{B} C$ | $=\mathrm{m} 1$ |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | $\bar{A} \bar{C} \bar{C}$ | $=\mathrm{m} 2$ |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | $\bar{A} \bar{B} \bar{B}$ | $=\mathrm{m} 3$ |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | $A \bar{B} \bar{C}$ | $=\mathrm{m} 4$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | $A \bar{B} C$ | $=\mathrm{m} 5$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | $A B \bar{C}$ | $=\mathrm{m} 6$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | $A B C$ | $=\mathrm{m} 7$ |
| Shorthand Notation for |  |  |  |  |

$F$ in canonical form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{~B}, \mathrm{C}) & =\sum \mathrm{m}(3,4,5,6,7) \\
& =\mathrm{m} 3+\mathrm{m} 4+\mathrm{m} 5+\mathrm{m} 6+\mathrm{m} 7 \\
F & =
\end{aligned}
$$

canonical form $\neq$ minimal form
Minterms of 3 Variables


2-Level AND/OR Realization

## From Logic to Gates

## - SOP (sum-of-products) leads to two-level logic

- Example: $Y=(\bar{A} \cdot \bar{B} \cdot \bar{C})+(A \cdot \bar{B} \cdot \bar{C})+(A \cdot \bar{B} \cdot C)$



## Alternative Canonical Form: POS

We can have another from of representation

## DeMorgan of SOP of $\bar{F}$

A product of sums $(\mathbf{P O S})_{F=(A}$
Each sum term represents one of the "zeros" of the function

| A | B | C | F | $F=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{1} \\ A+B+C \end{array}\right) \underline{\left(\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{1} & 0 \end{array}\right.}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | th |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | For the given input, only the shaded sum term |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | will equal 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $A+\bar{B}+C=0+\overline{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{0}$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  |

Anything ANDed with 0 is 0 ; Output $F$ will be 0

## Consider $\mathrm{A}=0, \mathrm{~B}=1, \mathrm{C}=0$



Only one of the products will be 0 , anything ANDed with 0 is 0 Therefore, the output is $\mathrm{F}=0$

## POS: How to Write It



Or just remember, POS of $F$ is the same as the DeMorgan of SOP of $\bar{F}!!$

## Canonical POS Forms

Product of Sums / Conjunctive Normal Form / Maxterm Expansion

| A | B |  | Maxterms |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |  | $A+B+C=\mathrm{MO}$ |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | $A+B+\bar{C}=\mathrm{M} 1$ |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | $A+\bar{B}+C=\mathrm{M} 2$ |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | $A+\bar{B}+\bar{C}=\mathrm{M} 3$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | $\bar{A}+B+C=\mathrm{M} 4$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | $\bar{A}+B+\bar{C}=\mathrm{M} 5$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | $\bar{A}+\bar{B}+\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{M} 6$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | $\bar{A}+\bar{B}+\bar{C}=\mathrm{M} 7$ |

$$
\mathrm{F}=(A+B+C)(A+B+\bar{C})(A+\bar{B}+C)
$$

Maxterm shorthand notation for a function of three variables
$\prod M(0,1,2)$

| A | B | C | F |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Note that you form the maxterms around the "zeros" of the function

This is not the complement of the function!

## Useful Conversions

1. Minterm to Maxterm conversion:
rewrite minterm shorthand using maxterm shorthand replace minterm indices with the indices not already used E.g., $F(A, B, C)=\sum m(3,4,5,6,7)=\Pi M(0,1,2)$
2. Maxterm to Minterm conversion:
rewrite maxterm shorthand using minterm shorthand replace maxterm indices with the indices not already used E.g., $F(A, B, C)=\Pi M(0,1,2)=\sum m(3,4,5,6,7)$
3. Expansion of $\mathbf{F}$ to expansion of $\overline{\boldsymbol{F}}$ :
E. g., $\mathrm{F}(A, B, C)=\sum m(3,4,5,6,7) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \bar{F}(A, B, C)=\sum m(0,1,2)$

$$
=\prod M(0,1,2) \quad \longrightarrow \quad=\prod M(3,4,5,6,7)
$$

4. Minterm expansion of F to Maxterm expansion of $\bar{F}$ : rewrite in Maxterm form, using the same indices as $F$

$$
\text { E. } \begin{aligned}
\text { g. } F(A, B, C) & =\sum m(3,4,5,6,7) & \longrightarrow \quad \bar{F}(A, B, C) & =\prod M(3,4,5,6,7) \\
& =\prod M(0,1,2) & &
\end{aligned}
$$

## Combinational Building Blocks

 used in Modern Computers
## Combinational Building Blocks

- Combinational logic is often grouped into larger building blocks to build more complex systems
- Hides the unnecessary gate-level details to emphasize the function of the building block
- We now look at:
- Decoders
- Multiplexers
- Full adder
- PLA


## Decoder

- Exactly one of the outputs is 1 and all the rest are 0s
- n inputs and $2^{\mathrm{n}}$ outputs
- The one output that is logically 1 is the output corresponding to the input pattern that the logic circuit is expected to detect



## Decoder

- The decoder is useful in determining how to interpret a bit pattern
- It could be the address of a row in DRAM, that the processor intends to read from
- It could be an instruction in the program and the processor has to decide what action to do! (based on
 instruction opcode)


## Multiplexer (MUX), or Selector

- Selects one of the $N$ inputs to connect it to the output
- Needs $\log _{2} \mathrm{~N}$-bit control input
- 2:1 MUX



## Multiplexer (MUX)

- The output C is always connected to either the input A or the input B
- Output value depends on the value of the select line $S$

- Your task: Draw the schematic for an 8-input (8:1) MUX
- Gate level: as a combination of basic AND, OR, NOT gates
- Module level: As a combination of 2-input (2:1) MUXes


## Full Adder (I)

- Binary addition
- Similar to decimal addition | $a_{n-1} a_{n-2}$ | $\ldots$ | $a_{1} a_{0}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b_{n-1} b_{n-2}$ | $\ldots$ | $b_{1} b_{0}$ |
| $C_{n} C_{n-1}$ | $\ldots$ | $C_{1}$ |
| $S_{n-1}$ | $\ldots$ | $S_{1} S_{0}$ |
- Truth table of binary addition on one column of bits within two n-bit operands

| $\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i + 1}}$ | $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## Full Adder (II)

- Binary addition
- N 1-bit additions
- SOP of 1-bit addition


$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
a_{n-1} a_{n-2} & \ldots & a_{1} a_{0} \\
b_{n-1} b_{n-2} & \ldots & b_{1} b_{0} \\
C_{n} C_{n-1} & \ldots & C_{1} \\
\hline S_{n-1} & \ldots & S_{1} S_{0}
\end{array}
$$

| $\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i + 1}}$ | $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## 4-Bit Adder from Full Adders

- Creating a 4-bit adder out of 1-bit full adders
- To add two 4-bit binary numbers $A$ and $B$



## The Programmable Logic Array (PLA)

- The below logic structure is a very common building block for implementing any collection of logic functions one wishes to
- An array of AND gates followed by an array of OR gates
- How do we determine the number of AND gates?
- Remember SOP: the number of possible minterms

- For an n-input logic function, we need a PLA with $2^{n} n$-input AND gates
- How do we determine the number of OR gates? The number of output columns in the truth table


## The Programmable Logic Array (PLA)

- How do we implement a logic function?
- Connect the output of an AND gate to the input of an OR gate if the corresponding minterm is included in the SOP
- This is a simple programmable logic

Programming a PLA: we program the connections from AND gate outputs to OR gate inputs to implement a desired logic function


- Have you seen any other type of programmable logic?
- Yes! An FPGA...
- An FPGA uses more advanced structures, as we saw in Lecture 3


## Implementing a Full Adder Using a PLA



This input should not be


Truth table of a full adder

| $\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i + 1}}$ | $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |



## Logical (Functional) Completeness

- Any logic function we wish to implement could be accomplished with PLA
- PLA consists of only AND gates, OR gates, and inverters
- We just have to program connections based on SOP of the intended logic function
- The set of gates \{AND, OR, NOT\} is logically complete because we can build a circuit to carry out the specification of any truth table we wish, without using any other kind of gate
- NAND is also logically complete. So is NOR.
- Your task: Prove this.


## More Combinational Building Blocks

- H\&H Chapter 5
- Will be required reading soon.
- You will benefit greatly by reading the "combinational" parts of that chapter soon.
- Sections 5.1 and 5.2


## Logic Simplification:

 Karnaugh Maps (K-Maps)
## Recall: Full Adder in SOP Form Logic



| $\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | $\boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ | carry $_{\boldsymbol{i}+\boldsymbol{1}}$ | $\boldsymbol{S}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## Goal: Simplified Full Adder

Full
Adder


| $C_{\text {in }}$ | $A$ | $B$ | $C_{\text {out }}$ | $S$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & =A \oplus B \oplus C_{\mathrm{in}} \\
C_{\mathrm{out}} & =A B+A C_{\mathrm{in}}+B C_{\mathrm{in}}
\end{aligned}
$$

How do we simplify Boolean logic?

## Quick Recap on Logic Simplification

- The original Boolean expression (i.e., logic circuit) may not be optimal

$$
F=\sim A(A+B)+(B+A A)(A+\sim B)
$$

- Can we reduce a given Boolean expression to an equivalent expression with fewer terms?

$$
F=A+B
$$

- The goal of logic simplification:
- Reduce the number of gates/inputs
- Reduce implementation cost

A basis for what the automated design tools are doing today

## Logic Simplification

- Systematic techniques for simplifications
- amenable to automation

Key Tool: The Uniting Theorem - F $=A \bar{B}+A B$


## Complex Cases

- One example

$$
\text { Cout }=\bar{A} B C+A \bar{B} C+A B \bar{C}+A B C
$$

- Problem
- Easy to see how to apply Uniting Theorem...
- Hard to know if you applied it in all the right places...
- ...especially in a function of many more variables
- Question
- Is there an easier way to potential simplifications?
- i.e., potential applications of Uniting Theorem...?
- Answer
- Need an intrinsically geometric representation for Boolean f( )
- Something we can draw, see...


## Karnaugh Map

- Karnaugh Map (K-map) method
- K-map is an alternative method of representing the truth table that helps visualize adjacencies in up to 6 dimensions
- Physical adjacency $\leftrightarrow$ Logical adjacency

2-variable K-map


3-variable K-map


4-variable K-map

| $C D$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $A B$ | 00 | 01 | 11 | 10 |
| 00 | 0000 | 0001 | 0011 | 0010 |
| 01 | 0100 | 0101 | 0111 | 0110 |
| 11 | 1100 | 1101 | 1111 | 1110 |
| 10 | 1000 | 1001 | 1011 | 1010 |
|  |  |  |  |  |

Numbering Scheme: 00, 01, 11, 10 is called a "Gray Code" - only a single bit changes from code word to next code word

## Karnaugh Map Methods

| $B C$ |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A$ | 00 | 01 | 11 | 10 |
| 0 | 000 | 001 | 011 | 010 |
|  | 100 | 101 | 111 | 110 |
|  |  |  |  |  |



> K-map adjacencies go "around the edges"
> Wrap around from first to last column
> Wrap around from top row to bottom row

## K-map Cover - 4 Input Variables



## K-map Rules

- What can be legally combined (circled) in the K-map?
- Rectangular groups of size $2^{\mathrm{k}}$ for any integer $k$
- Each cell has the same value (1, for now)
- All values must be adjacent
- Wrap-around edge is okay
- How does a group become a term in an expression?
- Determine which literals are constant, and which vary across group
- Eliminate varying literals, then AND the constant literals
- constant $1 \rightarrow$ use $\mathbf{X}$, constant $0 \rightarrow$ use $\bar{X}$
- What is a good solution?
- Biggest groupings $\rightarrow$ eliminate more variables (literals) in each term
- Fewest groupings $\rightarrow$ fewer terms (gates) all together
- OR together all AND terms you create from individual groups


## K-map Example: Two-bit Comparator



Design Approach:
Write a 4-Variable K-map for each of the 3 output functions

| A | B | C | D | F1 | F2 | F3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

## K-map Example: Two-bit Comparator (2)



F1 =

| $A$ | $B$ | $C$ | $D$ | $F 1$ | $F 2$ | $F 3$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## K-map Example: Two-bit Comparator (3)



F2 $=$
F3 $=?($ Exercise for you $)$

| $A$ | $B$ | $C$ | $D$ | $F$ | $F 2$ | $F 3$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

## K-maps with "Don't Care"

- Don't Care really means I don't care what my circuit outputs if this appears as input
- You have an engineering choice to use DON'T CARE patterns intelligently as 1 or 0 to better simplify the circuit



## Example: BCD Increment Function

- BCD (Binary Coded Decimal) digits
- Encode decimal digits 0-9 with bit patterns $0000_{2}-1001_{2}$
- When incremented, the decimal sequence is $0,1, \ldots, 8,9,0,1$
$\left.\begin{array}{llll|llll}A & B & C & D & W & X & Y & Z \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & X & X & X & X \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & X & X & X & X \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & X & X & X & X \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & X & X & X & X \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & X & X & X & X \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & X & X & X & X\end{array}\right]$

These input patterns should never be encountered in practice (hey -- it's a BCD number!) So, associated output values are
"Don't Cares"

## K-map for BCD Increment Function



## K-map Summary

- Karnaugh maps as a formal systematic approach for logic simplification
- 2-, 3-, 4-variable K-maps
- K-maps with "Don't Care" outputs


## Hardware Description Languages \& Verilog (Combinational Logic)

- Implementing Combinational Logic
- Hardware Description Languages
- Hardware Design Methodologies
- Verilog


## 2017: Intel Kaby Lake

- 64-bit processor
- 4 cores, 8 threads
- 14-19 stage pipeline
- 3.9 GHz clock
- 1.75B transistors
- In ~47 years, about 1,000,000fold growth in transistor count and performance!


## How to Deal with This Complexity?

- Hardware Description Languages!
- A fact of life in computer engineering
- Need to be able to specify complex designs
- communicate with others in your design group
- ... and to simulate their behavior
- yes, it's what I want to build
- ... and to synthesize (automatically design) portions of it
- have an error-free path to implementation
- Hardware Description Languages
- Many similarly featured HDLs (e.g., Verilog, VHDL, ...)
- if you learn one, it is not hard to learn another
- mapping between languages is typically mechanical, especially for the commonly used subset


## Hardware Description Languages

- Two well-known hardware description languages
- Verilog
- Developed in 1984 by Gateway Design Automation
- Became an IEEE standard (1364) in 1995
- More popular in US
- VHDL (VHSIC Hardware Description Language)
- Developed in 1981 by the Department of Defense
- Became an IEEE standard (1076) in 1987
- More popular in Europe
- In this course we will use Verilog


## Hardware Design Using Verilog

## Hierarchical Design

- Design hierarchy of modules is built
https://techreport.com/review/21987/intel -core-i7-3960x-processor using instantiation
- Predefined "primitive" gates (AND, OR, ...)
- Simple modules are built by instantiating these gates (components like MUXes)
- Other modules are built by instantiating simple components, ...
- Hierarchy controls complexity
- Analogous to the use of function abstraction in SW
- Complexity is a BIG deal
- In real world how big is size of one "blob" of random logic that we would describe as an HDL, then synthesize to gates?



## Top-Down Design Methodology

- We define the top-level module and identify the sub-modules necessary to build the top-level module
- Subdivide the sub-modules until we come to leaf cells
- Leaf cell: circuit components that cannot further be divided (e.g., logic gates, cell libraries)



## Bottom-Up Design Methodology

- We first identify the building blocks that are available to us
- Build bigger modules, using these building blocks
- These modules are then used for higher-level modules until we build the top-level module in the design



## Defining a Module in Verilog

- A module is the main building block in Verilog
- We first need to define:
- Name of the module
- Directions of its ports (e.g., input, output)
- Names of its ports
- Then:
- Describe the functionality of the module



## Implementing a Module in Verilog



## A Question of Style

## - The following two codes are functionally identical

```
module test ( a, b, y );
    input a;
    input b;
    output y;
endmodule
```

| module test ( input $a$, |
| :--- |
| input $b$, |
| output $y$ ); |
| endmodule |

port name and direction declaration can be combined

## What If We Have Multi-bit Input/Output?

- You can also define multi-bit Input/Output (Bus)
- [range_end : range_start]
- Number of bits: range_end - range_start + 1
- Example:

| input [31:0] | a; | // a[31], a[30] ... a[0] |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| output [15:8] | b1; | // b1[15], b1[14] | .. b1[8] |
| output [7:0] | b2; | // b2[7], b2[6]... b2[0] |  |
| input | c; | // single signal |  |

- a represents a 32-bit value, so we prefer to define it as: [31:0] a
- It is preferred over [0:31] a which resembles array definition
- It is a good practice to be consistent with the representation of multi-bit signals, i.e., always [31:0] or always [0:31]


## Manipulating Bits

- Bit Slicing
- Concatenation
- Duplication


## Basic Syntax

- Verilog is case sensitive
- SomeName and somename are not the same!
- Names cannot start with numbers:
- 2 good is not a valid name
- Whitespaces are ignored

```
// Single line comments start with a //
/* Multiline comments
    are defined like this */
```


## Two Main Styles of HDL Implementation

- Structural (Gate-Level)
- The module body contains gate-level description of the circuit
- Describe how modules are interconnected
- Each module contains other modules (instances)
- ... and interconnections between these modules
- Describes a hierarchy
- Behavioral
- The module body contains functional description of the circuit
- Contains logical and mathematical operators
- Level of abstraction is higher than gate-level
- Many possible gate-level realizations of a behavioral description
- Practical circuits would use a combination of both


## Structural HDL

## Structural HDL: Instantiating a Module



Schematic of module "top" that is built from two instances of module "small"

## Structural HDL Example

- Module Definitions in Verilog



## Structural HDL Example

- Defining wires (module interconnections)



## Structural HDL Example

## - The first instantiation of the "small" module



## Structural HDL Example

## - The second instantiation of the "small" module



## Structural HDL Example

- Short form of module instantiation

```
module top (A, SEL, C, Y);
    input A, SEL, C;
    output Y;
    wire n1;
// alternative
small i_first ( A, SEL, n1 );
/* Shorter instantiation,
    pin order very important */
// any pin order, safer choice
small i_second ( .B(C),
    .Y(Y),
    .A(n1) );
```

endmodule


```
module small (A, B, Y);
        input A;
        input B;
        output Y;
    // description of small
endmodule
```


## Structural HDL Example 2

- Verilog supports basic logic gates as predefined primitives
- These primitives are instantiated like modules except that they are predefined in Verilog and do not need a module definition

```
module mux2(input [3:0] d0, d1,
    input s,
    output [3:0] y);
    and g1 (y1, d0, ns);
    and g2 (y2, d1, s);
    or g3 (y, y1, y2);
    not g4 (ns, s);
endmodule
```

Behavioral HDL

## Behavioral HDL: Defining Functionality

```
module example (a, b, c, y);
    input a;
    input b;
    input c;
    output y;
// here comes the circuit description
assign y = ~a & ~b & ~c |
    a & ~b & ~c |
    a & ~b & c;
```

endmodule

## Behavioral HDL: Schematic View

A behavioral implementation still models a hardware circuit!


## Bitwise Operators in Behavioral Verilog

```
module gates(input [3:0] a, b,
    output [3:0] y1, y2, y3, y4, y5);
    /* Five different two-input logic
        gates acting on 4 bit buses */
    assign y1 = a & b; // AND
    assign y2 = a | b; // OR
    assign y3 = a ^ b; // XOR
    assign y4 = ~(a & b); // NAND
assign y5 = ~(a | b); // NOR
```

endmodule

## Bitwise Operators: Schematic View



## Reduction Operators in Behavioral Verilog

```
module and8(input [7:0] a,
output y);
    assign y = &a;
    // &a is much easier to write than
    // assign y = a[7] & a[6] & a[5] & a[4] &
// a[3] & a[2] & a[1] & a[0];
```

endmodule

## Reduction Operators: Schematic View



## Conditional Assignment in Behavioral Verilog

```
module mux2(input [3:0] d0, d1,
    input s,
    output [3:0] y);
    assign y = s ? d1 : d0;
    // if (s) then y=d1 else y=d0;
```

endmodule

- ? : is also called a ternary operator as it operates on three inputs:
- S
- d1
- d0


## Conditional Assignment: Schematic View



## More Complex Conditional Assignments

```
module mux4(input [3:0] d0, d1, d2, d3
    input [1:0] s,
    output [3:0] y);
    assign y = s[1] ? ( s[0] ? d3 : d2)
        : ( s[0] ? d1 : d0);
    // if (s1) then
    // if (s0) then y=d3 else y=d2
    // else
    // if (s0) then y=d1 else y=d0
```

endmodule

## Even More Complex Conditional Assignments

```
module mux4(input [3:0] d0, d1, d2, d3
    input [1:0] s,
    output [3:0] y);
    assign y = (s == 2'b11) ? d3 :
        (s == 2'b10) ? d2 :
        (s == 2'b01) ? d1 :
        d0;
// if (s = "11") then y= d3
// else if (s = "10") then y= d2
// else if (s = "01") then y= d1
// else y= d0
endmodule
```


## Precedence of Operations in Verilog

## Highest

## How to Express Numbers ?

## N'Bxx <br> 8' b0000_0001

- (N) Number of bits
- Expresses how many bits will be used to store the value
- (B) Base
- Can be b (binary), h (hexadecimal), d (decimal), o (octal)
- (xx) Number
- The value expressed in base
- Apart from numbers, it can also have $X$ and $Z$ as values
- Underscore _ can be used to improve readability


## Number Representation in Verilog

| Verilog | Stored Number | Verilog | Stored Number |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4'b1001 | 1001 | 4'd5 | 0101 |
| 8'b1001 | 00001001 | 12'hFA3 | 111110100011 |
| 8'b0000_1001 | 00001001 | 8'o12 | 00001010 |
| 8'bxX0X1zZ1 | XXOX 1 ZZ1 | 4'h7 | 0111 |
| 'b01 | 0000 .. 0001 | 12'h0 | 000000000000 |
|  | 32 bits (default) |  |  |

## Floating Signals (Z)

- Floating signal: Signal that is not driven by any circuit
- Open circuit, floating wire
- Also known as: high impedance, hi-Z, tri-stated signals

```
module tristate_buffer(input [3:0] a,
        input en,
    output [3:0] y);
    assign y = en ? a : 4'bz;
endmodule
```



## Aside: Tri-State Buffer

- A tri-state buffer enables gating of different signals onto a wire

Tristate<br>Buffer



| $E$ | $A$ | $Y$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | Z |
| 0 | 1 | Z |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

Figure 2.40 Tristate buffer

## Example: Use of Tri-State Buffers

- Imagine a wire connecting the CPU and memory
- At any time only the CPU or the memory can place a value on the wire, both not both
- You can have two tri-state buffers: one driven by CPU, the other memory; and ensure at most one is enabled at any time


## Example Design with Tri-State Buffers



## Truth Table for AND with Z and X

| AND |  | $\mathbf{A}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathbf{0}$ |  |  |  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{z}$ |
| $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{z}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\mathbf{B}$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1}$ | 0 | 1 | x | x |  |
|  | $\mathbf{z}$ | 0 | x | x | x |  |
|  | $\mathbf{x}$ | 0 | x | x | x |  |

## What Happens with HDL Code?

- Synthesis
- Modern tools are able to map a HDL code into low-level cel/ libraries
- They can perform many optimizations
- ... however they can not guarantee that a solution is optimal
- Mainly due to computationally expensive placement and routing algorithms
- Most common way of Digital Design these days
- Simulation
- Allows the behavior of the circuit to be verified without actually manufacturing the circuit
- Simulators can work on structura/ or behaviora/ HDL

We did not cover the following. They are for your preparation.

## Recall This "example"

```
module example (a, b, c, y);
    input a;
    input b;
    input c;
    output y;
// here comes the circuit description
assign y = ~a & ~b & ~c |
    a & ~b & ~c |
    a & ~b & c;
```

endmodule

## Synthesizing the "example"



## Simulating the "example"



Now:
800 ns


## What We Have Seen So Far

- Describing structural hierarchy with Verilog
- Instantiate modules in an other module
- Describing functionality using behavioral modeling
- Writing simple logic equations
- We can write AND, OR, XOR, ...
- Multiplexer functionality
- If ... then ... else
- We can describe constants
- But there is more...


## More Verilog Examples

- We can write Verilog code in many different ways
- Let's see how we can express the same functionality by developing Verilog code
- At low-level
- Poor readability
- More optimization opportunities
- At a higher-level of abstraction
- Better readability
- Limited optimization


## Comparing Two Numbers

- Defining your own gates as new modules
- We will use our gates to show the different ways of implementing a 4-bit comparator (equality checker)


## An XNOR gate

```
module MyXnor (input a, b,
            output z);
    assign z = ~(a ^ b); //not XOR
    endmodule
```


## An AND gate

```
module MyAnd (input a, b,
            output z);
    assign z = a & b;
        // AND
endmodule
```


## Gate-Level Implementation

```
module compare (input a0, a1, a2, a3, b0, b1, b2, b3,
output eq);
    wire c0, c1, c2, c3, c01, c23;
MyXnor i0 (.A(a0), .B(b0), .Z(c0) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i1 (.A(a1), .B(b1), .Z(c1) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i2 (.A(a2), .B(b2), .Z(c2) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i3 (.A(a3), .B(b3), .Z(c3) ); // XNOR
MyAnd haha (.A(c0), .B(c1), .Z(c01) ); // AND
MyAnd hoho (.A(c2), .B(c3), .Z(c23) ); // AND
MyAnd bubu (.A(c01), .B(c23), .Z(eq) ); // AND
endmodule
```


## Using Logical Operators

```
module compare (input a0, a1, a2, a3, b0, b1, b2, b3,
                output eq);
    wire c0, c1, c2, c3, c01, c23;
MyXnor i0 (.A(a0), .B(b0), .Z(c0) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i1 (.A(a1), .B(b1), .Z(c1) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i2 (.A(a2), .B(b2), .Z(c2) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i3 (.A(a3), .B(b3), .Z(c3) ); // XNOR
assign c01 = c0 & c1;
assign c23 = c2 & c3;
assign eq = c01 & c23;
endmodule
```


## Eliminating Intermediate Signals

```
module compare (input a0, a1, a2, a3, b0, b1, b2, b3,
                output eq);
    wire c0, c1, c2, c3;
MyXnor i0 (.A(a0), .B(b0), .Z(c0) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i1 (.A(a1), .B(b1), .Z(c1) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i2 (.A(a2), .B(b2), .Z(c2) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i3 (.A(a3), .B(b3), .Z(c3) ); // XNOR
// assign c01 = c0 & c1;
// assign c23 = c2 & c3;
// assign eq = c01 & c23;
assign eq = c0 & c1 & c2 & c3;
endmodule
```


## Multi-Bit Signals (Bus)

```
module compare (input [3:0] a, input [3:0] b,
output eq);
    wire [3:0] c; // bus definition
MyXnor i0 (.A(a[0]), .B(b[0]), .Z(c[0]) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i1 (.A(a[1]), .B(b[1]), .Z(c[1]) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i2 (.A(a[2]), .B(b[2]), .Z(c[2]) ); // XNOR
MyXnor i3 (.A(a[3]), .B(b[3]), .Z(c[3]) ); // XNOR
assign eq = &c; // short format
```

endmodule

## Bitwise Operations

```
module compare (input [3:0] a, input [3:0] b,
                output eq);
    wire [3:0] c; // bus definition
// MyXnor i0 (.A(a[0]), .B(b[0]), .Z(c[0]) );
// MyXnor i1 (.A(a[1]), .B(b[1]), .Z(c[1]) );
// MyXnor i2 (.A(a[2]), .B(b[2]), .Z(c[2]) );
// MyXnor i3 (.A(a[3]), .B(b[3]), .Z(c[3]) );
assign c = ~(a ^ b); // XNOR
assign eq = &c; // short format
endmodule
```


## Highest Abstraction Level: Comparing Two Numbers

```
module compare (input [3:0] a, input [3:0] b,
output eq);
// assign c = ~(a ^ b); // XNOR
// assign eq = &c; // short format
assign eq = (a == b) ? 1 : 0; // really short
endmodule
```


## Writing More Reusable Verilog Code

- We have a module that can compare two 4-bit numbers
- What if in the overall design we need to compare:
- 5-bit numbers?
- 6-bit numbers?
- $\mathbf{N}$-bit numbers?
- Writing code for each case looks tedious
- What could be a better way?


## Parameterized Modules

In Verilog, we can define module parameters

```
module mux2
    #(parameter width = 8) // name and default value
        (input [width-1:0] d0, d1,
        input s,
        output [width-1:0] y);
    assign y = s ? d1 : d0;
endmodule
```

We can set the parameters to different values
when instantiating the module

## Instantiating Parameterized Modules

```
module mux2
    #(parameter width = 8) // name and default value
        (input [width-1:0] d0, d1,
        input s,
        output [width-1:0] y);
    assign y = s ? d1 : d0;
endmodule
```


## What About Timing ?

- It is possible to define timing relations in Verilog. BUT:
- These are ONLY for simulation
- They CAN NOT be synthesized
- They are used for modeling delays in a circuit

```
'timescale 1ns/1ps
module simple (input a, output z1, z2);
assign #5 z1 = ~a; // inverted output after 5ns
assign #9 z2 = a; // output after 9ns
endmodule
```


## More to come in later lectures!

## Good Practices

- Develop/use a consistent naming style
- Use MSB to LSB ordering for buses
a Use "a[31:0]", not "a[0:31]"
- Define one module per file
- Makes managing your design hierarchy easier
- Use a file name that equals module name
- i.e., module TryThis is defined in a file called TryThis.v
- Always keep in mind that Verilog describes hardware


## Summary

- We have seen an overview of Verilog
- Discussed structural and behavioral modeling
- Showed combinational logic constructs


## Next Lecture: Sequential Logic

## Design of Digital Circuits

Lecture 6: Combinational Logic, Hardware Description Lang. \& Verilog

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