LAB 5 – Implementing an ALU

Goals
- Implement an Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) in Verilog.
- Learn how to evaluate the speed and FPGA resource utilization of a circuit in Vivado.

To Do
- Draw a block level diagram of the MIPS 32-bit ALU, based on the description in the textbook.
- Implement the ALU using Verilog.
- Synthesize the ALU and evaluate speed and FPGA resource utilization.

Follow the instructions. Paragraphs that have a gray background like the current paragraph denote descriptions that require you to do something.

- To complete the lab, you have to show your work to an assistant before the deadline. The required tasks are clearly marked with gray background throughout this document.
- You will have an additional exercise in the report.

Introduction
So far, we implemented fairly small circuits using Verilog. In this exercise, we tackle something more formidable, which is the heart of a processor – the arithmetic logic unit (ALU). We implement an ALU that is similar to the one described in Section 5.2.4 of the H&H textbook. We will reuse this ALU as a part of the small micro-controller we will build in the following exercises.

This exercise will take two lab sessions to complete. We will write HDL code in this lab (Lab 5), and verify that it works correctly using a testbench in the next lab (Lab 6).

We did not investigate performance-related numbers such as the delay and area (i.e., FPGA resource utilization) of the circuit so far.

In this exercise, we build a larger circuit in comparison to the previous labs and will try to understand how fast the circuit is able to perform the arithmetic operations and what fraction of the available FPGA resources it occupies. We will also try to see whether our coding style has an effect on the speed and FPGA resource utilization.

Part 1 – Designing an ALU
We will design an ALU that can perform a subset of the ALU operations of a full MIPS ALU. You can refer to Appendix B of the H&H textbook to see the full set of operations that MIPS can support. In this exercise, we develop an ALU that takes two 32-bit inputs A and B, and executes the following seven instructions:

add, sub, slt, and, or, xor, nor
The ALU generates a 32-bit output that we call ‘Result’ and an additional 1-bit flag ‘Zero’
that will be set to ‘logic-1’ if all the bits of ‘Result’ are 0. The different operations will be
selected by a 4-bit control signal called ‘AluOp’ according to the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AluOp</th>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Result =</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0000</td>
<td>add</td>
<td>A + B</td>
<td>Addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0010</td>
<td>sub</td>
<td>A − B</td>
<td>Subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0100</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>A and B</td>
<td>Logical and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0101</td>
<td>or</td>
<td>A or B</td>
<td>Logical or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0110</td>
<td>xor</td>
<td>A xor B</td>
<td>Exclusive or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0111</td>
<td>nor</td>
<td>A nor B</td>
<td>Logical nor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1010</td>
<td>slt</td>
<td>(A − B)[31]</td>
<td>Set less than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>Don’t care</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Summary of the ALU control

(Note 1: You should extend the result of slt to 32 bits (i.e., 32’b0 or 32’b1).)

(Note 2: And, or, xor, nor are bitwise operations.)

For example, if ‘AluOp’ is 0101, ALU should evaluate Result as A or B.

Many values of ‘AluOp’ does not correspond to any operation. It is not important what
the circuit does when ‘AluOp’ has these values since the ‘Result’ will simply be ignored
in such cases. **You can use this to your advantage to simplify the circuit.**

These operations may look random for now, but they will make more sense once we learn
more about the MIPS instruction set architecture.

**Designing the Block diagram**

First, you need to draw a block diagram of the ALU, like the one seen in Figure 5.15 of the
H&H textbook. This exercise is based on an almost real example; there will not be a clear
textbook ‘best’ solution for the circuit.

The following is one approach to analyze what we need and to come up with a block
diagram. You are free to follow this example or come up with your own ideas.

Let us first examine the different operations. You should see that we have two types of
instructions. The three instructions **add**, **sub**, and **slt** require arithmetic operations, whereas
the four remaining **and**, **or**, **xor**, and **nor** are bitwise operations. Now let us look at Table 1 and determine for which values of AluOp we perform an operation from which type. It
should be clear that when AluOp[2] is logic-0, we have an arithmetic operation and when
AluOp[2] is logic-1, we select a logic operation. This means that the output of either type
can be selected by a 2-input multiplexer that is controlled by AluOp[2]. Figure 1 depicts an ALU design that includes a separate logic block (i.e., arithmetic part and logic part) for each type of operation.

![Figure 1. A possible division for the ALU](image)

Now we can take a look at the two types individually. For the logic part, AluOp[1:0] selects one of the 4 simple bitwise operations. In the arithmetic part, we realize that we have an addition (add) or a subtraction (sub, slt). We can see that AluOp[1] is logic-0 for additions and logic-1 for subtractions. This could allow us to build a structure like the one in Figure 5.15 of the H&H textbook to design an adder-subtractor (controlled with AluOp[1] instead of F[2]). Figure 2 shows such a design.

![Figure 2. Possible organization for the adder subtractor in ALU](image)

There is one more thing left, depending on the AluOp[3] we can select whether we take only the most significant bit (logic-1, slt instruction), or we take the output as it is. We show an example design in Figure 3.
Figure 3. A possible organization to implement slt

Draw a block diagram that will implement the ALU operations listed in Table 1. You are free to decide how to implement the ALU and do not have to base the block diagram on the above explanations. You may use arbitrary size adders, multiplexers, logic gates, zero/sign extend, comparators and shifters.

Part 2 - Implementation

Once we have a good block diagram it is straightforward to implement the circuit in Verilog. Replace each block with a Verilog description and use the signal names in the block diagram.

Start Vivado and create a new project (you can call it Lab5). Make sure to select “xc7a35tcpg236-1” as your FPGA since otherwise, you cannot download the bitstream of your design to the Basys 3 board. Implement the ALU based on your block diagram. Synthesize and implement your design. (We do not transfer the design to FPGA in this lab, therefore we do not provide you a constraints file. Thus, the implementation will run correctly, but the bitstream generation will fail.)

Hint 1: You can use 32’b0 to represent a 32-bit zero.

Hint 2: In Verilog, you can concatenate multiple bits together using curly braces {}. For example: {2’b10, 1’b1} results in 3’b101.

At this point, we really do not know if our circuit functions properly. Unlike the other exercises, we cannot verify that our circuit works by directly trying it out since there are too many input bits. Instead, we use a testbench to verify the functionality in the next lab (Lab 6).

Until now, we have always verified our circuits by exhaustively testing them. Assume that we can test 1 input every second, how long would it take us to test our ALU by trying each and every possible input combination. Please consider only the 7 valid combinations for the AluOp in Table 1. Provide the calculations.
Part 3 – The Performance of the Circuit

Until now, we did not evaluate the speed and area of our implementation. In this lab, we will learn to check the speed (i.e., max frequency our circuit can run at) and area (i.e., FPGA resource utilization).

We provide instructions for evaluating speed and area using Vivado. In Vivado, after running Implementation, go to ‘Window → Project Summary’. It shows a window similar to the one shown in Figure 4. The design summary window provides many of the important design parameters (e.g., the Timing and Utilization panes).

Figure 4. Design Summary window (example)

In the Utilization pane (left bottom area), click on the “Table” button in the “Post-Implementation” tab. The size of the circuit is expressed in terms of the fraction of the total available resources of the FPGA that used for the design. For instance, the above example uses 108 out of 20800 Look-up Tables (LUTs) of the FPGA, which is less than 1% of the total.

Getting the timing report in Vivado is slightly more complicated. Design tools such as Vivado are not always able to come up with the best possible circuit implementation for a given Verilog description as the placement and routing procedures are computationally expensive. Instead, the tools try to come up with a circuit that satisfies the given user constraints. In other words, you are passing the description of the circuit and requiring an implementation that can operate with 50MHz. Vivado tries to satisfy this constraint and reports whether or not it has achieved it. In the Project Summary, it has a section of...
'Timing’, which lists how many of the timing paths violate the given timing constraints. In the above example, it is shown as NA (not available). That is because we did not set any timing constraints, so Vivado cannot report the timing. We will add a timing constraint to set the maximum delay that we would like our ALU to have.

Adding Simple Timing Constraints

All user constraints are included in an XDC file that we have previously used for connecting the input/output ports of the top module to the FPGA pins. Make sure to add an XDC file into your project. In cases that we know the exact way to express the timing constraints, we can type the constraints in a text editor as we did for determining the pins. We can use a GUI to define timing constraints. GUI edits the constraints file in the background. Thus, we can simply edit the constraints file in a text editor as an alternative method.

We always use fairly simple circuits in the exercises and adjust the requirements so that exercises can be done easily. In real life, we sometimes need to add many different constraints to get a working circuit. This is why the constraint editor is slightly complex.

In the Flow Navigator, click on “Implementation → Open Implemented Design → Edit Timing Constraints”. In the newly opened “Timing Constraints” tab, click in the left tree view on “Exceptions → Set Maximum Delay” and add a new constraint by clicking on the green plus sign. A new window will pop up as shown in Figure 5. Set “Specify path delay” to 20ns, “From” and “To” to “*” and, click OK.

![Figure 5. Constraints for the ALU](image-url)
Setting this constraint tells Vivado that you want to take a maximum of 20 ns to propagate a signal from any input to any output. Press “Ctrl+S” to save the file, and create an additional constraint profile, if necessary. You will see that an XDC file has been added to the design. If you open the file with a text editor, you will notice that it includes a simple line:

```
set_max_delay -from * -to * 20.000
```

If you know how the constraint can be expressed, it is usually much easier (and faster) to type in the constraints in a text editor.

Since we have constrained our design, we can re-run the implementation to generate the timing report, which we can see in the Project Summary.

After implementing the design, you should see values in the ‘Timing’ pane in the ‘Project Summary’. You should see that your constraint of 20 ns was achieved. The slack (around 1 ns in this case) is the difference between the delay that the circuit actually has and the constraint 20 ns.

More detailed reports can be found in “Taskbar → Window → Reports”. For the timing report, select in its tree structure "Implementation -> Route Design -> Timing Summary Report". The report provides you the slow paths. You see from which input pin each path begins, which locations it goes through, and where it ends. At each step, you see how much delay comes due to a logic operation and routing.

Investigate the different reports to find the answers to the questions below. Show the assistants your result in this part.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of 4 Input LUTs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of bonded IOBs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which pin of the FPGA is the output ‘zero’ connected? (pin name)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where does the longest path start from</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where does the longest path end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long is the longest path</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much of the longest path is routing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many levels of logic is in the longest path</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Last Words**

It is possible to design a digital circuit without first developing a block diagram on paper. However, it is always easier to write a hardware description of a circuit that exists as a
block diagram. After all, the ‘hardware description’ is just a translation of the circuit idea into the syntax of the specific language.

Synthesis tools can convert your hardware idea into a working circuit and can report performance on all related numbers. However, if you do not have an expectation of the architecture and the performance, you cannot judge whether or not these are good numbers.

We have learned that usually adders are the most critical elements when it comes to determining the performance of an arithmetic circuit. A high-performance adder can be a costly block. In our example, three operations (add, sub, slt) are based on an adder. A naive implementation would have a separate adder for each of these operations, resulting in a relatively large circuit. We should make sure that all three operations are realized by sharing one adder (at least if we are concerned about the area cost of the circuit).

Modern synthesis tools are quite sophisticated and do most of the work for you. Moreover, they are continuously improving. Chances are very good that they automatically figure out what is the best implementation for your code. Unfortunately, they are far from perfect, and for larger designs with complex functionality (in designs where things matter), experienced design engineers are still indispensable.