

MCF548x Reference Manual

Devices Supported: MCF5485 MCF5482 MCF5484 MCF5481 MCF5483 MCF5480

Document Number: MCF5485RM Rev. 5 4/2009

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About This Book

The primary objective of this reference manual is to define the functionality of the MCF548x processors for use by software and hardware developers.

The information in this book is subject to change without notice, as described in the disclaimers on the title page of this book. As with any technical documentation, it is the readers' responsibility to be sure they are using the most recent version of the documentation.

To locate any published errata or updates for this document, refer to the world-wide web at [http://www.freescale.com/coldfire.](http://www.freescale.com/coldfire)

Audience

This manual is intended for system software and hardware developers and applications programmers who want to develop products for the MCF548x. It is assumed that the reader understands operating systems, microprocessor system design, basic principles of software and hardware, and basic details of the ColdFire architecture.

Organization

Following is a summary and a brief description of the major sections of this manual:

- [Chapter 1, "Overview](#page-32-2)," includes general descriptions of the modules and features incorporated in the MCF548x, focussing in particular on new features.
- [Chapter 2, "Signal Descriptions](#page-44-3)," provides an alphabetical listing of MCF548x signals, including which are inputs or outputs, how they are multiplexed, and the state of each signal at reset.
- [Part I, "Processor Core,](#page-76-0)" is intended for system designers who need to understand the operation of the MCF548x ColdFire core and its enhanced multiply/accumulate (EMAC) execution unit. It describes the programming and exception models, Harvard memory implementation, and debug module. Part 1 contains the following chapters:
	- [Chapter 3, "ColdFire Core](#page-78-3)," provides an overview of the microprocessor core of the MCF548x. The chapter begins with a description of enhancements from the V3 ColdFire core, and then fully describes the V4e programming model as it is implemented on the MCF548x. It also includes a full description of exception handling, data formats, an instruction set summary, and a table of instruction timings.
	- [Chapter 4, "Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\)](#page-122-2)," describes the MCF548x enhanced multiply/accumulate unit, which executes integer multiply, multiply-accumulate, and miscellaneous register instructions. The EMAC is integrated into the operand execution pipeline (OEP).
	- [Chapter 5, "Memory Management Unit \(MMU\),](#page-140-4)" describes describes the ColdFire virtual memory management unit (MMU), which provides virtual-to-physical address translation and memory access control.
	- [Chapter 6, "Floating-Point Unit \(FPU\),](#page-164-3)" describes instructions implemented in the floating-point unit (FPU) designed for use with the ColdFire family of microprocessors.

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- [Chapter 7, "Local Memory,](#page-194-3)" describes the MCF548x implementation of the ColdFire V4e local memory specification.
- [Chapter 8, "Debug Support](#page-224-3)," describes the Revision C enhanced hardware debug support in the MCF548x. This revision of the ColdFire debug architecture encompasses earlier revisions.
- [Part II, "System Integration Unit,](#page-288-0)" describes the system integration unit, which provides overall control of the bus and serves as the interface between the ColdFire core processor complex and internal peripheral devices. It includes a general description of the SIU and individual chapters that describe components of the SIU, such as the interrupt controller, general purpose timers, slice timers, and GPIOs. Part II contains the following chapters:
	- [Chapter 9, "System Integration Unit \(SIU\),](#page-290-4)" describes the SIU programming model, bus arbitration, and system-protection functions for the MCF548x.
	- [Chapter 10, "Internal Clocks and Bus Architecture](#page-296-3)," describes the clocking and internal buses of the MCF548*x* and discusses the main functional blocks controlling the XL bus and the XL bus arbiter.
	- [Chapter 11, "General Purpose Timers \(GPT\),](#page-314-4)" describes the functionality of the four general purpose timers, GPT0–GPT3.
	- [Chapter 12, "Slice Timers \(SLT\)](#page-322-4)," describes the two slice timers, shorter term periodic interrupts, used in the MCF548x.
	- [Chapter 13, "Interrupt Controller](#page-326-3)," describes operation of the interrupt controller portion of the SIU. Includes descriptions of the registers in the interrupt controller memory map and the interrupt priority scheme.
	- [Chapter 14, "Edge Port Module \(EPORT\)](#page-342-3)," describes EPORT module functionality.
	- [Chapter 15, "GPIO](#page-348-2)," describes the operation and programming model of the parallel port pin assignment, direction-control, and data registers.
- [Part III, "On-Chip Integration](#page-382-0)," describes the on-chip integration for the MCF548x device. It includes descriptions of the system SRAM, FlexBus interface, SDRAM controller, PCI, and SEC cryptography accelerator. Part III contains the following chapters:
	- [Chapter 16, "32-Kbyte System SRAM,](#page-384-3)" describes the MCF548x on-chip system SRAM implementation. It covers general operations, configuration, and initialization.
	- [Chapter 17, "FlexBus](#page-392-5)," describes data transfer operations, error conditions, and reset operations. It describes transfers initiated by the MCF548x and by an external master, and includes detailed timing diagrams showing the interaction of signals in supported bus operations.
	- [Chapter 18, "SDRAM Controller \(SDRAMC\),](#page-424-5)" describes configuration and operation of the synchronous DRAM controller component of the SIU. It includes a description of signals involved in DRAM operations, including chip select signals and their address, mask, and control registers.
	- [Chapter 19, "PCI Bus Controller,](#page-460-5)" details the operation of the PCI bus controller for the MCF548x.
	- [Chapter 20, "PCI Bus Arbiter Module,](#page-536-4)" describes the MCF548x PCI bus arbiter module, including timing for request and grant handshaking, the arbitration process, and the register in the PCI bus arbiter programing model.

- [Chapter 21, "FlexCAN](#page-546-3)," describes the MCF548 implementation of the controller area network (CAN) protocol. This chapter describes FlexCAN module operation and provides a programming model.
- [Chapter 22, "Integrated Security Engine \(SEC\),](#page-578-3)" provides an overview of the MCF548x security encryption controller.
- [Chapter 23, "IEEE 1149.1 Test Access Port \(JTAG\),](#page-684-3)" describes configuration and operation of the MCF548x JTAG test implementation. It describes the use of JTAG instructions and provides information on how to disable JTAG functionality.
- [Part IV, "Communications Subsystem,](#page-694-0)" contains chapters that discuss the operation and configuration of the communications I/O subsystem including the MCF548x multichannel DMA, communications timer, PSC, FEC, DSPI, and USB2, and $I²C$.
	- [Chapter 24, "Multichannel DMA,](#page-696-3)" provides an overview of the multichannel DMA controller module including the operation of the external DMA request signals.
	- [Chapter 26, "Comm Timer Module \(CTM\)](#page-748-3)," contains a detailed description of the communications timer module, which functions as a baud clock generator or as a DMA task initiator.
	- [Chapter 27, "Programmable Serial Controller \(PSC\)](#page-760-6)," provides an overview of asynchronous, synchronous, and IrDA 1.1 compliant receiver/transmitter serial communications of the MCF548x.
	- [Chapter 28, "DMA Serial Peripheral Interface \(DSPI\)](#page-818-3)," describes the use of the DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI) implemented on the MCF548x processor, including details of the DSPI data transfers. The chapter concludes with timing diagrams and the DSPI features that support Tx and Rx FIFO queue management.
	- [Chapter 29, "I2C Interface,](#page-854-3)" describes the MCF548x I²C module, including I²C protocol, clock synchronization, and the registers in the $I²C$ programing model. It also provides programming examples.
	- [Chapter 30, "USB 2.0 Device Controller,](#page-874-4)" provides an overview of the USB 2.0 device controller module used in the MCF548x.
	- [Chapter 31, "Fast Ethernet Controller \(FEC\)](#page-930-4)," provides a feature-set overview, a functional block diagram, and transceiver connection information for both MII (Media Independent Interface) and 7-wire serial interfaces. It also provides describes operation and the programming model.
- [Part V, "Mechanical,](#page-988-0)" provides a pinout and both electrical and functional descriptions of the MCF548x signals. It also describes how these signals interact to support the variety of bus operations shown in timing diagrams.
	- [Chapter 32, "Mechanical Data,](#page-990-3)" provides a functional pin listing and package diagram for the MCF548x.

Suggested Reading

This section lists additional reading that provides background for the information in this manual as well as general information about the ColdFire architecture.

General Information

The following documentation provides useful information about the ColdFire architecture and computer architecture in general:

- *ColdFire Programmers Reference Manual* (CFPRM)
- *Using Microprocessors and Microcomputers: The Motorola Family,* William C. Wray, Ross Bannatyne, Joseph D. Greenfield
- *Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach*, Second Edition, by John L. Hennessy and David A. Patterson.
- *Computer Organization and Design: The Hardware/Software Interface*, Second Edition, David A. Patterson and John L. Hennessy.

ColdFire Documentation

The ColdFire documentation is available from the sources listed on the back cover of this manual. Document order numbers are included in parentheses for ease in ordering.

- *ColdFire Programmers Reference Manual, R1.0* (CFPRM)
- Reference manuals—These books provide details about individual ColdFire implementations and are intended to be used in conjunction with *The ColdFire Programmers Reference Manual.* These include the following:
	- *ColdFire CF4e Core User's Manual* (V4ECFUM)
	- *MCF5475 Reference Manual* (MCF5475RM)
	- *MCF5485 Reference Manual* (MCF5485RM)

Additional literature on ColdFire implementations is being released as new processors become available. For a current list of ColdFire documentation, refer to the World Wide Web at [http://www.freescale.com/coldfire.](http://www.freescale.com/coldfire)

Conventions

This document uses the following notational conventions:

Acronyms and Abbreviations

Register Conventions

This reference manual uses the register diagram format shown below.

Table i. Example Register Diagram

Acronyms and Abbreviations

[Table ii](#page-26-0) lists acronyms and abbreviations used in this document.

Table ii. . Acronyms and Abbreviated Terms (continued)

Terminology and Notational Conventions

[Table iii](#page-28-0) shows notational conventions used throughout this document.

Table iii. Notational Conventions (continued)

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Table iv. MCF548x Revision History

Table iv. MCF548x Revision History (continued)

Chapter 1 Overview

This chapter provides an overview of the MCF548*x* microprocessor features, including the major functional components.

1.1 MCF548x Family Overview

The MCF548*x* family is based on the ColdFire V4e core, a complex which comprises the ColdFire V4 central processor unit (CPU), an enhanced multiply-accumulate unit (EMAC), a memory management unit (MMU), a double-precision floating point unit (FPU) conforming to standard IEEE-754, and controllers for caches and local data memories. The MCF548*x* family is capable of performing at an operating frequency of up to 200 MHz or 308 MIPS (Dhrystone 2.1).

To maximize throughput, the MCF548*x* family incorporates three independent external bus interfaces:

- 1. The general-purpose local bus (FlexBus) is used for system boot memories and simple peripherals and has up to six chip selects.
- 2. Program code and data can be stored in SDRAM connected to a dedicated 32-bit double data rate (DDR) bus that can run at up to one-half of the CPU core frequency. The glueless DDR SDRAM controller handles all address multiplexing, input and output strobe timing, and memory bus clock generation.
- 3. A 32-bit PCI bus compliant with the version 2.2 specification and running at a typical frequency of 25 MHz or 50 MHz supports peripherals that require high bandwidth, the ability to arbitrate for bus mastership, and access to internal MCF548*x* memory resources.

The MCF548*x* family provides substantial communications functionality by integrating the following connectivity peripherals:

- Up to two 10/100 Mbps fast Ethernet controllers (FECs)
- One optional USB 2.0 device (slave) module with seven endpoints and an integrated transceiver
- Up to four UART/USART/IRDA/modem programmable serial controllers (PSCs)
- One DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI)
- One inter-integrated circuit (I^2C^{TM}) bus controller
- Two controller area network 2.0B (FlexCAN) interfaces with 16 message buffers each

Additionally, the MCF548*x* provides hardware support for a range of Internet security standards with an optional bus-mastering cryptography accelerator. This module incorporates units to speed DES/3DES and AES block ciphers, the RC4 stream cipher, bulk data hashing (MD5/SHA-1/SHA-256/HMAC), and random number generation. Hardware acceleration of these functions is critical to avoiding the throughput bottlenecks associated with software-only implementations of SSH, SSL/TLS, IPsec, SRTP, WEP, and other security standards. The incorporation of cryptography acceleration makes the MCF548*x* family a compelling solution for a wide range of office automation, industrial control, and SOHO networking devices that must have the ability to securely transmit critical equipment control information across typically insecure Ethernet data networks.

Additional features of MCF548*x* products include a watchdog timer, two 32-bit slice timers for RTOS scheduling and alarm functionality, up to four 32-bit general-purpose timers with capture, compare, and pulse width modulation capability, a multisource vectored interrupt controller, a phase-locked loop (PLL) to generate the system clock, 32 Kbytes of SRAM for high-speed local data storage, and multiple general-purpose I/O ports.

With on-chip support for multiple common communications interfaces, MCF548*x* products require only the addition of memories and certain physical layer transceivers to be cost-effective system solutions for many applications. Such applications include industrial routers, high-end POS terminals, building automation systems, and process control equipment.

MCF548*x* products require four supply voltages: 1.5V for the high-performance, low power, internal core logic, 2.5V for the DDR SDRAM bus interface, 1.25V for the DDR SDRAM V_{REF}, and 3.3V for all other I/O functionality, including the PCI and FlexBus interfaces.

1.2 MCF548x Block Diagram

[Figure 1-1](#page-33-1) shows a top-level block diagram of the MCF548*x* products.

¹ Available in MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5483, and MCF5482 devices.

- ² Available in MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5481, and MCF5480 devices.
- ³ Available in MCF5485, MCF5483, and MCF5481 devices.

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1.3 MCF548x Family Products

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[Table 1-1](#page-34-2) summarizes the products available within the MCF548*x* product family. All products are available in pin-compatible, 388-pin PBGA packaging allowing for ease of migration between products within the family. A printed circuit board designed using the MCF5485/4 footprint is compatible with any of the MCF548*x* family devices.

1.4 MCF548x Family Features

- ColdFire V4e core
	- Limited superscalar V4 ColdFire processor core
	- Up to 200 MHz peak internal core frequency (308 Dhrystone 2.1 MIPS)
	- Harvard architecture
		- 32-Kbyte instruction cache
		- 32-Kbyte data cache

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- Memory management unit (MMU)
	- Separate, 32-entry, fully-associative instruction and data translation lookahead buffers
- Floating point unit (FPU)
	- Double-precision support that conforms to IEEE-754 standard
	- Eight floating point registers
- Internal master bus (XLB) arbiter
	- High performance split address and data transactions
	- Support for various parking modes
	- 32-bit double data rate (DDR) synchronous DRAM (SDRAM) controller
		- 66–133 MHz operation
		- Supports both DDR and SDR DRAM
		- Built-in initialization and refresh
		- Up to four chip selects enabling up to 1 GB of external memory
- Version 2.2 peripheral component interconnect (PCI) bus
	- 32-bit target and initiator operation
	- Support for up to five external PCI masters
	- 25–50 MHz operation with PCI bus to XLB divider ratios of 1:1, 1:2, and 1:4
	- Flexible multi-function external bus (FlexBus)
	- Supports operation with the following:
		- Non-multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data (32-bit address muxed over PCI bus–PCI not usable)
		- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data (PCI usable)
		- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 16-bit data
		- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 8-bit data
	- Provides a glueless interface to boot Flash/ROM, SRAM, and peripheral devices
	- Up to six chip selects
	- 33–50 MHz operation
- Communications I/O subsystem
	- Intelligent 16-channel DMA controller
	- Dedicated DMA channels for receive and transmit on all subsystem peripheral interfaces
	- Up to two 10/100 Mbps fast Ethernet controllers (FECs), each with separate 2-Kbyte receive and transmit FIFOs
	- Universal serial bus (USB) version 2.0 device controller
		- Support for one control and six programmable endpoints interrupt, bulk, or isochronous
		- 4 Kbytes of shared endpoint FIFO RAM and 1 Kbyte of endpoint descriptor RAM
		- Integrated physical layer interface
	- Up to four programmable serial controllers (PSCs) each with separate 512-byte receive and transmit FIFOs for UART, USART, modem, codec, and IrDA 1.1 interfaces
	- $-$ I²C peripheral interface
	- Two FlexCAN controller area network 2.0B controllers each with 16 message buffers
	- DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI)
- Optional security encryption controller (SEC) module

- Execution units for the following:
	- DES/3DES block cipher
	- AES block cipher
	- RC4 stream cipher
	- MD5/SHA-1/SHA-256/HMAC hashing
	- Random number generator compliant with FIPS 140-1 standards for randomness and non-determinism
- Dual-channel architecture permits single-pass encryption and authentication
- 32-Kbyte system SRAM
	- Arbitration mechanism shares bandwidth between internal bus masters (CPU, cryptography accelerator, PCI, and DMA)
- System integration unit (SIU)
	- Interrupt controller
	- Watchdog timer
	- Two 32-bit slice timers for periodic alarm and interrupt generation
	- Up to four 32-bit general-purpose timers with capture, compare, and PWM capability
	- General-purpose I/O ports multiplexed with peripheral pins
- Debug and test features
	- Core debug support via ColdFire background debug mode (BDM) port
	- Chip debug support via JTAG/ IEEE 1149.1 test access port
- PLL and clock generator
	- 30–66.67 MHz input frequency range
- Operating Voltages
	- 1.5V internal logic
	- $-$ 2.5V DDR SDRAM bus I/O (1.25V V_{REF)}
	- 3.3V PCI, FlexBus, and all other I/O
- Estimated power consumption $-$ <1.5W

1.4.1 ColdFire V4e Core Overview

The ColdFire V4e core is a variable-length RISC, clock-multiplied core that includes a Harvard memory architecture, branch cache acceleration logic, and limited superscalar dual-instruction issue capabilities. The limited superscalar design approaches dual-issue performance with the cost of a scalar execution pipeline.

The ColdFire V4e processor core is comprised of two separate pipelines that are decoupled by an instruction buffer. The four-stage instruction fetch pipeline (IFP) prefetches the instruction stream, examines it to predict changes of flow, partially decodes instructions, and packages fetched data into instructions for the operand execution pipeline (OEP). The IFP can prefetch instructions before the OEP needs them, minimizing the wait for instructions. The instruction buffer is a 10 instruction, first-in-first-out (FIFO) buffer that decouples the IFP and OEP by holding prefetched instructions awaiting execution in the OEP. The OEP includes five pipeline stages: the first stage decodes instructions and selects operands (DS), and the second stage generates operand addresses (OAG). The third and fourth stages fetch operands (OC1 and OC2), and the fifth stage executes instructions (EX).

The ColdFire V4e processor contains a double-precision floating point unit (FPU). The FPU conforms to the American National Standards Institute (ANSI)/Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) *Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic* (ANSI/IEEE Standard 754). The FPU operates on 64-bit, double-precision floating point data and supports single-precision and signed integer input operands. The FPU programming model is like that in the MC68060 microprocessor. The FPU is intended to accelerate the performance of certain classes of embedded applications, especially those requiring high-speed floating point arithmetic computations.

The ColdFire V4e processor also incorporates the ColdFire memory management unit (MMU), which provides virtual-to-physical address translation and memory access control. The MMU consists of memory-mapped control, status, and fault registers that provide access to translation lookaside buffers (TLBs). Software can control address translation and access attributes of a virtual address by configuring MMU control registers and loading TLBs. With software support, the MMU provides demand-paged, virtual addressing.

The ColdFire V4e core implements the ColdFire instruction set architecture revision B with support for floating Point instructions. Additionally, the ColdFire V4e core includes the enhanced multiply-accumulate unit (EMAC) for improved signal processing capabilities. The EMAC implements a 4-stage execution pipeline, optimized for 32 x 32-bit operations, with support for four 48-bit accumulators. Supported operands include 16- and 32-bit signed and unsigned integers, as well as signed fractional operands and a complete set of instructions to process these data types. The EMAC provides superb support for execution of DSP operations within the context of a single processor at a minimal hardware cost.

Refer to [Chapter 3, "ColdFire Core](#page-78-0)," for detailed information on the ColdFire V4e core architecture.

1.4.2 Debug Module (BDM)

The ColdFire processor core debug interface is provided to support system debugging in conjunction with low-cost debug and emulator development tools. Through a standard debug interface, users can access real-time trace and debug information. This allows the processor and system to be debugged at full speed without the need for costly in-circuit emulators.

The MCF548*x* debug module provides support in three different areas:

- Real-time trace support: The ability to determine the dynamic execution path through an application is fundamental for debugging. The ColdFire solution implements an 8-bit parallel output bus that reports processor execution status and data to an external BDM emulator system.
- Background debug mode (BDM): Provides low-level debugging in the ColdFire processor complex. In BDM, the processor complex is halted and a variety of commands can be sent to the processor to access memory and registers. The external BDM emulator uses a three-pin, serial, full-duplex channel.
- Real-time debug support: BDM requires the processor to be halted, which many real-time embedded applications cannot permit. Debug interrupts let real-time systems execute a unique service routine that can quickly save key register and variable contents and return the system to normal operation without halting. External development systems can access saved data, because the hardware supports concurrent operation of the processor and BDM-initiated commands. In addition, the option is provided to allow interrupts to occur.

1.4.3 JTAG

The MCF548*x* family supports circuit board test strategies based on the Test Technology Committee of IEEE and the Joint Test Action Group (JTAG). The test logic includes a test access port (TAP) consisting of a 16-state controller, an instruction register, and three test registers (a 1-bit bypass register, a 256-bit

boundary-scan register, and a 32-bit ID register). The boundary scan register links the device's pins into one shift register. Test logic, implemented using static logic design, is independent of the device system logic. The MCF548*x* implementation can do the following:

- Perform boundary scan operations to test circuit board electrical continuity
- Sample MCF548*x* system pins during operation and transparently shift out the result in the boundary scan register
- Bypass the MCF548*x* for a given circuit board test by effectively reducing the boundary-scan register to a single bit
- Disable the output drive to pins during circuit-board testing
- Drive output pins to stable levels

1.4.4 On-Chip Memories

1.4.4.1 Caches

There are two independent caches associated with the ColdFire V4e core complex: a 32-Kbyte instruction cache and a 32-Kbyte data cache. Caches improve system performance by providing single-cycle access to the instruction and data pipelines. This decouples processor performance from system memory performance, increasing bus availability for on-chip DMA or external devices.

1.4.4.2 System SRAM

The SRAM module provides a general-purpose 32-Kbyte memory block that the ColdFire core can access in a single cycle. The location of the memory block can be set to any 32-Kbyte address boundary within the 4-Gbyte address space. The memory is ideal for storing critical code or data structures, for use as the system stack, or for storing FEC data buffers. Because the SRAM module is physically connected to the processor's high-speed local bus, it can quickly service core-initiated accesses or memory-referencing commands from the debug module.

The SRAM module is also accessible by multiple non-core bus masters, such as the DMA controller, the encryption accelerator, and the PCI Controller.

1.4.5 PLL and Chip Clocking Options

MCF548*x* products contain an on-chip PLL capable of accepting input frequencies from 30–66.66 MHz. [Table 1-2](#page-38-0) contains the frequencies of the system buses for the members of the MCF548*x* family under various core/SDRAM/PCI/Flexbus clocking options.

$AD[12:8]$ ¹	Clock Ratio	CLKIN-PCI and FlexBus Frequency Range (MHz)	Internal XLB, SDRAM bus, and PSTCLK Frequency Range (MHz)	Core Frequency Range (MHz)
00011	1:2	41.67-50.0	83.33-100	166.66-200
00101	1:2	$25.0 - 41.67$	50.0 - 83.33	100.0-166.66
01111	1:4	25.0	100	200

Table 1-2. MCF548x Family Clocking Options

 1 All other values of AD[12:8] are reserved.

1.4.6 Communications I/O Subsystem

1.4.6.1 DMA Controller

The communications subsystem contains an intelligent DMA unit that provides front line interrupt control and data movement interface via a separate peripheral bus to the on-chip peripheral functions, leaving the processor core free to handle higher level activities. This concurrent operation enables a significant boost in overall system performance.

The communications subsystem can support up to 16 simultaneously enabled DMA tasks, with support for up to two external DMA requests. It uses internal buffers to prefetch reads and post writes such that bursting is used whenever possible. This optimizes both internal and external bus activity. The following communications and computer control peripheral functions are integrated and controlled by the communications subsystem:

- Up to two 10/100 Mbps fast Ethernet controllers (FECs)
- Optional universal serial bus (USB) version 2.0 device controller
- Up to four programmable serial controllers (PSCs)
- $I²C$ peripheral interface
- DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI)
- Two FlexCAN controller area network 2.0B controllers

1.4.6.2 10/100 Fast Ethernet Controller (FEC)

The FEC supports two standard MAC/PHY interfaces: 10/100 Mbps IEEE 802.3 MII and 10Mbps 7-wire interface. The controller is full duplex, supports a programmable maximum frame length and retransmission from the transmit FIFO following a collision.

Support for different Ethernet physical interfaces:

- 100 Mbps IEEE 802.3 MII
- 10 Mbps IEEE 802.3 MII
- 10 Mbps 7-wire interface
- IEEE 802.3 full-duplex flow control.
- Support for full-duplex operation (200 Mbps throughput) with a minimum system clock frequency of 50 MHz.
- Support for half duplex operation (100 Mbps throughput) with a minimum system clock frequency of 25 MHz.
- Retransmit from transmit FIFO following collision.
- Internal loopback for diagnostic purposes.

1.4.6.3 USB 2.0 Device (Universal Serial Bus)

The USB module implementation on the MCF548*x* product family provides all the logic necessary to process the USB protocol as defined by version 2.0 specification for peripheral devices. It features the following:

- High-speed operation up to 480 Mbps, full-speed operation at 12 Mbps, and low-speed operation at 1.5 Mbps
- Physical interface on chip
- Bulk, interrupt, and isochronous transport modes.
- Six programmable in/out endpoints and one control endpoint

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• 4 Kbytes of shared endpoint FIFO RAM and 1 Kbyte of endpoint descriptor RAM

1.4.6.4 Programmable Serial Controllers (PSCs)

The MCF548*x* product family supports four PSCs that can be independently configured to operate in the following modes:

- Universal asynchronous receiver transmitter (UART) mode
	- $-5,6,7,8$ bits of data plus parity
	- Odd, even, none, or force parity
	- Stop bit width programmable in 1/16 bit increments
	- Parity, framing, and overrun error detection
	- Automatic PSCCTS and PSCRTS modem control signals
- IrDA 1.0 SIR mode (SIR)
	- Baud rate range of 2400–115200 bps
	- Selectable pulse width: either $3/16$ of the bit duration or 1.6 μ s
- IrDA 1.1 MIR mode (MIR) — Baud rate of 0.576 or 1.152 Mbps
- IrDA 1.1 FIR mode (FIR) — Baud rate of 4.0 Mbps
- 8-bit soft modem mode (modem8)
- 16-bit soft modem mode (modem16)
- AC97 soft modem mode (AC97)

Each PSC supports synchronous (USART) and asynchronous (UART) protocols. The PSCs can be used to interface to external full-function modems or external codecs for soft modem support, as well as IrDA 1.1 or 1.0 interfaces. Both 8- and 16-bit data widths are supported. PSCs can be configured to support a 1200-baud plain old telephone system (POTS) modem, V.34 or V.90 protocols. The standard UART interface supports connection to an external terminal/computer for debug support.

1.4.6.5 I2C (Inter-Integrated Circuit)

The MCF548*x* product family provides an I^2C two-wire, bidirectional serial bus for on-board communication. It features the following:

- Multimaster operation with arbitration and collision detection
- Calling address recognition and interrupt generation
- Automatic switching from master to slave on arbitration loss
- Software-selectable acknowledge bit
- Start and stop signal generation and detection
- Bus busy status detection

1.4.6.6 DMA Serial Peripheral Interface (DSPI)

The DSPI block operates as a basic SPI block with FIFOs providing support for external queue operation. Data to be transmitted and data received reside in separate FIFOs. The FIFOs can be popped and pushed by host software or by the system DMA controller. The DSPI supports these SPI features:

- Full-duplex, three-wire synchronous transfers
- Master and slave mode—two peripheral chip selects in master mode

• DMA support

1.4.6.7 Controller Area Network (CAN)

The FlexCAN modules are communication controllers implementing the CAN protocol. The CAN protocol can be used as an industrial control serial data bus, meeting the specific requirements of real-time processing and reliable operation in a harsh EMI environment, while maintaining cost-effectiveness. Each of the two CAN controllers on the MCF548*x* family products contains sixteen message buffers. The two CAN controllers can interface to two separate 16 message buffer CAN networks or a single 32 message buffer CAN network.

1.4.7 DDR SDRAM Memory Controller

The DDR SDRAM memory controller is a glueless interface to DDR memories. The module uses a 32-bit memory port and can address a maximum of 1 Gbyte of data with 16 64M x 8 (512-Mbit) devices, four per chip select. The controller supplies two clock lines and respective inverted clock lines to help minimize system complexity when using DDR. The module supports either DDR or SDR, but not both. This is due to voltage differences between the memory technologies.

The supported memory clock rate is up to 100 MHz. At this memory clock rate, DDR memory can receive data at an effective rate of up to 200 MHz.

- Support for up to 13 lines of row address, 11 lines of column address, two lines of bank address, and up to four chip selects
- Memory bus width fixed at 32 bits
- Four chip selects support up to 1 GByte of SDRAM memory
- Support for page mode to maximize the data rate. Page mode remembers active pages for all four chip selects
- Support for sleep mode and self refresh
- Cache line reads that can use critical word first. These reads can start in the center of a burst and will wrap to the beginning. This allows the processor quicker access to a needed instruction.

All on-chip bus masters have access to DRAM. This includes PCI, the ColdFire V4e core, the cryptography accelerator, and the DMA controller.

1.4.8 Peripheral Component Interconnect (PCI)

The PCI controller is a PCI V2.2-compliant bus controller and arbiter. The PCI bus is capable of 50-MHz operation with a 32-bit address/data bus and support for five external masters.

The PCI module includes an inbound FIFO to increase performance when using an external bus master. The bus can address all 4 Gbytes of PCI-addressable space.

The PCI bus is also multiplexed with the flexible local bus (FlexBus) address lines. If 32-bit non-muxed local address and data is required, it can be obtained at the expense of utilizing the PCI bus.

When implemented, the PCI controller acts as the central resource, bus arbiter, and configuring master on the PCI bus.

1.4.9 Flexible Local Bus (FlexBus)

The FlexBus module is intended to provide the user with basic functionality required to interface to peripheral devices. The FlexBus interface is a multiplexed or non-multiplexed bus, with an operating

frequency from 33–50 MHz. The Flexbus is targeted to support external Flash memories, boot ROMs, gate-array logic, or other simple target interfaces. Up to six chip selects are supported by the FlexBus.

Possible combinations of address and data bits are the following:

- Non-multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data (32-bit address muxed over PCI bus–PCI not usable)
- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data (PCI usable)
- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 16-bit data
- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 8-bit data

The non-multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data mode is determined at chip reset. For all other modes, the full 32-bit address is driven during the address phase. The number of bytes used for data are determined on a chip select by chip select basis.

1.4.10 Security Encryption Controller (SEC)

As consumers and businesses continue to embrace the Internet, the need for secure point-to-point communications across what is an entirely insecure network has been met by the development of a range of standard protocols. Computer cryptography fundamentally involves calculations with very large numbers. Personal computers have sufficient processing power to implement these algorithms entirely in software. When placed upon the embedded devices typically used for routing and remote access functions, this same computational burden can potentially decrease the throughput of a 100 Mbps Ethernet interface down to 10 Mbps.

Hardware acceleration of common cryptography algorithms is the solution to the computational bandwidth requirements of Internet security standards. Discrete solutions currently address this problem, but the next logical step is to integrate a cryptography accelerator on an embedded processor, such as the MCF548*x* family.

Freescale has developed the SEC on the MCF548*x* family for this purpose. This block accelerates the core cryptography algorithms that underlie standard Internet security protocols like SSL/TLS, IPSec, IKE, and WTLS/WAP.

- The SEC includes execution units for the following:
	- DES/3DES block cipher
	- AES block cipher
	- RC4 stream cipher
	- MD5/SHA-1/SHA-256/HMAC hashing
	- Random number generator compliant with FIPS 140-1 standards for randomness and non-determinism
- Dual-channel architecture permits single-pass encryption and authentication

1.4.11 System Integration Unit (SIU)

1.4.11.1 Timers

The MCF548*x* family integrates several timer functions required by most embedded systems. Two internal 32-bit slice timers create short cycle periodic interrupts, typically utilized for RTOS scheduling and alarm functionality. A watchdog timer resets the processor if not regularly serviced, catching software hang-ups. Four 32-bit general purpose timers can perform input capture, output compare, and PWM functionality.

1.4.11.2 Interrupt Controller

The interrupt controller on the MCF548*x* family can support up to 63 interrupt sources. The interrupt controller is organized as seven levels with nine interrupt sources per level. Each interrupt source has a unique interrupt vector, and 56 of the 63 sources of a given controller provide a programmable level [1-7] and priority within the level.

- Support for up to 63 interrupt sources organized as follows:
	- 56 fully-programmable interrupt sources
	- 7 fixed-level interrupt sources
- Seven external interrupt signals
- Unique vector number for each interrupt source
- Ability to mask any individual interrupt source or all interrupt sources (global mask-all)
- Support for hardware and software interrupt acknowledge (IACK) cycles
- Combinatorial path to provide wake-up from stop mode

1.4.11.3 General Purpose I/O

All peripheral I/O pins on the MCF548*x* family are multiplexed with GPIO, adding flexibility and usability to all signals on the chip.

Chapter 2 Signal Descriptions

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the MCF548*x* signals.

NOTE

The terms 'assertion' and 'negation' are used to avoid confusion when dealing with a mixture of active-low and active-high signals. The term 'asserted' indicates that a signal is active, independent of the voltage level. The term 'negated' indicates that a signal is inactive.

Active-low signals, such as \overline{RAS} and \overline{TA} , are indicated with an overbar.

2.1.1 Block Diagram

[Figure 2-1](#page-45-0) displays the signals of the MCF548*x*.

Figure 2-1. MCF548x Signals

[Table 2-1](#page-46-0) lists the signals for the MCF548*x* in functional group order.

Table 2-1. MCF548x Signal Description

Table 2-1. MCF548x Signal Description (Continued)

Table 2-1. MCF548x Signal Description (Continued)

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Table 2-1. MCF548x Signal Description (Continued)

Table 2-1. MCF548x Signal Description (Continued)

 1 Pull-up resistor when configured for general purpose input (default state after reset).

 2 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5483 and MCF5482 devices.

 3 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices.

⁴ This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices. On MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5483, and MCF5482 device the pin should be connected to the appriopriate power rail even is USB is not being used.

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[Table 2-2](#page-53-0) lists the MCF548*x* signals in pin number order for the 388 PBGA package.

Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number

Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

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Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

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Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

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Table 2-2. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number (Continued)

This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5483 and MCF5482 devices.

 2 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices. On MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5483, and MCF5482 device the pin should be connected to the appriopriate power rail even is USB is not being used.

 3 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices.

2.2 MCF548x External Signals

2.2.1 FlexBus Signals

2.2.1.1 Address/Data Bus (AD[31:0])

The AD[31:0] bus carries address and data. The full 32-bit address is always driven on the first clock of a bus cycle (address phase). The number of bytes used for data during the data phase is determined by the port size associated with the matching chip select.

2.2.1.2 Chip Select (FBCS[5:0])

FBCS[5:0] are asserted to indicate which device is being selected. A particular chip select asserts when the transfer address is within the device's address space as defined in the base and mask address registers. Each chip select can be programmed for a base address location, masking addresses, port size, burst-capability indication, wait-state generation, and internal/external termination.

Reset clears all chip select programming; $\overline{\text{FBCS0}}$ is the only chip select initialized out of reset. $\overline{\text{FBCS0}}$ is also unique because it can function at reset as a global chip select that allows boot ROM to be selected at any defined address space. Port size and termination (internal vs. external) for boot FBCS0 are configured by the levels on AD[2:0] on the rising edge of RSTI, as described in [Section 2.2.6, "Reset Configuration](#page-65-0) [Pins.](#page-65-0)"

2.2.1.3 Address Latch Enable (ALE)

The assertion of ALE indicates that the MCF548*x* has begun a bus transaction and that the address and attributes are valid. ALE is asserted for one bus clock cycle. In multiplexed bus mode, ALE is used externally as an address latch enable to capture the address phase of the bus transfer.

2.2.1.4 Read/Write (R/W)

The MCF548*x* drives the R/W signal to indicate the direction of the current bus operation. It is driven high during read bus cycles and driven low during write bus cycles.

2.2.1.5 Transfer Burst (TBST)

Transfer burst indicates that a burst transfer is in progress. A burst transfer can be 2 to 16 beats depending on the size of the transfer and the port size.

2.2.1.6 Transfer Size (TSIZ[1:0])

For memory accesses, these signals along with TBST, indicate the data transfer size of the current bus operation. The FlexBus interface supports byte, word, and longword operand transfers and allows accesses to 8-, 16-, and 32-bit data ports.

For misaligned transfers, TSIZ[1:0] indicates the size of each transfer. For example, if a longword access through a 32-bit port device occurs at a misaligned offset of 0x1, a byte is transferred first (TSIZ[1:0] = 01), a word is next transferred at offset $0x2$ (TSIZ[1:0] = 10), then the final byte is transferred at offset $0x4$ $(TSIZ[1:0] = 01)$.

For aligned transfers larger than the port size, TSIZ[1:0] behaves as follows:

- If bursting is used, $TSIZ[1:0]$ is driven to the size of transfer.
- If bursting is inhibited, TSIZ[1:0] first shows the size of the entire transfer and then shows the port size.

Table 2-3. Data Transfer Size

For burst-inhibited transfers, TSIZ[1:0] changes with each ALE assertion to reflect the next transfer size. For transfers to port sizes smaller than the transfer size, TSIZ[1:0] indicates the size of the entire transfer on the first access and the size of the current port transfer on subsequent transfers. For example, for a longword write to an 8-bit port, $TSIZ[1:0] = 2⁵600$ for the first transaction and 2'b01 for the next three transactions. If bursting is used and in the case of longword write to an 8-bit port, TSIZ[1:0] is driven to 2'b00 for the entire transfer.

2.2.1.7 Byte Selects (BE/BWE[3:0])

The four byte-enables are multiplexed with the byte-write-enable signals. Each pin can be individually programmed through the chip select control registers (CSCRs). For each chip select, assertion of

byte-enables for reads and byte-write enables for write cycles can be programmed. Alternatively, users can program byte-write enables to assert on writes and byte-enable to not assert on reads.

The byte strobe (BE/BWE[3:0]) outputs indicate that data is to be latched or driven onto a byte of the data. BE/BWE[3:0] signals are asserted only to the memory bytes used during a read or write access.

2.2.1.8 Output Enable (OE)

The output enable signal is sent to the interfacing memory and/or peripheral to enable a read transfer. \overline{OE} is asserted only when a chip select matches the current address decode.

2.2.1.9 Transfer Acknowledge (TA)

The external system drives this input to terminate the bus transfer. For write cycles, the processor continues to drive data at least one clock after FBCS*x* is negated. During read cycles, the peripheral must continue to drive data until TA is recognized. The number of wait states is determined either by an internally programmed auto acknowledgement or the external TA input. If the external TA is used, the peripheral has total control over the number of wait states.

2.2.2 SDRAM Controller Signals

These signals are used for SDRAM accesses.

2.2.2.1 SDRAM Data Bus (SDDATA[31:0])

SDDATA[31:0] is the bidirectional, non-multiplexed data bus used for SDRAM accesses. Data is sampled by the MCF548*x* on the rising edge of SDCLK when in SDR mode, and on both the rising and falling edge of SDCLK when in DDR mode.

2.2.2.2 SDRAM Address Bus (SDADDR[12:0])

The SDADDR[12:0] signals are the 13-bit address bus used for multiplexed row and column addresses during SDRAM bus cycles. The address multiplexing supports up to 256 Mbits of SDRAM per chip select.

2.2.2.3 SDRAM Bank Addresses (SDBA[1:0])

Each SDRAM module has four internal row banks. The SDBA[1:0] signals are used to select the row bank. It is also used to select the SDRAM internal mode register during power-up initialization.

2.2.2.4 SDRAM Row Address Strobe (RAS)

This output is the SDRAM synchronous row address strobe.

2.2.2.5 SDRAM Column Address Strobe (CAS)

This output is the SDRAM synchronous column address strobe.

2.2.2.6 SDRAM Chip Selects (SDCS[3:0])

These signals interface to the chip select lines of the SDRAMs within a memory block. Thus, there is one SDCS line for each memory block (the MCF548*x* supports up to four SDRAM memory blocks).

2.2.2.7 SDRAM Write Data Byte Mask (SDDM[3:0])

These output signals are sampled by the SDRAM on both edges of SDDQS to determine which byte lanes of the SDRAM data bus should be latched during a write cycle. In DDR mode, these bits are ignored during read operations.

2.2.2.8 SDRAM Data Strobe (SDDQS[3:0])

These bidirectional signals indicate when valid data is on the SDRAM data bus when in DDR mode.

2.2.2.9 SDRAM Clock (SDCLK[1:0])

These signals are the output clock for SDRAM cycles.

2.2.2.10 Inverted SDRAM Clock (SDCLK[1:0])

These signals are the inverted version of the SDRAM clock. They are used with SDCLK to provide the differential clocks for DDR SDRAM.

2.2.2.11 SDRAM Write Enable (SDWE)

The SDRAM write enable (SDWE) is asserted to signify that an SDRAM write cycle is underway. A read cycle is indicated by the negation of SDWE.

2.2.2.12 SDRAM Clock Enable (SDCKE)

This output is the SDRAM clock enable. SDCKE is negated to put the SDRAM into low-power, self-refresh mode.

2.2.2.13 SDR SDRAM Data Strobe (SDRDQS)

This signal is connected to SDDQS inputs. It is used in SDR mode only.

2.2.2.14 SDRAM Reference Voltage (VREF)

This is the input reference voltage for differential SSTL_2 inputs. It is used in both DDR and SDR modes.

2.2.3 PCI Controller Signals

2.2.3.1 PCI Address/Data Bus (PCIAD[31:0])

The PCIAD[31:0] lines are a time-multiplexed address data bus. The address is presented on the bus during the address phase while the data is presented on the bus during one or more data phases.

If the FlexBus is used in 32-bit address or 32-bit data non-multiplexed mode, PCIAD[31:0] are used as a 32-bit address for FlexBus transfers.

2.2.3.2 Command/Byte Enables (PCICXBE[3:0])

The PCICXBE[3:0] lines are time-multiplexed. The PCI command is presented during the address phase, and the byte enables are presented during the data phase.

2.2.3.3 Device Select (PCIDEVSEL)

The PCIDEVSEL signal is asserted active low when the MCF548*x* decodes that it is the target of a PCI transaction from the address presented on the PCI bus during the address phase.

2.2.3.4 Frame (PCIFRM)

The PCIFRM signal is asserted by a PCI initiator to indicate the beginning of a transaction. It is negated when the initiator is ready to complete the final data phase.

2.2.3.5 Initialization Device Select (PCIIDSEL)

The PCIIDSEL signal is asserted during a PCI type-0 configuration cycle to address the PCI configuration header.

2.2.3.6 Initiator Ready (PCIIRDY)

The PCIIRDY signal is asserted to indicate that the PCI initiator is ready to transfer data. During a write operation, assertion indicates that the master is driving valid data on the bus. During a read operation, assertion indicates that the master is ready to accept data.

2.2.3.7 Parity (PCIPAR)

The PCIPAR signal indicates the parity of data on the PCIAD[31:0] and $\overline{PCICXBE}[3:0]$ lines.

2.2.3.8 Parity Error (PCIPERR)

The PCIPERR signal is asserted when a data phase parity error is detected if enabled.

2.2.3.9 Reset (PCIRESET)

The PCIRESET signal is asserted active low by MCF548*x* to reset the PCI bus. This signal is asserted after the MCF548*x* is reset and must be negated to enable usage of the PCI bus.

2.2.3.10 System Error (PCISERR)

The PCISERR signal, if enabled, is asserted when an address phase parity error is detected.

2.2.3.11 Stop (PCISTOP)

The PCISTOP signal is asserted by the currently addressed target to indicate that it wishes to stop the current transaction.

2.2.3.12 Target Ready (PCITRDY)

The PCITRDY signal is asserted by the currently addressed target to indicate that it is ready to complete the current data phase.

2.2.3.13 External Bus Grant (PCIBG[4:1])

The PCIBG signal is asserted to an external master to give it control of the PCI bus. If the internal PCI arbiter is enabled, it asserts one of the PCIBG[4:1] lines to grant ownership of the PCI bus to an external master. When the PCI arbiter module is disabled, PCIBG[4:1] is driven high and should be ignored.

2.2.3.14 External Bus Grant/Request Output (PCIBG0/PCIREQOUT)

The PCIBG0 signal is asserted to external master device 0 to give it control of the PCI bus. When the PCI arbiter module is disabled, the signal operates as the **PCIREQOUT** output. It is asserted when the MCF548*x* needs to initiate a PCI transaction.

2.2.3.15 External Bus Request (PCIBR[4:0])

The PCIBR signal is asserted by an external PCI master when it requires access to the PCI bus.

2.2.3.16 External Request/Grant Input (PCIBR0/PCIGNTIN)

The PCIBR0 signal is asserted by external PCI master device 0 when it requires access to the PCI bus. When the internal PCI arbiter module is disabled, this signal is used as a grant input for the PCI bus, PCIGNTIN. It is driven by an external PCI arbiter.

2.2.4 Interrupt Control Signals

The interrupt control signals supply the external interrupt level to the MCF548*x* device.

2.2.4.1 Interrupt Request (IRQ[7:1])

The IRQ[7:1] signals are the external interrupt inputs.

2.2.5 Clock and Reset Signals

The clock and reset signals configure the MCF548*x* and provide interface signals to the external system.

2.2.5.1 Reset In (RSTI)

Asserting RSTI causes the MCF548*x* to enter reset exception processing. RSTO is asserted automatically when \overline{RSTI} is asserted.

2.2.5.2 Reset Out (RSTO)

After RSTI is asserted, the PLL temporarily loses its lock, during which time RSTO is asserted. When the PLL regains its lock, RSTO negates again. This signal can be used to reset external devices.

2.2.5.3 Clock In (CLKIN)

CLKIN is the MCF548*x* input clock frequency to the on-board, phase-locked loop (PLL) clock generator. CLKIN is used to internally clock or sequence the MCF548*x* internal bus interface at a selected multiple of the input frequency used for internal module logic.

CLKIN is used as the clock reference for PCI and FlexBus transfers.

2.2.6 Reset Configuration Pins

This section describes address/data pins, AD[12:0], that are read at reset to configure the MCF548*x*.

2.2.6.1 AD[12:8]—CLKIN to SDCLK Ratio (CLKCONFIG[4:0])

The clock configuration inputs, CLKCONFIG[4:0], indicate the CLKIN to SDCLK ratio. CLKIN is used as the external reference for both PCI and FlexBus cycles. The CLKIN to SDCLK ratio is selectable, where SDCLK is the clock frequency used for SDRAM accesses and the internal XLB bus. The core is always clocked at twice the SDCLK frequency.

These signals are sampled on the rising edge of \overline{RSTI} . [Table 2-4](#page-65-1) shows how the logic levels of AD[12:8] correspond to the selected clock ratio.

$AD[12:8]$ ¹	Clock Ratio	CLKIN-PCI and FlexBus Frequency Range (MHz)	Internal XLB, SDRAM bus, and PSTCLK Frequency Range (MHz)	Core Frequency Range (MHz)
00011	1:2	41.67-50.0	83.33-100	166.66-200
00101	1:2	25.0-41.67	$50.0 - 83.33$	100.0-166.66
01111	1:4	25.0	100	200

Table 2-4. MCF548x Divide Ratio Encodings

¹ All other values of AD[12:8] are reserved.

[Figure 2-2](#page-65-2) correlates CLKIN, internal bus, and core clock frequenciesi for the 2x–4x multipliers.

Figure 2-2. CLKIN, Internal Bus, and Core Clock Ratios

2.2.6.2 AD5—FlexBus Size Configuration (FBSIZE)

At reset, the enabling and disabling of $\overline{BE/BWE}[3:0]$ versus TSIZ[1:0] and ADDR[1:0] is determined by the logic level driven on AD5 at the rising edge of RSTI. FBSIZE is multiplexed with AD5 and sampled only at reset. [Table 2-5](#page-66-0) shows how the AD5 logic level corresponds to the BE/BWE[3:0] function.

2.2.6.3 AD4—32-bit FlexBus Configuration (FBMODE)

During reset, the FlexBus can be configured to operate in a non-multiplexed 32-bit address with 32-bit data mode. In this mode, the 32-bit FlexBus AD[31:0] is used for the data bus, and the PCI bus PCIAD[31:0] is used as the address bus. The FlexBus operating mode is determined by the logic level driven on AD4 at the rising edge of RSTI. [Table 2-6](#page-66-1) shows how the logic level of AD4 corresponds to the FlexBus mode.

 1 If the non-multiplexed 32-bit address/32-bit data mode is selected, the PCI bus cannot be used.

2.2.6.4 AD3—Byte Enable Configuration (BECONFIG)

The default byte enable mode of the boot $\overline{\text{FBCS0}}$ is determined by the logic level driven on AD3 at the rising edge of RSTI. This logic level is reflected as the reset value of CSCR0[BEM]. [Table 2-7](#page-66-2) shows how the logic level of AD3 corresponds to the byte enable mode for FBCS0 at reset.

2.2.6.5 AD2—Auto Acknowledge Configuration (AACONFIG)

At reset, the enabling and disabling of auto acknowledge for boot FBCS0 is determined by the logic level driven on AD2 at the rising edge of RSTI. AACONFIG is multiplexed with AD2 and sampled only at reset. The AD2 logic level is reflected as the reset value of CSCR0[AA]. [Table 2-8](#page-67-0) shows how the AD2 logic level corresponds to the auto acknowledge timing for FBCS0 at reset. Auto acknowledge can be disabled by driving a logic 0 on AD2 at reset.

Table 2-8. AD2/AA_CONFIG Selection of FBCS0 Automatic Acknowledge

2.2.6.6 AD[1:0]—Port Size Configuration (PSCONFIG)

The default port size value of the boot $\overline{\text{FBCS0}}$ is determined by the logic levels driven on AD[1:0] at the rising edge of RSTI, which are reflected as the reset value of CSCR0[PS]. [Table 2-9](#page-67-1) shows how the logic levels of AD[1:0] correspond to the FBCS0 port size at reset.

Table 2-9. AD[1:0]/PSCONFIG[1:0] Selection of FBCS0 Port Size

AD[1:0]	Boot FBCS0 Port Size
იი	32-bit port
01	8-bit port
1 X	16-bit port

2.2.7 Ethernet Module Signals

The following signals are used by the Ethernet module for data and clock signals.

2.2.7.1 Management Data (E0MDIO, E1MDIO)

The bidirectional EMDIO signals transfer control information between the external PHY and the media-access controller. Data is synchronous to EMDC and applies to MII mode operation. This signal is an input after reset. When the FEC operates in 10 Mbps 7-wire interface mode, this signal should be connected to V_{SS} .

2.2.7.2 Management Data Clock (E0MDC, E1MDC)

EMDC is an output clock that provides a timing reference to the PHY for data transfers on the EMDIO signal; it applies to MII mode operation.

2.2.7.3 Transmit Clock (E0TXCLK, E1TXCLK)

This is an input clock that provides a timing reference for ETXEN, ETXD[3:0], and ETXER.

2.2.7.4 Transmit Enable (E0TXEN, E1TXEN)

The transmit enable (ETXEN) output indicates when valid nibbles are present on the MII. This signal is asserted with the first nibble of a preamble and is negated before the first ETXCLK following the final nibble of the frame.

2.2.7.5 Transmit Data 0 (E0TXD0, E1TXD0)

ETXD0 is the serial output Ethernet data and is only valid during the assertion of ETXEN. This signal is used for 10 Mbps Ethernet data. This signal is also used for MII mode data in conjunction with ETXD[3:1].

2.2.7.6 Collision (E0COL, E1COL)

The ECOL input is asserted upon detection of a collision and remains asserted while the collision persists. This signal is not defined for full-duplex mode.

2.2.7.7 Receive Clock (E0RXCLK, E1RXCLK)

The receive clock (ERXCLK) input provides a timing reference for ERXDV, ERXD[3:0], and ERXER.

2.2.7.8 Receive Data Valid (E0RXDV, E1RXDV)

Asserting the receive data valid (ERXDV) input indicates that the PHY has valid nibbles present on the MII. ERXDV should remain asserted from the first recovered nibble of the frame through to the last nibble. Assertion of ERXDV must start no later than the SFD and exclude any EOF.

2.2.7.9 Receive Data 0 (E0RXD0, E1RXD0)

ERXD0 is the Ethernet input data transferred from the PHY to the media-access controller when ERXDV is asserted. This signal is used for 10 Mbps Ethernet data. This signal is also used for MII mode Ethernet data in conjunction with ERXD[3:1].

2.2.7.10 Carrier Receive Sense (E0CRS, E1CRS)

ECRS is an input signal that, when asserted, signals that transmit or receive medium is not idle, and applies to MII mode operation.

2.2.7.11 Transmit Data 1–3 (E0TXD[3:1], E1TXD[3:1])

These pins contain the serial output Ethernet data and are valid only during assertion of ETXEN in MII mode.

2.2.7.12 Transmit Error (E0TXER, E1TXER)

When the ETXER output is asserted for one or more clock cycles while ETXEN is also asserted, the PHY sends one or more illegal symbols. ETXER has no effect at 10 Mbps or when ETXEN is negated, and applies to MII mode operation.

2.2.7.13 Receive Data 1–3 (E0RXD[3:1], E1RXD[3:1])

These pins contain the Ethernet input data transferred from the PHY to the media-access controller when ERXDV is asserted in MII mode operation.

2.2.7.14 Receive Error (E0RXER, E1RXER)

ERXER is an input signal that, when asserted along with ERXDV, signals that the PHY has detected an error in the current frame. When ERXDV is not asserted, ERXER has no effect and applies to MII mode operation.

2.2.8 Universal Serial Bus (USB)

2.2.8.1 USB Differential Data (USBD+, USBD–)

USBD+ and USBD– are the outputs of the on-chip USB 2.0 transceiver. They provide differential data for the USB 2.0 bus.

2.2.8.2 USBVBUS

This is the USB cable Vbus monitor input, which is 5 V tolerant.

2.2.8.3 USBRBIAS

This is the connection for external current setting resistor. It should be connected to a $9.1\text{k}\Omega$ +/– 1% pull-down resistor.

For the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices this pin should be connected to a 9.1k Ω +/– 20% pull-down resistor.

2.2.8.4 USBCLKIN

This is the input pin for 12-MHz USB crystal circuit.

2.2.8.5 USBCLKOUT

This is the output pin for 12-MHz USB crystal circuit.

2.2.9 DMA Serial Peripheral Interface (DSPI) Signals

2.2.9.1 DSPI Synchronous Serial Data Output (DSPISOUT)

The DSPISOUT output provides the serial data from the DSPI and can be programmed to be driven on the rising or falling edge of DSPISCK.

2.2.9.2 DSPI Synchronous Serial Data Input (DSPISIN)

The DSPISIN input provides the serial data to the DSPI and can be programmed to be sampled on the rising or falling edge of DSPISCK.

2.2.9.3 DSPI Serial Clock (DSPISCK)

DSPISCK is a serial communication clock signal. In master mode, the DSPI generates the DSPISCK. In slave mode, DSPISCK is an input from an external bus master.

2.2.9.4 DSPI Peripheral Chip Select/Slave Select (DSPICS0/SS)

In master mode, the DSPICS0 signal is a peripheral chip select output that selects which slave device the current transmission is intended for.

In slave mode, the SS signal is a slave select input signal that allows an SPI master to select the DSPI as the target for transmission.

2.2.9.5 DSPI Chip Selects (DSPICS[2:3])

The synchronous peripheral chip selects (DSPICS[2:3]) outputs provide DSPI peripheral chip selects that can be programmed to be active high or low.

2.2.9.6 DSPI Peripheral Chip Select 5/Peripheral Chip Select Strobe (DSPICS5/PCSS)

DSPICS5 is a peripheral chip select output signal. When the DSPI is in master mode and the DMCR[PCSSE] bit is cleared, this signal is used to select which slave device the current transfer is intended for.

PCSS provides a strobe signal that can be used with an external demultiplexer for deglitching of the DSPICS*n* signals. When the DSPI is in master mode and DMCR[PCSSE] is set, the PCSS provides the appropriate timing for the decoding of the DSPICS[0,2,3] signals which prevents glitches from occurring.

This signal is not used in slave mode.

2.2.10 FlexCAN Signals

2.2.10.1 FlexCAN Transmit (CANTX0, CANTX1)

Controller area network transmit data output.

2.2.10.2 FlexCAN Receive (CANRX0, CANRX1)

Controller area network receive data input.

2.2.11 I2C I/O Signals

The $I²C$ serial interface module uses the signals in this section.

2.2.11.1 Serial Clock (SCL)

This bidirectional open-drain signal is the clock signal for the I^2C interface. It is either driven by the I^2C module when the bus is in master mode, or it becomes the clock input when the $I²C$ is in slave mode.

2.2.11.2 Serial Data (SDA)

This bidirectional open-drain signal is the data input/output for the $I²C$ interface.

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2.2.12 PSC Module Signals

The PSC modules use the signals in this section. The baud rate clock inputs are not supported.

2.2.12.1 Transmit Serial Data Output (PSC0TXD, PSC1TXD, PSC2TXD, PSC3TXD)

PSC*n*TXD are the transmitter serial data outputs for the PSC modules. The output is held high (mark condition) when the transmitter is disabled, idle, or in the local loopback mode. The PSC*x*TXD pins can be programmed to be driven low (break status) by a command.

2.2.12.2 Receive Serial Data Input (PSC0RXD, PSC1RXD, PSC2RXD, PSC3RXD)

PSCnRXD are the receiver serial data inputs for the PSC modules. When the PSC clock is stopped for power-down mode, any transition on the pins restarts them.

2.2.12.3 Clear-to-Send (PSCnCTS/PSCBCLK)

These signals either operate as the clear-to-send input signals in UART mode or the bit clock input signals in modem modes and IrDA modes. In MIR and FIR mode, the frequency is a multiple of the input bit clock frequency, and the bit clock frequency should be within $+/-0.1\%$ and $+/-0.01\%$ of the ideal one, respectively.

2.2.12.4 Request-to-Send (PSCnRTS/PSCFSYNC)

The PSC*n*RTS signals act as transmitter request-to-send (RTS) outputs in UART mode, the frame sync input in modem8 and modem16 modes, or the RTS output (which acts as frame sync) in AC97 modem mode.

2.2.13 DMA Controller Module Signals

The DMA controller module uses the signals in the following subsections to provide external requests for either a source or destination.

2.2.13.1 DMA Request (DREQ[1:0])

These inputs are asserted by a peripheral device to request an operand transfer between that peripheral and memory by either channel 0 or 1 of the on-chip DMA module.

2.2.13.2 DMA Acknowledge (DACK[1:0])

These outputs are asserted to acknowledge that a DMA request has been recognized.

2.2.14 Timer Module Signals

The signals in the following sections are external interfaces to the four general-purpose MCF548*x* timers. These 32-bit timers can capture timer values, trigger external events or internal interrupts, or count external events.

2.2.14.1 Timer Inputs (TIN[3:0])

TINn can be programmed as clocks that cause events in the counter and prescalers. They can also cause captures on the rising edge, falling edge, or both edges.

2.2.14.2 Timer Outputs (TOUT[3:0])

The programmable timer outputs, TOUT*n*, pulse or toggle on various timer events.

2.2.15 Debug Support Signals

The MCF548*x* complies with the IEEE 1149.1a JTAG testing standard. JTAG test pins are multiplexed with background debug pins. Except for TCK, these signals are selected by the value of MTMOD0. If MTMOD0 is high, JTAG signals are chosen; if it is low, debug module signals are chosen. MTMOD0 should be changed only while RSTI is asserted.

2.2.15.1 Processor Clock Output (PSTCLK)

The internal PLL generates this output signal, and is the processor clock output that is used as the timing reference for the debug bus timing (PSTDDATA[7:0]). PSTCLK is at the same frequency as the internal XLB and SDRAM bus frequency. The frequency is one-half the core frequency.

2.2.15.2 Processor Status Debug Data (PSTDDATA[7:0])

Processor status data outputs indicate both processor status and captured address/data values. They operate at half the processor's frequency, using PSTCLK. Given that real-time trace information appears as a sequence of 4-bit data values, there are no alignment restrictions; that is, PST values and operands may appear on either PSTDDATA[7:0] nibble. The upper nibble, PSTDDATA[7:4], is most significant.

2.2.15.3 Development Serial Clock/Test Reset (DSCLK/TRST)

If MTMOD0 is low, DSCLK is selected. DSCLK is the development serial clock for the serial interface to the debug module. The maximum DSCLK frequency is 1/5 CLKIN.

If MTMOD0 is high, TRST is selected. TRST asynchronously resets the internal JTAG controller to the test logic reset state, causing the JTAG instruction register to choose the bypass instruction. When this occurs, JTAG logic is benign and does not interfere with normal MCF548*x* functionality.

Although TRST is asynchronous, Freescale recommends that it makes an asserted-to-negated transition only while TMS is held high. TRST has an internal pull-up resistor so if it is not driven low, it defaults to a logic level of 1. If TRST is not used, it can be tied to ground or, if TCK is clocked, to EV_{DD} . Tying TRST to ground places the JTAG controller in test logic reset state immediately. Tying it to \overline{FV}_{DD} causes the JTAG controller (if TMS is a logic level of 1) to eventually enter test logic reset state after 5 TCK clocks.

2.2.15.4 Breakpoint/Test Mode Select (BKPT/TMS)

If MTMOD0 is low, **BKPT** is selected. **BKPT** signals a hardware breakpoint to the processor in debug mode.

If MTMOD0 is high, TMS is selected. The TMS input provides information to determine the JTAG test operation mode. The state of TMS and the internal 16-state JTAG controller state machine at the rising edge of TCK determine whether the JTAG controller holds its current state or advances to the next state. This directly controls whether JTAG data or instruction operations occur. TMS has an internal pull-up

resistor so that if it is not driven low, it defaults to a logic level of 1. But if TMS is not used, it should be tied to V_{DD} .

2.2.15.5 Development Serial Input/Test Data Input (DSI/TDI)

If MTMOD0 is low, DSI is selected. DSI provides the single-bit communication for debug module commands.

If MTMOD0 is high, TDI is selected. TDI provides the serial data port for loading the various JTAG boundary scan, bypass, and instruction registers. Shifting in data depends on the state of the JTAG controller state machine and the instruction in the instruction register. Shifts occur on the TCK rising edge. TDI has an internal pull-up resistor, so when not driven low it defaults to high. But if TDI is not used, it should be tied to EVDD.

2.2.15.6 Development Serial Output/Test Data Output (DSO/TDO)

If MTMOD0 is low, DSO is selected. DSO provides single-bit communication for debug module responses.

If MTMOD0 is high, TDO is selected. The TDO output provides the serial data port for outputting data from JTAG logic. Shifting out data depends on the JTAG controller state machine and the instruction in the instruction register. Data shifting occurs on the falling edge of TCK. When TDO is not outputting test data, it is three-stated. TDO can be three-stated to allow bused or parallel connections to other devices having a JTAG port.

2.2.15.7 Test Clock (TCK)

TCK is the dedicated JTAG test logic clock independent of the MCF548*x* processor clock. Various JTAG operations occur on the rising or falling edge of TCK. Holding TCK high or low for an indefinite period does not cause JTAG test logic to lose state information. If TCK is not used, it must be tied to ground.

2.2.16 Test Signals

2.2.16.1 Test Mode (MTMOD[3:0])

The test mode signals choose between multiplexed debug module and JTAG signals. If MTMOD0 is low, the part is in normal and background debug mode (BDM); if it is high, it is in normal and JTAG mode. All other MTMOD values are reserved; MTMOD[3:1] should be tied to ground and MTMOD[3:0] should not be changed while RSTI is negated

2.2.17 Power and Reference Pins

These pins provide system power, ground, and references to the device. Multiple pins are provided for adequate current capability. All power supply pins must have adequate bypass capacitance for high-frequency noise suppression.

2.2.17.1 Positive Pad Supply (EVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the I/O pads.

2.2.17.2 Positive Core Supply (IVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the core logic.

2.2.17.3 Ground (VSS)

This pin is the negative supply (ground) to the chip.

2.2.17.4 USB Power (USBVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the USB module's digital logic.

2.2.17.5 USB Oscillator Power (USB_OSCVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the USB oscillator's digital logic.

2.2.17.6 USB PHY Power (USB_PHYVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the USB PHY's digital logic.

2.2.17.7 USB Oscillator Analog Power (USB_OSCAVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the USB oscillator's analog circuits.

2.2.17.8 USB PLL Analog Power (USB_PLLVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the USB PLL's circuits.

2.2.17.9 SDRAM Memory Supply (SDVDD)

This pin supplies positive power to the SDRAM module.

2.2.17.10 PLL Analog Power (PLLVDD)

This pin supplies the positive power for the PLL.

2.2.17.11 PLL Analog Ground (PLLVSS)

This pin is the negative supply (ground) to the PLL.

[Part I](#page-76-0) is intended for system designers who need to understand the operation of the MCF548*x* ColdFire core and its enhanced multiply/accumulate (EMAC) execution unit. It describes the programming and exception models, Harvard memory implementation, and debug module.

Contents

Part 1 contains the following chapters:

- [Chapter 3, "ColdFire Core](#page-78-0)," provides an overview of the microprocessor core of the MCF548*x*. The chapter begins with a description of enhancements from the V3 ColdFire core, and then fully describes the V4e programming model as it is implemented on the MCF548*x*. It also includes a full description of exception handling, data formats, an instruction set summary, and a table of instruction timings.
- [Chapter 4, "Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\)](#page-122-0)," describes the MCF548*x* enhanced multiply/accumulate unit, which executes integer multiply, multiply-accumulate, and miscellaneous register instructions. The EMAC is integrated into the operand execution pipeline (OEP).
- [Chapter 5, "Memory Management Unit \(MMU\),](#page-140-0)" describes the ColdFire virtual memory management unit (MMU), which provides virtual-to-physical address translation and memory access control.
- [Chapter 6, "Floating-Point Unit \(FPU\),](#page-164-0)" describes instructions implemented in the floating-point unit (FPU) designed for use with the ColdFire family of microprocessors.
- [Chapter 7, "Local Memory,](#page-194-0)" describes the MCF548*x* implementation of the ColdFire V4e local memory specification.
- [Chapter 8, "Debug Support](#page-224-0)," describes the Revision C enhanced hardware debug support in the MCF548*x*. This revision of the ColdFire debug architecture encompasses earlier revisions.

Chapter 3 ColdFire Core

This chapter provides an overview of the microprocessor core of the MCF548*x*. The CF4e implementation of the Version 4 (V4) core includes the floating-point unit (FPU), enhanced multiply-accumulate unit (EMAC), and memory management unit (MMU); all are defined as optional in the $\overline{V}4$ architecture. This chapter also includes a full description of exception handling, data formats, an instruction set summary, and a table of instruction timings.

3.1 Core Overview

The MCF548*x* is the first standard product to contain a Version 4e ColdFire microprocessor core. To create this next-generation, high-performance core, many advanced microarchitectural techniques were implemented. Most notable are a Harvard memory architecture, branch cache acceleration logic, and limited superscalar dual-instruction issue capabilities, which together provide 308 (Dhrystone 2.1) MIPS performance at 200 MHz.

The MCF548*x* core design emphasizes performance and backward compatibility, and represents the next step on the ColdFire performance roadmap.

3.2 Features

The CF4e includes the following features defined as optional in the V4 core architecture:

- Floating-point unit (FPU)
- Virtual memory management unit (MMU)
- Enhanced multiply-accumulate unit (EMAC) for increased signal processing functionality plus backward code compatibility with the MAC unit of previous ColdFire processors

V4 architecture features are defined as follows:

- Variable-length RISC, clock-multiplied core
- Revision B of the ColdFire instruction set architecture (ISA_B), providing new instructions to improve performance and code density
- Two independent, decoupled pipelines—four-stage instruction fetch pipeline (IFP) and five-stage operand execution pipeline (OEP) for increased performance
- Ten-instruction, FIFO buffer that decouples the IFP and OEP
- Limited superscalar design approaches dual-issue performance with the cost of a scalar execution pipeline
- Two-level branch acceleration mechanism with a branch cache, plus a prediction table for increased performance of conditional Bcc instructions
- 32-bit address bus supporting 4 Gbytes of linear address space
- 32-bit data bus
- 16 user-accessible, 32-bit-wide, general-purpose registers
- Supervisor/user modes for system protection
- Two separate stack pointer (A7) registers—the supervisor stack pointer (SSP) and the user stack pointer (USP)—that provide the required isolation between operating modes to support the MMU.
- Vector base register to relocate the exception-vector table
- Optimized for high-level language constructs

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3.2.1 Enhanced Pipelines

The IFP prefetches instructions. The OEP decodes instructions, fetches required operands, then executes the specified function. The two independent, decoupled pipeline structures maximize performance while minimizing core size. Pipeline stages are shown in [Figure 3-1](#page-80-0) and are summarized as follows:

- Four-stage IFP (plus optional instruction buffer stage)
	- Instruction address generation (IAG) calculates the next prefetch address.
	- Instruction fetch cycle 1 (IC1) initiates prefetch on the processor's local instruction bus.
	- Instruction fetch cycle 2 (IC2) completes prefetch on the processor's local instruction bus.
	- Instruction early decode (IED) generates time-critical decode signals needed for the OEP.
	- Instruction buffer (IB) stage uses FIFO queue to minimize effects of fetch latency.
- Five-stage OEP with two optional processor bus write cycles
	- Decode stage (DS/secDS) decodes and selects for two sequential instructions.
	- Operand address generation (OAG) generates the address for the data operand.
	- Operand fetch cycle 1 and 2 (OC1 and OC2) fetch data operands.
	- Execute (EX) performs prescribed operations on previously fetched data operands.
	- Write data available (DA) makes data available for operand write operations only.
	- Store data (ST) updates memory element for operand write operations only.


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Features
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3.2.1.1 Instruction Fetch Pipeline (IFP)

Because the fetch and execution pipelines are decoupled by a ten-instruction FIFO buffer, the IFP can prefetch instructions before the OEP needs them, minimizing stalls.

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3.2.1.1.1 Branch Acceleration

To maximize the performance of conditional branch instructions, the IFP implements a sophisticated two-level acceleration mechanism. The first level is an 8-entry, direct-mapped branch cache with 2 bits for indicating four prediction states (strongly or weakly; taken or not-taken) for each entry. The branch cache also provides the association between instruction addresses and the corresponding target address. In the event of a branch cache hit, if the branch is predicted as taken, the branch cache sources the target address from the IC1 stage back into the IAG to redirect the prefetch stream to the new location.

The branch cache implements instruction folding, so conditional branch instructions correctly predicted as taken can execute in zero cycles. For conditional branches with no information in the branch cache, a second-level, direct-mapped prediction table is accessed. Each of its 128 entries uses the same 2-bit prediction mechanism as the branch cache.

If a branch is predicted as taken, branch acceleration logic in the IED stage generates the target address. Other change-of-flow instructions, including unconditional branches, jumps, and subroutine calls, use a similar mechanism where the IFP calculates the target address. The performance of subroutine return instruction (RTS) is improved through the use of a four-entry, LIFO hardware return stack. In all cases, these mechanisms allow the IFP to redirect the fetch stream down the predicted path well ahead of instruction execution.

3.2.1.2 Operand Execution Pipeline (OEP)

The two instruction registers in the decode stage (DS) of the OEP are loaded from the FIFO instruction buffer or are bypassed directly from the instruction early decode (IED). The OEP consists of two traditional, two-stage RISC compute engines with a dual-ported register file access feeding an arithmetic logic unit (ALU).

The compute engine at the top of the OEP (the address ALU) is used typically for operand address calculations; the execution ALU at the bottom is used for instruction execution. The resulting structure provides 4 Gbytes/S operand bandwidth (at 162 MHz) to the two compute engines and supports single-cycle execution speeds for most instructions, including all load and store operations and most embedded-load operations. The V4 OEP supports the ColdFire Revision B instruction set, which adds a few new instructions to improve performance and code density.

The OEP also implements the following advanced performance features:

- Stalls are minimized by dynamically basing the choice between the address ALU or execution ALU for instruction execution on the pipeline state.
- The address ALU and register renaming resources together can execute heavily used opcodes and forward results to subsequent instructions with no pipeline stalls.
- Instruction folding involving MOVE instructions allows two instructions to be issued in one cycle. The resulting microarchitecture approaches full superscalar performance at a much lower silicon cost.

3.2.1.2.1 Illegal Opcode Handling

To aid in conversion from M68000 code, every 16-bit operation word is decoded to ensure that each instruction is valid. If the processor attempts execution of an illegal or unsupported instruction, an illegal instruction exception (vector 4) is taken.

3.2.1.2.2 Enhanced Multiply/Accumulate (EMAC) Unit

The EMAC unit in the Version 4e provides hardware support for a limited set of digital signal processing (DSP) operations used in embedded code, while supporting the integer multiply instructions in the

ColdFire microprocessor family. The MAC features a four-stage execution pipeline, optimized for 32×32 multiplies. It is tightly coupled to the OEP, which can issue a 32×32 multiply with a 32 -bit accumulation and fetch a 32-bit operand in a single cycle. A 32 x 32 multiply with a 32-bit accumulation requires four cycles before the next instruction can be issued.

[Figure 3-2](#page-82-0) shows basic functionality of the EMAC. A full set of instructions are provided for signed and unsigned integers plus signed, fixed-point fractional input operands.

Figure 3-2. ColdFire Multiply-Accumulate Functionality Diagram

The EMAC provides functionality in the following three related areas, which are described in detail in [Chapter 4, "Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\)](#page-122-0):"

- Signed and unsigned integer multiplies
- Multiply-accumulate operations with signed and unsigned fractional operands
- Miscellaneous register operations

3.2.1.2.3 Memory Management Unit (MMU)

The ColdFire memory management architecture provides a demand-paged, virtual-address environment with hardware address translation acceleration. It supports supervisor/user, read, write, and execute permission checking on a per-memory request basis.

The architecture defines the MMU TLB, associated control logic, TLB hit/miss logic, address translation based on the TLB contents, and access faults due to TLB misses and access violations. It intentionally leaves some virtual environment details undefined to maximize the software-defined flexibility. These include the exact structure of the memory-resident pointer descriptor/page descriptor tables, the base registers for these tables, the exact information stored in the tables, the methodology (if any) for maintenance of access, and written information on a per-page basis.

3.2.1.2.4 Floating Point Unit (FPU)

The floating-point unit (FPU) provides hardware support for floating point math operations. The FPU conforms to the American National Standards Institute (ANSI)/Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) *Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic* (ANSI/IEEE Standard 754).

The hardware unit is optimized for real-time execution with exceptions disabled and default results provided for specific operations, operands, and number types. The FPU does not support all IEEE-754 number types and operations in hardware. Exceptions can be enabled to support these cases in software.

3.2.1.2.5 Hardware Divide Unit

The hardware divide unit performs the following integer division operations:

- 32-bit operand/16-bit operand producing a 16-bit quotient and a 16-bit remainder
- 32-bit operand/32-bit operand producing a 32-bit quotient
- 32-bit operand/32-bit operand producing a 32-bit remainder

3.2.1.3 Harvard Memory Architecture

A Harvard memory architecture supports the increased bandwidth requirements of the CF4e processor pipelines by providing separate configuration, access control, and protection resources for data (operand) and instruction memory. The CF4e has separate instruction and data buses to processor-local memories, eliminating conflicts between instruction fetches and operand accesses.

3.2.2 Debug Module Enhancements

The ColdFire processor core debug interface supports system integration in conjunction with low-cost development tools. Real-time trace and debug information can be accessed through a standard interface, which allows the processor and system to be debugged at full speed without costly in-circuit emulators. The CF4e debug unit is a compatible upgrade to MCF52*xx* and MCF53*xx* debug modules with added support for the CF4e MMU module.

The Version 2 ColdFire core implemented the original debug architecture, now called Revision A. Based on feedback from customers and third-party developers, enhancements have been added to succeeding generations of ColdFire cores. For Revision A, CSR[HRL] is 0. See [Section 8.4.2, "Configuration/Status](#page-234-0) [Register \(CSR\).](#page-234-0)"

The Version 3 core implements Revision B of the debug architecture, offering more flexibility for configuring the hardware breakpoint trigger registers and removing the restrictions involving concurrent BDM processing while hardware breakpoint registers are active. For Revision B, CSR[HRL] is 1.

Revision C of the debug architecture more than doubles the on-chip breakpoint registers and provides an ability to interrupt debug service routines. For Revision C, CSR[HRL] is 2.

Differences between Revision B and C are summarized as follows:

- Debug Revision B has separate PST[3:0] and DDATA[3:0] signals.
- Debug Revision C adds breakpoint registers and supports normal interrupt request service during debug. It combines debug signals into PSTDDATA[7:0].

The addition of the memory management unit (MMU) to the baseline architecture requires corresponding enhancements to the ColdFire debug functionality, resulting in Revision D. For Revision D, the revision level bit, CSR[HRL], is 3.

With software support, the MMU can provide a demand-paged, virtual address environment. To support debugging in this virtual environment, the debug enhancements are primarily related to the expansion of the virtual address to include the 8-bit address space identifier (ASID). Conceptually, the virtual address is expanded to a 40-bit value: the 8-bit ASID plus the 32-bit address.

The expansion of the virtual address affects the following two major debug functions:

- The ASID is optionally included in the specification of the hardware breakpoint registers. As an example, the four PC breakpoint registers are each expanded by 8 bits, so that a specific ASID value may be programmed as part of the breakpoint instruction address. Likewise, each operand address/data breakpoint register is expanded to include an ASID value. Finally, new control registers define if and how the ASID is to be included in the breakpoint comparison trigger logic.
- The debug module implements the concept of ownership trace in which the ASID value may be optionally displayed as part of the real-time trace functionality. When enabled, real-time trace displays instruction addresses on every change-of-flow instruction that is not absolute or PC-relative. For Revision D, this instruction address display optionally includes the contents of the ASID, thus providing the complete instruction virtual address on these instructions. Additionally when a Sync_PC serial BDM command is loaded from the external development system, the processor optionally displays the complete virtual instruction address, including the 8-bit ASID value.

In addition to these ASID-related changes, the new MMU control registers are accessible by using serial BDM commands. The same BDM access capabilities are also provided for the EMAC and FPU programming models.

Finally, a new serial BDM command is implemented to assist debugging when a software error generates an incorrect memory address that hangs the external bus. The new BDM command attempts to break this condition by forcing a bus termination.

3.3 Programming Model

The MCF548*x* programming model consists of two instruction and register groups—user and supervisor, shown in [Figure 3-3](#page-85-0). User mode programs are restricted to user, EMAC, and floating point instructions and programming models. Supervisor-mode system software can reference all user-mode, EMAC, and floating point instructions and registers and additional supervisor instructions and control registers. The user or supervisor programming model is selected based on SR[S]. The following sections describe the registers in the user, EMAC, floating point, and supervisor programming models.

Figure 3-3. ColdFire Programming Model

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3.3.1 User Programming Model

The user programming model, shown in [Figure 3-3,](#page-85-0) consists of the following registers:

- 16 general-purpose, 32-bit registers (D7–D0 and A7–A0); A7 is a user stack pointer
- 32-bit program counter
- 8-bit condition code register
- Registers to support the EMAC
- Register to support the floating-point unit (FPU)

3.3.1.1 Data Registers (D0–D7)

Registers D0–D7 are used as data registers for bit, byte (8-bit), word (16-bit), and longword (32-bit) operations. They may also be used as index registers.

3.3.1.2 Address Registers (A0–A6)

The address registers (A0–A6) can be used as software stack pointers, index registers, or base address registers, and may be used for word and longword operations.

3.3.2 User Stack Pointer (A7)

The CF4e architecture supports two unique stack pointer (A7) registers—the supervisor stack pointer (SSP) and the user stack pointer (USP). This support provides the required isolation between operating modes as dictated by the virtual memory management scheme provided by the memory management unit (MMU). The SSP is described in [Section 5.4.2, "Supervisor/User Stack Pointers.](#page-146-0)"

3.3.2.1 Program Counter (PC)

The PC holds the address of the executing instruction. For sequential instructions, the processor automatically increments PC. When program flow changes, the PC is updated with the target instruction. For some instructions, the PC specifies the base address for PC-relative operand addressing modes.

3.3.2.2 Condition Code Register (CCR)

The CCR, [Figure 3-4,](#page-86-0) occupies SR[7–0], as shown in [Figure 3-3](#page-85-0). The CCR[4–0] bits are indicator flags based on results generated by arithmetic operations.

Figure 3-4. Condition Code Register (CCR)

3.3.3 EMAC Programming Model

The registers in the EMAC portion of the user programming model are described in [Chapter 4, "Enhanced](#page-122-0) [Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\),](#page-122-0)" and include the following registers:

- Four 48-bit accumulator registers partitioned as follows:
	- Four 32-bit accumulators (ACC0–ACC3)
	- Eight 8-bit accumulator extension bytes (two per accumulator). These are grouped into two 32-bit values for load and store operations (ACCEXT01 and ACCEXT23).

Accumulators and extension bytes can be loaded, copied, and stored, and results from EMAC arithmetic operations generally affect the entire 48-bit destination.

- Eight 8-bit accumulator extensions (two per accumulator), packaged as two 32-bit values for load and store operations (ACCext01 and ACCext23)
- One 16-bit mask register (MASK)
- One 32-bit status register (MACSR), including four indicator bits signaling product or accumulation overflow (one for each accumulator: PAV0–PAV3).

These registers are shown in [Figure 3-5.](#page-87-0)

MACSR	MAC status register
ACC ₀	MAC accumulator 0
ACC ₁	MAC accumulator 1
ACC ₂	MAC accumulator 2
ACC ₃	MAC accumulator 3
ACCext01	Extensions for ACC0 and ACC1
ACCext23	Extensions for ACC2 and ACC3
MASK	MAC mask register

Figure 3-5. EMAC Register Set

3.3.4 FPU Programming Model

The registers in the FPU portion of the programming model are described in [Chapter 6, "Floating-Point](#page-164-0) [Unit \(FPU\)](#page-164-0)," and include the folllowing registers:

- Eight 64-bit floating-point data registers (FP0–FP7)
- One 32-bit floating-point control register (FPCR)
- One 32-bit floating-point status register (FPSR)
- One 32-bit floating-point instruction address register (FPIAR)

[Figure 3-6](#page-88-0) shows the FPU programming model.

Figure 3-6. Floating-Point Programmer's Model

3.3.5 Supervisor Programming Model

The MCF548*x* supervisor programming model is shown in [Figure 3-3.](#page-85-0) Typically, system programmers use the supervisor programming model to implement operating system functions and provide memory and I/O control. The supervisor programming model provides access to the user registers and additional supervisor registers, which include the upper byte of the status register (SR), the vector base register (VBR), and registers for configuring attributes of the address space connected to the Version 4 processor core. Most supervisor-level registers are accessed by using the MOVEC instruction with the control register definitions in [Table 3-2](#page-88-1).

Rc[11-0]	Register Definition
0x002	Cache control register (CACR)
0x004	Access control register 0 (ACR0)
0x005	Access control register 1 (ACR1)
0x006	Access control register 2 (ACR2)
0x007	Access control register 3 (ACR3)
0x801	Vector base register (VBR)
0xC04	RAM base address register 0 (RAMBAR0)
0xC05	RAM base address register 1 (RAMBAR1)
0xC0F	Module base address register (MBAR)

Table 3-2. MOVEC Register Map

3.3.5.1 Status Register (SR)

The SR stores the processor status, the interrupt priority mask, and other control bits. Supervisor software can read or write the entire SR; user software can read or write only SR[7–0], described in [Section 3.3.2.2,](#page-86-1) ["Condition Code Register \(CCR\)](#page-86-1)." The control bits indicate processor states—trace mode (T), supervisor or user mode (S), and master or interrupt state (M). SR is set to 0x27*xx* after reset.

Figure 3-7. Status Register (SR)

[Table 3-3](#page-89-0) describes SR fields.

3.3.5.2 Vector Base Register (VBR)

The VBR holds the base address of the exception vector table in memory. The displacement of an exception vector is added to the value in this register to access the vector table. The VBR[19–0] bits are not implemented and are assumed to be zero, forcing the vector table to be aligned on a 0-modulo-1-Mbyte boundary.

Written from a BDM serial command or from the CPU using the MOVEC instruction. VBR can be read from the debug module only. The upper 12 bits are returned, the low-order 20 bits are undefined.

Figure 3-8. Vector Base Register (VBR)

3.3.5.3 Cache Control Register (CACR)

The CACR controls operation of both the instruction and data cache memory. It includes bits for enabling, freezing, and invalidating cache contents. It also includes bits for defining the default cache mode and write-protect fields. See [Section 7.10.1, "Cache Control Register \(CACR\)](#page-212-0)."

3.3.5.4 Access Control Registers (ACR0–ACR3)

The access control registers (ACR0–ACR3) define attributes for four user-defined memory regions: ACR0 and ACR1 control data memory space, and ACR2 and ACR3 control instruction memory space. Attributes include definition of cache mode, write protect and buffer write enables. See [Section 7.10.2, "Access](#page-215-0) [Control Registers \(ACR0–ACR3\).](#page-215-0)"

3.3.5.5 RAM Base Address Registers (RAMBAR0 and RAMBAR1)

The RAMBAR registers determine the base address location of the internal SRAM modules and indicate the types of references mapped to each. Each RAMBAR includes a base address, write-protect bit, address space mask bits, and an enable. The RAM base address must be aligned on a 0-module-2-Kbyte boundary. See [Section 7.4.1, "SRAM Base Address Registers \(RAMBAR0/RAMBAR1\)](#page-195-0)."

3.3.5.6 Module Base Address Register (MBAR)

The module base address register (MBAR) defines the logical base address for the memory-mapped space containing the control registers for the on-chip peripherals. See [Section 9.3.1, "Module Base Address](#page-291-0) [Register \(MBAR\)](#page-291-0)."

3.3.6 Programming Model Table

[Table 3-4](#page-91-0) lists register names, the CPU space location, whether the register is written from the processor using the MOVEC instruction, and the complete register name.

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Table 3-4. ColdFire CPU Registers

Table 3-4. ColdFire CPU Registers (Continued)

3.4 Data Format Summary

[Table 3-5](#page-92-0) lists the operand data formats. Integer operands can reside in registers, memory, or instructions. The operand size is either explicitly encoded in the instruction or implicitly defined by the instruction operation.

Table 3-5. Integer Data Formats

3.4.1 Data Organization in Registers

The following sections describe data organization in data, address, and control registers. [Section 6.2.2,](#page-166-0) ["Floating-Point Data Formats,](#page-166-0)" describes floating-point formatting.

3.4.1.1 Integer Data Format Organization in Registers

[Figure 3-9](#page-93-0) shows the integer format for data registers. Each integer data register is 32 bits wide. Byte and word operands occupy the lower 8- and 16-bit portions of integer data registers, respectively. Longword operands occupy the entire 32 bits of integer data registers. A data register that is either a source or destination operand only uses or changes the appropriate lower 8 or 16 bits in byte or word operations, respectively. The remaining high-order portion does not change. Note that the least-significant bit is bit 0 for all data types, whereas the msbs for longword integer is bit 31, the msb of a word integer is bit 15, and the msb of a byte integer is bit 7.

Figure 3-9. Organization of Integer Data Format in Data Registers

Instruction encodings disallow use of address registers for byte operands. When an address register is a source operand, either the low-order word or the entire longword operand is used, depending on the operation size. Word-length source operands are sign-extended to 32 bits and then used in the operation with an address register destination. When an address register is a destination, the entire register is affected, regardless of the operation size. [Figure 3-10](#page-93-1) shows integer formats for address registers.

Figure 3-10. Organization of Integer Data Formats in Address Registers

The size of control registers varies according to function. Some have undefined bits reserved for future definition by Freescale. Those bits read as zeros and must be written as zeros for future compatibility. Operations to the SR and CCR are word-sized. The upper CCR byte is read as all zeros and is ignored when written, regardless of privilege mode.

3.4.1.2 Integer Data Format Organization in Memory

ColdFire processors use big-endian addressing. Byte-addressable memory organization allows lower addresses to correspond to higher-order bytes. The address N of a longword data item corresponds to the address of the high-order word. The lower-order word is at address $N + 2$. The address of a word data item corresponds to the address of the high-order byte. The lower-order byte is at address $N + 1$. This organization is shown in [Figure 3-11](#page-94-0).

Figure 3-11. Memory Operand Addressing

3.4.2 EMAC Data Representation

The EMAC supports the following three modes, where each mode defines a unique operand type.

- Two's complement signed integer: In this format, an N-bit operand value lies in the range $-2^{(N-1)}$ \leq operand \leq $2^{(N-1)}$ - 1. The binary point is right of the lsb.
- Unsigned integer: In this format, an N-bit operand value lies in the range $0 \leq$ operand $\leq 2^N 1$. The binary point is right of the lsb.
- Two's complement, signed fractional: In an N-bit number, the first bit is the sign bit. The remaining bits signify the first N-1 bits after the binary point. Given an N-bit number, $a_{N-1}a_{N-2}a_{N-3}... a_2a_1a_0$, its value is given by the equation in [Figure 3-12.](#page-94-1)

value =
$$
-(1 \cdot a_{N-1}) + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} 2^{(i+1-N)} \cdot ai
$$

Figure 3-12. Two's Complement, Signed Fractional Equation

This format can represent numbers in the range $-1 \leq$ operand $\leq 1 - 2^{(N-1)}$.

For words and longwords, the largest negative number that can be represented is -1, whose internal representation is $0x\overline{8000}$ and $0x800\overline{0}$ 0000, respectively. The largest positive word is $0x7$ FFF or $(1-2^{-15})$; the most positive longword is 0x7FFF FFFF or $(1 - 2^{-31})$.

For more information, see [Chapter 4, "Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\).](#page-122-0)"

3.4.2.1 Floating-Point Data Formats and Types

The FPU supports signed byte, word, and longword integer formats, which are identical to those supported by the integer unit. The FPU also supports single- and double-precision binary floating-point formats that fully comply with the IEEE-754 standard.

For more information, see [Chapter 6, "Floating-Point Unit \(FPU\)](#page-164-0)."

3.4.2.1.1 Signed-Integer Data Formats

The FPU supports 8-bit byte (B), 16-bit word (W), and 32-bit longword (L) integer data formats.

3.4.2.1.2 Floating-Point Data Formats

[Figure 3-13](#page-95-0) shows the two binary floating-point data formats.

Sign of Mantissa

Figure 3-13. Floating-Point Data Formats

Note that, throughout this chapter, a mantissa is defined as the concatenation of an integer bit, the binary point, and a fraction. A fraction is the term designating the bits to the right of the binary point in the mantissa.

(integer bit).(fraction)

Figure 3-14. Mantissa

The integer bit is implied to be set for normalized numbers and infinities, clear for zeros and denormalized numbers. For not-a-numbers (NANs), the integer bit is ignored. The exponent in both floating-point formats is an unsigned binary integer with an implied bias added to it. Subtracting the bias from exponent yields a signed, two's complement power of two. This represents the magnitude of a normalized floating-point number when multiplied by the mantissa.

By definition, a normalized mantissa always takes values starting from 1.0 and going up to, but not including, 2.0; that is, [1.0...2.0).

3.5 Addressing Mode Summary

Addressing modes are categorized by how they are used. Data addressing modes refer to data operands. Memory addressing modes refer to memory operands. Alterable addressing modes refer to alterable (writable) data operands. Control addressing modes refer to memory operands without an associated size.

These categories sometimes combine to form more restrictive categories. Two combined classifications are alterable memory (both alterable and memory) and data alterable (both alterable and data). Twelve of the most commonly used effective addressing modes from the M68000 Family are available on ColdFire microprocessors. [Table 3-6](#page-96-0) summarizes these modes and their categories.

3.6 Instruction Set Summary

The ColdFire instruction set is a simplified version of the M68000 instruction set. The removed instructions include BCD, bit field, logical rotate, decrement and branch, and integer multiply with a 64-bit result.

["About This Book"](#page-22-0) lists notational conventions used throughout this manual.

3.6.1 Additions to the Instruction Set Architecture

The original ColdFire ISA was derived from M68000 Family opcodes based on extensive analysis of embedded application code. After the first ColdFire compilers were created, developers identified ISA additions that would enhance both code density and overall performance. Additionally, as users implemented ColdFire-based designs into a wide range of embedded systems, they identified frequently used instruction sequences that could be improved by creating new instructions. This observation was especially prevalent in environments that used substantial amounts of assembly language code.

The original ISA minimized support for instructions referencing byte and word operands. MOVE.B and MOVE.W were fully supported; otherwise, only CLR (clear) and TST (test) supported these data types.

Based on input from compiler writers and system users, a set of instruction enhancements was proposed to address the following:

- Enhanced support for byte and word-sized operands through new move operations
- Enhanced support for position-independent code

For descriptions of the ColdFire instruction set, see the latest version of the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual*.

The following list summarizes new and enhanced instructions of ISA_B:

- New instructions:
	- INTOUCH loads blocks of instructions to be locked in the instruction cache.
	- MOV3Q.L moves 3-bit immediate data to the destination location.
	- MOVE to/from USP loads and stores user stack pointer.
	- MVS.{B,W} sign-extends the source operand and moves it to the destination register.
	- MVZ.{B,W} zero-fills the source operand and moves it to the destination register.
	- SATS.L performs a saturation operation for signed arithmetic and updates the destination register depending on CCR[V] and bit 31 of the register.
	- TAS.B performs an indivisible read-modify-write cycle to test and set the addressed memory byte.
- Enhancements to existing Revision A instructions:
	- Longword support for branch instructions (Bcc, BRA, BSR)
	- Byte and word support for compare instructions (CMP, CMPI)
	- Word support for the compare address register instruction (CMPA)
	- Byte and longword support for MOVE.x,where the source is immediate data and the destination is specified by $d16(Ax)$; that is, MOVE.{B,W} #<data>, $d16(Ax)$
- Floating-point instructions. See [Chapter 6, "Floating-Point Unit \(FPU\).](#page-164-0)"
- EMAC instructions. See [Chapter 4, "Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit \(EMAC\)](#page-122-0)," for more information.

[Table 3-7](#page-97-0) shows the syntax for the new and enhanced instructions. As [Table 3-7](#page-97-0) shows, some ISA_B opcodes were defined in the M68000 family and others are new.

Table 3-7. V4 New Instruction Summary

 $\overline{}$

 1 Operand sizes in this column reflect only newly supported operand sizes for existing instructions (Bcc, BRA, BSR, CMP, CMPA, CMPI, and MOVE)

3.6.2 Instruction Set Summary

[Table 3-8](#page-99-0) lists user-mode instructions by opcode.

Table 3-8. User-Mode Instruction Set Summary

Instruction	Operand Syntax	Operand Size	Operation
ADD ADDA	Dy , $<$ ea \ge x $<$ ea>y,Dx <ea>y,Ax</ea>	L L	Source + Destination \rightarrow Destination
ADDI ADDQ	# <data>,Dx #<data>,<ea>x</ea></data></data>		Immediate Data + Destination \rightarrow Destination
ADDX	Dy, Dx	L	Source + Destination + $CCR[X] \rightarrow$ Destination
AND	<ea>y,Dx Dy, $\leq a \geq x$</ea>	L L	Source & Destination \rightarrow Destination
ANDI	$#<$ data>, Dx	L	Immediate Data & Destination \rightarrow Destination
ASL	Dy, Dx # <data>,Dx</data>	L	$CCR[X,C] \leftarrow (Dx \ll Dy) \leftarrow 0$ $CCR[X,C] \leftarrow (Dx \ll \#$
ASR	Dy, Dx # <data>,Dx</data>		$msb \rightarrow (Dx >> Dy) \rightarrow CCR[X,C]$ $msb \rightarrow (Dx \gg \#$
Bcc	<label></label>	B , W, L	If Condition True, Then PC + $d_n \rightarrow PC$
BCHG	Dy , $\leq a \geq x$ # <data>,<ea>x</ea></data>	B, L B, L	\sim (<bit number=""> of Destination) \rightarrow CCR[Z] \rightarrow <bit number=""> of Destination</bit></bit>
BCLR	Dy , $\leq a \geq x$ # <data>,<ea>x</ea></data>	B, L B, L	\sim (cbit number> of Destination) \rightarrow CCR[Z]; $0 \rightarrow$ - bit number > of Destination
BRA	<label></label>	B, W, L	$PC + d_n \rightarrow PC$
BSET	Dy , \leq ea \geq x # <data>,<ea>x</ea></data>	B, L B, L	\sim (cbit number> of Destination) \rightarrow CCR[Z]; $1 \rightarrow$ bit number> of Destination
BSR	<label></label>	B , W, L	$SP - 4 \rightarrow SP$; nextPC \rightarrow (SP); PC + d _n \rightarrow PC
BTST	Dy , $\leq a \geq x$ # <data>,<ea>x</ea></data>	B, L B, L	\sim (<bit number=""> of Destination) \rightarrow CCR[Z]</bit>
CLR	<ea>x</ea>	B, W, L	$0 \rightarrow$ Destination

[Table 3-9](#page-104-0) describes supervisor-mode instructions.

Instruction	Operand Syntax	Operand Size	Operation
CPUSHL	ic, (Ax) dc,(Ax) bc,(Ax)	none	If data is valid and modified, push cache line; invalidate line if programmed in CACR (synchronizes pipeline)
FRESTORE	$<$ ea> \vee	none	FPU State Frame \rightarrow Internal FPU State
FSAVE	$<$ ea $>$ x	none	Internal FPU State \rightarrow FPU State Frame
HALT	none	none	Halt processor core
INTOUCH	Ay	none	Instruction fetch touch at (Ay)
MOVE from SR	SR,Dx	W	$SR \rightarrow$ Destination
MOVE from USP	USP, Dx	L	$USP \rightarrow$ Destination
MOVE to SR	<ea>y,SR</ea>	W	Source \rightarrow SR; Dy or # <data> source only</data>
MOVE to USP	Ay, USP		Source \rightarrow USP
MOVEC	Ry, Rc		$Ry \rightarrow Rc$
RTE	none	none	$2(SP) \rightarrow SR$; 4 (SP) $\rightarrow PC$; SP + 8 \rightarrow SP Adjust stack according to format
STOP	$\#$ <data></data>	none	Immediate Data \rightarrow SR; STOP
WDEBUG	$<$ ea> $<$	L	Addressed Debug WDMREG Command Executed

Table 3-9. Supervisor-Mode Instruction Set Summary

3.7 Instruction Execution Timing

The timing data in this section assumes the following:

- Execution times for individual instructions make no assumptions concerning the OEP's ability to dispatch multiple instructions in one machine cycle. For sequences where instruction pairs are issued, the execution time of the first instruction defines the execution time of pair; the second instruction effectively executes in zero cycles.
- The OEP is loaded with the opword and all required extension words at the beginning of each instruction execution. This implies that the OEP spends no time waiting for the IFP to supply opwords or extension words.
- The OEP experiences no sequence-related pipeline stalls. For the V4, the most common example of this type of stall occurs when a register is modified in the EX engine and a subsequent instruction generates an address that uses the previously modified register. The second instruction stalls in the OEP until the previous instruction updates the register. For example:

```
muls.l #<data>,d0
move.l (a0,d0.l*4),d1
```
move.l waits 3 cycles for the muls.l to update d0. If consecutive instructions update a register and use that register as a base of index value with a scale factor of 1 (Xi.l*1) in an address calculation, a 2-cycle pipeline stall occurs. If the destination register is used as an index register with any other scale factor (Xi.l*2, Xi.l*4), a 3-cycle stall occurs.

NOTE

Address register results from postincrement and predecrement modes are available to subsequent instructions without stalls.

- The OEP can complete all memory accesses without memory causing any stalls. Thus, these timings assume an infinite, zero-wait state memory attached to the core.
- Operand accesses are assumed to be aligned as follows:
	- 16-bit operands are aligned on 0-modulo-2 addresses
	- 32-bit operands are aligned on 0-modulo-4 addresses

Operands that do not meet these guidelines are misaligned. [Table 3-10](#page-105-0) shows how the core decomposes a misaligned operand reference into a series of aligned accesses.

 1 Each timing entry is presented as $C(r/w)$, described as follows:

C is the number of processor clock cycles, including all applicable operand fetches and writes, as well as all internal core cycles required to complete the instruction execution.

r/w is the number of operand reads (r) and writes (w) required by the instruction. An operation performing a read-modify write function is denoted as (1/1).

3.7.1 MOVE Instruction Execution Timing

The following tables show execution times for the MOVE.{B,W,L} instructions. [Table 3-13](#page-107-0) shows the timing for the other generic move operations.

NOTE

In these tables, times using PC-relative effective addressing modes are the same as using An-relative mode.

The (xxx).wl nomenclature refers to both forms of absolute addressing, (xxx) .w and (xxx) .l.

[Table 3-11](#page-105-1) lists execution times for MOVE.{B,W} instructions.

Source	Destination									
	Rx	(Ax)	$(Ax)+$	$-(Ax)$	(d16, Ax)	$(d8, Ax, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl			
Dy	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)			
Ay	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)			
(Ay)	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	3(1/1)	2(1/1)			

Table 3-11. Move Byte and Word Execution Times

[Table 3-12](#page-106-0) lists timings for MOVE.L.

Table 3-12. Move Long Execution Times

Source	Destination										
	Rx	(Ax)	$(Ax)+$	$-(Ax)$	(d16,Ax)	$(d8, Ax, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl				
Dy	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)				
Ay	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)				
(Ay)	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	3(1/1)	2(1/1)				
$(Ay) +$	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	3(1/1)	2(1/1)				
$-(Ay)$	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	3(1/1)	2(1/1)				
(d16, Ay)	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)						
$(d8, Ay, Xi*SF)$	2(1/0)	3(1/1)	3(1/1)	3(1/1)							
(xxx).w	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)							
(xxx).	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)							
(d16, PC)	1(1/0)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)	2(1/1)						
$(d8, PC, Xi*SF)$	2(1/0)	3(1/1)	3(1/1)	3(1/1)							
$#<$ $XXX>$	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)							

[Table 3-13](#page-107-0) gives timings for MOVE.L instructions accessing program-visible EMAC registers, along with other MOVE.L timings. Execution times for moving ACC or MACSR contents into a destination location represent the best-case scenario when the store instruction is executed and no load, MAC, or MSAC instructions are in the EMAC execution pipeline. In general, these store operations take only 1 cycle to execute, but if preceded immediately by a load, MAC, or MSAC instruction, the EMAC pipeline depth is exposed and execution time is 3 cycles.

[Table 3-19](#page-111-0) lists EMAC execution times.

	<ea></ea>	Effective Address							
Opcode		Rn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	(d16, An)	$(d8, An, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl	$#<$ $XXX>$
move.	<ea>,ACC</ea>	1(0/0)							1(0/0)
move.	<ea>,MACSR</ea>	6(0/0)							6(0/0)
move.	<ea>,MASK</ea>	5(0/0)							5(0/0)
move.	ACC,Rx	1(0/0)							
move.	MACSR, CCR	1(0/0)							
move.	MACSR, Rx	1(0/0)							
move.	MASK, Rx	1(0/0)							
moveg	#imm,Dx								1(0/0)
mov3q	#imm, <ea></ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	
mvs	<ea>,Dx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(0/0)
mvz	<ea>,Dx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(0/0)

Table 3-13. MAC and Miscellaneous Move Execution Times

3.7.2 One-Operand Instruction Execution Timing

[Table 3-14](#page-107-1) shows standard timings for single-operand instructions.

		Effective Address								
Opcode	<ea></ea>	Rn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	(d16, An)	$(d8, An, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl	#xxx	
clr.b	$<$ ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)		
clr.w	<ea></ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)		
clr.l	<ea></ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	2(0/1)	1(0/1)		
ext.w	Dx	1(0/0)								
ext.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
extb.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
neg.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
negx.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
not.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
sats.l	Dx	1(0/0)								
SCC	Dx	1(0/0)								
swap	Dx	1(0/0)								
tas	$<$ ea>	1(1/1)	1(1/1)	1(1/1)	1(1/1)	1(1/1)	2(1/1)	1(1/1)		
tst.b	$<$ ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(0/0)	
tst.w	<ea></ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(0/0)	
tst.l	$<$ ea>	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	2(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(0/0)	

Table 3-14. One-Operand Instruction Execution Times

3.7.3 Two-Operand Instruction Execution Timing

[Table 3-15](#page-108-0) shows standard timings for double operand instructions.

Table 3-15. Two-Operand Instruction Execution Times (Continued)

3.7.4 Miscellaneous Instruction Execution Timing

[Table 3-16](#page-109-0) lists timings for miscellaneous instructions.

Table 3-16. Miscellaneous Instruction Execution Times

Opcode	$<$ ea>	Effective Address										
		Rn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	(d16, An)	$(d8, An, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl	$#<$ $XXX>$			
cpushl	(Ax)		9(0/1)									
intouch	(Ay)		19(1/0)									
link.w	Ay,#imm	2(0/1)										
move.w	CCR, Dx	1(0/0)										
move.w	<ea>,CCR</ea>	1(0/0)							1(0/0)			

Table 3-16. Miscellaneous Instruction Execution Times (Continued)

 1 n is the number of registers moved by the MOVEM opcode.

 2 PEA execution times are the same for (d16, PC).

³ PEA execution times are the same for (d8,PC,Xi*SF).

⁴ The execution time for STOP is the time required until the processor begins sampling continuously for interrupts.

3.7.5 Branch Instruction Execution Timing

[Table 3-17](#page-110-0) shows general branch instruction timing.

Table 3-17. General Branch Instruction Execution Times

Opcode	<ea></ea>	Effective Address										
		Rn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	(d16, An)	$(d8, An, Xi*SF)$	$(xxx).$ wl	$#<$ $XXX>$			
bra						$1(0/1)^{1}$						
bsr						$1(0/1)^{1}$						
jmp	$<$ ea>		5(0/0)			$5(0/0)^1$	6(0/0)	$1(0/0)^{1}$				
jsr	$<$ ea>		5(0/1)			5(0/1)	6(0/1)	$1(0/1)^{1}$				
rte				15(2/0)								
rts				$2(1/0)^2$ $9(1/0)^3$ $8(1/0)^4$								

1 Assumes branch acceleration. Depending on the pipeline status, execution times may vary from 1 to 3 cycles.

- 2 If predicted correctly by the hardware return stack.
- 3 If mispredicted by the hardware return stack.
- 4 If not predicted by the hardware return stack.

[Table 3-18](#page-111-0) shows timing for Bcc instructions.

Table 3-18. Bcc Instruction Execution Times

3.7.6 EMAC Instruction Execution Times

[Table 3-19](#page-111-1) specifies instruction execution times associated with the enhanced multiply-accumulate (EMAC) execute engine.

		Effective Address										
Opcode	<ea>y</ea>	Rn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	(d16, An) (d16, PC)	$(d8, An, Xi*SF)$ (d8,PC,Xi*SF)	xxx.wl	#XXX			
mac.l	Ry, Rx, ACCx	1(0/0)										
mac.l	Ry, Rx, <ea>, Rw, ACCx</ea>	$\overline{}$	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	$1(1/0)^1$						
mac.w	Ry, Rx, ACCx	1(0/0)										
mac.w	Ry, Rx, <ea>, Rw, ACCx</ea>	$\overline{}$	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	$1(1/0)^{1}$	—	—				
mov.l	<ea>y,ACCx</ea>	1(0/0)							1(0/0)			
mov.l	ACCy, ACCx	1(0/0)										
mov.l	<ea>y,MACSR</ea>	8(0/0)	$\overline{}$						8(0/0)			
mov.l	<ea>y,MASK</ea>	7(0/0)						$\overline{}$	7(0/0)			
mov.l	<ea>y,ACCext01</ea>	1(0/0)	—						1(0/0)			
mov.l	<ea>y,ACCext23</ea>	1(0/0)	$\overline{}$						1(0/0)			
mov.l	ACCx, <e>a>x</e>	$1(0/0)^2$	—									
mov.l	MACSR, <ea>x</ea>	1(0/0)	—									
mov.l	MASK, <ea>x</ea>	1(0/0)	$\overline{}$									
mov.l	ACCext01, <ea>x</ea>	1(0/0)	—									
mov.l	ACCext23, <ea>x</ea>	1(0/0)										
msac.l	Ry, Rx, ACCx	1(0/0)										
msac.l	Ry, Rx, <ea>, Rw, ACCx</ea>		1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	$1(1/0)^{1}$						
msac.w	Ry, Rx, ACCx	1(0/0)			$\overline{}$							
msac.w	Ry, Rx, <ea>, Rw, ACCx</ea>		1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	$1(1/0)^1$						
muls.l	<ea>y,Dx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)						
muls.w	<ea>y,Dx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	5(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(0/0)			

Table 3-19. EMAC Instruction Execution Times

Opcode		Effective Address									
	<ea>y</ea>	Rn	(An)	(An)+	$-(An)$	(d16, An) (d16,PC)	(d8,An,Xi*SF) $(d8, PC, Xi*SF)$	XXX.W	#XXX		
mulu.l	<ea>y,Dx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)					
mulu.w	<ea>y,Dx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	5(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(0/0)		

Table 3-19. EMAC Instruction Execution Times (Continued)

 1 Effective address of (d16, PC) not supported.

2 Storing the accumulator requires 1 additional clock cycle when saturation is enabled, or fractional rounding is performed $(MACSR[7:4] = 1--, -11-, -11).$

Execution times for moving the contents of the ACC, ACCext[01,23], MACSR, or MASK into a destination location $\langle ea \rangle x$ in this table represent the best-case scenario when the store is executed and no load, copy, MAC, or MSAC instructions are in the EMAC execution pipeline. In general, these store operations require only a single cycle for execution, but if preceded immediately by a load, copy, MAC, or MSAC instruction, the depth of the EMAC pipeline is exposed and the execution time is 4 cycles.

3.7.7 FPU Instruction Execution Times

[Table 3-20](#page-112-1) specifies the instruction execution times associated with the FPU execute engine.

Opcode	Format	Effective Address <ea></ea>									
		FPn	Dn	(An)	$(An)+$	$-(An)$	$(d_{16}$,An)	(d_{16}, PC)			
fabs	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)			
fadd	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)			
fbcc	<label></label>							$2(0/0)$ if correct, 9(0/0) if incorrect			
fcmp	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)			
fdiv	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	23(0/0)	23(0/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)			
fint	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)			
fintrz	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)			
fmove	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)			
fmove	FPy, <ea>x</ea>		2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)				
fmove	<ea>y,FP*R</ea>		6(0/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)			
fmove	FP*R, <ea>x</ea>		1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)				
f movem 3	<ea>y,#list</ea>			2n(2n/0)			2n(2n/0)	2n(2n/0)			
fmovem ^{3, 4}	#list, <ea>x</ea>			$1+2n(0/2n)$			$1+2n(0/2n)$				
fmul	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)			
fneg	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)			
fnop								2(0/0)			
frestore	$<$ ea> y			6(4/0)			6(4/0)	6(4/0)			

Table 3-20. FPU Instruction Execution Times1, ²

 1 Add 1(1/0) for an external read operand of double-precision format for all instructions except FMOVEM, and 1(0/1) for FMOVE FPy,<ea>x when the destination is double-precision.

 2 If the external operand is an integer format (byte, word, or longword), there is a 4-cycle conversion time that must be added to the basic execution time.

 3 For FMOVEM, n refers to the number of registers being moved.

 4 If any exceptions are enabled, the execution time for FMOVE FPy,<ea>x increases by 1 cycle. If the BSUN exception is enabled, the execution time for FBcc increases by one cycle.

3.8 Exception Processing Overview

Exception processing for ColdFire processors is streamlined for performance. Differences from previous ColdFire Family processors include the following:

- An instruction restart model for translation (TLB miss) and access faults. This new functionality extends the existing ColdFire access error fault vector and exception stack frames.
- Use of separate system stack pointers for user and supervisor modes.

Previous ColdFire processors use an instruction restart exception model but require additional software support to recover from certain access errors.

Exception processing can be defined as the time from the detection of the fault condition until the fetch of the first handler instruction has been initiated. It consists of the following four major steps:

- 1. The processor makes an internal copy of the status register (SR) and then enters supervisor mode by setting SR[S] and disabling trace mode by clearing SR[T]. The occurrence of an interrupt exception also clears SR[M] and sets the interrupt priority mask, SR[I] to the level of the current interrupt request.
- 2. The processor determines the exception vector number. For all faults except interrupts, the processor bases this calculation on exception type. For interrupts, the processor performs an interrupt acknowledge (IACK) bus cycle to obtain the vector number from peripheral. The IACK cycle is mapped to a special acknowledge address space with the interrupt level encoded in the address.

The processor saves the current context by creating an exception stack frame on the system stack. As a result, the exception stack frame is created at a 0-modulo-4 address on top of the system stack pointed to by the supervisor stack pointer (SSP). As shown in [Figure 3-15](#page-115-0), the CF4e processor uses the same fixed-length stack frame as previous ColdFire Versions with additional fault status (FS) encodings to support the MMU. In some exception types, the program counter (PC) in the exception stack frame contains the address of the faulting instruction (fault); in others the PC contains the next instruction to be executed (next). (Note that previous ColdFire processors support a single stack pointer in the A7 address register.)

If the exception is caused by an FPU instruction, the PC contains the address of either the next floating-point instruction (nextFP) if the exception is pre-instruction, or the faulting instruction (fault) if the exception is post-instruction.

3. The processor acquires the address of the first instruction of the exception handler. The instruction address is obtained by fetching a value from the exception table at the address in the vector base register. The index into the table is calculated as 4 x vector number. When the index value is generated, the vector table contents determine the address of the first instruction of the desired handler. After the fetch of the first opcode of the handler is initiated, exception processing terminates and normal instruction processing continues in the handler.

The vector base register described in the *ColdFire Programmers Reference Manual*, holds the base address of the exception vector table in memory. The displacement of an exception vector is added to the value in this register to access the vector table. VBR[19–0] are not implemented and are assumed to be zero, forcing the vector table to be aligned on a 0-modulo-1-Mbyte boundary.

ColdFire processors support a 1,024-byte vector table aligned on any 0-modulo-1 Mbyte address boundary; see [Table 3-21](#page-114-0). The table contains 256 exception vectors, the first 64 of which are defined by Freescale. The rest are user-defined interrupt vectors.

1 'Fault' refers to the PC of the faulting instruction. 'Next' refers to the PC of the instruction immediately after the faulting instruction. NextFP' refers to the PC of the next floating-point instruction.

ColdFire processors inhibit sampling for interrupts during the first instruction of all exception handlers. This allows any handler to effectively disable interrupts, if necessary, by raising the interrupt mask level in the SR.

3.8.1 Exception Stack Frame Definition

The first longword of the exception stack frame, [Figure 3-15,](#page-115-0) holds the 16-bit format/vector word (F/V) and 16-bit status register. The second holds the 32-bit program counter address of the faulted or interrupted instruction.

Figure 3-15. Exception Stack Frame

[Table 3-22](#page-116-0) describes F/V fields. FS encodings added to support the CF4e MMU are noted.

Table 3-22. Format/Vector Word

¹ This generally refers to taking an I/O interrupt during a debug service routine but also applies to other fault types. If an access error occurs during a debug service routine, FS is set to 0111 if it is due to an instruction fetch or to 1111 for a data access. This applies only to access errors with the MMU present. If an access error occurs without an MMU, FS is set to 0010.

3.8.2 Processor Exceptions

[Table 3-23](#page-117-0) describes CF4e exceptions. Note that if a ColdFire processor encounters any fault while processing another fault, it immediately halts execution with a catastrophic fault-on-fault condition. A reset is required to force the processor to exit this halted state.

 $\overline{}$

Table 3-23. Processor Exceptions (Continued)

3.9 Precise Faults

To support a demand-paged virtual memory environment, all memory references require precise, recoverable faults. The ColdFire instruction restart mechanism ensures that a faulted instruction restarts from the beginning of execution; that is, no internal state information is saved when an exception occurs and none is restored when the handler ends. Given the PC address defined in the exception stack frame, the processor reestablishes program execution by transferring control to the given location as part of the RTE (return from exception) instruction.

The instruction restart recovery model requires program-visible register changes made during execution to be undone if that instruction subsequently faults.

The Version 4 (and later) OEP structure naturally supports this concept for most instructions; program-visible registers are updated only in the final OEP stage when fault collection is complete. If any type of exception occurs, pending register updates are discarded.

For V4 cores and later, most single-cycle instructions already support precise faults and instruction restart. Some complex instructions do not. Consider the following memory-to-memory move:

mov.l $(Ay) +$, $(Ax) +$ # copy 4 bytes from source to destination

On a Version 4 processor, this instruction takes one cycle to read the source operand (Ay) and one to write the data into Ax. Both the source and destination address pointers are updated as part of execution. [Table 3-24](#page-119-0) lists the operations performed in execute stage (EX).

Table 3-24. OEP EX Cycle Operations

A fault detected with the destination memory write is reported during the second cycle. At this point, operations performed in the first cycle are complete, so if the destination write takes any type of access error, Ay is updated. After the access error handler executes and the faulting instruction restarts, the processor's operation is incorrect because the source address register has an incorrect (post-incremented) value.

To recover the original state of the programming model for all instructions, the CF4e CPU adds the needed hardware to support full register recovery. This hardware allows program-visible registers to be restored to their original state for multi-cycle instructions so that the instruction restart mechanism is supported. Memory-to-memory moves and move multiple loads are representative of the complex instructions needing the special recovery support.

The other major pipeline change affects the IFP. The IFP and OEP are decoupled by a FIFO instruction buffer. In the V4 IFP, each buffer entry includes 48 bits of instruction data fetched from memory and 64 bits of early decode and branch prediction information. This datapath is expanded slightly to include IFP fault status information. Thus, every IFP access can be tagged in case an instruction fetch terminates with an error acknowledge.

NOTE

For access errors signaled on instruction prefetches, an access error exception is generated only if instruction execution is attempted. If an instruction fetch access error exception is generated and the FS field indicates the fault occurred on an extension word, it may be necessary for the exception PC to be rounded-up to the next page address to determine the faulting instruction fetch address.

Chapter 4 Enhanced Multiply-Accumulate Unit (EMAC)

This chapter describes the functionality, microarchitecture, and performance of the enhanced multiply-accumulate (EMAC) unit in the ColdFire family of processors.

4.1 Introduction

The MAC design provides a set of DSP operations which can be used to improve the performance of embedded code while supporting the integer multiply instructions of the baseline ColdFire architecture.

The MAC provides functionality in three related areas:

- Signed and unsigned integer multiplies
- Multiply-accumulate operations supporting signed and unsigned integer operands, as well as signed, fixed-point, fractional operands
- Miscellaneous register operations

The ColdFire family supports two MAC implementations with different performance levels and capabilities. The original MAC uses a three-stage execution pipeline optimized for 16-bit operands and featuring a 16×16 multiply array with a single 32-bit accumulator. The EMAC features a four-stage pipeline optimized for 32-bit operands, with a fully pipelined 32×32 multiply array and four 48-bit accumulators.

The first ColdFire MAC supported signed and unsigned integer operands and was optimized for 16×16 operations, such as those found in a variety of applications, including servo control and image compression. As ColdFire-based systems proliferated, the desire for more precision on input operands increased. The result was an improved ColdFire MAC with user-programmable control to optionally enable use of fractional input operands.

EMAC improvements target three primary areas:

- Improved performance of 32×32 multiply operations.
- Addition of three more accumulators to minimize EMAC pipeline stalls caused by exchanges between the accumulator and the pipeline's general-purpose registers.
- A 48-bit accumulation data path to allow the use of a 40-bit product plus the addition of 8 extension bits to increase the dynamic number range when implementing signal processing algorithms.

The three areas of functionality are addressed in detail in following sections. The logic required to support this functionality is contained in a MAC module, as shown in [Figure 4-1](#page-122-0).

Figure 4-1. Multiply-Accumulate Functionality Diagram

4.1.1 MAC Overview

The MAC is an extension of the basic multiplier found in most microprocessors. It is typically implemented in hardware within an architecture and supports rapid execution of signal processing algorithms in fewer cycles than comparable non-MAC architectures. For example, small digital filters can tolerate some variance in an algorithm's execution time, but larger, more complicated algorithms such as orthogonal transforms may have more demanding speed requirements beyond the scope of any processor architecture, and may require full DSP implementation.

To strike a balance between speed, size, and functionality, the ColdFire MAC is optimized for a small set of operations that involve multiplication and cumulative additions. Specifically, the multiplier array is optimized for single-cycle pipelined operations with a possible accumulation after product generation. This functionality is common in many signal processing applications. The ColdFire core architecture also has been modified to allow an operand to be fetched in parallel with a multiply, increasing overall performance for certain DSP operations.

Consider a typical filtering operation where the filter is defined,11 as in [Figure 4-2.](#page-123-0)

$$
N-1
$$

y(i) = $\sum_{k=1}^{N-1} a(k)y(i-k) + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} b(k)x(i-k)$

Figure 4-2. Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) Filter

Here, the output y(i) is determined by past output values and past input values. This is the general form of an infinite impulse response (IIR) filter. A finite impulse response (FIR) filter can be obtained by setting coefficients a(k) to zero. In either case, the operations involved in computing such a filter are multiplies and product summing. To show this point, reduce the above equation to a simple, four-tap FIR filter, shown in [Figure 4-3,](#page-123-1) in which the accumulated sum is a sum of past data values and coefficients.

$$
y(i) = \sum_{k=0} b(k)x(i-k) = b(0)x(i) + b(1)x(i-1) + b(2)x(i-2) + b(3)x(i-3)
$$

Figure 4-3. Four-Tap FIR Filter

4.1.2 General Operation

The MAC speeds execution of ColdFire integer multiply instructions (MULS and MULU) and provides additional functionality for multiply-accumulate operations. By executing MULS and MULU in the MAC, execution times are minimized and deterministic compared to the 2-bit/cycle algorithm with early termination that the OEP normally uses if no MAC hardware is present.

The added MAC instructions to the ColdFire ISA provide for the multiplication of two numbers, followed by the addition or subtraction of the product to or from the value in an accumulator. Optionally, the product may be shifted left or right by 1 bit before addition or subtraction. Hardware support for saturation arithmetic can be enabled to minimize software overhead when dealing with potential overflow conditions. Multiply-accumulate operations support 16- or 32-bit input operands of the following formats:

- Signed integers
- Unsigned integers
- Signed, fixed-point, fractional numbers

The EMAC is optimized for single-cycle, pipelined 32×32 multiplications. For word- and longword-sized integer input operands, the low-order 40 bits of the product are formed and used with the destination accumulator. For fractional operands, the entire 64-bit product is calculated and either truncated or rounded to the most-significant 40-bit result using the round-to-nearest (even) method before it is combined with the destination accumulator.

For all operations, the resulting 40-bit product is extended to a 48-bit value (using sign-extension for signed integer and fractional operands, zero-fill for unsigned integer operands) before being combined with the 48-bit destination accumulator.

[Figure 4-4](#page-124-0) and [Figure 4-5](#page-125-0) show relative alignment of input operands, the full 64-bit product, the resulting 40-bit product used for accumulation, and 48-bit accumulator formats.

Figure 4-4. Fractional Alignment

Figure 4-5. Signed and Unsigned Integer Alignment

Thus, the 48-bit accumulator definition is a function of the EMAC operating mode. Given that each 48-bit accumulator is the concatenation of 16-bit accumulator extension register (ACCext*n*) contents and 32-bit ACC*n* contents, the specific definitions are as follows:

```
if MACSR[6:5] == 00/* signed integer mode */
      Complete Accumulator[47:0] = {ACCextn[15:0], ACCn[31:0]}
if MACSR[6:5] == -1/* signed fractional mode */Complete Accumulator [47:0] = {ACCextn[15:8], ACCn[31:0], ACCextn[7:0]}
if MACSR[6:5] == 10/* unsigned integer mode */
      Complete Accumulator[47:0] = {ACCextn[15:0], ACCn[31:0]}
```
The four accumulators are represented as an array, ACC*n*, where *n* selects the register.

Although the multiplier array is implemented in a four-stage pipeline, all arithmetic MAC instructions have an effective issue rate of 1 cycle, regardless of input operand size or type.

All arithmetic operations use register-based input operands, and summed values are stored internally in an accumulator. Thus, an additional move instruction is needed to store data in a general-purpose register. One new feature found in EMAC instructions is the ability to choose the upper or lower word of a register as a 16-bit input operand. This is useful in filtering operations if one data register is loaded with the input data and another is loaded with the coefficient. Two 16-bit multiply accumulates can be performed without fetching additional operands between instructions by alternating the word choice during the calculations.

The EMAC has four accumulator registers versus the MAC's one accumulator. The additional registers improve the performance of some algorithms by minimizing pipeline stalls needed to store an accumulator value back to general-purpose registers. Many algorithms require multiple calculations on a given data set. By applying different accumulators to these calculations, it is often possible to store one accumulator without any stalls while performing operations involving a different destination accumulator.

The need to move large amounts of data presents an obstacle to obtaining high throughput rates in DSP engines. New and existing ColdFire instructions can accommodate these requirements. A MOVEM instruction can move large blocks of data efficiently by generating line-sized burst transfers. The ability to simultaneously load an operand from memory into a register and execute a MAC instruction makes some DSP operations such as filtering and convolution more manageable.

The programming model includes a 16-bit mask register (MASK), which can optionally be used to generate an operand address during MAC + MOVE instructions. The application of this register with auto-increment addressing mode supports efficient implementation of circular data queues for memory operands.

The additional MAC status register (MACSR) contains a 4-bit operational mode field and condition flags. Operational mode bits control whether operands are signed or unsigned and whether they are treated as integers or fractions. These bits also control the overflow/saturation mode and the way in which rounding is performed. Negative, zero, and multiple overflow condition flags are also provided.

4.2 Memory Map/Register Definition

The EMAC provides the following program-visible registers:

- Four 32-bit accumulators (ACC*n* = ACC0, ACC1, ACC2, and ACC3)
- Eight 8-bit accumulator extensions (two per accumulator), packaged as two 32-bit values for load and store operations (ACCext01 and ACCext23)
- One 16-bit mask register (MASK)
- One 32-bit MAC status register (MACSR) including four indicator bits signaling product or accumulation overflow (one for each accumulator: PAV0–PAV3)

These registers are shown in [Figure 4-6.](#page-126-0)

Figure 4-6. EMAC Register Set

4.2.1 MAC Status Register (MACSR)

MACSR functionality is organized as follows:

- MACSR[11–8] contains one product/accumulation overflow flag per accumulator.
- MACSR[7–4] defines the operating configuration of the MAC unit.
- MACSR[3–0] contains indicator flags from the last MAC instruction execution.

Figure 4-7. MAC Status Register (MACSR)

[Table 4-1](#page-127-0) describes MACSR fields.

[Table 4-2](#page-129-1) summarizes the interaction of the MACSR[S/U,F/I,R/T] control bits.

S/U	F/I	RЛ	Operational Modes
O	0	x	Signed, integer
Ω	1	0	Signed, fractional Truncate on MAC.L and MSAC.L No round on accumulator stores
∩	1	1	Signed, fractional Round on MAC.L and MSAC.L Round-to-32-bits on accumulator stores
1	0	x	Unsigned, integer
1	1	0	Signed, fractional Truncate on MAC.L and MSAC.L Round-to-16-bits on accumulator stores
	1		Signed, fractional Round on MAC.L and MSAC.L Round-to-16-bits on accumulator stores

Table 4-2. Summary of S/U, F/I, and R/T Control Bits

4.2.1.1 Fractional Operation Mode

This section describes behavior when the fractional mode is used (MACSR[F/I] is set).

4.2.1.1.1 Rounding

When the processor is in fractional mode, there are two operations during which rounding can occur.

- Execution of a store accumulator instruction (MOV.L ACCx,Rx). The lsbs of the 48-bit accumulator logic are used to round the resulting 16- or 32-bit value. If MACSR[S/U] is cleared, the low-order $\tilde{8}$ bits are used to round the resulting 32-bit fraction. If MACSR[S/U] is set, the low-order 24 bits are used to round the resulting 16-bit fraction.
- Execution of a MAC (or MSAC) instruction with 32-bit operands. If MACSR[R/T] is zero, multiplying two 32-bit numbers creates a 64-bit product that is truncated to the upper 40 bits; otherwise, it is rounded using round-to-nearest (even) method.

To understand the round-to-nearest-even method, consider the following example involving the rounding of a 32-bit number, R0, to a 16-bit number. Using this method, the 32-bit number is rounded to the closest 16-bit number possible. Let the high-order 16 bits of R0 be named R0.U and the low-order 16 bits be R0.L.

- If R0.L is less than 0x8000, the result is truncated to the value of R0.U.
- If R0.L is greater than 0x8000, the upper word is incremented (rounded up).
- If R0.L is 0x8000, R0 is half-way between two 16-bit numbers. In this case, rounding is based on the lsb of R0.U, so the result is always even $(lsb = 0)$.
	- If the lsb of $R0.U = 1$ and $R0.L = 0x8000$, the number is rounded up.
	- If the lsb of $R0.U = 0$ and $R0.L = 0x8000$, the number is rounded down.

This method minimizes rounding bias and creates as statistically correct an answer as possible.

The rounding algorithm is summarized in the following pseudocode:

```
if R0.L < 0x8000
```

```
then Result = R0.U
else if R0.L > 0x8000
```


```
then Result = R0.U + 1else if lsb of R0.U = 0 /* R0.L = 0x8000 */
   then Result = R0.U
   else Result = R0.U + 1
```
The round-to-nearest-even technique is also known as convergent rounding.

4.2.1.1.2 Saving and Restoring the EMAC Programming Model

The presence of rounding logic in the output datapath of the EMAC requires that special care be taken during the EMAC's save/restore process. In particular, any result rounding modes must be disabled during the save/restore process so the exact bit-wise contents of the EMAC registers are accessed. Consider the following memory structure containing the EMAC programming model:

```
struct macState {
      int acc0;
      int acc1;
      int acc2;
     int acc3;
      int accext01; 
      int accext02;
      int mask; 
      int macsr;
} macState;
```
The following assembly language routine shows the proper sequence for a correct EMAC state save. This code assumes all Dn and An registers are available for use and the memory location of the state save is defined by A7.

```
EMAC_state_save:
```

```
move.1 macsr, d7 ; save the macsr
clr.1 d0 ; zero the register to ...
move.1 d0, macsr ; disable rounding in the macsr
move.1 acc0,d0 ; save the accumulators
move.l acc1,d1
move.l acc2,d2
move.l acc3,d3
move.1 accext01,d4 ; save the accumulator extensions
move.1 accext23,d5<br>move.1 mask,d6
                       ; save the address mask
movem.1 #0x00ff,(a7) ; move the state to memory
```
The following code performs the EMAC state restore:

```
EMAC_state_restore:
```

```
movem.1 (a7), #0x00ff ; restore the state from memory
move.1 #0, macsr ; disable rounding in the macsr
move.1 d0, acc0 ; restore the accumulators
move.l d1,acc1
move.l d2,acc2
move.l d3,acc3 
move.1 d4, accext01 ; restore the accumulator extensions
move.l d5,accext23
```


```
move.1 d6, mask ; restore the address mask
move.1 d7, macsr ; restore the macsr
```
By executing this type of sequence, the exact state of the EMAC programming model can be correctly saved and restored.

4.2.1.1.3 MULS/MULU

MULS and MULU are unaffected by fractional mode operation; operands are still assumed to be integers.

4.2.1.1.4 Scale Factor in MAC or MSAC Instructions

The scale factor is ignored while the MAC is in fractional mode.

4.2.2 Mask Register (MASK)

The 32-bit MASK implements the low-order 16 bits to minimize the alignment complications involved with loading and storing only 16 bits. When the MASK is loaded, the low-order 16 bits of the source operand are actually loaded into the register. When it is stored, the upper 16 bits are all forced to ones.

This register performs a simple AND with the operand address for MAC instructions. That is, the processor calculates the normal operand address and, if enabled, that address is then ANDed with {0xFFFF, MASK[15:0]} to form the final address. Therefore, with certain MASK bits cleared, the operand address can be constrained to a certain memory region. This is used primarily to implement circular queues in conjunction with the (An)+ addressing mode.

This feature minimizes the addressing support required for filtering, convolution, or any routine that implements a data array as a circular queue. For MAC + MOVE operations, the MASK contents can optionally be included in all memory effective address calculations. The syntax is as follows:

MAC.sz Ry,RxSF,<ea>y&,Rw

The & operator enables the use of MASK and causes bit 5 of the extension word to be set. The exact algorithm for the use of MASK is as follows:

```
if extension word, bit [5] = 1, the MASK bit, then
         if \langle ea \rangle = (An)oa = An & {0xFFFF, MASK}if \langle ea \rangle = (An) +oa = An
                    An = (An + 4) & (0xFFF, MAX)if \langle ea \rangle =-(An)oa = (An - 4) & {0xFFFF, MASK}
                    An = (An - 4) & \{0xFFFF, MAX\}if \langle ea \rangle = (d16, An)oa = (An + se_d16) & {0xFFFF0x, MASK}
```
Here, oa is the calculated operand address and se_d16 is a sign-extended 16-bit displacement. For auto-addressing modes of post-increment and pre-decrement, the calculation of the updated An value is also shown.

Use of the post-increment addressing mode, $\{(An)+\}$ with the MASK is suggested for circular queue implementations.

4.3 EMAC Instruction Set Summary

[Table 4-3](#page-132-0) summarizes EMAC unit instructions.

4.3.1 EMAC Instruction Execution Timing

The instruction execution times for the EMAC can be found in [Section 3.7, "Instruction Execution](#page-104-0) [Timing.](#page-104-0)"

The ColdFire family supports two multiply-accumulate implementations that provide different levels of performance and capability for differing silicon costs. The EMAC features a four-stage execution pipeline, optimized for 32-bit operands with a fully-pipelined 32×32 multiply array and four 48-bit accumulators.

The EMAC execution pipeline overlaps the AGEX stage of the OEP; that is, the first stage of the EMAC pipeline is the last stage of the basic OEP. EMAC units are designed for sustained, fully-pipelined operation on accumulator load, copy, and multiply-accumulate instructions. However, instructions that store contents of the multiply-accumulate programming model can generate OEP stalls that expose the EMAC execution pipeline depth, as in the following:

mac.w Ry, Rx, Acc0

move.l Acc0, Rz

The mov.l instruction that stores the accumulator to an integer register (Rz) stalls until the program-visible copy of the accumulator is available. [Figure 4-8](#page-133-1) shows EMAC timing.

Figure 4-8. EMAC-Specific OEP Sequence Stall

In [Figure 4-8](#page-133-1), the OEP stalls the store-accumulator instruction for 3 cycles: the depth of the EMAC pipeline minus 1. The minus 1 factor is needed because the OEP and EMAC pipelines overlap by a cycle, the AGEX stage. As the store-accumulator instruction reaches the AGEX stage where the operation is performed, the just-updated accumulator 0 value is available.

As with change or use stalls between accumulators and general-purpose registers, introducing intervening instructions that do not reference the busy register can reduce or eliminate sequence-related store-MAC instruction stalls. In fact, a major benefit of the EMAC is the addition of three accumulators to minimize stalls caused by exchanges between the accumulator(s) and the general-purpose registers.

4.3.2 Data Representation

MACSR[S/U,F/I] selects one of the following three modes, where each mode defines a unique operand type:

- Two's complement signed integer: In this format, an N-bit operand value lies in the range $-2^{(N-1)}$ \leq operand \leq 2^(N-1) - 1. The binary point is right of the lsb.
- Unsigned integer: In this format, an N-bit operand value lies in the range $0 \leq$ operand $\leq 2^N 1$. The binary point is right of the lsb.
- Two's complement, signed fractional: In an *N*-bit number, the first bit is the sign bit. The remaining bits signify the first N-1 bits after the binary point. Given an N-bit number, $a_{N-1}a_{N-2}a_{N-3}... a_2a_1a_0$, its value is given by the equation in [Figure 4-9.](#page-133-2)

value =
$$
-(1 \cdot a_{N-1}) + \sum_{i=0}^{N-2} 2^{(i+1-N)} \cdot ai
$$

Figure 4-9. Two's Complement, Signed Fractional Equation

This format can represent numbers in the range $-1 \leq$ operand $\leq 1 - 2^{(N-1)}$.

For words and longwords, the largest negative number that can be represented is -1, whose internal representation is $0x8000$ and $0x8000$ _0000, respectively. The largest positive word is $0x7$ FFF or $(1 - 2^{-15})$; the most positive longword is $0x7FFF_FFFF$ or $(1 - 2^{-31})$.

4.3.3 EMAC Opcodes

EMAC opcodes are described in the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual*. Note the following:

- Unless otherwise noted, the value of MACSR[N,Z] is based on the result of the final operation that involves the product and the accumulator.
- The overflow (V) flag is handled differently. It is set if the complete product cannot be represented as a 40-bit value (this applies to 32×32 integer operations only) or if the combination of the product with an accumulator cannot be represented in the given number of bits. The EMAC design includes an additional product/accumulation overflow bit for each accumulator that are treated as sticky indicators and are used to calculate the V bit on each MAC or MSAC instruction. See [Section 4.2.1, "MAC Status Register \(MACSR\).](#page-126-1)"
- For the MAC design, the assembler syntax of the MAC (multiply and add to accumulator) and MSAC (multiply and subtract from accumulator) instructions does not include a reference to the single accumulator. For the EMAC, it is expected that assemblers support this syntax and that no explicit reference to an accumulator is interpreted as a reference to ACC0. These assemblers would also support syntaxes where the destination accumulator is explicitly defined.
- The optional 1-bit shift of the product is specified using the notation $\{\langle \langle \rangle \rangle\}$ SF, where $\langle \langle 1 \rangle$ indicates a left shift and >>1 indicates a right shift. The shift is performed before the product is added to or subtracted from the accumulator. Without this operator, the product is not shifted. If the EMAC is in fractional mode (MACSR[F/I] is set), SF is ignored and no shift is performed. Because a product can overflow, the following guidelines are implemented:
	- For unsigned word and longword operations, a zero is shifted into the product on right shifts.
	- For signed, word operations, the sign bit is shifted into the product on right shifts unless the product is zero. For signed, longword operations, the sign bit is shifted into the product unless an overflow occurs or the product is zero, in which case a zero is shifted in.
	- For all left shifts, a zero is inserted into the lsb position.

The following pseudocode explains basic MAC or MSAC instruction functionality. This example is presented as a case statement covering the three basic operating modes with signed integers, unsigned integers, and signed fractionals. Throughout this example, a comma-separated list in curly brackets, {}, indicates a concatenation operation.

```
switch (MACSR[6:5]) /* MACSR[S/U, F/I] */
{
  case 0: /* signed integers */
     if (MACSR, OMC == 0 || MACSR, PAVX == 0)then {
              MACSR.PAVx = 0
              /* select the input operands */
              if (sz == word)then \{if (U/Ly == 1)then operandY[31:0] = {sign-extended Ry}[31], Ry[31:16]else operandY[31:0] = {sign-extended Ry[15], Ry[15:0]}if (U/Lx == 1)then operandX[31:0] = {sign-extended Rx[31], Rx[31:16]}else operandX[31:0] = {sign-extended Rx[15], Rx[15:0]}
```


```
}
  else \{operatorIdY[31:0] = Ry[31:0]operandX[31:0] = Rx[31:0]}
/* perform the multiply */
product[63:0] = operandY[31:0] * operandX[31:0]/* check for product overflow */
if ((product[63:39] != 0x0000_00_0) && (product[63:39] != 0xfff
  f_f(f_1)then { /* product overflow */
        MACSR.PAVx = 1
        MACSR.V = 1if (inst == MSAC & & MACSR. OMC == 1)
           then if (preduct[63] == 1)then result[47:0] = 0x0000_7fff_ffff
                   else result[47:0] = 0xffff_8000_0000
           else if (MACSR.OMC == 1)
                   then /* overflowed MAC,
                           saturationMode enabled */
                        if (preduct[63] == 1)then result[47:0] = 0xffff_8000_0000
                          else result[47:0] = 0x0000_7ffff_ffff}
/* sign-extend to 48 bits before performing any scaling */
        product[47:40] = {8{product}[39] } /* sign-extend */
/* scale product before combining with accumulator */
switch (SF) /* 2-bit scale factor */
{
   case 0: /* no scaling specified */
      break;
   case 1: /* SF = "<< 1" */product[40:0] = {product[39:0], 0}break;
   case 2: /* reserved encoding */
      break;
   case 3: /* SF = "\gg" 1" */product[39:0] = {product[39], product[39:1]}
      break;
}
if (MACSR.PAVx == 0)
  then {if (inst == MSAC)
           then result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] - product[47:0]else result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] + product[47:0]}
/* check for accumulation overflow */
if (accumulationOverflow == 1)
  then {MACSR.PAVx = 1
```

```
MACSR.V = 1if (MACSR.OMC == 1)then /* accumulation overflow,
                                saturationMode enabled */
                             if (result[47] == 1)then result[47:0] = 0x0000_7fff_ffff
                                else result[47:0] = 0xffff_8000_0000
               }
            /* transfer the result to the accumulator */
            ACCx[47:0] = result[47:0]}
      MACSR.V = MACSR.PAVx
      MACSR.N = ACCx[47]if (ACCx[47:0] == 0x0000_0000_0000)
         then MACSR.Z = 1
         else MACSR.Z = 0
      if ((ACCx[47:31] == 0x0000_0) || (ACCx[47:31] == 0xffff_1))
         then MACSR.EV = 0
         else MACSR.EV = 1
break;
   case 1,3: \frac{1}{3} /* signed fractionals */
   if (MACSR. OMC == 0 || MACSR.PAVX == 0)then {
           MACSR.PAVx = 0
            if (sz == word)
               then \{if (U/Ly == 1)then operator{dY[31:0]} = {RY[31:16]}, 0x0000}else operandY[31:0] = {Ry[15:0]}, 0x0000}
                     if (U/Lx == 1)then operandX[31:0] = {Rx[31:16], 0x0000}
                        else operandX[31:0] = {Rx[15:0], 0x0000}
               }
               else {operandY[31:0]} = Py[31:0]operandX[31:0] = Rx[31:0]
               }
            /* perform the multiply */
            product[63:0] = (operandY[31:0] * operandX[31:0]) << 1/* check for product rounding */
            if (MACSR.R/T == 1)then { /* perform convergent rounding */
                   if (product[23:0] > 0x80_0000)
                     then product[63:24] = product[63:24] + 1else if ((product[23:0] == 0x80_0000) & (product[24] == 1))then product[63:24] = product[63:24] + 1}
            /* sign-extend to 48 bits and combine with accumulator */
            /* check for the -1 * -1 overflow case */
            if ((\text{operandY}[31:0] == 0x8000\_0000) & & (overandX[31:0] == 0x8000\_0000))then product[71:64] = 0x00 /* zero-fill */
               else product [71:64] = {8{product [63]}} /* sign-extend */
            if (inst == MSAC)
               then result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] - product[71:24]else result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] + product[71:24]
```


```
/* check for accumulation overflow */
            if (accumulationOverflow == 1)
               then {MACSR.PAVx = 1
                     MACSR.V = 1if (MACSR. OMC == 1)then /* accumulation overflow,
                                saturationMode enabled */
                             if (result[47] == 1)then result[47:0] = 0x007f_{ffff_{ff}}else result[47:0] = 0xff80_0000_0000
               }
            /* transfer the result to the accumulator */
            ACCx[47:0] = result[47:0]}
      MACSR.V = MACSR.PAVx
      MACSR.N = ACCx[47]if (ACCx[47:0] == 0x0000_0000_0000)
          then MACSR.Z = 1
          else MACSR.Z = 0
      if ((ACCx[47:39] == 0x00_0) | (ACCx[47:39] == 0xff_1))
          then MACSR.EV = 0
          else MACSR.EV = 1
break;
case 2: /* unsigned integers */
   if (MACSR. OMC == 0 || MACSR.PAVX == 0)then {
            MACSR.PAVx = 0
            /* select the input operands */
            if (sz == word)
               then \{if (U/Ly == 1)then operandY[31:0] = \{0x0000, Ry[31:16]\}else operandY[31:0] = {0x0000, Ry[15:0]}
                     if (U/Lx == 1)then operandX[31:0] = \{0 \times 0000, \text{ Rx}[31:16]\}else operandX[31:0] = {0x0000, Rx[15:0]}
               }
               else {operandY[31:0]} = Ry[31:0]operandX[31:0] = Rx[31:0]}
            /* perform the multiply */
            product[63:0] = operator[31:0] * operator[31:0]/* check for product overflow */
            if (product[63:40] != 0x0000_00)
               then { /* product overflow */
                     MACSR.PAVx = 1
                     MACSR.V = 1
                     if (inst == MSAC 66 MACSR. OMC == 1)
                        then result[47:0] = 0x0000_0000_0000
                        else if (MACSR.OMC == 1)
                                then /* overflowed MAC,
                                         saturationMode enabled */
```
EMAC Instruction Set Summary

```
result[47:0] = 0xffff_fffff_ffff}
            /* zero-fill to 48 bits before performing any scaling */
                    product [47:40] = 0 /* zero-fill upper byte */
            /* scale product before combining with accumulator */
            switch (SF) /* 2-bit scale factor */
            {
                case 0: /* no scaling specified */
                  break;
                case 1: /* SF = "<< 1" */product[40:0] = {product[39:0], 0}break;
                case 2: /* reserved encoding */
                  break;
                case 3: /* SF = ">> 1" */
                  product[39:0] = {0, product[39:1]}break;
            }
            /* combine with accumulator */
            if (MACSR.PAVx == 0)
              then {if (inst == MSAC)
                       then result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] - product[47:0]else result[47:0] = ACCx[47:0] + product[47:0]}
            /* check for accumulation overflow */
            if (accumulationOverflow == 1)
              then {MACSR.PAVx = 1
                    MACSR.V = 1if (inst == MSAC 66 MACSR. OMC == 1)
                       then result[47:0] = 0x0000_0000_0000
                       else if (MACSR.OMC == 1)
                             then /* overflowed MAC,
                                     saturationMode enabled */
                                 result[47:0] = 0xffff_fffff_ffff}
            /* transfer the result to the accumulator */
           ACCx[47:0] = result[47:0]}
     MACSR.V = MACSR.PAVx
     MACSR.N = ACCx[47]if (ACCx[47:0] == 0x0000_0000_0000)
        then MACSR.Z = 1
        else MACSR.Z = 0
      if (ACCx[47:32] == 0x0000)then MACSR.EV = 0
         else MACSR.EV = 1
break;
```
}

This chapter describes the ColdFire virtual memory management unit (MMU), which provides virtual-to-physical address translation and memory access control. The MMU consists of memory-mapped control, status, and fault registers that provide access to translation-lookaside buffers (TLBs). Software can control address translation and access attributes of a virtual address by configuring MMU control registers and loading TLBs. With software support, the MMU provides demand-paged, virtual addressing.

5.1 Features

The MMU has the following features:

- MMU memory-mapped control, status, and fault registers
	- Support a flexible, software-defined virtual environment
	- Provide control and maintenance of TLBs
	- Provide fault status and recovery information functions
- Separate, 32-entry, fully associative instruction and data TLBs (Harvard TLBs)
	- Resides in the controller
	- Operates in parallel with the memories
	- Suffers no performance penalty on TLB hits
	- Supports 1-, 4-, and 8-Kbyte and 1-Mbyte page sizes concurrently
	- Contains register-based TLB entries
- Core extensions:
	- User stack pointer
	- All access error exceptions are precise and recoverable
- Harvard TLB provides 97% of baseline performance on large embedded applications using equivalent V4 without MMU support as a baseline.

5.2 Virtual Memory Management Architecture

The ColdFire memory management architecture provides a demand-paged, virtual-address environment with hardware address translation acceleration. It supports supervisor/user, read, write, and execute permission checking on a per-memory request basis.

The architecture defines the MMU TLB, associated control logic, TLB hit/miss logic, address translation based on the TLB contents, and access faults due to TLB misses and access violations. It intentionally leaves some virtual environment details undefined to maximize the software-defined flexibility. These include the exact structure of the memory-resident pointer descriptor/page descriptor tables, the base registers for these tables, the exact information stored in the tables, the methodology (if any) for maintenance of access, and written information on a per-page basis.

5.2.1 MMU Architecture Features

To add optional virtual addressing support, demand-page support, permission checking, and hardware address translation acceleration to the ColdFire architecture, the MMU architecture features the following:

• Addresses from the core to the MMU are treated as physical or virtual addresses.

- The address access control logic, address attribute logic, memories, and controller function as in previous ColdFire versions with the addition of the MMU. The MMU, its TLB, and associated control reside in the logic.
- The MMU appears as a memory-mapped device in the space. Information for access error fault processing is stored in the MMU.
- A precise fault (transfer error acknowledge) signals the core on translation (TLB miss) and access faults. The core supports an instruction restart model for this fault class. Note that this structure uses the existing ColdFire access error fault vector and needs no new ColdFire exception stack frames.
- The following additions are made to the memory access control to better support the fault processing and memory maintenance necessary for this virtual addressing environment. These additions improve memory performance and functionality for physical and virtual address environments:
	- New supervisor-protect bits to the access control registers (ACRs) and the cache control register (CACR)
	- Improved addressing of the ACRs

5.2.2 MMU Architecture Location

[Figure 5-1](#page-142-0) shows the placement of the MMU/TLB hardware. It follows a traditional model in which it is closely coupled to the processor local-memory controllers.

Virtual Memory Management Architecture

5.2.3 MMU Architecture Implementation

This section describes ColdFire design additions and changes for the MMU architecture. It includes precise faults, MMU access, virtual mode, virtual memory references, instruction and data cache addresses, supervisor/user stack pointers, access error stack frame additions, expanded control register space, ACR address improvements, supervisor protection, and debugging in a virtual environment.

5.2.3.1 Precise Faults

The MMU architecture performs virtual-to-physical address translation and permission checking in the core. To support demand-paging, the core design provides a precise, recoverable fault for all references.

5.2.3.2 MMU Access

The MMU TLB control registers are memory-mapped. The TLB entries are read and written indirectly through the MMU control registers. The memory space for these resources is defined by a new supervisor program model register, the MMU base address register (MMUBAR). This register defines a supervisor-mode, data-only space. It has the highest priority for the data address mode determination.

5.2.3.3 Virtual Mode

Every instruction and data reference is either a virtual or physical address mode access. All addresses for special mode (interrupt acknowledges, emulator mode operations, etc.) accesses are physical. All addresses are physical if the MMU is not enabled. If the MMU is present and enabled, the address mode for normal accesses is determined by the MMUBAR, RAMBARs, and ACRs in the priority order listed. Addresses that hit in the MMUBAR, RAMBARs, and ACRs are treated as physical references. These addresses are not translated and their address attributes are sourced from the highest priority mapping register they hit. If an address hits none of these mapping registers, it is a virtual address and is sent to the MMU. If the MMU is enabled, the default CACR information is not used.

5.2.3.4 Virtual Memory References

The ColdFire MMU architecture references the MMU for all virtual mode accesses to the . MMU, SRAM and ACR memory spaces are treated as physical address spaces and all permissions that apply to these spaces are contained in the respective mapping register. The virtual mode access either hits or misses in the TLB of the MMU. A TLB miss generates an access fault in the processor, allowing software to either load the appropriate translation into the TLB and restart the faulting instruction or abort the process. Each TLB hit checks permissions based on the access control information in the referenced TLB entry.

5.2.3.5 Instruction and Data Cache Addresses

For a given page size, virtual address bits that reference within a page are called the in-page address. All bits above this are the virtual page number. Likewise, the physical address has a physical page number and in-page address bits. Virtual and physical in-page address bits are the same; the MMU translates the virtual page number to the physical page number.

Instruction and data caches are accessed with the untranslated address. The translated address is used for cache allocation. That is, caches are virtual-address accessed and physical-address tagged. If instruction and data cache addresses are not larger than the in-page address for the smallest active MMU page, the cache is considered physically accessed; if they are larger, the cache can have aliasing problems between virtual and cache addresses. Software handles these problems by forcing the virtual address to be equal to the physical address for those bits addressing the cache, but above the in-page address of the smallest active page size. The number of these bits depends on cache and page sizes.

Caches are addressed with the virtual address, because the cache uses synchronous memory elements, and an access starts at the rising-clock edge of the first pipeline stage. The MMU provides a physical address midway through this cycle.

If the cache set address has fewer bits than the in-page address, the cache is considered physically addressed because these bits are the same in the virtual and physical addresses. If the cache set address has

more bits than the in-page address, one or more of the low-order virtual page number bits are used to address the cache. The MMU translates these bits; the resulting low-order physical page number bits are used to determine cache hits.

Address aliasing problems occur when two virtual addresses access one physical page. This is generally allowed and, if the page is cacheable, one coherent copy of the page image is mapped in the cache at any time.

If multiple virtual addresses pointing to the same physical address differ only in the low-order virtual page number bits, conflicting copies can be allocated. For an 8-Kbyte, 4-way, set-associative cache with a 16-byte line size, the cache set address uses address bits 10–4. If virtual addresses 0x0_1000 and 0x0_1400 are mapped to physical address 0x0_1000, using virtual address 0x0_1000 loads cache set 0x00; using virtual address $0x0$ 1400 loads cache set 0x40. This puts two copies of the same physical address in the cache making this memory space not coherent. To avoid this problem, software must force low-order virtual page number bits to be equal to low-order physical address bits for all bits used to address the cache set.

5.2.3.6 Supervisor/User Stack Pointers

To isolate supervisor and user modes, CF4e implements two A7 register stack pointers, one for supervisor mode (SSP) and one for user mode (USP). Two former M68000 family privileged instructions to load and store the user stack pointer are restored in the instruction set architecture.

5.2.3.7 Access Error Stack Frame

 accesses that fault (that is, terminate with a transfer error acknowledge) generate an access error exception. MMU TLB misses and access violations use the same fault. To quickly determine if a fault was due to a TLB miss or another type of access error, new fault status field (FS) encodings in the exception stack frame signal TLB misses on the following:

- Instruction fetch
- Instruction extension fetch
- Data read
- Data write

See [Section 5.4.3, "Access Error Stack Frame Additions](#page-147-0)," for more information.

5.2.3.8 Expanded Control Register Space

The MMU base address register (MMUBAR) is added for ColdFire virtual mode. Like other control registers, it can be accessed from the debug module or written using the privileged MOVEC instruction. See [Section 5.5.3.1, "MMU Base Address Register \(MMUBAR\).](#page-149-0)"

5.2.3.9 Changes to ACRs and CACR

New ACR and CACR bits, [Table 5-1,](#page-145-0) improve address granularity and supervisor mode protection. These improvements are not necessary to implement the ColdFire MMU, but they improve memory functionality for physical and virtual address environments.

Table 5-1. New ACR and CACR Bits

5.2.3.10 ACR Address Improvements

ACRs provide a 16-Mbyte address window. For a given request address, if the ACR is valid and the request mode matches the mode specified in the supervisor mode field, ACR*n*[S], hit determination is specified as follows:

```
ACRx Hit = 0;if ((address[31:24] & ~ACRn[23:16]) == (ACRn[31:24] & ~ACRn[23:16]))
        ACRx_Hit = 1;
```
With this hit function, ACRs can assign address attributes for user or supervisor requests to memory spaces of at least 16 Mbytes (through the address mask). With the MMU definition, the ACR hit function is improved by the address mask mode bit (ACR*n*[AMM]), which supports finer address granularity. See [Table 5-1](#page-145-0).

The revised hit determination becomes the following:

```
ACRxHit = 0;if (ACRn[10] == 1)
      if ((address[31–24] == ACRn[31–24])) &&
          ((address[23–20] & ~ACRn[19–16]) == (ACRn[23–20] & ~ACRn[19–16])))
              ACRx_Hit = 1;
else if (address[31–24] & ~ACRn[23–16]) == (ACRn[31–24] & ~ACRn[23–16]))
              ACRx Hit = 1;
```


5.2.3.11 Supervisor Protection

Each instruction or data reference is either a supervisor or user access. The CPU's status register supervisor bit (SR[S]) determines the operating mode. New ACR and CACR bits protect supervisor space. See [Table 5-1](#page-145-0).

5.3 Debugging in a Virtual Environment

To support debugging in a virtual environment, numerous enhancements are implemented in the ColdFire debug architecture. These enhancements are collectively called Debug revision D and primarily relate to the addition of an 8-bit address space identifier (ASID) to yield a 40-bit virtual address. This expansion affects two major debug functions:

- The ASID is optionally included in the hardware breakpoint registers specification. For example, the four PC breakpoint registers are expanded by 8 bits each, so that a specific ASID value can be part of the breakpoint instruction address. Likewise, data address/data breakpoint registers are expanded to include an ASID value. The new control registers define whether and how the ASID is included in the breakpoint comparison trigger logic.
- The debug module implements the concept of ownership trace in which an ASID value can be optionally displayed as part of real-time trace. When enabled, real-time trace displays instruction addresses on any change-of-flow instruction that is not absolute or PC-relative. For Debug revision D architecture, the address display is expanded to optionally include ASID contents, thus providing the complete instruction virtual address on these instructions. Additionally, when a Sync_PC serial BDM command is loaded from the external development system, the processor displays the complete virtual instruction address, including the 8-bit ASID value.

The MMU control registers are accessible through serial BDM commands. See [Chapter 8, "Debug](#page-224-0) [Support.](#page-224-0)"

5.4 Virtual Memory Architecture Processor Support

To support the MMU, enhancements have been made to the exception model, the stack pointers, and the access error stack frame.

5.4.1 Precise Faults

To support demand-paging, all memory references require precise, recoverable faults. The ColdFire instruction restart mechanism ensures that a faulted instruction restarts from the beginning of execution; that is, no internal state information is saved when an exception occurs and none is restored when the handler ends. Given the PC address defined in the exception stack frame, the processor reestablishes program execution by transferring control to the given location as part of the RTE (return from exception) instruction.

For a detailed description, see [Section 3.9, "Precise Faults.](#page-119-0)"

5.4.2 Supervisor/User Stack Pointers

To provide the required isolation between these operating modes as dictated by a virtual memory management scheme, a user stack pointer (A7–USP) is added. The appropriate stack pointer register (SSP, USP) is accessed as a function of the processor's operating mode.

In addition, the following two privileged M68000 family instructions to load/store the USP are added to the ColdFire instruction set architecture:

 $mov.l$ Ay, USP # move to USP: opcode = $0x4E6{0-7}$ mov.l USP,Ax # move from USP: opcode = 0x4E6{8–F}

The address register number is encoded in the three low-order bits of the opcode.

These instructions are described in detail in [Section 5.7, "MMU Instructions](#page-162-0)."

5.4.3 Access Error Stack Frame Additions

ColdFire exceptions generate a standard 2-longword stack frame, signaling the contents of the SR and PC at the time of the exception, the exception type, and a 4-bit fault status field (FS). The first longword contains the 16-bit format/vector word (F/V) and the 16-bit status register. The second contains the 32-bit program counter address of the faulted instruction.

The FS field is used for access and address errors. To optimize TLB miss exception handling, new FS encodings ([Table 5-2](#page-147-1)) allow quick error classification.

Table 5-2. Fault Status Encodings

5.5 MMU Definition

The ColdFire MMU provides a virtual address, demand-paged memory architecture. The MMU supports hardware address translation acceleration using software-managed TLBs. It enforces permission checking on a per-memory request basis, and has control, status, and fault registers for MMU operation.

5.5.1 Effective Address Attribute Determination

The ColdFire core generates an effective memory address for all instruction fetches and data read and write memory accesses. The previous ColdFire memory access control model was based strictly on physical addresses. Every memory request address is a physical address that is analyzed by this memory access control logic and assigned address attributes, which include the following:

- Cache mode
- SRAM enable information
- Write protect information
- Write mode information

These attributes control processing of the memory request. The address itself is not affected by memory access control logic.

Instruction and data references base effective address attributes and access mode on the instruction type and the effective address. Accesses are of the following two types:

- Special mode accesses, including interrupt acknowledges, reads/writes to program-visible control registers (such as CACR, ROMBARs, RAMBARs, and ACRs), cache control commands (CPUSHL and INTOUCH), and emulator mode operations. These accesses have the following attributes:
	- Non-cacheable
	- Precise
	- No write protection

Unless the CPU space/IACK mask bit is set, interrupt acknowledge cycles and emulator mode operations are allowed to hit in RAMBARs and ROMBARs. All other operations are normal mode accesses.

• Normal mode accesses. For these accesses, an effective cache mode, precision and write-protection are calculated for each request.

For data, a normal mode access address is compared with the following priority, from highest to lowest: RAMBAR0, RAMBAR1, ROMBAR0, ROMBAR1, ACR0, and ACR1. If no match is found, default attributes in the CACR are used. The priority for instruction accesses is RAMBAR0, RAMBAR1, ROMBAR0, ROMBAR1, ACR2, and ACR3. Again, if no match is found, default CACR attributes are used.

Only the test-and-set (TAS) instruction can generate a normal mode access with implied cache mode and precision. TAS is a special, byte-sized, read-modify-write instruction used in synchronization routines. A TAS data access that does not hit in the RAMBARs is non-cacheable and precise. TAS uses the normal effective write protection.

The ColdFire MMU is an optional enhancement to the memory access control. If the MMU is present and enabled, it adds two factors for calculating effective address attributes:

• MMUBAR defines a memory-mapped, privileged data-only space with the highest priority in effective address attribute calculation for the data (that is, the MMUBAR has priority over RAMBAR0).

If virtual mode is enabled, any normal mode access that does not hit in the MMUBAR, RAMBARs, ROMBARs, or ACRs is considered a normal mode virtual address request and generates its access attributes from the MMU. For this case, the default CACR address attributes are not used.

The MMU also uses TLB contents to perform virtual-to-physical address translation.

5.5.2 MMU Functionality

The MMU provides virtual-to-physical address translation and memory access control. The MMU consists of memory-mapped, control, status, and fault registers, and a TLB that can be accessed through MMU registers. Supervisor software can access these resources through MMUBAR. Software can control address translation and access attributes of a virtual address by configuring MMU control registers and loading the MMU's TLB, which functions as a cache, associating virtual addresses to corresponding physical addresses and providing access attributes. Each TLB entry maps a virtual page. Several page sizes are supported. Features such as clear-all and probe-for-hit help maintain TLBs.

Fault-free, virtual address accesses that hit in the TLB incur no pipeline delay. Accesses that miss the TLB or hit the TLB but violate an access attribute generate an access error exception. On an access error, software can reference address and information registers in the MMU to retrieve data. Depending on the fault source, software can obtain and load a new TLB entry, modify the attributes of an existing entry, or abort the faulting process.

5.5.3 MMU Organization

Access to the MMU memory-mapped region is controlled by MMUBAR, a 32-bit supervisor control register at 0x008 that is accessed using MOVEC or the serial BDM debug port. The *ColdFire Programmers Reference Manual* describes the MOVEC instruction.

5.5.3.1 MMU Base Address Register (MMUBAR)

[Figure 5-3](#page-149-1) shows MMUBAR. The default reset state is an invalid MMUBAR, so that the MMU is disabled and the memory-mapped space is not visible.

Figure 5-3. MMU Base Address Register (MMUBAR)

[Table 5-3](#page-150-0) describes MMU base address register fields.

5.5.3.2 MMU Memory Map

MMUBAR holds the base address for the 64-Kbyte MMU memory map, shown in [Table 5-4](#page-150-1). The MMU memory map area is not visible unless the MMUBAR is valid and must be referenced aligned. A large portion of the map is reserved for future use.

Offset from MMUBAR	Name			
$+0x0000$	MMU control register (MMUCR)			
$+0x0004$	MMU operation register (MMUOR)			
$+0x0008$	MMU status register (MMUSR)			
$+0x000C$	Reserved			
$+0x0010$	MMU fault, test, or TLB address register (MMUAR)			
$+0x0014$	MMU read/write TLB tag register (MMUTR)			
$+0x0018$	MMU read/write TLB data register (MMUDR)			
$+$ 0x001C-0xFFFC	Reserved ¹			

Table 5-4. MMU Memory Map

May be used for implementation-specific information/control registers

The address space ID (ASID) is located in a CPU space control register. The 8-bit ASID value located in the low order byte of a 32-bit supervisor control register, mapped into CPU space at address 0x003 and accessed using a MOVEC instruction. The *ColdFire Family Programmer's Reference Manual* describes MOVEC.

This 8-bit field is the current user ASID. The ASID is an extension to the virtual address. Address space 0x00 may be reserved for supervisor mode. See address space mode functionality in [Section 5.5.3.3,](#page-150-2) ["MMU Control Register \(MMUCR\).](#page-150-2)" The other 255 address spaces are used to tag user processes. The TLB entry ASID values are compared to this value for user mode unless the TLB entry is marked shared (MMUTR[SG] is set). The TLB entry ASID value may be compared to 0x00 for supervisor accesses.

5.5.3.3 MMU Control Register (MMUCR)

MMUCR, [Figure 5-4,](#page-151-0) has the address space mode and virtual mode enable bits. The user must force pipeline synchronization after writing to this register. Therefore, all writes to this register must be immediately followed by a NOP instruction.

[Table 5-5](#page-151-1) describes MMUCR fields.

5.5.3.4 MMU Operation Register (MMUOR)

[Figure 5-5](#page-152-0) shows the MMUOR.

[Table 5-6](#page-152-1) describes MMUOR fields.

Table 5-6. MMUOR Field Descriptions (Continued)

5.5.3.5 MMU Status Register (MMUSR)

MMUSR, [Figure 5-6,](#page-153-0) is updated on all data access faults and search TLB operations.

Figure 5-6. MMU Status Register (MMUSR)

[Table 5-7](#page-154-0) describes MMUSR fields.

Table 5-7. MMUSR Field Descriptions

1 HIT Search TLB hit. Indicates if the last data fault or the last search TLB operation hit in the TLB. 0 Last data access fault or search TLB operation did not hit in the TLB. 1 Last data access fault or search TLB operation hit in the TLB. 0 – Reserved, should be cleared. Writes are ignored and reads return zeros.

5.5.3.6 MMU Fault, Test, or TLB Address Register (MMUAR)

The MMUAR format, [Figure 5-7,](#page-154-1) depends on how the register is used.

[Table 5-8](#page-155-0) describes MMUAR fields.

Table 5-8. MMUAR Field Descriptions

5.5.3.7 MMU Read/Write Tag and Data Entry Registers (MMUTR and MMUDR)

Each TLB entry consists of a 32-bit TLB tag entry and a 32-bit TLB data entry. TLB entries are referenced through MMUTR and MMUDR. For read TLB accesses, the contents of the TLB tag and data entries referenced by the allocation address or MMUAR are loaded in MMUTR and MMUDR. TLB write accesses place MMUTR and MMUDR contents into the TLB tag and data entries defined by the allocation address or MMUAR.

MMUTR, [Figure 5-8,](#page-155-1) contains the virtual address tag, the address space ID (ASID), a shared page indicator, and the valid bit.

Figure 5-8. MMU Read/Write TLB Tag Register (MMUTR)

[Table 5-9](#page-155-2) describes MMUTR fields.

Table 5-9. MMUTR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description		
$31 - 10$	VA	Virtual address. Defines the virtual address mapped by this entry. The number of bits used in the TLB hit determination depends on the page size field in the corresponding TLB data entry.		
$9 - 2$	ID	Address space ID (ASID). This extension to the virtual address marks this entry as part of 1 of 256 possible address spaces. Address space 0x00 can be reserved for supervisor mode. The other 255 address spaces are used to tag user processes. TLB entry ASID values are compared to the ASID register value for user mode unless the TLB entry is marked shared ($SG = 1$). The TLB entry ASID value may be compared to 0x00 for supervisor accesses or to the ASID. The description of MMUCR[ASM] in Table 5-5 gives details on supervisor mode and ASID compares.		

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MMUDR, [Figure 5-9](#page-156-0), contains the physical address, page size, cache mode field, supervisor-protect bit, read, write, execute permission bits, and lock-entry bit.

[Table 5-10](#page-156-1) describes MMUDR fields.

5.5.4 MMU TLB

Each TLB entry consists of two 32-bit fields. The first is the TLB tag entry, and the second is the TLB data entry. TLB size and organization are implementation dependent. TLB entries can be read and written through MMU registers. TLB contents are unaffected by reset.

5.5.5 MMU Operation

The processor sends instruction fetch requests and data read/write requests to the MMU in the instruction and operand address generation cycles (IAG and OAG). The controller and memories occupy the next two pipeline stages, instruction fetch cycles 1 and 2 (IC1 and IC2) and operand fetch cycles 1 and 2 (OC1 and OC2). For late writes, optional data pipeline stages are added to the controller as well as any writable memories.

[Table 5-11](#page-158-1) shows the association between memory pipeline stages and the processor's pipeline structures, shown in [Figure 5-1.](#page-142-0)

Memory Pipeline Stage		Instruction Fetch Pipeline Operand Execution Pipeline
J stage	IAG	OAG
KC1 stage	IC1	OC ₁
KC2 stage	IC ₂	OC ₂
Operand execute stage	n/a	EX
Late-write stage	n/a	DA

Table 5-11. Version 4 Memory Pipelines

Version 4 use the same 2-cycle read pipeline developed for Version 3. Each has 32-bit address and 32-bit read data paths. Version 4 uses synchronous memory elements for all memory control units. To support this, certain control information and all address bits are sent on the at the end of the cycle before the initial bus access cycle (The data has an additional 32-bit write data path). For processor store operations, Version 4 ColdFire uses a late-write strategy, which can require 2 additional data cycles. This strategy yields the pipeline behavior described in [Table 5-12.](#page-158-0)

Table 5-12. Pipeline Cycles

Cycle	Description
J	Control and partial address broadcast (to start synchronous memories)
KC ₁	Complete address and control broadcast plus MMU information. It is during this cycle that all memory element read operations are performed; that is, memory arrays are accessed.
KC ₂	Select appropriate memory as source, return data to processor, handle cache misses or hold pipeline as needed.
EX.	Optional write stage, pipeline address and control for store operations.
DA	Data available for stores from processor; memory element update occurs in the next cycle.

The contains two independent memory unit access controllers and two independent controllers. Each instruction and data is analyzed to see which, if any, controller is referenced. This information, along with cache mode, store precision, and fault information, is sourced during KC1.

The optional MMU is referenced concurrently with the memory unit access controllers. It has two independent control sections to simultaneously process an instruction and data request. [Figure 5-1](#page-142-0) shows how the MMU and memory unit access controllers fit in the pipeline. As the diagram shows, core address and attributes are used to access the mapping registers and the MMU. By the middle of the KC1 cycle, the memory address is available along with its corresponding access control.

[Figure 5-10](#page-159-0) shows more details of the MMU structure. The TLB is accessed at the beginning of the KC1 pipeline stage so the resulting physical address can be sourced to the cache controllers to factor into the cache hit/miss determination. This is required because caches are virtually indexed but physically mapped.

Figure 5-10. Address and Attributes Generation

5.6 MMU Implementation

The MMU implements a 64-entry full-associative Harvard TLB architecture with 32-entry ITLB and DTLB. This section provides more details of this specific TLB implementation. This section details the operation and looks at the size, frequency, miss rate, and miss recovery time of this specific TLB implementation.

5.6.1 TLB Address Fields

Because the TLB has a total of 64 entries (32 each for the ITLB and DTLB), a 6-bit address field is necessary. TLB addresses 0–31 reference the ITLB, and TLB addresses 32–63 reference the DTLB.

In the MMUOR, bits 0 through 5 of the TLB allocation address (AA[5–0]) have this address format for CF4e. The remaining TLB allocation address bits (AA[15–6]) are ignored on updates and always read as zero.

When MMUAR is used for a TLB address, bits FA[5–0] also have this address format for CF4e. The remaining form address bits (FA[31–6]) are ignored when this register is being used for a TLB address.

5.6.2 TLB Replacement Algorithm

The instruction and data TLBs provide low-latency access to recently used instruction and operand translation information. CF4e ITLBs and DTLBs are 32-entry fully associative caches. The 32 ITLB entries are searched on each instruction reference; the 32 DTLB entries are searched on each operand reference.

CF4e TLBs are software controlled. The TLB clear-all function clears valid bits on every TLB entry and resets the replacement logic. A new valid entry is loaded in the TLBs may be designated as locked and unavailable for allocation. TLB hits to locked entries do not update replacement algorithm information.

When a new TLB entry needs to be allocated, the user can specify the exact TLB entry to be updated (through MMUOR[ADR] and MMUAR) or let TLB hardware pick the entry to update based on the replacement algorithm. A pseudo-least-recently used (PLRU) algorithm picks the entry to be replaced on a TLB miss. The algorithm works as follows:

- If any element is empty (non-valid), use the lowest empty element as the allocate entry (that is, entry 0 before 1, 2, 3, and so on).
- If all entries are valid, use the entry indicated by the PLRU as the allocate entry.

The PLRU algorithm uses 31 most-recently used state bits per TLB to track the TLB hit history. [Table 5-13](#page-160-0) lists these state bits.

Table 5-13. PLRU State Bits

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Table 5-13. PLRU State Bits (Continued)

Binary state bits are updated on all TLB write (load) operations, as well as normal ITLB and DTLB hits of non-locked entries. Also, if all entries in a binary state are locked, than that state is always set. That is, if entries 15, 14, 13, and 12 were locked, LRU state bit rdRecent15To14 is forced to one.

For a completely valid TLB, binary state information determines the LRU entry. The CF4e replacement algorithm is deterministic and, for the case of a full TLB (with no locked entries and always touching new pages), the replacement entry repeats every 32 TLB loads.

5.6.3 TLB Locked Entries

[Figure 5-11](#page-162-1) is a ColdFire MMU Harvard TLB block diagram.

For TLB miss faults, the instruction restart model completely reexecutes an instruction on returning from the exception handler. An instruction can touch two instruction pages (a 32- or 48-bit instruction can straddle two pages) or four data pages (a memory-to-memory word or longword move where misaligned source and destination operands straddle two pages). Therefore, one instruction may take two ITLB misses and allocate two ITLB pages before completion. Likewise, one instruction may require four DTLB misses and allocate four DTLB pages. Because of this, a pool of unlocked TLB entries must be available if virtual memory is used.

The above examples show the fewest entries needed to guarantee an instruction can complete execution. For good MMU performance, more unlocked TLB entries should be available.

Figure 5-11. Version 4 ColdFire MMU Harvard TLB

5.7 MMU Instructions

The MOVE to USP and MOVE from USP instructions have been added for accessing the USP. Refer to the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual* for more information.

Chapter 6 Floating-Point Unit (FPU)

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes instructions implemented in the floating-point unit (FPU) designed for use with the ColdFire family of microprocessors. The FPU conforms to the American National Standards Institute (ANSI)/Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) *Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic* (ANSI/IEEE Standard 754).

The hardware unit is optimized for real-time execution with exceptions disabled and default results provided for specific operations, operands, and number types. The FPU does not support all IEEE-754 number types and operations in hardware. Exceptions can be enabled to support these cases in software.

6.1.1 Overview

The FPU operates on 64-bit, double-precision, floating-point data and supports single-precision and signed integer input operands. The FPU programming model is like that in the MC68060 microprocessor. The FPU is intended to accelerate the performance of certain classes of embedded applications, especially those requiring high-speed floating-point arithmetic computations. See [Section 6.7.3, "Key Differences](#page-191-0) [between ColdFire and M68000 FPU Programming Models](#page-191-0)."

The FPU appears as another execute engine at the bottom stages of the operand execution pipeline (OEP), using operands from a dual-ported register file.

Setting bit 4 in the cache control register (CACR[DF]) disables the FPU. If CACR[DF] is cleared, all FPU instructions are issued and executed, otherwise the processor responds with an unimplemented line-F instruction exception (vector 11).

Operating systems often assume user applications are integer-only (to minimize the time required by save context) by setting CACR[DF] at process initiation. If the application includes floating-point instructions, the attempted execution of the first FP instruction generates the unimplemented line-F exception, which signals the kernel that the FPU registers must be included in the context for the application. The application then continues execution with CACR[DF] cleared to enable FPU execution.

6.1.1.1 Notational Conventions

[Table 6-1](#page-164-0) defines notational conventions used in this chapter.

Table 6-1. Notational Conventions

Table 6-1. Notational Conventions (Continued)

[Table 6-2](#page-166-0) describes addressing modes and syntax for floating-point instructions.

Table 6-2. Floating-Point Addressing Modes

6.2 Operand Data Formats and Types

The FPU supports signed byte, word, and longword integer formats, which are identical to those supported by the integer unit. The FPU also supports single- and double-precision binary floating-point formats that fully comply with the IEEE-754 standard.

6.2.1 Signed-Integer Data Formats

The FPU supports 8-bit byte (B), 16-bit word (W), and 32-bit longword (L) integer data formats.

6.2.2 Floating-Point Data Formats

[Figure 6-1](#page-166-1) shows the two binary floating-point data formats.

Sign of Mantissa

Note that, throughout this chapter, a mantissa is defined as the concatenation of an integer bit, the binary point, and a fraction. A fraction is the term designating the bits to the right of the binary point in the mantissa.

Mantissa

(integer bit).(fraction)

Figure 6-2. Mantissa

The integer bit is implied to be set for normalized numbers and infinities, clear for zeros and denormalized numbers. For not-a-numbers (NANs), the integer bit is ignored. The exponent in both floating-point formats is an unsigned binary integer with an implied bias added to it. Subtracting the bias from exponent

Figure 6-1. Floating-Point Data Formats

yields a signed, two's complement power of two. This represents the magnitude of a normalized floating-point number when multiplied by the mantissa.

By definition, a normalized mantissa always takes values starting from 1.0 and going up to, but not including, 2.0; that is, [1.0...2.0).

6.2.3 Floating-Point Data Types

Each floating-point data format supports five unique data types: normalized numbers, zeros, infinities, NANs, and denormalized numbers. The normalized data type, [Figure 6-3,](#page-167-0) never uses the maximum or minimum exponent value for a given format.

6.2.3.1 Normalized Numbers

Normalized numbers include all positive or negative numbers with exponents between the maximum and minimum values. For single- and double-precision normalized numbers, the implied integer bit is one and the exponent can be zero.

Sign of Mantissa, 0 or 1

Figure 6-3. Normalized Number Format

6.2.3.2 Zeros

Zeros can be positive or negative and represent real values, + 0.0 and – 0.0. See [Figure 6-4](#page-167-1).

6.2.3.3 Infinities

Infinities can be positive or negative and represent real values that exceed the overflow threshold. A result's exponent greater than or equal to the maximum exponent value indicates an overflow for a given data format and operation. This overflow description ignores the effects of rounding and the user-selectable rounding models. For single- and double-precision infinities, the fraction is a zero. See [Figure 6-5](#page-167-2).

Figure 6-5. Infinity Format

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6.2.3.4 Not-A-Number

When created by the FPU, NANs represent the results of operations having no mathematical interpretation, such as infinity divided by infinity. Operations using a NAN operand as an input return a NAN result. User-created NANs can protect against uninitialized variables and arrays or can represent user-defined data types. See [Figure 6-6.](#page-168-0)

Sign of Mantissa, 0 or 1

Figure 6-6. Not-a-Number Format

If an input operand to an operation is a NAN, the result is an FPU-created default NAN. When the FPU creates a NAN, the NAN always contains the same bit pattern in the fraction: all fraction bits are ones and the sign bit is zero. When the user creates a NAN, any nonzero bit pattern can be stored in the fraction and the sign bit.

6.2.3.5 Denormalized Numbers

Denormalized numbers represent real values near the underflow threshold. Denormalized numbers can be positive or negative. For denormalized numbers in single- and double-precision, the implied integer bit is a zero. See [Figure 6-7.](#page-168-1)

$Exponent = 0$	Fraction = Any nonzero bit pattern

-Sign of Mantissa, 0 or 1

Figure 6-7. Denormalized Number Format

Traditionally, the detection of underflow causes floating-point number systems to perform a flush-to-zero. The IEEE-754 standard implements gradual underflow: the result mantissa is shifted right (denormalized) while the result exponent is incremented until reaching the minimum value. If all the mantissa bits of the result are shifted off to the right during this denormalization, the result becomes zero.

Denormalized numbers are not supported directly in the hardware of this implementation but can be handled in software if needed (software for the input denorm exception could be written to handle denormalized input operands, and software for the underflow exception could create denormalized numbers). If the input denorm exception is disabled, all denormalized numbers are treated as zeros.

[Table 6-3](#page-168-2) summarizes the data type specifications for byte, word, longword, single- and double-precision data formats.

Table 6-3. Real Format Summary

Parameter	Single-Precision	Double-Precision			
Data Format	23 22 3130 Ω e S	52 51 6362 S e			
Field Size in Bits					
Sign (s)					

Table 6-3. Real Format Summary (Continued)

Parameter	Single-Precision	Double-Precision				
Approximate Ranges						
Maximum Positive Normalized	3.4×10^{38}	1.8 x 10^{308}				
Minimum Positive Normalized	1.2 \times 10 ^{–38}	2.2×10^{-308}				
Minimum Positive Denormalized	1.4 \times 10 $^{-45}$	4.9×10^{-324}				

Table 6-3. Real Format Summary (Continued)

6.3 Register Definition

The programmer's model for the FPU consists of the following:

- Eight 64-bit floating-point data registers (FP0–FP7)
- One 32-bit floating-point control register (FPCR)
- One 32-bit floating-point status register (FPSR)
- One 32-bit floating-point instruction address register (FPIAR)

[Figure 6-8](#page-170-0) shows the FPU programming model.

Figure 6-8. Floating-Point Programmer's Model

6.3.1 Floating-Point Data Registers (FP0–FP7)

Floating-point data registers are analogous to the integer data registers for the 68K/ColdFire family. They always contain numbers in double-precision format, even though the operand may be a single-precision value used in a single-precision calculation. All external operands, regardless of the source data format, are converted to double-precision format before being used in any calculation or being stored in a floating-point data register. A reset or a null-restore operation sets FP0–FP7 to positive, nonsignaling NANs.

6.3.2 Floating-Point Control Register (FPCR)

The FPCR, [Figure 6-9](#page-171-0), contains an exception enable byte (EE) and a mode control byte (MC). Each EE bit corresponds to a floating-point exception class. The user can separately enable traps for each class of floating-point exceptions. The MC bits control FPU operating modes.

The user can read or write to FPCR using FMOVE or FRESTORE. A processor reset or a restore operation of the null state clears the FPCR. When this register is cleared, the FPU never generates exceptions.

Figure 6-9. Floating-Point Control Register (FPCR)

[Table 6-4](#page-171-1) describes FPCR fields.

Table 6-4. FPCR Field Descriptions

6.3.3 Floating-Point Status Register (FPSR)

The FPSR, [Figure 6-10](#page-172-0), contains a floating-point condition code byte (FPCC), a floating-point exception status byte (EXC), and a floating-point accrued exception byte (AEXC). The user can read or write all FPSR bits. Execution of most floating-point instructions modifies FPSR. FPSR is loaded using FMOVE or FRESTORE. A processor reset or a restore operation of the null state clears the FPSR.

The floating-point condition code byte contains 4 condition code bits that are set after completion of all arithmetic instructions involving the floating-point data registers. The floating-point store operation, FMOVEM, and move system control register instructions do not affect the FPCC.

The exception status byte contains a bit for each floating-point exception that might have occurred during the most recent arithmetic instruction or move operation. This byte is cleared at the start of all operations that generate floating-point exceptions (except FBcc only affects BSUN and that only for nonaware tests). Operations that do not generate floating-point exceptions do not clear this byte. An exception handler can use this byte to determine which floating-point exception or exceptions caused a trap. The equations below the table show the comparative relationship between the EXC byte and AEXC byte.

The accrued exception byte contains 5 required bits for IEEE-754 exception-disabled operations. These exceptions are logical combinations of EXC bits. AEXC records all floating-point exceptions since AEXC was last cleared, either by writing to FPSR or as a result of reset or a restore operation of the null state.

Many users disable traps for some or all floating-point exception classes. AEXC eliminates the need to poll EXC after each floating-point instruction. At the end of arithmetic operations, EXC bits are logically combined to form an AEXC value that is logically ORed into the existing AEXC byte (FBcc only updates IOP). This operation creates sticky floating-point exception bits in AEXC that the user can poll only at the end of a series of floating-point operations. A sticky bit is one that remains set until the user clears it.

Setting or clearing AEXC bits neither causes nor prevents an exception. The equations below the table show relationships between EXC and AEXC. Comparing the current value of an AEXC bit with a combination of EXC bits derives a new value in the corresponding AEXC bit. These boolean equations apply to setting AEXC bits at the end of each operation affecting AEXC.

Figure 6-10. Floating-Point Status Register (FPSR)

[Table 6-5](#page-173-0) describes FPSR fields.

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For AEXC[OVFL], AEXC[DZ], and AEXC[INEX], the next value is determined by ORing the current AEXC value with the EXC equivalent, as shown in the following:

- Next AEXC[OVFL] = Current AEXC[OVFL] | EXC[OVFL]
- Next $AEXC[DZ] = Current AEXC[DZ] | EXC[DZ]$
- Next $AEXC[INEX] = Current AEXC[INEX] | EXC[INEX]$

For AEXC[IOP] and AEXC[UNFL], the next value is calculated by ORing the current AEXC value with EXC bit combinations, as follows:

- Next AEXC[IOP] = Current AEXC[IOP] | EXC[BSUN | INAN | OPERR]
- Next AEXC[UNFL] = Current AEXC[UNFL] | EXC[UNFL & INEX]

6.3.4 Floating-Point Instruction Address Register (FPIAR)

The ColdFire OEP can execute integer and floating-point instructions simultaneously. As a result, the PC value stacked by the processor in response to a floating-point exception trap may not point to the instruction that caused the exception.

For FPU instructions that can generate exception traps, the 32-bit FPIAR is loaded with the instruction PC address before the FPU begins execution. In case of an FPU exception, the trap handler can use the FPIAR contents to determine the instruction that generated the exception. FMOVE to/from FPCR, FPSR, or FPIAR and FMOVEM instructions cannot generate floating-point exceptions; therefore, they do not modify FPIAR. A reset or a null-restore operation clears FPIAR.

6.4 Floating-Point Computational Accuracy

The FPU performs all floating-point internal operations in double-precision. It supports mixed-mode arithmetic by converting single-precision operands to double-precision values before performing the specified operation. The FPU converts all memory data formats to the double-precision data format and stores the value in a floating-point register or uses it as the source operand for an arithmetic operation. When moving a double-precision floating-point value from a floating-point data register, the FPU can convert the data depending on the destination, as follows:

- Valid data formats for memory destination: B, W, L, S, or D
- Valid data formats for integer data register destinations: B, W, L, or S

Normally if the input operand is a denormalized number, the number must be normalized before an FPU instruction can be executed. A denormalized input operand is converted to zero if the input denorm exception (IDE) is disabled. If IDE is enabled, the floating-point engine traps to allow software action to be taken by the handler.

6.4.1 Intermediate Result

All FPU calculations use an intermediate result. When the FPU performs any operation, the calculation is carried out using double-precision inputs, and the intermediate result is calculated as if to produce infinite precision. After the calculation is complete, any necessary rounding of the intermediate result for the selected precision is performed and the result is stored in the destination.

[Figure 6-11](#page-174-0) shows the intermediate result format. The intermediate result's exponent for some dyadic operations (for example, multiply and divide) can easily overflow or underflow the 11-bit exponent of the designated floating-point register. To simplify overflow and underflow detection, intermediate results in the FPU maintain a 12-bit two's complement, integer exponent. Detection of an intermediate result overflow or underflow always converts the 12-bit exponent into a 11-bit biased exponent before being stored in a floating-point data register. The FPU internally maintains a 56-bit mantissa for rounding purposes. The mantissa is always rounded to 53 bits (or fewer, depending on the selected rounding precision) before it is stored in a floating-point data register.

Figure 6-11. Intermediate Result Format

If the destination is a floating-point data register, the result is in double-precision format but may be rounded to single-precision, if required by the rounding precision, before being stored. If the single-precision mode is selected, the exponent value is in the correct range even if it is stored in

double-precision format. If the destination is a memory location or an integer data register, rounding precision is ignored. In this case, a number in the double-precision format is taken from the source floating-point data register, rounded to the destination format precision, and then written to memory or the integer data register.

Depending on the selected rounding mode or destination data format, the location of the lsb of the mantissa and the locations of the guard, round, and sticky bits in the 56-bit intermediate result mantissa vary. Guard and round bits are calculated exactly. The sticky bit creates the illusion of an infinitely wide intermediate result. As the arrow in [Figure 6-11](#page-174-0) shows, the sticky bit is the logical OR of all bits to the right of the round bit in the infinitely precise result. During calculation, nonzero bits generated to the right of the round bit set the sticky bit. Because of the sticky bit, the rounded intermediate result for all required IEEE arithmetic operations in RN mode can err by no more than one half unit in the last place.

6.4.2 Rounding the Result

The FPU supports the four rounding modes specified by the IEEE-754 standard: round-to-nearest (RN), round-toward-zero (RZ), round-toward-plus-infinity (RP), and round-toward-minus-infinity (RM). The RM and RP modes are often referred to as directed-rounding-modes and are useful in interval arithmetic. Rounding is accomplished through the intermediate result. Single-precision results are rounded to a 24-bit mantissa boundary; double-precision results are rounded to a 53-bit mantissa boundary.

The current floating-point instruction can specify rounding precision, overriding the rounding precision specified in FPCR for the duration of the current instruction. For example, the rounding precision for FADD is determined by FPCR, while the rounding precision for FSADD is single-precision, independent of FPCR.

Range control helps emulate devices that support only single-precision arithmetic by rounding the intermediate result's mantissa to the specified precision and checking that the intermediate exponent is in the representable range of the selected rounding precision. If the intermediate result's exponent exceeds the range, the appropriate underflow or overflow value is stored as the result in the double-precision format exponent. For example, if the data format and rounding mode is single-precision RM and the result of an arithmetic operation overflows the single-precision format, the maximum normalized single-precision value is stored as a double-precision number in the destination floating-point data register; that is, the unbiased 11-bit exponent is 0x0FF and the 52-bit fraction is 0xF_FFFF_E000_0000. If an infinity is the appropriate result for an underflow or overflow, the infinity value for the destination data format is stored as the result; that is, the exponent has the maximum value and the mantissa is zero.

[Figure 6-12](#page-176-0) shows the algorithm for rounding an intermediate result to the selected rounding precision and destination data format. If the destination is a floating-point register, the rounding boundary is determined by either the selected rounding precision specified by FPCR[PREC] or by the instruction itself. For example, FSADD and FDADD specify single- and double-precision rounding regardless of FPCR[PREC]. If the destination is memory or an integer data register, the destination data format determines the rounding boundary. If the rounded result of an operation is inexact, INEX is set in FPSR[EXC].

Figure 6-12. Rounding Algorithm Flowchart

The 3 additional bits beyond the double-precision format, the difference between the intermediate result's 56-bit mantissa and the storing result's 53-bit mantissa, allow the FPU to perform all calculations as though it were performing calculations using a compute engine with infinite bit precision. The result is always correct for the specified destination's data format before rounding (unless an overflow or underflow error occurs). The specified rounding produces a number as close as possible to the infinitely precise intermediate value and still representable in the selected precision. The tie case in [Table 6-6](#page-177-0) shows how the 56-bit mantissa allows the FPU to meet the error bound of the IEEE specification.

The lsb of the rounded result does not increment even though the guard bit is set in the intermediate result. The IEEE-754 standard specifies this way of handling ties. If the destination data format is double-precision and there is a difference between the infinitely precise intermediate result and the round-to-nearest result, the relative difference is 2^{-53} (the value of the guard bit). This error is equal to half of the lsb's value and is the worst case error that can be introduced with RN mode. Thus, the term one-half unit in the last place correctly identifies the error bound for this operation. This error specification is the relative error present in the result; the absolute error bound is equal to $2^{\text{exponent}} \times 2^{-53}$. [Table 6-7](#page-177-1) shows the error bound for other rounding modes.

Table 6-7. Round Mode Error Bounds

Result	Integer	52-Bit Fraction	Guard	Round	Sticky
Intermediate	x	xxxx00			
Rounded-to-Zero	х	xxxx00			

The difference between the infinitely precise result and the rounded result is $2^{-53} + 2^{-54} + 2^{-55}$, which is slightly less than 2^{-52} (the value of the lsb). Thus, the error bound for this operation is not more than one unit in the last place. The FPU meets these error bounds for all arithmetic operations, providing accurate, repeatable results.

6.5 Floating-Point Post-Processing

Most operations end with post-processing, for which the FPU provides two steps. First, FPSR[FPCC] bits are set or cleared at the end of each arithmetic or move operation to a single floating-point data register. FPCC bits are consistently set based on the result of the operation. Second, the FPU supports 32 conditional tests that allow floating-point conditional instructions to test floating-point conditions in the same way that integer conditional instructions test the integer condition code. The combination of consistently set FPCC bits and the simple programming of conditional instructions gives the processor a highly flexible, efficient way to change program flow based on floating-point results. When the summary for each instruction is read, it should be assumed that an instruction performs post processing, unless the summary specifically states otherwise. The following paragraphs describe post processing in detail.

6.5.1 Underflow, Round, and Overflow

During calculation of an arithmetic result, the FPU has more precision and range than the 64-bit double-precision format. However, the final result is a double-precision value. In some cases, an intermediate result becomes either smaller or larger than can be represented in double-precision. Also, the operation can generate a larger exponent or more bits of precision than can be represented in the chosen rounding precision. For these reasons, every arithmetic instruction ends by checking for underflow, rounding the result and checking for overflow.

At the completion of an arithmetic operation, the intermediate result is checked to see if it is too small to be represented as a normalized number in the selected precision. If so, the underflow (UNFL) bit is set in FPSR[EXC]. If no underflow occurs, the intermediate result is rounded according to the user-selected

rounding precision and mode. After rounding, the inexact bit (INEX) is set as described in [Figure 6-12](#page-176-0). Lastly, the magnitude of the result is checked to see if it exceeds the current rounding precision. If so, the overflow (OVFL) bit is set, and a correctly signed infinity or correctly signed largest normalized number is returned, depending on the rounding mode.

NOTE

INEX can also be set by OVFL, UNFL, and when denormalized numbers are encountered.

6.5.2 Conditional Testing

Unlike operation-dependent integer condition codes, an instruction either always sets FPCC bits in the same way or does not change them at all. Therefore, instruction descriptions do not include FPCC settings. This section describes how FPCC bits are set.

FPCC bits differ slightly from integer condition codes. An FPU operation's final result sets or clears FPCC bits accordingly, independent of the operation itself. Integer condition code bits N and Z have this characteristic, but V and C are set differently for different instructions. [Table 6-8](#page-178-0) lists FPCC settings for each data type. Loading FPCC with another combination and executing a conditional instruction can produce an unexpected branch condition.

The inclusion of the NAN data type in the IEEE floating-point number system requires each conditional test to include FPCC[NAN] in its boolean equation. Because it cannot be determined whether a NAN is bigger or smaller than an in-range number (since it is unordered), the compare instruction sets FPCC[NAN] when an unordered compare is attempted. All arithmetic instructions that result in a NAN also set the NAN bit. Conditional instructions interpret NAN being set as the unordered condition.

The IEEE-754 standard defines the following four conditions:

- Equal to (EQ)
- Greater than (GT)
- Less than (LT)
- Unordered (UN)

The standard requires only the generation of the condition codes as a result of a floating-point compare operation. The FPU can test for these conditions and 28 others at the end of any operation affecting condition codes. For floating-point conditional branch instructions, the processor logically combines the 4 bits of the FPCC condition codes to form 32 conditional tests, 16 of which cause an exception if an

unordered condition is present when the conditional test is attempted (IEEE nonaware tests). The other 16 do not cause an exception (IEEE-aware tests). The set of IEEE nonaware tests is best used in one of the following cases:

- When porting a program from a system that does not support the IEEE standard to a conforming system
- When generating high-level language code that does not support IEEE floating-point concepts (that is, the unordered condition).

An unordered condition occurs when one or both of the operands in a floating-point compare operation is a NAN. The inclusion of the unordered condition in floating-point branches destroys the familiar trichotomy relationship (greater than, equal, less than) that exists for integers. For example, the opposite of floating-point branch greater than (FBGT) is not floating-point branch less than or equal (FBLE). Rather, the opposite condition is floating-point branch not greater than (FBNGT). If the result of the previous instruction was unordered, FBNGT is true, whereas both FBGT and FBLE would be false because unordered fails both of these tests (and sets BSUN). Compiler code generators should be particularly careful of the lack of trichotomy in the floating-point branches, because it is common for compilers to invert the sense of conditions.

When using the IEEE nonaware tests, the user receives a BSUN exception if a branch is attempted and FPCC[NAN] is set, unless the branch is an FBEQ or an FBNE. If the BSUN exception is enabled in FPCR, the exception takes a BSUN trap. Therefore, the IEEE nonaware program is interrupted if an unexpected condition occurs. Users knowledgeable of the IEEE-754 standard should use IEEE-aware tests in programs that contain ordered and unordered conditions. Because the ordered or unordered attribute is explicitly included in the conditional test, EXC[BSUN] is not set when the unordered condition occurs. [Table 6-9](#page-179-0) summarizes conditional mnemonics, definitions, equations, predicates, and whether EXC[BSUN] is set for the 32 floating-point conditional tests. The equation column lists FPCC bit combinations for each test in the form of an equation. Condition codes with an overbar indicate cleared bits; all other bits are set.

Mnemonic	Definition	Equation	Predicate ¹	EXC[BSUN] Set		
IEEE Nonaware Tests						
EQ.	Equal	Z	000001	No.		
NE	Not equal	\overline{z}	001110	No.		
GT	Greater than	NAN/Z/N	010010	Yes		
NGT	Not greater than	NAN Z N	011101	Yes		
GE	Greater than or equal	Z (NAN N)	010011	Yes		
NGE	Not greater than or equal	NAN (N & \overline{Z})	011100	Yes		
LT.	Less than	N & $(NAN Z)$	010100	Yes		
NLT	Not less than	NAN $ (Z \overline{N})$	011011	Yes		
LE.	Less than or equal	Z (N & $\overline{\text{NAN}}$)	010101	Yes		
NLE	Not less than or equal	NAN (N Z)	011010	Yes		
GL	Greater or less than	NAN Z	010110	Yes		
NGL	Not greater or less than	NAN Z	011001	Yes		
GLE	Greater, less or equal	NAN	010111	Yes		

Table 6-9. Floating-Point Conditional Tests

 1 This column refers to the value in the instruction's conditional predicate field that specifies this test.

6.6 Floating-Point Exceptions

This section describes floating-point exceptions and how they are handled. [Table 6-10](#page-181-0) lists the vector numbers related to floating-point exceptions. If the exception is taken pre-instruction, the PC contains the address of the next floating-point instruction (nextFP). If the exception is taken post-instruction, the PC contains the address of the faulting instruction (fault).

In addition to these vectors, attempting to execute a FRESTORE instruction with a unsupported frame value generates a format error exception (vector 14). See the FRESTORE instruction in the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual*.

Attempting to execute an FPU instruction with an undefined or unsupported value in the 6-bit effective address, the 3-bit source/destination specifier, or the 7-bit opmode generates a line-F emulator exception, vector 11. See [Table 6-23](#page-188-0).

6.6.1 Floating-Point Arithmetic Exceptions

This section describes floating-point arithmetic exceptions; [Table 6-11](#page-181-1) lists these exceptions in order of priority:

Priority	Exception
1	Branch/set on unordered (BSUN)
2	Input Not-a-Number (INAN)
3	Input denormalized number (IDE)
4	Operand error (OPERR)
5	Overflow (OVFL)
6	Underflow (UNFL)
7	Divide-by-zero (DZ)
	Inexact (INEX)

Table 6-11. Exception Priorities

Most floating-point exceptions are taken when the next floating-point arithmetic instruction is encountered (this is called a pre-instruction exception). Exceptions set during a floating-point store to memory or to an integer register are taken immediately (post-instruction exception).

Note that FMOVE is considered an arithmetic instruction because the result is rounded. Only FMOVE with any destination other than a floating-point register (sometimes called FMOVE OUT) can generate post-instruction exceptions. Post-instruction exceptions never write the destination. After a post-instruction exception, processing continues with the next instruction.

A floating-point arithmetic exception becomes pending when the result of a floating-point instruction sets an FPSR[EXC] bit and the corresponding FPCR[ENABLE] bit is set. A user write to the FPSR or FPCR that causes the setting of an exception bit in FPSR[EXC] along with its corresponding exception enabled in FPCR, leaves the FPU in an exception-pending state. The corresponding exception is taken at the start of the next arithmetic instruction as a pre-instruction exception.

Executing a single instruction can generate multiple exceptions. When multiple exceptions occur with exceptions enabled for more than one exception class, the highest priority exception is reported and taken. It is up to the exception handler to check for multiple exceptions. The following multiple exceptions are possible:

- Operand error (OPERR) and inexact result (INEX)
- Overflow (OVFL) and inexact result (INEX)
- Underflow (UNFL) and inexact result (INEX)
- Divide-by-zero (DZ) and inexact result (INEX)
- Input denormalized number (IDE) and inexact result (INEX)
- Input not-a-number (INAN) and input denormalized number (IDE)

In general, all exceptions behave similarly. If the exception is disabled when the exception condition exists, no exception is taken, a default result is written to the destination (except for BSUN exception, which has no destination), and execution proceeds normally.

If an enabled exception occurs, the same default result above is written for pre-instruction exceptions but no result is written for post-instruction exceptions.

An exception handler is expected to execute FSAVE as its first floating-point instruction. This also clears FPCR, which keeps exceptions from occurring during the handler. Because the destination is overwritten for floating-point register destinations, the original floating-point destination register value is available for the handler on the FSAVE state frame. The address of the instruction that caused the exception is available in the FPIAR. When the handler is done, it should clear the appropriate FPSR exception bit on the FSAVE state frame, then execute FRESTORE. If the exception status bit is not cleared on the state frame, the same exception occurs again.

Alternatively, instead of executing FSAVE, an exception handler could simply clear appropriate FPSR exception bits, optionally alter FPCR, and then return from the exception. Note that exceptions are never taken on FMOVE to or from the status and control registers and FMOVEM to or from the floating-point data registers.

At the completion of the exception handler, the RTE instruction must be executed to return to normal instruction flow.

6.6.1.1 Branch/Set on Unordered (BSUN)

A BSUN results from performing an IEEE nonaware conditional test associated with the FBcc instruction when an unordered condition is present. Any pending floating-point exception is first handled by a pre-instruction exception, after which the conditional instruction restarts. The conditional predicate is evaluated and checked for a BSUN exception before executing the conditional instruction. A BSUN exception occurs if the conditional predicate is an IEEE non-aware branch and FPCC[NAN] is set. When this condition is detected, FPSR[BSUN] is set.

Table 6-12. BSUN Exception Enabled/Disabled Results

6.6.1.2 Input Not-A-Number (INAN)

The INAN exception is a mechanism for handling a user-defined, non-IEEE data type. If either input operand is a NAN, FPSR[INAN] is set. By enabling this exception, the user can override the default action taken for NAN operands. Because FMOVEM, FMOVE FPCR, and FSAVE instructions do not modify status bits, they cannot generate exceptions. Therefore, these instructions are useful for manipulating INANs. See [Table 6-13](#page-183-0).

Condition	INAN	Description
Exception disabled	0	If the destination data format is single- or double-precision, a NAN is generated with a mantissa of all ones and a sign of zero transferred to the destination. If the destination data format is B, W, or L, a constant of all ones is written to the destination.
Exception enabled		The result written to the destination is the same as the exception disabled case unless the exception occurs on a FMOVE OUT, in which case the destination is unaffected.

Table 6-13. INAN Exception Enabled/Disabled Results

6.6.1.3 Input Denormalized Number (IDE)

The input denorm bit, FPCR[IDE], provides software support for denormalized operands. When the IDE exception is disabled, the operand is treated as zero, FPSR[INEX] is set, and the operation proceeds. When the IDE exception is enabled and an operand is denormalized, an IDE exception is taken, but FPSR[INEX] is not set to allow the handler to set it appropriately. See [Table 6-14.](#page-183-1)

Note that the FPU never generates denormalized numbers. If necessary, software can create them in the underflow exception handler.

6.6.1.4 Operand Error (OPERR)

The operand error exception encompasses problems arising in a variety of operations, including errors too infrequent or trivial to merit a specific exception condition. Basically, an operand error occurs when an operation has no mathematical interpretation for the given operands. [Table 6-15](#page-184-0) lists possible operand errors. When one occurs, FPSR[OPERR] is set.

[Table 6-16](#page-184-1) describes results when the exception is enabled and disabled.

6.6.1.5 Overflow (OVFL)

An overflow exception is detected for arithmetic operations in which the destination is a floating-point data register or memory when the intermediate result's exponent is greater than or equal to the maximum exponent value of the selected rounding precision. Overflow occurs only when the destination is S- or D-precision format; overflows for other formats are handled as operand errors. At the end of any operation that could potentially overflow, the intermediate result is checked for underflow, rounded, and then checked for overflow before it is stored to the destination. If overflow occurs, FPSR[OVFL,INEX] are set.

Even if the intermediate result is small enough to be represented as a double-precision number, an overflow can occur if the magnitude of the intermediate result exceeds the range of the selected rounding precision format. See [Table 6-17.](#page-185-0)

6.6.1.6 Underflow (UNFL)

An underflow exception occurs when the intermediate result of an arithmetic instruction is too small to be represented as a normalized number in a floating-point register or memory using the selected rounding precision; that is, when the intermediate result exponent is less than or equal to the minimum exponent value of the selected rounding precision. Underflow can only occur when the destination format is single or double precision. When the destination is byte, word, or longword, the conversion underflows to zero without causing an underflow or an operand error. At the end of any operation that could underflow, the intermediate result is checked for underflow, rounded, and checked for overflow before it is stored in the destination. FPSR[UNFL] is set if underflow occurs. If the underflow exception is disabled, FPSR[INEX] is also set.

Even if the intermediate result is large enough to be represented as a double-precision number, an underflow can occur if the magnitude of the intermediate result is too small to be represented in the selected rounding precision. [Table 6-18](#page-185-1) shows results when the exception is enabled or disabled.

6.6.1.7 Divide-by-Zero (DZ)

Attempting to use a zero divisor for a divide instruction causes a divide-by-zero exception. When a divide-by-zero is detected, FPSR[DZ] is set. [Table 6-19](#page-186-0) shows results when the exception is enabled or disabled.

6.6.1.8 Inexact Result (INEX)

An INEX exception condition exists when the infinitely precise mantissa of a floating-point intermediate result has more significant bits than can be represented exactly in the selected rounding precision or in the destination format. If this condition occurs, FPSR[INEX] is set and the infinitely-precise result is rounded according to [Table 6-20](#page-186-1).

RM The result is the value closest to and no greater than the infinitely-precise intermediate result (possibly - \times). RP The result is the value closest to and no less than the infinitely-precise intermediate result (possibly $+x$).

Table 6-20. Inexact Rounding Mode Values

FPSR[INEX] is also set for any of the following conditions:

- If an input operand is a denormalized number and the IDE exception is disabled
- An overflowed result

point.

An underflowed result with the underflow exception disabled

[Table 6-18](#page-185-1) shows results when the exception is enabled or disabled.

6.6.2 Floating-Point State Frames

Floating-point arithmetic exception handlers should have FSAVE as the first floating-point instruction; otherwise, encountering another floating-point arithmetic instruction will cause the exception to be reported again. After FSAVE executes, the handler should use FMOVEM to access floating-point data registers, because it cannot generate further exceptions or change the FPSR.

Note that if no intervention is needed, instead of FSAVE, the handler can simply clear the appropriate FPCR and FPSR bits and then return from the exception.

Because the FPCR and FPSR are written in the FSAVE frame, a context switch needs only execute FSAVE and FMOVEM for data registers. The new process needs to load data registers by using a FMOVEM/FRESTORE sequence before it can continue.

FSAVE operations always write a 4-longword floating-point state frame that holds a 64-bit exception operand. [Figure 6-13](#page-187-0) shows FSAVE frame contents.

Figure 6-13. Floating-Point State Frame Contents

[Table 6-22](#page-187-1) describes format word fields.

When FSAVE executes, the floating-point frame reflects the FPU state at the time of the FSAVE. Internally, the FPU can be in the NULL, IDLE, or EXCP states. Upon reset, the FPU is in NULL state, in which all floating-point registers contain NANs and the FPCR, FPSR, and FPIAR contain zeros. The FPU remains in NULL state until execution of an implemented floating-point instruction (except FSAVE). At this point, the FPU transitions from NULL to an IDLE state. A FRESTORE of NULL returns the FPU to NULL state.

EXCP state is entered as a result of a floating-point exception or an unsupported data type exception. The vector field identifies exception types associated with the EXCP state. This field and the exception vector taken are determined directly from the exception control (FPCR) and status (FPSR) bits. An FSAVE instruction always clears FPCR after saving its state. Thus, after an FSAVE, a handler does not generate further floating-point exceptions unless the handler re-enables the exceptions. FRESTORE returns FPCR and FPSR to their previous state before entering the handler, as stored in the state frame. A handler could alter the state frame to restore the FPU (using FRESTORE) into a different state than that saved by using FSAVE.

Normally, an exception handler executes FSAVE, processes the exception, clears the exception bit in the FSAVE state frame status word, and executes FRESTORE. If appropriate exception bits set in the status word are not cleared, the same exception is taken again. If multiple exception bits are set in the status word, each should be processed, cleared, and restored by their respective handlers. In this way, all exceptions are processed in priority order.

If it is not necessary to handle multiple exceptions, the exception model can be simplified (after any processing) by the handler manually loading FPCR and FPSR and then discarding the state frame before executing an RTE. Given that state frames are four longwords, it may be quicker to discard the state frame by incrementing the address pointer (often the system stack pointer, A7) by 16.

The exception operand, contained in longwords two and three of the FSAVE frame, is always the value of the destination operand before the operation which caused the exception commenced. Thus, for dyadic register-to-register operations, the exception operand contains the value of the destination register before it was overwritten by the operation which caused the exception. This operand can be retrieved by an exception handler that needs both original operands in order to process the exception.

6.7 Instructions

This section includes an instruction set summary, execution times, and differences between ColdFire and M68000 FPU programming models. For detailed instruction descriptions, see the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual.*

6.7.1 Floating-Point Instruction Overview

ColdFire instructions are 16-, 32-, or 48-bits long. The general definition of a floating-point operation and effective addressing mode require 32 bits; some addressing modes require another 16-bit extension word. [Table 6-23](#page-188-0) shows the minimum size instruction formats. The first word is the opword; the second is extension word 1.

Table 6-23. Floating-Point Instruction Formats

Table 6-23. Floating-Point Instruction Formats (Continued)

[Table 6-24](#page-189-0) defines the terminology used in [Table 6-23](#page-188-0).

Table 6-24. Instruction Format Terminology

6.7.2 Floating-Point Instruction Execution Timing

[Table 6-25](#page-190-0) shows the ColdFire execution times for the floating-point instructions in terms of processor core clock cycles. Each timing entry is presented as C(*r/w*).

- \bullet $C =$ The number of processor clock cycles including all applicable operand reads and writes plus all internal core cycles required to complete instruction execution
- \cdot $r =$ The number of operand reads
- $w =$ The number of operand writes

NOTE

Timing assumptions are the same as those for the ColdFire ISA. See the *ColdFire Microprocessor Family Programmer's Reference Manual.*

Opcode	Format	Effective Address <ea></ea>						
		FPn	Dn	(An)	(An)+	-(An)	(d_{16}, An)	(d_{16}, PC)
FABS	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)
FADD	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)
FBcc	<label></label>							$2(0/0)$ if correct, 9(0/0) if incorrect
FCMP	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)
FDIV	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	23(0/0)	23(0/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)	23(1/0)
FINT	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)
FINTRZ	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	4(0/0)	4(0/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)	4(1/0)
FMOVE	<ea>y,FPx</ea>	1(0/0)	1(0/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)	1(1/0)
	FPv < ea > x		2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)	2(0/1)	
	<ea>y,FP*R</ea>		6(0/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)	6(1/0)
	FP*R, <ea>x</ea>		1(0/0)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	1(0/1)	

Table 6-25. Floating-Point Instruction Execution Times1, **²**, **³**

 1 Add 1(1/0) for an external read operand of double-precision format for all instructions except FMOVEM, and 1(0/1) for FMOVE FPy,<ea>x when the destination is double-precision.

 2 If the external operand is an integer format (byte, word, longword), there is a 4 cycle conversion time which must be added to the basic execution time.

³ If any exceptions are enabled, the execution time for FMOVE FPy,<ea>x increases by one cycle. If the BSUN exception is enabled, the execution time for FBcc increases by one cycle.

 4 For FMOVEM, *n* refers to the number of registers being moved.

The ColdFire architecture supports concurrent execution of integer and floating-point instructions. The latencies in this table define the execution time needed by the FPU. After a multi-cycle FPU instruction is issued, subsequent integer instructions can execute concurrently with the FPU execution. For this sequence, the floating-point instruction occupies only one OEP cycle.

6.7.3 Key Differences between ColdFire and M68000 FPU Programming Models

This section is intended for compiler developers and developers porting assembly language routines from the M68000 family to ColdFire. It highlights major differences between the ColdFire FPU instruction set architecture (ISA) and the equivalent M68000 family ISA, using the MC68060 as the reference. The internal FPU datapath width is the most obvious difference. ColdFire uses 64-bit double-precision and the M68000 family uses 80-bit extended precision. Other differences pertain to supported addressing modes, both across all FPU instructions as well as specific opcodes. [Table 6-26](#page-191-0) lists key differences. Because all ColdFire implementations support instruction sizes of 48 bits or less, M68000 operations requiring larger instruction lengths cannot be supported.

Feature	M68000	ColdFire
Internal datapath width	80 bits	64 bits
Support for fpGEN d_8 (An, Xi), FPx	Yes	No

Table 6-26. Key Programming Model Differences

Some differences affect function activation and return. M68000 subroutines typically began with FMOVEM #list,-(a7) to save registers on the system stack, with each register occupying three longwords. In ColdFire, each register occupies two longwords and the stack pointer must be adjusted before the FMOVEM instruction. A similar sequence generally occurs at the end of the function, preparing to return control to the calling routine.

The examples in [Table 6-27](#page-192-0), [Table 6-28,](#page-192-1) and [Table 6-29](#page-193-0) show a M68000 operation and the equivalent ColdFire sequence.

 1 n is the number of FP registers to be saved/restored.

If the subroutine includes LINK and UNLK instructions, the stack space needed for FPU register storage can be factored into these operations and LEA instructions are not required.

The M68000 FPU supports loads and stores of multiple control registers (FPCR, FPSR, and FPIAR) with one instruction. For ColdFire, only one can be moved at a time.

For instructions that require an unsupported addressing mode, the operand address can be formed with a LEA instruction immediately before the FPU operation. See [Table 6-28.](#page-192-1)

Table 6-28. M68000/ColdFire Operation Sequence 2

M68000	ColdFire Equivalent
fadd.s label, fp2	lea label, a0; form pointer to data fadd.s $(a0)$, fp2
fmul.d $(d8, a1, d7)$, fp5	lea (d8,a1,d7),a0;form pointer to data fmul.d $(a0)$, fp5
fcmp.l $(d8, pc, d2)$, fp3	lea (d8, pc, d2), a0; form pointer to data fcmp. l (a0), fp3

The M68000 FPU allows floating-point instructions to directly specify immediate values; the ColdFire FPU does not support these types of immediate constants. It is recommended that floating-point immediate

values be moved into a table of constants that can be referenced using PC-relative addressing or as an offset from another address pointer. See [Table 6-29](#page-193-0).

Finally, ColdFire and the M68000 differ in how exceptions are made pending. In the ColdFire exception model, asserting both an FPSR exception indicator bit and the corresponding FPCR enable bit makes an exception pending. Thus, a pending exception state can be created by loading FPSR and/or FPCR. On the M68000, this type of pending exception is not possible.

Analysis of compiled floating-point applications indicates these differences account for most of the changes between M68000-compatible text and the equivalent ColdFire program.

Chapter 7 Local Memory

This chapter describes the MCF548*x* implementation of the ColdFire Version 4e local memory specification. It consists of two major sections.

- [Section 7.2, "SRAM Overview,](#page-194-0)" describes the MCF548*x* core's local static RAM (SRAM) implementation. It covers general operations, configuration, and initialization. It also provides information and examples showing how to minimize power consumption when using the SRAM.
- [Section 7.7, "Cache Overview,](#page-199-0)" describes the MCF548*x* cache implementation, including organization, configuration, and coherency. It describes cache operations and how the cache interfaces with other memory structures.

7.1 Interactions between Local Memory Modules

Depending on configuration information, instruction fetches and data read accesses may be sent simultaneously to the SRAM and cache controllers. This approach is required because all three controllers are memory-mapped devices, and the hit/miss determination is made concurrently with the read data access. Power dissipation can be minimized by configuring the RAMBARs to mask unused address spaces whenever possible.

If the access address is mapped into the region defined by the SRAM (and this region is not masked), the SRAM provides the data back to the processor, and the cache data is discarded. Accesses from the SRAM module are never cached. The complete definition of the processor's local bus priority scheme for read references is as follows:

```
if (SRAM "hits")
SRAM supplies data to the processor
      else if (data cache "hits")
          data cache supplies data to the processor
      else system memory reference to access data
```
For data write references, the memory mapping into the local memories is resolved before the appropriate destination memory is accessed. Accordingly, only the targeted local memory is accessed for data write transfers.

NOTE

The two SRAMs discussed in this chapter is on the processor local bus. There is a third 32-Kbyte SRAM on the MCF548*x* device. See [Chapter 16,](#page-384-0) ["32-Kbyte System SRAM,](#page-384-0)" for more information.

7.2 SRAM Overview

The two 4-Kbyte, on-chip SRAM modules provide the core with pipelined, single-cycle access to memory. Memory can be independently mapped to any 0-modulo-4K location in the 4-Gbyte address space and configured to respond to either instruction or data accesses.

The following summarizes features of the MCF548*x* SRAM implementation:

- Two 4-Kbyte SRAMs, organized as 1024 x 32 bits
- Single-cycle throughput. When the pipeline is full, one access can occur per clock cycle.

- Physical location on the processor's high-speed local bus with a user-programmed connection to the internal instruction or data bus
- Memory location programmable on any 0-modulo-4K address boundary
- Byte, word, and longword address capabilities
- The RAM base address registers (RAMBAR0 and RAMBAR1) define the logical base address, attributes, and access types for the two SRAM modules.

7.3 SRAM Operation

Each SRAM module provides a general-purpose memory block that the ColdFire processor can access with single-cycle throughput. The location of the memory block can be specified to any 0-module-4K address boundary in the 4-Gbyte address space by RAMBAR*n*[BA], described in [Section 7.4.1, "SRAM](#page-195-0) [Base Address Registers \(RAMBAR0/RAMBAR1\)](#page-195-0)." The memory is ideal for storing critical code or data structures or for use as the system stack. Because the SRAM module connects physically to the processor's high-speed local bus, it can service processor-initiated accesses or memory-referencing debug module commands.

The Version 4e ColdFire processor core implements a Harvard memory architecture. Each SRAM module may be logically connected to either the processor's internal instruction or data bus. This logical connection is controlled by a configuration bit in the RAM base address registers (RAMBAR0 and RAMBAR1).

If an instruction fetch is mapped into the region defined by the SRAM, the SRAM sources the data to the processor and any cache data is discarded. Likewise, if a data access is mapped into the region defined by the SRAM, the SRAM services the access and the cache is not affected. Accesses from SRAM modules are never cached, and debug-initiated references are treated as data accesses.

Note also that the SRAMs cannot be accessed by the on-chip DMAs. The on-chip system configuration allows concurrent core and DMA execution, where the CPU can reference code or data from the internal SRAMs or caches while performing a DMA transfer.

Accesses are attempted in the following order:

- 1. SRAM
- 2. Cache (if space is defined as cacheable)
- 3. System SRAM, MBAR space, or external access

7.4 SRAM Register Definition

The SRAM programming model consists of RAMBAR0 and RAMBAR1.

7.4.1 SRAM Base Address Registers (RAMBAR0/RAMBAR1)

The SRAM modules are configured through the RAMBARs, shown in [Figure 7-1.](#page-196-0) Each RAMBAR holds the base address of the SRAM. The MOVEC instruction provides write-only access to this register from the processor. Each RAMBAR can be read or written from the debug module in a similar manner. All undefined RAMBAR bits are reserved. These bits are ignored during writes to the RAMBAR and return zeros when read from the debug module. The valid bits, RAMBAR*n*[V], are cleared at reset, disabling the SRAM modules. All other bits are unaffected.

NOTE

RAMBAR*n* is read/write by the debug module.

RAMBAR*n* fields are described in detail in [Table 7-1.](#page-196-1)

The mapping of a given access into the SRAM uses the following algorithm to determine if the access hits in the memory:

```
if (RAMBAR[0] = 1)
```

```
if (((access = instructionFetch) & (RAMBAR[7] = 1)) |
         ((access = databaseference) & (RAMBAR[7] = 0)))if (requested address[31:10] = RAMBAR[31:10])
        if (requested address[31:n] = RAMBAR[31:n]
                 if (ASn of the requested type = 0)
                          Access is mapped to the SRAM module
                          if (access = read)
                                   Read the SRAM and return the data
                          if (access = write)
                                   if (RAMBAR[8] = 0)Write the data into the SRAM
                                   else Signal a write-protect access error
```
AS*n* refers to the five address space mask bits: C/I, SC, SD, UC, and UD.

7.5 SRAM Initialization

After a hardware reset, the contents of each SRAM module are undefined. The valid bits, RAMBAR*n*[V], are cleared, disabling the SRAM modules. If the SRAM requires initialization with instructions or data, the following steps should be performed:

- 1. Load RAMBAR*n* with bit $7 = 0$, mapping the SRAM module to the desired location. Clearing RAMBARn^[7] logically connects the SRAM module to the processor's data bus.
- 2. Read the source data and write it to the SRAM. Various instructions support this function, including memory-to-memory move instructions and the move multiple instruction (MOVEM). MOVEM is optimized to generate line-sized burst fetches on line-aligned addresses, so it generally provides maximum performance.

3. After the data is loaded into the SRAM, it may be appropriate to revise the RAMBAR attribute bits, including the write-protect and address-space mask fields. If the SRAM contains instructions, RAMBAR[D/I] must be set to logically connect the memory to the processor's internal instruction bus.

Remember that the SRAM cannot be accessed by the on-chip DMAs. The on-chip system configuration allows concurrent core and DMA execution, where the core can execute code out of internal SRAM or cache during DMA access.

The ColdFire processor or an external emulator using the debug module can perform these initialization functions.

7.5.1 SRAM Initialization Code

The code segment below initializes the SRAM using RAMBAR0. The code sets the base address of the SRAM at $0x2000$ 0000 before it initializes the SRAM to zeros.

The following loop initializes the entire SRAM to zero:

SRAM_INIT_LOOP:

The following function copies the number of bytesToMove from the source (*src) to the processor's local SRAM at an offset relative to the SRAM base address defined by destinationOffset. The bytesToMove must be a multiple of 16. For best performance, source and destination SRAM addresses should be line-aligned (0-modulo-16).

; copyToCpuRam (*src, destinationOffset, bytesToMove)

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```
; +20 destinationOffset
; +24 bytesToMove
        move.l RAMBASE+RAMFLAGS,a0 ;define RAMBAR0 contents
        movec.l a0,rambar0;load it
        move.l 16(a7),a0;load argument defining *src
        lea.1 RAMBASE, al; memory pointer to SRAM base
        add.l 20(a7),a1;include destinationOffset
        move.l 24(a7),d4;load byte count
        asr.1 #4,d4 ;divide by 16 to convert to loop count
        .align 4 ;force loop on 0-mod-4 address
loop: movem.1 (a0),#0xf;read 16 bytes from source
        movem.l #0xf,(a1);store into SRAM destination
        lea.l 16(a0),a0;increment source pointer
        lea.l 16(a1),a1;increment destination pointer
        subq.1 #1,d4 ; decrement loop counter
        bne.b loop ; if done, then exit, else continue
        movem.l (a7),#0x1c;restore d2/d3/d4 registers
        lea.l 12(a7),a7;deallocate temporary space
        rts
```
7.6 Power Management

Because processor memory references may be simultaneously sent to an SRAM module and cache, power can be minimized by configuring RAMBAR address space masks as precisely as possible. For example, if an SRAM is mapped to the internal instruction bus and contains instruction data, setting the AS*n* mask bits associated with operand references can decrease power dissipation. Similarly, if the SRAM contains data, setting AS*n* bits associated with instruction fetches minimizes power.

[Table 7-2](#page-199-2) shows typical RAMBAR configurations.

7.7 Cache Overview

This section describes the MCF548*x* cache implementation, including organization, configuration, and coherency. It describes cache operations and how the cache interacts with other memory structures.

The MCF548*x* implements a special branch instruction cache for accelerating branches, enabled by a bit in the cache access control register (CACR[BEC]). The branch cache is described in [Section 3.2.1.1.1,](#page-81-0) ["Branch Acceleration](#page-81-0)."

The MCF548*x* processor's Harvard memory structure includes a 32-Kbyte data cache and a 32-Kbyte instruction cache. Both are nonblocking and 4-way set-associative with a 16-byte line. The cache improves system performance by providing single-cycle access to the instruction and data pipelines. This decouples processor performance from system memory performance, increasing bus availability for on-chip DMA or external devices. [Figure 7-2](#page-200-0) shows the organization and integration of the data cache.

Figure 7-2. Data Cache Organization

Both caches implement line-fill buffers to optimize line-sized burst accesses. The data cache supports operation of copyback, write-through, or cache-inhibited modes. A four-entry, 32-bit buffer supports cache line-push operations, and can be configured to defer write buffering in write-through or cache-inhibited modes. The cache lock feature can be used to guarantee deterministic response for critical code or data areas.

A nonblocking cache services read hits or write hits from the processor while a fill (caused by a cache allocation) is in progress. As [Figure 7-2](#page-200-0) shows, accesses use a single bus connected to the cache.

All addresses from the processor to the cache are physical addresses. A cache hit occurs when an address matches a cache entry. For a read, the cache supplies data to the processor. For a write, which is permitted only to the data cache, the processor updates the cache. If an access does not match a cache entry (misses the cache) or if a write access must be written through to memory, the cache performs a bus cycle on the internal bus and correspondingly on the external bus by way of the system integration unit (SIU).

The cache module does not implement bus snooping; cache coherency with other possible bus masters must be maintained in software.

7.8 Cache Organization

A four-way set associative cache is organized as four ways (levels). There are 512 sets in the 32-Kbyte data cache with each line containing 16 bytes (4 longwords). The 32-Kbyte instruction cache has 512 sets. Entire cache lines are loaded from memory by burst-mode accesses that cache 4 longwords of data or instructions. All 4 longwords must be loaded for the cache line to be valid.

[Figure 7-3](#page-201-0) shows data cache organization as well as terminology used.

M—Modified bit for line (data cache only)

Figure 7-3. Data Cache Organization and Line Format

A set is a group of four lines (one from each level, or way), corresponding to the same index into the cache array.

7.8.1 Cache Line States: Invalid, Valid-Unmodified, and Valid-Modified

As shown in [Table 7-3](#page-201-1), a data cache line can be invalid, valid-unmodified (often called exclusive), or valid-modified. An instruction cache line can be valid or invalid.

A valid line can be explicitly invalidated by executing a CPUSHL instruction**.**

7.8.2 The Cache at Start-Up

As [Figure 7-4](#page-202-0) (A) shows, after power-up, cache contents are undefined; V and M may be set on some lines even though the cache may not contain the appropriate data for start up. Because reset and power-up do not invalidate cache lines automatically, the cache should be cleared explicitly by setting CACR[DCINVA,ICINVA] before the cache is enabled (B).

After the entire cache is flushed, cacheable entries are loaded first in way 0. If way 0 is occupied, the cacheable entry is loaded into the same set in way 1, as shown in [Figure 7-4](#page-202-0) (D). This process is described in detail in [Section 7.9, "Cache Operation.](#page-203-0)"

Figure 7-4. Data Cache—A: at Reset, B: after Invalidation, C and D: Loading Pattern

the cache is enabled.

7.9 Cache Operation

[Figure 7-5](#page-203-1) shows the general flow of a caching operation using the 32-Kbyte data cache as an example. The discussion in this chapter assumes a data cache. Instruction cache operations are similar except that there is no support for writing to the cache; therefore, such notions of modified cache lines and write allocation do not apply.

Figure 7-5. Data Caching Operation

The following steps determine if a data cache line is allocated for a given address:

- 1. The cache set index, A[12:4], selects one cache set.
- 2. A[31:13] and the cache set index are used as a tag reference or are used to update the cache line tag field. Note that A[31:13] can specify 19 possible address lines that can be mapped to one of the four ways.
- 3. The four tags from the selected cache set are compared with the tag reference. A cache hit occurs if a tag matches the tag reference and the V bit is set, indicating that the cache line contains valid data. If a cacheable write access hits in a valid cache line, the write can occur to the cache line without having to load it from memory.

If the memory space is copyback, the updated cache line is marked modified $(M = 1)$, because the new data has made the data in memory out of date. If the memory location is write-through, the write is passed on to system memory and the M bit is never used. Note that the tag does not have TT or TM bits.

To allocate a cache entry, the cache set index selects one of the cache's 512 sets. The cache control logic looks for an invalid cache line to use for the new entry. If none is available, the cache controller uses a

pseudo-round-robin replacement algorithm to choose the line to be deallocated and replaced. First the cache controller looks for an invalid line, with way 0 the highest priority. If all lines have valid data, a 2-bit replacement counter is used to choose the way. After a line is allocated, the pointer increments to point to the next way.

Cache lines from ways 0 and 1 can be protected from deallocation by enabling half-cache locking. If $CACR[DHLCK, IHLCK] = 1$, the replacement pointer is restricted to way 2 or 3.

As part of deallocation, a valid, unmodified cache line is invalidated. It is consistent with system memory, so memory does not need to be updated. To deallocate a modified cache line, data is placed in a push buffer (for an external cache line push) before being invalidated. After invalidation, the new entry can replace it. The old cache line may be written after the new line is read.

When a cache line is selected to host a new cache entry, the following three things happen:

- 1. The new address tag bits A[31:13] are written to the tag.
- 2. The cache line is updated with the new memory data.
- 3. The cache line status changes to a valid state $(V = 1)$.

Read cycles that miss in the cache allocate normally as previously described.

Write cycles that miss in the cache do not allocate on a cacheable write-through region, but do allocate for addresses in a cacheable copyback region**.**

A copyback byte, word, longword, or line write miss causes the following:

- 1. The cache initiates a line fill or flush.
- 2. Space is allocated for a new line.
- 3. V and M are both set to indicate valid and modified.
- 4. Data is written in the allocated space. No write to memory occurs.

Note the following:

- Read hits cannot change the status bits and no deallocation or replacement occurs; the data or instructions are read from the cache.
- If the cache hits on a write access, data is written to the appropriate portion of the accessed cache line. Write hits in cacheable, write-through regions generate an external write cycle and the cache line is marked valid, but is never marked modified. Write hits in cacheable copyback regions do not perform an external write cycle; the cache line is marked valid and modified $(V = 1 \text{ and } M = 1)$.
- Misaligned accesses are broken into at least two cache accesses.
- Validity is provided only on a line basis. Unless a whole line is loaded on a cache miss, the cache controller does not validate data in the cache line.

Write accesses designated as cache-inhibited by the CACR or ACR bypass the cache and perform a corresponding external write.

Normally, cache-inhibited reads bypass the cache and are performed on the external bus. The exception to this normal operation occurs when all of the following conditions are true during a cache-inhibited read:

- The cache-inhibited fill buffer bit, CACR[DNFB], is set.
- The access is an instruction read.
- The access is normal (that is, transfer type (TT) equals 0).

In this case, an entire line is fetched and stored in the fill buffer. It remains valid there, and the cache can service additional read accesses from this buffer until either another fill or a cache-invalidate-all operation occurs.

Valid cache entries that match during cache-inhibited address accesses are neither pushed nor invalidated. Such a scenario suggests that the associated cache mode for this address space was changed. To avoid this, it is generally recommended to use the CPUSHL instruction to push or invalidate the cache entry or set CACR[DCINVA] to invalidate the data cache before switching cache modes.

7.9.1 Caching Modes

For every memory reference generated by the processor or debug module, a set of effective attributes is determined based on the address and the ACRs. Caching modes determine how the cache handles an access. A data access can be cacheable in either write-through or copyback mode; it can be cache-inhibited in precise or imprecise modes. For normal accesses, the ACR*n*[CM] bit corresponding to the address of the access specifies the caching modes. If an address does not match an ACR, the default caching mode is defined by CACR[DDCM,IDCM]. The specific algorithm is as follows:

```
if (address == ACR0-address including mask)
        effective attributes = ACR0 attributes
else if (address == ACR1-address including mask)
                 effective attributes = ACR1 attributes
        else effective attributes = CACR default attributes
```
Addresses matching an ACR can also be write-protected using ACR[W]. Addresses that do not match either ACR can be write-protected using CACR[DW].

Reset disables the cache and clears all CACR bits. As shown in [Figure 7-4](#page-202-0), reset does not automatically invalidate cache entries; they must be invalidated through software.

The ACRs allow the defaults selected in the CACR to be overridden. In addition, some instructions (for example, CPUSHL) and processor core operations perform accesses that have an implicit caching mode associated with them. The following sections discuss the different caching accesses and their associated cache modes.

7.9.1.1 Cacheable Accesses

If ACR*n*[CM] or the default field of the CACR indicates write-through or copyback, the access is cacheable. A read access to a write-through or copyback region is read from the cache if matching data is found. Otherwise, the data is read from memory and the cache is updated. When a line is being read from memory for either a write-through or copyback read miss, the longword within the line that contains the core-requested data is loaded first and the requested data is given immediately to the processor, without waiting for the three remaining longwords to reach the cache.

The following sections describe write-through and copyback modes in detail. Note that some of this information applies to data caches only.

7.9.1.1.1 Write-Through Mode (Data Cache Only)

Write accesses to regions specified as write-through are always passed on to the external bus, although the cycle can be buffered, depending on the state of CACR[DESB]. Writes in write-through mode are handled with a no-write-allocate policy—that is, writes that miss in the cache are written to the external bus but do not cause the corresponding line in memory to be loaded into the cache. Write accesses that hit always write through to memory and update matching cache lines. The cache supplies data to data-read accesses that hit in the cache; read misses cause a new cache line to be loaded into the cache.

7.9.1.1.2 Copyback Mode (Data Cache Only)

Copyback regions are typically used for local data structures or stacks to minimize external bus use and reduce write-access latency. Write accesses to regions specified as copyback that hit in the cache update the cache line and set the corresponding M bit without an external bus access.

The cache should be flushed using the CPUSHL instruction before invalidating the cache in copyback mode using the CINV bit. Modified cache data is written to memory only if the line is replaced because of a miss or a CPUSHL instruction pushes the line. If a byte, word, longword, or line write access misses in the cache, the required cache line is read from memory, thereby updating the cache. When a miss selects a modified cache line for replacement, the modified cache data moves to the push buffer. The replacement line is read into the cache and the push buffer contents are then written to memory.

7.9.1.2 Cache-Inhibited Accesses

Memory regions can be designated as cache-inhibited, which is useful for memory containing targets such as I/O devices and shared data structures in multiprocessing systems. It is also important to not cache the MCF548*x* memory-mapped registers. If the corresponding ACR*n*[CM] or CACR[DDCM] indicates cache-inhibited, precise or imprecise, the access is cache-inhibited. The caching operation is identical for both cache-inhibited modes, which differ only regarding recovery from an external bus error.

In determining whether a memory location is cacheable or cache-inhibited, the CPU checks memory-control registers in the following order:

- 1. RAMBARs
- 2. ACR0 and ACR2
- 3. ACR1 and ACR3
- 4. If an access does not hit in the RAMBARs or the ACRs, the default is provided for all accesses in CACR.

Cache-inhibited write accesses bypass the cache, and a corresponding external write is performed. Cache-inhibited reads bypass the cache and are performed on the external bus, except when all of the following conditions are true:

- The cache-inhibited fill-buffer bit, CACR[DNFB], is set.
- The access is an instruction read.
- The access is normal (that is, $TT = 0$).

In this case, a fetched line is stored in the fill buffer and remains valid there; the cache can service additional read accesses from this buffer until another fill occurs or a cache-invalidate-all operation occurs.

If ACR_n[CM] indicates cache-inhibited mode, precise or imprecise, the controller bypasses the cache and performs an external transfer. If a line in the cache matches the address and the mode is cache-inhibited, the cache does not automatically push the line if it is modified, nor does it invalidate the line if it is valid. Before switching cache mode, execute a CPUSHL instruction or set CACR[DCINVA,ICINVA] to invalidate the entire cache.

If ACR*n*[CM] indicates precise mode, the sequence of read and write accesses to the region is guaranteed to match the instruction sequence. In imprecise mode, the processor core allows read accesses that hit in the cache to occur before completion of a pending write from a previous instruction. Writes are not deferred past data-read accesses that miss the cache (that is, that must be read from the bus).

Precise operation forces data-read accesses for an instruction to occur only once by preventing the instruction from being interrupted after data is fetched. Otherwise, if the processor is not in precise mode,

an exception aborts the instruction and the data may be accessed again when the instruction is restarted. These guarantees apply only when ACRn^[CM] indicates precise mode and aligned accesses.

CPU space-register accesses using the MOVEC instruction are treated as cache-inhibited and precise.

7.9.2 Cache Protocol

The following sections describe the cache protocol for processor accesses and assumes that the data is cacheable (that is, write-through or copyback). Note that the discussion of write operations applies to the data cache only.

7.9.2.1 Read Miss

A processor read that misses in the cache requests the cache controller to generate a bus transaction. This bus transaction reads the needed line from memory and supplies the required data to the processor core. The line is placed in the cache in the valid state.

7.9.2.2 Write Miss (Data Cache Only)

The cache controller handles processor writes that miss in the data cache differently for write-through and copyback regions. Write misses to copyback regions cause the cache line to be read from system memory, as shown in [Figure 7-6.](#page-207-0)

1. Writing character X to 0x0B generates a write miss. Data cannot be written to an invalid line.

2. The cache line (characters A–P) is updated from system memory, and the line is marked valid.

3. After the cache line is filled, the write that initiated the write miss (the character X) completes to 0x0B.

Figure 7-6. Write-Miss in Copyback Mode

The new cache line is then updated with write data and the M bit is set for the line, leaving it in modified state. Write misses to write-through regions write directly to memory without loading the corresponding cache line into the cache.

7.9.2.3 Read Hit

On a read hit, the cache provides the data to the processor core and the cache line state remains unchanged. If the cache mode changes for a specific region of address space, lines in the cache corresponding to that region that contain modified data are not pushed out to memory when a read hit occurs within that line. First execute a CPUSHL instruction or set CACR[DCINVA, CINVA] before switching the cache mode.

7.9.2.4 Write Hit (Data Cache Only)

The cache controller handles processor writes that hit in the data cache differently for write-through and copyback regions. For write hits to a write-through region, portions of cache lines corresponding to the size of the access are updated with the data. The data is also written to external memory. The cache line state is unchanged. For copyback accesses, the cache controller updates the cache line and sets the M bit for the line. An external write is not performed and the cache line state changes to (or remains in) the modified state.

7.9.3 Cache Coherency (Data Cache Only)

The MCF548*x* provides limited cache coherency support in multiple-master environments. Both write-through and copyback memory update techniques are supported to maintain coherency between the cache and memory.

The cache does not support snooping (that is, cache coherency is not supported while external or DMA masters are using the bus). Therefore, on-chip DMAs of the MCF548*x* cannot access local memory and do not maintain coherency with the data cache.

7.9.4 Memory Accesses for Cache Maintenance

The cache controller performs all maintenance activities that supply data from the cache to the core, including requests to the SIU for reading new cache lines and writing modified lines to memory. The following sections describe memory accesses resulting from cache fill and push operations. [Chapter 17,](#page-392-0) ["FlexBus](#page-392-0)," describes required bus cycles in detail.

7.9.4.1 Cache Filling

When a new cache line is required, a line read is requested from the SIU, which generates a burst-read transfer by indicating a line access with the size signals, SIZ[1:0].

The responding device supplies 4 consecutive longwords of data. Burst operations can be inhibited or enabled through the burst read/write enable bits (BSTR/BSTW) in the chip-select control registers (CSCR0–CSCR7).

SIU line accesses implicitly request burst-mode operations from memory. For more information regarding external bus burst-mode accesses, see [Chapter 17, "FlexBus](#page-392-0)."

The first cycle of a cache-line read loads the longword entry corresponding to the requested address. Subsequent transfers load the remaining longword entries.

A burst operation is aborted by an a write-protection fault, which is the only possible access error. Exception processing proceeds immediately. Note that unlike Version 2 and Version 3 access errors, the program counter stored on the exception stack frame points to the faulting instruction. See [Section 3.8.2,](#page-116-0) ["Processor Exceptions](#page-116-0)."

7.9.4.2 Cache Pushes

Cache pushes occur for line replacement and as required for the execution of the CPUSHL instruction. To reduce the requested data's latency in the new line, the modified line being replaced is temporarily placed in the push buffer while the new line is fetched from memory. After the bus transfer for the new line completes, the modified cache line is written back to memory and the push buffer is invalidated.

7.9.4.2.1 Push and Store Buffers

The 16-byte push buffer reduces latency for requested new data on a cache miss by holding a displaced modified data cache line while the new data is read from memory.

If a cache miss displaces a modified line, a miss read reference is immediately generated. While waiting for the response, the current contents of the cache location load into the push buffer. When the burst-read bus transaction completes, the cache controller can generate the appropriate line-write bus transaction to write the push buffer contents into memory.

In imprecise mode, the FIFO store buffer can defer pending writes to maximize performance. The store buffer can support as many as four entries (16 bytes maximum) for this purpose.

Data writes destined for the store buffer cannot stall the core. The store buffer effectively provides a measure of decoupling between the pipeline's ability to generate writes (one per cycle maximum) and the external bus's ability to retire those writes. In imprecise mode, writes stall only if the store buffer is full and a write operation is on the internal bus. The internal write cycle is held, stalling the data execution pipeline.

If the store buffer is not used (that is, store buffer disabled or cache-inhibited precise mode), external bus cycles are generated directly for each pipeline write operation. The instruction is held in the pipeline until external bus transfer termination is received. Therefore, each write is stalled for 5 cycles, making the minimum write time equal to 6 cycles when the store buffer is not used. See [Section 3.2.1.2, "Operand](#page-81-1) [Execution Pipeline \(OEP\).](#page-81-1)"

The data store buffer enable bit, CACR[DESB], controls the enabling of the data store buffer. This bit can be set and cleared by the MOVEC instruction. DESB is zero at reset and all writes are performed in order (precise mode). ACR*n*[CM] or CACR[DDCM] generates the mode used when DESB is set. Cacheable write-through and cache-inhibited imprecise modes use the store buffer.

The store buffer can queue data as much as 4 bytes wide per entry. Each entry matches the corresponding bus cycle it generates; therefore, a misaligned longword write to a write-through region creates two entries if the address is to an odd-word boundary. It creates three entries if it is to an odd-byte boundary—one per bus cycle.

7.9.4.2.2 Push and Store Buffer Bus Operation

As soon as the push or store buffer has valid data, the internal bus controller uses the next available external bus cycle to generate the appropriate write cycles. In the event that another cache fill is required (for example, cache miss to process) during the continued instruction execution by the processor pipeline, the pipeline stalls until the push and store buffers are empty, then generate the required external bus transaction.

Supervisor instructions, the NOP instruction, and exception processing synchronize the processor core and guarantee the push and store buffers are empty before proceeding. Note that the NOP instruction should be used only to synchronize the pipeline. The preferred no-operation function is the TPF instruction. See the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual* for more information on the TPF instruction.

7.9.5 Cache Locking

Ways 0 and 1 of the data cache can be locked by setting CACR[DHLCK]; likewise, ways 0 and 1 of the instruction cache can be locked by setting CACR[IHLCK]. If a cache is locked, cache lines in ways 0 and 1 are not subject to being deallocated by normal cache operations.

As [Figure 7-7](#page-211-0) (B and C) shows, the algorithm for updating the cache and for identifying cache lines to be deallocated is otherwise unchanged. If ways 2 and 3 are entirely invalid, cacheable accesses are first allocated in way 2. Way 3 is not used until the location in way 2 is occupied.

Ways 0 and 1 are still updated on write hits (D in [Figure 7-7](#page-211-0)) and may be pushed or cleared only explicitly by using specific cache push/invalidate instructions. However, new cache lines cannot be allocated in ways 0 and 1 .

After reset, the cache is invalidated, ways 0 and 1 are then written with data that should not be deallocated. Ways 0 and 1 can be filled systematically by using the INTOUCH instruction.

After CACR[DHLCK] is set, subsequent cache accesses go to ways 2 and 3.

While the cache is locked and after a position in ways is full, the set in Way 3 is updated.

While the cache is locked, ways 0 and 1 can be updated by write hits. In this example, memory is configured as copyback, so updated cache lines are marked

modified.

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7.10 Cache Register Definition

This section describes the MCF548*x* implementation of the Version 4e cache registers.

7.10.1 Cache Control Register (CACR)

The CACR in [Figure 7-8](#page-212-0) contains bits for configuring the cache. It can be written by the MOVEC register instruction and can be read or written from the debug facility. A hardware reset clears CACR, which disables the cache; however, reset does not affect the tags, state information, or data in the cache.

NOTE

CACR is read/write by the debug module.

Figure 7-8. Cache Control Register (CACR)

[Table 7-4](#page-212-1) describes CACR fields. Note that some implementations may include fields not defined here; consult the part-specific documentation.

Bits	Name	Description
31	DEC.	Enable data cache. 0 Cache disabled. The data cache is not operational, but data and tags are preserved. Cache enabled.
30	DW	Data default write-protect. For normal operations that do not hit in the RAMBARs or ACRs, this field defines write-protection. See Section 7.9.1, "Caching Modes." 0 Not write protected. Write protected. Write operations cause an access error exception.
29	DESB	Enable data store buffer. Affects the precision of transfers. 0 Imprecise-mode, write-through or cache-inhibited writes bypass the store buffer and generate bus cycles directly. Section 7.9.4.2.1, "Push and Store Buffers," describes the associated performance penalty. The four-entry FIFO store buffer is enabled; to maximize performance, this buffer defers pending imprecise-mode, write-through or cache-inhibited writes. Precise-mode, cache-inhibited accesses always bypass the store buffer. Precise and imprecise modes are described in Section 7.9.1.2, "Cache-Inhibited Accesses."

Table 7-4. CACR Field Descriptions

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7.10.2 Access Control Registers (ACR0–ACR3)

The ACRs, [Figure 7-9](#page-215-0), assign control attributes, such as cache mode and write protection, to specified memory regions. ACR0 and ACR1 control data attributes; ACR2 and ACR3 control instruction attributes. Registers are accessed with the MOVEC instruction with the Rc encodings in [Figure 7-9](#page-215-0).

For overlapping data regions, ACR0 takes priority; ACR2 takes priority for overlapping instruction regions. Data transfers to and from these registers are longword transfers.

NOTE

The MBAR region should be mapped as cache-inhibited through an ACR or the CACR.

NOTE

ACR0–ACR3 is read/write by the debug module.

Reserved in ACR2 and ACR3.

[Table 7-5](#page-215-1) describes ACR*n* fields.

7.11 Cache Management

The cache can be enabled and configured by using a MOVEC instruction to access CACR. A hardware reset clears CACR, disabling the cache and removing all configuration information; however, reset does not affect the tags, state information, and data in the cache.

Set CACR[DCINVA,ICINVA] to invalidate the caches before enabling them.

The privileged CPUSHL instruction supports cache management by selectively pushing and invalidating cache lines. The address register used with CPUSHL directly addresses the cache's directory array. The CPUSHL instruction flushes a cache line.

The value of CACR[DDPI,IDPI] determines whether CPUSHL invalidates a cache line after it is pushed. To push the entire cache, implement a software loop to index through all sets and through each of the four lines within each set (a total of 512 lines for the data cache and 1024 lines for the instruction cache). The state of CACR[DEC,IEC] does not affect the operation of CPUSHL or CACR[DCINVA,ICINVA]. Disabling a cache by setting CACR[IEC] or CACR[DEC] makes the cache nonoperational without affecting tags, state information, or contents.

The contents of A*n* used with CPUSHL specify cache row and line indexes. This differs from the 68K family where a physical address is specified. [Figure 7-11](#page-217-0) shows the A*n* format for the data cache. The contents of A*n* used with CPUSHL specify cache row and line indexes.

[Figure 7-10](#page-217-1) shows the A*n* format for the data cache.

Figure 7-10. An Format (Data Cache)

[Figure 7-11](#page-217-0) shows the A*n* format for the instruction cache.

The following code example flushes the entire data cache:

_cache_disable:

The following CACR loads assume the instruction cache has been invalidated, the default instruction cache mode is cacheable, and the default data cache mode is copyback.

dataCacheLoadAndLock:

move.l #0xa3080800,d0; enable and invalidate data cache ... movec d0, cacr ; ... in the CACR

The following code preloads half of the data cache (16 Kbytes). It assumes a contiguous block of data is to be mapped into the data cache, starting at a 0-modulo-16K address.

```
move.l #1024,d0 ;256 16-byte lines in 16K space
        lea data_,a0 ; load pointer defining data area
dataCacheLoop:
        tst.b (a0) ; touch location + load into data cache
        lea 16(a0),a0;increment address to next line
        subq.1 #1,d0 ;decrement loop counter
        bne.b dataCacheLoop;if done, then exit, else continue
; A 16K region has been loaded into ways 0 and 1 of the 32K data cache. lock it!
        move.l #0xaa088000,d0;set the data cache lock bit ...
        movec d0, cacr ; ... in the CACR
        rts
```

```
align 16
```
The following CACR loads assume the data cache has been invalidated, the default instruction cache mode is cacheable and the default operand cache mode is copyback.

Note that this function must be mapped into a cache inhibited or SRAM space, or these text lines will be prefetched into the instruction cache, possibly displacing some of the 8-Kbyte space being explicitly fetched.

instructionCacheLoadAndLock:

move.l #0xa2088100,d0;enable and invalidate the instruction movec d0, cacr ; cache in the CACR

The following code segments preload half of the instruction cache (8 Kbytes). It assumes a contiguous block of data is to be mapped, starting at a 0-modulo-8K address

```
move.l #512,d0 ;512 16-byte lines in 8K space
        lea code_,a0 ;load pointer defining code area
instCacheLoop:
        intouch (a0) ; touch location + load into instruction cache
; Note in the assembler we use, there is no INTOUCH opcode. The following
; is used to produce the required binary representation
        cpushl #nc,(a0) ;touch location + load into 
                         ;instruction cache
        lea 16(a0),a0;increment address to next line
        subq.1 #1,d0 ;decrement loop counter
        bne.b instCacheLoop;if done, then exit, else continue
; A 8K region was loaded into levels 0 and 1 of the 16-Kbyte instruction cache. ; lock it!
        move.l #0xa2088800,d0;set the instruction cache lock bit 
        movec d0, cacr ; in the CACR
        rts
```


7.12 Cache Operation Summary

This section gives operational details for the cache and presents instruction and data cache-line state diagrams.

7.12.1 Instruction Cache State Transitions

Because the instruction cache does not support writes, it supports fewer operations than the data cache. As [Figure 7-12](#page-219-0) shows, an instruction cache line can be in one of two states, valid or invalid. Modified state is not supported. Transitions are labeled with a capital letter indicating the previous state and a number indicating the specific case listed in [Table 7-6.](#page-219-1) These numbers correspond to the equivalent operations on data caches, described in [Section 7.12.2, "Data Cache State Transitions](#page-220-0)."

Figure 7-12. Instruction Cache Line State Diagram

[Table 7-6](#page-219-1) describes the instruction cache state transitions shown in [Figure 7-12](#page-219-0).

7.12.2 Data Cache State Transitions

Using the V and M bits, the data cache supports a line-based protocol allowing individual cache lines to be invalid, valid, or modified. To maintain memory coherency, the data cache supports both write-through and copyback modes, specified by the corresponding ACR[CM], or CACR[DDCM] if no ACR matches.

Read or write misses to copyback regions cause the cache controller to read a cache line from memory into the cache. If available, tag and data from memory update an invalid line in the selected set. The line state then changes from invalid to valid by setting the V bit. If all lines in the row are already valid or modified, the pseudo-round-robin replacement algorithm selects one of the four lines and replaces the tag and data. Before replacement, modified lines are temporarily buffered and later copied back to memory after the new line has been read from memory.

[Figure 7-13](#page-220-1) shows the three possible data cache line states and possible processor-initiated transitions for memory configured as copyback. Transitions are labeled with a capital letter indicating the previous state and a number indicating the specific case; see [Table 7-7.](#page-221-0)

Figure 7-13. Data Cache Line State Diagram—Copyback Mode

[Figure 7-14](#page-220-2) shows the two possible states for a cache line in write-through mode.

Figure 7-14. Data Cache Line State Diagram—Write-Through Mode

[Table 7-7](#page-221-0) describes data cache line transitions and the accesses that cause them.

Table 7-7. Data Cache Line State Transitions

The following tables present the same information as [Table 7-7](#page-221-0), organized by the current state of the cache line. In [Table 7-8](#page-222-0) the current state is invalid.

Table 7-8. Data Cache Line State Transitions (Current State Invalid)

In [Table 7-9](#page-222-1) the current state is valid.

Table 7-9. Data Cache Line State Transitions (Current State Valid)

In [Table 7-10](#page-223-0) the current state is modified.

7.13 Cache Initialization Code

The following example sets up the cache for FLASH or ROM space only.

Chapter 8 Debug Support

8.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the Revision D enhanced hardware debug support in the ColdFire Version 4. This revision of the ColdFire debug architecture encompasses earlier revisions. An expanded set of debug functionality is defined as Revision B (or Rev. B). The further enhanced debug architecture implemented in the Version 4 ColdFire is known as Revision C (or Rev. C). The addition of the memory management unit (MMU) in the Version 4e ColdFire requires corresponding enhancements to the ColdFire debug functionality, resulting in Revision D.

8.1.1 Overview

The debug module interface is shown in [Figure 8-1.](#page-224-0)

Debug support is divided into three areas:

- Real-time trace support: The ability to determine the dynamic execution path through an application is fundamental for debugging. The ColdFire solution implements an 8-bit parallel output bus that reports processor execution status and data to an external BDM emulator system. See [Section 8.3, "Real-Time Trace Support](#page-228-0)."
- Background debug mode (BDM): Provides low-level debugging in the ColdFire processor complex. In BDM, the processor complex is halted and a variety of commands can be sent to the processor to access memory and registers. The external BDM emulator uses a three-pin, serial, full-duplex channel. See [Section 8.5, "Background Debug Mode \(BDM\)](#page-251-0)," and [Section 8.4,](#page-232-0) ["Memory Map/Register Definition](#page-232-0)."
- Real-time debug support: BDM requires the processor to be halted, which many real-time embedded applications cannot do. Debug interrupts let real-time systems execute a unique service routine that can quickly save key register and variable contents and return the system to normal operation without halting. External development systems can access saved data, because the hardware supports concurrent operation of the processor and BDM-initiated commands. In addition, the option is provided to allow interrupts to occur. See [Section 8.6, "Real-Time Debug](#page-274-0) [Support.](#page-274-0)"

The Version 2 ColdFire core implemented the original debug architecture, now called Revision A. Based on feedback from customers and third-party developers, enhancements have been added to succeeding

generations of ColdFire cores. For Revision A, CSR[HRL] is 0. See [Section 8.4.2, "Configuration/Status](#page-234-0) [Register \(CSR\).](#page-234-0)"

The Version 3 core implements Revision B of the debug architecture, offering more flexibility for configuring the hardware breakpoint trigger registers and removing the restrictions involving concurrent BDM processing while hardware breakpoint registers are active. For Revision B, CSR[HRL] is 1.

Revision C of the debug architecture more than doubles the on-chip breakpoint registers and provides an ability to interrupt debug service routines. For Revision C, CSR[HRL] is 2.

Differences between Revision B and C are summarized as follows:

- Debug Revision B has separate PST[3:0] and DDATA[3:0] signals.
- Debug Revision C adds breakpoint registers and supports normal interrupt request service during debug. It combines debug signals into PSTDDATA[7:0].

The addition of the memory management unit (MMU) to the baseline architecture requires corresponding enhancements to the ColdFire debug functionality, resulting in Revision D. For Revision D, the revision level bit, CSR[HRL], is 3.

With software support, the MMU can provide a demand-paged, virtual address environment. To support debugging in this virtual environment, the debug enhancements are primarily related to the expansion of the virtual address to include the 8-bit address space identifier (ASID). Conceptually, the virtual address is expanded to a 40-bit value: the 8-bit ASID plus the 32-bit address.

The expansion of the virtual address affects two major debug functions:

- The ASID is optionally included in the specification of the hardware breakpoint registers. As an example, the four PC breakpoint registers are each expanded by 8 bits, so that a specific ASID value may be programmed as part of the breakpoint instruction address. Likewise, each operand address/data breakpoint register is expanded to include an ASID value. Finally, new control registers define if and how the ASID is to be included in the breakpoint comparison trigger logic.
- The debug module implements the concept of ownership trace in which the ASID value may be optionally displayed as part of the real-time trace functionality. When enabled, real-time trace displays instruction addresses on every change-of-flow instruction that is not absolute or PC-relative. For Rev. D, this instruction address display optionally includes the contents of the ASID, thus providing the complete instruction virtual address on these instructions. Additionally when a Sync_PC serial BDM command is loaded from the external development

system, the processor optionally displays the complete virtual instruction address, including the 8-bit ASID value.

In addition to these ASID-related changes, the new MMU control registers are accessible by using serial BDM commands. The same BDM access capabilities are also provided for the EMAC and FPU programming models.

Finally, a new serial BDM command is implemented (FORCE TA) to assist debugging when a software error generates an incorrect memory address that hangs the external bus. The new BDM command attempts to break this condition by forcing a bus termination.

8.2 Signal Descriptions

[Table 8-1](#page-226-0) describes debug module signals. All ColdFire debug signals are unidirectional and related to a rising edge of the processor core's clock signal. The standard 26-pin debug connector is shown in [Section 8.9, "Freescale-Recommended BDM Pinout](#page-286-0)."

Table 8-1. Debug Module Signals

[Figure 8-2](#page-226-1) shows PSTCLK timing with respect to PSTDDATA.

Figure 8-2. PSTCLK Timing

8.2.1 Processor Status/Debug Data (PSTDDATA[7:0])

Processor status data outputs are used to indicate both processor status and captured address and data values. They operate at half the processor's frequency. Given that real-time trace information appears as a sequence of 4-bit data val[ues, there are no alignment restrictions; that is, the p](#page-267-0)rocessor status (PST) values and operands may appear on either nibble of PSTDDATA[7:0]. The upper nibble (PSTDDATA[7:4]) is the more significant and yields values first.

CSR controls capturing of data values to be presented on PSTDDATA. Executing the WDDATA instruction captures data that is displayed on PSTDDATA too. These signals are updated each processor cycle and display two values at a time for two processor clock cycles. [Table 8-2](#page-227-0) shows the PSTDDATA

output for the processor's sequential execution of single-cycle instructions (A, B, C, D...). Cycle counts are shown relative to processor frequency. These outputs indicate the current processor pipeline status and are not related to the current bus transfer.

Cycles	PSTDDATA[7:0]
$T+0, T+1$	{PST for A, PST for B}
$T+2, T+3$	{PST for C, PST for D}
T+4. T+5	{PST for E, PST for F}

Table 8-2. PSTDDATA: Sequential Execution of Single-Cycle Instructions

The signal timing for the example in [Table 8-2](#page-227-0) is shown in [Figure 8-3.](#page-227-1)

Figure 8-3. PSTDDATA: Single-Cycle Instruction Timing

[Table 8-3](#page-227-2) shows the case where a PSTDDATA module captures a memory operand on a simple load instruction: mov.l <mem>,Rx.

NOTE

A PST marker and its data display are sent contiguously. Except for this transmission, the IDLE status (0x0) can appear anytime. Again, given that real-time trace information appears as a sequence of 4-bit values, there are no alignment restrictions. That is, PST values and operands may appear on either nibble of PSTDDATA.

8.3 Real-Time Trace Support

Real-time trace, which defines the dynamic execution path, is a fundamental debug function. The ColdFire solution is to include a parallel output port providing encoded processor status and data to an external development system. This 8-bit port is partitioned into two consecutive 4-bit nibbles. Each nibble can either transmit information concerning the processor's execution status (PST) or debug data (DDATA). The processor status may not be related to the current bus transfer, due to the decoupling FIFOs.

External development systems can use PSTDDATA outputs with an external image of the program to completely track the dynamic execution path. This tracking is complicated by any change in flow, especially when branch target address calculation is based on the contents of a program-visible register (variant addressing). PSTDDATA outputs can be configured to display the target address of such instructions in sequential nibble increments across multiple processor clock cycles, as described in Section 8.3.1, "Begin Execution of Taken Branch ($\text{PST} = 0x\overline{5}$)." Four 32-bit storage elements form a FIFO buffer connecting the processor's high-speed local bus to the external development system through PSTDDATA[7:0]. The buffer captures branch target addresses and certain data values for eventual display on the PSTDDATA port, two nibbles at a time starting with the least significant bit (lsb).

Execution speed is affected only when three storage elements contain valid data to be dumped to the PSTDDATA port. This occurs only when two values are captured simultaneously in a read-modify-write operation. The core stalls until two FIFO entries are available.

[Table 8-4](#page-228-1) shows the encoding of these signals.

8.3.1 Begin Execution of Taken Branch (PST = 0x5)

PST is 0x5 when a taken branch is executed. For some opcodes, a branch target address may be displayed on PSTDDATA depending on the CSR settings. CSR also controls the number of address bytes displayed, which is indicated by the PST marker value immediately preceding the PSTDDATA nibble that begins the data output.

Multiple byte DDATA values are displayed in least-to-most-significant order. The processor captures only those target addresses associated with taken branches which use a variant addressing mode, that is, RTE and RTS instructions, JMP and JSR instructions using address register indirect or indexed addressing modes, and all exception vectors.

The simplest example of a branch instruction using a variant address is the compiled code for a C language case statement. Typically, the evaluation of this statement uses the variable of an expression as an index into a table of offsets, where each offset points to a unique case within the structure. For such change-of-flow operations, the V4 microarchitecture uses the debug pins to output the following sequence of information on two successive processor clock cycles:

- 1. Use PSTDDATA (0x5) to identify that a taken branch is executed.
- 2. Optionally signal the target address to be displayed sequentially on the PSTDDATA pins. Encodings 0x9–0xB identify the number of bytes displayed*.*
- 3. The new target address is optionally available on subsequent cycles using the PSTDDATA port. The number of bytes of the target address displayed on this port is configurable (2, 3, or 4 bytes, where the encoding is 0x9, 0xA, and 0xB, respectively).

Another example of a variant branch instruction would be a JMP (A0) instruction. [Figure 8-4](#page-230-1) shows when the PSTDDATA outputs that indicate when a JMP (A0) executed, assuming the CSR was programmed to display the lower 2 bytes of an address.

Figure 8-4. Example JMP Instruction Output on PSTDDATA

PSTDDATA is driven two nibbles at a time with a 0x59; 0x5 indicates a taken branch and the marker value 0x9 indicates a 2-byte address. Thus, the subsequent 4 nibbles display the lower 2 bytes of address register A0 in least-to-most-significant nibble order. The PSTDDATA output after the JMP instruction continues with the next instruction.

8.3.2 Processor Stopped or Breakpoint State Change (PST = 0xE)

The 0xE encoding is generated either as a one- or multiple-cycle issue as follows:

- When the core is stopped by a STOP instruction, this encoding appears in multiple-cycle format. The ColdFire processor remains stopped until an interrupt occurs; thus, PSTDDATA outputs display 0xE until stopped mode is exited.
- When a breakpoint status change is to be output on PSTDDATA, $0xE$ is displayed for one cycle, followed immediately with the 4-bit value of the current trigger status, where the trigger status is left justified rather than in the CSR[BSTAT] description. [Section 8.4.2, "Configuration/Status](#page-234-0) [Register \(CSR\),](#page-234-0)" shows that status is right justified. That is, the displayed trigger status on PSTDDATA after a single 0xE is as follows:
	- $\sim 0x0$ = no breakpoints enabled
	- $\sim 0x^2$ = waiting for level-1 breakpoint
	- $\sim 0x4$ = level-1 breakpoint triggered
	- $\sim 0xA$ = waiting for level-2 breakpoint
	- $\sim 0xC$ = level-2 breakpoint triggered

Thus, 0xE can indicate multiple events, based on the next value, as [Table 8-5](#page-231-0) shows.

8.3.3 Processor Halted (PST = 0xF)

PST is 0xF when the processor is halted (see [Section 8.5.1, "CPU Halt](#page-251-1)"). Because this encoding defines a multiple-cycle mode, the PSTDDATA outputs display 0xF until the processor is restarted or reset. Therefore, PSTDDATA[7:0] continuously are 0xFF.

NOTE

HALT can be distinguished from a data output 0xFF by counting 0xFF occurrences on PSTDDATA. Because data always follows a marker (0x8, 0x9, 0xA, or 0xB), the longest occurrence in PSTDDATA of 0xFF in a data output is four.

Two scenarios exist for data 0xFFFF_FFFF:

• The B marker occurs on the most-significant nibble of PSTDDATA with the data of 0xFF following:

PSTDDATA[7:0] $0xBF$ $0xFF$ 0xFF $0xFF$

0xF*X* (*X* indicates that the next PST value is guaranteed to not be 0xF.)

• The B marker occurs on the least-significant nibble of PSTDDATA with the data of 0xFF following:

PSTDDATA[7:0] 0xYB $0xFF$ $0xFF$ $0xFF$ $0xFF$

0x*XY* (*X* indicates the PST value is guaranteed not to be 0xF, and *Y* signifies a PSTDDATA value that doesn't affect the 0xFF count.)

NOTE

As the result of the above, a count of at least nine or more sequential single 0xF values or five or more sequential 0xFF values indicates the HALT condition.

8.4 Memory Map/Register Definition

In addition to the existing BDM commands that provide access to the processor's registers and the memory subsystem, the debug module contains 19 registers to support the required functionality. These registers are also accessible from the processor's supervisor programming model by executing the WDEBUG instruction (write only). Thus, the breakpoint hardware in the debug module can be read or written by the external development system using the debug serial interface or written by the operating system running on the processor core. Software is responsible for guaranteeing that accesses to these resources are serialized and logically consistent. Hardware provides a locking mechanism in the CSR to allow the external development system to disable any attempted writes by the processor to the breakpoint registers (setting CSR[IPW]). BDM commands must not be issued if the WDEBUG instruction is used to access debug module registers or the resulting behavior is undefined.

These registers, shown in [Figure 8-5,](#page-232-1) are treated as 32-bit quantities, regardless of the number of implemented bits.

Note: Each debug register is accessed as a 32-bit register; shaded fields above are not used (don't care). All debug control registers are writable from the external development system or the CPU via the WDEBUG instruction.

CSR is write-only from the programming model. It can be read from and written to through the BDM port. CSR is accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x00 using the WDEBUG instruction and

Figure 8-5. Debug Programming Model

The registers in [Table 8-7](#page-234-1) are accessed through the BDM port by BDM commands, WDMREG and RDMREG, described in [Section 8.5.3.3, "Command Set Descriptions](#page-258-0)." These commands contain a 5-bit field, DRc, that specifies the register, as shown in [Table 8-6](#page-233-0).

Table 8-6. BDM/Breakpoint Registers

 1 CSR is write-only from the programming model. It can be read or written through the BDM port using the RDMREG and WDMREG commands.

These registers are also accessible from the processor's supervisor programming model through the execution of the WDEBUG instruction. Thus, the external development system and the operating system running on the processor core can access the breakpoint hardware. It is the responsibility of the software

to guarantee that all accesses to these resources are serialized and logically consistent. The hardware provides a locking mechanism in the CSR to allow the external development system to disable any attempted writes by the processor to the breakpoint registers (setting IPW $= 1$). BDM commands must not be issued if the ColdFire processor is accessing debug module registers with the WDEBUG instruction or the resulting behavior is undefined.

The ColdFire debug architecture supports a number of hardware breakpoint registers, that can be configured into single- or double-level triggers based on the PC or operand address ranges with an optional inclusion of specific data values. With the addition of the MMU capabilities, the breakpoint specifications must be expanded to optionally include the address space identifier (ASID) in these user-programmable virtual address triggers.

The core includes four PC breakpoint triggers and two sets of operand address breakpoint triggers, each with two independent address registers (to allow specification of a range) and a data breakpoint with masking capabilities. Core breakpoint triggers are accessible through the serial BDM interface or written through the supervisor programming model using the WDEBUG instruction.

Two ASID-related registers (PBAC and PBASID) are added for the PC breakpoint qualification, and two existing registers (AATR and AATR1) are expanded for the address breakpoint qualification.

8.4.1 Revision A Shared Debug Resources

In the Revision A implementation of the debug module, certain hardware structures are shared between BDM and breakpoint functionality, as shown in [Table 8-7.](#page-234-1)

Register	BDM Function	Breakpoint Function			
AATR	Bus attributes for all memory commands	Attributes for address breakpoint			
ABHR	Address for all memory commands	Address for address breakpoint			
DBR	Data for all BDM write commands	Data for data breakpoint			

Table 8-7. Rev. A Shared BDM/Breakpoint Hardware

Thus, loading a register to perform a specific function that shares hardware resources is destructive to the shared function. For example, a BDM command to access memory overwrites an address breakpoint in ABHR. A BDM write command overwrites the data breakpoint in DBR.

Revision B added hardware registers to eliminate these shared functions. The BAAR is used to specify bus attributes for BDM memory commands and has the same format as the LSB of the AATR. Note that the registers containing the BDM memory address and the BDM data are not program visible.

8.4.2 Configuration/Status Register (CSR)

The configuration/status register (CSR) defines the debug configuration for the processor and memory subsystem and contains status information from the breakpoint logic. CSR is write-only from the programming model. CSR is accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x00 using the WDEBUG instruction and through the BDM port using the RDMREG and WDMREG commands. It can be read from and written to through the BDM port.

[Table 8-8](#page-235-0) describes CSR fields.

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Table 8-8. CSR Field Descriptions (Continued)

8.4.3 PC Breakpoint ASID Control Register (PBAC)

The PBAC configures the breakpoint qualification for each PC breakpoint register (PBR, PBR1, PBR2, and PBR3). Four bits are dedicated for each breakpoint register and specify how the ASID is used in PC breakpoint qualification.

Figure 8-7. PC Breakpoint ASID Control Register (PBAC)

PBR3AC, PBR2AC, PBR1AC, and PBRAC apply to PBR3, PBR2, PBR1, and PBR, respectively, and are functionally identical. They enable or disable ASID, supervisor mode, and user mode breakpoint

qualification. Reset clears these fields, disabling qualifications and defaulting to the Revision C debug module functionality.

Table 8-9. PBAC Field Descriptions

8.4.4 BDM Address Attribute Register (BAAR)

The BAAR defines the address space for memory-referencing BDM commands. To maintain compatibility with Revision A, BAAR is loaded with any data written to the LSB of AATR. See [Figure 8-8](#page-238-1). The reset value of 0x5 sets supervisor data as the default address space.

BAAR is write only. BAAR[R,SZ] are loaded directly from the BDM command. BAAR[TT,TM] can be programmed as debug control register 0x05 from the external development system. For compatibility with Rev. A, BAAR is loaded each time AATR is written.

Figure 8-8. BDM Address Attribute Register (BAAR)

[Table 8-10](#page-238-2) describes BAAR fields**.**

Table 8-10. BAAR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 8$		Reserved
	R	Read/write 0 Write Read

8.4.5 Address Attribute Trigger Registers (AATR, AATR1)

The AATR and AATR1, [Figure 8-9,](#page-239-2) define address attributes and a mask to be matched in the trigger. The register value is compared with address attribute signals from the processor's local high-speed bus, as defined by the setting of the trigger definition register (TDR) for AATR and the extended trigger definition register (XTDR) for AATR1.

This register is expanded to include an optional ASID specification and a control bit that enables the use of the ASID field.

 1 Write only. AATR and AATR1 are accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x06 and 0x16 respectively using the WDEBUG instruction and through the BDM port using the WDMREG command.

Figure 8-9. Address Attribute Trigger Registers (AATR, AATR1)

[Table 8-11](#page-239-3) describes AATR and AATR1 fields**.**

8.4.6 Trigger Definition Register (TDR)

The TDR, shown in [Table 8-10,](#page-241-0) configures the operation of the hardware breakpoint logic that corresponds with the ABHR/ABLR/AATR, PBR/PBR1/PBR2/PBR3/PBMR, and DBR/DBMR registers within the debug module. In conjunction with the XTDR and its associated debug registers, TDR controls the actions

taken under the defined conditions. Breakpoint logic may be configured as one- or two-level triggers. TDR[31–16] or XTDR[31–16] define second-level triggers, and bits 15–0 define first-level triggers.

TDR is accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x07 using the WDEBUG instruction and through the BDM port using the WDMREG command.

NOTE

The debug module has no hardware interlocks, so to prevent spurious breakpoint triggers while the breakpoint registers are being loaded, disable TDR and XTDR (by clearing TDR[29,13] and XTDR[29,13]) before defining triggers.

A write to TDR clears the CSR trigger status bits, CSR[BSTAT].

When cleared, the data enable bits (ED*xx*) for both the second level and first level triggers disable data breakpoints. When set, these bits enable the corresponding data breakpoint condition based on the size and placement on the processor's local data bus.

The address breakpoint for each trigger is enabled by setting the address enable bits (EA*x*); clearing all three bits disables the corresponding breakpoint.

	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16
	Second Level Triggers															
R		TRC	EBL	EDLW	EDWL	EDWU	EDLL	EDLM	EDUM	EDUU	DI	EAI	EAR	EAL	EPC	PCI
W			2	2	2	2	2	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	2	2	2	2	2	$\overline{2}$	2
Reset	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$					
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	$\overline{7}$	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
								First Level Triggers								
R	Ω	Ω	EBL	EDLW	EDWL	EDWU	EDLL	EDLM	EDUM EDUU		DI	EAI	EAR	EAL	EPC	PCI
W				1	4	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Reset	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$
Reg Addr								$CPU + 0x07$								

Figure 8-10. Trigger Definition Register (TDR)

[Table 8-12](#page-241-1) describes TDR fields.

Table 8-12. TDR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 30$	TRC.	Trigger response control. Determines how the processor responds to a completed trigger condition. The trigger response is always displayed on PSTDDATA. 00 Display on PSTDDATA only 01 Processor halt 10 Debug interrupt 11 Reserved
29	FBI ₂	Enable breakpoint. Global enable for the breakpoint trigger. Setting TDR[EBL] or XTDR[EBL] enables a breakpoint trigger. If both TDL[EBL] and XTDL[EBL] are cleared, all breakpoints are disabled.

Table 8-12. TDR Field Descriptions (Continued)

8.4.7 Program Counter Breakpoint and Mask Registers (PBRn, PBMR)

Each PC breakpoint register (PBR, PBR1, PBR2, PBR3) defines an instruction address for use as part of the trigger. These registers' contents are compared with the processor's program counter register when the appropriate valid bit is set, and TDR or XTDR are configured appropriately. PBR bits are masked by setting corresponding PBMR bits. Results are compared with the processor's program counter register, as defined in TDR or XTDR. PBR1–PBR3 are not masked. [Figure 8-11](#page-243-1) shows the PC breakpoint register.

PC breakpoint registers are accessible in supervisor mode using the WDEBUG instruction and through the BDM port using the RDMREG and WDMREG commands using values shown in [Section 8.5.3.3, "Command](#page-258-0) [Set Descriptions.](#page-258-0)"

PBR0 does not have a valid bit. PBR0 is read as 0 and should be cleared.

[Table 8-13](#page-244-1) describes PBR, PBR1, PBR2, and PBR3 fields.

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 1$	CNTRAD	PC breakpoint address. The 31-bit address to be compared with the PC as a breakpoint trigger.
0		Valid. 0 Breakpoint registers are not compared with the processor's program counter register 1 Breakpoint registers are compared with the processor's program counter register when the appropriate valid bit is set and TDR or XTDR are configured appropriately. Note: This bit is not implemented on PBR0; it is implemented on PBR[1:3].

Table 8-13. PBR, PBR1, PBR2, PBR3 Field Descriptions

[Figure 8-12](#page-244-2) shows PBMR. PBMR is accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x09 using the WDEBUG instruction and via the BDM port using the WDMREG command.

Figure 8-12. Program Counter Breakpoint Mask Register (PBMR)

[Table 8-14](#page-244-3) describes PBMR fields.

Table 8-14. PBMR Field Descriptions

8.4.8 Address Breakpoint Registers (ABLR/ABLR1, ABHR/ABHR1)

The ABLR, ABLR1, ABHR, and ABHR1, shown in [Figure 8-13](#page-245-1), define regions in the processor's data address space that can be used as part of the trigger. These register values are compared with the address for each transfer on the processor's high-speed local bus. The trigger definition register (TDR) identifies the trigger as one of three cases:

- Identically the value in ABLR
- Inside the range bound by ABLR and ABHR inclusive
- Outside that same range

XTDR determines the same for ABLR1 and ABHR1.

1 ABHR and ABHR1 are accessible in supervisor mode as debug control registers 0x0C and 0x1C, using the WDEBUG instruction and via the BDM port using the RDMREG and WDMREG commands.

Figure 8-13. Address Breakpoint Registers (ABLR, ABHR, ABLR1, ABHR1)

[Table 8-15](#page-245-3) describes ABLR and ABLR1 fields.

Table 8-15. ABLR and ABLR1 Field Description

[Table 8-16](#page-245-4) describes ABHR and ABHR1 fields.

Table 8-16. ABHR and ABHR1 Field Description

8.4.9 Data Breakpoint and Mask Registers (DBR/DBR1, DBMR/DBMR1)

The data breakpoint registers (DBR/DBR1, [Figure 8-14](#page-246-0)), specify data patterns used as part of the trigger into debug mode. DBR*n* bits are masked by setting corresponding DBMR bits, as defined in TDR.

DBR and DBR1 are accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x0E and 0x1E, using the WDEBUG instruction and through the BDM port using the RDMREG and WDMREG commands.

[Table 8-17](#page-246-1) describes DBR*n* fields.

Table 8-17. DBRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	DATA	Data breakpoint value. Contains the value to be compared with the data value from the processor's local bus as a breakpoint trigger.

DBMR and DBMR1 are accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x0F and 0x1F, using the WDEBUG instruction and via the BDM port using the WDMREG command.

[Table 8-18](#page-246-2) describes DBMR*n* fields.

Table 8-18. DBMRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	MSK	Data breakpoint mask. The 32-bit mask for the data breakpoint trigger. Clearing a DBRn bit allows the corresponding DBRn bit to be compared to the appropriate bit of the processor's local data bus. Setting a DBMRn bit causes that bit to be ignored.

DBRs support both aligned and misaligned references. [Table 8-19](#page-247-1) shows relationships between processor address, access size, and location within the 32-bit data bus.

8.4.10 PC Breakpoint ASID Register (PBASID)

Each PC breakpoint register (PBR, PBR1, PBR2, or PBR3) specifies an instruction address that can be used to trigger a breakpoint. To support debugging in a virtual environment, an ASID can optionally be associated with the instruction address in the PC breakpoint registers. The optional specification of an ASID value is made using PBASID and its exact inclusion within the breakpoint specification defined by the PBAC.

PBASID contains one 8-bit ASID values for each PC breakpoint register, as described in [Table 8-20](#page-247-2), which allows each PC breakpoint register to be associated with a unique virtual address and process.

Table 8-20. PBASID Field Descriptions

Memory Map/Register Definition

Table 8-20. PBASID Field Descriptions (Continued)

8.4.11 Extended Trigger Definition Register (XTDR)

The XTDR configures the operation of the hardware breakpoint logic that corresponds with the ABHR1/ABLR1/AATR1 and DBR1/DBMR1 registers within the debug module and, in conjunction with the TDR and its associated debug registers, controls the actions taken under the defined conditions. The breakpoint logic may be configured as a one- or two-level trigger, where TDR[31–16] or XTDR[31–16] define the second-level trigger and bits 15–0 define the first-level trigger. The XTDR is accessible in supervisor mode as debug control register 0x17 using the WDEBUG instruction and via the BDM port using the WDMREG command.

NOTE

The debug module has no hardware interlocks, so to prevent spurious breakpoint triggers while the breakpoint registers are being loaded, disable TDR and XTDR (by clearing TDR[29,13] and XTDR[29,13]) before defining triggers.

A write to the XTDR clears the trigger status bits, CSR[BSTAT].

When cleared, the data enable bits (ED*xx*) for both the second level and first level triggers disable data breakpoints. When set, these bits enable the corresponding data breakpoint condition based on the size and placement on the processor's local data bus.

The address breakpoint for each trigger is enabled by setting the address enable bits (EA*x*); clearing all three bits disables the corresponding breakpoint.

[Section 8.4.11.1, "Resulting Set of Possible Trigger Combinations,](#page-250-0)" describes how to handle multiple breakpoint conditions.

[Table 8-21](#page-249-0) describes XTDR fields.

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Table 8-21. XTDR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
3	EAR1	Address enable bit: Enable address breakpoint range. The breakpoint is based on the inclusive range defined by ABLR1 and ABHR1. Trigger if address \check{S} ABHR or if address $\check{\sigma}$ ABLR.
2	EAL1	Address enable bit: Enable address breakpoint low. The breakpoint is based on the address in the $ABLR1$. Trigger address = ABLR
$1 - 0$		Reserved, should be cleared.

Table 8-21. XTDR Field Descriptions (Continued)

8.4.11.1 Resulting Set of Possible Trigger Combinations

The resulting set of possible breakpoint trigger combinations consist of the following options where || denotes logical OR, && denotes logical AND, and {} denotes an optional additional trigger term:

```
One-level triggers of the form:
if (PC_breakpoint)
if (PC_breakpoint|| Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint})
if (PC_breakpoint|| Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint}
              || Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint})
if (Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint})
if ((Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint})
              || (Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint}))
if (Address1_breakpoint {&& Data1_breakpoint})
Two-level triggers of the form:
if (PC_breakpoint)
       then if (Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint})
if (PC_breakpoint)
       then if (Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint}
              || Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint})
if (PC_breakpoint)
       then if (Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint})
if (Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint})
       then if (Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint})
if (Address1_breakpoint {&& Data1_breakpoint})
       then if (Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint})
if (Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint})
       then if (PC_breakpoint)
if (Address1_breakpoint {&& Data1_breakpoint})
       then if (PC breakpoint)
if (Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint})
```


```
then if (PC_breakpoint
              || Address1_breakpoint{&& Data1_breakpoint})
if (Address1_breakpoint {&& Data1_breakpoint})
       then if (PC_breakpoint
              || Address_breakpoint{&& Data_breakpoint})
```
In this example, PC breakpoint is the logical summation of the PBR/PBMR, PBR1, PBR2, and PBR3 breakpoint registers; Address breakpoint is a function of ABHR, ABLR, and AATR; Data breakpoint is a function of DBR and DBMR; Address1_breakpoint is a function of ABHR1, ABLR1, and AATR1; and Data1 breakpoint is a function of DBR1 and DBMR1. In all cases, the data breakpoints can be included with an address breakpoint to further qualify a trigger event as an option.

8.5 Background Debug Mode (BDM)

The ColdFire Family implements a low-level system debugger in the microprocessor hardware. Communication with the development system is handled through a dedicated, high-speed serial command interface. The ColdFire architecture implements the BDM controller in a dedicated hardware module. Although some BDM operations, such as CPU register accesses, require the CPU to be halted, all other BDM commands, such as memory accesses, can be executed while the processor is running.

BDM is useful for the following reasons:

- In-circuit emulation is not needed, so physical and electrical characteristics of the system are not affected.
- BDM is always available for debugging the system and provides a communication link for upgrading firmware in existing systems.
- Provides high-speed cache downloading (500 Kbytes/sec), especially useful for flash programming
- Provides absolute control of the processor, and thus the system. This feature allows quick hardware debugging with the same tool set used for firmware development.

8.5.1 CPU Halt

Although most BDM operations can occur in parallel with CPU operations, unrestricted BDM operation requires the CPU to be halted. The sources that can cause the CPU to halt are listed below, in order of priority:

- 1. A catastrophic fault-on-fault condition automatically halts the processor.
- 2. A hardware breakpoint can be configured to generate a pending halt condition similar to the assertion of BKPT. This type of halt is always first made pending in the processor. Next, the processor samples for pending halt and interrupt conditions once per instruction. When a pending condition is asserted, the processor halts execution at the next sample point. See [Section 8.6.1,](#page-274-1) ["Theory of Operation.](#page-274-1)"
- 3. The execution of a HALT instruction immediately suspends execution. Attempting to execute HALT in user mode while CSR[UHE] = 0 generates a privilege violation exception. If CSR[UHE] = 1, HALT can be executed in user mode. After HALT executes, the processor can be restarted by serial shifting a GO command into the debug module. Execution continues at the instruction after HALT.

4. The assertion of the \overline{BKPT} input is treated as a pseudo-interrupt; that is, asserting \overline{BKPT} creates a pending halt, which is postponed until the processor core samples for halts/interrupts. The processor samples for these conditions once during the execution of each instruction; if a pending halt is detected then, the processor suspends execution and enters the halted state.

The assertion of BKPT should be considered in the following two special cases:

• After the system reset signal is negated, the processor waits for 16 processor clock cycles before beginning reset exception processing. If the BKPT input is asserted within eight cycles after RSTI is negated, the processor enters the halt state, signaling halt status $(0xF)$ on the PSTDDATA outputs. While the processor is in this state, all resources accessible through the debug module can be referenced. This is the only chance to force the processor into emulation mode through CSR[EMU].

After system initialization, the processor's response to the GO command depends on the set of BDM commands performed while it is halted for a breakpoint. Specifically, if the PC register was loaded, the GO command causes the processor to exit halted state and pass control to the instruction address in the PC, bypassing normal reset exception processing. If the PC was not loaded, the GO command causes the processor to exit halted state and continue reset exception processing.

The ColdFire architecture also handles a special case of $\overline{B KPT}$ being asserted while the processor is stopped by execution of the STOP instruction. For this case, the processor exits the stopped mode and enters the halted state. At this point, all BDM commands may be exercised. When restarted, the processor continues by executing the next sequential instruction, that is, the instruction following the STOP opcode.

CSR[27–24] indicates the halt source, showing the highest priority source for multiple halt conditions. Debug module Revisions A and B clear CSR[27–24] upon a read of the CSR, but Revision C and D (in V4) do not. The debug GO command clears CSR[26–24].

HALT can be recognized by counting 0xFF occurrences on PSTDDATA. The count is necessary to determine between a possible data output value of 0xFF and the HALT condition. Because data always follows a marker $(0x\overline{8}, 0x9, 0xA, or 0xB)$, PSTDDATA can display no more than four data 0xFFs. Two such scenarios exist:

• A B marker occurs on the left nibble of PSTDDATA with the data of 0xFF following:

PSTDDATA[7:0]

 $0xBF$

 $0xFF$

 $0xFF$

 $0xFF$

0xF*X* (*X* indicates that the next PST value is guaranteed to not be 0xF)

• A B marker occurs on the right nibble of PSTDDATA with the data of 0xFF following: PSTDDATA[7:0]

0x*Y*B $0xFF$ $0xFF$ $0xFF$ 0xFF

0x*XY* (*X* indicates that the PST value is guaranteed to not be 0xF, and *Y* indicates a PSTDDATA value that doesn't affect the 0xFF count).

Thus, a count of either nine or more sequential single 0xF values or five or more sequential 0xFF values signifies the HALT condition.

8.5.2 BDM Serial Interface

When the CPU is halted and PSTDDATA reflects the halt status, the development system can send unrestricted commands to the debug module. The debug module implements a synchronous protocol using two inputs (DSCLK and DSI) and one output (DSO), where DSO is specified as a delay relative to the rising edge of the processor clock. See [Table 8-1](#page-226-0). The development system serves as the serial communication channel master and must generate DSCLK.

The serial channel operates at a frequency from DC to 1/5 of the PSTCLK frequency. The channel uses full-duplex mode, where data is sent and received simultaneously by both master and slave devices. The transmission consists of 17-bit packets composed of a status/control bit and a 16-bit data word. As shown in [Figure 8-18](#page-253-0), all state transitions are enabled on a rising edge of the PSTCLK clock when DSCLK is high; that is, DSI is sampled and DSO is driven.

Figure 8-18. Maximum BDM Serial Interface Timing

DSCLK and DSI are synchronized inputs. DSCLK acts as a pseudo clock enable and is sampled, along with DSI, on the rising edge of PSTCLK. DSO is delayed from the DSCLK-enabled PSTCLK rising edge (registered after a BDM state machine state change). All events in the debug module's serial state machine are based on the PSTCLK rising edge. DSCLK must also be sampled low (on a positive edge of PSTCLK) between each bit exchange. The msb is sent first. Because DSO changes state based on an internally recognized rising edge of DSCLK, DSO cannot be used to indicate the start of a serial transfer. The development system must count clock cycles in a given transfer. C0–C4 are described as follows:

- C0: Set the state of the DSI bit.
- C1: First synchronization cycle for DSI (DSCLK is high).
- C2: Second synchronization cycle for DSI (DSCLK is high).
- C3: BDM state machine changes state depending upon DSI and whether the entire input data transfer has been transmitted.
- C4: DSO changes to next value.

NOTE

A not-ready response can be ignored except during a memory-referencing cycle. Otherwise, the debug module can accept a new serial transfer after 32 processor clock periods.

8.5.2.1 Receive Packet Format

The basic receive packet, [Figure 8-19](#page-254-0), consists of 16 data bits and 1 status bit

Background Debug Mode (BDM)

Figure 8-19. Receive BDM Packet

[Table 8-22](#page-254-1) describes receive BDM packet fields.

Table 8-22. Receive BDM Packet Field Description

8.5.2.2 Transmit Packet Format

The basic transmit packet, [Figure 8-20](#page-254-2), consists of 16 data bits and 1 control bit.

Figure 8-20. Transmit BDM Packet

[Table 8-23](#page-254-3) describes transmit BDM packet fields.

Table 8-23. Transmit BDM Packet Field Description

8.5.3 BDM Command Set

[Table 8-24](#page-255-0) summarizes the BDM command set. Subsequent paragraphs contain detailed descriptions of each command. Issuing a BDM command when the processor is accessing debug module registers using the WDEBUG instruction causes undefined behavior.

¹ General command effect and/or requirements on CPU operation:

- Halted. The CPU must be halted to perform this command.

- Nation. The CF C mast be halfdeld performant and command:
- Steal. Command generates bus cycles that can be interleaved with bus accesses.

- Parallel. Command is executed in parallel with CPU activity.

² 0x4 is a three-bit field.

Unassigned command opcodes are reserved by Freescale. All unused command formats within any revision level perform a NOP and return the illegal command response*.*

8.5.3.1 ColdFire BDM Command Format

All ColdFire Family BDM commands include a 16-bit operation word followed by an optional set of one or more extension words, as shown in [Figure 8-21.](#page-256-0)

Figure 8-21. BDM Command Format

[Table 8-25](#page-256-1) describes BDM fields.

8.5.3.1.1 Extension Words as Required

Some commands require extension words for addresses or immediate data. Addresses require two extension words because only absolute long addressing is permitted. Longword accesses are forcibly longword-aligned and word accesses are forcibly word-aligned. Immediate data can be 1 or 2 words long. Byte and word data each requires one extension word and longword data requires two extension words.

Operands and addresses are transferred most-significant word first. In the following descriptions of the BDM command set, the optional set of extension words is defined as address, data, or operand data.

8.5.3.2 Command Sequence Diagrams

The command sequence diagram in [Figure 8-22](#page-257-0) shows serial bus traffic for commands. Each bubble represents a 17-bit bus transfer. The top half of each bubble indicates the data the development system

sends to the debug module; the bottom half indicates the debug module's response to the previous development system commands. Command and result transactions overlap to minimize latency.

Figure 8-22. Command Sequence Diagram

The sequence is as follows:

- In cycle 1, the development system command is issued (READ in this example). The debug module responds with either the low-order results of the previous command or a command complete status of the previous command, if no results are required.
- In cycle 2, the development system supplies the high-order 16 address bits. The debug module returns a not-ready response unless the received command is decoded as unimplemented, which is indicated by the illegal command encoding. If this occurs, the development system should retransmit the command.

NOTE

A not-ready response can be ignored except during a memory-referencing cycle. Otherwise, the debug module can accept a new serial transfer after 32 processor clock periods.

- In cycle 3, the development system supplies the low-order 16 address bits. The debug module always returns a not-ready response.
- At the completion of cycle 3, the debug module initiates a memory read operation. Any serial transfers that begin during a memory access return a not-ready response.
- Results are returned in the two serial transfer cycles after the memory access completes. For any command performing a byte-sized memory read operation, the upper 8 bits of the response data are undefined and the referenced data is returned in the lower 8 bits. The next command's opcode is sent to the debug module during the final transfer. If a memory or register access is terminated with a bus error, the error status $(S = 1, DATA = 0x0001)$ is returned instead of result data.

8.5.3.3 Command Set Descriptions

The following sections describe the commands summarized in [Table 8-24.](#page-255-0)

NOTE

The BDM status bit (S) is 0 for normally completed commands. $S = 1$ for illegal commands, not-ready responses, and transfers with bus-errors. [Section 8.5.2, "BDM Serial Interface,](#page-253-1)" describes the receive packet format.

Freescale reserves unassigned command opcodes for future expansion. Unused command formats in any revision level perform a NOP and return an illegal command response.

8.5.3.3.1 Read A/D Register (RAREG/RDREG)

Read the selected address or data register and return the 32-bit result. A bus error response is returned if the CPU core is not halted.

Command/Result Formats:

Figure 8-23. RAREG/RDREG Command Format

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-24. RAREG/RDREG Command Sequence

Operand Data: None

Result Data: The contents of the selected register are returned as a longword value, most-significant word first.

8.5.3.3.2 Write A/D Register (WAREG/WDREG)

The operand longword data is written to the specified address or data register. A write alters all 32 register bits. A bus error response is returned if the CPU core is not halted.

Command Format:

Command Sequence

Figure 8-26. WAREG/WDREG Command Sequence

Operand Data Longword data is written into the specified address or data register. The data is supplied most-significant word first.

Result Data Command complete status is indicated by returning 0xFFFF (with S cleared) when the register write is complete.

8.5.3.3.3 Read Memory Location (READ)

Read data at the longword address. Address space is defined by BAAR[TT,TM]. Hardware forces low-order address bits to zeros for word and longword accesses to ensure that word addresses are word-aligned and longword addresses are longword-aligned.

Command/Result Formats:

Background Debug Mode (BDM)

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-28. READ Command Sequence

Operand Data The only operand is the longword address of the requested location.

Result Data Word results return 16 bits of data; longword results return 32. Bytes are returned in the LSB of a word result, the upper byte is undefined. $0x0001$ (S = 1) is returned if a bus error occurs.

8.5.3.3.4 Write Memory Location (WRITE)

Write data to the memory location specified by the longword address. The address space is defined by BAAR[TT,TM]. Hardware forces low-order address bits to zeros for word and longword accesses to ensure that word addresses are word-aligned and longword addresses are longword-aligned.

Command Formats:

Figure 8-29. WRITE Command Format

Background Debug Mode (BDM)

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-30. WRITE Command Sequence

- Operand Data This two-operand instruction requires a longword absolute address that specifies a location to which the data operand is to be written. Byte data is sent as a 16-bit word, justified in the LSB; 16- and 32-bit operands are sent as 16 and 32 bits, respectively.
- Result Data Command complete status is indicated by returning 0xFFFF (with S cleared) when the register write is complete. A value of $0x0001$ (with S set) is returned if a bus error occurs.

8.5.3.3.5 Dump Memory Block (DUMP)

DUMP is used with the READ command to access large blocks of memory. An initial READ is executed to set up the starting address of the block and to retrieve the first result. If an initial READ is not executed before the first DUMP, an illegal command response is returned. The DUMP command retrieves subsequent operands. The initial address is incremented by the operand size (1, 2, or 4) and saved in a temporary register. Subsequent DUMP commands use this address, perform the memory read, increment it by the current operand size, and store the updated address in the temporary register.

NOTE

DUMP does not check for a valid address; it is a valid command only when preceded by NOP, READ, or another DUMP command. Otherwise, an illegal command response is returned. NOP can be used for intercommand padding without corrupting the address pointer.

The size field is examined each time a DUMP command is processed, allowing the operand size to be dynamically altered.

Command/Result Formats:

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-32. DUMP Command Sequence

Operand Data: None

Result Data: Requested data is returned as either a word or longword. Byte data is returned in the least-significant byte of a word result. Word results return 16 bits of significant data; longword results return 32 bits. A value of 0x0001 (with S set) is returned if a bus error occurs.

8.5.3.3.6 Fill Memory Block (FILL)

A FILL command is used with the WRITE command to access large blocks of memory. An initial WRITE is executed to set up the starting address of the block and to supply the first operand. The FILL command writes subsequent operands. The initial address is incremented by the operand size (1, 2, or 4) and saved in a temporary register after the memory write. Subsequent FILL commands use this address, perform the write, increment it by the current operand size, and store the updated address in the temporary register.

If an initial WRITE is not executed preceding the first FILL command, the illegal command response is returned.

NOTE

The FILL command does not check for a valid address: FILL is a valid command only when preceded by another FILL, a NOP, or a WRITE command. Otherwise, an illegal command response is returned. The NOP command can be used for intercommand padding without corrupting the address pointer.

The size field is examined each time a FILL command is processed, allowing the operand size to be altered dynamically.

Command Formats:

	15			12	11			8	$\overline{7}$		4	3		$\mathbf 0$
Byte	0x1			0xC				0x0			0x0			
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X				D[7:0]		
Word	0x1			0xC				0x4			0x0			
		D[15:0]												
Longword	0x1		0xC				0x8			0x0				
		D[31:16]												
								D[15:0]						

Figure 8-33. FILL Command Format

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-34. FILL Command Sequence

Operand Data: A single operand is data to be written to the memory location. Byte data is sent as a 16-bit word, justified in the least-significant byte; 16- and 32-bit operands are sent as 16 and 32 bits, respectively.

Result Data: Command complete status (0xFFFF) is returned when the register write is complete. A value of 0x0001 (with S set) is returned if a bus error occurs.

8.5.3.3.7 Resume Execution (GO)

The pipeline is flushed and refilled before normal instruction execution resumes. Prefetching begins at the current address in the PC and at the current privilege level. If any register (such as the PC or SR) is altered by a BDM command while the processor is halted, the updated value is used when prefetching resumes. If a GO command is issued and the CPU is not halted, the command is ignored.

Figure 8-35. GO Command Format

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-36. GO Command Sequence

Operand Data: None

Result Data: The command-complete response (0xFFFF) is returned during the next shift operation.

8.5.3.3.8 No Operation (NOP)

NOP performs no operation and may be used as a null command where required.

Command Formats:

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-38. NOP Command Sequence

8.5.3.3.9 Synchronize PC to the PSTDDATA Lines (SYNC_PC)

The SYNC_PC command captures the current PC and displays it on the PSTDDATA outputs. After the debug module receives the command, it sends a signal to the ColdFire processor that the current PC must be displayed. The processor then forces an instruction fetch at the next PC with the address being captured in the DDATA logic under control of CSR[BTB]. The specific sequence of PSTDDATA values is as follows:

- 1. Debug signals a SYNC_PC command is pending.
- 2. CPU completes the current instruction.
- 3. CPU forces an instruction fetch to the next PC, generates a $PST = 0x5$ value indicating a taken branch and signals the capture of DDATA.
- 4. The instruction address corresponding to the PC is captured.
- 5. The PST marker (0x9–0xB) is generated and displayed as defined by CSR[BTB] followed by the captured PC address.

If the option to display ASID is enabled $(CSR[3] = 1)$, the 8-bit ASID follows the address. That is, the PSTDDATA sequence is {0x5, Marker, Instruction Address, 0x8, ASID}, where the 0x8 is the marker for the ASID.

The SYNC PC command can be used to dynamically access the PC for performance monitoring. The execution of this command is considerably less obtrusive to the real-time operation of an application than a HALT-CPU/READ-PC/RESUME command sequence.

Command Formats:

Result Data: Command complete status (0xFFFF) is returned when the register write is complete.

8.5.3.3.10 Force Transfer Acknowledge (FORCE_TA)

DEBUG D logic implements the new FORCE TA serial BDM command to resolve a hung bus condition. In some system designs, references to certain unmapped memory addresses may cause the external bus to hang with no transfer acknowledge generated by any bus responders. The FORCE TA forces generation of a transfer acknowledge signal, which can be logically summed into the normal acknowledge logic located in the system integration module (SIM) outside of the ColdFire core.

There are two scenarios of interest, one caused by a processor access and the other caused by a BDM access. The following sequences identify the operations needed to break the hung bus condition:

- Bus hang caused by processor or external or internal alternate master:
	- Assert the breakpoint input to force a processor core halt.
	- If the bus hang was caused by a processor access, send in FORCE_TA commands until the processor is halted, as signaled by $PST = 0xF$. Due to pipeline and store buffer depths, many memory accesses may be queued up behind the access causing the bus hang. Repeated FORCE_TA commands eventually allow processing of all these pending accesses. As soon as the processor is halted, the system reaches a quiescent, controllable state.
	- If the hang was caused by another master, such as a DMA channel, the processor can halt immediately. In this case as well, multiple assertions of the FORCE_TA command may be required to terminate the alternate master's errant access.
- Bus hang caused by BDM access:
	- It is assumed the processor is already halted at the time of the errant BDM access. To resolve the hung bus, it is necessary to process four or more FORCE_TA commands, because the BDM command may have initiated a cache line access that fetches 4 longwords, each needing a unique transfer acknowledge.

Formats:

\sim			
0x0	0x0	0x0	0x2

Figure 8-41. FORCE_TA Command

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-42. FORCE_TA Command Sequence

Operand Data: None

Result Data: The command complete response, 0xFFFF (with the status bit cleared), is returned during the next shift operation. This response indicates the FORCE_TA command was processed correctly and does not necessarily reflect the status of any internal bus.

8.5.3.3.11 Read Control Register (RCREG)

Read the selected control register and return the 32-bit result. Accesses to the processor/memory control registers are always 32 bits wide, regardless of register width. The second and third words of the command form a 32-bit address, which the debug module uses to generate a special bus cycle to access the specified control register. The 12-bit Rc field is the same as that used by the MOVEC instruction.

Command/Result Formats:

	15	12	11	8		4	3	0
Command	0x2		0x9			0x8		0x0
	0x0		0x0			0x0		0x0
	0x0					Rc		
Result	D[31:16]							
				D[15:0]				

Figure 8-43. RCREG Command/Result Formats

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-44. RCREG Command Sequence

Operand Data: The only operand is the 32-bit Rc control register select field. Result Data: Control register contents are returned as a longword, most-significant word first.

The implemented portion of registers smaller than 32 bits is guaranteed correct; other bits are undefined.

Rc encoding: See [Table 8-26](#page-269-0).

Table 8-26. ColdFire CPU Control Register Map

Table 8-26. ColdFire CPU Control Register Map (Continued)

8.5.3.3.12 BDM Accesses of the Stack Pointer Registers (A7: SSP and USP)

The Version 4 ColdFire core supports two unique stack pointer (A7) registers: the supervisor stack pointer (SSP) and the user stack pointer (USP). The hardware implementation of these two programmable-visible 32-bit registers does not uniquely identify one as the SSP and the other as the USP. Rather, the hardware uses one 32-bit register as the currently-active A7; the other is named simply the OTHER_A7. Thus, the contents of the two hardware registers is a function of the operating mode of the processor:

if $SRIS1 = 1$ then A7 = Supervisor Stack Pointer OTHER_A7 = User Stack Pointer else A7 = User Stack Pointer OTHER_A7 = Supervisor Stack Pointer

The BDM programming model supports reads and writes to A7 and OTHER_A7 directly. It is the responsibility of the external development system to determine the mapping of A7 and OTHER_A7 to the two program-visible definitions (supervisor and user stack pointers), based on the SR[S].

8.5.3.3.13 BDM Accesses of the EMAC Registers

The presence of rounding logic in the output datapath of the EMAC requires special care for BDM-initiated reads and writes of its programming model. In particular, any result rounding modes must be disabled during the read/write process so the exact bit-wise EMAC register contents are accessed.

For example, a BDM read of an accumulator (ACC*x*) requires the following sequence:

```
BdmReadACCx (
      rcreg macsr; \frac{1}{2} macsr contents & save
      wcreg #0,macsr; // disable all rounding modes 
      rcreg ACCx; // read the desired accumulator 
      wcreg #saved_data,macsr; // restore the original macsr
)
```


Likewise, to write an accumulator register, the following BDM sequence is needed:

```
BdmWriteACCx (
      rcreg macsr; // read current macsr contents & save
      wcreg #0,macsr; // disable all rounding modes
      wcreg #data,ACCx; // write the desired accumulator
      wcreg #saved_data,macsr; // restore the original macsr
)
```
Additionally, writes to the accumulator extension registers must be performed after the corresponding accumulators are updated because a write to any accumulator alters the corresponding extension register contents.

For more information on saving and restoring the complete EMAC programming model, see the appropriate section of the EMAC chapter.

8.5.3.3.14 BDM Accesses of Floating-Point Data Registers (FPn)

The ColdFire debug architecture allows BDM accesses of the entire programming model (including all FPU-related registers) of the processor core using RCREG and WCREG. However, certain hardware restrictions require the accesses related to the 64-bit FPn data registers be performed in a certain manner to guarantee correct operation.

The serial BDM command structure supports 8-, 16- and 32-bit accesses, but there is no direct mechanism for accessing 64-bit data values. Rather than changing this well-established protocol and command set, BDM accesses of 64-bit data values are treated as two independent 32-bit references. In particular, 64-bit FP*n* data registers are treated as two separate values from the BDM perspective. Each FP*n* is partitioned into upper and lower longwords, FPU*n* and FPL*n*.

Either longword can be read first. The processor treats the BDM read command as a pseudo-FMOVEM. Accordingly, all rounding modes and exception enables are ignored and the 32-bit contents of FPU*n* or FPL*n* are sent to the debug module for transmission over the serial communication channel. The FPU programming model is unchanged.

To write to an FPU data register, FPU*n* must be written first and followed by a write to FPL*n*. The processor operates as follows: the BDM write to FPU*n* is performed, which loads the upper 32 bits of an internal double-precision operand register; the BDM write to FPL*n* loads the supplied operand into the lower 32 bits of the same internal register, and the entire 64-bit value is loaded into the selected FP*n*. Failure to execute this sequence of commands produces an undefined value in the FPU*n*.

Note that any BDM write of an FPU register changes the internal state from NULL to IDLE.

8.5.3.3.15 Write Control Register (WCREG)

The operand (longword) data is written to the specified control register. The write alters all 32 register bits. See the RCREG instruction description for the Rc encoding and for additional notes on writes to the A7 stack pointers and the EMAC and FPU programming models.

Command/Result Formats:

Background Debug Mode (BDM)

	15	12	11	8	7	4	3	0	
Command	0x2		0x8		0x8			0x0	
	0x0		0x0		0x0			0x0	
	0x0				Rc				
Result				D[31:16]					
				D[15:0]					

Figure 8-45. WCREG Command/Result Formats

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-46. WCREG Command Sequence

- Operand Data: This instruction requires two longword operands. The first selects the register to which the operand data is to be written; the second contains the data.
- Result Data: Successful write operations return 0xFFFF. Bus errors on the write cycle are indicated by the setting of bit 16 in the status message and by a data pattern of 0x0001.

8.5.3.3.16 Read Debug Module Register (RDMREG)

Read the selected debug module register and return the 32-bit result. The only valid register selection for the RDMREG command is CSR ($DRc = 0x00$). Note that this read of the CSR clears the trigger status bits (CSR[BSTAT]) if either a level-2 breakpoint has been triggered or a level-1 breakpoint has been triggered and no level-2 breakpoint has been enabled.

Command/Result Formats:

[Table 8-27](#page-273-1) shows the definition of DRc encoding.

Table 8-27. Definition of DRc Encoding—Read

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-48. RDMREG Command Sequence

Operand Data: None

Result Data: The contents of the selected debug register are returned as a longword value. The data is returned most-significant word first.

8.5.3.3.17 Write Debug Module Register (WDMREG)

The operand (longword) data is written to the specified debug module register. All 32 bits of the register are altered by the write. DSCLK must be inactive while the debug module register writes from the CPU accesses are performed using the WDEBUG instruction.

Command Format:

Figure 8-49. WDMREG BDM Command Format

[Table 8-6](#page-233-0) shows the definition of the DRc write encoding.

Command Sequence:

Figure 8-50. WDMREG Command Sequence

Operand Data: Longword data is written into the specified debug register. The data is supplied most-significant word first.

Result Data: Command complete status (0xFFFF) is returned when register write is complete.

8.6 Real-Time Debug Support

The ColdFire Family provides support debugging real-time applications. For these types of embedded systems, the processor must continue to operate during debug. The foundation of this area of debug support is that while the processor cannot be halted to allow debugging, the system can generally tolerate the small intrusions of the BDM inserting instructions into the pipeline with minimal effect on real-time operation.

The debug module provides three types of breakpoints: PC with mask, operand address range, and data with mask. These breakpoints can be configured into one- or two-level triggers with the exact trigger response also programmable. The debug module programming model can be written from either the external development system using the debug serial interface or from the processor's supervisor programming model using the WDEBUG instruction. Only CSR is readable using the external development system.

8.6.1 Theory of Operation

Breakpoint hardware can be configured through TDR[TCR] to respond to triggers by displaying PSTDDATA, initiating a processor halt, or generating a debug interrupt. As shown in [Table 8-28,](#page-274-0) when a breakpoint is triggered, an indication (CSR[BSTAT]) is provided on the PSTDDATA output port of the DDATA information when it is not displaying captured processor status, operands, or branch addresses. See [Section 8.3.2, "Processor Stopped or Breakpoint State Change \(PST = 0xE\).](#page-230-0)"

PSTDDATA Nibble/CSR[BSTAT] ¹	Breakpoint Status
0000/0000	No breakpoints enabled
0010/0001	Waiting for level-1 breakpoint
0100/0010	Level-1 breakpoint triggered
1010/0101	Waiting for level-2 breakpoint
1100/0110	Level-2 breakpoint triggered

Table 8-28. PSTDDATA Nibble/CSR[BSTAT] Breakpoint Response

Encodings not shown are reserved for future use.

The breakpoint status is also posted in CSR. Note that CSR[BSTAT] is cleared by a CSR read when either a level-2 breakpoint is triggered or a level-1 breakpoint is triggered and a level-2 breakpoint is not enabled. Status is also cleared by writing to either TDR or XTDR to disable trigger options.

BDM instructions use the appropriate registers to load and configure breakpoints. As the system operates, a breakpoint trigger generates the response defined in TDR.

PC breakpoints are treated in a precise manner: exception recognition and processing are initiated before the excepting instruction is executed. All other breakpoint events are recognized on the processor's local bus, but are made pending to the processor and sampled like other interrupt conditions. As a result, these interrupts are said to be imprecise.

In systems that tolerate the processor being halted, a BDM-entry can be used. With TDR[TRC] **=** 01, a breakpoint trigger causes the core to halt ($PST = 0xF$).

If the processor core cannot be halted, the debug interrupt can be used. With this configuration, TDR[TRC] = 10, the breakpoint trigger becomes a debug interrupt to the processor, which is treated higher than the nonmaskable level-7 interrupt request. As with all interrupts, it is made pending until the processor reaches a sample point, which occurs once per instruction. Again, the hardware forces the PC breakpoint to occur before the targeted instruction executes and is precise. This is possible because the PC breakpoint is enabled when interrupt sampling occurs. For address and data breakpoints, reporting is considered imprecise because several instructions may execute after the triggering address or data is detected.

As soon as the debug interrupt is recognized, the processor aborts execution and initiates exception processing. This event is signaled externally by the assertion of a unique PST value ($PST = 0xD$) for multiple cycles. The core enters emulator mode when exception processing begins. After the standard 8-byte exception stack is created, the processor fetches a unique exception vector from the vector table. [Table 8-29](#page-275-0) describes the two unique entries that distinguish PC breakpoints from other trigger events.

Table 8-29. Exception Vector Assignments

Vector Number	Vector Offset (Hex)	Stacked Program Counter	Assignment
12	0x030	Next	Non-PC-breakpoint debug interrupt
13	0x034	Next	PC-breakpoint debug interrupt

(Refer to the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual*.)

In the case of a two-level trigger, the last breakpoint event determines the exception vector; however, if the second-level trigger is PC || Address $\{\&\&\text{ Data}\}\$ (as shown in the last condition in the code example in [Section 8.4.11.1, "Resulting Set of Possible Trigger Combinations"](#page-250-0)), the vector taken is determined by the first condition that occurs after the first-level trigger: vector 13 if PC occurs first or vector 12 if Address {&& Data} occurs first. If both occur simultaneously, the non-PC-breakpoint debug interrupt is taken (vector number 12).

Execution continues at the instruction address in the vector corresponding to the breakpoint triggered. The debug interrupt handler can use supervisor instructions to save the necessary context such as the state of all program-visible registers into a reserved memory area.

During a debug interrupt service routine, all normal interrupt requests are evaluated and sampled once per instruction. If any exception occurs, the processor responds as follows:

1. It saves a copy of the current value of the emulator mode state bit and then exits emulator mode by clearing the actual state.

- 2. Bit 1 of the fault status field (FS1) in the next exception stack frame is set to indicate the processor was in emulator mode when the interrupt occurred. This corresponds to bit 17 of the longword at the top of the system stack. See [Section 3.8.1, "Exception Stack Frame Definition.](#page-115-0)"
- 3. It passes control to the appropriate exception handler.
- 4. It executes an RTE instruction when the exception handler finishes. During the processing of the RTE, FS1 is reloaded from the system stack. If this bit is set, the processor sets the emulator mode state and resumes execution of the original debug interrupt service routine. This is signaled externally by the generation of the PST value that originally identified the debug interrupt exception, that is, $PST = 0xD$.

Fault status encodings are listed in [Table 5-2.](#page-147-0) Implementation of this debug interrupt handling fully supports the servicing of a number of normal interrupt requests during a debug interrupt service routine.

The emulator mode state bit is essentially changed to be a program-visible value, stored into memory during exception stack frame creation, and loaded from memory by the RTE instruction.

When debug interrupt operations complete, the RTE instruction executes and the processor exits emulator mode. After the debug interrupt handler completes execution, the external development system can use BDM commands to read the reserved memory locations.

In Revision A, if a hardware breakpoint such as a PC trigger is left unmodified by the debug interrupt service routine, another debug interrupt is generated after the completion of the RTE instruction. In Revisions B and C, the generation of another debug interrupt during the first instruction after the RTE exits emulator mode is inhibited. This behavior is consistent with the existing logic involving trace mode where the first instruction executes before another trace exception is generated. Thus, all hardware breakpoints are disabled until the first instruction after the RTE completes execution, regardless of the programmed trigger response.

8.6.1.1 Emulator Mode

Emulator mode is used to facilitate nonintrusive emulator functionality. This mode can be entered in three different ways:

- Setting CSR[EMU] forces the processor into emulator mode. EMU is examined only if RSTI is negated and the processor begins reset exception processing. It can be set while the processor is halted before reset exception processing begins. See [Section 8.5.1, "CPU Halt](#page-251-0)."
- A debug interrupt always puts the processor in emulation mode when debug interrupt exception processing begins.
- Setting CSR[TRC] forces the processor into emulation mode when trace exception processing begins.

While operating in emulation mode, the processor exhibits the following properties:

- Unmasked interrupt requests are serviced. The resulting interrupt exception stack frame has FS[1] set to indicate the interrupt occurred while in emulator mode.
- If $CSR[MAP] = 1$, all caching of memory and the SRAM module are disabled. All memory accesses are forced into a specially mapped address space signaled by $TT = 0x2$, $TM = 0x5$ or $0x6$. This includes stack frame writes and the vector fetch for the exception that forced entry into this mode.

The RTE instruction exits emulation mode. The processor status output port provides a unique encoding for emulator mode entry $(0xD)$ and exit $(0x7)$.

8.6.2 Concurrent BDM and Processor Operation

The debug module supports concurrent operation of both the processor and most BDM commands. BDM commands may be executed while the processor is running, except the following:

- Read/write address and data registers
- Read/write control registers

For BDM commands that access memory, the debug module requests the processor's local bus. The processor responds by stalling the instruction fetch pipeline and waiting for current bus activity to complete before freeing the local bus for the debug module to perform its access. After the debug module bus cycle, the processor reclaims the bus.

NOTE

Breakpoint registers must be carefully configured in a development system if the processor is executing. The debug module contains no hardware interlocks, so TDR and XTDR should be disabled while breakpoint registers are loaded, after which TDR and XTDR can be written to define the exact trigger. This prevents spurious breakpoint triggers.

Because there are no hardware interlocks in the debug unit, no BDM operations are allowed while the CPU is writing the debug's registers (DSCLK must be inactive).

8.7 Debug C Definition of PSTDDATA Outputs

This section specifies the ColdFire processor and debug module's generation of the PSTDDATA output on an instruction basis. In general, the PSTDDATA output for an instruction is defined as follows:

PSTDDATA = $0x1$, { $0x89B$ }, operand}

where the {...} definition is optional operand information defined by the setting of the CSR.

The CSR provides capabilities to display operands based on reference type (read, write, or both). A PST value {0x8, 0x9, or 0xB} identifies the size and presence of valid data to follow on the PSTDDATA output {1, 2, or 4 bytes}. Additionally, for certain change-of-flow branch instructions, CSR[BTB] provides the capability to display the target instruction address on the PSTDDATA output $\{2, 3, \text{ or } 4 \text{ bytes}\}\$ using a PST value of $\{0x9, 0xA, or 0xB\}$.

8.7.1 User Instruction Set

[Table 8-30](#page-277-0) shows the PSTDDATA specification for user-mode instructions. Rn represents any {Dn, An} register. In this definition, the 'y' suffix generally denotes the source and 'x' denotes the destination operand. For a given instruction, the optional operand data is displayed only for those effective addresses referencing memory.

Instruction	Operand Syntax	PSTDDATA
add.l	<ea>y,Dx</ea>	$PSTDDATA = 0x1, {0xB, source operand}$
add.l	Dy , \leq ea \geq x	$PSTDDATA = 0x1, {0xB, source}, {0xB, destination}$
adda.l	$<$ ea>y, Ax	$PSTDDATA = 0x1, {0xB, source operand}$
addi.l	# <data>,Dx</data>	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$

Table 8-30. PSTDDATA Specification for User-Mode Instructions

Table 8-30. PSTDDATA Specification for User-Mode Instructions (Continued)

Table 8-30. PSTDDATA Specification for User-Mode Instructions (Continued)

Table 8-30. PSTDDATA Specification for User-Mode Instructions (Continued)

¹ During normal exception processing, the PSTDDATA output is driven to a 0xC indicating the exception processing state. The exception stack write operands, as well as the vector read and target address of the exception handler may also be displayed.

Exception ProcessingPSTDDATA = 0xC,{0xB,destination},// stack frame {0xB,destination},// stack frame {0xB,source},// vector read PSTDDATA = 0x5,{[0x9AB],target}// handlerPC

The PSTDDATA specification for the reset exception is shown below:

Exception ProcessingPSTDDATA = 0xC, PSTDDATA = 0x5, {[0x9AB], target}/ handlerPC

The initial references at address 0 and 4 are never captured nor displayed since these accesses are treated as instruction fetches.

For all types of exception processing, the PSTDDATA = 0xC value is driven at all times, unless the PSTDDATA output is needed for one of the optional marker values or for the taken branch indicator (0x5).

- 2 For JMP and JSR instructions, the optional target instruction address is displayed only for those effective address fields defining variant addressing modes. This includes the following <ea>x values: (An), (d16,An), (d8,An,Xi), (d8,PC,Xi).
- ³ For Move Multiple instructions (MOVEM), the processor automatically generates line-sized transfers if the operand address reaches a 0-modulo-16 boundary and there are four or more registers to be transferred. For these line-sized transfers, the operand data is never captured nor displayed, regardless of the CSR value. The automatic line-sized burst transfers are provided to maximize performance during these sequential memory access operations.

[Table 8-31](#page-281-0) shows the PSTDDATA specification for multiply-accumulate instructions.

Table 8-31. PSTDDATA Values for User-Mode Multiply-Accumulate Instructions

[Table 8-32](#page-282-0) shows the PSTDDATA specification for floating-point instructions; note that $\langle ea \rangle$ y includes FPy, Dy, Ay, and \leq mem>y addressing modes. The optional operand capture and display applies only to the <mem>y addressing modes. Note also that the PSTDDATA values are the same for a given instruction, regardless of explicit rounding precision.

¹ The FP*R notation refers to the floating-point control registers: FPCR, FPSR, and FPIAR.

Depending on the size of any external memory operand specified by the f <op>.fmt field, the data marker is defined as shown in [Table 8-33](#page-283-1).

Table 8-33. Data Markers and FPU Operand Format Specifiers

Format Specifier	Data Marker
.b	8
.W	
	R
.s	R
.d	Never captured

8.7.2 Supervisor Instruction Set

The supervisor instruction set has complete access to the user mode instructions plus the opcodes shown below. The PSTDDATA specification for these opcodes is shown in [Table 8-34.](#page-283-0)

Instruction	Operand Syntax	PSTDDATA
cpushl	dc, (Ax) ic, (Ax) bc,(Ax)	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
frestore	$<$ ea> y	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
fsave	$<$ ea> \times	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
halt		$PSTDDATA = 0x1,$ $PSTDDATA = 0xF$
intouch	(Ay)	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
move.	Ay, USP	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
move.	USP, Ax	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
move.w	SR, Dx	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$
move.w	$\{Dy, \#\}$, SR	$PSTDDATA = 0x1, {0x3}$

Table 8-34. PSTDDATA Specification for Supervisor-Mode Instructions

Instruction	Operand Syntax	PSTDDATA
movec.	Ry, Rc	$PSTDDATA = 0x1, {8, ASID}$
rte		PSTDDATA = $0x7$, { $0xB$, source operand}, { 3 }, { $0xB$, source operand}, {DD}, PSTDDATA = 0x5, {[0x9AB], target address}
stop	# <data></data>	$PSTDDATA = 0x1$ $PSTDDATA = 0xE$
wdebug.	$<$ ea> v	PSTDDATA = 0x1, {0xB, source, 0xB, source}

Table 8-34. PSTDDATA Specification for Supervisor-Mode Instructions (Continued)

The move-to-SR and RTE instructions include an optional PSTDDATA = 0x3 value, indicating an entry into user mode. Additionally, if the execution of a RTE instruction returns the processor to emulator mode, a multiple-cycle status of 0xD is signaled.

Similar to the exception processing mode, the stopped state (PSTDDATA = $0xE$) and the halted state $(PSTDDATA = 0xF)$ display this status throughout the entire time the ColdFire processor is in the given mode.

8.8 ColdFire Debug History

This section describes the origins of the ColdFire debug systems.

8.8.1 ColdFire Debug Classic: The Original Definition

The original design, Revision A, provided debug support in three separate areas:

- Real-time trace
- Background debug mode (BDM)
- Real-time debug

The real-time debug features may be accessed from the external BDM emulator or from the supervisor programming model of the processor. The hardware breakpoint registers include: a PC breakpoint + mask, two address registers for defining a specific address or a range of addresses, and a data breakpoint + mask. The original design supported breakpoints of the form:

```
if PC_breakpoint is triggered
        then respond using user-defined configuration
if Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint} is triggered
        then respond using user-defined configuration
```
Two-level triggers of the form:

```
if PC_breakpoint is triggered
        then if Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint} is triggered
                 then respond using user-defined configuration
if Address_breakpoint {&& Data_breakpoint} is triggered
        then if PC_breakpoint is triggered
                 then respond using user-defined configuration
```


The data breakpoint can be included as an optional part of an address breakpoint.

The ColdFire debug architecture was created to provide this set of functionality *without* requiring the traditional connection to the external system bus. Rather, the functionality is provided using only a connection to a Freescale-defined 26-pin debug connector. By providing the required debug signals in customer-specific designs, standard third-party emulators can be used for debug of these designs.

NOTE

The baseline debug functionality is described in any of the *ColdFire MCF52xx User's Manuals*, which are available as PDF files at: http://www.freescale.com/ColdFire/. As an example, see the debug section of the *MCF5272 User's Manual* located under MCF5272 Product Information.

8.8.2 ColdFire Debug Revision B

During development of the Version 3 ColdFire design, there were a number of enhancements to the original debug functionality requested by customers and third-party developers. These requests resulted in an expanded set of debug functionality named Revision B.

The Rev. B enhancements are as follows:

- Addition of a BDM SYNC_PC command to display the processor's current PC
- Creation of more flexible hardware breakpoint triggers, i.e., support for "OR" combinations
- Removal of the restrictions involving concurrent hardware breakpoint use and BDM command activity
- Redefinition of the processor status values for the RTS instruction
- An external mechanism to generate a debug interrupt
- A mechanism to inhibit debug interrupts after the RTE exit
- A mechanism to identify the revision level of the debug module

Rev. B enhancements provide backward compatibility with the original design.

8.8.3 ColdFire Debug Revision C

Continuing discussions with customers and the developer community led to Revision C design enhancements primarily related to improvements in the real-time debug capabilities of the ColdFire architecture. The remainder of this section details these enhancements.

8.8.3.1 Debug Interrupts and Interrupt Requests (Emulator Mode)

In Rev. A and Rev. B ColdFire debug implementations, the response to a user-defined breakpoint trigger can be configured to be one of three possibilities:

- The breakpoint trigger can merely be displayed on the DDATA bus, with no internal reaction to the trigger. The trigger state information is displayed on DDATA in all situations.
- The breakpoint trigger can force the processor to halt and allow BDM activities.
- The breakpoint trigger can generate a special debug interrupt to allow real-time systems to quickly process the interrupt and return to normal system executing as rapidly as possible.

The occurrence of the debug interrupt exception is treated as a special type of interrupt. It is considered to be higher in priority than all normal interrupt requests and has special processor status values to provide an external indication that this interrupt has occurred.

Additionally, the execution of the debug interrupt service routine is forced to be interrupt-inhibited by the processor hardware. While in this service routine, there is an optional capability to map all instruction and operand references into a separate address space, so that an emulator could define the routine dynamically. The current processor implementations actually include a program-invisible state bit that defines this emulator mode of operation. Also note, the interrupt mask level is not modified during the processing of a debug interrupt.

Customers with real-time embedded systems have specifically asked for the ability to service normal interrupt requests while processing the debug interrupt service routine. In many systems of this type, motion-based servo interrupts must be considered as the highest priority interrupt request.

To provide this functionality and be able to service any number of normal interrupt requests (including the possibility of nested interrupts), the processor state signaling emulator mode must be included as part of the exception stack frame.

As part of the Rev. C functionality, the operation of the debug interrupt is modified in the following manner:

- 1. The occurrence of the breakpoint trigger, configured to generate a debug interrupt, is treated exactly as before. The debug interrupt is treated as a higher priority exception relative to the normal interrupt requests encoded on the interrupt priority input signals.
- 2. At the appropriate sample point, the ColdFire processor initiates debug interrupt exception processing. This event is signaled externally by the generation of a unique PST value ($PST =$ 0xD) asserted for multiple cycles. The processor sets the emulator mode state bit as part of this exception processing.
- 3. While the processor in the debug interrupt service routine, all normal interrupt requests are evaluated and sampled once per instruction. While in this routine, if any type of exception occurs, the processor responds in the following manner:
	- a) In response to the new exception, the processor saves a copy of the current value of the emulator mode state bit and then exits emulator mode by clearing the actual state.
	- b) The new exception stack frame sets bit 1 of the fault status field, using the saved emulator mode bit, indicating execution while in emulator mode has been interrupted. This corresponds to bit 17 of the longword at the top of the system stack.
	- c) Control is passed to the appropriate exception handler.
	- d) When the exception handler is complete, a Return From Exception (RTE) instruction is executed. During the processing of the RTE, FS[1] is reloaded from the system stack. If this bit is asserted, the processor sets the emulator mode state and resumes execution of the original debug interrupt service routine. This is signaled externally by the generation of the PST value that originally identified the occurrence of a debug interrupt exception, that is, $PST = 0xD$.

Implementation of this revised debug interrupt handling fully supports the servicing of any number of normal interrupt requests while in a debug interrupt service routine. The emulator mode state bit is essentially changed to be a program-visible value, stored into memory during exception stack frame creation and loaded from memory by the RTE instruction.

8.9 Freescale-Recommended BDM Pinout

The ColdFire BDM connector, [Figure 8-51,](#page-287-0) is a 26-pin Berg connector arranged 2 x 13.

¹ Pins reserved for BDM developer use.

² Supplied by target.

Figure 8-51. Recommended BDM Connector
Part II System Integration Unit

[Part II](#page-288-0) describes the system integration unit, which provides overall control of the bus and serves as the interface between the ColdFire core processor complex and internal peripheral devices. It includes a general description of the SIU and individual chapters that describe components of the SIU, such as the interrupt controller, general purpose timers, slice timers, and GPIOs.

Contents

[Part II](#page-288-0) contains the following chapters:

- [Chapter 9, "System Integration Unit \(SIU\),](#page-290-0)" describes the SIU programming model, bus arbitration, and system-protection functions for the MCF548*x*.
- [Chapter 10, "Internal Clocks and Bus Architecture,](#page-296-0)" describes the clocking and internal buses of the MCF548*x* and discusses the main functional blocks controlling the XL bus and the XL bus arbiter
- [Chapter 11, "General Purpose Timers \(GPT\),](#page-314-0)" describes the functionality of the four general purpose timers, GPT0–GPT3.
- [Chapter 12, "Slice Timers \(SLT\),](#page-322-0)" describes the two slice timers, shorter term periodic interrupts, used in the MCF548*x*.
- [Chapter 13, "Interrupt Controller,](#page-326-0)" describes operation of the interrupt controller portion of the SIU. It includes descriptions of the registers in the interrupt controller memory map and the interrupt priority scheme.
- [Chapter 14, "Edge Port Module \(EPORT\)](#page-342-0)," describes EPORT module functionality.
- [Chapter 15, "GPIO](#page-348-0)," describes the operation and programming model of the parallel port pin assignment, direction-control, and data registers.

Chapter 9 System Integration Unit (SIU)

9.1 Introduction

The system integration unit (SIU) of the MCF548*x* family integrates several timer functions required by most embedded systems. The SIU contains the following components:

- Slice timers
- Watchdog timer
- General purpose timers
- General purpose I/O ports
- Interrupt controller

Two internal 32-bit slice timers are provided to create short cycle periodic interrupts, typically utilized for RTOS scheduling and alarm functionality. A watchdog timer is included that will reset the processor if not regularly serviced, catching software hang-ups. Up to four 32-bit general purpose timers are included, which are capable of input capture, output compare, and PWM functionality. Most peripheral I/O pins on the MCF548*x* family are muxed with GPIO, adding flexibility and usability to pins on the chip.

The programmable interrupt controller multiplexes the external interrupts, general purpose timers, slice timers, and peripheral sources to the CF4e core. Refer to [Chapter 13, "Interrupt Controller](#page-326-0)," for information about the MCF548*x* interrupt controller.

The SIU timers are discussed in the following chapters:

- General purpose timers and watchdog timer (GPT0) are described in [Chapter 11, "General Purpose](#page-314-0) [Timers \(GPT\)](#page-314-0)."
	- The watchdog timer is further detailed in [Section 10.3.2.3, "Watchdog Functions](#page-303-0)."
- Slice timers are detailed in [Chapter 12, "Slice Timers \(SLT\).](#page-322-0)"
- GPIO functionality is discussed in [Chapter 15, "GPIO.](#page-348-0)"

9.2 Features

The system integration unit has the following features:

- Interrupt controller
- Two 32-bit slice timers for periodic alarm and interrupt generation
- Software watchdog timer with programmable secondary bus monitor
- Up to four 32-bit general-purpose timers with capture, compare, and PWM capability
- General-purpose I/O ports multiplexed with peripheral pins
- System protection and reset status and control

9.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

[Table 9-1](#page-291-0) shows the programming model for the SIU.

Table 9-1. SIU Register Map

¹ The SDRAM Drive Strength and Chip Select Configuration registers are discussed in Chapter 18, "SDRAM Controller [\(SDRAMC\).](#page-424-0)" They are shown in this memory map for reference purposes.

9.3.1 Module Base Address Register (MBAR)

The supervisor-level MBAR, [Figure 9-1](#page-292-0), specifies the base address and allowable access types for all internal peripherals. It is written with a MOVEC instruction using the CPU address 0xC0F (refer to the *ColdFire Family Programmer's Reference Manual*). MBAR can be read or written through the debug modules as a read/write register, as described in [Chapter 8, "Debug Support](#page-224-0)." Only the debug module can read MBAR.

The MBAR is initialized to 0x8000_0000 at reset; however, it can be relocated to a new base address. To access internal peripherals, write MBAR with the appropriate base address (BA) after system reset.

All internal peripheral registers occupy a single relocatable memory block along 256-KByte boundaries. MBAR[BA] is compared to the upper 14 bits of the full 32-bit internal address to determine if an internal peripheral is being accessed. Any accesses in this range, whether to a valid peripheral address or not, will be made internally rather than using the external bus.

NOTE

The MBAR region must be mapped to non-cacheable space.

Figure 9-1. Module Base Address Register (MBAR)

9.3.1.1 System Breakpoint Control Register (SBCR)

The System Breakpoint Control Register allows for discrete control over functionality of the **BKPT** signal. The assertion of the **BKPT** signal can be programmed to halt the core, DMA, and DSPI or any combination. In addition, a halt condition in the DMA can be programmed to halt the CPU, or a halt in the CPU can halt the DMA.

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Table 9-2. SBCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

9.3.1.2 SEC Sequential Access Control Register (SECSACR)

This register is used to control bus accesses to the SEC module. If a sequential accesses to the SEC are enabled, then data will be buffered to create a single 64-bit access to the SEC instead of splitting up the transfer into two longwords. This can help to improve overall SEC performance.

Figure 9-3. SEC Sequential Access Control Register (SECSACR)

Table 9-3. SECSACR Field Descriptions

Memory Map/Register Definition

9.3.1.3 Reset Status Register (RSR)

RSR allows the software, particularly the reset exception service routine, to know what type of reset has been asserted. When a reset signal is asserted, the associated status bit is set, and it maintains its value until the software explicitly clears the bit.

Figure 9-4. Reset Status Register (RSR)

Table 9-4. RSR Field Descriptions

9.3.1.4 JTAG Device Identification Number (JTAGID)

Figure 9-5. JTAG Device ID Register (JTAGID)

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Chapter 10 Internal Clocks and Bus Architecture

10.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the clocking and internal buses of the MCF548*x* and discusses the main functional blocks controlling the XL bus and the XL bus arbiter.

10.1.1 Block Diagram

[Figure 10-1](#page-296-1) shows a top-level block diagram of the MCF548*x* products.

*Available in MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5483, and MCF5482 devices. **Available in MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5481, and MCF5480 devices. ***Available in MCF5485, MCF5483, and MCF5481 devices.

Figure 10-1. MCF548x Internal Bus Architecture

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10.1.2 Clocking Overview

The MCF548*x* requires a clock generated externally to be input to the CLKIN signal. The MCF548*x* uses this clock as the reference clock for the internal PLL. The internal PLL then generates the clocks needed by the CPU core and integrated peripherals.

The external PCI and FlexBus signals are always clocked at the same frequency as the CLKIN signal. A programmable clock multiplier (determined by the AD[12:8] signals at reset) is used to determine the XL bus frequency. All integrated peripherals and the 32KB system SRAM are clocked at the same frequency as the XLB. The ColdFire V4e core complex (core, MMU, FPU, SRAMs, etc.) is always clocked at twice the XLB frequency.

[Table 10-1](#page-297-0) shows the supported PLL encodings and the corresponding clock frequency ranges.

Table 10-1. MCF548x Divide Ratio Encodings

¹ All other values of AD[12:8] are reserved.

[Figure 10-2](#page-297-1) correlates CLKIN, internal bus, and core clock frequencies for the 2x–4x multipliers.

Figure 10-2. CLKIN, Internal Bus, and Core Clock Ratios

10.1.3 Internal Bus Overview

There are three main internal buses in the MCF548*x*—the extended local bus (XL bus), the internal peripheral bus (slave bus), and the communication subsystem bus (CommBus). See [Figure 10-1.](#page-296-1)

- XL bus Interface between the ColdFire core, memory controller, communication subsystem, FlexBus controller, and PCI controller.
- Internal peripheral bus (slave bus) The control/data interface from the core to the communication subsystem or peripheral programming registers and FIFOs. The base address of this memory-mapped bus will be stored in the internal peripheral bus base address register (MBAR).
- CommBus The data transfer interface between the multichannel DMA and each peripheral function.

10.1.4 XL Bus Features

Features of the XL bus and its integration modules include the following:

- 32-bit physical address
- 64-bit data bus width
- Split-transaction bus; address and data tenures occur independently.
- One-level address pipeline; supports up to two complete address tenures before the first data tenure completes.
- Strict, in-order, address and data tenures are enforced.
- Address and data bus "parking" may be used to remove arbitration phase from the address and data tenures—most recent master, programmed master, or no parking methods supported.
- Access can occur in single (1-8 bytes) beat, or four-beat (32 bytes) burst transfers.
- Eight-level arbitration priority that is hardware selectable for each master with a least recently used (LRU) protocol for masters of equal priority. Priority may change dynamically based on specific system requirements.
- Fully static, multiplexed bus architecture.

10.1.5 Internal Bus Transaction Summaries

The XL bus can be mastered by the ColdFire core, multichannel DMA controller, and the PCI controller (external PCI master). Any of these masters can access all resources available to the XL bus.

Bus masters can access any on-chip or off-chip resources via the XL bus. The sequence is as follows:

- Bus masters gains mastership of the XL bus from the XL bus arbiter.
- The bus master's address is asserted during the address tenure. XL bus slave devices (SDRAM, PCI, etc.) decode the address. If the address falls within a slave's space, it returns an address acknowledge.
- The bus master initiates the data tenure and transfers the data to the appropriate slave device.

10.1.6 XL Bus Interface Operations

This section describes how the XLB interface operates.

10.1.6.1 Basic Transfer Protocol

An XLB interface memory transaction is illustrated in [Figure 10-3.](#page-299-0) It shows that the transaction consists of distinct address and data tenures, each having three phases: arbitration, transfer, and termination. The separation of these operations allows address pipelines and split transactions to be implemented.

Split-bus transaction capability allows one master to have mastership of the address bus, while another master has mastership of the data bus. Pipelines allows the address tenure of a bus transaction to begin before the data tenure of the previous transaction finishes.

The data transfer phase can either be one beat or four, depending on whether or not the transaction is a burst.

Figure 10-3. Address and Data Tenures

The following outlines the basic functions of each of the phases:

- Address tenure:
	- Arbitration: During arbitration, address bus arbitration signals are used to gain mastership of the address bus.
	- Transfer: After mastership is obtained, the address bus master transfers the address and transfer attributes on the address bus. Address signals and transfer attribute signals control the address transfer.
	- Termination: After the address transfer, the system signals that the address tenure is complete or that it must be repeated.
- Data tenure:
	- Arbitration: To begin a data tenure, the master arbitrates for data bus mastership.
	- Transfer: After mastership is obtained, the data bus master samples the data bus for read operations or drives the data bus for write operations.
	- Termination: Data termination signals are required after each data beat in a data transfer. In a single-beat transaction, data termination signals also indicate the end of the tenure; in burst accesses, data termination signals apply to individual beats and indicate the end of the tenure only after the final data beat.

10.1.6.2 Address Pipelines

The XLB protocol provides independent address and data bus capability to support *pipeline* and *split-bus transaction* system organizations.

The XLB arbiter allows for one level of pipeline. This feature can be enabled and disabled in the Arbiter Configuration Register (XARB_CFG). While this feature does not improve latency, it can significantly improve bus/memory throughput, so it should be considered for systems that expect to stress bus throughput capacity.

The XLB arbiter effects pipelines by regulating address bus grant, data bus grants, and address acknowledge signals. For example, a one-level pipeline is enabled by asserting the address acknowledge signal to the current address bus master, as well as granting the address bus to the next requesting master before the current data bus tenure completes.

10.2 PLL

10.2.1 PLL Memory Map/Register Descriptions

Table 10-2. System PLL Memory Map

10.2.2 System PLL Control Register (SPCR)

The system PLL control register (SPCR) defines the clock enables used to control clocks to a set of peripherals. Unused peripherals can have their clock stopped, reducing power consumption. In addition, the SPCR contains a read-only bit for the system PLL lock status. At reset, the clock enables are set, enabling all system PLL gated output clocks.

Figure 10-4. System PLL Control Register (SPCR)

Table 10-3. SPCR Field Descriptions

Table 10-3. SPCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

10.3 XL Bus Arbiter

The XL bus arbiter handles bus arbitration between XL bus masters.

10.3.1 Features

The arbiter features are as follows:

- Eight priority levels
- Priority levels may be changed dynamically by XL bus masters
- XL bus arbitration support for eight masters
- Least recently used (LRU) priority scheme for masters of equal priority
- Multiple masters at each priority level supported
- One level of address pipelines is enforced by the arbiter
- Bus grant parking modes:
	- No parking
	- Park on last master
	- Park on programmed master
- Watchdog timers for various XL bus time-out conditions

10.3.2 Arbiter Functional Description

10.3.2.1 Prioritization

The prioritization function will indicate that a master is requesting the bus and indicate which master has priority.

Priority is determined first by using the hardcoded master priority or the master *n* priority bits in the arbiter master priority register (XARB PRIEN), depending on the arbiter master priority enable bit for each master. Secondly, masters at the same level of priority will be further sorted by a least recently used

algorithm (LRU). Once a requesting master is identified as having priority and is granted the bus, that master will be continue to be granted the bus if:

1. It is requesting the bus. The request must occur immediately after the required 1 clock de-assertion after a qualified bus grant.

and

2. It is the highest priority device.

and

3. There is no address retry.

Multiple masters at level 0 will only be able to perform one tenure before the bus is passed to the next master at level 0 using the LRU algorithm.

The priority level of each master may be changed while the arbiter is running. This allows dynamic changes in priority such as an aging scheme. The arbiter recognizes changes after one clock.

It is possible to control priority by enabling the master priority enable bits for a master (XARB_PRIEN). This causes the priority to be determined from the master *n* priority bits in the arbiter master priority register (XARB_PRI). Once again a system dependent dynamic scheme may be employed.

10.3.2.2 Bus Grant Mechanism

10.3.2.2.1 Bus Grant

The bus grant mechanism generates the address bus grant signals to the masters using the signals from the prioritization function. It will also generate required indicators of state to the prioritization and watchdog functions.

The bus grant mechanism will enforce the one level address pipeline. The critical condition is that before a third address tenure is granted, the first tenure (address and, if needed, data) must be completed. The arbiter will assert a bus grant to a master when there are masters requesting, or if parking is enabled and the one level pipeline condition is met.

10.3.2.2.2 Parking Modes

The bus grant mechanism will support the no parking, park on programmed master, and park on last master bus parking modes.

- When in no parking mode, the arbiter will not assert a bus grant when there are no masters asserting a bus request.
- In park on programmed master mode, the arbiter will assert a bus grant to the master indicated in the select parked master field (ACFG[SP]) when no masters are asserting a bus request and the one level pipeline will not be violated.
- In park on last master mode, the arbiter will assert a bus grant to the last master granted the bus when no masters are asserting a bus request and the one level pipeline will not be violated.

10.3.2.3 Watchdog Functions

10.3.2.3.1 Timer Functions

There are three watchdog timers: address tenure time out, data tenure time out, and bus activity time out. Each has a programmable timer count and can be disabled. A timer time-out will set a status bit and trigger an interrupt if that interrupt is enabled.

The address tenure watchdog is a 32-bit timer. If an acknowledge is not detected by the programmed number of clocks after bus grant is accepted, the address watchdog timer will expire and the arbiter will issue an acknowledge. The related data tenure will be terminated with a transfer error acknowledge. The arbiter will set the Address Tenure Time-out Status bit in the arbiter status register and issue an interrupt if that interrupt is enabled.

The upper 28 bits of address tenure time-out are programmed via the address tenure time-out register. The lower 4 bits are always 0xF.

The data tenure watchdog is a 32-bit timer. If a data tenure is not terminated, the data watchdog timer will expire and the arbiter will issue a transfer error acknowledge. The arbiter will set the Data Tenure Time-out Status bit in the arbiter status register and issue an interrupt if that interrupt is enabled.

Address Time-out $(32 \text{ bits}) = \{$ address tenure time-out register $(28 \text{ bits}), 0 \text{ xF}\}$

Data Time-out (32 bits) = {data tenure time-out register (28 bits), $0xF$ }

• The bus activity watchdog is a 32-bit timer. If no bus activity is detected by the programmed number of clocks, the bus activity watchdog timer will expire and the arbiter will set the Bus Activity Time-out Status bit in the arbiter status register and issue an interrupt if that interrupt is enabled.

NOTE

Enabling the data time-out will also enable the address time-out. It is recommended that the data watchdog timer should always be programmed to a value that is larger than the address watchdog timer. This prevents the XL bus arbiter from generating a transfer error acknowledge due to expiration of the data watchdog timer while the address tenure has not completed.

10.3.3 XLB Arbiter Register Descriptions

The XLB Arbiter registers and their locations are defined in [Table 10-4.](#page-303-1)

MBAR Offset	Name	Byte ₀	Byte1	Byte2	Byte3	Access
0x258	Arbiter Address Timeout		R/W			
0x25C	Arbiter Data Timeout		R/W			
0x260	Arbiter Bus Timeout		R/W			
0x264	Arbiter Master Priority Enable		R/W			
0x268	Arbiter Master Priority		R/W			

Table 10-4. XL Bus Arbiter Memory Map (Continued)

10.3.3.1 Arbiter Configuration Register (XARB_CFG)

The arbiter configuration register is used to enable watchdog functions and arbiter protocol functions.

Figure 10-5. Arbiter Configuration Register (XARB_CFG)

Table 10-5. XARB_CFG Bit Descriptions

10.3.3.2 Arbiter Version Register (XARB_VER)

Figure 10-6. Arbiter Version Register (XARB_VER)

Table 10-6. VER Field Descriptions

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10.3.3.3 Arbiter Status Register (XARB_SR)

The arbiter status register indicates the state of watchdog functions. When a monitored condition occurs, the respective bit is set to 1. The bit will stay set until the bit is cleared by writing a 1 into that bit. Even if the causal condition is removed, the bit will remain set until cleared.

Figure 10-7. Arbiter Status Register (XARB_SR)

Table 10-7. XARB_SR Field Descriptions

10.3.3.4 Arbiter Interrupt Mask Register (XARB_IMR)

The arbiter interrupt mask register is used to enable a status bit to cause an interrupt. If the interrupt mask and corresponding status bits are set in the arbiter status register and arbiter interrupt mask register, the arbiter will assert the interrupt signal. Normally, an interrupt service routine would read the status register

to determine the state of the arbiter. It is possible that multiple conditions exist that would cause an interrupt. Disabling an interrupt by writing a 0 to a bit in this register will not clear the status bit in the arbiter status register.

Figure 10-8. Arbiter Interrupt Mask Register (XARB_IMR)

Table 10-8. XARB_IMR Field Descriptions

Table 10-8. XARB_IMR Field Descriptions (Continued)

10.3.3.5 Arbiter Address Capture Register (XARB_ADRCAP)

The arbiter address capture register will capture the address for a tenure that has an address time-out, data time-out, or there is a transfer error acknowledge from another source. This value is held until unlocked by writing any value to the arbiter address capture register or arbiter bus signal capture register. This value is also unlocked by writing a 1 to either XARB_SR[DT] or XARB_SR[AT]. Unlocking the register does not clear its contents.

Figure 10-9. Arbiter Address Capture Register (XARB_ADRCAP)

Table 10-9. XARB_ADRCAP Field Descriptions

10.3.3.6 Arbiter Bus Signal Capture Register (XARB_SIGCAP)

Important bus signals are captured when a bus error occurs. This happens on an address time-out, data time-out, or any transfer error acknowledge.

The arbiter bus signal capture register will capture TT, TBST, and TSIZ for a tenure that has an address time-out or data time-out, or there is a transfer error acknowledge from another source. These values are held until unlocked by writing any value to the arbiter address capture register (XARB_ADRCAP) or arbiter bus signal capture register (XARB_SIGCAP). These values are also unlocked by writing a 1 to either XARB_SR[DT] or XARB_SR[AT]. Unlocking the register does not clear its contents.

Figure 10-10. Arbiter Bus Signal Capture Register (XARB_SIGCAP)

Table 10-10. XARB_SIGCAP Field Descriptions

10.3.3.7 Arbiter Address Tenure Time Out Register (XARB_ADRTO)

10.3.3.8 Arbiter Data Tenure Time Out Register (XARB_DATTO)

Table 10-12. XARB_DATTO Field Descriptions

10.3.3.9 Arbiter Bus Activity Time Out Register (XARB_BUSTO)

Figure 10-13. Arbiter Bus Activity Time Out Register (XARB_BUSTO)

Table 10-13. XARB_BUSTO Field Descriptions

10.3.3.10 Arbiter Master Priority Enable Register (XARB_PRIEN)

The arbiter master priority enable register determines whether the arbiter uses the hardwired or software programmable priority for a master. The default is enabled for all masters. Both methods may be used at the same time for different masters. This register may be written at any time. The change will become effective 1 clock after the register is written.

Figure 10-14. Arbiter Master Priority Enable Register (XARB_PRIEN)

Table 10-14. XARB_PRIEN Field Descriptions

When enabled, the software programmable value in the arbiter master priority register (XARB PRI) is used as the priority for the master. When disabled, the master's priority is determined as follows:

Table 10-15. Hardcoded Master Priority

10.3.3.11 Arbiter Master Priority Register (XARB_PRI)

The master *n* priority bits of the arbiter master priority register are used to set the priority of each master if the corresponding arbiter master priority enable register bit is enabled. This XARB_PRI register, in conjunction with the arbiter master priority enable (XARB_PRIEN) register, allows master priorities to be set, ignoring the hardcoded priority. This register may be written at anytime. The change will become effective 1 clock after the register is written. Valid values are from 0 to 7, with 0 being the highest priority.

Figure 10-15. Arbiter Master Priority Register (XARB_PRI)

Table 10-16. XARB_PRI Field Descriptions

Chapter 11 General Purpose Timers (GPT)

11.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the operation of the MCF548*x* general purpose timers.

11.1.1 Overview

The MCF548*x* has four general-purpose timers (GPT[0:3]) that are configurable for the following functions:

- Input capture
- Output capture
- Pulse width modulation (PWM) output
- Simple GPIO
- Internal CPU timer
- Watchdog timer (on GPT0 only)

Timer modules run off the internal peripheral bus clock. Each timer is associated to a single I/O signal. Each timer has a 16-bit prescaler and 16-bit counter, thus achieving a 32-bit range (but only 16-bit resolution).

11.1.2 Modes of Operation

The following gives a brief description of the available GPT modes:

- 1. Input Capture—When enabled in this mode, the counters run until the specified capture event occurs (rise, fall, or pulse) on TIN[3:0]. At the capture event, the counter value is latched in the status register. When this occurs, a CPU interrupt is generated.
- 2. Output Capture—When enabled in this mode, the counters run until they reach the programmed terminal count value. At this point, the specified output event is generated (toggle, pulse high, or pulse low) on TOUT[3:0]. When this occurs, a CPU interrupt is generated.
- 3. PWM (pulse width modulation)—In this mode the user can program period and width values to create an adjustable, repeating output waveform on TOUT[3:0]. A CPU interrupt can be generated at the beginning of each PWM period, at which time a new width value can be loaded. The new width value, which represents "ON time," is automatically applied at the beginning of the next period. This mode is suitable for PWM audio encoding.
- 4. Simple GPIO—In this mode TOUT[3:0] and TIN[3:0] operate as a GPIO. Either TOUT[3:0] or TIN[3:0] are specified, according to the programmable GPIO field. GPIO mode is mutually exclusive of modes [1](#page-314-1) through [3](#page-314-2) (listed above). In GPIO mode, modes [5](#page-314-3) through [6](#page-315-0) (listed below) remain available.
- 5. CPU Timer—The I/O signal is not used in this mode. Once enabled, the counters run until they reach a programmed terminal count. When this occurs, an interrupt can be generated to the CPU. This timer mode can be used simultaneously with the simple GPIO mode.

6. Watchdog Timer—This is a special CPU timer mode, available only on GPT0. The user must enable the watchdog timer mode, which is not active upon reset. The terminal count value is programmable. If the counter is allowed to expire, a full reset occurs. To prevent the watchdog timer from expiring, software must periodically write 0xA5 to the GMS0[OCPW] field. This causes the counter to reset.

11.2 External Signals

The GPT signals are the following:

- TIN[3:0]—External timer input
- TOUT[3:0]—External timer output

11.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

Each GPT uses four 32-bit registers. These registers are located at MBAR + the GPT offset 0x800.

[Table 11-1](#page-315-1) summarizes the GPT control registers.

Table 11-1. General Purpose Timer Memory Map

11.3.1 GPT Enable and Mode Select Register (GMSn)

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11.3.2 GPT Counter Input Register (GCIRn)

Figure 11-2. GPT Counter Input Register (GCIRn)

Table 11-3. GCIRn Field Descriptions

11.3.3 GPT PWM Configuration Register (GPWMn)

Figure 11-3. GPT PWM Configuration Register (GPWMn)

Table 11-4. GPWMn Field Descriptions

Table 11-4. GPWMn Field Descriptions (Continued)

11.3.4 GPT Status Register (GSRn)

Figure 11-4. GPT Status Register (GSRn)

Table 11-5. GSRn Field Descriptions

Table 11-5. GSRn Field Descriptions (Continued)

11.4 Functional Description

11.4.1 Timer Configuration Method

Use the following method to configure each timer:

- 1. Determine the mode select field (GMS*n*[TMS]) value for the desired operation.
- 2. Program any other registers associated with this mode.
- 3. Program interrupt enable as desired.
- 4. Enable the timer by writing the mode select value into the TMS field.

11.4.2 Programming Notes

Programmers should observe the following notes:

- 1. Intermediate values of the timer internal counters are *not* readable by software.
- 2. In PWM mode, an interrupt occurs at the beginning of a pulse. An interrupt service routine prepares the new pulse width of the next pulse while the current pulse is running.
- 3. The stop/continuous mode bit (GMSn[SC]) operates differently for different modes. In general, this bit controls whether the timer halts at the end of a current mode, or resets and continues with a repetition of the mode. See [Table 11-2](#page-316-0) for precise operation.
- 4. The GMS*n*[TMS] field operates somewhat as a global enable. If it is zero, then all timer modes are disabled and internal counters are reset. See [Table 11-2](#page-316-0) for more detail.
- 5. There is a counter enable bit (GMS*n*[CE]) that operates somewhat independently of the TMS field. This bit controls the counter for CPU timer or watchdog timer modes only. See [Table 11-2](#page-316-0) to understand the operation of these bits across the various modes.

12.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the operation of the MCF548*x* slice timers.

12.1.1 Overview

Two slice timers are included to provide shorter term periodic interrupts—SLT0 and SLT1. Each timer consists of a 32-bit counter with no prescale. The counters count down from a prescribed value and expire/interrupt when they reach zero. They can be configured to automatically preset to the prescribed value and resume counting or wait until the status/interrupt is serviced before beginning a new cycle.

The current count value can be read without disturbing the count operation. Each SLT has a status bit to indicate the timer has expired. If enabled, a CPU interrupt is generated at count expiration. Each timer has a separate interrupt. Clearing the status and/or interrupt is accomplished by writing 1 to the status bit, or disabling the timer entirely with the timer enable (SCR[TEN]) bit.

Software should write a terminal count value of greater than 255.

12.2 Memory Map/Register Definition

There are two slice timers. Each one uses four 32-bit registers. These registers are located at an offset from MBAR of 0x900.

[Table 12-1](#page-322-1) summarizes the SLT control registers.

Address $(MBAR +)$	Name	Byte 0	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Access
0x900	SLT Terminal Count Register 0		R/W			
0x904	SLT Control Register 0		R/W			
0x908	SLT Count Value Register 0		R			
0x90C	SLT Status Register 0	SSR ₀				R/W
0x910	SLT Terminal Count Register 1 STCNT ₁					R/W
0x914	SLT Control Register 1 SCR ₁					R/W
0x918	SLT Count Value Register 1		R			
0x91C	SLT Status Register 1		R/W			

Table 12-1. Slice Timer Memory Map

12.2.1 SLT Terminal Count Register (STCNTn)

Table 12-2. STCNTn Field Descriptions

12.2.2 SLT Control Register (SCRn)

12.2.3 SLT Timer Count Register (SCNTn)

Figure 12-3. SLT Count Register (SCNTn)

Table 12-4. SCNTn Field Descriptions

12.2.4 SLT Status Register (SSRn)

Figure 12-4. SLT Status Register (SSRn)

Chapter 13 Interrupt Controller

13.1 Introduction

This section details the functionality for the MCF548*x* interrupt controller. The general features of the interrupt controller include:

- 63 interrupt sources, organized as:
	- 56 fully-programmable interrupt sources
	- 7 fixed-level interrupt sources
- Each of the 63 sources has a unique interrupt control register (ICR*n*) to define the software-assigned levels and priorities within the level
- Unique vector number for each interrupt source
- Ability to mask any individual interrupt source, plus global mask-all capability
- Support for both hardware and software interrupt acknowledge cycles
- "Wake-up" signal from stop mode

The 56 fully-programmable and seven fixed-level interrupt sources for each of the two interrupt controllers on the MCF548*x* handle the complete set of interrupt sources from all of the modules on the device. This section describes how the interrupt sources are mapped to the interrupt controller logic, and how interrupts are serviced.

13.1.1 68K/ColdFire Interrupt Architecture Overview

Before continuing with the specifics of the MCF548*x* interrupt controller, a brief review of the interrupt architecture of the 68K/ColdFire family is appropriate.

The interrupt architecture of ColdFire is exactly the same as the M68000 family, where there is a 3-bit encoded interrupt priority level sent from the interrupt controller to the core, providing 7 levels of interrupt requests. Level 7 represents the highest priority interrupt level, while level 1 is the lowest priority. The processor samples for active interrupt requests once per instruction by comparing the encoded priority level against a 3-bit interrupt mask value (I) contained in bits 10:8 of the machine's status register (SR). If the priority level is greater than the SR[I] field at the sample point, the processor suspends normal instruction execution and initiates interrupt exception processing. Level 7 interrupts are treated as non-maskable and edge-sensitive within the processor, while levels 1-6 are treated as level-sensitive and may be masked depending on the value of the SR[I] field. For correct operation, the ColdFire requires that, once asserted, the interrupt source remain asserted until explicitly disabled by the interrupt service routine.

During the interrupt exception processing, the CPU enters supervisor mode, disables trace mode, and then fetches an 8-bit vector from the interrupt controller. This byte-sized operand fetch is known as the interrupt acknowledge (IACK) cycle, with the ColdFire implementation using a special encoding of the transfer type and transfer modifier attributes to distinguish this data fetch from a "normal" memory access. The fetched data provides an index into the exception vector table that contains 256 addresses, each pointing to the beginning of a specific exception service routine. In particular, vectors 64–255 of the exception vector table are reserved for user interrupt service routines. The first 64 exception vectors are reserved for the processor to handle reset, error conditions (access, address), arithmetic faults, system calls, etc.

Once the interrupt vector number has been retrieved, the processor continues by creating a stack frame in memory. For ColdFire, all exception stack frames are 2 longwords in length and contain 32 bits of vector

and status register data, along with the 32-bit program counter value of the instruction that was interrupted (see [Section 3.8.1, "Exception Stack Frame Definition,](#page-115-0)" for more information on the stack frame format).

After the exception stack frame is stored in memory, the processor accesses the 32-bit pointer from the exception vector table using the vector number as the offset, and then jumps to that address to begin execution of the service routine.

After the status register is stored in the exception stack frame, the SR[I] mask field is set to the level of the interrupt being acknowledged, effectively masking that level and all lower values while in the service routine. For many peripheral devices, the processing of the IACK cycle directly negates the interrupt request, while other devices require that request to be explicitly negated during the processing of the service routine.

For the MCF548*x*, the processing of the interrupt acknowledge cycle is fundamentally different than previous 68K/ColdFire cores. In the new approach, all IACK cycles are directly handled by the interrupt controller, so the requesting peripheral device is not accessed during the IACK. As a result, the interrupt request must be explicitly cleared in the peripheral during the interrupt service routine. For more information, see [Section 13.1.1.1.3, "Interrupt Vector Determination.](#page-329-0)"

Unlike the M68000 family, all ColdFire processors guarantee that the first instruction of the service routine is executed before sampling for interrupts is resumed. By making this initial instruction a load of the SR, interrupts can be safely disabled, if required.

During the execution of the service routine, the appropriate actions must be performed on the peripheral to negate the interrupt request.

For more information on exception processing, see the *ColdFire Programmer's Reference Manual* at http://www.freescale.com/coldfire

13.1.1.1 Interrupt Controller Theory of Operation

To support the interrupt architecture of the 68K/ColdFire programming model, the combined 63 interrupt sources are organized as 7 levels, with each level supporting up to nine prioritized requests. Consider the interrupt priority structure shown in [Table 13-1,](#page-327-0) which orders the interrupt levels/priorities from highest to lowest.

Table 13-1. Interrupt Priority Scheme

Table 13-1. Interrupt Priority Scheme (Continued)

The level and priority is fully programmable for all sources except interrupt sources 1–7. Interrupt source 1–7 (the external interrupts) are fixed at the corresponding level's midpoint priority. Thus, a maximum of eight fully-programmable interrupt sources are mapped into a single interrupt level. The fixed interrupt source is hardwired to the given level and represents the mid-point of the priority within the level. For the fully-programmable interrupt sources, the 3-bit level and the 3-bit priority within the level are defined in the 8-bit interrupt control register (ICR*n*).

The operation of the interrupt controller can be broadly partitioned into three activities:

- Recognition
- Prioritization
- Vector determination during IACK

13.1.1.1.1 Interrupt Recognition

The interrupt controller continuously examines the request sources and the interrupt mask register to determine if there are active requests. This is the recognition phase.

13.1.1.1.2 Interrupt Prioritization

As an active request is detected, it is translated into the programmed interrupt level, and the resulting 7-bit decoded priority level (IRQ[7:1]) is driven out of the interrupt controller.

13.1.1.1.3 Interrupt Vector Determination

Once the core has sampled for pending interrupts and begun interrupt exception processing, it generates an interrupt acknowledge cycle (IACK). The IACK transfer is treated as a memory-mapped byte read by the processor and routed to the interrupt controller. Next, the interrupt controller extracts the level being acknowledged from address bits[4:2], determines the highest priority interrupt request active for that level, and returns the 8-bit interrupt vector for that request to complete the cycle. The 8-bit interrupt vector is formed using the following algorithm:

vector_number = 64 + interrupt source number

Recall vector numbers 0—63 are reserved for the ColdFire processor and its internal exceptions. Thus, the mapping of bit positions to vector numbers that apply are the following:

```
if interrupt source 1 is active and acknowledged, then vector_number = 65
if interrupt source 2 is active and acknowledged, then vector_number = 66
...
if interrupt source 8 is active and acknowledged, then vector number = 72if interrupt source 9 is active and acknowledged, then vector_number = 73
...
if interrupt source 63 is active and acknowledged, then vector number = 127
```
The net effect is a fixed mapping between the bit position within the source to the actual interrupt vector number.

If there is no active interrupt source for the given level, a special "spurious interrupt" vector (vector_number = 24) is returned, and it is the responsibility of the service routine to handle this error situation.

Note this protocol implies the interrupting peripheral is not accessed during the acknowledge cycle since the interrupt controller completely services the acknowledge. This means the interrupt source must be explicitly cleared in the interrupt service routine. This design provides unique vector capability for all interrupt requests, regardless of the "complexity" of the peripheral device.

Vector number 64 is unused.

13.2 Memory Map/Register Descriptions

The register programming model for the interrupt controllers is memory-mapped to a 256-byte space. In the following discussion, there are a number of program-visible registers greater than 32 bits in size. For these control fields, the physical register is partitioned into two 32-bit values: a register "High" (the upper longword) and a register "Low" (the lower longword). The nomenclature \langle reg_name>H and <reg_name>L is used to reference these values.

The registers and their locations are defined in [Table 13-2](#page-330-0).

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13.2.1 Register Descriptions

13.2.1.1 Interrupt Pending Registers (IPRH, IPRL)

The IPRH and IPRL registers, [Figure 13-1](#page-331-0) and [Figure 13-2,](#page-332-0) are each 32 bits in size and provide a bit map for each interrupt request to indicate if there is an active request for the given source $(1 = \text{active request},$ $0 =$ no request). The state of the interrupt mask register does not affect the IPR. The IPR is cleared by reset. The IPR is a read-only register, so any attempted write to this register is ignored. Bit 0 is not implemented and reads as a zero.

Figure 13-1. Interrupt Pending Register High (IPRH)

Table 13-3. IPRH Field Descriptions

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Figure 13-2. Interrupt Pending Register Low (IPRL)

Table 13-4. IPRL Field Descriptions

13.2.1.2 Interrupt Mask Register (IMRH, IMRL)

The IMRH and IMRL registers are each 32 bits in size and provide a bit map for each interrupt to allow the request to be disabled (1 = disable the request, $0 =$ enable the request). The IMR is set to all ones by reset, disabling all interrupt requests. The IMR can be read and written. A write that sets bit 0 of the IMR forces the other 63 bits to be set, disabling all interrupt sources and providing a global mask-all capability.

NOTE

If an interrupt source is masked in the interrupt controller mask register (IMR) or a module's interrupt mask register while the interrupt mask in the status register (SR[I]) is set to a value lower than the interrupt's level, a spurious interrupt may occur. This situation occurs because by the time the status register acknowledges the interrupt, it has been masked and the CPU cannot determine the interrupt source. To avoid this situation for interrupt sources with levels 1–6, first write a higher level interrupt mask to the status register before setting the mask in the IMR or the module's interrupt mask register. After the mask is set, return the interrupt mask in the status register to its previous value. Since level 7 interrupts cannot be disabled in the status register prior to masking, use of the IMR or module interrupt mask registers to disable level 7 interrupts is not recommended.

Figure 13-3. Interrupt Mask Register High (IMRH)

Figure 13-4. Interrupt Mask Register Low (IMRL)

13.2.1.3 Interrupt Force Registers (INTFRCH, INTFRCL)

The INTFRCH and INTFRCL registers are each 32 bits in size and provide a mechanism to allow software generation of interrupts for each possible source for functional or debug purposes. The system design may reserve one or more sources to allow software to self-schedule interrupts by forcing one or more of these bits in the appropriate INTFRC register $(1 = force$ request, $0 = negative$ request). The assertion of an interrupt request via the INTFRC register is not affected by the interrupt mask register. The INTFRC register is cleared by reset.

Figure 13-5. Interrupt Force Register High (INTFRCH)

Figure 13-6. Interrupt Force Register Low (INTFRCL)

Table 13-8. INTFRCL Field Descriptions

13.2.1.4 Interrupt Request Level Register (IRLR)

This 7-bit register is updated each machine cycle and represents the current interrupt requests for each interrupt level, where bit 7 corresponds to level 7, bit 6 to level 6, etc.

Figure 13-7. Interrupt Request Level Register (IRLR)

Table 13-9. IRQn Field Descriptions

13.2.1.5 Interrupt Acknowledge Level and Priority Register (IACKLPR)

Each time an IACK is performed, the interrupt controller responds with the vector number of the highest priority source within the level being acknowledged. In addition to providing the vector number directly for the byte-sized IACK read, this 8-bit register is also loaded with information about the interrupt level and priority being acknowledged. This register provides the association between the acknowledged "physical" interrupt request number and the programmed interrupt level/priority. The contents of this read-only register are described in [Figure 13-8](#page-336-0) and [Table 13-10.](#page-336-1)

Figure 13-8. IACK Level and Priority Register (IACKLPR)

Table 13-10. IACKLPR Field Descriptions

13.2.1.6 Interrupt Control Registers 1–63 (ICRn)

Each ICR*n* specifies the interrupt level $(1-7)$ and the priority within the level $(0-7)$. All ICR*n* registers can be read, but only ICR8 to ICR63 can be written. It is software's responsibility to program the ICR*n* registers with unique and non-overlapping level and priority definitions. Failure to program the ICR*n* registers in this matter can result in undefined behavior. If a specific interrupt request is completely unused, the ICR*n* value can remain in its reset (and disabled) state.

Figure 13-9. Interrupt Control Registers 1–63 (ICRn)

Table 13-11. ICRn Field Descriptions

13.2.1.6.1 Interrupt Sources

[Table 13-12](#page-337-0) lists the interrupt sources for each interrupt request line

Table 13-12. Interrupt Source Assignments

13.2.1.7 Software and Level n IACK Registers (SWIACKR, L1IACK–L7IACK)

The eight IACK registers can be explicitly addressed via the CPU, or implicitly addressed via a processor-generated interrupt acknowledge cycle during exception processing. In either case, the interrupt controller's actions are very similar.

First, consider an IACK cycle to a specific level: that is, a level-*n* IACK. When this type of IACK arrives in the interrupt controller, the controller examines all the currently-active level- n interrupt requests, determines the highest priority within the level, and then responds with the unique vector number corresponding to that specific interrupt source. The vector number is supplied as the data for the byte-sized IACK read cycle. In addition to providing the vector number, the interrupt controller also loads the level and priority number for the level into the IACKLPR, where it may be retrieved later.

This interrupt controller design also supports the concept of a software IACK. A software IACK is a useful concept that allows an interrupt service routine to determine if there are other pending interrupts, so that the overhead associated with interrupt exception processing (including machine state save/restore functions) can be minimized. In general, the software IACK is performed near the end of an interrupt service routine, and if there are additional active interrupt sources, the current interrupt service routine (ISR) passes control to the appropriate service routine, but without taking another interrupt exception.

When the interrupt controller receives a software IACK read, it returns the vector number associated with the highest level, highest priority unmasked interrupt source for that interrupt controller. The IACKLPR is also loaded as the software IACK is performed. If there are no active sources, the interrupt controller returns an all-zero vector as the operand. For this situation, the IACKLPR is also cleared.

In addition to the software IACK registers within each interrupt controller, there are global software IACK registers. A read from the global SWIACK will return the vector number for the highest level and priority unmasked interrupt source from all interrupt controllers. A read from one of the L*n*IACK registers will return the vector for the highest priority unmasked interrupt within a level for all interrupt controllers.

Figure 13-10. Software and Level n IACK Registers (SWIACKR, L1IACK–L7IACK)

Table 13-13. SWIACK and L1IACK–L7IACK Field Descriptions

Chapter 14 Edge Port Module (EPORT)

14.1 Introduction

The edge port module (EPORT) has seven external interrupt pins, IRQ[7:1]. Each pin can be configured individually as a level-sensitive interrupt pin, an edge-detecting interrupt pin (rising edge, falling edge, or both), or a general-purpose input/output (I/O) pin. See [Figure 14-1](#page-342-0).

14.2 Interrupt/General-Purpose I/O Pin Descriptions

All interrupt pins default to general-purpose input pins at reset. The pin value is synchronized to the rising edge of the internal clock when read from the EPORT pin data register (EPPDR). The values used in the edge/level detect logic are also synchronized to the rising edge of the internal clock. These pins use Schmitt-triggered input buffers which have built-in hysteresis that decrease the probability of generating false edge-triggered interrupts for slow rising and falling input signals.

When a pin is configured as an output, it is driven to a state whose level is determined by the corresponding

NOTE

The GPIO functionality of the external interrupt pins is controlled by the EPORT module. However, some external interrupt signals are muxed with other functions. In this case, the pin's IRQ functionality must be enabled in the GPIO module's pin assignment register in order to use the pin's GPIO function via the EPORT registers. For more information, refer to [Chapter 15, "GPIO](#page-348-0)."

14.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

This subsection describes the memory map and register structure.

14.3.1 Memory Map

Refer to [Table 14-1](#page-343-0) for a description of the EPORT memory map. The EPORT has an MBAR offset for base address of 0xF00.

MBAR Offset	Name	Byte ₀	Byte1	Byte2	Byte3	Access ¹
0xF00	EPORT pin assignment register		EPPAR			S
0xF04	EPORT data direction register EPORT interrupt enable register	FPDDR	EPIER			S/U
0xF08	EPORT data register EPORT pin data register	EPDR	EPPDR			
0xF0C	EPORT flag register	EPFR				

Table 14-1. Edge Port Module Memory Map

S = CPU supervisor mode access only. S/U = CPU supervisor or user mode access. User mode accesses to supervisor only addresses have no effect and result in a cycle termination transfer error.

 2 Writing to reserved address locations has no effect, and reading returns 0s.

14.3.2 Register Descriptions

The EPORT programming model consists of these registers:

- The EPORT pin assignment register (EPPAR) controls the function of each pin individually.
- The EPORT data direction register (EPDDR) controls the direction of each pin individually.
- The EPORT interrupt enable register (EPIER) enables interrupt requests for each pin individually.
- The EPORT data register (EPDR) holds the data to be driven to the pins.
- The EPORT pin data register (EPPDR) reflects the current state of the pins.
- The EPORT flag register (EPFR) individually latches EPORT edge events.

14.3.2.1 EPORT Pin Assignment Register (EPPAR)

Figure 14-2. EPORT Pin Assignment Register (EPPAR)

Table 14-2. EPPAR Field Descriptions

14.3.2.2 EPORT Data Direction Register (EPDDR)

Figure 14-3. EPORT Data Direction Register (EPDDR)

Table 14-3. EPDDR Field Descriptions

14.3.2.3 Edge Port Interrupt Enable Register (EPIER)

Figure 14-4. EPORT Port Interrupt Enable Register (EPIER)

Table 14-4. EPIER Field Descriptions

14.3.2.4 Edge Port Data Register (EPDR)

Figure 14-5. EPORT Port Data Register (EPDR)

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Table 14-5. EPDR Field Descriptions

14.3.2.5 Edge Port Pin Data Register (EPPDR)

Figure 14-6. EPORT Port Pin Data Register (EPPDR)

Table 14-6. EPPDR Field Descriptions

14.3.2.6 Edge Port Flag Register (EPFR)

Figure 14-7. EPORT Port Flag Register (EPFR)

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$, where $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$

Table 14-7. EPFR Field Descriptions

Chapter 15 GPIO

15.1 Introduction

Many of the MCF548*x* pins whose primary function is to serve as the external interface to off-chip resources may also be used for general-purpose digital I/O (GPIO) access and for one or two secondary functions. When used for GPIO purposes, the port *x* pins (P*XXX*) indicate which port is being accessed. In some cases, the pin function is set by the operating mode, and the alternate pin functions are not supported.

The MCF548*x* GPIO signals are grouped into 8-bit ports; however, some ports do not use all eight bits. Each GPIO port has registers that configure, monitor, and control the port signals.

[Figure 15-1](#page-349-0) is a block diagram of the MCF548*x* GPIO module.

NOTE

The actual signals and functions available vary for different members of the MCF548*x* family. See [Chapter 2, "Signal Descriptions](#page-44-0)," for more details.

Figure 15-1. MCF548x GPIO Module Block Diagram

15.1.1 Overview

The MCF548*x* GPIO module controls the configuration and use for the following external GPIO ports (register types in parentheses):

• ColdFire bus (FlexBus) accesses (FBCTL, FBCS)

- External DMA request and acknowledge (DMA)
- PCI bus access (PCIGNT, PCIREQ)
- Ethernet data and control (FEC0H, FEC0L, FEC1H, FEC1L, FECI2C)
- I^2C serial control (FECI2C)
- DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI)
- Programmable serial control (PSC1PSC0 and PSC3PSC2)

15.1.2 Features

The MCF548*x* GPIO module includes these distinctive features:

- Control of primary function use of the supported GPIO ports indicated in [Section 15.1.1,](#page-349-1) ["Overview"](#page-349-1)
- General purpose I/O support for all ports:
	- Registers for storing output pin data
	- Registers for controlling pin data direction
	- Registers for reading current pin state
	- Registers for setting and clearing output pin data registers

15.2 External Pin Description

The MCF548*x* GPIO module controls the functionality of several external pins. These pins are listed in [Table 15-1](#page-350-0).

Table 15-1. MCF548x GPIO Module External Pins

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External Pin Description

¹ The primary functionality of a pin is not necessarily the default function of the pin after reset. Most pins that have muxed GPIO functionality will default to GPIO inputs. See the reset value of the associated pin assignment register. See [Section 15.3.2.5, "Port](#page-368-0) [x Pin Assignment Registers \(PAR_x\)](#page-368-0)") for more information on default pin functionality.

² GPIO is supported, but the GPIO functionality is controlled by the timer or EPORT module instead of the GPIO module. Signals are listed because there are pin assignment registers in the GPIO module for controlling the signal functions.

Refer to the signals chapter of the MCF548*x* chip specification for more detailed descriptions of these signals. The function of most of the pins (primary function, GPIO, etc.) is determined by the GPIO module pin assignment registers.

It should be noted from [Table 15-1](#page-350-0) that there are several cases where a function is mapped to more than one pin. While it is possible to enable the function on more than one pin simultaneously, this type of programming should be avoided for input functions to prevent unexpected behavior. All multiple-pin functions are listed in [Table 15-2](#page-354-0).

15.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

15.3.1 Register Overview

[Table 15-3](#page-354-1) summarizes all the registers in the MCF548*x* GPIO module address space.

Table 15-3. MCF548x GPIO Module Memory Map

MBAR Offset	$31 - 24$	$23 - 16$	$15 - 8$	$7 - 0$	Access				
Port Output Data Registers									
0xA00	PODR FBCTL	PODR FBCS	PODR_DMA	Reserved ³	S/U				
0xA04	PODR FECOH	PODR_FEC0L	PODR_FEC1H	PODR_FEC1L	S/U				

 $\frac{1}{1}$ S/U = supervisor or user mode access.

² Reads to reserved locations return 0s. Writes have no effect.

15.3.2 Register Descriptions

15.3.2.1 Port x Output Data Registers (PODR_x)

The PODR registers store the data to be driven on the corresponding port *x* pins when the pins are configured for general purpose output.

Most PODR_*x* registers have full 8-bit implementations, as shown in [Figure 15-2.](#page-356-0) The remaining PODR_*x* registers use fewer than eight bits. These registers are shown in [Figure 15-3,](#page-357-0) [Figure 15-4](#page-357-1), [Figure 15-5](#page-358-0), and [Figure 15-6](#page-358-1).

The PODR_*x* registers are read/write. At reset, all implemented bits in the PODR_*x* registers are set. Unimplemented bits always remain cleared.

Reading a PODR_*x* register returns the current values in the register, not the port *x* pin values.

To set bits in a PODR *x* register, write 1s to the PODR *x* bits, or write 1s to the corresponding bits in the PORTP_x/SET_x register. To clear bits in a PODR_*x* register, write 0s to the PODR_*x* bits, or write 0s to the corresponding bits in the PCLRR_*x* register.

15.3.2.1.1 8-Bit PODR_x Registers

The 8-bit PODR_*x* registers include the following:

- PODR FBCTL
- PODR_FEC0H
- PODR_FEC0L
- PODR FEC1H
- PODR FEC1L
- PODR_PSC3PSC2
- PODR_PSC1PSC0

[Figure 15-2](#page-356-0) displays the 8-bit PODR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-2. 8-Bit Port Output Data Registers (PODR_x)

Table 15-4. 8-Bit PODR_x Field Descriptions

15.3.2.1.2 7-Bit PODR_x Register

The 7-bit PODR_DSPI register is the output data register for the PDSPI*n* port. [Figure 15-3](#page-357-0) displays the 7-bit PODR_*x* register.

Figure 15-3. 7-Bit PODR_DSPI Register (PODR_x)

Table 15-5. 7-Bit PODR_DSPI Field Descriptions

15.3.2.1.3 5-Bit PODR_x Registers

The 5-bit PODR_*x* registers are the output data registers for PPCIBG*n* (PODR_PCIBG) and PPCIBR*n* (PODR_PCIBR). [Figure 15-4](#page-357-1) displays the 5-bit PODR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-4. 5-Bit PODR_PCIBG and PODR_PCIBR Registers

Table 15-6. 5-Bit PODR_PCIBG and PODR_PCIBR Field Descriptions

15.3.2.1.4 4-Bit PODR_x Registers

The 4-bit PODR_*x* registers are the output data registers for PDMA*n* (PODR_DMA) and PFECI2C*n* (PODR_FECI2C). [Figure 15-3](#page-357-0) displays the 4-bit PODR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-5. 4-Bit PODR_DMA and PODR_FECI2C Registers

15.3.2.1.5 FBCS Register (PODR_FBCS)

The 5-bit PODR_FBCS register is the output data register for PFBCS*n* (PODR_FBCS). [Figure 15-6](#page-358-1) displays the 5-bit PODR_FBCS register.

Figure 15-6. 5-Bit PODR_FBCS Register

Table 15-8. 5-Bit PODR_FBCS Field Descriptions

15.3.2.2 Port x Data Direction Registers (PDDR_x)

The PDDR registers control the direction of the port *x* pin drivers when the pins are configured for general purpose I/O.

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Most PDDR *x* registers have a full 8-bit implementation, as shown in [Figure 15-7.](#page-359-0) The remaining PDDR_{_*x*} registers use fewer than eight bits. Their bit definitions are shown in [Figure 15-8](#page-360-0), [Figure 15-9](#page-360-1), [Figure 15-10](#page-361-0), and [Figure 15-11](#page-361-1).

The PDDR_*x* registers are read/write. At reset, all bits in the PDDR_*x* registers are cleared. Setting any bit in a PDDR_*x* register configures the corresponding port *x* pin as an output. Clearing any bit in a PDDR_*x* register configures the corresponding pin as an input.

15.3.2.2.1 8-Bit PDDR_x Registers

The 8-bit PDDR_*x* registers include the following:

- PDDR FBCTL
- PDDR_FEC0H
- PDDR_FEC0L
- PDDR_FEC1H
- PDDR_FEC1L
- PDDR PSC3PSC2
- PDDR_PSC1PSC0

[Figure 15-7](#page-359-0) displays the 8-bit PDDR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-7. 8-Bit Port Data Direction Registers

Table 15-9. 8-Bit PDDR_x Field Descriptions

15.3.2.2.2 7-Bit PDDR_x Register

The 7-bit PDDR_DSPI register sets the data direction for the PDSPI*n* port. [Figure 15-8](#page-360-0) displays the 7-bit PDDR_DSPI register.

Figure 15-8. 7-Bit PDDR_DSPI Data Direction Register

15.3.2.2.3 5-Bit PDDR_x Registers

The 5-bit PDDR_*x* registers are the data direction registers for PPCIBG*n* (PDDR_PCIBG) and PPCIBR*n* (PDDR_PCIBR). [Figure 15-9](#page-360-0) displays the 5-bit PDDR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-9. 5-Bit PDDR_PCIBG and PDDR_PCIBR Registers

Table 15-11. 5-Bit PDDR_PCIBG and PDDR_PCIBR Field Descriptions

15.3.2.2.4 4-Bit PDDR_x Registers

The 4-bit PDDR_*x* registers are for data direction of PDMA*n* (PDDR_DMA) and PFECI2C*n* (PDDR_FECI2C). [Figure 15-10](#page-361-0) displays the 4-bit PDDR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-10. 4-Bit PDDR_DMA and PDDR_FECI2C Registers

15.3.2.2.5 FBCS Register (PDDR_FBCS)

The 5-bit PDDR_FBCS register is for data direction of PFBCS*n*. [Figure 15-11](#page-361-1) displays the 5-bit PDDR_FBCS register.

Figure 15-11. 5-Bit PDDR_FBCS Register

Table 15-13. 5-Bit PDDR_FBCS Field Descriptions

15.3.2.3 Port x Pin Data/Set Data Registers (PPDSDR_x)

The PPDSDR registers reflect the current pin states and control the setting of output pins when the pin is configured for general purpose I/O.

Most PPDSDR *x* registers have a full 8-bit implementation, as shown in [Figure 15-12.](#page-362-0) The remaining PPDSDR_{χ} registers use fewer than eight bits. Their bit definitions are shown in [Figure 15-13](#page-363-0), [Figure 15-14](#page-363-1), [Figure 15-15,](#page-364-0) and [Figure 15-16](#page-365-0).

The PPDSDR_*x* registers are read/write. At reset, the bits in the PPDSDR_*x* registers are set to the current pin states. Reading a PPDSDR_*x* register returns the current state of the port x pins. Writing 1s to a PPDSDR_*x* register sets the corresponding bits in the PODR_*x* register. Writing 0s has no effect.

15.3.2.3.1 8-Bit PPDSDR_x Registers

The 8-bit PPDSDR_*x* registers include the following:

- PPDSDR_FBCTL
- PPDSDR_FEC0H
- PPDSDR_FEC0L
- PPDSDR_FEC1H
- PPDSDR_FEC1L
- PPDSDR_PSC3PSC2
- PPDSDR_PSC1PSC0
- PPDSDR_PSC3PSC2

[Figure 15-12](#page-362-0) displays the 8-bit PPDSDR_*x* registers.

 1 P = the current pin state. The exception is that PPDSDR FBCTL is always reset to 0.

Figure 15-12. 8-Bit Port Pin Data / Set Data Registers

Table 15-14. 8-Bit PPDSDR_x Field Descriptions

15.3.2.3.2 7-Bit PPDSDR_x Register

The 7-bit PPDSDR_*x* register is for pin data and set data for PDSPI*n*. [Figure 15-13](#page-363-0) displays the 7-bit PPDSDR_DSPI register.

Figure 15-13. 7-Bit Port Pin Data / Set Data Registers

15.3.2.3.3 5-Bit PPDSDR_x Registers

The 5-bit PPDSDR_*x* registers are the pin data and set data registers for PPCIBG*n* (PPDSDR_PCIBG) and PPCIBR*n* (PPDSDR_PCIBR). [Figure 15-14](#page-363-1) displays the 5-bit PPDSDR_*x* registers.

 1 P = the current pin state.

Figure 15-14. 5-Bit PPDSDR_PCIBG and PPDSDR_PCIBR Registers

Table 15-16. 5-Bit PPDSDR_PCIBG and PPDSDR_PCIBR Field Descriptions

Table 15-16. 5-Bit PPDSDR_PCIBG and PPDSDR_PCIBR Field Descriptions (Continued)

15.3.2.3.4 4-Bit PPDSDR_x Registers

The 4-bit PPDSDR_*x* registers are the pin data and set data registers for PDMA*n* (PPDSDR_DMA) and PFECI2C*n* (PPDSDR_FECI2C). [Figure 15-15](#page-364-0) displays the 4-bit PPDSDR_DMA and PPDSDR_FECI2C registers.

 1 P = the current pin state.

Figure 15-15. 4-Bit PPDSDR_DMA and PPDSDR_FECI2C Registers

Table 15-17. 4-Bit PPDSDR_DMA and PPDSDR_FECI2C Field Descriptions

15.3.2.3.5 FBCS Register (PPDSDR_FBCS)

The 5-bit PPDSDR_FBCS register is for pin data and set data for PFBCS*n*. [Figure 15-16](#page-365-0) displays the 5-bit PPDSDR_FBCS register.

 $¹$ P = the current pin state.</sup>

Figure 15-16. 5-Bit PDDSDR_FBCS Register

Table 15-18. 5-Bit PDDSDR_FBCS Field Descriptions

15.3.2.4 Port x Clear Output Data Registers (PCLRR_x)

Writing 0s to a PCLRR_{_*x*} register clears the corresponding bits in the PODR_{_*x*} register. Writing 1s has no effect. Reading the PCLRR_*x* register returns 0s.

Most PCLRR_{_*x*} registers have a full 8-bit implementation, as shown in [Figure 15-17](#page-366-0). The remaining PCLRR_{_x} registers use fewer than eight bits. Their bit definitions are shown in [Figure 15-18](#page-366-1), [Figure 15-19](#page-367-0), [Figure 15-20,](#page-367-1) and [Figure 15-21](#page-368-0).

The PCLRR_*x* registers are read/write. The 8-bit PCLRR_*x* registers include the following:

- PCLRR_FBCTL
- PCLRR_FEC0H
- PCLRR_FEC0L
- PCLRR_FEC1H
- PCLRR_FEC1L
- PCLRR_PSC3PSC2
- PCLRR_PSC1PSC0

[Figure 15-17](#page-366-0) displays the 8-bit PCLRR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-17. 8-Bit Port Clear Output Data Registers

15.3.2.4.1 7-Bit PCLRR_x Register

The 7-bit PCLRR*_*DSPI register is the clear output data register for PDSPI*n*. [Figure 15-18](#page-366-1) displays the 7-bit PCLRR*_*DSPI register.

Figure 15-18. 7-Bit Port Clear Output Data DSPI Register

Table 15-20. 7-Bit PCLRR_DSPI Field Descriptions

15.3.2.4.2 5-Bit PCLRR_x Registers

The 5-bit PCLRR_*x* registers are the pin data and set data registers for PPCIBG*n* (PCLRR_PCIBG) and PPCIBR*n* (PCLRR_PCIBR). [Figure 15-19](#page-367-0) displays the 5-bit PCLRR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-19. 5-Bit PCIBG and PCIBR Clear Output Data Register

Table 15-21. 5-Bit PCLRR_PCIBG and PCLRR_PCIBR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$7 - 5$		Reserved, should be cleared
$4 - 0$		PCLRRxn PCLRR_PCIBG and PCLRR_PCIBR clear output data registers 0 Corresponding PODR_PCIGNT or PODR_PCIBR bit is cleared 1 No effect

15.3.2.4.3 4-Bit PCLRR_x Registers

The 4-bit PCLRR_*x* registers are the clear output data registers for PDMA*n* (PCLRR_DMA) and PFECI2C*n* (PCLRR_FECI2C). [Figure 15-20](#page-367-1) displays the 4-bit PCLRR_*x* registers.

Figure 15-20. 4-Bit DMA and FECI2C Clear Output Data Registers

Table 15-22. 4-Bit PCLRR_DMA and PCLRR_FECI2C Field Descriptions

15.3.2.4.4 5-Bit PCLRR_FBCS Registers

The 5-bit PCLRR_FBCS register is the clear output data register for PFBCS*n*. [Figure 15-21](#page-368-0) displays the 5-bit PCLRR_FBCS register.

Figure 15-21. 5-Bit FlexBus Clear Output Data Register

Table 15-23. 5-Bit PCLRR_FBCS Field Descriptions

15.3.2.5 Port x Pin Assignment Registers (PAR_x)

The PAR_{_*x*} registers select the signal function that will be driven on the physical pin.

15.3.2.5.1 FlexBus Control Pin Assignment Register (PAR_FBCTL)

The FlexBus control pin assignment (PAR_FBCTL) register controls the function of the FlexBus control signal pins. The PAR_FBCTL register is read/write.

Figure 15-22. FlexBus Control Pin Assignment Register (PAR_FBCTL)

Table 15-24. PAR_FBCTL Field Descriptions

15.3.2.6 FlexBus Chip Select Pin Assignment Register (PAR_FBCS)

The PAR_FBCS register controls the function of the FlexBus chip select signal pins. The PAR_FBCS register is read/write.

15.3.2.7 DMA Pin Assignment Register (PAR_DMA)

The PAR_DMA register controls the function of the four MCF548*x* DMA pins.

The PAR_DMA register is read/write

Figure 15-24. DMA Pin Assignment Register (PAR_DMA)

15.3.2.8 FEC/I2C/IRQ Pin Assignment Register (PAR_FECI2CIRQ)

The PAR_FECI2CIRQ register controls the functions of the FEC0, FEC1, I2C, and IRQ pins. The PAR_FECI2CIRQ register is read/write

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Figure 15-25. FEC/I2C/IRQ Pin Assignment Register (PAR_FECI2CIRQ)

Table 15-27. PAR_FEC/I2C/IRQ Field Descriptions (Continued)

15.3.2.9 PCI Grant Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PCIBG)

The PAR_PCIBG register controls the functions of the PCI grant pins. The PAR_PCIBG register is read/write.

Figure 15-26. PCI Grant Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PCIBG)

Table 15-28. PAR_PCIBG Field Descriptions

15.3.2.10 PCI Request Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PCIBR)

The PAR_PCIBR controls the functions of the PCI request pins. The PAR_PCIBR is read/write.

Figure 15-27. PCI Request Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PCIBR)

Table 15-29. PAR_PCIBR Field Descriptions

Table 15-29. PAR_PCIBR Field Descriptions (Continued)

15.3.2.11 PSC3 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC3)

The PAR_PSC3 register controls the functions of the PSC3 pins. The PAR_PSC3 register is read/write.

Figure 15-28. PSC3 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PCS3)

Table 15-30. PAR_PSC3 Descriptions

15.3.2.12 PSC2 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC2)

The PAR_PSC2 register controls the functions of the PSC2 pins. The PAR_PSC2 register is read/write.

Figure 15-29. PSC2 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC2)

Table 15-31. PAR_PSC2 Descriptions

15.3.2.13 PSC1 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC1)

The PAR_PSC1 register controls the functions of the PSC1 pins. The PAR_PSC1 register is read/write.

Figure 15-30. PSC1 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC1)

15.3.2.14 PSC0 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC0)

The PAR_PSC0 register controls the functions of the PSC0 pins. The PAR_PSC0 register is read/write.

Figure 15-31. PSC0 Pin Assignment Register (PAR_PSC0)

Table 15-33. PAR_PCS0 Descriptions

15.3.2.15 DSPI Pin Assignment Register (PAR_DSPI)

The PAR_DSPI register controls the functions of MCF548*x* DSPI pins. The PAR_DSPI register is read/write.

Figure 15-32. DSPI Pin Assignment Register (PAR_DSPI)

Table 15-34. PAR_DSPI Descriptions

15.3.2.16 General Purpose Timer Pin Assignment Register (PAR_TIMER)

The PAR_TIMER register controls the functions of MCF548*x* general purpose timer pins. The PAR_TIMER register is read/write.

NOTE

Explicit pin function assignment capability for the TIN1, TOUT1, TIN0, and TOUT0 pins is not needed in the GPIO module since these pins only have the primary timer functions and general purpose I/O. Switching between the primary timer functions and GPIO is handled by the general purpose timer module.

15.4 Functional Description

15.4.1 Overview

Initial pin function is determined during reset configuration. See [Chapter 2, "Signal Descriptions](#page-44-0)," for more details. Most pins are configured as general purpose I/O by default. The notable exceptions to this are FlexBus control pins. These pins are configured for their primary functions after reset. The pin assignment registers allow the user to select among various primary functions and general purpose I/O after reset.

Every general purpose I/O pin is individually configurable as an input or an output via a data direction register (PDDR_x). Every GPIO port has an output data register (PODR_*x*) and a pin data register

(PPDSDR_x) to monitor and control the state of its pins. Data written to a PODR_*x* register is stored and then driven to the corresponding port x pins configured as outputs.

Reading a PODR x register returns the current state of the register regardless of the state of the corresponding pins. Reading a PPDSDR_x register returns the current state of the corresponding pins when configured as general purpose I/O, regardless of whether the pins are inputs or outputs.

Every GPIO port has a PPDSDR_x register and a clear register (PCLRR_*x*) for setting or clearing individual bits in the PODR_*x* register.

The MCF548*x* GPIO module does not generate interrupt requests.

Part III On-Chip Integration

Part III describes on-chip integration for the MCF548*x* device. It includes descriptions of the system SRAM, SDRAM controller, PCI, FlexBus interface, FlexCAN, SEC cryptography accelerator, and JTAG.

Contents

Part III contains the following chapters:

- [Chapter 16, "32-Kbyte System SRAM,](#page-384-0)" describes the MCF548*x* on-chip system SRAM implementation. It covers general operations, configuration, and initialization.
- [Chapter 17, "FlexBus](#page-392-0)," describes data transfer operations, error conditions, and reset operations. It describes transfers initiated by the MCF548*x* and by an external master, and includes detailed timing diagrams showing the interaction of signals in supported bus operations.
- [Chapter 18, "SDRAM Controller \(SDRAMC\),](#page-424-0)" describes configuration and operation of the synchronous DRAM controller component of the SIU. It includes a description of signals involved in DRAM operations, including chip select signals and their address, mask, and control registers.
- [Chapter 19, "PCI Bus Controller](#page-460-0)," details the operation of the PCI bus controller for the MCF548*x*.
- [Chapter 20, "PCI Bus Arbiter Module,](#page-536-0)" describes the MCF548*x* PCI bus arbiter module, including timing for request and grant handshaking, the arbitration process, and the register in the PCI bus arbiter programing model.
- [Chapter 21, "FlexCAN,](#page-546-0)" describes the MCF548*x* implementation of the controller area network (CAN) protocol. This chapter describes FlexCAN module operation and provides a programming model.
- [Chapter 22, "Integrated Security Engine \(SEC\),](#page-578-0)" provides an overview of the MCF548*x* security encryption controller.
- [Chapter 23, "IEEE 1149.1 Test Access Port \(JTAG\)](#page-684-0)," describes configuration and operation of the MCF548*x* JTAG test implementation. It describes the use of JTAG instructions and provides information on how to disable JTAG functionality.

Chapter 16 32-Kbyte System SRAM

16.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the operation of the MCF548*x* 32-Kbyte system SRAM.

16.1.1 Block Diagram

The system SRAM is organized as four 8-Kbyte banks, each organized as 2048×32 -bits. The four banks occupy a contiguous block of memory but can be optionally interleaved on long-word boundaries. When configured for interleaved access, each bank contains the data for long word address modulo {bank #} (e.g. bank 2 contains data for all long word address modulo 2 locations). [Figure 16-1](#page-384-1) shows the SRAM organization in both linear and interleaved modes.

Figure 16-1. SRAM Organization

The system SRAM contents always reside at MBAR + 0x0001 0000; therefore, it can be relocated by changing the MBAR contents.

16.1.2 Features

The 32-Kbyte system SRAM is intended primarily as a fast scratch memory and data buffer for DMA and SEC processing, and as memory accessed through the shared bus by all system masters. The module features are the following:

- Four 8-Kbyte banks, each organized as 2048×32 -bits
- Dedicated 32-bit data bus per bank
- Optionally interleaved along long-word boundaries under software control
- Single cycle access when accessed by the DMA
- Byte, word, and longword addressing capabilities
- Independent arbitration mechanism per bank

16.1.3 Overview

This module provides a general-purpose memory block that can be accessed by the masters in the system (ColdFire core, SEC, DMA, and PCI) via the shared internal system bus. The SRAM is also accessed directly (without going through the system bus) by the SEC and DMA. This allows a mechanism for the sharing of parameter data among the various masters as well as a dedicated fast scratch memory and data buffer for DMA and SEC processing tasks.

In order to maximize concurrent utilization, the system SRAM is organized as four banks. Each master is allocated a maximum transfer count and must give up access to the bank when its transfer count has been depleted. In this fashion, each master is given the opportunity to access each bank to prevent starvation of any given master. The transfer counts are configurable under software control for each master and each bank, so it can be optimized to maximize the SRAM utilization for specific tasks. Optionally, a master can be set to "own" a bank, whereby all other masters can access the bank only when the "own" master is not making accesses to the bank.

16.2 Memory Map/Register Definition

[Table 16-1](#page-385-0) shows the memory map of the system SRAM module. For more information about a particular register, refer to the description of the register in the following sections.

Address $(MBAR +)$	Name	Byte 0	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Access
0x1 0000- 0x1 7FFC	SRAM Contents				R/W	
0x1 FFC0	System SRAM Configuration Register	SSCR			R/W	
0x1 FFC4	Transfer Count Configuration Register	TCCR		R/W		
0x1 FFC8	Transfer Count Configuration Register - DMA Read Channel	TCCRDR			R/W	

Table 16-1. System SRAM Memory Map

Address $(MBAR +)$	Name	Byte 0	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Access
0x1 0000- 0x1_7FFC	SRAM Contents					R/W
0x1_FFCC	Transfer Count Configuration Register - DMA Write Channel	TCCRDW			R/W	
0x1 FFD0	Transfer Count Configuration Register - SEC			TCCRSEC		R/W

Table 16-1. System SRAM Memory Map (Continued)

16.2.1 System SRAM Configuration Register (SSCR)

This register is used to define the base address of the system SRAM and whether to interleave the banks.

Figure 16-2. System SRAM Configuration Register (SSCR)

Each field is described in [Table 16-2.](#page-386-0)

16.2.2 Transfer Count Configuration Register (TCCR)

This register is used to configure the allocated maximum transfer count for each bank for the following masters: the ColdFire core, DMA, SEC, or PCI. This occurs as they access memory through the shared system bus. The DMA and the SEC can access the system SRAM either via the system bus or via their dedicated ports. Refer to sections [16.2.3](#page-388-0) through [16.2.5.](#page-390-0)

Each field is described in the [Table 16-3](#page-387-0).

16.2.3 Transfer Count Configuration Register—DMA Read Channel (TCCRDR)

This register is used to configure the allocated maximum transfer count for each bank for the DMA read channel as it accesses SRAM directly, without going through the system bus.

Each field is described in the table below.

16.2.4 Transfer Count Configuration Register—DMA Write Channel (TCCRDW)

This register is used to configure the allocated maximum transfer count for each bank of the DMA write channel as it accesses SRAM directly, without going through the system bus.

Each field is described in the table below.

16.2.5 Transfer Count Configuration Register—SEC (TCCRSEC)

This register is used to configure the allocated maximum transfer count for each bank for the SEC as it accesses SRAM directly, without going through the system bus.

Each field is described in the table below.

Table 16-6. TCCRSEC Register Field Descriptions

16.3 Functional Description

The system SRAM decodes the addresses for all four banks to determine which master is trying to access which bank. The system SRAM module provides a bus arbitration mechanism for granting access of each bank to each master. All masters simply request a data transfer and the SRAM grants a specified cycle count to the appropriate master. The arbitration is overlapped with the address phase of SRAM transfers and therefore imposes no performance penalty or overhead.

The current master pointer for each bank is determined as shown in [Figure 16-7](#page-391-0). The current master pointer transitions to another master when the current master's maximum transfer count is exceeded, or the current master is idle and another master requests access to the bank. Otherwise, the current master pointer remains unchanged.

Figure 16-7. SRAM Arbitration

Chapter 17 FlexBus

17.1 Introduction

This chapter describes data transfer operations, error conditions, and reset operations. It describes transfers initiated by the MCF548*x* and includes detailed timing diagrams showing the interaction of signals in supported bus operations.

NOTE

Unless otherwise noted, in this chapter the term 'clock' refers to the CLKIN used for the bus.

17.1.1 Overview

A multi-function external bus interface called the FlexBus interface controller is provided on the MCF548*x* with basic functionality of interfacing to slave-only devices up to a maximum bus frequency of 50 MHz. It can be directly connected to asynchronous or synchronous devices such as external boot ROMs, flash memories, gate-array logic, or other simple target (slave) devices with little or no additional circuitry. For asynchronous devices a simple chip-select based interface can be used.

The FlexBus interface has six general purpose chip-selects (FBCS[5:0]). Chip-select FBCS0 can be dedicated to boot ROM access and can be programmed to be byte (8 bits), word (16 bits), or longword (32 bits) wide. Control signal timing is compatible with common ROM / flash memories.

17.1.2 Features

The following list summarizes the key FlexBus features:

- Six independent, user-programmable chip-select signals (FBCS[5:0]) that can interface with SRAM, PROM, EPROM, EEPROM, Flash, and other peripherals
- 8-, 16-, and 32-bit port sizes with configuration for multiplexed or non-multiplexed address and data buses
- Byte, word, and longword, and line sized transfers
- Programmable burst and burst-inhibited transfers selectable for each chip select and transfer direction
- Programmable address setup time with respect to the assertion of chip select
- Programmable address hold time with respect to the negation of chip select and transfer direction

17.1.3 Modes of Operation

The FlexBus interface is a configurable multiplexed bus that is set to one of four modes:

- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 32-bit data
- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 16-bit data (non-multiplexed 16-bit address and 16-bit data)
- Multiplexed 32-bit address and 8-bit data (non-multiplexed 24-bit address and 8-bit data)
- Non-multiplexed 32-bit address with 32-bit data

17.2 Byte Lanes

[Figure 17-1](#page-393-0) shows the byte lanes that external memory should be connected to and the sequential transfers if a longword is transferred for three port sizes. For example, an 8-bit memory should be connected to AD[31:24] (BE/BWE0). A longword transfer takes four transfers on AD[31:24], starting with the MSB and going to the LSB.

Figure 17-1. Connections for External Memory Port Sizes

17.3 Address Latch

Because the FlexBus uses a multiplexed address and data bus, external logic might be needed in some cases to capture the address phase as shown in [Figure 17-2.](#page-394-0)

External Signals

Figure 17-2. Multiplexed FlexBus Implementation

17.4 External Signals

This section describes the external signals that are involved in data transfer operations. [Table 17-1](#page-394-1) summarizes the MCF548*x* FlexBus signals.

Signal Name	Direction	Description	Reset State
FBCS[5:0]	O	General purpose chip-selects	$Hi-Z$
AD[31:0]	1/O	Address / Data bus	$Hi-Z$
ALE	Ω	Address Latch Enable	$Hi-Z$
BE/BWE[3:0]	O	Byte Selects	$Hi-Z$
OE	O	Output Enable	$Hi-Z$
R/\sqrt{W}	Ω	Read/Write. $1 = Read$, $0 = Write$	$Hi-Z$
TBST	Ω	Burst Transfer indicator	$Hi-Z$
TSIZ[1:0]	Ω	Transfer Size	Hi-Z
TA		Transfer Acknowledge	

Table 17-1. FlexBus Signal Summary

17.4.1 Chip-Select (FBCS[5:0])

The chip-select signal indicates which device is being selected. A particular chip-select asserts when the transfer address is within the device's address space as defined in the base and mask address registers, see [Section 17.5.2, "Chip-Select Registers.](#page-398-0)"

17.4.2 Address/Data Bus (AD[31:0])

The AD[31:0] bus carries address and data. The full 32-bit address is always driven on the first clock of a bus cycle (address phase). The number of byte lanes used to carry the data during the data phase is determined by the port size associated with the matching chip select.

In non-multiplexed mode, it is divided into sub-buses: address (output) and data (input/output). In multiplexed mode, it carries the address during the address phase and the data during the data phase. Note that in multiplexed mode and during the data phase, the address continues driving on the lower byte lanes if these lanes are not used to carry the data.

17.4.3 Address Latch Enable (ALE)

The assertion of ALE indicates that the MCF548*x* has begun a bus transaction and that the address and attributes are valid. ALE is asserted for one bus clock cycle. In multiplexed bus mode, ALE is used externally as an address latch enable to capture the address phase of the bus transfer, as shown in [Figure 17-2](#page-394-0).

17.4.4 Read/Write (R/W)

MCF548x drives the R/W signal to indicate the direction of the current bus operation. It is driven high during read bus cycles and driven low during write bus cycles.

17.4.5 Transfer Burst (TBST)

Transfer Burst indicates that a burst transfer is in progress as driven by the MCF548*x*. A burst transfer can be 2 to 16 beats depending on TSIZ[1:0] and the port size.

NOTE

When burst (TBST = 0) and transfer size is 16 bytes (TSIZ = 2 'b11) and the address is misaligned within the 16-byte boundary, the external device must be able to wrap around the address.

17.4.6 Transfer Size (TSIZ[1:0])

For memory accesses, these signals, along with TBST, indicate the data transfer size of the current bus operation. The FlexBus interface supports byte, word, and longword operand transfers and allows accesses to 8-, 16-, and 32-bit data ports.

For misaligned transfers, TSIZ[1:0] indicate the size of each transfer. For example, if a longword access through a 32-bit port device occurs at a misaligned offset of 0x1, a byte is transferred first $(TSIZ[1:0] = 01)$, a word is next transferred at offset $0x2$ $(TSIZ[1:0] = 10)$, then the final byte is transferred at offset $0x4$ (TSIZ[1:0] = 01).
For aligned transfers larger than the port size, TSIZ[1:0] behaves as follows:

- If bursting is used, $TSIZ[1:0]$ is driven to the size of transfer.
- If bursting is inhibited, TSIZ[1:0] first shows the size of the entire transfer and then shows the port size.

Table 17-2. Data Transfer Size

For burst-inhibited transfers, TSIZ[1:0] changes with each ALE assertion to reflect the next transfer size. For transfers to port sizes smaller than the transfer size, TSIZ[1:0] indicates the size of the entire transfer on the first access and the size of the current port transfer on subsequent transfers. For example, for a longword write to an 8-bit port, $TSIZ[1:0] = 2³ b00$ for the first transaction and 2'b01 for the next three transactions. If bursting is used and in the case of longword write to an 8-bit port, TSIZ[1:0] is driven to 2'b00 for the entire transfer.

17.4.7 Byte Selects (BE/BWE[3:0])

The byte strobe (BE/BWE[3:0]) outputs indicate that data is to be latched or driven onto a byte of the data when driven low as shown in [Table 17-1.](#page-393-0) BE/BWE*n* signals are asserted only to the memory bytes used during a read or write access.

17.4.8 Output Enable (OE)

The output enable signal (\overline{OE}) is sent to the interfacing memory and/or peripheral to enable a read transfer. OE is asserted only when a chip select matches the current address decode.

17.4.9 Transfer Acknowledge (TA)

This signal indicates that the external data transfer is complete. During a read cycle, when the processor recognizes TA, it latches the data and then terminates the bus cycle. During a write cycle, when the processor recognizes TA, the bus cycle is terminated.

If auto-acknowledge is disabled, the external device drives \overline{TA} to terminate the bus transfer; if auto-acknowledge is enabled, the TA is generated internally after a specified wait states or the external device may assert external TA before the wait-state countdown, terminating the cycle early. The MCF548*x* negates FBCS*n* a cycle after the last TA asserts. During read cycles, the peripheral must continue to drive data until TA is recognized. For write cycles, the processor continues to drive data one clock after FBCS*n* is negated.

The number of wait states is determined either by internally programmed auto acknowledgement or by the external TA input. If the external TA is used, the peripheral has total control on the number of wait states.

NOTE

External devices should only assert \overline{TA} while the \overline{FBCSn} signal to the external device is asserted.

17.5 Chip-Select Operation

Each chip-select has a dedicated set of the following registers for configuration and control:

- Chip-select address registers (CSARn) control the base address space of the chip-select. See [Section 17.5.2.1, "Chip-Select Address Registers \(CSAR0–CSAR5\)](#page-399-0)."
- Chip-select mask registers (CSMRn) provide 16-bit address masking and access control. See [Section 17.5.2.2, "Chip-Select Mask Registers \(CSMR0–CSMR5\).](#page-400-0)"
- Chip-select control registers (CSCRn) provide port size and burst capability indication, wait-state generation, address setup and hold times, and automatic acknowledge generation features. See [Section 17.5.2.3, "Chip-Select Control Registers \(CSCR0–CSCR5\).](#page-401-0)"

FBCS0 is a global chip-select after reset and provides re-locatable boot ROM capability.

17.5.1 General Chip-Select Operation

When a bus cycle is initiated, the MCF548*x* first compares its address with the base address and mask configurations programmed for chip-selects 0–5 (configured in CSCR0–CSCR5). If the driven address matches a programmed chip-select, the appropriate chip-select is asserted fulfilling the requirements as programmed in the respective configuration register.

17.5.1.1 8-, 16-, and 32-Bit Port Sizing

Static bus sizing is programmable through the port size bits, CSCR[PS]. See [Section 17.5.2.3,](#page-401-0) ["Chip-Select Control Registers \(CSCR0–CSCR5\).](#page-401-0)" Note that the MCF548*x* always drives 32-bit address on the AD bus in the first cycle regardless of the external device's address size. The external device must connect its address lines to the appropriate AD bits starting from AD0 and upward. It must also connect its data lines to the AD bus starting from the AD31 and downward. No bit ordering is required when connecting address and data lines to the AD bus. For example, a 16-bit address/16-bit data device would connect its addr[15:0] to AD[15:0] and data[15:0] to AD[31:16]. See [Figure 17-6](#page-404-0) for graphical connection.

17.5.1.2 Global Chip-Select Operation

1

FBCS0, the global (boot) chip-select, allows address decoding for boot ROM before system initialization. Its operation differs from other external chip-select outputs after system reset.

After system reset, $\overline{\text{FBCSO}}$ is asserted for every external access. No other chip-select can be used until the valid bit, CSMR0[V], is set, at which point FBCS0 functions as configured. After this, FBCS[5:1] can be used as well. At reset, the port size, and automatic acknowledge functions of the global chip-select are determined by the logic levels on the AD[2:0] signals. [Table 17-3](#page-397-0), [Table 17-4,](#page-398-0) and [Table 17-5](#page-398-1) list the various reset encodings for the configuration signals.

If the non-multiplexed 32-bit address/32-bit data mode is selected the PCI bus cannot be used.

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Chip-Select Operation

Table 17-4. AD[2]/AA Automatic Acknowledge of Boot FBCS0

Table 17-5. AD[1:0]/PS[1:0], Port Size of Boot FBCS0

17.5.2 Chip-Select Registers

The following tables describe in detail the registers and bit meanings for configuring chip-select operation. The chip-select controller register map is accessed relative to the memory base address register (MBAR). [Table 17-6](#page-398-2) shows the chip-select register memory map. Reading unused or reserved locations terminates normally and returns zeros.

Table 17-6. Chip-Select Registers

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Table 17-6. Chip-Select Registers (Continued)

1 The access column indicates whether the corresponding register allows both read/write functionality (R/W), read-only functionality (R), or write-only functionality (W). A read access to a write-only register returns zeros. A write access to a read-only register has no effect.

2 Addresses not assigned to a register and undefined register bits are reserved for expansion. Write accesses to these reserved address spaces and reserved register bits have no effect.

17.5.2.1 Chip-Select Address Registers (CSAR0–CSAR5)

CSAR*n*, [Figure 17-3,](#page-399-1) specify the chip-select base addresses.

Figure 17-3. Chip-Select Address Registers (CSARn)

Table 17-7. CSARn Field Descriptions

17.5.2.2 Chip-Select Mask Registers (CSMR0–CSMR5)

CSMR*n*, [Figure 17-4,](#page-400-1) are used to specify the address mask and allowable access types for the respective chip-selects.

[Table 17-8](#page-400-2) describes CSMR fields.

17.5.2.3 Chip-Select Control Registers (CSCR0–CSCR5)

Each CSCR*n*, [Figure 17-5,](#page-401-1) controls the auto acknowledge, address setup and hold times, port size, burst capability, and activation of each chip-select. Note that to support the global chip-select, FBCS0, the CSCR0 reset values differ from the other CSCRs. FBCS0 allows address decoding for boot ROM before system initialization.

[Table 17-9](#page-401-2) describes CSCR*n* fields.

Table 17-9. CSCRn Field Descriptions (Continued)

17.6 Functional Description

17.6.1 Data Transfer Operation

Data transfers between the MCF548*x* and other devices involve the following signals:

- Address/data bus (AD[31:0])
- Control signals (ALE and \overline{TA})
- FBCS*n*
- OE
- BE/BWE[3:0]
- Attribute signals $(R/\overline{W}, \overline{TBST}, TSIZ[1:0])$

The address and write data (AD[31:0]), R/W, ALE, FBCS*n,* and all attribute signals change on the rising edge of the clock. Read data is registered in the MCF548*x* on the rising edge of the clock.

The MCF548*x* FlexBus supports byte, word, and longword operand transfers and allows accesses to 8-, 16-, and 32-bit data ports.Transfer parameters such as address setup and hold, port size, the number of wait states for the external device being accessed, automatic internal transfer termination enable or disable, and burst enable or disable are programmed in the chip-select control registers (CSCRs), [Section 17.5.2.3,](#page-401-0) ["Chip-Select Control Registers \(CSCR0–CSCR5\).](#page-401-0)"

17.6.2 Data Byte Alignment and Physical Connections

The MCF548*x* aligns data transfers in FlexBus byte lanes, the number of lanes depending on the width of the data port. [Figure 17-6](#page-404-0) shows the byte lanes that external memory should be connected to and the sequential transfers if a longword is transferred for three port sizes. For example, an 8-bit memory should be connected to the single lane AD[31:24]. A longword transfer through this 8-bit port takes four transfers on AD[31:24], starting with the MSB and going to the LSB. A longword transfer through a 32-bit port requires one transfer on each of the four byte lanes of the FlexBus.

Figure 17-6. Connections for External Memory Port Sizes

17.6.3 Address/Data Bus Multiplexing

The MCF548*x* FlexBus uses a 32-bit wide multiplexed address and data bus (AD[31:0]). The full 32-bit address will always be driven on the first clock of a bus cycle. During the data phase, which AD[31:0] lines are used for data is determined by the programmed port size for the corresponding chip select. The MCF548*x* continues to drive the address on any AD[31:0] lines that are not used for data.

[Table 17-10](#page-404-1) lists the supported combinations of address and data bus widths.

Port Size	Address Signals During Address Phase	Data Signals During Data Phase	Address Signals During Data Phase
32 -bit ¹	AD[31:0]	AD[31:0]	--
16-bit	AD[31:0]	AD[31:16]	AD[15:0]
8-bit	AD[31:0]	AD[31:24]	AD[23:0]

Table 17-10. FlexBus Operating Modes

 1 The 32-bit Address/32-bit Data non-multiplexed mode uses the PCI address/data bus to provide a second 32-bit bus for the address. PCI cannot be used if this mode is selected.

17.6.4 Bus Cycle Execution

As shown in [Figure 17-9](#page-407-0) and [Figure 17-11](#page-408-0), basic bus operations occur in four clocks, as follows:

- 1. At the first clock edge, the address, attributes, and ALE are driven.
- 2. FBCS*n* is asserted at the second rising clock edge to indicate which device has been selected and by that time the address and attributes are valid and stable. ALE is negated at this edge. For a write transfer, data is driven on the bus at this clock edge and continues to be driven until one clock cycle after FBCS*n* negates. For a read transfer, data is also returned at this cycle.

External slave asserts \overline{TA} at this clock edge.

3. Read data and \overline{TA} are sampled on the third clock edge. \overline{TA} can be negated after this edge and read data can then be tristated.

4. FBCS*n* is negated at the fourth rising clock edge. This last clock of the bus cycle uses what would be an idle clock between cycles to provide hold time for address, attributes, and write data.

17.6.4.1 Data Transfer Cycle States

The data transfer operation in the MCF548*x* is controlled by an on-chip state machine. The state transition diagram for basic read and write cycles is shown in [Figure 17-7](#page-405-0).

Figure 17-7. Data Transfer State Transition Diagram

[Table 17-11](#page-405-1) describes the states as they appear in subsequent timing diagrams.

17.6.5 FlexBus Timing Examples

17.6.5.1 Basic Read Bus Cycle

During a read cycle, the MCF548*x* receives data from memory or from a peripheral device. [Figure 17-8](#page-406-0) is a read cycle flowchart.

NOTE

Throughout this chapter AD[*X*:0] is used to indicate an address bus that can be 32-, 24-, or 16-bits in width. AD[31:*Y*] is a data bus that can be 32-, 16-, or 8-bits wide.

Figure 17-8. Read Cycle Flowchart

The read cycle timing diagram is shown in [Figure 17-9](#page-407-0).

NOTE

In the following timing diagrams, the dotted lines indicate \overline{TA} , \overline{OE} , and $\overline{\text{FBCSn}}$ timing when internal termination is used (CSCR[AA] = 1). The external and internal TA assert at the same time; however, TA is not driven externally for internally terminated bus cycles.

Figure 17-9. Basic Read Bus Cycle

17.6.5.2 Basic Write Bus Cycle

During a write cycle, the MCF548*x* sends data to memory or to a peripheral device. The write cycle flowchart is shown in [Figure 17-10.](#page-407-1)

NOTE

Throughout this chapter AD[*X*:0] is used to indicate an address bus that can be 32-, 24-, or 16-bits in width. AD[31:*Y*] is a data bus that can be 32-, 16-, or 8-bits wide.

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The write cycle timing diagram is shown in [Figure 17-11.](#page-408-0)

Figure 17-11. Basic Write Bus Cycle

17.6.5.3 Bus Cycle Multiplexing

This section shows timing diagrams for various port size scenarios. [Figure 17-12](#page-409-0) illustrates the basic word read transfer to a 16-bit device with no wait states. The address is driven on the full AD[31:0] bus in the first clock. The MCF548*x* tristates AD[31:16] on the second clock and continues to drive address on AD[15:0] throughout the bus cycle. The external device returns the read data on AD[31:16] and may tristate the data line or continue to drive the data one clock after TA is sampled asserted.

Figure 17-12. Single Word Read Transfer with Muxed 32-A / 16-D or Non-Muxed 16-A / 16-D

[Figure 17-13](#page-409-1) shows the similar configuration for a write transfer. The data is driven from the second clock on AD[31:16].

or Non-Muxed 16-A / 16-D

Functional Description

[Figure 17-14](#page-410-0) illustrates the basic byte read transfer to an 8-bit device with no wait states. The address is driven on the full AD[31:0] bus in the first clock. The MCF548*x* tristates AD[31:24] on the second clock and continues to drive address on AD[23:0] throughout the bus cycle. The external device returns the read data on AD[31:24], and may tristate the data line or continue to drive the data one clock after \overline{TA} is sampled asserted.

[Figure 17-15](#page-411-0) shows the similar configuration for a write transfer. The data is driven from the second clock on AD[31:24].

Figure 17-15. Single Byte Write Transfer with Muxed 32-A / 8-D or Non-Muxed 24-A / 8-D

[Figure 17-16](#page-411-1) depicts a longword read through a 32-bit device. Notice that when the device port size is 32 bits, the only mode the bus supports is multiplexing address and data lines.

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[Figure 17-17](#page-412-0) illustrates the longword write to a 32-bit device.

Figure 17-17. Longword Write Transfer with Muxed 32-A / 32-D

17.6.5.4 Timing Variations

The MCF548*x* has several features that can be used to change the timing characteristics of a basic read or write bus cycle to provide additional address setup, address hold, and time for a device to provide or latch data.

17.6.5.4.1 Wait States

Wait states can be inserted before each beat of a transfer by programming the CSCR*n* registers. Wait states can be used to give the peripheral or memory more time to return read data or sample write data.

[Figure 17-18](#page-413-0) and [Figure 17-19](#page-413-1) show the basic read and write bus cycles (also shown in [Figure 17-9](#page-407-0) and [Figure 17-11\)](#page-408-0). This is the default case with no wait states.

Figure 17-18. Basic Read Bus Cycle (No Wait States)

Figure 17-19. Basic Write Bus Cycle (No Wait States)

If wait states are used, then the S1 state will repeat continuously until either the internal \overline{TA} is asserted by the chip select auto-acknowledge unit or the external TA is recognized as asserted. [Figure 17-20](#page-414-0) and [Figure 17-21](#page-414-1) show a read and write cycle with one wait state.

Figure 17-20. Read Bus Cycle (One Wait State)

17.6.5.4.2 Address Setup and Hold

The timing of the assertion and negation of the chip selects, byte selects, and output enable can be programmed on a chip select basis. Each chip select can be programmed to assert one to four clocks after address latch enable (ALE) is asserted. [Figure 17-22](#page-415-0) and [Figure 17-23](#page-415-1) show read and write bus cycles with two clocks of address setup.

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Figure 17-22. Read Bus Cycle with Two Clock Address Setup (No Wait States)

Figure 17-23. Write Bus Cycle with Two Clock Address Setup (No Wait States)

In addition to address setup, there is also a programmable address hold option for each chip select. Address and attributes can be held one to four clocks after chip select, byte selects, and output enable negate. [Figure 17-24](#page-416-0) and [Figure 17-25](#page-416-1) show read and write bus cycles with two clocks of address hold.

Functional Description

Figure 17-24. Read Cycle with Two Clock Address Hold (No Wait States)

Figure 17-25. Write Cycle with Two Clock Address Hold (No Wait States)

[Figure 17-26](#page-417-0) shows a bus cycle that uses address setup, wait states, and address hold.

17.6.6 Burst Cycles

The MCF548*x* can be programmed to initiate burst cycles if its transfer size exceeds the size of the port it is transferring to. The initiation of a burst cycle is encoded on the size pins. For burst transfers to smaller port sizes, TSIZ[1:0] indicate the size of the entire transfer. For example, with bursting enabled, a word transfer to an 8-bit port would take a 2-byte burst cycle, for which $\overline{TSIZ}[1:0] = 10$ throughout. A longword transfer to an 8-bit port would take a 4-byte burst cycle, for which TSIZ[1:0] = 00 throughout.

With bursting disabled, any transfer is larger than port size is broken into multiple individual transfers. With bursting enabled, an access is larger than port size would result a burst cycle of multiple beats. [Table 17-12](#page-417-1) shows the result of such transfer translations.

The MCF548*x* bus can support 2-1-1-1 burst cycles and optimize DMA transfers. A user can add wait states by delaying termination of the cycle. If internal termination is used, different wait state counters can be used for the first access and the following beats.

NOTE

Line-sized transfers requested by the core or cache are broken up into four individual longword transfers, but the DMA can request line-sized transfers when the read line or combine write flags are set. See [Section 24.4.9, "Line](#page-721-0) [Buffers,](#page-721-0)" for more information.

CSCRs are used to enable bursting for reads, writes, or both. Memory spaces can be declared burst-inhibited for reads and writes by clearing the appropriate CSCR*n*[BSTR,BSTW].

[Figure 17-27](#page-418-0) shows a longword read through an 8-bit device programmed for burst enable. The transfer results in a 4-beat burst and the data is driven on AD[31:24]. Notice that the transfer size is driven at longword (2'b00) throughout the bus cycle.

Figure 17-27. Longword Read Burst from 8-Bit Port 2-1-1-1 (No Wait States)

[Figure 17-28](#page-419-0) shows a longword write through an 8-bit device programmed for burst enable. The transfer results in a 4-beat burst and the data is driven on AD[31:24]. Notice that the transfer size is driven at longword (2'b00) throughout the bus cycle.

Figure 17-28. Longword Write Burst to 8-Bit Port 2-1-1-1 (No Wait States)

[Figure 17-29](#page-419-1) shows a longword read through an 8-bit device with burst inhibited. The transfer results in four individual transfers. Notice that the transfer size is driven at longword (2'b00) during the first transfer and at byte (2'b01) during the next three transfers.

Figure 17-29. Longword Read Burst-Inhibited from 8-Bit Port (No Wait States)

[Figure 17-30](#page-420-0) shows a longword write through an 8-bit device with burst inhibited. The transfer results in four individual transfers. Notice that the transfer size is driven at longword (2'b00) during the first transfer and at byte (2'b01) during the next three transfers.

Figure 17-30. Longword Write Burst-Inhibited to 8-Bit Port (No Wait States)

[Figure 17-31](#page-420-1) illustrates another read burst transfer, but in this case a wait state is added between individual beats.

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[Figure 17-31](#page-420-1) illustrates a write burst transfer with one wait state.

If address setup and hold are used, only the first and last beat of the burst cycle will be affected as shown in [Figure 17-33.](#page-421-0)

Figure 17-34. Longword Write Burst to 8-Bit Port 3-1-1-1 (Address Setup and Hold)

17.6.7 Misaligned Operands

Because operands, unlike opcodes, can reside at any byte boundary, they are allowed to be misaligned. A byte operand is properly aligned at any address, a word operand is misaligned at an odd address, and a longword is misaligned at an address not a multiple of four. Although the MCF548*x* enforces no alignment restrictions for data operands (including program counter (PC) relative data addressing), additional bus cycles are required for misaligned operands.

Instruction words and extension words (opcodes) must reside on word boundaries. Attempting to prefetch a misaligned instruction word causes an address error exception.

The MCF548*x* converts misaligned, cache-inhibited operand accesses to multiple aligned accesses. [Figure 17-35](#page-422-1) shows the transfer of a longword operand from a byte address to a 32-bit port. First a byte is transferred at an offset of 0x1. The slave device supplies the byte and acknowledges the data transfer. When the MCF548*x* starts the second cycle, a word is transferred with a byte offset of 0x2. The next two bytes are transferred in this cycle. In the third cycle, byte 3 is transferred. The byte offset is now 0x0, the port supplies the final byte, and the operation is complete.

	31	24 23	16 15 8		A[2:0]
Transfer 1		Byte 0			001
Transfer 2			Byte 1	Byte 2	010
Transfer 3	Byte 3				100

Figure 17-35. Example of a Misaligned Longword Transfer (32-Bit Port)

If an operand is cacheable and is misaligned across a cache-line boundary, both lines are loaded into the cache. The example in [Figure 17-36](#page-423-0) differs from the one in [Figure 17-35](#page-422-1) because the operand is word-sized and the transfer takes only two bus cycles.

Figure 17-36. Example of a Misaligned Word Transfer (32-Bit Port)

17.6.8 Bus Errors

The MCF548*x* has no bus monitor. If the auto-acknowledge feature is not enabled for the address that generates the error, the bus cycle can be terminated by asserting \overline{TA} or by using the software watchdog timer. If it is required that the MCF548*x* handle a bus error differently, an interrupt handler can be invoked by asserting an interrupt to the core along with TA when the bus error occurs.

18.1 Introduction

This chapter describes configuration and operation of the synchronous DRAM (SDRAM) controller. It begins with a general overview and includes a description of signals involved in SDRAM operations. The remainder of the chapter describes the programming model and signal timing, as well as the command set required for synchronous DRAM operations. It also includes examples that the designer can follow to better understand how to configure the SDRAM controller for synchronous operations.

18.2 Overview

18.2.1 Features

The MCF548*x* SDRAM controller contains the following features:

- Supports a glueless interface to SDR and DDR SDRAMs
- 32-bit fixed memory port width
- 64-bit data bus interface to internal XLB 64-bit bus
- 32 bytes critical word first burst transfer
- Up to 13 row address lines, up to 12 column address lines, 2 bits of bank address, and a maximum of four chip selects. The maximum row bits plus column bits can be less than or equal to 24.
- Supports up to 1 Gbyte of memory—13+11 or 12+12 bit RA+CA, 2 bit BA, four chip selects
- Minimum memory configuration of 8 Mbyte—11 bit row address (RA), 8 bit column address (CA), 2 bit bank address (BA) and one chip select
- Supports page mode to maximize the data rate
- Supports sleep mode and self-refresh mode
- Error detect and parity check are not supported

18.2.2 Terminology

The following terminology is used in this chapter:

- SDRAM block: Any group of DRAM memories selected by one of the MCF548*x* SDCS[3:0] signals. Thus, the MCF548*x* can support up to four independent memory blocks. The base address of each block is programmed in the DRAM address and control registers (DACR0 and DACR1).
- SDRAM bank: An internal partition in an SDRAM device. For example, a 64-Mbit SDRAM component might be configured as four 512K x 32 banks. Banks are selected through the SD_BA[1:0] signals.
- SDRAM: These are RAMs that operate like asynchronous DRAMs but with a synchronous clock, a pipelined, multiple-bank architecture, and a faster speed.
- Single data rate (SDR) SDRAM: This is SDRAM that drives/latches data and command information on the rising edge of the clock.
- Double data rate (DDR) SDRAM: This is SDRAM that latches command information on the rising edge of the clock, but data is driven/latched on both the rising and falling edges of the clock rather than on just the rising edge. This doubles data throughput rate without an increase in frequency.

18.2.3 Block Diagram

Figure 18-1. SDRAM Controller Block Diagram

18.3 External Signal Description

18.3.1 SDRAM Data Bus (SDDATA[31:0])

SDDATA[31:0] is the bidirectional, non-multiplexed data bus used for SDRAM accesses. Data is sampled by the MCF548*x* on the rising edge of SDCLK when in SDR mode, and on both the rising and falling edge of SDCLK when in DDR mode.

18.3.2 SDRAM Address Bus (SDADDR[12:0])

The SDADDR[12:0] signals are the 13-bit, uni-directional address bus used for multiplexed row and column addresses during SDRAM bus cycles. The address multiplexing supports up to 256 Mbytes of SDRAM per chip select.

18.3.3 SDRAM Bank Addresses (SDBA[1:0])

Each SDRAM module has four internal row banks. The SDBA[1:0] signals are used to select the row bank. It is also used to select the SDRAM internal mode register during power-up initialization.

18.3.4 SDRAM Row Address Strobe (RAS)

This output is the SDRAM synchronous row address strobe.

18.3.5 SDRAM Column Address Strobe (CAS)

This output is the SDRAM synchronous column address strobe.

18.3.6 SDRAM Chip Selects (SDCS[3:0])

These signals interface to the chip select lines of the SDRAMs within a memory block. Thus, there is one SDCS line for each memory block (the MCF548*x* supports up to four SDRAM memory blocks).

18.3.7 SDRAM Write Data Byte Mask (SDDM[3:0])

These output signals are sampled by the SDRAM on both edges of SDDQS to determine which byte lanes of the SDRAM data bus should be latched during a write cycle. In DDR mode, these bits are ignored during read operations.

18.3.8 SDRAM Data Strobe (SDDQS[3:0])

These bidirectional signals indicate when valid data is on the SDRAM data bus. [Table 18-1](#page-426-0) shows the correspondence between SDDATA byte lanes and the SDDQS and SDDM signals.

Byte Lane	SDDQS	SDDM
SDDATA[31:24] (MSB)	SDDQS3	SDDM3
SDDATA[23:16]	SDDQS2	SDDM ₂
SDDATA[15:8]	SDDQS1	SDDM ₁
SDDATA[7:0] (LSB)	SDDQ _{S0}	SDDM ₀

Table 18-1. SDDQS and SDDM to Byte Lane Mapping

18.3.9 SDRAM Clock (SDCLK[1:0])

This is the output clock for SDRAM accesses.

18.3.10 Inverted SDRAM Clock (SDCLK[1:0])

This is the inverted version of the SDRAM clock. It is used with SDCLK to provide the differential clocks for DDR SDRAM.

18.3.11 SDRAM Write Enable (SDWE)

The SDRAM write enable (SDWE) is asserted to signify that a DRAM write cycle is underway. A read cycle is indicated by the negation of SDWE.

18.3.12 SDRAM Clock Enable (SDCKE)

This output is the SDRAM clock enable. SDCKE negates to put the SDRAM into low-power, self-refresh mode.

18.3.13 SDR SDRAM Data Strobe (SDRDQS)

This is connected to SDDQS inputs. It is used in SDR mode only.

18.3.14 SDRAM Memory Supply (SDVDD)

These pins supply positive power to the SDRAM module. SDVDD should be connected to +2.5V for DDR operation and +3.3V for SDR.

18.3.15 SDRAM Reference Voltage (VREF)

This is the input reference voltage for differential SSTL_2 inputs. It is used in both DDR and SDR modes. For DDR VREF should be connected to 1.25V, and for SDR VREF should be connected to 1.5V.

18.4 Interface Recommendations

18.4.1 Supported Memory Configurations

The SDRAM controller supports up to 13 row addresses and up to 12 column addresses. However, the maximum row and column addresses are not supported at the same time. The number of row and column addresses must be less than or equal to 24. In addition to row/column address lines, there are always two row bank address bits. Therefore, the greatest possible address space which can be accessed using a single chip select is (2^{26}) x 32 bits, or 256 Mbytes.

[Table 18-2](#page-428-0) shows the address multiplexing used by the MCF548*x* for different configurations. When the SDRAM controller receives the internal module enable, it latches the internal bus address lines addr[27:2] and multiplexes them into row, column and row bank addresses. addr[9:2] are always used for $CA[7:0]$, addr[11:10] are always used for BA[1:0], and addr[23:12] are always used for RA[11:0]. addr[27:24] can be used for additional row or column address bits, as needed.

NOTE

The SDRAMC only supports an external 32-bit data bus. It is not possible to connect a smaller device(s) to only part of the SDRAM's data bus. For example, if 16-bit wide devices are used, then you must use two 16-bit devices connected as a 32-bit port.

All memory devices of a single chip select block must have the same configuration and row/col address width; however, this is not necessary between different blocks. If mixing different memory organizations in different blocks, the following guidelines will ensure that every block is fully contiguous.

- If all devices' row address width is 12 bits, the column address can be ≥ 8 bits.
- If all devices' row address width is 13 bits, the column address can be ≥ 8 bits.
- If all devices' column address width is 8 bits, the row address can be ≥ 11 bits.
- x8 and x16 data width memory devices can be mixed (but not in the same space).
- x32 data width memory devices cannot be mixed with any other width.

18.4.2 SDRAM SDR Connections

[Figure 18-2](#page-429-0) shows a block diagram of the connections between the MCF548*x* and SDR SDRAM components. SDR design requires special timing consideration for the SDDQS[3:0] signals. For reads from DDR SDRAMs, the memory will drive the DQS pins so that the data lines and DQS signals have concurrent edges. The MCF548*x* SDRAMC is designed to latch data 1/4 clock after the SDDQS[3:0] edge. For DDR SDRAM, this ensures that the latch time is in the middle of the data valid window.

The SDRAMC also uses the SDDQS[3:0] signals to determine when read data can be latched for SDR SDRAM; however, SDR memories do not provide DQS outputs. Instead the SDRAMC provides an SDRDQS output that is routed back into the controller as SDDQS[3:0]. The SDRDQS signal should be routed such that the valid data from the SDRAM reaches the MCF548*x* at the same time or just before the SDRDQS reaches the SDDQS[3:0] inputs. When routing SDRDQS the outbound trace length should be matched to the SDCLK trace length. This will align SDRDQS to the SDCLK as if the memory had generated the DQS pulse. The inbound trace should be routed along the data path. This should synchronize the SDDQS so that the data is latched in the middle of the data valid window.

Figure 18-2. MCF548x Connections to SDR SDRAM

18.4.3 SDRAM DDR Component Connections

[Figure 18-3](#page-430-0) shows a block diagram of the connections between the MCF548*x* and DDR SDRAM components.

Figure 18-3. MCF548x Connections to DDR SDRAM

18.4.4 SDRAM DDR DIMM Connections

There is a JEDEC standard for a 100-pin DDR DIMM with a 32-bit wide data bus. This DIMM standard was designed specifically to support 32-bit processors. The MCF548*x* can support current DIMM configurations up to 512 Mbytes.

[Figure](#page-431-0) shows a block diagram of the connections between the MCF548*x* and DDR SDRAM DIMMs.

Figure 18-4. MCF548x Connections to 100-pin DDR SDRAM DIMM

18.4.5 DDR SDRAM Layout Considerations

Due to the critical timing for DDR SDRAM, there are a number of considerations that should be taken into account during PCB layout:

- Minimize overall trace lengths.
- Each DQS, DM, and DQ group must have identical loading and similar routing to maintain timing integrity.
- Control and clock signals are routed point-to-point.
- Trace length for clock, address, and command signals should match.
- Route DDR signals on layers adjacent to the ground plane.
- Use a VREF plane under the SDRAM.
- VREF is decoupled from both SDVDD and VSS.
- To avoid crosstalk, keep address and command signals separate from data and data strobes.
- Use different resistor packs for command/address and data/data strobes.
- Use single series, single parallel termination (25 Ω series, 50 Ω parallel values are recommended, but standard resistor packs with similar values can be substituted).
- Series termination should be between the MCF548*x* and memory, but closest to the processor.
- The parallel termination at end of the signal line (close to the SDRAM).
- 0.1 uF decoupling for every termination resistor pack.

18.4.5.1 Termination Example

[Figure 18-5](#page-432-0) shows the recommended termination circuitry for DDR SDRAM signals.

Figure 18-5. MCF548x DDR SDRAM Termination Circuit

18.5 SDRAM Overview

18.5.1 SDRAM Commands

When an internal bus master accesses SDRAM address space, the memory controller generates the corresponding SDRAM command. [Table 18-3](#page-432-1) lists SDRAM commands supported by the memory controller.

Function	Symbol	CKE	cs	RAS	CAS	WE	BA[1:0]	AP/C MD	Other A
Command Inhibit	INH	Н	Н	X	X	X	X	X	X
No Operation	NOP	н	L	H	H	н	X	X	X
Row and Bank Active	ACTV	H	L	L	H	H	\vee	\vee	\vee
Read	READ	Н	L	H	L	н	\vee		\vee
Write	WRITE	н	L	H	L	L	V	L	\vee
Precharge All Banks	PALL	H	L	L	H	L	X	H	X
Load Mode Register	LMR	Н	L				LL	\vee	\vee
Load Extended Mode Register	LEMR	Н	L			L	LН	\vee	\vee
CBR Auto Refresh	REF	H	L			н	X	X	X

Table 18-3. SDRAM Commands

Table 18-3. SDRAM Commands (Continued)

Many commands require a delay before the next command may be issued; sometimes the delay depends on the type of the next command. These delay requirements are managed by the values programmed in the memory controller configuration registers (SDCFG1, SDCFG2).

18.5.1.1 Row and Bank Active Command (ACTV)

The ACTV command is responsible for latching the row and bank address and activating the specified row in the memory array. Once the row is activated, it can be accessed using subsequent READ and WRITE commands.

NOTE

The SDRAMC will support one active row for each chip select block. See [Section 18.6.1, "Page Management](#page-438-0)" for more information.

18.5.1.2 Read Command (READ)

When the SDRAMC receives a read request, it first checks the row and bank of the new access. If the address falls within the active row of an active bank, it is a page hit, and the READ is issued as soon as possible (pending any delays required by previous commands). If the address is within the active row, but the needed bank is inactive, or if there is no active row, the memory controller will issue an ACTV followed by the READ command. If the address is not within the active row, the memory controller will issue a PALL command to close the active row. Then the SDRAMC issues ACTV to activate the necessary bank and row for the new access, followed finally by the READ to the SDRAM.

The PALL and ACTV commands (if necessary) can sometimes be issued in parallel with an on-going data movement.

All reads, whether burst or single, must be allowed to complete the entire burst length on the memory bus. With SDR memory, the data masks are *negated* throughout the entire read burst length. With DDR memory, the data masks are *asserted* throughout the entire read burst length; but DDR memory ignores the data masks during reads.

18.5.1.3 Write Command (WRITE)

When the memory controller receives a write request, it first checks the row and bank of the new access. If the address falls within the active row of an active bank, it is a page hit, and the WRITE is issued as soon as possible (pending any delays required by previous commands). If the address is within the active row but the needed bank is inactive, or if there is no active row, the memory controller will issue an ACTV followed by the WRITE command. If the address is not within the active row, the memory controller will

issue a PALL command to close the active row. Then the SDRAMC issues ACTV to activate the necessary row and bank for the new access, followed finally by the WRITE command.

The PALL and ACTV commands (if necessary) can sometimes be issued in parallel with an on-going data movement.

With both SDR and DDR memory, a read command can be issued overlapping the masked beats at the end of a previous single write of the same SDCS; the read command aborts the remaining (unnecessary) write beats. This is not possible with SDR memory, because SDR memory cannot be read with the masks asserted.

18.5.1.4 Precharge All Banks Command (PALL)

The precharge command puts SDRAM into an idle state. The SDRAM must be in this idle state before a REF, LMR, LEMR, or ACTV command to open a new row within a particular bank can be issued.

The memory controller issues the PALL command only when necessary for one of the following conditions:

- Access to a new row
- Refresh interval elapsed
- Software commanded precharge

NOTE

The SDRAMC does not support the precharge selected bank memory command.

18.5.1.5 Load Mode/Extended Mode Register Command (LMR, LEMR)

All SDRAM devices contain mode registers that are used to configure the timing and burst mode for the SDRAM. These commands are used to access the mode registers that physically reside within the SDRAM devices. During the LMR or LEMR command the SDRAM will latch the address bus and load the value into the selected mode register.

NOTE

The LMR and LEMR commands are only used during SDRAM initialization.

The following steps should be used to write the mode register and extended mode register:

- 1. Set the SDCR[MODE_EN] bit.
- 2. Write the SDMR[BA] bits to select the mode register.
- 3. Write the desired mode register value to the SDMR[ADDR]. Don't overwrite the SDMR[BA] values.
- 4. Set the SDMR[CMD] bit.
- 5. For DDR, repeat from step [2](#page-434-0) for the extended mode register.
- 6. Clear the SDCR[MODE_EN] bit.

18.5.1.5.1 Mode Register Definition

[Figure 18-6](#page-435-0) shows the mode register definition. Note that this is the SDRAM's mode register not the SDRAMC's mode/extended mode register (SDMR) defined in [Section 18.7.3, "SDRAM Mode/Extended](#page-442-0) [Mode Register \(SDMR\).](#page-442-0)"

Figure 18-6. Mode Register

Table 18-4. Mode Register Field Descriptions

Address Line	Description
BA[1:0]	Bank Address. These must both be zero to select the mode register.
$A11 - A7$	Operating Mode. 00000 Normal Operation 00010 Reset DLL Other values should not be used.
$A6 - A4$	CAS latency. Delay in clocks from issuing a READ to valid data out. Check the SDRAM manufacturer's spec as the CASL settings supported can vary from memory to memory.
A3	Burst Type. 0 Sequential Interleaved. This setting should not be used since the SDRAMC does not support interleaved bursts.
$A2 - A0$	Burst length. Determines the number of locations that are accessed for a single READ or WRITE. One. This is only a valid setting for SDR. 000 001 Two $010 -$ Four 011 Eight (This value should be used for the MCF548x SDRAMC) 100-110 Reserved Full page. This setting should not be used since full page bursting is not supported by the 111 SDRAMC.

18.5.1.5.2 Extended Mode Register Definition

[Figure 18-7](#page-435-1) shows the extended mode register used by DDR SDRAMs. Note that this is the SDRAM's extended mode register, not the SDRAMC's mode/extended mode register (SDMR) defined in [Section 18.7.3, "SDRAM Mode/Extended Mode Register \(SDMR\)](#page-442-0)."

18.5.1.6 Auto Refresh Command (REF)

The memory controller issues auto refresh commands according to the SDCR[RC] value. Each time the programmed refresh interval elapses, the memory controller issues a PALL command followed by a REF command.

If a memory access is in progress at the time the refresh interval elapses, the memory controller schedules the refresh after the transfer is finished; but the interval timer continues counting so that the average refresh rate is constant.

After REF, the SDRAM is in an idle state and waits for an ACTV command.

18.5.1.7 Self-Refresh (SREF) and Power-Down (PDWN) Commands

The memory controller issues either a PDWN or a SREF command if the SDCR[CKE] bit is cleared. If the SDCR[REF] bit is set when CKE is negated, the controller issues a SREF command; if the REF bit is cleared, the controller issues a PDWN command. The REF bit may be changed in the same register write that changes the CKE bit; the controller will act upon the new value of the REF bit.

Just like a REF, the controller automatically issues a PALL command before the self-refresh command.

The memory is reactivated from power-down or self-refresh mode by setting the CKE bit.

If a normal refresh interval elapses while the memory is in self-refresh mode, a PALL and REF will be performed as soon as the memory is reactivated. If the memory is put into and brought out of self-refresh all within a single refresh interval, the next automatic refresh will occur on schedule.

In self-refresh mode, the memory does not require an external clock. To restart periodic refresh when the memory is reactivated, the REF bit must be reasserted. This can be done before the memory is reactivated, or in the same control register write that sets CKE to exit self-refresh mode.

18.5.2 Power-Up Initialization

SDRAMs have a prescribed initialization sequence. The following sections detail the memory initialization steps for both SDR and DDR SDRAM. The sequence might change slightly from device-to-device. Refer to the device datasheet as the most relevant reference.

18.5.2.1 SDR Initialization

SDR initialization requires the following steps:

- 1. After reset is deactivated, pause for the amount of time indicated in the SDRAM specification. Usually 100μs or 200μs.
- 2. Initialize the SDRAM drive strength (SDRAMDS) and SDRAM chip select configuration (CS*n*CFG) registers.
- 3. Program the SDRAM configuration registers (SDCFG1 and SDCFG2) with the correct delay and timing values.
- 4. Issue a PALL command. Initialize the SDRAM control register (SDCR) with SDCR[IPALL] set. The SDCR[MODE_EN, REF, and IREF] bits should all remain cleared for this step.
- 5. Refresh the SDRAM. The SDRAM spec should indicate a number of refresh cycles to be performed before issuing an LMR command. Write to the SDCR with the IREF bit set (SDCR[MODE_EN, REF, and IPALL] should be cleared). This will force a refresh of the SDRAM each time the IREF bit is set. Repeat this step until the specified number of refresh cycles have completed.
- 6. Set SDCR[REF] to enable automatic refreshing for the rest of the initialization and regular operation. SDCR[MODE_EN, REF, and IPALL] remain cleared.
- 7. Initialize the SDRAM's mode register using the LMR command. See [Section 18.5.1.5, "Load](#page-434-1) [Mode/Extended Mode Register Command \(LMR, LEMR\)"](#page-434-1) for more instruction on issuing an LMR command.

18.5.2.2 DDR Initialization

The steps for DDR initialization are similar to the SDR initialization sequence; however, there are some additional steps required for DDR:

- 1. After reset is deactivated, pause for the amount of time indicated in the SDRAM specification. Usually 100μs or 200μs.
- 2. Initialize the SDRAM drive strength (SDRAMDS) and SDRAM chip select configuration (CS*n*CFG) registers.
- 3. Program the SDRAM configuration registers (SDCFG1 and SDCFG2) with the correct delay and timing values.
- 4. Issue a PALL command. Initialize the SDRAM control register (SDCR) with SDCR[IPALL] set. The SDCR[REF, and IREF] bits should remain cleared for this step.
- 5. Initialize the SDRAM's extended mode register to enable the DLL. See [Section 18.5.1.5, "Load](#page-434-1) [Mode/Extended Mode Register Command \(LMR, LEMR\)"](#page-434-1) for instructions on issuing an LEMR command.
- 6. Initialize the SDRAM's mode register and reset the DLL using the LMR command. See [Section 18.5.1.5, "Load Mode/Extended Mode Register Command \(LMR, LEMR\)"](#page-434-1) for more instruction on issuing an LMR command. During this step the OP_MODE field of the mode register should be set to "normal operation/reset DLL."
- 7. Pause for the DLL lock time specified by the memory.

- 8. Issue a second PALL command. Initialize the SDRAM control register (SDCR) with SDCR[IPALL] set. The SDCR[REF, and IREF] bits should remain cleared for this step.
- 9. Refresh the SDRAM. The SDRAM spec should indicate a number of refresh cycles to be performed before issuing an LMR command. Write to the SDCR with the IREF bit set (SDCR[MODE_EN, REF, and IPALL] should be cleared). This will force a refresh of the SDRAM each time the IREF bit is set. Repeat this step until the specified number of refresh cycles have been completed.
- 10. Initialize the SDRAM's mode register using the LMR command. See [Section 18.5.1.5, "Load](#page-434-1) [Mode/Extended Mode Register Command \(LMR, LEMR\)"](#page-434-1) for more instruction on issuing an LMR command. During this step the OP MODE field of the mode register should be set to "normal operation."
- 11. Set SDCR[REF] to enable automatic refreshing, and clear SDCR[MODE_EN] to lock the SDMR. SDCR[MODE_EN, IREF, and IPALL] remain cleared.

18.6 Functional Overview

18.6.1 Page Management

SDRAM devices have four internal banks. A particular row and bank of memory must be activated to allow read and write accesses. The SDRAM controller supports paging mode to maximize the memory access throughput. During operation, the SDRAM controller maintains an open page address for each SDCS block. An open page is composed of the active rows in the internal banks.

SDRAMs can have a different row address open in each bank, but the SDRAMC does not support this. The page size of a SDCS block is equal to the space size divided by the number of rows; but the page may not be contiguous in the XLB address space because the internal address bits used for memory column address [11:8] and column address [7:0] are not consecutive.

Because the column address may be split across two portions of the XLB address, the contiguous page size is (number of banks) \times (256 columns) \times (number of bits). This gives a contiguous page size of 4 Kbytes. However, the total (possibly fragmented) page size is (number of banks) \times (number of columns) \times (number of bits).

If a new access does not fall in the open page of a SDCS block, the open page must be closed (PALL) and the new page must be opened (ACTV), then the READ or WRITE command can proceed. An ACTV command only activates one bank of a page. If another read or write falls in an inactive bank of the open page, another ACTV is needed but no precharge is needed. If a read or write falls in any of the active banks of the open page, no PALL or ACTV is needed; the read or write command can be issued immediately.

A page is kept open until one of the following conditions occurs:

- an access outside the open page
- a refresh cycle is started.

All SDCS blocks are refreshed at the same time; the refresh closes all banks of every SDRAM block.

18.6.2 Transfer Size

In the MCF548*x*, the internal data bus is 64 bits wide, while the SDRAM external interface bus is 32 bits wide. Therefore, each XLB data beat requires two memory data beats. The SDRAM controller manages the size translation (packing/unpacking) between 64- and 32-bit buses.

The SDRAM controller supports all possible XLB transfer sizes. SDRAMs are "burst only" devices; unnecessary beats on the memory bus are masked (write) or discarded (read).

The SDRAMC will perform line bursts (32 byte) for all SDRAM access. This requires two beats of 16 bytes on the XLB, or eight beats of 4 bytes (one longword) on the memory bus. The SDRAM controller transfers the critical longword first, followed by the next three sequential longwords.

The burst size and transfer order must be programmed in the SDRAM mode registers during initialization (SDMR); the burst size also must be programmed in the memory controller (SDCFG2).

In a write operation, the data masks, SDDM[3:0], are used to inhibit writing unused bytes of each beat. In a read operation, the excess read data is discarded.

18.7 Memory Map/Register Definition

The SDRAM controller contains four programming registers.

Table 18-6. SDRAMC Memory Map

18.7.1 SDRAM Drive Strength Register (SDRAMDS)

Figure 18-8. SDRAM Drive Strength Register (SDRAMDS)

Table 18-7. SDRAMDS Field Descriptions

Table 18-8. SDRAM Drive Strength Bit Encodings

¹ 3.3V is for SDR mode, 2.5V is for DDR mode

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18.7.2 SDRAM Chip Select Configuration Registers (CSnCFG)

Table 18-9. CFnCFG Field Descriptions

Any chip select can be enabled or disabled, independent of others. Any chip select can be allocated any size of address space from 1 Mbyte to 4 Gbyte, independent of others. Any chip select address space can begin at any size-aligned base address, independent of others.

For contiguous memory with different sizes of mem banks, place largest bank at lowest address, then place smaller banks in descending size order at ascending base address.

For example, assume $CS0 = 16M$, $CS1 = \text{empty}$, $CS2 = 64M$, $CS3 = 64M$, $CS4 = 256M$, $CS5 = \text{empty}$:

 $CSOCFG = 98000017 =$ enable 16M @ 0x9800 0000-0x98FF FFFF

 $CS1CFG = 00000000 = disable$

 $CS2CFG = 90000019 = 64M \& 0x9000 0000 - 0x93FF FFFF$

 $CS3CFG = 94000019 = 64M @ 0x9400 0000-0x97FF FFFF$ $CS4CFG = 8000001b = 256M \n\textcircled{a} 0x8000 0000-0x8FFF FFFF$ $CSCFG = 00000000 = \text{disable}$

This gives 400 Mbyte total memory, at 0x8000 0000-0x98FF FFFF

18.7.3 SDRAM Mode/Extended Mode Register (SDMR)

The SDMR, shown in [Figure 18-10](#page-442-1), is used to write to the mode and extended mode registers that physically reside within in the SDRAM chips. These registers must be programmed during SDRAM initialization. See [Section 18.5.2, "Power-Up Initialization"](#page-436-0) for more information on the initialization sequence.

Table 18-10. SDMR Field Descriptions

18.7.4 SDRAM Control Register (SDCR)

The SDCR, shown in [Figure 18-11,](#page-443-0) controls SDRAMC operating modes including the refresh count and address line muxing.

Figure 18-11. SDRAM Control Register (SDCR)

Table 18-11. SDCR Field Descriptions

18.7.5 SDRAM Configuration Register 1 (SDCFG1)

The 32-bit read/write SDRAM configuration register 1 (SDCFG1) stores delay values necessary between specific SDRAM commands. During initialization, software loads values to the register according to the selected SDCLK frequency and SDRAM specifications. This register is reset only by a power-up reset signal.

The read and write latency fields govern the relative timing of commands and data, and must be exact values. All other fields govern the relative timing from one command to another, they have minimum values but any larger value is also legal (but with decreased performance).

The minimum values of certain fields can be different for SDR and DDR SDRAM, even if the data sheet timing is the same, because:

- In SDR mode, the memory controller counts the delay in SDCLK
- In DDR mode, the memory controller counts the delay in SDCLK \times 2

SDCLK—memory controller clock—is the speed of the SDRAM interface and is equal to the internal bus clock.

SDCLK × 2—double frequency of SDCLK—DDR uses both edges of the bus-frequency clock (SDCLK) to read/write data

Figure 18-12. SDRAM Configuration Register 1 (SDCFG1)

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18.7.6 SDRAM Configuration Register 2 (SDCFG2)

The 32-bit read/write configuration register 2 stores delay values necessary between specific SDRAM commands. During initialization, software loads values to the register according to the SDRAM information obtained from the data sheet. This register is reset only by a power-up reset signal.

The burst length (BL) field must be exact. All other fields govern the relative timing from one command to another, they have minimum values, but any larger value is also legal (but with decreased performance).

All delays in this register are expressed in SDCLK.

Figure 18-13. SDRAM Configuration Register 2 (SDCFG2)

Table 18-13. SDCFG2 Field Descriptions

18.8 SDRAM Example

This example interfaces two 16M × 16-bit × 4 bank DDR SDRAM components to an MCF548*x* operating at a 120 MHz SDCLK frequency. [Table 18-14](#page-447-0) lists design specifications for this example.

Table 18-14. SDRAM Example Specifications

Parameter	Specification		
13 row and 9 column addresses			
Two bank-select lines to access four internal banks			
Allowable burst lengths	2, 4, or 8		
CAS latency	2		
Clock cycle time (t_{CK})	$7.5ns$ (min)		
$ACTV-to-read/write$ delay (t_{RCD})	15 ns (min) 18ns (max)		

18.8.1 SDRAM Signal Drive Strength Settings

The SDRAMDS should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-14.](#page-448-0) The settings assume the normal drive strength for 2.5V drive, 7.6mA, is sufficient for the loading in the system.

This configuration results in a value of $SDRAMDS = 0x0000_02AA$, as described in [Table 18-15.](#page-448-1)

Table 18-15. SDRAMDS Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Setting	Description
$31 - 10$		Ω	Reserved. Should be cleared
$9 - 8$	SB E	10	2.5V, 7.6mA SSTL_2 Class I drive
$7 - 6$	SB C	10	2.5V, 7.6mA SSTL 2 Class I drive
$5 - 4$	SB A	10	2.5V, 7.6mA SSTL_2 Class I drive
$3 - 2$	SB _S	10	2.5V, 7.6mA SSTL 2 Class I drive
$1 - 0$	SB D	10	2.5V, 7.6mA SSTL 2 Class I drive

18.8.2 SDRAM Chip Select Settings

For this example, the SDRAM will be connected to $\overline{\text{SDCS0}}$ with a base address of 0x0. All other chip selects are unused and do not need to be initialized. The CS0CFG should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-15](#page-449-0).

Figure 18-15. SDRAM Example Chip Select 0 Configuration Settings (CS0CFG)

This configuration results in a value of $SDRAMDS = 0x0000_0019$, as described in [Table 18-16](#page-449-1).

Table 18-16. CS0CFG Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Setting	Description
$31 - 20$	BA		Base address is set to 0x0
$19 - 5$			Reserved. Should be cleared.
$4 - 0$	CSSZ	1101	Total size is 64 Mbytes. 2 x 256Mbit = 64Mbytes

18.8.3 SDRAM Configuration 1 Register Settings

The SDCFG1 register should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-16.](#page-449-2)

Figure 18-16. SDRAM Example Configuration Register 1 Settings (SDCFG1)

This configuration results in a value of SDCFG1 = 0x7362_2830, as described in [Table 18-17](#page-449-3).

Table 18-17. SDCFG1 Field Descriptions

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Table 18-17. SDCFG1 Field Descriptions (Continued)

18.8.4 SDRAM Configuration 2 Register Settings

The SDCFG2 register should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-17.](#page-450-0)

Figure 18-17. SDRAM Example Configuration Register 2 Settings (SDCFG2)

This configuration results in a value of SDCFG2 = 0x4677_0000, as described in [Table 18-18](#page-450-1).

Table 18-18. SDCFG2 Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Setting	Description
$31 - 28$	BRD2PRE	0100	$BRD2PRE = burst length/2 = 8/2 = 4$
$27 - 24$	BWT2RW	0110	$BWT2RW = burst length/2 + tWR = 8/2 + 2 = 4 + 2 = 6$
$23 - 20$	BRD ₂ WT	0111	Ox7 is the recommended value for DDR
$19 - 16$	BL	0111	$BL = burst length - 1 = 8 - 1 = 7$
$15 - 0$		0	Reserved. Should be cleared.

18.8.5 SDRAM Control Register Settings and PALL command

The SDCR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-18](#page-451-0). Along with the base settings for the SDCR the MODE_EN and IPALL bits are set to issue a PALL command to the SDRAM and enable writing of the mode register.

Figure 18-18. SDRAM Control Register Settings + MODE_EN and IPALL

This configuration results in a value of SDCR = 0xE10D_0002, as described in [Table 18-19.](#page-451-1)

Table 18-19. SDCR + MODE_EN and IPALL Field Descriptions

18.8.6 Set the Extended Mode Register

The SDMR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-19](#page-452-1). This step enables the DDR memory's DLL.

Figure 18-19. SDRAM Mode/Extended Mode Register Settings (SDMR)

This configuration results in a value of $SDMR = 0x4001$ 0000, as described in [Table 18-20](#page-452-2).

18.8.7 Set the Mode Register and Reset DLL

The SDMR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-20](#page-452-0). This step programs the mode register and resets the DLL.

This configuration results in a value of SDMR = 0x048D_0000, as described in [Table 18-21.](#page-453-0)

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Table 18-21. SDMR Field Descriptions

18.8.8 Issue a PALL command

The SDCR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-21](#page-453-1). This will issue a second PALL command to the memory. The same SDCR value calculated in [Section 18.8.5, "SDRAM Control Register Settings and](#page-450-2) [PALL command](#page-450-2)" is used (0xE10D_0002).

This configuration results in a value of SDCR = 0xE10D_0002, as described in [Table 18-22.](#page-453-2)

Table 18-22. SDCR + MODE_EN and IPALL Field Descriptions

Table 18-22. SDCR + MODE_EN and IPALL Field Descriptions (Continued)

18.8.9 Perform Two Refresh Cycles

The SDCR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-22](#page-454-0). Along with the base settings for the SDCR the MODE_EN and IREF bits are set to issue an REF command to the SDRAM and enable writing of the mode register. The memory used in this example requires two refresh cycles, so this step is repeated twice.

Figure 18-22. SDRAM Control Register Settings + MODE_EN and IREF

This configuration results in a value of SDCR = 0xE10D_0004, as described in [Table 18-19.](#page-451-1)

Table 18-23. SDCR + MODE_EN and IREF Field Descriptions

Table 18-23. SDCR + MODE_EN and IREF Field Descriptions (Continued)

18.8.10 Clear the Reset DLL Bit in the Mode Register

The SDMR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-20](#page-452-0). This step programs the mode register and enables normal operation of the DLL by clearing the "reset DLL" option.

Figure 18-23. SDRAM Mode/Extended Mode Register Settings

This configuration results in a value of SDMR = 0x008D_0000, as described in [Table 18-21.](#page-453-0)

Table 18-24. SDMR Field Descriptions

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Bits	Name	Setting	Description
21	BT	0	Sequential burst type.
$20 - 18$	BLEN	011	Burst length of eight.
17		0	Reserved. Should be cleared.
16	CMD		Initiate the LMR command.
$15 - 0$		0	Reserved. Should be cleared.

Table 18-24. SDMR Field Descriptions (Continued)

18.8.11 Enable Automatic Refresh and Lock Mode Register

The SDCR should be programmed as shown in [Figure 18-24](#page-456-0). Along with the base settings for the SDCR the REF bit is set to enable automatic refreshing of the memory. In addition, the MODE_EN bit is cleared to disable write to the SDMR.

Figure 18-24. SDRAM Control Register Settings + REF

This configuration results in a value of SDCR = 0x710D_0F00, as described in [Table 18-25.](#page-456-1)

Table 18-25. SDCR + REF Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Setting	Description
31	MODE EN	Ω	Mode register is not writable.
30	CKE	1	SDCKE is asserted
29	DDR.	1	DDR mode is enabled
28	REF	1	Automatic refresh is enabled.
$27 - 26$		00	Reserved. Should be cleared.
$25 - 24$	MUX	01	01 is the MUX setting for a 13 x 9 x 4 memory. See Table 18-2.
23	AP	Ω	0 sets the auto precharge control bit to A10.
22	DRIVE	Ω	Data and DQS lines are only driven for a write cycle.
$21 - 16$	RCNT	001101	RCNT = $(t_{REF}/$ (SDCLK x 64)) - 1 = (7800ns/(8.3ns x 64)) - 1 = 13.62, round down to $13 (0xD)$

Table 18-25. SDCR + REF Field Descriptions (Continued)

18.8.12 Initialization Code

The following assembly code initializes the DDR SDRAM using the register values determined above. Basic Configuration and Initialization:

Precharge Sequence and enable write to SDMR:

move.l #0xE10D0002, d0//Initialize SDCR, send PALL, enable SDMR move.l d0, SDCR

Write Extended Mode Register:

- move.l #0x40010000, d0//Write LEMR to enable DLL
- move.l d0, SDMR

Write Mode Register and Reset DLL:

- move.l #0x048D0000, d0//Write LMR and reset DLL
- move.l d0, SDMR

Precharge Sequence:

- move.l #0xE10D0002, d0//Send PALL
- move.l d0, SDCR

Refresh Sequence:

move.l #0xE10D0004, d0//Send first REF command move.l d0, SDCR move.l #0xE10D0004, d0//Send second REF command

```
move.l d0, SDCR
```
Write Mode Register and Clear Reset DLL:

move.l #0x008D0000, d0//Write LMR and clear reset DLL move.l d0, SDMR

Enable Auto Refresh and Lock SDMR:

move.l #0x710D0F00, d0//Enable auto refresh and clear MODE_EN move.l d0, SDCR

Chapter 19 PCI Bus Controller

19.1 Introduction

This chapter details the operation of the PCI bus controller for the MCF548*x* device. The PCI Bus Arbiter is detailed in [Chapter 20, "PCI Bus Arbiter Module.](#page-536-0)"

19.1.1 Block Diagram

Figure 19-1. PCI Block Diagram

19.1.2 Overview

The peripheral component interface (PCI) bus is a high-performance bus with multiplexed address and data lines. It is especially suitable for high data-rate applications.

The PCI controller module supports a 32-bit PCI initiator (master) and target interface. As a target, access to the internal XL bus is supported. As an initiator, the PCI controller is coupled directly to the XL bus (as a slave) and available on the communication subsystem as a multichannel DMA peripheral.

The MCF548*x* contains PCI central resource functions such as the PCI Arbiter [\(Chapter 20, "PCI Bus](#page-536-0) [Arbiter Module](#page-536-0)") and PCI reset control. The PCI bus clock must be provided by an external source. It must be phase aligned and either equal to 1, 1/2, or 1/4 the frequency of the system clock.

19.1.3 Features

The following PCI features are supported in the MCF548*x*:

- Supports system clock: PCI clock frequency ratios 1:1, 2:1, and 4:1
- Uses external CLKIN as clock reference

- Compatible with PCI 2.2 specification
- PCI initiator and target operation
- Fully synchronous design
- 32-bit PCI address bus
- PCI 2.2 Type 0 configuration space header
- Supports the PCI 16/8 clock rule
- PCI master multichannel DMA or CPU access to PCI bus
- Ideal transfer rates up to 266 Mbytes/sec. (66 MHz clock, 128 byte buffer)
- PCI to system bus address translation
- Target response is medium DEVSEL generation
- Initiator latency time-outs
- Automatic retry of target disconnects

19.2 External Signal Description

Table 19-1. PCI Module External Signals

For detailed description of the PCI bus signals, see the *PCI Local Bus Specification, Revision 2.2*.

19.2.1 Address/Data Bus (PCIAD[31:0])

The PCIAD[31:0] lines are a time multiplexed address data bus. The address is presented on the bus during the address phase while the data is presented on the bus during one or more data phases.

19.2.2 Command/Byte Enables (PCICXBE[3:0])

The PCICXBE[3:0] lines are time multiplexed. The PCI command is presented during the address phase and the byte enables are presented during the data phase. Byte enables are active low.

External Signal Description

19.2.3 Device Select (PCIDEVSEL)

The PCIDEVSEL signal is asserted active low when the PCI controller decodes that it is the target of a PCI transaction from the address presented on the PCI bus during the address phase.

19.2.4 Frame (PCIFRAME)

The PCIFRAME signal is asserted active low by a PCI initiator to indicate the beginning of a transaction. It is deasserted when the initiator is ready to complete the final data phase.

19.2.5 Initialization Device Select (PCIIDSEL)

The PCIIDSEL signal is asserted active high during a PCI Type 0 Configuration Cycle to address the PCI Configuration header.

19.2.6 Initiator Ready (PCIIRDY)

The PCIIRDY signal is asserted active low to indicate that the PCI initiator is ready to transfer data. During a write operation, assertion indicates that the master is driving valid data on the bus. During a read operation, assertion indicates that the master is ready to accept data.

19.2.7 Parity (PCIPAR)

The PCIPAR signal indicates the parity on the PCIAD[31:0] and $\overline{PCICXBE}[3:0]$ lines.

19.2.8 PCI Clock (CLKIN)

The CLKIN signal serves as a reference clock for generation of the internal PCI clock. For more information, see [Section 19.4.7, "PCI Clock Scheme](#page-529-0)."

19.2.9 Parity Error (PCIPERR)

The PCIPERR signal is asserted active low when a data phase parity error is detected if enabled.

19.2.10 Reset (PCIRESET)

The PCIRESET signal is asserted active low by the PCI controller to reset the PCI bus. This signal is asserted after MCF548*x* reset and must be negated to enable usage of the PCI bus.

19.2.11 System Error (PCISERR)

The PCISERR signal, if enabled, is asserted active low when an address phase parity error is detected.

19.2.12 Stop (PCISTOP)

The PCISTOP signal is asserted active low by the currently addressed target to indicate that it wishes to stop the current transaction.

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19.2.13 Target Ready (PCITRDY)

The PCITRDY signal is asserted active low by the currently addressed target to indicate that it is ready to complete the current data phase.

19.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

The MCF548*x* has several sets of registers that control and report status for the different interfaces to the PCI controller: PCI Type 0 configuration space registers, general status/control registers, and communication subsystem interface registers. All of these registers are accessible as offsets of MBAR. As an XL bus master, an external PCI bus master can access MBAR space for register updates.

PCIRESET is controlled by a bit in the register space, PCIGSCR[PR], and must first be cleared before external PCI devices wake-up. In other words, an external PCI master cannot load configuration software across the PCI bus until this bit is cleared by software. Access to all internal registers is supported regardless of the value held in PCIGSCR[PR].

All registers are accessible at an offset of MBAR in the memory space. There are two module offsets for PCI configuration space. One is allocated to the communication subsystem interface registers and the other to all other PCI controller registers including the standard Type 0 PCI configuration space. Software reads from unimplemented registers return 0x00000000 and writes have no effect.

Table 19-2. PCI Memory Map

 $\overline{}$

Memory Map/Register Definition

 1 The PCI controller has separate control registers for transmit and receive operations via the communication subsystem DMA. See [Section 19.3.3, "Communication Subsystem Interface Registers](#page-482-0)" for more information on these registers.

19.3.1 PCI Type 0 Configuration Registers

The PCI controller supplies a type 0 PCI configuration space header. These registers are accessible as an offset from MBAR or through externally mastered PCI configuration cycles. PCI Dword Reserved space (0x10–0x3F) can be accessed only from external PCI configuration accesses.

19.3.1.1 Device ID/Vendor ID Register (PCIIDR)—PCI Dword Addr 0

Figure 19-2. Device ID/Vendor ID Register (PCIIDR)

Table 19-3. PCIIDR Field Descriptions

19.3.1.2 PCI Status/Command Register (PCISCR)—PCI Dword Addr 1

 1 Bits 31-27 and 24 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Only PCI configuration cycles can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-3. PCI Status/Command Register (PCISCR)

Table 19-4. PCISCR Field Descriptions

19.3.1.3 Revision ID/Class Code Register (PCICCRIR)—PCI Dword 3

Figure 19-4. Revision ID/Class Code Register (PCICCRIR)

Table 19-5. PCICCRIR Field Descriptions

19.3.1.4 Configuration 1 Register (PCICR1)—PCI Dword 3

Figure 19-5. Configuration 1 Register (PCICR1)

Table 19-6. PCICR1 Field Descriptions

19.3.1.5 Base Address Register 0 (PCIBAR0)—PCI Dword 4

Figure 19-6. Base Address Register 0 (PCIBAR0)

Table 19-7. PCIBAR0 Field Descriptions

19.3.1.6 Base Address Register 1 (PCIBAR1)—PCI Dword 5

19.3.1.7 CardBus CIS Pointer Register PCICCPR—PCI Dword A

This optional register contains the pointer to the Card Information Structure (CIS) for the CardBus card. All 32 bits of the register are programmable by the slave bus. From the PCI bus, this register can only be read, not written. Its reset value is 0x0000 0000 and is accessible at address MBAR + 0xB28.

19.3.1.8 Subsystem ID/Subsystem Vendor ID Registers PCISID—PCI Dword B

The Subsystem Vendor ID register contains the 16-bit manufacturer identification number of the add-in board or subsystem that contains this PCI device. The Subsystem ID register contains the 16-bit subsystem identification number of the add-in board or subsystem that contains this PCI device. A value of zero in these registers indicates there isn't a Subsystem Vendor and Subsystem ID associated with the device. If used, software must write to these registers before any PCI bus master reads them.

All 32 bits of the register are programmable by the slave bus. From the PCI bus, this register can only be read, not written. The reset value is 0x0000_0000 and is accessible at address MBAR + 0xB2C.

19.3.1.9 Expansion ROM Base Address PCIERBAR—PCI Dword C

Not implemented. Fixed to 0x0000 0000 at address MBAR + 0xB30.

19.3.1.10 Capabilities Pointer (Cap_Ptr) PCICPR—PCI Dword D

Not implemented. Fixed to 0x00 at address MBAR + 0xB34.

19.3.1.11 Configuration 2 Register (PCICR2)—PCI Dword F

Figure 19-8. Configuration 2 Register (PCICR2)

Table 19-9. PCICR2 Field Descriptions

19.3.2 General Control/Status Registers

The general control/status registers primarily address the configurability of the XL bus initiator and target interfaces, though some also address global options which affect the multichannel DMA interface. These

registers are accessed primarily internally as offsets of MBAR, but can also be accessed by an external PCI master if PCI base and target base address registers are configured to access the space. See [Section 19.5.2,](#page-530-0) ["Address Maps](#page-530-0)," on configuring address windows.

19.3.2.1 Global Status/Control Register (PCIGSCR)

¹ Bits 29 and 28 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

² The reset value of bits 26-24 and 18-16 is determined by the PLL multiplier.

Figure 19-9. Global Status/Control Register (PCIGSCR)

19.3.2.2 Target Base Address Translation Register 0 (PCITBATR0)

Figure 19-10. Target Base Address Translation Register 0 (PCITBATR0)

Table 19-11. PCITBATR0 Field Descriptions

19.3.2.3 Target Base Address Translation Register 1 (PCITBATR1)

19.3.2.4 Target Control Register (PCITCR)

Figure 19-12. Target Control Register (PCITCR)

Memory Map/Register Definition

19.3.2.5 Initiator Window 0 Base/Translation Address Register (PCIIW0BTAR)

Table 19-14. PCIIW0BTAR Field Descriptions

19.3.2.6 Initiator Window 1 Base/Translation Address Register (PCIIW1BTAR)

Figure 19-14. Initiator Window 1 Base/Translation Address Register (PCIIW1BTAR)

The field descriptions for this register are the same as for PCIIW0BTAR, except that they apply to Window 1.

19.3.2.7 Initiator Window 2 Base/Translation Address Register (PCIIW2BTAR)

Figure 19-15. Initiator Window 2 Base/Translation Address Register (PCIIW2BTAR)

The field descriptions for this register are the same as for PCIIW0BTAR, except that they apply to Window 2.

19.3.2.8 Initiator Window Configuration Register (PCIIWCR)

Figure 19-16. Initiator Window Configuration Register (PCIIWCR)

Table 19-15. PCIIWCR Field Descriptions

19.3.2.9 Initiator Control Register (PCIICR)

Figure 19-17. Initiator Control Register (PCIICR)

Table 19-16. PCIICR Field Descriptions

19.3.2.10 Initiator Status Register (PCIISR)

 1 Bits 26-24 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-18. Initiator Status Register (PCIISR)

19.3.2.11 Configuration Address Register (PCICAR)

Figure 19-19. Configuration Address Register (PCICAR)

Table 19-18. PCICAR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$23 - 16$	Bus Number	This register field is an encoded value used to select the target bus of the configuration access. For target devices on the PCI bus connected to MCF548, this field should be set to 0x00.
$15 - 11$	Device Number	This field is used to select a specific device on the target bus. Section 19.4.4.2, "Configuration Mechanism," for more information.
$10 - 8$	Function Number	This field is used to select a specific function in the requested device. Single-function devices should respond to function number '000'.
$7 - 2$	DWORD	This field is used to select the Dword address offset in the configuration space of the target device.
$1 - 0$		Reserved, should be cleared.

Table 19-18. PCICAR Field Descriptions (Continued)

19.3.3 Communication Subsystem Interface Registers

The communication subsystem/multichannel DMA interface has separate control registers for transmit and receive operations.

19.3.3.1 Comm Bus FIFO Transmit Interface

PCI Tx is controlled by 14 32-bit registers. These registers are located at an offset from MBAR of 0x8400. Register addresses are relative to this offset.

19.3.3.1.1 Tx Packet Size Register (PCITPSR)

Figure 19-20. Tx Packet Size Register (PCITPSR)

Table 19-19. PCITPSR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.2 Tx Start Address Register (PCITSAR)

Figure 19-21. Tx Start Address Register (PCITSAR)

Table 19-20. PCITSAR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.3 Tx Transaction Control Register (PCITTCR)

19.3.3.1.4 Tx Enables Register (PCITER)

Figure 19-23. Tx Enables Register (PCITER)

19.3.3.1.5 Tx Next Address Register (PCITNAR)

Figure 19-24. Tx Next Address Register (PCITNAR)

Table 19-23. PCITNAR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.6 Tx Last Word Register (PCITLWR)

Figure 19-25. Tx Last Word Register (PCITLWR)

Table 19-24. PCITLWR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.7 Tx Done Counts Register (PCITDCR)

Figure 19-26. Tx Done Counts Register (PCITDCR)

Table 19-25. PCITDCR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.8 Tx Status Register (PCITSR)

 1 Bits 24-16 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-27. Tx Status Register (PCITSR)

NOTE

Registers MBAR + 0x8420 through MBAR + 0x843C are reserved for future use. Accesses to these registers will result in undefined behavior.

19.3.3.1.9 Tx FIFO Data Register (PCITFDR)

Figure 19-28. Tx FIFO Data Register (PCITFDR)

Table 19-27. PCITFDR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.10 Tx FIFO Status Register (PCITFSR)

 1 Bits 31, 30 and 23-20 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-29. Tx FIFO Status Register (PCITFSR)

19.3.3.1.11 Tx FIFO Control Register (PCITFCR)

Figure 19-30. Tx FIFO Control Register (PCITFCR)

Memory Map/Register Definition

19.3.3.1.12 Tx FIFO Alarm Register (PCITFAR)

Table 19-30. PCITFAR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.13 Tx FIFO Read Pointer Register (PCITFRPR)

Figure 19-32. Tx FIFO Read Pointer Register (PCITFRPR)

Table 19-31. PCITFRPR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.1.14 Tx FIFO Write Pointer Register (PCITFWPR)

Figure 19-33. Tx FIFO Write Pointer Register (PCITFWPR)

Table 19-32. PCITFWPR Field Descriptions

This marks the end of the PCI Comm Bus FIFO Transmit Interface description.

19.3.3.2 Comm Bus FIFO Receive Interface

PCI Rx is controlled by 13 32-bit registers. These registers are located at an offset from MBAR. Register addresses are relative to this offset.

19.3.3.2.1 Rx Packet Size Register (PCIRPSR)

Figure 19-34. Rx Packet Size Register (PCIRPSR)

Table 19-33. PCIRPSR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.2.2 Rx Start Address Register (PCIRSAR)

Figure 19-35. Rx Start Address Register (PCIRSAR)

Table 19-34. PCIRSAR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.2.3 Rx Transaction Control Register (PCIRTCR)

Figure 19-36. Rx Transaction Control Register (PCIRTCR)

Table 19-35. PCIRTCR Field Descriptions

Table 19-35. PCIRTCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

19.3.3.2.4 Rx Enables Register (PCIRER)

Figure 19-37. Rx Enables Register (PCIRER)

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Table 19-36. PCIRER Field Descriptions

Table 19-36. PCIRER Field Descriptions (Continued)

19.3.3.2.5 Rx Next Address Register (PCIRNAR)

Figure 19-38. Rx Next Address Register (PCIRNAR)

Table 19-37. PCIRNAR Field Descriptions

Figure 19-39. Rx Done Counts Register (PCIRDCR)

19.3.3.2.7 Rx Status Register (PCIRSR)

 1 Bits 24-16 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-40. Rx Status Register (PCIRSR)

Table 19-39. PCIRSR Field Descriptions

NOTE

Registers 0x84A0 through 0x84BC are reserved for future use. Accesses to these registers will result in undefined behavior.

19.3.3.2.8 Rx FIFO Data Register (PCIRFDR)

Figure 19-41. Rx FIFO Data Register (PCIRFDR)

Table 19-40. PCIRFDR Field Description

 1 Bits 31, 30 and 23-20 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 19-42. Rx FIFO Status Register (PCIRFSR)

Table 19-41. PCIRFSR Field Descriptions

Table 19-41. PCIRFSR Field Descriptions (Continued)

19.3.3.2.10 Rx FIFO Control Register (PCIRFCR)

Figure 19-43. Rx FIFO Control Register (PCIRFCR)

Table 19-42. PCIRFCR Field Descriptions

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Table 19-42. PCIRFCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

19.3.3.2.11 Rx FIFO Alarm Register (PCIRFAR)

Figure 19-44. Rx FIFO Alarm Register (PCIRFAR)

Table 19-43. PCIRFAR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.2.12 Rx FIFO Read Pointer Register (PCIRFRPR)

Figure 19-45. Rx FIFO Read Pointer Register (PCIRFRPR)

Table 19-44. PCIRFRPR Field Descriptions

19.3.3.2.13 Rx FIFO Write Pointer Register (PCIRFWPR)

Figure 19-46. Rx FIFO Write Pointer Register (PCIRFWPR)

19.4 Functional Description

The MCF548*x* PCI module provides both master and target PCI bus interfaces as shown in [Figure 19-1](#page-460-0). The internal master, or initiator, interface is accessible by any XL bus master, such as the processor core, and also provides a DMA interface through the communication subsystem that can be accessed by the multichannel DMA engine. The target interface provides external PCI masters access into two memory windows of MCF548*x* address space. PCI arbitration is handled external to this module, by either the MCF548*x* internal PCI arbiter or arbitration off-chip ([Chapter 20, "PCI Bus Arbiter Module](#page-536-0)").

The registers, described in [Section 19.3, "Memory Map/Register Definition](#page-463-0)," control and provide information about multiple interfaces. An additional configuration interface allows internal access through the slave bus to the PCI Type 0 Configuration registers, which are accessible to both the MCF548*x* and to external masters through the PCI bus.

The following sections describe the operation of the PCI module.

19.4.1 PCI Bus Protocol

This section will provide a simple overview of the PCI bus protocol, including some details of MCF548*x* implementation. For details regarding PCI bus operation, refer to the *PCI Local Bus Specification, Revision 2.2*.

19.4.1.1 PCI Bus Background

The PCI interface is synchronous and is best used for bursting data in large chunks. Its maximum bandwidth approaches 266 Megabytes per second for the 32-bit implementation running at 66 MHz. A system will contain one device that is responsible for configuring all other devices on the bus upon reset. Each device has 256 bytes of configuration space that define individual requirements to the system controller. These registers are read and written through a "configuration access" command. A PCI transfer is started by the master and is directed toward a specific target. A provision is made for broadcasting to several targets through the "special command". Data is transferred through the use of memory and I/O read and write commands.

Table 19-46. PCI Command Encodings (Continued)

19.4.1.2 Basic Transfer Control

The basic PCI bus transfer mechanism is a burst. A burst is composed of an address phase followed by one or more data phases. Fundamentally, all PCI data transfers are controlled by three signals PCIFRAME, PCIIRDY, and PCITRDY. An initiator asserts PCIFRAME to indicate the beginning of a PCI bus transaction and negates PCIFRAME to indicate the end of a PCI bus transaction. An initiator negates PCIIRDY to force wait cycles. A target negates PCITRDY to force wait cycles.

The PCI bus is considered idle when both PCIFRAME and PCIIRDY are negated. The first clock cycle in which PCIFRAME is asserted indicates the beginning of the address phase. The address and bus command code are transferred in that first cycle. The next cycle begins the first of one or more data phases. Data is transferred between initiator and target in each cycle that both PCIIRDY and PCITRDY are asserted. Wait cycles may be inserted in a data phase by the initiator (by negating PCIIRDY) or by the target (by negating PCITRDY).

Once an initiator has asserted PCIIRDY, it cannot change PCIIRDY or PCIFRAME until the current data phase completes regardless of the state of PCITRDY. Once a target has asserted PCITRDY or PCISTOP, it cannot change DEVSEL, PCITRDY, or PCISTOP until the current data phase completes. In simpler terms, once an initiator or target has committed to the data transfer, it cannot back out.

When the initiator intends to complete only one more data transfer (which could be immediately after the address phase), PCIFRAME is negated and PCIIRDY is asserted (or kept asserted) indicating the initiator is ready. After the target indicates the final data transfer (by asserting PCITRDY), the PCI bus may return to the idle state (both PCIFRAME and PCIIRDY are negated) unless a fast back-to-back transaction is in progress. In the case of a fast back-to-back transaction, an address phase immediately follows the last phase.

19.4.1.3 PCI Transactions

The figures in this section show the basic "memory read" and "memory write" command transactions.

[Figure 19-47](#page-509-0) shows a PCI burst read transaction (2-beat). The signal PCIFRAME is driven low to initiate the transfer. Cycle 1 is the address phase with valid address information driven on the AD bus and a PCI

command driven on the PCICXBE bus. In cycle 2, the AD bus is in a turnaround cycle because of the read on a muxed bus. The byte enables, which are active low, are driven onto the PCICXBE bus in this clock. Any combination of byte enables can be asserted (none may be asserted). A target will respond to an address phase by driving the DEVSEL signal. The specification allows for four types of decode operations. The target can drive DEVSEL in 1, 2, or 3 clocks depending on whether the target is a fast, medium or slow decode device, respectively. A single device is allowed to drive DEVSEL if no other agent responds by the fourth clock. This is called "subtractive decoding" in PCI terminology. Note that the MCF548*x* is a medium target decode device.

A valid transfer occurs when both PCIIRDY and PCITRDY are asserted. If either are negated during a data phase, it is considered a wait state. The target asserts a wait state in cycles 3 and 5 of [Figure 19-47.](#page-509-0) A master indicates that the final data phase is to occur by negating PCIFRAME. In this diagram the target responds as a medium device, driving DEVSEL in cycle 3.

The final data phase occurs in cycle 6. Another agent cannot start an access until cycle 8. A provision in the specification allows the current master to start another transfer in cycle 7 when certain conditions apply. Refer to "fast back-to-back transfers" in the PCI specification for more details.

Figure 19-47. PCI Read Terminated by Master

[Figure 19-48](#page-510-0) shows a write cycle which is terminated by the target. In this diagram the target responds as a slow device, driving DEVSEL in cycle 4. The first data is transferred in cycle 4. The master inserts a wait state at cycle 5. The target indicates that it can accept only one more transfer by asserting both PCITRDY and PCISTOP at the same time in cycle 5. The signal PCISTOP must remain asserted until PCIFRAME negates. The final data phase does not have to transfer data. If PCISTOP and PCIIRDY are both asserted while PCITRDY is negated, it is considered a target disconnect without a transfer. See the PCI specification for more details.

19.4.1.4 PCI Bus Commands

PCI supports a number of different commands. These commands are presented by the initiator on the PCICXBE[3:0] lines during the address phase of a PCI transaction.

Table 19-47. PCI Bus Commands (Continued)

Though MCF548*x* supports many PCI commands as an initiator, the communication subsystem initiator interface is intended to use PCI memory read and memory write commands.

19.4.1.5 Addressing

PCI defines three physical address spaces: PCI memory space, PCI I/O space, and PCI configuration space. Address decoding on the PCI bus is performed by every device for every PCI transaction. Each agent is responsible for decoding its own address. The PCI specification supports two types of address decoding: positive decoding and subtractive decoding (refer to [Section 19.4.1.5.4, "Address Decoding](#page-514-0)). The address space that is accessed depends primarily on the type of PCI command that is used.

19.4.1.5.1 Memory Space Addressing

For memory accesses, PCI defines two types of burst ordering controlled by the two low-order bits of the address: linear incrementing($AD[1:0] = 0b00$) and cache wrap mode $(AD[1:0] = 0b10)$. The other two AD[1:0] encodings (0b01 and 0b11) are reserved.

For linear incrementing mode, the memory address is encoded/decoded using PCIAD[31:2]. Thereafter, the address is incremented by 4 bytes after each data phase completes until the transaction is terminated or completed (a 4 byte data width per data phase is implied). Note, the two low-order bits of the address are still included in all the parity calculations.

As an initiator, the MCF548*x* supports both linear incrementing and cache wrap mode. For memory transactions, when an XL bus burst transaction is wrapped, the cache wrap mode is automatically generated. For zero-word-aligned bursts and single-beat transactions, the MCF548*x* drives AD[1:0] to 0b00.

As a target, the MCF548*x* treats cache wrap mode as a reserved memory mode when the cache line size register is programmed zero. The MCF548*x* will return the first beat of data and then signal a disconnect without data on the second data phase.

19.4.1.5.2 I/O Space Addressing

For PCI I/O accesses, all 32 address signals are used to provide an address with granularity of a single byte. Once a target has claimed an I/O access, it must determine if it can complete the entire access as indicated by the byte enable signals. If all the selected bytes are not in the address range of the target, the entire access cannot complete. In this case, the target does not transfer any data, and terminates the transaction with a target-abort.

Access Size	PCIAD[1:0]	PCICXBE[3:0]	Data
8-bit	00	xxx0	AD[7:0]
	01	xx01	AD[15:8]
	10	x011	AD[23:16]
	11	0111	AD[31:24]
16-bit	00	xxx0	AD[15:0]
	01	xx01	AD[23:8]
	10	x011	AD[31:16]
24-bit	00	xxx0	AD[23:0]
	01	xx01	AD[31:8]
32-bit	00	xxx0	AD[31:0]

Table 19-48. PCI I/O Space Byte Decoding

19.4.1.5.3 Configuration Space Addressing and Transactions

PCI supports two types of configuration accesses. Their primary difference is the format of the address on the PCIAD[31:0] signals during the address phase.

The two low-order bits of the address indicate the format used for the configuration address phase: type 0 $(AD[1:0] = 0b00)$ or type 1 $(AD[1:0] = 0b01)$. Both address formats identify a specific device and a specific configuration register for that device:

- Type 0 configuration accesses are used to select a device on the local PCI bus. They do not propagate beyond the local PCI bus and are either claimed by a local device or terminated with a master-abort.
- Type 1 configuration accesses are used to target a device on a subordinate bus through a PCI-to-PCI bridge, see [Figure 19-51](#page-514-1). Type 1 accesses are ignored by all targets except PCI-to-PCI bridges that pass the configuration request to another PCI bus.

When the controller initiates a configuration access on the PCI bus, it places the configuration address information on the AD bus and the configuration command on the PCICXBE[3:0] bus. A Type 0 configuration transaction is indicated by setting AD[1:0] to 0b00 during the address phase. The bit pattern

tells the community of devices on the PCI bus that the bridge that "owns" the PCI bus has already performed the bus number comparison and verified that the request targets a device on its bus. [Figure 19-49](#page-513-0) shows the contents of the AD bus during the address phase of the Type 0 configuration access.

Figure 19-49. Type 0 Configuration Transaction: Contents of the AD Bus During Address Phase

Address bits [10:8] identify the target function and bits AD[7:2] select one of the 64 configuration Dwords within the target function's configuration space. For Type 0 configuration transactions, the target device's IDSEL pin must be asserted. The upper 21 address lines are commonly used as IDSELs since they are not used during the address phase of a type 0 configuration transaction.

For a Type 1 access where the target bus is a bus that is subordinate to the local PCI bus (bus 0), the configuration transaction is still initiated on bus 0, but the bit pattern AD[1:0] indicates that none of the devices on this bus are the target of the transaction. Rather, only PCI-to-PCI bridges residing on the local bus should pay attention to the transaction because it targets a device on a bus further out in the hierarchy beyond a PCI-to-PCI bridge that is attached to the local PCI bus (bus 0). This is accomplished by initiating a Type 1 configuration transaction (setting AD[1:0] to 0b01 during the address phase). This pattern instructs all functions other than PCI-to-PCI bridges that the transaction is not for any of them. [Figure 19-50](#page-513-1) illustrates the contents of the AD bus during the address phase of the Type 1 configuration access.

Figure 19-50. Type 1 Configuration Transaction: Contents of the AD Bus During Address Phase

During the address phase of a Type 1 configuration access, the information on the AD bus is formatted as follows:

- PCIAD[1:0] contains 0b01, identifying this as a Type 1 configuration access.
- PCIAD[7:2] identifies one of 64 configuration Dwords within the target devices's configuration space.
- PCIAD[10:8] identifies one of the eight functions within the target physical device.
- PCIAD[15:11] identifies one of 32 physical devices. This field is used by the bridge to select which device's IDSEL line to assert.
- PCIAD[23:16] identifies one of 256 PCI buses in the system.
- PCIAD[31:24] are reserved and are cleared to zero.

During a Type 1 configuration access, PCI devices ignore the state of their IDSEL inputs; PCI devices only respond to Type 0 accesses. When any PCI-to-PCI bridge latches a Type 1 configuration access (command $=$ configuration read or write and AD[1:0] = 0b01) on its primary side, it must determine whether the bus number field on the AD bus matches the number of its secondary bus or if the field is within the range of its subordinate buses. If the bus number matches, it should claim and pass the configuration access onto

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its secondary bus as a Type 0 configuration access, decoding the device number to select one of the IDSEL lines. If the bus number is not equal to its secondary bus, but is within the range of buses that are subordinate to the bridge, the bridge claims and passes that access through as a Type 1 access.

Figure 19-51. PCI-to-PCI Bridge Determining Match to Secondary or Subordinate Bus

19.4.1.5.4 Address Decoding

For positive address decoding, an address hits when the address on the address bus matches an assigned address range. Multiple devices on the same PCI bus may use positive address decoding, though there cannot be any overlap in the assigned address ranges. The MCF548*x* only implements positive address decoding.

For subtractive address decoding, an address hits when the address on the address bus does not match any address range for any of the PCI devices on the bus. Only one device on a PCI bus may use subtractive address decoding, and its use is optional.

19.4.2 Initiator Arbitration

There are three possible internal initiator sources: comm bus transmit, comm bus receive, or the XL bus (from the internal system arbiter). Custom interface logic arbitrates and provides multiplex selection control for these sources to the PCI controller. [Figure 19-52](#page-515-0) illustrates the arbitration block connection.

Figure 19-52. Initiator Arbitration Block Diagram

19.4.2.1 Priority Scheme

The PCI initiator arbiter uses the following fixed priority scheme:

- 1. XL bus initiator
- 2. Comm bus transmit (Tx)
- 3. Comm bus receive (Rx) (lowest)

19.4.3 Configuration Interface

The PCI bus protocol requires the implementation of a standardized set of registers for most devices on the PCI bus. The MCF548*x* implements a Type 0 Configuration register set or header. These registers, discussed in [Section 19.3.1, "PCI Type 0 Configuration Registers](#page-465-0)," are primarily intended to be read or written by the PCI configuring master at initialization time through the PCI bus. The MCF548*x* provides internal access to these registers through a slave bus interface. As with most MCF548*x* registers, they are accessible by software in the address space at offsets of MBAR. Internal accesses to the Type 0 Configuration header do not require PCI arbitration when they are accessed as offsets of MBAR and are allowed to execute regardless of whether any write data is posted in the PCI Controller.

If the MCF548*x* is the configuring master, the slave bus interface should be used to configure the PCI Controller. An external master would configure the PCI controller through the external PCI bus.

More information on the standard PCI Configuration register can be found in the PCI 2.2 specification.

19.4.4 XL Bus Initiator Interface

The processor core or internal masters may access the PCI bus via the XL bus initiator interface. This internal interface is accessed through three windows in MCF548*x* address space set up by base address and base address mask registers [\(Section 19.3.2.5, "Initiator Window 0 Base/Translation Address Register](#page-476-0) [\(PCIIW0BTAR\)"](#page-476-0)). The base address registers must be enabled by setting their respective enable bits in the [Section 19.3.2.8, "Initiator Window Configuration Register \(PCIIWCR\)](#page-478-0)." Accesses to this area are translated into PCI transactions on the PCI bus. See [Section 19.5.2, "Address Maps](#page-530-0)," for examples on setting up address windows.

The particular type of PCI transaction generated is determined by the PCI configuration bits associated with the address window (PCIIWCR). For example, the user might set one window to do PCI memory read multiple accesses, one window for PCI I/O accesses, and the other window to do non-prefetchable (memory-mapped I/O) PCI memory accesses. See [Table 19-57](#page-530-1) for command translations.

In addition to the configurable address window mapping logic, the register interface provides a configuration address register, which provides the ability to generate configuration, interrupt acknowledge, and special cycles. External PCI devices should be configured through this interface. See [Section 19.4.4.2, "Configuration Mechanism"](#page-519-0) for configuration, interrupt acknowledge, and special cycle command support.

The PCI XL bus initiator interface supports all XL bus transactions, including single-beat transfers and bursts (32 bytes). Single-beat 64-bit data transactions are automatically translated into 2-beat burst transfers on the PCI bus.

Standard XL bus burst transactions are supported as well, however, buffering is implemented to boost performance during writes and avoid deadlock scenario for all reads and memory writes. If the target for an XL bus read from PCI disconnects part way through the burst, the MCF548may have to handle a local memory access from an alternate PCI master before the disconnected transfer can continue.

XL bus initiator read requests are decoded into four types: PCI Memory, I/O, Configuration, and Interrupt Acknowledge. The PCI Controller must first gain access to the PCI bus before acknowledging the XL bus read request. The specific timing of the address acknowledge is dependent upon the type of transfer.

When the XL bus requests burst data from PCI space, the data received from PCI is stored in a 32-byte read buffer. The PCI Controller does not terminate the address tenure of the XL bus transaction until all requested data is latched. This is because PCI targets are allowed to disconnect in the middle of a transfer, and the XL bus requires burst transfers to be atomic. If the PCI target disconnects in the middle of the data transfer and an alternate PCI master acquires the bus and initiates a local memory access, the Controller retries the internal read transaction on the XL bus. The PCI Controller continues to request mastership of the PCI bus until the original request is completed.

For example, if the XL bus initiates a burst read, and the PCI target disconnects after transferring the first half of the burst, the MCF548*x* re-arbitrates for the PCI bus, and when granted, initiates a new transaction with the address of the third beat of the burst (4-beat XL bus bursts). If an alternate PCI master requests data from local memory while the PCI Controller is waiting for the PCI bus grant, the PCI controller retries the XL bus transaction to allow the PCI-initiated transaction to complete and the read buffer will be emptied. Transactions are not reordered, but taken first come, first served.

When the MCF548*x* is acting as in initiator/master, PCI critical-word-first (CWF) burst operation (i.e. cache line wrap burst) is supported, and the 2-bit cache line wrap address mode is driven on the address bus when the XL bus starts the burst at a non-zero-word-first address. Note that this option is only provided as a means for the initiator to support memory targets that support cache-line wrap. The processor is not permitted to cache from memory targets residing on the PCI bus in the 2.2 spec.

XL bus writes are decoded into PCI memory, PCI I/O, PCI configuration, or special cycles. If the transaction decodes into an I/O, configuration, or special cycle, the write is connected. The PCI controller gains access to the PCI bus and successfully transfers the data before it asserts address acknowledge to the XL bus. If the address maps to PCI memory space, the XL bus address tenure is immediately acknowledged and write data is posted.

A 32-byte write buffer is used to post memory writes from XL bus to PCI. Buffering minimizes the effect of the slower PCI bus on the higher-speed XL bus. It may contain single-beat XL bus write transactions or a single burst. After the XL bus write data is latched internally, the bus is available for subsequent transactions without having to wait for the write to the PCI target to complete. If a subsequent XL bus write

request to the PCI bus comes in, the data transfer is delayed until all previous writes to the PCI bus are completed. Only when the write buffer is empty can burst data from the XL bus be posted.

19.4.4.1 Endian Translation

The PCI bus is inherently little endian in its byte ordering. The internal XL bus, however, is big endian. XL bus transactions are limited to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 32 byte (burst) transactions within the data bus byte lanes on any 32-bit address boundary for burst transfers. [Table 19-49](#page-517-0) shows the byte lane mapping between the two buses.

XL Bus									PCI Bus						
A[29:31	TSIZ				Data Bus Byte Lanes					AD	BE[3: 31:2		23:1	15:8	7:0
1	[0:2]	$\mathbf 0$	1	$\mathbf{2}$	3	4	5	6	$\overline{7}$	[2:0]	0]	4	6		
000	001	OP7	$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	000	1110	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$		OP7
001	001		OP7		$\overline{}$					000	1101	$\overline{}$		OP7	
010	001	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP7	$\overline{}$		—	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	000	1011		OP7		
011	001	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP7				$\overline{}$	000	0111	OP7	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	
100	001				$\overline{}$	OP7				100	1110				OP7
101	001	$\overline{}$			$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP7	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	100	1101	$\overline{}$		OP7	
110	001	$\overline{}$				$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP7	$\overline{}$	100	1011		OP7	$\overline{}$	
111	001				$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$		OP7	100	0111	OP7			
000	010	OP ₆	OP7	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$				$\overline{}$	000	1100	$\overline{}$		OP7	OP ₆
001	010	$\overline{}$	OP ₆	OP7	$\overline{}$					000	1001	$\overline{}$	OP7	OP ₆	
010	010	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP ₆	OP7		$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	000	0011	OP7	OP ₆	$\overline{}$	
011	010				OP ₆	OP7				000	0111	OP ₆			
										100	1110			$\overline{}$	OP7
100	010				$\overline{}$	OP ₆	OP7			100	1100			OP7	OP ₆
101	010						OP ₆	OP7		100	1001	$\overline{}$	OP7	OP ₆	
110	010	$\overline{}$			$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP ₆	OP7	100	0011	OP7	OP ₆		
000	011	OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$			$\overline{}$	000	1000	$\overline{}$	OP7	OP ₆	OP ₅
001	011	$\overline{}$	OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	000	0001	OP7	OP ₆	OP ₅	$\overline{}$
010	011			OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7				000	0011	OP ₆	OP ₅	$\overline{}$	
										100	1110	$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	OP7
011	011				OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7			000	0111	OP ₅		$\overline{}$	
										100	1100			OP7	OP ₆
100	011	$\overline{}$		$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7	$\overline{}$	100	1000	$\overline{}$	OP7	OP ₆	OP ₅
101	011						OP ₅	OP ₆	OP7	00	0001	OP7	OP ₆	OP ₅	

Table 19-49. XL Bus to PCI Byte Lanes for Memory¹ Transactions

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The byte lane translation will be similar for other types of transactions. However, the PCI address may be different as explained in [Section 19.4.1.5, "Addressing.](#page-511-0)"

19.4.4.2 Configuration Mechanism

In order to support both Type 0 and Type 1 configuration transactions, the MCF548*x* provides the 32 bit configuration address register (PCICAR). The register specifies the target PCI bus, device, function, and configuration register to be accessed. A read or a write to the MCF548*x* window defined as PCI I/O space, in PCIIWCR, causes the host bridge to translate the access into a PCI configuration cycle if the enable bit in the configuration address register is set and the device number does not equal 0b1_1111. For space to be defined as I/O space, the accessed space (one of the initiator windows) must be programmed as I/O, not memory. See [Section 19.3.2.8, "Initiator Window Configuration Register \(PCIIWCR\)](#page-478-0)".

The format of the configuration address register is shown in [Section 19.3.2.11, "Configuration Address](#page-481-0) [Register \(PCICAR\)"](#page-481-0).When the MCF548*x* detects an access to an I/O window, it checks the enable flag and the device number in the configuration address register. If the enable bit is set, and the device number is not 0b1_1111, the MCF548*x* performs a configuration cycle translation function and runs a configuration read or configuration write transaction on the PCI bus. The device number 0b1_1111 is used for performing interrupt acknowledge and special cycle transactions. See [Section 19.4.4.3, "Interrupt](#page-521-0) [Acknowledge Transactions](#page-521-0)," and [Section 19.4.4.4, "Special Cycle Transactions](#page-521-1)," for more information. If the bus number corresponds to the local PCI bus (bus number $= 0x00$), a Type 0 configuration cycle transaction is performed. If the bus number indicates a remote PCI bus, the MCF548*x* performs a Type 1 configuration cycle translation. If the enable bit is not set, the access to the configuration window is passed through to the PCI bus as an I/O transfer (window translation applies).

Note that the PCI data byte enables (PCICXBE[3:0]) are determined by the size access to the window.

19.4.4.2.1 Type 0 Configuration Translation

[Figure 19-53](#page-519-1) shows the Type 0 translation function performed on the contents of the configuration address register to the AD[31:0] signals on the PCI bus during the address phase of the configuration cycle (this only applies when the enable bit in the configuration address register is set).

Contents of Configuration Address Register:

Figure 19-53. Type 0 Configuration Translation

For Type 0 configuration cycles, the MCF548*x* translates the device number field of the configuration address register into a unique IDSEL line shown in [Table 19-50.](#page-519-2) It allows for 21 different devices.

Table 19-50. Type 0 Configuration Device Number to IDSEL Translation

Table 19-50. Type 0 Configuration Device Number to IDSEL Translation (Continued)

¹ Device numbers 0b0_0000 to 0b0_1001 are reserved. Programming to these values and issuing a configuration transaction will result in a PCI configuration cycle with AD31-AD11 driven low.

The MCF548*x* can issue PCI configuration transactions to itself. A Type 0 configuration initiated by the MCF548*x* can access its own configuration space by asserting its IDSEL input signal.

NOTE

Asserting IDSEL is the only way the MCF548*x* can clear its own status register (PCISCR) bits (read-write-clear).

For Type 0 translations, the function number and Dword fields are copied without modification onto the AD[10:2] signals, and AD[1:0] are driven low during the address phase.

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19.4.4.2.2 Type 1 Configuration Translation

For Type 1 translations, the 30 high-order bits of the configuration address register are copied without modification onto the AD[31:2] signals during the address phase. The AD[1:0] signals are driven to 0b01 during the address phase to indicate a Type 1 configuration cycle.

19.4.4.3 Interrupt Acknowledge Transactions

When the MCF548*x* detects a read from an I/O defined window [\(Section 19.3.2.8, "Initiator Window](#page-478-0) [Configuration Register \(PCIIWCR\)"](#page-478-0)), it checks the enable flag, bus number, and the device number in the configuration address register [\(Section 19.3.2.11, "Configuration Address Register \(PCICAR\)](#page-481-0)"). If the enable bit is set, the bus number corresponds to the local PCI bus (bus number $= 0x00$), and the device number is all 1's (device number $= 0b1_11111$), then an interrupt acknowledge transaction is initiated. If the bus number indicates a subordinate PCI bus (bus number $\overline{!} = 0x00$), a Type 1 configuration cycle is initiated, similar to any other configuration cycle for which the bus number does not match. The function number and Dword values are ignored.

The interrupt acknowledge command (0b0000) is driven on the PCICXBE[3:0] signals and the address bus is driven with a stable pattern during the address phase, but a valid address is not driven. The address of the target device during an interrupt acknowledge is implicit in the command type. Only the system interrupt controller on the PCI bus should respond to the interrupt acknowledge and return the interrupt vector on the data bus during the data phase. The size of the interrupt vector returned is indicated by the value driven on the PCICXBE[3:0] signals.

19.4.4.4 Special Cycle Transactions

When the MCF548*x* detects a write to an I/O defined window ([Section 19.3.2.8, "Initiator Window](#page-478-0) [Configuration Register \(PCIIWCR\)"](#page-478-0)), it checks the enable flag, bus number, and the device number in the configuration address register [\(Section 19.3.2.11, "Configuration Address Register \(PCICAR\)](#page-481-0)"). If the enable bit is set, the bus number corresponds to the local PCI bus (bus number $= 0x00$), and the device number is all 1's (device number $=$ 0b1 $\,$ 1111), then a Special Cycle transaction is initiated. If the bus number indicates a subordinate PCI bus (where the bus number field is not 0x00), a Type 1 configuration cycle is initiated, similar to any other configuration cycle for which the bus number does not match. The function number and Dword values are ignored.

The Special Cycle command (0b0001) is driven on the PCICXBE[3:0] signals and the address bus is driven with a stable pattern during the address phase, but contains no valid address information. The Special Cycle command contains no explicit destination address, but broadcast to all agents on the same bus segment. Each receiving agent must determine whether the message is applicable to it. PCI agent will never assert DEVSEL in response to a Special Cycle command. Master Abort is the normal termination for a Special Cycle and no errors are reported for this case of Master Abort termination. This command is basically a broadcast to all agents, and interested agents accept the command and process the request.

Note, Special Cycle commands do not cross PCI-to-PCI bridges. If a master wants to generate a Special Cycle command on a specific bus in the hierarchy that is not its local bus, it must use a Type 1 configuration write command to do so. Type 1 configuration write commands can traverse PCI-to-PCI bridges in both directions for the purpose of generating Special Cycle commands on any bus in the hierarchy and are restricted to a single data phase in length. However, the master must know the specific bus on which it desires to generate the Special Cycle command and cannot simply do a broadcast to one bus and expect it to propagate to all buses.

During the data phase, PCIAD[31:0] contain the Special Cycle message and an optional data field. The Special Cycle message is encoded on the 16 least significant bits (PCIAD[15:0]) and the optional data field is encoded on the most significant bits (PCIAD[31:16]). The Special Cycle message encodings are

assigned by the PCI SIG Steering Committee. The current list of defined encodings are provided in [Table 19-51](#page-522-0).

PCIAD[15:0]	Message
0x0000	SHUTDOWN
0x0001	HALT
0x0002	x86 architecture-specific
0x0003-0xFFFF	

Table 19-51. Special Cycle Message Encodings

19.4.4.5 Transaction Termination

If the PCI cycle Master Aborts, the interface will return 0xFFFF FFFF as read data, but complete without error. It will issue an interrupt to the internal interrupt controller if enabled.

For abnormal transaction termination during an XL bus-initiated transaction (retry limit reached or target abort), an error (TEA on XL bus) is generated. It will issue an interrupt to the MCF548*x* interrupt controller if such interrupts are enabled.

Transfers that cross the 32-bit boundary (greater than 4 bytes) to a PCI nonmemory address range result in a transfer error (TEA on XL bus).. The space is defined as nonmemory if the IO/M# configuration bit associated with that window is programmed "0".This type of unsupported transfer does not cause an interrupt.

XL Bus Transaction	PCI Address Space
Burst (32-byte)	Nonmemory
> 4 byte Single Beat	Nonmemory
4 byte Single Beat at a[29:31] 001, 010, or 011	Nonmemory
3 byte Single Beat at a[29:31] 010 or 011	Nonmemory
2 byte Single Beat at a[29:31] 011	Nonmemory

Table 19-52. Unsupported XL Bus Transfers

19.4.5 XL Bus Target Interface

This section discusses the MCF548*x* as a PCI target, and as such, the following apply:

- The target interface can issue target abort, target retry, and target disconnect terminations.
- The target interface supports fast back-to-back cycles.
- No support of dual address cycles as a PCI target.
- Target transactions are not snooped by the processor.
- Medium device selection timing only.
- Three 32-byte buffers enhance data throughput.

The XL bus Target Interface provides access for external PCI masters to two windows of MCF548*x* address space. Target Base Address Translation Registers 0 and 1 allow the user to map PCI address hits on MCF548*x* PCI Base Address Registers to areas in the internal address space. All of these registers must be enabled for this interface to operate.

Upon detection of a PCI address phase, the PCI controller decodes the address and bus command to determine if the transaction is for local memory (BAR0 or BAR1 hit). If the transaction falls within MCF548*x* PCI space (memory only), the PCI Controller target interface asserts DEVSEL, latches the address, decodes the PCI bus command, and forwards them to the internal control unit. On writes, data is forwarded along with the byte enables to the internal gasket. On reads, four bytes of data are provided to the PCI bus and the byte enables determine which byte lanes contain meaningful data. If no byte enables are asserted, MCF548*x* completes a read access with valid data and completes a write access by discarding the data internally. All target transactions will be translated into XL bus master transactions.

There are two address translation registers that must be initialized before data transfer can begin. These address registers correspond to BAR0 and BAR1 in MCF548*x* PCI Type 00h Configuration space register (PCI space). When there is a hit on MCF548*x* PCI base address ranges (0 or 1), the upper bits of the address are written over by this register value to address some space in MCF548*x*. One 256-Kbyte base address range (BAR0) maps to non-prefetchable local memory and one 1-Gbyte range (BAR1) targeted to prefetchable memory.

19.4.5.1 Reads from Local Memory

MCF548*x* can provide continuous data to a PCI master using two 32-byte buffers. The PCI controller bursts reads internally at each 32-byte PCI address boundary. The data is stored in the first 32-byte buffer until either the PCI master flushes the data or the transaction terminates (PCIFRAME deasserts). For prefetchable memory (BAR1 space), the next line can be fetched from memory in anticipation of the next PCI request and stored in the second buffer. Prefetching is performed for BAR1 addressed transactions if the PCI command is a Memory Read Multiple or the prefetch bit is set in the Target Control Register (PCITCR).

19.4.5.2 Local Memory Writes

The target interface always posts writes. This allows for data to be latched while waiting for internal access to local memory.While PCI burst transactions are accepted, writes are sent out on the internal bus as single-beat. A 32-byte posted write buffer is implemented to improve data throughput.

If the PCI controller aborts the transaction in the middle of PCI burst due to internal conflicts, the external master recognizes some of the data as transferred. (Subsequent transfers of a burst will be aborted on PCI bus). The external PCI master must query the "Target abort signalled" bit in the PCI Type 00h configuration status register to determine if a target abort occurred.

19.4.5.3 Data Translation

The XL bus supports misaligned operations, however, it is strongly recommended that software attempt to transfer contiguous code and data where possible. Non-contiguous transfers degrade performance. PCI-to-XL bus transaction data translation is shown in [Table 19-53](#page-524-0) and [Table 19-54.](#page-524-1)

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Table 19-54. Non-Contiguous PCI to XL Bus Transfers (Requires Two XL Bus Accesses)

Table 19-54. Non-Contiguous PCI to XL Bus Transfers (Requires Two XL Bus Accesses) (Continued)

19.4.5.4 Target Abort

A target abort will occur if the PCI address falls within a base address window (BAR0 or BAR1) that has not been enabled. See [Section 19.3.2.2, "Target Base Address Translation Register 0 \(PCITBATR0\),](#page-474-0)" and [Section 19.3.2.3, "Target Base Address Translation Register 1 \(PCITBATR1\).](#page-475-0)"

19.4.5.5 Latrule Disable

The latrule disable bit in the interface control register, [Section 19.3.2.4, "Target Control Register](#page-475-1) [\(PCITCR\),](#page-475-1)" prevents the PCI controller from automatically disconnecting a target transaction due to the PCI 16/8 clock rule. With this bit set, it is possible to hang the PCI bus if the internal bus does not complete the data transfer.

19.4.6 Communication Subsystem Initiator Interface

This interface provides for high-speed, autonomous DMA transactions to PCI with the PCI controller operating as a standard communication subsystem peripheral. Full duplex operation is supported and direct XL bus transactions can also be interleaved while comm bus transactions are in progress. Internal arbitration will occur continuously to support transaction interleaving. [\(Section 19.4.2, "Initiator](#page-514-2) [Arbitration](#page-514-2)") Multichannel DMA operation operates independently of the XL bus. Non-PCI transactions

on the XL bus will have 100% bandwidth available to them during PCI multichannel DMA activities. In general, this block will be used by functions in the multichannel DMA API.

The communication subsystem initiator interface consists of Receive and Transmit FIFOs, integrated as separate multichannel DMA peripherals. Therefore, it is generally controlled by the multichannel DMA controller through a pre-described program loop. As with all communication subsystem peripherals, it can be accessed and controlled directly through the slave bus interface if desired, but this path does not generally lend itself to high throughput.

The Transmit and Receive FIFOs are 32×36 bits and support PCI bursts up to 8 beats. This burst size is programmable. The general approach is to write a PCI command and address to the control register along with the number of bytes to be transmitted (Packet_Size).

When transmitting data, the module will wait for the Transmit FIFO to fill and then begin transmitting the data onto the PCI bus. Multichannel DMA must handle filling the Transmit FIFO to support the specified number of bytes. Transmission will continue until the specified number of bytes have been sent.

When reading data, the module will check that enough space is available in the Receive FIFO and immediately begin PCI read transactions. Multichannel DMA must handle emptying the Receive FIFO to support the specified number of bytes. Transmission will continue until the specified number of bytes have been received.

At this point, software must restart the procedure by at least re-writing the Packet Size register. Each transmission of the specified number of bytes is considered a "packet". A new packet can be instructed to continue at the last valid PCI address or software may choose to write a new starting address. The largest burst size is 8 and the largest Packet_Size is 65,532, so a packet will typically consist of many PCI data bursts.

The Transmit Controller will wait until sufficient bytes are in the Transmit FIFO to support a full burst and will continue in this mode until the entire packet is transmitted. Similarly, the Receive Controller will stall until sufficient space is available in the Receive FIFO to support a full burst. If the packet is nearly done and the number of bytes remaining to complete the packet is less than Max_beats, the remaining data will be performed as single-beat PCI transactions.

19.4.6.1 Access Width

This multichannel DMA module primarily performs 32-bit data accesses to and from PCI, even though some signals are referred to in bytes. The two least significant bits of the PCITPSR and PCIRPSR value are ignored. All PCI byte enables are enabled during these types of accesses. Additionally, the FIFOs should only be accessed using 32-bit accesses.

The communication subsystem interface optionally supports 16 bit accesses on the PCI bus. Because reads and writes to and from the FIFO require 32-bit accesses, using this option requires padding the remaining 16 bits of data.

19.4.6.2 Addressing

The communication subsystem initiator interface does not use the addressing windows that are set up for the XL bus initiator interface. Instead, the Tx Start Address register and Rx Start Address register are used. Software programs these registers with the initial starting address for the packet. The module contains an internal counter which will present the incremented PCI address at the beginning of each successive burst for packet transfers.

If the Disable Increment bit is set, the PCI controller will present the same address during the address phase of each PCI transaction throughout the entire packet transmission.

19.4.6.3 Data Translation

The PCI bus is inherently little endian in its byte ordering. The comm bus however is big endian. [Table 19-55](#page-527-0) shows the byte lane mapping between the two buses. Because this interface only allows 32-bit accesses, there is only one entry.

	Comm Bus						PCI Data Bus					
Transfer cAddress		cByte Enable		Data Bus			PCIAD	BE	Data Bus			
	[1:0]	[3:0]	31:24	23:16	15:8	7:0	[1:0]	$[3:0]$	31:24	23:16	15:8	7:0
long	00	1111	OP ₀	OP ₁	OP ₂	OP3	00	0000	OP ₃	OP ₂	OP ¹	OP ₀

Table 19-55. Comm Bus to PCI Byte Lanes for Memory Transactions

19.4.6.4 Initialization

The following list is the recommended procedure for setting up either the Transmit or Receive controller.

- 1. Set the Start Address
- 2. Set the PCI command, Max_Retries, and Max_Beats
- 3. Set mode, Continuous or Non-continuous
- 4. Reset the FIFO
- 5. Set the FIFO Alarm and Granularity fields
- 6. Set the Master Enable bit
- 7. Set the Reset Controller bit low
- 8. Write the Packet Size value to begin the transfer

19.4.6.5 Restart and Reset

This section describes Restart and Reset operation for both the Transmit and Receive controllers of the communications subsystem interface.

A Restart sequence is required whenever the controller ends a packet transmission, either normally or abnormally. In non-continuous mode, a new Start_Add value is generally required since this value is re-used as the start of the next packet once it is Restarted. In Continuous mode, the Start_Add value is not reused. Instead, the next packet begins where the last one left off, but a Restart sequence is still required to get this next packet started.

Writing a non-zero value to the Packet_Size register generates a Restart pulse to the controller. If the Master Enable bit is low when the Packet Size register is written, the Restart pulse will occur when the Master Enable bit is programmed high. Depending on the desired mode of operation other register accesses may be required, as described in the following paragraphs.

If Continuous mode is not selected, operation is fairly straight forward. Upon packet termination, Restart will not occur until Packet_Size is written with a non-zero value, even if the packet size is the same it must be re-written. The Master Enable bit was previously high and can remain so. The Reset Controller bit was previously low and can remain so. Toggling the Master Enable or Reset bit is unnecessary but would not disrupt the transmit controller. If any other Control values, e.g. Start_Add, are to be changed they should be written either prior to writing the Packet Size value or written while the Master Enable bit is negated and the Reset Controller bit is negated. The recommended approach is to write the control values in order (Packet_Size must be last) and not toggle the Master Enable bit. The Reset bit should remain negated.

If Continuous mode is active, basic operation is still straight forward. A Restart is achieved by writing the Packet_Size register to a non-zero value (just as before). When a Restart occurs, the Bytes_Done counter is cleared to begin counting for the current packet and the Packets Done counter increments. The Packets_Done counter indicates the total number of previously completed packets. However, the Master Enable and Reset bits must not toggle in this case. If the Master Enable bit goes low the Packets_Done counter can be reset. If the Reset bit goes high the Start_Add value will be re-loaded and subsequent transactions will begin at this address. The Reset Controller bit will reset the counter and reload the Start Add value into the transmit controller, thus achieving a total reset of a continuous mode sequence. In any case, it is still required that the Packet_Size register be written to complete a Restart sequence.

The Master Enable bit, if negated, will block a Restart sequence until asserted, but allows Control values to be updated without order dependency. A side effect is it can reset the Packets_Done counter, which is a concern in continuous mode only.

The Reset bit, if asserted, will force a Reset of the controller. All continuous mode effects will be reset and the Start_Add value is re-loaded. The Reset bit provides the only means to re-load the Start_Add value into the controller while Continuous mode is active. In either mode it provides a means to clear the controller in cases of abnormal termination. Note, a new Start_Add value must be written prior to clearing the Reset bit.

The Reset bit must be negated while the required write to the Packet Size register is accomplished to facilitate a Restart.

19.4.6.6 PCI Commands

The expected PCI commands are memory write for transmit and memory read for receive. These are independent of cache or line size. This permits the number of data beats per transaction to be flexible. If any requirements exist on number of data beats, then the software must carefully consider the possibilities. If the Max_Beats setting does not divide properly into the Packet_Size setting then the packet will end up with one or more single-beat transactions. Setting Max_Beats to 1 will force all transactions to be single-beat but will affect throughput.

In normal operation, all PCI byte enables will be asserted for PCI transactions through this interface, except if the 16-bit Word register bit is set in the Tx Transaction Control Register (PCITTCR) or Rx Transaction Control Register (PCIRTCR), in which case BE[3:0] = 1100.

Configuration accesses to an external target should be handled exclusively by using the XL bus interface in conjunction with the PCI Configuration Address Register.

19.4.6.7 FIFO Considerations

Careful consideration must also be given to filling and counting bytes of the Transmit FIFO and emptying and counting bytes of the Receive FIFO. This operation is expected to be accomplished through by the multichannel DMA.

19.4.6.8 Alarms

The FIFO alarm registers allow software to control when the DMA fills or empties the appropriate FIFO. The alarm field of the controller's FIFO control register should be programmed to a value greater than or equal to the maximum number of beats multiplied by four in order to avoid data transfer stalls. The alarm and granularity fields should be programmed so that the sum of the values they represent is not greater than or equal to the FIFO size(128 bytes) or else the controller's request to the DMA may immediately deassert.

19.4.6.9 Bus Errors

Because bus errors are particular to the module register set and that register set includes both transmit and receive controller and FIFO settings, the bus error status bits and Bus error Enable bit(s) are duplicated in the Transmit and Receive register groupings. Clearing or setting one will clear or set the other. From a software point of view, then, they can be treated separately or together, as desired.

19.4.7 PCI Clock Scheme

The MCF548*x* requires a clock generated by an external PLL to be input to the CLKIN signal in order to generate an internal PCI clock. The MCF548*x* uses this clock as its reference clock. The internal PLL generates the internal PCI clock and all other clocks for the system. The PCI Global Status/Control Register on [page 14](#page-473-0) reflects the PLL programmed ratios.

CLKIN	PCI CLK	XL Bus CLK	CPU Core CLK	XL Bus Multiplier
25 MHz	25 MHz	100 MHz	200 MHz	
25-50 MHz	25-50 MHz	50-100 MHz	100-200 MHz	

Table 19-56. PCI and System Clock Frequencies

The PCI bus clock to external PCI devices is generated from an external PLL, while the internal PCI clock is generated from the MCF548*x* internal PLL. The XL bus is always faster than the PCI clock.

19.4.8 Interrupts

19.4.8.1 PCI Bus Interrupts

MCF548*x* does not generate interrupts on the PCI bus interrupt lines INTA - INTD.

19.4.8.2 Internal Interrupt

The PCI module is capable of generating three interrupts to MCF548*x* interrupt controller in MCF548*x* SIU. Each interrupt can be enabled for a variety of conditions, mostly error conditions. For the XL bus Initiator interface, the internal interrupt can be enabled for Retry errors, Target Aborts and Initiator (Master) Aborts. See [Section 19.3.2.9, "Initiator Control Register \(PCIICR\),](#page-479-0)" and [Section 19.3.2.10,](#page-480-0) ["Initiator Status Register \(PCIISR\),](#page-480-0)" for more information. For the comm bus Initiator interface, an internal interrupt can be enabled for FIFO errors and Normal Termination of a packet transfer for either the Receive (Rx) or Transmit (Tx) interface. For more information, see the enable and status registers for the comm bus transmit and receive interfaces, [Section 19.3.3.1, "Comm Bus FIFO Transmit Interface,](#page-482-0)" and [Section 19.4, "Functional Description.](#page-507-0)"

19.5 Application Information

This section provides example usage of some of the features of the PCI module.

19.5.1 XL Bus-Initiated Transaction Mapping

The use of the PCI configuration address register along with the initiator window registers provide many possibilities for PCI command and address generation. [Table 19-57](#page-530-1) shows how the PCI Controller accepts

read and write requests from an XL bus master and decodes them to different address ranges resulting in the generation of memory, I/O, configuration, interrupt acknowledge and special cycles on the PCI bus. The window registers are defined in [Section 19.3.2.6, "Initiator Window 1 Base/Translation Address](#page-477-0) [Register \(PCIIW1BTAR\)](#page-477-0)," through [Section 19.3.2.8, "Initiator Window Configuration Register](#page-478-0) [\(PCIIWCR\).](#page-478-0)"

—Dual Address Cycles and Memory Write and Invalidate Commands are not supported

—x means "don't care"

19.5.2 Address Maps

The address mapping in MCF548*x* system is setup by software through a number of base address registers. . The internal CPU writes the base address value to module base address register MBAR. MBAR holds the base address for the 256-Kbyte space allocated to internal registers.

19.5.2.1 Address Translation

19.5.2.1.1 Inbound Address Translation

The MCF548*x*-as-target occupies two memory target address windows on the PCI bus. The location is determined by the values programmed to BAR0 and BAR1 of the PCI Type 00h configuration space. These inbound memory window sizes are fixed to one 256-Kbyte window (BAR0) and one 1-Gbyte window (BAR1).

PCI inbound address translation allows address translation to any space in MCF548*x* space (4 Gbytes of address space). The target base address translation registers TBATR0 and TBATR1 specify the location of the inbound memory window. These registers are described in [Section 19.4.3, "Configuration Interface"](#page-515-1). Address translation occurs for all enabled inbound transactions. If the enable bit of the target base address translation registers is cleared, MCF548*x* aborts all PCI memory transactions to that base address window.

Note, the PCI configuring master can program BAR0 to overlap BAR1. The default address translation value is TBATR1 in that case. It is not recommended to program overlapping BAR0 and BAR1 or overlapping TBATR0 and TBATR1. An overlap of TBATRs can cause data write-over of BAR0 data.

The Initiator Window Base Address Registers are used to decode XL bus addresses for PCI bus transactions. The base address and base address mask values define the upper byte of address to decode. The XL bus address space in MCF548*x* dedicated to PCI transactions can be mapped to three 16-Mbyte or larger address spaces in the MCF548*x*. Initiator Windows can be programmed to overlap, though not recommended. Priority for the windows is 0, 1, 2. That is, initiator window 0 has priority over all others and window 1 has priority over window 2.

In normal operation, software should not program either Target Address Window Translation Register to address Initiator Window space. In that event, a MCF548*x*-as-Target transaction would propagate through the MCF548*x*'s internal bus and request PCI bus access as the PCI Initiator. The PCI arbiter could see the PCI bus as busy (target read transaction in progress) and only a time-out would free the PCI bus.

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Figure 19-54. Inbound Address Map

19.5.2.1.2 Outbound Address Translation

[Figure 19-55](#page-533-0) shows an example of XL Bus Initiator Window configurations. Overlapping the inbound memory window (MCF548*x* Memory) and the outbound translation window is not supported and can cause unpredictable behavior.

[Figure 19-55](#page-533-0) does not show the configuration mechanism.

Figure 19-55. Outbound Address Map

19.5.2.1.3 Base Address Register Overview

[Table 19-58](#page-533-1) shows the available accessibility for all PCI associated base address and translation address registers in the MCF548*x*.

Base Address Register	Register Function	PCI Bus Configuration Access	Processor Access	Any XL Bus Master Access
BAR ₀	PCI Base Address Register 0 (256 Kbyte)	v	Х	Х
BAR ₁	PCI Base Address Register 1 (1 Gbyte)		Х	⋏
TBATR ₀	Target Base Address Translation Register 0 (256 Kbyte)		Х	Х

Table 19-58. Address Register Accessibility

Base Address Register	Register Function	PCI Bus Configuration Access	Processor Access	Any XL Bus Master Access
TBATR1	Target Base Address Translation Register 0 (1 Gbyte)			
IMWBAR	Initiator Window Base/Translation Address Registers		Χ	х

Table 19-58. Address Register Accessibility (Continued)

19.6 XL Bus Arbitration Priority

To prevent XL bus arbitration livelock, the PCI controller should have the same or higher XL bus arbitration priority as other XL bus masters that access PCI space. If the XL bus arbiter master priority register (PRI) is used, it should be programmed so that the PCI priority value has higher XL bus priority than all other XL bus masters that address the PCI space through the XL bus slave interface of the PCI Controller. XL bus masters that do not perform transactions to PCI across the XL internal bus can have higher priority.

Note that the default priority setting uses the programmed priority settings where the G2 Core is set to highest. If the Priority Register Enable is disabled for PCI (Master 3), the arbiter uses the hardware priority values. The PCI hardwired priority is 0, highest. See [Section 20.3, "Register Definition,](#page-538-0)" for more details.

Chapter 20 PCI Bus Arbiter Module

20.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the MCF548*x* PCI bus arbiter module, including timing for request and grant handshaking, the arbitration process, and the registers in the PCI bus arbiter programing model. It also provides arbitration examples. For information on the PCI Controller, see [Chapter 19, "PCI Bus](#page-460-1) [Controller](#page-460-1)."

20.1.1 Block Diagram

Figure 20-1. PCI Arbiter Interface Diagram

20.1.2 Overview

PCI bus arbitration is access-based. Bus masters must arbitrate for each access performed on the bus. The PCI bus uses a central arbitration scheme where each PCI master has its own unique request (REQ) and grant (GNT) signal. A simple request-grant handshake is used to gain access to the bus.

The MCF548*x* contains an internal PCI bus arbiter that supports up to five external masters in addition to the MCF548*x*. It can be disabled to allow for an external PCI arbiter.

The arbiter makes use of overlapped or "hidden" arbitration to reduce arbitration overhead and improve bus utilization. Only during idle states of the PCI bus are cycles consumed due to arbitration.

When no device is using or requesting the PCI bus, the PCI arbiter parks the bus with the last master that acquired the bus. The bus is then immediately available to the selected bus master if it should require the use of the bus (and no other higher-priority request is pending). The selected master can immediately initiate a transaction as long as the PCI bus is idle. It need not assert its REQ.

20.1.3 Features

- Direct support for up to five external PCI bus masters
- Fair arbitration scheme
- Hidden bus arbitration
- Bus parking
- Master time-out
- Interface with 33 MHz and 66 MHz PCI

20.2 External Signal Description

This section defines the PCI arbiter and corresponding external I/O signals. [Table 20-1](#page-537-0) summarizes this information.

Name	Type	Function	MCF548x Reset
PCIFRM	1/O	Frame	Tristate
PCIIRDY	1/O	Initiator Ready	Tristate
CLKIN		Clock	Toggling
PCIBG0 / PCIREQOUT	Ω	External Bus Grant / Request Output	Tristate
PCIBG[4:1]	∩	External Bus Grant	Tristate
PCIBRO / PCIGNTIN		External Request / Grant Input	Tristate
PCIBR[4:0]		External Bus Request	Tristate

Table 20-1. PCI Arbiter External Signals

20.2.1 Frame (PCIFRM)

The PCIFRM signal is asserted by a PCI initiator to indicate the beginning of a transaction. It is deasserted when the initiator is ready to complete the final data phase.

20.2.2 Initiator Ready (PCIIRDY)

The PCIIRDY signal is asserted to indicate that the PCI initiator is ready to transfer data. During a write operation, assertion indicates that the master is driving valid data on the bus. During a read operation, assertion indicates that the master is ready to accept data.

20.2.3 PCI Clock (CLKIN)

The CLKIN signal serves as a reference clock for generation of the internal PCI clock.

20.2.4 External Bus Grant (PCIBG[4:1])

The PCIBG signal is asserted to an external master to give it control of the PCI bus. If the internal PCI arbiter is enabled, it asserts one of the PCIBG[4:1] lines to grant ownership of the PCI bus to an external master. When the PCI arbiter module is disabled, $\overline{PCIBG}[4:1]$ are driven high and should be ignored.

20.2.5 External Bus Grant/Request Output (PCIBG0/PCIREQOUT)

The PCIBG0 signal is asserted to external master device 0 to give it control of the PCI bus. When the PCI arbiter module is disabled, the signal operates as the PCIREQOUT output. It is asserted when the MCF548*x* needs to initiate a PCI transaction.

20.2.6 External Bus Request (PCIBR[4:1])

The PCIBR signal is asserted by an external PCI master when it requires access to the PCI bus.

20.2.7 External Request/Grant Input (PCIBR0/PCIGNTIN)

The PCIBR0 signal is asserted by external PCI master device 0 when it requires access to the PCI bus. When the internal PCI arbiter module is disabled, this signal is used as a grant input for the PCI bus, PCIGNTIN. It is driven by an external PCI arbiter.For detailed description of the PCI bus signals, see the *PCI Local Bus Specification, Revision 2.2.*

20.3 Register Definition

The PCI arbiter provides decode logic for up to sixty-four 32-bit registers, but makes use of just two. Accesses via the slave interface to and from the registers can be 8-bit, 16-bit, or 32-bit accesses. Reads to unimplemented registers return 0x0000_0000 and writes have no effect.

All registers are accessible at an offset of MBAR in the memory space. There is one module offset for PCI arbiter space at 0x0C00. Refer to for module offsets.

20.3.1 PCI Arbiter Control Register (PACR)

Figure 20-2. PCI Arbiter Control Register (PACR)

<u> The Common State</u>

Table 20-2. PACR Field Descriptions

20.3.2 PCI Arbiter Status Register (PASR)

 1 Bits 21-16 are read-write-clear (rwc).

—Hardware can set rwc bits, but cannot clear them.

—Software can clear rwc bits that are currently set by writing a 1 to the bit location. Writing a 1 to a rwc bit that is currently a 0 or writing a 0 to any rwc bit has no effect.

Figure 20-3. PCI Arbiter Status Register (PASR)

Table 20-3. PASR Field Descriptions

20.4 Functional Description

20.4.1 External PCI Requests

An external PCI master may target the MCF548*x* or external slaves. The request/grant handshake always precedes any PCI bus operation. The PCI arbiter must service access requests for an external master-to-external target transactions as well as external master-to-MCF548*x* transactions.

20.4.2 Arbitration

20.4.2.1 Hidden Bus Arbitration

PCI bus arbitration can take place while the currently granted device is performing a bus transaction if another master is requesting access to the bus. As long as the bus is active, the arbiter can deassert GNT to one master and assert GNT to the next in the same cycle and no PCI bus cycles are consumed due to arbitration. The newly granted device must wait until the bus is relinquished by the current master before initiating a transaction.

20.4.2.2 Arbitration Scheme

The MCF548*x* PCI bus master logic provides a programmable two-level least recently used (LRU) priority algorithm. Two groups of masters are assigned, a high-priority group and a low-priority group. The low-priority group as a whole represents one entry in the high-priority group. If the high-priority group consists of *n* masters, then in at least every $n+1$ transactions, the highest priority is assigned to the low-priority group. Low-priority masters have equal access to the bus with respect to other low-priority masters. If there are masters programmed into both groups, masters in the high-priority group can be serviced *n* transactions out of *n*+1, while one master in the low-priority group is serviced once every *n*+1 transactions. If all masters are programmed to the same group, or if there is only one master assigned to the low-priority group, then there is no priority distinction among masters.

A LRU priority scheme allows for "fairness" in priority resolution because no one master can prevent other masters from gaining access to the bus. The priority level, high or low, provides a simple weighting mechanism for master access to the bus.

Priority in a LRU scheme adjusts so that the last master serviced is assigned the lowest priority in its level. Masters with lower priority shift to the next higher priority position. The MCF548*x* is positioned before all external devices in priority. If a master is not requesting the bus, its transaction slot is given to the next requesting device within its priority group.

During hidden arbitration, GNT given to a requesting master while the PCI bus is active may be removed and awarded to a higher priority device if a higher priority device asserts its request. If the bus is idle when a device requests the bus, the arbiter deasserts the currently asserted GNT for one PCI clock cycle. The arbiter evaluates the priorities of all requesting devices and grants the bus to the highest priority device in the next cycle.

[Figure 20-4](#page-542-0) shows the initial state of the arbitration algorithm. Two devices are assigned high-priority (the MCF548*x* and one external master) and four low-priority. If all masters request the use of the PCI bus continuously, the GNT sequence is the MCF548*x*, device 1, device 0, the MCF548*x*, device 1, device 2, the MCF548*x*, device 1, device 3, the MCF548*x*, device 1, device 4 repeating.

If device 1 is not requesting the bus, the GNT sequence is the MCF548*x*, device 0, the MCF548*x*, device 2, the MCF548*x*, device 3, the MCF548*x*, device 4 repeating. If, after this sequence completes, all devices request the bus (including now device 1), the arbiter will assign GNT to device 1 since it has been the longest since device 1 has used the bus. (It has highest priority.) Once all requests are serviced, the priority resets to the initial state.

Functional Description

20.4.2.3 Arbitration Latency

Worst case arbitration latency: arbitration latency is the number of clock cycles from a master's REQ assertion to PCI bus idle state AND its GNT assertion. In a lightly loaded system, arbitration latency would be the time it takes for the bus arbiter to assert the master's GNT (zero cycles if the arbiter is parked with the requesting master and two if parked with another master). If a transaction is in progress when the master's GNT is asserted, the master must wait for the current transaction to complete and any subsequent transactions from higher priority requesting masters. In a situation where there are multiple requesting masters, each master's tenure on the bus is limited by its master latency timer.

20.4.2.4 Arbitration Examples

[Figure 20-5](#page-543-0) shows basic arbitration. Three master devices are used to illustrate how an arbiter may alternate bus accesses. (Assume device 0, device 1, and device 2 are assigned the same priority group and no other masters are requesting use of the bus.)

Figure 20-5. Alternating Priority

Device 0 and device 1 assert REQ while the bus is parked with device 2. Because the PCI bus is idle, the arbiter deasserts GNT to the parked master (device 2) and a cycle later, grants access to device 0. Device 0's transaction begins when PCIFRAME is asserted on clock 4. (The earliest device 0 can initiate a transaction on the PCI bus is the cycle following \overline{GNT} assertion.) It leaves its \overline{RED} asserted to indicate it wants to perform another transaction. When PCIFRAME is asserted (PCI bus is active), hidden arbitration occurs and GNT to device 0 deasserts on the same cycle the arbiter asserts GNT to device 1. (Device 1 has priority because, of the two requesting masters, device 0 and device 1, device 1 is the least recently used.)

Device 0 completes its transaction on clock 5 and relinquishes the PCI bus. On clock 6, device 1 detects the PCI bus is idle (PCIFRAME and PCIIRDY deasserted) and because its GNT is still asserted, initiates the next transaction in the next cycle. To indicate it only requires this single transaction on the PCI bus, device 1 deasserts REQ on the same cycle it asserts PCIFRAME.

Because device 0 is the only other requesting device, the arbiter asserts its GNT and will leave its GNT asserted until another request is detected.

[Figure 20-6](#page-544-0) starts out just like [Figure 20-5](#page-543-0) with the bus parked with device 2 and both device 0 and device 1 requesting use of the PCI bus. (Assume device 0, device 1, and device 2 are assigned the same priority group and no other masters are requesting use of the bus.)

Figure 20-6. Higher Priority Override

The arbiter again deasserts device 2's \overline{GNT} on clock 2, but device 2 initiates a transaction in the same cycle. As long as the PCI bus is idle and \overline{GNT} is asserted, a master can begin a transaction on the next cycle. (Assertion of REQ is not required.)

Next access is again awarded to device 0 and upon detection of an idle PCI state, it performs its transaction (clocks 5 and 6). Because it has subsequent transactions to perform, device 0 leaves its REQ asserted. Like the previous timing diagram, PCI bus ownership switches to device 1.

While device 1 is performing a transaction on the PCI bus on clock 8, device 0 is the only device still requesting subsequent use of the bus. In the next cycle, the arbiter asserts GNT to device 0 in response to the request. Device 2, during that same cycle, asserts its REQ. The arbiter, because access 1 is still in progress, determines that device 2 is higher priority than device 0 (after device 1 access), rearbitrates and deasserts GNT to device 0 and asserts GNT to device 2 in the next cycle (clock 10).

20.4.3 Master Time-Out

A master is considered "broken" if it has not initiated an access (dropped PCIFRAME) after its GNT has been asserted (its REQ is also asserted) and the bus is in the idle state for 16 clocks. A 16 clock (PCI clock) timer is instituted to prevent arbitration lock-up for this case. When the timer expires, the arbiter removes the GNT from the device and gives the bus to the master with the next highest priority. Subsequent requests from the timed-out master will be ignored until its REQ is negated for at least one clock cycle.

A status bit is set when any master times out. If the corresponding interrupt enable bit is set, a CPU interrupt will assert. Software can query the status bits to detect a "broken" master in the PCI system. (See [Section 20.3.2, "PCI Arbiter Status Register \(PASR\)"](#page-540-0))

If a master does not initiate a transaction after its \overline{GNT} has been asserted, but deasserts \overline{RED} before the 16 clock timer expires, the arbiter deasserts GNT and rearbitrates for the next transaction. The master is not

considered "broken" and subsequent requests are acknowledged. This "never-mind" scenario is detrimental to system performance, however, and is not a recommended implementation.

20.5 Reset

Reset capability is provided by the MCF548*x* system reset. This signal resets both hardware and software registers in the internal PCI arbiter.

An MCF548*x* software bit external to the arbiter controls the external PCIRESET signal (See [Section 19.3.2.1, "Global Status/Control Register \(PCIGSCR\)"](#page-473-0)). During the MCF548*x* system reset, this bit is set and PCIRESET is asserted. No PCI traffic is allowed during this time. Only a software write of zero brings the PCI bus out of reset.

Because the external PCI GNT signals must tristate during PCI reset, the PCIRESET output signal is used as an output enable (active high) for all PCIGNT outputs.

20.6 Interrupts

Only a detection of a malfunctioning master can generate a CPU interrupt from the PCI arbiter module. (see [Section 20.4.3, "Master Time-Out"](#page-544-1)). If a master time-out occurs and its interrupt enable bit is set, a level high will be driven onto the interrupt signal output of the arbiter. The interrupt will deassert when either PASR[EXTMBK], the time-out status bit, or PASR[ITLMBK], the interrupt enable control bit, is cleared.

When a master time-out occurs and the corresponding status bit is set, software must write a 1 to the bit location to clear it. If the status bit generated an interrupt because the corresponding interrupt enable bit was set, clearing the status bit is one way to deassert the interrupt output. An alternate way to force the interrupt to a level low is to disable the interrupt enable that corresponds to the asserted status bit. The status bit, however, remains set.

Chapter 21 FlexCAN

21.1 Introduction

The FlexCAN module is a communication controller implementing the controller area network (CAN) protocol, an asynchronous communications protocol used in automotive and industrial control systems. It is a high speed (1 Mbps), short distance, priority-based protocol that can communicate using a variety of mediums (for example, fiber optic cable or an unshielded twisted pair of wires). The FlexCAN supports both the standard and extended identifier (ID) message formats specified in the CAN protocol specification, revision 2.0, part B.

The CAN protocol was primarily, but not only, designed to be used as a vehicle serial data bus, meeting the specific requirements of this field: real-time processing, reliable operation in the EMI environment of a vehicle, cost-effectiveness, and required bandwidth. A general working knowledge of the CAN protocol revision 2.0 is assumed in this document. For details, refer to the CAN protocol revision 2.0 specification.

21.1.1 Block Diagram

A block diagram describing the various submodules of the FlexCAN module is shown in [Figure 21-1](#page-546-0). Each submodule is described in detail in subsequent sections. The message buffer architecture is shown in [Figure 21-2](#page-547-0).

Figure 21-1. FlexCAN Block Diagram and Pinout

Figure 21-2. FlexCAN Message Buffer Architecture

21.1.2 The CAN System

A typical CAN system is shown below in [Figure 21-3](#page-547-1).

Figure 21-3. Typical CAN System

Each CAN station is connected physically to the CAN bus through a transceiver. The transceiver provides the transmit drive, waveshaping, and receive/compare functions required for communicating on the CAN

bus. It can also provide protection against damage to the FlexCAN caused by a defective CAN bus or defective stations.

21.1.3 Features

Following are the main features of the FlexCAN module:

- Full implementation of the CAN protocol specification version 2.0B
	- Standard data and remote frames (up to 109 bits long)
	- Extended data and remote frames (up to 127 bits long)
	- 0–8 bytes data length
	- Programmable bit rate up to 1 Mbps
	- Content-related addressing
- Up to 16 flexible message buffers of 0–8 bytes data length, each configurable as Rx or Tx, all supporting standard and extended messages
- Listen-only mode capability
- Three programmable mask registers: global (for MBs 0–13), special for MB14, and special for M_B15
- Programmable transmission priority scheme: lowest ID or lowest buffer number
- Time Stamp based on 16-bit free-running timer
- Global network time, synchronized by a specific message
- Programmable I/O modes
- Maskable interrupts
- Independent of the transmission medium (an external transceiver is assumed)
- Open network architecture
- Multimaster bus
- High immunity to EMI
- Short latency time due to an arbitration scheme for high-priority messages

21.1.4 Modes of Operation

21.1.4.1 Normal Mode

In normal mode, the module operates receiving and/or transmitting message frames, errors are handled normally, and all the CAN protocol functions are enabled. User and supervisor modes differ in the access to some restricted control registers.

21.1.4.2 Freeze Mode

Freeze mode is entered by:

- Setting CANMCR[FRZ], and
- Setting CANMCR[HALT], or by asserting the BKPT line.

Once entry into freeze mode is requested, the FlexCAN waits until an intermission or idle condition exists on the CAN bus, or until the FlexCAN enters the error passive or bus off state. Once one of these conditions exists, the FlexCAN waits for the completion of all internal activity like arbitration, matching, move-in, and move-out. When this happens, the following events occur:

The FlexCAN stops transmitting/receiving frames.

- The prescaler is disabled, thus halting all CAN bus communication.
- The FlexCAN ignores its Rx pins and drives its Tx pins as recessive.
- The FlexCAN loses synchronization with the CAN bus, and the NOTRDY and FRZACK bits in CANMCR are set.
- The CPU is allowed to read and write the error counter registers (in other modes they are read-only).

After engaging one of the mechanisms to place the FlexCAN in freeze mode, the user must wait for the FRZACK bit to be set before accessing any other registers in the FlexCAN, otherwise unpredictable operation may occur. In freeze mode, all memory mapped registers are accessible.

To exit freeze mode, the BKPT line must be negated or the HALT bit in CANMCR must be cleared. Once freeze mode is exited, the FlexCAN will resynchronize with the CAN bus by waiting for 11 consecutive recessive bits before beginning to participate in CAN bus communication.

21.1.4.3 Module Disabled Mode

This mode disables the FlexCAN module; it is entered by setting CANMCR[MDIS]. If the module is disabled during freeze mode, it shuts down the system clocks, sets the LPMACK bit, and clears the FRZACK bit.

If the module is disabled during transmission or reception, FlexCAN does the following:

- Waits to be in either idle or bus-off state, or else waits for the third bit of intermission and then checks it to be recessive
- Waits for all internal activities like arbitration, matching, move-in, and move-out to finish
- Ignores its Rx input pin and drives its Tx pin as recessive
- Shuts down the system clocks

The bus interface unit continues to operate, enabling the CPU to access memory mapped registers, except the free-running timer, the error counter register and the message buffers, which cannot be accessed when the module is disabled. Exiting from this mode is done by negating the MDIS bit, which will resume the clocks and negate the LPMACK bit.

21.1.4.4 Loop-Back Mode

The module enters this mode when the LPB bit in the control register is set. In this mode, FlexCAN performs an internal loop back that can be used for self test operation. The bit stream output of the transmitter is internally fed back to the receiver input. The Rx CAN input pin is ignored and the Tx CAN output goes to the recessive state (logic 1). FlexCAN behaves as it normally does when transmitting and treats its own transmitted message as a message received from a remote node. In this mode, FlexCAN ignores the bit sent during the ACK slot in the CAN frame acknowledge field to ensure proper reception of its own message. Both transmit and receive interrupts are generated.

21.1.4.5 Listen-Only Mode

In listen-only mode, the FlexCAN module is able to receive messages without giving an acknowledgment. Whenever the module enters this mode, the status of the error counters is frozen and the FlexCAN module operates like in error passive mode. Because the module does not influence the CAN bus in this mode, the host device is capable of functioning like a monitor or for automatic bit-rate detection.

21.2 External Signals

The FlexCAN module has two I/O signals connected to the external MPU pins: CANTX and CANRX. Note that the general purpose I/O (GPIO) must be configured to enable the peripheral function of the appropriate pins (refer to [Chapter 15, "GPIO"](#page-348-0)) prior to configuring a FlexCAN channel.

21.2.1 CANTX[1:0]

CANTX*n* transmits serial data to the CAN bus transceiver.

21.2.2 CANRX[1:0]

CANRX*n* receives serial data from the CAN bus transceiver.

21.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

21.3.1 FlexCAN Memory Map

The FlexCAN module address space is split into 128 bytes starting at the base address, and then an extra 256 bytes starting at the base address +128. The upper 256 are fully used for the message buffer structures, as described in [Section 21.4.2, "Message Buffer Memory Map.](#page-567-0)" Out of the lower 128 bytes, only part is occupied by various registers.

21.3.2 Register Descriptions

This section describes the registers in the FlexCAN module.

NOTE

The FlexCAN has no hard-wired protection against invalid bit/field programming within its registers. Specifically, no protection is provided if the programming does not meet CAN protocol requirements.

Programming the FlexCAN control registers is typically done during system initialization, prior to the FlexCAN becoming synchronized with the CAN bus. The configuration registers can be changed after synchronization by halting the FlexCAN module. This is done when the user sets the HALT bit in the FlexCAN module configuration register (CANMCR). The FlexCAN responds by setting the CANMCR[NOTRDY] bit. Additionally, the control registers can be modified while the MPU is in background freeze mode.

21.3.2.1 FlexCAN Module Configuration Register (CANMCR)

CANMCR defines global system configurations, such as the module operation mode and maximum message buffer configuration. Most of the fields in this register can be accessed at any time, except the MAXMB field, which should only be changed while the module is in freeze mode.

Figure 21-4. FlexCAN Module Configuration Register (CANMCR)

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Table 21-2. CANMCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

21.3.2.2 FlexCAN Control Register (CANCTRL)

CANCTRL is defined for specific FlexCAN control features related to the CAN bus, such as bit-rate, programmable sampling point within an Rx bit, loop back mode, listen-only mode, bus off recovery behavior, and interrupt enabling (for example, bus off, error). It also determines the division factor for the clock prescaler. Most of the fields in this register should only be changed while the module is disabled or in freeze mode. Exceptions are the BOFFMSK, ERRMSK, and BOFFREC bits, which can be accessed at any time.

	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16
R.	PRESDIV							RJW		PSEG1			PSEG ₂			
W																
Reset	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	0
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
	R BOFF	ERR	$\mathbf 0$	LPB	0	0	0	0	SAMP		BOFF TSYNC	LBUF	LOM		PROPSEG	
W	MSK	MSK								REC						
Reset	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$
Reg Addr	MBAR + 0xA004 (CANCTRL0); 0xA804 (CANCTRL1)															

Figure 21-5. FlexCAN Control Register (CANCTRL)

21.3.2.3 FlexCAN Timer Register (TIMER)

This register represents a 16-bit free running counter that can be read and written to by the CPU. The timer starts from 0x0000 after reset, counts linearly to 0xFFFF, and wraps around.

The timer is clocked by the FlexCAN bit-clock (which defines the baud rate on the CAN bus). During a message transmission/reception, it increments by one for each bit that is received or transmitted. When there is no message on the bus, it counts using the previously programmed baud rate. During freeze mode, the timer is not incremented.

Reg

The timer value is captured at the beginning of the identifier (ID) field of any frame on the CAN bus. This captured value is written into the TIMESTAMP entry in a message buffer after a successful reception or transmission of a message.

Writing to the timer is an indirect operation. The data is first written to an auxiliary register, then an internal request/acknowledge procedure across clock domains is executed. All this is transparent to the user, except for the fact that the data will take some time to be actually written to the register. If desired, software can poll the register to discover when the data was actually written.

Figure 21-6. FlexCAN Timer Register (TIMER)

21.3.2.4 Rx Mask Registers

These registers are used as acceptance masks for received frame IDs. Three masks are defined: a global mask, used for Rx buffers 0–13 and 16–63, and two more separate masks for buffers 14 and 15. The meaning of each mask is the following:

Mask bit $= 0$: The corresponding incoming ID bit is "don't care".

Mask bit $= 1$: The corresponding ID bit is checked against the incoming ID bit, to see if a match exists.

Note that these masks are used both for Standard and Extended ID formats. The value of mask registers should not be changed while in normal operation, as locked frames that matched a message buffer (MB) through a mask may be transferred into the MB (upon release) but may no longer match.

	Base ID ID28ID18	IDE	Extended ID .ID0	Match
MB ₂ -ID	11111111000	Ω		
MB3-ID	11111111000	1	010101010101010101	
MB4-ID	00000011111	Ω		
MB5-ID	00000011101	1	010101010101010101	
MB ₁₄ -ID	11111111000	1	010101010101010101	
Rx Global Mask	11111111110		111111100000000001	
Rx _{Msg} in ¹	11111111001	1	010101010101010101	3 ¹

Table 21-4. Mask Examples for Normal/Extended Messages

	Base ID ID28ID18	IDE	Extended ID …IDO	Match
Rx _{Msg} in ²	11111111001	Ω		2^2
Rx _{Msg} in ³	11111111001	1	010101010101010100	3
Rx _{Msg} in ⁴	01111111000	Ω		4
Rx_Msg in ⁵	01111111000	1	010101010101010101	14^{5}
RX14MASK	01111111111		111111100000000000	
Rx_Msg in ⁶	10111111000	1	010101010101010101	6
Rx _{Msg} in ⁷	01111111000	1	010101010101010101	14 ⁷

Table 21-4. Mask Examples for Normal/Extended Messages (Continued)

¹ Match for Extended Format (MB3).

- ² Match for Normal Format. (MB2).
- ³ Mismatch for MB3 because of ID0.
- ⁴ Mismatch for MB2 because of ID28.
- ⁵ Mismatch for MB3 because of ID28, Match for MB14 (Uses RX14MASK).
- ⁶ Mismatch for MB14 because of ID27 (Uses RX14MASK).
- ⁷ Match for MB14 (Uses RX14MASK).

21.3.2.4.1 FlexCAN Rx Global Mask Register (RXGMASK)

The Rx global mask bits are applied to all Rx identifiers, excluding Rx buffers 14**–**15 that have their specific $\overline{R}x$ mask registers. Access to this register is unrestricted.

Figure 21-7. FlexCAN Rx Global Mask Register (RXGMASK)

Table 21-5. RXGMASK Field Descriptions

Table 21-5. RXGMASK Field Descriptions (Continued)

21.3.2.4.2 FlexCAN Rx 14 Mask Register (RX14MASK)

The RX14MASK register has the same structure as the Rx global mask register and is used to mask message buffer 14. Access to this register is unrestricted.

Figure 21-8. FlexCAN Rx14 Mask Register

Table 21-6. RX14MASK Field Descriptions

21.3.2.4.3 FlexCAN Rx 15 Mask Register (RX15MASK)

The RX15MASK register has the same structure as the Rx global mask register and is used to mask message buffer 15. Access to this register is unrestricted.

Figure 21-9. FlexCAN Rx15 Mask Register (RX15MASK)

21.3.2.5 FlexCAN Error Counter Register (ERRCNT)

This register has two 8-bit fields reflecting the value of two FlexCAN error counters: transmit error counter (TXECTR) and receive error counter (RXECTR). The rules for increasing and decreasing these counters are described in the CAN protocol and are completely implemented in the FlexCAN module. Both counters are read-only except in freeze mode, where they can be written by the CPU.

Writing to the error counter register while in freeze mode is an indirect operation. The data is first written to an auxiliary register and then an internal request/acknowledge procedure across clock domains is executed. All this is transparent to the user, except for the fact that the data will take some time to be actually written to the register. If desired, software can poll the register to discover when the data was actually written.

FlexCAN responds to any bus state as described in the protocol, e.g. transmit error-active or error-passive flag, delay its transmission start time (error-passive), and avoid any influence on the bus when in bus off state. The following are the basic rules for FlexCAN bus state transitions:

- If the value of TXECTR or RXECTR increases to be greater than or equal to 128, the FLTCONF field in the error and status register is updated to reflect error-passive state.
- If the FlexCAN state is error-passive, and either TXECTR or RXECTR decrements to a value less than or equal to 127 while the other already satisfies this condition, the FLTCONF field in the error and status register is updated to reflect error-active state.
- If the value of TXECTR increases to be greater than 255, the FLTCONF field in the error and status register is updated to reflect bus off state, and an interrupt may be issued. The value of TXECTR is then reset to zero.
- If FlexCAN is in bus off state, then TXECTR is cascaded together with another internal counter to count the 128th occurrences of 11 consecutive recessive bits on the bus. Hence, TXECTR is reset

to zero and counts in a manner where the internal counter counts 11 such bits, then wraps around while incrementing the TXECTR. When TXECTR reaches the value of 128, the FLTCONF field in the error and status register is updated to be error-active, and both error counters are reset to zero. At any instance of dominant bit following a stream of less than 11 consecutive recessive bits, the internal counter resets itself to zero without affecting the TXECTR value.

- If during system start-up, only one node is operating, then its TXECTR increases in each message it is trying to transmit, as a result of acknowledge errors (indicated by the ACKERR bit in the error and status register). After the transition to error-passive state, the TXECTR does not increment anymore by acknowledge errors. Therefore the device never goes to the bus off state.
- If the RXECTR increases to a value greater than 127, it is not incremented further, even if more errors are detected while being a receiver. At the next successful message reception, the counter is set to a value between 119 and 127 to resume to error-active state.

Figure 21-10. FlexCAN Error Counter Register (ERRCNT)

21.3.2.6 FlexCAN Error and Status Register (ERRSTAT)

ERRSTAT reflects various error conditions, some general status of the device, and is the source of three interrupts to the host. The reported error conditions (bits 15:10) are those occurred since the last time the host read this register. The read action clears bits 15-10. Bits 9–3 are status bits.

Most bits in this register are read only, except for BOFFINT, WAKINT, and ERRINT, which are interrupt sources that can be cleared by writing 1 to them. Writing 0 has no effect. Refer to [Section 21.5.1,](#page-576-0) ["Interrupts.](#page-576-0)"

Figure 21-11. FlexCAN Error and Status Register (ERRSTAT)

[Table 21-8](#page-561-0) describes the ERRSTAT fields.

21.3.2.7 Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)

IMASK contains one interrupt mask bit per buffer. It enables the CPU to determine which buffer will generate an interrupt after a successful transmission/reception (that is, when the corresponding IFLAG bit is set).

The interrupt mask register contains two 8-bit fields: bits 15-8 (IMASK_H) and bits 7-0 (IMASK_L). The register can be accessed by the master as a 16-bit register, or each byte can be accessed individually using an 8-bit (byte) access cycle.

Table 21-9. FlexCAN Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)

[Table 21-10](#page-563-0) describes the IMASK fields.

21.3.2.8 Interrupt Flag Register (IFLAG)

IFLAG contains one interrupt flag bit per buffer. Each successful transmission/reception sets the corresponding IFLAG bit and, if the corresponding IMASK bit is set, will generate an interrupt.

The interrupt flag is cleared by writing a 1. Writing 0 has no effect.

This register contains two 8-bit fields: bits 15–8 (IFLAG_H) and bits 7–0 (IFLAG_L). The register can be accessed by the master as a 16-bit register, or each byte can be accessed individually using an 8-bit (byte) access cycle.

Table 21-11. FlexCAN Interrupt Flags Register (IFLAG)

[Table 21-12](#page-564-0) describes the IFLAG fields.

21.4 Functional Overview

The FlexCAN module is flexible in that each one of its 16 message buffers (MBs) can be assigned either as a transmit buffer or a receive buffer. Each MB, which is up to 8 bytes long, is also assigned an interrupt flag bit that indicates successful completion of either transmission or reception.

An arbitration algorithm decides the prioritization of MBs to be transmitted based on either the message ID or the MB ordering. A matching algorithm makes it possible to store received frames only into MBs that have the same ID programmed on its ID field. A masking scheme makes it possible to match the ID programmed on the MB with a range of IDs on received CAN frames. A reception queue can be implemented by programming the same ID on more than one receiving MB. Data coherency mechanisms are implemented to guarantee data integrity during MB manipulation by the CPU.

Before proceeding with the functional description, an important concept must be explained. A message buffer is said to be "active" at a given time if it can participate in the matching and arbitration algorithms that are happening at that time. An Rx MB with a 0b0000 code is inactive (refer to [Table 21-14\)](#page-566-0). Similarly, a Tx MB with a 0b1000 code is inactive (refer to [Table 21-15](#page-567-1)). A MB not programmed with either 0b0000 or 0b1000 will be temporarily deactivated (will not participate in the current arbitration/matching run) when the CPU writes to the C/S field of that MB.

NOTE

For both the transmit and the receive processes, the first CPU action in preparing a MB should be to deactivate it by setting its CODE field to the proper value. This requirement is mandatory to assure proper operation.

21.4.1 Message Buffer Structure

The message buffer structure used by the FlexCAN module is defined in the *CAN Specification Version 2.0, Part B* and is represented in [Figure 21-12.](#page-565-0) The specification includes both standard and extended frames. A standard frame is represented by the 11-bit standard identifier, and an extended frame is represented by the combined 29-bits of the standard identifier (11 bits) and the extended identifier (18 bits).

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Figure 21-12. Message Buffer Structure for Both Extended and Standard Frames

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Table 21-14. Message Buffer Codes for Rx Buffers

1 Note that for transmit message buffers (see [Table 21-15](#page-567-1)), the BUSY bit should be ignored upon read.

21.4.2 Message Buffer Memory Map

The message buffer memory map starts at an offset of 0x80 from the FlexCAN's base address (0xA000 or 0xA800). The 256-byte message buffer space is fully used by the 16 message buffer structures.

Message Buffers

Figure 21-13. FlexCAN Message Buffer Memory Map

21.4.3 Transmit Process

The CPU prepares or changes an MB for transmission by executing the following steps:

- 1. Writing the control/status word to hold $Tx \text{ MB}$ inactive (CODE = 0b1000).
- 2. Writing the ID word.
- 3. Writing the data bytes.
- 4. Writing the control/status word (active CODE, LENGTH).

NOTE

The first and last steps are mandatory!

Once the MB is activated in the fourth step, it will participate in the arbitration process which takes place every time the CAN bus is sensed as free by the receiver or at the inter-frame space, and there is at least one MB ready for transmission. This internal arbitration process is intended to select the MB from which the next frame is transmitted.

Once the arbitration process is complete and there is a "winner" MB for transmission, the frame is transferred to the serial message buffer (SMB) for transmission (move out).

While transmitting, the FlexCAN transmits up to 8 data bytes, even if the DLC is bigger in value.

At the end of the successful transmission, the value of the free-running timer (which was captured at the beginning of the ID field on the CAN bus), is written into the TIMESTAMP field in the MB, the CODE field in the control/status word of the MB is updated, and a status flag is set in the IFLAG register. An interrupt is generated if allowed by the corresponding interrupt mask register bit.

21.4.4 Arbitration Process

The arbitration process is an algorithm executed by the message buffer management (MBM) that scans the whole MB memory looking for the highest priority message to be transmitted. All MBs programmed as transmit buffers will be scanned to find the lowest ID or the lowest MB number, depending on the LBUF bit on the control register.

NOTE

If LBUF is cleared, the arbitration considers not only the ID, but also the RTR and IDE bits placed inside the ID at the same positions they are transmitted in the CAN frame.

The arbitration process is triggered in the following events:

- During the CRC field of the CAN frame
- During the error delimiter field of the CAN frame
- During intermission, if the winner MB defined in a previous arbitration was deactivated, or if there was no MB to transmit, but the CPU wrote to the C/S word of any MB after the previous arbitration finished
- When MBM is in idle or bus off state and the CPU writes to the C/S word of any MB
- Upon leaving freeze mode

Once the highest priority MB is selected, it is transferred to a temporary storage space called serial message buffer (SMB), which has the same structure as a normal MB but is not user accessible. This operation is called "move-out." At the first opportunity window on the CAN bus, the message on the SMB is transmitted according to the CAN protocol rules. FlexCAN transmits up to 8 data bytes, even if the DLC (data length code) value is bigger. Refer to [Section 21.4.6.1, "Serial Message Buffers \(SMBs\)](#page-571-0)" for more information on serial message buffers.

21.4.5 Receive Process

The CPU prepares or changes an MB for frame reception by executing the following steps:

- Writing the control/status word to hold $Rx \text{ MB}$ inactive (CODE = 0000).
- Writing the ID word.
- Writing the control/status word to mark the Rx MB as active and empty.

NOTE

The first and last steps are mandatory!

Starting from the last step, this MB is an active receive buffer and will participate in the internal matching process, which takes place every time the receiver receives an error-free frame. In this process, all active receive buffers compare their ID value to the newly received one, and if a match occurs, the frame is transferred (move in) to the first (lowest entry) matching MB. The value of the free-running timer (which

was captured at the beginning of the ID field on the CAN bus) is written into the TIMESTAMP field in the MB, the ID field, data field (8 bytes at most) and the LENGTH field are stored, the CODE field is updated and a status flag is set in the IFLAG register.

The CPU should read a receive frame from its MB in the following way:

- 1. Read the control/status word (mandatory—activates internal lock for this buffer).
- 2. Read the ID (optional—needed only if a mask was used).
- 3. Read the Data field words.
- 4. Read the free-running timer (releases internal lock —optional).

Upon reading the control and status word, if the BUSY bit is set in the CODE field, then the CPU should defer the access to the MB until this bit is negated. Reading the free running timer is not mandatory. If not executed, the MB remains locked, unless the CPU reads the C/S word of another MB. Note that only a single MB is locked at a time. The only mandatory CPU read operation is the one on the control and status word to assure data coherency.

The CPU should synchronize to frame reception by the status flag for the specific MB (see [Section 21.3.2.8, "Interrupt Flag Register \(IFLAG\)"](#page-563-1)), and not by the control/status word CODE field for that MB. This is because polling the control/status word may lock the MB (see above), and the CODE field may change before the full frame is received into the MB. The CPU should synchronize to frame reception by the status flag bit for the specific MB in one of the IFLAG registers and not by the CODE field of that MB. Polling the CODE field does not work because once a frame was received and the CPU services the MB (by reading the C/S word followed by unlocking the MB), the CODE field will not return to EMPTY. It will remain FULL, as explained in [Table 21-14](#page-566-0). If the CPU tries to workaround this behavior by writing to the C/S word to force an EMPTY code after reading the MB, the MB is actually deactivated from any currently ongoing matching process. As a result, a newly received frame matching the ID of that MB may be lost. In summary, never do polling by directly reading the C/S word of the MBs. Instead, read the IFLAG registers.

Note that the received identifier field is always stored in the matching MB, thus the contents of the identifier field in a MB may change if the match was due to mask.

21.4.5.1 Self-Received Frames

Self-received frames are frames that are sent by the FlexCAN and received by itself. The FlexCAN sends a frame externally through the physical layer onto the CAN bus, and if the ID of the frame matches the ID of the FlexCAN MB, then the frame will be received by the FlexCAN. Such a frame is a self-received frame. Note that FlexCAN does not receive frames transmitted by itself if another device on the CAN bus has an ID that matches the FlexCAN Rx MB ID.

21.4.6 Message Buffer Handling

In order to maintain data coherency and FlexCAN proper operation, the CPU must obey the rules described in [Section 21.4.3, "Transmit Process"](#page-568-0) and [Section 21.4.5, "Receive Process](#page-569-0)." Any form of CPU accessing a MB structure within FlexCAN other than those specified may cause FlexCAN to behave in an unpredictable way.

Deactivation of a message buffer (MB) is a host action that causes that message buffer to be excluded from FlexCAN transmit or receive processes. Any CPU write access to a control/status word of MB structure deactivates that MB, thus excluding it from Rx/Tx processes.

The match/arbitration processes are performed only during one period by the FlexCAN. Once a winner or match is determined, there is no re-evaluation whatsoever, in order to ensure that a receive frame is not

lost. Two or more receive MBs that hold a matching ID to a received frame do not assure reception in the FlexCAN if the user has deactivated the matching MB after FlexCAN has scanned the second.

21.4.6.1 Serial Message Buffers (SMBs)

To allow double buffering of messages, the FlexCAN has two shadow buffers called serial message buffers. These two buffers are used by the FlexCAN for buffering both received messages and messages to be transmitted. Only one SMB is active at a time, and its function depends upon the operation of the FlexCAN at that time. At no time does the user have access to or visibility of these two buffers.

21.4.6.2 Transmit Message Buffer Deactivation

Any write access to the control/status word of a transmit message buffer during the process of selecting a message buffer for transmission immediately deactivates that message buffer, removing it from the transmission process.

If the user deactivates the transmit MB while a message is being transferred from a transmit message buffer to a SMB, the message will not be transmitted.

If the user deactivates the transmit message buffer after the message is transferred to the SMB, the message will be transmitted, but no interrupt will be requested and the transmit code will not be updated.

If a message buffer containing the lowest ID is deactivated while that message is undergoing the internal arbitration process to determine which message should be sent, then that message may not be transmitted.

21.4.6.3 Receive Message Buffer Deactivation

Any write access to the control/status word of a receive message buffer during the process of selecting a message buffer for reception immediately deactivates that message buffer, removing it from the reception process.

If a receive message buffer is deactivated while a message is being transferred into it, the transfer is halted and no interrupt is requested. If this occurs, that receive message buffer may contain mixed data from two different frames.

Data should never be written into a receive message buffer. If this is done while a message is being transferred from an SMB, the control/status word will reflect a full or overrun condition, but no interrupt will be requested.

Even with the coherence mechanism described above, writing to the control and status word of active MBs when not in freeze mode may produce undesirable results. Examples are the following:

- Matching and arbitration are one-pass processes. If MBs are deactivated after they are scanned, no re-evaluation is done to determine a new match/winner. If an Rx MB with a matching ID is deactivated during the matching process after it was scanned, then this MB is marked as invalid to receive the frame, and FlexCAN will keep looking for another matching MB within the ones it has not scanned yet. If it can not find one, then the message will be lost. Suppose, for example, that two MBs have a matching ID to a received frame, and the user deactivated the first matching MB after FlexCAN has scanned the second. The received frame will be lost even if the second matching MB was "free to receive".
- If a Tx MB containing the lowest ID is deactivated after FlexCAN has scanned it, then FlexCAN will look for another winner within the MBs that it has not scanned yet. Therefore, it may transmit an MB with ID that may not be the lowest at the time, because a lower ID might be present in one of the MBs that it had already scanned before the deactivation.

• There is a point in time until which the deactivation of a Tx MB causes it not to be transmitted (end of move-out). After this point, it is transmitted but no interrupt is issued and the CODE field is not updated.

21.4.6.4 Locking and Releasing Message Buffers

Besides message buffer deactivation, the lock/release/busy mechanism is designed to guarantee data coherency during the receive process. The following examples demonstrate how the lock/release/busy mechanism will affect FlexCAN operation:

- 1. Reading a control/status word of a message buffer triggers a lock for that message buffer. A new received message frame that matches the message buffer cannot be written into this message buffer while it is locked.
- 2. To release a locked message buffer, the CPU either locks another message buffer (by reading its control/status word) or globally releases any locked message buffer (by reading the free-running timer).
- 3. If a receive frame with a matching ID is received during the time the message buffer is locked, the receive frame will not be immediately transferred into that message buffer, but will remain in the SMB. There is no indication when this occurs.
- 4. When a locked message buffer is released, if a frame with a matching identifier exists within the SMB, then this frame will be transferred to the matching message buffer.
- 5. If two or more receive frames with matching IDs are received while a message buffer with a matching ID is locked, the last received frame with that ID is kept within the serial message buffer, while all preceding ones are lost. There is no indication of lost messages when this occurs.
- 6. If the user reads the control/status word of a receive message buffer while a frame is being transferred from a serial message buffer, the BUSY code will be indicated. The user should wait until this code is cleared before continuing to read from the message buffer to ensure data coherency. In this situation, the read of the control/status word will not lock the message buffer.

Polling the control/status word of a receive message buffer can lock it, preventing a message from being transferred into that buffer. If the control/status word of a receive message buffer is read, it should then be followed by a read of the control/status word of another buffer, or by reading the free-running timer, to ensure that the locked buffer is unlocked.

NOTE

Deactivation takes precedence over locking. If the CPU deactivates a locked Rx MB, then its lock status is negated, and the MB is marked as invalid for the current matching round. Any pending message on the SMB will not be transferred to the MB anymore.

21.4.7 CAN Protocol Related Frames

21.4.7.1 Remote Frames

The remote frame is a message frame which is transmitted to request a data frame. The FlexCAN can be configured to transmit a data frame automatically in response to a remote frame, or to transmit a remote frame and then wait for the responding data frame to be received.

When transmitting a remote frame, the user initializes a message buffer as a transmit message buffer with the RTR bit set to one. Once this remote frame is transmitted successfully, the transmit message buffer automatically becomes a receive message buffer, with the same ID as the remote frame that was transmitted.

When a remote frame is received by the FlexCAN, the remote frame ID is compared to the IDs of all transmit message buffers programmed with a CODE of 1010. If there is an exact matching ID, the data frame in that message buffer is transmitted. If the RTR bit in the matching transmit message buffer is set, the FlexCAN will transmit a remote frame as a response.

A received remote frame is not stored in a receive message buffer. It is only used to trigger the automatic transmission of a frame in response. The mask registers are not used in remote frame ID matching. All ID bits (except RTR) of the incoming received frame must match for the remote frame to trigger a response transmission. The matching message buffer immediately enters the internal arbitration process, but is considered as a normal Tx MB, with no higher priority. The data length of this frame is independent of the data length code (DLC) field in the remote frame that initiated its transmission.

21.4.7.2 Overload Frames

Overload frame transmissions are not initiated by the FlexCAN unless certain conditions are detected on the CAN bus. These conditions include the following:

- Detection of a dominant bit in the first or second bit of intermission
- Detection of a dominant bit in the seventh (last) bit of the end-of-frame (EOF) field in receive frames
- Detection of a dominant bit in the eighth (last) bit of the error frame delimiter or overload frame delimiter

21.4.8 Time Stamp

The value of the free-running 16-bit timer is sampled at the beginning of the identifier field on the CAN bus. For a message being received, the time stamp will be stored in the TIMESTAMP entry of the receive message buffer at the time the message is written into that buffer. For a message being transmitted, the TIMESTAMP entry will be written into the transmit message buffer once the transmission has completed successfully.

The free-running timer can optionally be reset upon the reception of a frame into message buffer 0. This feature allows network time synchronization to be performed.

21.4.9 Bit Timing

The FlexCAN module CANCTRL configures the bit timing parameters required by the CAN protocol. The PRESDIV, RJW, PSEG1, PSEG2, and the PROPSEG fields allow the user to configure the bit timing parameters.

The prescaler divide field (PRESDIV) allows the user to select the ratio used to derive the S-clock from the system clock. The time quanta clock operates at the S-clock frequency.

The PRESDIV field controls a prescaler that generates the Serial Clock (Sclock), whose period defines the "time quantum" used to compose the CAN waveform. A time quantum is the atomic unit of time handled by the CAN engine.

A bit time is subdivided into three segments¹ (reference [Figure 21-14](#page-574-0) and [Table 21-16](#page-574-1)):

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- SYNC SEG: This segment has a fixed length of one time quantum. Signal edges are expected to happen within this section.
- Time Segment 1: This segment includes the Propagation Segment and the Phase Segment 1 of the CAN standard. It can be programmed by setting the PROPSEG and the PSEG1 fields of the CANCTRL register so that their sum (plus 2) is in the range of 4 to 16 time quanta.
- Time Segment 2: This segment represents the Phase Segment 2 of the CAN standard. It can be programmed by setting the PSEG2 field of the CANCTRL register (plus 1) to be 2 to 8 time quanta long.

Figure 21-14. Segments within the Bit Time

Table 21-16. Time Segment Syntax

Syntax	Description
SYNC SEG	System expects transitions to occur on the bus during this period.
Transmit Point	A node in transmit mode transfers a new value to the CAN bus at this point.
Sample Point	A node samples the bus at this point. If the three samples per bit option is selected, then this point marks the position of the third sample.

[Table 21-16](#page-574-1) gives an overview of the CAN compliant segment settings and the related parameter values.

NOTE

It is the user's responsibility to ensure the bit time settings are in compliance with the CAN standard. For bit time calculations, use an IPT (Information Processing Time) of 2, which is the value implemented in the FlexCAN module.

21.4.9.1 Configuring the FlexCAN Bit Timing

The following considerations must be observed when programming bit timing functions:

- If the programmed PRESDIV value results in a single system clock per one time quantum, then the PSEG2 field in CANCTRL register should not be programmed to zero.
- If the programmed PRESDIV value results in a single system clock per one time quantum, then the information processing time (IPT) equals three time quanta, otherwise it equals two time quanta.

^{1.} For further explanation of the underlying concepts please refer to ISO/DIS 11519**–**1, Section 10.3. Reference also the Bosch CAN 2.0A/B protocol specification dated September 1991 for bit timing.

If PSEG2 equals two, then the FlexCAN transmits one time quantum late relative to the scheduled sync segment.

- If the prescaler and bit timing control fields are programmed to values that result in fewer than ten system clock periods per CAN bit time and the CAN bus loading is 100%, anytime the rising edge of a start-of-frame (SOF) symbol transmitted by another node occurs during the third bit of the intermission between messages, the FlexCAN may not be able to prepare a message buffer for transmission in time to begin its own transmission and arbitrate against the message which transmitted the early SOF.
- The FlexCAN bit time must be programmed to be greater than or equal to eight system clocks, or correct operation is not guaranteed. Refer to Application Note AN1798, *CAN Bit Timing Requirements*, for more details.

21.4.10 FlexCAN Error Counters

There are two error counters in the FlexCAN: transmit error counter (TXECTR), and receive error counter (RXECTR). The rules for increasing and decreasing these counters are described in the CAN protocol, and are fully implemented in the FlexCAN.

Each counter comprises the following:

- 8 bit up/down counter
- Increment by 8 (RXECTR also by 1)
- Decrement by 1
- Avoid decrement when equal to zero
- RXECTR preset to a value $119 \le x \le 127$
- Value after reset = zero
- Detect values for error passive, bus off, and error active transitions and for alerting the host

Both counters are read only (except for freeze and halt modes).

The FlexCAN responds to any bus state as described in the protocol, e.g. transmit error active or error passive flag, delay its transmission start time (error passive), and avoid any influence on the bus when in the bus off state. The following are the basic rules for FlexCAN bus state transitions:

- If the value of TXECTR or RXECTR increases to be greater than or equal to 128, the FLTCONF field in the error status register is updated to reflect it (set error passive state).
- If the FlexCAN state is error passive, and either TXECTR counter or RXECTR then decrements to a value less than or equal to 127 while the other already satisfies this condition, the ERRSTAT[FLTCONF] field is updated to reflect it (set error active state).
- If the value of the TXECTR increases to be greater than 255, the ERRSTAT[FLTCONF] field is updated to reflect it (set bus off state) and an interrupt may be issued. The value of TXECTR is then reset to zero.
- If the FlexCAN state is bus off, then TXECTR, together with an internal counter are cascaded to count the 128 occurrences of 11 consecutive recessive bits on the bus. Hence, TXECTR is reset to zero, and counts in a manner where the internal counter counts 11 such bits and then wraps around while incrementing the TXECTR. When TXECTR reaches the value of 128, ERRSTAT[FLTCONF] is updated to be error active, and both error counters are reset to zero. At any instance of dominant bit following a stream of less than 11 consecutive recessive bits, the internal counter resets itself to zero, but does *not* affect the TXECTR value.
- If during system start-up, only one node is operating, then its TXECTR increases with each message it is trying to transmit as a result of ACKERR. A transition to bus state error passive should be executed as described, while this device never enters the bus off state.

If the RXECTR increases to a value greater than 127, it is no longer incremented, even if more errors are detected while being a receiver. At the next successful message reception, the counter is set to a value between 119 and 127, in order to return to error active state.

21.5 FlexCAN Initialization Sequence

Initialization of the FlexCAN includes the initial configuration of the message buffers and configuration of the CAN communication parameters following a reset, as well as any reconfiguration which may be required during operation. The following is a generic initialization sequence for the FlexCAN:

- 1. Initialize all operation modes
	- a) Initialize the bit timing parameters PROPSEG, PSEGS1, PSEG2, and RJW in the FlexCAN control register (CANCTRL).
	- b) Select the S-clock rate by programming the PRESDIV register.
	- c) Select the internal arbitration mode (CANCTRL[LBUF]).
- 2. Initialize message buffers
	- a) The control/status word of all message buffers must be written either as an active or inactive message buffer.
	- b) All other entries in each message buffer should be initialized as required.
- 3. Initialize mask registers for acceptance mask as needed
- 4. Initialize FlexCAN interrupt handler
	- a) Initialize the interrupt controller registers for any needed interrupts. See [Chapter 13,](#page-326-0) ["Interrupt Controller,](#page-326-0)" for more information.
	- b) Set the required mask bits in the IMASK register (for all message buffer interrupts), in CANCTRL (for bus off and error interrupts), and in CANMCR for the WAKE interrupt.
- 5. Clear the HALT bit in the module configuration register
	- a) At this point, the FlexCAN will attempt to synchronize with the CAN bus.

NOTE

In both the transmit and receive processes, the first action in preparing a message buffer should be to deactivate the buffer by setting its CODE field to the proper value. This requirement is mandatory to assure data coherency.

21.5.1 Interrupts

There are four interrupt sources for the FlexCAN module. A combined interrupt for all 16 MBs is generated by combining all the interrupt sources from MBs. This interrupt gets generated when any of the 16 MB interrupt sources generates a interrupt. In this case, the CPU must read the IFLAG register to determine which MB caused the interrupt. The other three interrupt sources (bus off, error, and wake-up) act in the same way, and are located in the error and status register. The bus off and error interrupt mask bits are located in the CANCTRL register, and the wake-up interrupt mask bit is located in the CANMCR.

Chapter 22 Integrated Security Engine (SEC)

This chapter provides an overview of the MCF548*x* security encryption controller (SEC).

NOTE

Purchasing any of the MCF548*x* devices with security requires government export control regulation.

22.1 Features

The SEC is designed to offload computationally intensive security functions, such as authentication bulk encryption from the MCF548*x* core. It is optimized to process all the algorithms associated with IPSec, SSL/TLS, iSCSI, and SRTP.

SEC features include the following:

- DEU—data encryption standard execution unit
	- DES, 3DES
	- Two key $(K1, K2, K1)$ or three Key $(K1, K2, K3)$
	- ECB and CBC modes for both DES and 3DES
- AESU—advanced encryption standard unit
	- Implements the Rinjdael symmetric key cipher
	- ECB, CBC, CCM, and counter modes
	- 128, 192, 256 bit key lengths
- AFEU—ARC four execution unit
	- Implements a stream cipher compatible with the RC4 algorithm
	- 40- to 128-bit programmable key
- MDEU—message digest execution unit
	- SHA with 160-bit or 256-bit message digest
	- MD5 with 128-bit message digest
	- HMAC with either algorithm
- RNG—one random number generator
- Master/slave logic, with DMA
	- 32-bit address/32 -bit data
	- Up to 133 MHz operation
- Two Crypto-channels, each supporting multi-command descriptor chains — Static and/or dynamic assignment of crypto-execution units via an integrated controller
- Buffer size of 512 bytes for each execution unit, with flow control for large data sizes

22.2 ColdFire Security Architecture

The ability of the SEC to be a master on the internal XLB bus allows the security core to offload the data movement bottleneck normally associated with slave-only cores.

The ColdFire core accesses the SEC primarily through data packet descriptors using system memory for data storage. When an application requires cryptographic functions, it simply creates descriptors that

define the cryptographic function to be performed and the location of the data. The SEC's bus-mastering capability permits the host processor to set up a crypto-channel with a few register writes, then the SEC can perform reads and writes on system memory to fetch data packet descriptors and complete the specified tasks.

22.3 Block Diagram

[Figure 22-1](#page-579-0) shows a block diagram of the SEC module. The bus interface module is designed to transfer 32-bit words between the internal bus and any register inside the SEC.

Figure 22-1. SEC Block Diagram

A typical operation consists of the following steps:

- An operation begins with a write of a pointer to a crypto-channel fetch register that points to a data packet descriptor.
- The channel requests the descriptor and decodes the operation to be performed.
- The channel then requests the controller to assign crypto execution units and fetch the keys, context/initialization vectors (IVs), and data needed to perform the given operation.
- The controller satisfies the requests by assigning execution units to the channel and by making requests to the master interface per the programmable priority scheme.
- As data is processed, it is written to the individual execution unit's output FIFO and then back to system memory via the bus interface.

22.4 Overview

22.4.1 Bus Interface

The bus interface manages communication between the SEC internal execution units and the internal bus. The interface uses the bus master/slave protocols. All on-chip resources are memory mapped, and the target accesses and initiator writes from the SEC must be addressed on longword boundaries. The SEC will perform initiator reads on byte boundaries and will adjust the data (realign the data) to place on longword boundaries as appropriate. Access to system memory is a critical factor in co-processor performance, and the bus interface of the SEC core allows it to achieve performance unattainable on secondary busses.

22.4.2 SEC Controller Unit

The SEC controller unit manages on-chip resources, including the individual execution units (EUs), FIFOs, the bus interface, and the internal buses that connect all the various modules. The controller receives service requests from the bus interface and various crypto-channels, and schedules the required activities. The controller can configure each of the on-chip resources in two modes:

- Static mode—The user can reserve a specific execution unit to a specific crypto-channel.
- Dynamic mode—A crypto channel can request a particular service from any available execution unit.

22.4.2.1 Static EU Access

The controller can be configured to assign one or more EUs for a particular crypto-channel. Doing so permits locking the EU to a particular context. When in this mode, the crypto-channel can be used by multiple descriptors representing the same context without unloading and reloading the context at the end of each descriptor. This mode presents considerable performance improvement over dynamic access, but only when the SEC is supporting few (or one) contexts.

22.4.2.2 Dynamic EU Access

Processing begins when a data packet descriptor pointer is written to the fetch register (FR) of one of the crypto-channels. First, the controller dynamically reserves usage of an EU to the crypto-channel. If all appropriate EUs are already dynamically reserved by other crypto-channels, the crypto-channel stalls and waits to fetch data until an appropriate EU is available. If multiple crypto-channels simultaneously request the same EU, the EU is assigned on a weighted priority or round-robin basis.

Once the required EU has been reserved, the crypto-channel fetches and loads the appropriate data packets, operates the EU, unloads data to system memory, and releases the EU for use by another crypto-channel. If a crypto-channel attempts to reserve a statically-assigned EU (and no appropriate EUs are available for dynamic assignment), an interrupt is generated and status indicates an illegal access. When dynamic assignment is used, each encryption/decryption packet descriptor must contain the context and/or keys that are required for the requested operation.

22.4.3 Crypto-Channels

The SEC includes two crypto-channels that manage data and EU function. Each crypto-channel consists of the following:

- Control registers containing information about the transaction in process
- A status register containing an indication of the last unfulfilled bus request
- A pointer register indicating the location of a new descriptor to fetch
- Buffer memory used to store the active data packet descriptor

Crypto-channels analyze the data packet descriptor header and requests the first required cryptographic service from the controller.

After the controller grants access to the required EU, the crypto-channel and the controller perform the following steps:

- 1. Set the appropriate mode bits available in the EU for the required service.
- 2. Fetch context and other parameters as indicated in the data packet descriptor buffer and use these to program the EU.
- 3. Fetch data as indicated and place in either the EU input FIFO or the EU itself (as appropriate).

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- 4. Wait for EU to complete processing.
- 5. Upon completion, unload results and context and write them to external memory as indicated by the data packet descriptor.
- 6. If multiple services requested, go back to step 2.
- 7. Reset the appropriate EU if it is dynamically assigned. Note that if statically assigned, an EU is reset only upon direct command written to the SEC.
- 8. Perform descriptor completion notification as appropriate. This notification comes in one of two forms—interrupt or header writeback modification—and can occur at the end of every descriptor, at the end of a descriptor chain, or at the end of specially designated descriptors within a chain.

22.4.4 Execution Units (EUs)

'Execution unit' is the generic term for a functional block that performs the mathematical permutations required by protocols used in cryptographic processing. The EUs are compatible with IPSec, SSL/TLS, iSCSI, and SRTP processing and can work together to perform high level cryptographic tasks. The SEC execution units are as follows:

- DEU (data encryption standard execution unit) for performing block cipher, symmetric key cryptography using DES and 3DES
- AFEU for performing RC-4 compatible stream cipher symmetric key cryptography
- AESU for performing the advanced encryption standard algorithm
- MDEU for performing security hashing using MD-5, SHA-1, or SHA-256
- RNG for random number generation

22.4.4.1 Data Encryption Standard Execution Unit (DEU)

The DES Execution Unit (DEU) performs bulk data encryption/decryption, in compliance with the Data Encryption Standard algorithm (ANSI x3.92). The DEU can also compute 3DES, an extension of the DES algorithm in which each 64-bit input block is processed three times. The SEC supports two key $(K1=K3)$ or three key 3DES.

The DEU operates by permuting 64-bit data blocks with a shared 56-bit key and an initialization vector (IV). The SEC supports two modes of IV operation: Electronic Code Book (ECB) and Cipher Block Chaining (CBC).

The DEU module computes the Data Encryption Standard algorithm (ANSI X3.92, FIPS 46-2) for block type bulk data encryption. It can also execute either the 2-key or the 3-key variants of the Triple-DES algorithm, which is based on DES. The processor supplies data to the DEU block as input, and the data will be encrypted and subsequently made available to the processor. The session key is input to the block prior to encryption.

DES is a block cipher that uses a 56-bit key (64 bits with CRC) to encrypt 64-bit blocks of data, one block at a time. A conceptual diagram of this process is shown in [Figure 22-2](#page-582-0). DES is a symmetric algorithm, so each of the two communicating parties share the same 64-bit key for encryption and decryption. DES processing begins after this shared session key is agreed upon. The text or binary message to be encrypted (typically called plaintext) is partitioned into *n* sets of 64-bit blocks. Each block is processed, in turn, by the DES engine, producing *n* sets of encrypted (ciphertext) blocks. These blocks may be transmitted to the other entity. Decryption is handled in the reverse manner. The ciphertext blocks are processed one at a time by a DES module in the recipient's system. The same key is used, and the DES block manages the key processing internally so that the plaintext blocks are recovered.

Figure 22-2. DES Encryption Process

In addition, the DEU module can compute Triple-DES. Triple-DES is an extension to the DES algorithm whereby every 64-bit input block is processed three times. A diagram of Triple-DES is shown in [Figure 22-3](#page-582-1).

Figure 22-3. Triple-DES Encryption Process (ECB Mode)

22.4.4.2 Arc Four Execution Unit (AFEU)

The AFEU accelerates a bulk encryption algorithm compatible with the RC4 stream cipher from RSA Security, Inc. The algorithm is byte-oriented, meaning a byte of plaintext is encrypted with a key to produce a byte of ciphertext. The key is variable length and the AFEU supports key lengths from 40 to 128 bits (in byte increments), providing a wide range of security strengths. ARC4 is a symmetric algorithm, meaning each of the two communicating parties share the same key.

The AFEU module computes RC4 compatible stream type bulk data encryption. The module processes eight bytes at a time, producing one byte per three clock cycles; therefore, each 64-bit word requires 24 cycles to process. A symmetric cipher, RC4 relies on a shared key (of variable size) to transform between plaintext and ciphertext.

Ciphertext/plaintext computation occurs in RC4 by XORing each byte of input text with a context-dependent output of a substitution box (S-box) to produce output text. The contents of the S-box are customized based on the input n-bit key, and S-box contents are modified with every byte processed.

The AFEU applies the input stream from and collects the output stream into 8-byte (64-bit) buffers, providing an interface consistent with other EUs on the SEC.

Figure 22-4. RC4 Encryption Process

22.4.4.3 Advanced Encryption Standard Execution Unit (AESU)

The AESU is used to accelerate bulk data encryption/decryption in compliance with the advanced encryption standard algorithm (AESA) Rinjdael. The AESU executes on 128 bit blocks with a choice of key sizes: 128, 192, or 256 bits.

AESU is a symmetric key algorithm, the sender and receiver use the same key for both encryption and decryption. The session key and initialization vector (CBC mode) are supplied to the AESU module prior to encryption. The processor supplies data to the module that is processed as 128-bit input. The AESU engine performs a fixed number of rounds for encryption or decryption depending on the key size.

Key Size	Rounds	Cycles (after initial key expansion)
128	10	11
192	12	13
256	14	15

Table 22-1. AESA Rounds as a Function of Key Size

AESU operates in ECB, CBC, OCB, and CTR modes.

Figure 22-5. AES Encryption Process

22.4.4.4 Message Digest Execution Unit (MDEU)

The MDEU computes a single message digest (or hash or integrity check) value of all the data presented on the input bus, using either the MD5, SHA-1, or SHA-256 algorithms for bulk data hashing.

- The MD5 generates a 128-bit hash, and the algorithm is specified in RFC 1321.
- SHA-1 is a 160-bit hash function, specified by the ANSI X9.30-2 and FIPS 180-1 standards.
- SHA-256 is a 256-bit hash function that provides 256 bits of security against collision attacks.

The MDEU also supports HMAC computations, as specified in RFC 2104.

With any hash algorithm, the larger message is mapped onto a smaller output space, therefore collisions are potential, albeit not probable. The 160-bit hash value is a sufficiently large space such that collisions are extremely rare. The security of the hash function is based on the difficulty of locating collisions. That is, it is computationally infeasible to construct two distinct but similar messages that produce the same hash output.

This block is useful in many applications including hashing messages to generate digital signatures or computation of a shared secret. The digital signature is typically computed on a small input, however if the data to be signed is large, it is inefficient to sign the entire data. Instead, the large input data is hashed to a smaller value which is then signed. If the message is also sent to the verifying authority along with the signature, the verifying authority can verify the signature by recovering the hash value from the signature using the public key of the sender, hashing the message itself, and then comparing the computed hash value with the recovered hash value. If they match, then the verifying authority is confident that the data was signed by the owner of the private key that matches the public key, where the private key presumably is only known by the sender. This provides a measure of authentication and non-repudiation.

A conceptual block diagram of the MDEU module is shown in [Figure 22-6.](#page-584-0) Multiple input blocks are written to the MDEU module, and at the end, the hash value is read as the 160-bit output for SHA-160, 256-bit output for SHA-256, or 128-bit output for MD5.

Figure 22-6. MDEU Hashing Process

22.4.4.5 Random Number Generator (RNG)

The RNG is a digital integrated circuit capable of generating 32-bit random numbers. It is designed to comply with FIPS 140-1 standards for randomness and non-determinism.

Because many cryptographic algorithms use random numbers as a source for generating a secret value (a nonce), it is desirable to have a private RNG for use by the SEC. The anonymity of each random number must be maintained, as well as the unpredictablility of the next random number. The FIPS-140 'common criteria' compliant private RNG allows the system to develop random challenges or random secret keys. The secret key can thus remain hidden from even the high-level application code, providing an added measure of physical security.

The random number generator is responsible for creating an unpredictable sequence of bits and assembling a string of those bits into a FIFO.

CAUTION

There is no known cryptographic proof showing that this is a secure method of generating random data. In fact, there may be an attack against the random number generator if its output is used directly in a cryptographic application (the attack is based on the linearity of the internal shift registers). In light of this, it is highly recommended to use the random data produced by this module as an input seed to a NIST-approved (based on DES or SHA-1) or cryptographically-secure (RSA generator or BBS generator) random number generation algorithm.

It is also recommended to use other sources of entropy along with the RNG to generate the seed to the pseudorandom algorithm. The more random sources combined to create the seed the better. The following is a list of sources which can be easily combined with the output of this module.

- Current time using highest precision possible
- Mouse and keyboard motions (or equivalent if being used on a cell phone or PDA)
- Other entropy supplied directly by the user

NOTE

See Appendix D of the NIST Special Publication 800-90 "Recommendation for Random Number Generation Using Deterministic Random Bit Generators" for more information:

[– http://csrc.nist.gov](http://csrc.nist.gov)

22.5 Memory Map/Register Definition

This section contains the SEC address map. Many of the registers are defined as 64-bit wide, but can be addressed as two longword registers. For example, bits 63–32 of the EU assignment control register are accessed at an MBAR offset of 0x21000. Bits 31–0 are accessed at an MBAR offset of 0x21004.

[Table 22-2](#page-586-0) shows the base address map for the modules within the SEC.

Table 22-2. SEC Module Base Address Map

[Table 22-3](#page-586-1) provides the precise address map, including all registers in the execution units. The last column of the table provides a cross reference to the section where the register is described in detail.

Table 22-3. SEC Register Map

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Table 22-3. SEC Register Map (Continued)

Table 22-3. SEC Register Map (Continued)

22.6 Controller

The controller within the SEC core is responsible for overseeing the operations of the EUs, the interface to the host processor, and the management of the crypto-channels. The controller interfaces to the host via the bus interface and to the channels and EUs via internal buses.

All transfers between the host and the EUs are moderated by the controller. Some of the main functions of the controller are as follows:

- Arbitrate and control accesses to the ColdFire bus
- Control the internal bus accesses to the EUs
- Arbitrate and assign EUs to the crypto-channels
- Monitor interrupts from channels and pass to host
- Realign initiator read data to 64-bit boundary

22.6.1 EU Access

Assignment of an EU function to a channel is done either statically or dynamically. In the case of static assignment, an EU is assigned to a channel via the EU Assignment Control Register (EUACR). Once an EU is statically assigned to a channel, it will remain that way until the EUACR is written and the assignment is removed.

In the case of dynamic assignment, the channel requests an EU function, the controller checks to see if the requested EU function is available, and if it is, the controller grants the channel assignment of the EU.

22.6.2 Multiple EU Assignment

In some cases, a channel may request two EUs. The channel will do this by first requesting the primary EU, then requesting the secondary EU. Once the controller has granted both EUs, this channel is then capable of requesting that the secondary EU snoop the bus. Snooping is described in [Table 22-14](#page-600-0).

In all cases, the controller assigns the primary EU to a requesting channel as the EUs become available. The controller does not wait until both EUs are available before issuing any grants to a channel which is requesting two EU functions.

22.6.3 Multiple Channels

Since there are multiple channels in the SEC, the controller must arbitrate for access to the execution units. Because a channel cannot make instantaneous resource requests, the arbiter in the controller will toggle between channel 1 and channel 2, assuming that both channels are contesting for a given resource, such as the external bus or a particular EU.

22.6.4 Controller Registers

The controller contains the following registers, which are described in detail in the following sections.

- EU assignment control register (EUACR)
- EU assignment status register (EUASR)
- SEC interrupt mask register (SIMR)
- SEC interrupt status register (SISR)
- SEC interrupt control register (SICR)
- SEC ID register (SIDR)
- SEC master control register (SMCR)
- Master error address register (MEAR)

22.6.4.1 EU Assignment Control Registers (EUACRH and EUACRL)

These registers are used to make a static assignment of a EU to a particular crypto-channel. When assigned in this fashion, the EU is inaccessible to any other crypto-channel.

NOTE

The EU assignment control registers (EUACRH and EUACRL) are used to make, and therefore will reflect, only static assignments.

Figure 22-8. EU Assignment Control Register Low (EUACRL)

[Table 22-4](#page-590-1) describes the EUACRH and EUACRL fields.

Table 22-4. EUACRH and EUACRL Field Descriptions

Table 22-5. Channel Assignment Value

22.6.4.2 EU Assignment Status Registers (EUASRH and EUASRL)

The EUASR registers, shown in [Figure 22-9](#page-591-2) and [Figure 22-10,](#page-591-3) are used to check the assignment status (static or dynamic) of an EU to a particular crypto-channel. When an EU is already assigned, it is inaccessible to any other crypto-channel.

A four-bit field indicates the channel to which an EU is assigned, whether statically or dynamically.

Figure 22-9. EU Assignment Status Register High (EUASRH)

Figure 22-10. EU Assignment Status Register Low (EUASRL)

22.6.4.3 SEC Interrupt Mask Registers (SIMRH and SIMRL)

The SEC generates a single interrupt output from all possible interrupt sources. These sources can be masked by the SIMR registers. If unmasked, the interrupt source value, when active, is captured into the SEC interrupt status registers (SISRH and SISRL). [Figure 22-11](#page-592-1) and [Figure 22-12](#page-593-0) show the bit positions of each potential interrupt source. Each interrupt source is individually masked by setting it's corresponding bit.

22.6.4.4 SEC Interrupt Status Registers (SISRH and SISRL)

The SEC interrupt status registers contain fields representing all possible sources of interrupts. The SISR is cleared either by a reset, or by writing the appropriate bits active in the SEC interrupt control registers

(SICRH and SICRL). [Figure 22-11](#page-592-1) and [Figure 22-12](#page-593-0) shows the bit positions of each potential interrupt source.

22.6.4.5 SEC Interrupt Control Registers (SICRH and SICRL)

The SEC interrupt control registers (SICRH and SICRL) provide a means of clearing the SISR registers. When a bit in either SICR is written with a 1, the corresponding bit in the SISR is cleared, clearing the interrupt output pin IRQ (assuming the cleared bit in the SISR is the only interrupt source). If the input source to the SISR is a steady-state signal that remains active, the appropriate SISR bit, and subsequently IRQ, will be reasserted shortly thereafter. The complete bit definitions for the SICR can be found in [Figure 22-11](#page-592-1) and [Figure 22-12](#page-593-0).

When an SICR bit is written, it will automatically clear itself one cycle later. That is, it is not necessary to write a 0 to a bit position which has been written with a 1.

NOTE

Interrupts are registered and sent based upon the conditions which cause them. If the cause of an interrupt is not removed, the interrupt will return a few cycles after it has been cleared using the SICR.

Figure 22-11. SEC Interrupt Mask, Status, and Control Registers High (SIMRH, SISRH, and SICRH)

Table 22-7. SIMRH, SISRH, and SICRH Field Descriptions (Continued)

Figure 22-12. SEC Interrupt Mask, Status, and Control Registers Low (SIMRL, SISRL, and SICRL)

Table 22-8. SIMRL, SISRL, and SICRL Field Descriptions

22.6.4.6 SEC ID Register (SIDR)

The read-only SEC ID register, displayed in [Figure 22-13,](#page-594-2) contains a 32-bit value that uniquely identifies the version of the SEC. The value of this register is always 0x0900_0000.

Figure 22-13. ID Register (SIDR)

22.6.4.7 SEC Master Control Register (SMCR)

The SEC master control register (SMCR), shown in [Figure 22-14,](#page-594-3) controls certain functions in the controller and provides a means for software to reset the SEC.

Figure 22-14. SEC Master Control Register (SMCR)

Table 22-9. SMCR Field Descriptions

Table 22-9. SMCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.6.4.8 Master Error Address Register (MEAR)

This register saves the address of the transaction whose data phase was terminated with a TEA or Master Parity Error. A Transfer Error Acknowledge (TEA) signal indicates a fatal error has occurred during the data phase of a bus transaction. Invalid data may have been received and stored prior to the receipt of the TEA. The channel that was initiating the transaction will be evident from that channel's error interrupt. Software may chose to reset the channel reporting the \overline{TEA} , reset the whole SEC, or reset the entire system. In any case, the host may chose to preserve this TEA information prior to reset to assist in debug.

The MEAR only holds the address of the first error reported, in the event multiple errors are received before the first is cleared.

[Table 22-10](#page-595-1) defines the MEAR fields.

Table 22-10. MEAR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$		ADDRESS Target address of the transaction when TEA was received.

22.7 Channels

A crypto-channel manages data associated with the one or more execution units (EUs). Control and data information for a given task is stored in the form of data packet descriptors in system memory. The descriptor describes how the EU should be initialized, where to fetch the data to be ciphered and where to

store the ciphered data the EU outputs. Through a series of requests to the controller, the crypto-channel decodes the contents of the descriptors to perform the following functions:

- Request assignment of one or more of the several EUs for the exclusive use of the channel.
- Request assignment of the MDEU when the descriptor header calls for multi-operation processing. The MDEU will be configured to snoop input or output data intended for the primary assigned EU.
- Reset assigned $EU(s)$.
- Automatically initialize mode registers in the assigned EU upon notification of completion of the EU reset sequence.
- Automatically initialize the key and key size in the assigned EU after requesting a write to EU key address space.
- Automatically initialize data size in the assigned EU before requesting a write to EU FIFO address space.
- Transfer data packets (up to 32Kbytes) from system memory (master read) into assigned EU input registers and FIFOs (EU write).
- Transfer data packets (up to 32Kbytes) from assigned EU output registers and FIFOs (EU read) to system memory space (master write).
- Release assigned EU(s).
- Automatically fetch the next descriptor from system memory and start processing, when chaining is enabled. Descriptor chains can be of unlimited size.
- Provide feedback to host, via interrupt, when a descriptor, or a chain of descriptors, has been completely processed.
- Provide feedback to host, via modified descriptor header write back to system memory, when a descriptor, or a chain of descriptors, has been completely processed.
- Provide feedback to host, via interrupt, when descriptor processing is halted due to an error.
- Detect static assignment of EU(s) by the controller and alter descriptor processing flow to skip EU request and EU release steps. The channel will also automatically reset the EU_DONE interrupt after receiving indication that processing of input data has been completed by the EU.

The channel will wait indefinitely for the controller to complete a requested activity before continuing to process a descriptor.

22.7.1 Crypto-Channel Registers

Each crypto-channel contains the following registers:

- Crypto-channel configuration register (CCCR*n*)
- Crypto-channel pointer status register (CCPSR*n*)
- Current descriptor pointer register (CDPR*n*)
- Fetch register (FR*n*)
- Data packet descriptor buffer (CFBUF*n*)

22.7.1.1 Crypto-Channel Configuration Registers (CCCRn)

This register contains five operational bits permitting configuration of the crypto-channel as shown in [Figure 22-16](#page-597-0).

Figure 22-16. Crypto-Channel Configuration Register (CCCRn)

[Table 22-12](#page-598-1) defines the burst size according to the value displayed in the BURST_SIZE field.

Table 22-12. Burst Size Definition

22.7.1.2 Crypto-Channel Pointer Status Registers (CCPSRHn and CCPSRLn)

These registers contain status fields and counters which provide the user with status information regarding the channel's actual processing of a given descriptor.

Figure 22-17. Crypto-Channel Pointer Status Register High (CCPSRHn)

[Table 22-15](#page-602-0) shows the values of crypto-channel states.

Table 22-15. STATE Field Values

Table 22-15. STATE Field Values (Continued)

22.7.1.3 Crypto-Channel Current Descriptor Pointer Register (CDPRn)

The CDPR, shown in [Figure 22-19,](#page-604-2) contains the address of the data packet descriptor which the crypto-channel is currently processing. This register, along with the PAIR_PTR in the CCPSR, can be used to determine if a new descriptor can be safely inserted into a chain of descriptors.

[Table 22-16](#page-604-3) describes the CDPR*n* fields.

Table 22-16. CDPRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	Current Descriptor Pointer	Current descriptor pointer address. Pointer to system memory location of the current descriptor. This field reflects the starting location in system memory of the descriptor currently loaded into the DB. This value is updated whenever the crypto-channel requests a fetch of a descriptor from the controller. Either the value of the fetch register or the next descriptor pointer in the current descriptor is transferred to the current descriptor pointer register immediately after the fetch is completed. This address will be used as destination of the write back of the modified header, if header writeback notification is enabled. If a descriptor is written directly into the descriptor buffer, the host is responsible for writing a meaningful pointer value into the Current Descriptor Pointer field.

22.7.1.4 Fetch Register (FRn)

The FR, displayed in [Figure 22-20,](#page-605-2) contains the address of the first byte of a descriptor to be processed. In typical operation, the host CPU will create a descriptor in memory containing all relevant mode and location information for the SEC, and then "launch" by writing the address of the descriptor to the fetch register.

Writes to the FR, while the channel is already processing a different descriptor, will be registered and held pending until the channel finishes processing the current descriptor or chain of descriptors. When the end of the current descriptor or chain of descriptors is reached, the descriptor pointed to by the FR will be treated as the next descriptor in a multi-descriptor chain. In this case, the FR must be written to before the channel begins end of descriptor notification. If the register is written after notification has begun, the descriptor will not be considered part of the current chain and will be fetched as a new stand-alone descriptor or start of chain after the notification process has completed.

In summary, a channel is initiated by a direct write to the FR, and the channel always checks the FR before determining if it has truly reached the end of a chain.

Figure 22-20. Fetch Register (FRn)

[Table 22-17](#page-605-3) describes the FR*n* fields.

Table 22-17. FRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	FETCH ADDR	Fetch address. Pointer to system memory location of a descriptor the host wants the SEC to fetch.

22.7.1.5 Data Packet Descriptor Buffer (CDBUFn)

This bank of eight registers stores the header, followed by length/pointer pairs, followed by a next data packet descriptor pointer. These registers fully describe the service the SEC is to perform. The header indicates the precise service (Single-DES CBC encryption or generate random numbers are two examples), and the length/pointer pairs indicate the number and location of data and context information needed to complete the service.

22.8 ARC Four Execution Unit (AFEU)

This section contains details about the ARC Four Execution Unit (AFEU), including register details.

22.8.1 AFEU Register Map

The registers used in the AFEU are documented primarily for debug and target mode operations. The AFEU contains the following registers:

- Reset control register
- Status register
- Interrupt status register
- Interrupt mask register

22.8.2 AFEU Reset Control Register (AFRCR)

This register, as shown in [Figure 22-21,](#page-606-1) allows three levels of reset that effect the AFEU only, as defined by three self-clearing bits. It should be noted that the AFEU executes an internal reset sequence for

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hardware reset, software reset, or module initialization, which performs proper initialization of the S-Box. To determine when this is complete, observe the RD bit in the AFEU status register.

Table 22-18. AFRCR Field Descriptions

22.8.3 AFEU Status Register (AFSR)

This status register, shown in [Figure 22-22](#page-607-0), contains 6 bits which reflect the state of the AFEU internal signals. The AFEU status register is read-only. Writing to this location will result in address error being reflected in the AFEU interrupt status register.

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Figure 22-22. AFEU Status Register (AFSR)

[Table 22-19](#page-607-1) describes AFEU status register fields.

22.8.4 AFEU Interrupt Status Register (AFISR)

The interrupt status register, seen in [Figure 22-23](#page-608-1), tracks the state of possible errors, if those errors are not masked via the AFEU interrupt mask register.

Figure 22-23. AFEU Interrupt Status Register (AFISR)

[Table 22-20](#page-608-2) describes AFEU interrupt status register fields.

Table 22-20. AFISR Field Descriptions

Bits	Names	Description
31	ME.	Mode error. An illegal value was detected in the mode register. Note: writing to reserved bits in mode register is likely source of error. 0 No error detected 1 Mode error
30	AE.	Address error. An illegal read or write address was detected within the AFEU address space. 0 No error detected 1 Address error

22.8.5 AFEU Interrupt Mask Register (AFIMR)

The interrupt mask register, shown in [Figure 22-24](#page-610-0), controls the result of detected errors. For a given error, if the corresponding bit in this register is set, the error is disabled; no error interrupt occurs and the interrupt status register is not updated to reflect the error. If the corresponding bit is not set, then upon detection of an error, the interrupt status register is updated to reflect the error, causing assertion of the error interrupt signal, and causing the module to halt processing.

Figure 22-24. AFEU Interrupt Mask Register (AFIMR)

[Table 22-21](#page-610-1) describes AFEU interrupt mask register fields.

Table 22-21. AFIMR Field Descriptions

Table 22-21. AFIMR Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.9 Data Encryption Standard Execution Units (DEU)

This section contains details about the Data Encryption Standard Execution Units (DEU), including detailed register map, modes of operation, status and control registers, and FIFOs.

22.9.1 DEU Register Map

The registers used in the DEU are documented primarily for debug and target mode operations. If the SEC requires the use of the DEU when acting as an initiator, accessing these registers directly is unnecessary. The device drivers and the on-chip controller will abstract register level access from the user. The DEU contains the following registers:

- Reset control register
- Status register
- Interrupt status register
- Interrupt mask register

22.9.2 DEU Reset Control Register (DRCR)

This register, shown in [Figure 22-25](#page-612-1), allows 3 levels reset of just DEU, as defined by three self-clearing bits.

Figure 22-25. DEU Reset Control Register (DRCR)

[Table 22-22](#page-612-0) describes DEU reset control register fields.

Table 22-22. DRCR Field Descriptions

Bits	Names	Description
$31 - 27$		Reserved
26	RI.	Reset interrupt. Writing this bit active high causes DEU interrupts signalling DONE and ERROR to be reset. It further resets the state of the DEU interrupt status register. 0 Don't reset 1 Reset interrupt logic
25	MI	Module initialization is nearly the same as software reset, except that the interrupt control register remains unchanged, this module initialization includes execution of an initialization routine, completion of which is indicated by the RD bit in the DEU status register 0 Don't reset 1 Reset most of DEU
24	SR	Software reset is functionally equivalent to hardware reset (the RSTI pin), but only for DEU. All registers and internal state are returned to their defined reset state. After the reset completes, the DEU will enter a routine to perform proper initialization of the parameter memories. The RD bit in the DEU status register will indicate when this initialization routine is complete 0 Don't reset 1 Full DEU reset
$23-0$		Reserved

22.9.3 DEU Status Register (DSR)

This status register, displayed in [Figure 22-26](#page-613-0), contains 6 bits which reflect the state of DEU internal signals.

The DEU status register is read-only. Writing to this location will result in address error being reflected in the DEU interrupt status register.

Figure 22-26. DEU Status Register (DSR)

[Table 22-23](#page-613-1) describes the DEU status register's bit settings.

Bits	Name	Description
25	ID	Interrupt done. This status bit reflects the state of the DONE interrupt signal, as sampled by the controller interrupt status register (Section 22.6.4.4, "SEC Interrupt Status Registers (SISRH and SISRL)"). 0 DEU is not signaling done 1 DEU is signaling done
24	RD.	Reset done. This status bit, when high, indicates that DEU has completed its reset sequence, as reflected in the signal sampled by the appropriate crypto-channel. 0 Reset in progress 1 Reset done
$23 - 0$		Reserved

Table 22-23. DSR Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.9.4 DEU Interrupt Status Register (DISR)

The DEU interrupt status register, shown in [Figure 22-27,](#page-614-0) tracks the state of possible errors, if those errors are not masked, via the DEU interrupt mask register.

Figure 22-27. DEU Interrupt Status Register (DISR)

[Table 22-24](#page-614-1) describes DEU interrupt register signals.

Table 22-24. DISR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
31	ME	Mode error. An illegal value was detected in the mode register. Note: writing to reserved bits in mode register is likely source of error. 0 No error detected Mode error
30	AE	Address error. An illegal read or write address was detected within the DEU address space. 0 No error detected 1 Address error

Table 22-24. DISR Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.9.5 DEU Interrupt Mask Register (DIMR)

The interrupt mask register controls the result of detected errors. For a given error (as defined in [Section 22.9.4, "DEU Interrupt Status Register \(DISR\)](#page-614-2)"), if the corresponding bit in this register is set, then the error is ignored; no error interrupt occurs and the interrupt status register is not updated to reflect the error. If the corresponding bit is not set, then upon detection of an error, the interrupt status register is updated to reflect the error, causing assertion of the error interrupt signal, and causing the module to halt processing.

Figure 22-28. DEU Interrupt Mask Register (DIMR)

26 | IFO | Input FIFO overflow. The DEU input FIFO has been pushed while full.

Table 22-25. DIMR Field Descriptions

22.10 Message Digest Execution Unit (MDEU)

This section contains details about the message digest execution unit (MDEU), including register details.

22.10.1 MDEU Register Map

The registers used in the MDEU are documented primarily for debug and target mode operations. If the requires the use of the MDEU when acting as an initiator, accessing these registers directly is unnecessary. The device drivers and the on-chip controller will abstract register level access from the user.

The MDEU contains the following registers:

- Reset control register
- Status register
- Interrupt status register
- Interrupt control register

22.10.2 MDEU Reset Control Register (MDRCR)

This register, shown in [Figure 22-29,](#page-618-0) allows three levels reset of just the MDEU, as defined by the three self-clearing bits.

[Table 22-26](#page-618-1) describes MDEU reset control register fields.

22.10.3 MDEU Status Register (MDSR)

This status register, as seen in [Figure 22-30](#page-619-0), contains 5 bits that reflect the state of the MDEU internal signals. The MDEU status register is read-only. Writing to this location will result in an address error being reflected in the MDEU interrupt status register.

Figure 22-30. MDEU Status Register (MDSR)

[Table 22-27](#page-619-1) describes MDEU status register fields.

Table 22-27. MDSR Field Descriptions

22.10.4 MDEU Interrupt Status Register (MDISR)

The interrupt status register tracks the state of possible errors, if those errors are not masked, via the MDEU interrupt mask register. The definition of each bit in the interrupt status register is shown in [Figure 22-31](#page-620-0).

[Table 22-28](#page-620-1) describes MDEU interrupt status register fields.

Table 22-28. MDISR Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.10.5 MDEU Interrupt Mask Register (MDIMR)

The MDEU interrupt mask register, shown in [Figure 22-32](#page-622-0), controls the result of detected errors. For a given error, if the corresponding bit in this register is set, then the error is disabled; no error interrupt occurs and the interrupt status register is not updated to reflect the error. If the corresponding bit is not set, then upon detection of an error, the interrupt status register is updated to reflect the error, causing assertion of the error interrupt signal, and causing the module to halt processing.

Figure 22-32. MDEU Interrupt Mask Register (MDIMR)

[Table 22-28](#page-620-1) describes MDEU interrupt mask register fields.

22.11 RNG Execution Unit (RNG)

The RNG is an execution unit capable of generating 32-bit random numbers. It is designed to comply with the FIPS-140 standard for randomness and non-determinism. A linear feedback shift register (LSFR) and cellular automata shift register (CASR) are operated in parallel to generate pseudo-random data.

22.11.1 RNG Register Map

The registers used in the RNG are documented primarily for debug and target mode operations. If the requires the use of the RNG when acting as an initiator, accessing these registers directly is unnecessary. The device drivers and the on-chip controller will abstract register level access from the user.

The single RNG contains the following registers:

- Reset control register
- Status register
- Interrupt status register
- Interrupt control register

22.11.2 RNG Reset Control Register (RNGRCR)

This register, shown in [Figure 22-33,](#page-623-0) contains three reset options specific to the RNG.

Figure 22-33. RNG Reset Control Register (RNGRCR)

[Table 22-30](#page-624-0) describes RNG reset control register fields.

22.11.3 RNG Status Register (RNGSR)

This RNG status register, [Figure 22-34,](#page-624-1) contains 4 bits which reflect the state of the RNG internal signals. The RNG status register is read-only. Writing to this location will result in an address error being reflected in the RNG interrupt status register.

Figure 22-34. RNG Status Register (RNGSR)

[Table 22-31](#page-625-0) describes RNG status register fields.

Table 22-31. RNGSR Field Descriptions

22.11.4 RNG Interrupt Status Register (RNGISR)

The RNG interrupt status register tracks the state of possible errors, if those errors are not masked, via the RNG interrupt mask register. The definition of each bit in the interrupt status register is shown in [Figure 22-35](#page-625-1).

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[Table 22-32](#page-626-0) describes RNG interrupt status register fields.

22.11.5 RNG Interrupt Mask Register (RNGIMR)

The RNG interrupt mask register controls the result of detected errors. For a given error, if the corresponding bit in this register is set, then the error is disabled; no error interrupt occurs and the interrupt status register is not updated to reflect the error. If the corresponding bit is not set, then upon detection of an error, the interrupt status register is updated to reflect the error, causing assertion of the error interrupt signal, and causing the module to halt processing.

[Table 22-33](#page-627-0) describes RNG interrupt status register fields.

Table 22-33. RNGIMR Field Descriptions

22.12 Advanced Encryption Standard Execution Units (AESU)

This section contains details about the Advanced Encryption Standard Execution Units (AESU), including detailed register map, modes of operation, status and control registers.

22.12.1 AESU Register Map

The registers used in the AESU are documented primarily for debug and target mode operations. If the SEC requires the use of the AESU when acting as an initiator, accessing these registers directly is unnecessary. The device drivers and the on-chip controller will abstract register level access from the user.

The AESU contains the following registers:

- Reset control register
- Status register
- Interrupt status register
- Interrupt control register

22.12.2 AESU Reset Control Register (AESRCR)

This register allows three levels reset of just AESU, as defined by the three self-clearing bits.

Figure 22-36. AESU Reset Control Register (AESRCR)

[Table 22-34](#page-628-0) describes AESU reset control register fields.

Table 22-34. AESRCR Field Descriptions

Bits	Names	Description
$31 - 27$		Reserved
26	RI.	Reset Interrupt. Writing this bit active high causes AESU interrupts signalling DONE and ERROR to be reset. It further resets the state of the AESU interrupt status register. 0 Don't reset 1 Reset interrupt logic
25	MI	Module initialization is nearly the same as software reset, except that the interrupt control register remains unchanged. This module initialization includes execution of an initialization routine, completion of which is indicated by the RD bit in the AESU status register 0 Don't reset 1 Reset most of AESU
24	SR.	Software reset is functionally equivalent to hardware reset (the RSTI pin), but only for AESU. All registers and internal state are returned to their defined reset state. After the reset completes, the AESU will enter a routine to perform proper initialization of the parameter memories. The RD bit in the AESU status register will indicate when this initialization routine is complete 0 Don't reset 1 Full AESU reset
$23 - 0$		Reserved

22.12.3 AESU Status Register (AESSR)

The AESU status register is a read-only register that reflects the state of six status outputs. Writing to this location will result in an address error being reflected in the AESU interrupt status register.

Figure 22-37. AESU Status Register (AESSR)

[Table 22-35](#page-629-0) describes AESU status register fields.

Table 22-35. AESSR Field Descriptions

22.12.4 AESU Interrupt Status Register (AESISR)

The AESU interrupt status register tracks the state of possible errors, if those errors are not masked, via the AESU interrupt mask register. The definition of each bit in the interrupt status register is shown in [Figure 22-38](#page-630-0).

Figure 22-38. AESU Interrupt Status Register (AESISR)

[Table 22-36](#page-630-1) describes AESU interrupt register fields.

Table 22-36. AESISR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
31	ME	Mode Error. Indicates that invalid data was written to a register or a reserved mode bit was set. Valid Data 0 1 Reserved or invalid mode selected
30	AE	Address Error. An illegal read or write address was detected within the AESU address space. 0 No error detected Address error

22.12.5 AESU Interrupt Mask Register (AESIMR)

The AESU interrupt mask register, shown in [Figure 22-39](#page-632-0), controls the result of detected errors. For a given error, if the corresponding bit in this register is set, then the error is ignored; no error interrupt occurs

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and the interrupt status register is not updated to reflect the error. If the corresponding bit is not set, then upon detection of an error, the interrupt status register is updated to reflect the error, causing assertion of the error interrupt signal, and causing the module to halt processing.

Figure 22-39. AESU Interrupt Mask Register (AESIMR)

Table 22-37. AESIMR Field Descriptions

22.13 Descriptors

As an IPSec accelerator, the SEC has been targeted for ease of use and integration with existing systems and software. As such, all cryptographic functions are accessible through data packet descriptors. In addition, some multi-function descriptors have been defined, with particular IPSec applications in mind.

The SEC has ColdFire bus mastering capability to off-load data movement and encryption operations from the host CPU. As the system controller, the host processor maintains a record of current secure sessions and the corresponding keys and contexts of those sessions. Once the host has determined a security operation is required, it can create a data packet descriptor to guide the SEC through the security operation, with the SEC acting as a bus master. The descriptor can be created in main memory, any memory local to the SEC, or written directly to the data packet descriptor buffer in the SEC crypto-channel.

22.13.1 Descriptor Structure

The SEC data packet descriptors are conceptually similar to descriptors used by most devices with DMA capability. See [Figure 22-40](#page-634-0) for a conceptual data packet descriptor. The descriptors are fixed length (64 bytes), and consist of sixteen 32-bit fields. The number of fields provided in the descriptor allows for multi-algorithm operations requiring the fetch (and potentially return) of multiple keys and contexts. Any field that is not used is NULL, meaning it is filled with all zeroes.

Descriptors begin with a header that describes the security operation to be performed and the mode the execution unit will be set to while performing the operation. The header is followed by seven data length/data pointer pairs. Data length indicates the amount of contiguous data to be transferred. This amount cannot exceed 32 Kbytes. The data pointer refers to the address of the data which the SEC fetches. Data in this case is broadly interpreted to mean keys, context, additional pointers, or the actual plaintext to be permuted.

Descriptors

Descriptor Pointer -	Descriptor Header	
$+0x04$	Data Field Length 1	
$+0x08$	Data Field Pointer 1	
$+0x0C$	Data Field Length 2	
$+0x10$	Data Field Pointer 2	
$+0x14$	Data Field Length 3	
$+0x18$	Data Field Pointer 3	
$+0x1C$	Data Field Length 4	
$+0x20$	Data Field Pointer 4	
$+0x24$	Data Field Length 5	
$+0x28$	Data Field Pointer 5	
$+0x2C$	Data Field Length 6	
$+0x30$	Data Field Pointer 6	
$+0x34$	Data Field Length 7	
+0x38	Data Field Pointer 7	
$+0x3C$	Next Descriptor Pointer	

Figure 22-40. Data Packet Descriptor Format

22.13.1.1 Descriptor Header

Descriptors are created by the host to guide the SEC through required crypto-graphic operations. The descriptor header defines the operations to be performed, mode for each operation, and internal addressing used by the controller and channel for internal data movement. [Figure 22-41](#page-634-1) shows the descriptor header.

Figure 22-41. Descriptor Header

[Table 22-38](#page-635-0) defines the header bits.

[Table 22-39](#page-636-0) shows the permissible values for the descriptor TYPE field in the descriptor header. See [Section 22.13.3, "Descriptor Type Formats"](#page-639-0) for more information on the data length and pointer pairs required for each descriptor type.

Table 22-39. Descriptor Types

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22.13.1.2 Descriptor Length and Pointer Fields

The length and pointer fields represent one of seven data length/pointer pairs. Each pair defines a block of data in system memory. The length field gives the length of the block in bytes. The maximum allowable number of bytes is 32 Kbytes. A value of zero loaded into the length field indicates that this length/pointer pair should be skipped and processing should continue with the next pair.

The pointer field contains the address, in ColdFire global memory, of the first byte of the data block. Transfers from the ColdFire bus with the pointer address set to zero will have the length value written to the EU, and no data fetched from the memory.

[Table 22-40](#page-637-0) shows the data packet descriptor length field mapping.

Table 22-40. Descriptor Data Packet Length Field Mapping

[Figure 22-43](#page-637-1) shows the descriptor data packet pointer field. The data pointer refers to the address of the data which the SEC fetches. Data in this case is broadly interpreted to mean keys, context, additional pointers, or the actual plaintext to be permuted.

Figure 22-43. Descriptor Data Packet Pointer Field

[Table 22-41](#page-637-2) shows the descriptor data packet pointer field mapping.

[Table 22-44](#page-640-0) shows how the length/pointer pairs should be used with the various descriptor types to load keys, context, and data into the execution units, and how the required outputs should be unloaded.

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22.13.1.3 Null Fields

On occasion, a descriptor field may not be applicable to the requested service. With seven length/pointer pairs, it is possible that not all descriptor fields will be required to load the required keys, context, and data. (Some operations do not require context, others may only need to fetch a small, contiguous block of data.) Therefore, when processing data packet descriptors, the SEC will skip entirely any pointer that has an associated length of zero.

22.13.1.4 Next Descriptor Pointer

Following the length/pointer pairs is the 'Next Descriptor' field, which contains the pointer to the next descriptor in memory. Upon completion of processing of the current descriptor, this value, if non-zero, is used to request a burst read of the next data packet descriptor. This automatic load of the next descriptor is referred to as descriptor chaining. See [Section 22.13.2, "Descriptor Chaining"](#page-638-0) for more information.

[Figure 22-44](#page-638-1) displays the next descriptor pointer field.

Figure 22-44. Next Descriptor Pointer Field

[Table 22-42](#page-638-2) describes the descriptor pointer field mapping.

Table 22-42. Next Descriptor Pointer Field Mapping

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	NDP	Next descriptor pointer. Contains the address, in global memory space, of the next descriptor to be fetched if descriptor chaining is enabled. This field should be cleared if chaining is not required.

22.13.2 Descriptor Chaining

Descriptor chaining provides a measure of 'decoupling' between host CPU activities and the status of the SEC. Rather than waiting for the SEC to signal DONE, and arbitrating for the bus in order to write directly to the fetch register in the crypto-channel, the host can simply create new descriptors in memory, and chain them to descriptors which have not yet been fetched by the SEC by filling the next descriptor pointer field with the address of the newly created descriptor. Whether or not processing continues automatically following next-descriptor fetch and whether or not an interrupt is generated depends on the programming of the Crypto-Channel's configuration register.

See [Section 22.7.1.1, "Crypto-Channel Configuration Registers \(CCCRn\)](#page-596-0)," for additional information on how the SEC can be programmed to signal and act upon completion of a descriptor.

NOTE

It is possible to insert a descriptor into an existing chain; however, great care must be taken when doing so.

[Figure 22-45](#page-639-1) shows a conceptual chain, or 'linked list' of descriptors.

Figure 22-45. Chain of Descriptors

22.13.3 Descriptor Type Formats

The SEC accepts 12 fixed format descriptors. The descriptor TYPE field in the descriptor header informs the crypto-channel of the ordering of the inputs and outputs defined by the length/pointer pairs in the descriptor body. The ordering of inputs and outputs in the length/pointer pairs (as defined by descriptor type) are shown in [Table 22-44](#page-640-0).

[Table 22-43](#page-639-2) shows the permissible values for the TYPE field in the descriptor header.

NOTE

Not all descriptor types are operationally useful. Some exist for test and debug reasons and to provide flexibility in dealing with evolving security standards. The cryptographic transforms required by most security protocols use types 0001 and 0010.

Value	Descriptor Type	Notes
0000	aesu_ctr_nonsnoop	AESU CTR nonsnoooping
0001	common nonsnoop no afeu	Common, nonsnooping, non-PKEU, non-AFEU
0010	hmac_snoop_no_afeu	Snooping, HMAC, non-AFEU
0011	non_hmac_snoop_no_afeu	Snooping, non-HMAC, non-AFEU
0100	aseu_key expand_output	Non-snooping, non HMAC, AESU, expanded key out

Table 22-43. Descriptor Types

[Table 22-44](#page-640-0) shows how the length/pointer pairs should be used with the various descriptor types to load keys, context, and data into the EUs, and how the required outputs should be unloaded.

NOTE

Some of the inputs and outputs will be optional depending on the exact usage of the descriptor.

Table 22-44. Descriptor Length/Pointer Mapping

22.13.4 Descriptor Classes

The SEC has two general classes of descriptors: dynamic, which refers to a continually changing usage model, and static, which refers to a relatively unchanging usage of the SEC resources.

22.13.4.1 Dynamic Descriptors

In a typical networking environment, packets from innumerable sessions can arrive randomly. The host must determine which security association applies to the current packet and encrypt or decrypt without any knowledge of the security association of the previous or next packet. This situation calls for the use of dynamic descriptors.

When under dynamic assignment, an EU must be used under the assumption that a different crypto-channel (with a different context) may have just used the EU and that another crypto-channel (with yet another context) may use that EU immediately after the current crypto-channel has released the EU. Therefore, for dynamic-assignment use, there is a set of data packet descriptors defined that sets up the appropriate context, performs the cipher function, and then saves the context to system memory.

[Table 22-45](#page-641-0) shows the format for a dynamic descriptor. Since TYPE 0001 and 0010 are the most commonly used, TYPE 0001 is used for the following examples. The descriptor loads context (IV) and keys into the EU. Then the input data is read and ciphered and the output is written to system memory. Finally, the new context is optionally written to system memory so that it can be used as the starting context for a new descriptor.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Address where IV is to be written (optional)
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT		Next Descriptor Pointer Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-45. Dynamic Descriptor Example (Continued)

22.13.4.2 Static Descriptors

Recall that the SEC has five execution units and two crypto-channels. The EUs can be statically assigned or dedicated to a particular crypto-channel. Certain combinations of EUs can be statically assigned to the same crypto-channel to facilitate multi-operation security processes, such as IPSec ESP mode. When the system traffic model permits its use, static assignment can offer significant performance improvements over dynamic assignment by avoiding key and context switching per packet.

NOTE

There is no mechanism for resetting an EU automatically when statically assigned, or when assignment is changed from static to dynamic. Therefore, it is recommended that the drivers always reset an EU prior to removing a static assignment to prevent the previously used context from polluting another encryption stream.

Static descriptors split the operations to be performed during a security operation into separate descriptors. The first descriptor is typically used to set the EU mode, load the key and context, and to optionally read/permute/write the first block of data. [Table 22-46](#page-642-0) shows the format for a TYPE 0001 data packet descriptor that loads a context and key, then encrypts or decrypts the first block of data. The LEN/PTR6 pair is NULL since there is no need to unload the context after the operation completes.

The middle (and multiple subsequent) descriptors contains length/pointer pairs to the remaining data to be permuted. [Table 22-47](#page-643-0) shows the format for a TYPE 0001 data packet descriptor that encrypts or decrypts a block of data. Since the context and keys were loaded into the EU by a previous data packet descriptor the LEN/PTR2 and LEN/PTR3 pairs are both NULL.

The final descriptor reads, permutes, and writes the final block of data, and outputs any context that needs to be preserved for later use. [Table 22-48](#page-643-1) shows the format for a TYPE 0001 data packet descriptor that encrypts or decrypts the final block of data and then optionally unloads the context.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	NULL
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN ₃	Key Length	NULL
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	NULL
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes to be encrypted/decrypted
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be encrypted/decrypted
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Bytes to be written (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Address where final data is written
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of IV to be written to memory (optional)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Address where IV is to be written
LEN_7	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-48. Final Static Descriptor Example (Continued)

Because the key and context are unchanging over multiple packets (or descriptors), the series of short reads and writes required to set-up and tear down a session are avoided. This savings, along with the crypto-channel having dedicated execution units, represents a noticeable performance improvement.

22.14 EU Specific Data Packet Descriptors

The following sections describe the data packet descriptor formats used with each of the SEC's EUs. The EU mode options (programmable via the PMODE and SMODE fields in the descriptor header) are also covered.

22.14.1 AFEU Mode Options and Data Packet Descriptors

The AFEU implements an acceleration of a stream cipher compatible with RC4. There are several different usage modes available.

[Table 22-49](#page-645-0) describes AFEU mode option fields.

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Table 22-49. AFEU Mode Register Field Descriptions

The AFEU mode bits do not control cryptographic modes, only operational modes. Therefore, the AFEU only uses actual descriptors, i.e. there is not a representative format that is used with multiple header values.

22.14.1.1 Dynamically Assigned AFEU

[Table 22-50](#page-645-1) shows the descriptor format to load a key into the AFEU and perform the initial context-permutation. Then the input data is ciphered and the context is unloaded.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x10200050	Perform permute and dumpt context (TYPE 0101)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN 3	Key Length	Number of bytes in key (5–16 bytes)
PTR_3	Key Pointer	Address of key to be written into AFEU
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform cipher upon
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Number of bytes of data after ciphering
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Pointer to location where cipher output is to be written
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes in context (259 bytes)
PTR 6	IV Out Pointer	Location where AFEU context output is to be written

Table 22-50. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned AFEU Using a Key

Table 22-50. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned AFEU Using a Key (Continued)

[Table 22-51](#page-646-0) shows the descriptor format to load a previously generated context into the AFEU. Then the input data is ciphered and the context is unloaded.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x1070 0050	Don't permute, context from FIFO, and dump context (TYPE 0101)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR_1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	Number of bytes in context (259 bytes)
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	Address of context to be loaded into AFEU
LEN _{_3}	Key Length	NULL
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	NULL
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered.
PTR ₄	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform cipher upon
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Number of bytes of data after ciphering
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Pointer to location where cipher output is to be written
LEN _{_6}	IV Out Length	Number of bytes in context (259 bytes)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Address where AFEU context output is to be written
LEN ₇	MD Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MD Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-51. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned AFEU Using Context

22.14.1.2 Statically Assigned AFEU

Statically assigning the AFEU to a particular crypto-channel permits the AFEU to retain state between data packets. The following descriptors support state-retention. [Table 22-52](#page-646-1) shows the descriptor format to load a key into the AFEU and perform the initial context-permutation.

Table 22-52. First Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AFEU Using a Key (Continued)

[Table 22-53](#page-647-0) shows the descriptor format to load a previously generated context into the AFEU.

Table 22-53. First Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AFEU Using a Context (Continued)

[Table 22-54](#page-648-0) shows the descriptor format for the middle descriptor to perform the cipher on a block of data using a context or key that was loaded into the AFEU using either the first descriptors.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x1010 0050	Don't permute, context in AFEU (TYPE 0101)
LEN_1	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	NULL
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_3}	Key Length	NULL
PTR_3	Key Pointer	NULL
LEN_4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered.
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform cipher upon
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Number of bytes of data after ciphering
PTR _{_5}	Data Out Pointer	Pointer to location where cipher output is to be written
LEN ₆	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_6}	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN_7	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-54. Middle Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AFEU

[Table 22-55](#page-648-1) shows the descriptor format for the final descriptor that unloads the context from the AFEU into system memory. Architectural implementation details prevent a stand alone unload-context descriptor, so context unload must always follow ciphering within a single descriptor.

Table 22-55. Final Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AFEU

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x1030 0050	Don't permute, context in AFEU, and dump context (TYPE 0101)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	NULL
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	NULL

22.14.2 DEU Mode Options and Data Packet Descriptors

[Figure 22-47](#page-649-0) shows the DEU options that are programmable via the PMODE field in the descriptor header.

Figure 22-47. DEU Mode Options

[Table 22-56](#page-649-1) describes DEU mode register fields.

Table 22-56. DEU Mode Option Field Descriptions

22.14.2.1 Dynamically Assigned DEU

For IPSec processing, it is envisioned that the SEC will need to process small packets of data associated with many different contexts. This descriptor type is designed to optimize system throughput in a case where the DEU module is dynamically assigned by the controller to whichever crypto-channel requests it.

[Table 22-57](#page-650-0) shows a descriptor that loads a key and context (IV) into the DEU, performs the cipher on data, and writes the result and optional context (IV) to memory.

[Table 22-58](#page-650-1) lists several different descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-57](#page-650-0).

Table 22-58. Typical Header Values for Dynamic DEU Descriptor Format (Continued)

22.14.2.2 Statically Assigned DEU

When statically assigned, it can be assumed that no other crypto-channel will access the DEU in between descriptors. Therefore, in this usage mode, the context remains within the DEU. The DEU is programmed with the particular mode of operation at the time of context-load. The following descriptors have been optimized for encryption/decryption of multiple data packets per context load.

[Table 22-59](#page-651-0) shows the first descriptor that loads a key and optional context (IV) into the DEU, then performs the initial cipher.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-60	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN 1	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR_1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	Number of bytes of IV to be written (always 8) (optional)
PTR_2	IV Pointer	Pointer to context to be written into DEU (optional)
LEN _{_3}	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (8 for SDES; 16 or 24 or TDES)
PTR_3	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN_4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered (multiple of 8)
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be ciphered
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR _{_5}	Data Out Pointer	Address to write output data
LEN _{_6}	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_6}	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR_7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-59. First Descriptor for a Statically Assigned DEU

[Table 22-60](#page-651-1) lists the specific descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-59](#page-651-0).

Table 22-60. Typical Header Values for First Static DEU Descriptor Format

Header Value	E/C	SЛ	E/D
0x20500010	CBC	Single DES	Encrypt
0x20400010	СВС	Single DES	Decrypt

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Table 22-60. Typical Header Values for First Static DEU Descriptor Format (Continued)

[Table 22-61](#page-652-0) shows the middle descriptor that performs a cipher on data using the key and optional context (IV) that were loaded into the DEU by the first descriptor.

[Table 22-62](#page-652-1) lists the specific descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-61](#page-652-0).

Table 22-62. Typical Header Values for Middle Static DEU Descriptor Format

Table 22-62. Typical Header Values for Middle Static DEU Descriptor Format (Continued)

[Table 22-63](#page-653-0) shows the final descriptor that performs a cipher on data using the key and optional context (IV) that were loaded into the DEU by a previous descriptor, then optionally unloads the context.

[Table 22-64](#page-653-1) lists the specific descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-63](#page-653-0).

Table 22-64. Typical Header Values Final Static DEU Descriptor Format

Header Value	E/C	S/T	E/D
0x20600010	CBC	Triple DES	Decrypt
0x20100010	ECB	Single DES	Encrypt
0x20000010	ECB	Single DES	Decrypt
0x20300010	ECB	Triple DES	Encrypt
0x20200010	ECB	Triple DES	Decrypt

Table 22-64. Typical Header Values Final Static DEU Descriptor Format (Continued)

22.14.3 MDEU Mode Options and Data Packet Descriptors

The MDEU mode options, shown in [Figure 22-48](#page-654-0), contains 8 bits which are used to program the MDEU. The mode options are cleared when the MDEU is reset or re-initialized. Setting a reserved mode bit will generate a data error. If the mode options are modified during processing, a context error will be generated.

Figure 22-48. MDEU Mode Options

[Table 22-65](#page-654-1) describes MDEU mode option fields.

Table 22-65. MDEU Mode Option Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$\overline{2}$	PD.	Pad. If set, configures the MDEU to automatically pad partial message blocks. 0 Do not autopad 1 Perform automatic message padding whenever an incomplete message block is detected.
$1 - 0$	ALG	Algorithm selection. Determines the algorithm to be used for operations. 00 SHA-160 algorithm (full name for SHA-1) SHA-256 algorithm 01 MD5 algorithm 10 Reserved

Table 22-65. MDEU Mode Option Field Descriptions (Continued)

The MDEU implements hardware accelerated hashing of data using MD5, SHA-160, or SHA-256. Because it supports several different hashing algorithms, there are four representative descriptor formats supporting more different actual descriptors. The only variation between the actual descriptors are the values used for the header fields.

22.14.3.1 Recommended Settings for MDEU Mode Register

The most common task that is likely to be executed by means of the MDEU is HMAC generation. HMACs are used to provide message integrity within a number of security protocols, including IPSec and SSL/TLS. [Table 22-66](#page-655-0) shows the recommended MDEU mode register settings for using a single dynamic descriptor or a chain of descriptors when the MDEU is statically assigned.

Descriptor Type	Continue	Initialize	HMAC	Pad
Dynamic Descriptor	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
First Static Descriptor	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Middle Static Descriptor	Yes	No	No	No
Final Static Descriptor	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table 22-66. Recommended MDEU Mode Register Settings

22.14.3.2 Dynamically Assigned MDEU

[Table 22-67](#page-656-0) shows the descriptor format used for a dynamically assigned MDEU. The context is loaded into the MDEU, input data is fetched and hashed, then the output data and context are written to memory. Note that the result of a hash is also the context. Because all of the data necessary to calculate the HMAC in a single dynamic descriptor is available, Initialize and Autopad are set, while Continue is off.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor TYPE 0001, which defines the input and output ordering for "common nonsnoop no afeu." This is the descriptor type used for most operations which do not require a secondary EU. Following some null pointers, the context (optional) and the key is loaded (for HMAC mode), followed by the length and pointer to the data over which the HMAC will be calculated.

The data is brought into the MDEU input FIFO, and when the final byte of data to be hashed has been processed through the MDEU, the descriptor will cause the MDEU to write the hash to the indicated area in system memory. The SEC will write the results (16, 20, or 32 bits) to memory. Depending on whether the packet is inbound or outbound, the host will either insert the most significant bytes (the exact number of bytes used depends on the security protocol) of the HMAC generated by the SEC into the packet header

(outbound) or compare the hash generated by the SEC with the hash which was received with the packet (inbound). If the hashes match, the packet integrity check passes.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	see Table 22-68	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN_1	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	Number of bytes of IV to be written (optional) (40 bytes)
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	Pointer to context to be written into MDEU (optional)
LEN ₃	Key Length	Number of bytes of key (only used for HMAC mode)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Pointer to key (only used for HMAC mode)
LEN_4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be hashed
PTR ₄	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform hash upon
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	NULL
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_6}	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of data after hashing (16, 20, or 32 for hash result. 40 bytes for full context including message length count.)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Pointer to location where hash output is to be written
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-67. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned MDEU

[Table 22-68](#page-656-1) lists several different descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-67](#page-656-0).

Table 22-68. Typical Header Values for Dynamic MDEU Format

Header Value	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x30500010	SHA256	No	Yes
0x30600010	MD ₅	No.	Yes
0x30400010	SHA	No	Yes
0x31D0010	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x31E00010	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x31C00010	SHA	Yes	Yes

22.14.3.3 Statically Assigned MDEU

[Table 22-69](#page-657-0) shows the first descriptor for a statically assigned MDEU.

[Table 22-70](#page-657-1) lists several different descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-69](#page-657-0).

Table 22-70. Typical Header Values for Using First Static MDEU Descriptor Format

[Table 22-71](#page-657-2) shows the middle descriptor for a statically assigned MDEU.

Table 22-71. Middle Descriptor for a Statically Assigned MDEU

[Table 22-72](#page-658-0) lists several different descriptors that use the middle descriptor format shown in [Table 22-71](#page-657-2).

NOTE

For the middle descriptor the HMAC bit should always be cleared, even if HMAC is the desired final value. Therefor the table below does not include any HMAC specific settings.

[Table 22-73](#page-658-1) shows the final descriptor for a statically assigned MDEU.

Table 22-73. Final Descriptor for a Statically Assigned MDEU

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Field Name	Value/Type	Description
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Pointer to key (only used for HMAC mode)
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be hashed
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform hash upon
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_5}	Data Out Pointer	NULL
LEN ₆	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of data after hashing (16, 20, or 32 bytes)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Pointer to location where hash output is to be written
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-73. Final Descriptor for a Statically Assigned MDEU (Continued)

[Table 22-74](#page-659-0) lists several different descriptors that use the final MDEU descriptor format shown in [Table 22-73](#page-658-1).

Table 22-74. Typical Header Values for Using Final Static MDEU Descriptor Format

Header Value	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x30500010	SHA256	N _o	Yes
0x30600010	MD ₅	N _o	Yes
0x30400010	SHA	N _o	Yes
0x30D00010	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x30E00010	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x30C00010	SHA	Yes	Yes

22.14.4 RNG Data Packet Descriptors

There is one RNG-specific data packet descriptor. It causes a read of the RNG's output FIFO and then writes the specified number of random bytes into external memory.

NOTE

There RNG EU does not contain any user writable mode options, so it is not defined here. The PMODE field in the header should always be '0' for RNG data packet descriptors.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x4000 0010	RNG descriptor (TYPE 0001)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL

Table 22-75. RNG Descriptor Format

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
LEN ₂	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_3}	Key Length	NULL
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	NULL
LEN ₄	Data In Length	NULL
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	Number of random bytes to be written (multiple of 4)
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Address where random numbers are written
LEN ₆	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_6}	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-75. RNG Descriptor Format (Continued)

22.14.5 AESU Mode Options and Data Packet Descriptors

The AESU mode register contains three bits which are used to program the AESU. The mode register is cleared when the AESU is reset or re-initialized. Setting a reserved mode bit will generate a data error. If the mode register is modified during processing, a context error will be generated.

[Figure 22-49](#page-660-0) shows the AESU options that are programmable via the PMODE field in the descriptor header.

Figure 22-49. AESU Mode Options

[Table 22-76](#page-660-1) describes AESU mode register fields.

Table 22-76. AESU Mode Register Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
5	FM.	Final MAC. Processes final message block and generates final MAC tag at end of message processing (OCB and CCM mode only) 0 Do not generate final MAC tag 1 Generate final MAC tag after CCM processing is complete.
4	IM	Initialize MAC. Initializes AESU for new message (CCM mode only) Do not initialize (context will be loaded by host) 0 1 Initialize new message with nonce
3		Reserved, should be cleared.
$2 - 1$	CM.	Cipher Mode. Controls which cipher mode the AESU will use in processing: 00 ECB-Electronic Codebook mode. 01 CBC- Cipher Block Chaining mode. 10 Reserved 11 CTR- Counter Mode. Note: CM must be set to 00 when Extend Cipher Mode (Bit 0) is set, otherwise an error will be generated.
Ω	ED.	Encrypt/Decrypt. If set, AESU operates the encryption algorithm; if not set, AESU operates the decryption algorithm. Note: This bit is ignored if CM is set to "11" - CTR Mode. 0 Perform decryption 1 Perform encryption

Table 22-76. AESU Mode Register Field Descriptions (Continued)

22.14.5.1 Dynamically Assigned AESU

[Table 22-77](#page-661-0) shows a descriptor for a dynamically assigned AESU. The descriptor loads a key into the AESU, performs the cipher on data, and writes the result and optional context (IV) to memory.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-61	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR ₁	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN 2	IV Length	Number of bytes in input IV (56 bytes) (optional)
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	Address of input IV (optional)
LEN ₃	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (16, 24, or 32 bytes)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered (multiple of 16)
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be ciphered
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Address to write output data
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of output IV to be written (56 bytes) (optional)

Table 22-77. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned AESU

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Address where output IV is to be written (optional)
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT		Next Descriptor Pointer Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-77. Descriptor for a Dynamically Assigned AESU (Continued)

[Table 22-78](#page-662-0) lists several different descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-77](#page-661-0).

Table 22-78. Typical Header Values for Dynamic AESU Format

Header Value	Mode	E/D
0x6030010	CBC	Encrypt
0x60200010	CBC	Decrypt
0x6010010	ECB	Encrypt
0x60000010	ECB	Decrypt
0x60600010	CTR	

22.14.5.2 Statically Assigned AESU

[Table 22-69](#page-657-0) shows the first descriptor for a statically assigned AESU.

Table 22-79. First Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AESU

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	see Table 22-80	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	Number of bytes in input IV (56 bytes) (optional)
PTR_2	IV Pointer	Address of input IV (optional)
LEN ₃	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (16, 24, or 32 bytes)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered (multiple of 16)
PTR_4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be ciphered
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Address to write output data
LEN 6	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN_7	MAC Out Length	NULL

[Table 22-80](#page-663-0) lists several different descriptors that use the format shown in [Table 22-79](#page-662-1).

[Table 22-81](#page-663-1) shows the middle descriptor for a statically assigned AESU.

[Table 22-82](#page-664-0) lists several different descriptors that use the middle descriptor format shown in [Table 22-81](#page-663-1).

Table 22-82. Typical Header Values for Using Middle Static AESU Descriptor Format

[Table 22-83](#page-664-1) shows the final descriptor for a statically assigned AESU.

Table 22-83. Final Descriptor for a Statically Assigned AESU

[Table 22-84](#page-664-2) lists several different descriptors that use the middle descriptor format shown in [Table 22-83](#page-664-1).

Table 22-84. Typical Header Values for Using Final Static AESU Descriptor Format

Table 22-84. Typical Header Values for Using Final Static AESU Descriptor Format (Continued)

22.14.5.3 AESU-CCM Mode Descriptor

The SEC supports single pass, single descriptor AES-CCM processing for generic authenticate-and-encrypt block cipher. [Table 22-85](#page-665-0) shows a the descriptor format used for AES-CCM in encryption mode. The descriptor loads a key and context (IV) into the AESU, performs the cipher on data, and writes the result and context to memory.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description	
Header	0x6B100010	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)	
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL	
PTR _{_1}	Pointer (not used)	NULL	
LEN_2	IV Length	Number of bytes in IV (always 56 bytes)	
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	Address of IV	
LEN_3	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (16 bytes)	
PTR _{_3}	Key Pointer	Address of Key	
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered (39 bytes)	
PTR_4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be ciphered	
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (24 bytes)	
PTR _{_5}	Data Out Pointer	Address to write output data	
LEN ₆	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of output IV to be written (24 or 32 bytes)	
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Address where output IV is to be written	
LEN_7	MAC Out Length	NULL	
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL	
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor	

Table 22-85. Descriptor for a AES-CCM Encryption

In order to use this descriptor format the correct ordering for the context in and context out must be used. [Table 22-86](#page-666-0) shows the format used for the context input for AES-CCM.

Offset from Input Context Base Address	Field	Length	Description
0x0	IV	16 bytes	This is the session specific IV parameter
0x10	NULL	16 bytes	These 16 bytes are loaded with zeroes to serve as a placeholder
0x20	Counter	16 bytes	The counter is a second session specific parameter similar to the IV.
0x30	Counter modulus	8 bytes	Always 8 for 802.11, but can very in other protocols.

Table 22-86. AES-CCM Encryption Context Input Format

[Table 22-87](#page-666-1) shows the format used for the context output for AES-CCM.

[Table 22-88](#page-666-2) shows a the descriptor format used for AES-CCM in encryption mode. The descriptor loads a key and context (IV) into the AESU, performs the cipher on data, and writes the result and context to memory.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x6B000010	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN 1	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	Number of bytes in IV (always 56 bytes)
PTR ₂	IV Pointer	Address of IV
LEN ₃	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (16 bytes)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered (39 bytes)
PTR 4	Data In Pointer	Address of data to be ciphered
LEN ₅	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (24 bytes)
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Address to write output data

Table 22-88. Descriptor for a AES-CCM Decryption

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of output IV to be written (24 or 32 bytes)
PTR 6	I IV Out Pointer	Address where output IV is to be written
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT		Next Descriptor Pointer Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-88. Descriptor for a AES-CCM Decryption (Continued)

[Table 22-89](#page-667-0) shows the format used for the context input for AES-CCM.

Table 22-89. AES-CCM Decryption Context Input Format

Offset from Input Context Base Address	Field	Length	Description
0x0	IV	16 bytes	This is the session specific IV parameter
0x10	Encrypted MAC	8 bytes	These 8 bytes are loaded with the encrypted MAC from the inbound frame.
0x18	Encrypted MAC (cont.)	8 bytes	These 8 bytes can be used for the continuation of the encrypted MAC if it is larger than 8 bytes. Otherwise this field should be filled with zeroes.
0x20	Counter	16 bytes	The counter is a second session specific parameter similar to the IV.
0x30	Counter modulus	8 bytes	Always 8 for 802.11, but can very in other protocols.

[Table 22-87](#page-666-1) shows the format used for the context output for AES-CCM.

Table 22-90. AES-CCM Decryption Context Output Format

Offset from Output Context Base Address	Field	Length	Description
0x0	MAC Tag	8 bytes	The MAC Tag is compared to the decrypted MAC
0x8	MAC Tag (cont.)	16 bytes	Continuation of the MAC Tag if it is larger than 8 bytes. Typically this field will be all zeroes.
0x10	Decrypted MAC	8 bytes	Compared to the MAC tag to determine if the frame passes its integrity check.
0x18	Decrypted MAC (cont.)	8 bytes	If the MAC is larger than 16 bytes, this is the continuation of the decrypted MAC.

22.14.6 Multi-Function Data Packet Descriptors

The SEC supports a limited subset of multi-function descriptors. In particular, the SEC supports chaining either DEU, AESU, or AFEU compatible outputs to the MDEU input. Further, the SEC can be configured

such that the same data read into the DEU, AESU, or AFEU modules can be simultaneously directed to the MDEU module.

22.14.6.1 Snooping

As shown in [Figure 22-41,](#page-634-0) the ST bit in the descriptor header controls the type of snooping which must occur between the primary and secondary EU. The rationale of in-snooping vs. out-snooping is found in security protocols which perform both encryption and integrity checking, such as IPSec.

Upon transmission of an IPSec ESP packet, the encapsulator must encrypt the packet payload, then calculate an HMAC over the header plus encrypted payload. Because the MDEU cannot generate the HMAC without the output of the primary EU (the one performing the encryption, typically the DEU or AESU), the MDEU must out-snoop.

Upon receiving an IPSec packet, the decapsulator must calculate the HMAC over the encrypted portion or the packet prior to decryption. In this case in-snooping would be used. This allows the MEDU to source its data from the input FIFO of the primary EU without waiting for the primary EU to finish its task.

NOTE

Slightly different portions of an IPSec packet would pass through the primary and secondary EUs in both the in-snooping and out-snooping cases. These offsets are dealt with by providing different starting pointers and byte lengths to the channel in the body of the descriptor.

[Figure 22-50](#page-668-0) illustrates in-snooping and out-snooping.

22.14.6.2 Dynamic Multi-Function Descriptor Formats

[Table 22-91](#page-669-0) shows the representative descriptor used for multi-function encryption such as inbound IPSec ESP. The descriptor header encodes to select the DEU or AESU as the primary EU, and the MDEU for the secondary EU. Because all the data necessary to calculate the HMAC in a single dynamic descriptor is available, initialize and autopad are set, while continue is cleared in the SMODE field.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor type 0010, which defines the input and output ordering for "hmac_snoop_no_afeu." The HMAC key is loaded first, followed by the length and pointer to the data over which the HMAC will be calculated. The DEU/AESU key is loaded next, followed by the context (IV). The number of bytes to be ciphered and starting address will be an offset of the number of bytes being HMAC'd. The data to be decrypted and HMAC'd is only brought in the SEC a single time, with the

DEU/AESU and MDEU only reading the portion that matches the starting address and byte length in the length/pointer fields corresponding to their data of interest.

Ciphertext is brought into the DEU/AESU input FIFO, with the MDEU in-snooping the portion of the data it has been told to process. As the decryption continues, the plaintext fills the DEU/AEU output FIFO, and this data is written back to system memory as needed. When the final byte of data to be HMAC'd has been processed through the MDEU, the descriptor will cause the MDEU to write the HMAC to the indicated area in system memory. Software will compare the most significant bytes of the HMAC generated by the SEC with the HMAC which was received with the in-bound packet (the exact number of bytes compared depend on the security protocol used). If the HMACs match, the integrity check passes.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-92	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0010)
LEN ₁	HMAC Key Length	Number of bytes in HMAC Key
PTR 1	HMAC Key Pointer	Address of HMAC Key
LEN_2	HMAC Data Length	Number of bytes to be HMAC'd
PTR_2	HMAC Data Pointer	Address of data to be HMAC'd
LEN_3	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (8, 16, 24, or 32 bytes)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN_4	IV Length	Number of bytes in IV (8, 24, or 56)
PTR_4	IV Pointer	Address of IV
LEN _{_5}	Data In Length	Bytes of ciphertext to be decrypted
PTR _{_5}	Data In Pointer	Address of ciphertext to be decrypted
LEN _{_6}	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR _{_6}	Data Out Pointer	Address where output data is to be written
LEN_7	HMAC Out Length	Number of bytes HMAC output (16, 20 or 32 bytes)
PTR 7	HMAC Out Pointer	Address where hash output is to be written
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-91. Descriptor for Dynamic Multi-Function Decryption

[Table 22-92](#page-669-1) lists typical DEU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-92. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function DEU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-93](#page-670-0) lists typical AESU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-93. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function AESU Descriptors

Header Value	Mode	E/D	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x60831D22	ECB	Decrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60831E22	ECB	Decrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60831C22	ECB	Decrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60A31D22	CBC	Decrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60A31E22	CBC	Decrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60A31C22	CBC	Decrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60E31D22	CTR		SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60E31E22	CTR.		MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60E31C22	CTR		SHA	Yes	Yes

[Table 22-94](#page-671-0) shows the representative descriptor used for multi-function encryption such as outbound IPSec ESP. The descriptor header encodes to select the DEU or AESU as the primary EU, and the MDEU for the secondary EU. Because all the data necessary to calculate the HMAC in a single dynamic descriptor is available, initialize and autopad are set, while continue is cleared in the SMODE field.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor type 0010, which defines the input and output ordering for "hmac_snoop_no_afeu." The HMAC key is loaded first, followed by the length and pointer to the data over which the HMAC will be calculated. The DEU/AESU key is loaded next, followed by the context (IV). The number of bytes to be ciphered and starting address will be an offset of the number of bytes being HMAC'd. The data to be decrypted and HMAC'd is only brought in the SEC a single time, with the DEU/AESU and MDEU only reading the portion that matches the starting address and byte length in the length/pointer fields corresponding to their data of interest.

Plaintext is brought into the DEU/AESU input FIFO, with the MDEU out-snooping the portion of the data it has been told to process. As the encryption continues, the ciphertext fills the DEU/AEU output FIFO, and this data is written back to system memory as needed. When the final byte of data to be HMAC'd has been processed through the MDEU, the descriptor will cause the MDEU to write the HMAC to the indicated area in system memory. Software will append the most significant bytes of the HMAC generated by the SEC to the packet as the authentication trailer. Common practice in IPSec ESP with TDES-CBC is to use the last 8 bytes of the ciphertext as the IV for the next packet. If this is the case, software should

copy the last 8 bytes of the ciphertext to the Security Association Database Entry for this particular session before transmitting the packet.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-95	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0010)
LEN_1	HMAC Key Length	Number of bytes in HMAC Key
PTR_1	HMAC Key Pointer	Address of HMAC Key
LEN_2	HMAC Data Length	Number of bytes to be HMAC'd
PTR_2	HMAC Data Pointer	Address of data to be HMAC'd
LEN_3	Key Length	Number of bytes in Key (8, 16, 24, or 32 bytes)
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Address of Key
LEN_4	IV Length	Number of bytes in IV (8, 24, or 56)
PTR_4	IV Pointer	Address of IV
LEN _{_5}	Data In Length	Bytes of plaintext to be encrypted
PTR ₅	Data In Pointer	Address of plaintext to be encrypted
LEN ₆	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR_6	Data Out Pointer	Address where output data is to be written
LEN_7	HMAC Out Length	Number of bytes HMAC output (16, 20 or 32 bytes)
PTR 7	HMAC Out Pointer	Address where hash output is to be written
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-94. Descriptor for Dynamic Multi-Function Encryption

[Table 22-95](#page-671-1) lists typical DEU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-95. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function DEU Descriptors

Table 22-95. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function DEU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-96](#page-672-0) lists typical AESU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-96. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function AESU Descriptors

Header Value	Mode	E/D	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x60931D20	ECB	Encrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60931E20	ECB	Encrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60931C20	ECB	Encrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60B31D20	CBC	Encrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60B31E20	CBC	Encrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60B31C20	CBC	Encrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60E31D20	CTR		SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60E31E20	CTR		MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60E31C20	CTR		SHA	Yes	Yes

22.14.6.3 Static Multi-Function Descriptor Formats

This example is designed to contrast the dynamic descriptors shown in [Section 22.14.6.2, "Dynamic](#page-668-1) [Multi-Function Descriptor Formats](#page-668-1)." For whatever reason, the data to be decrypted/encrypted and authenticated is not available in a single contiguous block, or the total data size is larger than 32 Kbytes. The user must statically assign a DEU/AESU and MDEU to a channel before launching this descriptor chain.

[Table 22-97](#page-673-0) shows the representative descriptor format for the first descriptor in a statically assigned multi-function operation descriptor chain. The first descriptor header encodes to select the DEU or AESU as the primary EU, and the MDEU for the secondary EU. Because all the data necessary to calculate the HMAC in a single dynamic descriptor is not available, initialize and continue are set and the autopad bit is cleared in the SMODE field.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor type 0010, which defines the input and output ordering for "hmac_snoop_no_afeu." The HMAC key is loaded first, followed by the length and pointer to the data over which the initial HMAC will be calculated. The DEU/AESU key is loaded next, followed by the context (IV). The number of bytes to be ciphered and starting address will be an offset of the number of bytes being HMAC'd. The data to be decrypted and HMAC'd is only brought in the SEC a single time, with the DEU/AESU and MDEU only reading the portion that matches the starting address and byte length in the length/pointer fields corresponding to their data of interest.

Input data is brought into the DEU/AESU input FIFO, with the MDEU snooping the portion of the data it has been told to process. As the decryption/encryption continues, the output data fills the DEU/AEU output FIFO, and this data is written back to system memory as needed. Because it has been told to expect more data (continue on), the descriptor must not attempt to output the HMAC.

[Table 22-98](#page-673-1) lists typical DEU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values for the first descriptor. **Table 22-98. Typical Header Values for First Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors**

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Table 22-98. Typical Header Values for First Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-99](#page-674-0) lists typical AESU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-99. Typical Header Values for Dynamic Multi-Function AESU Descriptors

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[Table 22-100](#page-675-0) shows the representative descriptor format for the middle descriptors in a statically assigned multi-function operation descriptor chain. The middle descriptor header encodes to select the DEU or AESU as the primary EU, and the MDEU for the secondary EU. Because all the data necessary to calculate the HMAC in a single dynamic descriptor is still not available, continue is set while initialize, HMAC, and autopad are cleared in the SMODE field.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor type 0010, which defines the input and output ordering for "hmac_snoop_no_afeu." The HMAC key, DEU/AESU key, and context are already loaded, and do not need to be reloaded. The length and pointer to the data over which the initial hash will be calculated must be provided for this descriptor.

Input data is brought into the DEU/AESU input FIFO, with the MDEU snooping the portion of the data it has been told to process. As the decryption/encryption continues, the output data fills the DEU/AEU output FIFO, and this data is written back to system memory as needed. Because it has been told to expect more data (continue on), the descriptor must not attempt to output the HMAC.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-101	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0010)
LEN_1	HMAC Key Length	NULL
PTR_1	HMAC Key Pointer	NULL
LEN_2	HMAC Data Length	Number of bytes to be HMAC'd
PTR_2	HMAC Data Pointer	Address of data to be HMAC'd
LEN_3	Key Length	NULL
PTR_3	Key Pointer	NULL
LEN_4	IV Length	NULL
PTR_4	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_5}	Data In Length	Bytes of input data
PTR ₅	Data In Pointer	Address of ciphertext to be decrypted
LEN _{_6}	Data Out Length	Bytes of output data (should be equal to length of data in)
PTR _{_6}	Data Out Pointer	Address where output data is to be written
LEN_7	HMAC Out Length	NULL
PTR_7	HMAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-100. Middle Descriptor for Multi-Function Encryption/Decryption

[Table 22-98](#page-673-1) lists typical DEU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values for the first descriptor. **Table 22-101. Typical Header Values for Middle Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors**

EU Specific Data Packet Descriptors

Table 22-101. Typical Header Values for Middle Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-102](#page-676-0) lists typical AESU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-102. Typical Header Values for Middle Static Multi-Function AESU Descriptors

Header Value	Mode	E/D	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x60A38222	CBC	Decrypt	MD ₅	No.	No.
0x60B38220	CBC	Encrypt	MD ₅	No.	No.
0x60A38022	CBC	Decrypt	SHA	No.	No
0x60B38020	CBC	Encrypt	SHA	No.	No.
0x60E38122	CTR	Decrypt	SHA256	No	No
0x60E38120	CTR.	Encrypt	SHA256	No.	No.
0x60E38222	CTR.	Decrypt	MD ₅	No.	No
0x60E38220	CTR	Encrypt	MD ₅	No.	No.
0x60E38022	CTR.	Decrypt	SHA	No.	No
0x60E38020	CTR	Encrypt	SHA	No.	No.

Table 22-102. Typical Header Values for Middle Static Multi-Function AESU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-103](#page-677-0) shows the representative descriptor format for the final descriptor in a statically assigned multi-function operation descriptor chain. The final descriptor header encodes to select the DEU or AESU as the primary EU, and the MDEU for the secondary EU. Because the final data necessary to calculate the HMAC is now present, the HMAC and autopad bits are set, while continue and initialize are cleared in the SMODE field.

The descriptor header also encodes the descriptor type 0010, which defines the input and output ordering for "hmac_snoop_no_afeu." The HMAC key, DEU/AESU key, and context are already loaded, and do not need to be reloaded. The length and pointer to the data over which the initial hash will be calculated must be provided for this descriptor.

Input data is brought into the DEU/AESU input FIFO, with the MDEU snooping the portion of the data it has been told to process. As the decryption/encryption continues, the output data fills the DEU/AEU output FIFO, and this data is written back to system memory as needed. Because it has been told it has the final data for HMAC calculation (HMAC on, continue off), the descriptor provides the length and pointer for the HMAC output. Depending on whether the packet is inbound or outbound, the host will either insert the most significant bytesof the HMAC generated by the SEC into the packet header (outbound) or compare the HMAC generated by the SEC with the HMAC which was received with the packet (inbound). If the HMACs match, the packet integrity check passes.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	Table 22-104	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0010)
LEN ₁	HMAC Key Length	NULL
PTR 1	HMAC Key Pointer	NULL
LEN ₂	HMAC Data Length	Number of bytes to be HMAC'd
PTR ₂	HMAC Data Pointer	Address of data to be HMAC'd
LEN ₃	Key Length	NULL
PTR _{_3}	Key Pointer	NULL

Table 22-103. Final Descriptor for Multi-Function Encrytion/Decryption

Table 22-103. Final Descriptor for Multi-Function Encrytion/Decryption (Continued)

[Table 22-104](#page-678-0) lists typical DEU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values for the first descriptor. **Table 22-104. Typical Header Values for Final Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors**

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Table 22-104. Typical Header Values for Final Static Multi-Function DEU Descriptors (Continued)

[Table 22-105](#page-679-0) lists typical AESU/HMAC multi-function descriptor header values.

Table 22-105. Typical Header Values for Final Static Multi-Function AESU Descriptors

Header Value	Mode	E/D	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x60838922	ECB	Decrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60938920	ECB	Encrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60838A22	ECB	Decrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60938A20	ECB	Encrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60838822	ECB	Decrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60938820	ECB	Encrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60A38922	CBC	Decrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60B38920	CBC	Encrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60A38A22	CBC	Decrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60B38A20	CBC	Encrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60A38822	CBC	Decrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60B38820	CBC	Encrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60E38922	CTR	Decrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60E38920	CTR	Encrypt	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x60E38A22	CTR	Decrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60E38A20	CTR	Encrypt	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x60E38822	CTR	Decrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes
0x60E38820	CTR	Encrypt	SHA	Yes	Yes

22.14.6.4 SSLv3.1/TLS 1.0 Processing Descriptors

The SEC is capable of assisting in SSL record layer processing, however for SSL v3.0 and earlier, this support is limited to acceleration of the encryption only. The MDEU does not calculate the version of HMAC required by early version of SSL. SSLv3.1 and TLSv1.0 use the same HMAC version as IPSec (specified in RFC2104), which the SEC MDEU supports, allowing it to off-load both bulk encryption and authentication from the host processor.

SSLv3.1 and TLSv1.0 (henceforth referred to as TLS) record layer encryption/decryption is more complicated for hardware than IPSec, due to the order of operations mandated in the protocol. TLS

performs the HMAC function first, then attaches the HMAC (which is variable size) to the end of the payload data. The payload data, HMAC, and any padding added after the HMAC are then encrypted. Parallel encryption and authentication of TLS "records" cannot be performed using the SEC snooping mechanisms which work for IPSec.

Performing TLS record layer encryption and authentication with the SEC requires two descriptors. For outbound records, one descriptor is used to calculate the HMAC, and a second is used to encrypt the record, HMAC, and padding. For inbound records, the first descriptor decrypts the record, while the second descriptor is used to recalculate the HMAC for validation by the host. With some planning, the user may create the outbound descriptors and launch them as a chain, leaving the SEC to complete the full HMAC/encrypt operation before signalling DONE. It is anticipated that for inbound records, the SEC will signal DONE after decryption, so that the host can determine the location of the HMAC before setting up the HMAC validation descriptor.

22.14.6.4.1 Outbound TLS Descriptors

[Table 22-106](#page-680-0) shows the first descriptor used for outbound TLS. The descriptor performs the HMAC of the record header and the record payload. The primary EU is the MDEU, with its mode bits set to cause the MDEU to initialize its context registers, perform auto-padding if the data size is not evenly divisible by 512 bits, and calculate an HMAC. The descriptor header does not designate a secondary EU, so the setting of the snoop type bit is ignored.

At the conclusion of the outbound TLS descriptor 1, the crypto-channel has calculated the HMAC, placed it in memory, and has reset and released the MDEU.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	see Table 22-107	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN_3	Key Length	Number of bytes of HMAC key
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Pointer to HMAC key
LEN 4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be hashed
PTR_4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform hash upon
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	NULL
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	NULL
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of data after hashing (16, 20, or 32)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Pointer to location where hash output is to be written
LEN ₇	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR ₇	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Pointer to next data packet descriptor

Table 22-106. Outbound TLS Descriptor One Format

[Table 22-107](#page-681-0) lists several different descriptor header values that can be used for the outbound TLS descriptor one shown in [Table 22-106](#page-680-0).

Header Value	Algorithm	HMAC	Pad
0x31D00010	SHA256	Yes	Yes
0x31E00010	MD ₅	Yes	Yes
0x31C00010	SHA	Yes	Yes

Table 22-107. Typical Header Values for Outbound TLS Descriptor One Format

The second descriptor, shown in [Table 22-108,](#page-681-1) performs the encryption of the record, HMAC, pad length, and any padding generated to disguise the size of the TLS record.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x10000050	Perform permute (TYPE 0101)
LEN_1	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR ₁	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN _{_3}	Key Length	Number of bytes in key (5-16 bytes)
PTR_3	Key Pointer	Address of key to be written into AFEU
LEN_4	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered
PTR_4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform cipher upon
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	Number of bytes of data after ciphering
PTR_5	Data Out Pointer	Pointer to location where cipher output is to be written
LEN _{_6}	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_6}	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN_7	MD Out Length	NULL
PTR 7	MD Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	NULL or Pointer to unrelated next descriptor

Table 22-108. Outbound TLS Descriptor Two Format

22.14.6.4.2 Inbound TLS Descriptors

Inbound TLS processing reverses the order of operations of outbound processing. The first descriptor, shown in [Table 22-109,](#page-682-0) performs the decryption of the record, HMAC, pad length, and any padding generated to disguise the size of the TLS record.

NOTE

ARC-4 does not have a concept of encrypt vs. decrypt. As a stream cipher, ARC-4 generates a key stream which is XOR'd with the input data. If the input data is plaintext, the output is ciphertext. If the input data is ciphertext (which was previously XOR'd with the same key), the result is plaintext.

The primary EU is the AFEU, with its mode bits set to cause the AFEU to load the key and initialize the AFEU S-box for data permutation. The descriptor does not designate a secondary EU, so the setting of the snoop type bit is ignored.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	0x10000050	Perform permute (TYPE 0101)
LEN ₁	Length (not used)	NULL
PTR ₁	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN_2	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN_3	Key Length	Number of bytes in key (5-16 bytes)
PTR_3	Key Pointer	Address of key to be written into AFEU
LEN ₄	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be ciphered
PTR ₄	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform cipher upon
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	Number of bytes of data after ciphering
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	Pointer to location where cipher output is to be written
LEN ₆	IV Out Length	NULL
PTR _{_6}	IV Out Pointer	NULL
LEN ₇	MD Out Length	NULL
PTR_7	MD Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	NULL or Pointer to unrelated next descriptor

Table 22-109. Inbound TLS Descriptor One Format

At the conclusion of inbound TLS descriptor 1, the AFEU has decrypted the TLS record so that the payload and HMAC are readable. The negotiation of the TLS session should provide the receiver with enough information about the session parameters (hash algorithm for HMAC, whether padding is in use) to create inbound descriptor 2 along with descriptor 1. If so, the next descriptor pointer field should point to descriptor 2.

Alternatively, the SEC could signal DONE at the conclusion of inbound descriptor 1 to allow the host to inspect the decrypted record, and generate the descriptor necessary to validate the HMAC. If this is the case, inbound descriptor 2 does not need to be linked to inbound descriptor 1, and could even be processed by a different crypto-channel.

The second descriptor, shown in [Table 22-110](#page-682-1), performs the HMAC of the record header and the record payload. The primary EU is the MDEU, with its mode bits set to cause the MDEU to initialize its context registers, perform auto-padding if the data size is not evenly divisible by 512 bits, and calculate an HMAC. The descriptor header does not designate a secondary EU, so the setting of the snoop type bit is ignored.

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
Header	see Table 22-111	Header common to several descriptors (TYPE 0001)
LEN 1	Length (not used)	NULL

Table 22-110. Inbound TLS Descriptor Two Format

Field Name	Value/Type	Description
PTR 1	Pointer (not used)	NULL
LEN ₂	IV Length	NULL
PTR_2	IV Pointer	NULL
LEN ₃	Key Length	Number of bytes of HMAC key
PTR ₃	Key Pointer	Pointer to HMAC key
LEN ₄	Data In Length	Number of bytes of data to be hashed
PTR_4	Data In Pointer	Pointer to data to perform hash upon
LEN _{_5}	Data Out Length	NULL
PTR ₅	Data Out Pointer	NULL
LEN 6	IV Out Length	Number of bytes of data after hashing (16, 20, or 32)
PTR ₆	IV Out Pointer	Pointer to location where hash output is to be written
LEN_7	MAC Out Length	NULL
PTR_7	MAC Out Pointer	NULL
PTR_NEXT	Next Descriptor Pointer	Null or pointer to unrelated next descriptor

Table 22-110. Inbound TLS Descriptor Two Format (Continued)

[Table 22-111](#page-683-0) lists several different descriptor header values that can be used for the outbound TLS descriptor 1 shown in [Table 22-110.](#page-682-1)

At the conclusion of inbound TLS descriptor 2, the crypto-channel has calculated the HMAC, placed it in memory, and has reset and released the MDEU. The host can compare the HMAC generated by inbound descriptor 2 with the HMAC that was transmitted as part of the record. If the HMACs match, the record is known to have arrived unmodified, and can be passed to the application layer.
Chapter 23 IEEE 1149.1 Test Access Port (JTAG)

23.1 Introduction

The Joint Test Action Group, or JTAG, is a dedicated user-accessible test logic, that complies with the IEEE 1149.1 standard for boundary-scan testability, to help with system diagnostic and manufacturing testing.

This architecture provides access to all data and chip control pins from the board-edge connector through the standard four-pin test access port (TAP) and the JTAG reset pin, TRST.

23.1.1 Block Diagram

[Figure 23-1](#page-684-0) shows the block diagram of the JTAG module.

Figure 23-1. JTAG Block Diagram

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23.1.2 Features

The basic features of the JTAG module are the following:

- Performs boundary-scan operations to test circuit board electrical continuity
- Bypasses instruction to reduce the shift register path to a single cell
- Sets chip output pins to safety states while executing the bypass instruction
- Samples the system pins during operation and transparently shift out the result
- Selects between JTAG TAP controller and Background Debug Module (BDM) using the MTMOD0 pin

23.1.3 Modes of Operation

The MTMOD0 pin can select between the following modes of operation:

- JTAG mode
- BDM—background debug mode (For more information, refer to [Chapter 8, "Debug Support](#page-224-0).")

23.2 External Signal Description

The JTAG module has five input and one output external signals, as described in [Table 23-1](#page-685-0).

23.2.1 Detailed Signal Description

Table 23-1. Signal Properties

23.2.1.1 Test Mode 0 (MTMOD0)

The MTMOD0 pin selects between Debug module and JTAG. If MTMOD0 is low, the Debug module is selected; if it is high, the JTAG is selected. [Table 23-2](#page-686-0) summarizes the pin function selected depending upon MTMOD0 logic state.

	$MTMOD0 = 0$	$MTMOD0 = 1$	Pin Name
Module selected	BDM	JTAG	
Pin Function	BKPT DSI DSO DSCLK	TCK TMS TDI TDO TRST	TCK BKPT DSI DSO DSCLK

Table 23-2. Pin Function Selected

When one module is selected, the inputs into the other module are disabled or forced to a known logic level as shown in [Table 23-3](#page-686-1), in order to disable the corresponding module.

Table 23-3. Signal State to the Disable Module

	$MTMOD0 = 0$	$MTMOD0 = 1$
Disabling JTAG	$TRST = 0$ $TMS = 1$	
Disabling BDM		Disable DSCLK $DSI = 0$ $BKPT = 1$

NOTE

The MTMOD0 does not support dynamic switching between JTAG and BDM modes.

23.2.1.2 Test Clock Input (TCK)

The TCK pin is a dedicated JTAG clock input to synchronize the test logic. Pulses on TCK shift data and instructions into the TDI pin on the rising edge and out of the TDO pin on the falling edge. TCK is independent of the processor clock. The TCK pin has an internal pull-up resistor and holding TCK high or low for an indefinite period does not cause JTAG test logic to lose state information.

23.2.1.3 Test Mode Select/Breakpoint (TMS/BKPT)

The TMS pin is the test mode select input that sequences the TAP state machine. TMS is sampled on the rising edge of TCK. The TMS pin has an internal pull-up resistor.

The BKPT pin is used to request an external breakpoint. Assertion of BKPT puts the processor into a halted state after the current instruction completes.

23.2.1.4 Test Data Input/Development Serial Input (TDI/DSI)

The TDI pin is the LSB-first data and instruction input. TDI is sampled on the rising edge of TCK. The TDI pin has an internal pull-up resistor.

The DSI pin provides data input for the debug module serial communication port.

23.2.1.5 Test Reset/Development Serial Clock (TRST/DSCLK)

The TRST pin is an active low asynchronous reset input with an internal pull-up resistor that forces the TAP controller to the test-logic-reset state.

The DSCLK pin clocks the serial communication port to the debug module. Maximum frequency is 1/5 the processor clock speed. At the rising edge of DSCLK, the data input on DSI is sampled and DSO changes state.

23.2.1.6 Test Data Output/Development Serial Output (TDO/DSO)

The TDO pin is the LSB-first data output. Data is clocked out of TDO on the falling edge of TCK. TDO is tri-stateable and is actively driven in the shift-IR and shift-DR controller states.

The DSO pin provides serial output data in BDM mode.

23.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

23.3.1 Memory Map

The JTAG module registers are not memory mapped and are only accessible through the TDO/DSO pin.

23.3.2 Register Descriptions

All registers are shift-in and parallel load.

23.3.2.1 Instruction Shift Register (IR)

The JTAG module uses a 4-bit shift register with no parity. The IR transfers its value to a parallel hold register and applies an instruction on the falling edge of TCK when the TAP state machine is in the update-IR state. To load an instruction into the shift portion of the IR, place the serial data on the TDI pin before each rising edge of TCK. The MSB of the IR is the bit closest to the TDI pin, and the LSB is the bit closest to the TDO pin.

23.3.2.2 IDCODE Register

The IDCODE is a read-only register; its value is chip dependent. For more information, see [Section 23.4.3.2, "IDCODE Instruction.](#page-691-0)"

Memory Map/Register Definition

Figure 23-2. JTAG IDCODE Register

Table 23-4. JTAG IDCODE Field Descriptions

23.3.2.3 Bypass Register

The bypass register is a single-bit shift register path from TDI to TDO when the BYPASS instruction is selected.

23.3.2.4 JTAG_CFM_CLKDIV Register

The JTAG_CFM_CLKDIV register is a 7-bit clock divider for the CFM that is used with the LOCKOUT_RECOVERY instruction. It controls the period of the clock used for timed events in the CFM erase algorithm. The JTAG_CFM_CLKDIV register must be loaded before the lockout sequence can begin.

23.3.2.5 TEST_CTRL Register

The TEST_CTRL register is a 3-bit shift register path from TDI to TDO when the ENABLE_TEST_CTRL instruction is selected. The TEST_CTRL transfers its value to a parallel hold register on the rising edge of TCK when the TAP state machine is in the update-DR state.

23.3.2.6 Boundary Scan Register

The boundary scan register is connected between TDI and TDO when the EXTEST or SAMPLE/PRELOAD instruction is selected. It captures input pin data, forces fixed values on output pins, and selects a logic value and direction for bidirectional pins or high impedance for tri-stated pins.

The boundary scan register contains bits for bonded-out and non bonded-out signals excluding JTAG signals, analog signals, power supplies, compliance enable pins, and clock signals.

23.4 Functional Description

23.4.1 JTAG Module

The JTAG module consists of a TAP controller state machine, which is responsible for generating all control signals that execute the JTAG instructions and read/write data registers.

23.4.2 TAP Controller

The TAP controller is a state machine that changes state based on the sequence of logical values on the TMS pin. [Figure 23-3](#page-690-0) shows the machine's states. The value shown next to each state is the value of the TMS signal sampled on the rising edge of the TCK signal.

Asserting the TRST signal asynchronously resets the TAP controller to the test-logic-reset state. As [Figure 23-3](#page-690-0) shows, holding TMS at logic 1 while clocking TCK through at least five rising edges also causes the state machine to enter the test-logic-reset state, whatever the initial state.

Functional Description

Figure 23-3. TAP Controller State Machine Flow

23.4.3 JTAG Instructions

[Table 23-5](#page-690-1) describes public and private instructions.

Table 23-5. JTAG Instructions

Instructio n	IR[5:0]	Instruction Summary
EXTEST	000000	Selects boundary scan register while applying fixed values to output pins and asserting functional reset
SAMPLE	000001	Selects boundary scan register for shifting, sampling, and preloading without disturbing functional operation
IDCODE	011101	Selects IDCODE register for shift

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Table 23-5. JTAG Instructions (Continued)

23.4.3.1 External Test Instruction (EXTEST)

The EXTEST instruction selects the boundary scan register. It forces all output pins and bidirectional pins configured as outputs to the values preloaded with the SAMPLE/PRELOAD instruction and held in the boundary scan update registers. EXTEST can also configure the direction of bidirectional pins and establish high-impedance states on some pins. EXTEST asserts internal reset for the MCU system logic to force a predictable internal state while performing external boundary scan operations.

23.4.3.2 IDCODE Instruction

The IDCODE instruction selects the 32-bit IDCODE register for connection as a shift path between the TDI and TDO pin. This instruction allows interrogation of the MCU to determine its version number and other part identification data. The shift register LSB is forced to logic 1 on the rising edge of TCK following entry into the capture-DR state.Therefore, the first bit to be shifted out after selecting the IDCODE register is always a logic 1. The remaining 31 bits are also forced to fixed values on the rising edge of TCK following entry into the capture-DR state.

IDCODE is the default instruction placed into the instruction register when the TAP resets. Thus, after a TAP reset, the IDCODE register is selected automatically.

23.4.3.3 SAMPLE/PRELOAD Instruction

The SAMPLE/PRELOAD instruction has two functions:

• SAMPLE —obtain a sample of the system data and control signals present at the MCU input pins and just before the boundary scan cell at the output pins. This sampling occurs on the rising edge of TCK in the capture-DR state when the IR contains the \$2 opcode. The sampled data is accessible by shifting it through the boundary scan register to the TDO output by using the shift-DR state. Both the data capture and the shift operation are transparent to system operation.

NOTE

External synchronization is required to achieve meaningful results because there is no internal synchronization between TCK and the system clock.

• PRELOAD—initialize the boundary scan register update cells before selecting EXTEST or CLAMP. This is achieved by ignoring the data shifting out on the TDO pin and shifting in initialization data. The update-DR state and the falling edge of TCK can then transfer this data to the update cells. The data is applied to the external output pins by the EXTEST or CLAMP instruction.

23.4.3.4 ENABLE_TEST_CTRL Instruction

The ENABLE_TEST_CTRL instruction selects a 3-bit shift register (TEST_CTRL) for connection as a shift path between the TDI and TDO pin. When the user transitions the TAP controller to the UPDATE_DR state, the register transfers its value to a parallel hold register. It allows the control chip to test functions independent of the JTAG TAP controller state.

23.4.3.5 HIGHZ Instruction

The HIGHZ instruction eliminates the need to backdrive the output pins during circuit-board testing. HIGHZ turns off all output drivers, including the 2-state drivers, and selects the bypass register. HIGHZ also asserts internal reset for the MCU system logic to force a predictable internal state.

23.4.3.6 CLAMP Instruction

The CLAMP instruction selects the bypass register and asserts internal reset while simultaneously forcing all output pins and bidirectional pins configured as outputs to the fixed values that are preloaded and held in the boundary scan update register. CLAMP enhances test efficiency by reducing the overall shift path to a single bit (the bypass register) while conducting an EXTEST type of instruction through the boundary scan register.

23.4.3.7 BYPASS Instruction

The BYPASS instruction selects the bypass register, creating a single-bit shift register path from the TDI pin to the TDO pin. BYPASS enhances test efficiency by reducing the overall shift path when a device other than the ColdFire processor is the device under test on a board design with multiple chips on the overall boundary scan chain. The shift register LSB is forced to logic 0 on the rising edge of TCK after entry into the capture-DR state. Therefore, the first bit shifted out after selecting the bypass register is always logic 0. This differentiates parts that support an IDCODE register from parts that support only the bypass register.

23.5 Initialization/Application Information

23.5.1 Restrictions

The test logic is a static logic design, and TCK can be stopped in either a high or low state without loss of data. However, the system clock is not synchronized to TCK internally. Any mixed operation using both the test logic and the system functional logic requires external synchronization.

Using the EXTEST instruction requires a circuit-board test environment that avoids device-destructive configurations in which MCU output drivers are enabled into actively driven networks.

23.5.2 Nonscan Chain Operation

Keeping the TAP controller in the test-logic-reset state ensures that the scan chain test logic is transparent to the system logic. It is recommended that TMS, TDI, TCK, and TRST be pulled up. TRST could be connected to ground. However, since there is a pull-up on TRST, some amount of current results. The internal power-on reset input initializes the TAP controller to the test-logic-reset state on power-up without asserting TRST.

Part IV Communications Subsystem

[Part IV](#page-694-0) contains chapters that discuss the operation and configuration of the communications I/O subsystem including the MCF548*x* multichannel DMA, communications timer, PSC, FEC, DSPI, and USB2, and I^2C .

Contents

[Part IV](#page-694-0) contains the following chapters:

- [Chapter 24, "Multichannel DMA](#page-696-0)," provides an overview of the multichannel DMA controller module including the operation of the external DMA request signals.
- [Chapter 26, "Comm Timer Module \(CTM\)](#page-748-0)," contains a detailed description of the communications timer module, which functions as a baud clock generator or as a DMA task initiator.
- [Chapter 27, "Programmable Serial Controller \(PSC\)](#page-760-0)," provides an overview of asynchronous, synchronous, and IrDA 1.1 compliant receiver/transmitter serial communications of the MCF548*x*.
- [Chapter 28, "DMA Serial Peripheral Interface \(DSPI\)](#page-818-0)," describes the use of the DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI) implemented on the MCF548*x* processor, including details of the DSPI data transfers. The chapter concludes with timing diagrams and the DSPI features that support Tx and Rx FIFO queue management.
- [Chapter 29, "I2C Interface,](#page-854-0)" describes the MCF548 x I²C module, including I²C protocol, clock synchronization, and the registers in the $I²C$ programing model. It also provides programming examples.
- [Chapter 30, "USB 2.0 Device Controller,](#page-874-0)" provides an overview of the USB 2.0 device controller module used in the MCF548*x*.
- [Chapter 31, "Fast Ethernet Controller \(FEC\)](#page-930-0)," provides a feature-set overview, a functional block diagram, and transceiver connection information for both MII (Media Independent Interface) and 7-wire serial interfaces. It also provides describes operation and the programming model.

24.1 Introduction

The MCF548*x*'s direct memory access controller (DMA) module provides a flexible and efficient means to move blocks of data within the system. The multichannel DMA controller reduces the workload on the microprocessor, allowing it to continue execution of system software. The DMA microcode engine is tailored to efficiently transfer data across the internal bus architecture to memory and peripheral devices.

Access to the functionality of the multichannel DMA is provided using a software API. The "Multichannel DMA API User's Guide" (MCDMAAPIUG) contains a full description of the software API for use with the DMA. Please refer to that document for software driver information.

24.1.1 Block Diagram

[Figure 24-1](#page-696-1) shows the internal block structure and data paths within the multichannel DMA module. A very brief description of each block follows.

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24.1.2 Overview

The DMA controller processes microcode tasks that are stored in memory. A task is a sequence of instructions, referred to as *descriptors*, that specifies a series of data movements or manipulations. The DMA controller steps through the descriptors and executes the specified function in a similar fashion to a CPU executing a program.

24.1.2.1 Master DMA Engine (MDE)

The MDE is the main interpreter for the multichannel DMA. It parses descriptors and sets up the other blocks to perform the actual data movement and manipulation. It also manages context switches. For more MDE information see [Section 24.5, "Programming Model](#page-722-0)."

24.1.2.2 Address and Data Sequencer (ADS)

The ADS is the engine that pumps data through the multichannel DMA. Based on configuration bits set by the MDE (derived from the application program), the ADS will fetch operands, route them through execution units, store results as appropriate, and evaluate termination conditions.

24.1.2.3 Priority-Task Decoder (PTD)

The PTD manages prioritization of initiators and maintains the mapping from initiator to task number. The user has complete control of initiator priority. The PTD also maintains error status and control.

24.1.2.4 Logic Unit with Redundancy Check (LURC)

The LURC can perform several arithmetic and logical operations including addition, subtraction, logical shifts, binary operations, and checksum calculations. The LURC can perform as many as five boolean operations on up to four operands and provides an efficient mechanism for performing endian conversions. The checksum unit can compute the following CRC polynomials: CRC-32, CRC-16, CRC-CCITT, and the internet checksum.

24.1.2.5 Debug Unit

The Debug unit provides simple breakpoint functionality to halt tasks when they reach certain conditions.

24.1.3 Features

The DMA module has the following features:

- A programmatic, deterministic capability for managing bus resources while servicing many data streams with individual latency and processing requirements.
- Single cycle access of peripheral and memory data.
- Support for up to 16 simultaneously enabled tasks (channels)
- Support for up to 32 separate DMA initiators at a time
- Simultaneous 32-bit reads and writes for many sources and targets
- Checksum generation
- Endian conversion
- Chaining/scatter-gather capability
- Support for packet-based I/O protocols

24.2 External Signals

24.2.1 DREQ[1:0]

These active-low inputs provide external requests from peripherals needing DMA service. When asserted, the device is requesting service. Depending on the operating mode, either the level of the signal is sampled at the rising edge of the system clock or an edge detect is used to recognize a high to low change. These inputs have no effect when the task enable control bit is cleared.

24.2.2 DACK[1:0]

These active-low outputs indicate when the DMA request is being acknowledged. These outputs can be programmed to assert from one to four system clocks, depending on the operating mode. The DACK signals are programmed to recognize the address on one of the DMA address buses and assert if a match is made. The size of the address space can be increased by setting the EREQMASK*n* address mask bits. See [Section 24.3.4.3, "External Request Address Mask Register \(EREQMASK\),](#page-716-0)" for more information.

24.3 Memory Map/Register Definitions

Memory organization is described in the register array pointed to by the memory base address register (MBAR). Information necessary to enable the DMA is described in this register array at the predetermined offset of MBAR + 0x8000.

The TaskBAR identifies a location for the table of pointers to multichannel DMA tasks. Each task has an entry that contains information about the microcode's location in memory as well as a pointer to the variable table to be used in the task.

In the MCF548x, DMA memory is controlled both by the programmer and by the DMA engine itself.

24.3.1 DMA Task Memory

The DMA uses memory provided by the user to store task code and structures. [Figure 24-2](#page-700-0) shows some of the structures in DMA memory. This memory region may exist in any addressable storage, such as system SRAM or external memory.

24.3.1.1 Task Table

The task table is a memory region containing pointers to each MDE task. A task table base address register (taskBAR) sets the location of the task table itself. Each entry in the task table contains pointers to the task's first descriptor, last descriptor, variable table, and other task-specific information. The task table must be aligned to a 512-byte boundary.

24.3.1.2 Task Descriptor Table

Each task descriptor table is a memory region containing the descriptors that comprise the task. Each task descriptor table is composed of Data Routing Descriptors (DRD) and Loop Control Descriptors (LCD). The pointers in the task table define the beginning and end of each task descriptor table; see [Figure 24-2](#page-700-0). Task descriptor tables must be aligned to a longword (32 bit) boundary.

24.3.1.3 Variable Table

Each task has a private 48-longword variable table. Typically, each variable table must be aligned to a 256-byte boundary, though some may be aligned to a 128-byte boundary if the task uses 32 or less variables.

24.3.1.4 Function Descriptor Table

Function descriptor tables are 256-byte tables that hold the operation codes to be passed to the DMA execution units when data manipulation is performed. Each function descriptor table must be aligned to a 256-byte boundary. Each function descriptor table is divided into four 64-byte areas, one for each potential execution unit. This implementation of the multichannel DMA only contains one execution unit, the LURC, and it uses the last (fourth) 64-byte area.

24.3.1.5 Context Save Space

Each task has a context save space that the DMA uses to save internal context in when a task is swapped out of operation. When a task is swapped back into operation, the internal context can be retrieved from the context save space.

24.3.2 Memory Structure

Each of these memory regions may exist in any addressable storage, such as internal system SRAM or external memory (internal system SRAM is recommended).

[Figure 24-2](#page-700-0) illustrates the memory regions that are programmer maintained.

Programmer-Maintained, Located in Memory

Shadings indicate different tasks. Four tasks shown.

24.3.3 DMA Registers

24.3.3.1 DMA Register Map

[Table 24-1](#page-700-1) shows the memory map of the DMA module.

 $\frac{1}{1}$ Writes must be to this address first to select the next register to read.

24.3.3.2 Task Base Address Register (TaskBAR)

Note that there is a 512-byte alignment restriction on the TaskBAR.

Memory Map/Register Definitions

Figure 24-3. Task Base Address Register (TaskBAR)

Table 24-2. TaskBAR Field Descriptions

24.3.3.3 Current Pointer (CP)

Figure 24-4. Current Pointer Register (CP)

Table 24-3. CP Field Descriptions

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24.3.3.4 End Pointer (EP)

Figure 24-5. End Pointer Register (EP)

Table 24-4. EP Field Descriptions

24.3.3.5 Variable Pointer (VP)

Figure 24-6. Variable Pointer Register (VP)

Table 24-5. VP Field Descriptions

24.3.3.6 PTD Control (PTD)

The priority task decode control register is used to configure different operating modes of this DMA module. The PTD is also used to enable/disable new functionality designed into the module after the first release of the design.

Figure 24-7. PTD Control Register (PTD)

Table 24-6. PTD Field Descriptions

24.3.3.7 DMA Interrupt Pending (DIPR)

Figure 24-8. DMA Interrupt Pending Register (DIPR)

Table 24-7. DIPR Field Descriptions

24.3.3.8 DMA Interrupt Mask Register (DIMR)

Figure 24-9. DMA Interrupt Mask Register (DIMR)

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24.3.3.9 Task Control Registers (TCRn)

Each of the sixteen tasks has an associated task control register. Only one register is shown. At system reset, all bits are initialized to logic zeros.

0x8038 (TCR14), 0x803A (TCR15)

Figure 24-10. Task Control Register (TCRn)

Table 24-9. TCRn Field Descriptions

24.3.3.10 Priority Registers (PRIORn)

When the PTD Control register bit 15 is set to a logic one, the first 16 Priority Registers are used to set the associated priority level of the corresponding task. The last 16 Priority registers are unused in this case. When PTD[PCTL15] is set to zero, the 32 Priority registers are used to set the associtated priority level of the corresponding initiator. Only one register is shown. At system reset, all bits are initialized to a logic zero.

Figure 24-11. Priority Register

24.3.3.11 Initiator Mux Control Register (IMCR)

The DMA supports up to 32 simultaneous DMA request sources, or initiators. For systems where the number of initiators can exceed 32, it is possible to mux them such that there is user control of which 32 are active at any time. Because there are more than 32 possible DMA initiators on the MCF548*x*, some of the initiators are multiplexed to provide software control of which 32 are active at any time. [Figure 24-13](#page-708-0) shows how the assignments are made from a particular request device to its request number. Sixteen initiators are always valid, and up to 64 initiators have muxing options for the other 16 request slots. A single initiator can have multiple muxing options, but only one path should be enabled at a time.

Figure 24-12. Initiator Mux Control Register (IMCR)

Figure 24-13. Initiator Assignments (Continued)

24.3.3.12 Task Size Registers (TSKSZ[0:1])

Each of the 16 tasks can be programmed to use specific source and destination sizes contained in a task size register instead of a specific type encoded in a DRD. The ADS module uses the task size register information to determine the source and destination transfer size of the operands. When the size contained in the DRD is set to 2'b11 then specific source and destination size fields from the task size register are selected.

Figure 24-14. Task Size Register 0 (TSKSZ0)

Figure 24-15. Task Size Register 1 (TSKSZ1)

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24.3.3.13 Debug Comparator Registers (DBGCOMPn)

Table 24-12. Debug Comparator Field Descriptions

24.3.3.14 Debug Control (DBGCTL)

Figure 24-17. Debug Control Register (DBGCTL)

Table 24-13. Debug Control Field Descriptions

[Table 24-14](#page-712-0) below shows the encodings for the comparator 1 type bits. These bits are set to 000 at reset signifying an uninitialized state.

Table 24-14. Comparator 1 Type Bit Encoding

[Table 24-15](#page-713-0) below shows the encodings for the bits. These bits are set to 101 at reset signifying an uninitialized state.

Table 24-15. Comparator 2 Type Bit Encodings

24.3.3.15 Debug Status (DBGSTAT)

Figure 24-18. Debug Status Register (DBGSTAT)

24.3.3.16 PTD Debug Registers

The PTD Debug register allows access to internal read-only PTD status registers. A different internal status register can be viewed by writing to the register. That register will stay selected until a different value is written to this location ($MBAR+\overline{0}x8080$), and the next time this address is read, the corresponding register will be driven.

Table 24-17. PTD Debug Register Descriptions (Continued)

24.3.4 External Request Module Registers

The following section shows the registers contained within the multichannel DMA external request module. Details are given regarding register mapping, programming notes, bit definitions, and operating modes.

24.3.4.1 External Request Module Register Map

The following table shows the register mapping of the external request module.

Table 24-18. External Request Module Register Mapping

Address $(MBAR +)$		Name	Byte ₀	Byte1	Byte2	Byte3	Access
0x0D00		Base Address Register 0	EREQBAR0			R/W	
0x0D04	$\overline{ }$	Base Address Mask Register 0 EREQMASK0			R/W		
0x0D08	hitiator	Control Reg 0 EREQCTRL0			R/W		
0x0D0C		Reserved					
0x0D10		Base Address Register 1			EREQBAR1		R/W
0x0D14	\sim	Base Address Mask Register 1	EREOMASK1			R/W	
0x0D18	nitiator	Control Reg 1	EREQCTRL1		R/W		
0x0D1C		Reserved					

Because each channel contains the same set of registers, only one set of registers will be defined.

24.3.4.2 External Request Base Address Register (EREQBAR)

After DREQ is asserted, this register contains an address value used for the compare that determines a hit for the external acknowledge signal, DACK. This address value can be valid for comm bus cycles, system SRAM, external memory, or comm bus peripherals. This register can be read or written at any time. The reset state of this register is set to all zeros.

Memory Map/Register Definitions

Figure 24-20. External Request Base Address Register

24.3.4.3 External Request Address Mask Register (EREQMASK)

This register contains an address mask value used for the compare that determines a hit for the external acknowledge signal. A 0 indicates a compare and a 1 is a do not care. This address mask value can be valid for comm bus cycles, system SRAM, external memory, or comm bus peripherals. This register can be read or written at any time. The reset state of this register is set to all zeros.

Figure 24-21. External Request Address Mask Register (EREQMASK)

24.3.4.4 External Request Control Register (EREQCTRL)

This register contains the control information for the external request (DREQ) and external acknowledge (DACK) signals. This register can be read or written at any time. The reset state of this register is set to all zeros.

Figure 24-22. External Request Control Register (EREQCTRL)

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Table 24-19. EREQCTRL Field Descriptions

24.4 Functional Description

The DMA controller processes microcode tasks that are stored in memory. A task is a sequence of instructions, referred to as *descriptors*, that specifies a series of data movements or manipulations. The DMA controller steps through the descriptors and executes the specified function in a similar fashion to a CPU executing a program. The data flow for each task can be controlled through signals called initiators (or requestors) which can be asserted by peripherals, timers, or off-chip devices. While data is being transferred, it may be manipulated to offload processing from the CPU. Since the DMA controller can only execute one task at a time, there are priority mechanisms which allow software to control what tasks are more important to execute when multiple tasks are ready. Interrupts can be generated at various points or not at all, which is determined by the task descriptors.

The following sections describe various aspects of the operation of the multichannel DMA.

24.4.1 Tasks

A task or task descriptor table is a microcode program that embodies a desired function. An example could be to gather an Ethernet frame, store it in memory, and interrupt the processor when done. The multichannel DMA supports 16 simultaneously enabled tasks (one task per channel). By dynamically swapping task pointers in the task table, an unlimited number of tasks can be supported.

The details of creating task code is beyond the scope of this document. An API containing pregenerated task code is provided and described in the "Multichannel DMA API User's Guide".

24.4.2 Descriptors

The DMA controller interprets a series of descriptors that specifies a sequence of data movements and manipulations. A collection of these descriptors is much like a program. The two types of descriptors are loop control descriptors (LCDs) and data routing descriptors (DRDs). These descriptors allow a "for" loop programming style for the master DMA engine (MDE). The LCDs specify the index variables (memory pointers, byte counters, etc.) along with the termination and increment values, while the DRDs specify the nature of the operation to perform. The MDE allows up to seven levels of nested loops.

The MDE models the following features familiar from most programming languages:

- "For" loops
- Source variables
- Loop-index variables
- Pointers for various uses
- Address offsets for access to structure members
- Multiplication, addition, and logic functions on data

The flexibility of these descriptors allows coding of a broad range of applications, including the following:

- Simple transfers from peripheral to memory, memory to peripheral, or memory to memory
- Computation of checksums, including CRC and internet checksum, while transferring data
- Scatter-gather processing via the indirection capability

24.4.3 Task Initialization

When a task is first enabled, it has a temporary priority which is determined by the state of the High-priority Task Enable bit of the task's Task Control register. If that bit is high, then any currently running task will be swapped out and the MDE will begin parsing the task descriptor table of the task which has just been enabled. Descriptors are parsed up to the first data routing descriptor (DRD). At that point, the MDE uses the priority level of the task to determine if it will continue running the task which has just been enabled or if it will swap in a higher priority task. When using initiator priority, a task has the priority of the initiator on which it is waiting, which is determined by the current DRD it is executing. Since tasks can be comprised of many different DRDs, the priority of a task can change throughout the task when using initiator priority. When using task priority, the task has the priority assigned to it in the priority register throughout the execution of the task.

24.4.4 Initiators

The multichannel DMA responds to requests from a number of sources, called "initiators." Many initiators are derived from FIFO threshold levels to indicate a presence of received data or an empty or near-empty transmitter.

Other initiators can be timer outputs or custom coprocessors such as the SEC. A timer used as an initiator can provide bandwidth control for memory-to-memory transfers. A coprocessor initiator could indicate the completion of some algorithmic processing, whereupon data could be read from the coprocessor. See the description of the Initiator Mux Control Register for a more complete description of available initiators.

24.4.5 Prioritization

The multichannel DMA has two basic prioritization schemes to decide which task should run when more than one is enabled and its initiator is asserted. These are initiator priority and task priority.

When in initiator priority mode, the task with the highest priority active initiator is selected for execution. There are eight priority levels (0-7). As described, each initiator is associated with a specific task number (0-15), and that task is executed until the initiator is negated or the loop completes. A task can be interrupted by a higher priority initiator at loop iteration boundaries and between DRDs.

When in task priority mode, the task with the highest task level priority and an active initiator is selected for execution. There are eight priority levels (0-7). The highest priority task is executed until the initiator is negated or the loop completes. A task can be interrupted by a higher priority task at loop iteration boundaries and between DRDs.

If there are multiple tasks with the same priority level, the highest numbered task is selected for execution.

The priority mode is selected by bit 15 of the PTD Control register. When set to a logic zero, initiator priority is selected. When set to a logic one, task priority is selected. This bit is set to a logic zero by reset.

24.4.6 Context Switch

Before execution of each DRD, the priority of the active task is compared with other active initiators. If the active task is still the highest priority, it remains active. Otherwise, it is "swapped out" (context save), and the task associated with the highest priority initiator is "swapped in" (context restore).

24.4.7 Data Movement

By the time a data routing descriptor has been parsed, between several and all of the memory pointers and byte counters have been established by the preceding LCDs. When parsing is complete, the MDE begins acting much like a conventional DMA engine, except that the multichannel DMA can support many data movements per iteration. It fetches operands and performs operations in the order specified by the DRDs. Only one memory write per DRD is allowed, but multiple DRDs may be programmed within an LCD. Data sources or destinations can reside in any addressable storage, including:

- Peripheral FIFOs (comm bus)
- System SRAM
- XL bus space, which provides a path to any external resources including DRAM.
- External memory

NOTE

The DMA cannot access the processor local SRAM.

The data movement engine, or address/data sequencer (ADS, described in [Section 24.1.2.2, "Address and](#page-697-0) [Data Sequencer \(ADS\)](#page-697-0),") has an internal register structure that allows it to execute up to four simple nested loops without any descriptor parsing intervention. This facilitates high performance processing of algorithms that have small loop counts, but are highly nested, such as image processing filters.

24.4.8 Data Manipulation

The multichannel DMA contains an execution unit, the LURC, which can be used to manipulate data while it is being transferred. It can be used while transferring I/O data and also to perform logical operations that allow for descision making within task code. The operation codes for the execution units are stored in the

function descriptor table. Each data routing descriptor can use the contents of the function descriptor table to perform different operations.

The LURC is programmed to perform its operations on 32-bit operands. The operations can be categorized into four types: two-operand checksum/CRC operations, two-operand boolean operations, two-operand addition and subtraction, and manipulation/shift operations. The LURC supports multiple operations (up to five operations) as a single user-programmable function depending on the operations being performed.

24.4.8.1 LURC Features

This section is intended to outline several of the key features of the LURC. The features include the following:

- Support for CRC-16, CRC-CCITT, CRC-32, internet checksum on 8-, 16-, 24-, and 32- bit data in multiple input data formats
- Support for 32-bit adds and subtracts
- Support for arbitrary binary operations
- Support for logical shift left, signed shift right, and full bit reversal
- Ability to efficiently perform endian conversion
- Support for a single constant to be used in any operand field
- Ability to perform up to five operations in a single function descriptor

The checksum engine provides the ability to compute checksums of data on which the DMA is operating. In addition to the checksum capabilities, the checksum engine is able to provide several simple and fast arithmetic operations. The module operates transparently in the sense that data can be piped through the checksum engine without affecting the data movement. Details on using the CRC generator are contained in an appendix later in this document.

Presently, the three CRC polynomials that the checksum engine supports are a one's complement checksum and two arithmetic operations.

- CRC-16: $X^{16}+X^{15}+X^{2}+1$
- CRC-CCITT: $X^{16}+X^{12}+X^5+1$
- $CRC-32: X^{32}+X^{26}+X^{23}+X^{22}+X^{16}+X^{12}+X^{11}+X^{10}+X^{8}+X^{7}+X^{5}+X^{4}+X^{2}+X^{11}$

Internet checksum: The one's complement of the 16-bit sum.

- 32 -bit addition (unsigned): Operand $0 +$ Operand 1 .
- 32-bit subtraction (unsigned): Operand0 Operand1.

Both CRC-16 and CCRC-CCITT are used for 8-bit transmission streams and both result in a 16-bit checksum. Both 16-bit CRCs are widely used in the USA and Europe, respectively, and give adequate protection for most applications. Applications that need extra protection can make use of the CRC-32 which generates a 32-bit checksum. The CRC-32 is used by the local area network standards committee (IEEE-802) and in some DOD applications. The internet checksum is used in several internet protocols including TCP and IP and provides a 16-bit checksum (less robust than the 16-bit CRCs) which can be used for error detection. The arithmetic operations are available to provide fast and simple calculations where overflow and other operation protection is not required.

In some cases, a communication protocol may calculate a checksum on an individual packet basis. The Ethernet module is such an example. For these cases, it is most efficient to use the CRC in the communication module. The DMA's checksum engine is targeted toward computing higher-level protocol checksums, such as those at the TCP or IP layers.

24.4.9 Line Buffers

The multichannel DMA makes use of line buffers in its interface to the XL bus to combine writes and to prefetch reads to increase performance. Each line buffer is 32 bytes in depth.

The buffer interface has two queues, one for prefetched reads, and another for collecting writes. There are two line buffers in the write queue. Each buffer keeps byte validity, and has a tag address valid on the line boundary. There are four read line buffers. Each of these buffers has a line address and keeps longword validity. The default behavior of this interface during data transfer is governed by settings in the task table, the combine write enable bit (CW) and the read line enable bit (RL). When the MDE is fetching task code, it functions as if the read line enable bit is asserted even if it is not. It will also combine writes when appropriate.

24.4.9.1 Combine Write Enable

The assertion of this bit turns on the capability to collect writes into a line buffer. When asserted, all writes to the same line address will be written into a line buffer until

- 1. a write to a different line address is encountered,
- 2. the buffer is instructed to flush,
- 3. a write occurs to a byte that is already valid in the line buffer, or
- 4. the combine write enable bit is deasserted.

If any of these four events occurs, the current line buffer will be "flushed." The contents of the buffer will be partitioned into the largest possible transfer sizes and then written one by one.

The DMA will instruct the line buffers to flush (case 2 above) when asserting an interrupt, switching tasks, completing a task, or after saving context even if there is not an immediate task switch.

When the combine write enable signal is not asserted, the first write data will post into one of the write queue buffers and the buffer will be tagged as "busy." Assuming there is no pending read transaction on the XL bus, an XL bus write transaction will be immediately initiated using the data in the write queue. When the write transaction on the XL bus is complete, the busy tag will be removed from the write queue buffer. During the time that the first write queue buffer is busy, no more writes can be posted to that buffer. However, a subsequent write can be posted to the second write queue buffer after which that buffer will be tagged as busy. While both write queue buffers are busy, all write requests from the DMA will incur wait states.

24.4.9.2 Read Line Enable

The assertion of this bit turns on the capability to prefetch read accesses by fetching an entire line of data for each read access. Once the data has been prefetched, subsequent accesses to data in the same line address as the first read will be acknowledged with data from the prefetch buffer.

24.4.9.3 Speculative Prefetch

The assertion of the SP bit in tandem with the assertion of the RL bit results in speculative reads on the XL bus to fill all four read queue buffers. A speculative read transaction will be initiated when there is no other pending XL read/write requests and the DMA is reading from an address that is already buffered in the read queue. If the RL bit is not asserted for the task, the SP bit has no effect.

24.4.10 Termination of Loop

While executing an inner loop, there are two ways to terminate that loop:

- 1. Loop-termination conditions have been met. A loop is allowed one termination condition. For example, this could be a byte count for a number of taps in a filter application.
- 2. The FIFO indicates the end of a full "packet" of information. This response could come from intelligent peripherals which can recognize frame boundaries in a supported protocol, such as an Ethernet controller. In these cases, the programmer may not know how many bytes will arrive, so the "Done" indicator from the peripheral terminates the transfer. A byte counter variable can indicate the actual number of bytes received.

When a loop terminates (and assuming the initiator is valid), the ADS proceeds to execute any remaining DRDs that have already been parsed, such as the case where the inner loop is nested inside another loop. When execution completes, the MDE proceeds to parse any remaining descriptors in the task. If the appropriate initiator for the next DRD is not asserted, the MDE will perform a context save, followed by a context restore or parse of the new highest-priority task.

In addition to loop termination, transfer of data can be suspended if the initiator deasserts or if a higher priority task needs to be swapped into execution.

24.4.11 Interrupts

Interrupts to the processor are allowed on a per-LCD basis, so the processor may be interrupted at the completion of a loop, or at the end of a task, or not at all. Interrupts may also be masked while allowing the processor to execute a polling routine.

24.4.12 Debug Unit

The debug module allows software to halt DMA execution based on a several different input conditions. It compares the value of the Debug Comparator registers to various current aspects of the DMA such as the address being written, the address being read, the task number, the current pointer and so on. What the debug module compares the value in the Debug Comparator registers with is dependent on the value of the Debug Control register. If one of the conditions is met, the debug module will halt the DMA.

24.5 Programming Model

The multichannel DMA requires registers and task memory to be initialized before it will operate.

24.5.1 Register Initialization

This section describes which registers need to initialized either during system configuration time or potentially each time a task is executed.

- 1. TaskBAR The first step in preparing the multichannel DMA is instantiating the task table in a location in modifiable memory. This table is pointed to by the task base address register (TaskBAR). This table will be used by the MDE to locate the microcode for each specific task. This will typically only be set during initialization.
- 2. PTD Control register The PTD control register defines global operation options of the DMA, those which apply to all tasks. This will typically only be set during initialization.
- 3. DMA Interrupt Mask register

- 4. Priority registers These will typically only be set during initialization, but can be changed during operation if desired.
- 5. Initiator Mux Control register This will typically be set up during configuration and will be dependent on what modules of the chip which the system is using.
- 6. Task Size registers The Task Size registers may or may not need to be initialized. These registers may not be used by a task if the task has hardcoded what transfer sizes to use in its DRDs. If the task will use the same task descriptor table every time it is enabled, then these registers may only need to be initialized once. If a different task descriptor is used, these registers may need to be set before each time the task is enabled.
- 7. Task Control registers These registers must be programmed to enable the task.

24.5.2 Task Memory

DMA task memory is comprised of the task table, task descriptor tables, variable tables, function descriptor tables and context save spaces. These memory areas are described briefly in [Section 24.3.1,](#page-698-0) ["DMA Task Memory.](#page-698-0)" Each of these areas must be set up in user provided memory such as the internal system SRAM or DRAM. The task table is programmed with information which allows the DMA to locate these areas of memory and also with control information for each task.

This process can be handled by using the software API . Please refer to the "Multichannel DMA API User's Guide" for more information on the API interface used for the MCF548*x* family.

The microcode can be executed from various memory areas accessible by the DMA such as SDRAM, memory on the FlexBus, or the internal SRAM. It is recommended that the DMA task memory be located in SRAM because of improced performance.

The major components of the task table are described in the next section.

24.5.2.1 Task Table

The task table, whose format is shown in [Figure 24-23,](#page-724-0) should reside at the address specified by TaskBAR. The task table base address must be aligned to a 512-byte boundary. There are sixteen tasks, each of which has its own unique task descriptor table (TDT) start pointer, TDT end pointer, variable table pointer, control information, and status information. The TDT start pointer is a 32-bit value that points to the first loop control descriptor, or LCD, of that particular task. The remaining descriptors [both LCDs and data routing descriptors (DRDs)] should consecutively follow the first one in memory, except in special branching cases. The TDT end pointer is a 32-bit value that points to the last descriptor, which must be a DRD, of that particular task.

The 32-bit variable table pointer points to the top of the 48-longword (192-byte) memory space where this task's variable table resides. As previously mentioned, this table may be reduced to 128 bytes if none of the last 16 variables are used. Before executing a particular task, that task's variable table must be initialized with the appropriate data.

The function descriptor base address points to the location of the function descriptors used for the various execution units (EUs). For each EU, there are 16 available function descriptors. The function descriptor base address pointer is only 24 bits, which function as the 24 most significant bits of a 32 bit address. Therefore, the function descriptor table must be aligned on a 256-byte boundary.

The control information for each task is located in the fourth longword of the task table as shown in [Figure 24-23](#page-724-0). Control bits 7 through 0 are for precise increment, save all registers, integer mode, speculative prefetch, read line, and combine writes.

Programming Model

The base address for context save space is used to save variables and values being used by the MDE and ADS. For each task, an area needs to be set aside for all relevant data to be saved until the task is called again.

Figure 24-23. Task Descriptor Table Format

Table 24-20. Behavior of Task Table Control Bits

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Table 24-20. Behavior of Task Table Control Bits (Continued)

24.6 Timing Diagrams

The following timing diagrams show the three modes of external request operation.

24.6.1 Level-Triggered Requests

[Figure 24-24](#page-725-0) shows the timing for level-triggered external requests. For level-triggered requests, the internal DMA request will assert when DREQ is detected low. The active high internal DMA request is asserted on the rising edge of clock 2 after DREQ is detected low. When the DMA transfer completes, the active high internal acknowledge is asserted (clock 4). This causes the external DACK to assert, and the internal DMA request is negated. Since DREQ remains asserted an new internal request is signalled on the rising edge of clock 6.

Figure 24-24. Level-Triggered External Request Timing

24.6.2 Edge-Triggered Requests

[Figure 24-25](#page-726-0) shows the timing for level-triggered external requests. For level-triggered requests, the internal DMA request will assert when there is a falling edge of the DREQ signal. The active high internal DMA request is asserted on the rising edge of clock 2 after the falling edge of DREQ. When the DMA transfer completes, the active high internal acknowledge is asserted (clock 4). This causes the external

 $\overline{\text{DACK}}$ assert (clock 5). The next falling edge of $\overline{\text{DREG}}$ occurs during clock 8, causing the internal request to assert on the rising edge of clock 9.

Figure 24-25. Edge-Triggered External Request Timing

24.6.3 Pipelined Requests

[Figure 24-26](#page-726-1) shows the timing for pipelined external requests. For pipelined requests, the internal DMA request will assert when there is a falling edge of the DREQ signal and the previous transfer has been completed $(DACK low)$. $DRED$ goes low during clock 1. In edge-triggered mode, this would cause the internal request to assert on the rising edge of clock 2. However, in pipelined mode the internal request waits for the previous transfer to be acknowledged (clock 2) before the internal request is asserted on the rising edge of clock 3. The transfer is completed and acknowledge internally during clock 5 causing DACK to assert during clock 6. Since the transfer has already been acknowledged, the next falling edge of DREQ (during clock 7) causes the assertion of the internal request of the following rising clock edge (clock 8). Note that DACK is not deasserted until the new internal request asserts.

Figure 24-26. Pipelined External Requests

Chapter 25 Comm Bus FIFO Interface

25.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the MCF548*x* communications bus FIFO controller that acts as a bridge between the device peripherals and the CPU. The FIFO controller provides a common programming interface and architecture for the peripherals, each of which may use one or more instances of the controller depending on the application.

NOTE

This section provides general information that is relevant to all FIFOs in the system. Refer to the individual module sections for peripheral specific implementation details such as register memory mapped addresses.

25.1.1 Block Diagram

[Figure 25-1](#page-728-0) shows a generic peripheral integration.

Figure 25-1. Block Diagram of the Comm Bus FIFO

25.1.2 Overview

Most of the peripherals used in a DMA context have relatively low bandwidth requirements in comparison to the maximum bandwidth capabilities of the comm bus. However, these peripherals also need constant servicing to avoid buffer overruns or data starvation. While dedicating the processor to these chores is a legacy solution, it is very inefficient, especially since the tasks themselves require very little computation. Using the DMA to directly access peripheral registers is also not a good option, because the small amount

of data actually transferred would be dwarfed by the overhead needed to configure the DMA for the task. The solution is to make the peripherals smart enough to manage themselves and buffer large amounts of data. By integrating a FIFO memory and a semi-intelligent controller, the number of service requests made to the DMA or CPU can be reduced, while increasing the amount of data transferred per request.

25.1.3 Features

The following is a list of FIFO controller features:

- Single cycle access: the comm bus FIFO controller is engineered to provide single cycle access (including back-to-back accesses) to comm bus integrated peripherals.
- Programmable request signals: the comm bus FIFO provides programmable request signals that the DMA uses to initiate DMA tasks to intelligently move data to or from the FIFO.
- Consistent peripheral interfacing: the comm bus FIFO module is also designed to provide a consistent interface across peripherals for all FIFO controller functions, and insulate the data consumer (either user or peripheral) from alignment details of the data stream or the FIFO buffering operation.
- Advanced features for packetized data:
	- discard
	- retry
	- full-frame notification.

25.2 Memory Map/Register Definition

25.2.1 FIFO Interface Registers

There are eight registers that interface to the comm bus FIFO. They are organized as shown in [Table 25-1.](#page-729-0) The eight registers are:

- FIFO Data- the read/write port into the FIFO structure
- FIFO Status contains data pertaining to the state of the FIFO
- FIFO Control dictates operating parameters of the FIFO
- Alarm Pointer the user controllable alarm assertion point
- FIFO Read and Write Pointers where data is read and written into the FIFO
- FIFO Last Frame Read and Write Pointers mark the last complete frame in or out

Table 25-1. FIFO Controller Address Map

¹ **T**hese offsets are examples only, and the peripheral memory map will vary between integrations.

25.2.1.1 FIFO Data Register (FIFODR)

This is the main interface port for the FIFO. Data that is to be buffered in the FIFO, or has been buffered in the FIFO, is accessed through this register. This register can always access data from the FIFO, independent of the FIFO's transmit or receive configuration. It can be accessed by byte, word, or longword. It is recommended to align all register accesses to the most significant byte (big endian), using the address of FIFO_DATA for byte, word, and longword transactions. However, accessing the data register at FIFO_DATA +1, 2, 3 for bytes or FIFO_DATA +2 for words is also acceptable. Additionally, the FIFO supports 24-bit access, but only from the FIFO_DATA offset; actual use of this feature depends on system implementation. This register is usually read without a wait state, but can be held under boundary conditions. See [Section 25.3.2](#page-741-0) for more explanation.

Figure 25-2. FIFO Data Register

Table 25-2. FIFODR Field Description

Bits	Name	Description
$31 - 0$	DATA	FIFO Data

25.2.1.2 FIFO Status Register (FIFOSR)

The FIFO status register contains bits that provide information about the status of the FIFO controller. Some of the bits of this register are used to generate DMA requests are provided here for visibility. The bits marked sticky are cleared by writing a one to their position. This register is shown in [Figure 25-3](#page-731-0), and the fields are further defined in [Table 25-3](#page-731-1).

Figure 25-3. FIFO Status Register

¹ The reset value of ALARM is 0 for a Receive FIFO and 1 for a Transmit FIFO.

[Table 25-3](#page-731-1) shows the FIFO status register fields.

Table 25-3. FIFOSR Field Descriptions

Table 25-3. FIFOSR Field Descriptions (Continued)

25.2.1.3 FIFO Control Register (FIFOCR)

The FIFO control register provides programmability of FIFO behaviors, including last transfer granularity and frame operation. Last transfer granularity allows the user to control when the FIFO controller stops requesting data transfers through the FIFO alarm by modifying the deassertion point of the alarm, ensuring the data stream is stopped at a valid point, or there remains enough space in the FIFO to unload the input data pipeline. Additional explanation of this field can be found in [Table 25-4.](#page-734-0)

The frame enable bit (FRMEN) of the control register provides a capability to enable and control the FIFO controller's ability to view data on a packetized basis. If in frame mode, once a complete frame has been placed into the FIFO, the FIFOSR[FRMRDY] bit is set. Peripherals can use the FRMRDY bit to override the deassertion of the alarm when the granularity point is hit. In this case, the service request is then asserted until the complete frame has been removed from the FIFO. The bit definitions for this register are shown in [Table 25-4](#page-734-0).

Figure 25-4. FIFO Control Register

Table 25-4. FIFOCR Field Descriptions

25.2.1.4 Alarm Pointer (ALARMP)

This pointer provides high/low level alarm information to the user integration logic and the comm bus interface. The alarm and alarm pointer operate differently depending on whether the FIFO is configured for transmit or receive. When the FIFO is configured as a transmit FIFO, the alarm functions as a low level alarm and the alarm pointer is interpreted as a threshold for the number of data bytes in the FIFO. In this

case, when the amount of data bytes in the FIFO is less than or equal to the alarm pointer value, the alarm will assert, thereby requesting more data be written to the FIFO. When the FIFO is configured as a receive FIFO, the alarm functions as a high level alarm and the alarm pointer is interpreted as a threshold for the number of empty bytes in the FIFO. When the amount of empty bytes in the FIFO is less than or equal to the alarm pointer value, the alarm will assert, thereby requesting more data be read from the FIFO.

Anytime the amount of data or space in the FIFO is below the indicated amount, the alarm will be set. The alarm is cleared when there is less data or space as defined by the GR[2:0] field of the FIFO control register. The number of bits in the alarm pointer register will vary with the address space of the FIFO memory; the alarm register, as with other pointers, has a maximum size of 12 bits, but may be reduced in certain implementations. The alarm pointer is initialized to zero when configured as a receive FIFO. When configured as a transmit FIFO, the all alarm pointer bits except the two most significant will be asserted at reset, and non-functional bits of the alarm register will always remain zero. The bit definitions for this register are shown in [Figure 25-5,](#page-736-0) and the fields are further defined in [Table 25-5](#page-736-1).

[Table 25-5](#page-736-1) shows the Alarm pointer fields.

25.2.1.5 Read Pointer (READP)

The read pointer is a FIFO-maintained pointer that points to the next FIFO location to be read. The physical address of this FIFO location is actually the combination of the read pointer and the FIFO base, which is provided through a port to the FIFO controller. This function can allow software to reorganize the FIFO RAM, if the peripheral has been integrated with this feature. The read pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers. The current maximum size of the read pointer is 12 bits, but it can be reduced through parameterization. The read pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 25-6. Read Pointer Register

[Table 25-6](#page-737-0) shows the read pointer fields.

Table 25-6. READP Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$15-12$	$\overline{}$	Reserved
$11 - 0$	READ	Read Pointer This pointer indicates the next location to be read by the FIFO controller.

25.2.1.6 Write Pointer (WRITEP)

The write pointer is a FIFO-maintained pointer that points to the next FIFO location to be written. The physical address of this FIFO location is actually the sum of the write pointer and the FIFO base, which is provided through a port to the FIFO controller. The write pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers. The current maximum size of the write pointer is 12 bits, but it can be reduced through parameterization. The write pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 25-7. Write Pointer Register

[Table 25-7](#page-737-1) shows the write pointer fields.

Table 25-7. WRITEP Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$15 - 12$		Reserved.
$11 - 0$	WRITE	I Write Pointer This pointer indicates the next location to be written by the FIFO controller.

25.2.1.7 Last Read Frame Pointer (LRFP)

The last read frame pointer (LRFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the next byte after the last frame that has been completely read. If no complete frames have been read out of the FIFO the LRFP register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO (the reset state). The LRFP updates on FIFO read data accesses to a frame boundary. The LRFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame retransmit function, the LRFP indicates which point to begin retransmission of the data frame. The LRFP carries validity information; however, there are no safeguards to prevent retransmitting data that has been overwritten. When FRMEN is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last read frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 25-8. Last Read Frame Pointer Register

[Table 25-8](#page-738-0) shows the last read frame pointer register fields.

Table 25-8. LRFP Field Descriptions

25.2.1.8 Last Write Frame Pointer (LWFP)

The last write frame pointer (LWFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the next byte after the last frame that has been completely written into the FIFO. If no complete frames have been written into the FIFO, the LWFP register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO (the reset state). The LWFP updates on FIFO write data accesses that create a frame boundary, whether that be by setting the WFR bit in the FIFO control register, or by feeding a frame bit in on the appropriate bus. The LWFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame discard function, the LWFP divides the valid data region of the FIFO (the area in-between the read and write pointers) into framed and unframed data. Data between the LWFP and write pointer constitutes an incomplete frame, while data between the read pointer and the LWFP has been received as whole frames. When FRMEN is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last written frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

[Table 25-9](#page-739-0) shows the last frame pointer register fields.

Table 25-9. LWFP Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$15 - 12$		Reserved.
$11 - 0$	I WFP	Last Write Frame Pointer This pointer indicates the next byte after the last frame that has been written.

25.3 Functional Description

The FIFO controller provides all the functions of a typical FIFO controller, but has a number of extra features which add performance or are necessary in the comm bus environment. Additionally, the FIFO controller implements data frame decoding for peripherals which can use this information. The frame information is encoded in the FIFO memory, and the FIFO controller monitors or generates this information depending upon the FIFO direction. The FIFO controller also contains a number of FIFO pointer registers, as well as logic to update them and maintain the status of the FIFO.

25.3.1 Flow control

The FIFO controller indicates two key types of status which can be used by a peripheral to generate requests for service to an external device like a CPU or DMA controller and also to the peripheral itself. First, the FIFO controller keeps track of the amount of data in the FIFO and can indicate when certain thresholds are crossed. Second, the FIFO controller can also keep track of packets of data and can indicate when a complete packet has been written into the FIFO. In addition to these two methods, full and empty conditions may also be used as service requests; the actual implementation depends on the peripheral.

25.3.1.1 Threshold Alarm operation

One method for determining whether a FIFO needs to be emptied or filled is using a threshold data level to determine when the FIFO requests service. This threshold level is implemented by the value set in the ALARMP register. The operation of the threshold depends on whether the FIFO is operating as a transmit or receive FIFO. The FIFO may be integrated so that it is always one or the other or the peripheral may allow the user to change the direction.

The FIFO is operating in transmit mode when the CPU/DMA writes data into the FIFO and the peripheral reads data from the FIFO. When in transmit mode, the ALARMP register functions as a low level alarm, indicating that the FIFO may be near empty. The ALARM bit of the FIFOSR register will assert when the number of bytes in the FIFO is less than or equal to the value of the ALARMP register. Deassertion of the ALARM bit is controlled by the GR field in the FIFOCR register. In this case, the ALARM bit will deassert when the number of free bytes is less than $(4*GR)$ bytes.

The FIFO is operating in receive mode when the peripheral writes data into the FIFO and the CPU/DMA reads data out of the FIFO. When in receive mode, the ALARMP register functions as a high level alarm, indicating that the FIFO may be near full. However, in this mode, the ALARM bit is set in reference to the number of unused or free byte in the FIFO. The ALARM bit of the FIFOSR register will assert when the number of bytes in the FIFO is less than or equal to the value of the ALARMP register. Deassertion of the ALARM bit is controlled by the GR field in the FIFOCR register. In this case, the ALARM bit will deassert when the number of bytes in the FIFO is less than GR bytes.

The ALARM bit may be used by the peripheral to generate an interrupt or service request to a CPU or DMA unit.

25.3.1.2 Frame Mode Operation

Many peripherals divide data streams into packets of information, and sometimes perform non-linear operations with their packetized streams of data, such as requesting retransmission or discarding invalid data. The FIFO controller has a special frame mode that is intended to support "frame" markers in the data stream and other frame operations. Frame mode is easily enabled by setting the FRMEN bit in the control register. When frame mode is enabled, the FIFO monitors frame information in the FIFO. If there is a complete frame in the FIFO, the FRMRDY bit will assert. The bit will deassert when there are no more complete frames present in the FIFO. When the FIFO is in receive mode, the FRMRDY functionality can be used by the peripheral to indicate to the CPU or DMA that a frame is ready to be read out of the FIFO. Peripherals can use the FRMRDY functionality to override the deassertion of the threshold alarm when the granularity point is hit. In this case, the service request would be asserted until the complete frame is removed from the FIFO. When the FIFO is in transmit mode, the FRMRDY functionality can be used by the peripheral itself to know when there is a complete frame that is ready to be transmitted.

When in frame mode, the FIFO also has special logic which allows it to treat reads across frame boundaries specially. For example, if the DMA is reading a receive FIFO 4 bytes at a time but there is only 1 byte left in the frame, then only 1 byte will be read out of the FIFO. Any remaining bytes that would normally be read will remain in the FIFO and if there are no more bytes in the FIFO then an underflow would not occur.

Even when not in frame mode, data can still be tagged with frame information. Turning off frame mode does not disable the passing of frame tags from the peripheral to DMA or vice versa. Therefore, the DMA and peripherals may not behave normally if framed data is being passed but the FIFO is not in frame mode.

Frame mode makes use of two additional pointers, named the last read frame pointer, and the last write frame pointer. The last read frame pointer (LRFP) indicates the next byte after the last frame that has been completely read, so it may indicate the start of the next frame to be read or the start of the frame currently being read. The last write frame pointer (LWFP) indicates the next byte after the last frame that has been completely written, so it may indicate the start of the next frame to be written or the start of the frame currently being written. Using this information and the read and write pointers, the FIFO can be divided into four regions:

- frame data, which is part of a complete packet and is ready to be read out,
- unframed data, which is in the process of being written into the FIFO, but could be discarded, because it is not a complete packet,
- free space, which can be used; there is no needed information in this region, and
- protected space, which should not be used; it contains at least part of a frame of data that could be retransmitted.

A graphical representation of how these pointers work together is presented in [Figure 25-10.](#page-741-1)

Figure 25-10. FIFO Pointers Example

There are also frame features available to the peripherals beyond basic encapsulation of data. A peripheral can request a retransmission of a frame from a transmit FIFO (the data from protected space), or it can discard the partial frame it has sent to a receive FIFO (data in the framed view). Each of these features repositions the data read or write pointers to the boundary indicated by the last frame pointer, to perform the required function. These features generally will not be available to the user, however, knowledge of them may help with a general understanding of frame mode.

25.3.2 Wait Conditions

While the FIFO controller provides wait states in such a way that the system abstracts them away from the user, there are conditions under which the FIFO controller cannot provide single cycle data. The FIFO controller will generate a wait cycle in any of these six conditions: resource arbitration, alarm deassertion, data misalignment, overflow and underflow detection (peripheral access only), or debug operation.

25.3.2.1 Resource Arbitration

The simplest case to understand is the resource arbitration. This condition will occur when the bus master (defined as the CPU or DMA accessing the FIFO data register) and the peripheral try to perform the same operation (read or write) on a single FIFO. It can also occur when multiple FIFO controllers try to access a shared RAM. In both cases there is a defined arbitration. The peripheral always has priority over the bus master, and the lower FIFO controller (as defined in the FIFO integration) has higher priority. The majority

of these waits will be only a single cycle, however the higher priority device can indefinitely hold off a lower priority device.

Figure 25-11. FIFO Arbitration Diagram

25.3.2.2 Alarm Deassertion

The second case of wait provides timing relief to the control logic of a DMA engine by holding off the transfer in the cycle when the alarm deasserts. However, the implementation of this logic can in some cases "slow down" the next to last transfer as well. This hold will always happen for both Alarm and FrameReady alarms, but is always only for one cycle.

25.3.2.3 Data Misalignment

There may also be a wait condition due to peculiarities of the organization of data inside the FIFO RAM. The FIFO controller was designed to provide longword data in a single cycle, and can provide data in the first cycle (provided the FIFO contains data and no wait conditions occurred in the previous 2-3 cycles). However, when the data access is misaligned inside the FIFO, accessing a second cycle of data may incur a wait penalty. Any time the read pointer is at a non-zero longword offset (READP modulo $4! = 0$), the FIFO is misaligned. This can happen when framed data packets with a size not divisible by 4 are written to the FIFO by the peripheral, or if non-longword sizes are read from the FIFO. Note that subsequent transfers can continue to access data without a penalty, and also that this condition only applies to longword transfers. This wait will only occur under specific conditions, and will be a single cycle.

25.3.2.4 Overflow Detection

The fourth scenario that can result in a wait condition is the overflow blocking logic that is implemented for the peripheral write access. (Note that the bus master is not protected from causing overflow. In the case where the bus master causes an overflow condition, the OF bit in the status register will be set appropriately.) If the FIFO controller detects that there are too few free bytes in the FIFO for the current write request from the peripheral, input to the FIFO will be held off, resulting in wait states for the current peripheral write. This condition will cause the RXW bit in the status register to assert so that the user is informed that the peripheral is not being serviced due to a full or near full FIFO. Service will resume when data is read out of the FIFO to free some space.

25.3.2.5 Underflow Detection

The fourth scenario that can result in a wait condition is the underflow blocking logic that is implemented for the peripheral read access. (Note that the bus master is not protected from causing underflow. In the case where the bus master causes an underflow condition, the UF bit in the status register will be set appropriately.) If the FIFO controller detects that there are too few free bytes in the FIFO for the current read request from the peripheral, output to the peripheral will be held off, resulting in wait states for the current peripheral read. Service will resume when data is written to the FIFO.

25.3.2.6 Debug Hold

Finally, debug operations can cause data hold conditions. Anytime the read or write pointers are written to by the user, the FIFO controller has to update its internal status, which can cause a 2-3 cycle wait condition. If a device tries to access the FIFO controller during this time, it will be held off. However, this condition will be rare because the operation of the chip will be stopped as the part is being debugged, and the rarity of accessing the FIFO data register immediately after a debug operation. If this wait does occur, it should be of little consequence, due to the (comparatively) slow speed at which debug operations occur.

Refer to [Section 25.3.4](#page-744-0) for more discussion of FIFO debugging.

25.3.3 Error reporting

In addition to indicating data level conditions such as Alarm, Frame Ready, Full and Empty, the FIFO will also indicate several error conditions.

25.3.3.1 Underflow

The underflow bit (UF) of the status register indicates when the read pointer has surpassed the write pointer. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the UF_MASK bit in the control register is set. The read pointer can continue to increment and further underflow the FIFO. This is an unrecoverable error and all other status/outputs cannot be trusted when an underflow occurs. If the peripheral does not provide FIFO reset functionality, the FIFO can be reset by manually resetting the pointers to zero and clearing all status indications. Care must be taken when manually resetting the FIFO. See [Section 25.3.4.3,](#page-745-0) ["Modifying the FIFO State](#page-745-0)." Only CPU/DMA reads from the FIFO can cause the underflow condition.

25.3.3.2 Overflow

The overflow bit (OF) of the status register indicates when the write pointer has surpassed the read pointer. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the OF_MASK bit in the control register is set. The write pointer can continue to increment with further writes and further corrupt data. This is an unrecoverable error and all other status/outputs cannot be trusted when an overflow occurs. If the peripheral does not provide FIFO reset functionality, the FIFO can be reset by manually resetting the pointers to zero and clearing all status indications. Care must be taken when manually resetting the FIFO. See [Section 25.3.4.3, "Modifying the FIFO State.](#page-745-0)" Only CPU/DMA writes to the FIFO can cause the overflow condition.

25.3.3.3 Receive wait

The receive wait condition bit (RXW) of the status register indicates that a peripheral data write into the FIFO is incurring wait states because there is not enough room in the FIFO to accept the data without causing overflow. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the RXW_MASK bit in the FIFO Control register is set.

This condition can only occur if the FIFO is capable of receiving data from the peripheral.

25.3.3.4 Transmit wait

The transmit wait condition bit (TXW) of the status register indicates that a peripheral data read from the FIFO is incurring wait states because there is not enough data in the FIFO to satisfy the read request without causing underflow. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the TXW MASK bit in the FIFO Control register is set.

This condition can only occur if the peripheral is capable of reading data from the FIFO.

25.3.3.5 Illegal pointer

The illegal pointer bit (IP) of the status register will assert when an address outside the FIFO controller's memory range has been written to one of the user-visible pointers. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the IP_MASK bit in the FIFO Control register is set. This bit is only applicable if the peripheral allows the user to program the FIFO size in some way. In that case, the number of valid bits in the user-visible pointers will default to a width capable of handling the largest programmable size of the FIFO. If the FIFO is configured for a smaller size, all the bits are not applicable, but the all the bits are still writable and therefore an address outside the current memory range may be produce. This error cannot occur if the FIFO size cannot change.

25.3.3.6 Frame Accept Error

The frame accept error bit (FAE) of the status register will assert when in two scenarios:

- 1. The user has overwritten data in a transmit FIFO for a frame that needs to be retried.
- 2. The user has read data from a receive FIFO for a frame that has been rejected.

This bit will only assert for a FIFO that is in frame mode. This bit will cause the error outputs to assert unless the FAE_MASK bit in the FIFO Control register is set.

25.3.4 Debug Operation

The FIFO controller provides direct access to the read and write pointers that it uses to access internal memory. These registers and the bidirectional data register provide an interface to perform debug operations. The FIFO data register is both readable and writable for debug purposes. There is no difference between debug reads or writes and normal operation. The only possible effect of reading FIFO data is setting the underflow flag in the FIFO status register; the read operation does not change the FIFO data.

A debug routine to examine the contents of the FIFO would read and save the read and write pointers, zero the read and write pointers (the order in that these are reset will affect the FIFO being full or empty), and read the FIFO data register *n* times (*n* being the size of the FIFO), clear the FIFO status (underflow/overflow) register, and restore the FIFO read and write pointers. This operation will provide an image of the FIFO RAM allocated for this FIFO; interpreting it with the values of the read and write pointers will validate the data region of the FIFO.

Debug operations should be done with all data sources and sinks to the FIFO stopped, or while both the peripheral and the DMA are inactive, because manipulating the data pointers could cause unintended changes to the alarm signals, attracting the attention of the DMA controller or peripheral. Additionally, most debug operations should be done in non-frame mode (independent of the normal operating mode necessary for this peripheral) so frame data does not interfere with the FIFO debug. Manipulating the read and write pointers will cause data wait cycles because the control logic attempts to re-synchronize the

FIFO RAM; these waits, however, are abstracted at the system level and should be acceptable during a low-speed debug operation.

The FIFO controller determines the difference between full and empty through the previous state of the FIFO. If the FIFO was not at least half full in the previous cycle, then if the read pointer equals the write pointer, the FIFO must be empty. This operation can cause unwanted results when debugging the FIFO; it is seemingly impossible for a full FIFO to be emptied through the debug ports. The solution is to write to the read or write pointer twice, first making the FIFO almost full or almost empty, and then writing the final value to the read or write pointer to make it completely full or empty.

The last read frame pointer and last write frame pointer are also debug accessible, however they are always written as "valid" pointers. If an invalid pointer is required, then an approach of "stepping" the pointers (doing multiple writes to get to the final desired value) as explained above must be taken.

25.3.4.1 Displaying Contents of the FIFO Controller

A simple debug operation would be to display the contents of the FIFO controller without disrupting its state. The steps are as follows:

- 1. The first step in any debug operation is to save the state of the FIFO by recording all registers: read, write, last read, last write, status, and control. While it is not always necessary to record all state information before performing a debug operation on the FIFO, it is a good practice.
- 2. Once the state data has been captured, the read and write pointers need to be set to 0x0. They can actually be set anywhere inside the FIFO memory, however zeroing these pointers give the physical ordered contents of the RAM.
- 3. After reading the contents of the memory into an appropriate sized array, this data, combined with the FIFO state information previously recorded, will give a clear picture of the data stream buffered inside the FIFO.
- 4. For packetized data peripherals, it may be informative to observe FIFOSR[FRM*n*] and FIFOSR[TYPE*n*] status bits of the status register while reading the data from the FIFO, to understand where the frame and control information markers are inside the FIFO.
- 5. Finally, the FIFO must be reset to its previous state by restoring the control and pointer registers and confirming that the status matches the pre-debug state. It may be necessary to modify the state of the FIFO through pointer manipulation.

25.3.4.2 Restoring Contents of the FIFO Controller

Other debug operations may require arbitrary data to be placed in the FIFO, preparing a certain condition for the peripheral. This operation is even simpler than observing the contents of the FIFO because there is no need to save the initial state of the FIFO registers. Simply, the read and write pointers are zeroed, and then data is forced into the FIFO through the data register. Then the pointers may have to be written and/or manipulated to achieve the desired result.

25.3.4.3 Modifying the FIFO State

It may occur that, after the pointers of the FIFO have been modified, the control logic inside the FIFO may not be in the correct state. This is due to the methods of collecting information inside the FIFO controller. Cases that require attention are changing a "full" FIFO to empty or vice versa, and manipulating the validity of frame pointers.

The FIFO controller uses the previous cycle as a reference to determine if the FIFO is full or empty. Therefore, if the FIFO is over half full, and the write pointer is written to the value of the read pointer, the FIFO will be made full instead of empty. This is illustrated graphically in [Figure 25-12,](#page-746-0) as the only way into "full" is through "greater than half full." To remedy this, first move the write pointer to an intermediate value less than half (for example, $READP + 4$), and then to the read pointer. Obviously, this same strategy works with forcing the FIFO full.

Figure 25-12. Full State Determination

In the register interface to the FIFO controller there is no control for the valid bits of the last read or last written frame pointers. Therefore, to set up specific frame situations, it may be necessary to do some special operations to force the validity of the frame pointers. Important to setting up a frame situation is a good understanding of how the frame pointers work together. [Figure 25-10](#page-741-1) shows a simple example of how the FIFO controller organizes data using the four pointers. The two sides of the diagram show how the FIFO will treat data if it is in either framed or non-framed mode.

When a frame pointer is written, it defaults to valid. If an invalid pointer is required, the FIFO can be read or written to 'force' the pointer invalid. To invalidate the last frame read pointer, place the read pointer 'below' the last frame read pointer, and then read past the read frame pointer. This will invalidate the last frame read pointer. Similarly, the FIFO will have to be written past the last frame write pointer to invalidate it. However, this will change the contents of the FIFO. For this reason, it is recommended to set up frame pointer conditions before configuring the rest of the FIFO during a debug operation.

Chapter 26 Comm Timer Module (CTM)

26.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a detailed description of the Comm Timer Module (CTM).

26.1.1 Block Diagrams

The following section presents three block diagrams showing the CTM in greater detail. [Figure 26-1](#page-748-0) is a high level block diagram of the CTM. The figure shows the signal flow through the sub-modules and the architecture on a high level.

Figure 26-1. Comm Timer High Level Block Diagram

[Figure 26-2](#page-749-0) and [Figure 26-3](#page-749-1) are conceptual block diagrams of the fixed timer channel and variable timer channel respectively.

Figure 26-3. Variable Timer Channel Conceptual Block Diagram

26.1.2 Overview

The CTM module provides two functions for the communications complex. First, it can be configured to run as a baud clock generator for the communications channels. Second, it can be used as a task initiator for the DMA. There are three main functional blocks within the CTM that accomplish these functions: the internal peripheral bus interface, the fixed timer channel, and the variable timer channel.

The internal peripheral bus interface to the CTM controls functions such as the address decode, clock synchronization, clock pre-scaling, and read/write enable decode.

The MCF548*x* has four fixed timer channels. The fixed timer channel provides the user with two modes: a programmable baud clock generator mode or a fixed period task initiator mode.

- In baud clock generator mode the fixed timer channel outputs a *cInitiator* signal that is free running. On the MCF548*x* the baud clock outputs from the four fixed timer channels can be used as an alternate clock source for the four PSC channels.
- In the fixed period task initiator mode, the fixed timer channel outputs a *cInitiator* signal in response to a *cAcknowledge* input from the multi-channel DMA's PTD (priority task decoder). It also outputs a *timerInterrupt* signal to the processor if there is an error in the channel. Refer to [Section 26.4.2.1, "Fixed Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode Example.](#page-757-0)"

The MCF548*x* has four variable timer channels. The variable timer channel provides the user with two modes: a programmable baud clock generator mode or a variable period task initiator mode.

- In baud clock generator mode the timer (*cInitiator* output) is free running, just generating a continuous pulse wave.
- In the variable period task initiator mode, the *cInitiator* output is influenced by the *cAcknowledge* signal. Unlike the fixed timer channel, the variable timer channel does not have a *timerInterrupt* output signal due to the variability of the period. The variable period allows the timer to be used as a DMA initiator; once *cInitiator* goes high, it waits for the corresponding DMA task to start running as indicated by the *cAcknowledge* signal. Refer to [Section 26.4.3.1, "Variable Timer](#page-758-0) [Channel in Task Initiator Mode Example](#page-758-0)."

26.2 External Signals

26.2.1 Comm Timer External Clock[7:0]

The Comm Timer External Clock is the alternate clock signal and is provided by the user. The user must write a 1 to CTCR[S] in the variable channel and write a 1001 to CTCR[S] within the fixed channel to select this signal. If this signal is selected, all timing will be with respect to this clock signal. This signal is restricted to being half the frequency or less of the system bus clock.

Table 26-1. Comm Timers External Clock

26.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

[Section 26.3.2.1, "Comm Timer Configuration Register \(CTCR0-CTCR3\)— Fixed Timer Channels](#page-753-0)" and [Section 26.3.2.2, "Comm Timer Configuration Register \(CTCR4-CTCR7\)— Variable Timer Channels"](#page-754-0) explain the registers contained within the timer module. Details are given regarding register mapping, programming notes, bit definitions, and operating modes.

26.3.1 Timer Module Register Map

[Table 26-2](#page-752-0) shows the register mapping of the timer module.

26.3.2 Register Descriptions

26.3.2.1 Comm Timer Configuration Register (CTCR0-CTCR3)— Fixed Timer Channels

This register provides programming options for each fixed timer channel. These channels can be programmed to be in task initiator mode or in baud clock generator mode.

Bits	Name	Description
31		Interrupt. This bit is set whenever the <i>timerInterrupt</i> signal asserts in the fixed timer. This indicates that the <i>cAcknowledge</i> signal has arrived too far into the current cycle to be completed within that period or that it was too short in duration to satisfy the request. Writing a 1 will clear the bit. Indicates that an interrupt has occurred or is pending. 0 Indicates that no interrupt has occurred or is pending.
$30 - 25$		Reserved, should be cleared.
24	IM	Interrupt mask. Determines if the timer interrupt will be passed on to the interrupt controller. The timer interrupt is masked. The I bit will be set, but no interrupt occurs. 0 The timer interrupt is not masked. When the I bit is set, the timer interrupt will be passed to the interrupt controller.
23	M	Mode. Selects between baud clock generator mode and task initiator mode. It is set to 1 at reset. 1 Task initiator mode. In this mode, the timer output is a bandwidth controlled initiator request signal for the multi-channel DMA. The <i>initiator</i> output is dependent upon the cAcknowledge signal from the DMA. In the fixed timer channels, the percent active time is only counted while the cAcknowledge is asserted. In contrast, the variable timer channels will count the percent active time from beginning to end upon the first assertion of the cAcknowledge. 0 Baud clock generator. In this mode, the timer output is a free running clock. Following initialization, both timer channels react in the same way.

Table 26-3. CTCR0-CTCR3—Fixed Timer Channel Field Descriptions

26.3.2.2 Comm Timer Configuration Register (CTCR4-CTCR7)— Variable Timer Channels

This register provides programming options for each variable timer channel. These channels can also be programmed as a baud clock generator or initiator.

NOTE

The task initiator mode for a variable channel is different from that of a fixed channel in that the period is variable.

Figure 26-5. Comm Timer Configuration Register (CTCR4-CTCR7) —Variable Timer Channels

Table 26-4. CTCR4-CTCR7—Variable Timer Channel Field Descriptions

26.4 Functional Description

26.4.1 Fixed and Variable Timers In Baud Clock Generator Mode

In baud clock generator mode, the functionality is the same for both fixed and variable timer channels. The only difference is the variable timer channel has a 24-bit reference value, and the fixed channel timer only has a 16-bit reference value.

The following equation can be used to calculate the period of the timer output:

Timer output period = (1/CTCR*n*[S]) × (CTCR*n*[CRV])

The duty cycle of the output clock is defined by CTCR*n*[PCT].

For example, programming the CTCR for one of the fixed channels to 0x0100 0002 will create a 50% duty cycle output clock at half of the system clock frequency.

On the MCF548*x* the baud clock outputs from the four fixed timer channels are connected to the four PSC channels. The CTM0 is internaly connected to PSC0, CTM1 to PSC1, etc. The four vaiable timer channel outputs cannot be used to generate PSC baud clocks.

26.4.2 Fixed Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode

In task initiator mode, the fixed timer channel can be used to create a bandwidth control *initiator* request signal to the DMA. A *cAcknowledge* signal from the DMA is an input to the timer to indicate that the requested task is executing. When the *cAcknowledge* signal asserts it activates a percent timer, thereby counting the number of sysclk cycles the associated DMA task is active within the period. When the percent timer reaches its timeout, the timer's initiator output is negated so that the DMA task will not be serviced again during the remainder of the timer period.

The fixed timeout period for the counter is determined using the same calculation used for the baud rate generator mode:

Time-out period =
$$
(1/CTCRn[S]) x (CTCRn[CRV])
$$

The percent counter is used to determine the number of system clocks that the *cAcknowledge* signal from the DMA can be asserted within the period before *cInitiator* is negated. Once the initiator negates, the task will stop executing when it reaches the next boundary and will not resume until after *cInitiator* is asserted again at the start of the next timer period.

The fixed timer channel can also be programmed to generate an interrupt request if the percent timer does not timeout by the end of the timer period. The interrupt indicates that there is not enough DMA bandwidth available for the associated task.

26.4.2.1 Fixed Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode Example

[Figure 26-6](#page-757-0) shows the initiator ouput generated by a fixed timer channel in task initiator mode. For this example the CTCR is programmed to $0x00A0$ 0010. This puts the timer in initiator mode with a timeout period of 16 clocks and a high percentage of 25% (4 clocks).

In the first clock cycle the period counter begins to count, and the *cInitiator* signal is asserted. At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 3 the *cAcknowledge* signal is asserted for the first time and the percent counter begins to count.

At the rising edge of clock 5 the *cAcknowledge* signal is deasserted, and the percent counter stops counting and retains a value of 0x2. The *cInitiator* signal remains asserted because the percent counter has not timed out, and the period has not ended.

At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 9 the *cAcknowledge* signal is asserted for the second time, and the percent counter begins to count again. At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 10 the *cAcknowledge* signal is deasserted, and the percent counter stops counting and retains a value of 0x3. As before the *cInitiator* signal remains asserted because the percent counter has not timed out.

At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 13 the *cAcknowledge* signal is asserted for the third time, and the percent counter begins to count. At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 14 the *cAcknowledge* signal is deasserted, and the percent counter stops counting and retains a value of 0x4. At this time, the percent counter has timed out. Consequently, the *cInitiator* signal is deasserted on the following clock. It will remain deasserted until the beginning of the next period.

The next period begins at the rising edge of the clock in cycle 17. At that time both counters are reset to their starting values and the *cInitiator* signal is asserted. At the rising edge of clock 30 the *cAcknowledge* signal is asserted and remains asserted until the rising edge of clock 33. During this time the percent counter is counting up towards its reference value.

At the rising edge of clock 32 the period counter times out while the percent counter has not reached its reference value and is still counting. This signifies that the DMA has not been able to provide the specified bandwidth for the selected task, and the timer interrupt signal is asserted.

At the rising edge of clock cycle 33 a new period begins. Both counters are reset; the *cInitiator* signal remains asserted, and the timer interrupt is deasserted. At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 35 the *cAcknowledge* is asserted and remains asserted until cycle 39. During that time, the percent counter is counting up and times out. When it times out at the rising edge in cycle 39, the initiator deasserts on the next clock edge. The period counter continues to count, and the periods continue on as before.

26.4.3 Variable Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode

The variable timer channels can also be used to create bandwidth control initiator request signals for the DMA. The functionality is similar to the fixed channel in task initiator mode. The functionality differs in two ways. First of all, the variable timer channel does not generate interrupts. Secondly, the period counter will not start until the first time the *cAcknowledge* signal asserts. This means that the timer has a baseline period (defined by the CTCR[S] and CTCR[CRV] fields), but the actual period can be greater.

26.4.3.1 Variable Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode Example

[Figure 26-7](#page-758-0) shows the initiator ouput generated by a variable timer channel in task initiator mode. For this example the CTCR is programmed to 0x00A0 0008. This puts the timer in initiator mode with a timeout period of 8 clocks and a high percentage of 25% (2 clocks).

Unlike the fixed timer channel, the variable timer channel only has the percent counter and it does not start counting at this point; it waits for the *cAcknowledge* signal to enable it.

At the rising edge of the clock in cycle 8, the *cAcknowledge* signal is asserted. At that point the period counter begins to count. At the rising edge of clock 10, *cAcknowledge* is deasserted and the counter reaches the high time value. As a result of the counter reaching the high time value (2), *cInitiator* is deasserted.

The counter does not stop counting however, it continues to count toward the period reference value (8). At the rising edge of clock 16, the timer has timed out, it is reset to its initial value (1), and the *cInitiator* signal is asserted.

The next two periods act in a similar fashion. What is most important to be aware of in this diagram is the fact that, unlike the fixed timer channel, the variable timer does not have a fixed period. The percent counter only begins counting when *cAcknowledge* has arrived. It counts to the period value then resets and waits again.

The first period is from clock 1 to clock 16 or 15 clock cycles. The second period is only eight cycles long and is from clock 16 to clock 24. The third cycle is 10 cycles long running from clock 24 to 34.

The final period is somewhat undefined as the *cAcknowledge* signal hasn't been asserted yet. Therefore, it is at least 13 cycles long and can be any value greater than that.

Figure 26-7. Variable Timer Channel in Task Initiator Mode

Chapter 27 Programmable Serial Controller (PSC)

27.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the MCF548*x* programmable serial controller (PSC).

27.1.1 Block Diagram

A block diagram of the PSC/IrDA module is shown in [Figure 27-1](#page-760-0) below.

Figure 27-1. PSC/IrDA Block Diagram

27.1.2 Overview

The PSC/IrDA module provides asynchronous, synchronous, and IrDA 1.1 compliant receiver/transmitter serial communications. Each receiver and transmitter contains a 512-byte FIFO to reduce interrupt overhead.

The MCF548*x* contains four programmable serial controllers.

27.1.3 Features

The primary features of the PSC/IrDA module are as follows:

- Full duplex receiver and transmitter in all modes
- Seven operation modes (UART, three soft modem modes, and three IrDA modes)
- Two 512-byte FIFOs

27.1.4 Modes of Operation

The operation modes supported by the PSC/IrDA module are as follows.

• Universal asynchronous receiver transmitter (UART) mode

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- Backward compatible with the MC68681
	- $-5,6,7,8$ bits data plus parity
	- Odd, even, none, or force parity
	- Stop bit width programmable in 1/16 bit increments
	- Parity, framing, and overrun error detection
	- Automatic PSC*n*CTS and PSC*n*RTS modem control signals
- IrDA 1.0 SIR mode (SIR)
	- Baud rate range: 2400 to 115200 bps
	- Selectable pulse width: either 3/16 bit duration or 1.6 us
- IrDA 1.1 MIR mode (MIR) — Baud rate: 0.576 Mbps or 1.152 Mbps
- IrDA 1.1 FIR mode (FIR)
	- Baud rate: 4.0 Mbps
- 8-bit soft modem mode (modem8)
- 16-bit soft modem mode (modem16)
- AC97 soft modem mode (AC97)

The three soft modem modes (modem8, modem16, and AC97) are jointly referred to as "modem mode." The three IR modes (SIR, MIR, and FIR) are jointly referred to as "IrDA mode."

27.2 Signal Description

27.2.1 PSCnCTS/PSCBCLK

These signals either operate as the clear to send input signals in UART mode or the bit clock input signals in modem modes and IrDA modes. Please refer to [Chapter 15, "GPIO](#page-348-0)," for information about how to program this signal function.

In MIR and FIR mode, the frequency is a multiple of the input bit clock frequency, and the bit clock frequency should be within $+/-0.1\%$ and $+/-0.01\%$ of the ideal one, respectively.

27.2.2 PSCnRTS/PSCFSYNC

These signals act as transmitter request to send output in UART mode, the frame sync input in modem8 and modem16 modes, or the RTS output (which acts as frame sync) in AC97 modem mode.

Refer to the [Chapter 15, "GPIO,](#page-348-0)" and [Section 27.3.3.5, "Command Register \(PSCCRn\)](#page-770-0)," for information about how to program this signal function.

27.2.3 PSCnRXD

PSC*n*RXD are the receiver serial data inputs for the PSC modules. When the PSC clock is stopped for power-down mode, any transition on the signals restarts them.

27.2.4 PSCnTXD

PSC*n*TXD are the transmitter serial data outputs for the PSC modules. The output is held high (mark condition) when the transmitter is disabled, idle, or in the local loopback mode. The PSC*n*TXD signals can be programmed to be driven low (break status) by a command.

Refer to [Section 27.3.3.5, "Command Register \(PSCCRn\)](#page-770-0)," for information about how to program this signal function.

27.2.5 Signal Properties in Each Mode

The following table summarizes the signals used for serial communications.

27.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

27.3.1 Overview

This section provides a detailed description of all memory locations and registers. Note that the meaning of some control register fields depends on the operation mode.

27.3.2 Module Memory Map

The names and address locations of all control registers are listed in [Table 27-2.](#page-762-0)

Table 27-2. PSC Memory Map

	MBAR Offset			Name	Byte ₀	Byte1	Byte2	Byte3	ess
PSC0	PSC ₁	PSC ₂	PSC ₃						ပ္ပ
0x8600	0x8700	0x8800	0x8900	PSC Mode register 1, 2	PSCMR1, PSCMR ₂				R/W
0x8604	0x8704	0x8804	0x8904	PSC Status Register		PSCSR			R
				PSC Clock Select Register	PSCCSR				W
0x8608	0x8708	0x8808	0x8908	PSC Command Register	PSCCR				W

Table 27-2. PSC Memory Map (Continued)

Memory Map/Register Definition

	MBAR Offset			Name			Byte2	Byte3	n ces
PSC0	PSC ₁	PSC ₂	PSC ₃		Byte ₀	Byte1			ပ ⋖
0x868E	0x878E	0x888E	0x898E	PSC TxFIFO Alarm Register	PSCTFAR				R/W
0x8692	0x8792	0x8892	0x8992	PSC TxFIFO Read Pointer	PSCTFRP				R/W
0x8696	0x8796	0x8896	0x8996	PSC TxFIFO Write Pointer	PSCTFWP				R/W
0x869A	0x879A	0x889A	0x899A	PSC TxFIFO Last Read Frame Pointer	PSCTLRFP				R/W
0x869E	0x879E	0x889E	0x899E	PSC TxFIFO Last Write Frame Pointer	PSCTLWFP				R/W

Table 27-2. PSC Memory Map (Continued)

27.3.3 Register Descriptions

This section gives detailed descriptions of the user accessible registers and bits within the module. In cases where the operation mode affects the functionality of the control register, the operation in each mode is described.

NOTE

Bit functions can vary in different operating modes. The field descriptions are labelled to indicate which modes use a particular field.

27.3.3.1 Mode Register 1(PSCMR1n)

PSCMR1 controls some of the module configurations. It can be read or written at any time. It is accessed when the mode register pointer points to PSCMR1. The pointer is set to mode register 1 by reset or by a set pointer command using the MISC[2:0] bits in the command register (PSCCR). The pointer points to the next mode register, PSCMR2, after reading or writing PSCMR1.

Figure 27-2. PSC Mode Register 1 (PSCMR1n)

27.3.3.2 Mode Register 2 (PSCMR2n)

PSCMR2 controls some of the module configuration. It is accessed when the mode register pointer points to PSCMR2, which occurs *after* any access to PSCMR1. Access to PSCMR2 does not change the pointer. The pointer is set to the mode register 1 by reset or by a set pointer command using the MISC[2:0] bits in the command register (PSCCR).

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Figure 27-3. PSC Mode Register 2 (PSCMR2n)

Table 27-4. PSCMR2n Field Descriptions

27.3.3.3 Status Register (PSCSRn)

The PSCSR register indicates the status of the characters in the FIFO and the status of the transmitter and receiver.

Figure 27-4. PSC Status Register (PSCSRn)

27.3.3.4 Clock Select Register (PSCCSRn)

The comm timers (CTMs) or the PSC's timer (see [Section 27.3.3.11, "Counter Timer Registers](#page-780-0) [\(PSCCTURn, PSCCTLRn\)"](#page-780-0) for more information) can be used to generate the baud rate for UART and SIR modes. The PSCCSR selects which clock input is used to generate the baud rate. The system clock can be selected or the output from one of the comm timers (CTM) can be selected. If the CTM clock is selected, it can be divided by 1 or 16. Please refer to the [Chapter 26, "Comm Timer Module \(CTM\),](#page-748-0)" for more information on the clock sources for baud rate generation.

[Figure 27-5](#page-769-0) shows the clock options for generating the baud rate for UART or SIR modes.

Figure 27-5. UART and SIR Baud Rate Clocking Sources

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The upper 4 bits set the receiver and the lower 4 bits set the transmitter clock source. To use the system bus clock for both the transmitter and receiver, program the PSCCSR with 0xDD. It is possible to program the transmitter and the receiver with different clock sources.

Figure 27-6. Clock Select Register (PSCCSRn)

Figure 27-7. PSCCSRn Field Descriptions

Table 27-6. RCSEL[3:0] and TCSEL[3:0]

27.3.3.5 Command Register (PSCCRn)

The PSCCR is used to supply commands to the PSC. Multiple commands can be specified in a single write to the PSCCR if the commands are not conflicting. For example, reset transmitter and enable transmitter commands cannot be specified in a single command.

Figure 27-8. PSC Command Register (PSCCRn)

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$, where $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$

Table 27-7. PSCCRn Field Descriptions

Table 27-7. PSCCRn Field Descriptions (Continued)

27.3.3.6 Receiver Buffer (PSCRBn) and Transmitter Buffer (PSCTBn)

Data is read from the Rx FIFO by reading from the read-only PSCRBn registers. Data is written to the Tx FIFO by writing to the write-only PSCTBn registers.

[Figure 27-9](#page-774-0) shows the registers for UART, Modem 8, SIR, MIR, and FIR modes. [Figure 27-10](#page-774-1) shows the registers for Modem 16 mode. [Figure 27-11](#page-775-0) shows the registers for AC97 mode.

NOTE

The Rx and Tx FIFOs can also be accessed via the PSCRFDRn and PSCTFDRn registers. The Tx FIFO access via the PSCTBn will be blocked if the PSC is in UART or SIR mode and the transmitter is disabled. However, access via PSCTFDRn will never be blocked. See [Section 27.3.3.22, "Rx and Tx FIFO Data Register \(PSCRFDRn,](#page-789-0) [PSCTFDRn\)"](#page-789-0) for more information.

	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	
R		RB									RB						
W	ТB								ΤВ								
Reset	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	
	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	$\overline{7}$	6	5	4	3	2	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	
R		RB							RB								
W	TB								TB								
Reset	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	0	$\mathbf 0$									
Reg Addr													MBAR + 0x860C (PSC0); 0x870C (PSC1); 0x880C (PSC2); 0x890C (PSC3)				

Figure 27-9. Receiver (PSCRBn) and Transmitter (PSCTBn) Buffer Register for UART, Modem 8, SIR, MIR, and FIR Modes

[Figure 27-10](#page-774-1) shows the modem 16 register.

Figure 27-10. Receiver (PSCRBn) and Transmitter (PSCTBn) Buffer Register for Modem 16 Mode

[Figure 27-11](#page-775-0) shows the AC97 mode register.

Figure 27-11. Receiver (PSCRBn) and Transmitter (PSCTBn) Buffer Register for AC97 Mode

[Table 27-8](#page-775-1) shows the fields for Modem 8, SIR, MIR, and FIR modes.

Table 27-8. PSCRBn and PSCTBn Field Descriptions for UART, Modem 8, SIR, MIR, and FIR Modes

[Table 27-9](#page-775-2) shows the fields for Modem 16 mode.

Table 27-9. PSCRBn and PSCTBn Field Descriptions for Modem 16 Mode

[Table 27-10](#page-775-3) shows the fields for AC 97 mode.

Table 27-10. PSCRBn and PSCTBn AC 97 Mode Field Descriptions

Table 27-10. PSCRBn and PSCTBn AC 97 Mode Field Descriptions

27.3.3.7 Input Port Change Register (PSCIPCRn)

PSCIPCR*n* shows the current state and the change-of-state for the modem control input port.

Figure 27-12. Input Port Change Register (PSCIPCRn)

Table 27-11. PSCIPCRn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.8 Auxiliary Control Register (PSCACRn)

PSCACR controls the handshake of the transmitter/receiver.

Figure 27-13. Auxiliary Control Register (PSCACRn)

Table 27-12. PSCACRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$7 - 1$		Reserved, should be cleared.
0	IEC ₀	Interrupt enable control for D CTS. 0 D CTS has no effect on the IPC in the PSCISR. When the D CTS becomes high, IPC bit in the PSCISR is set (and it will cause an interrupt if the mask is not set).

27.3.3.9 Interrupt Status Register (PSCISRn)

PSCISR provides status for all potential interrupt sources. The contents of these registers are masked by the PSCIMR register. If a flag in the PSCISR is set and the corresponding bit in PSCIMR is also set, the internal interrupt output is asserted. If the corresponding bit in the PSCIMR is cleared, the state of the bit in the PSCISR has no effect on the output.

Figure 27-14. Interrupt Status Register (PSCISRn)

Bits	Name	Descriptions
15	IPC	Input port change. This bit is set when PSCIPCRn[D_CTS] and PSCACRn[IEC0] are set.
$14 - 11$		Reserved, should be cleared.
10 ¹	DB	In UART / SIR, this is a Delta break. The receiver detected the beginning or the end of a break condition. In other modes, this is reserved.
9	RXRDY	Receive data is ready. (selected if $PSCMR1[6] = 0$) 0 There is no data in the RxFIFO. There is at least one data in the RxFIFO.
	FU	RxFIFO over threshold. (selected if PSCMR1 $[6] = 1$) 0 The number in the RxFIFO is less than the threshold. There is more than or equal number of data in the RxFIFO.
8	TXRDY	Transmitter ready 0 There are more than the threshold number of data in the TxFIFO or transmitter is not enabled. The number of data in the TxFIFO is less than or equal to the threshold (as defined in PSCTFAR).
$\overline{7}$	DEOF	For modem and UART modes this bit is reserved. For SIR and MIR modes, this bit signifies detect end of frame or the RxFIFO contains EOF (Copy of DEOF in PSCSR)
6	ERR	OR of all errors status including FIFO errors. 0 No error was detected. 1 At least one error occurred
$5 - 0$		Reserved, should be cleared.

Table 27-13. PSCISRn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.10 Interrupt Mask Register (PSCIMRn)

The PSCIMR selects the corresponding bits in the PSCISR that cause an interrupt. If one of the bits in the PSCISR is set and the corresponding bit in the PSCIMR is also set, the internal interrupt output is asserted. If the corresponding bit in the PSCIMR is zero, the state of the bit in the PSCISR has no effect on the interrupt output. The PSCIMR does not mask the reading of the PSCISR.

Figure 27-15. Interrupt Mask Register (PSCIMRn)

Table 27-14. PSCIMRn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.11 Counter Timer Registers (PSCCTURn, PSCCTLRn)

These registers hold the upper and lower bytes of the preload value to be used by the PSC timer in order to provide a given baud rate.

Figure 27-16. Counter Timer Upper Register (PSCCTURn)

Table 27-15. PSCCTURn Field Descriptions

Figure 27-17. Counter Timer Lower Register (PSCCTLR)

Table 27-16. PSCCTLRn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.12 Input Port (PSCIPn)

The PSCIP shows the current state of the input ports.

Figure 27-18. Input Port Register (PSCIP)

Table 27-17. PSCIPn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.13 Output Port Bit Set (PSCOPSETn)

Output ports are asserted by writing to this register.

Figure 27-19. Output Port Bit Set Register (PSCOPSET)

Table 27-18. PSCOPSETn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.14 Output Port Bit Reset (PSCOPRESETn)

Output ports are negated by writing to this register.

Figure 27-20. Output Port Bit Reset Register (PSCOPRESETn)

Table 27-19. PSCOPRESETn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.15 PSC/IrDA Control Register (PSCSICRn)

This register sets the main operation mode.

RES

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Figure 27-21. PSC/IrDA Control Register (PSCSICR)

Table 27-20. PSCSICRn Field Descriptions

Memory Map/Register Definition

Table 27-20. PSCSICRn Field Descriptions (Continued)

NOTE

When the operating mode change occurs, all receiver, transmitter, and error statuses are reset and the receiver and transmitter are disabled.

27.3.3.16 Infrared Control Register 1 (PSCIRCR1n)

This register controls the configuration in IrDA mode.

Figure 27-22. Infrared Control Register 1 (PSCIRCR1)

27.3.3.17 Infrared Control Register 2 (PSCIRCR2n)

This register sets some requests to the transmitter or the TxFIFO.

Figure 27-23. Infrared Control Register 2 (PSCIRCR2)

Table 27-22. PSCIRCR2n Field Descriptions

27.3.3.18 Infrared SIR Divide Register (PSCIRSDRn)

Figure 27-24. Infrared SIR Divide Register (PSCIRSDR)

Table 27-23. PSCIRSDRn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.19 Infrared MIR Divide Register (PSCIRMDRn)

This register sets the baud rate in MIR mode.

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Figure 27-25. Infrared MIR Divide Register (PSCIRMDR)

Table 27-24. PSCIRMDRn Field Descriptions

Table 27-25. Frequency Selection in MIR Mode

27.3.3.20 Infrared FIR Divide Register (PSCIRFDRn)

This register sets the baud rate in FIR mode.

Figure 27-26. Infrared FIR Divide Register (PSCIRFDR)

Table 27-27. Frequency Selection in FIR Mode

27.3.3.21 Rx and Tx FIFO Counter Register (PSCRFCNTn, PSCTFCNTn)

This register applies to all modes.

Figure 27-27. RxFIFO (PSCRFCNTn) and TxFIFO (PSCTFCNTn) Counter Register

Table 27-28. PSCRFCNTn and PSCTFCNTn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description				
$15-9$		Reserved, should be cleared.				
$8 - 0$	CNT	Number of bytes in the FIFO				

27.3.3.22 Rx and Tx FIFO Data Register (PSCRFDRn, PSCTFDRn)

These registers provide access to the internal Rx and Tx FIFOs.

Reads from the PSCRFDR*n* register return received data from the Rx FIFO. In addition, this register provides the possibility to fill the Rx FIFO for software development/debug purposes.

Writes to the PSCTFDR*n* register write data into the Tx FIFO. In addition, this register provides the possibility to read data back from the Tx FIFO for software development/debug purposes.

Refer to [Section 27.3.3.6, "Receiver Buffer \(PSCRBn\) and Transmitter Buffer \(PSCTBn\)](#page-773-0)", for more information about the data formats.

Figure 27-28. RxFIFO (PSCRFDRn) and TxFIFO (PSCTFDRn) Data Register

27.3.3.23 Rx and Tx FIFO Status Register (PSCRFSRn, PSCTFSRn)

The FIFO status registers contain bits which provide information about the status of the FIFO controller. Some of the bits of this register are used to generate DMA requests. This register applies to all modes.

Figure 27-29. RxFIFO (PSCRFSR) and TxFIFO (PSCTFSR) Status Register

27.3.3.24 Rx and Tx FIFO Control Register (PSCRFCRn, PSCTFCRn)

The FIFO control registers provide programmability of FIFO behaviors, including last transfer granularity and frame operation. Last transfer granularity allows the user to control when the FIFO controller stops requesting data transfers through the FIFO alarm by modifying the clearing point of the alarm, ensuring the data stream is stopped at a valid point, or there remains enough space in the FIFO to unload the input data pipeline. Additional explanation of this field can be found below. The frame bit of the control register provides a capability to enable and control the FIFO controller's ability to view data on a packetized basis. Frame mode overrides the FIFO granularity bits, by setting the PSCRFSR[FRMRDY] bit. The bit definitions for this register are shown in [Figure 27-30,](#page-792-0) and the fields are further defined in the field description below.

This register applies to all modes.

Figure 27-30. Rx and Tx FIFO Control Register (PSCRFCRn, PSCTFCRn)

Table 27-30. PSCRFCRn and PSCRTFCRn Field Descriptions (Continued)

27.3.3.25 Rx and Tx FIFO Alarm Register (PSCRFARn, PSCTFARn)

Figure 27-31. RxFIFO (PSCRFARn) and TxFIFO (PSCTFARn) Alarm Register

27.3.3.26 Rx and Tx FIFO Read Pointer (PSCRFRPn, PSCTFRPn)

The read pointer is a FIFO-maintained pointer that points to the next FIFO location to be read. The physical address of this FIFO location is actually the combination of the read pointer and the FIFO base, which is provided through a port to the FIFO controller. The read pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers.

Figure 27-32. RxFIFO (PSCRFRPn) and TxFIFO (PSCTFRPn) Read Pointer

27.3.3.27 Rx and Tx FIFO Write Pointer (PSCRFWPn, PSCTFWPn)

The write pointer is a FIFO-maintained pointer that points to the next FIFO location to be written. The physical address of this FIFO location is actually the sum of the write pointer and the FIFO base, which is provided through a port to the FIFO controller. The write pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers. The write pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 27-33. RxFIFO (PSCRFWPn) and TxFIFO (PSCTFWPn) Write Pointer

Table 27-33. PSCRFWPn / PSCTFWPn Field Descriptions

27.3.3.28 Rx and Tx FIFO Last Read Frame Pointer (PSCRLRFPn, PSCTLRFPn)

The last read frame pointer (LRFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the start of the most recently read frame. The LRFP updates on FIFO read data accesses to a frame boundary. The LRFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame retransmit function, the LRFP indicates which point to begin retransmission of the data frame. The LRFP carries validity information, however, there are no safeguards to prevent retransmitting data which has been overwritten. When FRMEN in the PSCRFCR and PSCTFCR is cleared, then this pointer has no meaning. The last read frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 27-34. TxFIFO (PSCTLRFPn) and RxFIFO (PSCRLRFPn) Last Read Frame Pointer

27.3.3.29 Rx and Tx FIFO Last Write Frame Pointer (PSCRLWFPn, PSCTLWFPn)

The last write frame pointer (LWFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the start of the last frame written into the FIFO. The LWFP updates on FIFO write data accesses which create a frame boundary, whether that be by setting the WFR bit in the FIFO Control Register, or by feeding a frame bit in on the appropriate bus. The LWFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame discard function, the LWFP divides the valid data region of the FIFO (the area in-between the read and write pointers) into framed and unframed data. Data between the LWFP and write pointer constitutes an incomplete frame, while data between the read pointer and the LWFP has been received as whole frames. When FRMEN is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last written frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Functional Description

Figure 27-35. TxFIFO (PSCTLWFPn) and RxFIFO (PSCRLWFPn) Last Write Frame Pointer

27.4 Functional Description

This section provides a complete functional description of the module.

27.4.1 UART Mode

The universal asynchronous receiver and transmitter (UART) is commonly used to send low speed data between devices. The term asynchronous is used because it is not necessary to send clocking information along with the data being sent. UART data transfer is character based and the character format is shown in the following figure.

Figure 27-36. Character Format in UART Mode

In UART mode, modem control port PSC*n*RTS and PSC*n*CTS are controlled by the PSC.

If the PSC*n*RTS is configured to show TxRTS by the control register PSCMR1 and PSCMR2, the PSC*n*RTS is negated automatically by the transmitter. PSC*n*RTS is negated when the transmitter is disabled and has finished sending data in the transmit buffer. PSC*n*RTS is asserted by writing to the PSCOPSET register.

The PSC*n*CTS input is used to control the transmitter. When PSC*n*CTS is negated, to start new serial transmission is disabled until the PSC*n*CTS is asserted again.

If PSCnRTS is programmed to be RxRTS, the PSCnRTS output is automatically asserted and negated by the receiver. The PSCnRTS is asserted when the receiver is ready and the number in the RxFIFO is less than the threshold, and PSCnRTS is negated when the receiver is disabled or the RxFIFO has more data than the threshold.

Figure 27-38. Modem Control and Receiver

27.4.2 Multidrop Mode

The UART can be programmed to operate in a wakeup mode for multidrop or multiprocessor applications. The mode is selected by setting bits 3 and 4 in mode register 1 (PSCMR1). This mode of operation allows the master station to be connected to several slave stations (a maximum of 256). In this mode, the master transmits an address character followed by a block of data characters targeted for one of the slave stations. The slave stations have their channel receivers disabled. However, they continuously monitor the data stream sent out by the master station. When an address character is sent by the master, the slave receiver channel notifies its respective CPU by setting the RxRDY bit in the USR and generating an interrupt (if programmed to do so). Each slave station CPU then compares the received address to its station address and enables its receiver if it wishes to receive the subsequent data characters or block of data from the master station. Slave stations not addressed continue to monitor the data stream for the next address character. Data fields in the data stream are separated by an address character. After a slave receives a block of data, the slave station's CPU disables the receiver and initiates the process again.

A transmitted character from the master station consists of a start bit, a programmed number of data bits, an address/data (A/D) bit flag, and a programmed number of stop bits. The A/D bit identifies the type of character being transmitted to the slave station. The character is interpreted as an address character if the

A/D bit is set or as a data character if the A/D bit is cleared. The polarity of the A/D bit is selected by programming bit 2 of PSCMR1. PSCMR1 should be programmed before enabling the transmitter and loading the corresponding data bits into the transmit buffer.

In multidrop mode, the receiver continuously monitors the received data stream, regardless of whether it is enabled or disabled. If the receiver is disabled, it sets the RxRDY bit and loads the character into the receiver holding register FIFO stack provided the received A/D bit is a 1 (address tag). The character is discarded if the received A/D bit is a 0 (data tag). If the receiver is enabled, all received characters are transferred to the CPU via the receiver holding register stack during read operations.

In either case, the data bits are loaded into the data portion of the stack while the A/D bit is loaded into the status portion of the stack normally used for a parity error (PSCSR bit 5). Framing error, overrun error, and break detection operate normally. The A/D bit takes the place of the parity bit; therefore, parity is neither calculated nor checked. Messages in this mode may still contain error detection and correction information. One way to provide error detection, if 8-bit characters are not required, is to use software to calculate parity and append it to the 5-, 6-, or 7-bit character.

27.4.3 Modem8 Mode

[Figure 27-39](#page-799-0) shows an example waveform in 8-bit modem mode.

The transmitter starts to transmit the first bit at the rising edge of the PSCFSYNC or one clock after the rising edge of the PSCFSYNC, according to the value in the DTS1 bit in the control register PSCSICR. The SHDIR bit in the PSCSICR controls the order whether the LSB or the MSB is output first. The width of the frame sync pulse makes no difference.

Similarly the receiver starts to receive a sample at the rising edge of the PSCFSYNC or one clock after the rising edge.

The PSCFSYNC is sampled at the negative edge of the bit clock.

27.4.4 Modem16 Mode

[Figure 27-40](#page-800-0) shows an example of the waveform in 16-bit modem mode.

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Figure 27-40. Waveform of Modem16 Mode

The function of this mode is the same as 8-bit modem mode except that the transmit/receive data length is 16 bit.

27.4.5 AC97 Mode

[Figure 27-41](#page-800-1) shows the waveform in AC97 modem mode.

Figure 27-41. Waveform of AC97 Mode

In AC97 mode, the PSCBCLK is the bit clock input and, different from 8/16 bit modem mode, the PSCnRTS is the frame sync output. [Figure 27-42](#page-800-2) shows an example connection to a AC97 CODEC chip.

Figure 27-42. An Example Connection to AC97 CODEC

27.4.5.1 Transmitter

The transmitter starts to transmit the first bit at the one clock after the rising edge of the frame sync. The first slot, slot #0, is 16 bits wide while the other slot, from slot #1 to slot #12, is 20 bits wide. Because the transmit order is the MSB first, the SHDIR bit in the PSCSICR should be a value 0. The transmitter keeps the output low until the receiver detects the 'CODEC ready' condition, which is indicated by a high in the first bit of a new frame. Since receive data is sampled on the falling edge of the bit clock, the frame has already started when a 'CODEC ready' condition is detected by the receiver. For this reason, when the 'CODEC ready' condition is detected, a transmission starts at the next frame (one clock after the next frame sync). The transmitter stops transmission from the beginning of the frame in which the first bit of the receiver frame was detected to be low, i.e. CODEC is not ready. During transmission, the transmitter fills each of the 13 time slots of the AC97 frame with samples from the TxFIFO.

27.4.5.2 Receiver

The receiver starts to receive slot #0 data one bit clock after the rising edge of a frame sync. Until the receiver detects a 'CODEC ready' condition, no data is put into the RxFIFO for that frame. When a 'CODEC ready' is detected, the receiver starts loading the RxFIFO with the received time slot samples and continues to do so until a 0 is received in the first bit of a new frame.

27.4.5.3 Low Power Mode

PSC monitors the first three timeslots of each transmitter frame in order to detect the power down condition for the AC97 digital interface. Detection of the power down condition is done as follows:

- 1. The first three bits of slot #0 must be 1 indicating that this transmitter frame is valid, and that slots #1 and #2 are valid.
- 2. Slot #1 contains the address of the power down register (26 hex)
- 3. Slot #2 contains a 1 in the fourth bit (bit 12/PR4 in power down register)

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Leaving low power mode can be done via either a warm or cold reset [\(Figure 27-43](#page-802-0)). The CPU performs a warm reset by writing a 1 to the AWR bit of SICR register for a minimum of 1 us. The AWR bit forces a 1 on PSCnRTS, which is used as the frame sync output in AC97 mode. The pulse width of warm or cold reset should be dependent on AC97 codec chip.

Figure 27-43. AC97 Cold and Warm Reset

27.4.6 SIR Mode

The data format in SIR mode is similar to that of UART mode. Each data consists of a start bit, 8 bit data, and a stop bit. Each bit of data is encoded so that a 0 is encoded as 3/16 of the bit time pulse (or 1.6 υs pulse), and a 1 is encoded as no pulse. Similarly, the received serial pulse is decoded as a 0, and an absence of a pulse is decoded as a 1. [Figure 27-44](#page-802-1) is an example of data stream of UART and SIR.

Figure 27-44. Data Format in SIR Mode

27.4.7 MIR Mode

27.4.7.1 Data Format

The encoded pulse width of data in MIR mode is 1/4 of the bit duration and the transfer is synchronous.

Figure 27-45. Data Format in MIR Mode

The packet format is similar to HDLC packet format

STA	STA	DATA	FCS	STO
01111110	01111110		16-bit CRC	01111110

Figure 27-46. MIR Packet Format

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The STA represents the start of the frame and the STO represents the end of the frame. Both of STA and STO are defined as 01111110 in binary format. In the transmitted data and FCS, a 0 is inserted after 5 consecutive 1s. The FCS is a 16-bit CRC defined as:

$$
CRC(x) = x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1
$$
Eqn. 27-3

27.4.7.2 Serial Interaction Pulse (SIP)

The MIR and FIR system must emit SIP at least once per 500ms while the connection lasts, in order to inform slower systems (SIR) not to interfere with the link. If the SIPEN bit in IRCR1 is high, the transmitter automatically appends one SIP after every frame. SIP also can be sent by writing 1 to SIPREQ bit in IRCR2. If SIPREQ is high and the transmitter is in an idle state, one SIP is sent and the SIPREQ bit is automatically cleared. [Figure 27-47](#page-803-0) illustrates how SIP is defined.

Figure 27-47. Serial Interaction Pulse (SIP)

27.4.8 FIR Mode

27.4.8.1 Data Format

The data field is 4 PPM encoded by the transmitter. Data encoding is done LSB first. Each chip duration is 125 ns.

Figure 27-48. Data Format in FIR Mode

[Figure 27-49](#page-803-1) shows the packet format.

Figure 27-49. FIR Mode Packet Format

PA	∼∼ $\overline{}$	DATA ------	FOO -ເວ	$- - -$ ╵ ັ
----	--------------------------------	-----------------------	-------------------	-------------------

The preamble (PA) field is used by a receiver to establish phase lock. After receiving the start flag (STA), the receiver begins to interpret the 4 PPM encoded symbols. The receiver continues receiving until it receives the stop flag (STO). The FCS is a 32-bit CRC defined as:

$$
CRC(x) = x^{32} + x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1
$$

The chip patterns for PA, STA, and STO are defined in [Table 27-37](#page-804-0).

PA	1000	0000	1010	1000			(16 times repeated)	
STA	0000	1100	0000	1100	0110	0000	0110	0000
STO	0000	1100	0000	1100	0000	0110	0000	0110
		first chip				last chip		

Table 27-37. Chip Patterns for FIR Fields

27.4.9 PSC FIFO System

The receive FIFO stack consists of the FIFO and a receiver shift register connected to the RxD. Data is assembled in the receiver shift register and loaded into the FIFO at the location pointed to by the FIFO write pointer.

Reading the Rx buffer produces an output of data from the location pointed to by the FIFO read pointer. After the read cycle, data at the top of the FIFO stack is popped and the Rx shift register can add new data at the bottom of the FIFO. The standard FIFO controller used in MCF548*x* peripherals, such as the PSCs, was designed to control either a transmit (Tx) or a receive (Rx) FIFO

Depending on whether the FIFO is set for Tx or Rx, alarm and granularity are measured differently, either:

- valid data bytes (Tx FIFO)
- empty bytes (Rx FIFO)

For both Tx and Rx FIFOs:

- Alarm specifies a threshold at which the FIFO generates an interrupt to either:
	- Multichannel DMA
	- CPU (alternate)
- Granularity specifies a threshold at which the interrupt goes away.

Each PSC provides two control lines to the Multichannel DMA system, control the transfer from and to the PSC FIFO. The FIFOs can be accessed as follows:

- 8-bit codec mode or UART mode
	- Can access FIFOs either 1, 2, or 4 one-byte samples at a time.
- 16-bit codec mode:
	- Can access FIFOs 1 or 2 two-byte samples at a time.
- 32-bit and 32-bit codec mode
	- Can access FIFOs four-byte samples at a time
- AC97 mode:
	- Must access FIFOs one sample at a time
	- In addition, when the Rx FIFO is being read, a "1" in bit 20 (21st bit of the sample) marks this sample as the first time slot of a new frame.

Block error mode is always selected because PSCMR1*n*[ERR] is hard-wired high. In block mode PSCSR*n* shows a logical OR of all characters received after the last RESET ERROR STATUS command. Block mode offers a data-reception speed advantage where the software overhead of error-checking each character cannot be tolerated. Errors are not detected until the check is done at the end of an entire message; the faulting character is not identified.

Reading PSCSR*n* does not affect the FIFO. The FIFO is popped only when the Rx buffer is read. If the Rx FIFO is completely full, a new character is held in the Rx shift register until space is available. However, if a second new character is received, contents of the character in the Rx shift register is lost. The FIFOs

are unaffected, and PSCSR*n*[ERR] sets when the receiver detects the start bit of the new overrunning character.

To support flow control, the receiver can be programmed to automatically negate and assert RTS. In which case, the receiver automatically negates RTS when a valid start bit is detected and the FIFO stack is full. The receiver asserts RTS when a FIFO position becomes available.

Overrun errors can be prevented by connecting RTS to the CTS input of the transmitting device.

NOTE

The receiver can still read characters in the FIFO stack if the receiver is disabled. If the receiver is reset, the FIFO stack, RTS control, all receiver status bits, and interrupt requests are reset. No more characters are received until the receiver is re-enabled.

27.4.9.1 RX FIFO

The RX FIFO space is 512 bytes. For an Rx FIFO, the alarm value is not the amount of data in the Rx FIFO. Instead, an interrupt occurs as a result of the amount of empty space remaining in the Rx FIFO. These facts are described in [Figure 27-50](#page-805-0).

If it is known how much data is needed in the Rx FIFO to cause an interrupt, the value that must be written into the alarm register is the FIFO size minus the number of data bytes in the FIFO

Unlike the alarm value, granularity value represents a number of data bytes, not empty space.

NOTE

In AC97, the number of data bytes are four times the number of time slot samples in the FIFO. Because, each 20-bit sample uses an entire 32-bit longword in the FIFO.

For the Rx FIFO, the value can be between 0 and 7 bytes only. Therefore, the interrupt has hysteresis. For example, the interrupt goes active when the Rx FIFO is "almost full" (i.e., the amount of empty space is less than the alarm level). It stays active until enough data is read out of the Rx FIFO so that the amount of data left in the FIFO is less than the granularity level.

For the example (see [Figure 27-50\)](#page-805-0) this means:

The requestor to the Multichannel DMA to emptying the RX FIFO becomes active if the empty space in the FIFO is less than 8 bytes (504 data bytes are in the FIFO).

The requester became inactive if 4 bytes are left in the FIFO. (508 byte space now)

When the Multichannel DMA is servicing the FIFOs, this process works well. However, if the CPU is servicing the FIFOs, the interrupt has no hysteresis.

For example, the alarm level is used for both activating and deactivating the CPU interrupt.

When using the Multichannel DMA you must specify a non-zero granularity to get FIFO underrun errors. This is due to its internal pipelining.

Multichannel DMA does not immediately stop accessing the FIFO when the FIFO interrupt goes away.

27.4.9.2 TX FIFO

The TX FIFO space is 512 bytes. For a Tx FIFO, the alarm value specifies a threshold in terms of DATA bytes, **not** in terms of empty space as with the Rx FIFO. Once the amount of data in the Tx FIFO falls below the alarm level, an interrupt activates. The interrupt indicates the Tx FIFO is" almost empty" and needs more data. Tx FIFO granularity is specified in terms of empty bytes, **not** the number of data bytes as with the Rx FIFO. For more informations see also [Figure 27-50](#page-805-0). The granularity value range is 0–7.

The Tx FIFO controller hardware multiplies this value by 4, to establish the actual level at which the FIFO alarm goes away. For the Tx FIFO, the alarm goes away when the number of empty bytes left in the Tx FIFO is less than or equal to:

- 0 (Granularity value 0)
- 4 (Granularity value 1)
- 8 (Granularity value 2)
- 12 (Granularity value 3)
- 16 (Granularity value 4)
- 20 (Granularity value 5)
- 24 (Granularity value 6)
- 28 (Granularity value 7)

The FIFO interrupt stays active until Multichannel DMA writes enough data into the Tx FIFO to reach the granularity level. Once the granularity level is reached, the interrupt goes away.

For the example (see [Figure 27-50\)](#page-805-0) it means:

The requestor to the Multichannel DMA to filling the TX FIFO becomes active if the amount of data in the FIFO is less then 16 data.

The requester became inactive if less than 20 (5×4) bytes space in the FIFO.

27.4.10 Looping Modes

The UART can be configured to operate in various looping modes as shown in [Figure 27-51](#page-807-0). These modes are useful for local and remote system diagnostic functions, and can be used in modem mode and IrDA mode as well as UART mode. The modes are described in the following paragraphs.

Figure 27-51. Looping Modes Functional Diagram

The UART's transmitter and receiver should both be disabled when switching between modes. The selected mode is activated immediately upon mode selection, regardless of whether a character is being received or transmitted.

27.4.10.1 Automatic Echo Mode

In the automatic echo mode, the UART automatically retransmits the received data on a bit-by-bit basis. The local CPU-to-receiver communication continues normally, but the CPU-to-transmitter link is disabled. While in this mode, received data is clocked on the receiver clock and retransmitted on TxD. The receiver must be enabled, but the transmitter need not be enabled.

Because the transmitter is not active, the TxEMP and TxRDY bits in USR are inactive, and data is transmitted as it is received. Received parity is checked, but not recalculated for transmission. Character framing is also checked, but stop bits are transmitted as received. A received break is echoed as received until the next valid start bit is detected.

27.4.10.2 Local Loopback Mode

TxD is internally connected to RxD in the local loopback mode. This is useful for testing the operation of a local UART module channel by sending data to the transmitter and checking data assembled by the receiver. In this manner, correct channel operations can be assured. Also, both transmitter and CPU-to-receiver communications continue normally in this mode. While in this mode, the RxD input data

is ignored, the TxD is held marking, and the receiver is clocked by the transmitter clock. The transmitter must be enabled, but the receiver need not be enabled.

27.4.10.3 Remote Loopback Mode

In this mode, the channel automatically transmits received data on the TxD output on a bit-by-bit basis. The local CPU-to-transmitter link is disabled. This mode is useful in testing receiver and transmitter operation of a remote channel. While in this mode, the receiver clock is used for the transmitter.

Because the receiver is not active, received data cannot be read by the CPU, and the error status conditions are inactive. Received parity is not checked and is not recalculated for transmission. Stop bits are transmitted as received. A received break is echoed as received until the next valid start bit is detected.

27.5 Resets

27.5.1 General

This section describes how to reset the device. CR refers to PSCCR.

Table 27-38. Reset Summary

27.5.2 Description of Reset Operation

27.5.2.1 Reset

When there is a reset, the PSC module goes to its initial state.

27.5.2.2 CRSRX

Writing the RESET RECEIVER command to the command control register PSCCR resets the receiver.

27.5.2.3 CRSTX

Writing the RESET TRANSMITTER command to the command control register PSCCR resets the transmitter.

27.5.2.4 CRSES

Writing the RESET ERROR STATUS command to the command control register PSCCR resets the error status held in the status register PSCSR.

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27.6 Interrupts

This section describes interrupts originated by this module.

Interrupt	Mode	Source	Description
Processor Interrupt	UART	IPC.	The state of the modem control input ports had changed and a certain time has passed.
		DB	Detected delta break. The input port RXD has kept low for a certain time.
		RXRDY	There is one or more data in the RxFIFO
		FU	The number in the RxFIFO is more than the threshold
		TXRDY	The number in the TxFIFO is less than the threshold
	modem	RXRDY	There is one or more data in the RxFIFO
	IrDA	FU	The number in the RxFIFO is more than the threshold
		TXRDY	The number in the TxFIFO is less than the threshold

Table 27-39. Interrupt Summary

27.6.1 Description of Interrupt Operation

27.6.1.1 Processor Interrupt

This is the interrupt to the processor. There are five conditions to assert this interrupt:

- The IPC interrupt condition is met if the modem control input port ($\overline{PSCnCTS}$) is changed and lasts for a certain time.This interrupt is usually used in UART mode though it works under all modes.
- The DB condition is met if the PSC*n*RXD is held low for more than a character duration in UART and SIR mode.
- The RxRDY is from PSCISR[9]. It is asserted when the alarm of the RXFIFO is asserted $(PSCIMR1[6] = 1)$ or there is at least one data in RXFIFO (PSCMR1[6] = 0).
- The TxRDY is different from cb_req_tx. It is asserted when
	- the transmitter is enabled
	- the number of the TXFIFO is less than or equal to the threshold TFAR
	- the corresponding PSCIMR bit, PSCIMR[TxRDY(=8)], is high and enabled, i.e. when $PSCISR[8] (= SR[10] = (count \leq = alarm))$ & $PSCIMR[8]$ & $ENTX$
- The DEOF is from PSCISR[7]. It is asserted when there is an EOF in the RXFIFO.

27.7 Software Environment

27.7.1 General

This section provides information pertinent to programming the device.

27.7.2 Configuration

27.7.2.1 UART Mode

The following is a sample initialization sequence for UART mode.

Table 27-40. Sample Initialization Sequence for UART Mode

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	08	SIM[2:0]=000	UART mode
$\overline{2}$	PSCCSR	DD	RCS[3:0]=1101	Receiver baud rate is made from PSC timer
			TCS[3:0]=1101	Transmitter baud rate is made from PSC timer
3	PSCCTUR	00	CT[15:0]=108 (dec)	Divide sys_clk by 108. If $f(sys_{ck}) = 33.3333 \text{ MHz}$,
	PSCCTLR	6C		baud rate is 9600 bps.
4	PSCCR	20	$MISC = 010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
		50	$MISC = 101$	Reset break change interrupt
		10	$MISC = 001$	Reset MR pointer
5	PSCIMR	8700	$IPC=1$	Enable input port change interrupt
			$DB=1$	Enable delta break interrupt
			RxRDY or FU=1	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			$TxRDY=1$	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
6	PSCACR	01	$IECO=1$	Enable state change of PSCnCTS
$\overline{7}$	PSCMR1	23	RxRTS=0	Receiver has no effect on PSCnRTS
			$RxIRQ=0$	RX interrupt is from RxRDY (one byte)
			ERR=1 (fixed)	Block error mode
			$PM[1:0]=00$, $PMT=0$	even parity
			BC[1:0]=11	8 bit
8	PSCMR ₂	37	CM[1:0]=00	Normal mode (not test mode)
			TxRTS=1	PSCnRTS is controlled by transmitter
			$TxCTS=1$	PSCnCTS controls transmitter
			SB[3:0]=0111	1 stop bit
9	PSCRFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 4 byte

Table 27-40. Sample Initialization Sequence for UART Mode (Continued)

27.7.2.2 Modem8 Mode

Applying the clock to the PSCBCLK input and programming the control registers are required to initialize in modem8 mode. The following table describes a sample initialization sequence.

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	01	$DTS1=0$	The 1st bit is in the rising edge of sync
			$SHDIR = 0$	MSB first
			SIM[2:0]=001	modem ₈ mode
$\overline{2}$	PSCCR	20	$MISC = 010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
3	PSCIMR	0300	$IPC=0$	Disable input port change interrupt
			$RxRDY$ or $FU=1$	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			$TxRDY=1$	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
4	PSCRFCR	0C ₀₀	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 4 byte
5	PSCTFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 16 byte
6	PSCRFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if # of data $>= 240$
7	PSCTFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if $#$ of empty $>= 240$

Table 27-41. Sample Initialization Sequence for Modem8 Mode

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Table 27-41. Sample Initialization Sequence for Modem8 Mode (Continued)

27.7.2.3 Modem16 Mode

The configuration sequence in modem16 mode is almost the same as in modem8 mode except that the first write value to the SIM[2:0] in PSCSICR should be 3'b010.

27.7.2.4 AC97 Mode

Applying a 12.288 MHz clock to the PSCBCLK input and programming the control registers are required to initialize in AC97 mode. The following table describes a sample sequence.

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	03	$ACRB=1$	Not cold reset
			$AWR=0$	Not warm reset
			SIM[2:0]=011	AC97 mode
$\overline{2}$	PSCCR	20	$MISC = 010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
3	PSCIMR	0300	$IPC=0$	Disable input port change interrupt
			$RxRDY$ or $FU=1$	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			$TxRDY=1$	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
4	PSCRFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 4 byte
5	PSCTFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 16 byte
6	PSCRFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if $#$ of data $>= 240$
$\overline{7}$	PSCTFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if $#$ of empty $>= 240$
8	PSCCR	05	$TC=01$	Enable transmitter
			$RC = 01$	Enable receiver

Table 27-42. A Sample Initialization Sequence for AC97 Mode

27.7.2.5 SIR Mode

 \mathbf{r}

Here is a sample configuration sequence in SIR mode.

Table 27-43. A Sample Initialization Sequence for SIR Mode

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	04	SIM[2:0]=100	SIR mode
2	PSCCSR	DD	RCS[3:0]=1101	Receiver baud rate is made from PSC timer
			TCS[3:0]=1101	Transmitter baud rate is made from PSC timer
3	PSCCTUR	00	CT[15:0]=108 (dec)	Divide sys_clk by 108. If f(sys_clk) = 33.3333 MHz,
	PSCCTLR	6C		baud rate is 9600 bps.
4	PSCCR	20	$MISC = 010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
		10	$MISC = 001$	Reset MR pointer
5	PSCIMR	0300	$IPC=0$	Disable input port change interrupt
			$DB=0$	Disable delta break interrupt
			RxRDY or FU=1	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			TxRDY=1	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
6	PSCACR	00	$IECO=0$	Disable state change of PSCnCTS
7	PSCMR1	33	RxRTS=0	Receiver has no effect on PSCnRTS
			RxIRQ=0	Receiver interrupt is from RxRDY (one byte)
			ERR=1 (fixed)	Block error mode
			PM[1:0]=10, PMT=0	No parity
			BC[1:0]=11	8 bit
8	PSCMR2	07	CM[1:0]=00	Normal mode (not test mode)
			TxRTS=0	PSCnRTS is not controlled by transmitter
			$TxCTS=0$	PSCnCTS does not control transmitter
			SB[3:0]=0111	1 stop bit
9	PSCIRCR1	00	FD=0	Receiver is disabled while transmitting
			SPUL=1	Pulse width is 1.6 us
10	PSCIRSTR	36	IRSTIM=54 (dec)	Counter value for 1.6 us pulse
11	PSCRFCR	0C00_	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 4 byte

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
12	PSCTFCR	0C ₀₀	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 16 byte
13	PSCRFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if # of data $>= 240$
14	PSCTFAR	00F0	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if # of empty $>= 240$
15	PSCCR	04	$TC=01$	Enable transmitter
			$RC = 00$	Receiver remains at disabled state.

Table 27-43. A Sample Initialization Sequence for SIR Mode (Continued)

27.7.2.6 MIR Mode

Applying clock to the PSCBCLK input and programming the control registers are required to initialize in MIR mode. Here is a sample sequence when the input frequency of PSCBCLK is 18.432 MHz. (1.152 MHz x 16).

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	05	SIM[2:0]=101	MIR mode
2	PSCIRMFD	0F	$FREDL=0$	1.152 Mbps mode
			M_FDIV[4:0]=01111	Frequency divide ratio is 16. So f(PSCBCLK) should be 18.432 MHz.
3	PSCCR	20	$MISC = 010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
		10	$MISC = 001$	Reset MR pointer
4	PSCMR1	73	$RxIRQ=1$	receiver interrupt is from FU (over threshold)
5	PSCIMR	0380	$IPC=0$	Disable input port change interrupt
			RxRDY or FU=1	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			$TxRDY=1$	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
			$DEOF=1$	Enable DEOF interrupt/request
6	PSCIRCR1	02	$FD=0$	Receiver is disabled while transmitting
			$SIPEN=1$	Send SIP after every frame
$\overline{7}$	PSCIRCR ₂	$00\,$	SIPREQ=0	SIP is not requested to send now
			ABORT=0	Not send abort sequence now
			NXTEOF=0	Next write is not EOF

Table 27-44. A Sample Initialization Sequence for MIR Mode

Table 27-44. A Sample Initialization Sequence for MIR Mode (Continued)

27.7.2.7 FIR Mode

Applying the clock to the PSCBCLK input and programming the control registers are required to initialize in FIR mode. Here is a sample sequence when the input frequency of PSCBCLK is 64 MHz. Steps 3 to 11 are the same as in MIR mode.

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
1	PSCSICR	06	SIM[2:0]=110	FIR mode
$\overline{2}$	PSCIRFFD	0F	F_FDIV[3:0]=0111	Frequency divide ratio is 8. So f(PSCBCLK) should be 64 MHz.
3	PSCCR	20	$MISC=010$	Reset receiver and RxFIFO
		30	$MISC = 011$	Reset transmitter and TxFIFO
		40	$MISC=100$	Reset all error status
		10	$MISC = 001$	Reset MR pointer
4	PSCMR1	73	$RxIRQ=1$	Receiver interrupt is from FU (over threshold)
5	PSCIMR	0380	$IPC=0$	Disable input port change interrupt
			RxRDY or FU=1	Enable receiver interrupt/request
			$TxRDY=1$	Enable transmitter interrupt/request
			$DEOF=1$	Enable DEOF interrupt/request
6	PSCIRCR1	02	$FD=0$	receiver is disabled while transmitting
			$SIPEN=1$	Send SIP after every frame

Table 27-45. A Sample Initialization Sequence for FIR Mode

Step No.	Register	Value	Details	Meaning
$\overline{7}$	PSCIRCR ₂	00	SIPREQ=0	SIP is not requested to send now
			ABORT=0	Not send abort sequence now
			NXTEOF=0	Next write is not FOF
8	PSCRFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 4 byte
9	PSCTFCR	0C00	$WFR = 0$	Not EOF
		0000	FRMEN=1	Enable frame mode
			GR[2:0]=100	Granularity is 16 byte
10	PSCRFAR	00F ₀	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if # of data $>= 240$
11	PSCTFAR	00F0	ALARM[8:0]=0F0	Request is asserted if # of empty $>= 240$
12 ²	PSCCR	04	$TC=01$	Enable transmitter
			$RC = 00$	Receiver remains at disabled state.

Table 27-45. A Sample Initialization Sequence for FIR Mode (Continued)

27.7.3 Programming

In any mode, after the configuration sequence, enabling the transmitter and writing data to the transmit buffer sends serial data via the PSC*n*TXD port. Enabling the receiver makes the receiver ready and if there is incoming data to PSC*n*RXD, the receiver decodes the input and stores the data in the FIFO.

27.7.3.1 MIR Mode

After initialization, writing data to the transmit buffer and enabling the transmitter sends data via the PSC*n*TXD port. The STA, CRC (option), and STO are automatically added.

After initialization and after enabling the receiver, the receiver is ready to receive data. While receiving serial data, the receiver will eliminate STA and STO, and these flags are not written into the FIFO. After receiving enough data, PSC asserts request/interrupt to prompt the processor to read the received data.

27.7.3.2 FIR Mode

After initialization, writing data to the TB and enabling the transmitter sends data via the PSC*n*TXD port. The PA, STA, CRC (option), and STO are automatically added.

After initialization and after enabling the receiver, the receiver is ready to receive data. While receiving serial data, the receiver will eliminate PA, STA, and STO, and these flags are not written into the FIFO. After receiving enough data, PSC asserts request/interrupt to prompt the processor to read the received data.

Chapter 28 DMA Serial Peripheral Interface (DSPI)

This chapter describes the use of the DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI) implemented on the MCF548*x* processor.

28.1 Overview

The DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI) block provides a synchronous serial bus for communication between an MCU and an external peripheral device. The DSPI supports up to eight queued SPI transfers (four receive and four transmit) in the DSPI resident FIFOs eliminating CPU intervention between transfers.

For queued operations, the SPI queues reside in system RAM that is external to the DSPI. Data transfers between the queues and the DSPI FIFOs are accomplished through the use of a DMA controller or through host software.

28.2 Features

The MCF548*x* DSPI supports these SPI features:

- Full-duplex, three-wire synchronous transfers
- Master and slave modes
- Buffered transmit operation using the Tx FIFO with depth of up to 4 entries
- Buffered receive operation using the Rx FIFO with depth of up to 4 entries
- Tx and Rx FIFOs can be disabled individually for low-latency updates to SPI queues
- Visibility into Tx and Rx FIFOs for ease of debugging
- Programmable transfer attributes on a per-frame basis:
	- Eight transfer attribute registers
	- Serial clock with programmable polarity and phase
	- Various programmable delays
	- Programmable serial frame size of 4 to 16 bits, expandable with software control
	- Continuously held chip select capability
- Four peripheral chip selects, expandable to 15 with external demultiplexer
- Deglitching support for up to seven peripheral chip selects with external demultiplexer
- DMA support for adding entries to Tx FIFO and removing entries from Rx FIFO:
	- Tx FIFO is not full (TFFF)
	- Rx FIFO is not empty (RFDF)
- Six interrupt conditions:
	- End of queue reached (EOQF)
	- Tx FIFO is not full (TFFF)
	- Transfer of current frame complete (TCF)
	- Attempt to transmit with an empty Tx FIFO (TFUF)
	- Rx FIFO is not empty (RFDF)
	- Frame received while Rx FIFO is full (RFOF)
- Modified SPI transfer formats for communication with slower peripheral devices

28.3 Block Diagram

[Figure 28-1](#page-819-0) shows a DSPI with external queues in system RAM.

Figure 28-1. DSPI with Queues and DMA

28.4 Modes of Operation

The DSPI has two modes of operation: master and slave. The two modes are entered by host software writing to a register.

28.4.1 Master Mode

Master mode allows the DSPI to initiate and control serial communication. In this mode, the DSPISCK signal and the DSPICS*n* signals are controlled by the DSPI and configured as outputs.

28.4.2 Slave Mode

The slave mode allows the DSPI to communicate with SPI bus masters. In this mode the DSPI responds to externally controlled serial transfers. The DSPI cannot control serial transfers in slave mode. In slave mode, the DSPISCK signal and the DSPICS0/SS signal are configured as inputs and provided by a bus master.

28.5 Signal Description

28.5.1 Overview

[Table 28-1](#page-820-0) lists the DSPI signals.

Table 28-1. Signal Properties

28.5.2 Detailed Signal Descriptions

28.5.2.1 DSPI Peripheral Chip Select/Slave Select (DSPICS0/SS)

In master mode, the DSPICS0 signal is a peripheral chip select output that selects which slave device the current transmission is intended for.

In slave mode, the SS signal is a slave select input signal that allows an SPI master to select the DSPI as the target for transmission.

28.5.2.2 DSPI Peripheral Chip Selects 2–3 (DSPICS[2:3])

DSPICS[2:3] are peripheral chip select output signals in master mode. In slave mode these signals are not used.

28.5.2.3 DSPI Peripheral Chip Select 5/Peripheral Chip Select Strobe (DSPICS5/PCSS)

When the DSPI is in master mode and the DMCR[PCSSE] bit is cleared, DSPICS5 is used to select the slave device for which the current transfer is intended DSPICS5 is a peripheral chip select output signal.

PCSS provides a strobe signal that can be used with an external demultiplexer for deglitching of the *n* signals. When the DSPI is in master mode and DMCR[PCSSE] is set, the PCSS provides the appropriate timing for the decoding of the DSPICS[0,2,3] signals that prevents glitches from occurring.

This signal is not used in slave mode.

28.5.2.4 DSPI Serial Input (DSPISIN)

DSPISIN is a serial data input signal.

28.5.2.5 DSPI Serial Output (DSPISOUT)

DSPISOUT is a serial data output signal.

28.5.2.6 DSPI Serial Clock (DSPISCK)

DSPISCK is a synchronous serial communication clock signal. In master mode, the DSPI generates the DSPISCK. In slave mode, DSPISCK is an input from an external bus master.

28.6 Memory Map and Registers

[Table 28-2](#page-821-0) shows the DSPI memory map.

Table 28-2. DSPI Memory Map

28.6.1 DSPI Module Configuration Register (DMCR)

The DMCR contains bits which configure various attributes associated with DSPI operation. The HALT bit can be changed at any time but will only take effect on the next frame boundary.

Only the HALT bit in the DMCR may be changed while the DSPI is in the running state.

Figure 28-2. DSPI Module Configuration Register (DMCR)

Table 28-3. DMCR Field Descriptions

28.6.2 DSPI Transfer Count Register (DTCR)

The DTCR contains a counter that indicates the number of SPI transfers made. The transfer counter is intended to assist in queue management. The user must not write to the DTCR while the DSPI is in the running state.

Figure 28-3. DSPI Transfer Count Register (DTCR)

Table 28-4. DMCR Field Descriptions

28.6.3 DSPI Clock and Transfer Attributes Registers 0–7 (DCTARn)

Each SPI transfer selects a DCTAR register from which it gets its transfer attributes. By combining these attributes the transfer is configured. The user must not write to the DCTAR registers while the DSPI is in the running state.

In master mode, the DCTAR registers define combinations of transfer attributes such as transfer size, clock phase and polarity, data bit ordering, baud rate, and various delays. When the DSPI is thus configured as

an SPI master, the DTFR[CTAS] field in the command portion of the Tx FIFO entry selects which of the DCTAR registers is used.

In slave mode, a subset of the bitfields in only the DCTAR0 registers are used to set the slave transfer attributes. See the individual bit descriptions of this register for details on which bits are used in slave modes.

Figure 28-4. DSPI Clock and Transfer Attributes Register (DCTARn)

Table 28-5. DCTAR Field Descriptions

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Table 28-6. DSPI Transfer Size

Table 28-7. Scaler for CS to DSPISCK Delay, After DSPISCK Delay, and Delay After Transfer

Table 28-8. DSPI Baud Rate Scaler

28.6.4 DSPI Status Register (DSR)

The DSR contains status and flag bits. The bits reflect the status of the DSPI and indicate the occurrence of events that can generate interrupt or DMA requests. Software can clear flag bits in the DSR by writing a '1' to it. Writing a '0' to a flag bit has no effect.

Figure 28-5. DSPI Status Register (DSR)

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28.6.5 DSPI DMA/Interrupt Request Select Register (DIRSR)

The DIRSR serves two purposes. It enables flag bits in the DSR to generate DMA requests or interrupt requests. The DIRSR also selects the type of request to be generated. See the individual bit descriptions for information on the types of requests supported. The user must not write to the DIRSR while the DSPI is in the running state.

Figure 28-6. DSPI DMA/Interrupt Request Select Register (DIRSR)

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DIRSR Field Descriptions

28.6.6 DSPI Tx FIFO Register (DTFR)

The DTFR provides a means to write to the Tx FIFO. SPI commands and data written to this register are transferred to the Tx FIFO. See [Section 28.7.2.4, "Tx FIFO Buffering Mechanism"](#page-838-0) for more information. 8- or 16-bit write accesses to the DTFR will transfer 32 bits to the Tx FIFO.

Figure 28-7. DSPI Tx FIFO Register (DTFR)

Table 28-10. DTFR Field Descriptions

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28.6.7 DSPI Rx FIFO Register (DRFR)

The DRFR provides a means to read the Rx FIFO. See [Section 28.7.2.5, "Rx FIFO Buffering Mechanism"](#page-839-0) for a description of the Rx FIFO operations. 8- or 16-bit read accesses to the DRFR will read from the Rx FIFO and update the counter and pointer.

Figure 28-8. DSPI Rx FIFO Register (DRFR)

Table 28-11. DRFR Field Descriptions

28.6.8 DSPI Tx FIFO Debug Registers 0–3 (DTFDRn)

The DTFDR*n* registers provide visibility into the Tx FIFO for debugging purposes. Each register is an entry in the Tx FIFO. The registers are read-only and cannot be modified. Reading the DTFDR*n* registers does not alter the state of the Tx FIFO

Figure 28-9. DSPI Tx FIFO Debug Register (DTFDRn)

Table 28-12. DTFDRx Field Descriptions

28.6.9 DSPI Rx FIFO Debug Registers 0–3 (DRFDRn)

The DRFDR0 – DRFDR3 registers provide visibility into the Rx FIFO for debugging purposes. Each register is an entry in the Rx FIFO. The DRFDR registers are read-only. Reading the DRFDR_*x* registers does not alter the state of the Rx FIFO.

Figure 28-10. DSPI Rx FIFO Debug Register (DRFDR_x)

28.7 Functional Description

The DMA serial peripheral interface (DSPI) block provides a synchronous serial bus for communication between an MCU and an external peripheral device. The DSPI supports up to eight queued SPI transfers at once (four transmit and four receive) in the DSPI resident FIFOs, thereby eliminating CPU intervention between transfers.

The DCTAR*n* registers hold clock and transfer attributes. The SPI configuration can select which CTAR to use on a frame-by-frame basis by setting a field in the SPI command. See [Section 28.6.3, "DSPI Clock](#page-824-0) [and Transfer Attributes Registers 0–7 \(DCTARn\)"](#page-824-0) for information on the fields of the DCTAR registers.

The 16-bit shift register in the master and the 16-bit shift register in the slave are linked by the DSPISOUT and DSPISIN signals to form a distributed 32-bit register. When a data transfer operation is performed, data is serially shifted a predetermined number of bit positions. Because the registers are linked, data is exchanged between the master and the slave; the data that was in the master's shift register is now in the shift register of the slave, and vice versa. At the end of a transfer, the DSR[TCF] bit is set to indicate a completed transfer. [Figure 28-11](#page-836-1) illustrates how master and slave data is exchanged.

Functional Description

Figure 28-11. SPI Serial Protocol Overview

The DSPI has four peripheral chip select signals that are used to select which of the slaves to communicate with: DSPICS5, DSPICS3, DSPICS1, and DSPICS0.

The transfer rate and delay settings are described in section [Section 28.7.3, "DSPI Baud Rate and Clock](#page-839-1) [Delay Generation.](#page-839-1)"

28.7.1 Start and Stop of DSPI Transfers

The DSPI has two operating states; stopped and running. The states are independent of DSPI configuration. The default state of the DSPI is stopped. In the stopped state, no serial transfers are initiated in master mode and no transfers are responded to in slave mode. The stopped state is also a safe state for writing the various configuration registers of the DSPI without causing undetermined results. The DSR[TXRXS] bit is cleared in this state. In the running state, serial transfers take place. The DSR[TXRXS] bit is set in the running state. [Figure 28-12](#page-836-2) shows a state diagram of the start and stop mechanism. The transitions are described in [Table 28-14.](#page-837-0)

Figure 28-12. DSPI Start and Stop State Diagram

State transitions from running to stopped occur on the next frame boundary if a transfer is in progress, or on the next system clock cycle if no transfers are in progress.

28.7.2 Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI)

The SPI transfers data serially using a shift register and a selection of programmable transfer attributes. The SPI frames can be from 4 to 16 bits long. The data to be transmitted can come from queues stored in RAM external to the DSPI. Host software or the DMA controller can transfer the SPI data from the queues to a FIFO. The received data is stored in entries in the receive FIFO (Rx FIFO) buffer. Host software or the DMA controller transfer the received data from the Rx FIFO to memory external to the DSPI. The FIFO buffer operations are described in [Section 28.7.2.4, "Tx FIFO Buffering Mechanism](#page-838-0)" and [Section 28.7.2.5, "Rx FIFO Buffering Mechanism](#page-839-0)." The interrupt and DMA request conditions are described in [Section 28.7.6, "Interrupts/DMA Requests.](#page-848-0)"

The SPI supports two block-specific modes: master mode and slave mode. The FIFO operations are similar for both modes. The main difference is that in master mode the DSPI initiates and controls the transfer according to the fields in the SPI command field of the Tx FIFO entry. In slave mode, the DSPI only responds to transfers initiated by a bus master external to the DSPI, and the SPI command field of the Tx FIFO entry is ignored.

28.7.2.1 Master Mode

In SPI master mode, the DSPI initiates the serial transfers by controlling the serial communications clock (DSPISCK) and the peripheral chip select (DSPICS*n*) signals. The SPI command field in the executing Tx FIFO entry determines which DCTAR register will be used to set the transfer attributes and which DSPICS*n* signals to assert. The command field also contains various bits that help with queue management and transfer protocol. See [Section 28.6.6, "DSPI Tx FIFO Register \(DTFR\)"](#page-832-0) for details on the SPI command fields. The data field in the executing Tx FIFO entry is loaded into the shift register and shifted out on the serial out (DSPISOUT) pin. In SPI master mode, each SPI frame to be transmitted has a command associated with it, allowing for transfer attribute control on a frame-by-frame basis.

28.7.2.2 Slave Mode

In SPI slave mode, the DSPI responds to transfers initiated by an SPI bus master. The DSPI does not initiate transfers. Certain transfer attributes such as clock polarity, clock phase, and frame size must be set

for successful communication with an SPI master. These SPI slave mode transfer attributes are set in the DCTAR0.

28.7.2.3 FIFO Disable Operation

The FIFO disable mechanisms allow SPI transfers without using the Tx FIFO or Rx FIFO. The DSPI operates as a double-buffered simplified SPI when the FIFOs are disabled. The Tx and Rx FIFOs are disabled separately. The Tx FIFO is disabled by setting DMCR[DTXF]. The Rx FIFO is disabled by setting DMCR[DRXF].

The FIFO disable mechanisms are transparent to the user and to host software; transmit data and commands are written to the DTFR and received data is read from the DRFR.When the Tx FIFO is disabled, the TFFF, TFUF, and TXCTR fields in DSR behave as if there is a one-entry FIFO, but the contents of the DTFDR registers and DSR[TXPTR] are undefined. When the Rx FIFO is disabled, the RFDF, RFOF, and RXCTR fields in the DSR behave as if there is a one-entry FIFO, but the contents of the DRFDR registers and DSR[RXPTR] are undefined.

28.7.2.4 Tx FIFO Buffering Mechanism

The Tx FIFO functions as a buffer of SPI data and SPI commands for transmission. The Tx FIFO holds from 1 to 4 longwords, each consisting of a command field and a data field. SPI commands and data are added to the Tx FIFO by writing to the DTFR. Tx FIFO entries can only be removed from the Tx FIFO by being shifted out or by flushing the Tx FIFO.

The DSR[TXCTR] field indicates the number of valid entries in the Tx FIFO. The TXCTR is updated every time the DTFR is written or when SPI data is transferred into the shift register from the Tx FIFO.

The DSR[TXPTR] field indicates which Tx FIFO entry will be transmitted during the next transfer. The TXPTR contains the positive offset from DTFDR0 in the number of 32-bit registers. For example, TXPTR equal to two means that the DTFDR2 contains the SPI data and command for the next transfer. The TXPTR field is incremented every time SPI data is transferred from the Tx FIFO to the shift register.

28.7.2.4.1 Filling the Tx FIFO

Host software or other intelligent blocks can add (push) entries to the Tx FIFO by writing to the DTFR. When the Tx FIFO is not full, the Tx FIFO fill flag (DSR[TFFF]) is set. The TFFF bit is cleared when Tx FIFO is full and the DMA controller indicates that a write to DTFR is complete or by host software writing a '1' to the DSR[TFFF]. The TFFF can generate a DMA request or an interrupt request. See [Section 28.7.6.2, "Transmit FIFO Fill Interrupt or DMA Request](#page-849-0)" for details.

The DSPI ignores attempts to push data to a full Tx FIFO, i.e. the state of the Tx FIFO is unchanged. No error condition is indicated.

28.7.2.4.2 Draining the Tx FIFO

The Tx FIFO entries are removed (drained) by shifting SPI data out through the shift register. Entries are transferred from the Tx FIFO to the shift register and shifted out, as long as there are valid entries in the Tx FIFO. Every time an entry is transferred from the Tx FIFO to the shift register, the Tx FIFO counter is decremented by one. At the end of a transfer, the DSR[TCF] bit is set to indicate the completion of a transfer. The Tx FIFO is flushed by setting the DMCR[CTXF] bit.

If an external bus master initiates a transfer with a DSPI slave while the slave's DSPI Tx FIFO is empty, the Tx FIFO underflow flag (DSR[FUF]) is set. See [Section 28.7.6.4, "Transmit FIFO Underflow Interrupt](#page-849-1) [Request"](#page-849-1) for details.

28.7.2.5 Rx FIFO Buffering Mechanism

The Rx FIFO functions as a buffer for data received on the DSPISIN signal. The Rx FIFO holds from 1 to 4 received SPI data frames. SPI data is added to the Rx FIFO at the completion of a transfer when the received data in the shift register is transferred into the Rx FIFO. SPI data is removed (popped) from the Rx FIFO by reading the DRFR. Rx FIFO entries can only be removed from the Rx FIFO by reading the DRFR or by flushing the Rx FIFO.

The Rx FIFO counter field (DSR[RXCTR]) indicates the number of valid entries in the Rx FIFO. The RXCTR is updated every time the DRFR is read or when SPI data is copied from the shift register to the Rx FIFO.

The DSR[RXPTR] field points to the Rx FIFO entry that is returned when the DRFR is read. The RXPTR contains the positive offset from DRFDR0 in the number of 32-bit registers. For example, RXPTR equal to two means that the DRFDR2 contains the received SPI data that will be returned when DRFR is read. The RXPTR field is incremented every time the DRFR is read.

28.7.2.5.1 Filling the Rx FIFO

The Rx FIFO is filled with the received SPI data from the shift register. While the Rx FIFO is not full, SPI frames from the shift register are transferred to the Rx FIFO. Every time an SPI frame is transferred to the Rx FIFO, the Rx FIFO counter is incremented by one.

If the Rx FIFO and shift register are full and a transfer is initiated, the DSR[RFOF] bit is set indicating an overflow condition. Depending on the state of the DMCR[ROOE] bit, the data from the transfer that generated the overflow is either ignored or shifted into the shift register. If the ROOE bit is set, the incoming data is shifted into the shift register and data is overwritten. If the ROOE bit is cleared, the incoming data is ignored.

28.7.2.5.2 Draining the Rx FIFO

Host software or the DMA controller can remove (pop) entries from the Rx FIFO by reading the DRFR. A read of the DRFR decrements the Rx FIFO counter by one. Attempts to pop data from an empty Rx FIFO are ignored, the Rx FIFO counter remains unchanged. The data returned from reading an empty Rx FIFO is undetermined.

When the Rx FIFO is not empty, the Rx FIFO drain flag (DSR[RFDF]) is set. The RFDF bit is cleared when the Rx FIFO is empty and the DMA controller indicates that a read from DRFR is complete or by host software writing a $\hat{1}$ to the RFDF.

28.7.3 DSPI Baud Rate and Clock Delay Generation

The DSPISCK frequency and the delay values for serial transfer are generated by dividing the system clock frequency by a prescaler and a scaler. [Figure 28-13](#page-839-2) shows conceptually how the DSPISCK signal is generated. For the MCF548*x*, the clock rate is 100 MHz.

Figure 28-13. Communications Clock Prescalers and Scalers

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28.7.3.1 Baud Rate Generator

The baud rate is the frequency of the DSPI serial communication clock (DSPISCK). The system clock f_{sys} is divided by a prescaler (PBR) and scaler (BR) to produce DSPISCK. The PBR and BR fields in the DCTAR*n* registers select the frequency of DSPISCK by the formula below:

> DSPISCK baud rate $=$ $PRR \times RR$ f_{sys}

[Table 28-15](#page-840-0) shows an example of how to compute the baud rate.

28.7.3.2 CS to SCK Delay (t_{CSC})

The CS to SCK delay is the length of time from assertion of the DSPICS*n* signal to the first DSPISCK edge. See [Figure 28-17](#page-845-0) for an illustration of the CS to SCK delay. The PCSSCK and CSSCK fields in the DCTAR*n* registers select the CS to SCK delay by the formula below:

$$
t_{\text{CSC}} = \frac{1}{f_{\text{sys}}} \times \text{PCSSCK} \times \text{CSSCK}
$$
 \t\t Eqn. 28-5

[Table 28-16](#page-840-1) shows an example of how to compute the CS to SCK delay.

Table 28-16. PCS to DSPISCK Delay Computation Example

PCSSCK	Prescaler	CSSCK	Scaler	Fsys	PCS to DSPISCK Delay
0b01		0b0100	32	100 MHz	0.96 us

28.7.3.3 After DSPISCK Delay (t_{ASC})

The after DSPISCK delay is the length of time between the last edge of DSPISCK and the negation of DSPICS*n*. See [Figure 28-15](#page-843-0) and [Figure 28-16](#page-844-0) for illustrations of the after DSPISCK delay. The PASC and ASC fields in the DCTAR*n* registers select the after DSPISCK delay by the formula below:

$$
t_{\text{ASC}} = \frac{1}{f_{\text{sys}}} \times \text{PASC} \times \text{ASC}
$$
 \nEqn. 28-6

[Table 28-17](#page-840-2) shows an example of how to compute the after DSPISCK delay.

Table 28-17. After DSPISCK Delay Computation Example

PASC	Prescaler	ASC	Scaler	Fsvs	After DSPISCK Delay
0b01		0b0100	32	100 MHz	0.96 us

28.7.3.4 Delay after Transfer (t_{DT})

The delay after transfer is the length of time between negation of the DSPICS*n* signal for a frame and the assertion of the DSPICS*n* signal for the next frame. See [Figure 28-15](#page-843-0) for an illustration of the delay after transfer. The PDT and DT fields in the DCTAR*n* registers select the delay after transfer by the formula below:

$$
t_{DT} = \frac{1}{f_{sys}} \times \text{PDT} \times \text{DT}
$$

[Table 28-18](#page-841-0) shows an example of how to compute the delay after transfer.

Table 28-18. Delay after Transfer Computation Example

PDT	Prescaler	DT	Scaler	Fsvs	Delay after Transfer
0b01	ັ	0b1110	32768	100 MHz	0.98 ms

28.7.3.5 Peripheral Chip Select Strobe Enable (PCSS)

The PCSS signal provides a delay to allow the DSPICS*n* signals to settle after transitioning, thereby avoiding glitches. When the DSPI is in master mode and DMCR[PCSSE] bit is set, PCSS provides a signal for an external demultiplexer to decode the DSPICS*n*[0,2:3] signals into as many as eight glitch-free DSPICS*n* signals. [Figure 28-14](#page-841-1) shows the timing of the PCSS signal relative to PCS signals.

Figure 28-14. Peripheral Chip Select Strobe Timing

The delay between the assertion of the DSPICS*n* signals and the assertion of PCSS is selected by the PCSSCK field in the DCTAR*n* based on the following formula:

Eqn. 28-8 tPCSSCK 1 f sys = ------- × PCSSCK

At the end of the transfer the delay between PCSS negation and DSPICS*n* negation is selected by the PASC field in the DCTAR*n* based on the following formula:

$$
t_{PASC} = \frac{1}{f_{sys}} \times PASC
$$
 Eqn. 28-9

Table $28-19$ shows an example of how to compute the t_{pcosock} delay.

Table 28-19. Peripheral Chip Select Strobe Assert Computation Example

Table $28-20$ shows an example of how to compute the t_{pasc} delay.

Table 28-20. Peripheral Chip Select Strobe Negate Computation Example

PASC	Prescaler	Fsys	Delay after Transfer
0b11		100 MHz	70.0 ns

NOTE

The PCSS signal is not supported when continuous DSPISCK is enabled (CONT=1).

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Eqn. 28-7

28.7.4 Transfer Formats

The SPI serial communication is controlled by the serial communications clock (DSPISCK) signal and the DSPICS*n* signals. The DSPISCK signal provided by the master device synchronizes shifting and sampling of the data on the DSPISIN and DSPISOUT pins. The DSPICS*n* signals serve as enable signals for the slave devices.

When the DSPI is the bus master, the CPOL and CPHA bits in the DSPI clock and transfer attributes registers (DCTAR*n*) select the polarity and phase of the clock. The polarity bit selects the idle state of DSPISCK. The clock phase bit selects if the data on DSPISOUT is valid before or on the first DSPISCK edge.

When the DSPI is the bus slave, CPOL and CPHA bits in the DCTAR0 select the polarity and phase of the serial clock. Even though the bus slave does not control the DSPISCK signal, the clock polarity, clock phase, and number of bits to transfer settings for both the master and slave must be identical to ensure proper transmission.

The DSPI supports four different transfer formats:

- Classic SPI with CPHA $= 0$
- Classic SPI with CPHA $= 1$
- Modified transfer format with CPHA $= 0$
- Modified transfer format with CPHA $= 1$

A modified transfer format is supported to allow for high-speed communication with peripherals that require longer setup times. The DSPI can sample the incoming data later than halfway through the cycle to give the peripheral more setup time. The DMCR[MTFE] bit selects between classic SPI format and modified transfer format. The modified transfer formats are described in [Section 28.7.4.3, "Modified SPI](#page-844-1) [Transfer Format \(MTFE = 1, CPHA = 0\)](#page-844-1)" and [Section 28.7.4.4, "Modified SPI Transfer Format \(MTFE =](#page-845-1) 1, CPHA = 1)."

The classic SPI formats are described in [Section 28.7.4.1, "Classic SPI Transfer Format \(CPHA = 0\)"](#page-842-0) and [Section 28.7.4.2, "Classic SPI Transfer Format \(CPHA = 1\).](#page-843-1)"

The DSPI provides the option of keeping the DSPICS*n* signals asserted between frames. See [Section 28.7.4.5, "Continuous Selection Format"](#page-846-0) for details.

28.7.4.1 Classic SPI Transfer Format (CPHA = 0)

The transfer format shown in [Figure 28-15](#page-843-0) is used to communicate with peripheral SPI slave devices where the first data bit is available on the first clock edge. In this format, the master and slave sample their DSPISIN pins on the odd-numbered DSPISCK edges and change the data on their DSPISOUT pins on the even-numbered DSPISCK edges.

Figure 28-15. DSPI Transfer Timing Diagram (MTFE = 0, CPHA = 0, FMSZ = 8)

The master initiates the transfer by placing its first data bit on the DSPISOUT pin and asserting the appropriate peripheral chip select signals to the slave device. The slave responds by placing its first data bit on its DSPISOUT pin. After the t_{CSC} delay has elapsed, the master outputs the first edge of DSPISCK. This is the edge used by the master and slave devices to sample the first input data bit on their serial data input signals. At the second edge of the DSPISCK, the master and slave devices place their second data bit on their serial data output signals. For the rest of the frame, the master and the slave sample their DSPISIN pins on the odd-numbered clock edges and change the data on their DSPISOUT pins on the even-numbered clock edges. After the last clock edge occurs, a delay of t_{ASC} is inserted before the master negates the CS*n* signals. A delay of t_{DT} is inserted before a new frame transfer can be initiated by the master.

28.7.4.2 Classic SPI Transfer Format (CPHA = 1)

This transfer format shown in [Figure 28-16](#page-844-0) is used to communicate with peripheral SPI slave devices that require the first DSPISCK edge before the first data bit becomes available on the slave DSPISOUT pin. In this format the master and slave devices change the data on their DSPISOUT pins on the odd-numbered DSPISCK edges and sample the data on their DSPISIN pins on the even-numbered DSPISCK edges

The master initiates the transfer by asserting the CS n signal to the slave. After the t_{CSC} delay has elapsed, the master generates the first DSPISCK edge and, at the same time, places valid data on the master DSPISOUT pin. The slave responds to the first DSPISCK edge by placing its first data bit on its slave DSPISOUT pin.

At the second edge of the DSPISCK, the master and slave sample their DSPISIN pins. For the rest of the frame, the master and the slave change the data on their DSPISOUT pins on the odd-numbered clock edges and sample their DSPISIN pins on the even-numbered clock edges. After the last clock edge occurs, a delay of t_{ASC} is inserted before the master negates the PCSS signal. A delay of t_{DT} is inserted before a new frame transfer can be initiated by the master.

28.7.4.3 Modified SPI Transfer Format (MTFE = 1, CPHA = 0)

In this modified transfer format, both the master and the slave sample later in the DSPISCK period than in classic SPI mode to allow for delays in device pads and board traces. These delays become a more significant fraction of the DSPISCK period as the DSPISCK period decreases with increasing baud rates.

The master and the slave place data on the DSPISOUT pins at the assertion of the CS*n* signal. After the CS*n* to DSPISCK delay has elapsed the first DSPISCK edge is generated. The slave samples the master DSPISOUT signal on every odd numbered DSPISCK edge. The slave also places new data on the slave DSPISOUT on every odd numbered clock edge.

The master places its second data bit on the DSPISOUT line one system clock after odd numbered DSPISCK edge. The point where the master samples the slave DSPISOUT is selected by writing to the DMCR[SMPL_PT] field lists the number of system clock cycles between the active edge of DSPISCK and the master sample point. The master sample point can be delayed by one or two system clock cycles.

[Figure 28-17](#page-845-0) shows the modified transfer format for CPHA = 0. Only the condition where CPOL = 0 is illustrated. The delayed master sample points are indicated with a lighter shaded arrow.

Figure 28-17. DSPI Modified Transfer Format (MTFE = 1, CPHA = 0, Fsck = Fsys/4)

28.7.4.4 Modified SPI Transfer Format (MTFE = 1, CPHA = 1)

[Figure 28-18](#page-846-1) shows the modified transfer format for CPHA = 1. Only the condition where CPOL = 0 is described. At the start of a transfer the DSPI asserts the CS*n* signal to the slave device. After the CS to DSPISCK delay has elapsed, the master and the slave put data on their DSPISOUT pins at the first edge of DSPISCK. The slave samples the master DSPISOUT signal on the even numbered edges of DSPISCK. The master samples the slave DSPISOUT signal on the odd numbered DSPISCK edges, starting with the third DSPISCK edge. The slave samples the last bit on the last edge of the DSPISCK. The master samples the last slave DSPISOUT bit one-half DSPISCK cycle after the last edge of DSPISCK. No clock edge will

be visible on the master DSPISCK pin during the sampling of the last bit. The DSPISCK to CS delay must be greater or equal to half of the DSPISCK period.

Figure 28-18. DSPI Modified Transfer Format (MTFE = 1, CPHA = 1, Fsck = Fsys/4)

28.7.4.5 Continuous Selection Format

Some peripherals must be deselected between every transfer. Other peripherals must remain selected between several sequential serial transfers. The continuous selection format provides the flexibility to handle both cases. The continuous selection format is enabled by setting the DTFR[CONT].

When the CONT bit $= 0$, the DSPI drives the asserted chip select signals to their idle states in between frames. The idle states of the chip select signals are selected by the DMCR[PCSIS] field. [Figure 28-19](#page-846-2) shows the timing diagram for two 4-bit transfers with CPHA $= 1$ and CONT $= 0$.

Figure 28-19. Example of Non-Continuous Format (CPHA = 1, CONT = 0)

When the CONT bit = 1 and the DSPICS*n* signal for the next transfer is the same as for the current transfer, the DSPICS*n* signal remains asserted for the duration of the two transfers. The delay between transfers

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 (t_{DT}) is not inserted between the transfers. [Figure 28-20](#page-847-0) shows the timing diagram for two 4-bit transfers with CPHA $= 1$ and CONT $= 1$.

Figure 28-20. Example of Continuous Transfer (CPHA = 1, CONT = 1)

Switching DCTAR*n* registers between frames while using continuous selection can cause errors in the transfer. The DSPICS*n* signal must be negated before DCTAR*n* is switched.

When the CONT bit $= 1$ and the DSPICS*n* signals for the next transfer are different from the present transfer, the DSPICS*n* signals behave as if the CONT bit was not set.

28.7.5 Continuous Serial Communications Clock

The DSPI provides the option of generating a continuous DSPISCK signal for slave peripherals that require a continuous clock.

Continuous DSPISCK is enabled by setting DMCR[CSCK]. Continuous DSPISCK is only supported for $CPHA = 1$. Setting CPHA = 0 will be ignored if the CSCK bit is set. Continuous DSPISCK is supported for modified transfer format.

Clock and transfer attributes for the continuous DSPISCK mode are set according to the following rules:

- DCTAR0 is used initially. At the start of each SPI frame transfer, the DCTAR*n* specified by the CTAS for the frame shall be used.
- The currently selected DCTAR*n* remains in use until the start of a frame with a different DCTAR*n* specified, or the continuous DSPISCK mode is terminated.

It is recommended that the baud rate is the same for all transfers made while using the continuous DSPISCK. Switching clock polarity between frames while using continuous DSPISCK can cause errors in the transfer. Continuous DSPISCK operation is not guaranteed if the DSPI is put into the external stop mode or module disable mode.

Enabling continuous DSPISCK disables the CS to DSPISCK delay and the after DSPISCK delay. The delay after transfer is fixed at one DSPISCK cycle. [Figure 28-21](#page-848-1) shows timing diagram for continuous DSPISCK format with continuous selection disabled.

If DTFR[CONT] is set, DSPICS*n* remains asserted between the transfers when the DSPICS*n* signal for the next transfer is the same as for the current transfer. [Figure 28-22](#page-848-2) shows timing diagram for continuous DSPISCK format with continuous selection enabled.

Figure 28-22. Continuous DSPISCK Timing Diagram (CSCK = 1)

28.7.6 Interrupts/DMA Requests

The DSPI has four conditions that can only generate interrupt requests and two conditions that can generate either an interrupt or DMA request. [Table 28-21](#page-848-3) lists the six conditions.

Each condition has a flag bit in the [Section 28.6.4, "DSPI Status Register \(DSR\)](#page-828-0)" and a request enable bit in the [Section 28.6.5, "DSPI DMA/Interrupt Request Select Register \(DIRSR\).](#page-830-0)" The Tx FIFO fill flag (TFFF) and Rx FIFO drain flag (RFDF) generate interrupt requests or DMA requests depending on the DIRSR[TFFFS] and DIRSR[RFDFS] bits.

28.7.6.1 End of Queue Interrupt Request

The end of queue request indicates that the end of a transmit queue is reached. The end of queue request is generated when the EOQ bit in the executing SPI command is set and the DIRSR[EOQFE] bit is set.

28.7.6.2 Transmit FIFO Fill Interrupt or DMA Request

The Tx FIFO fill request indicates that the Tx FIFO is not full. The Tx FIFO fill request is generated when the number of entries in the Tx FIFO is less than the maximum number of possible entries, and the DIRSR[TFFFE] bit is set. The DIRSR[TFFFS] bit selects whether a DMA request or an interrupt request is generated.

28.7.6.3 Transfer Complete Interrupt Request

The transfer complete request indicates the end of the transfer of a serial frame. The transfer complete request is generated at the end of each frame transfer when the DIRSR[TCF_RE] bit is set.

28.7.6.4 Transmit FIFO Underflow Interrupt Request

The Tx FIFO underflow request indicates that an underflow condition in the Tx FIFO has occurred. The transmit underflow condition is detected only for DSPI blocks operating in slave mode and SPI configuration. The TFUF bit is set when the Tx FIFO of a DSPI operating in slave mode and SPI configuration is empty, and a transfer is initiated from an external SPI master. If the TFUF bit is set while the DIRSR[TFUFE] bit is set, an interrupt request is generated.

28.7.6.5 Receive FIFO Drain Interrupt or DMA Request

The Rx FIFO drain request indicates that the Rx FIFO is not empty. The Rx FIFO drain request is generated when the number of entries in the Rx FIFO is not zero, and the DIRSR[RFDFE] bit is set. The DIRSR[RFDFS] bit selects whether a DMA request or an interrupt request is generated.

28.7.6.6 Receive FIFO Overflow Interrupt Request

The Rx FIFO overflow request indicates that an overflow condition in the Rx FIFO has occurred. An Rx FIFO overflow request is generated when Rx FIFO and shift register are full and a transfer is initiated. The DIRSR[RFOFE] bit must be set for the interrupt request to be generated.

Depending on the state of the DMCR[ROOE] bit, the data from the transfer that generated the overflow is either ignored or shifted into the shift register. If the ROOE bit is set, the incoming data is shifted into the shift register. If the ROOE bit is negated, the incoming data is ignored.

28.8 Initialization and Application Information

28.8.1 How to Change Queues

This section presents an example of how to change queues for the DSPI. The queues are not part of the DSPI, but the DSPI includes features in support of queue management.

- 1. The last command word from a queue is executed. The EOQ bit in the command word is set to indicate to the DSPI that this is the last entry in the queue.
- 2. At the end of the transfer corresponding to the command word with EOQ set, the EOQ flag (EOQF) in the DSR is set.
- 3. The setting of the EOQF flag will disable both serial transmission, and serial reception of data, putting the DSPI in the stopped state. The TXRXS bit is cleared to indicate the stopped state.
- 4. The DMA will continue to fill the Tx FIFO until it is full or step 5 occurs.
- 5. Disable DSPI DMA transfers by disabling the DMA enable request for the DMA channel assigned to Tx FIFO and Rx FIFO. This is done by clearing the corresponding DMA enable request bits in the DMA Controller.
- 6. Ensure all received data in the Rx FIFO has been transferred to memory receive queue by reading the DSR[RXCNT] or by checking DSR[RFDF] after each read operation of the DRFR.
- 7. Modify DMA descriptor of Tx and Rx channels for new queues.
- 8. Flush the Tx FIFO by writing a '1' to the DMCR[CLR_TXF] bit. Flush the Rx FIFO by writing a '1' to the DMCR[CLR_RXF] bit.
- 9. Clear transfer count either by setting CTCNT bit in the command word of the first entry in the new queue or via CPU writing directly to DTCR[SPI_TCNT] field.
- 10. Enable DMA channel by enabling the DMA enable request for the DMA channel assigned to the DSPI Tx FIFO and/or setting the corresponding DMA enable request bit for the DMA channel assigned to the Rx FIFO.
- 11. Enable serial transmission and serial reception of data by clearing the EOQF bit.

28.8.2 Baud Rate Settings

[Table 28-22](#page-851-0) shows the baud rate that is generated based on the combination of the baud rate prescaler PBR and the baud rate scaler BR in the DCTAR*n* registers. The values calculated assume a 100 MHz system frequency.

Table 28-22. Baud Rate Values

28.8.3 Delay Settings

[Table 28-23](#page-852-0) shows the values for the delay after transfer (t_{DT}) and CS to DSPISCK delay (t_{CSC}) that can be generated based on the prescaler values and the scaler values set in the DCTAR*n* registers. The values calculated assume a 100MHz system frequency.

2 20.0 ns 60.0 ns 100.0 ns 140.0 ns

4 40.0 ns 120.0 ns 200.0 ns 280.0 ns

8 80.0 ns 240.0 ns 400.0 ns 560.0 ns

800.0 ns 1.1 μs

25.6 μs 35.8 μs

51.2 μs 71.7 μs

28.8.4 Calculation of FIFO Pointer Addresses

The user has complete visibility of the Tx and Rx FIFO contents through the FIFO registers, and valid entries can be identified through a memory mapped pointer and a memory mapped counter for each FIFO. The pointer to the first-in entry in each FIFO is memory mapped. For the Tx FIFO the first-in pointer is the transmit pointer (TXPTR). For the Rx FIFO the first-in pointer is the receive pointer (RXPTR).

4096 41.0 μs 122.9 μs 204.8 μs 286.7 μs

8192 81.9 μs 245.8 μs 409.6 μs 573.4 μs

16384 163.8 μs $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \end{array}$ 491.5 μs 819.2 μs 1.1 ms

32768 327.7 μs 983.0 μs 1.6 ms 2.3 ms

65536 655.4 μs 2.0 ms 3.3 ms 4.6 ms

[Figure 28-23](#page-853-0) illustrates the concept of first-in and last-in FIFO entries along with the FIFO counter. The Tx FIFO is chosen for the illustration, but the concepts carry over to the Rx FIFO. See [Section 28.7.2.4,](#page-838-0) ["Tx FIFO Buffering Mechanism"](#page-838-0) and [Section 28.7.2.5, "Rx FIFO Buffering Mechanism"](#page-839-0) for details on the FIFO operation.

Figure 28-23. Tx FIFO Pointers and Counter

28.8.4.1 Address Calculation for the First-in Entry and Last-in Entry in the Tx FIFO

The memory address of the first-in entry in the Tx FIFO is computed by the following equation: First-in entry address = Tx FIFO base + $4*(TXPTR)$

The memory address of the last-in entry in the Tx FIFO is computed by the following equation: Last-in entry address = Tx FIFO base + $4*[TXCTR + TXPTR - 1)$ modulo 4]

Tx FIFO base - Base address of Tx FIFO

TXCTR - Tx FIFO counter

TXTPTR - Transmit pointer

28.8.4.2 Address Calculation for the First-in Entry and Last-in Entry in the Rx FIFO

The memory address of the first-in entry in the Rx FIFO is computed by the following equation: First-in entry address = Rx FIFO Base + $4*(RXPTR)$

The memory address of the last-in entry in the Rx FIFO is computed by the following equation:

Last-in entry address = Rx FIFO base + $4*[RXCTR + RXPTR - 1)$ modulo 4]

Rx FIFO base - Base address of RX FIFO

RXCTR - Rx FIFO counter

RXPTR - Receive pointer

Chapter 29 I ²C Interface

29.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the I²C[™] module, including I²C protocol, clock synchronization, and I²C programming model registers. It also provides extensive programming examples.

29.1.1 Block Diagram

A block diagram of the $I²C$ module is shown in [Figure 29-1.](#page-854-0)

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29.1.2 I2C Overview

 $I²C$ is a two-wire, bidirectional serial bus which provides a simple, efficient method of data exchange between devices. This two-wire bus minimizes the interconnection between the devices.

The interface is designed to operate up to 100 kbps with maximum bus loading and timing. The device is capable of operating at higher baud rates, up to a maximum of clock/20, with reduced bus loading. The maximum communication length and the number of devices that can be connected are limited by a maximum bus capacitance of 400 pF.

This bus is suitable for applications requiring occasional communications over a short distance between a number of devices. It also provides flexibility, allowing additional devices to be connected to the bus for further expansion and system development.

 $I²C$ is a true multi-master bus including collision detection and arbitration to prevent data corruption if two or more masters attempt to control the bus simultaneously. This feature provides the capability for complex applications with multi-processor control. It may also be used for rapid testing and alignment of end products via external connections to an assembly-line computer.

The MCF548*x* contains one I^2C interface, with a dedicated set of pins.

29.1.3 Features

The I^2C module has the following key features:

- Compatible with I^2C bus standard
- Multi-master operation
- Software programmable for one of 50 different serial clock frequencies
- Software selectable acknowledge bit
- Interrupt driven byte-by-byte data transfer
- Arbitration lost interrupt with automatic mode switching from master to slave
- Calling address identification interrupt
- Start and stop signal generation/detection
- Repeated start signal generation
- Acknowledge bit generation/detection
- Bus busy detection

29.2 External Signals

The following table describes the external $I²C$ signals

Table 29-1. I2C Signal Summary

Signal Name Direction		Description
SCL	1/O	Open-drain clock signal for the 1^2C interface. Either it is driven by the 1^2C module when the bus is in the master mode, or it becomes the clock input when the I^2C is in the slave mode.
SDA	I/O	Open-drain signal that serves as the data input/output for the 1^2C interface.

29.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

29.3.1 I2C Register Map

Table 29-2. I2C Memory Map

29.3.2 Register Descriptions

There are five registers used in the $I²C$ interface with the interrupt control register. The internal configuration of these registers is discussed in the following paragraphs.

29.3.2.1 I2C Address Register (I2ADR)

The I2ADR holds the address the $I²C$ responds to when addressed as a slave. Note that it is not the address sent on the bus during the address transfer.

Figure 29-2. I2C Address Register (I2ADR)

29.3.2.2 I2C Frequency Divider Register (I2FDR)

The I2FDR, shown in [Figure 29-3,](#page-857-0) provides a programmable prescaler to configure the $I²C$ clock for bit-rate selection.

Figure 29-3. I2C Frequency Divider Register (I2FDR)

Table 29-4. I2FDR Field Descriptions

29.3.2.3 I2C Control Register (I2CR)

The I2CR is used to enable the $I²C$ module and the $I²C$ interrupt. It also contains bits that govern operation as a slave or a master.

Figure 29-4. I2C Control Register (I2CR)

29.3.2.4 I2C Status Register (I2SR)

This I2SR contains bits that indicate transaction direction and status.

Figure 29-5. I2C Status Register (I2SR)

Table 29-6. I2SR Field Descriptions

29.3.2.5 I2C Data I/O Register (I2DR)

While in master-receive mode, reading the I2DR allows a read to occur and initiates the next data byte to be received. In slave mode, the same function is available once the $I²C$ has received its slave address.

Figure 29-6. I2C Data I/O Register (I2DR)

Table 29-7. I2DR Field Description

29.3.2.6 I2C Interrupt Control Register (I2ICR)

The $I²C$ module generates an internal interrupt that can be routed to the following destinations:

- CPU interrupt, if I2ICR[IE] is set to 1
- TX requestor at the multichannel DMA, if I2ICR[TE] is set to 1
- RX requestor at the multichannel DMA, if I2ICR[RE] is set to 1

The destination for the interrupt is the CPU. The reset condition is to have IE set.

Typically, only one (or none) of the above destinations would be specified, although it may be useful to send an interrupt to both the CPU and the multichannel DMA. The selection between TX and RX is based on whether the module is sending data (master or slave TX) or receiving data (master or slave RX). Individual requestors would trigger different multichannel DMA tasks. The reset condition is to have IE set, and all other enable bits clear.

An additional bit, BNBE, is provided to permit the module to generate an interrupt when the bus becomes NOT busy. This implies the receipt of a STOP condition, for which the module normally does not generate an interrupt. Because bus NOT busy is an IDLE condition, it is necessary for software responding to this interrupt to clear the BNBE bit in order to clear the interrupt condition, otherwise it will persist until another IIC transaction is initiated.

The MCF548*x* contains one I²C module. The interrupt control register is common to I²C modules.

Figure 29-7. Interrupt Control Register

Table 29-8. I2ICR Field Descriptions

29.4 Functional Description

The I^2C has a simple bidirectional 2-wire bus for efficient inter-IC control. The two wires, serial data address line (SDA) and serial clock line (SCL), carry information between the MCF548*x* and other devices connected to the bus. Each device, including the MCF548*x*, is recognized by a unique address, and can operate as either transmitter or receiver, depending on the function of the device. In addition to the transmitters and receivers, devices can be considered as masters or slaves. A master is the device that initiates a data transfer on the bus and generates the clock signals to permit that transfer. At that time, any device addressed is considered a slave.

Normally, a standard communication is composed of four parts: START signal, slave address transmission, data transfer, and STOP signal. The parts of a communication are described briefly in the following sections and illustrated in [Figure 29-8.](#page-862-0)

29.4.1 START Signal

When the bus is free—that is, when no master device is engaging the bus (both SCL and SDA lines are at logical high)—a master may initiate communication by sending a START signal. A START signal (A in [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0)) is defined as a high-to-low transition of SDA while SCL is high. This signal denotes the beginning of a new data transfer (each data transfer may contain several bytes of data) and awakens all slaves.

Figure 29-8. Start, Address Transfer, and Stop Signal

29.4.2 Slave Address Transmission

The master sends the slave address in the first byte after the START signal (B in [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0)). After the seven-bit calling address (the slave address), it sends the R/W bit (C), which indicates the slave data transfer direction $(0 = \text{write transfer}; 1 = \text{read transfer})$.

Each slave must have a unique address. An $I²C$ master must not transmit its own slave address; it cannot be master and slave at the same time.

The slave whose address matches that sent by the master pulls SDA low at the ninth serial clock (D) to return an acknowledge bit.

29.4.3 STOP Signal

The master can terminate the communication by generating a STOP signal ("F" in [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0)) to free the bus. A STOP signal is defined as a low-to-high transition of SDA while SCL is at logical 1. The master can generate a STOP even if the slave has generated an acknowledge, at which point the slave must release the bus. The master may also generate a START signal followed by a calling command without generating a STOP signal first. This is called repeated START. Refer to [Section 29.4.6, "Repeated Start.](#page-864-0)"

29.4.4 Data Transfer

When successful slave addressing is achieved, the data transfer can proceed (E in [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0)) on a byte-by-byte basis in the direction specified by the R/\overline{W} bit sent by the calling master. Each data byte is 8 bits long.

Data can be changed only while SCL is low and must be held stable while SCL is high, as [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0) shows. SCL is pulsed once for each data bit, with the msb being sent first. The receiving device must acknowledge each byte by pulling SDA low at the ninth clock; therefore, a data byte transfer takes nine clock pulses. (See [Figure 29-9\)](#page-863-1).

Figure 29-9. Data Transfer

29.4.5 Acknowledge

The transmitter releases the SDA line high during the acknowledge clock pulse as shown in [Figure 29-10](#page-863-0). The receiver pulls down the SDA line during the acknowledge clock pulse so that it remains stable low during the high period of the clock pulse.

If a slave-receiver does not acknowledge the byte transfer, the SDA must be left high by the slave. The master then can generate a STOP condition to abort the transfer or generate a START signal (repeated start, shown in [Figure 29-8](#page-862-0) and [Figure 29-11](#page-864-1), and discussed in [Section 29.4.6, "Repeated Start\)](#page-864-0) to start a new calling sequence.

If a master-receiver does not acknowledge the slave transmitter after a byte transmission, it means end of data to the slave, so the slave releases the SDA line for the master to generate a STOP or a START signal ([Figure 29-10](#page-863-0)).

Figure 29-10. Acknowledgement by Receiver

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29.4.6 Repeated Start

A repeated START signal is a START signal generated without first generating a STOP signal to terminate the communication. This is used by the master to communicate with another slave or with the same slave in a different mode without releasing the bus.

Various combinations of read/write formats are then possible:

- The first example in [Figure 29-11](#page-864-0) is the case of a master-transmitter transmitting to a slave-receiver. The transfer direction is not changed.
- The second example in [Figure 29-11](#page-864-0) is the master reading slave data immediately after the first byte. At the moment of the first acknowledge, the master-transmitter becomes a master-receiver and the slave-receiver becomes a slave-transmitter.
- In the third example in [Figure 29-11](#page-864-0), the START condition and slave address are both repeated using the repeated START signal. This is to communicate with the same slave in a different mode without releasing the bus. The master transmits data to the slave first, and then the master reads data from the slave by reversing the R/W bit.

29.4.7 Clock Synchronization and Arbitration

 I^2C is a true multi-master bus that allows more than one master to be connected to it. If two or more masters try to control the bus at the same time, a clock synchronization procedure determines the bus clock. Because wire-AND logic is performed on the SCL line, a high-to-low transition on the SCL line affects all the devices connected on the bus. The devices start counting their low period. Once a device's clock has gone low, it holds the SCL line low until the clock high state is reached. However, the change of low to high in this device clock may not change the state of the SCL line if another device clock is still within its low period. Therefore, synchronized clock SCL is held low by the device with the longest low period.

Devices with shorter low periods enter a high wait state during this time (see [Figure 29-13](#page-865-0)). When all devices concerned have counted off their low period, the synchronized clock SCL line is released and pulled high. There is then no difference between the device clocks and the state of the SCL line and all the devices start counting their high periods. The first device to complete its high period pulls the SCL line low again.

The relative priority of the contending masters is determined by a data arbitration procedure. A bus master loses arbitration if it transmits logic "1" while another master transmits logic "0". The losing masters immediately switch over to slave receive mode and stop driving SDA output (see [Figure 29-12\)](#page-865-1). In this case the transition from master to slave mode does not generate a STOP condition. Meanwhile, hardware sets I2SR[IAL] to indicate loss of arbitration.

29.4.8 Handshaking and Clock Stretching

The clock synchronization mechanism can be used as a handshake in data transfers. Slave devices may hold the SCL low after completion of one byte transfer, which will cause the bus clock to halt, forcing the master clock into wait status until the slave releases the SCL line.

Figure 29-12. Arbitration Procedure

Slaves may also slow down the bit rate transfer. After the master has driven SCL low, the slave can drive SCL low for the required period and then release it. If the slave SCL low period is greater than the master SCL low period, then the resulting SCL bus signal low period is stretched.

Figure 29-13. Clock Synchronization

29.5 Initialization Sequence

Reset will put the $I²C$ control register in its default status. Before the interface can be used to transfer serial data, an initialization procedure must be carried out, as follows:

1. Update I2FDR[IC] to select the required division ratio to obtain the SCL frequency from the system clock

- 2. Update the I2ADR to define it as a slave device (give it a slave address)
- 3. Set I2CR[IEN] to enable the I^2C interface system
- 4. Modify the I2CR to select master/slave mode, transmit/receive mode, or interrupt enable

NOTE

If I2SR[IBB] is set when the I^2C bus module is enabled, execute the following code sequence before proceeding with normal initialization code. This issues a STOP command to the slave device, placing it in an idle state as if it were just power-cycled on.

```
I2ICR = 0x00T2CR = 0x0I2CR = 0xAdummy read of I2DR
I2SR = 0x0I2CR = 0x0I2ICR = 0x01
```
29.5.1 Transfer Initiation and Interrupt

After completing initialization, serial data can be transmitted by selecting master transmit mode. If the device is connected to a multi-master bus system, the state of the bus busy bit (BB) must be tested to check whether the serial bus is free.

If the bus is free $(BB = 0)$, the first byte (the slave address) can be sent. The data written to the data register comprises the slave calling address, and the LSB is set to indicate the direction of transfer required from the slave.

Depending on the relative frequencies of the system clock and the SCL period, it may be necessary to wait until the bus is busy after writing the calling address to the data register (I2DR) before proceeding with the following instructions.

Following is an example of how to generate a START signal:

```
/**********************************
* START generation in Master mode *
***********************************/
/* Make sure bus is idle (poll Bus Busy bit) */
while ( (MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_IBB) );
/* Put module in master TX mode (generates START) */
MCF_12C_12CR = 0x10;
MCF_I2C_I2CR = 0x20;/* Put target address into I2DR */
MCF_I2C_I2DR = TARGET_ADDR;
```


```
/* Wait for I2SR.IBB (bus busy) to be set */
while ( ! (MCF5 I2C I2SR & MCF I2C I2SR BB) );
```
29.5.2 Post-Transfer Software Response

Transmission or reception of a byte will set the data transferring bit (ICF) to 1, which indicates one byte of communication is finished. The interrupt bit (IIF) is set also; an interrupt will be generated if the interrupt function was enabled during initialization (by setting the IEN bit). Software must clear the IIF bit in the interrupt service routine first. The ICF bit will be cleared automatically by reading from the data I/O register (I2DR) in receive mode or writing to I2DR in transmit mode.

Software may service the bus I/O in the main program by monitoring the IIF bit if the interrupt function is disabled. Note that polling should monitor the IIF bit rather than the ICF bit, because their operation is different when arbitration is lost.

Also note that when an interrupt occurs at the end of the address cycle, the master will always be in transmit mode, i.e. the address is transmitted. If master receive mode is required, indicated by the R/W bit in I2DR, then the MTX bit should be toggled at this stage.

During slave mode address cycles $(AAS = 1)$, the SRW bit in the status register is read to determine the direction of the subsequent transfer, and the MTX bit is programmed accordingly. For slave mode data cycles $(AdS = 0)$ the SRW bit is not valid; therefore, the MTX bit in the control register should be read to determine the direction of the current transfer.

Following is an example of how to monitor IIF instead of ICF:

```
/*********************************************
* Master TX with interrupt function disabled *
**********************************************/
/* Send the contents of tx_buffer */
for (i=0; i<tx_byte_count; i++)
{
        /* Put data to be sent into I2DR */
        MCF_I2C_I2DR = tx_buffer[i];/*Wait for transfer to complete (Poll IIF bit) */
        while (!(MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_IIF) );
        /* Clear IIF bit */
        MCF_I2C_I2SR &= 0xFD;
```
}

29.5.3 Generation of STOP

A data transfer ends with a STOP signal generated by the 'master' device. A master transmitter can simply generate a STOP signal after all the data has been transmitted.

For a master receiver to terminate a data transfer, it must inform the slave transmitter by not acknowledging the last byte of data. The informing of the slave transmitter is done by two operations:

- Before reading the second to the last byte of data, the master receiver must set the transmit acknowledge bit (TXAK).
- Before reading the last byte of data, the master receiver must write a zero to the master/slave mode select bit (MSTA). This will generate the STOP signal.

The I^2C interrupt bit (IIF) in the status register is set when an interrupt is pending, which will cause a processor interrupt request if the interrupt enable bit (IIEN) in the control register is set. The IIF bit is set when one of the following events occurs:

- 1. Complete one byte transfer (set at the falling edge of the ninth clock).
- 2. Receive a calling address that matches its own specific address in slave receive mode.
- 3. Arbitration is lost.

Following is an example that shows a master RX where NACK occurs and STOP is generated.

```
/*********************************************
* Master RX with interrupt function disabled *
**********************************************/
/* Receive data from slave and store in rx buffer */for (i=0; i<rx_byte_count; i++)
{
     /* Wait for transfer to complete */
     while (!(MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_IIF) );
     /* Clear IIF bit */
     MCF_I2C_I2SR &= 0xFD;
     /* Check for second-to-last and last byte transmission. After second-to-last byte is 
      received, the ACK bit must be disabled in order to signal the slave that the last byte 
     has been received. The actual NACK does not take place until after the last byte has been 
      received. */
      if (i==(rx_byte_count-2))
      {
              /*Disable Acknowledge (set I2CR.TXAK) */
              MCF_I2C_I2CR = MCF_I2C_I2CR_TXAK;}
```
{

if (i==(rx_byte_count-1))


```
/* Generate STOP by clearing I2CR.MSTA */
               MCF\_I2C\_I2CR = 0x80;}
      /*Store received data and release SDA */
      rx buffer[i] = MCF I2C I2DR;
}
```
29.5.4 Generation of Repeated START

At the end of a data transfer, if the master still wants to communicate on the bus, it can generate another START signal followed by another slave address without first generating a STOP signal. This is done by writing a $\overline{1}$ to I2CR[MSTA].

29.5.5 Slave Mode

In the slave interrupt service routine, the addressed as slave bit (IAAS) should be tested to check if a calling of its own address has just been received. If IAAS is set, software should set the transmit/receive mode select bit (I2CR[MTX]) according to the R/\overline{W} command bit (SRW). Writing to the control register clears the IAAS automatically.

NOTE

Note that the only time IAAS is read as set is from the interrupt at the end of the address cycle where an address match occurred; interrupts resulting from subsequent data transfers will have IAAS cleared.

A data transfer may now be initiated by writing information to the data register, for slave transmits, or dummy reading an address from the data register, in slave receive mode. The slave will drive SCL low in between byte transfers; SCL is released when the data register is accessed in the required mode.

If the slave data register is not read after a transfer, the slave module will hold the SDA line low indefinitely. The master is able to send a stop signal in this situation, but the slave does not respond by releasing the SDA line. This functionality is a by-product of the arbitration scheme. To avoid this problem, the slave data register must be read before a stop signal is issued.

In a slave transmitter routine, the received acknowledge bit (RXAK) must be tested before transmitting the next byte of data. A dummy read of the last transmitted byte then releases the SCL line so that the master can generate a STOP signal.

NOTE

Setting RXAK means an "end of data" signal from the master receiver, after which the slave must be switched from transmitter mode to receiver mode by software.

Following are examples of slave TX and RX illustrating the dummy read of I2DR and, for slave TX, the checking of RXAK:

/** * Slave TX illustrating NACK on last byte (interrupt function disabled) * ***/

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Initialization Sequence

```
MCF\_I2C\_I2CR = MCF\_I2C\_I2CR\_MTX;/* Send the contents of tx_buffer until NACK is detected */
i = 0;while (1)
{
      /*Put TX data into I2DR */
      MCF_I2C_I2DR = tx_buffer[i];/*Wait for transfer to complete */
      while (!(MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_IIF));
      /* Clear IIF bit */
      MCF_I2C_I2SR &= 0xFD;
      /*Detect when no ACK is received */
      if(MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_RXAK)
      {
               /*Finish the transfer by putting the module into its idle state. */
               MCF\_I2C\_I2CR = 0x80;break;
      }
      i++;}
/*************************************************************************
* Slave RX illustrating dummy read of I2DR (interrupt function disabled) *
**************************************************************************/
/* Clear I2CR.MTX to put the module in receive mode */
MCF_I2C_I2CR &= 0xEF;
/* Dummy read of I2DR to signal the module is ready for the next byte */
dummy_read = MCF_I2C_I2DR;
```
/* Set I2CR.MTX to put the module in transit mode */


```
/* Receive data from master device and store in rx-buffer */
for(i=0; i < rx_byte_count; i++){
      /* Wait for transfer to complete */
      while (!(MCF_I2C_I2SR & MCF_I2C_I2SR_IIF) );
      /* Clear IIF bit */
      MCF_I2C_I2SR &= 0xFD;
      /* Store received data and release SDA */
      rx_buffer[i] = MCF_I2C_I2DR;}
```
29.5.6 Arbitration Lost

If several masters try to engage the bus simultaneously, only one master wins and the others lose arbitration. The devices which lost arbitration are immediately switched to slave receive mode by the hardware. Their master that has lost arbitration immediately releases the bus, but SCL is still generated until the end of the byte during which arbitration was lost. An interrupt occurs at the falling edge of the ninth clock of this transfer with $IAL = 1$ and $MSTA = 0$.

If the MCF548*x* attempts to start transmission while the bus is being engaged by another master, the hardware will inhibit the transmission, switch the MSTA bit from 1 to 0 without generating a STOP condition, generate an interrupt to the CPU, and set the IAL bit to indicate that the attempt to engage the bus has failed. When considering these cases, the slave service routine should test the IAL bit first, and the software should clear the IAL bit if it is set.

29.5.7 Flow Control

[Figure 29-14](#page-872-0) displays the flow of a typical I^2C interrupt process.

Figure 29-14. Flow-Chart of Typical I2C Interrupt Routine

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Chapter 30 USB 2.0 Device Controller

CAUTION

The MCF548x devices have a silicon errata that affects the usage of the USB device controller. Please see the *MCF5485 Device Errata* (MCF5485DE) at <http://www.freescale.com/coldfire>for details.

30.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the USB 2.0 device controller module of the MCF548*x*. Connection examples and circuit board layout considerations are also provided.

The *USB Specification, Revision 2.0* is a recommended supplement to this chapter. It can be downloaded from<http://www.usb.org>. Chapter 2 of this specification, *Terms and Abbreviations*, provides definitions of many of the terms found here.

30.1.1 Overview

The Universal Serial Bus specification describes three types of devices that can connect to the bus. The USB host is the bus master, and periodically polls peripherals to initiate data transfers. There is only one host on the bus. The USB function (or USB device) is a bus slave. It can communicate only with a USB host. It does not generate bus traffic and only responds to requests from the host. A USB hub is a special class of USB function that adds additional connection points to the bus for more USB devices.

The integrated USB 2.0 device controller of the MCF548*x* implements most of the USB protocol in hardware, hiding all direct interaction with the USB. The memory mapped registers allow the user to enable or disable the USB module, control characteristics of the individual endpoints, and monitor traffic flow through the module without having to manage the low-level details of the USB protocol. A set of intelligent FIFOs are implemented that allow for easy data management via the ColdFire core or the multichannel DMA.

While this module hides all direct interaction with the protocol, knowledge of the USB is required in order to properly configure the device for operation on the bus. Programming requirements are covered in this chapter, with additional information in the *USB Specification, Revision 2.0.*

30.1.2 Features

The MCF548*x* USB 2.0 device controller provides the following features:

- Compliant with the *USB Specification, Revision 2.0*
- Supports high-speed (480 Mbps) and full-speed (12 Mbps) devices
- One control endpoint and 6 endpoints programmable as interrupt, bulk, or isochronous
- Fully automatic processing of the SET_FEATURE, CLEAR_FEATURE, GET_CONFIGURATION, GET_INTERFACE, GET_STATUS, and SET_ADDRESS USB standard device requests
- Processing with application intervention of the SET_CONFIGURATION, SET_INTERFACE, SET_DESCRIPTOR, GET_DESCRIPTOR, and non-standard USB device requests
- Administration for up to 7 endpoints, 32 configurations, 32 interfaces, and 32 alternate settings
- Support for remote wakeup

- ColdFire core and multichannel DMA access to the intelligent FIFOs that handle all packet retries and data framing
- Internal USB 2.0 physical layer transceiver
- 4 KByte of FIFO RAM and 1 KByte of descriptor RAM

NOTE

The USB 2.0 device controller requires a minimum XLB/system clock frequency of 66 MHz.

30.1.3 Block Diagram

A block diagram of the complete USB 2.0 Device controller module is shown in [Figure 30-1](#page-875-0).

Figure 30-1. USB 2.0 Device Controller Block Diagram

30.1.3.1 Controller and Synchronization

This block handles all of the details of managing the USB protocol and presents a simple set of handshakes to the application for managing data flow, vendor commands, and configuration information.

The control logic portion of the module implements the control logic and registers that allow the user to control and communicate with the USB module. The registers are described in [Section 30.2.1, "USB](#page-877-0) [Memory Map](#page-877-0)."

The register functions include interrupt status/mask, USB descriptor download, FIFO control and access, and processing of GET_DESCRIPTOR device requests from control endpoints.

The device core operates on a fixed 30-MHz clock that is generated inside the USB 2.0 physical layer transceiver (PHY). All other non-core logic runs at the CommBus frequency. The synchronization block synchronizes the signals that cross between these two clock domains.

NOTE

The USB 2.0 device controller requires a minimum XLB/system clock frequency of 66 MHz.

30.1.3.2 Descriptor RAM

The descriptor RAM is used to preload the descriptor tables and modify them as necessary. The USB module can handle the data movement out of this RAM for a USB GET_DESCRIPTOR SETUP transaction based on the information programmed into the DRAMDR. This operation is described in [Section 30.3.2.1, "USB Descriptor Download](#page-921-0)".

30.1.3.3 FIFO Controller

The FIFO controller implements the data FIFOs in such a way that they can communicate with the ColdFire core or with the multichannel DMA. There are two physical RAMs that are shared by all of the FIFO controllers. For maximum performance, the two RAMs can be configured such that one stores transmit (IN) endpoint data and the other stores receive (OUT) endpoint data. If maximum RAM allocation flexibility is more important than maximum performance, the RAMs can be configured such that the entire space is shared by all IN/OUT endpoints. User programmable registers also allow on-the-fly configuration of individual FIFO sizes and direction.

In order to achieve maximum USB bandwidth, the USB device must be able to provide or receive full packets of data to or from the USB host immediately upon request. In order to satisfy this requirement, there is one FIFO for each USB endpoint. The actual FIFO size for each endpoint is programmable. Typically, BULK and ISOCHRONOUS endpoint FIFOs should be twice the packet size. INTERRUPT and CONTROL endpoint FIFOs should be programmed to the size of at least one packet.

30.1.3.4 FIFO RAM Manager

The FIFO RAM manager block consists of a memory configuration controller, a FIFO RAM multiplexor, and a memory request arbitrator. Together, these three functional units allow one or more FIFO modules to share access to the FIFO memory. While the memory is physically configured as two independent dual-port SRAM modules, the RAM manager is responsible for partitioning it into individual blocks for each FIFO controller, and managing the addressing to allow byte, word, or longword access from any byte offset.

The memory configuration controller partitions the RAM into a set of user specified blocks.

The memory multiplexor and the arbitrator work together to ensure that the correct FIFO has access to the RAM, and that simultaneous requests to the RAM's ports are fairly arbitrated.

See the USBCR[RAMSPLIT] bit description and the EP*n*FRCFGR description for more information on programming the settings for these blocks.

30.1.3.5 Integrated USB 2.0 Transceiver

The USB 2.0 Device Controller module includes an internal full and high-speed physical layer transceiver (PHY). The bus interface signals are described below.

30.1.3.5.1 USB Differential Data (USBD+, USBD–)

USBD+ and USBD– are the outputs of the on-chip USB 2.0 physical layer transceiver. They provide differential data for the USB 2.0 bus.

30.1.3.5.2 USBVBUS

USB cable Vbus monitor input. This signal is 5V tolerant.

30.1.3.5.3 USBRBIAS

Connection for external current setting resistor. This signal should be connected to a 9.1 K Ω +/– 1% pull-down resistor.

30.1.3.5.4 USBCLKIN

Input pin for the 12-MHz USB crystal circuit.

30.1.3.5.5 USBCLKOUT

Output pin for the 12-MHz USB crystal circuit.

30.2 Memory Map/Register Definition

This section contains a detailed description of each register and its specific function.

30.2.1 USB Memory Map

[Table 30-1](#page-877-1) contains a memory map for all the USB 2.0 Device Controller registers.

NOTE

Registers should only be accessed using their full size. For example, a 32-bit register should be read as one longword instead of two words or four bytes.

8- and 16-bit registers (offsets 0xB000 to 0xB3FF) should not be accessed until the MCF548 x is connected to a USB with a stable V_{RIS} . The interrupt generated at the end of the reset signalling (USBISR[RSTSTOP]) can be used as an idication of a stable USB connection.

Address $(MBAR +)$	Name	Byte0	Byte1	Byte2	Byte3	
USB Request, Control, and Status Registers						
0xB000	Application interrupt status register, Application interrupt mask register, Reserved Endpoint info register	USBAISR	USBAIMR		EPINFO	

Table 30-1. USB Memory Map

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Memory Map/Register Definition

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Memory Map/Register Definition

Table 30-1. USB Memory Map (Continued)

30.2.2 USB Request, Control, and Status Registers

The following registers provide an application interface to the request, control, and status functionality of the USB 2.0 device controller.

30.2.2.1 USB Status Register (USBSR)

The USBSR reports the current state of various features of the module. This register is read only.

Figure 30-2. USB Status Register (USBSR)

Table 30-2. USBSR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.2 USB Control Register (USBCR)

The USBCR configures features of the module.

Figure 30-3. USB Control Register (USBCR)

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Table 30-3. USBCR Field Descriptions

Table 30-3. USBCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

30.2.2.3 USB Descriptor RAM Control Register (DRAMCR)

30.2.2.4 USB Descriptor RAM Data Register (DRAMDR)

The DRAMDR allows user access to the USB descriptor memory.

Figure 30-5. USB Descriptor RAM Data Register (DRAMDR)

Table 30-5. DRAMDR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.5 USB Interrupt Status Register (USBISR)

The USBISR maintains the status of interrupt conditions pertaining to USB functions.

An interrupt, once set, remains set until cleared by writing a 1 to the corresponding bit. Interrupts do not clear automatically if the event that caused them goes away (for example, if the device enters the suspended state and then resume signaling starts with no intervention from software, both SUSP and RES would be set). Writing a 0 has no effect.

If a register write occurs at the same time an interrupt is received, the interrupt takes precedence over the write.

Figure 30-6. USB Interrupt Status Register (USBISR)

Table 30-6. USBISR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.6 USB Interrupt Mask Register (USBIMR)

Setting a bit in the USBIMR masks the corresponding interrupt in the USBISR.

Figure 30-7. USB Interrupt Mask Register (USBIMR)

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30.2.2.7 USB Application Interrupt Status Register (USBAISR)

The USBAISR contains information regarding the source of a USB interrupt event. Interrupt sources may be masked in the USBAIMR. The application must clear all interrupt bits when necessary as they do not clear automatically. Clear the bits by writing zeros.

There is only one USBAISR to record all interrupt events for multiple endpoints. It is the responsibility of the application software's interrupt service routine (ISR) to read the contents of the EPINFO register to determine the interrupting endpoint number and direction.

Figure 30-8. USB Application Interrupt Status Register (USBAISR)

30.2.2.8 USB Application Interrupt Mask Register (USBAIMR)

The USBAIMR allows the application to mask interrupt sources within the USB module. The format of this register is identical to that of the USBAISR. A logic 1 in any of the defined bit positions masks the corresponding interrupt source. Conversely, a logic 0 allows the core to interrupt the application.

Figure 30-9. USB Application Interrupt Mask Register (USBAIMR)

Table 30-9. USBAIMR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.9 Endpoint Info Register (EPINFO)

The EPINFO contains the currently active endpoint index. The contents of this register are updated each time a token is received by the USB device controller.

Figure 30-10. Endpoint Info Register (EPINFO)

Table 30-10. EPINFO Field Descriptions

30.2.2.10 USB Configuration Value Register (CFGR)

Figure 30-11. USB Configuration Value Register (CFGR)

Table 30-11. CFGR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.11 USB Configuration Attribute Register (CFGAR)

The CFGAR contains attributes of the current configuration.

Figure 30-12. USB Configuration Attribute Register (CFGAR)

Table 30-12. CFGAR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.12 USB Device Speed Register (SPEEDR)

The SPEEDR contains the current USB operating speed of the USB module. It is updated by the USB 2.0 device controller when a USB reset, suspend, or resume process completes.

Figure 30-13. USB Device Speed Register (SPEEDR)

30.2.2.13 USB Frame Number Register (FRMNUMR)

This register contains the frame number embedded in the SOF packet. It is updated each time an SOF packet is received.

Figure 30-14. USB Frame Number Register (FRMNUMR)

Table 30-14. FRMNUMR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.14 USB Endpoint Transaction Number Register (EPTNR)

The EPTNR is used for high-speed, high-bandwidth, isochronous IN endpoints only. It contains the number of transactions required by the endpoint in the next microframe.

The EPTNR is used to provide information to the USB 2.0 device controller regarding the number of IN transactions needed to deliver data in the next microframe. Following the pre-buffering model specified in the *USB Specification, Rev 2.0*, the data to be transmitted in the next microframe is gathered in the current microframe (see section 5.9.2 of the USB Specification, Rev. 2.0). Therefore, by the end of the current microframe, the USB application is aware of the number of IN transactions required to convey the newly gathered data to the host. This is the number that needs to be written into the appropriate field of this register.

Figure 30-15. Endpoint Transaction Number Register (EPTNR)

30.2.2.15 USB Application Interface Update Register (IFUR)

The IFUR is used by the USB application to perform a high-speed update of the alternate setting of a specified interface. It cannot be addressed as 8 bits. When application software writes to this register, a parallel compare is done between IFUR[IFNUM] and all the IFR*n*[IFNUM] fields. If the compare matches, the matching IFR*n*'s alternate setting field is automatically updated to the value written in the IFUR[ALTSET] field. Each field may range from 0x00 through 0xFF.

Figure 30-16. USB Application Interface Update Register (IFUR)

Table 30-16. IFUR Field Descriptions

30.2.2.16 USB Configuration Interface Register (IFRn)

These registers contain the available interface numbers and their current alternate setting. There are 32 of these registers (one for each of the 32 interfaces and alternate settings supported). Each field may range from 0x00 through 0xFF.

The application software must program these registers with the valid interface numbers for the current configuration.

Figure 30-17. USB Configuration Interface Register (IFRn)

Table 30-17. IFRn Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
$15 - 8$	IFNUM	Interface number
$7 - 0$	ALTSET	Alternate setting. After a write to the IFUR, if IFUR[IFNUM] matches a IFRn[IFNUM] field, then this value is updated with the data from IFURJALTSET].

30.2.3 USB Counter Registers

The USB module contains a number of registers that keep statistics on the number of packets that have been received and transmitted along with the number of errors.

30.2.3.1 USB Packet Passed Count Register (PPCNT)

Figure 30-18. USB Packet Passed Count Register (PPCNT)

Table 30-18. PPCNT Field Descriptions

30.2.3.2 USB Dropped Packet Counter Register (DPCNT)

Figure 30-19. USB Dropped Packet Counter Register (DPCNT)

Table 30-19. DPCNT Field Descriptions

Bits **Name** Name **Description** 15–0 | DPCNT | Packet dropped counter. This register counts the number of packets that have been dropped by the USB due to errors.

30.2.3.3 USB CRC Error Counter Register (CRCECNT)

Figure 30-20. USB CCR Error Counter Register (CRCECNT)

Table 30-20. CRCECNT Field Descriptions

30.2.3.4 USB Bitstuffing Error Counter Register (BSECNT)

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Table 30-21. BSECNT Field Descriptions

30.2.3.5 USB PID Error Counter Register (PIDECNT)

Figure 30-22. USB PID Error Counter Register (PIDECNT)

Table 30-22. PIDECNT Field Descriptions

30.2.3.6 USB Framing Error Counter Register (FRMECNT)

Figure 30-23. USB Framing Error Counter Register (FRMECNT)

Table 30-23. FRMECNT Field Descriptions

Figure 30-24. USB Transmitted Packet Counter Register (TXPCNT)

Table 30-24. TXPCNT Field Descriptions

30.2.3.8 USB Counter Overflow Register (CNTOVR)

The CNTOVR tracks overflow of each of the counter registers described above. When a counter overflow occurs, the appropriate bit in this register is set, and the USBAISR[CTROVFL] bit is set. Writing to any of the counters will result in the corresponding overflow bit being cleared as well.

Figure 30-25. USB Counter Overflow Register (CNTOVR)

Table 30-25. CNTOVR Field Descriptions

Table 30-25. CNTOVR Field Descriptions (Continued)

30.2.4 Endpoint Context Registers

The endpoint registers are used to configure each of the individual endpoints. Some of the registers come in pairs: an IN register and an OUT register. The current direction of the endpoint determines which of the two registers controls the attributes for the specified endpoint. For example, if endpoint one is being used as an IN endpoint, then only the IN registers are valid.

NOTE

Endpoint 0 is always present and bi-directional. The OUT version of all EP0 registers is the valid register.

30.2.4.1 Endpoint n Attribute Control Register (EP0ACR, EPnOUTACR, EPnINACR)

The endpoint attribute control register specifies the USB transfer type for this endpoint. This register is read-only for endpoint 0 and read/write for all other endpoints.

These registers should be updated by the USB application before enabling the USB device for the first time and again following a configuration change (that is, upon the reception of a SET_CONFIGURATION or SET_INTERFACE request).

Figure 30-26. Endpoint n Attribute Control Register OUT (EPnOUTACR)

Figure 30-27. Endpoint n Attribute Control Register IN (EPnINACR)

30.2.4.2 Endpoint n Max Packet Size Register (EP0MPSR, EPnOUTMPSR, EPnINMPSR)

The endpoint max packet size registers contain the maximum packet size that this endpoint, in its current configuration, is capable of transmitting or receiving.

These registers should be updated by the USB application before enabling the USB device for the first time and again following a configuration change (i.e. upon the reception of a SET_CONFIGURATION or SET_INTERFACE request). The value programmed into this register should correspond with the wMaxPacketSize field of the associated endpoint descriptor (see section 9.6.6 of the *USB Specification, Rev. 2.0*).

Figure 30-28. Endpoint n Max Packet Size Register OUT (EPnOUTMPSR)

Figure 30-29. Endpoint n Max Packet Size Register IN (EPnINMPSR)

30.2.4.3 Endpoint n Interface Number Register (EP0IFR, EPnOUTIFR, EPnINIFR)

These registers identify which interface each particular endpoint is a member of. They should be updated by the USB application before enabling the USB device for the first time and again following a configuration change (that is, upon the reception of a SET_CONFIGURATION or SET_INTERFACE request).

Figure 30-30. Endpoint n Interface Number Register OUT (EPnOUTIFR)

Figure 30-31. Endpoint n Interface Number Register IN (EPnINIFR)

30.2.4.4 Endpoint n Status Register (EP0SR, EPnOUTSR, EPnINSR)

The endpoint status register contains the status for the specified endpoint. The ACTIVE bit of this register must be set before doing any transaction on this endpoint.

Reg Addr MBAR + 0xB14D(EP1INSR); 0xB17D(EP2INSR); 0xB1AD(EP3INSR); 0xB1DD(EP4INSR); 0xB20D(EP5INSR); 0xB23D(EP6INSR)

Figure 30-33. Endpoint n Status Register IN (EPnINSR)

30.2.4.5 bmRequest Type Register (BMRTR)

The BMRTR records the bmRequestType field of a SETUP transaction on Endpoint 0.

30.2.4.6 bRequest Type Register (BRTR)

The BRTR records the bRequest field of a SETUP transaction on Endpoint 0.

Figure 30-35. bRequest Type Register (BRTR)

Table 30-31. BRTR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
7–0	BREQ	bRequest field. bRequest field from a SETUP transaction for the specified endpoint.

30.2.4.7 wValue Register (WVALUER)

The WVALUER records the wValue field of a SETUP transaction on Endpoint 0.

Figure 30-36. wValue Register (WVALUER)

Table 30-32. WVALUER Field Descriptions

30.2.4.8 wIndex Register (WINDEXR)

The WINDEXR records the wIndex field of a SETUP transaction on Endpoint 0.

Figure 30-37. wIndex Register (WINDEXR)

Table 30-33. WINDEXR Field Descriptions

30.2.4.9 wLength Register (WLENGTHR)

The WLENGTHR records the wLength field of a SETUP transaction on Endpoint 0.

Figure 30-38. wLength Register (WLENGTHR)

Table 30-34. WLENGTHR Field Descriptions

30.2.4.10 Endpoint n Sync Frame Register (EPnOUTSFR, EPnINSFR)

The endpoint sync frame register is relevant only if the EP*n*OUTACR or EP*n*INACR is programmed for isochronous type transfers. This register contains the synchronization frame number for that endpoint. When the host directs a SYNCH_FRAME control read query at this register's endpoint, the contents of this register are returned to the host. FRMNUM may range from 0x000 through 0x7FF.

Figure 30-40. Endpoint n Sync Frame Register IN (EPnINSFR)

30.2.5 USB Endpoint FIFO Registers

These registers are used to configure and access the FIFOs for each of the USB endpoints.

30.2.5.1 USB Endpoint n Status and Control Register (EPnSTAT)

The EP*n*STAT register allows the user to configure specific aspects of an individual endpoint.

Memory Map/Register Definition

Figure 30-41. USB Endpoint n Status and Control Register (EPnSTAT)

Table 30-36. EPnSTAT Field Descriptions

30.2.5.2 USB Endpoint n Interrupt Status Register (EPnISR)

The EP*n*ISR monitors the status of a specific endpoint and generates a CPU interrupt each time a monitored event occurs.

An interrupt, once set, remains set until cleared by writing a 1 to the corresponding bit. Interrupts do not clear automatically if the event that caused them goes away (for example, if an endpoint FIFO is emptied and then filled with no intervention from software, both EMT and FU would be set). Writing a 0 has no effect.

If a register write occurs at the same time an interrupt is received, the interrupt takes precedence over the write.

Figure 30-42. USB Endpoint n Interrupt Status Register (EPnISR)

Table 30-37. EPnISR Field Descriptions

30.2.5.3 USB Endpoint n Interrupt Mask Register (EPnIMR)

The EP*n*IMR allows software to mask individual interrupts for each endpoint by masking the corresponding bits in the EPISR. Writing a 1 to a bit in this register masks the corresponding interrupt in the EP*n*ISR. Writing a 0 unmasks the interrupt.

Figure 30-43. USB Endpoint n Interrupt Mask Register (EPnIMR)

Table 30-38. EPnIMR Field Descriptions

30.2.5.4 USB Endpoint n FIFO RAM Configuration Register (EPnFRCFGR)

The EP*n*FRCFGR allows the software to allocate the total FIFO RAM space among the individual endpoint FIFOs. Note that care should be taken to ensure that no two active endpoints are allocated to the same memory address range, as this will result in corrupted data.

Figure 30-44. USB Endpoint n FIFO RAM Configuration Register (EPnFRCFGR)

Table 30-39. EPnFRCFGR Field Descriptions

30.2.5.5 USB Endpoint n FIFO Data Register (EPnFDR)

The EP*n*FDR is the main interface port for the FIFO. Data that is to be buffered in the FIFO, or has been buffered in the FIFO, is accessed through this register. The register can access data from the FIFO, independent of this FIFO's transmit or receive configuration.

Figure 30-45. USB Endpoint n FIFO Data Register (EPnFDR)

Table 30-40. EPnFDR Field Descriptions

30.2.5.6 USB Endpoint n FIFO Status Register (EPnFSR)

Figure 30-46. USB Endpoint n FIFO Status Register (EPnFSR)

Table 30-41. EPnFSR Field Descriptions

30.2.5.7 USB Endpoint n FIFO Control Register (EPnFCR)

30.2.5.8 USB Endpoint n FIFO Alarm Register (EPnFAR)

Figure 30-48. USB Endpoint n Alarm Register (EPnFAR)

30.2.5.9 USB Endpoint n FIFO Read Pointer (EPnFRP)

Figure 30-49. USB Endpoint n FIFO Read Pointer (EPnFRP)

Table 30-44. EPnFRP Field Descriptions

30.2.5.10 USB Endpoint n FIFO Write Pointer (EPnFWP)

Figure 30-50. USB Endpoint n FIFO Write Pointer (EPnFWP)

Table 30-45. EPnFWP Field Descriptions

30.2.5.11 USB Endpoint n Last Read Frame Pointer (EPnLRFP)

Figure 30-51. USB Endpoint n Last Read Frame Pointer (EPnLRFP)

Table 30-46. EPnLRFP Field Descriptions

30.2.5.12 USB Endpoint n Last Write Frame Pointer (EPnLWFP)

Figure 30-52. USB Endpoint n Last Write Frame Pointer (EPnLWFP)

Table 30-47. EPnLWFP Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description	
$31 - 12$		Reserved, should be cleared.	
$11 - 0$	I WFP	Last write frame pointer. FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the start of the last frame written into the FIFO. The LWFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame retransmit function, the LRFP indicates which point to begin retransmission of the data frame. For the frame discard function, the LWFP divides the valid data region of the FIFO (the area in-between the read and write pointers) into framed and unframed data. Data between the LFP and write pointer is of an incomplete frame, while data between the read pointer and the LWFP has been received as whole frames. When EPnFCR[FRM] is not set, then this pointer has no meaning.	

30.3 Functional Description

The following sections provide information on the operations and application software requirements for the USB 2.0 Device Controller.

30.3.1 Interrupts

Please see [Chapter 13, "Interrupt Controller](#page-326-0)," for information on the USB interrupts.

30.3.2 Device Initialization

During device initialization, user software must prepare the USB 2.0 device datapath for processing. This process is performed at two different times: hard reset and when the device is first connected to the USB. The device must be able to detect a connection event to the USB. This operation is described in the USB Specification, Chapter 7 (Electrical Specification).

At power-up time, the USB module contains no configuration information. The USB module does not know how many endpoints it has available or how to find the descriptors. Initialization for the device

consists of downloading this information to the appropriate memories and configuring the datapath to match the intended application. The following steps are involved in the initialization process:

- 1. Perform a hard reset or a USB reset (set USBCR[USBRST]).
- 2. Download USB descriptors to the descriptor RAM via the DRAMCR and DRAMDR.
- 3. Program the USB interrupt mask register (USBIMR) to enable interrupts not associated with a particular endpoint. Make sure to unmask the RSTSTOP bit.
- 4. Program the FIFO sizes (EP*n*FRCFGR) and configure the FIFO RAM according to the application needs (USBCR[RAMSPLIT] bit).
- 5. Program the FIFO controller registers (EP*n*FCR, EP*n*FAR) for each endpoint, program frame mode, shadow mode, granularity, alarm level, frame size, etc. (EP*n*FCR). Normally, all endpoints should be programmed with both frame mode and shadow mode enabled.
- 6. Program each endpoint's control (EPnSTAT) and interrupt mask (EPnIMR) registers to support the intended data transfer modes.
- 7. Wait for the RSTSTOP interrupt to indicate that reset signalling has completed and the device is in the DEFAULT state.
- 8. Program the type (EP0ACR) and maximum packet size (EP0MPSR) for the default control endpoint.
- 9. Enable the default control endpoint (EP0OUTSR[ACTIVE]).
- 10. Program the type (EPn[OUT/IN]ACR) and maximum packet size (EPn[OUT/IN]MPSR) for each endpoint that will be used in addition to the default control endpoint.
- 11. Enable each endpoint (EPn[OUT/IN]SR[ACTIVE]) that will be used in addition to the default control endpoint. Note that module initialization is a time critical process. The USB host will wait about 100 ms after power-on or a connection event to begin enumerating devices on the bus. This device must have all of the configuration information available when the host requests it.

Once the device has been enumerated, the USB host will select a specific configuration and set of interfaces on the device. Software on the device must beware of USB configuration change requests in order to maintain proper communication with the USB host. The software retains sole responsibility for knowing which configuration and alternate interface are current at any given time.

30.3.2.1 USB Descriptor Download

The USB descriptors are standard data structures which are used by the USB host to allocate bandwidth and to determine how many and what kind of endpoints are available on the device. While this data is stored in the descriptor RAM, it is not directly used by the USB 2.0 device controller. The data gets returned to the USB host during a GET DESCRIPTOR request. The USB host picks a specific configuration and alternate interface, and then instructs the device which to enable. The USB descriptor formats are defined in Chapter 9 of the *USB Specification, Revision 2.0*. Software programs are available from various sources to assist the integrator in creating the descriptor tables.

Software is responsible for FIFO management and endpoint reconfiguration each time the USB host requests a configuration change via the SET_CONFIGURATION request.

Download of the descriptor data consists of the following steps:

1. Verify that the USBCR[RAMEN] bit is clear. This ensures that the datapath to the descriptor RAM is open to the application.

- 2. Write the starting address of the descriptors into the DADR field of the DRAMCR. The address written to this register is the address of the descriptors within the descriptor RAM.
- 3. Write each byte of the descriptor table to the DDAT field of the DRAMDR. This register increments automatically at each register access (read or write).
- 4. Enable the USB Device Controller to access the RAM by setting the RAMEN bit in the USBCR.

30.3.2.2 USB Interrupt Register

If the application makes use of the interrupt registers, then the specific interrupts to be used must be enabled. During a reset, all interrupts revert to the masked state. USB global interrupts (affecting whole module) are programmed separately from those affecting a single endpoint.

30.3.2.3 Endpoint Registers

For each endpoint, the characteristics of the FIFO and a number of interrupt sources may be programmed. The application must program the following registers:

- USB endpoint context registers
- USB endpoint status settings (EP*n*STAT).
- USB endpoint interrupt mask (EP*n*IMR)
- Separate interrupt registers are provided for each hardware FIFO. Enable the interrupts pertaining to the application by writing a $\hat{0}$ to the mask bit for that interrupt.
- Endpoint FIFO controller configuration (EP*n*FCR)
- Each FIFO is programmed based for the type of data transmission used by the endpoint
- FIFO alarm register (EP*n*FAR).
- For bulk traffic (EP*n*FCR[FRAME] = 1), the alarm level is normally programmed to a multiple of the USB packet size (that is, for 8-byte packets and a 16-byte FIFO, the alarm would be programmed to 8 bytes) to allow the DMA request lines to request full packets. For single buffered endpoints (packet size $= 8$, FIFO depth $= 8$ bytes), the alarm is normally programmed to 0. For isochronous traffic, the alarm is programmed to allow streaming operation to occur on the isochronous endpoint.

Each hardware endpoint consists of a single FIFO which can be programmed independently for depth, direction, frame mode, and low/high alarms.

• Endpoint direction is defined via the EPnSTAT register for each endpoint. FIFO characteristics are programmed via the EP*n*FCR and EP*n*FAR. These settings should be configured before the device responds to a request from the host.

30.3.2.4 FIFO Controller

FIFO sizes must be programmed to match the traffic sent across the USB. The EP*n*FRCFGR along with the USBCR[RAMSPLIT] bit allow software to specify the memory configuration that is to be used at any given time.

In most cases, all endpoints should be disabled and all FIFOs should be flushed following the reconfiguration of the FIFO sizes.

The FIFO controller module has two modes of operation: frame and non-frame. For the USB application, normally only frame mode is used.

In frame mode, the FIFO controller can handle automatic hardware retry of bad packets. This mode is used for bulk, control, and interrupt endpoints. During device initialization, the user should configure the FIFOs via the EP*n*FCR for frame mode. Data flow is controlled with the end-of-frame (EOF) and end-of-transfer (EOT) interrupts, or with the internal DMA request lines.

30.3.3 Exception Handling

Exception handling refers to two situations. The first occurs when corrupted frames must be discarded. The second is when an error situation occurs on the USB.

Corrupted frames are automatically discarded by the hardware. No software intervention is required to deal with this problem.

If the device cannot respond to the host in the time allotted, hardware automatically handles retries. No software intervention is required in this case.

The following types of error situations can arise and must be dealt with by the software.

30.3.3.1 Unable to Fill or Empty FIFO Due to Temporary Problem

If the module is unable to fill or empty a FIFO due to a temporary problem (for example the OS did not service the FIFO in time and it overflowed), the software should stall the endpoint via the PSTALL bit in the EP*n*SR. This will abort the transfer in progress and force intervention from the USB host to clear the stall condition. The PSTALL bit automatically clears once the next SETUP token is received from the host. It is up to the application software on the host to deal with the stall condition and notify the device as to how it should proceed.

30.3.3.2 Catastrophic Error

In the case of a catastrophic error, the software should execute a hard reset, reinitialize the USB module, and wait for the USB host to re-enumerate the bus.

30.3.4 Data Transfer Operations

Three types of data transfer modes exist for this module: control transfers, bulk transfers, and isochronous transfers. In addition to the three data transfer modes listed, the USB specification also supports an interrupt transfer. From the point of view of this module, the interrupt transfer type is identical to the bulk data transfer mode, and no additional hardware is supplied to support it. This section covers the transfer modes and how they work from the ground up.

All data is moved across the USB in terms of packets. Groups of packets are combined to form data transfers. The same packet transfer mechanism applies to bulk, interrupt, and control transfers. Isochronous data is also moved in the form of packets, but since isochronous pipes are given a fixed portion of the USB bandwidth at all time, there is no concept of an end of transfer.

30.3.4.1 USB Packets

Data moves across the USB in units called packets. Packets range in size from 0 to 1024 bytes, and depending on the transfer mode, the packet size is restricted to a small set of values. Control packet sizes are limited to 8, 16, 32, or 64 bytes. Bulk packet sizes are limited to 8, 16, 32, 64, or 512 bytes. Isochronous and interrupt data packets can take any size from 0 to 1024 bytes. The packet size is programmable within the USB module on an endpoint by endpoint basis.

The terms packet and frame are used interchangeably within this document. While USB traffic occurs in units called packets, the FIFO mechanism uses the term frames for the same blocks of data. The only difference between frames and packets from the user's standpoint is that packets may be as little as 0 bytes in length, while a frame must be at least 1 byte in length.

30.3.4.1.1 Handshakes

Full-speed bulk/control endpoints may respond to an OUT transaction with a NAK handshake to indicate that the device requires more time to process the data. A NAK handshake will be sent if there is already data present in the FIFO and there are less than 2*MAXPACKETSIZE bytes free in the FIFO.

High-speed operation supports an improved NAK mechanism that helps improve bus utilization. In high-speed mode, the USB Device Controller will return a NYET handshake packet to an OUT transaction on a bulk/control endpoint if there is already data present in the FIFO and there are less than 2*MAXPACKETSIZE bytes free in the FIFO. In cases where the FIFO depth is larger than $2*$ MAXPACKETSIZE (i.e. 3x or 4x), then if after a transfer that returned a NYET handshake there is at least 1*MAXPACKETSIZE of free space in the FIFO, the device will ACK the first PING request from the host and accept another MAXPACKETSIZE transfer from the host. The device will again send a NYET handshake. The only time the device will NAK a PING is when there is less than 1*MAXPACKETSIZE of free space in the FIFO.

30.3.4.1.2 Short Packets

Each endpoint has a maximum packet size associated with it. In most cases, packets transferred across an endpoint will be sent at the maximum size. Since the USB does not indicate a data transfer size, or include an end of transfer token, short packets are used to mark the end of data. Software indicates end of data by writing short packets into the FIFO. Incoming short packets are indicated by examining the length of a received packet or by looking at the end of transfer and end of frame interrupts.

30.3.4.2 Sending Packets

To send a packet of data to the USB host using programmed I/O, use the following steps:

- 1. For an *n* byte packet, write the first *n*-1 bytes to the FIFO data register (EP*n*FDR). Data may be written as bytes, words, or longwords.
- 2. For the n^{th} byte, set the WFR bit in the EPnFCR, then write the last data byte to the EPnFDR. Note that data is written in big-endian format.

The multichannel DMA can also be used to send packets. Please refer to the DMA API documentation for more information.

30.3.4.2.1 Sending Zero-Length Packets

A packet with a payload size less than *wMaxPacketSize* is used to indicate the end of a transfer. For transfers with a total payload that is evenly divisible by *wMaxPacketSize*, a zero-length packet (ZLP) may need to be transferred to indicate to the Host that the transfer has ended. To send a zero-length packet on an endpoint other then endpoint zero (EP0), the following steps should be followed:

- 1. Wait for the EOF event for the packet with the last data payload. This will ensure that the IN endpoint's FIFO is empty.
- 2. Set the TXZERO bit in the EP0SR or EP*n*INSR.

3. Clear the TXZERO bit immediately after the ZLP has been sent. The USBAISR[ACK] event and EPINFO register can be monitored to determine that the ZLP from the active endpoint was properly received.

It is important that the FIFO be empty when the TXZERO bit is set. Once set, the USB Device Controller will send a ZLP even if valid data is present in the FIFO.

It is also important that the application clears the TXZERO bit as soon as possible after the ZLP is sent. The USB 2.0 Device Controller will continue to send ZLPs in response to IN tokens for the same endpoint until the TXZERO bit is cleared.

For EP0, the TXZERO bit should only be set by the application. The USB 2.0 Device Controller will clear the TXZERO bit automatically.

30.3.4.3 Receiving Packets

To receive a packet of data from the USB host, either DMA or programmed I/O may be used.

Refer to the DMA API documentation for DMA access information.

For programmed I/O, follow these steps:

- 1. Monitor EOF interrupt for the endpoint.
- 2. On receiving EOF interrupt, prepare to read a complete packet of data. Clear the EOF interrupt so that software will receive notification of the next frame.
- 3. Read the EP*n*FDR to read in the next piece of data.
- 4. Read the EP*n*FSR to get the end of frame status bits. If the end of frame bit is set for the current transfer, then stop reading data.
- 5. Go back to step 3.

30.3.4.4 USB Transfers

Data transfers on the USB are composed of one or more packets. Instead of maintaining a transfer count, the USB host and device send groups of packets to each other in units called transfers. In a transfer, all packets are the same size, except the last one. The last packet in a transfer will be a short packet, as small as 0 bytes in the case that the last data byte ends on a packet boundary.

This section describes how data transfers work from both the device to the host, and from the host to the device.

30.3.4.4.1 Data Transfers to the Host (IN)

Given an arbitrary sized block of data to be sent to the host, break it into a number of packets sized at the maximum packet size of the target endpoint.

If the number of packets is an integer, then the transfer ends on a packet boundary and a zero length packet (ZLP) will be required to terminate the transfer. If the number of packets is not an integer, then the last packet of the transfer will be a short packet and no zero length packet is required.

For each packet in the transfer, write the data to the EP*n*FDR. The last byte in each packet must be tagged with the end of frame marker via the EPnFCR (if using the DMA, this is taken care of via the DMA service request lines). Monitor the FIFOLO interrupt, EOF interrupt, EP*n*STAT[BYTECNT] value, or DMA service requests to determine when the FIFO can accept another packet.

Refer to section [Section 30.3.4.2.1, "Sending Zero-Length Packets"](#page-924-0) for details on how to send a ZLP.

30.3.4.4.2 Data Transfers to the Device (OUT)

The length of a data transfer from the host is generally not known in advance. The device receives a continuous stream of packets and uses the EOT interrupt to determine when the transfer ended.

Software on the device monitors the EOF interrupt and/or the DMA requests to manage packet traffic. Each time a packet is received, the device must pull the data from the FIFO. Each time an end of frame is transferred from the USB module into the data FIFO, the EOF interrupt asserts. At the end of a complete transfer, the EOT interrupt asserts. Until the CPU has serviced the EOT interrupt, the device will NAK any further requests from the host. This guarantees that data from two different transfers will never get intermixed within the FIFO.

NOTE

The DMA extensions do not define a zero length frame. Thus, it is necessary to have the CPU monitor the EOT interrupts and use them as a basis for delineating individual transfers. USB traffic flow is halted until the EOT interrupt has been serviced to ensure that data from different data transfers does not get mixed-up in the FIFOs.

30.3.4.5 Control Transfers

The USB 2.0 Device Controller provides one control endpoint, endpoint zero. The USB host sends commands to the device via control transfers. Control transfers consist of up to three distinct phases. Each control transfer begins with a setup phase, followed by an optional data phase, and is completed with a status phase.

30.3.4.5.1 Default Control Pipe

Every USB device is required to implement a control endpoint, the Default Control Pipe, on endpoint zero (EP0). The USB host uses the default endpoint to read the device descriptors and to configure the device.

30.3.4.5.2 Device Requests

The Setup packet of a control transfer contains the request from the host and the request's parameters. Some of these requests are recognized by the USB device controller as standard device requests, while others are non-standard requests classified as vendor-specific or class-specific. The USB device controller automatically processes the following standard requests without any application intervention:

- SET_FEATURE, CLEAR_FEATURE
- GET CONFIGURATION
- GET_INTERFACE
- **GET_STATUS**
- **SET_ADDRESS**

The following requests require application intervention:

- SET_CONFIGURATION
- SET_DESCRIPTOR, GET_DESCRIPTOR
- **SET_INTERFACE**
- Non-standard requests: vendor-specific or class-specific

The GET DESCRIPTOR request requires a minimal amount of software intervention. See [Section 30.2.2.3, "USB Descriptor RAM Control Register \(DRAMCR\)](#page-885-0)", for more details.

Command processing of the remaining requests that require application intervention should occur in the following order:

- 1. A SETUP packet is received on EP0 and the USBAISR[SETUP] bit will be set.
- 2. Read 8 bytes from the BMRTR, BRTR, WVALUER, WINDEXR, and WLENGTHR registers and decode the command.
- 3. Clear the USBAISR[SETUP] interrupt.
- 4. Handle the request appropriately. If a data transfer is implied by the command, set up and perform the data transfer. Be careful not to send back more bytes to the USB host than were requested in the wLength field of the SETUP packet. The USB device controller hardware does not check for incorrect data phase length. The EOT interrupt will assert on completion of the data phase. Refer to [Section 30.3.4.4.1, "Data Transfers to the Host \(IN\)](#page-925-0)" for more information.
- 5. Set CCOMP in either the EP*n*OUTSR or EP*n*INSR to complete the transfer. If needed, also set the PSTALL bit in either EP*n*OUTSR or EP*n*INSR to indicate error status. The USB device controller will generate appropriate handshakes on the USB to implement the status phase. In the case of a Control Read, an empty Data OUT packet is used in the status stage to indicate a successful transfer. To accomplish this, the TXZERO bit in the EP*n*OUTSR should also be set.

30.3.4.6 Bulk Traffic

Bulk traffic guarantees the error-free delivery of data in the order that it was sent, but the rate of transfer is not guaranteed. Bandwidth is allocated to bulk, interrupt, and control packets based on the bandwidth usage policy of the USB host.

30.3.4.6.1 Bulk OUT

For OUT transfers (from host to device), internal logic marks the start of packet location in the FIFO. If a transfer does not complete without errors, the logic will force the FIFO to back up to the start of the current packet and try again. No software intervention is required to handle packet retries.

User software reads packets from the FIFOs as they appear and stops when an EOT interrupt is received. To enable further data transfers, software services and clears the pending interrupts (EOF or EOT), then waits for the next transfer to begin. Refer to [Section 30.3.4.4.2, "Data Transfers to the Device \(OUT\)"](#page-926-0) for more information.

30.3.4.6.2 Bulk IN

For IN transfers (from device to host), software tags the last byte in a packet to mark the end of frame. If a transfer does not complete without errors, hardware will automatically force the FIFO to back up to the start of the current packet and re-send the data. User software is expected to write data to the FIFO data register in units of the associated endpoint's maximum packet size. The end of frame may be indicated via the WFR bit in the endpoint FIFO control register (EP*n*FCR). Refer to [Section 30.3.4.4.1, "Data Transfers](#page-925-0) [to the Host \(IN\)](#page-925-0)" for more information.

30.3.4.7 Interrupt Traffic

Interrupt endpoints are a special case of bulk traffic. Interrupt endpoints are serviced on a periodic basis by the USB host. Interrupt endpoints are guaranteed to transfer one packet per polling interval. Thus, an endpoint with an 8-byte packet size and serviced every 2 ms would move 16 Kbps across the USB.

The only difference between interrupt transfers and bulk transfers from the device standpoint is that every time an interrupt packet is transferred, regardless of size, the EOT interrupt asserts. For OUT endpoints, the device driver software must service this interrupt before the next interrupt servicing interval to prevent the device from NAK'ing the poll.

Device driver software must be careful that the interrupt endpoint polling interval is longer than the device's interrupt service latency.

30.3.4.8 Isochronous Operations

Isochronous operations are a special case of USB traffic. Instead of guaranteeing delivery with unbounded latency, isochronous traffic flows over the bus at a guaranteed rate with no error checking.

30.3.4.8.1 Isochronous Transfer Summary

The USB limits the maximum data payload size to 1023 bytes for each full-speed isochronous endpoint. High-speed endpoints are allowed up to 1024 byes per packet. A high-speed endpoint can also request up to 2 additional transactions per microframe. Please refer to the USB specification for more information on isochronous transfer.

Given that isochronous packets may be as large as 1024 bytes, it may not be practical to implement large FIFOs for each endpoint. Instead, the software drivers are responsible for keeping the FIFOs serviced. Each time an IN or OUT request is received on an isochronous endpoint, the software drivers must ensure that the correct amount of data can be transferred without allowing the FIFO to go empty. If the FIFO goes empty during an isochronous packet transfer, the host will terminate the packet immediately and the device loses its time slot until the next USB frame.

In order to allow the driver software to maintain synchronization with the USB host, the USB maintains a register which holds the current USB frame number. The start of frame maskable interrupt (USBISR[SOF] and USBIMR[SOF]) along with the frame number register (FRMNUMR) may be used for this synchronization.

Chapter 31 Fast Ethernet Controller (FEC)

31.1 Introduction

This Fast Ethernet Controller (FEC) chapter provides a functional block diagram, a feature-set overview, and transceiver connection information for both the 10 and 100 Mbps MII (Media Independent Interface), as well as the 7-wire serial interface. Additionally, detailed descriptions of operation and the programming model are included.

31.1.1 MCF548x Family Products

The number of FECs supported varies for different members of the MCF548*x* family as shown in [Table 31-1](#page-930-0).

Product	Number of FECs supported	
MCF5485	Two FECs	
MCF5484	Two FECs	
MCF5483	One FEC	
MCF5482	One FEC	
MCF5481	Two FECs	
MCF5480	Two FECs	

Table 31-1. MCF548x Family Products

31.1.2 Block Diagram

The block diagram of the FEC is shown below. The FEC is implemented with a combination of hardware and microcode. The off-chip (Ethernet) interfaces are compliant with industry and IEEE 802.3 standards.

Figure 31-1. FEC Block Diagram

31.1.3 Overview

The Fast Ethernet Controller is designed to support both 10 and 100 Mbps Ethernet/IEEE 802.3 networks. An external transceiver interface and transceiver function are required to complete the interface to the media. The FEC supports three different standard MAC-PHY (physical) interfaces for connection to an external Ethernet transceiver. The FEC supports the 10/100 Mbps MII and the 10 Mbps-only 7-wire interface, which uses a subset of the MII pins. The user controls the FEC by writing the control registers within the CSR (control and status register) block. The CSR provides global control (e.g. Ethernet reset and enable) and interrupt handling registers.

The MII block provides a serial channel for control/status communication with the external physical layer device (transceiver). This serial channel consists of the EMDC (management data clock) and EMDIO (management data input/output) lines of the MII interface.

The transmit and receive blocks provide the Ethernet MAC functionality (with some assist from microcode). The transmit and receive FIFOs are 1024 bytes each.

The message information block (MIB) maintains counters for a variety of network events and statistics. It is not necessary for operation of the FEC but provides valuable counters for network management. The counters supported are the RMON (RFC 1757) Ethernet Statistics group and some of the IEEE 802.3 counters. See [Section 31.3.3, "MIB Block Counters Memory Map](#page-937-0)," for more information.

31.1.4 Features

The FEC incorporates the following features:

- Support for three different Ethernet physical interfaces:
	- 100-Mbps IEEE 802.3 MII
	- 10-Mbps IEEE 802.3 MII
	- 10-Mbps 7-wire interface
	- IEEE 802.3 full duplex flow control
	- Programmable max frame length supports IEEE 802.1 VLAN tags and priority
- Support for full-duplex operation (200Mbps throughput) with a minimum system clock rate of 50MHz
- Support for half-duplex operation (100Mbps throughput) with a minimum system clock rate of 25 MHz
- Retransmission from transmit FIFO following a collision (no processor bus utilization)
- Address recognition
	- Frames with broadcast address may be always accepted or always rejected
	- Exact match for single 48-bit individual (unicast) address
	- Hash (64-bit hash) check of individual (unicast) addresses
	- Hash (64-bit hash) check of group (multicast) addresses
	- Promiscuous mode

31.1.5 Modes of Operation

The primary operational modes are described in this section.

31.1.5.1 Full and Half Duplex Operation

Full duplex mode is intended for use on point to point links between switches or end node to switch. Half duplex mode is used in connections between an end node and a repeater or between repeaters. Selection of the duplex mode is controlled by TCR[FDEN] and RCR[DRT].

When configured for full duplex mode, flow control may be enabled. Refer to the TCR[RFC_PAUSE] and TCR[TFC_PAUSE] bits, the RCR[FCE] bit, and [Section 31.4.8, "Full Duplex Flow Control](#page-981-0)," for more details.

31.1.5.2 Interface Options

The following interface options are supported. A detailed discussion of the interface configurations is provided in [Section 31.4.3, "Network Interface Options"](#page-975-0).

31.1.5.2.1 10 Mbps and 100 Mbps MII Interface

MII is the Media Independent Interface defined by the IEEE 802.3 standard for 10/100 Mbps operation. The MAC-PHY interface may be configured to operate in MII mode by asserting RCR[MII_MODE].

The speed of operation is determined by the ETXCLK and ERXCLK signals which are driven by the external transceiver. The transceiver will either auto-negotiate the speed or it may be controlled by software via the serial management interface (EMDC/EMDIO signals) to the transceiver. Refer to the MMFR and MSCR register descriptions as well as the description of how to read and write registers in the

transceiver via this interface in the following sections: [Section 31.4.3, "Network Interface Options,](#page-975-0)" [Section 31.4.13, "MII Data Frame](#page-984-0)," and [Section 31.4.14, "MII Management Frame Structure.](#page-985-0)"

31.1.5.2.2 10 Mpbs 7-Wire Interface Operation

The FEC supports a 7-wire interface as used by many 10 Mbps Ethernet transceivers. The RCR[MII_MODE] bit controls this functionality. If this bit is deasserted, the MII mode is disabled and the 10 Mbps, 7-wire mode is enabled.

31.1.5.3 Address Recognition Options

The address options supported are promiscuous, broadcast reject, individual address (hash or exact match), and multicast hash match. Address recognition options are discussed in detail in [Section 31.4.6, "Ethernet](#page-977-0) [Address Recognition"](#page-977-0).

31.1.5.4 Internal Loopback

Internal loopback mode is selected via RCR[LOOP]. Loopback mode is discussed in detail in [Section 31.4.11, "Internal and External Loopback](#page-982-0)".

31.2 External Signals

The MII interface consists of 18 signals. The transmit and receive functions require seven signals each, four data signals, a delimiter, error, and clock. In addition, there are two signals which indicate the status of the media, one indicates the presence of a carrier, and the second one indicates that a collision has occurred. The remaining two signals provide a management interface. Each MII signal is described below.

31.2.1 Transmit Clock (EnTXCLK)

E*n*TXCLK is a continuous input clock that provides a timing reference for E*n*TXEN, E*n*TXD, and E*n*TXER.

31.2.2 Receive Clock (EnRXCLK)

E*n*RXCLK is a continuous input clock which provides a timing reference for E*n*RXDV, E*n*RXD, and E*n*RXER.

31.2.3 Transmit Enable (EnTXEN)

Assertion of this output signal indicates that there are valid nibbles being presented on the MII. This signal is asserted with the first nibble of preamble and is negated prior to the first E*n*TXCLK following the final nibble of the frame.

31.2.4 Transmit Data[3:0] (EnTXD[3:0])

E*n*TXD[3:0] represent a nibble of data when E*n*TXEN is asserted and have no meaning when E*n*TXEN is de-asserted. E*n*TXD0 is used for serial data in 7-wire mode. [Table 31-2](#page-935-0) summarizes the permissible encoding of E*n*TXD.

31.2.5 Transmit Error (EnTXER)

Assertion of this output signal for one or more clock cycles while E*n*TXEN is asserted shall cause the PHY to transmit one or more illegal symbols. Asserting EnTXER has no affect when operating at 10 Mbps or when E*n*TXEN is de-asserted This signal transitions synchronously with respect to E*n*TXCLK.

31.2.6 Receive Data Valid (EnRXDV)

When this input signal is asserted, the PHY is indicating that a valid nibble is present on the MII. This signal shall remain asserted from the first recovered nibble of the frame through the last nibble. Assertion of E*n*RXDV must start no later than the Start of Frame delimiter (SFD), and exclude any End of Frame delimiter (EOF).

31.2.7 Receive Data[3:0] (EnRXD[3:0])

E*n*RXD[3:0] represents a nibble of data to be transferred from the PHY to the MAC when E*n*RXDV is asserted. A completely formed SFD must be passed across the MII. When E*n*RXDV is not asserted, E*n*RXD has no meaning. There is an exception to this which is explained later. [Table 31-3](#page-935-1) summarizes the permissible encoding of E*n*RXD. E*n*RXD0 is used for serial data in 7-wire mode.

31.2.8 Receive Error (EnRXER)

When E*n*RXER and E*n*RXDV are asserted, the PHY has detected an error in the current frame. When E*n*RXDV is not asserted, E*n*RXER shall have no affect. This signal transitions synchronously with E*n*RXCLK

31.2.9 Carrier Sense (EnCRS)

This input signal is asserted when the transmit or receive medium is not idle. In the event of a collision, E*n*CRS will remain asserted through the duration of the collision. This signal is not required to transition synchronously with E*n*TXCLK or E*n*RXCLK.

31.2.10 Collision (EnCOL)

This input signal is asserted upon detection of a collision, and will remain asserted while the collision persists. The behavior of this signal is not specified when in Full Duplex mode. This signal is not required to transition synchronously with E*n*TXCLK or E*n*RXCLK.

31.2.11 Management Data Clock (EnMDC)

This signal provides a timing reference to the PHY for data transfers on the E*n*MDIO signal. E*n*MDC is aperiodic, and has no maximum high or low times. The minimum high and low times is 160ns, with the minimum period being 400ns.

31.2.12 Management Data (EnMDIO)

This signal transfers control/status information between the PHY and MAC. It transitions synchronously to E*n*MDC. The E*n*MDIO pin is a bidirectional pin.

[Table 31-2](#page-935-0) below provides the interpretation of the possible encodings of E*n*TXEN, E*n*TXER.

A false carrier condition occurs if the PHY detects a bad start-of-stream delimiter. This condition is signaled to the MII by asserting E*n*RXER and placing 1110 on E*n*RXD. E*n*RXDV must also be de-asserted. The valid encodings of E*n*RXDV, E*n*RXER and E*n*RXD[3:0] are shown in [Table 31-3](#page-935-1) below.

Table 31-3. MII: Valid Encoding of EnRXD, EnRXER and EnRXDV

EnRXDV	EnRXER	En RXD[3:0]	Indication
0	0	0000 through 1111	Normal inter-frame
0		0000	Normal inter-frame
0		0001 through 1101	Reserved
0		1110	False Carrier
0		1111	Reserved
	0	0000 through 1111	Normal Data Reception
		0000 through 1111	Data reception with errors

31.3 Memory Map/Register Definition

This section gives an overview of the FEC registers. The FEC is programmed by control/status registers (CSRs). The CSRs are used for mode control and to extract global status information.

31.3.1 Top Level Module Memory Map

The FEC implementation occupies a 1-Kbyte memory map space. This is divided into two sections of 512 bytes each. The first is used for control/status registers. The second contains event/statistic counters held in the MIB block. [Table 31-4](#page-935-2) defines the top level memory map.

31.3.2 Detailed Memory Map (Control/Status Registers)

[Table 31-5](#page-936-0) shows the FEC register memory map with each register address, name, and a brief description.

Table 31-5. FEC Register Memory Map

31.3.3 MIB Block Counters Memory Map

[Table 31-6](#page-938-0) defines the MIB Counters memory map which defines the locations in the MIB RAM space where hardware maintained counters reside. These fall in the 0x9200–0x93FF address offset range for FEC0 and the 0x9A00–0x9BFF address offset range for FEC1. The counters are divided into two groups.

RMON counters are included which cover the Ethernet statistics counters defined in RFC 1757. In addition to the counters defined in the Ethernet statistics group, a counter is included to count truncated frames as the FEC only supports frame lengths up to 2047 bytes. The RMON counters are implemented independently for transmit and receive to insure accurate network statistics when operating in full duplex mode.

IEEE counters are included which support the mandatory and recommended counter packages defined in Section 5 of ANSI/IEEE Std. 802.3 (1998 edition). The IEEE Basic Package objects are supported by the FEC but do not require counters in the MIB block. In addition, some of the recommended package objects

which are supported do not require MIB counters. Counters for transmit and receive full duplex flow control frames are included as well.

Table 31-6. MIB Counters Memory Map

31.3.3.1 Ethernet Interrupt Event Register (EIR)

When an event occurs that sets a bit in the EIR, an interrupt will be generated if the corresponding bit in the interrupt mask register (EIMR) is also set. The bit in the EIR is cleared if a one is written to that bit position; writing zero has no effect. This register is cleared upon hardware reset.

These interrupts can be divided into operational interrupts, transceiver/network error interrupts, and internal error interrupts. Interrupts which may occur in normal operation are GRA, TXF, and MII.

Interrupts resulting from errors/problems detected in the network or transceiver are HBERR, BABR, BABT, LC, and RL. Interrupts resulting from internal errors are HBERR, XFUN, XFERR, and RFERR.

Some of the error interrupts are independently counted in the MIB block counters. Software may choose to mask off these interrupts because these errors will be visible to network management via the MIB counters.

- HBERR IEEE_T_SQE
- BABR RMON_R_OVERSIZE (good CRC), RMON_R_JAB (bad CRC)
- BABT RMON_T_OVERSIZE (good CRC), RMON_T_JAB (bad CRC)
- LC-IEEE T LCOL
- RL-IEEE T EXCOL
- XFUN IEEE_T_MACERR

Figure 31-2. Ethernet Interrupt Event Register (EIR)

Table 31-7. EIR Descriptions

Table 31-7. EIR Descriptions (Continued)

31.3.3.2 Interrupt Mask Register (EIMR)

The EIMR controls which possible interrupt events are allowed to generate actual interrupts. All implemented bits in this CSR are read/write. This register is cleared upon a hardware reset. If the corresponding bits in both the EIR and EIMR registers are set, the interrupt will be signalled to the on chip interrupt controller. The interrupt signal will remain asserted until a 1 is written to the EIR bit (write 1 to clear) or a 0 is written to the EIMR bit.

Figure 31-3. Ethernet Interrupt Mask Register (EIMR)

31.3.3.3 Ethernet Control Register (ECR)

ECR is a read/write user register, though both fields in this register may be altered by hardware as well. The ECR is used to enable/disable the FEC.

Figure 31-4. Ethernet Control Register (ECR)

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Table 31-9. ECR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.4 MII Management Frame Register (MMFR)

The MMFR is accessed by the user and does not reset to a defined value. The MMFR register is used to communicate with the attached MII compatible PHY devices, providing read/write access to their MII registers. Performing a write to the MMFR will cause a management frame to be sourced unless the MSCR has been programmed to 0. In the case of writing to MMFR when $MSCR = 0$, if the MSCR register is then written to a non-zero value, an MII frame will be generated with the data previously written to the MMFR. This allows MMFR and MSCR to be programmed in either order if MSCR is currently zero.

Figure 31-5. MII Management Frame Register (MMFR)

Table 31-10. MMFR Field Descriptions

Table 31-10. MMFR Field Descriptions (Continued)

To perform a read or write operation on the MII Management Interface, the MMFR register must be written by the user. To generate a valid read or write management frame, the ST field must be written with a 01 pattern, and the TA field must be written with a 10. If other patterns are written to these fields, a frame will be generated but will not comply with the IEEE 802.3 MII definition.

If the MMFR is written while frame generation is in progress, the frame contents will be altered. Software should use the MII interrupt to avoid writing to the MMFR register while frame generation is in progress.

31.3.3.4.1 Generating a Write Frame

To generate an IEEE 802.3-compliant MII Management Interface write frame (write to a PHY register), the user must write {01 01 PHYAD REGAD 10 DATA} to the MMFR register. Writing this pattern will cause the control logic to shift out the data in the MMFR register following a preamble generated by the control state machine. During this time the contents of the MMFR register will be altered as the contents are serially shifted and will be unpredictable if read by the user. Once the write management frame operation has completed, the MII interrupt will be generated. At this time the contents of the MMFR register will match the original value written.

31.3.3.4.2 Generating a Read Frame

To generate an MII Management Interface read frame (read a PHY register) the user must write {01 10 PHYAD REGAD 10 XXXX} to the MMFR register (the content of the DATA field is a don't care). Writing this pattern will cause the control logic to shift out the data in the MMFR register following a preamble generated by the control state machine. During this time the contents of the MMFR register will be altered as the contents are serially shifted, and will be unpredictable if read by the user. Once the read management frame operation has completed, the MII interrupt will be generated. At this time the contents of the MMFR register will match the original value written except for the DATA field whose contents have been replaced by the value read from the PHY register.

31.3.3.5 MII Speed Control Register (MSCR)

The MSCR provides control of the MII clock (EMDC signal) frequency and allows dropping the preamble on the MII management frame.

Figure 31-6. MII Speed Control Register (MSCR)

Table 31-11. MSCR Field Descriptions

The MII_SPEED field must be programmed with a value to provide an EMDC frequency of less than or equal to 2.5 MHz to be compliant with the IEEE 802.3 MII specification. The MII_SPEED must be set to a non-zero value in order to source a read or write management frame. After the management frame is complete the MSCR register may optionally be set to zero to turn off the EMDC. The EMDC generated will have a 50% duty cycle except when MII_SPEED is changed during operation (change will take effect following either a rising or falling edge of EMDC).

If the system clock is 66 MHz, programming the MII SPEED field to $0x5$ will result in an EMDC frequency of 66 MHz \times 1/26 = 2.5 MHz. A table showing optimum values for MII_SPEED as a function of system clock frequency is provided below.

Clock Frequency	MII_SPEED (field in reg)	EMDC frequency
60 MHz	0xC	2.5 MHz
66 MHz	0xD	2.5 MHz
120 MHz	0x18	2.5 MHz
133 MHz	0x1A	2.5 MHz

Table 31-12. Programming Examples for MSCR

31.3.3.6 MIB Control Register (MIBC)

The MIBC is a read/write register used to provide control of and to observe the state of the MIB block. This register is accessed by user software if there is a need to disable the MIB block operation. For example, in order to clear all MIB counters in RAM the user should disable the MIB block, then clear all the MIB RAM locations, then enable the MIB block. The MIB_DISABLE bit is reset to 1. See [Table 31-6](#page-938-0) for the locations of the MIB counters.

Figure 31-7. MIB Control Register (MIBC)

Table 31-13. MIBC Field Descriptions

31.3.3.7 Receive Control Register (RCR)

The RCR is programmed by the user. The RCR controls the operational mode of the receive block and should be written only when ECR[ETHER_EN] = 0 (initialization time).

Figure 31-8. Receive Control Register (RCR)

Table 31-14. RCR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.8 Receive Hash Register (RHR)

This read only register provides address recognition information from the receive block about the frame currently being received.

Figure 31-9. Receive Hash Register (RHR)

Table 31-15. RHR Bits Description

31.3.3.9 Transmit Control Register (TCR)

The TCR is read/write and is written by the user to configure the transmit block. This register is cleared at system reset. Bits 2 and 1 should be modified only when ECR[ETHER_EN] is cleared.

Figure 31-10. Transmit Control Register (TCR)

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31.3.3.10 Physical Address Low Register (PALR)

The PALR is written by the user. This register contains the lower 32 bits (bytes 0,1,2,3) of the 48-bit address used in the address recognition process to compare with the DA (Destination Address) field of receive frames with an individual DA. In addition, this register is used in bytes 0 through 3 of the 6-byte source address field when transmitting PAUSE frames. This register is not reset and must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-11. Physical Address Low Register (PALR)

31.3.3.11 Physical Address High Register (PAHR)

The PAHR is written by the user. This register contains the upper 16 bits (bytes 4 and 5) of the 48-bit address used in the address recognition process to compare with the DA (destination address) field of receive frames with an individual DA. In addition, this register is used in bytes 4 and 5 of the 6-byte Source Address field when transmitting PAUSE frames. Bits 15:0 of PAHR contain a constant type field (0x8808) used for transmission of PAUSE frames. This register is not reset and bits 31:16 must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-12. Physical Address High Register (PAHR)

Table 31-18. PAHR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.12 Opcode/Pause Duration Register (OPD)

The OPD is read/write accessible. This register contains the 16-bit opcode and 16-bit pause duration fields used in transmission of a PAUSE frame. The OPCODE field is a constant value, 0x0001. When another node detects a PAUSE frame, that node will pause transmission for the duration specified in the pause duration field. This register is not reset and must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-13. Opcode/Pause Duration Register (OPD)

Table 31-19. OPD Field Descriptions

31.3.3.13 Individual Address Upper Register (IAUR)

The IAUR is written by the user. This register contains the upper 32 bits of the 64-bit individual address hash table used in the address recognition process to check for possible match with the destination address (DA) field of receive frames with an individual DA. This register is not reset and must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-16. Individual Address Upper Register (IAUR)

Table 31-20. IAUR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.14 Individual Address Lower Register (IALR)

The IALR register is written by the user. This register contains the lower 32 bits of the 64-bit individual address hash table used in the address recognition process to check for possible match with the destination address (DA) field of receive frames with an individual DA. This register is not reset and must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-17. Individual Address Lower Register (IALR)

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31.3.3.15 Group Address Upper Register (GAUR)

The GAUR is written by the user. This register contains the upper 32 bits of the 64-bit hash table used in the address recognition process for receive frames with a multicast address. This register must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-18. Group Address Upper Register (GAUR)

Table 31-22. GAUR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.16 Group Address Lower Register (GALR)

The GALR register is written by the user. This register contains the lower 32 bits of the 64-bit hash table used in the address recognition process for receive frames with a multicast address. This register must be initialized by the user.

Figure 31-19. Group Address Lower Register (GALR)

31.3.3.17 FEC Transmit FIFO Watermark Register (FECTFWR)

The FECTFWR is a 32-bit read/write register programmed by the user to control the amount of data required in the transmit FIFO before transmission of a frame can begin. This allows the user to minimize transmit latency or allow for larger bus access latency due to contention for the system bus. Setting the watermark to a high value will minimize the risk of transmit FIFO underrun due to contention for the system bus. The byte counts associated with the X_WMRK field may need to be modified to match a given system requirement (worst case bus access latency by the transmit data DMA channel). This register should be programmed so that the selected number of bytes is less than or equal to the number of bytes indicated in the transmit FIFO alarm register, FECTFAR.

Both the transmit and receive FIFOs are 1024 bytes deep.

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Table 31-24. FECTFWR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.18 FEC Receive FIFO Data Register (FECRFDR)

This is the main interface port for the FIFO. Data that is to be buffered in the FIFO or that has been buffered in the FIFO is accessed through this register. It can be accessed by byte, word, or longword. It is recommended to align all accesses to the most significant byte (big endian) of the data port, using the address of FECRFDR for byte, word, and longword transactions. However, accessing the data port at FECRFDR+ 1,

+ 2, or + 3 for bytes, or FECRFDR+ 2 for words is also acceptable.

Figure 31-21. FEC Receive FIFO Data Register (FECRFDR)

Table 31-25. FECRFDR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.19 FEC Receive FIFO Status Register (FECRFSR)

The FIFO receive status register contains bits that provide information about the status of the FIFO controller. Some of the bits of this register are used to generate DMA requests.

Table 31-26. FECRFSR Field Descriptions (Continued)

31.3.3.20 FEC Receive FIFO Control Register (FECRFCR)

The FIFO receive control register provides programmability of FIFO behaviors, including last transfer granularity and frame operation. Last transfer granularity allows the user to control when the FIFO controller stops requesting data transfers through the FIFO alarm by modifying the clearing point of the alarm, ensuring the data stream is stopped at a valid point, or there remains enough space in the FIFO to unload the input data pipeline. Additional explanation of this field can be found below. The frame enable (FRMEN) bit of the control register provides a capability to enable and control the FIFO controller's ability to view data on a packetized basis. Frame mode overrides the FIFO granularity bits. The bits of this register are shown in [Figure 31-23](#page-958-0), and the fields are further defined in the field descriptions in [Table 31-27](#page-958-1).

Table 31-27. FECRFCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

31.3.3.21 FEC Receive FIFO Last Read Frame Pointer Register (FECRLRFP)

The last read frame pointer (LRFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the next byte after the last frame that has been completely read. If no frames have been read out of the FIFO, the register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO(the reset state). The LRFP updates on FIFO read data accesses to a frame boundary. The LRFP can be read and written for debug purposes. When FECRFCR[FRMEN] is cleared, then this pointer has no meaning. The last read frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 31-24. FEC Receive FIFO Last Read Frame Pointer Register (FECRLRFP)

Table 31-28. FECRLRFP Field Descriptions

31.3.3.22 FEC Receive FIFO Last Write Frame Pointer Register (FECRLWFP)

The last read frame pointer (LWFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the next byte after the last frame that has been completely written. If no frames have been written into the FIFO, the register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO(the reset state). The LWFP updates on FIFO write data accesses which create a frame boundary, whether that be by setting the WFR bit in the FIFO Control Register, or by feeding a frame bit in on the appropriate bus. The LWFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame discard function, the LWFP divides the valid data region of the FIFO (the area

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in-between the read and write pointers) into framed and unframed data. Data between the LWFP and write pointer constitutes an incomplete frame, while data between the read pointer and the LWFP has been received as whole frames. When FECRFCR[FRMEN] is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last written frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Figure 31-25. FEC Receive FIFO Last Write Frame Pointer Register (FECRLWFP)

31.3.3.23 FEC Receive FIFO Alarm Register (FECRFAR)

This pointer provides high level alarm information to the user and the comm bus interface. A high level alarm reports lack of space. The alarm register defines the alarm threshold for the number of free bytes in the FIFO. If there are less than FECRFAR[ALARM] free bytes in the FIFO, the FECRFSR[ALARM] bit is set.

Table 31-30. FECRFAR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.24 FEC Receive FIFO Read Pointer Register (FECRFRP)

The read pointer is a FIFO maintained pointer which points to the next FIFO location to be read. The read pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers.

Figure 31-27. FEC Receive FIFO Read Pointer Register (FECRFRP)

31.3.3.25 FEC Receive FIFO Write Pointer Register (FECRFWP)

The write pointer is a FIFO maintained pointer which points to the next FIFO location to be written. The write pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers. The write pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Table 31-32. FECRFWP Field Descriptions

31.3.3.26 FEC Transmit FIFO Data Register (FECTFDR)

This is the main interface port for the FIFO. Data which is to be buffered in the FIFO or has been buffered in the FIFO, is accessed through this register. It can be accessed by byte, word, or longword. It is recommended to align all accesses to the most significant byte (big endian) of the data port, using the address of TFDR for byte, word, and longword transactions. However, accessing the data port at TFDR+1, 2, or 3 for bytes or TFDR+2 for words is also acceptable. This register is usually read without wait state, but can be held under boundary conditions.

Figure 31-29. FEC Transmit FIFO Data Register (FECTFDR)

Table 31-33. FECTFDR Field Descriptions

Bits	Name	Descriptions
$31 - 0$		FIFO_DATA Transmit FIFO data. Writing to this register will fill the Tx FIFO with transmit data.

31.3.3.27 FEC Transmit FIFO Status Register (FECTFSR)

The FIFO transmit status register contains bits which provide information about the status of the FIFO controller. Some of the bits of this register are used to generate DMA requests.

Figure 31-30. FEC Transmit FIFO Status Register (FECTFSR)

Table 31-34. FECTFSR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.28 FEC Transmit FIFO Control Register (FECTFCR)

The FIFO transmit control register provides programmability of FIFO behaviors, including last transfer granularity and frame operation. Last transfer granularity allows the user to control when the FIFO controller stops requesting data transfers through the FIFO alarm by modifying the clearing point of the alarm, ensuring the data stream is stopped at a valid point, or there remains enough space in the FIFO to unload the input data pipeline. Additional explanation of this field can be found below. The frame mode enable (FRMEN) bit of the control register provides a capability to enable and control the FIFO controller's ability to view data on a packetized basis. Frame mode overrides the FIFO granularity bits, by setting the FECTFSR[FRMRDY] bit. The bit definitions for this register are shown in [Figure 31-31](#page-965-1), and the fields are further defined in the field descriptions of [Table 31-35.](#page-965-0)

Table 31-35. FECTFCR Field Descriptions (Continued)

31.3.3.29 FEC Transmit FIFO Last Read Frame Pointer Register (FECTLRFP)

The last read frame pointer (LRFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the next byte after the last frame that has been completely read. If no frames have been read out of the FIFO, the register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO(the reset state). The LRFP updates on FIFO read data accesses to a frame boundary. The LRFP updates on FIFO read data accesses to a frame boundary. The LRFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame retransmit function, the LRFP indicates which point to begin retransmission of the data frame. The LRFP carries validity information, however, there are no safeguards to prevent retransmitting data which has been overwritten. When FECTFCR[FRMEN] is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last read frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

31.3.3.30 FEC Transmit FIFO Last Write Frame Pointer Register (FECTLWFP)

The last read frame pointer (LWFP) is a FIFO-maintained pointer that indicates the location of the next byte after the last frame that has been completely written. If no frames have been written into the FIFO, the register indicates the first byte location in the FIFO(the reset state).The LWFP updates on FIFO write data accesses which create a frame boundary, whether that be by setting the WFR bit in the FIFO Control Register, or by feeding a frame bit in on the appropriate bus. The LWFP can be read and written for debug purposes. For the frame discard function, the LWFP divides the valid data region of the FIFO (the area in-between the read and write pointers) into framed and unframed data. Data between the LWFP and write pointer constitutes an incomplete frame, while data between the read pointer and the LWFP has been received as whole frames. When FECTFCR[FRMEN] is not set, then this pointer has no meaning. The last written frame pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

31.3.3.31 FEC Transmit FIFO Alarm Register (FECTFAR)

This pointer provides low level alarm information to the user and the comm bus interface. A low level alarm reports lack of data. The alarm register defines the alarm threshold for the number of bytes in the FIFO. If there are less than or equal FECTFAR[ALARM] bytes of data in the FIFO, the FECTFSR[ALARM] bit is set.

Figure 31-34. FEC Transmit FIFO Alarm Register (FECTFAR)

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Table 31-38. FECTFAR Field Descriptions

31.3.3.32 FEC Transmit FIFO Read Pointer Register (FECTFRP)

The read pointer is a FIFO maintained pointer which points to the next FIFO location to be read. The read pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers.

Figure 31-35. FEC Transmit FIFO Read Pointer Register (FECTFRP)

Table 31-39. FECTFRP Field Descriptions

31.3.3.33 FEC Transmit FIFO Write Pointer Register (FECTFWP)

The write pointer is a FIFO maintained pointer which points to the next FIFO location to be written. The write pointer can be both read and written. This ability facilitates the debug of the FIFO controller and peripheral drivers. The write pointer is reset to zero, and non-functional bits of this pointer will always remain zero.

Table 31-40. FECTFWP Field Descriptions

31.3.3.34 FEC FIFO Reset Register (FECFRST)

The FIFO's within the FEC module have independent controllers. This register provides the user the ability to reset FIFOs via hardware or software.

31.3.3.35 FEC CRC and Transmit Frame Control Word Register (FECCTCWR)

The FEC can be sent a control word (32-bit) with additional instructions on how to transmit the current frame. This control word instructs the FEC to append or not append a CRC value to the frame being transmitted. Control of the transmit frame control word and its contents are provided in this register.

Figure 31-38. FEC CRC and Transmit Frame Control Word Register (FECCTCWR)

Table 31-42. FECCTCWR Field Descriptions

31.4 Functional Description

This section describes the operation of the FEC, beginning with the hardware and software initialization sequence, then the software (Ethernet driver) interface for transmitting and receiving frames.

Following the software initialization and operation sections are sections providing a detailed description of the functions of the FEC.

31.4.1 Initialization Sequence

This section describes which registers are reset due to hardware reset, which are reset by the FEC RISC, and what locations the user must initialize prior to enabling the FEC.

31.4.1.1 Hardware Controlled Initialization

In the FEC, registers and control logic are reset by hardware (system reset). A system reset deasserts output signals and resets general configuration bits.

By clearing ECR[ETHER_EN], the configuration control registers such as the TCR and RCR will not be reset, but the entire data path will be reset. If ECR[ETHER_EN] is deasserted, the associated FIFO controller should also be given a soft reset to purge any data/frames.

Register/Machine	Reset Value
XMIT block	Transmission is aborted (bad CRC appended)
RECV block	Receive activity is aborted

Table 31-43. ECR[ETHER_EN] De-Assertion Effect on FEC

31.4.1.2 User Initialization (Prior to Asserting ECR[ETHER_EN])

The user needs to initialize portions of the FEC prior to setting the ECR[ETHER_EN] bit. The exact values will depend on the particular application. The sequence is not important.

FEC registers requiring initialization are defined in [Table 31-44.](#page-972-0)

Table 31-44. User Initialization (Before Asserting ECR[ETHER_EN])

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Table 31-44. User Initialization (Before Asserting ECR[ETHER_EN]) (Continued)

31.4.2 Frame Control/Status Words

In the FEC, transmit frame control words and receive frame status words are appended to frame data in the FIFO. These words use the format shown below.

31.4.2.1 Receive Frame Status Word (RFSW)

[Figure 31-39](#page-973-0) defines the format for the receive frame status word.

Figure 31-39. Receive Frame Status Word Format (RFSW)

31.4.2.2 Transmit Frame Control Word (TFCW)

[Figure 31-40](#page-974-0) shows the format of the transmit frame control word.

Figure 31-40. Transmit Frame Control Word Format (TFCW)

31.4.3 Network Interface Options

The FEC supports both an MII interface for 10/100 Mbps Ethernet and a 7-wire serial interface for 10 Mbps Ethernet. The interface mode is selected by the RCR[MII_MODE] bit. In MII mode $(RCR[MII_MODE] = 1)$, the following 12 signals are defined by the IEEE 802.3 standard and supported by the FEC. These signals are shown in [Table 31-47](#page-975-0) below.

Table 31-47. MII Mode

The 7-wire serial mode interface (RCR[MII_MODE] = 0) operates in what is generally referred to as the "AMD" mode. The 7-wire mode connections to the external transceiver are shown in [Table 31-48](#page-975-1).

Signal Description	EMAC Supported Signal		
Transmit Clock	ETXCLK		
Transmit Enable	FTXFN		
Transmit Data	ETXD[0]		
Collision	ECOL.		
Receive Clock	ERXCLK		
Receive Data Valid	FRXDV		
Receive Data	ERXD _[0]		

Table 31-48. 7-Wire Mode Configuration

31.4.4 FEC Frame Transmission

The Ethernet transmitter is designed to work with almost no intervention from software. Once ECR[ETHER_EN] is set and data appears in the transmit FIFO, the FEC is able to transmit onto the network.

When the transmit FIFO fills to the watermark (defined by FECTFWR) or a complete (small) frame is placed in the FIFO, the FEC transmit logic will assert E*n*TXEN and start transmitting the preamble (PA) sequence, the start frame delimiter (SFD), and then the frame information from the FIFO. However, the controller defers the transmission if the network is busy (E*n*CRS asserts). Before transmitting, the controller waits for carrier sense to become inactive, then determines if carrier sense stays inactive for 60 bit times. If so, the transmission begins after waiting an additional 36 bit times (96 bit times after carrier sense originally became inactive). See [Section 31.4.12.1, "Transmission Errors"](#page-983-0) for more details.

If a collision occurs during transmission of the frame (half duplex mode), the Ethernet controller follows the specified backoff procedures and attempts to retransmit the frame until the retry limit is reached.

When all the frame data has been transmitted, the FCS (frame check sequence) or 32-bit cyclic redundancy check (CRC) bytes are appended if the TC bit is set in the transmit frame control word (TFCW). If the ABC bit is set in the TFCW, a bad CRC will be appended to the frame data regardless of the TC bit value. Following the transmission of the CRC, the Ethernet controller writes the frame status information to the MIB block. Short frames are automatically padded by the transmit logic (if $TFCW[TC] = 1$).

Frame (TXF) interrupts may be generated as determined by the settings in the EIMR.

The transmit error interrupts are HBERR, BABT, LC, RL, XFUN, and XFERR. If the transmit frame length exceeds MAX_FL bytes the BABT interrupt will be asserted, however the entire frame will be transmitted (no truncation).

To pause transmission, set the GTS (graceful transmit stop) bit in the TCR register. When TCR[GTS] is set, the FEC transmitter stops immediately if transmission is not in progress; otherwise, it continues transmission until the current frame either finishes or terminates with a collision. After the transmitter has stopped, the GRA (graceful stop complete) interrupt is asserted. If TCR[GTS] is cleared, the FEC resumes transmission with the next frame.

The Ethernet controller transmits bytes least significant bit first.

31.4.5 FEC Frame Reception

The FEC receiver is designed to work with almost no intervention from the host and can perform address recognition, CRC checking, short frame checking, and maximum frame length checking.

When the driver enables the FEC receiver by setting ECR[ETHER_EN], it will immediately start processing receive frames. When E*n*RXDV asserts, the receiver will first check for a valid PA/SFD header. If the PA/SFD is valid, it will be stripped and the frame will be processed by the receiver. If a valid PA/SFD is not found, the frame will be ignored.

In 7-wire serial mode, the first 16 bit times of E*n*RXD0 following assertion of E*n*RXDV are ignored. Following the first 16 bit times the data sequence is checked for alternating 1s and 0s. If a 11 or 00 data sequence is detected during bit times 17 to 21, the remainder of the frame is ignored. After bit time 21, the data sequence is monitored for a valid SFD (11). If a 00 is detected, the frame is rejected. When a 11 is detected, the PA/SFD sequence is complete.

In MII mode, the receiver checks for at least one byte matching the SFD. Zero or more PA bytes may occur, but if a 00 bit sequence is detected prior to the SFD byte, the frame is ignored.

After the first 6 bytes of the frame have been received, the FEC performs address recognition on the frame.

Once a collision window (64 bytes) of data has been received and if address recognition has not rejected the frame, the receive FIFO is signalled that the frame is "accepted." If the frame is a runt (due to collision) or is rejected by address recognition, the receive FIFO is notified to "reject" the frame. Thus, no collision fragments are presented to the user except late collisions, which indicate serious LAN problems.

During reception, the Ethernet controller checks for various error conditions and once the entire frame is written into the FIFO, a 32-bit frame status word (RFSW) is written into the FIFO. This receive frame status word contains the M, BC, MC, LG, NO, CR, OF and TR status bits, and the frame length. See [Section 31.4.12.2, "Reception Errors"](#page-984-0) for more details.

Receive frames are not truncated if they exceed the max frame length (MAX_FL); however, the BABR interrupt will occur and the LG bit in the receive frame status word (RFSW) will be set. See [Section 31.4.2.1, "Receive Frame Status Word \(RFSW\)"](#page-973-1) for more details.

The FEC receives serial data LSB first.

31.4.6 Ethernet Address Recognition

The FEC filters the received frames based on destination address (DA) type — individual (unicast), group (multicast), or broadcast (all-ones group address). The difference between an individual address and a group address is determined by the I/G bit in the destination address field. A flowchart for address recognition on received frames is illustrated in the figures below.

If the DA is a broadcast address and broadcast reject (RCR[BC_REJ]) is deasserted, then the frame will be accepted unconditionally, as shown in [Figure 31-41.](#page-978-0) Otherwise, if the DA is not a broadcast address, then the microcontroller runs the address recognition subroutine.

If the DA is a group (multicast) address and flow control is disabled, then the microcontroller will perform a group hash table lookup using the 64-entry hash table programmed in GAUR and GALR. If a hash match occurs, the receiver accepts the frame.

If flow control is enabled, the microcontroller will do an exact address match check between the DA and the designated PAUSE DA (01:80:C2:00:00:01). If the receive block determines that the received frame is a valid PAUSE frame, then the frame will be rejected. Note the receiver will detect a PAUSE frame with the DA field set to either the designated PAUSE DA or the unicast physical address. See [Section 31.4.8,](#page-981-0) ["Full Duplex Flow Control](#page-981-0)," for more details on pause frames.

If the DA is the individual (unicast) address, the microcontroller performs an individual exact match comparison between the DA and the 48-bit physical address that the user programs in the PALR and PAHR registers. If an exact match occurs, the frame is accepted; otherwise, the microcontroller does an individual hash table lookup using the 64-entry hash table programmed in registers, IAUR and IALR. In the case of an individual hash match, the frame is accepted. Again, the receiver will accept or reject the frame based on PAUSE frame detection, shown in [Figure 31-41.](#page-978-0)

If neither a hash match (group or individual) nor an exact match (group or individual) occur, and if promiscuous mode is enabled $(RCR[PROM] = 1)$, then the frame will be accepted and the MISS bit in the RFSW will be cleared; otherwise, the frame will be rejected.

Similarly, if the DA is a broadcast address, broadcast reject (RCR[BC_REJ]) is asserted, and promiscuous mode is enabled, then the frame will be accepted and the MISS bit in the receive buffer descriptor is set; otherwise, the frame will be rejected.

The flowchart shown in [Figure 31-41](#page-978-0) illustrates the address recognition decisions made by the receive block.

Figure 31-41. Ethernet Address Recognition—Receive Block Decisions

31.4.7 Hash Algorithm

The hash table algorithm used in the group and individual hash filtering operates as follows. The 48-bit destination address is mapped into one of 64 bits, which are represented by 64 bits stored in GAUR, GALR (group address hash match) or IAUR, IALR (individual address hash match). This mapping is performed by passing the 48-bit address through the FEC's 32-bit CRC generator and selecting the 6 most significant bits of the CRC-encoded result to generate a number between 0 and 63. The MSB of the CRC result selects GAUR (MSB = 1) or GALR (MSB = 0). The least significant 5 bits of the hash result select the bit within the selected register. If the CRC generator selects a bit that is set in the hash table, the frame is accepted; otherwise, it is rejected.

For example, if eight group addresses are stored in the hash table and random group addresses are received, the hash table prevents roughly 56/64 (or 87.5%) of the group address frames from reaching memory. Those that do reach memory must be further filtered by the processor to determine if they truly contain one of the eight desired addresses.

The effectiveness of the hash table declines as the number of addresses increases.

The hash table registers must be initialized by the user. The CRC32 polynomial to use in computing the hash is:

$$
x^{32} + x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1
$$
Eqn. 31-1

A table of example destination addresses and corresponding hash values is included below for reference.

48-bit Destination Address	6-bit Hash (in Hex)	Hash Decimal Value		
65:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x0	0		
55:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1	1		
15:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2	$\overline{2}$		
35:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3	3		
B5:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x4	4		
95:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x5	5		
D5:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x6	6		
F5:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x7	7		
DB:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x8	8		
FB:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x9	9		
BB:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xA	10		
8B:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xB	11		
0B:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xC	12		
3B:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xD	13		
7B:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xE	14		
5B:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0xF	15		
27:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x10	16		
07:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x11	17		
57:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x12	18		
77:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x13	19		
F7:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x14	20		
C7:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x15	21		
97:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x16	22		
A7:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x17	23		
99:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x18	24		
B9:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x19	25		
F9:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1A	26		
C9:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1B	27		

Table 31-49. Destination Address to 6-Bit Hash

48-bit Destination Address	6-bit Hash (in Hex)	Hash Decimal Value		
59:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1C	28		
79:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1D	29		
29:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1E	30		
19:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x1F	31		
D1:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x20	32		
F1:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x21	33		
B1:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x22	34		
91:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x23	35		
11:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x24	36		
31:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x25	37		
71:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x26	38		
51:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x27	39		
7F:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x28	40		
4F:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x29	41		
1F:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2A	42		
3F:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2B	43		
BF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2C	44		
9F:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2D	45		
DF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2E	46		
EF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x2F	47		
93:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x30	48		
B3:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x31	49		
F3:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x32	50		
$D3:$ FF: FF: FF: FF: FF: FF	0x33	51		
$53:$ FF: FF: FF: FF: FF	0x34	52		
$73:$ FF: FF: FF: FF: FF	0x35	53		
23:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x36	54		
$13:$ FF: FF: FF: FF: FF: FF	0x37	55		
3D:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x38	56		
OD:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x39	57		
5D:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3A	58		
7D:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3B	59		

Table 31-49. Destination Address to 6-Bit Hash (Continued)

48-bit Destination Address	6-bit Hash (in Hex)	Hash Decimal Value
FD:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3C	60
DD:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3D	61
9D:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3E	62
BD:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF	0x3F	63

Table 31-49. Destination Address to 6-Bit Hash (Continued)

31.4.8 Full Duplex Flow Control

Full-duplex flow control allows the user to transmit pause frames and to detect received pause frames. Upon detection of a pause frame, MAC data frame transmission stops for a given pause duration.

To enable pause frame detection, the FEC must operate in full-duplex mode (TCR[FDEN] asserted) and flow control enable (RCR[FCE]) must be asserted. The FEC detects a pause frame when the fields of the incoming frame match the pause frame specifications, as shown in the table below. In addition, the receive status associated with the frame should indicate that the frame is valid.

PAUSE Frame Fields	Register Contents
48-bit Destination Address	01:80:C2:00:00:01 or Physical Address
48-bit Source Address	Any
16-bit Type	0x8808
16-bit Opcode	0x0001
16-bit PAUSE Duration	$0x0000$ to $0x$ FFFF

Table 31-50. PAUSE Frame Field Specification

Pause frame detection is performed by the receive module. The FEC runs an address recognition subroutine to detect the specified pause frame destination address, while the receiver detects the type and opcode pause frame fields. On detection of a pause frame, TCR[GTS] is asserted by the FEC internally. When transmission has paused, the EIR[GRA] interrupt is asserted and the pause timer begins to increment. The pause timer increments once every slot time (512 bit times), until OPD[PAUSE_DUR] slot times have expired. On OPD[PAUSE_DUR] expiration, TCR[GTS] is deasserted allowing MAC data frame transmission to resume. Note that the receive flow control pause (TCR[RFC_PAUSE]) status bit is asserted while the transmitter is paused due to reception of a pause frame.

To transmit a pause frame, the FEC must operate in full-duplex mode and the user must assert flow control pause (TCR[TFC_PAUSE]). On assertion of transmit flow control pause (TCR[TFC_PAUSE]), the transmitter asserts TCR[GTS] internally. When the transmission of data frames stops, the EIR[GRA] (graceful stop complete) interrupt asserts. Following EIR[GRA] assertion, the pause frame is transmitted. On completion of pause frame transmission, flow control pause (TCR[TFC_PAUSE]) and TCR[GTS] are deasserted internally.

During pause frame transmission, the transmit hardware places data into the transmit data stream from the registers shown in the table below.

Table 31-51. Transmit Pause Frame Registers

The user must specify the desired pause duration in the OPD register.

Note that when the transmitter is paused due to receiver/microcontroller pause frame detection, transmit flow control pause (TCR[TFC_PAUSE]) still may be asserted and will cause the transmission of a single pause frame. In this case, the EIR[GRA] interrupt will not be asserted.

31.4.9 Inter-Packet Gap (IPG) Time

The minimum inter-packet gap time for back-to-back transmission is 96 bit times. After completing a transmission or after the backoff algorithm completes, the transmitter waits for carrier sense to be negated before starting its 96 bit time IPG counter. Frame transmission may begin 96 bit times after carrier sense is negated if it stays negated for at least 60 bit times. If carrier sense asserts during the last 36 bit times, it will be ignored and a collision will occur.

The receiver receives back-to-back frames with a minimum spacing of at least 28 bit times. If an IPG between receive frames is less than 28 bit times, the following frame may be discarded by the receiver.

31.4.10 Collision Handling

If a collision occurs during frame transmission, the Ethernet controller will continue the transmission for at least 32 bit times, transmitting a JAM pattern consisting of 32 ones. If the collision occurs during the preamble sequence, the JAM pattern will be sent after the end of the preamble sequence.

If a collision occurs within 512 bit times, the retry process is initiated. The transmitter waits a random number of slot times. A slot time is 512 bit times. If a collision occurs after 512 bit times, then no retransmission is performed and the EIR[LC] bit is set.

31.4.11 Internal and External Loopback

Both internal and external loopback are supported by the Ethernet controller. In loopback mode, both of the FIFOs are used and the FEC actually operates in a full-duplex fashion. Both internal and external loopback are configured using combinations of the LOOP and DRT bits in the RCR register and the FDEN bit in the TCR register.

For both internal and external loopback set $FDEN = 1$.

For internal loopback set RCR[LOOP] = 1 and RCR[DRT] = 0. ETXEN and ETXER will not assert during internal loopback. During internal loopback, the transmit/receive data rate is higher than in normal operation because the internal system clock is used by the transmit and receive blocks instead of the clocks from the external transceiver. This will cause an increase in the required system bus bandwidth for transmit and receive data being DMA'd to/from external memory. It may be necessary to pace the frames on the

transmit side and/or limit the size of the frames to prevent transmit FIFO underrun and receive FIFO overflow.

For external loopback set $RCR[LOOP] = 0$, $RCR[DRT] = 0$ and configure the external transceiver for loopback.

31.4.12 Ethernet Error-Handling Procedure

The Ethernet controller reports frame reception and transmission error conditions using the receive frame status words (RFSWs), the EIR register, and the MIB block counters.

31.4.12.1 Transmission Errors

31.4.12.1.1 Transmitter Underrun

If this error occurs, the FEC sends 32 bits that ensure a CRC error and stops transmitting. The XFUN bit is set in the EIR. The FEC will then continue to the next transmit buffer descriptor and begin transmitting the next frame.

The XFUN interrupt will be asserted if enabled in the EIMR register.

31.4.12.1.2 Retransmission Attempts Limit Expired

When this error occurs, the FEC terminates transmission. The RL bit is set in the EIR. The FEC will then begin transmitting the next frame.

The "RL" interrupt will be asserted if enabled in the EIMR register.

31.4.12.1.3 Late Collision

When a collision occurs after the slot time (512 bits starting at the Preamble), the FEC terminates transmission. All remaining data in the frame is discarded, and the LC bit is set in the EIR register. The FEC will then continue to the next transmit buffer descriptor and begin transmitting the next frame.

The "LC" interrupt will be asserted if enabled in the EIMR register.

31.4.12.1.4 Heartbeat

Some transceivers have a self-test feature called "heartbeat" or "signal quality error." To signify a good self-test, the transceiver indicates a collision to the FEC within 4 microseconds after completion of a frame transmitted by the Ethernet controller. This indication of a collision does not imply a real collision error on the network, but is rather an indication that the transceiver still seems to be functioning properly. This is called the heartbeat condition.

If the HBC bit is set in the TCR register and the heartbeat condition is not detected by the **FEC** after a frame transmission, then a heartbeat error occurs. When this error occurs, the FEC generates the HBERR interrupt if it is enabled.

31.4.12.2 Reception Errors

31.4.12.2.1 Overrun Error

If the receive block has data to put into the receive FIFO and the receive FIFO is full, the FEC sets the OV bit in the receive frame status word (RFSW). All subsequent data in the frame will be discarded and subsequent frames may also be discarded until the receive FIFO is serviced by the DMA and space is made available. At this point the RFSW is written into the FIFO with the OV bit set. This frame must be discarded by the driver.

31.4.12.2.2 Non-Octet Error (Dribbling Bits)

The Ethernet controller handles up to seven dribbling bits when the receive frame terminates past a non-octet aligned boundary. Dribbling bits are not used in the CRC calculation. If there is a CRC error, then the frame non-octet aligned (NO) error is reported in the RFSW. If there is no CRC error, then no error is reported.

31.4.12.2.3 CRC Error

When a CRC error occurs with no dribble bits, the FEC closes the buffer and sets the CR bit in the RFSW. CRC checking cannot be disabled, but the CRC error can be ignored if checking is not required.

31.4.12.2.4 Frame Length Violation

When the receive frame length exceeds MAX_FL bytes the BABR interrupt will be generated, and the LG bit in the RFSW will be set. The frame is not truncated unless the frame length exceeds 2047 bytes).

31.4.12.2.5 Truncation

When the receive frame length exceeds 2047 bytes the frame is truncated and the TR bit is set in the RFSW.

31.4.13 MII Data Frame

Ethernet/802.3 data frames transmitted across the MII have the following format:

<*inter-frame*><*preamble*><*sfd*><*data*><*efd*>

The *inter-frame* period is an unspecified amount of time during which no data activity occurs on the MII. The de-assertion of ERXDV and ETXEN indicate the absence of data activity.

The preamble begins a frame and has a bit value of the following:

10101010 10101010 10101010 10101010 10101010 10101010 10101010

The left-most 1 represents the LSB of the byte.

The *start of frame delimiter* (sfd) represents the start of a frame and has the bit value, 10101011.

The *data* portion of the frame consists of N octets which corresponds to 2N nibbles being transmitted. The order of each nibble is defined in the figure below.

Figure 31-42. MII Nibble/Octet to Octet/Nibble Mapping

The *End-of-Frame* delimiter is indicated by the de-assertion of the ETXEN signal for data on ETXD. For data on ERXD, the de-assertion of ERXDV constitutes an End-of-Frame delimiter.

31.4.14 MII Management Frame Structure

A transceiver management frame being transmitted on the MII management interface uses the EMDIO and EMDC signals. A transaction or frame on this serial interface has the following format:

<*preamble*><*st*><*op*><*phyad*><*regad*><*ta*><*data*><*idle*>

The (optional) *preamble* consists of a sequence of 32 continuous logic 1's.

The *start of frame* (st), is indicated by a $\langle 01 \rangle$ pattern.

The operation code (op) for a read instruction is <10>. For a write operation, the operation code is <01>.

The physical address (*phyad*) is a five bit field which allows for up to 32 PHYs to be addressed. The first address bit transmitted is the MSB of the address.

The register address (*regad*) is a five bit field which allows for 32 registers to be addressed within the each PHY. The first register bit transmitted is the MSB of the address.

The turnaround (*ta*) field is a two bit field which provides spacing between the register address field and the data field to avoid contention on the EMDIO signal during a read operation.

The *data* field is 16 bits wide. The first data bit transmitted and received is data bit 15.

During *idle* condition, EMDIO is in the high impedance state.

The MII management register set located in the PHY may consist of a basic register set and an extended register set as defined below.

Register Addr.	Register Name	Basic/Extended
	Control	
	Status	
2.3	PHY Identifier	

Table 31-52. MII Management Register Set

Functional Description

Part V Mechanical

[Part V](#page-988-0) provides mechanical descriptions of the MCF548*x*.

Contents

• [Chapter 32, "Mechanical Data,](#page-990-0)" provides a functional pin listing and package diagram for the MCF548*x*.

This chapter contains drawings showing the pinout, packaging, and mechanical characteristics of the MCF548*x*. See the website<http://www.freescale.com/coldfire> for any updated information.

32.1 Package

The MCF548*x* is assembled in a 388-pin, thermally enhanced plastic BGA package.

32.2 Pinout

The MCF548*x* pinout is detailed in [Table 32-1,](#page-990-1) including the primary and alternate functions of multiplexed signals.

PBGA Pin	Pin Functions			PBGA		Pin Functions			
	Primary	GPIO	Secondary	Tertiary	Pin	Primary	GPIO	Secondary	Tertiary
A1	SDVDD				P ₁	SDCS ₁			
A2	VSS				P ₂	SDCS ₂			
A ₃	SDDM2		$\overline{}$		P ₃	SD_VDD	$\overline{}$		
A4	SDDATA23				P ₄	IVDD			
A ₅	SDDATA24				P ₁₁	VSS			
A ₆	SDDATA27		$\overline{}$		P ₁₂	VSS			
A7	SDDQS3				P ₁₃	VSS			
A ₈	SDDATA29		$\overline{}$		P ₁₄	VSS			
A ₉	SDADDR0		$\overline{}$		P ₁₅	VSS			
A10	SDADDR3				P ₁₆	VSS			
A11	SDADDR7				P ₂₃	PCIAD ₁₉	$\overline{}$	FBADDR19	
A12	SDADDR11				P ₂₄	PCIAD ₂₀	$\overline{}$	FBADDR20	
A13	SDADDR12		$\overline{}$		P ₂₅	PCIAD18		FBADDR18	
A14	IRQ5	PIRQ5	CANRX1		P ₂₆	PCIAD21		FBADDR21	
A15	DSI		TDI		R1	FBCS ₅	PFBCS5		
A16	TCK		$\overline{}$		R2	SDCS3			
A17	CLKIN		$\overline{}$		R ₃	EVDD			
A18	MTMOD1		—		R4	VSS			
A19	PLLVDD		—		R ₁₁	VSS			
A20	RSTO				R ₁₂	VSS			
A21	PSTDDATA1				R ₁₃	VSS			

Table 32-1. MCF5485/MCF5484 Signal Description by Pin Number

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 1 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5483 and MCF5482 devices.

 2 This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices. On MCF5485, MCF5484, MCF5483, and MCF5482 device the pin should be connected to the appriopriate power rail even is USB is not being used.

³ This pin is a "no connect" on the MCF5481 and MCF5480 devices.

32.3 Mechanical Diagrams

32.3.1 MCF5485/5484 Mechanical Diagram

[Figure 32-1](#page-997-0)[–Figure 32-4](#page-1000-0) show the pinout for the each quadrant of the MCF5485/MCF5484 388 PBGA package. [Figure 32-1](#page-997-0) shows the pinout for the upper left quadrant.

Figure 32-1. MCF5485/5484 Upper Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-2](#page-998-0) shows the pinout for the upper right quadrant of the MCF5485/MCF5484 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-2. MCF5485/5484 Upper Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-3](#page-999-0) shows the pinout for the lower left quadrant of the MCF5485/MCF5484 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-3. MCF5485/5484 Lower Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-4](#page-1000-0) shows the pinout for the lower left quadrant of the MCF5485/MCF5484 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-4. MCF5485/5484 Lower Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

32.3.2 MCF5483/5482 Mechanical Diagram

[Figure 32-5](#page-1001-0)[–Figure 32-8](#page-1004-0) show the pinout for the each quadrant of the MCF5483/MCF5482 388 PBGA package. [Figure 32-5](#page-1001-0) shows the pinout for the upper left quadrant.

Figure 32-5. MCF5483/5482 Upper Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

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[Figure 32-6](#page-1002-0) shows the pinout for the upper right quadrant of the MCF5483/MCF5482 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-6. MCF5483/5482 Upper Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-7](#page-1003-0) shows the pinout for the lower left quadrant of the MCF5483/MCF5482 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-7. MCF5483/5482 Lower Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-8](#page-1004-0) shows the pinout for the lower left quadrant of the MCF5483/MCF5482 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-8. MCF5483/5482 Lower Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

32.4 MCF5481/5480 Mechanical Diagram

[Figure 32-9](#page-1005-0)[–Figure 32-12](#page-1008-0) show the pinout for the each quadrant of the MCF5481/MCF5480 388 PBGA package. [Figure 32-9](#page-1005-0) shows the pinout for the upper left quadrant.

Figure 32-9. MCF5481/5480 Upper Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)


```
MCF5481/5480 Mechanical Diagram
```
[Figure 32-10](#page-1006-0) shows the pinout for the upper right quadrant of the MCF5481/MCF5480 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-10. MCF5481/5480 Upper Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

Figure 32-11. MCF5481/5480 Lower Left Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

[Figure 32-12](#page-1008-0) shows the pinout for the lower left quadrant of the MCF5481/MCF5480 pinout for the 388 PBGA package.

Figure 32-12. MCF5481/5480 Lower Right Quadrant Pinout (388 PBGA)

32.5 Mechanicals 388-pin PBGA Package Outline

[Figure 32-13](#page-1009-0) shows the MCF548*x* case drawing.

Figure 32-13. 388-pin BGA Case Outline

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Appendix A MCF548x Memory Map

[Table A-1](#page-1010-0) lists an overview of the memory map for the on-chip modules.

Table A-1. MCF548x Module Memory Map Overview (continued)

Table A-1. MCF548x Module Memory Map Overview (continued)

NOTE

Read and write accesses to reserved MBAR spaces will result in undefined behavior that may result in a non-terminated bus cycle. This applies to the reserved locations between modules and the reserved locations within valid module address ranges.

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