

# **ADSP-2126x SHARC<sup>®</sup> Processor Hardware Reference**

***Includes ADSP-21261, ADSP-21262  
ADSP-21266, ADSP-21267***

Revision 5.1, April 2013

Part Number  
82-002002-01

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## INTERRUPT VECTOR ADDRESSES

## GLOSSARY

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# Contents

# PREFACE

Thank you for purchasing and developing systems using SHARC® processors from Analog Devices.

## Purpose of This Manual

*ADSP-2126x SHARC Processor Hardware Reference* contains information about the DSP architecture and DSP assembly language for SHARC processors. These are 32-bit, fixed- and floating-point digital signal processors from Analog Devices for use in computing, communications, and consumer applications.

The manual provides information on how assembly instructions execute on the ADSP-2126x processor's architecture along with reference information about DSP operations.

## Intended Audience

The primary audience for this manual is a programmer who is familiar with Analog Devices processors. The manual assumes the audience has a working knowledge of the appropriate processor architecture and instruction set. Programmers who are unfamiliar with Analog Devices processors can use this manual, but should supplement it with other texts, such as hardware and programming reference manuals that describe their target architecture.

# Manual Contents

The manual consists of:

- Chapter 1, “[Introduction](#)”  
Provides an architectural overview of the ADSP-2126x processor.
- Chapter 2, “[Processing Elements](#)”  
Describes the arithmetic/logic units (ALUs), multiplier/accumulator units, and shifter. The chapter also discusses data formats, data types, and register files.
- Chapter 3, “[Program Sequencer](#)”  
Describes the operation of the program sequencer, which controls program flow by providing the address of the next instruction to be executed. The chapter also discusses loops, subroutines, jumps, interrupts, exceptions, and the IDLE instruction.
- Chapter 4, “[Data Address Generators](#)”  
Describes the Data Address Generators (DAGs), addressing modes, how to modify DAG and pointer registers, memory address alignment, and DAG instructions.
- Chapter 5, “[Memory](#)”  
Describes all aspects of processor memory including internal memory, address and data bus structure, and memory accesses.
- Chapter 6, “[JTAG Test Emulation Port](#)”  
Discusses the JTAG standard and how to use the ADSP-2126x in a test environment. Includes boundary-scan architecture, instruction, and breakpoint registers.
- Chapter 7, “[I/O Processor](#)”  
Describes ADSP-2126x input/output processor architecture.



- Chapter 8, “[Parallel Port](#)”  
Describes the processor’s on-chip DMA controller as a mechanism for transferring data without core interruption.
- Chapter 9, “[Serial Ports](#)”  
Describes the six dual data line serial ports. Each SPORT contains a clock, a frame sync, and two data lines that can be configured as either a receiver or transmitter pair.
- Chapter 10, “[Serial Peripheral Interface Port](#)”  
Describes the operation of the SPI port. SPI devices communicate using a master-slave relationship and can achieve high data transfer rate because they can operate in full-duplex mode.
- Chapter 11, “[Input Data Port](#)”  
Discusses the function of the input data port (IDP) which provides a low overhead method of routing signal routing unit (SRU) signals back to the core’s memory.
- Chapter 12, “[Digital Audio Interface](#)”  
Provides information about the digital audio interface (DAI) which allows you to attach an arbitrary number and variety of peripherals to the ADSP-2126x while retaining high levels of compatibility.
- Chapter 13, “[Precision Clock Generator](#)”  
Details the precision clock generators (PCG) each of which generates a pair of signals derived from a clock input signal.
- Chapter 14, “[Peripheral Timer](#)”  
Describes the three general purpose timers that can be configured in any of three modes: pulsewidth modulation, pulsewidth count and capture, and external event watchdog modes.
- Chapter 15, “[System Design](#)”  
Describes system features of the ADSP-2126x processor. These include power, reset, clock, JTAG, and booting, as well as pin descriptions and other system level information.

## What's New in This Manual

- Appendix A, “[Registers Reference](#)”  
Provides ‘at-a-glance’ register figures and bit descriptions.
- Appendix B, “[Interrupt Vector Addresses](#)”

## What's New in This Manual

This manual is Revision 5.1 of *ADSP-2126x SHARC Processor Hardware Reference*. This revision corrects minor typographical errors and the following issues:

- Active low signals represented correctly in equations for ALU conditions in [Chapter 3, “Program Sequencer”](#).
- Bit 0 descriptions for the STYKx and STYKy registers in [Appendix A, “Registers Reference”](#).

## Technical Support

You can reach Analog Devices processors and DSP technical support in the following ways:

- Post your questions in the processors and DSP support community at [EngineerZone<sup>®</sup>](#):  
<http://ez.analog.com/community/dsp>
- Submit your questions to technical support directly at:  
<http://www.analog.com/support>
- E-mail your questions about processors, DSPs, and tools development software from [CrossCore<sup>®</sup> Embedded Studio](#) or [VisualDSP++<sup>®</sup>](#):

Choose **Help > Email Support**. This creates an e-mail to [processor.tools.support@analog.com](mailto:processor.tools.support@analog.com) and automatically attaches your **CrossCore Embedded Studio** or **VisualDSP++** version information and `license.dat` file.

- E-mail your questions about processors and processor applications to:  
[processor.support@analog.com](mailto:processor.support@analog.com) or  
[processor.china@analog.com](mailto:processor.china@analog.com) (Greater China support)
- In the **USA only**, call **1-800-ANALOGD** (1-800-262-5643)
- Contact your Analog Devices sales office or authorized distributor. Locate one at:  
[www.analog.com/adi-sales](http://www.analog.com/adi-sales)
- Send questions by mail to:  
Processors and DSP Technical Support  
Analog Devices, Inc.  
Three Technology Way  
P.O. Box 9106  
Norwood, MA 02062-9106  
USA

## Supported Processors

The name “*SHARC*” refers to a family of high-performance, floating-point embedded processors. Refer to the CCES or VisualDSP++ online help for a complete list of supported processors.

## Product Information

Product information can be obtained from the Analog Devices Web site and the CCES or VisualDSP++ online help.

### Analog Devices Web Site

The Analog Devices Web site, [www.analog.com](http://www.analog.com), provides information about a broad range of products—analog integrated circuits, amplifiers, converters, and digital signal processors.

To access a complete technical library for each processor family, go to [http://www.analog.com/processors/technical\\_library](http://www.analog.com/processors/technical_library). The manuals selection opens a list of current manuals related to the product as well as a link to the previous revisions of the manuals. When locating your manual title, note a possible errata check mark next to the title that leads to the current correction report against the manual.

Also note, [myAnalog](#) is a free feature of the Analog Devices Web site that allows customization of a Web page to display only the latest information about products you are interested in. You can choose to receive weekly e-mail notifications containing updates to the Web pages that meet your interests, including documentation errata against all manuals. [myAnalog](#) provides access to books, application notes, data sheets, code examples, and more.

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### EngineerZone

EngineerZone is a technical support forum from Analog Devices, Inc. It allows you direct access to ADI technical support engineers. You can search FAQs and technical information to get quick answers to your embedded processing and DSP design questions.

Use EngineerZone to connect with other DSP developers who face similar design challenges. You can also use this open forum to share knowledge and collaborate with the ADI support team and your peers. Visit <http://ez.analog.com> to sign up.


## Notation Conventions

Text conventions in this manual are identified and described as follows.

Example	Description
<b>File &gt; Close</b>	Titles in reference sections indicate the location of an item within the IDE environment's menu system (for example, the <b>Close</b> command appears on the <b>File</b> menu).
{this   that}	Alternative required items in syntax descriptions appear within curly brackets and separated by vertical bars; read the example as <i>this</i> or <i>that</i> . One or the other is required.
[this   that]	Optional items in syntax descriptions appear within brackets and separated by vertical bars; read the example as an optional <i>this</i> or <i>that</i> .
[this,...]	Optional item lists in syntax descriptions appear within brackets delimited by commas and terminated with an ellipsis; read the example as an optional comma-separated list of <i>this</i> .
.SECTION	Commands, directives, keywords, and feature names are in text with letter gothic font.
<i>filename</i>	Non-keyword placeholders appear in text with italic style format.
	<b>Note:</b> For correct operation, ... A Note provides supplementary information on a related topic. In the online version of this book, the word <b>Note</b> appears instead of this symbol.
	<b>Caution:</b> Incorrect device operation may result if ... <b>Caution:</b> Device damage may result if ... A Caution identifies conditions or inappropriate usage of the product that could lead to undesirable results or product damage. In the online version of this book, the word <b>Caution</b> appears instead of this symbol.
	<b>Warning:</b> Injury to device users may result if ... A Warning identifies conditions or inappropriate usage of the product that could lead to conditions that are potentially hazardous for devices users. In the online version of this book, the word <b>Warning</b> appears instead of this symbol.

# Register Diagram Conventions

Register diagrams use the following conventions:

- The descriptive name of the register appears at the top, followed by the short form of the name in parentheses.
  - If the register is read-only (RO), write-1-to-set (W1S), or write-1-to-clear (W1C), this information appears under the name. Read/write is the default and is not noted. Additional descriptive text may follow.
  - If any bits in the register do not follow the overall read/write convention, this is noted in the bit description after the bit name.
  - If a bit has a short name, the short name appears first in the bit description, followed by the long name in parentheses.
  - The reset value appears in binary in the individual bits and in hexadecimal to the right of the register.
  - Bits marked *x* have an unknown reset value. Consequently, the reset value of registers that contain such bits is undefined or dependent on pin values at reset.
  - Shaded bits are reserved.
-  To ensure upward compatibility with future implementations, write back the value that is read for reserved bits in a register, unless otherwise specified.

The following figure shows an example of these conventions.

**Timer Configuration Registers (TIMERx\_CONFIG)**

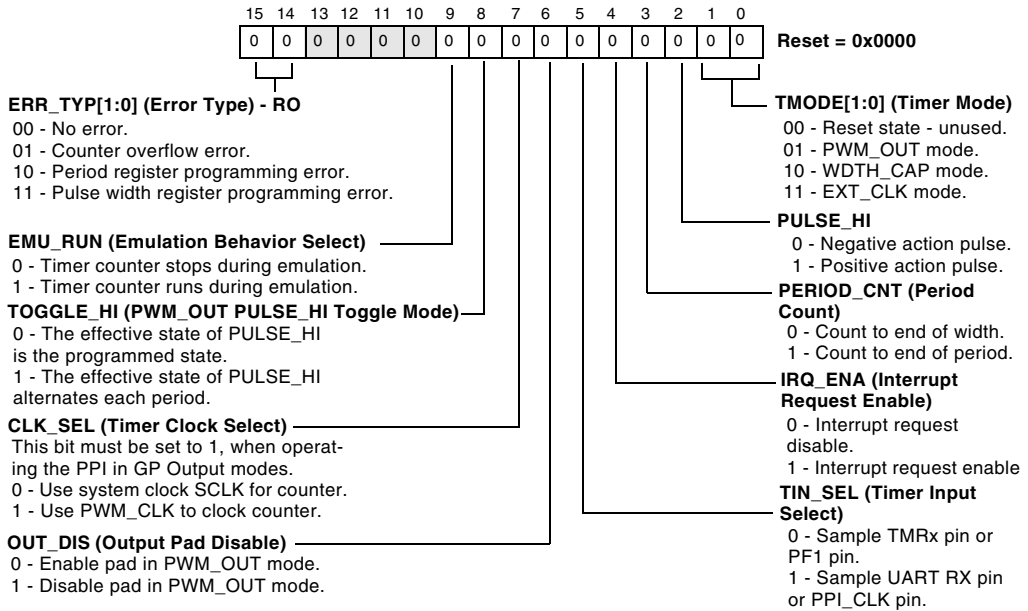



Figure 1. Register Diagram Example

## Register Diagram Conventions



# 1 INTRODUCTION

A digital signal processor's data format determines its ability to handle signals of differing precision, dynamic range, and signal-to-noise ratios. Because floating-point DSP math reduces the need for scaling and probability of overflow, using a floating-point DSP can ease algorithm and software development. The extent to which this is true depends on the floating-point processor's architecture. Consistency with IEEE workstation simulations and the elimination of scaling are clearly two ease-of-use advantages. High-level language programmability, large address spaces, and wide dynamic range allow system development time to be spent on algorithms and signal processing concerns, rather than assembly language coding, code paging, and error handling. The ADSP-2126x processors are highly integrated, lower cost 32-bit floating-point DSPs which provide many of these design advantages.

 For brevity, the ADSP-21262, ADSP-21266 and ADSP-21267 SHARC processors will be referred to as the ADAP-2126x. For instances where functionality applies to one or the other processor specifically, it will be noted in the text.

## Design Advantages

The ADSP-2126x is a high-performance 32-bit processor used for medical imaging, communications, military, audio, test equipment, 3D graphics, speech recognition, motor control, imaging, and other applications. By adding a dual-ported on-chip SRAM, integrated I/O peripherals, and an additional processing element for Single-Instruction Multiple-Data

## Design Advantages

(SIMD) support, this processor builds on the ADSP-21000 Family processor core to form a complete system-on-a-chip.

The SHARC processor architecture balances a high performance processor core with high performance buses (PM, DM, I/O). In the core, every instruction can execute in a single cycle. The buses and instruction cache provide rapid, unimpeded data flow to the core to maintain the execution rate. The processor contains the following architectural features:

- Two processing elements (PE<sub>x</sub> and PE<sub>y</sub>), each containing 32-bit IEEE floating-point computation units—multiplier, ALU, shifter, and data register file
- Program sequencer with related instruction cache, interval timer, and Data Address Generators (DAG1 and DAG2)
- Dual-ported SRAM
- Input/Output (I/O) processor with integrated DMA controller, SPI-compatible port, and serial ports for point-to-point multiprocessor communications
- JTAG Test Access Port for emulation
- Parallel port for interfacing to off-chip memory and peripherals

The processor also contains three on-chip buses: the Program Memory (PM) bus, Data Memory (DM) bus, and Input/Output (I/O) bus. The PM bus provides access to either instructions or data. During a single cycle, these buses let the processor access two data operands from memory, access an instruction (from the cache), and perform a DMA transfer.

Further, the ADSP-2126x processor addresses the five central requirements for DSPs:

- Fast, flexible arithmetic computation units
- Unconstrained data flow to and from the computation units

- Extended precision and dynamic range in the computation units
- Dual address generators with circular buffering support
- Efficient program sequencing

**Fast, Flexible Arithmetic.** The ADSP-21000 family processors execute all instructions in a single cycle. They provide fast cycle times and a complete set of arithmetic operations. The processor is IEEE floating-point compatible and allows either interrupt on arithmetic exception or latched status exception handling.

**Unconstrained Data Flow.** The ADSP-2126x processor has a Super Harvard Architecture combined with a ten-port data register file. In every cycle, the processor can write or read two operands to or from the register file, supply two operands to the ALU, supply two operands to the multiplier, and receive three results from the ALU and multiplier. The processor's 48-bit orthogonal instruction word supports parallel data transfers and arithmetic operations in the same instruction.

**40-Bit Extended-Precision.** The processor handles 32-bit IEEE floating-point format, 32-bit integer and fractional formats (twos-complement and unsigned), and extended-precision 40-bit floating-point format. The processors carry extended precision throughout their computation units, limiting intermediate data truncation errors (up to 80 bits of precision are maintained during multiply-accumulate operations).

**Dual Address Generators.** The processor has two Data Address Generators (DAGs) that provide immediate or indirect (pre- and post-modify) addressing. Modulus, bit-reverse, and broadcast operations are supported with no constraints on data buffer placement.

**Efficient Program Sequencing.** In addition to zero-overhead loops, the processor supports single-cycle setup and exit for loops. Loops are both nestable (six levels in hardware) and interruptible. The processors support both delayed and non-delayed branches.

## Architectural Overview

**High Bandwidth I/O.** The processors contain up to a dedicated, 4M bits on-chip ROM, a parallel port, an SPI port, serial ports, Digital Audio Interface (DAI), and JTAG. The DAI incorporates a precision clock generator, input data port, and a signal routing unit.

**Serial Ports.** Provides an inexpensive interface to a wide variety of digital and mixed-signal peripheral devices. The serial ports can operate at up to half the processor core clock (CCLK) rate.

**Digital Audio Interface (DAI).** The DAI includes a precision clock generator, an input data port and a signal routing unit.

**Input Data Port (IDP).** The IDP provides an additional input path to the processor core configurable as eight channels of serial data or seven channels of serial data and a single channel of up to 20-bit wide parallel data.

**Signal Routing Unit (SRU).** Provides configuration flexibility by allowing software-programmable connections to be made between the DAI components, serial ports, three pulse-width modulation (PWM) timers, and 20 DAI pins.

**Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI).** The SPI provides master or slave serial boot through SPI, full-duplex operation, master-slave mode multi-master support, open drain outputs, Programmable baud rates, clock polarities, and phases.

**I/O Processor (IOP).** The IOP manages the SHARC processor's off-chip data I/O to alleviate the core of this burden. This unit manages the other processor peripherals such as the SPI, DAI, and IDP as well as direct memory accesses (DMA).

## Architectural Overview

The ADSP-2126x forms a complete system-on-a-chip, integrating a large, high-speed SRAM and I/O peripherals supported by a dedicated I/O bus.

The following sections summarize the features of each functional block in the ADSP-2126x architecture.

### Processor Core

The processor core of the ADSP-2126x consists of two processing elements (each with three computation units and data register file), a program sequencer, two data address generators, a timer, and an instruction cache. All digital signal processing occurs in the processor core.

### Processing Elements

The processor core contains two processing elements: PEx and PEy. Each element contains a data register file and three independent computation units: an arithmetic logic unit (ALU), a multiplier with an 80-bit fixed-point accumulator, and a shifter. For meeting a wide variety of processing needs, the computation units process data in three formats: 32-bit fixed-point, 32-bit floating-point, and 40-bit floating-point. The floating-point operations are single-precision IEEE-compatible. The 32-bit floating-point format is the standard IEEE format, whereas the 40-bit extended-precision format has eight additional Least Significant Bits (LSBs) of mantissa for greater accuracy.

The ALU performs a set of arithmetic and logic operations on both fixed-point and floating-point formats. The multiplier performs floating-point or fixed-point multiplication and fixed-point multiply/accumulate or multiply/cumulative-subtract operations. The shifter performs logical and arithmetic shifts, bit manipulation, bit-wise field deposit and extraction, and exponent derivation operations on 32-bit operands. These computation units complete all operations in a single cycle; there is no computation pipeline. The output of any unit may serve as the input of any unit on the next cycle. All units are connected in parallel, rather than serially. In a multifunction computation, the ALU and multiplier perform independent, simultaneous operations.

## Architectural Overview

Each processing element has a general-purpose data register file that transfers data between the computation units and the data buses and stores intermediate results. A register file has two sets (primary and secondary) of 16 general-purpose registers each for fast context switching. All of the registers are 40 bits wide. The register file, combined with the core processor's Super Harvard Architecture, allows unconstrained data flow between computation units and internal memory.

**Primary Processing Element (PE<sub>x</sub>).** PE<sub>x</sub> processes all computational instructions whether the DSP is in Single-Instruction, Single-Data (SISD) or Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode. This element corresponds to the computational units and register file in previous ADSP-21000 family DSPs.

**Secondary Processing Element (PE<sub>y</sub>).** PE<sub>y</sub> processes each computational instruction in lock-step with PE<sub>x</sub>, but only processes these instructions when the DSP is in SIMD mode. Because many operations are influenced by this mode, more information on SIMD is available in multiple locations:

- For information on PE<sub>y</sub> operations, see [“Processing Elements” on page 2-1](#).
- For information on data addressing in SIMD mode, see [“Addressing in SISD and SIMD Modes” on page 4-18](#).
- For information on data accesses in SIMD mode, see [“SISD, SIMD, and Broadcast Load Modes” on page 5-28](#).
- For information on SIMD programming, see *ADSP-21160 SHARC DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

## Program Sequence Control

Internal controls for ADSP-2126x program execution come from four functional blocks: program sequencer, data address generators, core timer, and instruction cache. Two dedicated address generators and a program

sequencer supply addresses for memory accesses. Together the sequencer and data address generators allow computational operations to execute with maximum efficiency since the computation units can be devoted exclusively to processing data. With its instruction cache, the ADSP-2126x can simultaneously fetch an instruction from the cache and access two data operands from memory. The DAGs also provide built-in support for zero-overhead circular buffering.

**Program Sequencer.** The program sequencer supplies instruction addresses to program memory. It controls loop iterations and evaluates conditional instructions. With an internal loop counter and loop stack, the ADSP-2126x executes looped code with zero overhead. No explicit jump instructions are required to loop or to decrement and test the counter. To achieve a high execution rate while maintaining a simple programming model, the DSP employs a three stage pipeline to process instructions—fetch, decode, and execute cycles.

**Data Address Generators.** The DAGs provide memory addresses when data is transferred between memory and registers. Dual data address generators enable the processor to output simultaneous addresses for two operand reads or writes. DAG1 supplies 32-bit addresses for accesses using the DM bus. DAG2 supplies 32-bit addresses for memory accesses over the PM bus.

Each DAG keeps track of up to eight address pointers, eight address modifiers, and for circular buffering eight base-address registers and eight buffer-length registers. A pointer used for indirect addressing can be modified by a value in a specified register, either before (pre-modify) or after (post-modify) the access. A length value may be associated with each pointer to perform automatic modulo addressing for circular data buffers. The circular buffers can be located at arbitrary boundaries in memory. Each DAG register has a secondary register that can be activated for fast context switching.

Circular buffers allow efficient implementation of delay lines and other data structures required in digital signal processing. They are also

commonly used in digital filters and Fourier transforms. The DAGs automatically handle address pointer wraparound, reducing overhead, increasing performance, and simplifying implementation.

**Interrupts.** The ADSP-2126x has three external hardware interrupts. The processor also provides three general-purpose interrupts, and a special interrupt for reset. The processor has internally-generated interrupts for the timer, DMA controller operations, circular buffer overflow, stack overflows, arithmetic exceptions, and user-defined software interrupts.

For the general-purpose interrupts and the internal timer interrupt, the ADSP-2126x automatically stacks the arithmetic status (ASTAT<sub>x</sub>) register and mode (MODE1) registers in parallel with the interrupt servicing, allowing 15 nesting levels of very fast service for these interrupts.

**Context Switch.** Many of the processor's registers have secondary registers that can be activated during interrupt servicing for a fast context switch. The data registers in the register file, the DAG registers, and the multiplier result register all have secondary registers. The primary registers are active at reset, while the secondary registers are activated by control bits in a mode control register.

**Timer.** The core's programmable interval timer provides periodic interrupt generation. When enabled, the timer decrements a 32-bit count register every cycle. When this count register reaches zero, the ADSP-2126x generates an interrupt and asserts its timer expired output. The count register is automatically reloaded from a 32-bit period register and the countdown resumes immediately.

**Instruction Cache.** The program sequencer includes a 32-word instruction cache that effectively provides three-bus operation for fetching an instruction and two data values. The cache is selective; only instructions whose fetches conflict with data accesses using the PM bus are cached. This caching allows full speed execution of core, looped operations such as digital filter multiply-accumulates, and FFT butterfly processing. For more information on the cache, refer to [“Using the Cache” on page 3-8](#).



## Processor Internal Buses

The processor core has six buses: PM address, PM data, DM address, DM data, I/O address, and I/O data. The PM bus is used to fetch instructions from memory, but may also be used to fetch data. The DM bus can only be used to fetch data from memory. The I/O bus is used solely by the IOP to facilitate DMA transfers. In conjunction with the cache, this Super Harvard Architecture allows the core to fetch an instruction and two pieces of data in the same cycle that a data word is moved between memory and a peripheral. This architecture allows dual data fetches, when the instruction is supplied by the cache.

**Bus Capacities.** The PM and DM address buses are both 32 bits wide, while the PM and DM data buses are both 64 bits wide.

These two buses provide a path for the contents of any register in the processor to be transferred to any other register or to any data memory location in a single cycle. When fetching data over the PM or DM bus, the address comes from one of two sources: an absolute value specified in the instruction (direct addressing) or the output of a data address generator (indirect addressing). These two buses share the same port of the dual-ported memory.

The second port of the dual-ported memory is dedicated to the I/O address bus and the I/O data bus to let the I/O processor access internal memory for DMA without delaying the processor core. The I/O address bus is 19 bits wide, and the I/O data bus is 32 bits wide.

**Data Transfers.** Nearly every register in the processor core is classified as a universal register (*Ureg*). Instructions allow the transfer of data between any two universal registers or between a universal register and memory. This support includes transfers between control registers, status registers, and data registers in the register file. The PM bus connect (*PX*) registers permit data to be passed between the 64-bit PM data bus and the 64-bit DM data bus, or between the 40-bit register file and the PM data bus.

These registers contain hardware to handle the data width difference. [For more information, see “Processing Element Registers” on page A-20.](#)

## Processor Peripherals

The term processor peripherals refers to the multiple on-chip functional blocks used to communicate with off-chip devices. The ADSP-2126x peripherals include the JTAG, Parallel, Serial, SPI ports, DAI components (PCG, Timers, and IDP), and any external devices that connect to the processor.

### Dual-Ported Internal Memory (SRAM)

The individual ADSP-2126x products contain varying amounts of memory. For example, the ADSP-21262 processor provides 2M bits of internal SRAM and 2M bits of internal ROM, each of which is organized as two blocks of 1M bit. Each memory block of SRAM is dual-ported for single cycle, independent accesses by the core processor and I/O processor. The dual-ported memory and separate on-chip buses allow two data transfers from the core and one from I/O, all in a single cycle.

All of the memory can be accessed as 16-, 32-, 48-, or 64-bit words. The amount of memory for each word size changes, based on the part number. On the ADSP-2126x processor, the memory can be configured as a maximum of 64K words of 32-bit data, 128K words of 16-bit data, 42K words of 48-bit instructions (and 40-bit data), or combinations of different word sizes up to 2M bits.

The processor also supports a 16-bit floating-point storage format, which effectively doubles the amount of data that may be stored on chip. Conversion between the 32-bit floating-point and 16-bit floating-point formats completes in a single instruction.

While each memory block can store combinations of code and data, accesses are most efficient when one block stores data, (using the DM bus for transfers), and the other block stores instructions and data, (using the

PM bus for transfers). Using the DM bus and PM bus in this way, with one dedicated to each memory block, assures single-cycle execution with two data transfers. In this case, the instruction must be available in the cache. The processor also maintains single-cycle execution when one of the data operands is transferred to or from off-chip, using the processor parallel port.

### I/O Processor

The ADSP-2126x Input/Output Processor (IOP) manages the SHARC processor's off-chip data I/O to alleviate the core of this burden. Up to 22 simultaneous DMA transfers (22 DMA channels) are supported for transfers between internal memory and serial ports (12), the input data port (IDP) (8), SPI port (1), and the parallel port. The I/O processor can perform DMA transfers between the peripherals and internal memory at the full core clock speed. The dual-ported architecture of the internal memory allows the IOP and the core to access internal memory simultaneously with no reduction in throughput.

**Serial Ports.** The ADSP-2126x processor features up to six synchronous serial ports that provide an inexpensive interface to a wide variety of digital and mixed-signal peripheral devices. The serial ports can operate at up to up to half of the processor core clock rate with maximum of 50M bits per second. Each serial port features two data pins that function as a pair based on the same serial clock and frame sync. Accordingly, each serial port has two DMA channels and serial data buffers associated with it to service the dual serial data pins. Programmable data direction provides greater flexibility for serial communications. Serial port data can automatically transfer to and from on-chip memory using DMA. Each of the serial ports offers a TDM multichannel mode (up to 128 channels) and supports  $\mu$ -law or A-law companding. I<sup>2</sup>S support is also provided.

The serial ports can operate with least significant bit first (LSBF) or most significant bit first (MSBF) transmission order, with word lengths from three to 32 bits. The serial ports offer selectable synchronization and

## Architectural Overview

transmit modes. Serial port clocks and frame syncs can be internally or externally generated.

**Parallel Port.** The ADSP-2126x parallel port provides the processor interface to asynchronous 8-bit memory. The parallel port supports a 66M bytes per second transfer rate and 256 word page boundaries. The on-chip DMA controller automatically packs external data into the appropriate word width during transfers.

The parallel port supports packing of 32-bit words into 8-bit or 16-bit external memory and programmable external data access duration from 3 to 32 clock cycles.

**Serial Peripheral (Compatible) Interface (SPI).** The ADSP-2126x SPI is an industry standard synchronous serial link that enables the SPI-compatible port to communicate with other SPI-compatible devices. SPI is an interface consisting of two data pins, one device select pin, and one clock pin. It is a full-duplex synchronous serial interface, supporting both master and slave modes. It can operate in a multi master environment by interfacing with up to four other SPI-compatible devices, either acting as a master or slave device.

The SPI-compatible peripheral implementation also supports programmable baud rate and clock phase/polarities, as well as the use of open drain drivers to support the multi master scenario to avoid data contention.

**ROM Based Security.** For ADSP-2126x processors with application code in the on-chip ROM, an optional ROM security feature is included. This feature provides hardware support for securing user software code by preventing unauthorized reading from the enabled code. The processor does not boot-load any external code, executing exclusively from internal ROM. The processor also is not freely accessible via the JTAG port. Instead, a 64-bit key is assigned to the user. This key must be scanned in through the JTAG or Test Access Port. The device ignores a wrong key. Emulation features and external boot modes are only available after the correct key is scanned.

### Digital Audio Interface (DAI)

The Digital Audio Interface (DAI) unit is a new addition to the SHARC processor peripherals. This set of audio peripherals consists of an interrupt controller, an interface data port, and a signal routing unit.

**Interrupt Controller.** The DAI contains its own interrupt controller that indicates to the core when DAI audio events have occurred. This interrupt controller offers up to 32 independently configurable channels.

**Input Data Port (IDP).** The input data port provides the DAI with a way to transmit data from within the DAI to the core. The IDP provides a means for up to eight additional DMA paths from the DAI into on-chip memory. All eight channels support 24-bit wide data and share a 16-deep FIFO.

**Signal Routing Unit (SRU).** Conceptually similar to a “patch-bay” or multiplexer, the SRU provides a group of registers that define the inter-connection of the serial ports, the interface data port, the DAI pins, and the precision clock generators.

### Development Tools

The processor is supported by a complete set of software and hardware development tools, including Analog Devices’ emulators and the Cross-Core Embedded Studio or VisualDSP++ development environment. (The emulator hardware that supports other Analog Devices processors also emulates the processor.)

The development environments support advanced application code development and debug with features such as:

- Create, compile, assemble, and link application programs written in C++, C, and assembly
- Load, run, step, halt, and set breakpoints in application programs

## Differences From Previous SHARCs

- Read and write data and program memory
- Read and write core and peripheral registers
- Plot memory

Analog Devices DSP emulators use the IEEE 1149.1 JTAG test access port to monitor and control the target board processor during emulation. The emulator provides full speed emulation, allowing inspection and modification of memory, registers, and processor stacks. Nonintrusive in-circuit emulation is assured by the use of the processor JTAG interface—the emulator does not affect target system loading or timing.

Software tools also include Board Support Packages (BSPs). Hardware tools also include standalone evaluation systems (boards and extenders). In addition to the software and hardware development tools available from Analog Devices, third parties provide a wide range of tools supporting the Blackfin processors. Third party software tools include DSP libraries, real-time operating systems, and block diagram design tools.

## Differences From Previous SHARCs

This section identifies differences between the ADSP-2126x processors and previous SHARC processors: ADSP-21161, ADSP-21160, ADSP-21060, ADSP-21061, ADSP-21062, and ADSP-21065L. Like the ADSP-2116x family, the ADSP-2126x family is based on the original ADSP-2106x SHARC family. The ADSP-2126x preserves much of the ADSP-2106x architecture and is code compatible to the ADSP-21160, while extending performance and functionality. For background information on SHARC processors and the ADSP-2106x Family processors, see *ADSP-2106x SHARC User's Manual* or *ADSP-21065L SHARC DSP Technical Reference*.

## Processor Core Enhancements

Computational bandwidth on the ADSP-2126x processor is significantly greater than that on the ADSP-2106x processors. The increase comes from raising the operational frequency and adding another processing element: ALU, shifter, multiplier, and register file. The new processing element lets the processor process multiple data streams in parallel (SIMD mode). The processor operates at 200 MHz using a three stage pipeline.

Like the ADSP-21160 processor, the program sequencer on the ADSP-2126x processor differs from the ADSP-2106x processor family, having several enhancements: new interrupt vector table definitions, SIMD mode stack and conditional execution model, and instruction decodes associated with new instructions. Interrupt vectors have been added that detect illegal memory accesses. Also, mode stack and mode mask support have been added to improve context switch time.

As with the ADSP-21160 processor, the DAGs on the ADSP-2126x processors differ from the ADSP-2106x processors in that DAG2 (for the PM bus) has the same addressing capability as DAG1 (for the DM bus). The DAG registers move 64 bits per cycle. Additionally, the DAGs support the new memory map and long word transfer capability. Circular buffering on the ADSP-2126x can be quickly disabled on interrupts and restored on the return. Data “broadcast”, from one memory location to both data register files, is determined by appropriate index register usage.

## Processor Internal Bus Changes

The I/O data buses on the ADSP-2126x processor have 32 bits which differs to the ADSP-2116x DSPs with 64 bits. Additional multiplexing and control logic enable 16-, 32-, or 64-bit wide moves between both register files and memory. The processor is capable of broadcasting a single memory location to each of the register files in parallel. Also, the processor permits register contents to be exchanged between the two processing elements' register files in a single cycle.

## Differences From Previous SHARCs

### Memory Organization Enhancements

The ADSP-2126x memory map differs from that of the ADSP-2106x DSPs. The system memory map supports double-word transfers each cycle, reflects extended internal memory capacity for derivative designs, and works with an updated control register for SIMD support. The ADSP-2126x family provides enough on-chip memory for several audio decoders.

### Parallel Port Enhancements

The parallel port differs from that of the ADSP-2106x DSPs. A new packing mode permits DMA for instructions and data to and from 8-bit external memory. The parallel port supports SRAM, EPROM, and flash memory. There are two modes supported for transfers. In one mode, 8-bit data and 8-bit address can be transferred. In another mode, data and address lines are multiplexed to transfer 16 bits of address/data.

### I/O Architecture Enhancements

The I/O processor on the ADSP-2126x provides much greater throughput than that on the ADSP-2106x DSPs.

The ADSP-2126x DMA controller supports up to 22 channels compared to 14 channels on the ADSP-21161 processor. DMA transfers occur at clock speed in parallel with full speed processor execution.

### Instruction Set Enhancements

The ADSP-2126x provides source code compatibility with the previous SHARC processor family members, to the application assembly source code level. All instructions, control registers, and system resources available in the ADSP-2106x core programming model are also available in the



ADSP-2126x. Instructions, control registers, or other facilities, required to support the new feature set of the ADSP-2116x core include:

- Code compatibility to the ADSP-21160 SIMD core
- Supersets of the ADSP-2106x programming model
- Reserved facilities in the ADSP-2106x programming model
- Symbol name changes from the ADSP-2106x programming models

These name changes can be managed through reassembly by using the development tools to apply the ADSP-2126x symbol definitions header file and linker description file. While these changes have no direct impact on existing core applications, system and I/O processor initialization code and control code do require modifications.

Although the porting of source code written for the ADSP-2106x family to the ADSP-2126x has been simplified, code changes will be required to take full advantage of the new ADSP-2126x features. For more information, see *ADSP-21160 SHARC DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

## Differences From Previous SHARCs

## 2 PROCESSING ELEMENTS

The DSP's processing elements (PE<sub>x</sub> and PE<sub>y</sub>) perform numeric processing for DSP algorithms. Each processing element contains a data register file and three computation units—an arithmetic/logic unit (ALU), a multiplier, and a shifter. Computational instructions for these elements include both fixed-point and floating-point operations, and each computational instruction executes in a single cycle.

The computational units in a processing element handle different types of operations. The ALU performs arithmetic and logic operations on fixed-point and floating-point data. The multiplier performs floating-point and fixed-point multiplication and executes fixed-point multiply/add and multiply/subtract operations. The shifter completes logical shifts, arithmetic shifts, bit manipulation, field deposit, and field extraction operations on 32-bit operands. Also, the shifter can derive exponents.

Data flow paths through the computational units are arranged in parallel, as shown in [Figure 2-1](#). The output of any computational unit may serve as the input of any computational unit on the next instruction cycle. Data moving in and out of the computational units goes through a 10-port register file, consisting of 16 primary registers and 16 alternate registers. Two ports on the register file connect to the PM and DM data buses, allowing data transfer between the computational units and memory (and anything else) connected to these buses.

The processor's assembly language provides access to the data register files in both processing elements. The syntax allows programs to move data to and from these registers, specify a computation's data format and provide naming conventions for the registers, all at the same time. For information on the data register names, see [“Data Register File” on page 2-38](#).

[Figure 2-1](#) provides a graphical guide to the other topics in this chapter. First, a description of the `MODE1` register shows how to set rounding, data format, and other modes for the processing elements. The dashed box indicates which components can be controlled by the `MODE1` register. Next, an examination of each computational unit provides details on operation and a summary of computational instructions. Outside the computational units, details on register files and data buses identify how to flow data for computations. Finally, details on the DSP's advanced parallelism reveal how to take advantage of multifunction instructions and Single-Instruction Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode.

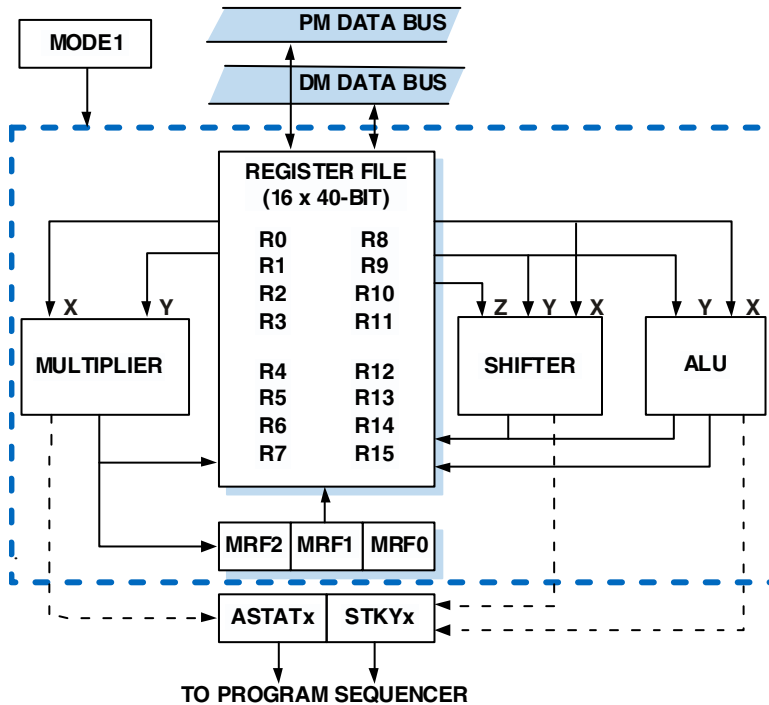


Figure 2-1. Computational Block

## Numeric Formats

The DSP supports the 32-bit single-precision floating-point data format defined in the IEEE Standard 754/854. In addition, the DSP supports an extended-precision version of the same format with eight additional bits in the mantissa (40 bits total). The DSP also supports 32-bit fixed-point formats—fractional and integer—which can be signed (two's-complement) or unsigned.

## IEEE Single-precision Floating-point Data Format

IEEE Standard 754/854 specifies a 32-bit single-precision floating-point format, shown in Figure 2-2. A number in this format consists of a sign bit ( $s$ ), a 24-bit significand, and an 8-bit unsigned-magnitude exponent ( $e$ ).

For normalized numbers, the significand consists of a 23-bit fraction  $f$  and a “hidden” bit of 1 that is implicitly presumed to precede  $f_{22}$  in the significand. The binary point is presumed to lie between this hidden bit and  $f_{22}$ . The Least Significant Bit (LSB) of the fraction is  $f_0$ ; the LSB of the exponent is  $e_0$ .

The hidden bit effectively increases the precision of the floating-point significand to 24 bits from the 23 bits actually stored in the data format. It also insures that the significand of any number in the IEEE normalized number format is always greater than or equal to one and less than two.

The unsigned exponent,  $e$ , can range between  $1 \leq e \leq 254$  for normal numbers in the single-precision format. This exponent is biased by  $+127$  ( $254, 2$ ). To calculate the true unbiased exponent, 127 must be subtracted from  $e$ .

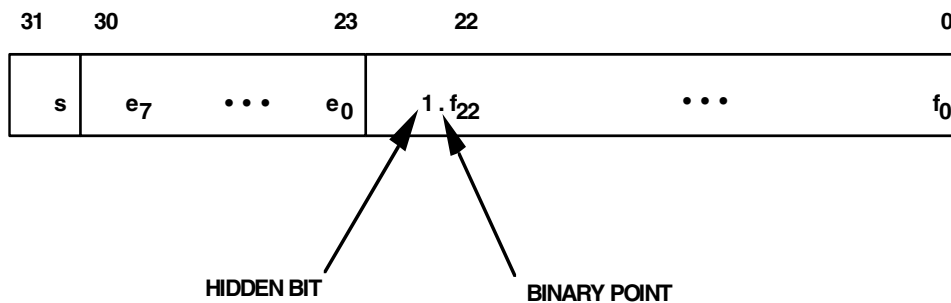


Figure 2-2. IEEE 32-Bit Single-Precision Floating-Point Format

The IEEE Standard also provides for several special data types in the single-precision floating-point format:

- An exponent value of 255 (all ones) with a nonzero fraction is a Not-A-Number (NaN). NaNs are usually used as flags for data flow control, for the values of uninitialized variables, and for the results of invalid operations such as  $0 * \infty$ .
- Infinity is represented as an exponent of 255 and a zero fraction. Note that because the fraction is signed, both positive and negative Infinity can be represented.
- Zero is represented by a zero exponent and a zero fraction. As with Infinity, both positive Zero and negative Zero can be represented.

The IEEE single-precision floating-point data types supported by the DSP and their interpretations are summarized in [Table 2-1](#).

Table 2-1. IEEE Single-Precision Floating-Point Data Types

Type	Exponent	Fraction	Value
NAN	255	Nonzero	Undefined
Infinity	255	0	$(-1)^\sigma$ Infinity
Normal	$1 \leq e \leq 254$	Any	$(-1)^\sigma (1.f_{22-0}) 2^{e-127}$
Zero	0	0	$(-1)^\sigma$ Zero

## Extended-precision Floating-Point Format

The extended-precision floating-point format is 40 bits wide, with the same 8-bit exponent as in the IEEE Standard format but a 32-bit significand. This format is shown in Figure 2-3. In all other respects, the extended-precision floating-point format is the same as the IEEE Standard format.

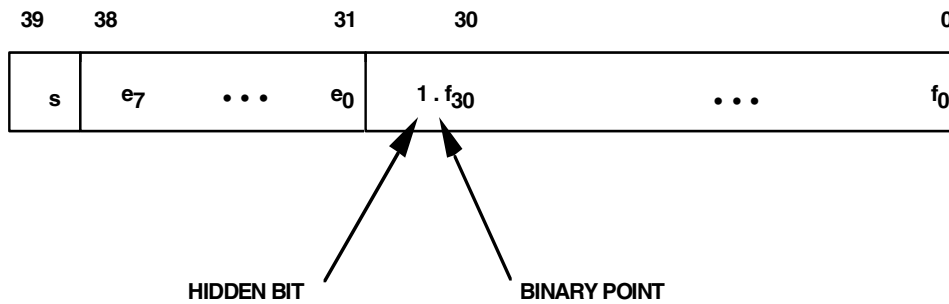


Figure 2-3. 40-Bit Extended-Precision Floating-Point Format



## Short Word Floating-Point Format

The DSP supports a 16-bit floating-point data type and provides conversion instructions for it. The short float data format has an 11-bit mantissa with a 4-bit exponent plus sign bit, as shown in [Figure 2-4](#). The 16-bit floating-point numbers reside in the lower 16 bits of the 32-bit floating-point field.

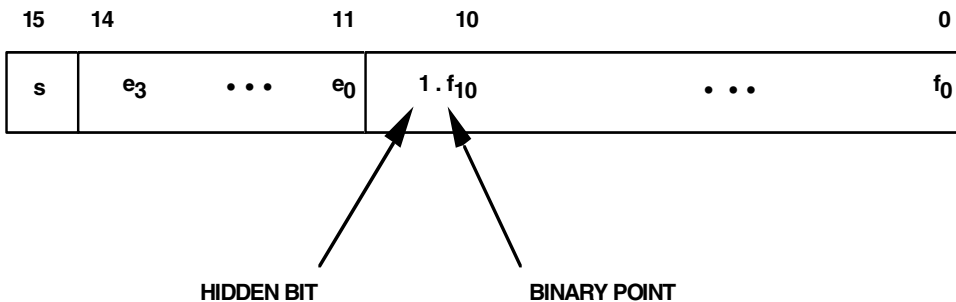


Figure 2-4. 16-Bit Floating-Point Format

## Packing for Floating-Point Data

Two shifter instructions, `FPACK` and `FUNPACK`, perform the packing and unpacking conversions between 32-bit floating-point words and 16-bit floating-point words. The `FPACK` instruction converts a 32-bit IEEE floating-point number to a 16-bit floating-point number. The `FUNPACK` instruction converts the 16-bit floating-point numbers back to 32-bit IEEE floating-point numbers. Each instruction executes in a single cycle. The results of the `FPACK` and `FUNPACK` operations appear in [Table 2-2](#) and [Table 2-3](#).

## Numeric Formats

Table 2-2. FPACK Operations

Condition	Result
$135 < \text{exp}$	Largest magnitude representation.
$120 < \text{exp} \leq 135$	Exponent is Most Significant Bit (MSB) of source exponent concatenated with the three Least Significant Bits (LSBs) of source exponent. The packed fraction is the rounded upper 11 bits of the source fraction.
$109 < \text{exp} \leq 120$	Exponent = 0. Packed fraction is the upper bits (source exponent – 110) of the source fraction prefixed by zeros and the “hidden” one. The packed fraction is rounded.
$\text{exp} < 110$	Packed word is all zeros.
<b>exp = source exponent</b> <b>sign bit remains the same in all cases</b>	

Table 2-3. FUNPACK Operations

Condition	Result
$0 < \text{exp} \leq 15$	Exponent is the 3 LSBs of the source exponent prefixed by the MSB of the source exponent and four copies of the complement of the MSB. The unpacked fraction is the source fraction with 12 zeros appended.
$\text{exp} = 0$	Exponent is $(120 - N)$ where $N$ is the number of leading zeros in the source fraction. The unpacked fraction is the remainder of the source fraction with zeros appended to pad it and the “hidden” one stripped away.
<b>exp = source exponent</b> <b>sign bit remains the same in all cases</b>	

The short float type supports gradual underflow. This method sacrifices precision for dynamic range. When packing a number which would have underflowed, the exponent is set to zero and the mantissa (including “hidden” 1) is right-shifted the appropriate amount. The packed result is a denormal, which can be unpacked into a normal IEEE floating-point number.

During the `FPACK` operation, an overflow sets the `SV` condition and non-overflow clears it. During the `FUNPACK` operation, the `SV` condition is cleared. The `SZ` and `SS` conditions are cleared by both instructions.

## Fixed-Point Formats

The DSP supports two 32-bit fixed-point formats—fractional and integer. In both formats, numbers can be signed (twos-complement) or unsigned. The four possible combinations are shown in [Figure 2-5](#). In the fractional format, there is an implied binary point to the left of the most significant magnitude bit. In integer format, the binary point is understood to be to the right of the LSB. Note that the sign bit is negatively weighted in a twos-complement format.

ALU outputs always have the same width and data format as the inputs. The multiplier, however, produces a 64-bit product from two 32-bit inputs. If both operands are unsigned integers, the result is a 64-bit unsigned integer. If both operands are unsigned fractions, the result is a 64-bit unsigned fraction. These formats are shown in [Figure 2-7](#).

If one operand is signed and the other unsigned, the result is signed. If both inputs are signed, the result is signed and automatically shifted left one bit. The LSB becomes zero and bit 62 moves into the sign bit position. Normally bit 63 and bit 62 are identical when both operands are signed. (The only exception is full-scale negative multiplied by itself.) Thus, the left-shift normally removes a redundant sign bit, increasing the precision of the most significant product. Also, if the data format is fractional, a single bit left-shift renormalizes the MSP to a fractional format. The signed formats with and without left-shifting are shown in [Figure 2-6](#).

The multiplier has an 80-bit accumulator to allow the accumulation of 64-bit products. For more information on the multiplier and accumulator, see [“Multiplier Accumulator \(Multiplier\)” on page 2-23](#).

# Numeric Formats

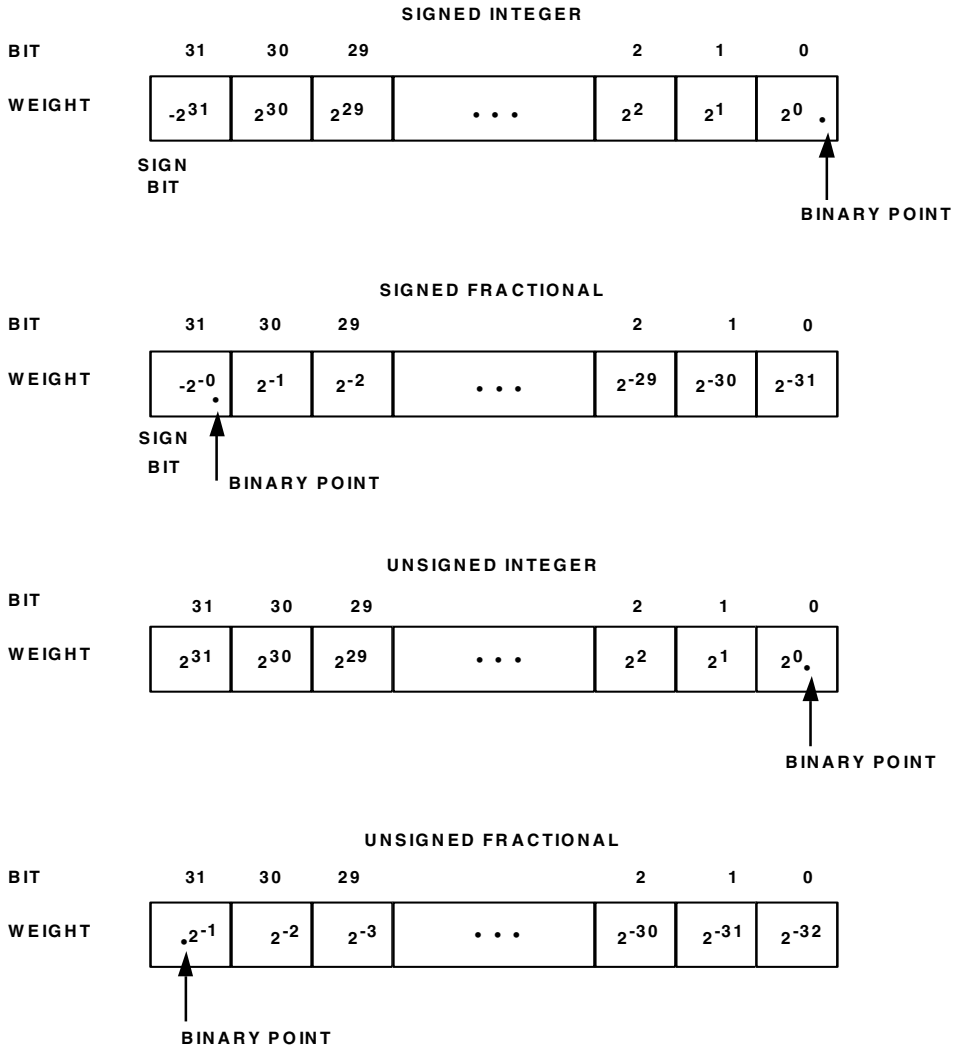


Figure 2-5. 32-Bit Fixed-Point Formats

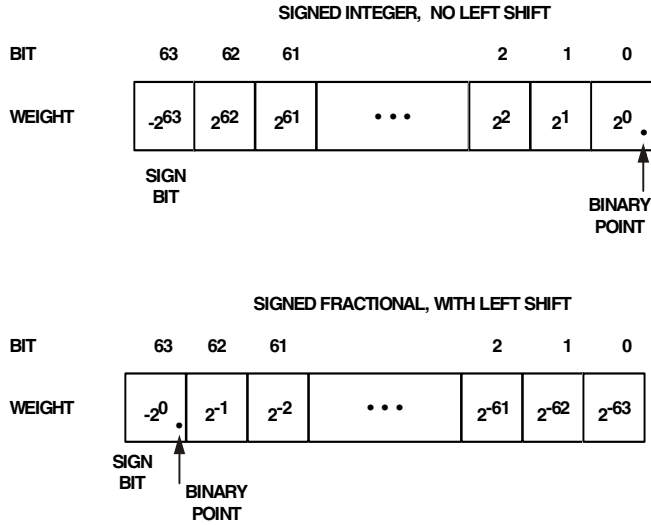


Figure 2-6. 64-Bit Signed Fixed-Point Product

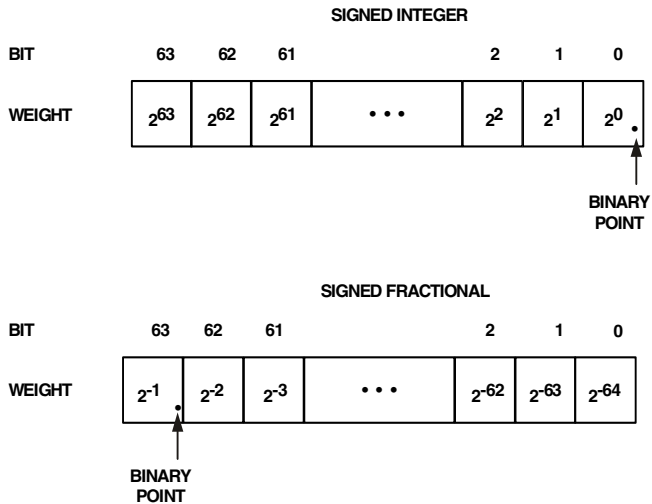


Figure 2-7. 64-Bit Unsigned Fixed-Point Product

# Setting Computational Modes

The `MODE1` register controls the operating mode of the processing elements. [Table A-2 on page A-5](#) lists all the bits in `MODE1`. The following bits in `MODE1` control computational modes:

- Floating-point data format. Bit 16 (`RND32`) directs the computational units to round floating-point data to 32 bits (if 1) or round to 40 bits (if 0).
- Rounding mode. Bit 15 (`TRUNC`) directs the computational units to round results with round-to-zero (if 1) or round-to-nearest (if 0).
- ALU saturation. Bit 13 (`ALUSAT`) directs the computational units to saturate results on positive or negative fixed-point overflows (if 1) or return unsaturated results (if 0).
- Short word sign extension. Bit 14 (`SSE`) directs the computational units to sign extended short word 16-bit data (if 1) or zero-fill the upper 16 bits (if 0).
- Secondary processor element (PEy). Bit 21 (`PEYEN`) enables computations in PEy (SIMD mode) (if 1) or disables PEy Single Instruction Single Data (SISD mode) (if 0).

## 32-Bit Floating-Point Format (Normal Word)

In the default mode of the DSP (`RND32` bit=1), the multiplier and ALU support a single-precision floating-point format, which is specified in the IEEE 754/854 standard. For more information on this standard, see [“Numeric Formats” on page 2-3](#). This format is IEEE 754/854 compatible for single-precision floating-point operations in all respects except:

- The DSP does not provide inexact flags. An inexact flag is an exception flag whose bit position is inexact. The inexact exception occurs if the rounded result of an operation is not identical to the exact (infinitely precise) result. Thus, an inexact exception always occurs when an overflow or an underflow occurs.
- NAN (Not-A-Number) inputs generate an invalid exception and return a quiet NAN (all 1s).
- Denormal operands, using denormalized (or tiny) numbers, flush to zero when input to a computational unit and do not generate an underflow exception. A denormal operand is one of the floating-point operands with an absolute value too small to represent with full precision in the significant. The denormal exception occurs if one or more of the operands is a denormal number. This exception is never regarded as an error.
- The processor supports round-to-nearest and round-toward-zero modes, but does not support round-to-+Infinity and round-to--Infinity.

IEEE single-precision floating-point data uses a 23-bit mantissa with an 8-bit exponent plus sign bit. In this case, the computation unit sets the eight LSBs of floating-point inputs to zeros before performing the operation. The mantissa of a result rounds to 23 bits (not including the hidden bit), and the 8 LSBs of the 40-bit result clear to zeros to form a 32-bit number, which is equivalent to the IEEE standard result.

In fixed-point to floating-point conversion, the rounding boundary is always 40 bits, even if the `RND32` bit is set.

### 40-Bit Floating-Point Format

When in extended-precision mode ( $RND32$  bit=0), the DSP supports a 40-bit extended-precision floating-point mode, which has eight additional LSBs of the mantissa and is compliant with the 754/854 standards. However, results in this format are more precise than the IEEE single-precision standard specifies. Extended-precision floating-point data uses a 31-bit mantissa with a 8-bit exponent plus sign bit.

### 16-Bit Floating-Point Format (Short Word)

The DSP supports a 16-bit floating-point storage format and provides instructions that convert the data for 40-bit computations. The 16-bit floating-point format uses an 11-bit mantissa with a 4-bit exponent plus sign bit. The 16-bit data goes into bits 23 through 8 of a data register. Two shifter instructions,  $Fpack$  and  $Funpack$ , perform the packing and unpacking conversions between 32-bit floating-point words and 16-bit floating-point words. The  $Fpack$  instruction converts a 32-bit IEEE floating-point number in a data register into a 16-bit floating-point number.  $Funpack$  converts a 16-bit floating-point number in a data register to a 32-bit IEEE floating-point number. Each instruction executes in a single cycle.

When 16-bit data is written to bits 23 through 8 of a data register, the DSP automatically extends the data into a 32-bit integer (bits 39 through 8). If the  $SSE$  bit in  $MODE1$  is set (1), the DSP sign extends the upper 16 bits. If the  $SSE$  bit is cleared (0), the DSP zeros the upper 16 bits.

The 16-bit floating-point format supports gradual underflow. This method sacrifices precision for dynamic range. When packing a number that would have underflowed, the exponent clears to zero and the mantissa (including a “hidden” 1) right-shifts the appropriate amount. The packed result is a denormal, which can be unpacked into a normal IEEE floating-point number.



## 32-Bit Fixed-Point Format

The DSP always represents fixed-point numbers in 32 bits, occupying the 32 MSBs in 40-bit data registers. Fixed-point data may be fractional or integer numbers and unsigned or twos-complement. Each computational unit has its own limitations on how these formats may be mixed for a given operation. All computational units read the upper 32 bits of data (inputs, operands) from the 40-bit registers (ignoring the eight LSBs) and write results to the upper 32 bits (zeroing the eight LSBs).

## Rounding Mode

The `TRUNC` bit in the `MODE1` register determines the rounding mode for all ALU operations, all floating-point multiplies, and fixed-point multiplies of fractional data. The DSP supports two modes of rounding: round-toward-zero and round-toward-nearest. The rounding modes comply with the IEEE 754 standard and have the following definitions:

- Round-toward-zero (`TRUNC` bit=1). If the result before rounding is not exactly representable in the destination format, the rounded result is the number that is nearer to zero. This is equivalent to truncation.
- Round-toward-nearest (`TRUNC` bit=0). If the result before rounding is not exactly representable in the destination format, the rounded result is the number that is nearer to the result before rounding. If the result before rounding is exactly halfway between two numbers in the destination format (differing by an LSB), the rounded result is the number that has an LSB equal to zero.

Statistically, rounding up occurs as often as rounding down, so there is no large sample bias. Because the maximum floating-point value is one LSB less than the value that represents infinity, a result that is halfway between the maximum floating-point value and Infinity rounds to Infinity in this mode.

## Using Computational Status

Though these rounding modes comply with standards set for floating-point data, they also apply for fixed-point multiplier operations on fractional data. The same two rounding modes are supported, but only the round-to-nearest operation is actually performed by the multiplier. Using its local result register for fixed-point operations, the multiplier rounds-to-zero by reading only the upper bits of the result and discarding the lower bits.

## Using Computational Status

The multiplier and ALU each provide exception information when executing floating-point operations. Each unit updates overflow, underflow, and invalid operation flags in the processing element's arithmetic status ( $ASTAT_x$  and  $ASTAT_y$ ) registers and sticky status ( $STKY_x$  and  $STKY_y$ ) registers. An underflow, overflow, or invalid operation from any unit also generates a maskable interrupt. There are three ways to use floating-point exceptions from computations in program sequencing:

- **Interrupts.** Enable interrupts and use an interrupt service routine (ISR) to handle the exception condition immediately. This method is appropriate if it is important to correct all exceptions as they occur.
- **The  $ASTAT_x$  and  $ASTAT_y$  registers.** Use conditional instructions to test the exception flags in the  $ASTAT_x$  or  $ASTAT_y$  registers after the instruction executes. This method permits monitoring each instruction's outcome.
- **The  $STKY_x$  and  $STKY_y$  registers.** Use the bit test ( $BTST$ ) instruction to examine exception flags in the  $STKY$  register after a series of operations. If any flags are set, some of the results are incorrect. This method is useful when exception handling is not critical.

More information on `ASTAT` and `STKY` status appears in the sections that describe the computational units. For summaries relating instructions and status bits, see [Table 2-4](#), [Table 2-5](#), [Table 2-6](#), [Table 2-7](#), and [Table 2-8](#).

## Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

The ALU performs arithmetic operations on fixed-point or floating-point data and logical operations on fixed-point data. ALU fixed-point instructions operate on 32-bit fixed-point operands and output 32-bit fixed-point results, while ALU floating-point instructions operate on 32-bit or 40-bit floating-point operands and output 32-bit or 40-bit floating-point results. ALU instructions include:

- Floating-point addition, subtraction, add/subtract, average
- Fixed-point addition, subtraction, add/subtract, average
- Floating-point manipulation: binary log, scale, mantissa
- Fixed-point add with carry, subtract with borrow, increment, decrement
- Logical And, Or, Xor, Not
- Functions: Abs, pass, min, max, clip, compare
- Format conversion
- Reciprocal and reciprocal square root primitives

### ALU Operation

ALU instructions take one or two inputs: X input and Y input. These inputs (also known as operands) can be any data registers in the register file. Most ALU operations return one result; in add/subtract operations,

## Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

the ALU operation returns two results, and in compare operations, the ALU operation returns no result (only flags are updated). ALU results can be returned to any location in the register file.

The DSP transfers input operands from the register file during the first half of the processor cycle and transfers results to the register file during the second half of the cycle. With this arrangement, the ALU can read and write the same register file location in a single cycle. If the ALU operation is fixed-point, the inputs are treated as 32-bit fixed-point operands. The ALU transfers the upper 32 bits from the source location in the register file. For fixed-point operations, the result(s) are always 32-bit fixed-point values. Some floating-point operations (*Logb*, *Mant* and *Fix*) can also yield fixed-point results.

The DSP transfers fixed-point results to the upper 32 bits of the data register and clears the lower eight bits of the register. The format of fixed-point operands and results depends on the operation. In most arithmetic operations, there is no need to distinguish between integer and fractional formats. Fixed-point inputs to operations such as scaling a floating-point value are treated as integers. For purposes of determining status such as overflow, fixed-point arithmetic operands and results are treated as twos-complement numbers.

### ALU Saturation

When the *ALUSAT* bit is set (=1) in the *MODE1* register, the ALU is in saturation mode. In this mode, all positive fixed-point overflows return the maximum positive fixed-point number (0x7FFF FFFF), and all negative overflows return the maximum negative number (0x8000 0000).

When the *ALUSAT* bit is cleared (=0) in the *MODE1* register, fixed-point results that overflow are not saturated; the upper 32 bits of the result are returned unaltered.

The ALU overflow flag reflects the ALU result before saturation.

## ALU Status Flags

ALU operations update seven status flags in the processing element's arithmetic status ( $ASTAT_x$  and  $ASTAT_y$ ) registers. [Table A-4 on page A-12](#) lists all the bits in these registers. The following bits in  $ASTAT_x$  or  $ASTAT_y$  flag the ALU status (a 1 indicates the condition) of the most recent ALU operation:

- ALU result zero or floating-point underflow. Bit 0 (AZ)
- ALU overflow. Bit 1 (AV)
- ALU result negative. Bit 2 (AN)
- ALU fixed-point carry. Bit 3 (AC)
- ALU X input sign for Abs, Mant operations. Bit 4 (AS)
- ALU floating-point invalid operation. Bit 5 (AI)
- Last ALU operation was a floating-point operation. Bit 10 (AF)
- Compare Accumulation register results of last eight compare operations. Bits 31-24 (CACC)

ALU operations also update four “sticky” status flags in the processing element's sticky status ( $STKY_x$  and  $STKY_y$ ) registers. [Table A-5 on page A-18](#) lists all the bits in these registers. The following bits in  $STKY_x$  or  $STKY_y$  flag the ALU status (a 1 indicates the condition). Once set, a sticky flag remains high until explicitly cleared:

- ALU floating-point underflow. Bit 0 (AUS)
- ALU floating-point overflow. Bit 1 (AVS)
- ALU fixed-point overflow. Bit 2 (AOS)
- ALU floating-point invalid operation. Bit 5 (AIS)

## Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Flag updates occur at the end of the cycle in which the status is generated and is available on the next cycle. If a program writes the arithmetic status register or sticky status register explicitly in the same cycle that the ALU is performing an operation, the explicit write to the status register supersedes any flag update from the ALU operation.

### ALU Instruction Summary

Table 2-4 and Table 2-5 list the ALU instructions and show how they relate to  $ASTAT_{x,y}$  and  $STKY_{x,y}$  flags. For more information on assembly language syntax, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. In these tables, note the meaning of these symbols:

- $R_n, R_x, R_y$  indicate any register file location; treated as fixed-point
- $F_n, F_x, F_y$  indicate any register file location; treated as floating-point
- \* indicates the flag may be set or cleared, depending on the results of instruction
- \*\* indicates the flag may be set (but not cleared), depending on the results of the instruction
- – indicates no effect

Table 2-4. Fixed-Point ALU Instruction Summary

Instruction	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Status Flags							STKY <sub>x,y</sub> Status Flags				
Fixed-point:	A	AV	A	A	AS	AI	AF	C	A	AV	A	AI
	Z		N	C				C	US	S	O	S
								C			S	
Rn = Rx + Ry	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx – Ry	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx + Ry + CI	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx – Ry + CI – 1	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = (Rx + Ry)/2	*	0	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
COMP(Rx, Ry)	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	*	–	–	–	–
COMPU(Rx,Ry)	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	*	--	--	--	--
Rn = Rx + CI	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx + CI – 1	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx + 1	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = Rx – 1	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = –Rx	*	*	*	*	0	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = ABS Rx	*	*	0	0	*	0	0	–	–	–	**	–
Rn = PASS Rx	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = Rx AND Ry	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = Rx OR Ry	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = Rx XOR Ry	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = NOT Rx	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = MIN(Rx, Ry)	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = MAX(Rx, Ry)	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–
Rn = CLIP Rx BY Ry	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–

# Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Table 2-5. Floating-Point ALU Instruction Summary

Instruction	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Status Flags							STKY <sub>x,y</sub> Status Flags				
	AZ	AV	AN	AC	AS	AI	AF	CA CC	AUS	AVS	AOS	AIS
$F_n = F_x + F_y$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = F_x - F_y$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{ABS}(F_x + F_y)$	*	*	0	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{ABS}(F_x - F_y)$	*	*	0	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = (F_x + F_y)/2$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	–	–	**
$\text{COMP}(F_x, F_y)$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	*	–	–	–	**
$F_n = -F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{ABS } F_x$	*	*	0	0	*	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{PASS } F_x$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	–	–	**
$F_n = \text{RND } F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{SCALB } F_x \text{ BY } R_y$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$R_n = \text{MANT } F_x$	*	*	0	0	*	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$R_n = \text{LOGB } F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$R_n = \text{FIX } F_x \text{ BY } R_y$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$R_n = \text{FIX } F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{FLOAT } R_x \text{ BY } R_y$	*	*	*	0	0	0	1	–	**	**	–	–
$F_n = \text{FLOAT } R_x$	*	0	*	0	0	0	1	–	–	–	–	–
$F_n = \text{RECIPS } F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	**	**	–	**
$F_n = \text{RSQRTS } F_x$	*	*	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	**	–	**
$F_n = F_x \text{ COPYSIGN } F_y$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	–	–	**
$F_n = \text{MIN}(F_x, F_y)$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	–	–	**
$F_n = \text{MAX}(F_x, F_y)$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	–	–	**
$F_n = \text{CLIP } F_x \text{ BY } F_y$	*	0	*	0	0	*	1	–	–	–	–	**



## Multiply Accumulator (Multiplier)

The multiplier performs fixed-point or floating-point multiplication and fixed-point multiply/accumulate operations. Fixed-point multiply/accumulates are available with either cumulative addition or cumulative subtraction. Multiplier floating-point instructions operate on 32-bit or 40-bit floating-point operands and output 32-bit or 40-bit floating-point results. Multiplier fixed-point instructions operate on 32-bit fixed-point data and produce 80-bit results. Inputs are treated as fractional or integer, unsigned or twos-complement. Multiplier instructions include:

- Floating-point multiplication
- Fixed-point multiplication
- Fixed-point multiply/accumulate with addition, rounding optional
- Fixed-point multiply/accumulate with subtraction, rounding optional
- Rounding result register
- Saturating result register
- Clearing result register

### Multiplier Operation

The multiplier takes two inputs: X input and Y input. These inputs (also known as operands) can be any data registers in the register file. The multiplier can accumulate fixed-point results in the local Multiplier Result (MRF) registers or write results back to the register file. The results in MRF can also be rounded or saturated in separate operations. Floating-point multiplies yield floating-point results, which the multiplier always writes directly to the register file.

## Multiply Accumulator (Multiplier)

The multiplier transfers input operands during the first half of the processor cycle and transfers results during the second half of the cycle. With this arrangement, the multiplier can read and write the same register file location in a single cycle.

For fixed-point multiplies, the multiplier reads the inputs from the upper 32 bits of the data registers. Fixed-point operands may be either both in integer format or both in fractional format. The format of the result matches the format of the inputs. Each fixed-point operand may be either an unsigned or a twos-complement number. If both inputs are fractional and signed, the multiplier automatically shifts the result left one bit to remove the redundant sign bit. The register name(s) within the multiplier instruction specify input data type(s)—Fx for floating-point and Rx for fixed-point.

## Multiplier Result Register (Fixed-Point)

Fixed-point operations place 80-bit results in the multiplier's foreground MRF register or background MRB register, depending on which is active. For more information on selecting the result register, see [“Alternate \(Secondary\) Data Registers” on page 2-40](#).

The location of a result in the MRF register's 80-bit field depends on whether the result is in fractional or integer format, as shown in [Figure 2-8](#). If the result is sent directly to a data register, the 32-bit result with the same format as the input data is transferred, using bits 63-32 for a fractional result or bits 31-0 for an integer result. The eight LSBs of the 40-bit register file location are zero-filled.

Fractional results can be rounded-to-nearest before being sent to the register file. If rounding is not specified, discarding bits 31-0 effectively truncates a fractional result (rounds to zero). For more information on rounding, see [“Rounding Mode” on page 2-15](#).

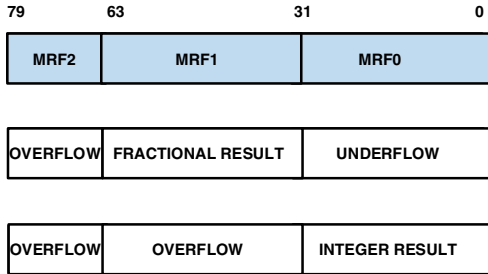


Figure 2-8. Multiplier Fixed-Point Result Placement

The MRF register is divided into MRF2, MRF1, and MRF0 registers, which can be individually read from or written to the register file. Each of these registers has the same format. When data is read from MRF2, it is sign-extended to 32 bits as shown in Figure 2-9. The DSP zero-fills the eight LSBs of the 40-bit register file location when data is read from MRF2, MRF1, or MRF0 to the register file. When the DSP writes data into MRF2, MRF1, or MRF0 from the 32 MSBs of a register file location, the eight LSBs are ignored. Data written to MRF1 is sign-extended to MRF2, repeating the MSB of MRF1 in the 16 bits of MRF2. Data written to MRF0 is not sign-extended.

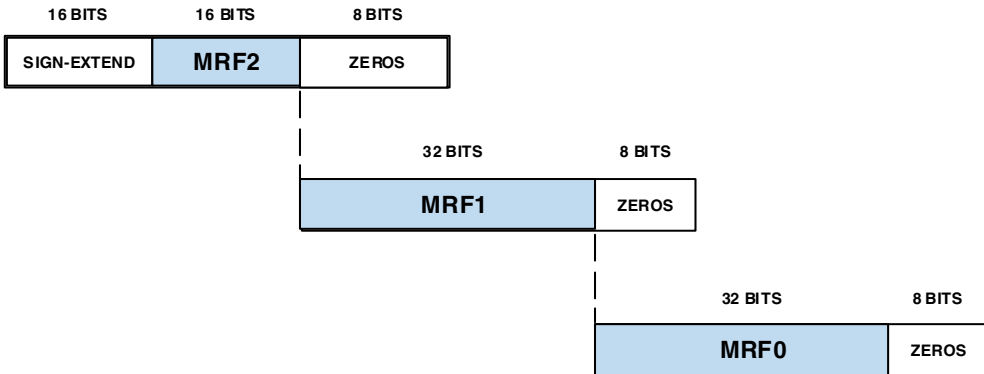


Figure 2-9. MR Transfer Formats

## Multiply Accumulator (Multiplier)

In addition to multiplication, fixed-point operations include accumulation, rounding, and saturation of fixed-point data. There are three MRF register operations: clear (C1r), round (Rnd), and saturate (Sat).

The C1r operation (MRF=0) resets the specified MRF register to zero. Often, it is best to perform this operation at the start of a multiply/accumulate operation to remove results left over from the previous operation.

The Rnd operation (MRF=Rnd MRF) applies only to fractional results, so integer results are not effected. This operation rounds the 80-bit MRF value to nearest at bit 32; for example, the MRF1-MRF0 boundary. Rounding of a fixed-point result occurs either as part of a multiply or multiply/accumulate operation or as an explicit operation on the MRF register. The rounded result in MRF1 can be sent either to the register file or back to the same MRF register. To round a fractional result to zero (truncation) instead of to nearest, a program transfers the unrounded result from MRF1, discarding the lower 32 bits in MRF0.

The Sat operation (MRF=Sat MRF) sets MRF to a maximum value if the MRF value has overflowed. Overflow occurs when the MRF value is greater than the maximum value for the data format—unsigned or twos-complement and integer or fractional—as specified in the saturate instruction. The six possible maximum values appear in [Table 2-6](#). The result from MRF saturation can be sent either to the register file or back to the same MRF register.

Table 2-6. Fixed-Point Format Maximum Values (For Saturation)

Maximum Number	(Hexadecimal)		
	MRF2	MRF1	MRF0
Two's-complement fractional (positive)	0000	7FFF FFFF	FFFF FFFF
Two's-complement fractional (negative)	FFFF	8000 0000	0000 0000
Two's-complement integer (positive)	0000	0000 0000	7FFF FFFF
Two's-complement integer (negative)	FFFF	FFFF FFFF	8000 0000

Table 2-6. Fixed-Point Format Maximum Values (For Saturation) (Cont'd)

Maximum Number	(Hexadecimal)		
	MRF2	MRF1	MRF0
Unsigned fractional number	0000	FFFF FFFF	FFFF FFFF
Unsigned integer number	0000	0000 0000	FFFF FFFF

## Multiplier Status Flags

Multiplier operations update four status flags in the processing element's arithmetic status registers (ASTAT<sub>x</sub> and ASTAT<sub>y</sub>). “[Arithmetic Status Registers \(ASTAT<sub>x</sub> and ASTAT<sub>y</sub>\)](#)” on page A-11 lists all the bits in these registers. The following bits in the ASTAT<sub>x</sub> or ASTAT<sub>y</sub> registers flag the multiplier status (a 1 indicates the condition) of the most recent multiplier operation:

- Multiplier result negative. Bit 6 (MN)
- Multiplier overflow. Bit 7 (MV)
- Multiplier underflow. Bit 8 (MU)
- Multiplier floating-point invalid operation. Bit 9 (MI)

Multiplier operations also update four “sticky” status flags in the processing element's sticky status (STKY<sub>x</sub> and STKY<sub>y</sub>) registers. The following bits in the STKY<sub>x</sub> or STKY<sub>y</sub> flag multiplier status (a 1 indicates the condition). Once set, a sticky flag remains high until explicitly cleared:

- Multiplier fixed-point overflow. Bit 6 (MOS)
- Multiplier floating-point overflow. Bit 7 (MVS)
- Multiplier underflow. Bit 8 (MUS)
- Multiplier floating-point invalid operation. Bit 9 (MIS)

## Multiply Accumulator (Multiplier)

Flag updates occur at the end of the cycle in which the status is generated and is available on the next cycle. If a program writes the arithmetic status register or sticky register explicitly in the same cycle that the multiplier is performing an operation, the explicit write to `ASTAT` or `STKY` supersedes any flag update from the multiplier operation.

## Multiplier Instruction Summary

[Table 2-7](#) and [Table 2-9](#) list the Multiplier instructions and describe how they relate to `ASTATx,y` and `STKYx,y` flags. For more information on assembly language syntax, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. In these tables, note the meaning of the following symbols:

- `Rn`, `Rx`, `Ry` indicate any register file location; treated as fixed-point
- `Fn`, `Fx`, `Fy` indicate any register file location; treated as floating-point
- `*` indicates the flag may be set or cleared, depending on results of instruction
- `**` indicates the flag may be set (but not cleared), depending on results of instruction
- `–` indicates no effect
- The Input Mods column indicates the types of optional modifiers that can be applied to the instruction inputs. For a list of modifiers, see [Table 2-8](#).

Table 2-7. Fixed-Point Multiplier Instruction Summary

Instruction	Input Mods	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Flags				STKY <sub>x,y</sub> Flags			
		MU	MN	MV	MI	MUS	MOS	MVS	MIS
Fixed-Point: For Input Mods, see <a href="#">Table 2-8</a>									
$R_n = R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRB = R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = MRF + R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = MRB + R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = MRF + R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRB = MRB + R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = MRF - R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = MRB - R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = MRF - R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRB = MRB - R_x * R_y$	1	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = SAT\ MRF$	2	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = SAT\ MRB$	2	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = SAT\ MRF$	2	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRB = SAT\ MRB$	2	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = RND\ MRF$	3	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$R_n = RND\ MRB$	3	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = RND\ MRF$	3	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRB = RND\ MRB$	3	*	*	*	0	–	**	–	–
$MRF = 0$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–
$MRB = 0$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–
$MR_xF = R_n$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–
$MR_xB = R_n$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–
$R_n = MR_xF$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–
$R_n = MR_xB$	–	0	0	0	0	–	–	–	–

## Barrel Shifter (Shifter)

Table 2-8. Input Modifiers For Fixed-Point Multiplier Instruction

Input Mods from Table 2-7	Input Mods—Options For Fixed-Point Multiplier Instructions
1	(SSF), (SSI), (SSFR), (SUF), (SUI), (SUFR), (USF), (USI), (USFR), (UUF), (UII), or (UUFR)
2	(SF), (SI), (UF), or (UI)
3	(SF) or (UF)

Table 2-9. Floating-Point Multiplier Instruction Summary

Instruction	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Flags				STKY <sub>x,y</sub> Flags			
Floating-Point:	MU	MN	MV	MI	MUS	MOS	MVS	MIS
Fn = Fx * Fy	*	*	*	*	**	—	**	**

## Barrel Shifter (Shifter)

The shifter performs bit-wise operations on 32-bit fixed-point operands. Shifter operations include:

- Shifts and rotates from off-scale left to off-scale right
- Bit manipulation operations, including bit set, clear, toggle, and test



- Bit field manipulation operations, including extract and deposit
- Fixed-point/floating-point conversion operations, including exponent extract, number of leading 1s or 0s

## Shifter Operation

The shifter takes from one to three inputs: X input, Y input, and Z input. The inputs (also known as operands) can be any register in the register file. Within a shifter instruction, the inputs serve as follows.

- The X input provides data that is operated on.
- The Y input specifies shift magnitudes, bit field lengths, or bit positions.
- The Z input provides data that is operated on and updated.

In the following example,  $R_x$  is the X input,  $R_y$  is the Y input, and  $R_n$  is the Z input. The shifter returns one output ( $R_n$ ) to the register file.

$R_n = R_n \text{ OR } \text{LSHIFT } R_x \text{ BY } R_y;$

As shown in [Figure 2-9](#), the shifter fetches input operands from the upper 32 bits of a register file location (bits 39-8) or from an immediate value in the instruction. The shifter transfers operands during the first half of the cycle and transfers the result to the upper 32 bits of a register (with the eight LSBs zero-filled) during the second half of the cycle. With this arrangement, the shifter can read and write the same register file location in a single cycle.

The X input and Z input are always 32-bit fixed-point values. The Y input is a 32-bit fixed-point value or an 8-bit field (shf8), positioned in the register file. These inputs appear in [Figure 2-9](#).

## Barrel Shifter (Shifter)

Some shifter operations produce 8-bit or 6-bit results. As shown in [Figure 2-10](#), the shifter places these results in either the shf8 field or the bit6 field and sign-extends the results to 32 bits. The shifter always returns a 32-bit result.

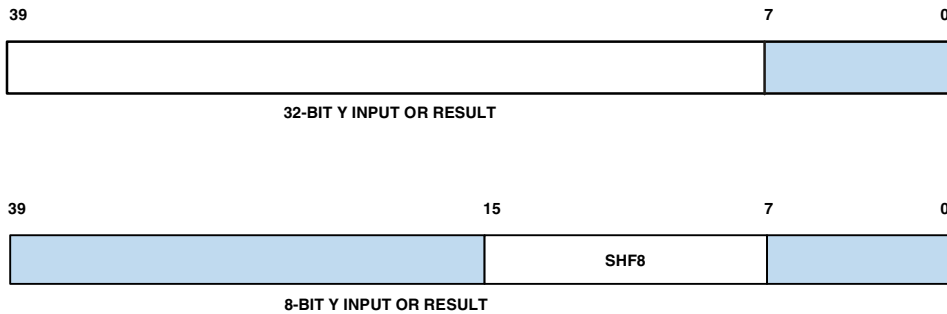


Figure 2-10. Register File Fields for Shifter Instructions

The shifter supports bit field deposit and bit field extract instructions for manipulating groups of bits within an input. The Y input for bit field instructions specifies two 6-bit values: bit6 and len6, which are positioned in the  $R_y$  register as shown in [Figure 2-10](#). The shifter interprets bit6 and len6 as positive integers. Bit6 is the starting bit position for the deposit or extract, and len6 is the bit field length, which specifies how many bits are deposited or extracted.

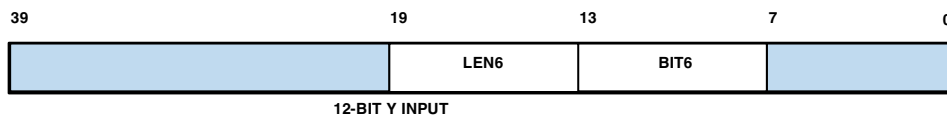


Figure 2-11. Register File Fields for FDEP, FEXT Instructions

Field deposit ( $F_{dep}$ ) instructions take a group of bits from the input register (starting at the LSB of the 32-bit integer field) and deposit the bits as directed anywhere within the result register. The bit6 value specifies the starting bit position for the deposit. [Figure 2-11](#) shows how the inputs, bit6 and len6, work in a field deposit instruction:

$R_n = \text{FDEP } R_x \text{ BY } R_y$

Figure 2-12 shows bit placement for the following field deposit instruction:

$R_0 = \text{FDEP } R_1 \text{ BY } R_2;$

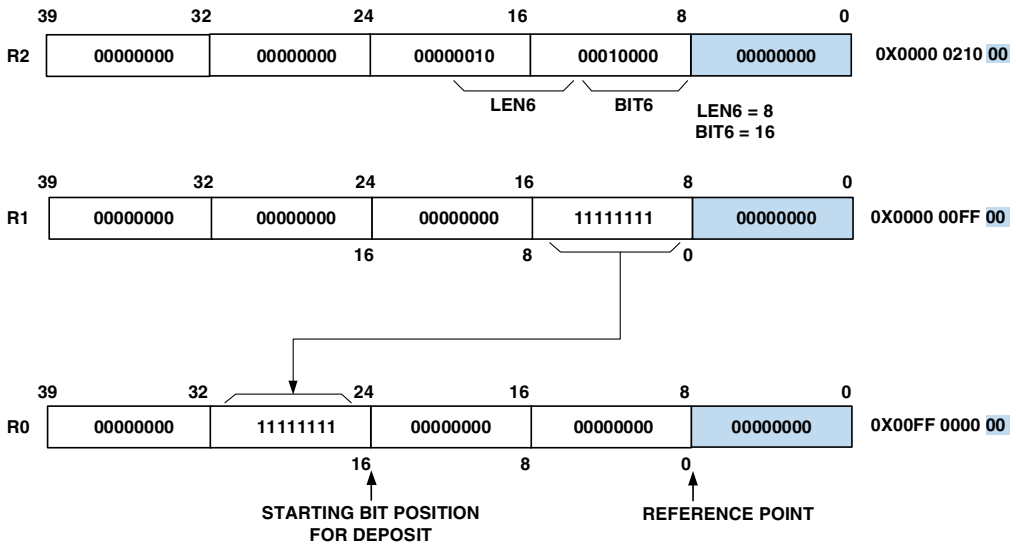


Figure 2-12. Bit Field Deposit Instruction

## Barrel Shifter (Shifter)

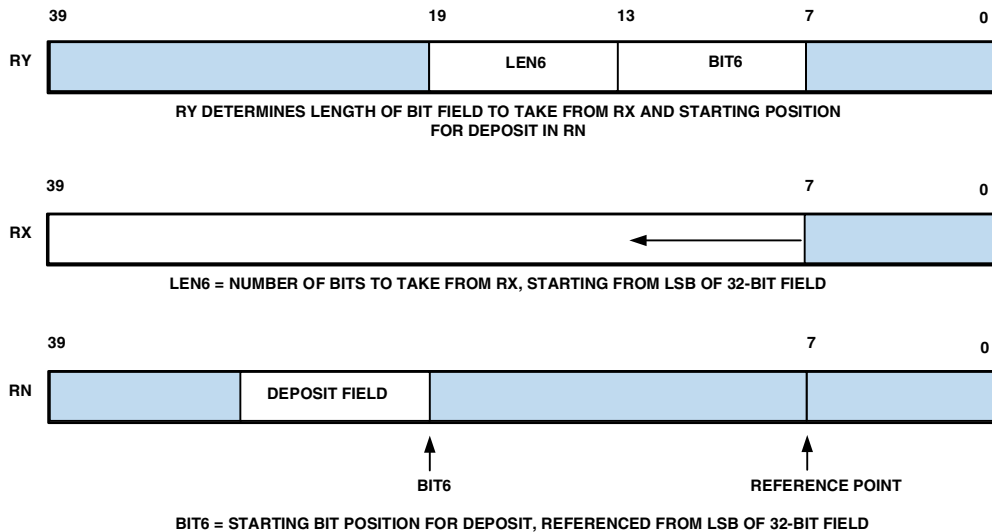


Figure 2-13. Bit Field

Field extract ( $F_{ext}$ ) instructions extract a group of bits as directed from anywhere within the input register and place them in the result register, aligned with the LSB of the 32-bit integer field. The bit6 value specifies the starting bit position for the extract.

Figure 2-14 shows bit placement for the following field extract instruction:

```
R3 = FEXT R4 BY R5;
```

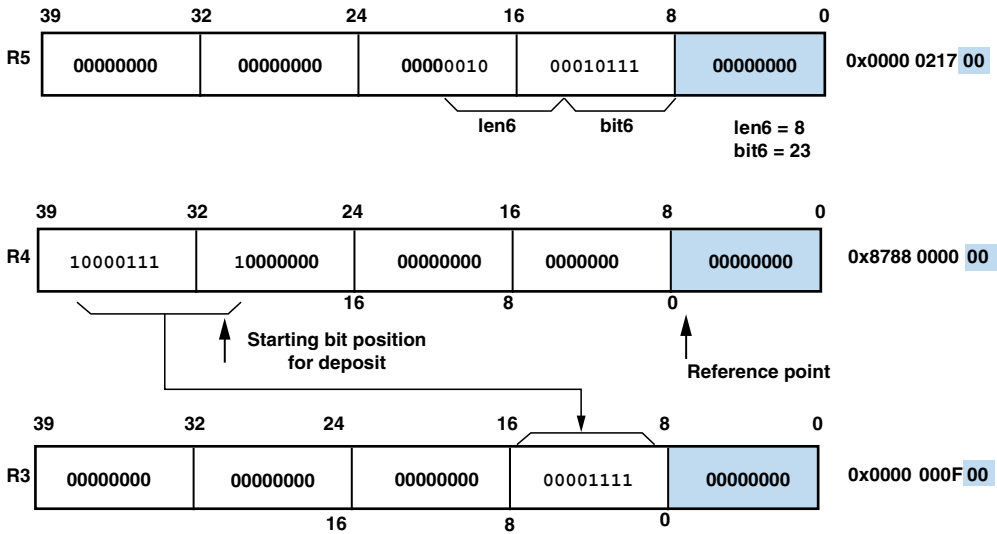


Figure 2-14. Bit Field Extract Instruction

## Shifter Status Flags

Shifter operations update three status flags in the processing element's arithmetic status registers (ASTAT<sub>x</sub> and ASTAT<sub>y</sub>). [Table A-4 on page A-12](#) lists all the bits in these registers. The following bits in ASTAT<sub>x</sub> or ASTAT<sub>y</sub> indicate shifter status (a 1 indicates the condition) for the most recent ALU operation:

- Shifter overflow of bits to left of MSB. Bit 11 (SV)
- Shifter result zero. Bit 12 (SZ)SS
- Shifter input sign for exponent extract only. Bit 13 (S)

## Barrel Shifter (Shifter)

A flag update occurs at the end of the cycle in which the status is generated and is available on the next cycle. If a program writes the arithmetic status register explicitly in the same cycle that the shifter is performing an operation, the explicit write to *ASTAT* supersedes any flag update caused by the shift operation.

## Shifter Instruction Summary

Table 2-10 lists the shifter instructions and shows how they relate to *ASTAT<sub>x,y</sub>* flags. For more information on assembly language syntax, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. In these tables, note the meaning of the following symbols:

- *R<sub>n</sub>*, *R<sub>x</sub>*, *R<sub>y</sub>* indicate any register file location; bit fields used depend on instruction
- *F<sub>n</sub>*, *F<sub>x</sub>* indicate any register file location; floating-point word
- \* indicates the flag may be set or cleared, depending on data

Table 2-10. Shifter Instruction Summary

Instruction	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Flags		
	SZ	SV	SS
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = LSHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <i>R<sub>y</sub></i>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = LSHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <data8>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = <i>R<sub>n</sub></i> OR LSHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <i>R<sub>y</sub></i>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = <i>R<sub>n</sub></i> OR LSHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <data8>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = ASHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <i>R<sub>y</sub></i>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = ASHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <data8>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = <i>R<sub>n</sub></i> OR ASHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <i>R<sub>y</sub></i>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = <i>R<sub>n</sub></i> OR ASHIFT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <data8>	*	*	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = ROT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <i>R<sub>y</sub></i>	*	0	0
<i>R<sub>n</sub></i> = ROT <i>R<sub>x</sub></i> BY <data8>	*	0	0

Table 2-10. Shifter Instruction Summary (Cont'd)

Instruction	ASTAT <sub>x,y</sub> Flags		
	SZ	SV	SS
Rn = BCLR Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = BCLR Rx BY <data8>	*	*	0
Rn = BSET Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = BSET Rx BY <data8>	*	*	0
Rn = BTGL Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = BTGL Rx BY <data8>	*	*	0
BTST Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
BTST Rx BY <data8>	*	*	0
Rn = FDEP Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = FDEP Rx BY <bit6>:<len6>	*	*	0
Rn = Rn OR FDEP Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = Rn OR FDEP Rx BY <bit6>:<len6>	*	*	0
Rn = FDEP Rx BY Ry (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = FDEP Rx BY <bit6>:<len6> (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = Rn OR FDEP Rx BY Ry (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = Rn OR FDEP Rx BY <bit6>:<len6> (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = FEXT Rx BY Ry	*	*	0
Rn = FEXT Rx BY <bit6>:<len6>	*	*	0
Rn = FEXT Rx BY Ry (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = FEXT Rx BY <bit6>:<len6> (SE)	*	*	0
Rn = EXP Rx (EX)	*	0	*
Rn = EXP Rx	*	0	*
Rn = LEFTZ Rx	*	*	0
Rn = LEFTO Rx	*	*	0
Rn = FPACK Fx	0	*	0
Fn = FUNPACK Rx	0	0	0

# Data Register File

Each of the DSP's processing elements has a data register file, which is a set of data registers that transfers data between the data buses and the computational units. These registers also provide local storage for operands and results.

The two register files consist of 16 primary registers and 16 alternate (secondary) registers. All of the data registers are 40 bits wide. Within these registers, 32-bit data is always left-justified. If an operation specifies a 32-bit data transfer to these 40-bit registers, the eight LSBs are ignored on register reads, and the LSBs are cleared to zeros on writes.

Program memory data accesses and data memory accesses to/from the register file(s) occur on the PM data bus and DM data bus, respectively. One PM data bus access for each processing element and/or one DM data bus access for each processing element can occur in one cycle. Transfers between the register files and the DM or PM data buses can move up to 64 bits of valid data on each bus.

If an operation specifies the same register file location as both an input and output, the read occurs in the first half of the cycle and the write in the second half. With this arrangement, the DSP uses the old data as the operand, before updating the location with the new result data. If writes to the same location take place in the same cycle, only the write with higher precedence actually occurs. The DSP determines precedence for the write operation from the source of the data; from highest to lowest, the precedence is:

1. Data memory or universal register (*Ureg*)
2. Program memory
3. PEx ALU
4. PEy ALU




5. PEx Multiplier
6. PEy Multiplier
7. PEx Shifter
8. PEy Shifter

The data register file in [Figure 2-1 on page 2-3](#) lists register names of  $R_0$  through  $R_{15}$  within the PEx's register file. When a program refers to these registers as  $R_0$  through  $R_{15}$ , the computational units treat the contents of these registers as fixed-point data. To perform floating-point computations, refer to these registers as  $F_0$  through  $F_{15}$ . For example, the following instructions refer to the same registers, but direct the computational units to perform different operations:

```
F0 = F1 * F2; /*floating-point multiply*/
R0 = R1 * R2; /*fixed-point multiply*/
```

The  $F$  and  $R$  prefixes on register names do not effect the 32-bit or 40-bit data transfer; the naming convention only determines how the ALU, multiplier, and shifter treat the data.

 To maintain compatibility with code written for previous SHARC DSPs, the assembly syntax accommodates references to PEx data registers and PEy data registers.

Code may only refer to the PEy data registers ( $S_0$  through  $S_{15}$ ) for data move instructions. The rules for using register names are:

- $R_0$  through  $R_{15}$  and  $F_0$  through  $F_{15}$  always refer to PEx registers for data move and computational instructions, whether the DSP is in SISD or SIMD mode.
- $R_0$  through  $R_{15}$  and  $F_0$  through  $F_{15}$  refer to both PEx and PEy register for computational instructions in SIMD mode.

## Alternate (Secondary) Data Registers

- S0 through S15 always refer to PEy registers for data move instructions, whether the DSP is in SISD or SIMD mode.

For more information on SISD and SIMD computational operations, see “[Secondary Processing Element \(PEy\)](#)” on page 2-45. For more information on ADSP-2126x assembly language, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*.

## Alternate (Secondary) Data Registers

Each register file has an alternate register set. To facilitate fast context switching, the DSP includes alternate register sets for data, results, and data address generator registers. Bits in the MODE1 register control when alternate registers become accessible. While inaccessible, the contents of alternate registers are not effected by DSP operations. Note that there is a maximum one cycle latency from the time when writes are made to MODE1 and the point when an alternate register set can be accessed. The alternate register sets for data and results are described in this section. For more information on alternate data address generator registers, see DAG “[Alternate \(Secondary\) DAG Registers](#)” on page 4-6.

Bits in the MODE1 register can activate independent alternate data register sets: the lower half (R0-R7 and S0-S7) and the upper half (R8-R15 and S8-S15). To share data between contexts, a program places the data to be shared in one half of either the current processing element’s register file or the opposite processing element’s register file and activates the alternate register set of the other half. For information on how to activate alternate data registers, see the description of the MODE1 register below.

Each multiplier has a primary or foreground (MRF) register and alternate or background (MRB) results register. A bit in the MODE1 register selects which result register receives the result from the multiplier operation, swapping which register is the current MRF or MRB. This swapping facilitates context switching. Unlike other registers that have alternates, both MRF and MRB are accessible at the same time. All fixed-point multiplies can accumulate

results in either MRF or MRB, without regard to the state of the MODE1 register. With this arrangement, code can use the result registers as primary and alternate accumulators, or code can use these registers as two parallel accumulators. This feature facilitates complex math.

The MODE1 register controls the access to alternate registers. [Table A-2 on page A-5](#) lists all the bits in MODE1. The following bits in MODE1 control alternate registers (a 1 enables the alternate set):

- Secondary registers for computational unit results. Bit 2 (SRCU)
- Secondary registers for hi register file, R8–R15 and S8–S15. Bit 7 (SRRFH)
- Secondary registers for lo register file, R0–R7 and S0–S7. Bit 10 (SRRFL)

The following example demonstrates how code should handle the maximum one cycle of latency—from the instruction that sets the bit in the MODE1 register to the point when the alternate registers may be accessed. Note that it is possible to use any instruction that does not access the switching register file instead of using a NOP instruction.

```
BIT SET MODE1 SRRFL;    /* activate alternate reg. file */
NOP;                    /* wait for access to alternates */
R0 = 7;
```

## Multifunction Computations

The DSP supports multiple parallel (multifunction) computations by using the many parallel data paths within its computational units. These instructions complete in a single cycle, and they combine parallel operation of the multiplier and the ALU or dual ALU functions. The multiple operations perform as if they were in corresponding single function computations. Multifunction computations also handle flags in the same

## Multifunction Computations

way as the single function computations, except that in the dual add/subtract computation, the ALU flags from the two operations are ORed together.

To work with the available data paths, the computational units constrain which data registers hold the four input operands for multifunction computations. These constraints limit which registers may hold the X input and Y input for the ALU and multiplier.

Figure 2-15 shows a computational unit and indicates which registers may serve as X inputs and Y inputs for the ALU and multiplier. For example, the X input to the ALU can only be R8, R9, R10 or R11. Note that the shifter is gray in Figure 2-15 to indicate no shifter multifunction operations.

Table 2-11, Table 2-12, Table 2-13, and Table 2-14 list the multifunction computations. For more information on assembly language syntax, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. In these tables, note the meaning of the following symbols:

- Rm, Ra, Rs, Rx, Ry indicate any register file location; fixed-point
- Fm, Fa, Fs, Fx, Fy indicate any register file location; floating-point
- R3-0 indicates data file registers R3, R2, R1, or R0, and F3-0 indicates data file registers F3, F2, F1, or F0
- R7-4 indicates data file registers R7, R6, R5, or R4, and F7-4 indicates data file registers F7, F6, F5, or F4
- R11-8 indicates data file registers R11, R10, R9, or R8, and F11-8 indicates data file registers F11, F10, F9, or F8
- R15-12 indicates data file registers R15, R14, R13, or R12, and F15-12 indicates data file registers F15, F14, F13, or F12

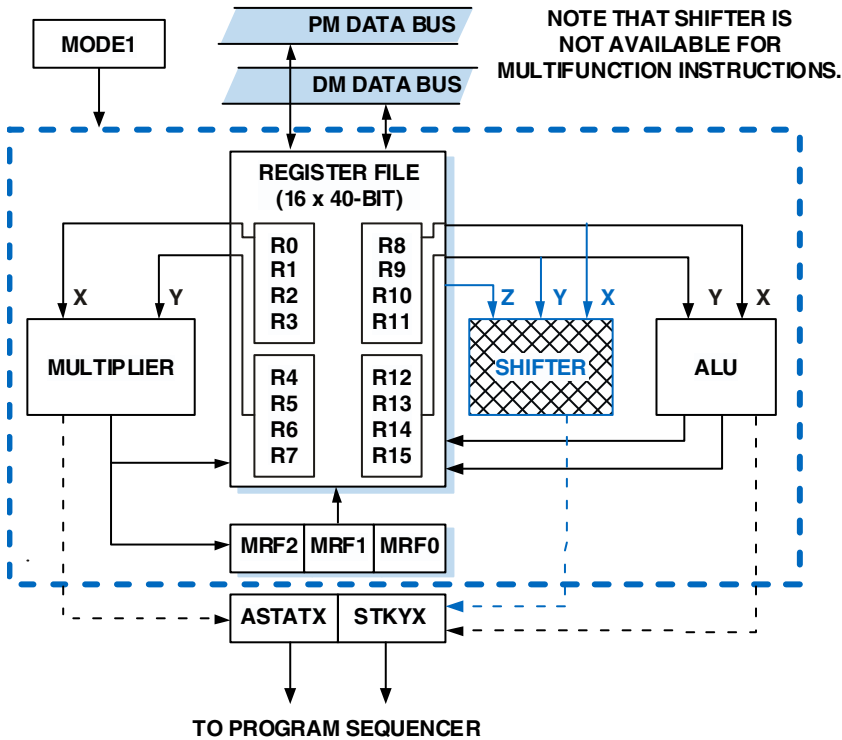


Figure 2-15. Input Registers for Multifunction Computations (ALU and Multiplier)

- SSFR indicates the X input is signed, the Y input is signed, use Fractional inputs, and rounded-to-nearest output
- SSF indicates the X input is signed, Y input is signed, use Fractional input

Table 2-11. Dual Add and Subtract

$R_a = R_x + R_y, R_s = R_x - R_y$ $F_a = F_x + F_y, F_s = F_x - F_y$
--

## Multifunction Computations

Table 2-12. Fixed-Point Multiply and Add, Subtract, Or Average

(Any combination of left and right column)	
$Rm = R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSFR),	$Ra = R11-8 + R15-12$
$MRF = MRF + R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSF),	$Ra = R11-8 - R15-12$
$Rm = MRF + R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSFR),	$Ra = (R11-8 + R15-12)/2$
$MRF = MRF - R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSF),	
$Rm = MRF - R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSFR),	

Table 2-13. Floating-Point Multiply and ALU Operation

$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = F11-8 + F15-12$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = F11-8 - F15-12$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = \text{FLOAT } R11-8 \text{ by } R15-12$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Ra = \text{FIX } F11-8 \text{ by } R15-12$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = (F11-8 + F15-12)/2$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = \text{ABS } F11-8$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = \text{MAX } (F11-8, F15-12)$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = \text{MIN } (F11-8, F15-12)$

Table 2-14. Multiply with Dual Add and Subtract

$Rm = R3-0 * R7-4$ (SSFR), $Ra = R11-8 + R15-12, Rs = R11-8 - R15-12$
$Fm = F3-0 * F7-4, Fa = F11-8 + F15-12, Fs = F11-8 - F15-12$

Another type of multifunction operation is also available on the DSP, combining transfers between the results and data registers and transfers between memory and data registers. As compared to other multifunction instructions, these parallel operations complete in a single cycle. For example, the DSP can perform the following multiply and parallel read of data memory:

$MRF = MRF - R5 * R0, R6 = \text{DM}(I1, M2);$

Or, the DSP can perform the following result register transfer and parallel read:

```
R5 = MR1F, R6 = DM(I1,M2);
```

## Secondary Processing Element (PEy)

The ADSP-2126x contains two sets of computational units and associated register files. As shown in [Figure 2-16](#), these two processing elements (PE<sub>x</sub> and PE<sub>y</sub>) support SIMD operation.

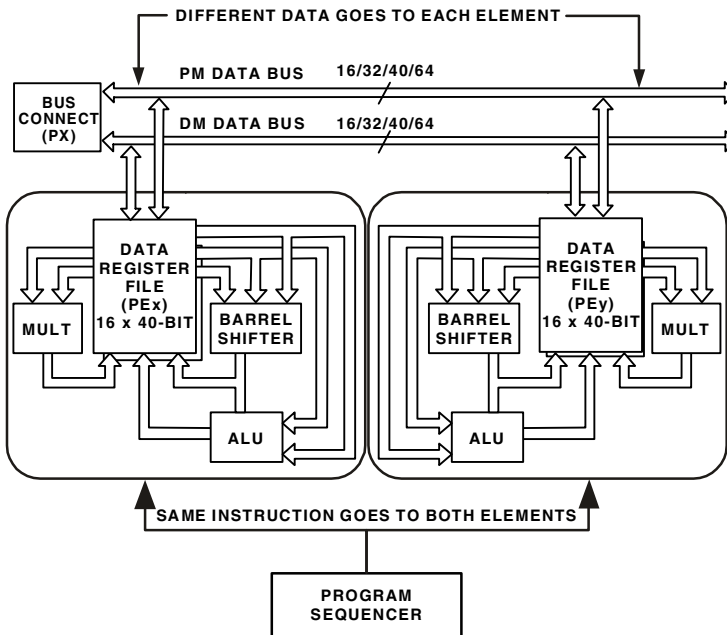


Figure 2-16. Block Diagram Showing Secondary Execution Complex

The `MODE1` register controls the operating mode of the processing elements. [Table A-2 on page A-5](#) lists all the bits in `MODE1`. The `PEYEN` bit (bit 21) in the `MODE1` register enables or disables the PE<sub>y</sub> processing element. When `PEYEN` is cleared (0), the ADSP-2126x operates in SISD mode,

## Secondary Processing Element (PEy)

using only PEx. When the PEYEN bit is set (1), the ADSP-2126x operates in SIMD mode, using the PEx and PEy processing elements. There is a one cycle delay after PEYEN is set or cleared, before the change to or from SIMD mode takes effect.

To support SIMD, the DSP performs these parallel operations:

- Dispatches a single instruction to both processing element's computational units
- Loads two sets of data from memory, one for each processing element
- Executes the same instruction simultaneously in both processing elements
- Stores data results from the dual executions to memory



Using the information here and in *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*, it is possible through SIMD mode's parallelism to double performance over similar algorithms running in SISD (ADSP-2106x DSP compatible) mode.

The two processing elements are symmetrical; each contains these functional blocks:

- ALU
- Multiplier primary and alternate result registers
- Shifter
- Data register file and alternate register file



## Dual Compute Units Sets

The computational units (ALU, multiplier, and shifter) in PEx and PEy are identical. The data bus connections for the dual computational units permit asymmetric data moves to, from, and between the two processing elements. Identical instructions execute on the PEx and PEy computational units; the difference is the data. The data registers for PEy operations are identified (implicitly) from the PEx registers in the instruction. This implicit relationship between PEx and PEy data registers corresponds to complementary register pairs in [Table 2-15](#). Any universal registers (*Ureg*) that do not appear in [Table 2-15](#) have the same identities in both PEx and PEy. When a computation in SIMD mode refers to a register in the PEx column, the corresponding computation in PEy refers to the complimentary register in the PEy column.

Table 2-15. SIMD Mode Complementary Register Pairs

PEx	PEy
R0	S0
R1	S1
R2	S2
R3	S3
R4	S4
R5	S5
R6	S6
R7	S7
R8	S8
R9	S9
R10	S10
R11	S11
R12	S12
R13	S13

## Secondary Processing Element (PEy)

Table 2-15. SIMD Mode Complementary Register Pairs (Cont'd)

PE <sub>x</sub>	PE <sub>y</sub>
R14	S14
ASTAT <sub>x</sub>	ASTAT <sub>y</sub>
STKY <sub>x</sub>	STKY <sub>y</sub>

Table 2-16. Other Complementary Register Pairs

USTAT1	USTAT2
USTAT3	USTAT4
PX1	PX2
MRF	MSF <sup>1</sup>
MRB	MSB1

- 1 These register pairs are not directly accessible by instructions. However, these registers can be read using the multiplier operation  $MRxF/B = Rn/Rn = MRxF/B$ . For more information on this instruction, see Chapter 7 in *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*.

## Dual Register Files

The operand, result busing, and porting are identical in the two 16 entry data register files (one in each PE). The same is true for each 16 entry alternate register files. The transfer direction, data bus, source and destination registers and usage depend on the following conditions:

- **Computational mode:**
  - Is PE<sub>y</sub> enabled—PE<sub>YEN</sub> bit=1 in MODE1 register?
  - Is the data register file in PE<sub>x</sub> (R0–R15, F0–F15) or PE<sub>y</sub> (S0–S15)?
  - Is the instruction a data register swap between the processing elements?
- **Data addressing mode:**
  - What is the state of the Internal Memory Data Width (IMDW) bits in the System Control (SYSCTL) register?
  - Is broadcast write enabled— Is BDCST1, 9 bits in MODE1 register =0?
  - What is the type of address—long, normal, or short word?
  - Is long word override (LW) specified in the instruction?
  - What are the states of instruction fields for DAG1 or DAG2?
- **Program sequencing (conditional logic):**
  - What is the outcome of the instruction’s condition comparison on each processing element?

For information on SIMD issues that relate to computational modes, see [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50](#). For information on SIMD issues relating to data addressing, see [“Summary” on page 3-61](#). For information on SIMD issues relating to program sequencing, see [“Addressing in SISD and SIMD Modes” on page 4-18](#).

## Secondary Processing Element (PE<sub>y</sub>)

### Dual Alternate Registers

Both register files consist of a primary set of 16 by 40-bit registers and an alternate set of 16 by 40-bit registers. Context switching between the two sets of registers occurs in parallel between the two processing elements. For more information, see [“Alternate \(Secondary\) Data Registers” on page 2-40.](#)

### SIMD and Status Flags

When the DSP is in SIMD mode (PE<sub>YEN</sub> bit=1), computations on both processing elements generate status flags, producing a logical ORing of the exception status test on each processing element. If one of the four fixed-point or floating-point exceptions is enabled, an exception condition on either or both processing elements generates an exception interrupt. Interrupt service routines (ISRs) must determine which of the processing elements encountered the exception.

Note that returning from a floating-point interrupt does not automatically clear the STKY state. Code must clear the STKY bits in both processing element’s sticky status (STKY<sub>x</sub> and STKY<sub>y</sub>) registers as part of the exception service routine. [“Interrupts and Sequencing” on page 3-48.](#)

### SIMD (Computational) Operations


In SIMD mode, the dual processing elements execute the same instruction, but operate on different data. To support SIMD operation, the elements support a variety of dual data move features.

The DSP supports unidirectional and bidirectional register-to-register transfers with the Conditional Compute and Move instruction. All four combinations of inter-register file and intra-register file transfers (PE<sub>x</sub> ↔ PE<sub>x</sub>, PE<sub>x</sub> ↔ PE<sub>y</sub>, PE<sub>y</sub> ↔ PE<sub>x</sub>, and PE<sub>y</sub> ↔ PE<sub>y</sub>) are possible in both SISD (unidirectional) and SIMD (bidirectional) modes.

In SISD mode ( $PEYEN$  bit=0), the register-to-register transfers are unidirectional, meaning that an operation performed on one processing element is not duplicated on the other processing element. The SISD transfer uses a source register and a destination register. Either register can be in either element's data register file. For a summary of unidirectional transfers, see the upper half of [Table 2-17 on page 2-53](#). Note that in SISD mode a condition for an instruction only tests in the PEx element but it applies to the entire instruction.

In SIMD mode ( $PEYEN$  bit=1), the register-to-register transfers are bidirectional, meaning that an operation performed on one element is duplicated in parallel on the other element. The instruction uses two source registers (one from each element's register file) and two destination registers (one from each element's register file). For a summary of bidirectional transfers, see the lower half of [Table 2-17](#). Note that in SIMD mode conditional explicit and implicit transfers are tested and executed separately in PEx and PEy, respectively, as detailed in [Table 2-17](#).

Bidirectional register-to-register transfers in SIMD mode are allowed between a data register and DAG, control, or status registers. When the DAG, control, or status register is a source of the transfer, the destination can be a data register. This SIMD transfer duplicates the contents of the source register in a data register in both processing elements.

 Careful programming is required when a DAG, control, or status register is a destination of a transfer from a data register. If the destination register has a complement (for example  $ASTAT_x$  and  $ASTAT_y$ ), the SIMD transfer moves the contents of the explicit data register into the explicit destination and moves the contents of the implicit data register into the implicit destination (the complement). If the destination register has no complement (for example, I0), only the explicit transfer occurs.

## Secondary Processing Element (PEy)

Even if the code uses a conditional operation to select whether the transfer occurs, only the explicit transfer can take place if the destination register has no complement.

In the case where a DAG, control, or status register is both source and destination, the data move operation executes the same as if SIMD mode were disabled.

In both SISD and SIMD modes, the DSP supports bidirectional register-to-register swaps. The swap always occurs between one register in each processing element's data register file.

Registers swaps use the special swap operator,  $\langle - \rangle$ . A register-to-register swap occurs when registers in different processing elements exchange values; for example  $R0 \langle - \rangle S1$ . Only single, 40-bit register-to-register swaps are supported; double register operations are not supported.

When register-to-register swaps are unconditional, they operate the same in SISD mode and SIMD mode. If a condition is added to the instruction in SISD mode, the condition tests only in the PEx element and controls the entire operation. If a condition is added in SIMD mode, the condition tests in both the PEx and PEy elements separately and the halves of the operation are controlled, as detailed in [Table 2-17](#).

Table 2-17. Register-to-Register Move Summary (SISD Versus SIMD)

Mode	Instruction	Explicit Transfer Executed According to PEx	Implicit Transfer Executed According to PEx
SISD <sup>1</sup>	IF condition compute, Rx = Ry;	Rx loaded from Ry	None
	IF condition compute, Rx = Sy;	Rx loaded from Sy	None
	IF condition compute, Sx = Ry;	Sx loaded from Ry	None
	IF condition compute, Sx = Sy;	Sx loaded from Sy	None
	IF condition compute, Rx <-> Sy;	Rx loaded from Sy	Sy loaded from Rx
SIMD <sup>2</sup>	IF condition compute, Rx = Ry;	Rx loaded from Ry	Sx loaded from Sy
	IF condition compute, Rx = Sy;	Rx loaded from Sy	Sx loaded from Ry
	IF condition compute, Sx = Ry;	Sx loaded from Ry	Rx loaded from Sy
	IF condition compute, Sx = Sy;	Sx loaded from Sy	Rx loaded from Ry
	IF condition compute, Rx <-> Sy; <sup>3</sup>	Rx loaded from Sy	Sy loaded from Rx

- 1 In SISD mode, the conditional applies only to the entire operation and is only tested against PEx's flags. When the condition tests true, the entire operation occurs.
- 2 In SIMD mode, the conditional applies separately to the explicit and implicit transfers. Where the condition tests true (PE<sub>x</sub> for the explicit and PE<sub>y</sub> for the implicit), the operation occurs in that processing element.
- 3 Register-to-register transfers (R0=S0) and register swaps (R0<->S0) do not cause a PMD bus conflict. These operations use only the DMD bus and a hidden 16-bit bus to perform the two register moves.



SIMD conditional instructions with the same destination registers do not produce predictable transfers. For example, the instruction IF EQ R4 = R14 - R15, S4 = R6; may not work as expected. This kind of usage is prohibited, as it is not logical to use it this way.

## Secondary Processing Element (PEy)



# 3 PROGRAM SEQUENCER

The DSP's program sequencer controls program flow by constantly providing the address of the next instruction to be fetched for execution. Program flow in the DSP is mostly linear, with the processor executing instructions sequentially. This linear flow varies occasionally when the program branches due to nonsequential program structures, such as those shown below. Nonsequential structures direct the DSP to execute an instruction that is not at the next sequential address following the current instruction. These structures include:

- **Loops.** One sequence of instructions executes multiple times with zero overhead.
- **Subroutines.** The traditional `CALL/RETURN` structure where the processor temporarily breaks sequential flow to execute instructions from another part of program memory.
- **Jumps.** Program flow is permanently transferred to another part of program memory.
- **Interrupts.** A runtime event (generally not an instruction) triggers the program sequencer to branch to interrupt-handling subroutines.
- **Idle.** An instruction that causes the core to stop executing further instructions and hold its current state until an interrupt occurs. Then, after the processor services the interrupt, the sequencer resumes normal program execution.

The sequencer uses the blocks shown in [Figure 3-1](#) to execute instructions. The sequencer's address multiplexer selects the value of the next fetch address from several possible sources. The fetched address enters the instruction pipeline, made up of the fetch address register, decode address register, and program counter (PC) register. These registers contain the 24-bit addresses of the instructions currently being fetched, decoded, and executed. The PC register, in conjunction with the PC stack register, stores return addresses and top-of-loop addresses. All addresses generated by the sequencer are 24-bit program memory instruction addresses.

The sequencer handles a series of operations, described in these sections:

- [“Instruction Pipeline” on page 3-4](#)
- [“Instruction Cache” on page 3-5](#)
- [“Branches and Sequencing” on page 3-11](#)
- [“Loop and Status Stacks and Sequencing” on page 3-16](#)
- [“Conditional Sequencing” on page 3-17](#)
- [“Loops and Sequencing” on page 3-25](#)
- [“SIMD Mode and Sequencing” on page 3-36](#)
- [“Timer and Sequencing” on page 3-46](#)
- [“Interrupts and Sequencing” on page 3-48](#)

Refer to [Figure 3-1](#) for a description of how each of the functional blocks are related.

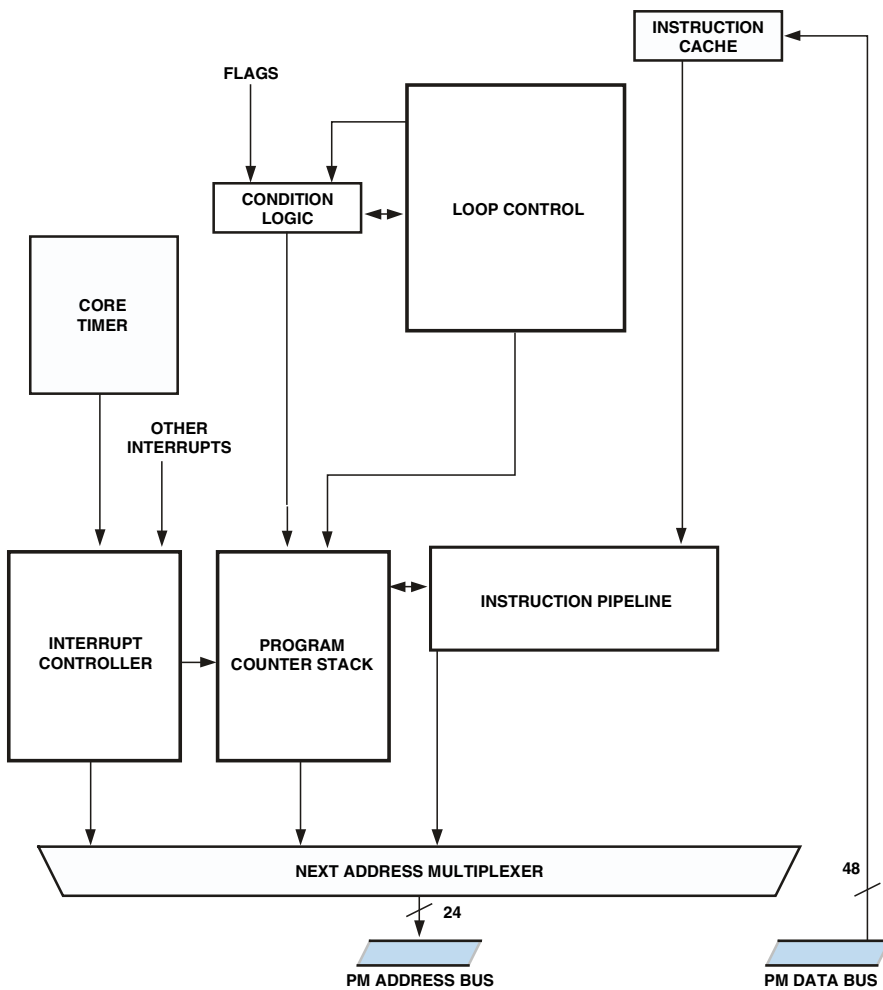


Figure 3-1. Program Sequencer Block Diagram

# Instruction Pipeline

The program sequencer determines the next instruction address by examining both the current instruction being executed and the current state of the processor. If no conditions require otherwise, the DSP fetches and executes instructions from memory in sequential order.

To achieve a high execution rate while maintaining a simple programming mode, the DSP employs a three stage pipeline to process instructions:

1. **Fetch cycle.** The DSP reads the instruction from either the on-chip memory or the instruction cache.
2. **Decode cycle.** The DSP decodes the instruction, generating conditions that control instruction execution and program flow.
3. **Execute cycle.** The DSP executes the instruction; the operations specified by the instruction complete in a single cycle.

In a sequential program flow, when one instruction is being executed, the next instruction is being decoded, and the instruction following that is being fetched. Sequential program flow usually has a throughput of one instruction per cycle. In the event of cache misses, instructions may take more than one cycle.

Figure 3-2 illustrates how the instructions starting at address 0x08 are processed by the pipeline. While the instruction at address 0x08 is being executed, the instruction 0x09 is being decoded and the instruction at address 0xA is being fetched.

While sequential execution takes one core clock cycle per instruction, branching (nonsequential executions) can temporarily reduce this rate. Nonsequential program operations include:

- Program memory data accesses that conflict with instruction fetches

- Jumps
- Subroutine calls and returns
- Interrupts and returns
- Loops

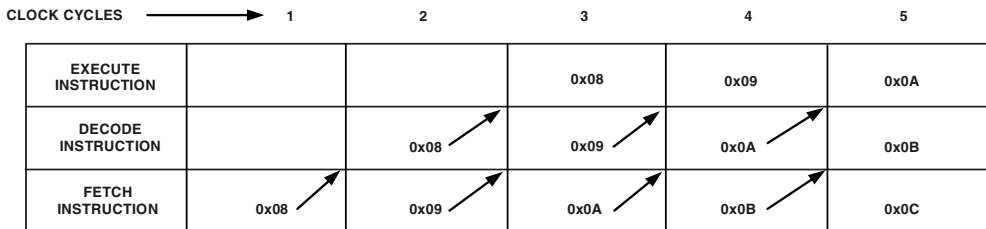


Figure 3-2. Pipelined Execution Cycles

## Instruction Cache


Usually, the sequencer fetches an instruction from memory on each cycle. Occasionally, bus constraints prevent some of the data and instructions from being fetched in a single cycle. To alleviate these data flow conflicts, the DSP has a large 32-location instruction cache that caches instructions that cause these conflicts. This solution removes the need to fetch the offending instruction from memory, which frees both memory blocks and data buses for data accesses. Except for enabling or disabling, the caches operation is completely automatic and transparent, requiring no user intervention. [For more information, see “Using the Cache” on page 3-8.](#)

## Bus Conflicts

A bus is comprised of two parts: the address bus and the data bus. Because the bus can be accessed continually by different sources (illustrated in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#)), there is a potential for bus or block *conflicts*.

## Instruction Cache

A bus conflict occurs when the PM data bus, normally used to fetch an instruction in each cycle, is used to fetch instruction and to access data. Because of the three stage instruction pipeline, as the DSP executes an instruction (at address  $n$ ) it also uses the PM bus to access data. For sequential executions, this creates a conflict with the instruction fetch (at address  $n+2$ ).

 The cache stores the fetched instruction ( $n+2$ ), not the instruction requiring the program memory data access.

Block conflicts differ from bus conflicts in that block conflicts occur when there are multiple outstanding writes to the same memory block or to the same word in a different block. When the DSP first encounters a bus conflict, it must stall for one cycle while the data is transferred, and then fetch the instruction on the following cycle. To prevent the same delay from happening again, the DSP automatically writes the fetched instruction to the cache. The sequencer checks the instruction cache on every data access using the PM bus. If the instruction needed is in the cache, a “cache hit” occurs—the instruction fetch from the cache happens in parallel with the program memory data access, without incurring a delay.

If the instruction needed is not in the cache, a “cache miss” occurs, and the instruction fetch (from memory) takes place in the cycle following the program memory data access, incurring one cycle of overhead. This instruction is loaded into the cache (if the cache is enabled and not frozen), so that it is available the next time the same instruction (that requires program memory data) is executed.

Figure 3-3 shows a block diagram of the instruction cache. The cache holds 32 instruction-address pairs. These pairs (or cache entries) are arranged into 16 (15-0) cache sets according to the four least significant bits (3-0) of their address. The two entries in each set (entry 0 and entry 1) have a valid bit, indicating if the entry contains a valid instruction. The least recently used (LRU) bit for each set indicates which entry was not placed in the cache last (0=entry 0 and 1=entry 1).

The cache places instructions in entries according to the four LSBs of the instruction's address. When the sequencer checks for an instruction to fetch from the cache, it uses the four address LSBs as an index to a cache set. Within that set, the sequencer checks the addresses of the two entries as it looks for the needed instruction. If the cache contains the instruction, the sequencer uses the entry and updates the LRU bit (if necessary) to indicate the entry did not contain the needed instruction.

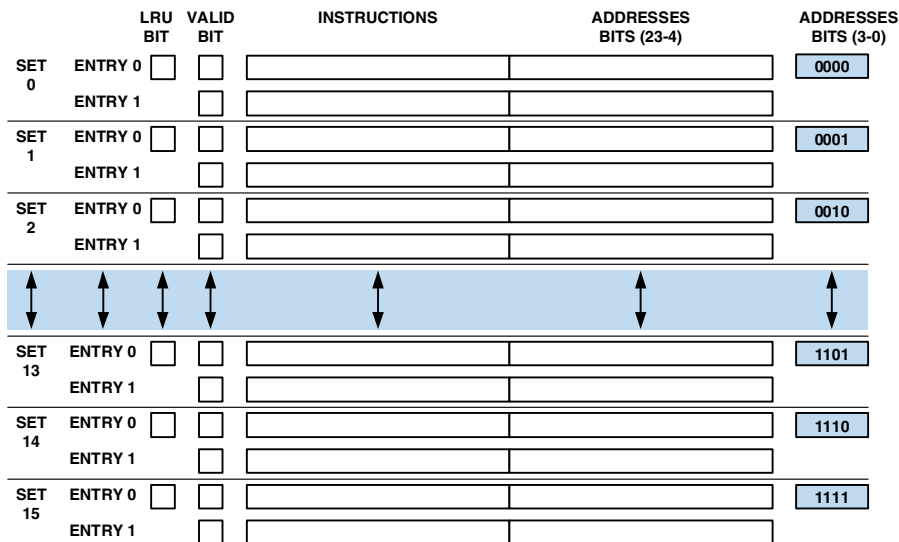


Figure 3-3. Instruction Cache Architecture


When the cache does not contain a needed instruction, it loads a new instruction and its address and places them in the least recently used entry of the appropriate cache set. The cache then toggles the LRU bit, if necessary.

## Block Conflicts

A bus conflict occurs when an instruction fetch and a data access are made on the same bus. Similarly, a block conflict occurs when multiple accesses

## Instruction Cache

are made to the same block in internal memory. This scenario occurs when data is accessed from the same block from which the instructions are executed. This scenario also occurs when an instruction performs both a DM and PM access to the same block in one instruction. In the first case, the instruction takes two cycles to complete, with the data being accessed in the first cycle and the instruction in the second. In the latter case, where a dual data access is performed, the processor takes three cycles to complete the instruction.

 Block conflicts are not cached.

## Using the Cache

After a DSP reset, the cache is cleared (it contains no instructions), unfrozen, and enabled. From then on, the `MODE2` register controls the operating mode of the instruction cache as shown below.

- **Cache Disable.** Bit 4 (`CADIS`) directs the sequencer to disable the cache (if 1) or enable the cache (if 0).
- **Cache Freeze.** Bit 19 (`CAFRZ`) directs the sequencer to freeze the contents of the cache (if 1) or let new entries displace the entries in the cache (if 0).

[Table A-3 on page A-8](#) lists all the bits in the `MODE2` register.


Freezing the cache prevents any changes to its contents—a cache miss does not result in a new instruction being stored in the cache. Disabling the cache stops its operation completely; all instruction fetches conflicting with program memory data accesses are delayed by the access. These functions are selected by the `CADIS` (cache enable/disable) and `CAFRZ` (cache freeze) bits in the `MODE2` register.

The cache content stays valid when the cache is disabled. The effect of disabling the cache is that an already cached instruction does not generate a



cache hit. The same instruction does generate a hit and can be taken from the cache after the cache is enabled.

If the cache freeze bit of the `MODE2` register is set by a program memory data access instruction  $n$ , then the  $n+2$  instruction is cached. This results from the effect latency of the `MODE2` register.

-  When a program changes the cache mode, an instruction containing a program memory data access must not be placed directly after a cache enable or cache disable instruction. This is because the DSP must wait at least one cycle before executing the PM data access. A program should have a `NOP` or other non-conflicting instruction inserted after the cache enable instruction.

## Optimizing Cache Usage

Cache operation is usually efficient and requires no intervention. However, certain ordering of instructions can work against the cache's architecture, reducing its efficiency. When the order of PM data accesses and instruction fetches continuously displaces cache entries and loads new entries, the cache does not operate efficiently. Rearranging the order of these instructions remedies this inefficiency. Optionally, a dummy PM read can be inserted to trigger the cache.

When a cache miss occurs, the needed instruction is loaded into the cache so that if the same instruction is needed again, it will be there (that is, a cache hit will occur). However, if another instruction whose address is mapped to the same set displaces this instruction, a cache miss occurs. The `LRU` bits help to reduce this possibility since at least two other instructions, mapped to the same set, are needed before an instruction is displaced. If three instructions mapped to the same set are all needed repeatedly, cache efficiency (that is, "hit rate") can go to zero. To solve this problem, move one or more instructions to a new address that is mapped to a different cache set.

## Instruction Cache

An example of inefficient cache code appears in [Table 3-1](#). The PM bus data access at address 0x101 in the loop, `Outer`, causes a bus conflict and also causes the cache to load the instruction being fetched at 0x103 (into set 3). Each time the program calls the subroutine, `Inner`, the program memory data accesses at 0x201 and 0x211 displace the instruction at 0x103 by loading the instructions at 0x203 and 0x213 (also into set 3). If the program rarely calls the `Inner` subroutine during the `Outer` loop execution, the repeated cache loads do not greatly influence performance. If the program frequently calls the subroutine while in the loop, cache inefficiency has a noticeable effect on performance. To improve cache efficiency on this code (if for instance, execution of the `Outer` loop is time critical), rearrange the order of some instructions. Moving the subroutine call up one location (starting at 0x201) also works. By using that order, the two cached instructions end up in cache set 4, instead of set 3.

Table 3-1. Cache Inefficient Code

Address	Instruction
0x0100	lcntnr = 1024, do Outer until LCE;
0x0101	r0 = dm(i0,m0), pm(i8,m8) = f3;
0x0102	r1 = r0 - r15;
0x0103	if eq call (Inner);
0x0104	f2 = float r1;
0x0105	f3 = f2 * f2;
0x0106	Outer: f3 = f3 + f4;
0x0107	pm(i8,m8) = f3;
...	
0x0200	Inner: r1 = R13;
0x0201	r14 = pm(i9,m9);
...	
0x0211	pm(i9,m9) = r12;

Table 3-1. Cache Inefficient Code (Cont'd)

Address	Instruction
...	
0x021F	rts;

## Branches and Sequencing

One type of nonsequential program flow that the sequencer supports is branching. A branch occurs when a `JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN` instruction moves execution to a location other than the next sequential address. For descriptions on how to use `JUMP` and `CALL/RETURN` instructions, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. Briefly, these instructions operate as follows.

- A `JUMP` or a `CALL` instruction transfers program flow to another memory location. The difference between a `JUMP` and a `CALL` is that a `CALL` automatically pushes the return address (the next sequential address after the `CALL` instruction) onto the PC stack. This push makes the address available for the `CALL` instruction's matching return from an `RTS` subroutine instruction.
- A `RETURN` instruction causes the sequencer to fetch the instruction at the return address, which is stored at the top of the PC stack. The two types of return instructions are return from subroutine (`RTS`) and return from interrupt (`RTI`). While the `RTS` only pops the return address off the PC stack, the `RTI` pops the return address and:
  1. Clears the interrupt's bit in the interrupt latch register (`IRPTL`) and allows another interrupt to be latched in the `IRPTL` register and the interrupt mask pointer (`IMASKP`) register. See [Table A-9 on page A-28](#).

## Branches and Sequencing

2. Pops the status stack if the `ASTATx/y` and `MODE1` status registers that have been pushed for interrupts `IRQ2-0` or timers.

There are a number of parameters that can be specified for branching instructions:

- Branches can be direct or indirect. For direct branches, the sequencer generates the address; for indirect branches, the PM data address generator (DAG2) produces the address
- Direct branches are `JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN` instructions that use an absolute—not changing at run time—address (such as a program label) or use a PC-relative address. Some instruction examples that cause a direct branch are:

```
CALL fft1024; /* Where fft1024 is an address label */  
JUMP (pc,10); /* Where (pc,10) is a PC-relative address */
```

Indirect branches are `JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN` instructions that use a dynamic address that comes from the PM data address generator (DAG2). For more information on the data address generator, see [“Data Address Generators” on page 4-1](#). Some instruction examples that cause an indirect branch are:

```
JUMP (i12, m8); /* where (m8,i12) are DAG2 registers */  
CALL (i13, m9); /* where (m9,i13) are DAG2 registers */
```

## Conditional Branches

The sequencer supports conditional branches. These conditional branches are `JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN` instructions whose execution is based on testing an `IF` condition. For more information on condition types in `IF` condition instructions, see [“Conditional Sequencing” on page 3-17](#). Note that the DSP’s Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode influences the execution of conditional branches. [For more information, see “Summary” on page 3-61.](#)

## Delayed Branches

The instruction pipeline influences how the sequencer handles delayed branches. For immediate branches in which `JUMP` and `CALL/RETURN` instructions are not specified as delayed branches (DB), two instruction cycles are lost (NOP) as the pipeline empties and refills with instructions from the new branch.

As shown in [Table 3-2](#) and [Table 3-2](#), the DSP aborts the two instructions after the branch, which are in the fetch and decode stages. For a `CALL`, the decode address (the address of the instruction after the `CALL`) is the return address. During the two lost NOP cycles, the pipeline fetches and decodes the first instruction at the branch address.

In the illustrations that follow, shading indicates aborted instructions, which are followed by NOP instructions.

Table 3-2. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Immediate Branch (Jump/Call)

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	N	NOP	NOP	J <sup>2</sup>
Decode	N + 1 → NOP <sup>1</sup>	N + 2 → NOP <sup>3</sup>	J <sup>2</sup>	J + 1
Fetch	N + 2	J <sup>2</sup>	J + 1	J + 2
1. N + 1 suppressed 2. For call, N + 1 pushed onto PC stack 3. N + 2 suppressed				

Table 3-3. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Immediate Branch (Return)

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	N	NOP	NOP	R
Decode	N + 1 → NOP <sup>1</sup>	N + 2 → NOP <sup>3</sup>	R	R + 1
Fetch	N + 2	R <sup>2</sup>	R + 1	R + 2
1. N + 1 suppressed 2. R (N + 1 in <a href="#">Figure 2-14 on page...</a> ) popped from PC stack 3. N + 2 suppressed				

## Branches and Sequencing

In delayed branch, JUMP and CALL/RETURN instructions that use the delayed branches (DB) modifier, no instruction cycles are lost in the pipeline. This is because the DSP executes the two instructions after the branch while the pipeline fills with instructions from the new location. This is shown in the sample code below.

```
call fft1024 (DB);
...
...
jump (pc,10) (DB);
```

As shown in [Table 3-4](#) and [Table 3-5](#), the DSP executes the two instructions after the branch, while the instruction at the branch address is fetched and decoded. In the case of a CALL, the return address is the third address after the branch instruction. While delayed branches use the instruction pipeline more efficiently than immediate branches, delayed branch code can be harder to understand because of the instructions between the branch instruction and the actual branch.

Table 3-4. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Delayed Branch (JUMP or CALL)

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	N	N + 1	N + 2	J
Decode	N + 1	N + 2	J	J + 1
Fetch	N + 2	J <sup>1</sup>	J + 1	J + 2
N is the branching instruction, and J is the instruction branch address. 1. For a delayed branch call, N + 3 is pushed on PC stack, not N + 1				

Table 3-5. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Delayed Branch (Return)

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	N <sup>1</sup>	N + 1	N + 2	R
Decode	N + 1	N + 2	R	R + 1
Fetch	N + 2	R	R + 1	R + 2
N is the branching instruction, and R is the instruction at the return address. 1. R (N + 3 pushed in figure...) popped from PC stack				

Besides being more challenging to code, delayed branches impose some limitations that stem from the instruction pipeline architecture. Because the delayed branch instruction and the two instructions that follow it must execute sequentially, the instructions in the two locations that follow a delayed branch instruction cannot be:

- Other branches (no JUMP, CALL, or RETURN instructions)

Normally, it is not valid to have two conditional instructions that use the (DB) option follow each other. However, where the execution of those instructions is mutually exclusive, it is allowed. For example:

```
if gt jump (PC, 7) (db)
if le jump (PC,11) (db)
```

- Any stack manipulations (no PUSH or POP instructions or writes to the PC stack or PC stack pointer register)
- Any loops or other breaks in sequential operation (no DO/UNTIL or IDLE instructions)



Development software for the DSP should always flag these types of instructions as code errors in the two locations after a delayed branch instruction.


Delayed branches and the instruction pipeline also influence interrupt processing. Because the delayed branch instruction and the two instructions that follow it always execute sequentially, the DSP does not immediately process an interrupt that occurs in between a delayed branch instruction and either of the two instructions that follow. Any interrupt that occurs during these instructions is latched, but is not processed until the branch is complete.

This may be useful when two instructions must execute atomically (without interruption), such as when working with semaphores. In the

## Loop and Status Stacks and Sequencing

following example, instruction 2 immediately follows instruction 1 in all occasions:

```
jump (pc, 3) (db):  
instruction 1;  
instruction 2;
```

 During a delayed branch, a program can read the PC stack register or PC stack pointer register. This read shows that the return address on the PC stack has already been pushed or popped, even though the branch has not yet occurred.

## Loop and Status Stacks and Sequencing

The sequencer includes a Program Counter (PC) stack, which appears in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#). At the start of a subroutine or loop, the sequencer pushes return addresses for subroutines (CALL/RETURN instructions) and top-of-loop addresses for loops (DO/UNTIL instructions) onto the PC stack. The sequencer pops the PC stack during a return from interrupt (RTI), return from subroutine (RTS), and a loop termination.

The Program Counter (PC) register is the last stage in the fetch-decode-execute instruction pipeline. It contains the 24-bit address of the instruction the DSP will execute on the next cycle. The PC register, combined with the Program Counter Stack (PCSTK) register, stores return addresses and top-of-loop addresses.

The PC stack is 30 locations deep. The stack is full when all entries are occupied, is empty when no entries are occupied, and is overflowed if a push occurs when the stack is full. The following bits in the STKYx register indicate the PC stack full and empty states.



- **PC stack full.** Bit 21 (PCFL) indicates that the PC stack is full (if 1) or not full (if 0)—not a sticky bit, cleared by a POP.
- **PC stack empty.** Bit 22 (PCEM) indicates that the PC stack is empty (if 1) or not empty (if 0)—not sticky, cleared by a PUSH.

Table A-5 on page A-18 lists all the bits in the STYKx register.

To prevent a PC stack overflow, the PC stack full condition generates the (maskable) stack overflow interrupt (SOVFI). This interrupt occurs when the PC stack has 29 of 30 locations filled (the almost full state). The PC stack full interrupt occurs when at this point because the PC stack full interrupt service routine needs that last location for its return address.

The address of the top of the PC stack is available in the PC stack pointer (PCSTKP) register. The value of PCSTKP is zero when the PC stack is empty, is 1 through 30 when the stack contains data, and is 31 when the stack overflows. A write to PCSTKP takes effect after a one cycle delay. If the PC stack is overflowed, a write to PCSTKP has no effect. This register can be read from and written to.

The overflow and full flags provide diagnostic aid only. Programs should not use these flags for runtime recovery from overflow. Note that the status stack, loop stack overflow, and PC stack full conditions trigger a maskable interrupt.

The empty flags can ease stack saves to memory. Programs can monitor the empty flag when saving a stack to memory to determine when the DSP has transferred all values.

## Conditional Sequencing

The sequencer supports conditional execution with conditional logic, as illustrated in Figure 3-6 on page 3-62. This logic evaluates conditions for conditional (IF) instructions and loop (DO/UNTIL) terminations. The conditions are based on information from the arithmetic status registers

## Conditional Sequencing

( $ASTAT_x$  and  $ASTAT_y$ ), the mode control 1 register ( $MODE1$ ), the flag inputs, and the loop counter. For more information on arithmetic status, see [“Using Computational Status” on page 2-16](#). When in SIMD mode, conditional execution is effected by the arithmetic status of both processing elements. For information on conditional sequencing in SIMD mode, see [“Summary” on page 3-61](#).

Each condition that the DSP evaluates has an assembler mnemonic. The condition mnemonics for conditional instructions appear in [Table 3-6](#). For most conditions, the sequencer can test both true and false states. For example, the sequencer can evaluate ALU equal-to-zero (EQ) and ALU not-equal-to-zero (NZ).

To branch conditionally based on the value of a register, a program can use the Test Flag (TF) condition generated from a Bit Test Flag (BTF) instruction. The TF flag is set or cleared as a result of a BIT TST or BIT XOR instruction, which can test the contents of any of the DSP’s system registers, including  $STKY_x$  and  $STKY_y$ .

Table 3-6. IF Condition and DO/UNTIL Termination Mnemonics

Condition From	Description	True if...	Mnemonic
ALU	ALU = 0	AZ = 1	EQ
	ALU ≠ 0	AZ = 0	NE
	ALU > 0	footnote <sup>1</sup>	GT
	ALU < zero	footnote <sup>2</sup>	LT
	ALU ≥ 0	footnote <sup>3</sup>	GE
	ALU ≤ 0	footnote <sup>4</sup>	LE
	ALU carry	AC = 1	AC
	ALU not carry	AC = 0	NOT AC
	ALU overflow	AV = 1	AV
	ALU not overflow	AV = 0	NOT AV
Multiplier	Multiplier overflow	MV = 1	MV
	Multiplier not overflow	MV = 0	NOT MV
	Multiplier sign	MN = 1	MS
	Multiplier not sign	MN = 0	NOT MS
Shifter	Shifter overflow	SV = 1	SV
	Shifter not overflow	SV = 0	NOT SV
	Shifter zero	SZ = 1	SZ
	Shifter not zero	SZ = 0	NOT SZ
System register manipulation logic	Bit test flag true	BTF = 1	TF
	Bit test flag false	BTF = 0	NOT TF

## Conditional Sequencing

Table 3-6. IF Condition and DO/UNTIL Termination Mnemonics (Cont'd)

Condition From	Description	True if...	Mnemonic
Flag Input	Flag0 asserted	FI0 = 1	FLAG0_IN
	Flag0 not asserted	FI0 = 0	NOT FLAG0_IN
	Flag1 asserted	FI1 = 1	FLAG1_IN
	Flag1 not asserted	FI1 = 0	NOT FLAG1_IN
	Flag2 asserted	FI2 = 1	FLAG2_IN
	Flag2 not asserted	FI2 = 0	NOT FLAG2_IN
	Flag3 asserted	FI3 = 1	FLAG3_IN
	Flag3 not asserted	FI3 = 0	NOT FLAG3_IN
Hardware Loop	Loop counter expired (Do)	CURLCNTR = 1	LCE
	Loop counter not expired (IF)	CURLCNTR $\neq$ 1	NOT ICE
	Always false (Do)	Always	FOREVER
	Always true (IF)	Always	TRUE

- 1 ALU greater than (GT) is true if:  $[\overline{AF} \text{ and } (AN \text{ xor } (AV \text{ and } \overline{ALUSAT})) \text{ or } (AF \text{ and } AN)] \text{ or } AZ = 0$
- 2 ALU less than (LT) is true if:  $[\overline{AF} \text{ and } (AN \text{ xor } (AV \text{ and } \overline{ALUSAT})) \text{ or } (AF \text{ and } AN \text{ and } \overline{AZ})] = 1$
- 3 ALU greater equal (GE) is true if:  $[\overline{AF} \text{ and } (AN \text{ xor } (AV \text{ and } \overline{ALUSAT})) \text{ or } (AF \text{ and } AN \text{ and } \overline{AZ})] = 0$
- 4 ALU lesser or equal (LE) is true if:  $[\overline{AF} \text{ and } (AN \text{ xor } (AV \text{ and } \overline{ALUSAT})) \text{ or } (AF \text{ and } AN)] \text{ or } AZ = 1$

The two conditions that do not have complements are LCE/NOT LCE (loop counter expired/not expired) and TRUE/FOREVER. The context of these condition codes determines their interpretation. Programs should use TRUE and NOT LCE in conditional (IF) instructions. Programs should use FOREVER and LCE to specify loop (DO/UNTIL) termination. A DO FOREVER instruction executes a loop indefinitely, until an interrupt or reset intervenes.

There are some restrictions on how programs may use conditions in DO/UNTIL loops. For more information, see [“Restrictions on Ending Loops” on page 3-27](#) and [“Restrictions on Short Loops” on page 3-28](#).

## Core Stalls

Like all previous SHARC processors, there are a number of conditions that cause the core to temporarily stop fetching and executing further instructions. This event, known as a *core stall*, occurs when an instruction accesses a peripheral's data-buffer. Specifically, the core stalls when it reads an empty receive buffer or writes a full transmit buffer. Execution resumes once the peripheral moves a valid word of data into the receive buffer or when the peripheral sends one word out from the transmit buffer.

In addition to standard core stall situations, there are four other conditions that cause the ADSP-2126x core to stall. The following instructions or sequences of instructions will cause the processor core to stall for one or more cycles. These stalls were introduced to facilitate the doubling of the core clock rate without modifying the 3-deep instruction-pipeline.

1. Reading or writing any memory mapped register in a conditional instruction stalls the core for one cycle. This means that a total of two cycles are needed for that instruction to complete.
2. Reading the System/Emulator memory-mapped registers shown in [Table 3-7](#) stalls the processor for one cycle. Therefore, a total of two cycles are needed for that instruction.

## Core Stalls

Table 3-7. System/Emulator Memory-Mapped Registers

Register	Address	Register	Address
EEMUIN	0x30020	PSA4S	0x300A6
EEMUSTAT	0x30021	PSA4E	0x300A7
EEMUOUT	0x30022	DMA1S	0x300B2
SYSCTL	0x30024	DMA1E	0x300B3
BRKCTL	0x30025	DMA2S	0x300B4
REVPID	0x30026	DMA2E	0x300B5
PSA1S	0x300A0	PMDAS	0x300B8
PSA1E	0x300A1	PMDAE	0x300B9
PSA2S	0x300A2	EMUN	0x300AE
PSA2E	0x300A3	IOAS	0x300B0
PSA3S	0x300A4	IOAE	0x300B1
PSA3E	0x300A5		

3. Reading from all other memory-mapped registers and data-buffers (for example `RXSPI`, `PPCTL`, or `SPISTAT`) stalls the processor core for three cycles. Therefore, a total of four cycles is needed for that instruction to complete.
4. If the following sequence of three instructions is executed without any other instruction between them, then the processor stalls for one cycle.
  - a. **Instruction 1:** Compute instruction affecting flags such as  $R2 = R3 - R4$ ;
  - b. **Instruction 2:** Conditional instruction involving post-modify addressing such as  $IF EQ DM(I1, M1) = R15$ ;
  - c. **Instruction 3:** Instruction involving post-modify or pre-modify addressing involving the same I register such as  $R0 = DM(I1, M2)$ ;

The stall occurs during the decode phase of Instruction 3. Instruction 3 takes two cycles to complete decode.

## Execution Stalls

The following events can cause an execution stall for the ADSP-2126x:

- One cycle on a Program Memory Data Access with instruction cache miss
- Two cycles on non-delayed branches
- Two cycles on normal interrupts
- One to two cycles on short loops with small iterations
- $n$  cycles on an `IDLE` instruction
- In a sequence of three instructions of the types shown below, the processor may stall for one cycle:

Instruction 1: Compute instruction affecting flags such as

`R2 = R3 - R4;`

Instruction 2: Conditional instruction involving post-modify addressing such as `IF EQ DM(I1,M1) = R15;`

Instruction 3: Instruction such as `R0 = DM(I1,M2);` involving post-modify addressing involving same `I` register. This last instruction stalls the processor for one cycle.

- Any read reference to a memory-mapped register located physically within core (registers like `SYSCTL`, which are not situated in the IOP) requires two cycles; therefore, the processor stalls for one cycle.

## Core Stalls

- Any read reference to a memory-mapped register located within a peripheral such as the SPI, SPORTS, IDP, or parallel port requires a minimum of four cycles; so the minimum stall is three cycles.
- Any reference to a memory-mapped register in a conditional instruction stalls the processor for one extra cycle (with respect to an unconditional instruction).

## DAG Stalls

One cycle hold on register conflict.

## Memory Stalls

One cycle on PM and DM bus access to the same block of internal memory.

## IOP Register Stalls

Read of the IOP registers takes a minimum of four cycles, therefore the processor stalls for at least three cycles.

## DMA Stalls

The following events can cause a DMA stall for the ADSP-2126x:

- One cycle stall if an access to a DMA Parameter register conflicts with the DMA address generation. For example, writing to or reading from a DMA Parameter register while a register update is taking place conflicts with DMA chaining.
- $n$  cycles if writing (or reading) to a DMA buffer when the buffer is full (or empty).




- TCB loading takes 16 core clock cycles to configure 4 IOP registers. This access is not divisible.

## Loops and Sequencing

Another type of nonsequential program flow that the sequencer supports is looping. A loop occurs when a `DO/UNTIL` instruction causes the DSP to repeat a sequence of instructions until a condition tests true. Unlike other processors, the SHARC automatically evaluates the loop termination condition and modifies the Program Counter (PC) register appropriately. This allows zero overhead looping.

In addition to the standard status flags available to all conditional instructions (EQ, GT, LT, and so on), a special condition instruction Loop Counter Expired (LCE), is specifically used for terminating loops. This instruction tests whether the loop has completed the required number of iterations in the LCNTR register. Loops that terminate with conditions other than LCE have some additional restrictions. For more information, see [“Restrictions on Ending Loops” on page 3-27](#) and [“Restrictions on Short Loops” on page 3-28](#). For more information on condition types in `DO/UNTIL` instructions, see [“Interrupts and Sequencing” on page 3-48](#).

 The DSP’s SIMD mode influences the execution of loops.

The `DO/UNTIL` instruction uses the sequencer’s loop and condition features, as shown in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#). These features provide efficient hardware loops without the overhead of additional instructions to branch, test a condition, or decrement a counter. The following code example shows a `DO/UNTIL` loop that contains three instructions and iterates 30 times.

```
LCNTR = 30, DO the_end UNTIL LCE; /*Loop iterates 30 times*/
R0 = DM(I0,M0), F2 = PM(I8,M8);
R1 = R0-R15;
the_end: F4 = F2 + F3;          /*Last instruction in loop*/
```

## Loops and Sequencing

When executing a `DO/UNTIL` instruction, the program sequencer pushes the address of the loop's last instruction and its termination condition onto the loop address stack. The sequencer also pushes the top-of-loop address—the address of the instruction following the `DO/UNTIL` instruction—onto the PC stack.

The sequencer's instruction pipeline architecture influences loop termination. Because instructions are pipelined, the sequencer must test the termination condition and, if the loop is counter-based, decrement the counter before the end of the loop. Based on the test's outcome, the next fetch either exits the loop or returns to the top-of-loop.

The termination condition test occurs when the DSP is executing the instruction that is two locations before the last instruction in the loop (at location  $e - 2$ , where  $e$  is the end-of-loop address). If the condition tests false, the sequencer repeats the loop and fetches the instruction from the top-of-loop address, which is stored on the top of the PC stack. If the condition tests true, the sequencer terminates the loop and fetches the next instruction after the end of the loop, popping the loop and PC stacks.

A special case of loop termination is the loop abort instruction, `JUMP (LA)`. This instruction causes an automatic loop abort when it occurs inside a loop. When the loop aborts, the sequencer pops the PC and loop address stacks once. If the aborted loop was nested, the single pop of the stacks leaves the correct values in place for the outer loop.

[Table 3-8](#) and [Table 3-9](#) show the pipeline states for loop iteration and termination.

Table 3-8. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Loop Back (Iteration)

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	$E - 2^1$	$E - 1$	E	B
Decode	$E - 1$	E	B	$B + 1$
Fetch	E	$B^2$	$B + 1$	$B + 2$

E is the loop end instruction, and B is the loop start instruction.  
 1. Termination condition tests false  
 2. Loop start address is the top of the PC stack

Table 3-9. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Loop Termination

Cycles	1	2	3	4
Execute	$E - 2^1$	$E - 1$	E	$E + 1$
Decode	$E - 1$	E	$E + 1$	$E + 2$
Fetch	E	$E + 1^2$	$E + 2$	$E + 3$

E is the loop end instruction.  
 1. Termination condition tests true  
 2. Loop aborts and loop stacks pop

## Restrictions on Ending Loops

The sequencer's loop features (which optimize performance in many ways) limit the types of instructions that may appear at or near the end of the loop. These restrictions include:

- Nested loops cannot use the same end-of-loop instruction address.
- Nested loops with a non-counter-based loop as the outer loop must place the end address of the outer loop at least two addresses after the end address of the inner loop.
- Nested loops with a non-counter-based loop as the outer loop that use the loop abort instruction, `JUMP (LA)`, to abort the inner loop, may not `JUMP (LA)` to the last instruction of the outer loop.

## Loops and Sequencing

- An instruction that writes to the loop counter from memory cannot be used as the third-to-last instruction of a counter-based loop (at  $e-2$ , where  $e$  is the end-of-loop address).
- An `IF NOT LCE` instruction cannot be used as the instruction that follows a write to `CURLCNTR` from memory.
- Branch (`JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN`) instructions may not be used as any of the last three instructions of a loop. This no end-of-loop branches rule also applies to single instruction and two instruction loops with only one iteration.

There is one exception to the no end-of-loop branches rule. The last three instructions of a loop may contain an immediate `CALL`, a `CALL` without a `DB` modifier, that is paired with a loop re-entry return, a return (`RTS`) with loop reentry (`LR`) modifier. The immediate `CALL` may be one of the last three instructions of a loop, but not in a one instruction loop or a two instruction, single iteration loop.

## Restrictions on Short Loops

The sequencer's pipeline features (which optimize performance in many ways) restrict how short loops iterate and terminate. Short loops (one or two instruction loops) terminate in a special way because they are shorter than the instruction pipeline. Counter-based loops (`DO/UNTIL LCE`) of one or two instructions are not long enough for the sequencer to check the termination condition two instructions from the end of the loop. In these short loops, the sequencer has already looped back when the termination condition is tested. The sequencer provides special handling to prevent overhead (`NOP`) cycles if the loop is iterated a minimum number of times.

[Table 3-10](#) and [Table 3-11](#) show the pipeline execution for counter-based single instruction loops. [Table 3-12](#) and [Table 3-13](#) show the pipeline execution for counter-based two instruction loops. For no overhead, a loop of length one must be executed at least three times and a loop of length two must be executed at least twice. Loops of length one that

iterate only once or twice and loops of length two that iterate only once incur two cycles of overhead, because two aborted instructions after the last iteration are needed to clear the instruction pipeline.

Table 3-10. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Single Instruction Counter-based Loop with Three Iterations

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5
Execute	$N^1$	$N + 1$ (Pass 1)	$N + 1$ (Pass 2)	$N + 1$ (Pass 3)	$N + 2$
Decode	$N + 1$	$N + 1$	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	$N + 3$
Fetch	$N + 2$	$N + 1^2$	$N + 2^3$	$N + 3$	$N + 4$
<p><math>N</math> is the loop start instruction and <math>N + 2</math> is the instruction after the loop.</p> <p>1. Loop count (LCNTR) equals 3</p> <p>2. No opcode latch or fetch address update; count expired tests true</p> <p>3. Loop iteration aborts; PC and loop stacks pop</p>					

Table 3-11. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Single Instruction Counter-based Loop with Two Iterations (Two Overhead Cycles)

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5	6
Execute	$N^1$	$N + 1$ (Pass 1)	$N + 1$ (Pass 2)	NOP	NOP	$N + 2$
Decode	$N + 1$	$N + 1$	$N + 1 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>4</sup>	$N + 1 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>5</sup>	$N + 2$	$N + 3$
Fetch	$N + 2$	$N + 1^2$	$N + 1^3$	$N + 2$	$N + 3$	$N + 4$
<p><math>N</math> is the loop start instruction and <math>N + 3</math> is the instruction after the loop.</p> <p>1. Loop count (LCNTR) equals 2</p> <p>2. PC Stack supplies loop start address</p> <p>3. Count expired tests true</p> <p>4. Loop iteration aborts; PC and loop stacks pop</p>						

## Loops and Sequencing

Table 3-12. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Two Instruction Counterbased Loop with Two Iterations

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5	6
Execute	$N^1$	$N + 1$ (Pass 1)	$N + 2$ (Pass 1)	$N + 1$ (Pass 2)	$N + 2$ (Pass 2)	$N + 3$
Decode	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	$N + 3$	$N + 4$
Fetch	$N + 2$	$N + 1^2$	$N + 2^3$	$N + 3^4$	$N + 4$	$N + 5$
<p><math>N</math> is the loop start instruction and <math>N + 3</math> is the instruction after the loop.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Loop count (LCNTR) equals 2</li> <li>2. PC Stack supplies loop start address</li> <li>3. Count expired tests true</li> <li>4. Loop iteration aborts; PC and loop stacks pop</li> </ol>						

Table 3-13. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Two Instruction Counterbased Loop with One Iteration (Two Overhead Cycles)

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5	6
Execute	$N^1$	$N + 1$ (Pass 1)	$N + 1$ (Pass 1)	NOP	NOP	$N + 3$
Decode	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	$N + 1 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>4</sup>	$N + 2 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>5</sup>	$N + 3$	$N + 4$
Fetch	$N + 2$	$N + 1^2$	$N + 2^3$	$N + 3$	$N + 4$	$N + 5$
<p><math>N</math> is the loop start instruction and <math>N + 3</math> is the instruction after the loop.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Loop count (LCNTR) equals 1</li> <li>2. PC Stack supplies loop start address</li> <li>3. Count expired tests true</li> <li>4. Loop iteration aborts; PC and loop stacks pop; <math>N + 1</math> suppressed</li> <li>5. <math>N + 2</math> suppressed</li> </ol>						

Processing of an interrupt that occurs during the last iteration of a one instruction loop is delayed by one cycle when:

- the loop executes once or twice,
- a two instruction loop executes once, or
- a NOP cycle follows one of these loops.

Similarly, in a one instruction loop that iterates at least three times, processing is delayed by one cycle if the interrupt occurs during the third-to-last iteration. For more information on pipeline execution during interrupts, see [“Interrupts and Sequencing” on page 3-48](#).

Short noncounter-based loops terminate differently from short counter-based loops. These differences stem from the architecture of the pipeline and conditional logic:

- In a three instruction non counter-based loop, the sequencer tests the termination condition when the DSP executes the top of loop instruction. When the condition tests true, the sequencer completes the iteration of the loop and terminates.
- In a two instruction non counter-based loop, the sequencer tests the termination condition when the DSP executes the last (second) instruction. If the condition becomes true when the first instruction is executed, and the condition tests true during the second instruction, then the sequencer completes one more iteration of the loop before exiting. If the condition becomes true during the second instruction, the sequencer completes two more iterations of the loop before exiting.
- In a one instruction non counter-based loop, the sequencer tests the termination condition every cycle. After the cycle when the condition becomes true, the sequencer completes three more iterations of the loop before exiting. But if the one instruction used in the loop is a PM instruction, then the loop is executed only two more times.

### Loop Address Stack

The sequencer’s loop support, shown in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#), includes a loop address stack. The loop address stack is six levels deep by 32 bits wide.

## Loops and Sequencing

The `LADDR` register contains the top entry on the loop address stack. This register is readable and writable over the DM data bus. Reading from and writing to `LADDR` does not move the loop address stack pointer; only a stack push or pop performed with explicit instructions moves the stack pointer. `LADDR` contains the value `0xFFFF FFFF` when the loop address stack is empty. “[Loop Address Stack Register \(LADDR\)](#)” on page A-35 lists all the bits in the `LADDR` register.

The sequencer pushes an entry onto the loop address stack when executing a `DO/UNTIL` or `PUSH Loop` instruction. The stack entry pops off the stack two instructions before the end of its loop’s last iteration or on a `POP Loop` instruction. A stack overflow occurs if a seventh entry (one more than full) is pushed onto the loop stack. The stack is empty when no entries are occupied.

The loop stacks’ overflow or empty status is available. Because the sequencer keeps the loop stack and loop counter stack synchronized, the same overflow and empty flags apply to both stacks. These flags are in the sticky status register (`STKYx`). For more information on `STKYx`, see [Table A-5 on page A-18](#). For more information on how these flags work with the loop stacks, see “[Loop Counter Stack](#)” on page 3-32. Note that a loop stack overflow causes a maskable interrupt.

Because the sequencer tests the termination condition two instructions before the end of the loop, the loop stack pops before the end of the loop’s final iteration. If a program reads `LADDR` at either of these instructions, the value is already the termination address for the next loop stack entry.

## Loop Counter Stack

The sequencer’s loop support, shown in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#), includes a loop counter stack. The sequencer keeps the loop counter stack synchronized with the loop address stack. Both stacks always have the same number of locations occupied. Because these stacks are synchronized, the



same empty and overflow status flags from the `STKYx` register apply to both stacks.

The loop counter stack is six locations deep. The stack is full when all entries are occupied, is empty when no entries are occupied, and is overflowed if a push occurs when the stack is already full. The following bits in the `STKYx` register indicate the loop counter stack full and empty states.

- **Loop stacks overflowed.** Bit 25 (`LSOV`) indicates that the loop counter stack and loop stack are overflowed (if set to 1) or not overflowed (if set to 0)—`LSOV` is a sticky bit.
- **Loop stacks empty.** Bit 26 (`LSEM`) indicates that the loop counter stack and loop stack are empty (if set to 1) or not empty (if set to 0)—not sticky, cleared by a `PUSH`.

Within the sequencer, the current loop counter (`CURLCNTR`) and loop counter (`LCNTR`) registers allow access to the loop counter stack. The `CURLCNTR` register tracks iterations for a loop being executed, and the `LCNTR` register holds the count value before the loop is executed. The two counters let the DSP maintain the count for an outer loop, while a program is setting up the count for an inner loop.

The top entry in the loop counter stack (`CURLCNTR`) always contains the current loop count. This register is readable and writable over the DM data bus. Reading `CURLCNTR` when the loop counter stack is empty returns the value `0xFFFF FFFF`.

The sequencer decrements the value of `CURLCNTR` for each loop iteration. Because the sequencer tests the termination condition two instruction cycles before the end of the loop, the loop counter also decrements before the end of the loop. If a program reads `CURLCNTR` at either of the last two loop instructions, the value is already the count for the next iteration.


The loop counter stack pops two instructions before the end of the last loop iteration. When the loop counter stack pops, the new top entry of the stack becomes the `CURLCNTR` value—the count in effect for the executing

## Loops and Sequencing

loop. If there is no executing loop, the value of `CURLCNTR` is `0xFFFF FFFF` after the pop.

Writing `CURLCNTR` does not cause a stack push. If a program writes a new value to `CURLCNTR`, the program changes the count value of the loop currently executing. When a `DO/UNTIL LCE` loop is not executing, writing to `CURLCNTR` has no effect. Because the processor must use `CURLCNTR` to perform counter-based loops, some restrictions relating to how a program can write `CURLCNTR` apply. See “[Restrictions on Ending Loops](#)” on page 3-27 for more information.

The next-to-top entry in the loop counter stack (`LCNTR`) is the location on the stack that takes effect on the next loop stack push. To set up a count value for a nested loop without changing the count for the currently executing loop, a program writes the count value to `LCNTR`.

 A value of zero in `LCNTR` causes a loop to execute  $2^{32}$  times.

A `DO/UNTIL LCE` instruction pushes the value of `LCNTR` onto the loop count stack, making that value the new `CURLCNTR` value. [Figure 3-4](#) demonstrates this process for a set of nested loops. The previous `CURLCNTR` value is preserved one location down in the stack. If a program reads the `LCNTR` when the loop counter stack is full, the stack returns invalid data. When the loop counter stack is full, the stack discards any data written to `LCNTR`.

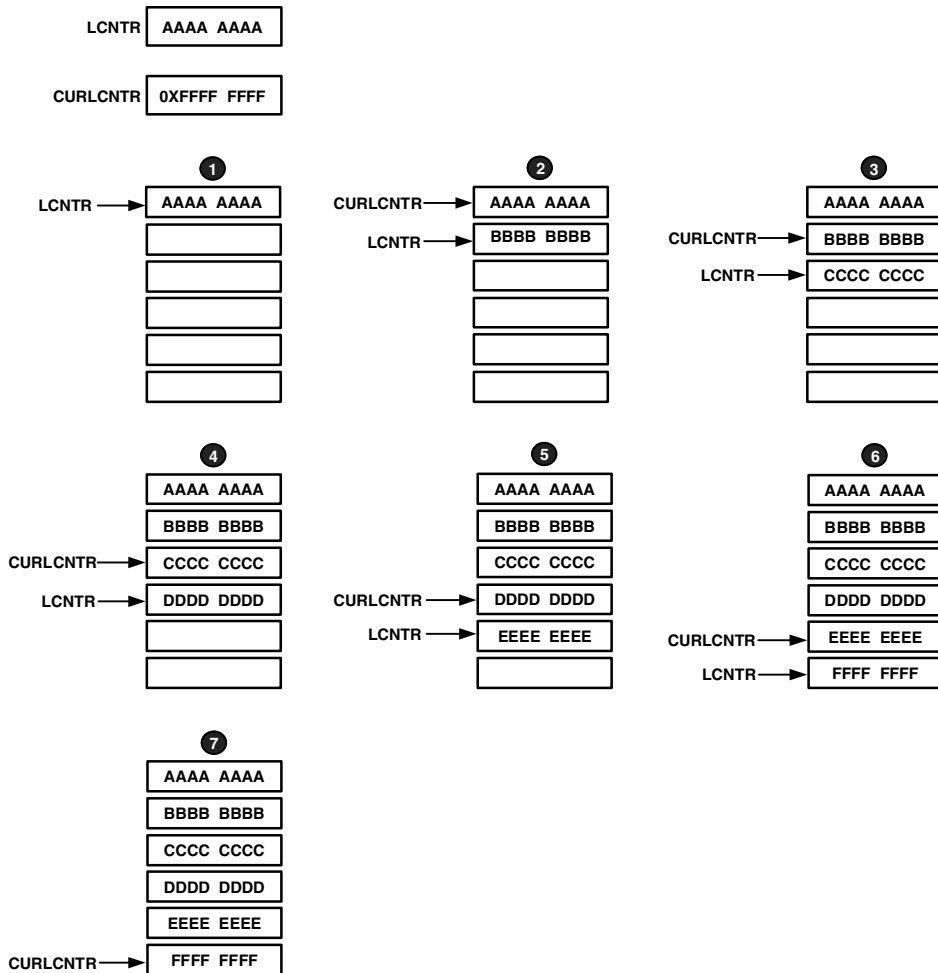


Figure 3-4. Pushing the Loop Counter Stack for Nested Loops

## SIMD Mode and Sequencing

### Reading From LCNTR in a LOOP

If a program reads `LCNTR` during the last two instructions of a terminating loop, the value of `LCNTR` is the last `CURLCNTR` value for the loop. For example:

```
R12=0x8;
LCNTR = R12, do (PC,7) until lce;
nop;
nop;
nop;
nop;
nop;
dm(IO,M0) = LCNTR;
dm(IO,M0) = LCNTR;
```

-----  
LCNTR is 8 in first 7 iterations, in the last iteration it is 1.

## SIMD Mode and Sequencing

The DSP supports a SIMD (Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data) mode. In this mode, both of the DSP's processing elements (PE<sub>x</sub> and PE<sub>y</sub>) execute instructions and generate status conditions. For more information on SIMD computations, see [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50](#).

Because the two processing elements can generate different outcomes, the sequencers must evaluate conditions from both elements (in SIMD mode) for conditional (IF) instructions and loop (DO/UNTIL) terminations. The DSP records status for the PE<sub>x</sub> element in the `ASTATx` and `STKYx` registers. The DSP records status for the PE<sub>y</sub> element in the `ASTATy` and `STKYy` registers. [Table A-4 on page A-12](#) lists the bits in `ASTATx` and `ASTATy`, and [Table A-5 on page A-18](#) lists the bits in `STKYx` and `STKYy`.

Even though the DSP has dual processing elements, the sequencer does not have dual sets of stacks. The sequencer has one PC stack, one loop address stack, and one loop counter stack. The status bits for stacks are in

STKY<sub>x</sub> and are not duplicated in STKY<sub>y</sub>. In SIMD mode, the status stack stores both ASTAT<sub>x</sub> and ASTAT<sub>y</sub> values. A status stack PUSH or POP instruction in SIMD mode affects both registers in parallel.

While in SIMD mode, the sequencer evaluates conditions from both processing elements for conditional (IF) and loop (DO/UNTIL) instructions. Table 3-14 summarizes how the sequencer resolves each conditional test when SIMD mode is enabled.

Table 3-14. Conditional Execution Summary

Conditional Operation	Conditional Outcome Depends On ...
Compute Operations	Executes in each PE independently depending on condition test in each PE
Branches and Loops	Executes in sequencer depending on ANDing condition test on both PEs
Data Moves (from complementary pair <sup>1</sup> to complementary pair)	Executes move in each PE (and/or memory) independently depending on condition test in each PE
Data Moves (from uncomplemented Ureg register to complementary pair)	Executes move in each PE (and/or memory) independently depending on condition test in each PE; <i>Ureg</i> is source for each move
Data Moves (from complementary pair to uncomplemented register <sup>2</sup> )	Executes explicit move to uncomplemented universal register depending on condition test in PEx only; no implicit move occurs
DAG Operations	Executes modify <sup>3</sup> in DAG depending on ORing condition test on both PE's

- 1 Complementary pairs are registers with SIMD complements, include PEx/y data registers and USTAT1/2, USTAT3/4, ASTATx/y, STKYx/y, and PX1/2 Uregs.
- 2 Uncomplemented registers are Uregs that do not have SIMD complements.
- 3 Post-modify operations follow this rule, but pre-modify operations always occur despite the outcome.

### Conditional Compute Operations

While in SIMD mode, a conditional compute operation can execute on both processing elements, either element, or neither element, depending on the outcome of the status flag test. Flag testing is independently performed on each processing element.

### Conditional Branches and Loops

The DSP executes a conditional branch (JUMP or CALL/RETURN) or loop (DO/UNTIL) based on the result of ANDing the condition tests on both PEx and PEy. A conditional branch or loop in SIMD mode occurs only when the condition is true in PEx and PEy.

Using complementary conditions (for example EQ and NE), programs can produce an ORing of the condition tests for branches and loops in SIMD mode. A conditional branch or loop that uses this technique must consist of a series of conditional compute operations. These conditional computes generate NOPs on the processing element where a branch or loop does not execute. For more information on programming in SIMD mode, see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*.

### Conditional Data Moves

The execution of a conditional (IF) data move (register-to-register and register-to/from-memory) instruction depends on three factors:

- The explicit data move depends on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx processing element.
- The implicit data move depends on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEy processing element.
- Both moves depend on the types of registers used in the move.

There are four cases for SIMD conditional data moves.

### Case #1: Complementary Register Pair Data Move

In this case, data moves from a complementary register pair to a complementary register pair. The DSP executes the explicit move depending on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx processing element and the implicit move depending on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEy processing element. For example:

```
IF EQ DM(I0,M0) = R2;
```

#### Example 1: Register-to-Memory Move – PEx Explicit Register

For this instruction, the DSP is operating in SIMD mode, a register in the PEx data register file is the explicit register, and I0 is pointing to an even address in internal memory. Indirect addressing is shown in the instructions in the example. However, the same results occur using direct addressing. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements is shown in [Table 3-15](#).

The moves from the DAG registers to the memory also behave in a similar manner, as demonstrated in [Table 3-15](#). For example:

```
If EQ pm(i0,m0) = m15;
```

Table 3-15. Register-to-Memory Moves—Complementary Pairs

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
		Explicit	Implicit
AZx	AZy		
0	0	No data move occurs	No data move occurs
0	1	No data move occurs from r2 to location I0	s2 transfers to location (I0+1)
1	0	r2 transfers to location I0	No data move occurs from s2 to location (I0+1)
1	1	r2 transfers to location I0	s2 transfers to location (I0+1)

## SIMD Mode and Sequencing

### Example 2: Register Move – PEy Explicit Register

For this instruction, the DSP is operating in SIMD mode, a register in the PEy data register file is the explicit register and I0 is pointing to an even address in internal memory. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements is shown in [Table 3-16](#).

```
IF EQ DM(I0,M0) = S2;
```

Table 3-16. Register-to-Register Moves – Complementary Pairs

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZ <sub>x</sub>	AZ <sub>y</sub>	Explicit	Implicit
0	0	No data move occurs	No data move occurs
0	1	No data move occurs from s2 to location I0	r2 transfers to location I0+1
1	0	s2 transfers to location I0	No data move occurs from r2 to location I0 + 1
1	1	s2 transfers to location I0	r2 transfers to location I0 + 1

### Example 3: Register-to-Memory Move – PEx Explicit Register

For the following instructions, the DSP is operating in SIMD mode and registers in the PEx data register file are used as the explicit registers. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements is shown in [Table 3-17](#).

```
IF EQ R9 = R2;  
IF EQ PX1 = R2;  
IF EQ USTAT1 = R2;
```



Table 3-17. Register-to-Register Moves – Complementary Pairs

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZ <sub>x</sub>	AZ <sub>y</sub>	Explicit	Implicit
0	0	No data move occurs	No data move occurs
0	1	No data move to registers r9, px1, and ustat1 occurs	s2 transfers to registers s9, px2 and ustat2
1	0	r2 transfers to registers r9, px1, and ustat1	No data move to s9, px2, or ustat2 occurs
1	1	r2 transfers to registers r9, px1, and ustat1	s2 transfers to registers s9, px2, and ustat2

### Example 4: Register-to-Memory Move – PEy Explicit Register

For the following instructions, the DSP is operating in SIMD mode and registers in the PEy data register file are used as explicit registers. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements is shown in [Table 3-18](#).

```
IF EQ R9 = S2;
IF EQ PX1 = S2;
IF EQ USTAT1 = S2;
```

Table 3-18. Register-to-Register Moves – Complementary Register Pairs

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZ <sub>x</sub>	AZ <sub>y</sub>	Explicit	Implicit
0	0	No data move occurs	No data move occurs
0	1	No data move to registers s9, px and ustat1 occurs	r2 transfers to registers s9, px2, and ustat2

## SIMD Mode and Sequencing


Table 3-18. Register-to-Register Moves – Complementary Register Pairs

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZ <sub>x</sub>	AZ <sub>y</sub>	Explicit	Implicit
1	0	s2 transfers to registers r9, px1, and ustat1	NO data move to registers s9, px2, and ustat2 occurs
1	1	s2 transfers to registers r9, px1, and ustat1	r2 transfers to registers s9, px2, and ustat2

### Case #2: Uncomplimentary-to-Complementary Register Move

In this case, data moves from an uncomplemented register ( $U_{reg}$  without a SIMD complement) to a complementary register pair. The DSP executes the explicit move depending on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx processing element. The DSP executes the implicit move depending on the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEy processing element. In each processing element where the move occurs, the content of the source register is duplicated in the destination register.

#### Example: Register Moves – Uncomplimentary-to-Complementary

 While PX1 and PX2 are complementary registers, the combined PX register has no complementary register. [For more information, see “Internal Data Bus Exchange” on page 5-6.](#)

For the following instruction the DSP is operating in SIMD mode. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements is shown in [Table 3-19](#).

```
IF EQ R1 = PX;
```

Table 3-19. Uncomplimentary-to-Complementary Register Move

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZx	AZy	Explicit	Implicit
0	0	r1 remains unchanged	s1 remains unchanged
0	1	r1 remains unchanged	s1 gets px value
1	0	r1 gets px value	s1 remains unchanged
1	1	r1 gets px value	s1 gets px value

### Case #3: Complementary-to-Uncomplimentary Register Move

In this case data moves from a complementary register pair to an uncomplimentary register. The DSP executes the explicit move to the uncomplimented universal register, depending on the condition test in the PEx processing element only. The DSP does not perform an implicit move.

#### Example: Register Moves – Complementary-to-Uncomplimentary

For all of the following instructions, the DSP is operating in SIMD mode. The data movement resulting from the evaluation of the conditional test in the PEx and PEy processing elements for all of the example code samples are shown in [Table 3-20](#).

```
IF EQ PX = R1;
```

Uncomplimented register to DAG move:

```
if EQ m1=PX;
```

DAG to uncomplimented register move:

```
if EQ PX = m1;
```

Note that PX1 and PX2 have compliments, but PX as a register is uncomplimented.

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DAG to DAG move:

```
if EQ m1 = i15;
```

Complimented register to DAG move:

```
if EQ i6 = r9;
```

In all the cases described above, the behavior is the same. If the condition in PEx is true, then only the transfer occurs.

Table 3-20. Complementary-to-Uncomplimentary Move

Condition in PEx	Condition in PEy	Result	
AZx	AZy	Explicit	Implicit
0	0	px remains unchanged	no implicit move
0	1	px remains unchanged	no implicit move
1	0	r1 40-bit explicit move to px	no implicit move
1	1	r1 40-bit explicit move to px	no implicit move

For more details on PX register transfers, refer to [“Internal Data Bus Exchange” on page 5-6](#).

### Case #4: External Memory or IOP Memory Space Data Move

Conditional data moves from a complementary register pair to an uncomplimented register with an access to external memory space or IOP memory space. This results in unexpected behavior and should not be used.

#### Example: Register-to-Memory Moves – External or IOP Memory Space Data Move

For the following instructions the DSP is operating in SIMD mode and the explicit register is either a PEx register or PEy register. 10 points to either external memory space or IOP memory space. This example shows

indirect addressing. However, the same results occur using direct addressing.

```
IF EQ DM(I0,M0) = R2;  
IF EQ DM(I0,M0) = S2;
```

### Case #5: Uncomplimentary Register Data Move

In the case of memory-to-DAG register moves, the transfer does not occur when both PEx and PEy are false. Other than that, if either PEx or PEy is true, transfers to the DAG register occurs. For example:

```
if EQ m13 = dm(i0,m1);
```

### Conditional DAG Operations

Conditional post-modify DAG operations update the DAG register based on ORing of the condition tests on both processing elements. Actual data movement involved in a conditional DAG operation is based on independent evaluation of condition tests in PEx and PEy. Only the post-modify update is based on the ORing of the these conditional tests.

Conditional pre-modify DAG operations behave differently. The DAGs always pre-modify an index, independent of the outcome of the condition tests on each processing element.

# Timer and Sequencing

The sequencer includes a programmable interval timer, which appears in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#). Bits in the `MODE2`, `TCOUNT`, and `TPERIOD` registers control timer operations as described below.

- **Timer enable** (`MODE2` Bit 5 (`TIMEN`)). This bit directs the DSP to enable (if 1) or disable (if 0) the timer.
- **Timer count** (`TCOUNT`). This register contains the decrementing timer count value, counting down the cycles between timer interrupts.
- **Timer period** (`TPERIOD`). This register contains the timer period, indicating the number of cycles between timer interrupts.

[Table A-3 on page A-8](#) lists all of the bits in the `MODE2` register.

The `TCOUNT` register contains the timer counter. The timer decrements the `TCOUNT` register during each clock cycle. When the `TCOUNT` value reaches zero, the timer generates an interrupt and asserts the `TIMEXP` pin. This scenario applies only when `TCOUNT` is configured as `TIMEXP` output high for four cycles (when the timer is enabled), as shown in [Figure 3-5](#). On the clock cycle after `TCOUNT` reaches zero, the timer automatically reloads `TCOUNT` from the `TPERIOD` register.

The `TPERIOD` value specifies the frequency of timer interrupts. The number of cycles between interrupts is  $TPERIOD + 1$ . The maximum value of `TPERIOD` is  $2^{32} - 1$ . This value is loaded into `TCOUNT` after it decrements to zero.

To start and stop the timer, programs use the `MODE2` register's `TIMEN` bit. With the timer disabled (`TIMEN=0`), the program loads `TCOUNT` with an initial count value and loads `TPERIOD` with the number of cycles for the desired interval. Then, the program enables the timer (`TIMEN=1`) to begin the count.

When a program enables the timer, the timer starts decrementing the `TCOUNT` register at the end of the next clock cycle. If the timer is subsequently disabled, the timer stops decrementing `TCOUNT` after the next clock cycle as shown in [Figure 3-5](#).

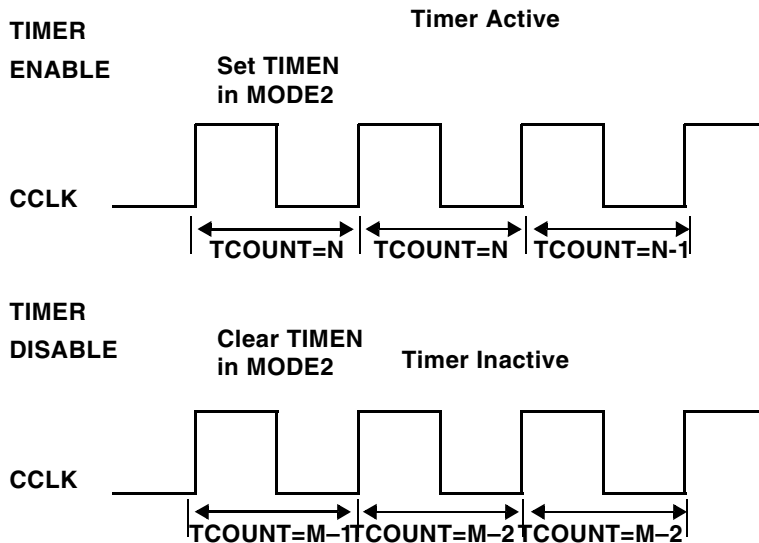


Figure 3-5. Timer Enable and Disable

The timer expired event (`TCOUNT` decrements to zero) generates two interrupts, `TMZHI` and `TMZLI`. For information on latching and masking these interrupts to select timer expired priority, see [“Latching Interrupts” on page 3-55](#).

As with other interrupts, the sequencer needs two cycles to fetch and decode the first instruction of the timer expired service routine before executing the routine. The pipeline execution for the timer interrupt appears in [Figure 3-23 on page 3-51](#).

Programs can read and write the `TPERIOD` and `TCOUNT` registers by using universal register transfers. Reading the registers does not effect the timer. Note that an explicit write to `TCOUNT` takes priority over the sequencer’s

## Interrupts and Sequencing

loading `TCOUNT` from `TPERIOD` and the timer's decrementing of `TCOUNT`. Also note that `TCOUNT` and `TPERIOD` are not initialized at reset. Programs should initialize these registers before enabling the timer.

## Interrupts and Sequencing

Another type of nonsequential program flow that the sequencer supports is interrupt processing. Interrupts may stem from a variety of conditions, both internal and external to the processor. In response to an interrupt, the sequencer processes a subroutine call to a predefined address, called the interrupt vector. The DSP assigns a unique vector to each type of interrupt and assigns a priority to each interrupt based on the Interrupt Vector Table (IVT) addressing scheme. [For more information, see “Interrupt Vector Addresses” in Appendix B, Interrupt Vector Addresses.](#)

The DSP supports three prioritized, individually-maskable external interrupts, each of which can be either level- or edge-sensitive. External interrupts occur when another device asserts one of the DSP's interrupt inputs (`IRQ2-0`). The DSP also supports internal interrupts. An internal interrupt can stem from arithmetic exceptions, stack overflows, DMA completion and/or peripheral data buffer status, or circular data buffer overflows. Several factors control the DSP's response to an interrupt. The DSP responds to an interrupt request if:

- the DSP is executing instructions or is in an idle state.
- the interrupt is not masked.
- interrupts are globally enabled.
- a higher priority request is not pending.

When the DSP responds to an interrupt, the sequencer branches program execution with a call to the corresponding interrupt vector address. Within the DSP's program memory, the interrupt vectors are grouped in an area called the Interrupt Vector Table (IVT). The interrupt vectors in



this table are spaced at 4-instruction intervals. Each interrupt vector has associated latch and mask bits. For a list of interrupt vector addresses and their associated latch and mask bits, see [Table B-2 on page B-2](#).

“Interrupt Register (LIRPTL)” on [page A-30](#), “Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)” on [page A-25](#), and “Interrupt Latch Register (IRPTL)” on [page A-25](#) lists the latch and mask bits.

To process an interrupt, the DSP’s program sequencer:

1. outputs the appropriate interrupt vector address.
2. pushes the current PC value (the return address) onto the PC stack.
3. pushes the current value of the  $ASTAT_{x/y}$  and  $MODE1$  registers onto the status stack (if the interrupt is  $IRQ2-0$ , or timer).
4. resets the appropriate bit in the interrupt latch register (IRPTL and LIRPTL registers).
5. alters the interrupt mask pointer bits (IMASKP) to reflect the current interrupt nesting state, depending on the nesting mode.

At the end of the interrupt service routine (ISR), the sequencer processes the return-from-interrupt (RTI) instruction and performs the steps shown below. Between servicing and returning, the sequencer clears the latch bit of the in-progress ISR every cycle until the RTI is executed. This prevents the same interrupt from recurring until the ISR is done. Refer to the [JUMP \(CI\) code example on page 3-60](#) to learn how to prevent this clearing.

1. Returns to the address stored at the top of the PC stack.
2. Pops this value off the PC stack.
3. Pops the status stack (if the  $ASTAT_{x,y}$  and  $MODE1$  status registers were pushed for the  $IRQ2-0$ , or timer interrupt).
4. Clears the appropriate bit in the interrupt mask pointer (IMASKP).

## Interrupts and Sequencing

Except for reset, all interrupt service routines should end with a return-from-interrupt (RTI) instruction. After reset, the PC stack is empty, so there is no return address. The last instruction of the reset service routine should be a JUMP to the start of the program.

If programs force an interrupt by writing to a bit in the IRPTL register, the processor recognizes the interrupt in the following cycle, and two cycles of branching to the interrupt vector follow the recognition cycle.

The DSP responds to interrupts in three stages: synchronization and latching (1 cycle), recognition (1 cycle), and branching to the interrupt vector (2 cycles). Table 3-21, Table 3-22, and Table 3-22 show the pipelined execution cycles for interrupt processing.

Table 3-21. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Interrupt During Single Cycle Instruction

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5
Execute	$N - 1^1$	N	NOP	NOP	V
Decode	N	$N + 1 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>3</sup>	$N + 2 \rightarrow$ NOP <sup>5</sup>	V	$V + 1$
Fetch	$N + 1$	$N + 2^2$	$V^4$	$V + 1$	$V + 2$
<p>N is the loop start instruction and N + 3 is the instruction after the loop.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Interrupt occurs</li> <li>2. Interrupt recognized</li> <li>3. N + 1 pushed on PC stack; N + 1 suppressed</li> <li>4. Interrupt Vector output</li> <li>5. N + 2 suppressed</li> </ol>					

Table 3-22. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Interrupt During Delayed Branch Instruction

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Execute	$N - 1^1$	N	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	NOP	NOP	V
Decode	N	$N + 1$	$N + 2$	$J \rightarrow \text{NOP}^4$	$J + 1 \rightarrow \text{NOP}^6$	V	$V + 1$
Fetch	$N + 1$	$N + 2^2$	J	$J + 1^3$	$V^5$	$V + 1$	$V + 2$

N is the delayed branch instruction, J is the instruction at the branch address, and V is the interrupt vector instruction.

1. Interrupt occurs
2. Interrupt recognized, but not processed
3. Interrupt processed
4. For a Call,  $N+3$  (return address) is pushed onto the PC stack; J suppressed
5. Interrupt vector output
6. J pushed on PC stack;  $J+1$  suppressed

Table 3-23. Pipelined Execution Cycles for Interrupt During Instruction with Conflicting PM Data Access (Instruction Not Cached)

Cycles	1	2	3	4	5	6
Execute	$N - 1^1$	N	NOP	NOP	NOP	V
Decode	N	$N + 1 \rightarrow \text{NOP}^3$	$N + 1 \rightarrow \text{NOP}^5$	$N + 1 \rightarrow \text{NOP}^7$	V	$V + 1$
Fetch	$N + 1$	$\_2$	$N + 2^4$	$V^6$	$V + 1$	$V + 2$

N is the delayed branch instruction, J is the instruction at the branch address, and V is the interrupt vector instruction.

1. Interrupt occurs
2. Interrupt recognized, but not processed; PM data access
3.  $N+1$  suppressed
4. Interrupt processed
5.  $N+1$  suppressed
6. Interrupt vector output
7.  $N + 1$  pushed on PC stack;  $N + 2$  suppressed

For most interrupts, both internal and external, only one instruction is executed after the interrupt occurs (and before the two aborted instructions), while the processor fetches and decodes the first instruction of the service routine. Interrupt processing starts two cycles after an arithmetic exception occurs because of the one cycle delay between an arithmetic exception and the  $STKY_{x,y}$  register update. There is also a three cycle

## Interrupts and Sequencing

latency associated with the `IRQ2-0` interrupts. If an interrupt is latched by explicitly writing into the `IRPTL` register, then two instructions are executed after that cycle in which `IRPTL` is written.

If nesting is enabled and a higher priority interrupt occurs immediately after a lower priority interrupt, the service routine of the higher priority interrupt is delayed by one additional cycle. This delay allows the first instruction of the lower priority interrupt routine to be executed before it is interrupted. [For more information, see “Nesting Interrupts” on page 3-58.](#)

## Delayed Interrupt Processing

Certain DSP operations that span more than one cycle hold off interrupt processing. If an interrupt occurs during one of these operations, the DSP latches the interrupt, but delays its processing. The operations that have delayed interrupt processing are:

- A branch (`JUMP` or `CALL/RETURN`) instruction and the following cycle, whether it is an instruction (in a delayed branch) or a `NOP` (in a non-delayed branch)
- The first of the two cycles used to perform a program memory data access and an instruction fetch (a bus conflict) when the instruction is not cached
- The third-to-last iteration of a one instruction loop
- The last iteration of either a one instruction loop executed once or twice or a two instruction loop executed once, and the following cycle (which is a `NOP`)
- The first of the two cycles used to fetch and decode the first instruction of an interrupt service routine
- Any wait states for external memory accesses

## Sensing Interrupts

For external interrupt pins  $IRQ2-0$ , the DSP supports two types of interrupt sensitivity—edge-sensitive and level-sensitive.

The DSP detects a level-sensitive interrupt if the signal input is low (active) when sampled on the rising edge of  $CCLK/2$ . A level-sensitive interrupt must go high (inactive) before the processor returns from the interrupt service routine. If a level-sensitive interrupt is still active when the DSP samples it after returning from its service routine, the DSP treats the signal as a new request. The DSP repeats the same interrupt routine without returning to the main program, assuming no higher priority interrupts are active.

The DSP detects an edge-sensitive interrupt if the input signal is high (inactive) on one cycle and low (active) on the next cycle when sampled on the rising edge of  $CCLK/2$ . An edge-sensitive interrupt signal can stay active indefinitely without triggering additional interrupts. To request another interrupt, the signal must go high, then low again.

Edge-sensitive interrupts require less external hardware compared to level-sensitive requests, because negating the request is unnecessary. An advantage of level-sensitive interrupts is that multiple interrupting devices may share a single level-sensitive request line on a wired OR basis, allowing easy system expansion.


The  $MODE2$  register controls external interrupt sensitivity as described below.

- **Interrupt 0 Sensitivity.** Bit 0 ( $IRQ0E$ ) directs the DSP to detect  $IRQ0$  as edge-sensitive (if 1) or level-sensitive (if 0).
- **Interrupt 1 Sensitivity.** Bit 1 ( $IRQ1E$ ) directs the DSP to detect  $IRQ1$  as edge-sensitive (if 1) or level-sensitive (if 0).
- **Interrupt 2 Sensitivity.** Bit 2 ( $IRQ2E$ ) directs the DSP to detect  $IRQ2$  as edge-sensitive (if 1) or level-sensitive (if 0).

## Interrupts and Sequencing

[Table A-3 on page A-8](#) lists all of the bits in the `MODE2` register.

The DSP accepts external interrupts that are asynchronous to the DSP's core clock (`CCLK`), allowing external interrupt signals to change at any time. An external interrupt must be held low at least one `CCLK/2` cycle to guarantee that the DSP samples the signal.

 External interrupts must meet the setup and hold time requirements relative to the rising edge of `CCLK/2`. For information on interrupt signal timing requirements, see the appropriate ADSP-2126x data sheet.

## Masking Interrupts

The sequencer supports interrupt masking—latching an interrupt, but not responding to it. Except for the `RESET` and `EMU` interrupts, all interrupts are maskable. If a masked interrupt is latched, the DSP responds to the latched interrupt if it is later unmasked.

Interrupts can be masked globally or selectively. Bits in the `MODE1`, `IMASK`, and `LIRPTL` registers control interrupt masking as shown in [Table A-1 on page A-3](#).

[Table A-2 on page A-5](#) lists all of the bits in `MODE1`, [Table A-8 on page A-27](#) lists all of the bits in `IMASK`, and [Table A-10 on page A-32](#) lists all of the bits in `LIRPTL`.

All interrupts are masked at reset except for the non-maskable and boot interrupts. For booting, the DSP automatically unmask and uses the parallel port interrupt (`PPI`) or high priority SPI port (`SPIHI`) interrupt after reset. Usage depends on whether the ADSP-2126x is booting from EPROM, or an SPI master or slave. See also “[DAI Interrupts](#)” on [page 12-28](#) for a description of DAI interrupts.

## Latching Interrupts

When the DSP recognizes an interrupt, the DSP's interrupt latch (IRPTL and LIRPTL) registers set a bit (latch) to record that the interrupt occurred. The bits in these registers indicate all interrupts that are currently being serviced or are pending. Because these registers are readable and writable, any interrupt except reset (RSTI) and emulator (EMUI) can be set or cleared in software.

When an interrupt occurs, the sequencer sets the corresponding bit in IRPTL or LIRPTL once that interrupt is serviced. Throughout the execution of the interrupt's service routine, the DSP clears this bit during every cycle. This prevents the same interrupt from being latched while its service routine is executing. After the return from interrupt (RTI), the sequencer stops clearing the latch bit.

If necessary, an interrupt can be reused while it is being serviced. (This is a matter of disabling this automatic clearing of the latch bit.) [For more information, see “Reusing Interrupts” on page 3-60.](#)


The interrupt latch bits in IRPTL correspond to interrupt mask bits in the IMASK register. In both registers, the interrupt bits are arranged in order of priority. The interrupt priority is from 0 (highest) to 31 (lowest). Interrupt priority determines which interrupt is serviced first when more than one occurs in the same cycle. Priority also determines which interrupts are nested when the DSP has interrupt nesting enabled. [For more information, see “Nesting Interrupts” on page 3-58.](#)

While the IRPTL register latches interrupts for a variety of events, the LIRPTL register contains latch and mask bits for the SP0, SP2, SP4, PP, GPT-MR1, GPTMR2, DAI (low priority), SPI (low priority) interrupts.

Several events can cause arithmetic interrupts. They are fixed-point overflow (FIXI) and floating-point overflow (FLT0I), underflow (FLTUI), and invalid operation (FLTII). To determine which event caused the interrupt, a program can read the arithmetic status flags in the STKYx or STKYy status

## Interrupts and Sequencing

registers. [Table A-5 on page A-18](#) lists the bits in these registers. Service routines for arithmetic interrupts must clear the appropriate `STKYx` or `STKYy` bits to clear the interrupt. If the bits are not cleared, the interrupt is still active after the return from interrupt (RTI).

 Status bits in `STKYy` apply only in SIMD mode. [For more information, see “SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50.](#)

One event can cause multiple interrupts. The timer decrementing to zero causes two timer expired interrupts to be latched, `TMZHI` (high priority) and `TMZLI` (low priority). This feature allows selection of the priority for the timer interrupt. Programs should unmask the timer interrupt with the desired priority and leave the other one masked. If both interrupts are unmasked, the DSP services the higher priority interrupt first, then it services the lower priority interrupt.

The `IRPTL` register also supports software interrupts. When a program sets the latch bit for one of these interrupts (`SFT0I`, `SFT1I`, `SFT2I`, or `SFT3I`), the sequencer services the interrupt, and the DSP branches to the corresponding interrupt routine. Software interrupts have the same behavior as all other maskable interrupts.

## Stacking Status During Interrupts

In an interrupt driven system, the DSP must be restored to its pre-interrupt state after an interrupt is serviced. The sequencer's status stack eases the return from an interrupt by eliminating some interrupt service overhead—register saves and restores.

The status stack is fifteen locations deep. The stack is full when all entries are occupied, is empty when no entries are occupied, and is overflowed if a



push occurs when the stack is already full. Bits in the `STKYx` register indicate the status stack full and empty states as describe below.

- **Status stack overflow.** Bit 23 (`SSOV`) indicates that the status stack is overflowed (if 1) or not overflowed (if 0)—a sticky bit.
- **Status stack empty.** Bit 24 (`SSEM`) indicates that the status stack is empty (if 1) or not empty (if 0)—not sticky, cleared by a `PUSH`.

For some interrupts, (`IRQ2-0` and timer expired), the sequencer automatically pushes the `ASTATx`, `ASTATy`, and `MODE1` registers onto the status stack. When the sequencer pushes an entry onto the status stack, the DSP uses the `MMASK` register to clear the corresponding bits in the `MODE1` register. All other bit settings remain the same. For more information and an example of how the `MMASK` and `MODE1` registers work together, see [“Mode Control 1 Register \(MODE1\)” on page A-4](#).

The sequencer automatically pops the `ASTATx`, `ASTATy`, and `MODE1` registers from the status stack during the return from interrupt instruction (`RTI`). In one other case, `JUMP (CI)`, the sequencer pops the stack. [For more information, see “Reusing Interrupts” on page 3-60](#). Only the `IRQ2-0` and timer expired interrupts cause the sequencer to push an entry onto the status stack. All other interrupts require either explicit saves and restores of effected registers or an explicit push or pop of the stack (`PUSH/POP STS`).

Pushing the `ASTATx`, `ASTATy`, and `MODE1` registers preserves the status and control bit settings. This allows a service routine to alter these bits with the knowledge that the original settings are automatically restored upon the return from the interrupt.

The top of the status stack contains the current values of `ASTATx`, `ASTATy`, and `MODE1`. Reading and writing these registers does not move the stack pointer. Explicit `PUSH` or `POP` instructions do move the status stack pointer.

## Nesting Interrupts

The sequencer supports interrupt nesting—responding to another interrupt while a previous interrupt is being serviced. Bits in the `MODE1`, `IMASKP`, and `LIRPTL` registers control interrupt nesting as described below.

- **Interrupt Nesting enable.** `MODE1` Bit 11 (`NESTM`). This bit directs the DSP to enable (if 1) or disable (if 0) interrupt nesting.
- **Interrupt Mask Pointer.** `IMASKP` bits. These bits list the interrupts in priority order and provide a temporary interrupt mask for each nesting level.
- **SPI Port DMA Transmit or Receive Interrupt Mask Pointer.** `LIRPTL` Bit 29 (`SPILIMSKP`). This bit is for the SPI port transmit or receive DMA interrupt. It provides a temporary interrupt mask.
- **General-Purpose IOP Timer Interrupt Mask Pointer.** `LIRPTL` Bits 24 and 28 (`GPTMR1MSKP` and `GPTMR2MSKP`). These bits are for the general purpose IOP timer 1 and timer 2 interrupts, respectively. They provide a temporary interrupt mask.
- **Serial Port Interrupt Mask Pointer.** `LIRPTL` Bits 22-20 (`SPxMSKP`). These bits are for the serial port interrupts (`SP0`, `SP2`, and `SP4`). They provide a temporary interrupt mask.
- **DAI Low Priority Interrupt Mask Pointer.** `LIRPTL` Bit 26 (`DAILIMSKP`). This bit is for the DAI low priority interrupt. It provides a temporary interrupt mask.

When interrupt nesting is enabled, a higher priority interrupt can interrupt a lower priority interrupt's service routine. Lower priority interrupts are latched as they occur, but the DSP processes them according to their priority after the nested routines finish.

Programs should change the interrupt nesting enable (NESTM) bit only while outside of an interrupt service routine or during the reset service routine.

If nesting is enabled and a higher priority interrupt occurs immediately after a lower priority interrupt, the service routine of the higher priority interrupt is delayed by one cycle. This delay allows the first instruction of the lower priority interrupt routine to be executed, before it is interrupted.

When servicing nested interrupts, the DSP uses the interrupt mask pointer (IMASKP) to create a temporary interrupt mask for each level of interrupt nesting; the IMASK value is not effected. The DSP changes IMASKP each time a higher priority interrupt interrupts a lower priority service routine.

The bits in IMASKP correspond to the interrupts in order of priority. When an interrupt occurs, the DSP sets its bit in IMASKP. If nesting is enabled, the DSP uses IMASKP to generate a new temporary interrupt mask, masking all interrupts of equal or lower priority to the highest priority bit set in IMASKP and keeping higher priority interrupts the same as in IMASK. When a return from an interrupt service routine (RTI) is executed, the DSP clears the highest priority bit set in IMASKP and generates a new temporary interrupt mask.

The DSP masks all interrupts of equal or lower priority to the highest priority bit set in IMASKP. The bit set in IMASKP that has the highest priority always corresponds to the priority of the interrupt being serviced.



The MSKP bits in the LIRPTL register, and the entire IMASKP register are for interrupt controller use only. Modifying these bits interferes with the proper operation of the interrupt controller. Furthermore, explicit bit manipulation of *any* bit in the LIRPTL register while the IRPTEN bit (bit 12 in the MODE1 register) is set causes an interrupt to be serviced twice.

## Reusing Interrupts

When an interrupt occurs, the sequencer sets the corresponding bit in the IRPTL register. During execution of the service routine, the sequencer keeps this bit cleared—the DSP clears the bit during every cycle, preventing the same interrupt from being latched while its service routine is already executing. If necessary, programs may reuse an interrupt while it is being serviced. Using a jump clear interrupt instruction, (JUMP (CI)) in the interrupt service routine clears the interrupt, allowing its reuse while the service routine is executing.

The JUMP (CI) instruction reduces an interrupt service routine to a normal subroutine, clearing the appropriate bit in the interrupt latch and interrupt mask pointer and popping the status stack. After the JUMP (CI) instruction, the DSP stops automatically clearing the interrupt's latch bit, allowing the interrupt to latch again.

When returning from a subroutine entered with a JUMP (CI) instruction, a program must use a return loop reentry instruction RTS (LR), instead of an RTI instruction. [For more information, see “Restrictions on Ending Loops” on page 3-27.](#) The following example shows an interrupt service routine that is reduced to a subroutine with the (CI) modifier.

```
instr1; /*Interrupt entry from main program*/  
JUMP(PC,3) (DB,CI); /*Clear interrupt status*/  
instr3;  
instr4;  
instr5;  
RTS (LR); /*Use LR modifier with return from subroutine*/
```

The JUMP (PC,3)(DB,CI) instruction only continues linear execution flow by jumping to the location PC + 3 (instr5). The two intervening instructions (instr3, instr4) are executed because of the delayed branch (DB). This JUMP instruction is only an example—a JUMP (CI) can perform a JUMP to any location.

## Interrupting IDLE

The sequencer supports placing the DSP in `IDLE`—a special instruction that halts the processor core in a low power state. The halt occurs until any interrupt is latched, serviced, and then returned from using the `RTI` instruction. When executing an `IDLE` instruction, the sequencer fetches one more instruction at the current fetch address and then suspends operation. The DSP's I/O processor is not affected by the `IDLE` instruction—DMA transfers to or from internal memory continue uninterrupted. The processor's internal clock and timer (if enabled) continue to run during `IDLE`. When an interrupt occurs, the processor responds normally. After two cycles used to fetch and decode the first instruction of the interrupt service routine, the processor continues executing instructions normally.

## Summary

To manage events, the sequencer's interrupt controller handles interrupt processing, determines whether an interrupt is masked, and generates the appropriate interrupt vector address.

With selective caching, the instruction cache lets the DSP access data in program memory and fetch an instruction (from the cache) in the same cycle. The DAG2 data address generator outputs program memory data addresses.

The sequencer evaluates conditional instructions and loop termination conditions by using information from the status registers. The loop address stack and loop counter stack support nested loops. The status stack stores status registers for implementing nested interrupt routines.

[Figure 3-6](#) identifies all the functional blocks and their relationship to one another in detail.

# Summary

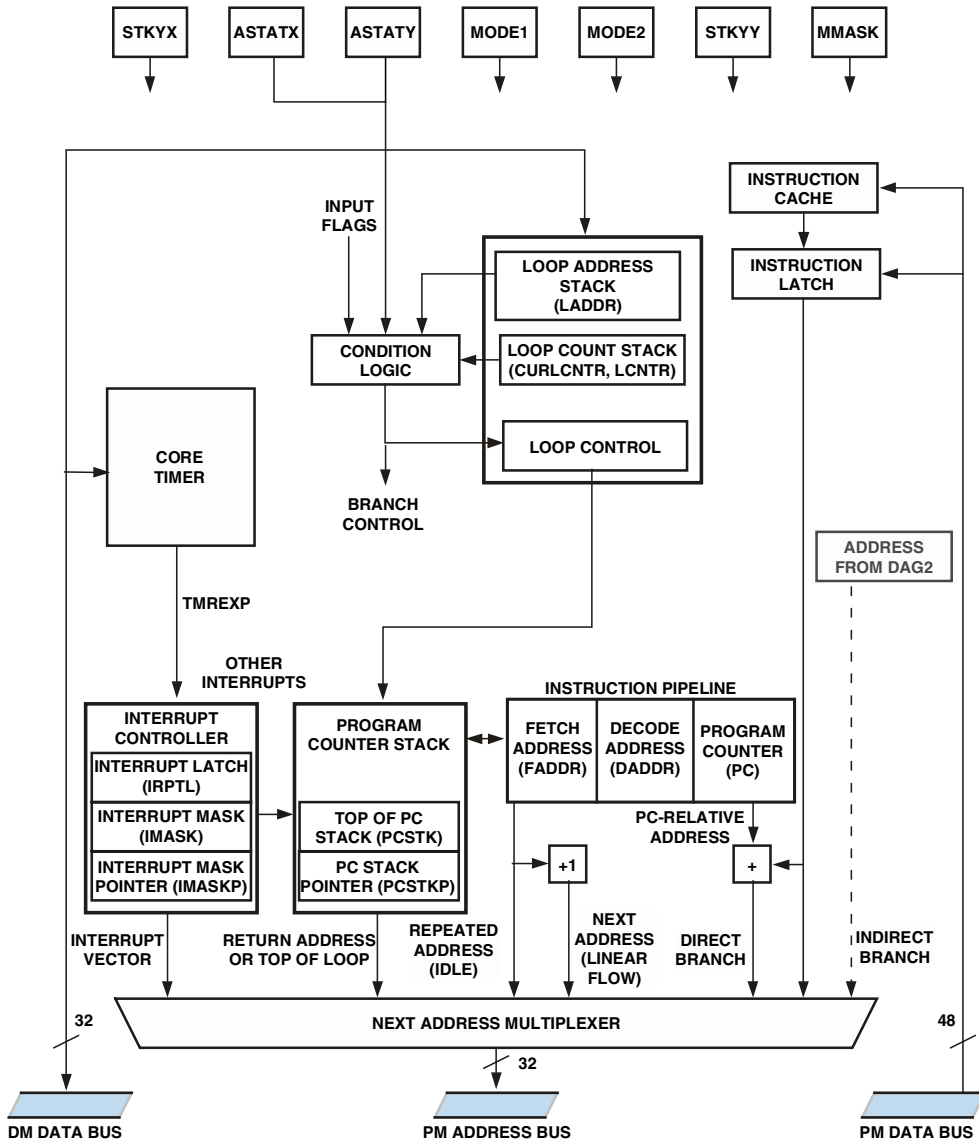


Figure 3-6. Program Sequencer Block Diagram

[Table 3-24](#) and [Table 3-25](#) list the registers within and related to the program sequencer. All registers in the program sequencer are universal registers (Uregs), so they are accessible to other universal registers and to data memory. All of the sequencer's registers and the top of stacks are readable and writable, except for the fetch address, decode address, and PC. Pushing or popping the PC stack is done with a write to the PC stack pointer, which is readable and writable. Pushing or popping the loop address stack requires explicit instructions.

A set of system control registers configures or provides input to the sequencer. These registers appear across the top and within the interrupt controller and are shown in [Figure 3-1 on page 3-3](#). A bit manipulation instruction permits setting, clearing, toggling, or testing specific bits in the system registers. For information on this instruction (Bit), see *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*. Writes to some of these registers do not take effect on the next cycle. For example, after a write to the MODE1 register enables ALU saturation mode, the change takes effect two cycles after the write. Also, some of these registers do not update on the cycle immediately following a write. An extra cycle is required before a register read returns the new value.

With the lists of sequencer and system registers, [Table 3-24](#) and [Table 3-25](#) summarize the number of extra cycles (latency) for a write to take effect (effect latency) and for a new value to appear in the register (read latency). A “0” indicates that the write takes effect or appears in the register on the next cycle after the write instruction is executed, and a “1” indicates one extra cycle.

## Summary

Table 3-24. Sequencer Registers Read and Effect Latencies

Register	Contents	Bits	Read Latency	Effect Latency
FADDR	Fetch address	24	—	—
DADDR	Decode address	24	—	—
PC	Execute address	24	—	—
PCSTK	Top of PC stack	24	0	0
PCSTKP	PC stack pointer	5	1	1
LADDR	Top of loop address stack	32	0	0
CURLCNTR	Top of loop count stack (current loop count)	32	0	0
LCNTR	Loop count for next DO UNTIL loop	32	0	0

Table 3-25. System Registers Read and Effect Latencies

Register	Contents	Bits	Read Latency	Maximum Effect Latency <sup>1</sup>
MODE1	Mode control bits	32	0	1
MODE2	Mode control bits	32	0	1
IRPTL	Interrupt latch	32	0	1
IMASK	Interrupt mask	32	0	1
IMASKP	Interrupt mask pointer (for nesting)	32	1	1
MMASK	Mode mask	32	0	1
FLAGS	Flag inputs	32	0	1
LIRPTL	Interrupt latch/mask	32	0	1
ASTATX	Arithmetic status flags	32	0	1
ASTATY	Arithmetic status flags	32	0	1
STKYX	Sticky status flags	32	0	1



Table 3-25. System Registers Read and Effect Latencies (Cont'd)

Register	Contents	Bits	Read Latency	Maximum Effect Latency <sup>1</sup>
STKYY	Sticky status flags	32	0	1
USTAT1	User-defined status flags	32	0	0
USTAT2	User-defined status flags	32	0	0
USTAT3	User-defined status flags	32	0	0
USTAT4	User-defined status flags	32	0	0

- <sup>1</sup> Note that the number of cycles it takes for the effect latencies for different registers (for example, MODE1, MODE2) given above is just a maximum value. Different bits in these registers have different effect latencies, ranging from 0 to the maximum value given in the table. Users can (a) write code that does not have any dependency on the above effect latencies or can (b) write code such that there are “NOPs” for those many cycles as specified in the table.

## Summary

# 4 DATA ADDRESS GENERATORS

The DSP's Data Address Generators (DAGs) generate addresses for data moves to and from Data Memory (DM) and Program Memory (PM). By generating addresses, the DAGs let programs refer to addresses indirectly, using a DAG register instead of an absolute address. The DAGs architecture, which appears in [Figure 4-1](#), supports several functions that minimize overhead in data access routines. These functions include:

- **Supply address and post-modify**—provides an address during a data move and auto-increments the stored address for the next move.
- **Supply pre-modified address**—provides a modified address during a data move without incrementing the stored address.
- **Modify address**—increments the stored address without performing a data move.
- **Bit-reverse address**—provides a bit-reversed address during a data move without reversing the stored address, as well as an instruction to explicitly bit-reverse the supplied address.
- **Broadcast data moves**—performs dual data moves to complementary registers in each processing element to support Single-Instruction Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode.

As shown in [Figure 4-1](#), each DAG has four types of registers. These registers hold the values that the DAG uses for generating addresses. The four types of registers are:

- **Index registers (I0–I7 for DAG1 and I8–I15 for DAG2).** An index register holds an address and acts as a pointer to memory. For example, the DAG interprets  $DM(I0,0)$  and  $PM(I8,0)$  syntax in an instruction as addresses.
- **Modify registers (M0–M7 for DAG1 and M8–M15 for DAG2).** A modify register provides the increment or step size by which an index register is pre- or post-modified during a register move. For example, the  $DM(I0,M1)$  instruction directs the DAG to output the address in register I0 then modify the contents of I0 using the M1 register.
- **Length and Base registers (L0–L7 and B0–B7 for DAG1 and L8–L15 and B8–B15 for DAG2).** Length and base registers set the range of addresses and the starting address for a circular buffer. For more information on circular buffers, see [“Addressing Circular Buffers”](#) on page 4-12.

# Data Address Generators

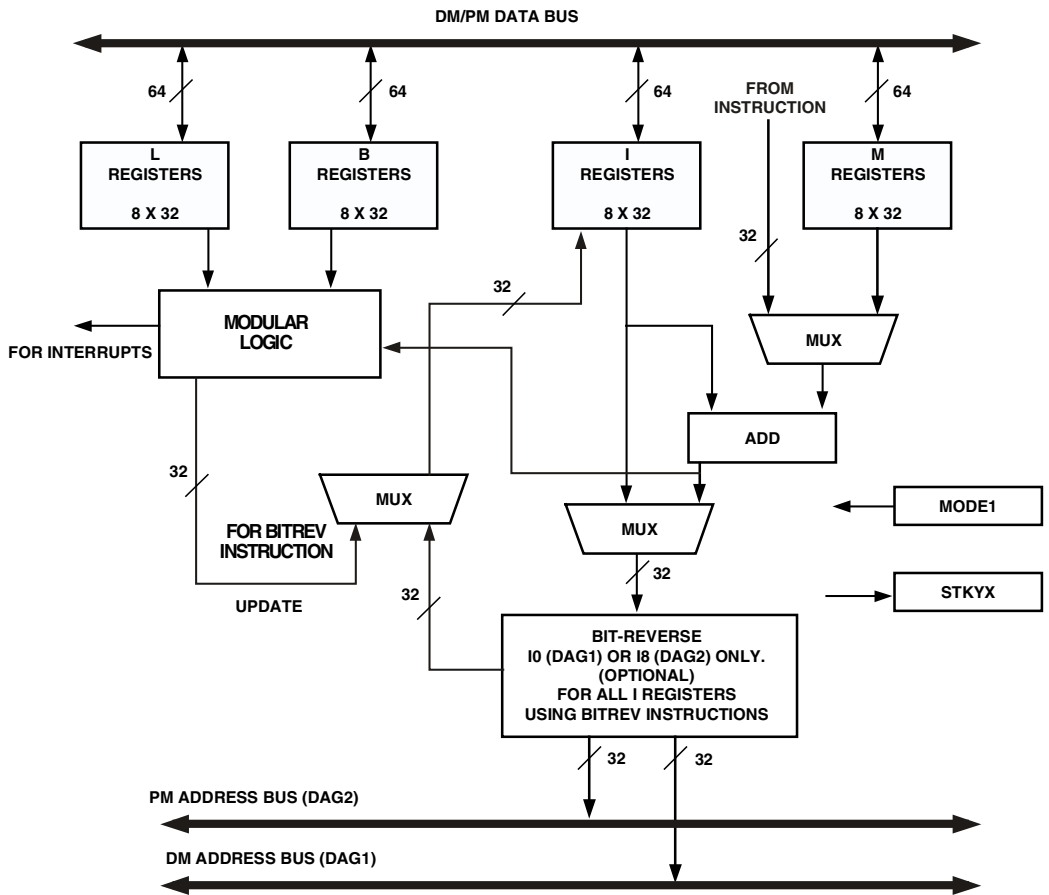


Figure 4-1. Data Address Generator (DAG) Block Diagram


# Setting DAG Modes

The `MODE1` register controls the operating mode of the DAGs as described below.

- **Circular buffering enable.** Bit 24 (`CBUFEN`) enables (if 1) or disables (if 0) circular buffering.
- **Broadcast register loading enable, DAG1-I1.** Bit 23 (`BDCST1`) enables register broadcast loads to complementary registers from I1 indexed moves (if 1) or disables broadcast loads (if 0).
- **Broadcast register loading enable, DAG2-I9.** Bit 22 (`BDCST9`) enables register broadcast loads to complementary registers from I9 indexed moves (if 1) or disables broadcast loads (if 0).
- **SIMD mode enable.** Bit 21 (`PEYEN`) enables computations in PEy—SIMD mode—(if 1) or disables PEy—SISD mode—(if 0). For more information on SIMD mode, see [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations”](#) on page 2-50.
- **Secondary registers for DAG2 lo, I, M, L, B8-11.** Bit 6 (`SRD2L`)  
**Secondary registers for DAG2 hi, I, M, L, B12-15.** Bit 5 (`SRD2H`)  
**Secondary registers for DAG1 lo, I, M, L, B0-3.** Bit 4 (`SRD1L`)  
**Secondary registers for DAG1 hi, I, M, L, B4-7.** Bit 3 (`SRD1H`)  
These bits select the corresponding secondary register set (if 1) or select the corresponding primary register set—the set that is available at reset—(if 0).
- **Bit-reverse addressing enable, DAG1-I0.** Bit 1 (`BR0`) enables bit-reversed addressing on I0 indexed moves (if 1) or disables bit-reversed addressing (if 0).
- **Bit-reverse addressing enable, DAG2-I8.** Bit 0 (`BR8`) enables bit-reversed addressing on I8 indexed moves (if 1) or disables bit-reversed addressing (if 0).

## Circular Buffering Mode

The `CBUFEN` bit in the `MODE1` register enables circular buffering—a mode where the DAG supplies addresses that range within a constrained buffer length (set with an `L` register). Circular buffers start at a base address (set with a `B` register), and increment addresses on each access by a modify value (set with an `M` register).

 The circular buffer enable bit (`CBUFEN`) in the `MODE1` register is cleared (= 0) at reset. This makes the ADSP-2126x processor code *incompatible* with the ADSP-2106x SHARC family (ADSP-21060/1/2 and ADSP-21065L) where circular buffering is active upon reset. For code compatibility, programs ported to the ADSP-2126x processors should include the instruction:

```
BIT SET MODE1 CBUFEN.
```

For more information on setting up and using circular buffers, see [“Addressing Circular Buffers” on page 4-12](#). When using circular buffers, the DAGs can generate an interrupt on buffer overflow (wraparound). For more information, see [“Using DAG Status” on page 4-9](#).

## Broadcast Loading Mode

The `BDCST1` and `BDCST9` bits in the `MODE1` register enable broadcast loading. An example of broadcast loading is when a program uses one load command to load multiple registers. When the `BDCST1` bit is set (=1), the DAG performs a dual data register load on instructions that use the `I1` register for the address. The DAG loads both the named register (explicit register) in one processing element and loads that register’s complementary register (implicit register) in the other processing element. The `BDCST9` bit in the `MODE1` register enables this feature for the `I9` register.

Enabling either DAG register to perform a broadcast load has no effect on register stores or loads to universal registers (*Uregs*). The one exception is the register file data registers. [Table 4-1](#) demonstrates the effects of a

## Setting DAG Modes

register load operation on both processing elements with register load broadcasting enabled. In [Table 4-1](#), note that  $R_x$  and  $S_x$  are complementary data registers. Note also that the letters a and b (as in  $Ma$  or  $Mb$ ) indicate numbers for modify registers in DAG1 and DAG2. The letter a indicates a DAG1 register and can be replaced with 0 through 7. The letter b indicates a DAG2 register and can be replaced with 8 through 15.


 The  $PEYEN$  bit (SISD/SIMD mode select) does not influence broadcast operations. Broadcast loading is particularly useful in SIMD applications where the algorithm needs identical data loaded into each processing element. For more information on SIMD mode (in particular, a list of complementary data registers), see [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50](#).

Table 4-1. Dual Processing Element Register Load Broadcasts

Instruction syntax	$R_x = DM(I1, Ma); \{Syntax \#1\}$ $R_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Syntax \#2\}$ $R_x = DM(I1, Ma), R_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Syntax \#3\}$
PE <sub>x</sub> explicit operations	$R_x = DM(I1, Ma); \{Explicit \#1\}$ $R_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Explicit \#2\}$ $R_x = DM(I1, Ma), R_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Explicit \#3\}$
PE <sub>y</sub> implicit operations	$S_x = DM(I1, Ma); \{Implicit \#1\}$ $S_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Implicit \#2\}$ $S_x = DM(I1, Ma), S_x = PM(I9, Mb); \{Implicit \#3\}$

## Alternate (Secondary) DAG Registers

To facilitate fast context switching, the DSP includes alternate register sets for all DAG registers. Bits in the  $MODE1$  register control when alternate registers become accessible. While inaccessible, the contents of alternate registers are not affected by DSP operations. Note that there is a maximum one cycle latency between writing to  $MODE1$  and being able to access an alternate register set. The alternate register sets for the DAGs are described in this section. For more information on alternate data and results registers, see [“Alternate \(Secondary\) Data Registers” on page 2-40](#).



Bits in the `MODE1` register can activate alternate register sets within the DAGs: the lower half of DAG1 (I, M, L, B0-3), the upper half of DAG1 (I, M, L, B4-7), the lower half of DAG2 (I, M, L, B8-11), and the upper half of DAG2 (I, M, L, B12-15). Figure 4-2 shows the DAGs' primary and alternate register sets.

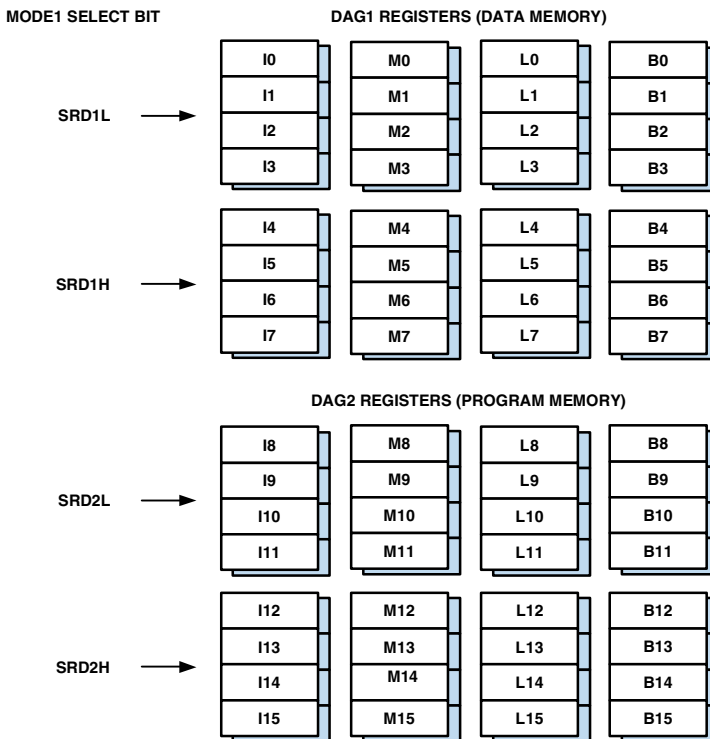


Figure 4-2. Data Address Generator Primary and Alternate Registers

To share data between contexts, a program places the data to be shared in one half of either the current DAGs' registers or the other DAG's registers and activates the alternate register set of the other half. The following example demonstrates how code handles the maximum one cycle of latency from the instruction that sets the bit in `MODE1` to when the

## Setting DAG Modes

alternate registers may be accessed. Note that programs should use a NOP instruction for the wait period.

```
BIT SET MODE1 SRD1L; /* Activate alternate dag1 lo regs */
NOP;                /* Wait for access to alternates */
R0 = DM(i0,m1);
```

## Bit-Reverse Addressing Mode

The BR0 and BR8 bits in the MODE1 register enable the bit-reverse addressing mode where addresses are output in reverse bit order. When BR0 is set (=1), DAG1 bit-reverses 32-bit addresses output from I0. When BR8 is set (=1), DAG2 bit-reverses 32-bit addresses output from I8. The DAGs only bit-reverse the address output from I0 or I8; the contents of these registers are not reversed. Bit-reverse addressing mode effects both pre-modify and post-modify operations. The following example demonstrates how bit-reverse mode effects address output:

```
BIT SET Mode1 BR0; /* Enables bit-rev. addressing for DAG1 */
I0 = 0x83000      /* Loads I0 with the bit reverse of the
                  buffer's base address DM(0xC1000) */
M0 = 0x4000000;   /* Loads M0 with value for post-modify, which
                  is the bit reverse value of the modifier
                  value M0 = 32 */
R1 = DM(I0,M0);  /* Loads r1 with contents of DM address
                  DM(0xC1000), which is the bit-reverse of
                  0x83000, then post-modifies I0 for the next
                  access with (0x83000 + 0x4000000) = 0x4083000,
                  which is the bit-reverse of DM(0xC1020) */
```

In addition to bit-reverse addressing, the DSP supports a bit-reverse instruction (BITREV). This instruction bit-reverses the contents of the selected register. For more information on the BITREV instruction, see [“Modifying DAG Registers” on page 4-17](#) or *ADSP-21160 SHARC DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

## Using DAG Status

The DAGs can provide addressing for a constrained range of addresses, repeatedly cycling through this data (or buffer). A buffer overflow (or wraparound) occurs each time the DAG circles past the buffer's base address. (See [“Addressing Circular Buffers” on page 4-12.](#))

The DAGs can provide buffer overflow information when executing circular buffer addressing for the I7 or I15 registers. When a buffer overflow occurs (a circular buffering operation increments the I register past the end of the buffer), the appropriate DAG updates a buffer overflow flag in a sticky status (STKYx) register. A buffer overflow can also generate a maskable interrupt. Two ways to use buffer overflows from circular buffering are:

- **Interrupts.** Enable interrupts and use an interrupt service routine (ISR) to handle the overflow condition immediately. This method is appropriate if it is important to handle all overflows as they occur; for example in a “ping-pong” or swap I/O buffer pointers routine.
- **STKYx registers.** Use the BIT TST instruction to examine overflow flags in the STKY register after a series of operations. If an overflow flag is set, the buffer has overflowed—wrapped around—at least once. This method is useful when overflow handling is not time sensitive.


## DAG Operations

The DSP's DAGs perform several types of operations to generate data addresses. As shown in [Figure 4-1](#), the DAG registers and the MODE1, MODE2, and STKYx registers all contribute to DAG operations. The following sections provide details on DAG operations:

## DAG Operations

- “Addressing With DAGs” on page 4-10
- “Data Addressing Stalls” on page 4-12
- “Addressing Circular Buffers” on page 4-12
- “Modifying DAG Registers” on page 4-17

An important item to note from [Figure 4-1](#) is that the DAG automatically adjusts the output address per the word size of the address location (short word, normal word, or long word). This address adjustment lets internal memory use the address directly.

 SISD/SIMD mode, access word size, and data location (internal/external) all influence data access operations.

## Addressing With DAGs

The DAGs support two types of modified addressing which is defined as generating an address that is incremented by a value or a register. In pre-modify addressing, the DAG adds an offset (modifier), which is either an  $M$  register or an immediate value, to an  $I$  register and outputs the resulting address. Pre-modify addressing does not change or update the  $I$  register. The other type of modified addressing is post-modify addressing. In post-modify addressing, the DAG outputs the  $I$  register value unchanged, then adds an  $M$  register or immediate value, updating the  $I$  register value. [Figure 4-3](#) compares pre- and post-modify addressing.

The difference between pre-modify and post-modify instructions in the DSP’s assembly syntax is the position of the index and modifier in the instruction. If the  $I$  register comes before the modifier, the instruction is a post-modify operation. If the modifier comes before the  $I$  register, the instruction is a pre-modify without update operation. The following instruction accesses the program memory location indicated by the value in  $I15$  and writes the value  $I15 + M12$  to the  $I15$  register:

```
R6 = PM(I15,M12); /* Post-modify addressing with update */
```

By comparison, the following instruction accesses the program memory location indicated by the value  $I15 + M12$  and does not change the value in  $I15$ :

```
R6 = PM(M12,I15); /* Pre-modify addressing without update */
```

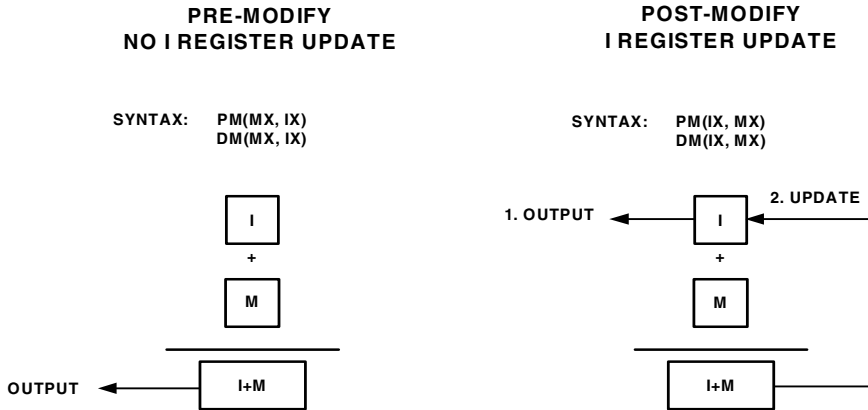


Figure 4-3. Pre-Modify and Post-Modify Operations

Modify (M) registers can work with any index (I) register in the same DAG (DAG1 or DAG2). For a list of I and M registers and their related DAGs, see [Figure 4-2 on page 4-7](#).


Instructions can also use a number (immediate value), instead of an M register, as the modifier. The size of an immediate value that can modify an I register depends on the instruction type. For all single data access operations, modify immediate values can be up to 32 bits wide. Instructions that combine DAG addressing with computations limit the size of the modify immediate value. In these instructions (multifunction computations), the modify immediate values can be up to 6 bits wide. The following example instruction accepts up to 32-bit modifiers:

```
R1 = DM(0x40000000,I1); /* DM address = I1 + 0x4000 0000 */
```

## DAG Operations

The following example instruction accepts up to 6-bit modifiers:

```
F6 = F1 + F2, PM(I8, 0x0B) = ASTAT; /* PM address = I8,  
I8 = I8 + 0x0B */
```

 Note that pre-modify addressing operations must not change the memory space of the address.

## Data Addressing Stalls

As explained in the previous sections, the instruction sequence stalls for one cycle if a read-after-write hazard is detected on a DAG register. For example, the following sequence automatically generates a one cycle stall.

```
I0 = R0;  
DM(I0, M0) = R1;
```

DAG conditional addressing can generate stalls if a post-modify instruction is aborted.

```
R2 = R3 - R4; /* Compute setting flags */  
IF EQ DM(I1, M1) = R1; /* Flag is used immediately */  
DM(I1, M2) = R2; /* Updated I1 is used immediately */
```


Note that even if the second instruction finds its condition true, a stall is still inserted. Furthermore, if the second instruction is annulled because the condition was false, then a stall is inserted in the address computation (decode) stage of the third instruction. Note that a stall is generated only if the above sequence is executed back-to-back.

## Addressing Circular Buffers

The DAGs support addressing circular buffers. This is defined as addressing a range of addresses which contain data that the DAG steps through repeatedly, “wrapping around” to repeat stepping through the range of addresses in a circular pattern. To address a circular buffer, the DAG steps the index pointer (I register) through the buffer, post-modifying and

updating the index on each access with a positive or negative modify value ( $M$  register or immediate value). If the index pointer falls outside the buffer, the DAG subtracts from or adds to the length of the buffer value, wrapping the index pointer back to the start of the buffer. The DAG's support for circular buffer addressing appears in [Figure 4-1 on page 4-3](#), and an example of circular buffer addressing appears in [Figure 4-4](#).

The starting address that the DAG wraps around is called the buffer's base address ( $B$  register). There are no restrictions on the value of the base address for a circular buffer.

 Circular buffering may only use post-modify addressing. The DAG's architecture, as shown in [Figure 4-1 on page 4-3](#), cannot support pre-modify addressing for circular buffering because circular buffering requires that the index be updated on each access.

It is important to note that the DAGs do not detect memory map overflow or underflow. If the address post-modify produces  $I + M > 0xFFFF$  or  $I - M < 0$ , circular buffering may not function correctly. Also, the length of a circular buffer should not let the buffer straddle the top of the memory map. For more information on the DSP's memory map, see [Figure 4-1 on page 4-3](#).


As shown in [Figure 4-4](#), programs use the following steps to set up a circular buffer:

1. Enable circular buffering (`BIT SET Mode1 CBUFEN;`). This operation is only needed once in a program.
2. Load the buffer's base address into the  $B$  register. This operation automatically loads the corresponding  $I$  register.

## DAG Operations

3. Load the buffer's length into the corresponding  $L$  register. For example,  $L0$  corresponds to  $B0$ .
4. Load the modify value (step size) into an  $M$  register in the corresponding DAG. For example,  $M0$  through  $M7$  correspond to  $B0$ . Alternatively, the program can use an immediate value for the modifier.

After circular buffering is set up, the DAGs use the modulus logic in [Figure 4-1 on page 4-3](#) to process circular buffer addressing.

 Using circular buffering with odd length in SIMD mode allows the implicit move to exceed the circular buffer limits.

On the ADSP-2126x, programs enable circular buffering by setting the  $CBUFEN$  bit in the  $MODE1$  register. This bit has a corresponding mask bit in the  $MMASK$  register. Setting the corresponding  $MMASK$  bit causes the  $CBUFEN$  bit to be cleared following a push status instruction ( $PUSH\ STS$ ) or the execution of an external interrupt or timer interrupt. This feature allows programs to disable circular buffering while in an interrupt service routine that does not use circular buffering. By disabling circular buffering, the routine does not need to save and restore the DAG's  $B$  and  $L$  registers.

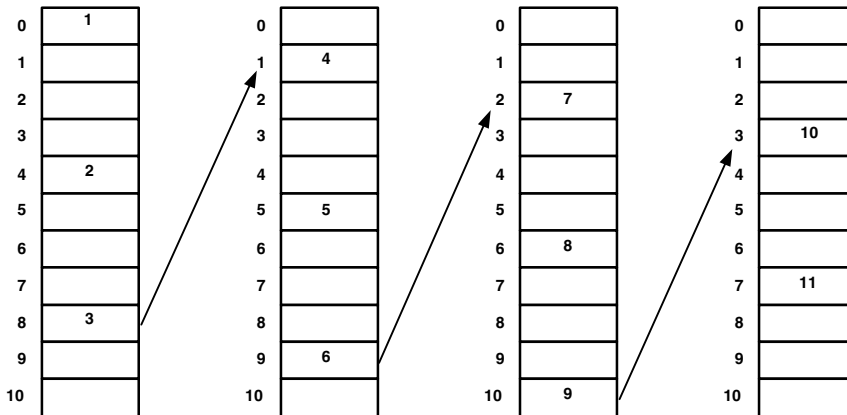
Clearing the  $CBUFEN$  bit disables circular buffering for all data load and store operations. The DAGs perform normal post-modify load and store accesses, ignoring the  $B$  and  $L$  register values. Note that a write to a  $B$  register modifies the corresponding  $I$  register, independent of the state of the  $CBUFEN$  bit. The  $MODIFY$  instruction executes independent of the state of the  $CBUFEN$  bit. The  $MODIFY$  instruction always performs circular buffer modify of the index registers if the corresponding  $B$  and  $L$  registers are configured, independent of the state of the  $CBUFEN$  bit.



THE FOLLOWING SYNTAX SETS UP AND ACCESSES A CIRCULAR BUFFER WITH:  
 LENGTH = 11  
 BASE ADDRESS = 0X80500  
 MODIFIER = 4

```

BIT SET MODE1 CBUFEN; /* ENABLES CIRCULAR BUFFER ADDRESSING; SET BY DEFAULT */
B0 = 0X80500; /* LOADS B0 AND L0 REGISTERS WITH BASE ADDRESS */
L0 = 11; /* LOADS L0 REGISTER WITH LENGTH OF BUFFER */
M1 = 4; /* LOADS M1 WITH MODIFIER OR STEP SIZE */
LCNTR = 11, DO MY_CIR_BUFFER UNTIL LCE; /* SETS UP A LOOP CONTAINING BUFFER ACCESSES */
    
```



THE COLUMNS ABOVE SHOW THE SEQUENCE IN ORDER OF LOCATIONS ACCESSED IN ONE PASS.  
 NOTE THAT "0" ABOVE IS ADDRESS DM(0X80500). THE SEQUENCE REPEATS ON SUBSEQUENT PASSES.

Figure 4-4. Circular Data Buffers

On the first post-modify access to the buffer, the DAG outputs the I register value on the address bus then modifies the address by adding the modify value. If the updated index value is within the buffer length, the DAG writes the value to the I register. If the updated value is outside the buffer length, the DAG subtracts (positive) or adds (negative) the L register value before writing the updated index value to the I register. In equation form, these post-modify and wraparound operations work as follows.

## DAG Operations

- If  $M$  is positive:

$$I_{\text{new}} = I_{\text{old}} + M \text{ if } I_{\text{old}} + M < \text{buffer base (start of buffer)}$$

$$I_{\text{new}} = I_{\text{old}} + M - L \text{ if } I_{\text{old}} + M \geq \text{buffer base} + \text{length (end of buffer)}$$

- If  $M$  is negative:

$$I_{\text{new}} = I_{\text{old}} + M \text{ if } I_{\text{old}} + M \geq \text{buffer base (start of buffer)}$$

$$I_{\text{new}} = I_{\text{old}} + M + L \text{ if } I_{\text{old}} + M < \text{buffer base (start of buffer)}$$

The DAGs use all four types of DAG registers for addressing circular buffers. These registers operate as follows for circular buffering.

- The index ( $I$ ) register contains the value that the DAG outputs on the address bus.
- The modify ( $M$ ) register contains the post-modify amount (positive or negative) that the DAG adds to the  $I$  register at the end of each memory access. The  $M$  register can be any  $M$  register in the same DAG as the  $I$  register and does not have to have the same number. The modify value can also be an immediate value instead of an  $M$  register. The size of the modify value, whether from an  $M$  register or immediate, must be less than the length ( $L$  register) of the circular buffer.
- The length ( $L$ ) register sets the size of the circular buffer and the address range that the DAG circulates the  $I$  register through. The  $L$  register must be positive and cannot have a value greater than  $2^{31} - 1$ . If an  $L$  register's value is zero, its circular buffer operation is disabled.
- The DAG compares the base ( $B$ ) register, or the  $B$  register plus the  $L$  register, to the modified  $I$  value after each access. When the  $B$  register is loaded, the corresponding  $I$  register is simultaneously loaded with the same value. When  $I$  is loaded,  $B$  is not changed. Programs can read the  $B$  and  $I$  registers independently.

There is one set of registers ( $I7$  and  $I15$ ) in each DAG that can generate an interrupt on circular buffer overflow (address wraparound). [For more information, see “Using DAG Status” on page 4-9.](#)

When a program needs to use  $I7$  or  $I15$  without circular buffering and the DSP has the circular buffer overflow interrupts unmasked, the program should disable the generation of these interrupts by setting the  $B7/B15$  and  $L7/L15$  registers to values that prevent the interrupts from occurring. If  $I7$  were accessing the address range  $0x1000 - 0x2000$ , the program could set  $B7 = 0x0000$  and  $L7 = 0xFFFF$ . Because the DSP generates the circular buffer interrupt based on the wraparound equations [on page 4-16](#), setting the  $L$  register to zero does not necessarily achieve the desired results. If the program is using either of the circular buffer overflow interrupts, it should avoid using the corresponding  $I$  register(s) ( $I7$  or  $I15$ ) where interrupt branching is not needed.

There are two special cases to be aware of when using circular buffers.

1. In the case of circular buffer overflow interrupts, if  $CBUFEN = 1$  and register  $L7 = 0$  (or  $L15 = 0$ ), the  $CB7I$  (or  $CB15I$ ) interrupt occurs at every change of  $I7$  (or  $I15$ ) after the index register ( $I7$  or  $I15$ ) crosses the base register ( $B7$  or  $B15$ ) value. This behavior is independent of the context of the DAG registers, both primary and alternate.
2. When a  $LW$  access, SIMD access, or normal word access with the  $LW$  option crosses the end of the circular buffer, the processor completes the access before responding to the end of buffer condition.

## Modifying DAG Registers

The DAGs support two operations that modify an address value in an index register without outputting an address. These two operations, address bit-reversal and address modify, are useful for bit-reverse addressing and maintaining pointers.

## DAG Operations

The `MODIFY` instruction modifies addresses in any DAG index register (I0-I15) without accessing memory. If the I register's corresponding B and L registers are set up for circular buffering, a `MODIFY` instruction performs the specified buffer wraparound (if needed). The syntax for `MODIFY` is similar to post-modify addressing (index, then modifier). The `MODIFY` instruction accepts either a 32-bit immediate value or an M register as the modifier. The following example adds 4 to I1 and updates I1 with the new value:

```
MODIFY(I1,4);
```

The `BITREV` instruction modifies and bit-reverses addresses in any DAG index register (I0-I15) without accessing memory. This instruction is independent of the bit-reverse mode. The `BITREV` instruction adds a 32-bit immediate value to a DAG index register, bit-reverses the result, and writes the result back to the same index register. The following example adds 4 to I1, bit-reverses the result, and updates I1 with the new value:

```
BITREV(I1,4);
```

## Addressing in SISD and SIMD Modes

Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode (PEYEN bit=1) does not change the addressing operations in the DAGs, but it does change the amount of data that moves during each access. The DAGs put the same addresses on the address buses in SIMD and Single-Instruction Single-Data (SISD) modes. In SIMD mode, the DSP's memory and processing elements get data from the named (explicit) locations in the instruction syntax as well as complementary (implicit) locations. For more information on data moves between registers, see [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50](#).

## DAGs, Registers, and Memory

DAG registers are part of the DSP's universal register (*Ureg*) set. Programs may load the DAG registers from memory, from another universal register, or with an immediate value. Programs may store DAG registers' contents to memory or to another universal register.

The DAG's registers support the bidirectional register-to-register transfers that are described in [“SIMD \(Computational\) Operations” on page 2-50](#). When the DAG register is a source of the transfer, the destination can be a register file data register. This transfer results in the contents of the single source register being duplicated in complementary data registers in each processing element.

Programs should use care in the case where the DAG register is a destination of a transfer from a register file data register source. Programs should use a conditional operation to select either one processing element or neither as the source. Having both processing elements contribute a source value results in the PEx element's write having precedence over the PEy element's write.

In the case where a DAG register is both source and destination, the data move operation executes the same as it would if SIMD mode were disabled (PEYEN cleared).

### DAG Register-to-Bus Alignment

There are three word alignment types for DAG registers and PM or DM data buses: normal word, extended-precision normal word, and long word.

The DAGs align normal word (32-bit) addressed transfers to the low order bits of the buses. These transfers between memory and 32-bit DAG1 or DAG2 registers use the 64-bit DM and PM data buses. [Figure 4-5](#) illustrates these transfers.

## DAGs, Registers, and Memory

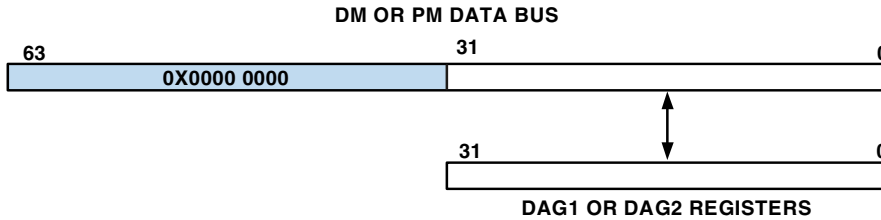


Figure 4-5. Normal Word (32-bit) DAG Register Memory Transfers

The DAGs align extended-precision normal word (40-bit) addressed transfers or register-to-register transfers to bits 39-8 of the buses. These transfers between a 40-bit data register and 32-bit DAG1 or DAG2 registers use the 64-bit DM and PM data buses. [Figure 4-6](#) illustrates these transfers.

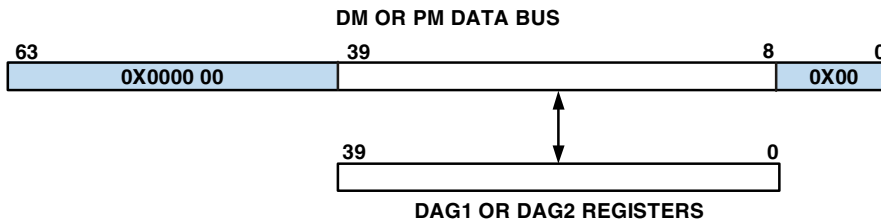


Figure 4-6. DAG Register-to-Data Register Transfers

Long word (64-bit) addressed transfers between memory and 32-bit DAG1 or DAG2 registers target double DAG registers and use the 64-bit DM and PM data buses. [Figure 4-7](#) illustrates how the bus works in these transfers.

If the long word transfer specifies an even numbered DAG register (I0 or I2), then the even numbered register value transfers on the lower half of the 64-bit bus, and the even numbered register + 1 value transfers on the upper half (bits 63-32) of the bus.

If the long word transfer specifies an odd numbered DAG register (I1 or B3), the odd numbered register value transfers on the lower half of the

64-bit bus, and the odd numbered register – 1 value (I0 or B2 in this example) transfers on the upper half (bits 63-32) of the bus.

In both the even and odd numbered cases, the explicitly specified DAG register sources or sinks bits 31-0 of the long word addressed memory.

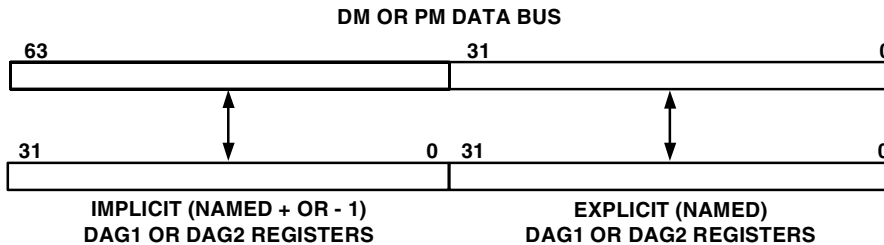


Figure 4-7. Long Word DAG Register-to-Data Register Transfers

For implicit moves and long word accesses that use the  $PX$  registers, as for example:

$I0 = PX$ ; equates to  $I0 = PX1$ ;

only the contents of the  $PX1$  register are written into  $I0$ . However, the following example:

$PX = I0$ ; equates to  $PX1 = PX2 = I0$ ;

## DAG Register Transfer Restrictions

The two types of transfer restrictions are hold-off conditions and illegal conditions that the DSP does not detect.

For certain instruction sequences involving transfers to and from DAG registers, an extra (NOP) cycle is automatically inserted by the processor. In case where an instruction that loads a DAG register is followed by an instruction that uses any register in the same DAG register pair<sup>1</sup> for data addressing, modify instructions, or indirect jumps, the DSP inserts an extra (NOP) cycle between the two instructions. This hold-off occurs

## DAGs, Registers, and Memory

because the same bus is needed by both operations in the same cycle. Therefore, the second operation must be delayed. The following example causes a delay because it exhibits a write/read dependency in which I0 is written in one cycle. The results of that register write are not available to a register read for one cycle. Note that if either instruction had specified I1, the stall occurs only if the first instruction performs a long word (LW) access. The DAG detects write/read dependencies with a register pair granularity:

```
I0 = 8;  
DM(I0, M1) = R1;
```

Certain sequences of instructions cause incorrect results on the DSP and are flagged as errors by the DSP assembler software. The following types of instructions can execute on the processor, but cause incorrect results.

- An instruction that stores a DAG register in memory using indirect addressing from the same DAG, with or without an update of the index register. The instruction writes the wrong data to memory or updates the wrong index register.

**Do not try these:**  $DM(M2, I1) = I0$ ; or  $DM(I1, M2) = I0$ ;

These example instructions do not work because I0 and I1 are both DAG1 registers.

- An instruction that loads a DAG register from memory using indirect addressing from the same DAG, with an update of the index register. The instruction either loads the DAG register or updates the index register, but not both.

**Do not try this:**  $L2 = DM(I1, M0)$ ;

This example instruction does not work because L2 and I1 are both DAG1 registers.

---

<sup>1</sup> DAG registers are accessible in pair granularity for single cycle access. The pairings are odd-even. For example I0 and I1 are a pair, and I2 and I3 are a pair.



## DAG Instruction Summary

Table 4-2, Table 4-3, Table 4-4, Table 4-5, Table 4-6, Table 4-7, Table 4-8, and Table 4-9 list the DAG instructions. For more information on assembly language syntax, see *ADSP-21160 SHARC DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

In these tables, note the meaning of the following symbols:

- I15-8 indicates a DAG2 index register: I15, I14, I13, I12, I11, I10, I9, or I8, and I7-0 indicates a DAG1 index register I7, I6, I5, I4, I3, I2, I1, or I0.
- M15-8 indicates a DAG2 modify register: M15, M14, M13, M12, M11, M10, M9, or M8, and M7-0 indicates a DAG1 modify register M7, M6, M5, M4, M3, M2, M1, or M0.
- *Ureg* indicates any universal register; for a list of the DSP's universal registers, see [Table A-1 on page A-3](#).
- *Dreg* indicates any data register; for a list of the DSP's data registers, see the Data Register File registers listed in [Table A-1 on page A-3](#).
- *Data32* indicates any 32-bit value, and *Data6* indicates any 6-bit value.

## DAG Instruction Summary

Table 4-2. Post-Modify Addressing, Modified by M Register and Updating I Register

DM(I7-0,M7-0)=Ureg (LW); {DAG1}
PM(I15-8,M15-8)=Ureg (LW); {DAG2}
Ureg=DM(I7-0,M7-0) (LW); {DAG1}
Ureg=PM(I15-8,M15-8) (LW); {DAG2}
DM(I7-0,M7-0)=Data32; {DAG1}
PM(I15-8,M15-8)=Data32; {DAG2}

Table 4-3. Post-Modify Addressing, Modified by 6-bit Data and Updating I Register

DM(I7-0,Data6)=Dreg; {DAG1}
PM(I15-8,Data6)=Dreg; {DAG2}
Dreg=DM(I7-0,Data6); {DAG1}
Dreg=PM(I15-8,Data6); {DAG2}

Table 4-4. Pre-Modify Addressing, Modified by M Register (No I Register Update)

DM(M7-0,I7-0)=Ureg (LW); {DAG1}
PM(M15-8,I15-8)=Ureg (LW); {DAG2}
Ureg=DM(M7-0,I7-0) (LW); {DAG1}
Ureg=PM(M15-8,I15-8) (LW); {DAG2}

Table 4-5. Pre-Modify Addressing, Modified by 6-bit Data  
(No I Register Update)

DM(Data6,I7-0)=Dreg; {DAG1}
PM(Data6,I15-8)=Dreg; {DAG2}
Dreg=DM(Data6,I7-0); {DAG1}
Dreg=PM(Data6,I15-8); {DAG2}

Table 4-6. Pre-Modify Addressing, Modified by 32-bit Data  
(No I Register Update)

Ureg=DM(Data32,I7-0) (LW); {DAG1}
Ureg=PM(Data32,I15-8) (LW); {DAG2}
DM(Data32,I7-0)=Ureg (LW); {DAG1}
PM(Data32,I15-8)=Ureg (LW); {DAG2}

Table 4-7. Update (Modify) I Register, Modified by M Register

Modify(I7-0,M7-0); {DAG1}
Modify(I15-8,M15-8); {DAG2}

Table 4-8. Update (Modify) I Register, Modified by 32-bit Data

Modify(I7-0,Data32); {DAG1}
Modify(I15-8,Data32); {DAG2}

Table 4-9. Bit-Reverse and Update I Register, Modified By 32-Bit Data

Bitrev(I7-0,Data32); {DAG1}
Bitrev(I15-8,Data32); {DAG2}

## DAG Instruction Summary

# 5 MEMORY

The ADSP-2126x contains a large, dual-ported internal memory for single cycle, simultaneous, independent accesses by the core processor and I/O processor. The dual-ported memory, in combination with three separate on-chip buses, allow two data transfers from the core and one transfer from the I/O processor in a single cycle. Using the I/O bus, the I/O processor provides data transfers between internal memory and the DSP's communication ports (serial ports and parallel port) without hindering the DSP core's access to memory. This chapter describes the DSP's memory and how to use it.

The DSP contains up to 2M bits of internal RAM and up to 4M bits of internal ROM depending on the specific part number<sup>1</sup>. Regardless, each block can be configured for different combinations of code and data storage. All of the memory can be accessed as 16-bit, 32-bit, 48-bit, or 64-bit words. The DSP features a 16-bit floating-point storage format that effectively doubles the amount of data that may be stored on-chip. A single instruction converts the format from 32-bit floating-point to 16-bit floating-point.

While each memory block can store combinations of code and data, accesses are most efficient when one block stores data using the DM bus, (typically block 1) for transfers, and the other block (typically block 0) stores instructions and data using the PM bus. Using the DM bus and PM bus with one dedicated to each memory block assures single-cycle execution with two data transfers. In this case, the instruction must be available in the cache.

---

<sup>1</sup> For specific memory information, see your ADSP-2126x product-specific data sheet.

# Internal Memory

The ADSP-21262 and ADSP-21266 SHARC DSPs contain 2M bits of internal RAM and 4M bits of internal ROM. Block 0 has 1M bit RAM and 2M bits ROM. Block 1 has 1M bit RAM and 2M bits ROM.

Table 5-1 shows the maximum number of data or instruction words that can fit in each internal memory block.


 The ADSP-2126x family members are available with varying amounts of internal ROM and RAM. For a complete list, visit our web site at [www.analog.com\SHARC](http://www.analog.com\SHARC).

Table 5-1. Words Per Internal Memory Block (ADSP-21262/21266 Models)


Word Type	Bits Per Word	Maximum Number of Words in Block 0		Maximum Number of Words in Block 1	
		1M bit RAM	2M bits ROM	1M bit RAM	2M bits ROM
Instruction	48 bits	21.33K words	42K words	21.33K words	42K words
Long Word Data	64 bits	16K words	32K words	16K words	32K words
Extended-Precision Normal Word Data	40 bits	21.33K words	42K words	21.33K words	42K words
Normal Word Data	32 bits	32K words	64K words	32K words	64K words
Short Word Data	16 bits	64K words	128K words	64K words	128K words

## DSP Architecture

Most microprocessors use a single address and a single-data bus for memory accesses. This type of memory architecture is referred to as the Von Neumann architecture. Because DSPs require greater data throughput

than the Von Neumann architecture provides, many DSPs use memory architectures that have separate data and address buses for program and data storage. These two sets of buses let the DSP retrieve a data word and an instruction simultaneously. This type of memory architecture is called Harvard architecture.

SHARC DSPs go a step further by using a Super Harvard architecture. This four bus architecture has two address buses and two data buses, but provides a single, unified address space for program and data storage. While the Data Memory (DM) bus only carries data, the Program Memory (PM) bus handles instructions and data, allowing dual-data accesses.

 Processor core and I/O processor accesses to internal memory are completely independent and transparent to one another. Each block of memory can be accessed by the DSP core and I/O processor in every cycle—no extra cycles are incurred if the DSP core and the I/O processor access the same block.

A memory access conflict can occur when the processor core attempts two accesses to the same internal memory block in the same cycle. When this conflict, known as a block conflict occurs, an extra cycle is incurred. The DM bus access completes first and the PM bus access completes in the following (extra) cycle.

For more information on how the buses access memory blocks, see [“Internal Memory” on page 5-2](#).

## Buses

As shown in [Figure 5-1](#), the processor has three sets of internal buses connected to its dual-ported memory, the Program Memory (PM), Data Memory (DM), and I/O Processor (I/O) buses. The PM and DM buses share one memory port and the I/O bus connects to the other port. Memory accesses from the DSP’s core (computational units, data address generators, or program sequencer) use the PM or DM buses, while the I/O

## Buses

processor uses the I/O bus for memory accesses. The I/O processor's parallel port (PP) bus can access external memory devices.

### Internal Address and Data Buses

[Figure 5-1 on page 5-5](#) shows that the PM and DM buses have access to internal memory.

The DSP's DM and PM buses can access internal memory independently. The I/O processor can perform DMA between external and internal memory without conflicts with the DM and PM buses.

Addresses for the PM and DM buses come from the DSP's program sequencer and Data Address Generators (DAGs). The program sequencer generates 24-bit program memory addresses while DAGs supply 32-bit addresses for locations throughout the DSP's memory spaces. The DAGs supply addresses for data reads and writes on both the PM and DM address buses, while the program sequencer uses only the PM address bus for sequencing execution.

Each DAG is associated with a particular data bus. DAG1 supplies addresses over the DM bus and DAG2 supplies addresses over the PM bus. For more information on address generation, see [Chapter 3, Program Sequencer](#) or [Chapter 4, Data Address Generators](#).



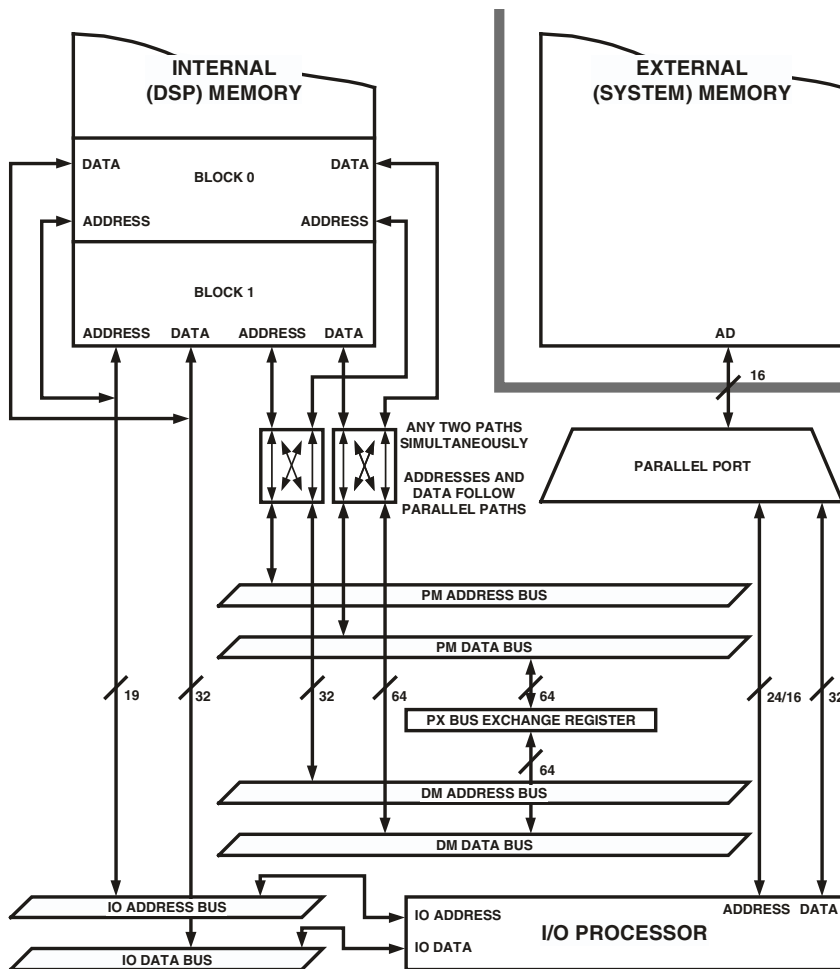


Figure 5-1. ADSP-21262 Processor Memory and Internal Buses Block Diagram

## Buses

Because the DSP's internal memory is arranged in four 16-bit wide by 96K columns, memory is addressable in widths that are multiples of columns up to 64 bits:

1 column = 16-bit words

2 columns = 32-bit words

3 columns = 48- or 40-bit words

4 columns = 64-bit words

For more information on the how the DSP works with memory words, see [“Memory Organization and Word Size” on page 5-12](#).

The PM and DM data buses are 64 bits wide. Both data buses can handle long word (64-bit), normal word (32-bit), Extended-precision normal word (40-bit), and short word (16-bit) data, but only the PM data bus carries instruction words (48-bit).

## Internal Data Bus Exchange

The data buses allow programs to transfer the contents of any register in the DSP to any other register or to any internal memory location in a single cycle. As shown in [Figure 5-2](#), the PM Bus Exchange (PX) register permits data to flow between the PM and DM data buses. The PX register can work as one 64-bit register or as two 32-bit registers (PX1 and PX2). The alignment of PX1 and PX2 within PX appears in [Figure 5-2](#).

The PX1, PX2, and the combined PX registers are Universal registers (Ureg) that are accessible for register-to-register or memory-to-register transfers.

The PX register-to-register transfers using data registers are either 40-bit transfers for the combined PX or 32-bit transfers for PX1 or PX2. [Figure 5-2](#) shows the bit alignment and gives an example of instructions for register-to-register transfers.

Figure 5-2 shows that during a transfer between PX1 or PX2 and a data register (Dreg), the bus transfers the upper 32 bits of the register file and zero-fills the eight least significant bits (LSBs).

#### Instruction Examples

```
PX = DM(0x80000)(LW);
PX = DM(0x40000);
```

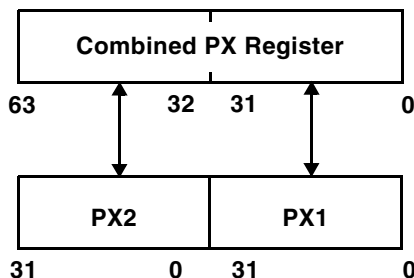


Figure 5-2. PM Bus Exchange (PX, PX1, and PX2) Registers

During a transfer between the combined PX register and a register file, the bus transfers the upper 40 bits of PX and zero-fills the lower 24 bits.

#### Instruction Examples

```
R3 = PX;
```

```
R3 = PX1; or R3 = PX2;
```

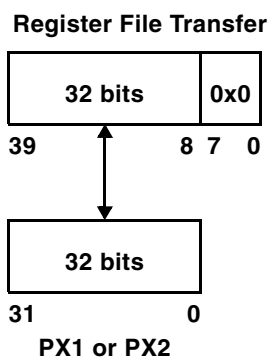
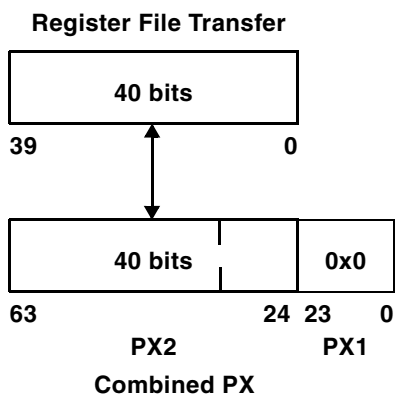


Figure 5-3. PX, PX1, and PX2 Register-to-Register Transfers

## Buses

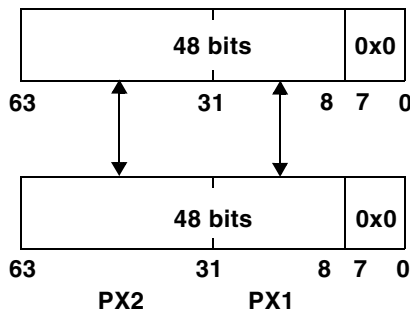
The  $PX$  register-to-internal memory transfers over the DM or PM data bus are either 48-bit transfers for the combined  $PX$  or 32-bit transfers (on bits 31-0 of the bus) for  $PX1$  or  $PX2$ . [Figure 5-5](#) shows these transfers.

### Instruction Examples

$PX = DM(0xC0000)(LW);$

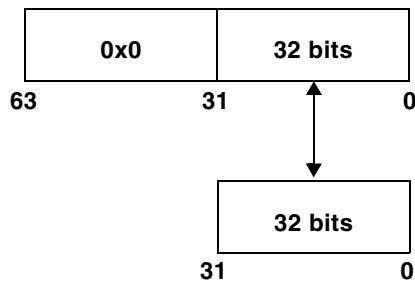
$PM(I7, M7) = PX1;$

#### DM and PM Data Bus Transfer (not LW)



Combined  $PX$

#### DM or PM Data Bus Transfer



$PX1$  or  $PX2$

Figure 5-4.  $PX$ ,  $PX1$ ,  $PX2$  Register-to-Memory Transfers on DM (LW) or PM (LW) Data Bus

[Figure 5-5](#) shows that during a transfer between  $PX1$  or  $PX2$  and internal memory, the bus transfers the lower 32 bits of the register.

During a transfer between the combined  $PX$  register and internal memory, the bus transfers the upper 48 bits of  $PX$  and zero-fills the lower 8 bits.



The status of the memory block's Internal Memory Data Width (IMDWX) setting does not effect this default transfer size for  $PX$  to internal memory.

All transfers between the  $PX$  register (or any other internal register or memory) and any I/O processor register are 32-bit transfers (least significant 32 bits of  $PX$ ).

All transfers between the `PX` register and data registers (`R0-R15` or `S0-S15`) are 40-bit transfers. The most significant 40 bits are transferred as shown in Figure 5-3 on page 5-7.

Figure 5-5 shows the transfer size between `PX` and internal memory over the `PM` or `DM` data bus when using the long word (`LW`) option.

**Instruction Example**     `PX = PM (0x80000)LW;`

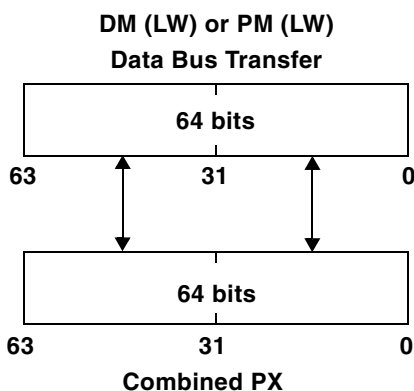


Figure 5-5. `PX` Register-to-Memory Transfers on `PM` Data Bus

The `LW` notation in Figure 5-5 shows an important feature of `PX` register-to-internal memory transfers over the `PM` or `DM` data bus for the combined `PX` register. The `PX` register transfers to memory are 48-bit (three column) transfers on bits 63-16 of the `PM` or `DM` data bus, unless forced to be 64-bit (four column) transfers with the `LW` (long word) mnemonic.

There is no implicit move when the combined `PX` register is used in `SIMD` mode. For example, in `SIMD` mode, the following moves occur:

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

```
PX1 = R0; /* R0 32-bit explicit move to PX1,  
          and S0 32-bit implicit move to PX2 */  
PX = R0; /* R0 40-bit explicit move to PX,  
          but no implicit move for S0 */
```

### Instruction Example

```
PX = USTAT1;
```

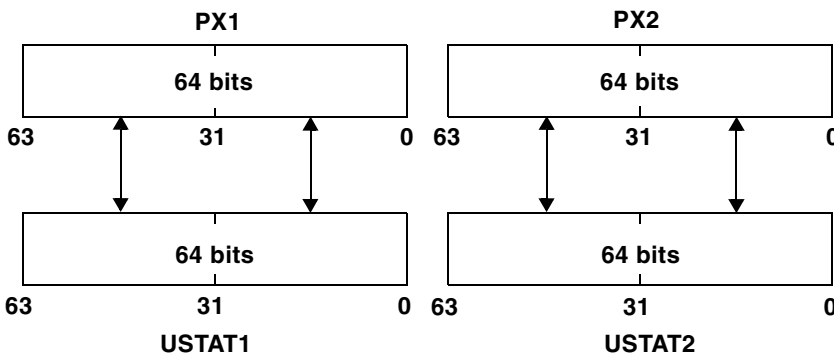


Figure 5-6. PX Register-to-Internal Memory Transfers Over the PM or DM DATA Bus

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

The ADSP-2126x family is composed of a variety of models that have varying amounts of RAM and/or ROM memory. However, in general, there are two memory spaces: internal memory space and external (DMA) memory space. These spaces have these definitions:

- **Internal memory space.** This space ranges from address 0x00 0000 through 0x1F FFFF. Internal memory space refers to the DSP's on-chip RAM, on-chip ROM, and memory-mapped registers.
- **External (DMA) memory.** For information on external DMA memory space please refer to the product-specific data sheet.

The ADSP-2126x has two blocks of RAM that contain up to 1M bit of memory each, and two blocks of ROM that contain up to 2M bits of memory each. Each block is physically comprised of four 16-bit columns. “Wrapping”, as shown in [Figure 5-8 on page 5-14](#), allows the memory to efficiently store 16-bit, 32-bit, 48-bit or 64-bit wide words. The width of the data word fetched from memory is dependent upon the address range used. The same physical location in memory can be accessed using three different addresses.



Accessing a short word memory address accesses one 16-bit word. Consecutive 16-bit short-words are accessed from columns #1, #2, #3, #4, #1 and so on. Accessing a normal word memory address transfers 32 bits (from columns 1 and 2 or 3 and 4). Consecutive 32-bit words are accessed from columns 1 and 2, 3 and 4, 1 and 2 etc. Accessing a long word address transfers 64 bits (from all four columns). For example, the same 16 bits of Block-0 are overwritten in each of the following four write instructions (some, but not all of the short word accesses overwrite more than 16 bits).

#### Listing 5-1. Overwriting Bits (ADSP-21262 Example)

```
#include <def2126x.h>
DM(0x00040000) = PX;    /* long word transfer
                        (64 bits/four columns) */
DM(0x00080000) = R0;    /* normal word transfer
                        (32 bits/two columns) */
DM(0x00100000) = R0;    /* short word transfer
                        (16 bits/1-column) */

NOP
USTAT1 = dm(SYSCTL);
bit set USTAT1 IMDW0;    /* set Blk0 access as ext. precision */
dm(SYSCTL) = USTAT1;
DM(0x00080000) = R0;    /* normal word transfer
                        (40 bits/three columns) */
```

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

-  Normal word address space is also used by the program sequencer to fetch 48-bit instructions. Note that a 48-bit fetch spans three columns that can lead to a different address range between instruction fetches and data fetches ([Figure 5-7](#)).
-  Normal word address space can also optionally be used to fetch 40-bit data (from three columns) if the `IMDWx` (Internal Memory Data Width) bit in the `SYSCTL` register is set. There are two bits in the `SYSCTL` register, `IMDW0` and `IMDW1`, which determine whether access to each block is 32 or 40 bits. [For more information, see “Accessing Memory” on page 5-22.](#)

The I/O processor’s memory-mapped registers control the system configuration of the DSP and I/O operations. For information about the I/O Processor, see [Chapter 7, I/O Processor](#). These registers occupy consecutive 32-bit locations in this region.

If a program uses long word addressing (forced with the `LW` mnemonic) to access this region, the access is only to the addressed 32-bit register, rather than the two adjacent I/O processor registers. The register contents are transferred on bits 31–0 of the data bus.

## Memory Organization and Word Size

The DSP’s internal memory is organized as four 16-bit wide by 64K high columns. These columns of memory are addressable as a variety of word sizes:

- 64-bit long word data (four columns)
- 48-bit instruction words or 40-bit extended-precision normal word data (3 columns)



- 32-bit normal word data (2 columns)
- 16-bit short word data (1 column)

**i** Extended-precision normal word data is only accessible if the `IMDWx` bit is set in the `SYSCTL` register. It is left-justified within a three column location, using bits 47–8 of the location.

### Placing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words

When the processor core or I/O processor addresses memory, the word width of the access determines which columns within the memory are accessed. For instruction word (48 bits) or extended-precision normal word data (40 bits), the word width is 48 bits, and the DSP accesses the memory's 16-bit columns in groups of three. Because these sets of three column accesses are packed into a 4 column matrix, there are four rotations of the columns for storing 40- or 48-bit data. The three column word rotations within the four column matrix appear in [Figure 5-7](#).

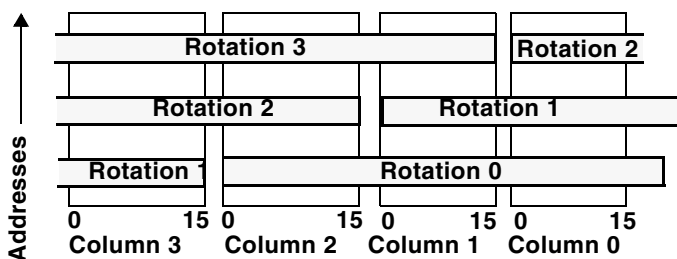


Figure 5-7. 48-Bit Word Rotations

For long word (64 bits), normal word (32 bits), and short word (16 bits) memory accesses, the DSP selects from fixed columns in memory. No rotations of words within columns occur for these data types.

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

Figure 5-8 shows the memory ranges for each data size in the DSP's internal memory.

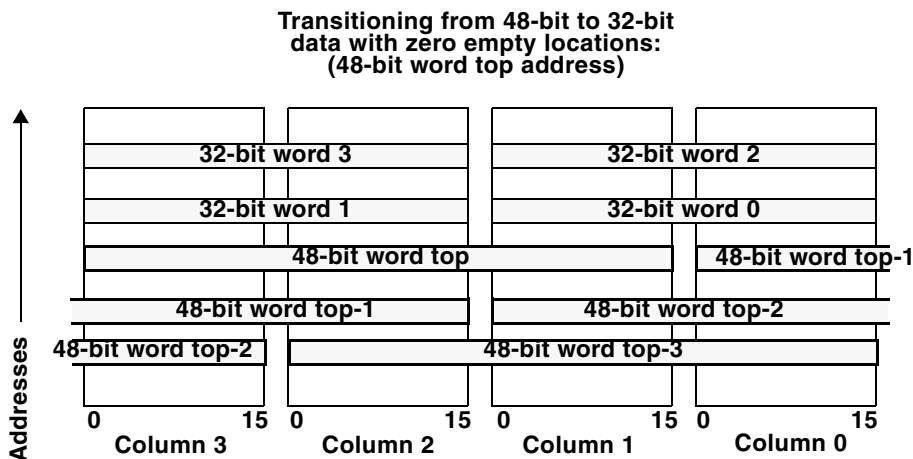


Figure 5-8. Mixed Instructions and Data With No Unused Locations

### Mixing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words

The DSP's memory organization lets programs freely place memory words of all sizes (see “[Memory Organization and Word Size](#)” on page 5-12) with few restrictions (see “[Restrictions on Mixing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words](#)” on page 5-16). This memory organization also lets programs mix (place in adjacent addresses) words of all sizes. This section discusses how to mix odd (three-column) and even (four-column) data words in the DSP's memory.

Transition boundaries between 48-bit (three-column) data and any other data size can occur only at any 64-bit address boundary within either internal memory block. Depending on the ending address of the 48-bit words, there are zero, one, or two empty locations at the transition between the 48-bit (three-column) words and the 64-bit (four-column) words. These empty locations result from the column rotation for storing

48-bit words. The three possible transition arrangements appear in Figure 5-8, Figure 5-9, and Figure 5-10.

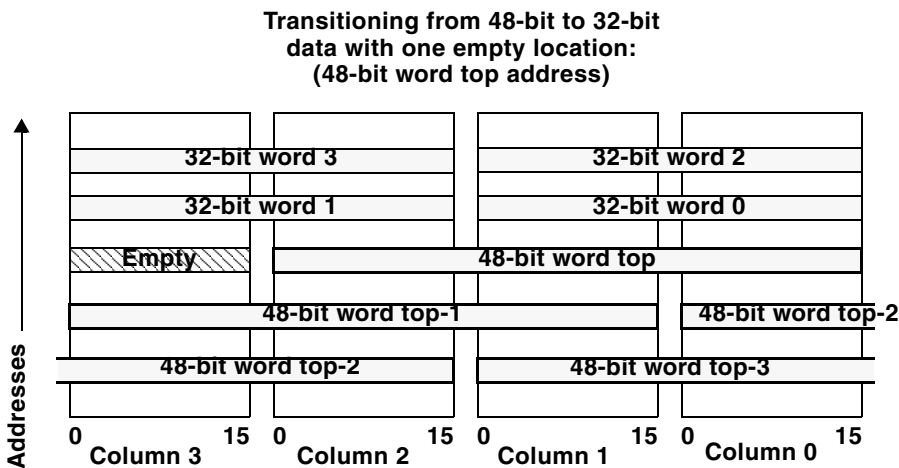


Figure 5-9. Mixed Instructions and Data With One Unused Location

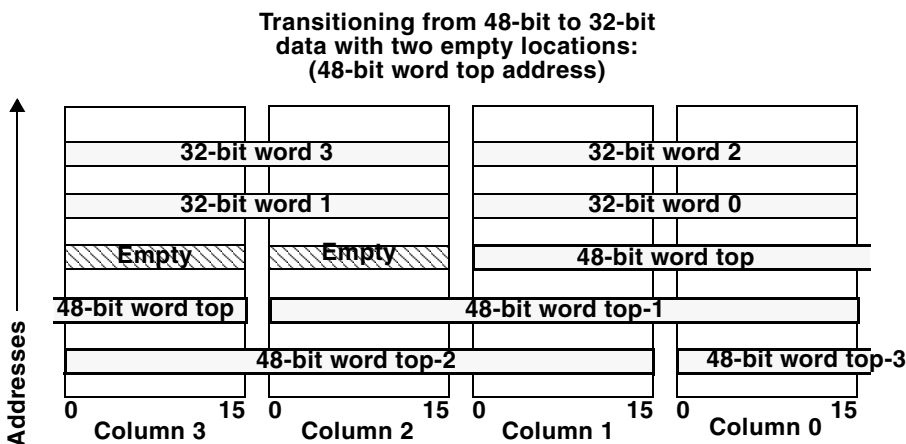


Figure 5-10. Mixed Instructions and Data With Two Unused Locations

### Restrictions on Mixing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words

There are some restrictions that stem from the memory column rotations for three-column data (48- or 40-bit words) and they relate to the way that three-column data can mix with four-column data (32-bit words) in memory. These restrictions apply to mixing 48- and 32-bit words, because the DSP uses a normal word address to access both of these types of data even though 48-bit data maps onto three columns of memory and 32-bit data maps onto two columns of memory.

When a system has a range of three-column (48-bit) words followed by a range of two-column (32-bit) words, there is often a gap of empty 16-bit locations between the two address ranges. The size of the address gap varies with the ending address of the range of 48-bit words. Because the addresses within the gap alias to both 48- and 32-bit words, a 48-bit write into the gap corrupts 32-bit locations, and a 32-bit write into the gap corrupts 48-bit locations. The locations within the gap are only accessible with short word (16-bit) accesses.

Calculating the starting address for four column data that minimizes the gap after three column data is useful for programs that are mixing three and four column data. Given the last address of the three column (48-bit) data, the starting address of the 32-bit range that most efficiently uses memory can be determined by the equation shown in [Listing 5-2](#).

Listing 5-2. Starting Address

$$m = B + 2 [(n \text{ MOD } K) - \text{TRUNC}(n \text{ MOD } K) / 4]$$

where:

- **K** is 21844 for RAM and 43690 for ROM
- **n** is the number of contiguous 48-bit words allocated in the internal memory block ( $n < 43,690$  for ROM,  $n < 21844$  for RAM)

- **B** is the base normal word address of the internal memory block; if **B** = 0x80000 (Block 0) else **B** = 0xC0000 (Block 1)
- **m** is the first 32-bit normal word address to use after the end of 48-bit words

### Example: Calculating a Starting Address for 32-Bit Addresses

The last valid address is 0x82694. The number of 48-bit words (*n*) is:  
 $n = 0x82694 - 0x80000 + 1 = 0x2695$

When you convert 0x2695 to decimal representation, the result is 9877.

The base (**B**) normal word address of the internal memory block is 0x80000 since the condition  $0 < 10922$  is TRUE.

The first 32-bit normal word address to use after the end of the 48-bit words is given by:

$$m = 0x80000 + 2 [(9877 \text{ MOD } 21844) - \text{TRUNC} (9877 \text{ MOD } 21844)/4]$$

$$m = 0x80000 + 14816_{\text{decimal}}$$

Convert to a hexadecimal address:

$$14816_{\text{decimal}} = 0x39E0$$

$$m = 0x80000 + 0x39E0 = 0x839E0$$

The first valid starting 32-bit address is 0x839E0. The starting address must begin on an even address.

### 48-Bit Word Allocation

Another useful calculation for programs that are mixing three and four column data is to calculate the amount of three column data that minimizes the gap before starting four column data. Given the starting address of the four column (32-bit) data, the number of 48-bit words that most efficiently uses memory can be determined as shown in [Listing 5-3](#).

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

Listing 5-3. 48-Bit Word Allocation

$$n = \text{TRUNC}\{4[(m - B) / 2] / 3\} + B$$

where:

- **m** is the first 32-bit normal word address after the end of 48-bit words (1m values falls in the valid normal word address space)
- **B** is the base normal word address of the internal memory block; **B** = 0x80000 (block 0) else **B** = 0xC0000 (block 1) for valid m values
- **n** is the number of contiguous 48-bit words the system allocates in the internal memory block

### Internal Interrupt Vector Table

The default location of the ADSP-2126x's interrupt vector table (IVT) depends on the DSP's booting mode. When the processor boots from an external source (EPROM, SPI port master or slave booting), the vector table starts at address 0x0008 0000 (normal word). When the processor is in "no boot" mode (runs from internal ROM location 0x000A 0000 without loading), the interrupt vector table starts at address 0x000A-0000.

The Internal Interrupt Vector Table (IIVT) bit in the SYSCTL register overrides the default placement of the vector table. If IIVT is set (=1), the interrupt table starts at address 0x0008 0000 (internal memory) regardless of the booting mode.


### Internal Memory Data Width

The DSP's internal memory blocks use normal word addressing to access either single-precision 32-bit data or extended-precision 40-bit data. Programs select the data width independently for each internal memory block

using the Internal Memory Data Width (IMDW<sub>x</sub>) bits in the SYSCTL register. If a block's IMDW<sub>x</sub> bit is cleared (=0), normal word accesses to the block access 32-bit data. If a block's IMDW<sub>x</sub> bit is set (=1), normal word accesses to the block access 48-bit data. If a program tries to write 40-bit data (for example, a data register-to-memory transfer), the transfer truncates the lower 8 bits from the register; only writing 32 most significant bits.

If a program tries to read 40-bit data (for example, a memory-to-data register transfer), the transfer zero-fills the lower 8 bits of the register, only reading the 32 most significant bits (MSBs).

The Program Memory Bus Exchange (PX) register is the only exception to these transfer rules—all loads and or stores of the PX register are performed as 48-bit accesses unless forced to a 64-bit access with the LW mnemonic. If any 40-bit data must be stored in a memory block configured for 32-bit words, the program uses the PX register to access the 40-bit data in 48-bit words. Programs should take care not to corrupt any 32-bit data with this type of access. [For more information, see “Restrictions on Mixing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words” on page 5-16.](#)

 The Long word (LW) mnemonic only effects normal word address accesses and overrides all other factors (SIMD, IMDW<sub>x</sub>).

## Secondary Processor Element (PEy)

When the PEYEN bit in the MODE1 register is set (=1), the DSP is in Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) mode. In SIMD mode, many data access operations differ from the DSP's default Single-Instruction, Single-Data (SISD) mode. These differences relate to doubling the amount of data transferred for each data access.

Accesses in SIMD mode transfer both an explicit (named) location and an implicit (unnamed, complementary) location. The explicit transfer is a data transfer between the explicit register and the explicit address, and the implicit transfer is between the implicit register and the implicit address.

## ADSP-2126x Memory Map

For information on complementary (implicit) registers in SIMD mode accesses, see [“Secondary Processor Element \(PEy\)” on page 5-19](#). For more information on complementary (implicit) memory locations in SIMD mode accesses, see [“Accessing Memory” on page 5-22](#).

### Broadcast Register Loads

The DSP’s BDCST1 and BDCST9 bits in the MODE1 register control broadcast register loading. When broadcast loading is enabled, the DSP writes to complementary registers or complementary register pairs in each processing element on writes that are indexed with DAG1 register I1 (if BDCST1 =1) or DAG2 register I9 (if BDCST9 =1). Broadcast load accesses are similar to SIMD mode accesses in that the DSP transfers both an explicit (named) location and an implicit (unnamed, complementary) location. However, broadcast loading only influences writes to registers and writes identical data to these registers. Broadcast mode is independent of SIMD mode.

Table 5-2 shows examples of explicit and implicit effects of broadcast register loads to both processing elements. Note that broadcast loading only effects loads of data registers (register file); broadcast loading does not effect register stores or loads to other system registers. Furthermore, broadcast loads only work on register loads; broadcast loading cannot be used for memory writes. For more information on broadcast loading, see [“Accessing Memory” on page 5-22](#).

Table 5-2. Register Load Dual PE Broadcast Operation


Instruction (Explicit, PEx Operation) <sup>1</sup>	(Implicit, PEy operation)
Rx = dm(i1,ma); Rx = pm(i9,mb); Rx = dm(i1,ma), Ry = pm(i9,mb);	Sx = dm(i1,ma); Sx = pm(i9,mb); Sx = dm(i1,ma), Sy = pm(i9,mb);

1 The post increment in the explicit operation is performed before the implicit instructions are executed.



## Illegal I/O Processor Register Access

The DSP monitors I/O processor register access when the Illegal I/O processor Register Access (IIRAE) bit in the MODE2 register is set (=1). If access to the IOP registers is detected, an Illegal Input Condition Detected (IICDI) interrupt occurs. The interrupt is latched in the IRPTL register when a core access to an IOP register occurs.

 The I/O processor's DMA controller cannot generate the IICDI interrupt. For more information, see “Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2)” on page A-7.

## Unaligned 64-Bit Memory Access

The DSP monitors for unaligned 64-bit memory accesses if the Unaligned 64-bit Memory Accesses (U64MAE) bit in the MODE2 register (bit 21) is set (=1). An unaligned access is an odd numbered address normal word access that is forced to 64 bits with the LW mnemonic. When detected, this condition is an input that can cause an Illegal Input Condition Detected (IICDI) interrupt if the interrupt is enabled in the IMASK register. For more information, see “Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2)” on page A-7.

The following code example shows the access for even and odd addresses. When accessing an odd address, the sticky bit is set to indicate the unaligned access.

```
bit set mode2 U64MAE;      /* set testbit for aligned or
                           unaligned 64-bit access*/

r0 = 0x11111111;
r1 = 0x22222222;
pm(0x80200) = r0(lw);      /* even address in 32-bit, access
                           is aligned */
pm(0x80201) = r0(lw);      /* odd address in 32-bit, sticky
                           bit is set */
```

# Using Memory Access Status

As described in [“Illegal I/O Processor Register Access”](#) on page 5-21 and [“Unaligned 64-Bit Memory Access”](#) on page 5-21, the DSP can provide illegal access information for long word or I/O register accesses. When these conditions occur, the DSP updates an illegal condition flag in a sticky status (STKYx) register. Either of these two conditions can also generate a maskable interrupt. Two ways to use illegal access information are:

- **Interrupts.** Enable interrupts and use an interrupt service routine (ISR) to handle the illegal access condition immediately. This method is appropriate if it is important to handle all illegal accesses as they occur.
- **STKYx registers.** Sticky registers hold a value that can be checked for a specific condition at a later time. Use the `Bit Tst` instruction to examine illegal condition flags in the STKYx register after an interrupt to determine which illegal access condition occurred.

## Accessing Memory

The word width of DSP processor core accesses to internal memory include:

- 48-bit access for instruction words, extended-precision normal word (40-bit) data, and PX register
- 64-bit access for long word data, normal word (32-bit) data, or PX register data with the `LW` mnemonic
- 32-bit access for normal word (32-bit) data
- 16-bit access for short word data

The DSP determines whether a normal word access is 32 or 40 bits from the internal memory block's `IMDWx` setting. [For more information, see](#)

“[Internal Memory Data Width](#)” on page 5-18. While mixed accesses of 48-bit words and 16-, 32-, or 64-bit words at the same address are not allowed, mixed read/writes of 16-, 32-, and 64-bit words to the same address are allowed. For more information, see “[Restrictions on Mixing 32-Bit Words and 48-Bit Words](#)” on page 5-16.

The DSP’s DM and PM buses support 24 combinations of register-to-memory data access options. The following factors influence the data access type:

- Size of words—short word, normal word, extended-precision normal word, or long word
- Number of words—single or dual-data move
- Mode of DSP—SISD, SIMD, or broadcast load

### Access Word Size

The DSP’s internal memory accommodates the following word sizes:

- 64-bit word data
- 48-bit instruction words
- 40-bit extended-precision normal word data
- 32-bit normal word data
- 16-bit short word data

### Long Word (64-Bit) Accesses

A program makes a long word (64-bit) access to internal memory using an access to a long word address. Programs can also make a 64-bit access through normal word addressing with the `LW` mnemonic or through a `PX` register move with the `LW` mnemonic. The address ranges for internal memory accesses appear in the processor model data sheet.

## Accessing Memory

When data is accessed using long word addressing, the data is always long word aligned on 64-bit boundaries in internal memory space. When data is accessed using normal word addressing and the `LW` mnemonic, the program should maintain this alignment by using an even normal word address (least significant bit of address = 0). This register selection aligns the normal word address with a 64-bit boundary (long word address).

All long word accesses load or store two consecutive 32-bit data values. The register file source or destination of a long word access is a set of two neighboring data registers in a processing element. In a forced long word access (uses the `LW` mnemonic), the even (normal word address) location moves to or from the explicit register in the neighbor-pair, and the odd (normal word address) location moves to or from the implicit register in the neighbor-pair. For example, the following long word moves could occur:

```
DM(0x80000) = R0 (LW);  
/* The data in R0 moves to location DM(0x80000), and the data in  
R1 moves to location DM(0x80001) */  
R0 = DM(0x80003)(LW);  
/* The data at location DM(0x80002) moves to R0, and the data at  
location DM(0x80003) moves to R1 */
```


The example shows that `R0` and `R1` are neighbor registers in the same processing element. [Table 5-3](#) lists the other neighbor register assignments that apply to long word accesses.

In unforced long word accesses (accesses to `LW` memory space), the DSP places the lower 32 bits of the long word in the named (explicit) register and places the upper 32 bits of the long word in the neighbor (implicit) register.

Table 5-3. Neighbor Registers for Long Word Accesses

PEx Neighbor Registers	PEy Neighbor Registers
r0 and r1	s0 and s1
r2 and r3	s2 and s3
r4 and r5	s4 and s5
r6 and r7	s6 and s7
r8 and r9	s8 and s9
r10 and r11	s10 and s11
r12 and r13	s12 and s13
r14 and r15	s14 and s15

Programs can monitor for unaligned 64-bit accesses by enabling the U64-MAE bit. For more information, see “Unaligned 64-Bit Memory Access” on page 5-21.

 The Long word (LW) mnemonic only effects normal word address accesses and overrides all other factors (PEYEN, IMDWX).

## Instruction and Extended-Precision Normal Word Accesses

The sequencer uses 48-bit memory accesses for instruction fetches. Programs can make 48-bit accesses with PX register moves, which default to 48 bits.

A program makes an extended-precision normal word (40-bit) access to internal memory using an access to a normal word address when that internal memory block’s IMDWX bit is set (=1) for 40-bit words. The address ranges for internal memory accesses appear in Figure 5-8 on page 5-14. For more information on configuring memory for extended-precision normal word accesses, see “Internal Memory Data Width” on page 5-18.

## Accessing Memory

The DSP transfers the 40-bit data to internal memory as a 48-bit value, zero-filling the least significant 8 bits on stores and truncating these 8 bits on loads. The register file source or destination of such an access is a single 40-bit data register.

### Normal Word (32-Bit) Accesses

A program makes a normal word (32-bit) access to internal memory using an access to a normal word address when that internal memory block's `IMDWx` bit is cleared (=0) for 32-bit words. Programs use normal word addressing to access all DSP memory spaces. The address ranges for memory accesses appear in [Figure 5-8 on page 5-14](#), [Figure 5-10 on page 5-15](#), and [Figure 5-11 on page 5-33](#).

The register file source or destination of a normal word access is a single 40-bit data register. The DSP zero-fills the least significant 8 bits on loads and truncates these bits on stores.

### Short Word (16-Bit) Accesses

A program makes a short word (16-bit) access to internal memory using an access to a short word address. The address ranges for internal memory accesses appear in [Figure 5-8 on page 5-14](#).

The register file source or destination of such an access is a single 40-bit data register. The DSP zero-fills the least significant 8 bits on loads and truncates these bits on stores. Depending on the value of the `SSE` bit in the `MODE1` system register, the DSP loads the register's upper 16 bits by either:

- Zero-filling these bits if `SSE=0`
- Sign-extending these bits if `SSE=1`

## Setting Data Access Modes

The `SYSCTL`, `MODE1` and `MODE2` registers control the operating mode of the DSP's memory. These register are described in [Appendix A, Registers Reference](#).

### SYSCTL Register Control Bits

The following bits in the `SYSCTL` register control memory access modes:

- **Internal Interrupt Vector Table.** `SYSCTL` Bit 2 (`IIVT`) forces placement of the interrupt vector table at address `0x0008 0000` regardless of booting mode (if 1) or allows placement of the interrupt vector table as selected by the booting mode (if 0).
- **Internal Memory Block Data Width.** `SYSCTL` Bits 10-9 (`IMDWx`) selects the normal word data access size for internal memory Block 0 and Block1. A block's normal word access size is fixed as 32 bits (two column, `IMDWx=0`) or 48 bits (three column, `IMDWx = 1`).

### Mode 1 Register Control Bits

The following bits in the `MODE1` register control memory access modes:

- **Secondary Processor Element (PE<sub>y</sub>).** `MODE1` Bit 21 (`PEYEN`) enables computations in `PEy` in SIMD mode, (if 1) or disables `PEy` in SISD mode, (if 0).
- **Broadcast Register Loads.** `MODE1` Bit 22 (`BDCST9`) and Bit 23 (`BDCST1`) enable broadcast register loads for memory transfers indexed with `I1` (if `BDCST1 = 1`) or indexed with `I9` (if `BDCST9 = 1`).

## Accessing Memory

### Mode 2 Register Control Bits

The following bits in the `MODE2` register control memory access modes:

- **Illegal IOP Register Access Enable.** `MODE2` Bit 20 (`IIRAE`) enables detection of IOP register access (if 1) or disables detection (if 0).
- **Unaligned 64-bit Memory Access Enable.** `MODE2` Bit 21 (`U64MAE`) enables detection of uneven address memory access (if 1) or disables detection (if 0).

### SISD, SIMD, and Broadcast Load Modes

These modes influence memory accesses. For a comparison of their effects, see the examples in [“Internal Memory Access Listings” on page 5-30](#), and [“Secondary Processor Element \(PEy\)” on page 5-19](#).

Broadcast load mode is a hybrid between SISD and SIMD modes that transfers dual-data under special conditions. For examples of broadcast transfers, see [“Internal Memory Access Listings” on page 5-30](#). For more information on broadcast load mode, see [“Broadcast Register Loads” on page 5-20](#).

### Single- and Dual-Data Accesses

The number of transfers that occur in a cycle influences the data access operation. As described in [“DSP Architecture” on page 5-2](#), the DSP supports single cycle, dual-data accesses to and from internal memory for register-to-memory and memory-to-register transfers. Dual-data accesses occur over the PM and DM bus and act independent of SIMD/SISD. Though only available for transfers between memory and data registers, dual-data transfers are extremely useful because they double the data throughput over single-data transfers.



## Instruction Examples

```
R8 = DM (I4,M3), PM (I12,M13) = R0; /* Dual access */
R0 = DM (I5,M5);                      / * Single access */
```

For examples of data flow paths for single and dual-data transfers, see the following section, [“Internal Memory Access Listings” on page 5-30](#).

## Shadow Write FIFO

Because the processor’s internal memory operates at high speeds, writes to the memory block do not go directly into the memory array, but rather to a two-deep FIFO called the shadow write FIFO. This does not apply to ROM type block. The four shadow FIFOs are located inside the internal memory interface block ([Figure 5-1](#) and [Figure 5-2](#)) which is responsible for access control to the individual blocks.

This FIFO uses a non-read cycle (either a write cycle, or a cycle in which there is no access of internal memory) to load data from the FIFO into internal memory. When an internal memory write cycle occurs, the FIFO loads any data from a previous write into memory and accepts new data.

When writing into a memory block, the writes passes through the shadow write buffer. Note the shadow FIFO is self-clearing, the last two writes are moved at any point into the block array.

Data can be read from internal memory in either of the following ways.

1. From the shadow write FIFO (caused by immediately read of the same data after a write).
2. From the memory block.

## Internal Memory Access Listings



The operation of the shadow Write FIFO is fully transparent to the user. The logic takes automatic control about SIMD, LW or unaligned access types. Moreover it is able to handle sequential 32 to 40-bit data type access since the address may be the same.

## Internal Memory Access Listings

The processor's DM and PM buses support many combinations of register-to-memory data access options. The following factors influence the data access type:

- Size of words—short word, normal word, extended-precision normal word, or long word
- Number of words—single or dual-data move
- Processor mode—SISD, SIMD, or broadcast load

The following list shows the processor's possible memory transfer modes and provides a cross-reference to examples of each memory access option that stems from the processor's data access options.

These modes include the transfer options that stem from the following data access options:

- The mode of the processor: SISD, SIMD, or Broadcast Load
- The size of access words: long, extended-precision normal word, normal word, or short word
- The number of transferred words

To take advantage of the processor's data accesses to three and four column locations, programs must adjust the interleaving of data into memory locations to accommodate the memory access mode. The following guidelines provide overviews of how programs should interleave data in

memory locations. For more information and examples, see *ADSP-21160 DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

- Programs can use odd or even modify values (1, 2, 3, ...) to step through a buffer in single- or dual-data, SISD or broadcast load mode regardless of the data word size (long word, extended-precision normal word, normal word, or short word).
- Programs should use a multiple of 4 modify values (4, 8, 12, ...) to step through a buffer of short word data in single- or dual-data, SIMD mode. Programs must step through a buffer twice, once for addressing even short word addresses and once for addressing odd short word addresses.
- Programs should use a multiple of 2 modify values (2, 4, 6, ...) to step through a buffer of normal word data in single- or dual-data SIMD mode.
- Programs can use odd or even modify values (1, 2, 3, ...) to step through a buffer of long word or extended-precision normal word data in single- or dual-data SIMD modes.



Where a cross (†) appears in the PEX registers in any of the following figures, it indicates that the processor zero-fills or sign-extends the most significant 16 bits of the data register while loading the short word value into a 40-bit data register. Zero-filling or sign-extending depends on the state of the SSE bit in the MODE1 system register. For short word transfers, the least significant 8 bits of the data register are always zero.

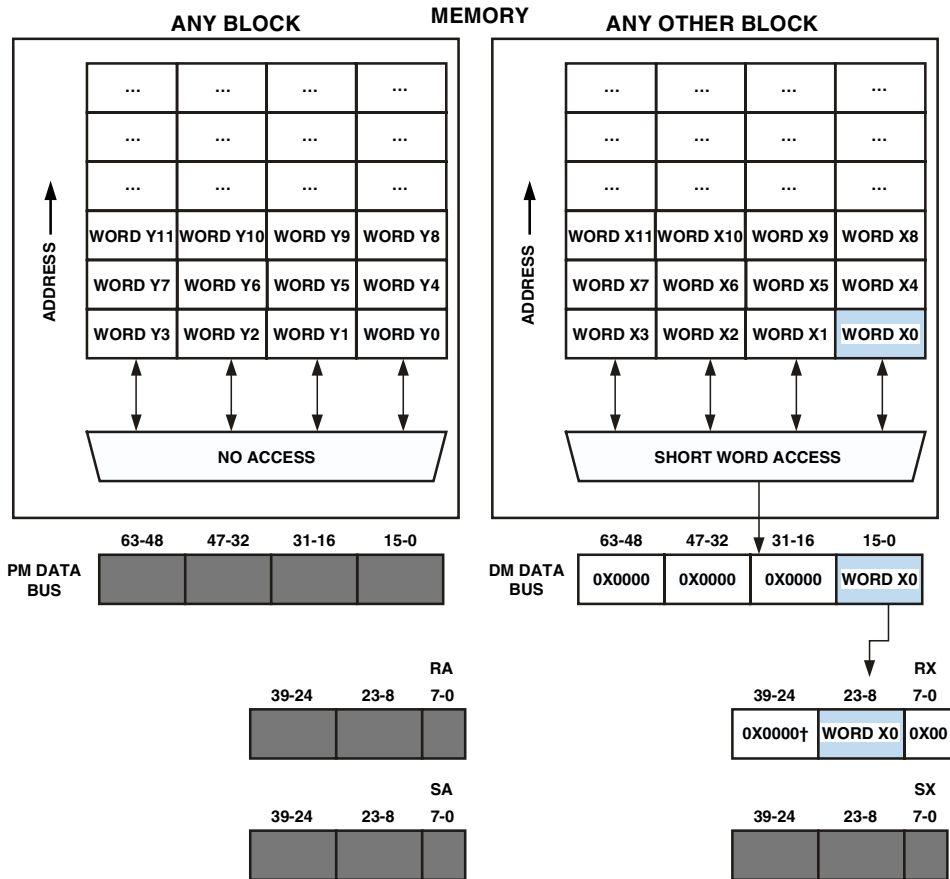
## Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in SISD Mode

Figure 5-11 shows the SISD single-data, short word addressed access mode. For short word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as four 16-bit short word lanes. The 16-bit value for the short word access is transferred using the least significant short word lane of the PM or DM

## Internal Memory Access Listings

data bus. The processor drives the other short word lanes of the data buses with zeros.

In SISD mode, the instruction accesses the  $PE_x$  registers to transfer data from memory. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X_0$ , whose short word address has “00” for its least significant two bits of address. Other locations within this row have addresses with least significant two bits of “01”, “10”, or “11” and select  $WORD\ X_1$ ,  $WORD\ X_2$ , or  $WORD\ X_3$  from memory respectively. The syntax targets register  $RX$  in  $PE_x$ .



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD, SHORT WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

```

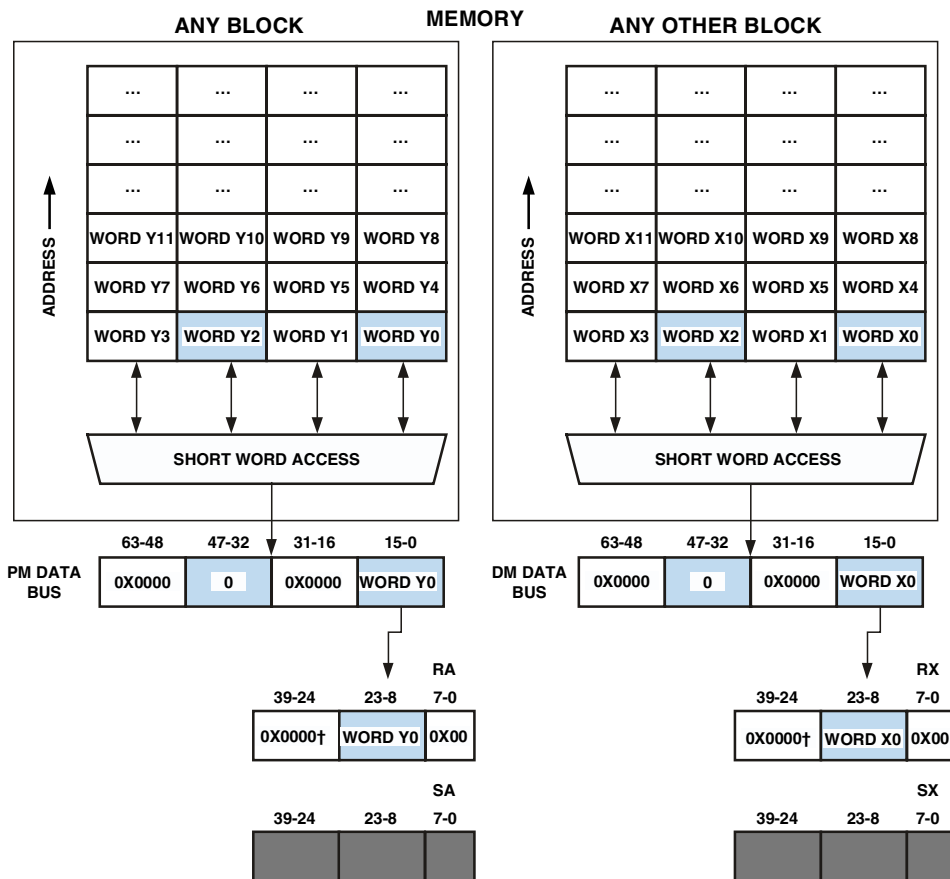
    UREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);
    UREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);
    PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;
    DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;
    
```

Figure 5-11. Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in SISD Mode

### Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

Figure 5-12 shows the SISD, dual-data, short word addressed access mode. For short word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as four 16-bit short word lanes. The 16-bit values for short word accesses are transferred using the least significant short word lanes of the PM and DM data buses. The processor drives the other short word lanes of the data buses with zeros.

In SISD mode, the instruction explicitly accesses  $PE_x$  registers. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X_0$  in any block and  $WORD\ Y_0$  in any other block. Each of these words has a short word address with “00” for its least significant two bits of address. Other accesses within these four column locations have addresses with their least significant two bits as “01”, “10”, or “11” and select  $WORD\ X_1/Y_1$ ,  $WORD\ X_2/Y_2$ , or  $WORD\ X_3/Y_3$  from memory respectively. The syntax explicitly accesses registers  $RX$  and  $RA$  in  $PE_x$ .



THE ABOVE EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(SHORT WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, SHORT WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{DREG} = \text{PM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS}), \\ \text{PM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS}) = \text{DREG}; \end{array} \right\} \text{DREG} = \text{DM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS});$   
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{DREG} = \text{DM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS}), \\ \text{DM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS}) = \text{DREG}; \end{array} \right\} \text{DREG} = \text{PM}(\text{SHORT WORD ADDRESS});$

Figure 5-12. Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

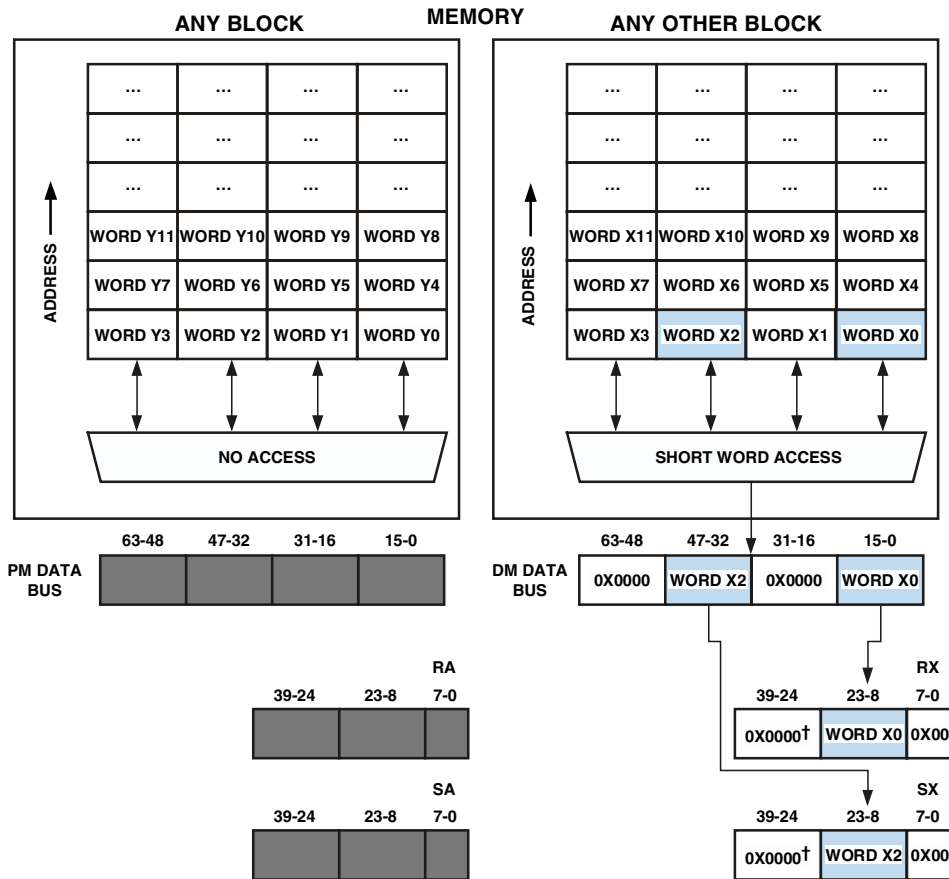
### Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in SIMD Mode

Figure 5-13 shows the SIMD, single-data, short word addressed access mode. For short word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as four 16-bit short word lanes. The explicitly addressed (named in the instruction) 16-bit value is transferred using the least significant short word lane of the PM or DM data bus. The implicitly addressed (not named in the instruction, but inferred from the address in SIMD mode) short word value is transferred using the 47–32 bit short word lane of the PM or DM data bus. The processor drives the other short word lanes of the PM or DM data buses with zeros (31–16 bit lane and 63–48 bit lane).

The instruction explicitly accesses the register  $R_X$  and implicitly accesses that register's complementary register,  $S_X$ . This instruction uses a  $PE_X$  register with an  $R_X$  mnemonic. If the syntax named the  $PE_Y$  register  $S_X$  as the explicit target, the processor uses that register's complement  $R_X$  as the implicit target. For more information on complementary registers, see “Secondary Processor Element (PE<sub>y</sub>)” on page 5-19.

Figure 5-13 shows the data path for one transfer. The processor accesses short words sequentially in memory. For more information on arranging data in memory to take advantage of this access pattern, see Figure 5-39 on page 5-75.





THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS);  
 OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, SHORT WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);  
 PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;  
 DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;

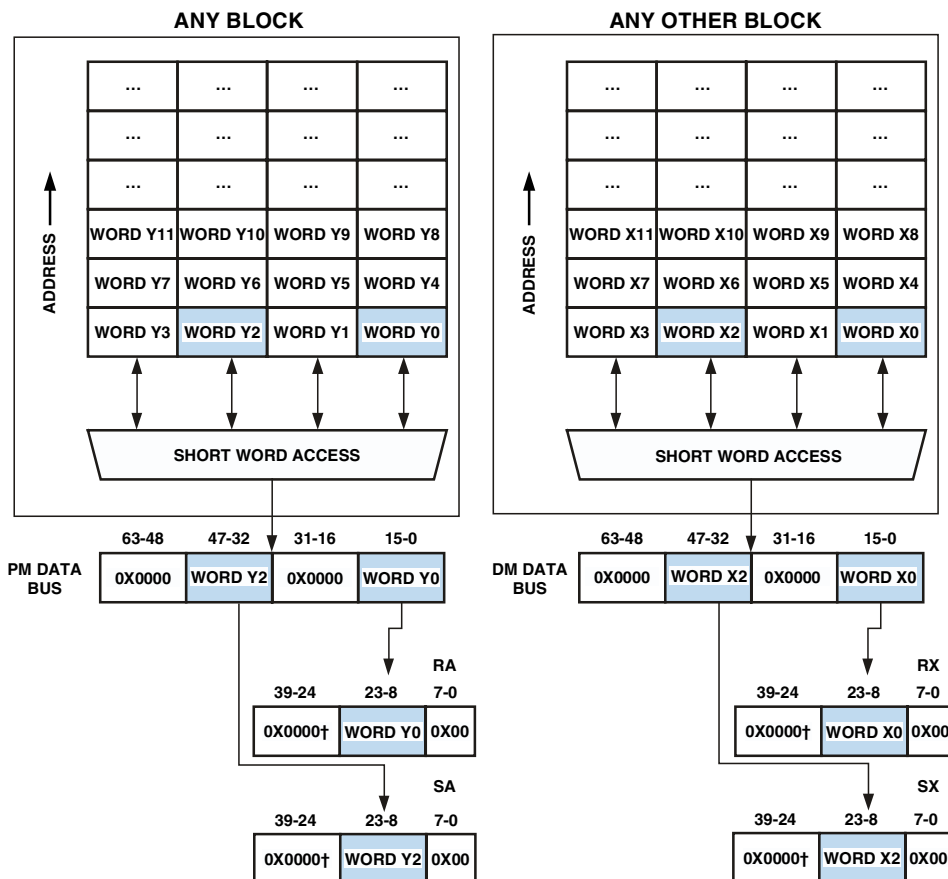
Figure 5-13. Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in SIMD Mode

### Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SIMD Mode

[Figure 5-14](#) shows the SIMD, dual-data, short word addressed access. For short word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as four 16-bit short word lanes. The explicitly addressed 16-bit values are transferred using the least significant short word lanes of the PM and DM data bus. The implicitly addressed short word values are transferred using the 47-32 bit short word lanes of the PM and DM data buses. The processor drives the other short word lanes of the PM and DM data buses with zeros.

The instruction explicitly accesses registers  $R_X$  and  $R_A$ , and implicitly accesses the complementary registers,  $S_X$  and  $S_A$ . This instruction uses  $P_{EX}$  registers with the  $R_X$  and  $R_A$  mnemonics.

The second word from any other block is shown as  $\times 2$  on the data bus and in the  $S_X$  register. It is shown as  $Y_2$  and  $Y_0$  respectively. The  $S_X$  and  $S_A$  registers are transparent and look similar to  $R_X$  and  $R_A$ . All bits should be shown as in  $R_X$  and  $R_A$ . For more information on arranging data in memory to take advantage of short word addressing of dual-data in SIMD mode, see [Figure 5-40 on page 5-76](#).



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM (SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM (SHORT WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, SHORT WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 DREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS), DREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);  
 PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = DREG, DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS) = DREG;

Figure 5-14. Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SIMD Mode

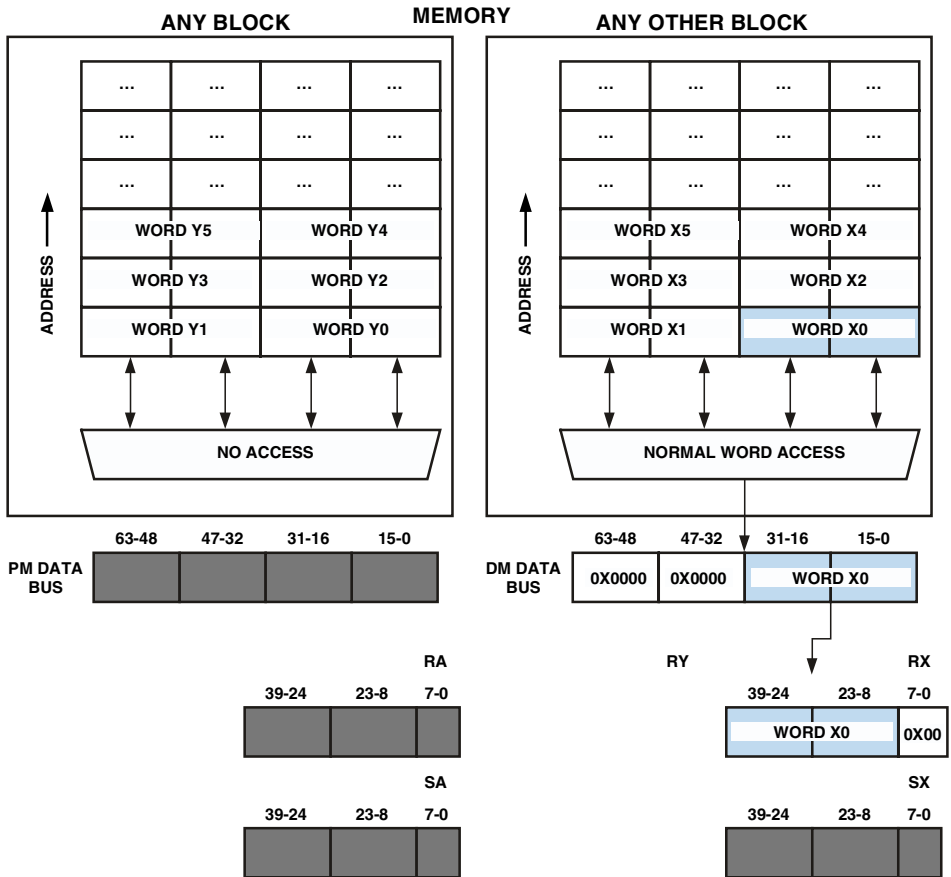
### 32-Bit Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in SISD Mode

Figure 5-15 shows the SISD, single-data, 32-bit normal word addressed access mode. For normal word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as two 32-bit normal word lanes. The 32-bit value for the normal word access completes a transfer using the least significant normal word lane of the PM or DM data bus. The processor drives the other normal word lanes of the data buses with zeros.

In SISD mode, the instruction accesses a  $PEX$  register. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X0$  whose normal word address has “0” for its least significant address bit. The other access within this four column location has an address with a least significant bit of “1” and selects  $WORD\ X1$  from memory. The syntax targets register  $RX$  in  $PEX$ .



For normal word accesses, the processor zero-fills the least significant 8 bits of the data register on loads and truncates these bits on stores to memory.



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 $RX = DM(NORMAL\ WORD\ X0\ ADDRESS);$

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD, NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

```

| UREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);
| UREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);
| PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;
| DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;

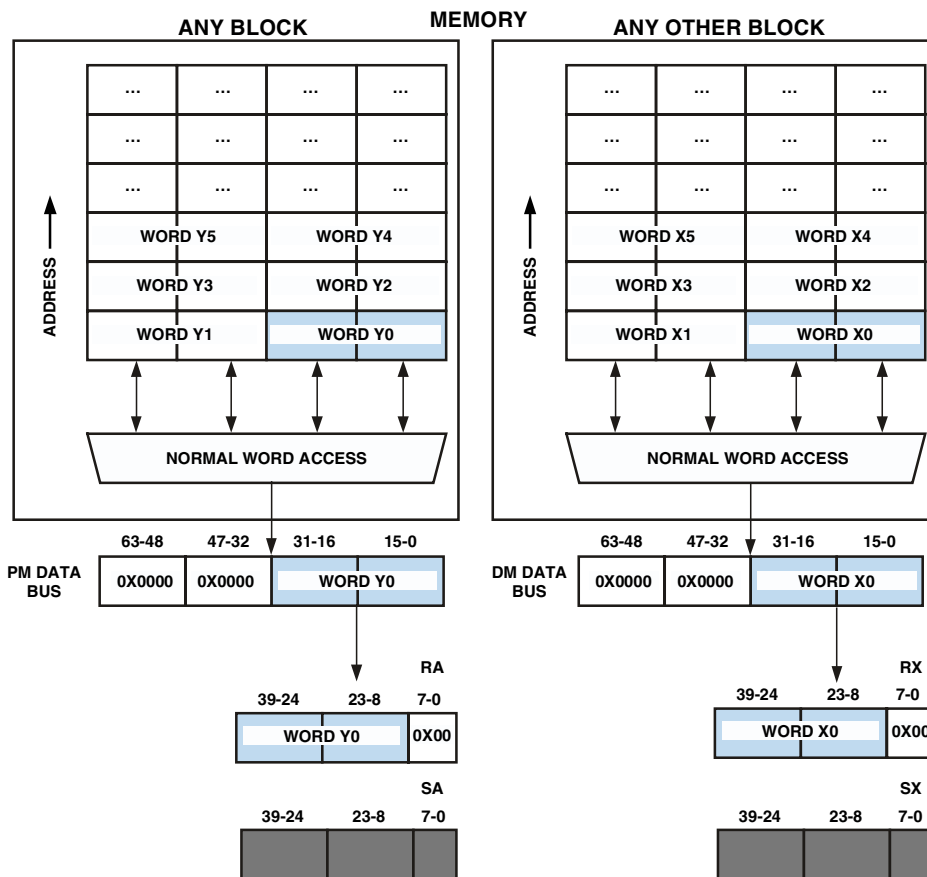
```

Figure 5-15. Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in SISD Mode

### 32-Bit Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

Figure 5-16 shows the SISD dual-data, 32-bit normal word addressed access mode. For normal word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as two 32-bit normal word lanes. The 32-bit values for normal word accesses transfer using the least significant normal word lanes of the PM and DM data buses. The processor drives the other normal word lanes of the data buses with zeros.

In Figure 5-16, the access targets the PEX registers in a SISD mode operation. This instruction accesses WORD X0 in any other block and WORD Y0 in any block. Each of these words has a normal word address with 0 for its least significant address bit. Other accesses within these four column locations have addresses with the least significant bit of 1 and select WORD X1/Y1 from memory. The syntax targets registers RX and RA in PEX.



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RA = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS), RY = PM(NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD, NORMAL WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 DREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS); DREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);  
 PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = DREG; DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = DREG;

Figure 5-16. Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

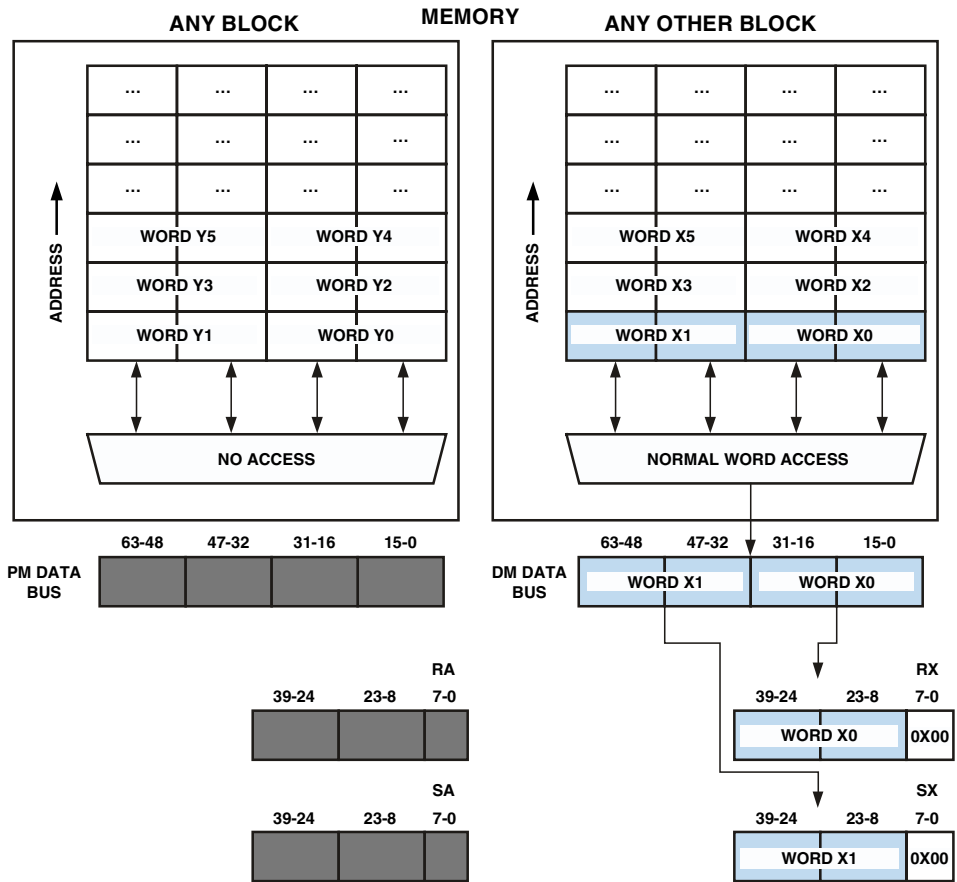
### 32-Bit Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in SIMD Mode

Figure 5-17 shows the SIMD, single-data, normal word addressed access mode. For normal word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as two 32-bit normal word lanes. The explicitly addressed (named in the instruction) 32-bit value completes a transfer using the least significant normal word lane of the PM or DM data bus. The implicitly addressed (not named in the instruction, but inferred from the address in SIMD mode) normal word value completes a transfer using the most significant normal word lane of the PM or DM data bus.

In Figure 5-17, the explicit access targets the named register  $R_X$ , and the implicit access targets that register's complementary register,  $S_X$ . This instruction uses a  $PE_X$  register with an  $R_X$  mnemonic. If the syntax named the  $PE_Y$  register  $S_X$  as the explicit target, the processor would use that register's complement,  $R_X$ , as the implicit target. For more information on complementary registers, see “Secondary Processor Element (PEy)” on page 5-19.

Figure 5-17 shows the data path for one transfer. The processor accesses normal words sequentially in memory. For more information on arranging data in memory to take advantage of this access pattern, see Figure 5-40 on page 5-76.





THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

```

  UREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);
  UREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);
  PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;
  DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = UREG;
  
```

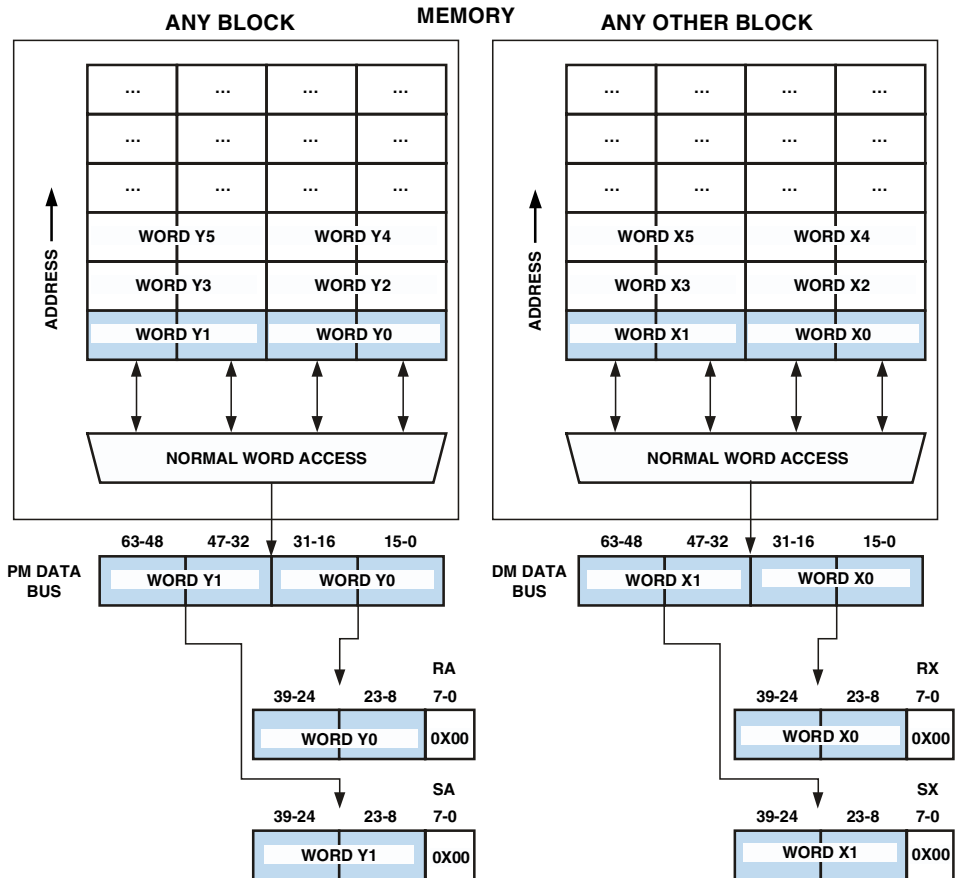
Figure 5-17. Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in SIMD Mode

### 32-Bit Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SIMD Mode

[Figure 5-18](#) shows the SIMD, dual-data, 32-bit normal word addressed access mode. For normal word addressing, the processor treats the data buses as two 32-bit normal word lanes. The explicitly addressed (named in the instruction) 32-bit values are transferred using the least significant normal word lane of the PM or DM data bus. The implicitly addressed (not named in the instruction, but inferred from the address in SIMD mode) normal word values are transferred using the most significant normal word lanes of the PM and DM data bus.

In [Figure 5-18](#), the explicit access targets the named registers  $R_X$  and  $R_A$ , and the implicit access targets those register's complementary registers  $S_X$  and  $S_A$ . This instruction uses the  $P_{EX}$  registers with the  $R_X$  and  $R_A$  mnemonics.

[Figure 5-16](#) shows the data path for one transfer. The processor accesses normal words sequentially in memory. For more information on arranging data in memory to take advantage of this access pattern, see [Figure 5-40 on page 5-76](#).



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDRESS);


OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, NORMAL WORD,  
 DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 DREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS), DREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);  
 PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = DREG, DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS) = DREG;

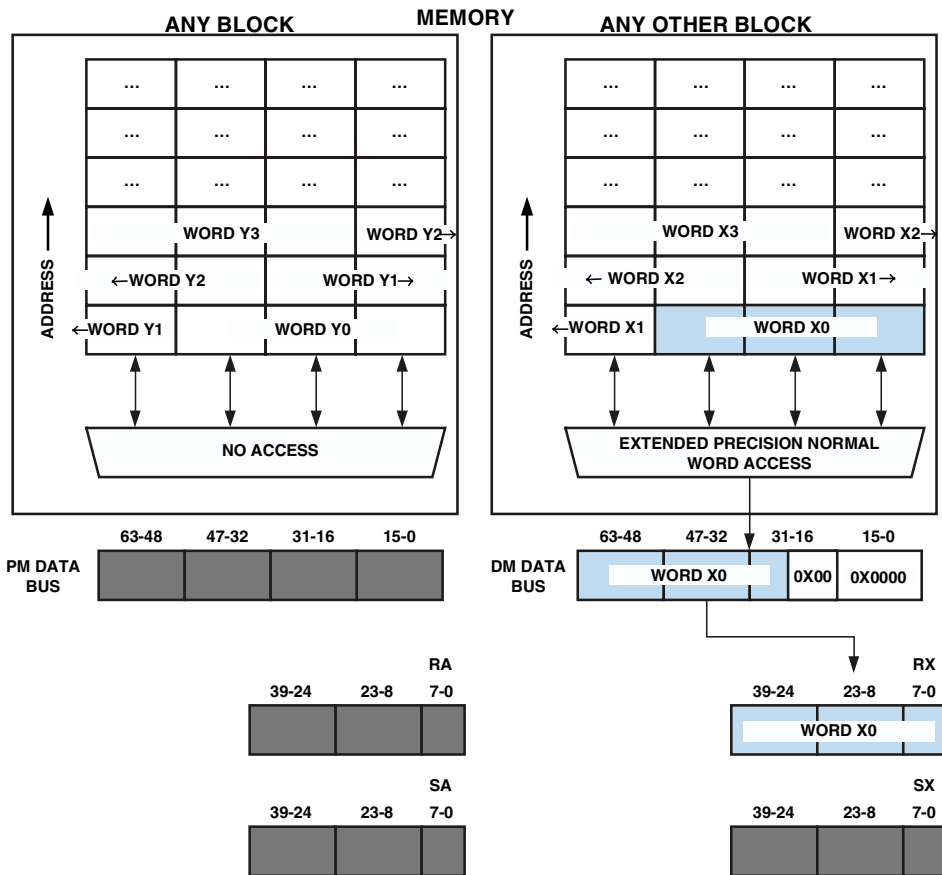
Figure 5-18. Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SIMD Mode

### Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data

Figure 5-19 on page 5-49 displays a possible single-data, 40-bit extended-precision normal word addressed access. For extended-precision normal word addressing, the processor treats each data bus as a 40-bit extended-precision normal word lane. The 40-bit value for the extended-precision normal word access is transferred using the most significant 40 bits of the PM or DM data bus. The processor drives the lower 24 bits of the data buses with zeros.

In Figure 5-19, the access targets a  $PE_x$  register in a SISD or SIMD mode operation; extended-precision normal word single-data access operate the same in SISD or SIMD mode. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X0$  with syntax that targets register  $RX$  in  $PE_x$ . The example targets a  $PE_y$  register when using the syntax  $SX$ .

 Extended precision can't be supported in SIMD mode since the both PM and DM data buses are limited to 64-bits but would require 80-bits.



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 $RX = DM(\text{EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD } X0 \text{ ADDRESS});$

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD OR SIMD, EXT. PREC. NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

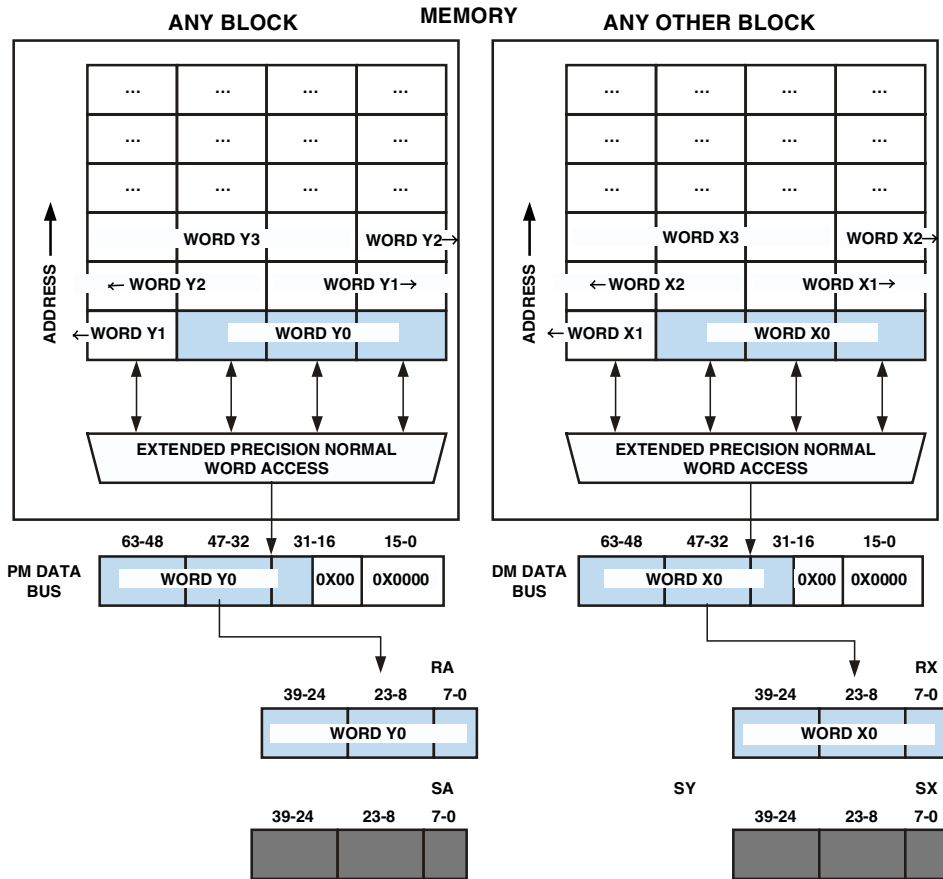
$UREG = PM(\text{EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD ADDRESS});$ $UREG = DM(\text{EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD ADDRESS});$ $PM(\text{EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}) = UREG;$ $DM(\text{EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}) = UREG;$
--

Figure 5-19. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data

### Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data

Figure 5-20 shows the SISD, dual-data, 40-bit extended-precision normal word addressed access mode. For extended-precision normal word addressing, the processor treats each data bus as a 40-bit extended-precision normal word lane. The 40-bit values for the extended-precision normal word accesses are transferred using the most significant 40 bits of the PM and DM data bus. The processor drives the lower 24 bits of the data buses with zeros.

In Figure 5-20, the access targets the  $PE_x$  registers in a SISD mode operation. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X0$  in block 1 and  $WORD\ Y0$  in block 0 with syntax that targets registers  $RX$  and  $RY$  in  $PE_x$ . The example targets a  $PE_y$  register when using the syntax  $SX$  or  $SY$ .



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(EP NORMAL WORD X0 ADDR.), RA = PM(EP NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDR.);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD, EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{DREG} = \text{PM}(\text{EXT. PREC. NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}); \\ \text{PM}(\text{EXT. PREC. NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}) = \text{DREG}; \end{array} \right.$   $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{DREG} = \text{DM}(\text{EXT. PREC. NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}); \\ \text{DM}(\text{EXT. PREC. NORMAL WORD ADDRESS}) = \text{DREG}; \end{array} \right.$

Figure 5-20. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

### Long Word Addressing of Single-Data

Figure 5-21 displays one possible single-data, long word addressed access. For long word addressing, the processor treats each data bus as a 64-bit long word lane. The 64-bit value for the long word access completes a transfer using the full width of the PM or DM data bus.

In Figure 5-21, the access targets a  $PE_X$  register in a SISD or SIMD mode operation. Long word single-data access operate the same in SISD or SIMD mode. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X0$  with syntax that explicitly targets register  $R_X$  and implicitly targets its neighbor register,  $R_Y$ , in  $PE_X$ . The processor zero-fills the least significant 8 bits of both the registers. The example targets  $PE_Y$  registers when using the syntax  $SX$ .



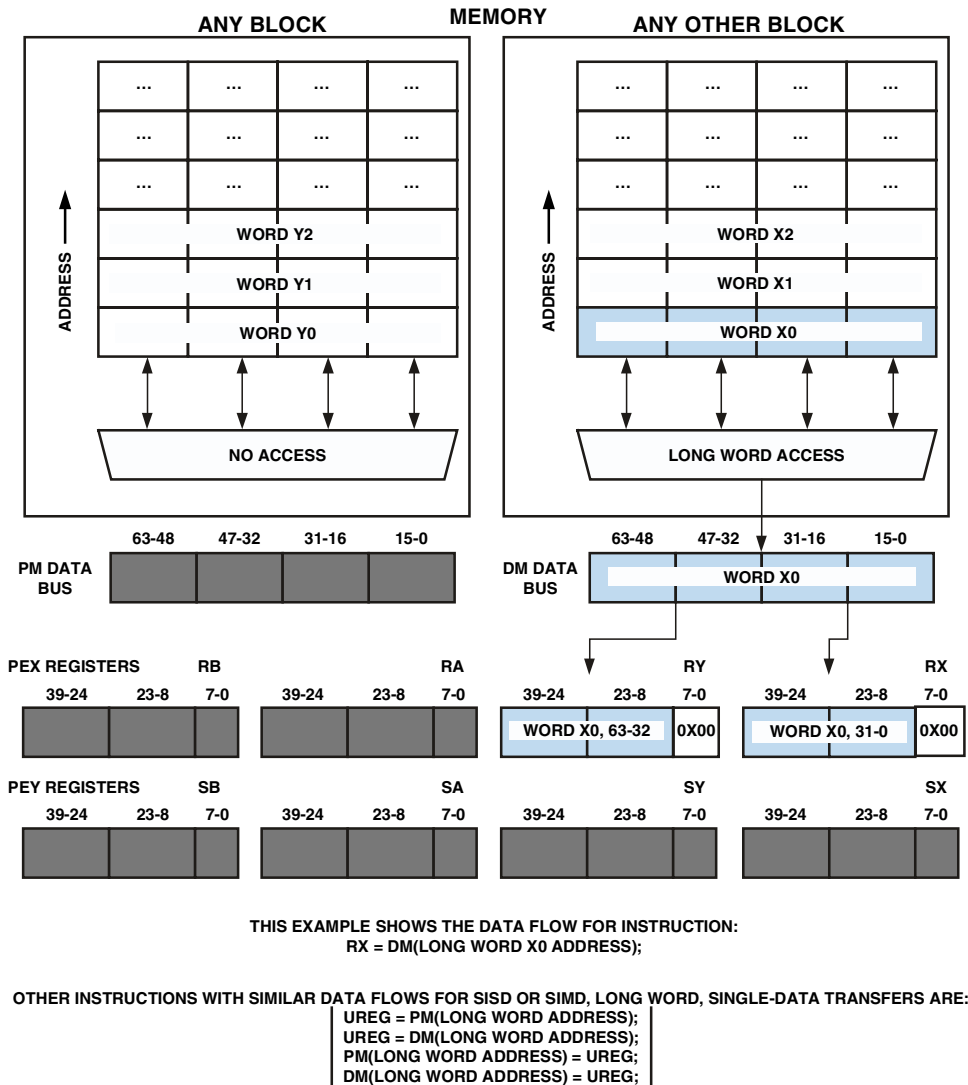


Figure 5-21. Long Word Addressing of Single-Data

### Long Word Addressing of Dual-Data

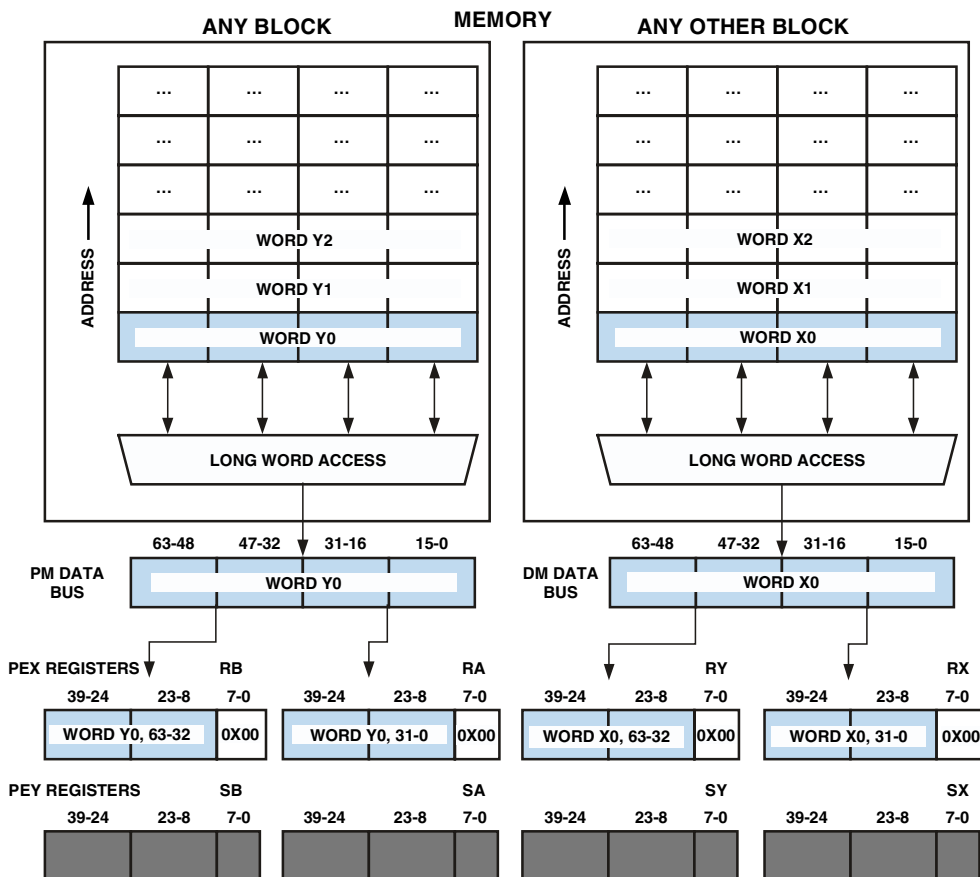
Figure 5-22 shows the SISD, dual-data, long word addressed access mode. For long word addressing, the processor treats each data bus as a 64-bit long word lane. The 64-bit values for the long word accesses completes a transfer using the full width of the PM or DM data bus.

In Figure 5-22, the access targets  $PE_x$  registers in SISD mode operation. This instruction accesses  $WORD\ X0$  and  $WORD\ Y0$  with syntax that explicitly targets registers  $RX$  and  $RA$  and implicitly targets their neighbor registers  $RY$  and  $RB$  in  $PE_x$ . The processor zero-fills the least significant 8 bits of all the registers.

Programs must be careful not to explicitly target neighbor registers in this instruction. While the syntax lets programs target these registers, one of the explicit accesses targets the implicit target of the other access. The processor resolves this conflict by performing only the access with higher priority. For more information on the priority order of data register file accesses, see “Data Register File” on page 2-38.



SIMD mode operation is only supported in NW and SW space.



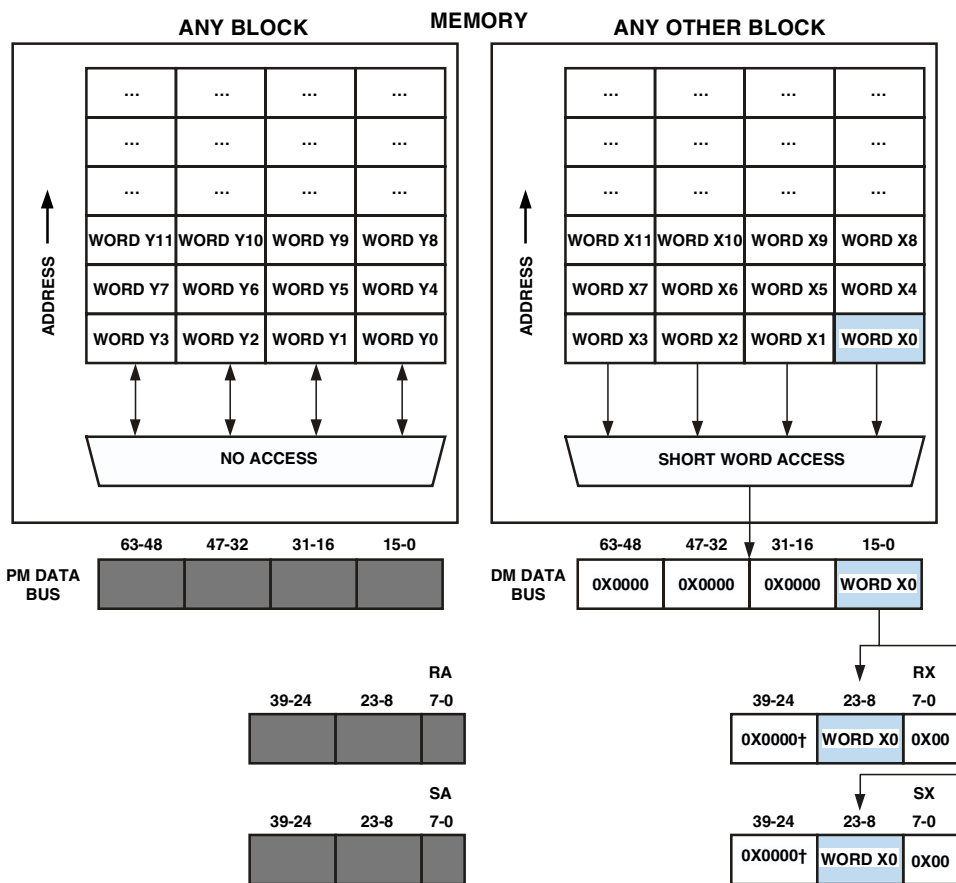
THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(LONG WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(LONG WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SISD, LONG WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 [ DREG = PM(LONG WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(LONG WORD ADDRESS);  
 [ PM(LONG WORD ADDRESS) = DREG, | DM(LONG WORD ADDRESS) = DREG; ]

Figure 5-22. Long Word Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

### Broadcast Load Access

Figure 5-33 through Figure 5-40 provide examples of broadcast load accesses for single and dual-data transfers. These read examples show that the broadcast load's to register access from memory is a hybrid of the corresponding non-broadcast SISD and SIMD mode accesses. The exceptions to this relation are broadcast load dual-data, extended-precision normal word and long word accesses. These broadcast accesses differ from their corresponding non-broadcast mode accesses.

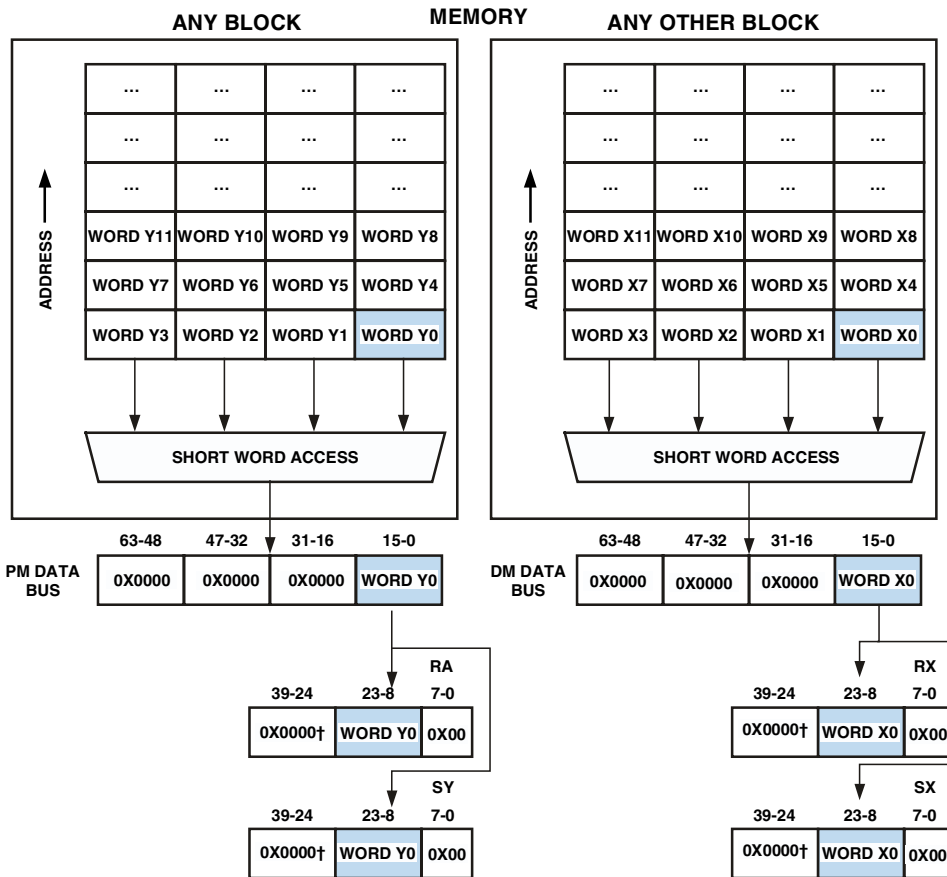


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, SHORT WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);

Figure 5-23. Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

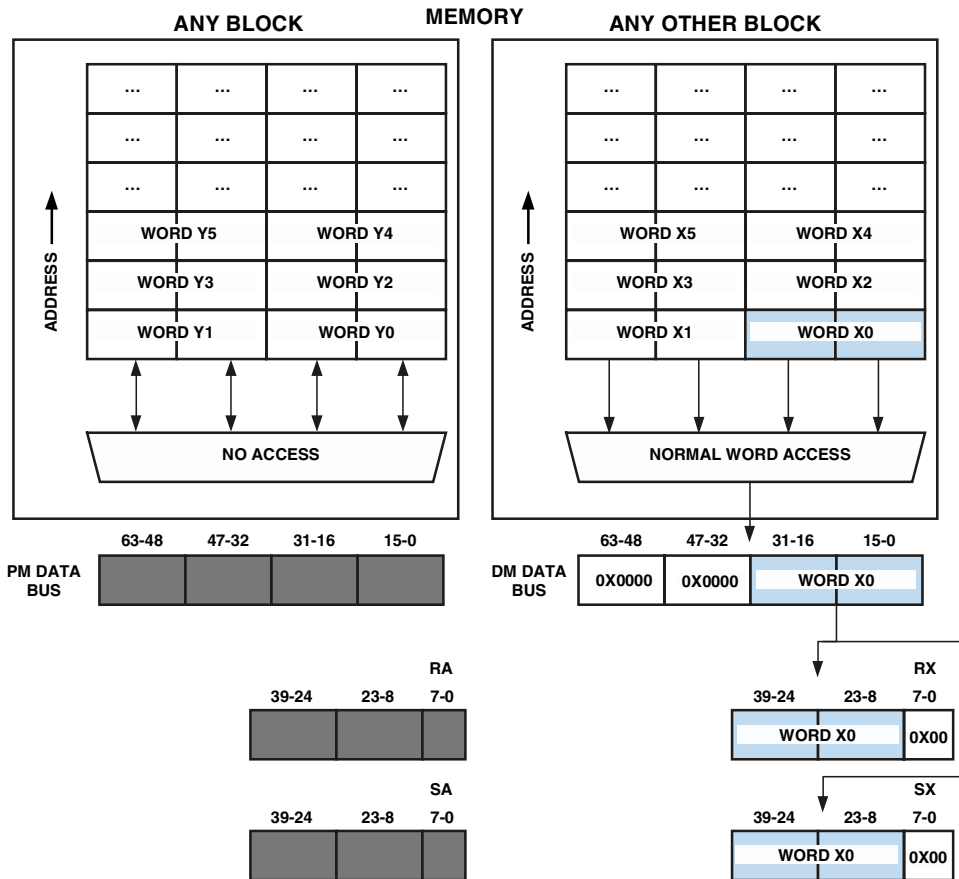
# Internal Memory Access Listings



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS), RY = PM(SHORT WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST,  
 SHORT WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 | DREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS); |

Figure 5-24. Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load

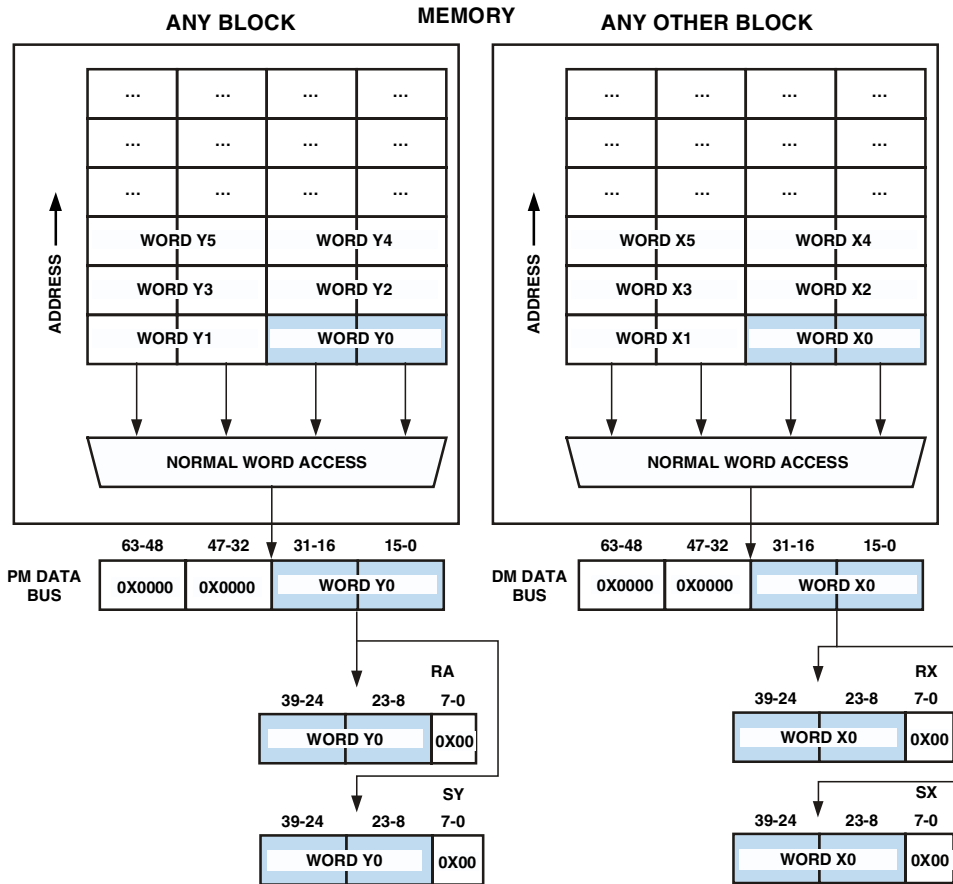


THE ABOVE EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 $RX = DM(NORMAL\ WORD\ X0\ ADDRESS);$

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 $UREG = PM(NORMAL\ WORD\ ADDRESS);$   
 $UREG = DM(NORMAL\ WORD\ ADDRESS);$

Figure 5-25. Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

# Internal Memory Access Listings

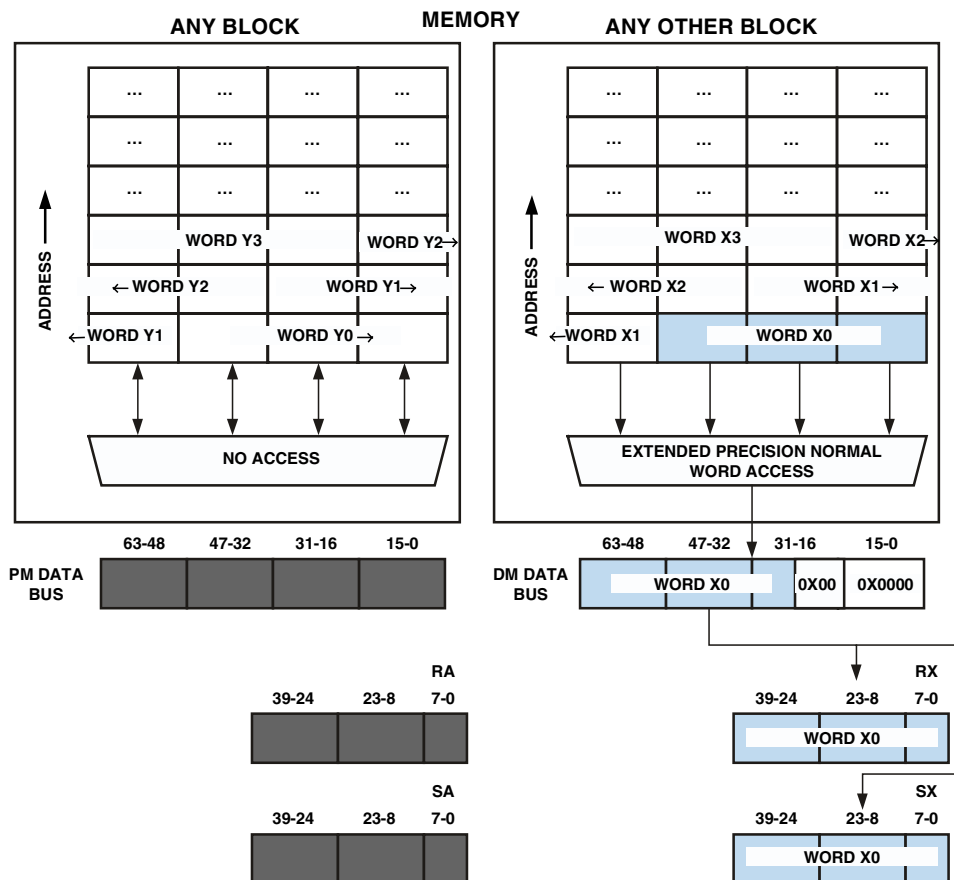


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, NORMAL WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 [DREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);]

Figure 5-26. Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load



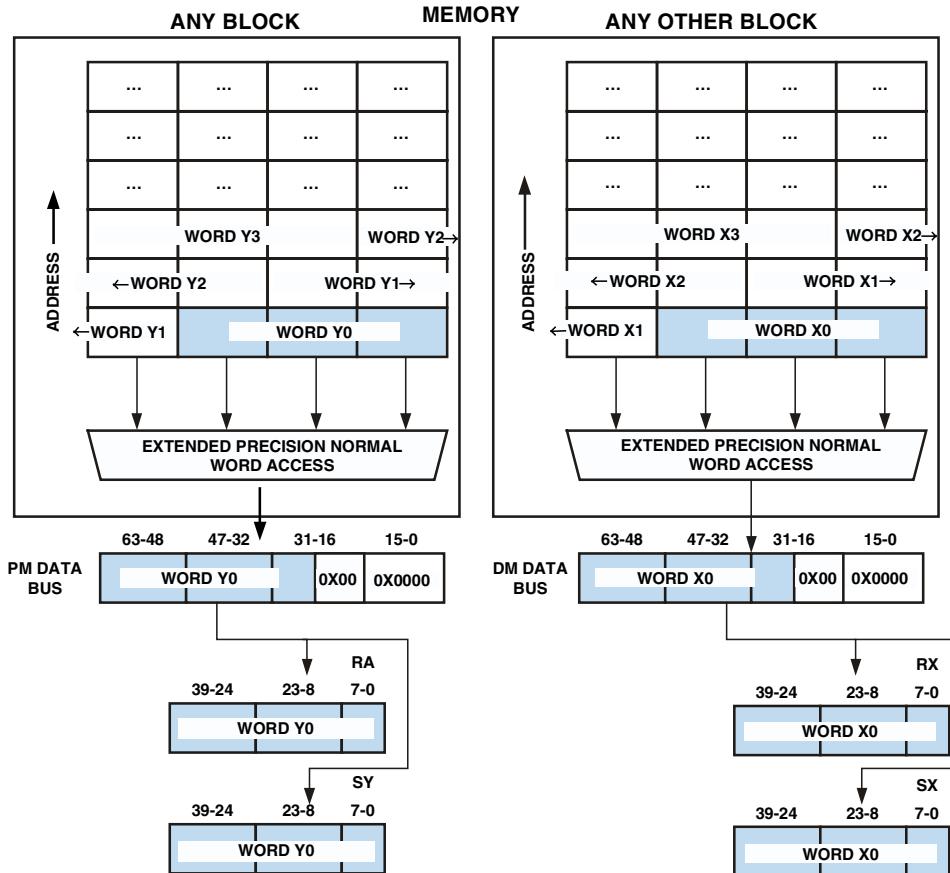


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, EXTENDED NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);

Figure 5-27. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

# Internal Memory Access Listings

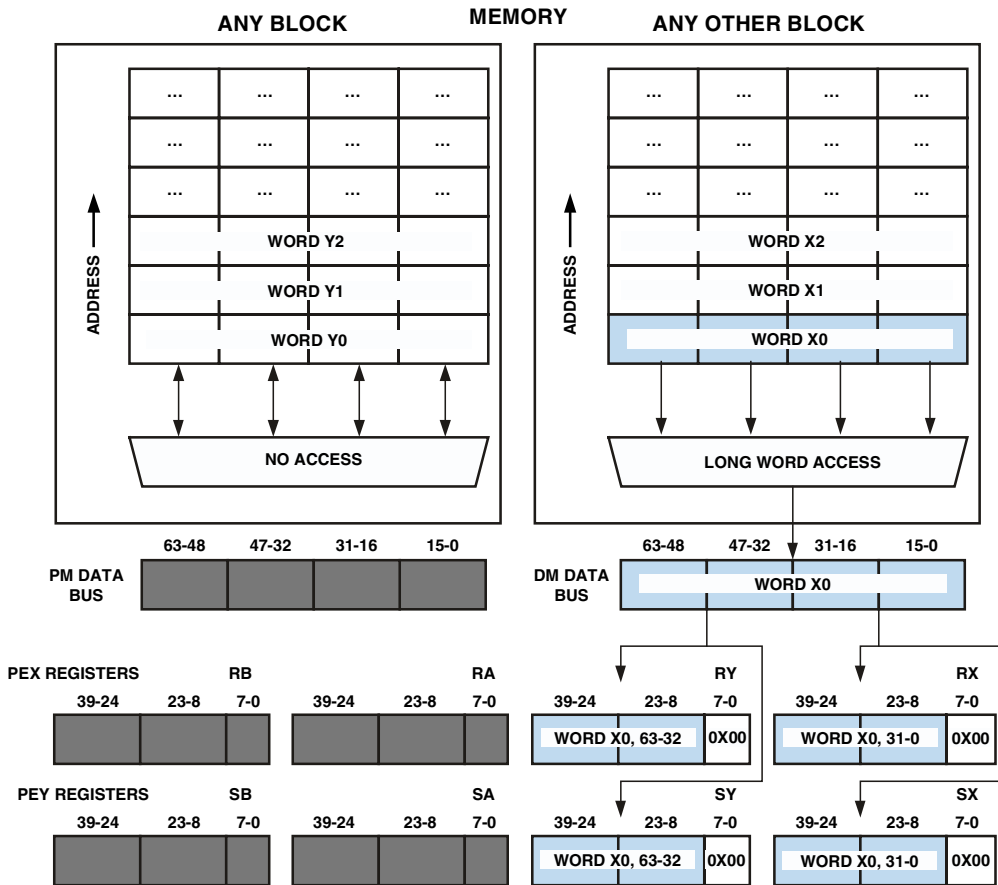


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(EP NORMAL WORD X0 ADDR.), RA = PM(EP NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDR.);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, EXTENDED NORMAL WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

| DREG = PM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(EPNORMAL WORD ADDRESS); |

Figure 5-28. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load



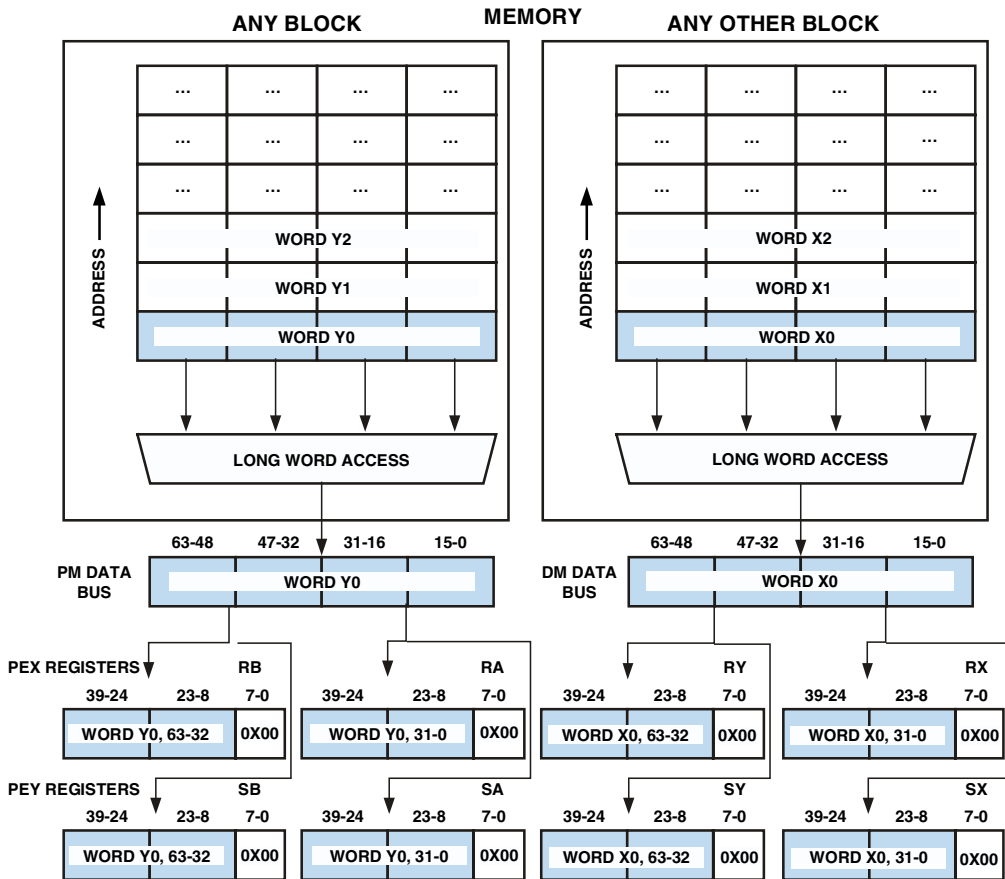
THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 $RX = DM(\text{LONG WORD } X0 \text{ ADDRESS});$

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, LONG WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

$UREG = PM(\text{LONG WORD ADDRESS});$   
 $UREG = DM(\text{LONG WORD ADDRESS});$

Figure 5-29. Long Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

# Internal Memory Access Listings



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(LONG WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(LONG WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, LONG WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:


|DREG = PM(LONG WORD ADDRESS), |DREG = DM(LONG WORD ADDRESS);|

Figure 5-30. Long Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load

## Mixed-Word Width Addressing of Long Word with Short Word

The mixed mode requires a dual data access in all cases. Modes like SISD, SIMD and Broadcast in conjunction with the address types LW, NW-40, NW-32 and SW will result in many different mixed word width access types to use in parallel between the two memory blocks.

Figure 5-31 shows an example of a mixed-word width, dual-data, SISD mode access. This example shows how the processor transfers a long word access on the DM bus and transfers a short word access on the PM bus.

 In case of conflicting dual access to the data register file, the processor only performs the access with higher priority. For more information on how the processor prioritizes accesses, see [“Data Register File”](#) on page 2-38.

# Internal Memory Access Listings

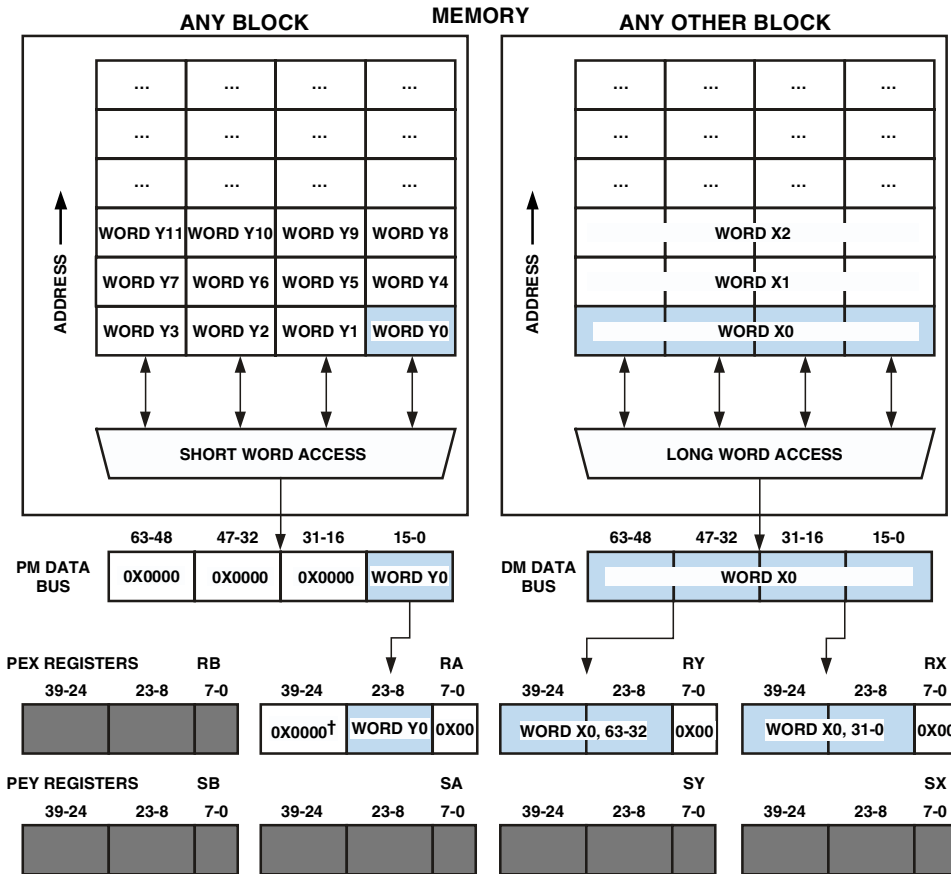
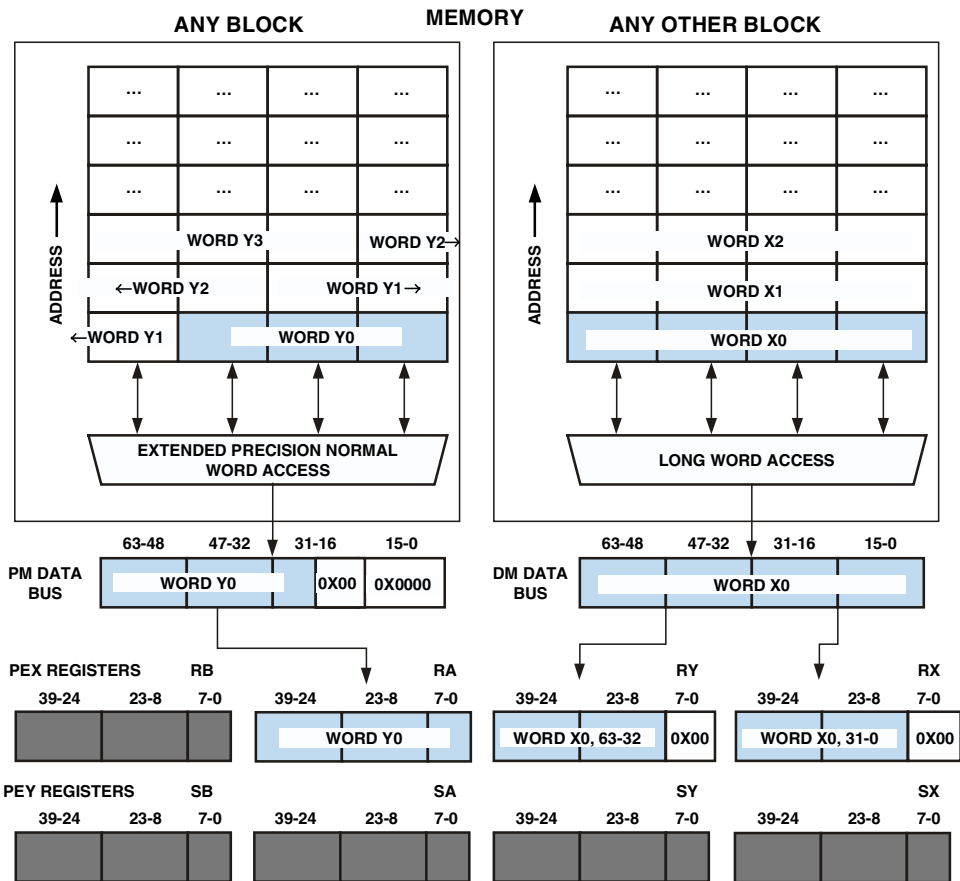


Figure 5-31. Mixed-Word Width Addressing of Dual-Data in SISD Mode

## Mixed-Word Width Addressing of Long Word with Extended Word

Figure 5-32 shows an example of a mixed-word width, dual-data, SISD mode access. This example shows how the processor transfers a long word access on the DM bus and transfers an extended-precision normal word access on the PM bus.

# Internal Memory Access Listings



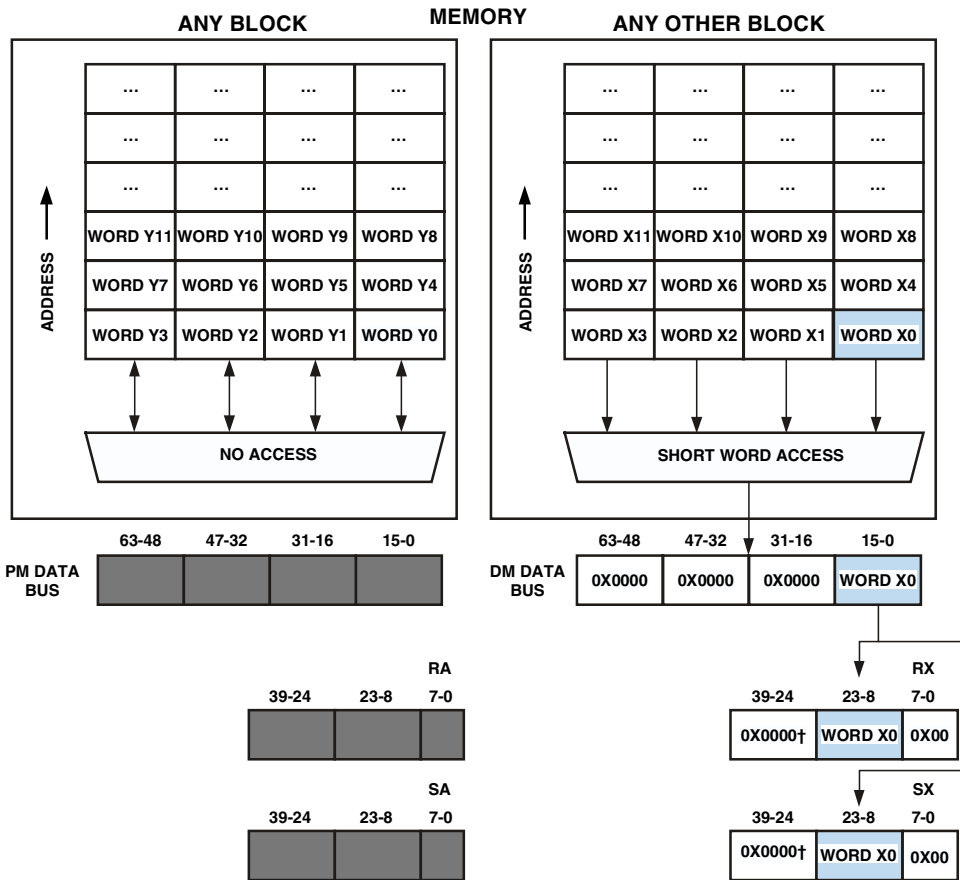
THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(LONG WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(EP NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR SIMD, MIXED WORD,  
 DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

DREG = PM(ADDRESS),	DREG = DM(ADDRESS);
PM(ADDRESS) = DREG,	DM(ADDRESS) = DREG;

Figure 5-32. Mixed-Word Width Addressing of Dual-Data in SIMD Mode



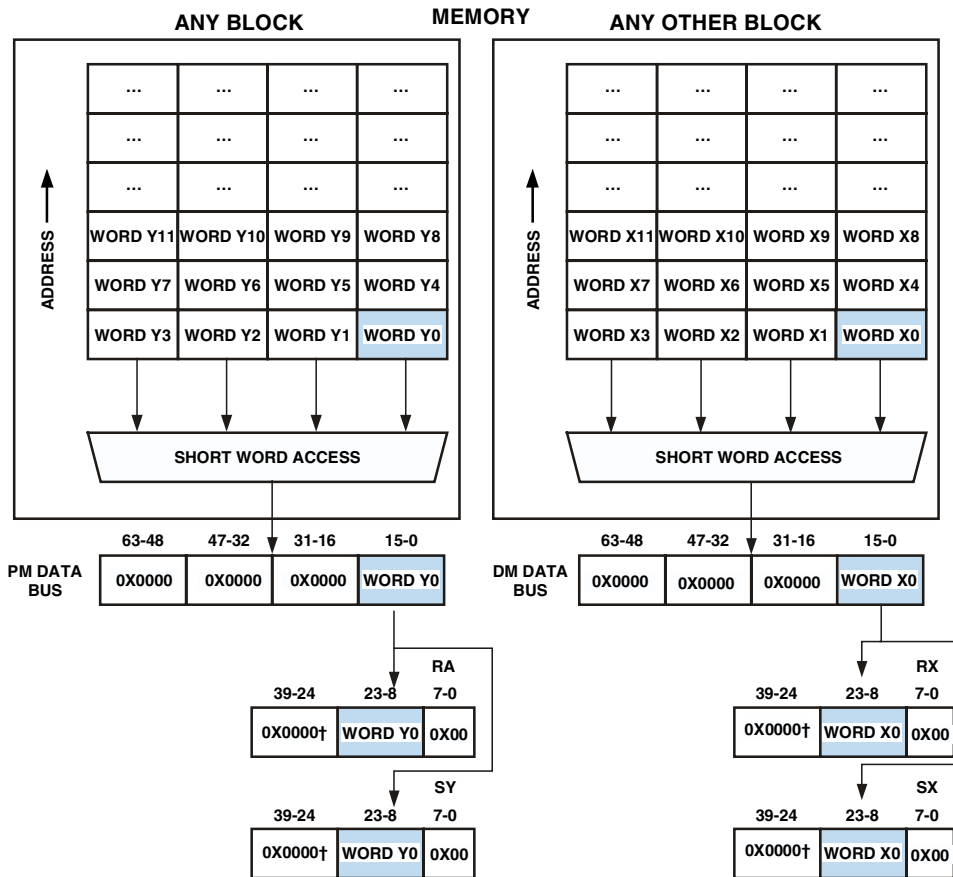


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, SHORT WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS);

Figure 5-33. Short Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

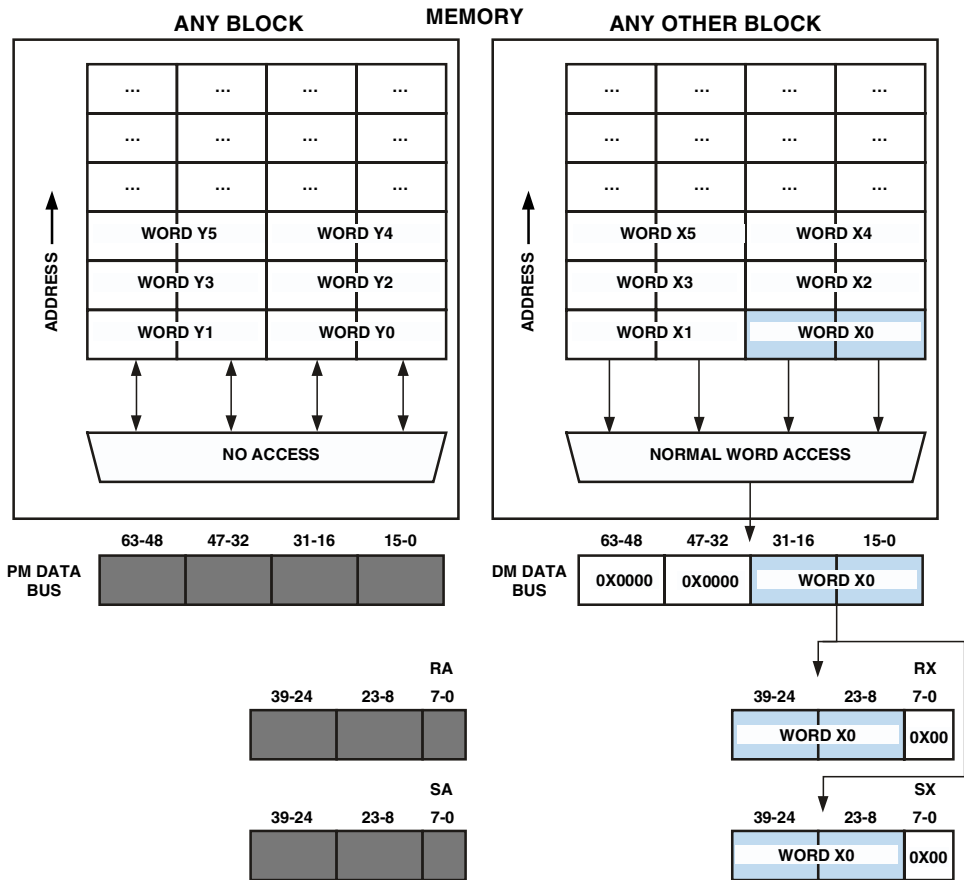
# Internal Memory Access Listings



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(SHORT WORD X0 ADDRESS), RY = PM(SHORT WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST,  
 SHORT WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 | DREG = PM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(SHORT WORD ADDRESS); |

Figure 5-34. Short Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load

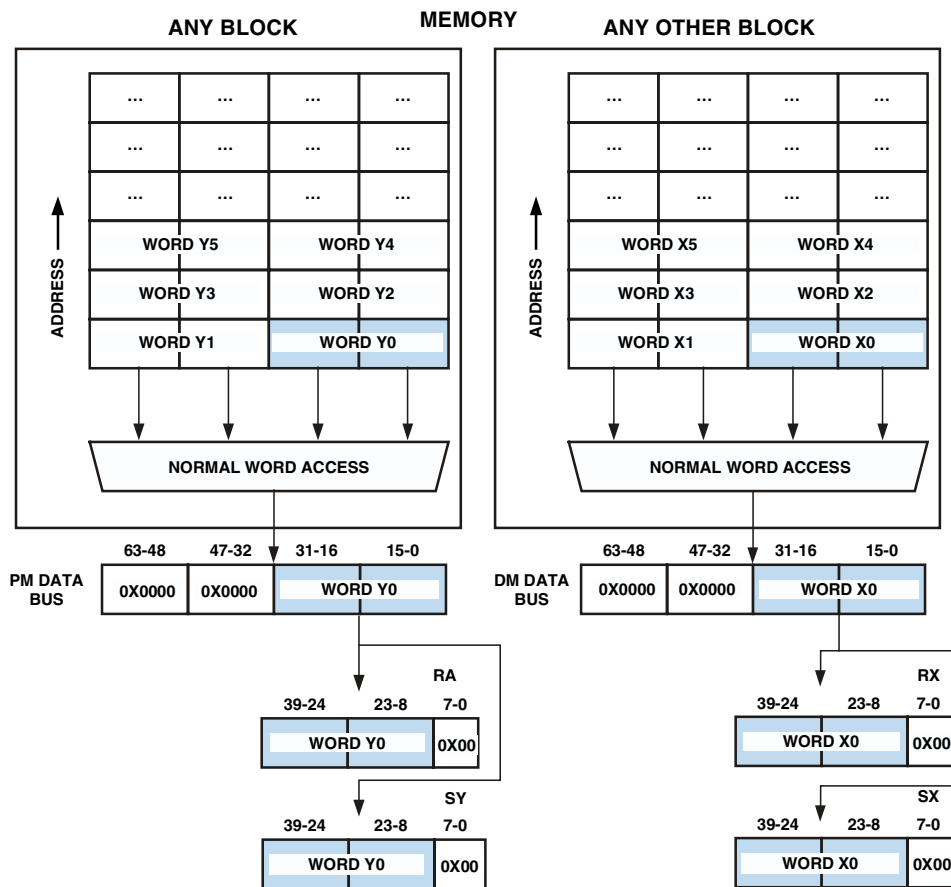


THE ABOVE EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);

Figure 5-35. Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

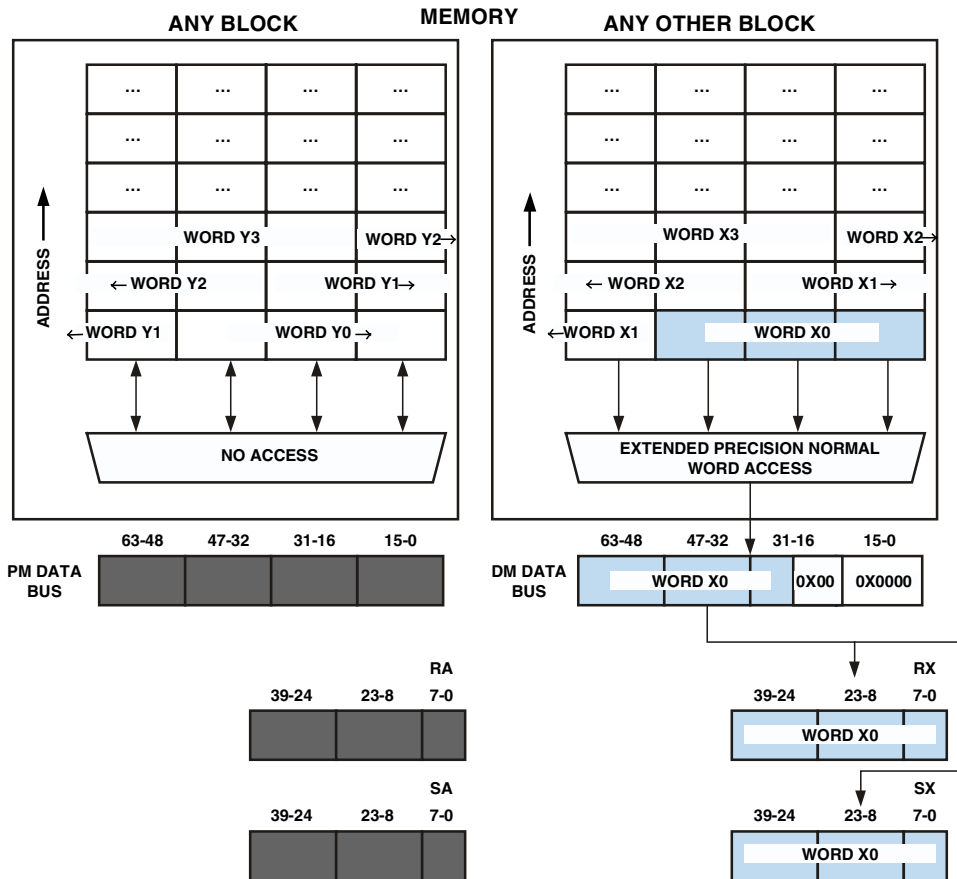
# Internal Memory Access Listings



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, NORMAL WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 [DREG = PM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);]

Figure 5-36. Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load

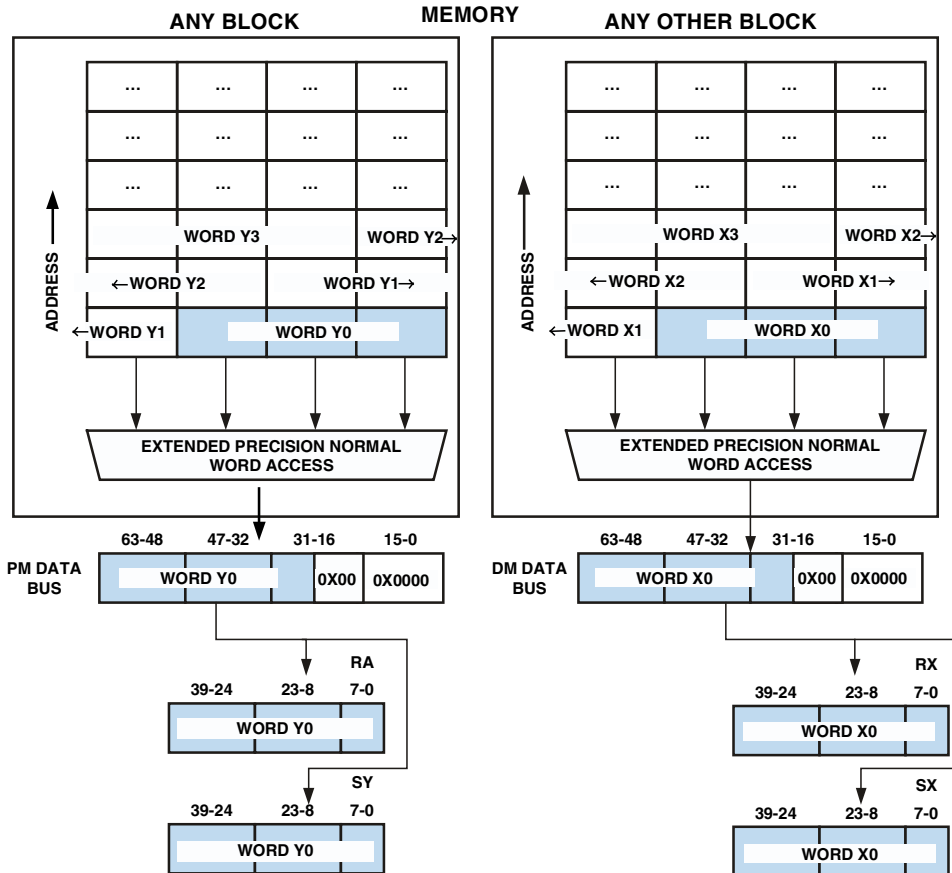


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(EXTENDED PRECISION NORMAL WORD X0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, EXTENDED NORMAL WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:  
 UREG = PM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);  
 UREG = DM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS);

Figure 5-37. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

# Internal Memory Access Listings

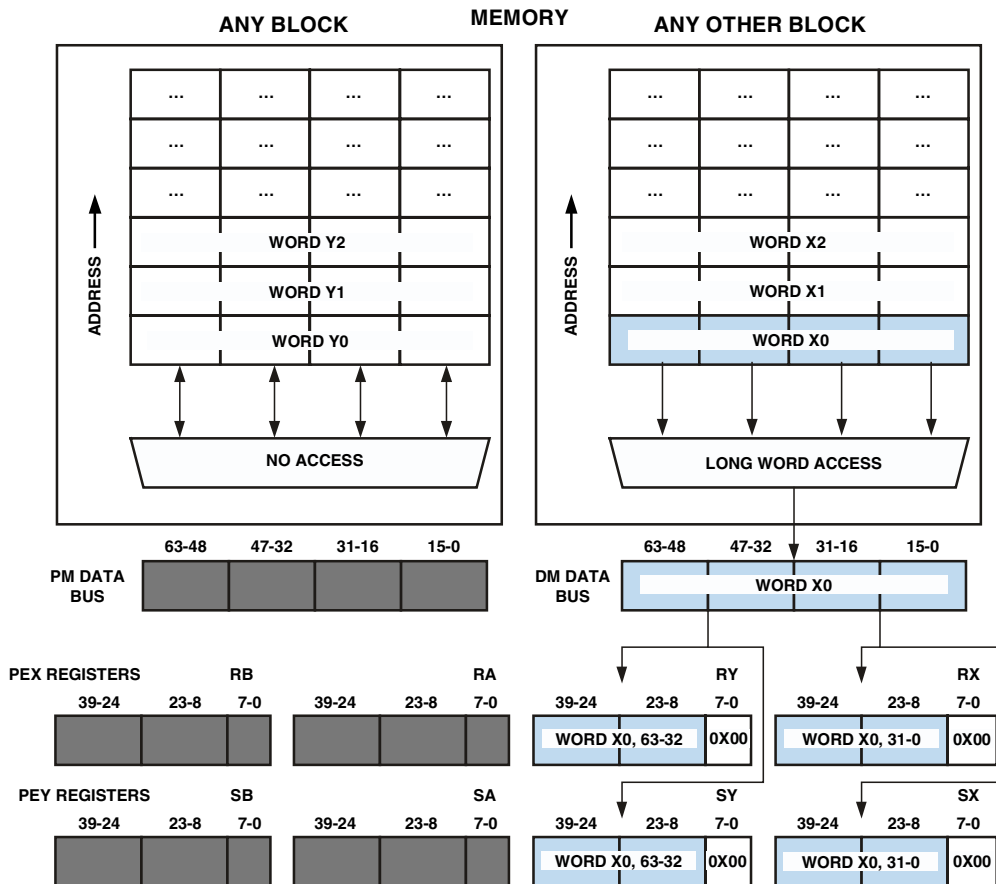


THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(EP NORMAL WORD X0 ADDR.), RA = PM(EP NORMAL WORD Y0 ADDR.);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, EXTENDED NORMAL WORD,  
 DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

| DREG = PM(EP NORMAL WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(EPNORMAL WORD ADDRESS); |

Figure 5-38. Extended-Precision Normal Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load



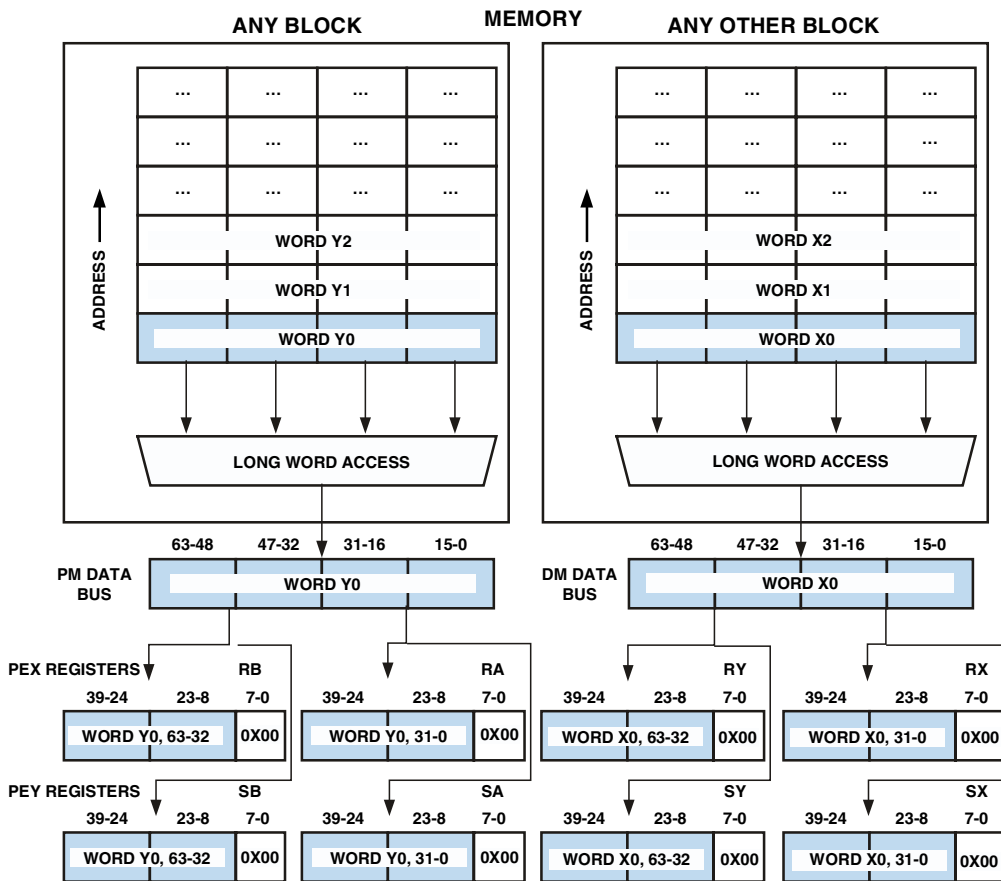
THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
`RX = DM(LONG WORD X0 ADDRESS);`

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, LONG WORD, SINGLE-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

```
| UREG = PM(LONG WORD ADDRESS); |
| UREG = DM(LONG WORD ADDRESS); |
```

Figure 5-39. Long Word Addressing of Single-Data in Broadcast Load

# Internal Memory Access Listings



THIS EXAMPLE SHOWS THE DATA FLOW FOR INSTRUCTION:  
 RX = DM(LONG WORD X0 ADDRESS), RA = PM(LONG WORD Y0 ADDRESS);

OTHER INSTRUCTIONS WITH SIMILAR DATA FLOWS FOR BROADCAST, LONG WORD, DUAL-DATA TRANSFERS ARE:

| DREG = PM(LONG WORD ADDRESS), | DREG = DM(LONG WORD ADDRESS); |

Figure 5-40. Long Word Addressing of Dual-Data in Broadcast Load



# 6 JTAG TEST EMULATION PORT

In addition to boundary scan, the JTAG Test Emulation Port supports other functions including background telemetry channels, cycle counting with `EMUCLK`, user-configurable hardware support, breakpoints, and a register for viewing the revision ID.

## JTAG Test Access Port

The emulator uses JTAG boundary scan logic for ADSP-2126x communications and control. This JTAG logic consists of a state machine, a five pin Test Access Port (TAP), and Shift registers. The state machine and pins conform to the IEEE 1149.1 specification. The TAP pins appear in [Table 6-1](#). A special pin (`EMU`) is used in the JTAG emulators from Analog Devices. This pin is **not** defined in the IEEE-1149.1 specification. This signal notifies the JTAG ICE that the processor has completed an operation.

Table 6-1. JTAG Test Access Port (TAP) Pins

Pin	I/O	Function
TCK	I	Test Clock: pin used to clock the TAP state machine <sup>1</sup>
TMS	I	Test Mode Select: pin used to control the TAP state machine sequence
TDI	I	Test Data In: serial shift data input pin
TDO	O	Test Data Out: serial shift data output pin
TRST	I	Test Logic Reset: resets the TAP state machine

<sup>1</sup> Asynchronous with CLKIN

## Boundary Scan

A Boundary Scan Description language (BSDL) file for the ADSP-2126x is available on the Analog Devices Web site.

Refer to the IEEE 1149.1 JTAG specification for detailed information on the JTAG interface. This chapter assumes a working knowledge of the JTAG specification.


## Boundary Scan

A boundary scan allows a system designer to test interconnections on a printed circuit board with minimal test-specific hardware. The scan is made possible by the ability to control and monitor each input and output pin on each chip through a set of serially scannable latches. Each input and output is connected to a latch, and the latches are connected as a long Shift register so that data can be read from or written to them through a serial test access port (TAP). The ADSP-2126x contains a test access port compatible with the industry-standard IEEE 1149.1 (JTAG) specification. Only the IEEE 1149.1 features specific to the ADSP-2126x are described here. For more information, see the IEEE 1149.1 specification and the other documents listed in [“References” on page 6-9](#).

The boundary scan allows a variety of functions to be performed on each input and output signal of the ADSP-2126x. Each input has a latch that monitors the value of the incoming signal and can also drive data into the chip in place of the incoming value. Similarly, each output has a latch that monitors the outgoing signal and can also drive the output in place of the outgoing value. For bidirectional pins, the combination of input and output functions is available.

Every latch associated with a pin is part of a single serial shift register path. Each latch is a master/slave type latch with the controlling clock provided externally. This clock ( $TCK$ ) is asynchronous to the ADSP-2126x system clock ( $CLKIN$ ).

The ADSP-2126x emulation features halt the processor at a predefined point to examine the state of the processor, execute arbitrary code, restore the original state, and continue execution.

 The ADSP-2126x emulation features are a superset of the ADSP-21160 DSP emulation features. All emulation features supported by previous SHARC DSPs are supported on the ADSP-2126x. The set of features on which JTAG ICE designs rely are supported in an identical fashion on ADSP-2126x. The DSP can be used with the ADSP-2106x SHARC JTAG ICE hardware.

There are several changes/extensions to the base functionality of the ADSP-2116x DSP emulation capability, which require changes in the JTAG ICE software for ADSP-2126x support. These extensions include:

- New registers for added functionality: EEMUCTL, EEMUSTAT, EEMUIN, EEMUOUT, and SHADOW\_SHIFT.
- A new JTAG instruction to support these additional registers: EEMUINDATA, EEMUOUTDATA, and EEMUCTL.
- New functionality to allow the tools software to support statistical profiling.
- In addition to the IEEE boundary scan functionality, the DSP offers support for background telemetry, user-definable breakpoint interrupts, and cycle counting.

Several on-chip facilities are directly accessed through the JTAG interface. These facilities are listed in [Table 6-2 on page 6-6](#). Other emulation facilities are only indirectly accessible. To indirectly access the facilities that do not appear in [Table 6-2](#), scan the instruction which moves data of interest to/from the PX register, scan the PX data (if the instruction is a PX read), let the core execute the instruction, and then scan the PX register out (if the instruction is a PX write).

## Background Telemetry Channel (BTC)

The breakpoint start/end registers are mapped into the IOP register space of the ADSP-2126x. The `EMUN`, `EMUCLK`, and `EMUCLK2` registers occupy the same `Ureg` address space as the ADSP-2106x DSP. These facilities are read-only by the ADSP-2126x core in normal operation.

## Background Telemetry Channel (BTC)

Programmers can read and write data to a set of memory-mapped buffers (`EEMUIN` and `EEMUOUT`) that are accessible by the emulator while the core is running. This function allows the emulator to feed new data to the DSP or get updates from the DSP in real time. A 32-bit memory-mapped I/O register called `EEMUSTAT` can be used to enable this functionality and check the status of the input and output data buffers. Low priority emulator interrupts are generated when the `EEMUIN` buffer is full or the `EEMUOUT` FIFO is empty so that the DSP core can handle reading/writing data from/to the buffers in an interrupt service routine (ISR). These interrupts are handled in the same way that normal interrupts are handled in the processor.

## User-Definable Breakpoint Interrupts

The JTAG emulation port supports 3 interrupts:

1. `EMUI` (highest priority, emulator)
2. `BKPI` (user HW breakpoints)
3. `EMULI` (lowest priority, BTC)

If using the user breakpoint feature (`BRKCTL` register) it allows to detect legal or illegal address on all buses (DM, PM, IO). If such an exception event occurs the sequencer branches to the `BKPI` interrupt if enabled.

## Restrictions

If a breakpoint interrupt comes at a point when the program is coming out of an interrupt service routine (ISR) of a prior breakpoint, then in some cases the breakpoint status will not reflect that the second breakpoint interrupt has occurred.

If an instruction address breakpoint is placed just after a short loop, then a spurious breakpoint is generated.

## Cycle Count Functionality (EMUCLK) Register

When the emulator is connected to the DSP and the processor is single stepping, extra cycles are used by the emulator and this can make it seem as though the instructions are taking more cycles than they should. You can see the actual cycle time of the processor (without the emulator) by polling the EMUCLK and EMUCLK2 registers. The processor cycle count can be seen while the core is in user space.

## Silicon Revision ID

The ADSP-2126x contains an 8-bit revision ID (REVPID), or the Device Identification register. This register can be read by using the JTAG instruction EMUID. The I/O address of REVPID is 0x30026.

## JTAG Related Registers

Information in this section describes public (JTAG) registers. [For more information, see “Emulation Registers” on page A-46.](#)

### Instruction Register

The Instruction register shifts an instruction into the processor. This instruction selects the performed test and/or the access of the test data register. The instruction register is 5 bits long with no parity bit. A value of 10000 binary is loaded (LSB nearest TDO) into the Instruction register whenever the TAP reset state is entered.

The new JTAG instruction set, shown in [Table 6-2](#), lists the binary code for each instruction. Bit 0 is nearest TDO and bit 4 is nearest TDI. No data registers are placed into test modes by any of the public instructions. The instructions affect the DSP as defined in the 1149.1 specification. The optional instructions RUNBIST, IDCODE, and USERCODE are not supported by the processor.

Table 6-2. JTAG Instruction Register Codes

43210	Register	Instruction	Inmode	Outmode
11111	Bypass	BYPASS	0	0
00000	Boundary	EXTEST	0	1
10000	Boundary	SAMPLE	0	0
11000	Boundary	INTEST	1	1
11100	BRKSTAT	EMULATION	0	0
01001	EEMUIN	EMULATION	0	0
01011	EEMUOUT	EMULATION	0	0
11101	EMUPID	REV-id register	0	0

The entry under “Register” is the serial scan path, either Boundary or Bypass in this case, enabled by the instruction. [Figure 6-1](#) shows these register paths. The 1-bit Bypass register is fully defined in the 1149.1 specification.

No special values need to be written into any register prior to the selection of any instruction. As [Table 6-2](#) shows, certain instructions are reserved for emulator use. For more information, see [Figure 6-1](#).

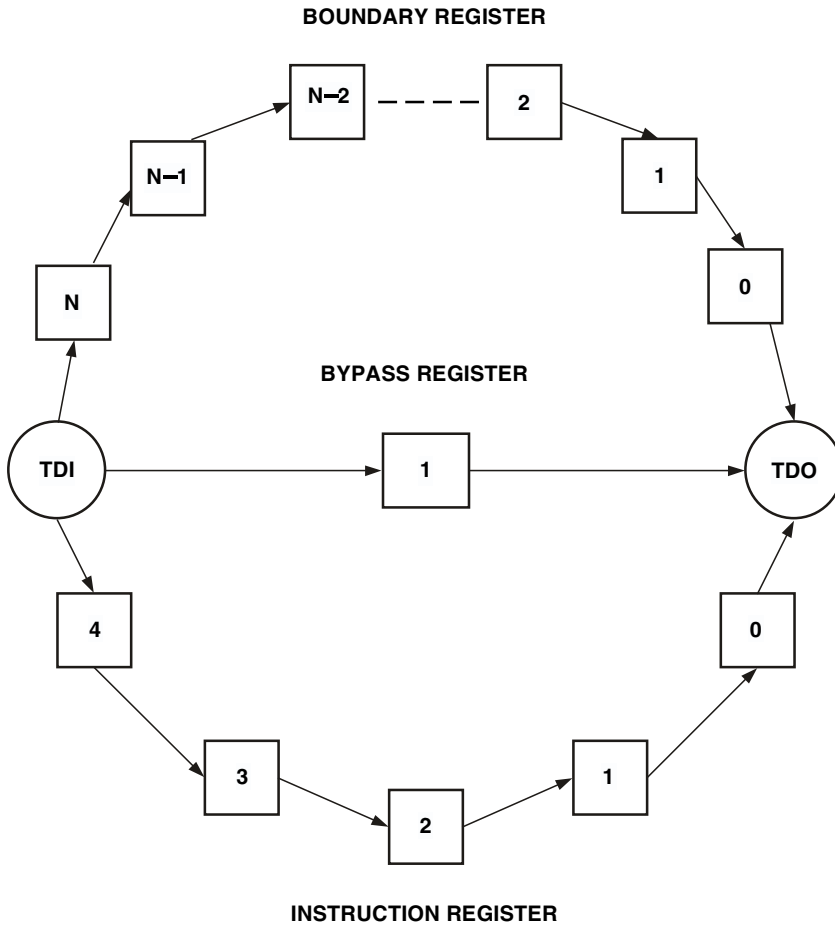


Figure 6-1. Serial Scan Path

Other registers, reserved for use by Analog Devices, exist. However, this group of registers should not be accessed as they can cause damage to the part.

### Enhanced Emulation Status (EEMUSTAT) Register

The `EEMUSTAT` register acts as the breakpoint Status register for the ADSP-2126x. This register is a memory-mapped IOP register. The processor core can access this register. For I/O breakpoints, this register has two status bits, one each for the two I/O buses (`IOX` and `IOY`).

When a breakpoint is hit, a user interrupt is generated. The breakpoint status can be checked by looking at the `EEMUSTAT` register. When the core returns from interrupt, the breakpoint status bits will be cleared.

### Boundary Register

The Boundary register is 163 bits long. This section defines the latch type and function of each position in the scan path. The positions are numbered with 0 being the first bit output (closest to `TDO`) and 162 being the last (closest to `TDI`). When working with boundary scan registers keep the following points in mind:

- Scan position 0 (`CLK_CFG0`); this end is closest to `TDO` (scan in first).
- Scan position 162 (`SPARE`); this end is closest to `TDI` (scan in last).
- Output enables:
  - 1 = Drive the associated signals during the `EXTEST` and `INTEST` instructions.
  - 0 = Three-state the associated signals during the `EXTEST` and `INTEST` instructions
- The `CLKIN` signal can be sampled but not controlled (read-only). `CLKIN` continues to clock the ADSP-2126x no matter which instruction is enabled.



## Built-In Self-Test Operation (BIST)

No self-test functions are supported by the ADSP-2126x.

## EMUIDLE Instruction

The `EMUIDLE` instruction places the DSP in the idle state and triggers an emulator interrupt. This operation uses the `EMUIDLE` instruction as a software breakpoint. When the `EMUIDLE` instruction is executed, the emulation clock counter immediately halts.

## Private Instructions

[Table 6-2](#) lists the private instructions that are reserved for emulation and memory test. The ADSP-2126x JTAG ICE emulator uses the TAP and boundary scan as a way to access the processor in the target system. The JTAG ICE emulator requires a target board connector for access to the TAP.

## References

- IEEE Standard 1149.1-1990. Standard Test Access Port and Boundary-Scan Architecture.  
To order a copy, contact IEEE at 1-800-678-IEEE.
- Maunder, C.M. and R. Tulloss. Test Access Ports and Boundary Scan Architectures.  
IEEE Computer Society Press, 1991.
- Parker, Kenneth. The Boundary Scan Handbook.  
Kluwer Academic Press, 1992.

## References

- Bleeker, Harry, P. van den Eijnden, and F. de Jong.  
Boundary-Scan Test—A Practical Approach.  
Kluwer Academic Press, 1993.
- Hewlett-Packard Co. HP Boundary-Scan Tutorial and BSDL Reference Guide.  
(HP part# E1017-90001) 1992.

# 7 I/O PROCESSOR

In applications that use extensive off-chip data I/O, programs may find it beneficial to use a processor resource other than the processor core to perform data transfers. The ADSP-2126x contains an I/O processor (IOP) that supports a variety of DMA (direct memory access) operations. Each DMA operation transfers an entire block of data.

The DMA operations include the transfer types listed below and shown in [Figure 7-3 on page 7-22](#):

- Internal memory ↔ external memory devices
- Internal memory ↔ serial port (DAI)
- Internal memory ↔ SPI I/O
- Internal memory ← IDP (DAI)

By managing DMA, the I/O processor frees the processor core, allowing it to perform other processor operations while off-chip data I/O occurs as a background task. The dual-ported internal memory allows the core and IOP to simultaneously access the same block of internal memory. This means that DMA transfers to internal memory do not impact core performance. The processor core continues to perform computations without penalty.

To further increase off-chip I/O, multiple DMAs can occur at the same time. The IOP accomplishes this by managing DMAs of processor memory through the parallel, SPI, input data port (IDP) and serial ports.

## General Procedure for Configuring DMA

Each DMA is referred to as a *channel*, and each channel is configured independently.

There are 22 channels of DMA available on the ADSP-2126x processor—one channel for the SPI interface, one channel for the parallel port interface, 12 channels via the serial ports, and eight channels for the input data port (IDP). Another DMA feature is interrupt generation upon completion of a DMA transfer or upon completion of a chain of DMAs.

## General Procedure for Configuring DMA

To configure the ADSP-2126x processor to use DMA, use the following general procedure.

1. Determine which DMA options you want to use:
  - IOP/Core interaction method – Interrupt driven or status driven (polling)
  - DMA transfer method – Chained or Non chained
  - Channel priority scheme – fixed or rotating
2. Determine how you want the DMA to operate:
  - Determine and set up the data's source and/or destination addresses (INDEX)
  - Set up the word COUNT (data buffer size)
  - Configure the MODIFY values (step size)
3. Configure the peripheral(s):
  - Serial ports (SPORTs)
  - Parallel port (PP)

- Input data port (IDP)
4. Enable DMA by setting the applicable bits in the appropriate registers:
- parallel port – PPDEN in PPCTL
  - serial port – SDEN\_x (SCHEN\_x for chaining) in SPCTLx
  - SPI – SPIDEN (SPICHEN for chaining) in SPIDMAC
  - IDP – IDP\_DMA\_EN in the IDP\_CTL

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

There are two methods the processor uses to monitor the progress of DMA operations—interrupts, which are the primary method, and status polling. The same program can use either method for each DMA channel. The following sections describe both methods in detail.

### Interrupt-Driven I/O

Interrupts on the ADSP-2126x processor are generated at the end of a DMA transfer. This happens when the count register for a particular channel decrements to zero. The interrupt vector locations for each of the channels are listed in [Table 7-1](#). The interrupt register diagram and bit descriptions are in and “[DAI Interrupt Controller Registers](#)” on [page A-167](#).

Programs can check the appropriate status register (for example PPCTL for the parallel port) to determine which channels are performing a DMA or chained DMA.

All DMA channels can be active or inactive. If a channel is active, a DMA is in progress on that channel. The I/O processor indicates the active status by setting the channel’s bit in the status register. The only exception to

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

this is the `IDP_DMAx_STAT` bits of the `DAI_STAT` register can become active even if DMA, through some IDP channel, is not intended.

The following are some other I/O processor interrupt attributes.


- When an unchained (single block) DMA process reaches completion (as the count decrements to zero) on any DMA channel, the I/O processor latches that DMA channel's interrupt. It does this by setting the DMA channel's interrupt latch bit in the `IRPTL`, `LIRPTL`, `DAI_IRPTL_H`, or `DAI_IRPTL_L` registers.
- For chained DMA, the I/O processor generates interrupts in one of two ways: If `PCI = 1`, an interrupt occurs for each DMA in the chain; if `PCI = 0`, an interrupt occurs at the end of a complete chain. (For more information on DMA chaining, see “[DMA Controller Operation](#)” on page -8).
- When a DMA channel's buffer is not being used for a DMA process, the I/O processor can generate an interrupt on single word writes or reads of the buffer. This interrupt service differs slightly for each port. For more information on single word interrupt-driven transfers, see “[Parallel Port Control Register \(PPCTL\)](#)” on page A-108, and `SPCTL` register in [Table 9-6](#) on page 9-51.

During interrupt-driven DMA, programs use the interrupt mask bits in the `IMASK`, `LIRPTL`, `DAI_IRPTL_PRI`, `DAI_IRPTL_RE`, and `DAI_IRPTL_FE` registers to selectively mask DMA channel interrupts that the I/O processor latches into the `IRPTL`, `LIRPTL`, `DAI_IRPTL_H`, and `DAI_IRPTL_L` registers.



The I/O processor only generates a DMA complete interrupt when the channel's count register decrements to zero as a result of actual DMA transfers. Writing zero to a count register does not generate the interrupt. To stop a DMA preemptively, write a one to the count register. This causes one more word to be transferred or received and an interrupt is then generated.

A channel interrupt mask in the `IMASK`, `LIRPTL`, `DAI_IRPTL_PRI`, `DAI_IRPTL_RE`, and `DAI_IRPTL_FE` registers determines whether a latched interrupt is to be serviced or not. When an interrupt is masked, it is latched but not serviced.

 By clearing a channel's `PCI` bit during chained DMA, programs mask the DMA complete interrupt for a DMA process within a chained DMA sequence.

The I/O processor can also generate interrupts for I/O port operations that do not use DMA. In this case, the I/O processor generates an interrupt when data becomes available at the receive buffer or when the transmit buffer is not full (when there is room for the core to write to the buffer). Generating interrupts in this manner lets programs implement interrupt-driven I/O under control of the processor core. Care is needed because multiple interrupts can occur if several I/O ports transmit or receive data in the same cycle.

Table 7-1. DMA Interrupt Vector Locations

Associated Register(s)	Bits	Vector Address	Interrupt Name	DMA Channel	Data Buffer
IRPTL/IMASK	14	0x38	SP1I	0	RXSP1A, TXSP1A
LIRPTL	0	0x44	SP0I	2	RXSP0A, TXSP0A
IRPTL/IMASK	15	0x3C	SP3I	4	RXSP3A, TXSP3A
LIRPTL	1	0x48	SP2I	6	RXSP2A, TXSP2A
IRPTL/IMASK	16	0x40	SP5I	8	RXSP5A, TXSP5A
LIRPTL	2	0x4C	SP4I	10	RXSP4A, TXSP4A
IRPTL/IMASK	14	0x38	SP1I	1	RXSP1B, TXSP1B
LIRPTL	0	0x44	SP0I	3	RXSP0B, TXSP0B
IRPTL/IMASK	15	0x3C	SP3I	5	RXSP3B, TXSP3B
LIRPTL	1	0x48	SP2I	7	RXSP2B, TXSP2B
IRPTL/IMASK	16	0x40	SP5I	9	RXSP5B, TXSP5B

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

Table 7-1. DMA Interrupt Vector Locations (Cont'd)

Associated Register(s)	Bits	Vector Address	Interrupt Name	DMA Channel	Data Buffer
LIRPTL	2	0x4C	SP4I	11	RXSP4B, TXSP4B
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	12	0x30	SPIHI	20	RXSPI, TXSPI
LIRPTL (low priority option)	9	0x74	SPILI		
LIRPTL	3	0x50	PPI	21	RXPP, TXPP
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	12	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	13	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	14	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	15	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	16	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	17	IDP_FIF0
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		



Table 7-1. DMA Interrupt Vector Locations (Cont'd)

Associated Register(s)	Bits	Vector Address	Interrupt Name	DMA Channel	Data Buffer
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	18	IDP_FIFO
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		
IRPTL/IMASK (high priority option)	11	0x2C	DAIHI	19	IDP_FIFO
LIRPTL (low priority option)	6	0x5C	DAILI		

The SPI has two interrupts—a lower priority option (SPI<sub>LI</sub>) and a higher priority option (SPI<sub>HI</sub>). This allows two interrupts to have priorities that are higher and lower than serial ports.

The DAI also has two interrupts—the lower priority option (DAI<sub>LI</sub>) and higher priority option (DAI<sub>HI</sub>). This allows two interrupts to have priorities that are higher and lower than serial ports.

## Polling/Status Driven I/O


The second method of controlling I/O is through status polling. The I/O processor monitors the status of data transfers on DMA channels and indicates interrupt status in the IRPTL, LIRPTL, DAI\_IRPTL\_H, and DAI\_IRPTL\_L registers. Note that because polling uses processor resources it is not as efficient as an interrupt-driven system. Also note that polling the DMA status registers reduces I/O bandwidth. The following provide more information on the registers that control and monitor I/O processes.


- All the bits in IRPTL and LIRPTL registers are shown in the [“Interrupt Latch Register \(IRPTL\)”](#) on page A-25 and [“Interrupt Register \(LIRPTL\)”](#) on page A-30.

- [Figure A-73 on page A-169](#) lists all the bits in `DAI_IRPTL_H`.
- [Figure A-74 on page A-170](#) lists all the bits in `DAI_IRPTL_L`.

The DMA controller in the ADSP-2126x maintains the status information of the channels in each of the peripherals registers, `SPMCTLxy`, `PPCTL`, `DAI_STAT`, and `SPIDMAC`. More information on these registers can be found at the following locations.

- Bit definitions for the `SPIDMAC` register are illustrated in “[SPI DMA Configuration \(SPIDMAC\) Register](#)” on page A-103.
- Bit definitions for the `SPMCTLxy` register are illustrated in “[SPORT Multichannel Control Registers \(SPMCTLxy\)](#)” on page A-79.
- Bit definitions for the `PPCTL` register are illustrated in “[Parallel Port Control Register \(PPCTL\)](#)” on page A-108.
- Bit definitions for the `DAI_STAT` register are illustrated in [Figure A-70 on page A-162](#).

 There is a one cycle latency between a change in DMA channel status and the status update in the corresponding register.

 If chaining is enabled on a DMA channel, programs should not use polling to determine channel status as it can provide inaccurate information. In this case, the DMA appears inactive if it is sampled while the next transfer control block (TCB) is loading.


## DMA Controller Operation

There are two methods you can use to start DMA sequences: chaining and non-chaining.

**Non-chained DMA.** To start a new DMA sequence after the current one is finished, a program must first clear the DMA enable bit, write new

parameters to the index, modify, and count registers, then set the DMA enable bit to re-enable DMA.

**Chained DMA.** Chained DMA sequences are a set of multiple DMA operations, each autoinitializing the next in line. To start a new DMA sequence after the current one is finished, the IOP automatically loads new index, modify, and count values from an internal memory location pointed to by that channel's chain pointer (CP) register. Using chaining, programs can set up consecutive DMA operations and each operation can have different attributes.

 Chaining is only supported on the SPI and SPORT DMA channels. The parallel port, and IDP port do not support chaining.

In general, a DMA sequence starts when one of the following occurs:

- Chaining is disabled, and the DMA enable bit transitions from low to high.
- Chaining is enabled, DMA is enabled, and the chain pointer register address field is written with a nonzero value. In this case, TCB chain loading of the channel parameter registers occurs first.
- Chaining is enabled, the chain pointer register address field is nonzero, and the current DMA sequence finishes. Again, TCB chain loading occurs.

A DMA sequence ends when one of the following occurs:

- The count register decrements to zero, and the CP register is zero.
- Chaining is disabled and the channel's DMA enable bit transitions from high to low. If the DMA enable bit goes low (=0) and chaining is enabled, the channel enters chain insertion mode and the DMA sequence continues. [For more information, see “Inserting a TCB in an Active Chain” on page 7-16.](#)

Once a program starts a DMA process, the process is influenced by two external controls—DMA channel priority and DMA chaining. For more information, see [“Managing DMA Channel Priority” on page 7-18](#) or [“Chaining DMA Processes”](#) below.

## Chaining DMA Processes

The location of the DMA parameters for the next sequence comes from the chain pointer (CP) register. In chained DMA operations, the ADSP-2126x processor automatically initializes and then begins another DMA transfer when the current DMA transfer is complete. In addition to the standard DMA parameter registers, each DMA channel (SP and SPI) also has a CP register that points to the next set of DMA parameters stored in the processor’s internal memory. In the SPI this is the CP<sub>SPI</sub> and in the SPORT it is CP<sub>SPxy</sub>. Each new set of parameters is stored in a four-word, user initialized buffer in internal memory known as a transfer control block (TCB). In TCB chain loading, the ADSP-2126x’s IOP automatically reads the TCB from internal memory and then loads the values into the channel parameter registers to set up the next DMA sequence.

The structure of a TCB is conceptually the same as that of a traditional linked-list. Each TCB has several data values and a pointer to the next TCB. Further, the chain pointer of a TCB may point to itself to constantly reiterate the same DMA.

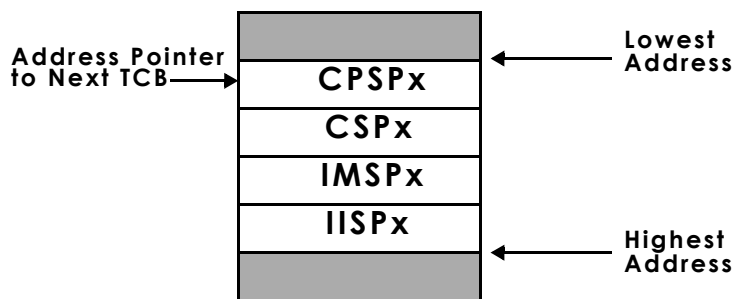
A DMA sequence is defined as the sum of the DMA transfers for a single channel, from when the parameter registers initialize to when the count register decrements to zero. Each DMA channel has a chaining enable bit (CHEN) in the corresponding control register. This bit must be set to one to enable chaining. Chain pointer register should be cleared first before enabling chaining. When chaining is enabled, DMA transfers are initiated by writing a memory address to the CP register. This is also an easy way to start a single DMA sequence, with no subsequent chained DMAs.

The CP register can be loaded at any time during the DMA sequence. This allows a DMA channel to have chaining disabled (CP register address

field = 0x0000) until some event occurs that loads the CP register with a nonzero value. Writing all zeros to the address field of the chain pointer register (CP) also disables chaining.

**i** Chained DMA operations may only occur within the same channel. The processor does not support cross-channel chaining.

**i** The parallel port and IDP port do not support DMA chaining.



Chaining is not available on the IDP or parallel ports.  
An “x” denotes the DMA channel used.

Figure 7-1. TCB Chaining

The chain pointer register is 20 bits wide. The lower 19 bits are the memory address field. Like other I/O processor address registers, the chain pointer register’s value is offset to match the starting address of the processor’s internal memory before it is used by the I/O processor. On the ADSP-2126x, this offset value is 0x0008 0000.

Bit 19 of the chain pointer register is the Program Controlled Interrupts (PCI) bit. This bit controls whether an interrupt is latched after each DMA completes or whether the interrupt is latched after the entire DMA sequence completes. If set, the PCI bit enables a DMA channel interrupt to occur after every DMA in the chain. If cleared, an interrupt occurs at the completion of the entire DMA sequence.

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**i** The `PCI` bit only effects DMA channels that have chaining enabled. Also, interrupt requests enabled by the `PCI` bit are maskable with the `IMASK` register.

Because the `PCI` bit is not part of the memory address in the chain pointer register, programs must use care when writing and reading addresses to and from the register. To prevent errors, programs should mask out the `PCI` bit (bit 19) when copying the address in a chain pointer to another address register.

The DMA registers are shown in [Figure 7-2](#).

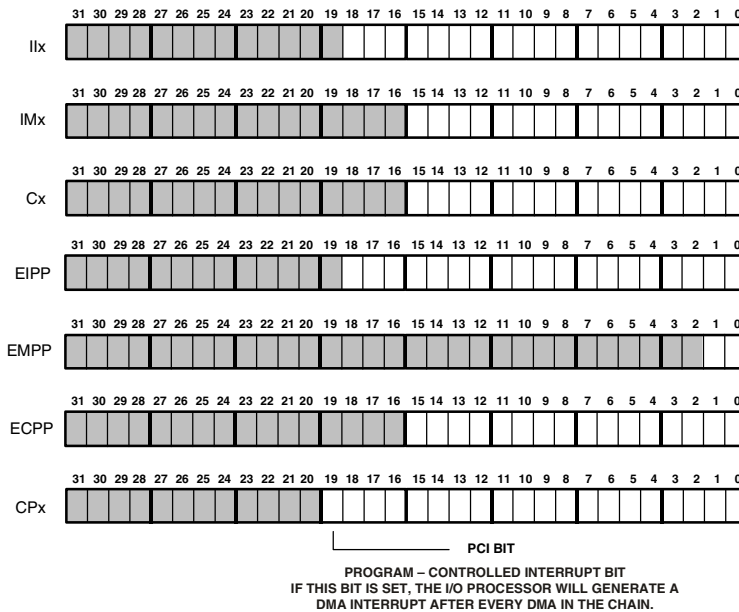


Figure 7-2. DMA Parameter Registers

## Transfer Control Block Chain Loading (TCB)

During TCB chain loading, the I/O processor loads the DMA channel parameter registers with values retrieved from internal memory. The address in the chain pointer register points to the highest address of the TCB (containing the index parameter). This means that if a program declares an array to hold the TCB, the CP register should not point to the first location of the array. Instead the CP register should point to `array[3]`.

Table 7-2 shows the TCB-to-register loading sequence for the serial port and SPI port DMA channels. The I/O processor reads each word of the TCB and loads it into the corresponding register. Programs must set up the TCB in memory in the order shown in Table 7-2, placing the index parameter at the address pointed to by the CP register of the previous DMA operation of the chain. The end of the chain (no further TCBs are loaded) is indicated by a TCB with a CP value of zero.

Table 7-2. TCB Chain Loading Sequence<sup>1</sup>

Address <sup>2</sup>	Serial Ports	SPI Port
CPSPx + 0x0008 0000	IISPx	IISPI
CPSPx - 1 + 0x0008 0000	IMSPx	IMSPI
CPSPx - 2 + 0x0008 0000	CSPx	CSPI
CPSPx - 3 + 0x0008 0000	CPSPx	CPSPI

<sup>1</sup> Chaining is not available using the IDP or parallel ports.

<sup>2</sup> An “x” denotes the DMA channel used. While the TCB is eight locations in length, SPI and serial ports only use the first four locations.

A TCB chain load request is prioritized like all other DMA operations. The I/O processor latches a TCB loading request and holds it until the load request has the highest priority. If multiple chaining requests are present, the I/O processor services the TCB registers for the highest priority DMA channel first. A channel that is in the process of chain loading

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

cannot be interrupted by a higher priority channel. For a list of DMA channels in priority order, see [Table 7-5 on page 7-28](#).

### Setting Up and Starting the Chain

To set up and initiate a chain of DMA operations, use these steps:

1. Clear the chain pointer register first before enabling chaining.
2. Set up all TCBs in internal memory.
3. Write to the appropriate DMA control register, setting the DMA enable bit to one and the chaining enable bit to one.
4. Write the address containing the index register value of the first TCB to the chain pointer register, which starts the chain.

The I/O processor responds by autoinitializing the first DMA parameter registers with the values from the first TCB, and then starts the first data transfer.

### Setting Up and Starting Chained DMA over the SPI

Configuring and starting chained DMA transfers over the SPI port is the same as for the serial port, with one exception. Contrary to SPORT DMA chaining, (where the first DMA in the chain is configured by the first TCB), for SPI DMA chaining, the first DMA is not initialized by a TCB. Instead, the first DMA in the chain must be loaded into the SPI parameter registers (`IISPI`, `IMSPI`, `CSPI`), and the chain pointer register (`CPSPI`) points to a TCB that describes the second DMA in the sequence.



Writing an address to the `CPSPI` register does not begin a chained DMA sequence unless `IISPI`, `IMSPI`, and `CSPI` are initialized, SPI DMA is enabled, the SPI port is enabled, and SPI DMA chaining is enabled.



The sequence for setting up and starting a chained DMA is outlined in the following steps and can also be seen in [“Chained DMA Transfers” on page 10-48](#).

1. Configure the TCB associated with each DMA in the chain except for the first DMA in the chain.
2. Write the first three parameters for the initial DMA to the `IISPI`, `IMSPI`, and `CSPI` registers directly.
3. Select a baud rate using the `SPIBAUD` register.
4. Select which flag to use as the SPI slave select signal in the `SPIFLG` register.
5. Configure and enable the SPI port with the `SPICTL` register.
6. Configure the DMA settings for the entire sequence, enabling DMA and DMA chaining in the `SPIDMAC` register.
7. Begin the DMA by writing the address of a TCB (describing the second DMA in the chain) to the `CPSPI` register.
8. Clear the chain pointer register before enabling chaining.

The address field of the chain pointer registers is only 19 bits wide. If a program writes a symbolic address to bit 19 of the chain pointer, there may be a conflict with the `PCI` bit. Programs should clear the upper bits of the address, then AND the `PCI` bit separately, if needed. For example:

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

### Listing 7-1. Chain Assignment

```
R0=0;
dm(CPx)=R0;          /* clear CPx register */
R2=(TCB1+3) & 0x7FFFF; /* init DMA control registers and
                        load IIX address of next TCB and
                        mask address */


R2=bset R2 by 19;    /* set PCI bit */
dm(TCB2)=R2;        /* write address to CPx location of
                        current TCB */

R2=(TCB2+3) & 0x7FFFF; /* load IIX address of next TCB and
                        mask address*/

R2=bclr R2 by 19;    /* clear PCI bit */
dm(TCB1)=R2;        /* write address to CPx location of
                        current TCB */

dm(CPx)=R2;         /* write IIX address of TCB1 to CPx
                        register to start chaining*/
```

### Inserting a TCB in an Active Chain


 This is supported by serial ports only. The SPI interface does not support inserting a TCB in an active chain.

It is possible to insert a single DMA operation or another DMA chain within an active DMA chain. Programs may need to perform insertion when a high priority DMA requires service and cannot wait for the current chain to finish.

When DMA on a channel is disabled and chaining on the channel is enabled, the DMA channel is in chain insertion mode. This mode lets a program insert a new DMA or DMA chain within the current chain without effecting the current DMA transfer. Use the following sequence to insert a DMA subchain for the serial port 0A channel while another chain is active:

1. Enter chain insertion mode by setting `SCHEN_A = 1` and `SDEN_A = 0` in the channel's DMA control register, `SPCTL0`. The DMA interrupt indicates when the current DMA sequence has completed.
2. Copy the address currently held in the chain pointer register to the chain pointer position of the last TCB in the chain that is being inserted.
3. Write the start address of the first TCB of the new chain into the chain pointer register.
4. Resume chained DMA mode by setting `SCHEN_A = 1` and `SDEN_A = 1`.

Chain insertion mode operates the same as non-chained DMA mode. When the current DMA transfer ends, an interrupt request occurs and no TCBs are loaded. This interrupt request is independent of the PCI bit state.

 Chain insertion should not be set up as an initial mode of operation. This mode should only be used to insert one or more TCBs into an active DMA chaining sequence.

## Setting Up DMA Channel Allocation and Priorities


The ADSP-2126x processor has 22 DMA channels including 12 channels accessible via the serial ports, one SPI channel, one parallel port channel, and eight input data port channels. Each channel has a set of parameter registers which are used to set up DMA transfers. [Table 7-3](#) shows the DMA channel allocation and parameter register assignments for the ADSP-2126x processor. DMA channel 0 has the highest priority and DMA channel 21 has the lowest priority.

### Managing DMA Channel Priority

The default channel priority is: DMA channel 0 as highest priority and DMA channel 22 as lowest priority. [Table 7-5 on page 7-28](#) lists the DMA channels in priority order. When a channel becomes the highest priority requester, the I/O processor services the channel's request. In the next clock cycle, the I/O processor starts the DMA transfer.

The I/O data (IOD) bus is 32 bits wide and is the only path that the IOP uses to transfer data between internal memory and the peripherals. When there are two or more peripherals with active DMAs in progress, they may all require data to be moved to or from memory in the same cycle. For example, the parallel port may fill its `RXPP` buffer just as a `SPORT` shifts a word into its `RXn` buffer. To determine which word is transferred first, the DMA channels for each of the processor's I/O ports negotiate channel priority with the I/O processor using an internal DMA request/grant handshake.

Each I/O port has one or more DMA channels, and each channel has a single request and a single grant. When a particular channel needs to read or write data to internal memory, the channel asserts an internal DMA request. The I/O processor prioritizes the request with all other valid DMA requests. When a channel becomes the highest priority requester, the I/O processor asserts the channel's internal DMA grant. In the next clock cycle, the DMA transfer starts. [Figure 7-4 on page 7-27](#) shows the paths for internal DMA requests within the I/O processor.

 If a DMA channel is disabled (`PPDEN`, `SPIDEN`, `SDEN`, or `IDP_DMA_EN` bits =0), the I/O processor does not issue internal DMA grants to that channel (whether or not the channel has data to transfer).

The default DMA channel priority is *fixed prioritization* by DMA channel group (serial ports, parallel port, IDP, or SPI port). [Table 7-5 on page 7-28](#) lists the DMA channels in descending order of priority.

For information on programming serial port priority modes, see [Table 9-7 on page 9-65](#).

The I/O processor determines which DMA channel has the highest priority internal DMA request during every cycle between each data transfer.

Processor core accesses of I/O processor registers and TCB chain loading (both of which occur after the IOD transfer) are subject to the same prioritization scheme as the DMA channels. Applying this scheme uniformly prevents I/O bus contention, because these accesses are also performed over the internal I/O bus. For more information, see “[Chaining DMA Processes](#)” on page 7-10.

## DMA Bus Arbitration

DMA channel arbitration is the method that the IOP uses to determine how groups rotate priority with other channels. This feature is enabled by setting the `DCPR` bit in the IOP's `SYSCTL` register.

DMA-capable peripherals execute DMA data transfers to and from internal memory over the IOD bus. When more than one of these peripherals requests access to the IOD bus in a clock cycle, the bus arbiter, which is attached to the IOD bus, determines which master should have access to the bus and grants the bus to that master.

IOP channel arbitration can be set to use either a *fixed* (`SYSCTL[7] = 0`) or *rotating* (`SYSCTL[7] = 1`) algorithm.

In the fixed priority scheme, the lower indexed peripheral has the highest priority.

In the rotating priority scheme, the default priorities at reset are the same as that of the fixed priority. However, the peripheral priority is determined by group, not individually. Peripheral groups are shown in [Table 7-3](#).

Initially, Group A has the highest priority and Group F the lowest. As one group completes its DMA operation, it is assigned the lowest priority (moves to the back of the line) and the next group is given the highest priority.

## IOP/Core Interaction Options

When none of the peripherals request bus access, the highest priority peripheral, for example, peripheral#0, is granted the bus. However, this does not change the currently assigned priorities to various peripherals.

Within a peripheral group the priority is highest for the higher indexed peripheral (see [Table 7-3](#)). For example in SP01 (group A), SP1 has the highest priority.

Table 7-3. DMA Channel Allocation and Parameter Register Assignments

DMA Channel Number	Data Buffer	Group	IOP Address of Data Buffers	Description
0 (highest priority)	RXSP1A, TXSP1A	A	0xC65, 0xC64	Serial Port 1A Data
1	RXSP1B, TXSP1B	A	0xC67, 0xC66	Serial Port 1B Data
2	RXSP0A, TXSP0A	A	0xC61, 0xC60	Serial Port 0A Data
3	RXSP0B, TXSP0B	A	0xC63, 0xC62	Serial Port 0 B Data
4	RXSP3A, TXSP3A	B	0x465, 0x464	Serial Port 3A Data
5	RXSP3B, TXSP3B	B	0x467, 0x466	Serial Port 3B Data
6	RXSP2A, TXSP2A	B	0x461, 0x460	Serial Port 2A Data
7	RXSP2B, TXSP2B	B	0x463, 0x462	Serial Port 2B Data
8	RXSP5A, TXSP5A	C	0x865 or 0x864	Serial Port 5A Data
9	RXSP5B, TXSP5B	C	0x867 or 0x866	Serial Port 5B Data
10	RXSP4A, TXSP4A	C	0x861 or 0x860	Serial Port 4A Data
11	RXSP4B, TXSP4B	C	0x863 or 0x862	Serial Port 4B Data
12	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 0
13	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 1
14	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 2
15	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 3

Table 7-3. DMA Channel Allocation and Parameter Register Assignments (Cont'd)

DMA Channel Number	Data Buffer	Group	IOP Address of Data Buffers	Description
16	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IPD Channel 4
17	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 5
18	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 6
19	IDP_FIF0	D	0x24D0	DAI IDP Channel 7
20	RXSPI, TXSPI	E	0x1004, 0x1003	SPI Data
21 (lowest priority)	RXPP, TXPP	F	0x1809, 0x1808	Parallel Port Data

## Setting Up DMA Parameter Registers

Once you have determined and configured the DMA options, you can configure the DMA parameter registers. The parameter registers control the source and destination of the data, the size of the data buffer, and the step size used. These topics are described in detail in the following sections.

### DMA Transfer Direction

DMA transfers between internal memory and external memory devices use the processor's parallel port. For these types of transfers, a program provides the DMA controller with the internal memory buffer size, address, and address modifier, as well as the external memory buffer size, address and address modifier and the direction of transfer. After setup, the DMA transfers begin when the program enables the channel and continues until the I/O processor transfers the entire buffer to processor memory. [Table 7-4 on page 7-25](#) shows the parameter registers for each DMA channel.

## Setting Up DMA Parameter Registers

Similarly, DMA transfers between internal memory and serial, IDP or SPI ports have DMA parameters. When the I/O processor performs DMA between internal memory and one of these ports, the program sets up the parameters, and the I/O uses the port instead of the external bus.

The direction (receive or transmit) of the I/O port determines the direction of data transfer. When the port receives data, the I/O processor automatically transfers the data to internal memory. When the port needs to transmit a word, the I/O processor automatically fetches the data from internal memory. [Figure 7-4 on page 7-27](#) shows more detail on DMA channel data paths. [Figure 7-3](#) shows the processor's I/O processor, related ports, and buses.

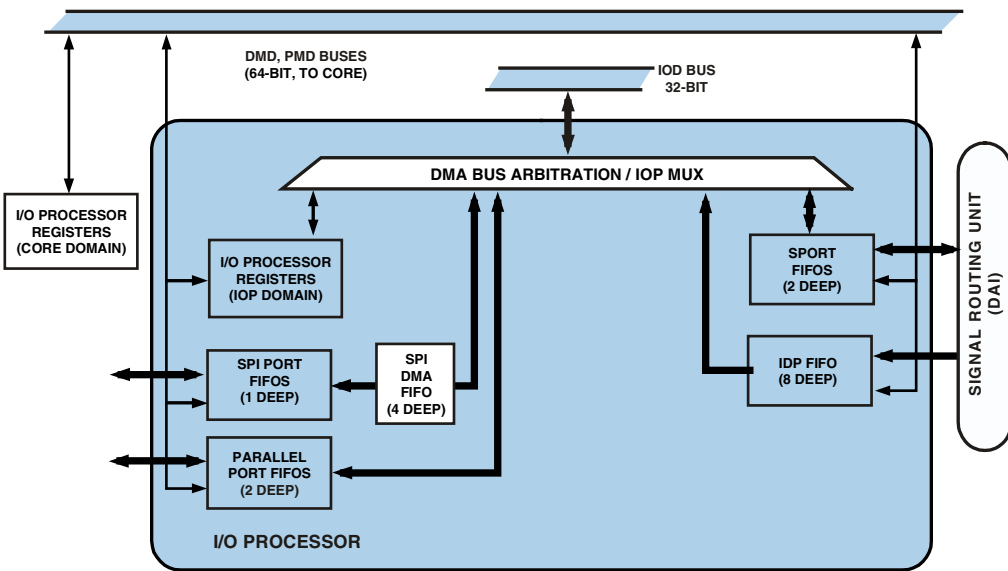


Figure 7-3. I/O Processor Block Diagram



## Data Buffer Registers

The data buffer registers in [Figure 7-3 on page 7-22](#) shows the data buffer registers for each port. These registers include:

- **Serial Port Receive Buffer** (RXSPx). These receive buffers for the serial ports have two position FIFOs for receiving data when connected to another serial device.
- **Serial Port Transmit Buffer** (TXSPx). These transmit buffers for the serial ports have two position FIFOs for transmitting data when connected to another serial device.
- **SPI Receive Buffer** (RXSPI). This receive buffer for the SPI port has a single position buffer for receiving data when connected to another serial device.
- **SPI Transmit Buffer** (TXSPI). This transmit buffer for the SPI port has a single position buffer for transmitting data when connected to another serial device.
- **Parallel Port Transmit Buffer** (TXPP). This transmit buffer for the parallel port has two-position FIFOs for transmitting data when connected to another device.
- **Parallel Port Receive Buffer** (RXPP). This receive buffer for the parallel port has two position FIFOs for receiving data when connected to another parallel device.
- **Input Data Port Buffers** (IDP\_FIFO). This receive buffer for the input data port has eight position buffers for receiving data when connected to another device.

### Port, Buffer, and DMA Control Registers

The Port, Buffer, and DMA Control Registers in [Figure 7-3](#) shows the control registers for the ports and DMA channels. These registers include:

- **Parallel Port Control register** (PPCTL). This register enables the parallel port system, DMA, and external data width. It also configures wait states, bus hold cycles and identifies the status of the parallel port FIFO, internal, and external interfaces.
- **Input Data Port Control register** (IDP\_CTL). This is the control register for input data ports.
- **Serial Port Control registers** (SPCTLx, SPMCTLxy). These control registers select the receive or transmit format, monitor FIFO status, enable chaining, and start DMA for each serial port.
- **SPI Port Control register** (SPICTL). This control register configures and enables the SPI interface, selects the device as master or slave, and determines the data transfer and word size. The SPIDMAC register also controls SPI DMA and FIFO status.

[Table 7-4](#) shows the parameter registers for each DMA channel. These registers function similarly to data address generator registers and include:

- **Internal Index registers** (IISPx, IISPI, IIPP, IDP\_DMA\_Ix). Index registers provide an internal memory address, acting as a pointer to the next internal memory DMA read or write location.
- **Internal Modify registers** (IMSPx, IMPP, IMSPI, IDP\_DMA\_Mx). Modify registers provide the signed increment by which the DMA controller post-modifies the corresponding internal memory index register after the DMA read or write.
- **Count registers** (CSPx, ICPP, CSPI, IDP\_DMA\_Cx). Count registers indicate the number of words remaining to be transferred to or from internal memory on the corresponding DMA channel.

- **Chain Pointer registers** (CPSPx, CPSPI). Chain pointer registers hold the starting address of the TCB (parameter register values) for the next DMA operation on the corresponding channel. These registers also control whether the I/O processor generates an interrupt when the current DMA process ends.
- **External Index register** (EIPP). Index register provides an external memory address, acting as a pointer to the next external memory DMA read or write location.
- **External Modify registers** (EMPPx). Modify registers provide the increment by which the DMA controller post-modifies the corresponding external memory index register after the DMA read or write.
- **External Count registers** (ECPPx). External count registers indicate the number of words remaining to be transferred to or from external memory on the corresponding DMA channel.

Table 7-4. ADSP-2126x Processor DMA Channel Parameter Registers

Register	Function	Width	Description
Ily	Internal Index Register	19 bits	Address of buffer in internal memory
IMxy	Internal Modify Register	16 bits <sup>1</sup>	Stride for internal buffer
Cxy	Internal Count Register	16 bits	Length of internal buffer
CPxy	Chain Pointer Register	20 bits	Chain pointer for DMA chaining
EIPP	External Index Register	19 bits	Address of buffer in external memory
EMPP	External Modify Register	2 bits	Stride for external buffer
ECPP	External Count Register	16 bits	Length of external buffer

<sup>1</sup> IDP\_DMA\_Mx are 6 bits wide only.

### Addressing

Figure 7-4 shows a block diagram of the I/O processor's address generator (DMA controller). Table 7-4 lists the parameter registers for each DMA channel. The parameter registers are uninitialized following a processor reset.

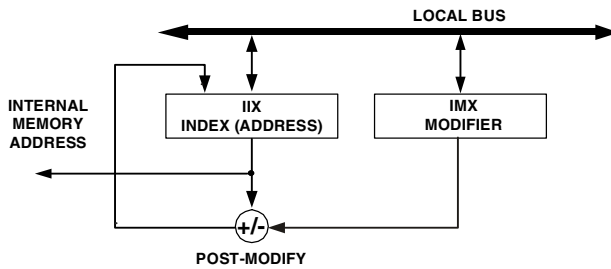
The I/O processor generates addresses for DMA channels much the same way that the Data Address Generators (DAGs) generate addresses for data memory accesses. Each channel has a set of parameter registers including an index register and modify register that the I/O processor uses to address a data buffer in internal memory. The index register must be initialized with a starting address for the data buffer. As part of the DMA operation, the I/O processor outputs the address in the index register onto the processor's I/O address bus and applies the address to internal memory during each DMA cycle—a clock cycle in which a DMA transfer is taking place.

All addresses in the index registers are offset by a value matching the processor's first internal normal word addressed RAM location, before the I/O processor uses the addresses. For the ADSP-2126x processor, this offset value is 0x0008 0000.

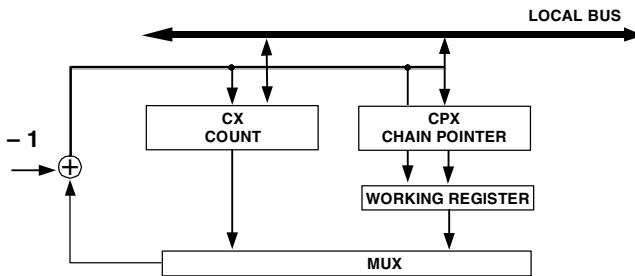
DMA addresses must always be normal word (32-bit) memory, and internal memory data transfer sizes are 32 bits. External data transfer sizes may be 16 or 8 bits. The I/O processor can transfer short word data (16-bit) using the packing capability of the serial port and SPI port DMA channels.

After transferring each data word to or from internal memory, the I/O processor adds the modify value to the index register to generate the address for the next DMA transfer and writes the modified index value to the index register. The modify value in the modify register is a signed integer, which allows both increment and decrement modifies. The modify value can have any positive or negative integer value.

**DMA ADDRESS GENERATOR (INTERNAL ADDRESSES)**



**DMA WORD COUNTER**



**DMA ADDRESS GENERATOR (EXTERNAL ADDRESSES)**

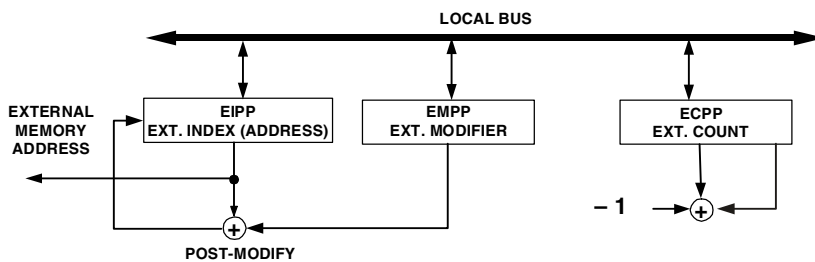





Figure 7-4. DMA Address Generator

## Setting Up DMA Parameter Registers

-  If the I/O processor modifies the index register past the maximum 19-bit value to indicate an address out of internal memory, the index wraps around to zero. With the offset for the ADSP-2126x processor, the wraparound address is 0x0008 0000.
-  If a program loads the count register with zero, the I/O processor does not disable DMA transfers on that channel. The I/O processor interprets the zero as a request for  $2^{16}$  transfers. This count occurs because the I/O processor starts the first transfer before testing the count value. The only way to disable a DMA channel is to clear its DMA enable bit.
-  If a DMA channel is disabled, the I/O processor does not service requests for that channel, whether or not the channel has data to transfer.

The processor's 22 DMA channels are numbered as shown in [Table 7-5](#). This table also shows the control, parameter, and data buffer registers that correspond to each channel.


-  In SP01, SP1 has a higher priority. Similarly, for SP23 and SP45, the odd numbered SPs have a higher priority (SP3, SP5).

Table 7-5. DMA Channel Registers: Controls, Parameters and Buffers

DMA Channel Number	Control Registers	Parameter Registers	Buffer Registers	Description
0	SPCTL1	IISP1A, IMSP1A, CSP1A, CPSP1A	RXSP1A, TXSP1A	Serial Port 1A Data
1	SPCTL1	IISP1B, IMSP1B, CSP1B, CPSP1B	RXSP1B, TXSP1B	Serial Port 1B Data
2	SPCTL0	IISP0A, IMSP0A, CSP0A, CPSP0A	RXSP0A, TXSP0A	Serial Port 0A Data
3	SPCTL0	IISP0B, IMSP0B, CSP0B, CPSP0B	RXSP0B, TXSP0B	Serial Port 0B Data

Table 7-5. DMA Channel Registers: Controls, Parameters and Buffers (Cont'd)

DMA Channel Number	Control Registers	Parameter Registers	Buffer Registers	Description
4	SPCTL3	IISP3A, IMSP3A, CSP3A, CPSP3A	RXSP3A, TXSP3A	Serial Port 3A Data
5	SPCTL3	IISP3B, IMSP3B, CSP3B, CPSP3B	RXSP3B, TXSP3B	Serial Port 3B Data
6	SPCTL2	IISP2A, IMSP2A, CSP2A, CPSP2A	RXSP2A, TXSP2A	Serial Port 2A Data
7	SPCTL2	IISP2B, IMSP2B, CSP2B, CPSP2B	RXSP2B, TXSP2B	Serial Port 2B Data
8	SPCTL5	IISP5A, IMSP5A, CSP5A, CPSP5A	RXSP5A, TXSP5A	Serial Port 5A Data
9	SPCTL5	IISP5B, IMSP5B, CSP5B, CPSP5B	RXSP5B, TXSP5B	Serial Port 5B Data
10	SPCTL4	IISP4A, IMSP4A, CSP4A, CPSP4A	RXSP4A, TXSP4A	Serial Port 4A Data
11	SPCTL4	IISP4B, IMSP4B, CSP4B, CPSP4B	RXSP4B, TXSP4B	Serial Port 4B Data
12	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I0, IDP_DMA_M0, IDP_DMA_C0	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 0
13	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I1, IDP_DMA_M1, IDP_DMA_C1	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 1
14	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I2, IDP_DMA_M2, IDP_DMA_C2	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 2
15	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I3, IDP_DMA_M3, IDP_DMA_C3	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 3
16	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I4, IDP_DMA_M4, IDP_DMA_C4	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 4
17	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I5, IDP_DMA_M5, IDP_DMA_C5	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 5

## Setting Up DMA

Table 7-5. DMA Channel Registers: Controls, Parameters and Buffers (Cont'd)

DMA Channel Number	Control Registers	Parameter Registers	Buffer Registers	Description
18	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I6, IDP_DMA_M6, IDP_DMA_C6	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 6
19	IDP_CTL	IDP_DMA_I7, IDP_DMA_M7, IDP_DMA_C7	IDP_FIFO	DAI IDP Channel 7
20	SPICTL	IISPI, IMSPI, CSPI, CPSPI	RXSPI, TXSPI	SPI Data
21	PPCTL	EIPP, EMPP, ECPP, IIPP, IMPP, ICPP	RXPP, TXPP	Parallel Port Data

All of the I/O processor's registers are memory-mapped, ranging from address 0x0000 0000 to 0x0003 FFFF. For more information on these registers, see [“Core Registers” on page A-2](#).

## Setting Up DMA

Because the I/O processor registers are memory-mapped, the processor has access to program DMA operations. A processor sets up a DMA channel by writing the transfer's parameters to the DMA parameter registers. After the index, modify, and count registers (among others) are loaded with a starting source or destination address, an address modifier, and a word count, the processor is ready to start the DMA.

The SPI port, parallel port, serial ports and input data ports each have a DMA enable bit (`SPIDEN`, `PPDEN`, `SDEN` or `IDP_DMA_EN`) in their channel control register. Setting this bit for a DMA channel with configured DMA parameters starts the DMA on that channel.

If the parameters configure the channel to receive, the I/O processor transfers data words received at the buffer to the destination in internal



memory. If the parameters configure the channel to transmit, the I/O processor transfers a word automatically from the source memory to the channel's buffer register. These transfers continue until the I/O processor transfers the selected number of words as determined by the count parameter. DMA through the IDP ports occurs in internal memory only.

## Setting Up DMA

# 8 PARALLEL PORT

The ADSP-2126x processor has a parallel port that allows bidirectional transfers between it and external parallel devices. Using the parallel port bus and control lines, the processor can interface to 8-bit or 16-bit wide external memory devices. The parallel port provides a DMA interface between internal and external memory and has the ability to support core driven data transfer modes. Regardless of whether 8-bit or 16-bit external memory devices are used, the internal data word size is always 32 bits (normal word addressing), and the parallel port employs packing to place the data appropriately.

This chapter describes the parallel port operation, registers, interrupt function, and transfer protocol. [Figure 8-1](#) shows a block diagram of the parallel port.

The processor provides two data packing modes, 8/32 and 16/32. For reads, data packing involves shifting multiple successive 8- or 16-bit elements from the parallel port to the ADSP-2126x's Receive register to form each 32-bit word, transferring multiple successive 8-bit or 16-bit elements. For writes, packing involves shifting each 32-bit word out into 8- or 16-bit elements that are placed into the memory device.

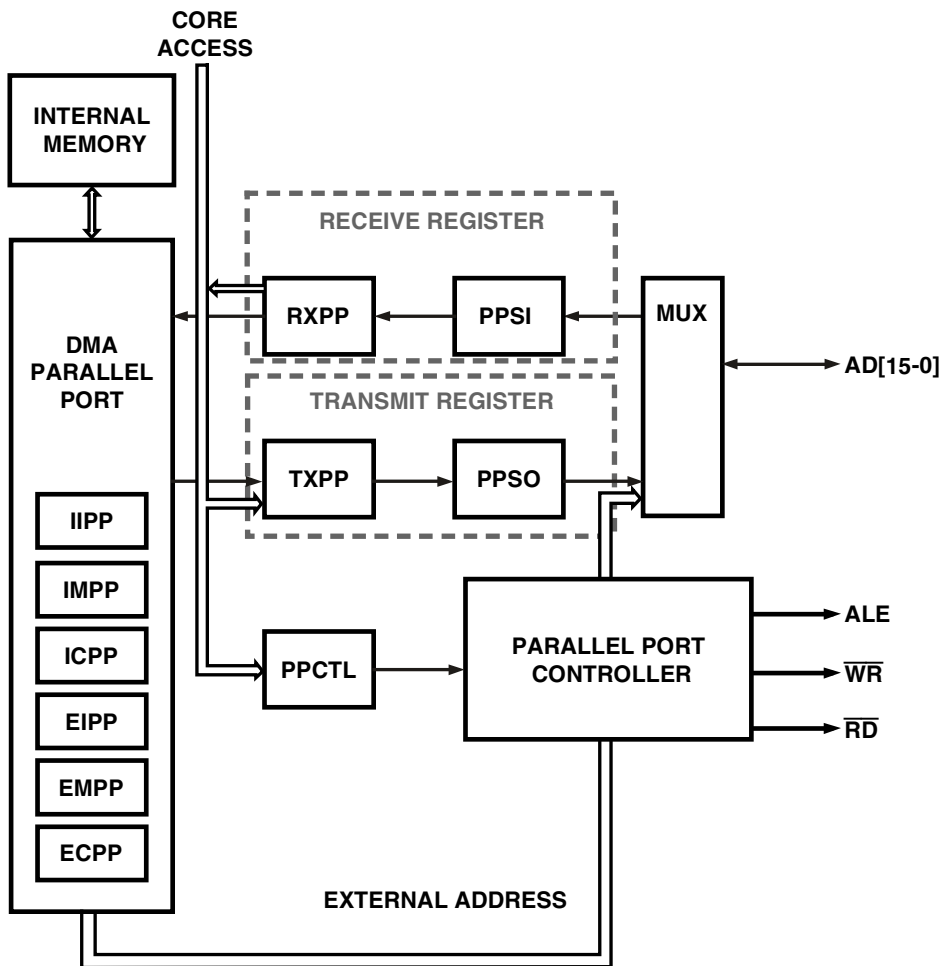


Figure 8-1. Parallel Port Block Diagram

## Parallel Port Pins

This section describes the pins that the parallel port uses for its operation. For a complete list of pin descriptions and package pinouts, see the product-specific data sheet for your device.

- **Address/Data (AD15–0) pins.** The ADSP-2126x processor provides time multiplexed address/data pins that are used for providing both address and data information. The state of the address/data pins is determined by the 8- or 16-bit operating mode and the state of the  $ALE$ ,  $\overline{RD}$ , and  $\overline{WR}$  pins.
- **Read strobe ( $\overline{RD}$ ) pin.** This output pin is asserted low to indicate a read operation. Data is latched into the processor using the rising edge of this signal.
- **Write strobe ( $\overline{WR}$ ) pin.** This output pin is asserted low to indicate a write operation. The rising edge of this signal can be used by memory devices to latch the data from the processor.
- **Address Latch Enable (ALE) pin.** The address latch enable pin is used to strobe an external latch connected to the address/data pins (AD15-0). The external latch holds the most significant bits (MSBs) of the external memory address. An ALE cycle is inserted for the first access after the parallel port is enabled and anytime the upper 16 bits of the address change from a previous cycle.


In 8-bit mode, a maximum of 24 bits of external address are facilitated through latching the upper 16 bits, EA23-8, from AD15-0 into the external latch during the  $ALE$  phase of the cycle. The remaining 8 bits of address EA7-0 are provided through AD15-8 during the second half of the cycle when the  $\overline{RD}$  or  $\overline{WR}$  signal is asserted.

In 16-bit mode, a maximum of 16 bits of external address are facilitated through latching the upper 16 bits of AD15-0 from AD15-0 into the external latch during the  $ALE$  phase of the cycle. The AD15-0 represent the

## Parallel Port Pins

external 16 bits of data during the second half of the cycle when the  $\overline{RD}$  or  $\overline{WR}$  signal is asserted.

The ALE pin is active high by default, but can be set active low via the PPALEPL bit (bit 13) in the Parallel Port Control (PPCTL) register.

 Since ALE polarity is active high by default, systems using parallel port boot mode must use address latching hardware that can process this active high signal.


## Alternate Pin Functions

The following sections describe how to make the parallel port pins function as flag pins and how to make the parallel data acquisition port pins function as address pins. For additional information on pin multiplexing, see [“Pin Multiplexing” on page 15-2](#).

### Parallel Ports as FLAG Pins

Setting (= 1) bit 20 in the SYSCTL register, (PPFLGS) causes the 16 address pins to function as FLAG0-FLAG15. To use the parallel port for data access, this bit should be cleared (= 0). [For more information, see “System Design” on page 15-1](#).

The ADSP-2126x supports up to 16 general-purpose FLAG pins. These FLAG signals are multiplexed with other signals, and may be used in several different ways. If the parallel port is disabled, then the 16 address and data pins become FLAG0-FLAG15. If the parallel port is in use, then these same 16 FLAG signals can be routed through the SRU, to 16 DAI pins. Finally, FLAG0-FLAG3 are available on four separate pins. These pins are shared with  $\overline{IRQ0-2}$  and TIMEXP.

 Configuring the parallel port pins to function as FLAG0-15 also causes these four dedicated pins to change to their alternate role,  $\overline{IRQ0-2}$  and TIMEXP.

## Parallel Data Acquisition Port as Address Pins

**PDAP use of AD[15:0] pins.** When bit 26 of the `IDP_PP_CTL` register is set, the Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP) reads from the parallel port's `AD0-15` pins. When this bit is cleared, the PDAP reads data using DAI pins `DAIP20-5`. To use the parallel port, this bit must be cleared (= 0). For more information, see “Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP)” on page 11-6.

## Parallel Port Operation

This section describes how the parallel port transfers data. The `SYSCTL` and `PPCTL` registers control the parallel port operating mode.

### Basic Parallel Port External Transaction

A parallel port external transaction consists of a combination of an `ALE` cycle and a data cycle, which is either a read or write cycle. The following section describes parallel port operation as it relates to processor timing. Refer to the data sheet for your processor for detailed timing specifications.

An `ALE` cycle is an address latch cycle. In this cycle the  $\overline{RD}$  and  $\overline{WR}$  signals are inactive and `ALE` is strobed. The upper 16 bits of the address are driven onto the `AD15-0` lines, and shortly thereafter the `ALE` pin is strobed, with `AD15-0` remaining valid slightly after de-assertion to ensure a sufficient hold time for the external latch. The `ALE` pin always remains high for  $2 \times \text{CCLK}$ , irrespective of the data cycle duration values that are set in the `PPCTL` register. The parallel port runs at  $1/3$  the `CCLK` rate, and so the `ALE` cycle is  $3 \times \text{CCLK}$ . An `ALE` cycle is inserted whenever the upper 16 bits of address differs from a previous access, as well as after the parallel port is enabled.

## Parallel Port Operation

In a read cycle, the  $\overline{WR}$  and  $ALE$  signals are inactive and  $\overline{RD}$  is strobed. If the upper 16 bits of the external address have changed, this cycle is always preceded by an  $ALE$  cycle. In 8-bit mode, the lower 8 bits of the address, EA7-0, are driven on the AD15-8 pins, and data is sampled from the AD7-0 pins on the rising edge of  $\overline{RD}$ . In 16-bit mode, address bits are not driven in the read cycle, the external address is provided entirely by the external latch, and data is sampled from the AD15-0 pins at the rising edge of  $\overline{RD}$ . Read cycles can be lengthened by configuring the parallel port data cycle duration bits in the PPCTL register.

In a write cycle,  $\overline{RD}$  and  $ALE$  are inactive and  $\overline{WR}$  is strobed. If the upper 16 bits of the external address have changed, this cycle is always preceded by an  $ALE$  cycle. In 8-bit mode, the lower 8 bits of the address are driven on the AD15-8 pins and data is driven on the AD7-0 pins. In 16-bit mode, address bits are not driven in the write cycle, the external address is provided entirely by the external latch, 16-bit data is driven onto the AD15-0 pins, and data is written to the external device on the rising edge of the  $\overline{WR}$  signal. Address and data are driven before the falling edge of  $\overline{WR}$  and deasserted after the rising edge to ensure enough setup and hold time with respect to the  $\overline{WR}$  signal. Write cycles can be lengthened by configuring the parallel port data cycle duration bits in the PPCTL register.

## Reading From an External Device or Memory

The parallel port has a two stage data FIFO for receiving data (RXPP). In the first stage, a 32-bit register (PPSI) provides an interface to the external data pins and packs the 8- or 16-bit data into 32 bits. Once the 32-bit data is received in PPSI, the data is transferred into the second 32-bit register (RXPP). Once the receive FIFO is full, the chip cannot initiate any more external data transfers. The RXPP register acts as the interface to the core or I/O processor (for DMA).



The PPTRAN bit must be zero in order to be read.



The order of 8 to 32-bit data packing is shown in [Table 8-1](#). The first byte received is [7:0], second [15:8] and so on. The 16- to 32-bit packing scheme is shown in the third column of the table.


 [Table 8-1](#) does not show ALE cycles; it shows only the order of the data reads and writes.

Table 8-1. Packing Sequence for 32-Bit Data

Transfer	AD7–0, 8-bit to 32-bit (8-bit bus, LSW first)	AD15–0, 16-bit to 32-bit (16-bit bus, LSW first)
First	Word 1; bits 7–0	Word 1; bits 15–0
Second	Word 1; bits 15–8	Word 1; bits 31–16
Third	Word 1; bits 23–16	
Fourth	Word 1; bits 31–24	

## Writing to an External Device or Memory

The parallel port has a two stage data FIFO for transmitting data (TXPP). The first stage (TXPP) is a 32-bit register that receives data from the internal memory via the DMA controller or a core write. The data in TXPP is moved to the second 32-bit register, PPS0. The PPS0 register provides an interface to the external pins. Once a full word is transferred out of PPS0, TXPP data is moved to PPS0, if TXPP is not empty.

 The PPTRAN bit of the PPCTL register must be set to one in order to enable writes to it.

The order of 32- to 8-bit data unpacking is shown in [Table 8-2](#). The first byte transferred from PPS0 is [7:0], the second [15:8] and so on. The 32-bit to 16-bit unpacking scheme is shown in column three of the table.



 **Table 8-2** does not show ALE cycles; it shows only the order of the data reads and writes.


Table 8-2. Unpacking Sequence for 32-Bit Data

Transfer	AD7–0, 32-bit to 8-bit (8-bit bus, LSW first)	AD15–0, 32-bit to 16-bit (16-bit bus, LSW first)
First	Word 1; bits 7–0	Word 1; bits 15–0
Second	Word 1; bits 15–8	Word 1; bits 31–16
Third	Word 1; bits 23–16	
Fourth	Word 1; bits 31–24	

 Parallel port DMAs can only be performed to 32-bit (normal word) internal memory.

## Transfer Protocol

The external interface follows the standard asynchronous SRAM access protocol. The programmable Data Cycle Duration (PPDUR) and optional Bus Hold Cycle (BHC) addition at the end of each data cycle are provided to interface with memories having different access time requirements. The data cycle duration is programmed via the PPDUR bit in the PPCTL register. The hold cycle at the end of the data cycle is programmed via the PPBHC bit in the PPCTL register.


 Disabling the parallel port (PPEN bit is cleared) flushes both parallel port FIFOs, RXPP, and TXPP.

For standard asynchronous SRAM there are two transfer modes—8-bit and 16-bit mode. In 8-bit mode, the address range is 0x0 to 0xFFFFF which is 16M bytes (4M 32-bit words). In 16-bit mode, the address range is 0x0 to 0xFFFF which is a 128K bytes (32K 32-bit words). Although programs can initiate reads or writes on one and two byte boundaries, the parallel port always transfers 4 bytes (two 16-bit or four 8-bit words).

## 8-Bit Mode

An ALE cycle always precedes the first transfer of data after the parallel port is enabled. During ALE cycles for 8-bit mode, the upper 16 bits of the external address (EA23-8) are driven on the 16-bit parallel port bus (pins AD15-0). In data cycles (reads and writes), the processor drives the lower 8 bits of address EA7-0 on AD15-8. The 8 bits of external data, ED7-0, that are provided by AD7-0, are sampled by the  $\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}$  signal respectively. The processor continues to receive and or send data with the same ALE cycle until the upper 16 bits of external address differ from the previous access. For consecutive accesses ( $EMPP = 1$ ), this occurs once every 256 cycles.

Figure 8-2 shows the connection diagram for the 8-bit mode.

 Eight-bit mode enables a larger external address range.

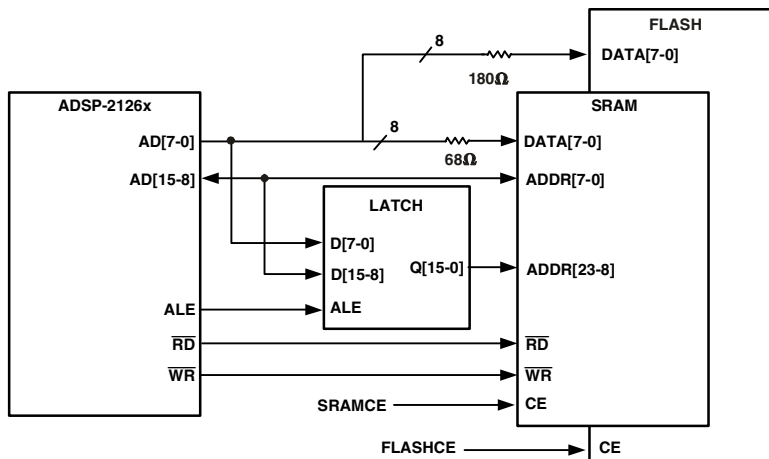


Figure 8-2. External Transfer—8-bit Mode

## 16-Bit Mode

In 16-bit mode, the external address range is EA15-0 (64K addressable 16-bit words). For a nonzero stride value ( $EMPP = 0$ ), the transfer of data

occurs in two cycles. In cycle one, the processor performs an ALE cycle, driving the 16 bits of external address, EA15-0, onto the 16-bit parallel port bus (pins AD15-0), allowing the external latch to hold this address. In the second cycle, the processor either drives or receives the 16 bits of external data (ED15-0) through the 16-bit parallel port bus (pins AD15-0). This pattern repeats until the transfer completes.

However, a special case occurs when the external address modifier is zero, (EMPP = 0). In this case, the external address is latched only once, using the ALE cycle before the first data transfer. After the address has been latched externally, the processor continues receiving and sending 16-bit data on AD15-0 until the transfer completes. This mode can be used with external FIFOs and high speed A/D and D/A converters and offers the maximum throughput available on the parallel port (132 Mbyte/sec).

Figure 8-3 shows the connection diagram in 16-bit mode.

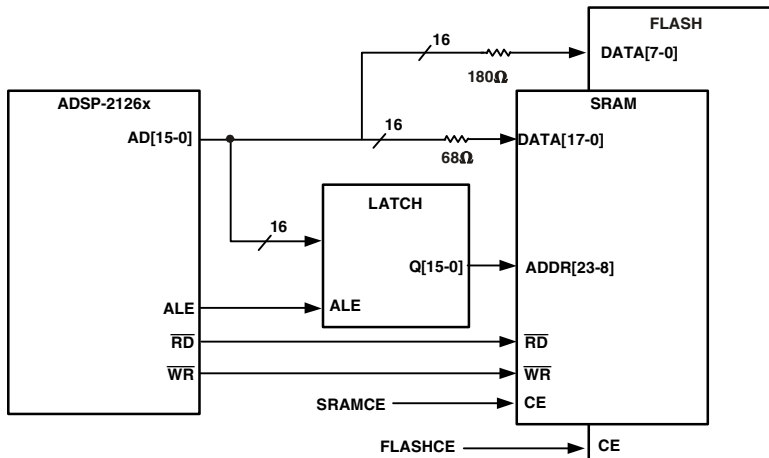


Figure 8-3. External Transfer—16-bit Mode

## Comparison of 16-Bit and 8-Bit SRAM Modes

When considering whether to employ the 16- or 8-bit mode in a particular design, a few key points should be considered.

- The 8-bit mode provides a 24-bit address, and therefore can access 16M bytes of external memory. In contrast, the 16-bit mode can only address 64K x 16 bit words, which is equivalent to 128K bytes. Therefore, the 8-bit mode provides 128 times the storage capacity of the 16-bit mode.
- For sequential accesses, the 8-bit mode requires only one ALE cycle per 256 bytes. With minimum wait states selected, this represents a worst case overhead of:  

$$(1 \text{ ALE cycle}) / (256 \text{ accesses} + 1 \text{ ALE}) \times 100\% = 0.39\% \text{ overhead for ALE cycles.}$$
 In contrast, the 16-bit mode requires one ALE cycle per external sequential access. Regardless of length (N), this represents a worst case overhead of:  

$$(N \text{ ALE cycles}) / (N \text{ accesses} + N \text{ ALE cycles}) \times 100\% = 50\% \text{ overhead for ALE cycles.}$$
 However, the 16-bit mode delivers two bytes per cycle. Therefore, the total data transfer speed for sequential accesses is nearly identical for both 8-bit and 16-bit modes.

The question that arises at this point is: If the total transfer rates are the same for both 8-bit and 16-bit modes, and the 8-bit mode can also address 128 times as much external memory, why would a system use the 16-bit mode?

- Sometimes an external device is only capable of interfacing to a 16-bit bus.
- When the DMA external modifier is set to zero, the address does not change after the first cycle, therefore an ALE cycle is only inserted on the first cycle. In this case, the 16-bit port can run

## Parallel Port Interrupt

twice as fast as the 8-bit port, as the overhead for ALE cycles is zero. This is convenient when interfacing to high speed 16-bit FIFO-based devices, including A/D and D/A converters.

- In situations where a majority of address accesses are non-sequential and cross 256 byte boundaries, the overhead of the ALE cycles in the 8-bit mode approaches 20%<sup>1</sup>. In this particular situation, the 16-bit memory can provide a 40% speed advantage over the 8-bit mode.

## Parallel Port Interrupt

The parallel port has one interrupt signal, PPI, (bit 3 in the LIRPTL register). When DMA is enabled, the maskable interrupt PPI occurs when the DMA block transfer has completed (when the DMA Internal Word Count register ICPP decrements to zero). When DMA is disabled, the maskable interrupt is latched in every cycle the receive buffer is not empty or the transmit buffer is not full.

The parallel port receive (RXPP) and transmit (TXPP) buffers are memory mapped IOP registers. The PPI bit is located at vector address 0x50. The latch (PPI), mask (PPIMSK) and mask pointer (PPIMSKP) bits associated with the parallel port interrupt are all located in the LIRPTL register.

## Parallel Port Throughput

As described in “[Parallel Port Operation](#)”, each 32-bit word transferred through the parallel port takes a specific period of time to complete. This throughput depends on a number of factors, namely parallel port speed (1/3 core instruction rate), memory width (8 bits or 16 bits), and memory

---

<sup>1</sup> This can be realized by recalling that four bytes must be packed/unpacked into a single 32-bit word. For example when a 32-bit word is written/read, there is a single ALE cycle inserted per four consecutive addresses. This results in:  $(N/4 \text{ ALE cycles}) / (N \text{ accesses} + N/4 \text{ ALE cycles}) \times 100\% = 20\%$ .

access constraints (occurrence of ALE cycles at page boundaries, duration of data cycles, and/or addition of hold time cycles).

The maximum parallel port speed is 1/3 of the core. The relationship between core clock and parallel port speed is static. For a 200 MHz core clock, the parallel port runs at 66 MHz. Since there is no parallel port clock signal, it is easiest to think of parallel port throughput in terms of core clock cycles.

As described in [“Parallel Port Operation” on page 8-5](#), parallel port accesses require both ALE cycles to latch the external address and additional data cycles to transmit or receive data. Therefore, the throughput on the parallel port is determined by the duration and number of these cycles per word. The duration of each type of cycle is shown below and the frequency is determined by the external memory width.



There is one case where the frequency is also determined by the external address modifier register (EMPP).

- ALE cycles are fixed at 3 core cycles (CCLK) and are not affected by the PPDUR or BHC bit settings. In this case, the ALE is high for 2 core clock cycles. Address for ALE is set up a half core clock cycle before ALE goes HIGH (active) and remains on bus a half cycle after ALE goes LOW (inactive). Therefore, the total ALE cycles on the bus are  $1/2 + 2 + 1/2 = 3$  core clock cycles. Please refer to the data sheet for more precise timing characteristics.
- Data cycle duration is programmable with a range of 3 to 32 CCLK cycles. They may range from 4 to 33 cycles if the BHC bit is set (=1).

The following sections show examples of transfers that demonstrate the expected throughput for a given set of parameters. Each word transfer sequence is made up of a number of data cycles and potentially one additional ALE cycle.

## Parallel Port Throughput

### 8-Bit Access

In 8-bit mode, the first data-access (whether a read or a write) always consists of one ALE cycle followed by four data cycles. As long as the upper 16 bits of address do not change, each subsequent transfer consists of four data cycles. The ALE cycle is inserted only when the parallel port address crosses an 8-bit boundary page, in other words, after every 256 bytes that are transferred.

For example, if PPDUR3, BHC = 0, and the processor is in 8-bit mode. The first byte on a new page takes six core cycles (three for the ALE cycle and three for the data cycle), and the next sequential 255 bytes consume three core cycles each.

Therefore, the average data rate for a 256 byte page is:

$$(3 \text{ CCLK} \times 255 + 6 \text{ CCLK} \times 1) / 256 = 3.01 \text{ core clock cycles per byte.}$$

For a 200 MHz core, this results in:

$$(200\text{M CCLK} / \text{sec}) \times (1 \text{ byte} / 3.008 \text{ CCLK}) = 66.4\text{M bytes/sec}$$

### 16-Bit Access

In 16-bit mode, every word transfer consists of two ALE cycles and two data cycles. Therefore, for every 32-bit word transferred, at least six CCLK cycles are needed to transfer the data plus an additional six CCLK cycles for the two ALE cycles, for a total of 12 CCLK cycles per 32-bit transfer (four bytes). For a 200 MHz core clock, this results in a maximum sustained data rate device of:

$$200 \text{ MHz} / 12 = 16.67 \text{ Million 32-bit words/sec} = 66.6\text{M Bytes/sec}$$

There is a specific case which allows this maximum rate to be exceeded. If the external address modifier (EMPP) is set to a stride of zero, then only one



ALE cycle is needed at the very start of the transfer. Subsequent words, essentially written to the same address, do not require any ALE cycles, and every parallel port cycle may be a 16-bit data cycle. In this case, the throughput is nearly doubled (except for the very first ALE cycle) to over 132M bytes per second. This mode is particularly useful for interfacing to FPGAs or other memory-mapped peripherals such as DAC/ADC converters.

## Conclusion

For sequential accesses, the average data rates are nearly identical in 8- and 16-bit modes. For help deciding between the two modes, please refer to [“Comparison of 16-Bit and 8-Bit SRAM Modes” on page 8-11](#).

## Parallel Port Registers

The ADSP-2126x’s parallel port contains several user-accessible registers. The Parallel Port Control Register, PPCTL, contains control and status bits and is described below. Two additional registers, RXPP and TXPP, are used for buffering receive and transmit data during DMA operations and can be accessed by the core. Finally, the following registers are used for every parallel port access (both core-driven and DMA-driven).

- [“Parallel Port DMA Start External Index Address Register \(EIPP\)” on page A-112](#)
- [“Parallel Port DMA External Modifier Address Register \(EMPP\)” on page A-113](#)

## Parallel Port Registers

For DMA transfers only, the following registers must also be initialized:

- “Parallel Port DMA Internal Word Count Register (ICPP)” on page A-112
- “Parallel Port DMA Start Internal Index Address Register (IIPP)” on page A-112
- “Parallel Port DMA Internal Modifier Address Register (IMPP)” on page A-112
- “Parallel Port DMA External Word Count Register (ECPP)” on page A-113

Additional information on Parallel Port registers can be found in “Parallel Port Registers” on page A-108.

## Parallel Port DMA Registers

The following registers require initialization only when performing DMA-driven accesses.

- DMA Start Internal Index Address (IIPP) register  
This 19-bit register contains the offset from the DMA starting address of 32-bit internal memory.
- DMA Internal Modifier Address (IMPP) register  
This 16-bit register contains the internal memory DMA address modifier.
- DMA Internal Word Count (ICPP) register  
This 16-bit register contains the number of words in internal memory to be transferred via DMA.
- Parallel Port DMA External Word Count (ECPP) register

This 24-bit register contains the number of words in external memory to be transferred via DMA.

## Parallel Port External Setup Registers

The following registers must be initialized for both core-driven and DMA-driven transfers.

- Parallel Port DMA External Index Address (EIPP) register

This 24-bit register contains the external memory byte address used for core-driven and DMA driven transfers.

- Parallel Port External Address Modifier (EMPP) register

This 2-bit register contains the external memory DMA address modifier. It supports only +1, 0, -1. After each data cycle, the EIPP register is modified by this value.

## Using the Parallel Port

There are a number of considerations to make when interfacing to parallel external devices. This section describes the different ways that the parallel port can be used to access external devices. Considerations for choosing between an 8-bit and a 16-bit wide interface are discussed in [“Comparison of 16-Bit and 8-Bit SRAM Modes” on page 8-11](#).

External parallel devices can be accessed in two ways, either using DMA-driven transfers or core-driven transfers. DMA transfers are performed in the background by the I/O Processor and are generally used to move blocks of data. To perform DMA transfers, the address, word-count, and address-modifier are specified for both the source and destination buffers (one internal, one external). Once initiated, (by setting  $PPEN = 1$  and  $PPDEN = 1$ ), the IOP performs the specified transfer in the background without further core interaction. The main advantage of DMA transfers

## Using the Parallel Port

over core driven transfers is that the core can continue executing code while sequential data is imported/exported in the background.

Unlike the external port on previous SHARC processors, the ADSP-2126x core cannot directly access the external parallel bus. Instead, the core initializes two registers to indicate the external address and address-modifier and then accesses data through intermediate registers. Then, when the core accesses either the PPTX or PPRX registers, the parallel port writes/fetches data to/from the specified external address. The details of this functionality and the four main techniques to manage each transfer are detailed below. In general, core-driven transfers are most advantageous when performing single-word accesses and/or accesses to non-sequential addresses.

## DMA Transfers

To use the parallel port for DMA programs, start by setting up values in the DMA parameter registers. The program then writes to the PPCTL register to enable PPDEN with all of the necessary settings like cycle duration value, transfer direction, and so on. While a parallel port DMA is active, the DMA parameter registers are not writable. Furthermore, only the PPEN and DMAEN bits (in the PPCTL register) can be changed. If any other bit is changed, the parallel port will malfunction. It is recommended that both the PPDEN and PPEN bits be set and reset together to ensure proper DMA operation.

To see an example program that sets up a parallel port DMA, see [Listing 8-1 on page 8-23](#).

## Core Driven Transfers

Core-driven transfers can be managed using four techniques. The transfers can 1) use interrupts, 2) poll status bits in the PPCTL register, 3) predict when each access will complete by calculating the data and ALE cycle durations, or 4) rely on the fact that the core stalls on certain accesses to PPRX

and PPTX. For all four of these methods, the core uses the same basic steps to initiate the transfer. However, each method uses a different technique to complete it. The following steps provide the basic procedure for setting up and initiating a data transfer using the core.

1. Write the external byte address to the EIPP register and the external address modifier to the EMPP register.

Before initializing or modifying any of the parallel port parameter registers such as EIPP and EMPP, the parallel port must first be disabled (bit 0, PPEN, of the PPCTL register must be cleared). Only when PPEN=0, can those registers be modified and the port then re-enabled. This sequence is most often used to perform non-sequential, external transfers, such as when accessing taps in a delay line.

For core-driven transfers, the ECPP, IIPP, IMPP, and ICPP are not used. Although these registers are automatically updated by the parallel port (the ECPP register decrements for example), they may be left uninitialized without consequence.

2. Initialize the PPCTL register with the appropriate settings.

These include the parallel port data-cycle duration (PPDUR) and whether the transfer is a receive or transmit operation (PPTRAN). For core-driven transfers, be sure to clear the DMA enable bit, PPDEN. In this same write to PPCTL, the port may also be enabled by setting bit 0, PPEN, to 1.

When enabling the parallel port (setting PPEN = 1), the external bus activity varies, depending on the direction of data transfer (receive or transmit). For transmit operations (PPTRAN = 1), the parallel port does not perform any external accesses until valid data is written to the TXPP register by the core.

For read operations (PPTRAN = 0), two core clock cycles after PPEN is set (=1), the parallel port immediately fetches two 32-bit data words from the

## Using the Parallel Port

external byte address indicated by `EIPP`. Subsequently, additional data is fetched only when the core reads (empties) `RXPP`.

The following are guidelines that programs must follow when the processor core accesses parallel port registers.

- While a DMA transfer is active, the core may only write the `PPEN` and `PPDEN` bits of `PPCTL`. Accessing any of the DMA parameter registers or other bits in `PPCTL` during an active transfer will cause the parallel port to malfunction.
- Core reads of the FIFO register during a DMA operation are allowed but do not affect the status of the FIFO.

If `PPEN` is cleared while a transfer is underway (whether core or DMA-driven), the current external bus cycle (ALE cycle or data cycle) will complete but no further external bus cycles occur. Disabling the parallel port clears the data in the `RXPP` and `TXPP` registers.

- Core reads and writes to the `TXPP` and `RXPP` registers update the status of the FIFO when DMA is not active. This happens even when the parallel port is disabled.
- The `PPCTL` register has a two-cycle effect-latency. This means that if programs write to this register in cycle `N`, the new settings will not be in effect until cycle `N + 2`. Avoid sampling `PPBS` until at least 2 cycles after the `PPEN` bit in `PPCTL` is set.
- For core-driven transfers over the parallel port, the `IIPP`, `IMPP`, `ICPP`, and `ECPP` registers are not used. Only the `EIPP` and `EMPP` registers need to be initialized before accessing the `TXPP` or `RXPP` buffers.

### Known Duration Accesses

Of these methods, known duration accesses are the most efficient because they allow the core to execute code while the transfer to/from the `RXPP` or

TXPP occurs on the external bus. For example, after the core reads the PPTX register, it will take some number N core-cycles for the PP to shift out that data to the memory. During that time, the core can go on doing other tasks. After N core-cycles have passed, the parallel port may be disabled and the external address register updated for another access.

To determine the duration for each access, the designer simply add's the number of data-cycles and the duration of each (measured in CCLK cycles) along with the number of ALE cycles (which are fixed at 3 CCLK cycles). This duration is deterministic, and is based on two settings in the PPCTL register—parallel port data-cycle duration (PPDUR) and Bus Hold Cycle Enable (PPBHC).

Please refer to “[Parallel Port Operation](#)” for further explanation of the parallel port bus cycles, but in summary, programs can use the following values:

- each ALE cycle is fixed at 3 CCLK cycles, regardless of the PPDUR or PPBHC settings.
- each Data cycle is the setting in the PPDUR register (+1 if PPBHC = 1)

For example, in 8-bit mode, a single-word transfer is comprised of 1 ALE cycle and 4 Data cycles. If PPDUR3 is used (the fastest case) and PPBHC = 0, this transfer completes in:

$(1 \text{ ALE-cycle} \times 3 \text{ CCLK}) + (4 \text{ data-cycles} \times 3 \text{ CCLK}) = 15 \text{ core cycles per 32-bit word.}$

This means that 15-instructions after data is written to TXPP or read from RXPP, the parallel port has finished writing/fetching that data externally, and the parallel port may be disabled. This case is shown in [Listing 8-3 on page 8-27](#).

## Using the Parallel Port

### Status Driven Transfers (Polling)

The second method that the core may use to manage parallel port transfers involves the status bits in PPCTL register, specifically the Parallel Port Bus Status (PPBS) bit. This bit reflects the status of the external address pins AD0-AD15 and is used to determine when it is safe to disable and modify the parallel port. The PPBS bit is set to 1 at the start of each transfer, and is cleared once the entire 32-bit word has been transmitted/received.

### Core-Stall Driven Transfers

The final method of managing parallel port transfers simply relies on the fact that the core will stall execution when reading from an empty RX buffer and when writing to a full TX buffer. This technique can only be used for accesses to sequential addresses in external memory. For sequential external addresses, the parallel port does not need to be disabled after each word in order to manually update the EIPP register. Instead, the external address that is automatically incremented by the modifier (EMPP) register on each access is used.

### Interrupt Driven Accesses

With interrupt-driven accesses, parallel port interrupts are generated on a word-by-word basis, rather than on a block transfer basis, as is the case when DMA is enabled. In this non-DMA mode, the interrupt indicates to the core that it is now safe to read a word from the RXPP buffer or to write a word to the TXPP buffer (depending on the value of the PPTRAN bit).

To facilitate this, the PPI (latch) bit of the LIRPTL register is set to one in every core cycle where the TXPP buffer is not full or, in receive mode, in every core cycle in which the RXPP buffer has valid data. When fast 16-bit wide parallel devices are accessed, there may be as few as 10 core cycles between each transfer. Because of this, interrupt-driven transfers are usually the least efficient method to use for core-driven accesses. Interrupt driven transfers are most valuable when parallel port data-cycle durations are very long (allowing the core may do some work between accesses).



Generally, interrupts are the best choice for DMA-driven parallel port transfers rather than core-driven transfers.

## Parallel Port Programming Examples

This section provides two programming examples written for the ADSP-21262 processor. The first, [Listing 8-1](#), uses the parallel port to transfer a buffer to 16-bit external memory using DMA. The second example [Listing 8-2](#), uses the parallel port to transfer a buffer to 8-bit external memory using status driven core writes. The last example, shows a calculated duration example of core driven parallel port access.

### Listing 8-1. Parallel Port DMA Buffer Transfer

```
/* Register Definitions */
#define PPCTL    0x1800
#define EIPP    0x1810
#define EMPP    0x1811
#define ECPP    0x1812
#define IIPP    0x1818
#define IMPP    0x1819
#define ICPP    0x181a

/* Register Bit Definitions */
#define PPEN    0x00000001
#define PPDUR20 0x00000026
#define PPBHC   0x00000040
#define PP16    0x00000080
#define PPDEN   0x00000100
#define PPTRAN  0x00000200
#define PPBS    0x00020000

/* Source Buffer */
```

## Parallel Port Programming Examples

```
.section/dm seg_dmda;
.var source[8] = 0x11111111,
                0x22222222,
                0x33333333,
                0x44444444,
                0x55555555,
                0x66666666,
                0x77777777,
                0x88888888;

.global _main;
.section/pm seg_pmco;
_main:
ustat3 = dm(PPCTL);      /*disable parallel port*/
bit clr ustat3 PPEN|PPDEN;
dm(PPCTL) = ustat3;

/* initiate parallel port DMA registers*/
r0 = source;             dm(IIPP) = r0;
r0 = 1;                  dm(IMPP) = r0;
r0 = LENGTH(source);    dm(ICPP) = r0;

r0 = 1;                  dm(EMPP) = r0;
r0 = 0x1000000;         dm(EIPP) = r0;
/* For 16-bit external memory, the External count is
   double the internal count */
r0 = LENGTH(source) * 2;    dm(ECPP) = r0;

ustat3 = PP16|          /* for a 16-bit external memory */
        PPTRAN|        /* transmit (write) */
        PPBHC|         /* implement a bus hold cycle*/
        PPDUR20;      /* make pp data cycles last for a duration
                        of 20 cclk cycles */
dm(PPCTL) = ustat3;
```

```

/* initiate PP DMA*/
/*Enable Parallel Port and PP DMA in same cycle*/
ustat4 = dm(PPCTL);
bit set ustat4 PPDEN|PPEN;
dm(PPCTL) = ustat4;

_main.end: jump(pc,0);

```

### Listing 8-2. Parallel Port Status Driven Core Transfer

```

/* Register Definitions */
#define PPCTL    0x1800
#define TXPP    0x1808
#define RXPP    0x1809
#define EIPP    0x1810
#define EMPP    0x1811
#define ECPP    0x1812

/* Register Bit Definitions */
#define PPEN    0x00000001
#define PPDUR20 0x00000026
#define PPBHC   0x00000040
#define PPTRAN  0x00000200
#define PPBS    0x00020000

/* Source Buffer */
.section/dm seg_dmda;
.var source[8] = 0x11111111,
                0x22222222,
                0x33333333,
                0x44444444,
                0x55555555,
                0x66666666,

```

## Parallel Port Programming Examples

```
                                0x77777777,  
                                0x88888888;  
  
/* Main code section */  
.global _main;  
.section/pm seg_pmco;  
_main:  
i4 = source;  
m4 = 1;  
  
/* setup ppdma registers for core use */  
r0 = 1;                dm(EMPP) = r0;  
r0 = 0x1000000;       dm(EIPP) = r0;  
/* For 8-bit external memory, the External count is  
   four times the internal count */  
r0 = LENGTH(source) * 4;    dm(ECPP) = r0;  
  
ustat3 = PPEN|         /* enable port */  
         PPTRAN|      /* transmit (write) */  
         PPBHC|       /* implement a bus hold cycle*/  
         PPDUR20;    /* make pp data cycles last for a */  
                   /* duration of 20 cclk cycles */  
  
dm(PPCTL) = ustat3;  
/* loop to write 10 words into TXPP */  
lcntr = 10, do core_writes until lce;  
write:  
r0 = dm(i4,m4);  
core_writes: dm(TXPP) = r0;  
  
/* poll to ensure parallel port has completed the transfer */  
waiting: ustat4 = dm(PPCTL);  
bit tst ustat4 PPBS;  
if tf jump waiting;  
_main.end: jump(pc,0);
```

## Listing 8-3. Calculated Duration Core Driven Access

```

_main:
/* Setup once===== */
    ustat3 = PPDUR3 | PPTRAN | PPEN; /* ustat3 enables PP */
    ustat4 = PPDUR3 | PPTRAN;      /* ustat4 disables PP */

dm(PPCTL) = ustat4;          /* initialize but disable PP */

/* NOTE: Internal DMA registers AND the EXTERNAL COUNT can be
left uninitialized for Core-driven transfers (External count
determined by bus width: 16bit = count of 2, 8-bit = count of 4,
since internal width always = 32-bits.)*/

    r0=1;    dm(EMPP)=r0; /* don't move external ptr */

    /* initialize external address and sample-to-write */
    r1=EZKIT_SRAM_BASE_ADDR; /* initialize R1 w/ first
                               ext. byte address */
    r2=0x33221100;          /* and R2 w/ first data to be
                               written */
/* ===== */

/* for testing */    do (write_loop.end - 1) until forever;

/* ===Instructions required for each 32-bit word written===*/
/* (18 instructions per sample = 4 cycles overhead + 14 cycles
work) */
/* R1 holds external byte address to be written */
/* R2 holds data to be written */

write_loop:

```

## Parallel Port Programming Examples

```
dm(EIPP) = r1;
dm(PPCTL)= ustat3;    /* enable PP */
dm(TXPP) = r2;        /* <-- write to PP FIFO */

/* -----14 core cycles (minimum) available while each word is
being transmitted. Writing to PPCTL has a 2 cycle effect-latency,
so the result of writing this register in the 14th cycle doesn't
take effect until the 16th cycle - which is one cycle after the
cycle completes----- */


/* (NOTE: Modifying PP parameters before 14 cycles have passed
will cause the access to fail - Using more than 14 cycles is
fine. */

nop;nop;
nop;nop;
nop;nop;
nop;nop;
nop;nop;
nop;

/* update addr and data for next loop iteration:
r0 = 4;
r1 = R1 + r0;    /* next ext. destination address += 4
r2 = r2 + 1;    /* next data to write */
/*-----*/
dm(PPCTL)=ustat4;    /* <-- 14 cycles later, it's safe to
                        disable/alter PP because each access takes
                        15 CCLK cycles, and writing PPCTL has a
                        2-cycle effect-latency. */
/* NOTE: PPEN must be cleared before modifying EIPP */
=====
```

# 9 SERIAL PORTS

The ADSP-2126x processors have up to six independent, synchronous serial ports (SPORTs) that provide an I/O interface to a wide variety of peripheral devices. Each serial port has its own set of control registers and data buffers. With a range of clock and frame synchronization options, the SPORTs allow a variety of serial communication protocols and provide a glueless hardware interface to many industry-standard data converters and codecs.

 The number of serial ports varies depending on the specific processor model you are using. This chapter was written using six serial ports for examples. Programs need to be written accordingly.

Serial ports can operate at one-quarter the full clock rate of the processor, at a maximum clock rate of  $n/4M$  bit/s, where  $n$  equals the processor core-clock frequency (CCLK). If channels A and B are active, each SPORT has 100M bit/s maximum throughput. Bidirectional (transmit or receive) functions provide greater flexibility for serial communications. Serial port data can be automatically transferred to and from on-chip memory using DMA block transfers. In addition to standard synchronous serial mode, each serial port offers a Time Division Multiplexed (TDM) multichannel mode, Left-justified Sample Pair mode, and I<sup>2</sup>S mode.

Serial ports offer the following features and capabilities:

- Two bidirectional channels (A and B) per serial port, configurable as either transmitters or receivers. Each serial port can also be configured as two receivers or two transmitters, permitting two unidirectional streams into or out of the same serial port. This



bidirectional functionality provides greater flexibility for serial communications. Further, two SPORTs can be combined to enable full-duplex, dual-stream communications.

- All serial data signals have programmable receive and transmit functions and thus have one transmit and one receive data buffer register (double-buffer) and a bidirectional shift register associated with each serial data signal. Double-buffering provides additional time to service the SPORT.
- $\mu$ -law and A-law compression/decompression hardware companding on transmitted and received words.
- An internally-generated serial clock and frame sync provide signals in a wide range of frequencies. Alternately, the SPORT can accept clock and frame sync input from an external source, as described in [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#).
- Interrupt-driven, single word transfers to and from on-chip memory controlled by the processor core, described in [“Single Word Transfers” on page 9-73](#).
- DMA transfers to and from on-chip memory. Each SPORT can automatically receive or transmit an entire block of data.
- Chained DMA operations for multiple data blocks, see [“Chaining DMA Processes” on page 7-10](#).
- Four operation modes: DSP Standard Serial, Left-justified Sample Pair, I<sup>2</sup>S, and multichannel. In standard DSP serial, Left-justified Sample Pair, and I<sup>2</sup>S modes, when both A and B channels are used, they transmit or receive data simultaneously, sending or receiving bit 0 on the same edge of the serial clock, bit 1 on the next edge of the serial clock, and so on. In multichannel mode, SPORT1, 3 or 5 can receive A and B channel data, and SPORT0, 2 or 4 transmits A and B channel data selectively from up to 128 channels of a TDM serial bitstream. This mode is useful for H.100/H.110 and other



telephony interfaces. In multichannel mode, SPORT0 and SPORT1 work as a pair, SPORT2 and SPORT3 work as a pair, and SPORT4 and SPORT5 work as a pair. See [“SPORT Operation Modes” on page 9-9](#).

When programming the serial port channel (A or B) as a transmitter, only the corresponding transmit buffers TXSPxA and TXSPxB become active, while the receive buffers (RXSPxA and RXSPxB) remain inactive. Similarly, when SPORT channels A and B are programmed to receive, only the corresponding RXSPxA and RXSPxB buffers are activated.

-  SPORTs are forced into pairs when in multichannel mode. For more information, see [“Multichannel Operation” on page 9-24](#).
  - The serial ports are configurable for transferring data words between 3 and 32 bits in length, either most significant bit (MSB) first or least significant bit (LSB) first. Words must be between 8 and 32 bits in length for I<sup>2</sup>S and Left-justified Sample Pair mode. Refer to [“Data Word Formats” on page 9-39](#) and the individual SPORTs operation mode sections for additional information.
  - 128-channel TDM is supported in multichannel mode operation, described in [“Multichannel Operation” on page 9-24](#).
-  Receive comparison and 2-dimensional DMA are not supported in the ADSP-2126x.

The SPTRAN bit in the SPCTLx register affects the operation of the transmit or the receive data paths. The data path includes the data buffers and the shift registers. When SPTRAN = 0, the primary and secondary RXSPxy data buffers and receive shift registers are activated, and the transmit path is disabled. When SPTRAN = 1, the primary and secondary TXSPxy data buffers and transmit shift registers are activated, and the receive path is disabled.

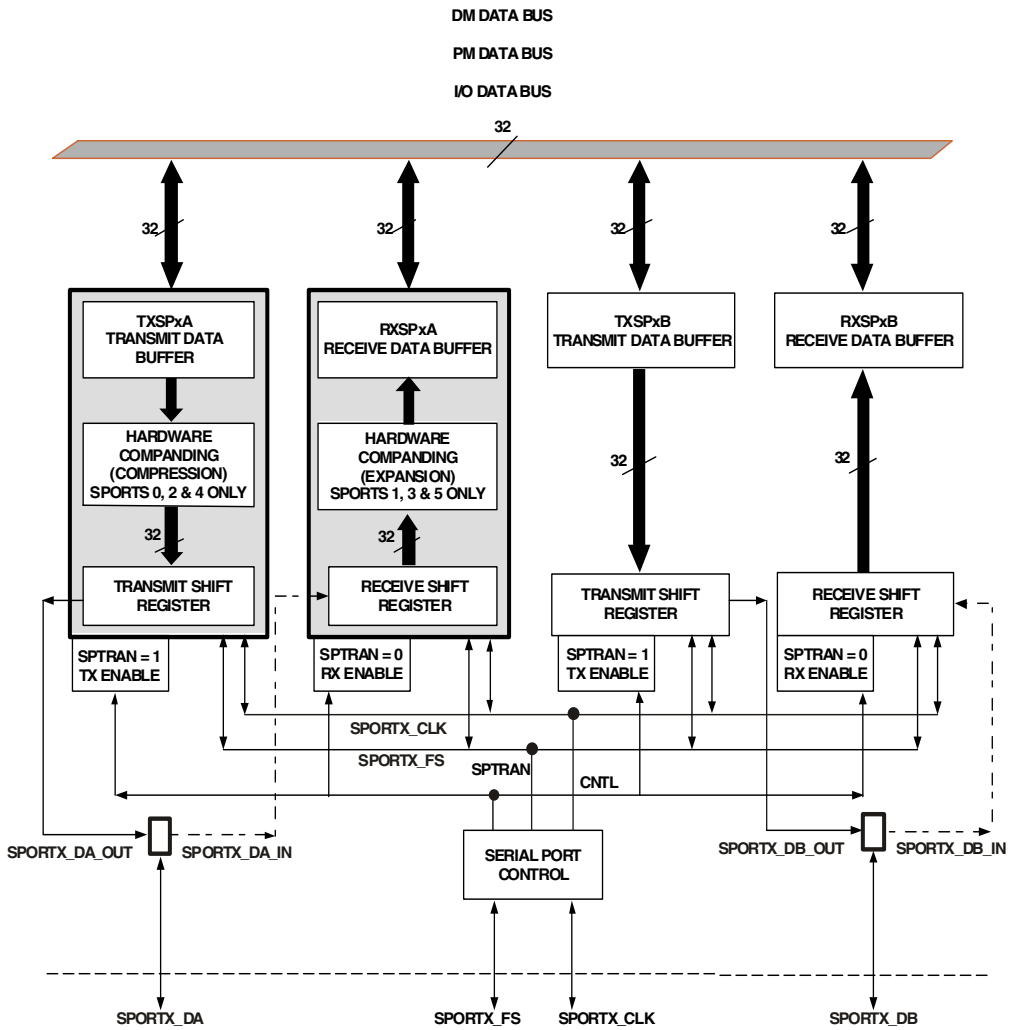


Figure 9-1. Serial Port Block Diagram

# Serial Port Signals

Figure 9-2 shows all of the signals used in the serial ports.

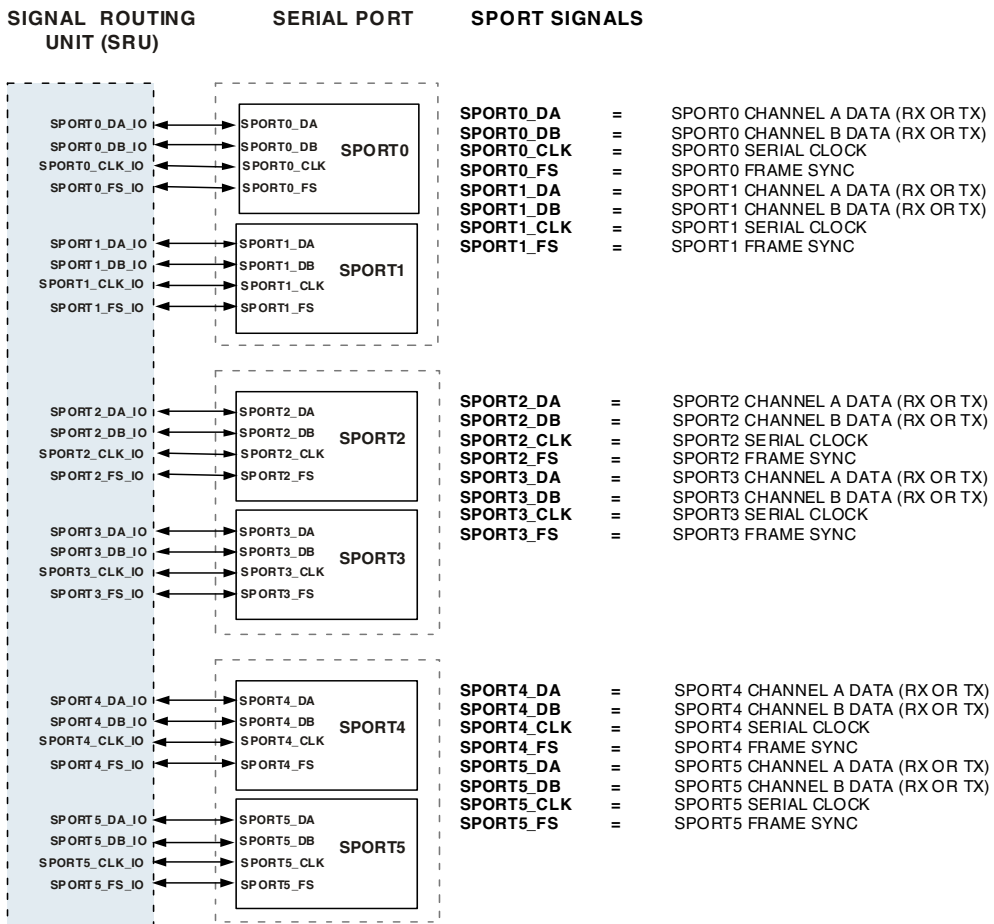


Figure 9-2. DSP Standard Serial Mode – Serial Port Signals




Pairings of SPORTs (0 and 1, 2 and 3, and 4 and 5) are only used in multichannel mode and loopback mode for testing.

## Serial Port Signals

Any 20 of these 24 signals can be mapped to Digital Audio Interface (DAI\_Px) pins through the signal routing unit (SRU). For more information, see “Digital Audio Interface” in Chapter 12, Digital Audio Interface., Table A-34 on page A-117, and Table A-35 on page A-121.

A serial port receives serial data on one of its bidirectional serial data signals configured as inputs, or transmits serial data on the bidirectional serial data signals configured as outputs. It can receive or transmit on both channels simultaneously and unidirectionally, where the pair of data signals can both be configured as either transmitters or receivers.

 The SPORTx\_DA and SPORTx\_DB channel data signals on each SPORT cannot transmit and receive data simultaneously for full-duplex operation. Two SPORTs must be combined to achieve full-duplex operation. The SPTRAN bit in the SPCTLx register controls the direction for both the A and B channel signals. Therefore, the direction of channel A and channel B on a particular SPORT must be the same.


Serial communications are synchronized to a clock signal. Every data bit must be accompanied by a clock pulse. Each serial port can generate or receive its own clock signal (SPORTx\_CLK). Internally-generated serial clock frequencies are configured in the DIVx registers. The A and B channel data signals shift data based on the rate of SPORTx\_CLK. See Figure 9-8 on page 9-63 for more details.

In addition to the serial clock signal, data may be signaled by a frame synchronization signal. The framing signal can occur at the beginning of an individual word or at the beginning of a block of words. The configuration of frame sync signals depends upon the type of serial device connected to the processor. Each serial port can generate or receive its own frame sync signal (SPORTx\_FS) for transmitting or receiving data. Internally-generated frame sync frequencies are configured in the DIVx registers. Both the A and B channel data signals shift data based on their corresponding SPORTx\_FS signal. See Figure 9-8 on page 9-63 for more details.

Figure 9-1 shows a block diagram of a serial port. Setting the `SPTRAN` bit enables the data buffer path, which, once activated, responds by shifting data in response to a frame sync at the rate of `SPORTx_CLK`. An application program must use the correct serial port data buffers, according to the value of `SPTRAN` bit. The `SPTRAN` bit enables either the transmit data buffers for the transmission of A and B channel data, or it enables the receive data buffers for the reception of A and B channel data. Inactive data buffers are not used.

If the serial port is configured as a serial transmitter, the data transmitted is written to the `TXSPxA/TXSPxB` buffer. The data is (optionally) compounded in hardware on the primary A channel (`SPORT 0, 2, and 4` only), then automatically transferred to the transmit shift register, because companding is not supported on the secondary B channels. The data in the shift register is then shifted out via the `SPORT`'s `SPORTx_DA` or `SPORTx_DB` signal, synchronous to the `SPORTx_CLK` clock. If framing signals are used, the `SPORTx_FS` signal indicates the start of the serial word transmission. The `SPORTx_DA` or `SPORTx_DB` signal is always driven if the serial port is enabled (`SPEN_A` or `SPEN_B = 1` in the `SPCTLx` control register), unless it is in multichannel mode and an inactive time slot occurs.

When the `SPORT` is configured as a transmitter (`SPTRAN = 1`), the `TXSPxA` and `TXSPxB` buffers, and the channel transmit shift registers respond to `SPORTx_CLK` and `SPORTx_FS` to transmit data. The receive `RXSPxA` and `RXSPxB` buffers, and the receive shift registers are inactive and do not respond to `SPORTx_CLK` and `SPORTx_FS` signals. Since these registers are inactive, reading from an empty buffer causes the core to hang indefinitely.

-  If the `SPORTs` are configured as transmitters (`SPTRAN` bit = 1 in `SPCTL`), programs should not read from the inactive `RXSPxA` and `RXSPxB` buffers. This causes the core to hang indefinitely since the receive buffer status is always empty.

If the serial data signal is configured as a serial receiver (`SPTRAN = 0`), the receive portion of the `SPORT` shifts in data from the `SPORTx_DA` or

SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_DB signal, synchronous to the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK receive clock. If framing signals are used, the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_FS signal indicates the beginning of the serial word being received. When an entire word is shifted in on the primary A channel, the data is (optionally) expanded (SPORT1, 3, and 5 only), then automatically transferred to the RXSP<sub>x</sub>A buffer. When an entire word is shifted in on the secondary channel, it is automatically transferred to the RXSP<sub>x</sub>B buffer.

When the SPORT is configured as a receiver (SPTRAN = 0), the RXSP<sub>x</sub>A and RXSP<sub>x</sub>B buffers are activated along with the corresponding A and B channel receive shift registers, responding to SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK and SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_FS for reception of data. The transmit TXSP<sub>x</sub>A and TXSP<sub>x</sub>B buffer registers and transmit A and B shift registers are inactive and do not respond to the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK and SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_FS. Since the TXSP<sub>x</sub>A and TXSP<sub>x</sub>B buffers are inactive, writing to a transmit data buffer causes the core to hang indefinitely.



If the SPORTs are configured as receivers (SPTRAN bit = 0 in SPCTL<sub>x</sub>), programs should not write to the inactive TXSP<sub>x</sub>A and TXSP<sub>x</sub>B buffers. If the core keeps writing to the inactive buffer, the transmit buffer status becomes full. This causes the core to hang indefinitely since data is never transmitted out of the deactivated transmit data buffers.


The processor SPORTs are not UARTs and cannot communicate with an RS-232 device or any other asynchronous communications protocol. One way to implement RS-232 compatible communication with the processor is to use two of the FLG pins as asynchronous data receive and transmit signals. Examples of this can be found in the following documents.

- “Software UART”, in *Digital Signal Processing Applications Using The ADSP-2100 Family*, Volume 2.
- Engineer-to-Engineer Note (EE-191), *Implementing a Glueless UART Using the SHARC DSP SPORTs*.

## SPORT Operation Modes

Serial ports operate in four modes:


- Standard DSP Serial mode, described in “[Standard DSP Serial Mode](#)” on page 9-11
- Left-justified Sample Pair mode, described in “[Left-Justified Sample Pair Mode](#)” on page 9-14
- I<sup>2</sup>S mode, described in “[I<sup>2</sup>S Mode](#)” on page 9-18
- Multichannel mode, described in “[Multichannel Operation](#)” on page 9-24

 Bit names and their functionality change based on the SPORT operating mode. See the mode specific section for the bit names and their functions.

The SPORT operating mode can be selected via the `SPCTLx` register. See [Table 9-1](#) for a summary of the control bits as they relate to the four operating modes.

The operating mode bit (`OPMODE`) of `SPCTLx` register selects between I<sup>2</sup>S mode, Left-justified Sample Pair mode, and non-I<sup>2</sup>S mode (DSP Serial Port/Multichannel mode). In non-I<sup>2</sup>S Multichannel mode, the `MCEA` bit in the `SPMCTLxy` register enables the A channels and the `MCEB` bit in the `SPMCTLxy` register enables the B channels. In addition to these bits, the Data Direction bit (`SPTRAN`) selects whether the port is a transmitter or receiver in non-multichannel mode.

If the `SPTRAN` bit is set (= 1), the SPORT becomes a transmitter and all the other control bits are defined accordingly. Similarly, when `SPTRAN` = 0, the SPORT becomes a receiver.

 Companding is **not** supported in I<sup>2</sup>S and Left-justified Sample Pair modes.

The SPCTLx register is unique in that the name and functionality of its bits changes depending on the operation mode selected. In each section that follows, the bit names associated with the operating modes are described. Table 9-1 provides values for each of the bits in the SPORT Serial Control (SPCTLx) registers that must be set in order to configure each specific SPORT operation mode. An X in a field indicates that the bit is not supported for the specified operating mode.

Table 9-1. SPORT Operation Modes

OPERATING MODES	Bits					
	OPMODE	LAFS	FRFS	MCEA	MCEB	SLENx
Standard DSP Serial Mode	0	0, 1	X	0	0	3-32 <sup>1</sup>
I <sup>2</sup> S (Tx/Rx on Left Channel First)	1	0	1	0	0	8-32
I <sup>2</sup> S (Tx/Rx on Right Channel First)	1	0	0	0	0	8-32
Left-justified Sample Pair Mode (Tx/Rx on FS Rising Edge)	1	1	0	0	0	8-32
Left-justified Sample Pair (Tx/Rx on FS Falling Edge)	1	1	1	0	0	8-32
Multichannel A Channels	0	0	X	1	0	3-32 <sup>1</sup>
Multichannel B Channels	0	0	X	0	1	3-32 <sup>1</sup>
Multichannel A and B Channels	0	0	X	1	1	3-32 <sup>1</sup>

- 1 Although serial ports process word lengths of 3 to 32 bits, transmitting or receiving words smaller than 7 bits at core clock frequency/4 of the processor may cause incorrect operation when DMA chaining is enabled. Chaining disables the processor's internal I/O bus for several cycles while the new Transfer Control Block (TCB) parameters are being loaded. Receive data may be lost (for example, overwritten) during this period.



## Standard DSP Serial Mode

The Standard DSP Serial mode lets programs configure serial ports for use by a variety of serial devices such as serial data converters and audio codecs. In order to connect to these devices, a variety of clocking, framing, and data formatting options are available.

### Standard DSP Serial Mode Control Bits

Several bits in the `SPCTLx` Control register enable and configure standard DSP serial mode operation:

- Operation mode, Master mode enable (`OPMODE`)
- Word length (`SLEN`)
- SPORT enable (`SPEN_A` and `SPEN_B`)

For more information, see [“Registers Reference” in Appendix A, Registers Reference](#).

### Clocking Options

In standard DSP serial mode, the serial ports can either accept an external serial clock or generate it internally. The `ICLK` bit in the `SPCTL` register determines the selection of these options (see [“Clock Signal Options” on page 9-33](#) for more details). For internally-generated serial clocks, the `CLKDIV` bits in the `DIVx` register configure the serial clock rate (see [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#) for more details).

Finally, programs can select whether the serial clock edge is used for sampling or driving serial data and/or frame syncs. This selection is performed using the `CKRE` bit in the `SPCTL` register (see [Table A-23 on page A-76](#) for more details).

## SPORT Operation Modes

### Frame Sync Options

A variety of framing options are available for the serial ports. For detailed descriptions of framing options, see [“Frame Sync Options” on page 9-34](#). In this mode, these options are independent of clocking, data formatting, or other configurations. The frame sync signal ( $SPORTx\_FS$ ) is used as a framing signal for serial word transfers.

Framing is optional for serial communications. The  $FSR$  bit in the  $SPCTL$  register controls whether the frame sync signal is required for every serial word transfer or if it is used simply to start a block of serial word transfers. See [“Framed Versus Unframed Frame Syncs” on page 9-34](#) for more details on this option. Similar to the serial clock, the frame sync can be an external signal or generated internally. The  $IFS$  bit in the  $SPCTL$  register allows the selection between these options. See the Internal Frame Sync Select bit description in [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#) for more details. For internally-generated frame syncs, the  $FSDIV$  bits in the  $DIVx$  register configure the frame sync rate. For internally-generated frame syncs, it is also possible to configure whether the frame sync signal is activated based on the  $FSDIV$  setting and the transmit or receive buffer status, or by the  $FSDIV$  setting only.

All settings are configured through the  $DIFS$  bit of the  $SPCTL$  register. See [“Data-Independent Frame Sync” on page 9-38](#) for more details. The frame sync can be configured to be active high or active low through the  $LFS$  bit in the  $SPCTL$  register. See [“Active Low Versus Active High Frame Syncs” on page 9-36](#) for more details. The timing between the frame sync signal and the first bit of data either transmitted or received is also selectable through the  $LAFS$  bit in the  $SPCTL$  register. See [“Early Versus Late Frame Syncs” on page 9-37](#) for more details.

### Data Formatting

Several data formatting options are available for the serial ports in the DSP Standard Serial mode. Each serial port has an A channel and B channel available. Both can be configured for transmitting or receiving. The

SPTRAN bit controls the configuration of transmit versus receive operations. Serial ports can transmit or receive a selectable word length, which is programmed by the SLEN bits in the SPCTL register. See [“Setting Word Length \(SLEN\)” on page 9-15](#) for more details. Serial ports also include companding hardware built in to the A channels that allow sign extension or zero-filling of upper bits of the serial data word. These configurations are selected by the DTYPE bits in the SPCTL register. See [“Data Type” on page 9-41](#) and [“Companding” on page 9-42](#) for more information. The endian format (LSB versus MSB first) is selectable by the LSBF bit of the SPCTL register. See [“Endian Format” on page 9-40](#) for more details. Data packing of two serial words into a 32-bit word is also selectable. The PACK bit in the SPCTL register controls this option. See [“Data Packing and Unpacking” on page 9-40](#) for more details.

## Data Transfers

Serial port data can be transferred for use by the processor in two different methods:

- DMA transfers
- Core-driven single word transfers

DMA transfers can be set up to transfer a configurable number of serial words between the serial port buffers (TXSPxA, TXSPxB, RXSPxA, and RXSPxB) and internal memory automatically. For more information on Sport DMA operations, see [“DMA Block Transfers” on page 9-66](#). Core driven transfers use SPORT interrupts to signal the processor core to perform single word transfers to/from the serial port buffers (TXSPxA, TXSPxB, RXSPxA, and RXSPxB). See [“SPORT Interrupts” on page 9-64](#) for more details.

## Status Information

Serial ports provide status information about data buffers via the DXS\_A and DXS\_B status bits and error status via ROVF or TUVF bits in the SPCTL

## SPORT Operation Modes

register. See “Serial Port Control Registers (SPCTLx)” on page 9-50 for more details.

Depending on the `SPTTRAN` setting, these bits reflect the status of either the `TXSPxy` or `RXSPxy` data buffers.


### Left-Justified Sample Pair Mode

Left-justified Sample Pair mode is a mode where in each frame sync cycle two samples of data are transmitted/received—one sample on the high segment of the frame sync, the other on the low segment of the frame sync. Prior to development of the I<sup>2</sup>S standard, many manufacturers used a variety of non-standard stereo modes. Some companies continue to use this mode, which is supported by many of today’s audio front-end devices.

The programmer has control over various attributes of this mode. One attribute is the number of bits (8- to 32-bit word lengths). However each sample of the pair that occurs on each frame sync must be the same length. Set the Late Frame Sync bit (`LAFS` bit) = 1 for Left-justified Sample Pair mode. See [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#). Then, choose the frame sync edge associated with the first word in the frame sync cycle, using the `FRFS` bit (1 = Frame on Falling Frame Sync, 0 = Frame on Rising Frame Sync).

Refer to [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) for additional information about specifying Left-justified Sample Pair mode.

In Left-justified mode, if both channels on a SPORT are set up to transmit, then the SPORT transmits on channels (`TXSPxA` and `TXSPxB`) simultaneously; each transmits a sample pair. If both channels on a SPORT are set up to receive, the SPORT receives channels (`RXSPxA` and `RXSPxB`) simultaneously. Data is transmitted in MSB-first format.

 Multichannel operation and companding are not supported in Left-justified Sample Pair mode.

Each SPORT transmit or receive channel has a buffer enable, DMA enable, and chaining enable bits in its SPCTLx Control register. The SPORTx\_FS signal is used as the transmit and/or receive word select signal. DMA-driven or interrupt-driven data transfers can also be selected using bits in the SPCTLx register.

## Setting the Internal Serial Clock and Frame Sync Rates

The serial clock rate (CLKDIV value) for internal clocks can be set using a bit field in the CLKDIV register. For details, see [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#).

## Left-Justified Sample Pair Mode Control Bits

Several bits in the SPCTLx register enable and configure Left-justified Sample Pair mode operation:

- Operation mode (OPMODE)
- Channel enable (SPEN\_A and SPEN\_B)
- Word length (SLEN)
- Frame on Rising Frame Sync (FRFS)
- Master mode enable (MSTR)
- Late Frame Sync (LAFS)

For more information, see [“Serial Port Registers” on page A-69](#).

## Setting Word Length (SLEN)

SPORTs handle data words containing 8 to 32 bits in Left-justified mode. Programs need to set the bit length for transmitting and receiving data words. For details, see [“Word Length” on page 9-39](#)

The transmitter sends the MSB of the next word in the same clock cycle as the word select (SPORTx\_FS) signal changes.

## SPORT Operation Modes

To transmit or receive words continuously in Left-justified Sample Pair mode, load the `FSDIV` register with the same value as `SLEN`. For example, for 8-bit data words (`SLEN = 7`), set `FSDIV = 7`.

### Enabling SPORT Master Mode (MSTR)

The SPORT's transmit and receive channels can be configured for Master or Slave mode. In Master mode, (`MSTR = 1`) the processor generates the word select and serial clock signals for the transmitter or receiver. In Slave mode, (`MSTR = 0`) an external source generates the word select and serial clock signals for the transmitter or receiver. [For more information, see “Setting the Internal Serial Clock and Frame Sync Rates” on page 9-15.](#)

### Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order (FRFS)

Using the `FRFS` bit, it is possible to select which frame sync edge (rising or falling) that the SPORT's transmit or receive the first sample. See [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) for more details.

### Selecting Frame Sync Options (DIFS)

When using both SPORT channels (`SPORTx_DA` and `SPORTx_DB`) as transmitters and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 1`, and `DIFS = 0`, the processor generates a frame sync signal only when both transmit buffers contain data because both transmitters share the same `CLKDIV` and `SPORTx_FS`. For continuous transmission, both transmit buffers must contain new data.

When using both SPORT channels as transmitters and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 1` and `DIFS = 1`, the processor generates a frame sync signal at the frequency set by `FSDIVx` whether or not the transmit buffers contain new data. The DMA controller or the application is responsible for filling the transmit buffers with data.

## Enabling SPORT DMA (SDEN)

DMA can be enabled or disabled independently on any of the SPORT's transmit and receive channels. For more information, see [“Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory” on page 9-65](#). Set `SDEN_A` or `SDEN_B` (=1) to enable DMA and set the channel in DMA-driven data transfer mode. Clear `SDEN_A` or `SDEN_B` (=0) to disable DMA and set the channel in an interrupt-driven data transfer mode.

### Interrupt-Driven Data Transfer Mode

Both the A and B channels share a common interrupt vector, regardless of whether they are configured as transmitters or receivers.

The SPORT generates an interrupt in every core clock cycle when the transmit buffer has a vacancy or the receive buffer has data. To determine the source of an interrupt, applications must check the transmit or receive data buffer status bits. For details, see [“Single Word Transfers” on page 9-73](#).

### DMA-Driven Data Transfer Mode

Each transmitter and receiver has its own DMA registers. For details, see [“Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order \(FRFS\)” on page 9-16](#) and [“Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory” on page 9-65](#). The same DMA channel drives both samples in the pair for the transmitter or receiver. The software application must stop multiplexing the left and right channel data received by the receive buffer, because the left and right data is interleaved in the DMA buffers.

Channel A and B on each SPORT share a common interrupt vector. The DMA controller generates an interrupt at the end of DMA transfer only.

[Figure 9-3](#) shows the relationship between frame sync (word select), serial clock, and Left-justified mode data. Timing for word select is the same as for frame sync.

## SPORT Operation Modes

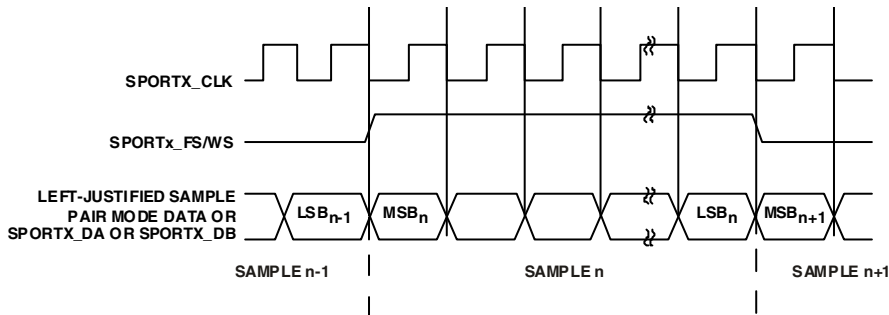


Figure 9-3. Word Select Timing in Left-justified Sample Pair Mode<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> This figure illustrates only one possible combination of settings attainable in the Left-justified Sample Pair mode. In this example case, OPMODE =1, LAFS =1, and FRFS =1. For additional combinations, refer to [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#).




## I<sup>2</sup>S Mode

I<sup>2</sup>S mode is a three-wire serial bus standard protocol for transmission of two-channel (stereo) Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) digital audio data, in which each sample is transmitted in MSB-first format. Many of today's analog and digital audio front-end devices support the I<sup>2</sup>S protocol including:

- Audio D/A and A/D converters
- PC multimedia audio controllers
- Digital audio transmitters and receivers that support serial digital audio transmission standards, such as AES/EBU, SP/DIF, IEC958, CP-340, and CP-1201
- Digital audio signal processors
- Dedicated digital filter chips
- Sample rate converters



The I<sup>2</sup>S bus transmits audio data and control signals over separate lines. The data line carries two multiplexed data channels—the left channel and the right channel. In I<sup>2</sup>S mode, if both channels on a SPORT are set up to transmit, then SPORT transmit channels (TXSPxA and TXSPxB) transmit simultaneously, each transmitting left and right I<sup>2</sup>S channels. If both channels on a SPORT are set up to receive, the SPORT receive channels (RXSPxA and RXSPxB) receive simultaneously, each receiving left and right I<sup>2</sup>S channels. Data is transmitted in MSB-first format.

-  SHARC SPORTs are designed such that in I<sup>2</sup>S master mode, LRCLK is held at the last driven logic level and does not transition, to provide an edge, after the final data word is driven out. Therefore, while transmitting a fixed number of words to an I<sup>2</sup>S receiver that expects an LRCLK edge to receive the incoming data word, the SPORT should send a dummy word after transmitting the fixed number of words. The transmission of this dummy word toggles LRCLK, generating an edge. Transmission of the dummy word is not required when the I<sup>2</sup>S receiver is a SHARC SPORT.
-  If the MCEA or MCEB bits are set (=1) in the SPCTLx<sub>y</sub> register, the SPEN\_A and SPEN\_B bits in the SPCTL register must be cleared (=0).
-  Multichannel operation and companding are not supported in I<sup>2</sup>S mode. See [“Multichannel Operation” on page 9-24](#).

Each SPORT transmit or receive channel has a channel enable, a DMA enable, and chaining enable bits in its SPCTLx Control register. The SPORTx\_FS signal is used as the transmit and/or receive word select signal. DMA-driven or interrupt-driven data transfers can also be selected using bits in the SPCTLx register.

## SPORT Operation Modes

### I<sup>2</sup>S Mode Control Bits

Several bits in the SPCTLx Control register enable and configure I<sup>2</sup>S mode operation:

- Operation mode, Master mode enable (OPMODE)
- Word length (SLEN)
- SPORT enable (SPEN\_A and SPEN\_B)


For more information, see “Serial Port Registers” on page A-69.

### Setting the Internal Serial Clock and Frame Sync Rates

The serial clock rate (CLKDIV value) for internal clocks can be set using a bit field in the CLKDIV register. For details, see [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#).

### I<sup>2</sup>S Control Bits

[Table 9-8 on page 9-63](#) shows that I<sup>2</sup>S mode is simply a subset of the Left-justified Sample Pair mode which can be invoked by setting OPMODE = 1, LAFS = 0, and FRFS = 0.

 If FRFS = 1, the Tx/Rx is on the right channel first. For normal I<sup>2</sup>S operation (FRFS = 0), the Tx/Rx starts on the left channel first.

Several bits in the SPCTLx register Control register enable and configure I<sup>2</sup>S operation:

- Channel enable (SPEN\_A or SPEN\_B)
- Word length (SLEN)
- I<sup>2</sup>S channel transfer order (FRFS)
- Master mode enable (MSTR)

- DMA enable (SDEN\_A and SDEN\_B)
- DMA chaining enable (SCHEN\_A and SCHEN\_B)

## Setting Word Length (SLEN)

SPORTs handle data words containing 8 to 32 bits in I<sup>2</sup>S Mode. Programs need to set the bit length for transmitting and receiving data words. For details, see [“Word Length” on page 9-39](#).

The transmitter sends the MSB of the next word one clock cycle after the word select (TFS) signal changes.

In I<sup>2</sup>S mode, load the FSDIV register with the same value as SLEN to transmit or receive words continuously. For example, for 8-bit data words (SLEN = 7), set FSDIV = 7.

## Enabling SPORT Master Mode (MSTR)

The SPORTs transmit and receive channels can be configured for Master or Slave mode. In Master mode, the processor generates the word select and serial clock signals for the transmitter or receiver. In slave mode, an external source generates the word select and serial clock signals for the transmitter or receiver. When MSTR is cleared (=0), the processor uses an external word select and clock source. The SPORT transmitter or receiver is a slave. When MSTR is set (=1), the processor uses the processor’s internal clock for word select and clock source. The SPORT transmitter or receiver is the master. For more information, see [“Setting the Internal Serial Clock and Frame Sync Rates” on page 9-15](#).

## Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order (FRFS)

In Master and Slave modes, it is possible to configure the I<sup>2</sup>S channel to which each SPORT channel transmits or receives first. The left and right I<sup>2</sup>S channels are time-duplexed data channels.

## SPORT Operation Modes

To select the channel order, set the `FRFS` bit (= 1) to transmit or receive on the left channel first, or clear the `FRFS` bit (= 0) to transmit or receive on the right channel first.

### Selecting Frame Sync Options (DIFS)

When using both SPORT channels (`SPORTx_DA` and `SPORTx_DB`) as transmitters and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 1`, and `DIFS = 0`, the processor generates a frame sync signal only when both transmit buffers contain data because both transmitters share the same `SPORTx_CLK` and `SPORTx_FS`. For continuous transmission, both transmit buffers must contain new data.

When using both SPORT channels (`SPORTx_DA` and `SPORTx_DB`) as receivers and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 0`, and `DIFS = 0`, the processor generates a frame sync signal only when both receive buffers are not full because they share the same `SPORTx_CLK` and `SPORTx_FS`.

When using both SPORT channels as transmitters and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 1` and `DIFS = 1`, the processor generates a frame sync signal at the frequency set by `FSDIVx` whether or not the transmit buffers contain new data. The DMA controller or the application is responsible for filling the transmit buffers with data.

When using both SPORT channels as receivers and `MSTR = 1`, `SPTRAN = 0` and `DIFS = 1`, the processor generates a frame sync signal at the frequency set by `FSDIV`, irrespective of the receive buffer status. Bits 31–16 of the `DIV` register comprise the `FSDIV` bit field. [For more information, see “SPORT Divisor Registers \(DIVx\)” on page A-86.](#)

### Enabling SPORT DMA (SDEN)

DMA can be enabled or disabled independently on any of the SPORT’s transmit and receive channels. [For more information, see “Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory” on page 9-65.](#) Set `SDEN_A` or `SDEN_B` (=1) to enable DMA and set the channel in DMA-driven data

transfer mode. Clear `SDEN_A` or `SDEN_B` (=0) to disable DMA and set the channel in an interrupt-driven data transfer mode.

### Interrupt-Driven Data Transfer Mode

Both the A and B channels share a common interrupt vector in the interrupt-driven data transfer mode, regardless of whether they are configured as a transmitter or receiver.

The SPORT generates an interrupt when the transmit buffer has a vacancy or the receive buffer has data. To determine the source of an interrupt, applications must check the transmit or receive data buffer status bits. [For more information, see “Single Word Transfers” on page -73.](#)

### DMA-Driven Data Transfer Mode

Each transmitter and receiver has its own DMA registers. For details, see [“Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order \(FRFS\)” on page 9-16](#) and [“Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory” on page 9-65](#). The same DMA channel drives the left and right I<sup>2</sup>S channels for the transmitter or the receiver. The software application must stop multiplexing the left and right channel data received by the receive buffer, because the left and right data is interleaved in the DMA buffers.

Channel A and B on each SPORT share a common interrupt vector. The DMA controller generates an interrupt at the end of DMA transfer only.

[Figure 9-4](#) shows the relationship between frame sync (word select), serial clock, and I<sup>2</sup>S data. Timing for word select is the same as for frame sync.



The `SPL` bit applies to DSP Standard Serial and I<sup>2</sup>S modes only.

## SPORT Operation Modes

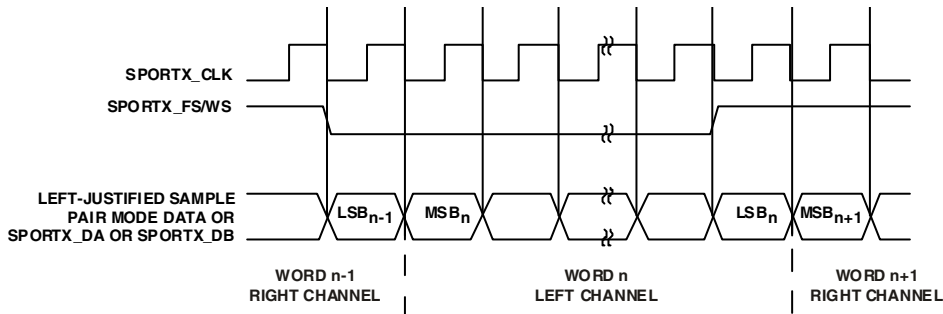


Figure 9-4. Word Select Timing in I<sup>2</sup>S Mode

## Multichannel Operation

The serial ports offer a multichannel mode of operation, which allows the SPORT to communicate in a Time Division Multiplexed (TDM) serial system. In multichannel communications, each data word of the serial bit stream occupies a separate channel. Each word belongs to the next consecutive channel. For example, a 24-word block of data contains one word for each of the 24 channels.

The serial port can automatically select some words for particular channels while ignoring others. Up to 128 channels are available for transmitting or receiving or both. Each SPORT can receive or transmit data selectively from any of the 128 channels.

Data companding and DMA transfers can also be used in Multichannel mode on channel A. Channel B can also be used in Multichannel mode, but companding is not available on this channel.

Although the six SPORTs are programmable for data direction in the standard mode of operation, their programmability is restricted for multichannel operations. The following points summarize these limitations:

1. The primary A channels of SPORT1, 3, and 5 are capable of expansion only, and the primary A channels of SPORT0, 2, and 4 are capable of compression only.
2. In multichannel mode, SPORT0 and SPORT1 work in pairs; SPORT0 is the transmit channel, and SPORT1 is the receive channel. The same is true for SPORT2, SPORT3, SPORT4, and SPORT5.
3. Receive comparison is not supported.



In multichannel mode, `SPORT0_CLK`, `SPORT2_CLK`, and `SPORT4_CLK` are input signals that are internally connected to their corresponding `SPORT1_CLK`, `SPORT3_CLK`, and `SPORT5_CLK` signals.

Figure 9-5 shows an example of timing for a multichannel transfer with SPORT pairing. The transfer has the following characteristics:

- The transfer uses the TDM method where serial data is sent or received on different channels while sharing the same serial bus.
- The `SPORT1_FS` signals the start of a frame for each multichannel SPORT pairing.
- The `SPORT0_FS` is used as transmit data valid for external logic. This signal is active only during transmit channels.
- The transfer is received on channel 0 (word 0), and transmits on channels 1 and 2 (word 1 and 2).

## SPORT Operation Modes

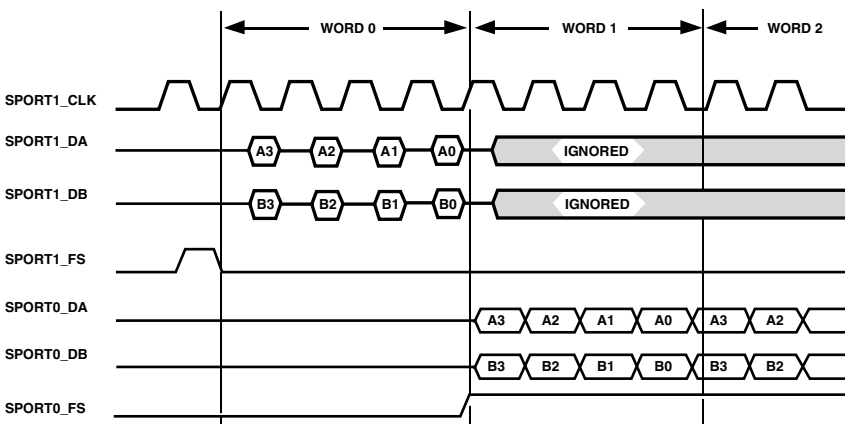


Figure 9-5. Multichannel Operation

### Frame Syncs in Multichannel Mode

All receiving and transmitting devices in a multichannel system must have the same timing reference. The `SPORT1_FS` signal is used for this reference, indicating the start of a block (or frame) of multichannel data words. Pairs of SPORTs share the same frame sync signal for multichannel mode—`SPORT1_FS` for `SPORT0/1`, `SPORT3_FS` for `SPORT2/3`, and `SPORT5_FS` for `SPORT4/5`.

When multichannel mode is enabled on a `SPORT0/1`, `SPORT2/3`, or `SPORT4/5` pair, both the transmitter and receiver use the `SPORT1_FS`, `SPORT3_FS`, or the `SPORT5_FS` signals respectively as a frame sync. This is true whether `SPORT1_FS`, `SPORT3_FS`, or the `SPORT5_FS` is generated internally or externally. This signal synchronizes the channels and restarts each multichannel sequence. The `SPORT1_FS`, `SPORT3_FS`, or `SPORT5_FS` signal initiates the beginning of the channel 0 data word.

**i** SPORTs are paired when multichannel mode is selected; transmit/receive directions are fixed. SPORTS 0, 2, and 4 act as transmitters, and SPORTs 1, 3, and 5 act as receivers.



The SPORT0\_FS, SPORT2\_FS or SPORT4\_FS is used as a transmit data valid signal, which is active during transmission of an enabled word. Because the serial port's SPORT0\_DA/B, SPORT2\_DA/B and SPORT4\_DA/B signals are three-stated when the time slot is not active, the SPORT0\_FS/SPORT2\_FS/SPORT4\_FS signal specifies if SPORT0\_DA/B/SPORT2\_DA/B/SPORT4\_DA/B is being driven by the processor.

The SPORT0\_FS signal is renamed TDV01. The SPORT2\_FS signal is renamed TDV23 and the SPORT4\_FS signal is renamed TDV45 in multichannel mode. These signals become outputs. Do not connect SPORT2\_FS (TDV23) to SPORT0\_FS, and SPORT4\_FS (TDV45) to SPORT1\_FS in multichannel mode. Bus contention between the transmit data valid and multichannel frame sync signals will result.

After the TXSPxA transmit buffer is loaded, transmission begins and the SPORT0\_FS, SPORT2\_FS/SPORT4\_FS signal is generated. When serial port DMA is used, this may occur several cycles after the multichannel transmission is enabled. If a deterministic start time is required, pre-load the transmit buffer.

### Active State Multichannel Receive Frame Sync Select

The LRFS bit in the SPCTL1, SPCTL3, and SPCTL5 registers selects the logic level of the multichannel received frame sync signals as active low (inverted) if set (=1) or active high if cleared (=0). Active high (=0) is the default.


### Multichannel Mode Control Bits

Several bits in the SPCTLx Control register enable and configure multichannel mode operation:

- Operation mode (OPMODE)
- Word length (SLEN)

## SPORT Operation Modes

- SPORT transmit/receive enable (SDEN\_A and SDEN\_B)
- Master mode enable (MSTR)

 If the MCEA or MCEB bits are set (=1) in the SPMCTL<sub>xy</sub> register, the SPEN\_A and SPEN\_B bits in the SPCTL register must be cleared (=0).

The SPCTL<sub>x</sub> Control registers contain several bits that enable and configure multichannel operations. Refer to [Table 9-6 on page 9-51](#).

Multichannel mode is enabled by setting the MCEA or MCEB bit in the SPMCTL01, SPMCTL23 or SPMCTL45 Control register.

- When the MCEA or MCEB bits are set (=1), multichannel operation is enabled.
- When the MCEA or MCEB bits are cleared (=0), all multichannel operations are disabled.

Multichannel operation is activated three serial clock cycles after the MCEA or MCEB bits are set. Internally-generated frame sync signals activate four serial clock cycles after the MCEA or MCEB bits are set.

Setting the MCEA or MCEB bits enables multichannel operation for both receive and transmit sides of the SPORT0/1, SPORT2/3 or SPORT4/5 pair. A transmitting SPORT0, 2, or 4 must be in multichannel mode if the receiving SPORT1, 3, or 5 is in multichannel mode.

Select the number of channels used in multichannel operation by using the 7-bit NCH field in the Multichannel Control register. Set NCH to the actual number of channels minus one:

$$NCH = \text{Number of channels} - 1$$

The 7-bit CHNL field in the multichannel control registers indicates the channel that is currently selected during multichannel operation. This field is a read-only status indicator. The CHNL(6:0) bits increment modulo NCH(6:0) as each channel is serviced.

The 4-bit `MFD` field (bits 4-1) in the Multichannel Control registers (`SPMCTL01`, `SPMCTL23`, and `SPMCTL45`) specifies a delay between the frame sync pulse and the first data bit in multichannel mode. The value of `MFD` is the number of serial clock cycles of the delay. Multichannel frame delay allows the processor to work with different types of telephony interface devices.

A value of zero for `MFD` causes the frame sync to be concurrent with the first data bit. The maximum value allowed for `MFD` is 15. A new frame sync may occur before data from the last frame has been received, because blocks of data occur back to back.

### Receive Multichannel Frame Sync Source

Bit 14 (`IMFS`) in the `SPCTL1`, `SPCTL3` and `SPCTL5` registers selects whether the serial port uses an internally generated frame sync (if set, =1) or frame sync from an external (if cleared, =0) source.

### Active State Transmit Data Valid

Bit 16 (`LTDV`) in the `SPCTL0`, `SPCTL2` and `SPCTL4` registers selects the logic level of the transmit data valid signals (`TDV01`, `TDV23`, `TDV45`) as active low (inverted) if set (=1) or active high if cleared (=0). These signals are actually `SPORT0_FS`, `SPORT2_FS` and `SPORT4_FS` reconfigured as outputs during multichannel operation. They indicate which timeslots have valid data to transmit. Active high (0) is the default.


### Multichannel Status Bits

Bit 29 (`ROVF`) in the `SPCTL1`, `SPCTL3`, `SPCTL5` registers provides status information. This bit indicates if the channel has received new data if set (=1) or not if cleared (=0) while the `RXSPxA` buffer is full. New data overwrites existing data.

Bits 31-30 (`RXS_A`) in the `SPCTL1`, `SPCTL3`, `SPCTL5` registers indicate the status of the channel's receive buffer contents as follows: 00 = buffer empty, 01 = reserved, 10 = buffer partially full, 11 = buffer full.

## SPORT Operation Modes

The SPCTL0, SPCTL2, SPCTL4 Bit 29 (TUVF\_A). The Transmit Underflow Status (sticky, read-only) bit indicates (if set, =1) if the multichannel SPORTx\_FS signal (from internal or external source) occurred while the TXS buffer was empty. The SPORTs transmit data whenever they detect a SPORTx\_FS signal. If cleared (=0), no SPORTx\_FS signal occurred.

 This bit applies to multichannel mode only when the SPORTs are configured as transmitters.

Bits 31-30 (TXS\_A) in the SPCTL0, SPCTL2, SPCTL4 registers indicate the status of the serial port channel's transmit buffer as follows: 11= buffer full, 00=buffer empty, 10=buffer partially full. These bits apply to multichannel mode only.

### Channel Selection Registers

Specific channels can be individually enabled or disabled to select the words that are received and transmitted during multichannel communications. Data words from the enabled channels are received or transmitted, while disabled channel words are ignored. Up to 128 channels are available for transmitting and receiving.

The multichannel selection registers enable and disable individual channels. The registers for each serial port are shown in [Table 9-2](#).

Table 9-2. Multichannel Selection Registers

Register Names	Function
MR1CS(0-3) MR3CS(0-3) MR5CS(0-3)	<b>Multichannel Receive Select</b> specifies the active receive channels (4x32-bit registers for 128 channels).
MT0CS(0-3) MT2CS(0-3) MT4CS(0-3)	<b>Multichannel Transmit Select</b> specifies the active transmit channels (4x32-bit registers for 128 channels).

Table 9-2. Multichannel Selection Registers (Cont'd)

Register Names	Function
MR1CCS(0-3) MR3CCS(0-3) MR5CCS(0-3)	<b>Multichannel Receive Compand Select</b> specifies which active receive channels (out of 128 channels) are companded.
MT0CCS(0-3) MT2CCS(0-3) MT4CCS(0-3)	<b>Multichannel Transmit Compand Select</b> specifies which active transmit channels (out of 128 channels) are companded.

Each of the four Multichannel Enable and Compand Select registers are 32 bits in length. These registers provide channel selection for 128 (32 bits x 4 channels = 128) channels. Setting a bit enables that channel so that the serial port selects its word from the multiple-word block of data (for either receive or transmit). For example, setting bit 0 in MT0CS0 or MT2CS0 selects word 0, setting bit 12 selects word 12, and so on. Setting bit 0 in MT0CS1 or MT2CS1 selects word 32, setting bit 12 selects word 44, and so on.

Setting a particular bit to 1 in the MT0CS (0-3), MT2CS (0-3) or MT4CS (0-3) register causes SPORT0, 2, or 4 to transmit the word in that channel's position of the data stream. Clearing the bit in the register causes SPORT0's SPORT0\_DA/B, SPORT2's SPORT2\_DA/B or SPORT4's SPORT4\_DA data transmit signal to three-state during the time slot of that channel.

Setting a particular bit to 1 in the MR1CS(0-3), MR3CS(0-3) or MR5CS(0-3) register causes the serial port to receive the word in that channel's position of the data stream. The received word is loaded into the receive buffer. Clearing the bit in the register causes the serial port to ignore the data.

Companding may be selected on a per-channel basis. Setting a bit to 1 in any of the multichannel registers specifies that the data be companded for that channel. A-law or  $\mu$ -law companding can be selected using the DTYPE bit in the SPCTLx control registers. SPORT1, 3, and 5 expand selected

## SPORT Operation Modes

incoming time slot data, while SPORT0, 2, and 4 compress selected outgoing time slot data.


### SPORT Loopback

When the SPORT loopback bit, SPL bit 12 is set in the SPMCTL01, SPMCTL23, or SPMCTL45 control registers, the serial port is configured in an internal loopback connection as follows: SPORT0 and SPORT1 work as a pair for internal loopback, SPORT2 and SPORT3 work as pairs, and SPORT4 and SPORT5 work as pairs. The Loopback mode enables programs to test the serial ports internally and to debug applications.

When loopback is configured the:

- SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_DA, SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_DB, SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK and SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_FS signals of SPORT0 and SPORT1 are internally connected (where x = 0 or 1)
- The SPORT<sub>y</sub>\_DA, SPORT<sub>y</sub>\_DB, SPORT<sub>y</sub>\_CLK, and SPORT<sub>y</sub>\_FS signals of SPORT2 and SPORT3 are internally connected (where y = 2 or 3)
- The SPORT<sub>z</sub>\_DA, SPORT<sub>z</sub>\_DB, SPORT<sub>z</sub>\_CLK and SPORT<sub>z</sub>\_FS signals of SPORT4 and SPORT5 are internally connected (where z = 4 or 5)

In Loopback mode, either of the two paired SPORTS can be transmitters or receivers. One SPORT in the loopback pair must be configured as a transmitter; the other must be configured as a receiver. For example, SPORT0 can be a transmitter and SPORT1 can be a receiver for internal loopback. Or, SPORT0 can be a receiver and SPORT1 can be the transmitter when setting up internal loopback. The processor ignores external activity on the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK, SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_FS A and B channel data signals when the SPORT is configured in Loopback mode. This prevents contention with the internal loopback data transfer.

 Only transmit clock and transmit frame sync options may be used in loopback mode—programs must ensure that the serial port is set up correctly in the SPCTL<sub>x</sub> control registers. Multichannel mode is not allowed. Only Standard DSP Serial, Left-justified Sample Pair,

and I<sup>2</sup>S modes support internal loopback. In loopback, each SPORT can be configured as transmitter or receiver, and each one is capable of generating internal frame sync and clock.

Any of the three paired SPORTs can be set up to transmit or receive, depending on their SPTRAN bit configurations.

## Clock Signal Options

Each serial port has a clock signal (SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK) for transmitting and receiving data on the two associated data signals. The clock signals are configured by the ICLK and CKRE bits of the SPCTL<sub>x</sub> Control registers. A single clock signal clocks both A and B data signals (either configured as inputs or outputs) to receive or transmit data at the same rate.

The serial clock can be independently generated internally or input from an external source. The ICLK bit of the SPCTL<sub>x</sub> Control registers determines the clock source.

When ICLK is set (=1), the clock signal is generated internally by the processor and the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK signals are outputs. The clock frequency is determined by the value of the serial clock divisor (CLKDIV) in the DIV<sub>x</sub> registers.

When ICLK is cleared (=0), the clock signal is accepted as an input on the SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK signals, and the serial clock divisors in the DIV<sub>x</sub> registers are ignored. The externally-generated serial clock does not need to be synchronous with the processor system clock. Refer to [Table 9-8 on page 9-63](#).

# Frame Sync Options

Framing signals indicate the beginning of each serial word transfer. A variety of framing options are available on the SPORTs. The `SPORTx_FS` signals are independent and are separately configured in the Control register.

## Framed Versus Unframed Frame Syncs

The use of frame sync signals is optional in serial port communications. The `FSR` (transmit frame sync required) control bit determines whether frame sync signals are used. Active low or high frame syncs are selected using the `LFS` bit. This bit is located in the `SPCTLx` control registers.

When `FSR` is set (`=1`), a frame sync signal is required for every data word. To allow continuous transmission from the processor, each new data word must be loaded into the transmit buffer before the previous word is shifted out and transmitted.

When `FSR` is cleared (`=0`), the corresponding frame sync signal is not required. A single frame sync is required to initiate communications but it is ignored after the first bit is transferred. Data words are then transferred continuously in what is referred to as an unframed mode.

When DMA is enabled in a mode where frame syncs are not required, DMA requests may be held off by chaining or may not be serviced frequently enough to guarantee continuous unframed data flow.

Figure 9-6 illustrates framed serial transfers.



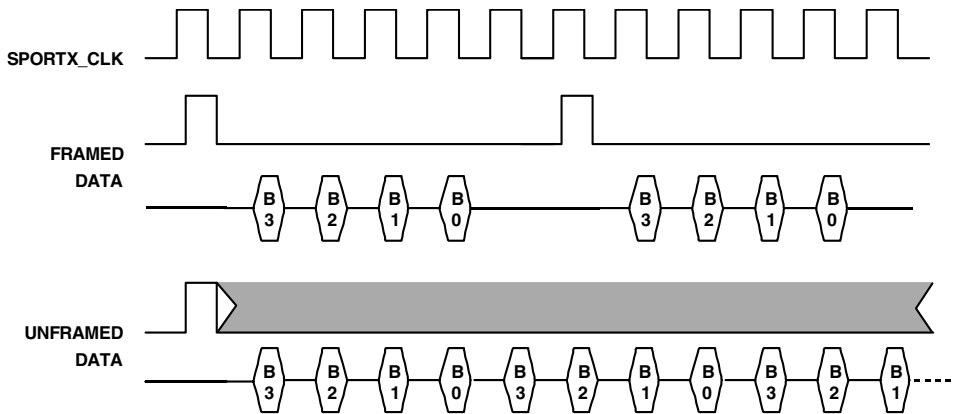


Figure 9-6. Framed Versus Unframed Data

## Internal Versus External Frame Syncs

Both transmit and receive frame syncs can be generated internally or input from an external source. The *IFS* bit of the *SPCTLx* Control register determines the frame sync source.

When *IFS* is set (=1), the corresponding frame sync signal is generated internally by the processor, and the *SPORTx\_FS* signal is an output. The frequency of the frame sync signal is determined by the value of the frame sync divisor (*FSDIV*) in the *DIVx* register. Refer to [Figure 9-8 on page 9-63](#).

When *IFS* is cleared (=0), the corresponding frame sync signal is accepted as an input on the *SPORTx\_FS* signals, and the frame sync divisors in the *DIVx* registers are ignored.

All frame sync options are available whether the signal is generated internally or externally.

### Active Low Versus Active High Frame Syncs

Frame sync signals may be active high or active low (for example, inverted). The `LFS` bit of the `SPCTLx` Control register determines the frame sync's logic level.

- When `LFS` is cleared (`=0`), the corresponding frame sync signal is active high.
- When `LFS` is set (`=1`), the corresponding frame sync signal is active low.

Active high frame syncs are the default. The `LFS` bit is initialized to zero after a processor reset.

Active low or active high frame syncs are selected using the `LTDV` and `LRFS` bits. These bits are located in the `SPCTLx` Control registers.

### Sampling Edge for Data and Frame Syncs

Data and frame syncs can be sampled on the rising or falling edges of the serial port clock signals. The `CKRE` bit of the `SPCTLx` Control registers selects the sampling edge.

For sampling receive data and frame syncs, setting `CKRE` to 1 in the `SPCTLx` register selects the rising edge of `SPORTx_CLK`. When `CKRE` is cleared (`=0`), the processor selects the falling edge of `SPORTx_CLK` for sampling receive data and frame syncs. Note that transmit data and frame sync signals change their state on the clock edge that is not selected.

For example, the transmit and receive functions of any two serial ports connected together should always select the same value for `CKRE` so internally-generated signals are driven on one edge and received signals are sampled on the opposite edge.

## Early Versus Late Frame Syncs

Frame sync signals can be early or late. Frame sync signals can occur during the first bit of each data word or during the serial clock cycle immediately preceding the first bit. The `LAFS` bit of the `SPCTLx` Control register configures this option.

When `LAFS` is cleared (`=0`), early frame syncs are configured. This is the normal mode of operation. In this mode, the first bit of the transmit data word is available (and the first bit of the receive data word is latched) in the serial clock cycle after the frame sync is asserted. The frame sync is not checked again until the entire word has been transmitted (or received). In multichannel operation, this is the case when the frame delay is one.

If data transmission is continuous in early Framing mode (for example, the last bit of each word is immediately followed by the first bit of the next word), the frame sync signal occurs during the last bit of each word. Internally generated frame syncs are asserted for one clock cycle in early Framing mode.

When `LAFS` is set (`=1`), late frame syncs are configured. In this mode, the first bit of the transmit data word is available (and the first bit of the receive data word is latched) in the same serial clock cycle that the frame sync is asserted. In multichannel operation, this is the case when frame delay is zero. Receive data bits are latched by serial clock edges, but the frame sync signal is checked only during the first bit of each word. Internally-generated frame syncs remain asserted for the entire length of the data word in late Framing mode. Externally-generated frame syncs are only checked during the first bit. They do not need to be asserted after that time period.

[Figure 9-7](#) illustrates the two modes of frame signal timing.

## Frame Sync Options

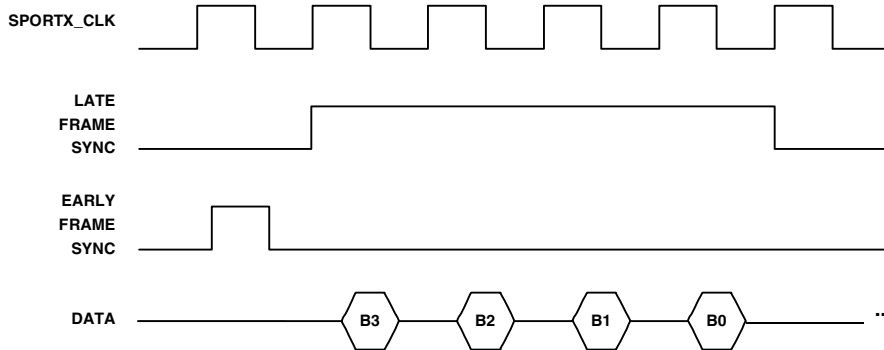


Figure 9-7. Normal Versus Alternate Framing

### Data-Independent Frame Sync

When transmitting data out of the SPORT ( $SPTRAN = 1$ ), the internally-generated frame sync signal normally is output-only when the transmit buffer has data ready to transmit. The Data-Independent Frame Sync (DIFS) mode allows the continuous generation of the  $SPORTx\_FS$  signal, with or without new data in the register. The DIFS bit of the SPCTLX Control register configures this option.

When  $SPTRAN = 1$ , the DIFS bit selects whether the serial port uses a data-independent *transmit* frame sync (sync at selected interval, if set to 1) or a data-dependent transmit frame sync. When  $SPTRAN = 0$ , this bit selects whether the serial port uses a data-independent *receive* frame sync or a data-dependent receive frame sync.

When  $DIFS = 0$  and  $SPTRAN = 1$ , the internally-generated transmit frame sync is only output when a new data word has been loaded into the SPORT channel's transmit buffer. Once data is loaded into the transmit buffer, it is not transmitted until the next frame sync is generated. This mode of operation allows data to be transmitted only at specific times. When  $DIFS = 0$  and  $SPTRAN = 0$ , a receive  $SPORTx\_FS$  signal is generated only when receive data buffer status is not full.

When  $DIFS = 1$  and  $SPTRAN = 1$ , the internally-generated transmit frame sync is output at its programmed interval regardless of whether new data is available in the transmit buffer. The processor generates the transmit  $SPORTx\_FS$  signal at the frequency specified by the value loaded in the  $DIV$  register. If a frame sync occurs when the transmitter FIFO is empty, the MSB or LSB (depending on how the  $LSBF$  bit in  $SPCTL$  is set) of the previous word is transmitted. When  $DIFS = 1$  and  $SPTRAN = 0$ , a receive  $SPORTx\_FS$  signal is generated regardless of the receive data buffer status.

Depending on the SPORT operating mode, the Transmitter Underflow ( $TUVF\_A$  or  $TUVF\_B$ ) bit is set if the transmit buffer does not have new data when a frame sync occurs; or a Receive Overflow bit ( $ROVF\_A$  or  $ROVF\_B$ ) is set if the receive buffers are full and a new data word is received.

If the internally-generated frame sync is used and  $DIFS=0$ , a single write to the transmit data register is required to start the transfer.

## Data Word Formats

The format of the data words transmitted over the serial ports is configured by the  $DTYPE$ ,  $LSBF$ ,  $SLEN$ , and  $PACK$  bits of the  $SPCTLx$  control registers.

### Word Length

Serial ports can process word lengths of 3 to 32 bits for Serial and Multi-channel modes and 8 to 32 bits for  $I^2S$  mode. Word length is configured using the 5-bit  $SLEN$  field in the  $SPCTLx$  Control registers. Refer to [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) for further information.

The value of  $SLEN$  is:

$$SLEN = \text{serial word length} - 1$$

## Data Word Formats

Do not set the `SLEN` value to 0 or 1. Words smaller than 32 bits are right-justified in the receive and transmit buffers, residing in the least significant (LSB) bit positions.

Although serial ports process word lengths of 3 to 32 bits, transmitting or receiving words smaller than 7 bits at one-quarter the full clock rate of the processor may cause incorrect operation when DMA chaining is enabled. Chaining disables the processor's internal I/O bus for several cycles while the new transfer control block (TCB) parameters are being loaded. Receive data may be lost (for example, overwritten) during this period.

Transmitting or receiving words smaller than five bits may cause incorrect operation when all the DMA channels are enabled with no DMA chaining.

## Endian Format

Endian format determines whether serial words transmit MSB-first or LSB-first. Endian format is selected by the `LSBF` bit in the `SPCTLX` Control registers. When `LSBF = 0`, serial words transmit (or receive) MSB-first. When `LSBF = 1`, serial words transmit (or receive) LSB-first.

## Data Packing and Unpacking


Received data words of 16 bits or less may be packed into 32-bit words, and 32-bit words being transmitted may be unpacked into 16-bit words. Word packing and unpacking is selected by the `PACK` bit in the `SPCTLX` control registers.

When `PACK = 1` in the Control register, two successive words received are packed into a single 32-bit word, and each 32-bit word is unpacked and transmitted as two 16-bit words.

The first 16-bit (or smaller) word is right-justified in bits 15–0 of the packed word, and the second 16-bit (or smaller) word is right-justified in bits 31–16. This applies to both receive (packing) and transmit

(unpacking) operations. Companding can be used when word packing or unpacking is being used.

When serial port data packing is enabled, the transmit and receive interrupts are generated for the 32-bit packed words, not for each 16-bit word.

-  When 16-bit received data is packed into 32-bit words and stored in normal word space in processor internal memory, the 16-bit words can be read or written with short word space addresses.

## Data Type

The `DTYPE` field of the `SPCTLx` Control registers specifies one of four data formats (for non-multichannel operation) shown in [Table 9-3](#). This bit field is reserved for  $I^2S$  mode. In DSP Serial mode, if companding is selected for primary A channel, the secondary B channel performs a zero-fill.


-  In Multichannel mode, channel B looks at `XDTYPE[0]` only.  
 If `DTYPE[0] = 1` sign-extend  
 If `DTYPE[0] = 0` zero-fill

Table 9-3. `DTYPE` and Data Formatting (DSP Serial Mode)

<code>DTYPE</code>	Data Formatting
00	Right-justify, zero-fill unused MSBs
01	Right-justify, sign-extend into unused MSBs
10	Compand using $\mu$ -law (primary A channels only)
11	Compand using A-law (primary A channels only)

## Data Word Formats

These formats are applied to serial data words loaded into the receive and transmit buffers. Transmit data words are not zero-filled or sign-extended, because only the significant bits are transmitted.

Table 9-4. DTYPE and Data Formatting (Multichannel)

DTYPE	Data Formatting
x0	Right-justify, zero-fill unused MSBs
x1	Right-justify, sign-extend into unused MSBs
0x	Compand using $\mu$ -law (primary A channels only)
1x	Compand using A-law (primary A channels only)

Linear transfers occur in the primary channel, if the channel is active and companding is not selected for that channel. Companded transfers occur if the channel is active and companding is selected for that channel. The Multichannel Compand Select registers,  $MTxCCSy$  and  $MRxCCSy$ , specify the transmit and receive channels that are companded.

Transmit or receive sign extension is selected by bit 0 of DTYPE in the SPCTLx register and is common to all transmit or receive channels. If bit 0 of DTYPE is set, sign extension occurs on selected channels that do not have companding selected. If this bit is not set, the word contains zeros in the MSB positions. Companding is not supported for B channel. For B channels, transmit or receive sign extension is selected by bit 0 of DTYPE in the SPCTLx register.

## Companding

Companding (compressing/expanding) is the process of logarithmically encoding and decoding data to minimize the number of bits that must be sent. The serial ports support the two most widely used companding algorithms, A-law and  $\mu$ -law, performed according to the CCITT G.711 specification. The type of companding can be selected independently for



each SPORT. Companding is selected by the `DTYPE` field of the `SPCTLx` Control register.

- i** Companding is supported on the A channel only. SPORTs 0, 2, and 4 primary channels are capable of compression, while SPORTs 1, 3, and 5 primary channels are capable of expansion. In Multichannel mode, when companding is enabled, the number of channels must be programmed via the `NCH` bit in the `SPMCTLxy` register before writing to the transmit FIFO. The `MTxCSn` and `MTx-CCSn` registers should also be written before writing to transmit FIFO.

When companding is enabled, the data in the `RXSPxA` buffers is the right-justified, sign-extended expanded value of the eight received LSBs. A write to `TXSPxA` compresses the 32-bit value to eight LSBs (zero-filled to the width of the transmit word) before it is transmitted. If the 32-bit value is greater than the 13-bit A-law or 14-bit  $\mu$ -law maximum, it is automatically compressed to the maximum value.

Since the values in the transmit and receive buffers are actually companded in place, the companding hardware can be used without transmitting (or receiving) any data, for example during testing or debugging. This operation requires one cycle of overhead, as described below. For companding to execute properly, program the SPORT registers prior to loading data values into the SPORT buffers.

To compand data in place without transmitting:

1. Set the `SPTRAN` bit to 1 in the `SPCTLx` register. The `SPEN_A` and `SPEN_B` bits should be =0.
2. Enable companding in the `DTYPE` field of the `SPCTLx` Transmit Control register.
3. Write a 32-bit data word to the transmit buffer. Companding is calculated in this cycle.

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

4. Wait one cycle. A `NOP` instruction can be used to cause this delay; if a `NOP` is not inserted, the processor core is paused for one cycle anyway. This allows the serial port companding hardware to reload the transmit buffer with the companded value.
5. Read the 8-bit companded value from the transmit buffer.

To expand data in place, use the same sequence of operations (above) with the receive buffer instead of the transmit buffer. When expanding data in this way, set the appropriate serial word length (`SLEN`) in the `SPCTLx` Control register.

With companding enabled, interfacing the serial port to a codec requires little additional programming effort. If companding is not selected, two formats are available for received data words of fewer than 32 bits—one that fills unused MSBs with zeros, and another that sign-extends the MSB into the unused bits.

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

The ADSP-2126x has six serial ports. Each SPORT has two data paths corresponding to channel A and channel B. These data buffers are `TXSPxA` and `RXSPxA` (primary) and `TXSPxB` and `RXSPxB` (secondary). Channel A and B in all six SPORTS operate synchronously to their respective `SPORTx_CLK` and `FSx` signals. Companding is supported only on primary A channels.

The registers used to control and configure the serial ports are part of the IOP register set. Each SPORT has its own set of 32-bit control registers and data buffers. The SPORT registers are described in [Table 9-5](#).

The SPORT control registers are programmed by writing to the appropriate address in memory. The symbolic names of the registers and individual control bits can be used in programs. The definitions for these symbols are contained in the file `def2126x.h` located in the `INCLUDE` directory of the

ADSP-21xxx DSP Development Software. All control and status bits in the SPORT registers are active high unless otherwise noted.

Since the SPORT registers are memory-mapped, they cannot be written with data directly from memory. Instead, they must be written from (or read into) processor core registers, usually one of the general-purpose Universal registers (R0-R15) of the register file or one of the general-purpose Universal Status registers (USTAT1-USTAT4). The SPORT control registers can also be written or read by external devices (for example, another processor or a host processor) to set up a serial port DMA operation.

Table 9-5 provides a complete list of the SPORT registers in IOP address order, showing the memory-mapped IOP address and a brief description of each register.

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0x400	SPCTL2	0x0000 0000	SPORT2 Serial Control Register
0x401	SPCTL3	0x0000 0000	SPORT3 Serial Control Register
0x402	DIV2	None	SPORT2 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT2_-CLK and SPORT2_FS
0x403	DIV3	None	SPORT3 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT3_-CLK and SPORT3_FS
0x404	SPMCTL23	None	SPORT 2/3 Multichannel Control Register
0x405	MT2CS0	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Select 0 (Channel 31-0)
0x406	MT2CS1	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Select 1 (Channel 63-32)
0x407	MT2CS2	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Select 2 (Channel 95-64)
0x408	MT2CS3	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Select 3 (Channel 127-96)

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers (Cont'd)

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0x409	MR3CS0	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x40A	MR3CS1	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x40B	MR3CS2	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x40C	MR3CS3	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x40D	MT2CCS0	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x40E	MT2CCS1	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x40F	MT2CCS2	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x410	MT2CCS3	None	SPORT2 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x411	MR3CCS0	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x412	MR3CCS1	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x413	MR3CCS2	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x414	MR3CCS3	None	SPORT3 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x460	TXSP2A	None	SPORT2 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0x461	RXSP2A	None	SPORT2 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data
0x462	TXSP2B	None	SPORT2 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0x463	RXSP2B	None	SPORT2 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data
0x464	TXSP3A	None	SPORT3 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0x465	RXSP3A	0x0000 0000	SPORT3 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers (Cont'd)

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0x466	TXSP3B	0x0000 0000	SPORT3 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0x467	RXSP3B	0x0000 0000	SPORT3 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data
0x800	SPCTL4	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Serial Control Register
0x801	SPCTL5	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Serial Control Register
0x802	DIV4	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT4_-CLK and SPORT4_FS
0x803	DIV5	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT4_-CLK and SPORT5_FS
0x804	SPMCTL45	0x0000 0000	SPORT 4/5 Multichannel Control Register
0x805	MT4CS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x806	MT4CS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x807	MT4CS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 multichannel transmit select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x808	MT4CS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 multichannel transmit select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x809	MR5CS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x80A	MR5CS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x80B	MR5CS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x80C	MR5CS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x80D	MT4CCS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 0 (Channel 31–0)
0x80E	MT4CCS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 1 (Channel 63–32)

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers (Cont'd)

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0x80F	MT4CCS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x810	MT4CCS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x811	MR5CCS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 0(Channel 31–0)
0x812	MR5CCS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 1 (Channel 63–32)
0x813	MR5CCS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 2 (Channel 95–64)
0x814	MR5CCS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 3 (Channel 127–96)
0x860	TXSP4A	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0x861	RXSP4A	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data
0x862	TXSP4B	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0x863	RXSP4B	0x0000 0000	SPORT4 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data
0x864	TXSP5A	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0x865	RXSP5A	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data
0x866	TXSP5B	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0x867	RXSP5B	0x0000 0000	SPORT5 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data
0xC00	SPCTL0	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Serial Control Register
0xC01	SPCTL1	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Serial Control Register
0xC02	DIV0	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT0_-CLK and SPORT0_FS
0xC03	DIV1	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Divisor for Transmit/Receive SPORT1_-CLK and SPORT1_FS
0xC04	SPMCTL01	0x0000 0000	SPORT 0/1 Multichannel Control Register

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers (Cont'd)

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0xC05	MT0CS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Select 0 (Channels 31–0)
0xC06	MT0CS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Select 1 (Channels 63–32)
0xC07	MT0CS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Select 2 (Channels 95–64)
0xC08	MT0CS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Select 3 (Channels 127–96)
0xC09	MR1CS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Multichannel Receive Select 0 (Channels 31–0)
0xC0A	MR0CS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Receive Select 1 (Channels 63–32)
0xC0B	MR0CS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Receive Select 2 (Channels 95–64)
0xC0C	MR1CS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Receive Select 3 (Channels 127–96)
0xC0D	MT0CCS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 0 (Channels 31–0)
0xC0E	MT0CCS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 1 (Channels 63–32)
0xC0F	MT0CCS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 multichannel transmit compand select 2 (Channels 95–64)
0xC10	MT0CCS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Multichannel Transmit Compand Select 3 (Channels 127–96)
0xC11	MR1CCS0	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 0 (Channels 31–0)
0xC12	MR1CCS1	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 1 (Channels 63–32)
0xC13	MR1CCS2	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Multichannel Receive Compand Select 2 (Channels 95–64)

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

Table 9-5. SPORT Registers (Cont'd)

IOP Address	Register	Reset	Description
0xC14	MR1CCS3	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Multichannel Receive Compand select 3 (Channels 127–96)
0xC60	TXSP0A	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0xC61	RXSP0A	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data
0xC62	TXSP0B	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0xC63	RXSP0B	0x0000 0000	SPORT0 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data
0xC64	TXSP1A	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Transmit Data Buffer; A channel data
0xC65	RXSP1A	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Receive Data Buffer; A channel data
0xC66	TXSP1B	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Transmit Data Buffer; B channel data
0xC67	RXSP1B	0x0000 0000	SPORT1 Receive Data Buffer; B channel data

### Register Writes and Effect Latency

SPORT register writes are internally completed at the end of three (worst case) or two (best case) core clock cycles. The newly written value to the SPORT register can be read back on the next cycle. Reads of the SPORT registers take four core clock cycles.

After a write to a SPORT register, control and mode bit changes take effect in the second serial clock cycle. The serial ports are ready to start transmitting or receiving three serial clock cycles after they are enabled in the SPCTLx control register. No serial clocks are lost from this point on.

### Serial Port Control Registers (SPCTLx)

The main control register for each serial port is the Serial Port Control register, SPCTLx. These registers are described in [“SPORT Serial Control Registers \(SPCTLx\)” on page A-69](#). When changing operating modes,



clear the Serial Port Control register before the new mode is written to the register.

There is one Global Control and Status register for each paired SPORT (SPORT0/1, SPORT 2/3 and SPORT 4/5) for multichannel operation. These are SPMCTL01, SPMCTL23, or SPMCTL45. These registers define the number of channels, provide the status of the current channel, enable multichannel operation, and set the multichannel frame delay. These registers are described in “SPORT Multichannel Control Registers (SPMCTLxy)” on page A-79.

The SPCTLx registers control the operating modes of the serial ports for the I/O processor. Table 9-6 lists all the bits in the SPCTLx register.

Table 9-6. SPCTLx Control Bit Comparison in Four SPORT Operation Modes

Bit	Standard DSP Serial Mode	Left-justified and I <sup>2</sup> S Sample Pair Mode	Multichannel Mode	
			Transmit Control Bits (SPORT0, 2, and 4)	Receive Control Bits (SPORT1, 3, and 5)
0	SPEN_A	SPEN_A	Reserved	Reserved
1	DTYPE	Reserved	DTYPE	DTYPE
2	DTYPE	Reserved	DTYPE	DTYPE
3	LSBF	Reserved	LSBF	LSBF
4	SLEN0	SLEN0	SLEN0	SLEN0
5	SLEN1	SLEN1	SLEN1	SLEN1
6	SLEN2	SLEN2	SLEN2	SLEN2
7	SLEN3	SLEN3	SLEN3	SLEN3
8	SLEN4	SLEN4	SLEN4	SLEN4
9	PACK	PACK	PACK	PACK
10	ICLK	MSTR	Reserved	ICLK
11	OPMODE	OPMODE	OPMODE	OPMODE

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

Table 9-6. SPCTLx Control Bit Comparison in Four SPORT Operation Modes (Cont'd)

Bit	Standard DSP Serial Mode	Left-justified and I <sup>2</sup> S Sample Pair Mode	Multichannel Mode	
			Transmit Control Bits (SPORT0, 2, and 4)	Receive Control Bits (SPORT1, 3, and 5)
12	CKRE	Reserved	CKRE	CKRE
13	FSR	Reserved	Reserved	Reserved
14	IFS	Reserved	Reserved	IMFS
15	DIFS	DIFS	Reserved	Reserved
16	LFS	FRFS	LTDV	LRFS
17	LAFS	LAFS	Reserved	Reserved
18	SDEN_A	SDEN_A	SDEN_A	SDEN_A
19	SCHEN_A	SCHEN_A	SCHEN_A	SCHEN_A
20	SDEN_B	SDEN_B	SDEN_B	SDEN_B
21	SCHEN_B	SCHEN_B	SCHEN_B	SCHEN_B
22	FS_BOTH	Reserved	Reserved	Reserved
23	BHD	BHD	BHD	BHD
24	SPEN_B	SPEN_B	Reserved	Reserved
25	SPTRAN	SPTRAN	Reserved	Reserved
26	ROVF_B, or TUVF_B	ROVF_B, or TUVF_B	TUVF_B	ROVF_B
27	DXS_B	DXS_B	TXS_B	RXS_B
28	DXS_B	DXS_B	TXS_B	RXS_B
29	ROVF_A, or TUVF_A	ROVF_A, or TUVF_A	TUVF_A	ROVF_A
30	DXS_A	DXS_A	TXS_A	RXS_A
31	DXS_A	DXS_A	TXS_A	RXS_A

The following bits, listed in bit number order, control serial port modes and are part of the SPCTLx (transmit and receive) Control registers. Other bits in the SPCTLx registers set up DMA and I/O processor-related serial port features. For information about configuring a specific operation mode, refer to [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) and [“Standard DSP Serial Mode” on page 9-11](#).

**Serial Port Enable.** SPCTLx bits 0 and 24 (SPEN\_A and SPEN\_B). This bit enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) the corresponding serial port channel A or B. Clearing this bit aborts any ongoing operation and clears the status bits. The SPORTS are ready to transmit or receive two serial clock cycles after enabling.

This description applies to I<sup>2</sup>S and DSP Standard Serial modes only.

**Data Type Select.** SPCTLxx bits 2–1 (DTYPE). These bits select the companding and MSB data type formatting of serial words loaded into the transmit and receive buffers. This bit applies to DSP standard Serial and Multichannel modes only. The Transmit Shift register does not zero-fill or sign-extend transmit data words; this only takes place for the receive shift register.

For Standard mode, selection of Companding mode and MSB format are exclusive:

- 00 = Right-justify; fill unused MSBs with 0s
- 01 = Right-justify; sign-extend into unused MSBs
- 10 = Compand using  $\mu$ \_law, (primary channels only)
- 11 = Compand using A\_law, (primary channels only)

For Multichannel mode, selection of companding mode and MSB format are independent:

- x0 = Right-justify; fill unused MSBs with 0s
- x1 = Right-justify; sign-extend into unused MSBs
- 0x = Compand using  $\mu$ \_law
- 1x = Compand using A\_law

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

This description applies only to DSP Standard Serial mode and Multi-channel modes only.

**Serial Word Endian Select.** SPCTLx Bit 3 (LSBF). This bit selects little endian words (LSB first, if set, = 1) or big endian words (MSB first, if cleared, = 0). This description applies to DSP Standard Serial And Multi-channel modes only.

**Serial Word Length Select.** SPCTLx Bit 8–4 (SLENx). These bits select the word length in bits. Word sizes can be from 3 bits (SLEN = 2) to 32 bits (SLEN = 31). This bit applies to all operation modes.

Use this formula to calculate the value for SLEN:

$$\text{SLEN} = \text{Actual serial word length} - 1$$

In this case, the SLEN bit cannot equal 0 or 1, I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair word length is limited to 8-32 bits, and DSP Standard mode word length varies from 3 to 32 bits.

**16-bit to 32-bit Word Packing Enable.** SPCTLx bit 9 (PACK). This bit enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) 16- to 32-bit word packing. This bit applies to all operation modes.

**Internal Clock Select.** SPCTLx bit 10 (ICLK). This bit selects the internal (if set, =1) or external (if cleared, =0) transmit or receive clock. This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial mode and SPORTs 1, 3 and 5 for multi-channel modes.

**Sport Operation Mode.** SPCTLx bit 11 (OPMODE). This bit enables I<sup>2</sup>S/Left-justified Sample Pair modes if set (= 1), or disables if cleared (= 0). This bit applies to all operation modes. See [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) and [“Standard DSP Serial Mode” on page 9-11](#).

**Clock Rising Edge Select.** SPCTLx bit 12 (CKRE). This bit selects whether the serial port uses the rising edge (if set, = 1) or falling edge (if cleared, = 0) of the clock signal for sampling data and the frame sync. This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial and Multichannel modes only.

**Frame Sync Required Select.** SPCTLx bits 13 (FSR). This bit selects whether the serial port requires (if set, = 1) or does not require (if cleared, = 0) a transfer frame sync. See [“Frame Sync Options” on page 9-34](#) for more details. This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial mode only.

**Internal Frame Sync Select.** SPCTLx bit 14 (IFS). This bit selects whether the serial port uses an internally-generated frame sync (if set, = 1) or a frame sync from an external (if cleared, = 0) source. This bit is used for Standard DSP Serial mode only.

**Low Active Frame Sync Select.** SPCTLx bit 16 (LFS). This bit selects the logic level of the (transmit or receive) frame sync signals. This bit selects an active low frame sync (if set, = 1) or active high frame sync (if cleared, = 0). Active high (0) is the default. This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial mode only.

**Late Transmit Frame Sync Select.** SPCTLx bit 17 (LAFS). This bit selects when to generate the frame sync signal. This bit selects a late frame sync if set (= 1) during the first bit of each data word. This bit selects an early frame sync if cleared (= 0) during the serial clock cycle immediately preceding the first data bit. See [“Frame Sync Options” on page 9-34](#) for more details.

This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial mode. This bit is also used to select between I<sup>2</sup>S and Left-justified Sample Pair modes. See [Table 9-1 on page 9-10](#) and [“Standard DSP Serial Mode” on page 9-11](#) for more information.

**Serial Port DMA Enable.** SPCTLx bits 18 and 20 (SDEN\_A and SDEN\_B). This bit enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) the serial port’s channel DMA. Bits 18 and 20 apply to all operating modes.

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

**Serial Port DMA Chaining Enable.** SPCTLx bits 19 and 21 (SCHEN\_A and SCHEN\_B). These bits enable (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) serial port's channels A and B DMA chaining. Bits 19 and 21 apply to all operating modes.

**Frame Sync Both Enable.** SPCTLx bit 22 (FS\_BOTH). This bit applies when the SPORTS channels A and B are configured to transmit/receive data. If set (= 1), this bit issues frame sync only when data is present in *both* transmit buffers, TXA and TXB. If cleared (= 0), a frame sync is issued if data is present in either transmit buffers. This bit applies to DSP Standard Serial mode only.

When a SPORT is configured as a receiver, if FS\_BOTH is set (= 1), frame sync is issued only when both the Rx FIFOs (RXSPA and RXSPB) are not full.

This bit is not used for I<sup>2</sup>S and Left-justified Sample Pair modes. If only channel A or channel B is selected, the frame sync behaves as if FS\_BOTH is cleared (= 0). If both A and B channels are selected, the word select acts as if FS\_BOTH is set (= 1).


**Buffer Hang Disable.** SPCTLx bit 23 (BHD). When cleared (= 0), this bit causes the processor core to hang when it attempts to write to a full buffer or read from an empty buffer. When set (= 1), this bit disables the core-hang. In this case, a core read from an empty receive buffer returns previously-read (invalid) data and core writes to a full transmit buffer to overwrite (valid) data that has not yet been transmitted. This bit is used in all modes.

**Data Direction Control.** SPCTLx bit 25 (SPTRAN). This bit controls the data direction of the serial port channel A and B signals.

- 0 = SPORT is configured to receive on both channels A and B. In this configuration, the RXSPxA and RXSPxB buffers are activated, while the Receive Shift registers are controlled by SPORTx\_CLK and SPORTx\_FS. The TXSPxA and TXSPxB buffers are inactive.

- 1 = SPORT is configured to transmit on both channels A and B. In this configuration, the TXSPxA and TXSPxB buffers are activated, while the Transmit Shift registers are controlled by SPORTx\_CLK and SPORTx\_FS. The RXSPxA and RXSPxB buffers are inactive.

This bit applies to I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, and DSP Standard Serial modes.

 Reading from or writing to inactive buffers cause the core to hang indefinitely until the SPORT is cleared.

**Data Buffer Error Status (sticky, read-only).** SPCTLx bit 29 and 26 (ROVF, TUVF). These bits indicate whether the serial transmit operation has underflowed (if set, = 1 and SPTRAN = 1) or a receive operation has overflowed (if set, = 1 and SPTRAN = 0) in the TXSPxA/RXSPxA and TXSPxB/RXSPxB data buffers.

This description applies to I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, and DSP Standard Serial modes. In multichannel modes, corresponding bits (TUVF, ROVF) are used for this function.

When the SPORT is configured as a transmitter, this bit provides transmit underflow status. As a transmitter, if FSR = 1, this bit indicates whether the SPORTx\_FS signal (from an internal or external source) occurred while the DXS buffer was empty. If FSR = 0, ROVF or TUVF is set whenever the SPORT is required to transmit and the transmit buffer is empty. The SPORTs transmit data whenever they detect a SPORTx\_FS signal.

- 0 = No SPORTx\_FS signal occurred while TXSPxA/B buffer is empty.
- 1 = SPORTx\_FS signal occurred while TXSPxA/B buffer is empty.

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers


When the SPORT is configured as a receiver, these bits provide receive overflow status. As a receiver, it indicates when the channel has received new data while the `RXS_A` buffer is full. New data overwrites existing data.

- 0 = No new data while `RXSPxA/B` buffer is full.
- 1 = New data while `RXSPxA/B` buffer is full.

**Transmit Underflow Status (sticky, read-only).** `SPCTL0`, `SPCTL2`, and `SPCTL4` bit 29 (`TUVF_A`). This bit indicates (if set, = 1) whether the multi-channel `SPORTx_FS` signal (from an internal or external source) occurred while the `TXS` buffer was empty. SPORTs transmit data whenever they detect a `SPORTx_FS` signal. If cleared (= 0), no `SPORTx_FS` signal occurs because the `TXS` buffer is empty.

The Transmit Underflow Status bit (`TUVF_A/ROVF_A` or `TUVF_A` and `TUVF_B/ROVF_B` or `TUVF_B`) is set when the `SPORTx_FS` signal occurs from either an external or internal source while the `TXSPxA` or `TXSPxB` buffer is empty. The internally-generated `SPORTx_FS` signal may be suppressed whenever `TXSPxA` or `TXSPxB` is empty by clearing the `DIFS` control bit when `SPTRAN = 1`.

When the `DIFS` bit is cleared (the default setting) the frame sync signal (`SPORTx_FS`) is dependent upon new data being present in the transmit buffer. The `SPORTx_FS` signal is only generated for new data. Setting `DIFS` to 1 selects data-independent frame syncs which causes the `SPORTx_FS` signal to be generated whether or not new data is present. With each `SPORTx_FS` signal, the SPORT transmits the contents of the transmit buffer. Serial port DMA typically keeps the transmit buffer full.

 The `DIFS` bit applies to Multichannel mode only when the SPORTs are configured as transmitters.

**Receive Overflow Status (read-only, sticky).** `SPCTL1`, `SPCTL3` and `SPCTL5` Bit 29 (`ROVF`). This bit indicates if the channel has received new data if set (=1) or not if cleared (=0) while the `RXS_A/B` buffer is full. New data overwrites existing data.




 This bit applies to Multichannel mode only.

**Data Buffer Status Channel A (read-only).** SPCTL1, SPCTL3 and SPCTL5 bits 31–30 (RXS\_A). These bits indicate the status of the channel's receive buffer contents as follows: 00 = buffer empty, 01 = reserved, 10 = buffer partially full, 11 = buffer full.

**DXS Data Buffer Status.** SPCTLx Bits 31–30 (DXS\_A) and bits 28-27 (DXS\_B). These read-only bits indicate the status of the serial port's data buffer as follows: 11 = buffer full, 00 = buffer empty, 10 = buffer partially full, 01 = reserved.

The DXS\_A or DXS\_B Status bits indicate whether the TXSPxA/RXSPxA or TXSPxB/RXSPxB buffer is full (11), empty (00), or partially full (10). To test for space in TXSPxA/B or RXSPxA/B, test whether DXS\_A (bit 30) is equal to zero for the A channel, or whether DXS\_B (bit 27) is equal to zero for the B channel. To test for the presence of any data in TXSPxA/B or RXSPxA/B, test whether DXS\_A (bit 31) is equal to one for the A channel, or whether DXS\_B (bit 28) is equal to one for the B channel.

This description applies to I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, and DSP Standard Serial modes.


 When the SPORT is configured as a transmitter, these bits reflect transmit buffer status for the TXSPxA and TXSPxB buffers. When the SPORT is configured as a receiver, these bits reflect receive buffer status for the RXSPxA and RXSPxB buffers.

**Transmit Data Buffer Status (read-only).** SPCTL0, SPCTL2 and SPCTL4 Bits 30 and 31(TXS\_A). These bits indicate the status of the serial port channel's transmit buffer as follows: 11 = buffer full, 00 = buffer empty, 10 = buffer partially full.

### Transmit and Receive Data Buffers

The transmit buffers (TXSP0A, TXSP0B, TXSP1A, TXSP1B, TXSP2A, TXSP2B, TXSP3A, TXSP3B, TXSP4A, TXSP4B, TXSP5A, and TXSP5B) are the 32-bit transmit data buffers for SPORT0, SPORT1, SPORT2, SPORT3, SPORT4, and SPORT5 respectively. These buffers must be loaded with the data to be transmitted if the SPORT is configured to transmit on the A and B channels. The data is loaded automatically by the DMA controller or loaded manually by the program running on the processor core.

The receive buffers (RXSP0A, RXSP0B, RXSP1A, RXSP1B, RXSP2A, RXSP2B, RXSP3A, RXSP3B, RXSP4A, RXSP4B, RXSP5A, and RXSP5B) are the 32-bit receive data buffers for SPORT0, SPORT1, SPORT2, SPORT3, SPORT4, and SPORT5 respectively. These 32-bit buffers become active when the SPORT is configured to receive data on the A and B channels. When a SPORT is configured as a receiver, the RXSPxA and RXSPxB registers are automatically loaded from the receive shifter when a complete word has been received. The data is then loaded to internal memory by the DMA controller or read directly by the program running on the processor core.

 Word lengths of less than 32 bits are automatically right-justified in the receive and transmit buffers.

The transmit buffers act like a two-location FIFO because they have a data register plus an Output Shift register. Two 32-bit words may both be stored in the transmit queue at any one time. When the transmit register is loaded and any previous word has been transmitted, the register contents are automatically loaded into the output shifter. An interrupt occurs when the Output Transmit shifter has been loaded, signifying that the transmit buffer is ready to accept the next word (for example, the transmit buffer is not full). This interrupt does not occur when serial port DMA is enabled or when the corresponding mask bit in the LIRPTL register is set.

In non-Multichannel modes (I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, and DSP Standard Serial modes), the ROVF\_A or TUVF\_A and ROVF\_B, or TUVF\_B

Overflow/Underflow status bits are set when an overflow or underflow occurs. In multichannel mode, the `ROVF_A` or `TUVF_A` bits are redefined due to the fixed-directional functionality of the `SPCTLx` registers. When the `SPCTL1`, `SPCTL3` and `SPCTL5` registers are configured for Multichannel mode, the Receive Overflow bit `ROVF_A` indicates when the A channel has received new data while the `RXS_A` buffer is full. Similarly, when the `SPCTL0`, `SPCTL2` and `SPCTL4` registers are configured for Multichannel mode, the transmit overflow bit (`TUVF_A`) indicates that a new frame sync signal (`SPORT0_FS/SPORT2_FS/SPORT4_FS`) was generated while the `TXSPxA` buffer was empty.



The `ROVF_A` or `TUVF_A` (bit 29) Overflow/Underflow status bit in the `SPCTLx` register becomes fixed in Multichannel mode only as either the `ROVF` Overflow Status bit (SPORTs 1, 3, and 5) or `TUVF_A` Underflow Status bit (SPORTs 0, 2, and 4).

When the `SPORT` is configured as a transmitter (`SPTRAN = 1`), and a transmit frame sync occurs and no new data has been loaded into the transmit buffer, a Transmit Underflow status bit is set in the Serial Port Control register. The `TUVF_A/ROVF_A` or `TUVF_A` status bit is sticky and is only cleared by disabling the serial port.


When the `SPORT` is configured as a receiver (`SPTRAN = 0`), the receive buffers are activated. The receive buffers act like a three-location FIFO because they have two data registers plus an input shift register. Two complete 32-bit words can be stored in the receive buffer while a third word is being shifted in. The third word overwrites the second if the first word has not been read out (by the processor core or the DMA controller). When this happens, the Receive Overflow Status bit is set in the Serial Port Control register. Almost three complete words can be received without the receive buffer being read before an overflow occurs. The overflow status is generated on the last bit of the third word. The `ROVF_A/ROVF_A` or `TUVF_A` status bit is sticky and is cleared only by disabling the serial port.

An interrupt is generated when the receive buffer has been loaded with a received word (for example, the receive buffer is not empty). This


## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

interrupt is masked if serial port DMA is enabled or if the corresponding bit in the `LIRPTL` register is set.

If your program causes the core processor to attempt to read from an empty receive buffer or to write to a full transmit buffer, the access is delayed until the buffer is accessed by the external I/O device. This delay is called a core processor hang. If you do not know if the core processor can access the receive or transmit buffer without a hang, the buffer's status should be read first (in `SPCTLx`) to determine if the access can be made.

 To support debugging buffer transfers, the processor has a Buffer Hang Disable (BHD) bit. When set (= 1), this bit prevents the processor core from detecting a buffer-related stall condition, permitting debugging of this type of stall condition. For more information, see the BHD bit description on [page 9-56](#).

The status bits in `SPCTLx` are updated during reads and writes from the core processor even when the serial port is disabled. Disable the serial port when writing to the receive buffer or reading from the transmit buffer.

 When programming the serial port channel (A or B) as a transmitter, only the corresponding `TXSPxA` and `TXSPxB` buffers become active while the receive buffers `RXSPxA` and `RXSPxB` remain inactive. Similarly, when the SPORT channel A and B are programmed as receive-only the corresponding `RXSPxA` and `RXSPxB` is activated. Do not attempt to read or write to inactive data buffers. If the processor operates on the inactive transmit or receive buffers while the SPORT is enabled, unpredictable results may occur.

## Clock and Frame Sync Frequencies (DIV)

The `DIVx` registers contain divisor values that determine frequencies for internally-generated clocks and frame syncs. The `DIVx` registers are described in Appendix A in “[SPORT Divisor Registers \(DIVx\)](#)” on [page A-86](#).

The `CLKDIV` bit field specifies how many times the processor's internal clock (`CCLK`) is divided to generate the transmit and receive clocks. The frame sync (`SPORTx_FS`) is considered a receive frame sync if the data signals are configured as receivers. Likewise, the frame sync `SPORTx_FS` is considered a transmit frame sync if the data signals are configured as transmitters. The divisor is a 15-bit value, allowing a wide range of serial clock rates.

Use the following equation to calculate the serial clock frequency:

$$f_{\text{SPORTx\_CLK}} = \frac{f_{\text{CCLK}}}{4(\text{CLKDIV}+1)}$$

The maximum serial clock frequency is equal to one-quarter the processor's internal clock (`CCLK`) frequency, which occurs when `CLKDIV` is set to zero. Use the following equation to determine the value of `CLKDIV`, given the `CCLK` frequency and desired serial clock frequency:

$$\text{CLKDIV} = \frac{f_{\text{CCLK}}}{4(f_{\text{SPORTx\_CLK}})} - 1$$

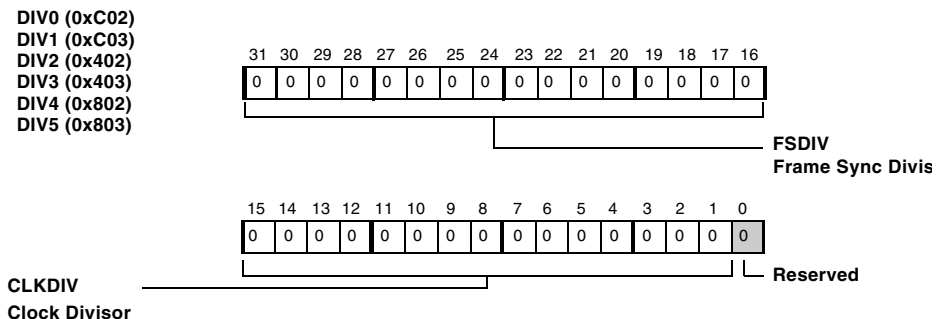


Figure 9-8. DIV<sub>x</sub> Register

The bit field `FSDIV` specifies how many transmit or receive clock cycles are counted before a frame sync pulse is generated. In this way, a frame sync

## SPORT Control Registers and Data Buffers

can initiate periodic transfers. The counting of serial clock cycles applies to internally- or externally-generated serial clocks.

The formula for the number of cycles between frame sync pulses is:

# of serial clocks between frame syncs = FSDIV + 1

Use the following equation to determine the value of FSDIV, given the serial clock frequency and desired frame sync frequency:

$$FSDIV = \frac{f_{SPORTx\_CLK}}{f_{SPORTx\_FS}} - 1$$

The frame sync is continuously active when FSDIV = 0. The value of FSDIV should not be less than the serial word length minus one (the value of the SLEN field in the Serial Port Control register), as this may cause an external device to abort the current operation or cause other unpredictable results. If the serial port is not being used, the FSDIV divisor can be used as a counter for dividing an external clock or for generating a periodic pulse or periodic interrupt. The serial port must be enabled for this mode of operation to work properly.

Exercise caution when operating with externally-generated transmit clocks near the frequency of one-quarter of the processor's internal clock. There is a delay between when the clock arrives at the SPORTx\_CLK node and when data is output. This delay may limit the receiver's speed of operation. Refer to the data sheet for exact timing specifications.

Externally-generated late transmit frame syncs also experience a delay from when they arrive to when data is output. This can also limit the maximum serial clock speed. Refer to the product-specific data sheet for exact timing specifications.

## SPORT Interrupts

Each serial port has an interrupt associated with it. For each SPORT, both the A and B channel transmit and receive data buffers share the same

interrupt vector. The interrupts can be used to indicate the completion of the transfer of a block of serial data when the serial ports are configured for DMA. They can also be used to perform single word transfers. Refer to [“Single Word Transfers” on page 9-73](#). The priority of the serial port interrupts is shown in [Table 9-7](#).



 The interrupt names are defined in the `def2126x.h` file supplied with the ADSP-21xxx processor’s Development Software.

Table 9-7. Priority of the Serial Port Interrupts

Interrupt Name	Interrupt
SPR1I	SPORT1 DMA Channels (Highest Priority)
SPR3I	SPORT3 DMA Channels
SPR5I	SPORT5 DMA Channels
SPR0I	SPORT0 DMA Channels
SPR2I	SPORT2 DMA Channels
SPR4I	SPORT4 DMA Channels

 SPORT interrupts occur on the second coreclock (CCLK) after the last bit of the serial word is latched in or driven out.

## Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory

Transmit and receive data can be transferred between the serial ports and on-chip memory with single word transfers or with DMA block transfers. Both methods are interrupt-driven, and use the same internally-generated interrupts.

SPORT DMA provides a mechanism for receiving or transmitting an entire block of serial data before the interrupt is generated. When serial

## Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory

port DMA is not enabled, the SPORT generates an interrupt every time it receives or starts to transmit a data word. The processor's on-chip DMA controller handles the DMA transfer, allowing the processor core to continue running until the entire block of data is transmitted or received. Service routines can then operate on the block of data rather than on single words, significantly reducing overhead.


**i** Standard DMA does not function properly in I<sup>2</sup>S/left-justified mode when two channels (A and B) are enabled with different DMA count values. In this case, the interrupt is generated for the least (smallest) count only. If both the A and B channels of the SPORTs are used in I<sup>2</sup>S/left-justified mode with DMA enabled, then the DMA count value should be the same for both channels. This does not apply to chained DMA.

### DMA Block Transfers

The processor's on-chip DMA controller allows automatic DMA transfers between internal memory and each of the two channels of each serial port. Each SPORT has two channels for transferring data, and each can be configured to receive or to transmit. There are twelve DMA channels for serial port operations. The serial port DMA channels are numbered as shown in [Table 9-8](#).



Table 9-8. Serial Port DMA Channels

Channel	Data Buffer	Description	Priority
0	RXSP1A/TXSP1A	SPORT1 A data	Highest
1	RXSP1B/TXSP1B	SPORT1 B data	
2	RXSP0A/TXSP0A	SPORT0 A data	
3	RXSP0B/TXSP0B	SPORT0 B data	
4	RXSP3A/TXSP3A	SPORT3 A data	
5	RXSP3B/TXSP3B	SPORT3 B data	
6	RXSP2A/TXSP2A	SPORT2 A data	
7	RXSP2B/TXSP2B	SPORT2 B data	
8	RXSP5A/TXSP5A	SPORT5 A data	
9	RXSP5B/TXSP5B	SPORT5 B data	
10	RXSP4A/TXSP4A	SPORT4 A data	
11	RXSP4B/TXSP4B	SPORT4 B data	Lowest

Data-direction programmability is supported in Standard DSP Standard Serial, Left-justified Sample Pair, and I<sup>2</sup>S modes. The value of the SPTRAN bit in SPCTLx (0 = RX, 1 = TX) determines whether the receive or transmit register for the SPORT becomes active.

The SPORT DMA channels are assigned higher priority than all other DMA channels (for example, the SPI port and the parallel port) because of their relatively low service rate and their inability to hold off incoming data. Having higher priority causes the SPORT DMA transfers to be performed first when multiple DMA requests occur in the same cycle.

Although the DMA transfers are performed with 32-bit words, serial ports can handle word sizes from 3 to 32 bits, with 8 to 32 bits for I<sup>2</sup>S mode. If serial words are 16 bits or smaller, they can be packed into 32-bit words for each DMA transfer. DMA transfers are configured using the PACK bit in the SPCTLx Control registers. When serial port data packing is enabled

## Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory

(PACK = 1), the transmit and receive interrupts are generated for the 32-bit packed words, not for each 16-bit word.

The following sections present an overview of serial port DMA operations; additional details are covered in the [“Memory” in Chapter 5, Memory](#).

- For information on SPORT DMA Channel Setup, see [“Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order \(FRFS\)” on page 9-16](#).
- For information on SPORT DMA Parameter Registers, see [“Selecting Transmit and Receive Channel Order \(FRFS\)” on page 9-16](#).
- For information on SPORT DMA Chaining, see [“SPORT DMA Chaining” on page 9-73](#).

### Setting Up DMA on SPORT Channels

Each SPORT DMA channel has an Enable bit (SDEN\_A and SDEN\_B) in its SPCTLx Control register. When DMA is disabled for a particular channel, the SPORT generates an interrupt every time it receives a data word or whenever there is a vacancy in the transmit buffer. For more information, see [“Single Word Transfers” on page 9-73](#).

Each channel also has a DMA Chaining Enable bit (SCHEN\_A and SCHEN\_B) in its SPCTLx control register.

To set up a serial port DMA channel, write a set of memory buffer parameters to the SPORT DMA parameter registers as shown in [Table 9-9](#).

Table 9-9. SPORT DMA Parameter Registers

Register (Y = A or B, and x = 0 – 5)	Width	Description
IISP <sub>xy</sub>	19 bits	DMA channel; x index; start address for data buffer
IMSP <sub>xy</sub>	16 bits	DMA channel; x modify; address increment
CSP <sub>xy</sub>	16 bits	DMA channel; x count; number of words to transmit
CPSP <sub>xy</sub>	20 bits	DMA channel; x chain pointer; address containing the next set of data buffer parameters

Load the **II**, **IM**, and **C** registers with a starting address for the buffer, an address modifier, and a word count, respectively. These registers can be written from the core processor or from an external processor.

Once serial port DMA is enabled, the processor's DMA controller automatically transfers received data words in the receive buffer to the buffer in internal memory. Likewise, when the serial port is ready to transmit data, the DMA controller automatically transfers a word from internal memory to the transmit buffer. The controller continues these transfers until the entire data buffer is received or transmitted.

When the count register of an active DMA channel reaches zero (0), the SPORT generates the corresponding interrupt.

## SPORT DMA Parameter Registers

A DMA channel consists of a set of parameter registers that implements a data buffer in internal memory and the hardware the serial port uses to request DMA service. The parameter registers for each SPORT DMA channel and their addresses are shown in [Table 9-10](#) below. These registers are part of the processor's memory-mapped IOP register set.

The DMA channels operate similarly to the processor's Data Address Generators (DAGs). Each channel has an Index register (**IISP<sub>xy</sub>**) and a

## Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory

Modify register ( $IMSP_{xy}$ ) for setting up a data buffer in internal memory. It is necessary to initialize the Index register with the starting address of the data buffer. After it transfers each serial I/O word to (or from) the SPORT, the DMA controller adds the modify value to the Index register to generate the address for the next DMA transfer. The modify value in the IM register is a signed integer, which provides capability for both incrementing and decrementing the buffer pointer.

Each DMA channel has a Count register ( $CSP_{xA}/CSP_{xB}$ ), which must be initialized with a word count that specifies the number of words to transfer. The Count register decrements after each DMA transfer on the channel. When the word count reaches zero, the SPORT generates an interrupt, then automatically stops DMA transfers in the DMA channel.

Each SPORT DMA channel also has a Chain Pointer register ( $CPSP_{xy}$ ). The  $CPSP_{xy}$  register functions are used in chained DMA operations. For more information on SPORT DMA chaining registers, see [Table 9-9 on page 9-69](#).

Table 9-10. SPORT DMA Parameter Registers Addresses

Register	Address	DMA Channel	SPORT Buffer
IISP0A	0xc40	0	RXSP0A or TXSP0A
IMSP0A	0xc41	0	RXSP0A or TXSP0A
CSP0A	0xc42	0	RXSP0A or TXSP0A
CPSP0A	0xc43	0	RXSP0A or TXSP0A
IISP0B	0xc44	1	RXSP0B or TXSP0B
IMSP0B	0xc45	1	RXSP0B or TXSP0B
CSP0B	0xc46	1	RXSP0B or TXSP0B
CPSP0B	0xc47	1	RXSP0B or TXSP0B
IISP1A	0xc48	2	RXSP1A or TXSP1A
IMSP1A	0xc49	2	RXSP1A or TXSP1A
CSP1A	0xc4A	2	RXSP1A or TXSP1A

Table 9-10. SPORT DMA Parameter Registers Addresses (Cont'd)

Register	Address	DMA Channel	SPORT Buffer
CPSP1A	0xc4B	2	RXSP1A or TXSP1A
IISP1B	0xc4C	3	RXSP1B or TXSP1B
IMSP1B	0xc4D	3	RXSP1B or TXSP1B
CSP1B	0xc4E	3	RXSP1B or TXSP1B
CPSP1B	0xc4F	3	RXSP1B or TXSP1B
Reserved			
IISP2A	0x440	4	RXSP2A or TXSP2A
IMSP2A	0x441	4	RXSP2A or TXSP2A
CSP2A	0x442	4	RXSP2A or TXSP2A
CPSP2A	0x443	4	RXSP2A or TXSP2A
IISP2B	0x444	5	RXSP2B or TXSP2B
IMSP2B	0x445	5	RXSP2B or TXSP2B
CSP2B	0x446	5	RXSP2B or TXSP2B
CPSP2B	0x447	5	RXSP2B or TXSP2B
IISP3A	0x448	6	RXSP3A or TXSP3A
IMSP3A	0x449	6	RXSP3A or TXSP3A
CSP3A	0x44A	6	RXSP3A or TXSP3A
CPSP3A	0x44B	6	RXSP3A or TXSP3A
IISP3B	0x44C	7	RXSP3B or TXSP3B
IMSP3B	0x44D	7	RXSP3B or TXSP3B
CSP3B	0x44E	7	RXSP3B or TXSP3B
CPSP3B	0x44F	7	RXSP3B or TXSP3B
Reserved			
IISP4A	0x840	8	RXSP4A or TXSP4A
IMSP4A	0x841	8	RXSP4A or TXSP4A
CSP4A	0x842	8	RXSP4A or TXSP4A

## Moving Data Between SPORTS and Internal Memory

Table 9-10. SPORT DMA Parameter Registers Addresses (Cont'd)

Register	Address	DMA Channel	SPORT Buffer
CPSP4A	0x843	8	RXSP4A or TXSP4A
IISP4B	0x844	9	RXSP4B or TXSP4B
IMSP4B	0x845	9	RXSP4B or TXSP4B
CSP4B	0x846	9	RXSP4B or TXSP4B
CPSP4B	0x847	9	RXSP4B or TXSP4B
IISP5A	0x848	10	RXSP5A or TXSP5A
IMSP5A	0x849	10	RXSP5A or TXSP5A
CSP5A	0x84A	10	RXSP5A or TXSP5A
CPSP5A	0x84B	10	RXSP5A or TXSP5A
IISP5B	0x84C	11	RXSP5B or TXSP5B
IMSP5B	0x84D	11	RXSP5B or TXSP5B
CSP5B	0x84E	11	RXSP5B or TXSP5B
CPSP5B	0x84F	11	RXSP5B or TXSP5B
Reserved (0x850 to 0x85F)			

When programming a serial port channel (either A or B) as a transmitter, only the corresponding TXSPxA and TXSPxB SPORT buffer becomes active, while the receive buffers (RXSPxA and RXSPxB) remain inactive. Similarly, when the SPORT channel A and B is programmed as a receiver, only the corresponding RXSP0A and RXSP0B SPORT buffer is activated.

When performing core-driven transfers, write to the buffer designated by the SPTRAN bit setting in the SPCTLx register. For DMA-driven transfers, the serial port logic performs the data transfer from internal memory to/from the appropriate buffer depending on the SPTRAN bit setting. If the inactive SPORT data buffers are read or written to by core while the port is being enabled, the core will hang. For example, if a SPORT is programmed to be a transmitter, while at the same time the core reads from the receive buffer of the same SPORT, the core hangs just as it would if it

were reading an empty buffer that is currently active. This locks up the core until the SPORT is reset.

Therefore, set the Direction bit, the Serial Port Enable bit, and DMA Enable bits before initiating any operations on the SPORT data buffers. If the DSP operates on the inactive transmit or receive buffers while the SPORT is enabled, it can cause unpredictable results.

## SPORT DMA Chaining

In chained DMA operations, the processor's DMA controller automatically sets up another DMA transfer when the contents of the current buffer have been transmitted (or received). The Chain Pointer register (CPSP<sub>xy</sub>) functions as a pointer to the next set of buffer parameters stored in memory. The DMA controller automatically downloads these buffer parameters to set up the next DMA sequence. For more information on SPORT DMA chaining, see [“Setting Up DMA Parameter Registers” on page 7-21](#).


DMA chaining occurs independently for the transmit and receive channels of each serial port. Each SPORT DMA channel has a chaining enable bit (SCHEN<sub>A</sub> or SCHEN<sub>B</sub>) that when set (= 1) enables DMA chaining and when cleared (= 0) disables DMA chaining. Writing all zeros to the address field of the chain pointer register (CPSP<sub>xy</sub>) also disables chaining.

## Single Word Transfers

Individual data words may also be transmitted and received by the serial ports, with interrupts occurring as each 32-bit word is transmitted or received. When a serial port is enabled and DMA is disabled, the SPORT interrupts are generated whenever a complete 32-bit word has been received in the receive buffer, or whenever the transmit buffer is not full. Note that both channel A and B buffers share the same interrupt vector. Single word interrupts can be used to implement interrupt-driven I/O on the serial ports.

## SPORT Programming Examples

To avoid hanging the processor core—check the buffer’s full/empty status when the core’s program reads a word from a serial port’s receive buffer or writes a word to its transmit buffer. This condition can also happen to an external device, for example a host processor, when it is reading or writing a serial port buffer. The full/empty status can be read in the `DXS` bits of the `SPCTLx` register. Reading from an empty receive buffer or writing to a full transmit buffer causes the processor (or external device) to hang, while it waits for the status to change.

 To support debugging buffer transfers, the processor has a Buffer Hang Disable (BHD) bit. When set (= 1), this bit prevents the processor core from detecting a buffer-related stall condition, permitting debugging of this type of stall condition. For more information, see the BHD bit discussion on [page 9-56](#).

Multiple interrupts can occur if both SPORTs transmit or receive data in the same cycle. Any interrupt can be masked in the `IMASK` register; if the interrupt is later enabled in the `LIRPTL` register, the corresponding interrupt latch bit in the `IRPTL` or `LIRPTL` registers must be cleared in case the interrupt has occurred in the same time period.

When serial port data packing is enabled (`PACK=1` in the `SPCTLx` Control registers), the transmit and receive interrupts are generated for 32-bit packed words, not for each 16-bit word.

## SPORT Programming Examples

The third listing, [Listing 9-1](#), transmits a buffer of data from `SPORT1` to `SPORT0` using DMA chaining and the internal loopback feature of the serial port. In this example, `SPORT5` drives the clock and frame sync, and the two TCBS for each `SPORT` are set up to ping-pong back and forth to continually send and receive data.

The second listing, [Listing 9-2](#), transmits a buffer of data from `SPORT5` to `SPORT4` using DMA and the internal loopback feature of the serial port. In



this example, SPORT5 drives the clock and frame sync, and the buffer will be transferred only one time.

This section provides three programming examples written for the ADSP-21262 processor. The first listing, [Listing 9-3](#), transmits a buffer of data from SPORT2 to SPORT3 using direct core reads and writes and the internal loopback feature of the serial port. In this example, SPORT2 drives the clock and frame sync, and the buffer is transferred only one time.

#### Listing 9-1. SPORT Transmit Using DMA Chaining

```

/* SPORT DMA Parameter Registers */
#define CPSP0A    0xC43
#define CPSP1A    0xC4B

/* SPORT Control Registers */
#define DIV0      0xC02
#define DIV1      0xC03
#define SPCTL0    0xC00
#define SPCTL1    0xC01
#define SPMCTL01 0xC04

/* SPMCTL Bits */
#define SPL       0x00001000

/* SPCTL Bits */
#define SPEN_A    0x00000001
#define SDEN_A    0x00004000
#define SCHEN_A   0x00008000
#define SLEN32    0x000001F0
#define SPTRAN    0x02000000
#define IFS       0x00004000
#define FSR       0x00002000
#define ICLK      0x00000400

```

## SPORT Programming Examples

```
/* Default Buffer Length */
#define BUFSIZE 10

.SECTION/DM seg_dmda;
/* TX Buffers */
.var tx_buf1a[BUFSIZE] = 0x11111111,
                        0x22222222,
                        0x33333333,
                        0x44444444,
                        0x55555555,
                        0x66666666,
                        0x77777777,
                        0x88888888,
                        0x99999999,
                        0xAAAAAAAA;

.var tx_buf1b[BUFSIZE] = 0x12345678,
                        0x23456789,
                        0x3456789A,
                        0x456789AB,
                        0x56789ABC,
                        0x6789ABCD,
                        0x789ABCDE,
                        0x89ABCDEF,
                        0x9ABCDEF0,
                        0xABCDEF01;

/* RX Buffers */
.var rx_buf0a[BUFSIZE];
.var rx_buf0b[BUFSIZE];

/* TX Transfer Control Blocks */
.var tx_tcb1[4] = 0,BUFSIZE,1,tx_buf1a;
.var tx_tcb2[4] = 0,BUFSIZE,1,tx_buf1b;
```

```

/* RX Transfer Control Blocks */
.var rx_tcb1[4] = 0,BUFSIZE,1,rx_buf0a;
.var rx_tcb2[4] = 0,BUFSIZE,1,rx_buf0b;

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.SECTION/PM seg_pmco;
_main:

/* SPORT loopback: use SPORT0 as RX and SPORT1 as TX.
For no loopback (TDM mode), program MTaCSb [a=0,2,4 & b=0,1,2,3]
and MRcCSd [a=1,3,5 & b=0,1,2,3], */

/* initially clear SPORT control register */
r0 = 0x00000000;
dm(SPCTL0) = r0;
dm(SPCTL1) = r0;
dm(SPMCTL01) = r0;

SPORT_DMA_setup:
/* set internal loopback bit for SPORT0 & SPORT1 */
bit set ustat3 SPL;
dm(SPMCTL01) = ustat3;

/* Configure SPORT1 as a transmitter */
/* internally generating clock and frame sync */
/* CLKDIV = [fCCLK(200 MHz)/4xFsCLK(20 MHz)]-1 = 0x004 */
/* FSDIV = [FsCLK(20 MHz)/TFS(.625 MHz)]-1 = 31 = 0x001F */
R0 = 0x001F0004;    dm(DIV1) = R0;
ustat4 = SPEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A */
          SLEN32|   /* 32-bit word length */
          FSR|      /* Frame Sync Required */
          SPTRAN|   /* Transmit on enabled channels */
          SDEN_A|   /* Enable Channel A DMA */

```

## SPORT Programming Examples

```
        SCHEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A DMA Chaining */
        IFS|        /* Internally-generated Frame Sync */
        ICLK;      /* Internally-generated Clock */
dm(SPCTL1) = ustat4;

/* Configure SPORT0 as a receiver */
/* externally generating clock and frame sync */
r0 = 0x0;        dm(DIV0) = R0;
r0 = 0;          /* Clear CP registers before enabling chaining */
dm(CPSPOA) = r0;
dm(CPSPIA) = r0;
ustat3 = SPEN_A| /* Enable Channel A */
        SLEN32|  /* 32-bit word length */
        FSR|     /* Frame Sync Required */
        SDEN_A| /* Enable Channel A DMA */
        SCHEN_A; /* Enable Channel A DMA Chaining */
dm(SPCTL0) = ustat3;

/* Next TCB location for tx_tcb2 is tx_tcb1 */
/* Mask the first 19 bits of the TCB location */
r0 = (tx_tcb1 + 3) & 0x7FFFF;
dm(tx_tcb2) = r0;

/* Next TCB location for rx_tcb2 is rx_tcb1 */
/* Mask the first 19 bits of the TCB location */
r0 = (rx_tcb1 + 3) & 0x7FFFF;
dm(rx_tcb2) = r0;

/* Next TCB location for rx_tcb1 is rx_tcb2 */
/* Mask the first 19 bits of the TCB location */
r0 = (rx_tcb2 + 3) & 0x7FFFF;
dm(rx_tcb1) = r0;
/* Initialize SPORT DMA transfer by writing to the CP reg */
dm(CPSPOA) = r0;
```

```

/* Next TCB location for tx_tcb1 is tx_tcb2 */
/* Mask the first 19 bits of the TCB location */
r0 = (tx_tcb2 + 3) & 0x7FFFF;
dm(tx_tcb1) = r0;
/* Initialize SPORT DMA transfer by writing to the CP reg */
dm(CPSP1A) = r0;

_main.end:  jump (pc,0);

```

### Listing 9-2. SPORT Transmit Using Direct Core Access

```

/* SPORT Control Registers */
#define TXSP2A  0x460
#define RXSP3A  0x465
#define DIV2    0x402
#define DIV3    0x403
#define SPCTL2  0x400
#define SPCTL3  0x401
#define SPMCTL23 0x404

/* SPMCTL Bits */
#define SPL      0x00001000

/* SPCTL Bits */
#define SPEN_A  0x00000001
#define SDEN_A  0x00040000
#define SLEN32  0x000001F0
#define SPTRAN  0x02000000
#define IFS     0x00004000
#define FSR     0x00002000
#define ICLK    0x00000400

/* Default Buffer Length */

```

## SPORT Programming Examples

```
#define BUFSIZE 10

.SECTION/DM seg_dmda;
/* Transmit Buffer */
.var tx_buf2a[BUFSIZE] = 0x11111111,
                        0x22222222,
                        0x33333333,
                        0x44444444,
                        0x55555555,
                        0x66666666,
                        0x77777777,
                        0x88888888,
                        0x99999999,
                        0xAAAAAAAA;

/* Receive Buffer */
.var rx_buf3a[BUFSIZE];

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.SECTION/PM seg_pmco;
_main:
bit set mode1 CBUFEN;    /* enable circular buffers */

/* SPORT Loopback: Use SPORT2 as RX & SPORT3 as TX.
   For no loopback (TDM mode), program MTaCSb
   [a=0,2,4 & b=0,1,2,3] and MRcCSd [a=1,3,5 & b=0,1,2,3], */
/* Initially clear SPORT control registers */
r0 = 0x00000000;
dm(SPCTL2) = r0;
dm(SPCTL3) = r0;
dm(SPMCTL23) = r0;

/* Set up DAG registers */
```

```

i4 = tx_buf2a;
m4 = 1;
i12 = rx_buf3a;
m12 = 1;

SPORT_DMA_setup:
/* set internal loopback bit for SPORT2 & SPORT3 */
bit set ustat3 SPL;
dm(SPMCTL23) = ustat3;

/* Configure SPORT2 as a transmitter */
/* internally generating clock and frame sync */
/* CLKDIV = [fCLK(200MHz)/4 x FSCLK(20MHz)] - 1 = 0x004 */
/* FSDIV = [FSCLK(20 MHz)/TFS(.625 MHz)] - 1 = 31 = 0x001F */
R0 = 0x001F0004;    dm(DIV2) = R0;
ustat4 = SPEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A */
          SLEN32|   /* 32-bit word length */
          FSR|      /* Frame Sync Required */
          SPTRAN|   /* Transmit on enabled channels */
          IFS|      /* Internally Generated Frame Sync */
          ICLK;     /* Internally Generated Clock */
dm(SPCTL2) = ustat4;

/* Configure SPORT3 as a receiver */
/* externally generating clock and frame sync */
r0 = 0x0;    dm(DIV3) = R0;
ustat3 = SPEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A */
          SLEN32|   /* 32-bit word length */
          FSR;      /* Frame Sync Required */
dm(SPCTL3) = ustat3;

/* Set up loop to transmit and receive data */
lcnt = LENGTH(tx_buf2a), do (pc,4) until lce;
/* Retrieve data using DAG1 and send TX via SPORT2 */

```

## SPORT Programming Examples

```
r0 = dm(i4,m4);
dm(TXSP2A) = r0;
/* Receive data via SPORT3 and save via DAG2 */
r0 = dm(RXSP3A);
pm(i12,m12) = r0;

_main.end:  jump (pc,0);
```

### Listing 9-3. SPORT Transmit Using DMA

```
/* SPORT DMA Parameter Registers */
#define IISP4A    0x840
#define IISP5A    0x848
#define IMSP4A    0x841
#define IMSP5A    0x849
#define CSP4A     0x842
#define CSP5A     0x84A

/* SPORT Control Registers */
#define DIV4      0x802
#define DIV5      0x803
#define SPCTL4    0x800
#define SPCTL5    0x801
#define SPMCTL45 0x804

/* SPMCTL Bits */
#define SPL       0x00001000

/* SPCTL Bits */
#define SPEN_A    0x00000001
#define SDEN_A    0x00040000
#define SLEN32    0x000001F0
#define SPTRAN    0x02000000
#define IFS       0x00004000
```



```

#define FSR      0x00002000
#define ICLK     0x00000400

/* Default Buffer Length */
#define BUFSIZE 10

.SECTION/DM seg_dmda;
/*Transmit buffer*/
.var tx_buf5a[BUFSIZE] = 0x11111111,
                        0x22222222,
                        0x33333333,
                        0x44444444,
                        0x55555555,
                        0x66666666,
                        0x77777777,
                        0x88888888,
                        0x99999999,
                        0xAAAAAAAA;

/*Receive buffer*/
.var rx_buf4a[BUFSIZE];

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.SECTION/PM seg_pmco;
_main:

/* SPORT Loopback: Use SPORT4 as RX & SPORT5 as TX.
   For no loopback (TDM mode), program MTaCSb
   [a=0,2,4 & b=0,1,2,3] and MRcCSd [a=1,3,5 & b=0,1,2,3], */

/* initially clear SPORT control register */
r0 = 0x00000000;
dm(SPCTL4) = r0;

```

## SPORT Programming Examples

```
dm(SPCTL5) = r0;
dm(SPMCTL45) = r0;

SPORT_DMA_setup:
/* SPORT 5 Internal DMA memory address */
r0 = tx_buf5a;    dm(IISP5A) = r0;
/* SPORT 5 Internal DMA memory access modifier */
r0 = 1;          dm(IMSP5A) = r0;
/* SPORT 5 Number of DMA transfers to be done */
r0 = @tx_buf5a;  dm(CSP5A) = r0;

/* SPORT 4 Internal DMA memory address */
r0 = rx_buf4a;    dm(IISP4A) = r0;
/* SPORT 4 Internal DMA memory access modifier */
r0 = 1;          dm(IMSP4A) = r0;
/* SPORT 4 Number of DMA5 transfers to be done */
r0 = @rx_buf4a;  dm(CSP4A) = r0;

/* set internal loopback bit for SPORT4 & SPORT5 */
bit set ustat3 SPL;
dm(SPMCTL45) = ustat3;

/* Configure SPORT5 as a transmitter */
/* internally generating clock and frame sync */
/* CLKDIV = [fCCLK(200 MHz)/4 x FSCLK(20 MHz)] - 1 = 0x004 */
/* FSDIV = [FSCLK(20 MHz)/TFS(.625 MHz)] - 1 = 31 = 0x001F */
R0 = 0x001F0004;    dm(DIV5) = R0;
ustat4 = SPEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A */
          SLEN32|    /* 32-bit word length */
          FSR|       /* Frame Sync Required */
          SPTRAN|    /* Transmit on enabled channels */
          SDEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A DMA */
          IFS|       /* Internally Generated Frame Sync */
          ICLK;      /* Internally Generated Clock */
```

```
dm(SPCTL5) = ustat4;

/* Configure SPORT4 as a receiver */
/* externally generating clock and frame sync */
r0 = 0x0;      dm(DIV4) = R0;
ustat3 = SPEN_A|    /* Enable Channel A */
          SLEN32|   /* 32-bit word length */
          FSR|      /* Frame Sync Required */
          SDEN_A;   /* Enable Channel A DMA */
dm(SPCTL4) = ustat3;

_main.end:  jump (pc,0);
```

## SPORT Programming Examples

# 10 SERIAL PERIPHERAL INTERFACE PORT

The ADSP-2126x processor is equipped with a synchronous serial peripheral interface port that is compatible with the industry-standard Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI). The SPI port supports communication with a variety of peripheral devices including codecs, data converters, sample rate converters, S/PDIF or AES/EBU digital audio transmitters and receivers, LCDs, shift registers, microcontrollers, and FPGA devices with SPI emulation capabilities.

The processor's SPI port provides the following features and capabilities:

- A simple 4-wire interface consisting of two data pins, a device select pin, and a clock pin
- Full-duplex operation (core and DMA) that allows the ADSP-2126x to transmit and receive data simultaneously on the same port
- Special data formats to accommodate little and big endian data, different word lengths, and packing modes
- Master and Slave modes as well as Multimaster mode in which the ADSP-2126x processor can be connected to up to four other SPI devices
- Open drain outputs to avoid data contention and to support multi-master scenarios
- Programmable baud rates, clock polarities, and phases

## Functional Description

- Master or slave booting from a master SPI device
- DMA capability to allow transfer of data without core overhead

## Functional Description

The SPI interface contains a Transmit Shift (TXSR) and a Receive Shift (RXSR) register. The TXSR register serially transmits data and the RXSR register receives data synchronously with the SPI clock signal (SPICLK).

Figure 10-1 shows a block diagram of the SPI interface. The data is shifted into or out of the shift registers on two separate pins: the Master In Slave Out (MISO) pin and the Master Out Slave In (MOSI) pin.

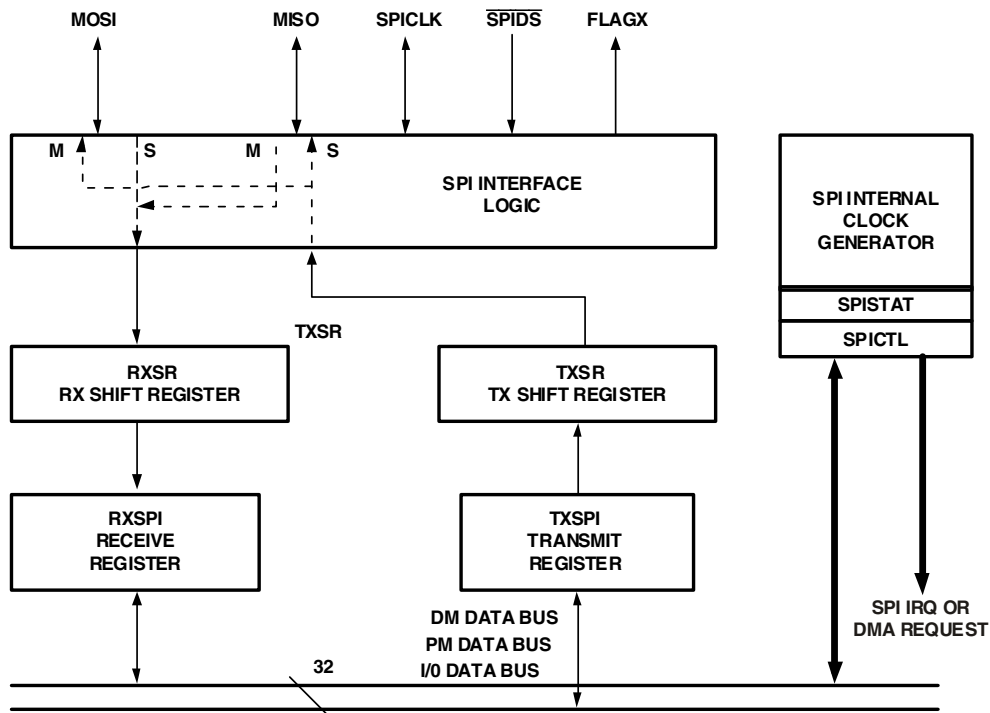


Figure 10-1. SPI Block Diagram

During data transfers one SPI device acts as the SPI master by controlling the data flow. It does this by generating the  $SPI_{CLK}$  and asserting the SPI Device Select signal ( $\overline{SPIDS}$ ). The SPI master receives data using the  $MISO$  pin and transmits using the  $MOSI$  pin. The other SPI device acts as the SPI slave by receiving new data from the master into its Receive Shift register using the  $MOSI$  pin. It transmits requested data out of the Transmit Shift register using the  $MISO$  pin.

The SPI port contains a transmit data buffer ( $TX_{SPI}$ ) and a receive data buffer ( $RX_{SPI}$ ). Data to be transmitted is written to  $TX_{SPI}$  and then automatically transferred into the Transmit Shift register. Once a full data word has been received in the Receive Shift register, the data is automatically transferred into  $RX_{SPI}$ , from which the data can be read. When the processor is in SPI Master mode, programmable flag pins provide slave selection. These pins are connected to the  $\overline{SPIDS}$  of the slave devices.

Different CPUs or DSPs can take turns being master, and one master may simultaneously shift data into multiple slaves (Broadcast mode). However, only one slave may drive its output to write data back to the master at any given time. This must be enforced in the Broadcast mode, where several slaves can be selected to receive data from the master, but only one slave can be enabled to send data back to the master.

In a multimaster or multidevice ADSP-2126x environment where multiple processors are connected via their SPI ports, all  $MOSI$  pins are connected together, all  $MISO$  pins are connected together, and the  $SPI_{CLK}$  pins are connected together as well. The  $FLG_x$  pins connect to each of the slave SPI devices in the system via their  $\overline{SPIDS}$  pins.

## SPI Interface Signals

The SPI protocol uses a 4-wire protocol to enable bidirectional serial communication. This section describes the signals used to connect the SPI

## SPI Interface Signals

ports in a system that has multiple devices. [Figure 10-2](#) shows the master-slave connections between two ADSP-2126x devices.

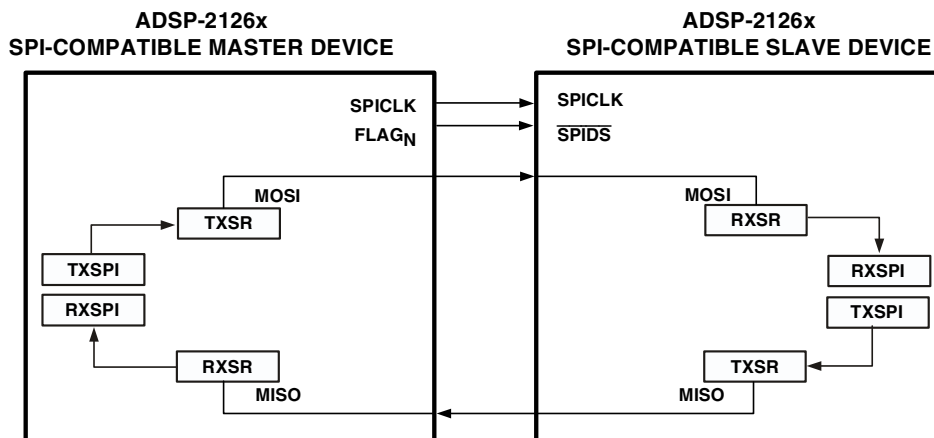


Figure 10-2. Master-Slave Interconnections

### SPI Clock Signal (SPICLK)

The `SPICLK` signal is the Serial Peripheral Interface Clock signal. This control signal is driven by the master and regulates the flow of data bits. The master may transmit data at a variety of baud rates. The `SPICLK` cycles once for each bit transmitted.

The `SPICLK` signal is a gated clock that is only active during data transfers, and only for the duration of the transferred word. The number of active edges is equal to the number of bits driven on the data lines. The clock rate can be as high as one-fourth the core clock rate. For master devices, the clock rate is determined by the 15-bit value of the Baud Rate register (`SPIBAUD`). [For more information, see “SPI Baud Setup Register \(SPI-BAUD\)” on page 10-34.](#) For slave devices, the value in the `SPIBAUD` register is ignored. When the SPI device is a master, `SPICLK` is an output signal; when the SPI is a slave, `SPICLK` is an input signal. Slave devices ignore the serial clock if the slave-select input is deasserted (HIGH).



The `SPICLK` signal is used to shift out the data driven onto the `MISO` lines and shift in the data driven onto the `MOSI` lines. The data is always shifted out on one edge of the clock (referred to as the active edge) and sampled on the opposite edge of the clock (referred to as the sampling edge). Clock polarity and clock phase relative to data are programmable via bit 11 (`CLKPL`) and bit 10 (`CPHASE`) in the `SPICTL` control register.

## SPICLK Timing

When the processor is configured as an SPI-Slave, the SPI-master must drive an `SPICLK` signal that conforms with [Figure 10-3](#). For exact timing parameters, please refer to the appropriate ADSP-2126x data sheet.

The  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  lead time ( $T_1$ ), the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  lag time ( $T_2$ ), and the sequential transfer delay time ( $T_3$ ) must always be greater than or equal to one-half the `SPICLK` period. The minimum time between successive word transfers ( $T_4$ ) is two `SPICLK` periods. This time period is measured from the last active edge of `SPICLK` of one word to the first active edge of `SPICLK` of the next word. This calculation is independent from the configuration of the SPI (`CPHASE`, `SPIMS`, and so on).

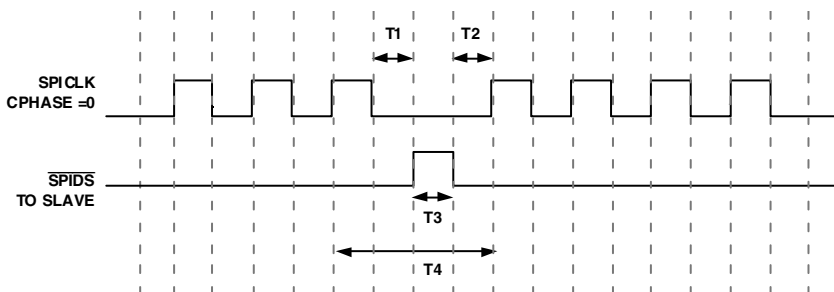


Figure 10-3. SPICLK Timing

## SPI Slave Select Outputs (SPIDS0-3)

When `CPHASE=0`, the SPI port hardware controls the device-select signal automatically (determined by `DSxEN` bits in `SPIFLG`). Setting `CPHASE=1`

## SPI Interface Signals

requires these signals to be manually controlled in software via the  $SPID\bar{S}x$  bits in the  $SPIFLG$  register (the  $SPID\bar{S}x$  bits are ignored when  $CPHASE=0$ ).

### SPI Device Select Signal

The  $\overline{SPID\bar{S}}$  signal is the Serial Peripheral Interface Device Select Input signal. This is an active low signal used to enable an ADSP-2126x configured as a slave device. This input-only pin behaves like a chip select, and is provided by the master device for the slave devices. When the processor is the SPI-master in a multimaster environment, the  $\overline{SPID\bar{S}}$  pin acts as an error signal. In multimaster mode, if the  $\overline{SPID\bar{S}}$  input signal of a master is asserted (driven low), an error has occurred. This means that another device is also trying to be the master device.

### Master Out Slave In (MOSI)

The  $MOSI$  pin is one of the bidirectional I/O data pins. If the processor is configured as a master, the  $MOSI$  pin becomes a data transmit (output) pin. If the processor is configured as a slave, the  $MOSI$  pin becomes a data receive (input) pin. In an ADSP-2126x processor SPI interconnection, the data is shifted out from the  $MOSI$  output pin of the master and shifted into the  $MOSI$  input of the slave.

### Master In Slave Out (MISO)

The  $MISO$  pin is one of the bidirectional I/O data pins. If the ADSP-2126x is configured as a master, the  $MISO$  pin becomes a data receive (input) pin. If the ADSP-2126x is configured as a slave, the  $MISO$  pin becomes a data transmit (output) pin. In an SPI interconnection, the data is shifted out from the  $MISO$  output pin of the slave and shifted into the  $MISO$  input pin of the master.

Only one slave is allowed to transmit data at any given time. [Figure 10-4](#) illustrates how the ADSP-2126x can be used as the slave SPI device. The

8-bit host microcontroller is the SPI master. The processor can be booted via its SPI interface to allow application code and data to be downloaded prior to runtime.

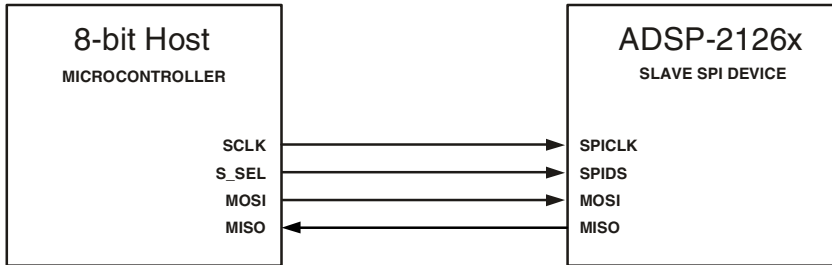


Figure 10-4. ADSP-2126x Processor as SPI Slave

Figure 10-5 illustrates an example of an ADSP-2126x SPI interface where the processor is the SPI master. When it uses the SPI interface, the processor can be directed to alter the conversion resources, mute the sound, modify the volume, and power down the AD1855 stereo DAC.

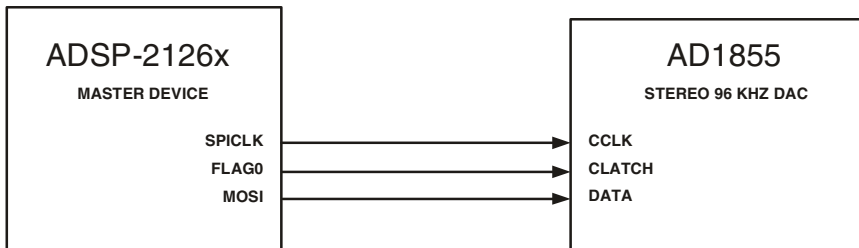


Figure 10-5. ADSP-2126x Processor as SPI Master

## SPI General Operations

The SPI in the ADSP-2126x processor can be used in a single master as well as in a multimaster environment. In both configurations, every MOSI pin in the SPI system is connected. Likewise, every MISO pin in the system

is on a single node, and every `SPICLK` pin should be connected. SPI transmission and reception are always enabled simultaneously, unless the Broadcast mode has been selected. In Broadcast mode, several slaves can be configured to receive, but only one of the slaves can be in Transmit mode, driving the `MISO` line. If the transmit or receive is not needed, `MISO` can be ignored. This section describes the clock signals, SPI operation as a master and as a slave, and error generation.

## SPI Enable

When the SPI is disabled (`SPIEN = 0`), the flag pins used as slave device selects (`FLG0–FLG3`) are controlled by the general-purpose flag I/O module, and no data transfers will occur. For slaves, the slave-select input acts like a reset for the internal SPI logic.

**i** When the `SPIPDN` bit (bit 30 in the `PMCTL` register) is set (= 1 which shuts down the clock to the SPI), the `FLGx` pins cannot be used (via the `FLGS7-0` register bits) because the `FLGx` pins are synchronized with the clock.

For this reason, the `SPIDS` line must be error free. The `SPIEN` signal can also be used as a software reset of the internal SPI logic. An exception to this is the W1C-type (write 1-to-clear) bits in the `SPISTAT` Status register will remain set if they are already set. For a list of write 1 to-clear-bits.

**i** Always clear the W1C-type bits before re-enabling the SPI, as these bits will not get cleared even if SPI is disabled. This can be done by writing `0xFF` to the `SPISTAT` register. In the case of an MME error, enable the SPI port after `SPIDS` is deasserted.

## Open Drain Mode (OPD)

In a multimaster or multislave SPI system, the data output pins (`MOSI` and `MISO`) can be configured to behave as open drain drivers to prevent contention and possible damage to pin drivers. An external pull-up

resistor is required on both the `MOSI` and `MISO` pins when this option is selected.

When the `OPD` is set and the SPI port is configured as a master, the `MOSI` pin is three-stated when the data driven out on `MOSI` is logic-high. The `MOSI` pin is not three-stated when the driven data is logic-low. A zero is driven on the `MOSI` pin in this case. Similarly, when `OPD` is set and the SPI port is configured as a slave, the `MISO` pin is three-stated if the data driven out on `MISO` is logic-high.

### Master Mode Operation

When the SPI is configured as core master (and DMA mode is not selected), the SPI port should be configured and transfers started using the following steps:

1. When `CPHASE` is set to 0, the slave selects are automatically controlled by the SPI port. Otherwise [`CPHASE = 1`] the slave selects are controlled by the core, and user software controls the pins through the `SPIFLGx` bits. Before enabling the SPI port, programs should specify which slave-select signal to use by writing to the `SPIFLG` register, setting one or more of the SPI Flag Select bits (`DSxEN`).
2. Write to the `SPICTL` and `SPIBAUD` registers, enabling the device as a master and configuring the SPI system by specifying the appropriate word length, transfer format, baud rate, and other necessary information.
3. If `CPHASE = 1` (user-controlled slave-select signals), activate the desired slaves by clearing one or more of the SPI flag bits (`SPIFLG`) in the `SPIFLG` register.
4. Initiate the SPI transfer. The trigger mechanism for starting the transfer is dependant upon the `TIMOD` bits in the `SPICTL` register. See [Table 10-1 on page 10-16](#) for details.

5. The SPI generates the programmed clock pulses on `SPICLK` and simultaneously shifts data out of `MOSI` and shifts data in from `MISO`. Before starting to shift, the Transmit Shift register is loaded with the contents of the `TXSPI` register. At the end of the transfer, the contents of the Receive Shift register are loaded into `RXSPI`.
6. With each new transfer initiate command, the SPI continues to send and receive words, according to the SPI Transfer mode (`TIMOD` in `SPICTL`). See [Table 10-1 on page 10-16](#) for more details.

## Slave Mode Operation

When a device is enabled as a slave, the start of a transfer is triggered by a transition of the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  Select signal to the active state (LOW) or by the first active edge of the clock (`SPICLK`), depending on the state of `CPHASE`.

The following steps illustrate SPI operation in the slave mode:

1. Write to the `SPICTL` register to make the mode of the serial link the same as the mode that is setup in the SPI master.
2. To prepare for the data transfer, write the data to be transmitted into the `TXSPI` register.
3. Once the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  signal's falling edge is detected, the slave starts sending and receiving data on active `SPICLK` edges.
4. The reception or transmission continues until  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  is released or until the slave has received the proper number of clock cycles.
5. The slave device continues to receive or transmit with each new falling-edge transition on  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  or active `SPICLK` clock edge.

If the transmit buffer remains empty, or the receive buffer remains full, the devices operate according to the states of the `SENDZ` and `GM` bits in the `SPICTL` register.

- If `SENDZ = 1` and the transmit buffer is empty, the device repeatedly transmits zero's on the `MISO` pin.
- If `SENDZ = 0` and the transmit buffer is empty, it repeatedly transmits the last word it transmitted before the transmit buffer became empty.
- If `GM = 1` and the receive buffer is full, the device continues to receive new data from the `MOSI` pin, overwriting the older data in the `RXSPI` buffer.
- If `GM = 0` and the receive buffer is full, the incoming data is discarded, and the `RXSPI` register is not updated.

### Multimaster Conditions

A Multimaster mode is implemented to allow an SPI system to transition mastership from one SPI device to another. In a multidevice SPI configuration, several SPI ports are connected and any one of them can become a master at a given time, but only one master is allowed at any one time.

If a processor is a slave and wishes to become the SPI master, it asserts the `SPIDS` pin for the processor that is currently master and then drives the `SPICLK` signal. Once it receives the `SPIDS` signal, the device that was master is immediately reconfigured as a slave. In order to safely transition from one master to the other the SPI port features the use of open drain outputs for the data pad drivers in order to avoid data contention.

More information on this topic is described in [“Mode Fault Error \(MME\)” on page 10-40](#).

# SPI Data Transfer Operations

The following sections provide information on the two methods the ADSP-2126x uses to transfer data; through the core or through DMA.

## Core Transmit and Receive Operations

For core-driven SPI transfers, the software has to read from or write to the `RXSPI` and `TXSPI` registers to control the transfer. It is important to check the buffer status before reading from or writing to these registers because the core *does not* hang when it attempts to read from an empty buffer or write to a full buffer. When the core writes to a full buffer, the data that is in that buffer is overwritten and the SPI begins transmitting the new data. Invalid data is obtained when the core reads from an empty buffer.



- For a master, when the transmit buffer becomes empty, or the receive buffer becomes full, the SPI device stalls the SPI clock until it reads all the data from the receive buffer or it detects that the transmit buffer contains a piece of data.
- For a master configured with `TIMOD = 01`: When the transmit buffer becomes empty, the SPI device stalls the SPI clock until a piece of data is written to the transmit buffer.
  - For a master configured with `TIMOD = 00`: When the receive buffer becomes full the SPI device stalls the SPI clock until all of the data is read from the receive buffer.

## SPI DMA

The SPI has a single DMA channel associated with it that can be configured to support either an SPI transmit or a receive channel, but not both simultaneously. In addition to the `TXSPI` and `RXSPI` data buffers, there is a four-word deep DMA FIFO the SPI port uses to improve throughput.



The SPI port supports both Master mode and Slave mode DMA. The following sections describe Slave and Master mode DMA operation, DMA chaining, switching between transmit and receive DMA operations, and processing DMA interrupt errors.



Do not write to the `TXSPI` register during an active SPI transmit DMA operation because DMA data will be overwritten. However, writes to the `TXSPI` register during an active SPI receive DMA operation are permitted. The `RXS` register is cleared when the `RXSPI` register is read. Reads from the `RXSPI` register are allowed at any time during transmit DMA. Interrupts are generated based on DMA events and are configured in the `SPIDMAC` register.

Similarly, do not read from the `RXSPI` register during active SPI DMA receive operations.

In order for a transmit DMA operation to begin, the transmit buffer must initially be empty (`TXS = 0`). While this is normally the case, this means that the `TXSPI` register should not be used for any purpose other than SPI transfers. For example, the `TXSPI` register should not be used as a scratch register for temporary data storage. Writing to the `TXSPI` register via the software sets the `TXS` bit.

When the SPI DMA engine is configured for transmitting:

1. The receive interface cannot generate an interrupt, but the status can be polled.
2. The four-deep FIFO is not available in the receive path.

Similarly, when the SPI DMA engine is configured for receiving,

1. The transmit interface cannot generate an interrupt, but the status can be polled.
2. The four-deep FIFO is not available in the transmit path.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

### Master Mode DMA Operation

To configure the SPI port for Master mode DMA transfers:

1. Specify which FLG pin(s) to use as the slave-select signal(s) by setting one or more of the SPI Flag (SPIFLG register) Select bits (DSxEN bits 3–0).
2. Enable the device as a master and configure the SPI system by selecting the appropriate word length, transfer format, baud rate, and so on in the SPIBAUD and SPICTL registers. The TIMOD field (bits 1–0) in the SPICTL register is configured to select transmit or receive with DMA mode (TIMOD = 10).
3. Activate the desired slaves by clearing one or more of the SPI flag bits (SPIFLGx) of SPIFLG if CPHASE = 1.
4. For a single DMA, define the parameters of the DMA transfer by writing to the IISPI, IMSPI, and CSPI registers. For DMA chaining, write the chain pointer address to the CPSPI register. The CPSPI register is a 20-bit read-write register that can contain address information.
5. Write to the SPI DMA configuration register, (SPIDMAC), to specify the DMA direction (SPIRCV, bit 1) and to enable the SPI DMA engine (SPIDEN, bit 0). If DMA chaining is desired, set (= 1) the SPICHEN bit (bit 4) in the SPIDMAC register.



To avoid data corruption, enable the SPI port before enabling DMA.

If flags are used as slave selects, programs should activate the flags by clearing the flag after SPICTL and SPIBAUD are configured, but before enabling the DMA. When CPHASE = 0, and a program is using DMA, the program must use automatic flags using SPIFLGx.

When enabled as a master, the DMA engine transmits or receives data as follows:

1. If the SPI system is configured for transmitting, the DMA engine reads data from memory into the SPI DMA FIFO. Data from the DMA FIFO is loaded into the `TXSPI` register and then into the Transmit Shift register. This initiates the transfer on the SPI port.
2. If configured to receive, data from `RXSPI` is automatically loaded into the SPI DMA FIFO, the DMA engine reads data from the SPI DMA FIFO and writes to memory. Finally, the SPI initiates the receive transfer.
3. The SPI generates the programmed signal pulses on `SPICLK` and simultaneously shifts data out of `MOSI` and shifts data in from `MISO`.
4. The SPI continues sending or receiving words until the SPI DMA word count register transitions from 1 to 0.

If the DMA engine is unable to keep up with the transmit stream during a transmit operation because the IOP requires the IOD (I/O data) bus to service another DMA channel (or for another reason), the `SPICLK` stalls until data is written into the `TXSPI` register. All aspects of SPI receive operation should be ignored. The data in the `RXSPI` register is not intended to be used, and the `RXS` (bits 28–27 and 31–30 in the `SPCTLx` register) and `SPISTAT` bits (bits 26 and 29) should be ignored. The `ROVF` overrun condition cannot generate an error interrupt in this mode.

If the DMA engine cannot keep up with the receive data stream during receive operations, then `SPICLK` stalls until data is read from `RXSPI`. While performing a receive DMA, the processor core assumes the transmit buffer is empty. If `SENDZ = 1`, the device repeatedly transmits 0's on the `MOSI` pin.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

If `SENDZ = 0`, it repeatedly transmits the contents of the `TXSPI` register. The `TUNF` underrun condition cannot generate an error interrupt in this mode.

**i** For receive DMA in master mode the `SPICLK` stops only when the FIFO and `RXSPI` buffer is full (even if the DMA count is zero). Therefore, `SPICLK` runs for an additional five word transfers filling junk data in the FIFO and the `RXSPI` buffer. This data must be cleared before a new DMA is initiated.

A master SPI DMA sequence may involve back-to-back transmission and/or reception of multiple DMA transfers. The SPI controller supports such a sequence with minimal processor core interaction.

### Master Transfer Preparation

When the processor is enabled as a master, the initiation of a transfer is defined by the two bit fields (bits 1–0) of `TIMOD` in the `SPICTL` register. Based on these two bits and the status of the interface, a new transfer is started upon either a read of the `RXSPI` register or a write to the `TXSPI` register. This is summarized in [Table 10-1](#).

Table 10-1. Transfer Initiation

TIMOD	Function	Transfer Initiated Upon	Action, Interrupt
00	Transmit and Receive	Initiate new single word transfer upon read of <code>RXSPI</code> and previous transfer completed.	The SPI interrupt is latched in every core clock cycle in which the <code>RXSPI</code> buffer has a word in it. Emptying the <code>RXSPI</code> buffer or disabling the SPI port at the same time ( <code>SPIEN = 0</code> ) stops the interrupt latch.
01	Transmit and Receive	Initiate new single word transfer upon write to <code>TXSPI</code> and previous transfer completed.	The SPI interrupt is latched in every core clock cycle in which the <code>TXSPI</code> buffer is empty. Writing to the <code>TXSPI</code> buffer or disabling the SPI port at the same time ( <code>SPIEN = 0</code> ) stops the interrupt latch.

Table 10-1. Transfer Initiation (Cont'd)

TIMOD	Function	Transfer Initiated Upon	Action, Interrupt
10	Transmit or Receive with DMA	Initiate new multiword transfer upon write to DMA Enable bit. Individual word transfers begin with either a DMA write to TXSPI or a DMA read of RXSPI depending on the direction of the transfer as specified by the SPIRCV bit.	If chaining is disabled, the SPI interrupt is latched in the cycle when the DMA count decrements from 1 to 0. If chaining is enabled, interrupt function is based on the PCI bit in the CP register. If PCI = 0, the SPI interrupt is latched at the end of the DMA sequence. If PCI = 1, then the SPI interrupt is latched after each DMA in the sequence. <a href="#">For more information, see “DMA Transfer Direction” on page 7-21.</a>
11	Reserved		

## Slave Mode DMA Operation

A Slave mode DMA transfer occurs when the SPI port is enabled and configured in Slave mode, and DMA is enabled. When the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  signal transitions to the active-low state or when the first active edge of  $\text{SPICLK}$  is detected, it triggers the start of a transfer.

To configure for Slave mode DMA:

1. Write to the  $\text{SPICTL}$  register to make the mode of the serial link the same as the mode that is set up in the SPI master. Configure the  $\text{TIMOD}$  field to select transmit or receive DMA mode ( $\text{TIMOD} = 10$ ).
2. Define a DMA receive (or transmit) transfer by writing to the  $\text{IISPI}$ ,  $\text{IMSPI}$ , and  $\text{CSPI}$  registers. For DMA chaining, write to the chain pointer address of the  $\text{CPSPI}$  register.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

3. Write to the `SPIDMAC` register to enable the SPI DMA engine and configure:

- A receive access (`SPIRCV = 1`) or
- A transmit access (`SPIRCV = 0`)

If DMA chaining is desired, set the `SPICHEN` bit in the `SPIDMAC` register.



Enable the SPI port before enabling DMA to avoid data corruption.

### Slave Transfer Preparation

When enabled as a slave, the device prepares for a new transfer according to the function and actions described in [Table 10-1](#).

The following steps illustrate the SPI receive or transmit DMA sequence in an SPI slave in response to a master command:

1. Once the slave-select input is active, the processor starts receiving and transmitting data on active `SPICLK` edges. The data for one channel (`TX` or `RX`) is automatically transferred to/from memory by the IOP. The function of the other channel is dependant on the `GM` and `SENDZ` bits in the `SPICTL` register.
2. Reception or transmission continues until the SPI DMA word count register transitions from 1 to 0.
3. A number of conditions can occur while the processor is configured for Slave mode:
  - If the DMA engine cannot keep up with the receive data stream during receive operations, the receive buffer operates according to the state of the `GM` bit in the `SPICTL` register.

- If  $GM = 0$  and the DMA buffer is full, the incoming data is discarded, and the `RXSPI` register is not updated. While performing a receive DMA, the transmit buffer is assumed to be empty. If  $SENDZ = 1$ , the device repeatedly transmits zero's on the `MOSI` pin. If  $SENDZ = 0$ , it repeatedly transmits the contents of the `TXSPI` register.
- If  $GM = 1$  and the DMA buffer is full, the device continues to receive new data from the `MISO` pin, overwriting the older data in the DMA buffer.
- If the DMA engine cannot keep up with the transmit data stream during a transmit operation because another DMA engine has been granted the bus (or for another reason), the transmit port operates according to the state of the  $SENDZ$  bit in the `SPICTL` register.

If  $SENDZ = 1$  and the DMA buffer is empty, the device repeatedly transmits zero's on the `MOSI` pin. If  $SENDZ = 0$  and the DMA buffer is empty, it repeatedly transmits the last word it transmitted before the DMA buffer became empty. All aspects of SPI receive operation should be ignored. The data in the `RXSPI` register is not intended to be used, and the `RXS` and `ROVF` bits should be ignored. The `ROVF` overrun condition cannot generate an error interrupt in this mode.



While a DMA transfer may be used on one channel (`TX` or `RX`), the core, (based on the `RXS` and `TXS` status bits), can transfer data in the other direction.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

### Changing SPI Configuration

Programs should take the following precautions when changing SPI configurations.

- The SPI configuration must not be changed during a data transfer.
- Change the clock polarity only when no slaves are selected.
- Change the SPI configuration when  $SPIEN = 0$ . For example, if operating as a master in a multislave system, and there are slaves that require different data or clock formats, then the master SPI should be disabled, reconfigured, and then re-enabled.

However, when an SPI communication link consists of the following: 1) a single master and a single slave, 2)  $CPHASE = 1$ , and 3) the slave's slave select input is tied low, the program can change the SPI configuration. In this case, the slave is always selected. Data corruption can be avoided by enabling the slave only after configuring both the master and slave devices.

When performing transmit operations with the SPI port, disabling the SPI port prematurely can cause data to be corrupted and or not fully transmitted. Before the program disables the SPI port in order to reconfigure it, the status bits should be polled to ensure that all valid data has been completely transferred. For core-driven transfers, data moves from the  $TXSPI$  buffer into a shift register. The following bits should be checked before disabling the SPI port:

1. Wait for the  $TXSPI$  buffer to empty into the shift register. This is done when the  $TXS$  bit, (bit 3) of the  $SPISTAT$  register becomes zero.
2. Wait for the SPI Shift register to finish shifting out data. This is done when the  $SPIF$  bit, (bit 0) of the  $SPISTAT$  register becomes one.



3. Disable the SPI Port by setting the `SPIEN` bit, (bit 0) in the `SPICTL` register, to zero.

When performing transmit DMA transfers, data moves through a four deep SPI DMA FIFO, then into the `TXSPI` buffer, and finally into the shift register. DMA interrupts are latched when the I/O processor moves the last word from memory to the peripheral. For the SPI, this means that the SPI “DMA complete” interrupt is latched when there are still six words left to be fully transmitted (four in the FIFO, one in the `TXSPI` buffer, and one being shifted out of the Shift register). To disable the SPI port after a DMA transmit operation, use these steps:

1. Wait for DMA FIFO to empty. This is done when the `SPISx` bits (bits 13–12) in the `SPIDMAC` register become zero.
2. Wait for the `TXSPI` register to empty. This is done when the `TXS` bit (bit 3) in the `SPISTAT` register becomes zero.
3. Wait for the SPI Shift register to finish transferring the last word. This is done when the `SPIF` bit, (bit 0) of the `SPISTAT` register, becomes one.
4. Disable the SPI Port by setting the `SPIEN` bit, (bit 0) of the `SPICTL` register, to zero.

### Switching From Transmit To Receive DMA

The following sequence details the steps for switching from transmit to receive DMA.

With disabling the SPI:

1. Write 0x00 to the `SPICTL` register to disable SPI. Disabling the SPI also clears the `RXSPI/TXSPI` registers and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA by writing 0x00 to the `SPIDMAC` register.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the SPISTAT register. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the SPICTL register and enable the SPI port.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and enable DMA.

Without disabling the SPI:

1. Clear RXSPI/TXSPI without disabling SPI. This can be done by ORing 0xc0000 with the present value in the SPICTL register. For example programs can use the RXFLSH and TXFLSH bits to clear TXSPI/RXSPI.
2. Disable DMA by writing 0x00 to the SPIDMAC register.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the MME bit (bit 1) in the SPISTAT register. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the SPICTL register to clear the TXSPI/RXSPI register values.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and enabling DMA.

## Switching From Receive to Transmit DMA

Use the following sequence to switch from receive to transmit DMA. Note that TXSPI and RXSPI are registers but they may not contain any bits, only address information.

With disabling of the SPI:

1. Write 0x00 to the `SPICTL` register to disable SPI. Disabling SPI also clears the `RXSPI/TXSPI` register contents and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA and clear the DMA FIFO by writing 0x80 to the `SPIDMAC` register. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation is cleared because the `SPICLK` signal runs for five more word transfers even after the DMA count falls to zero in receive DMA.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the `SPISTAT` register. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTL` register and enable SPI.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the `SPIDMAC` register.

Without disabling the SPI:

1. Clear `RXSPI/TXSPI` without disabling the SPI. This can be done by ORing 0xc0000 with the present value in the `SPICTL` register. Use the `RXFLSH` (bit 19) and `TXFLSH` (bit 18 in the `SPICTL` register) bits to clear the `RXSPI/TXSPI` registers.
2. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO. For example, write 0x80 to the `SPIDMAC` register. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation clears because the `SPICLK` runs for five more word transfers even after the DMA count is zero in receive DMA.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the `W1C`-type bits in the `SPISTAT` register. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.

## SPI Data Transfer Operations

4. Reconfigure the `SPICTL` register to clear the `TXSPI/RXSPI` registers.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the `SPIDMAC` register using the `SPIDEN` bit (bit 0). These registers are described in [Table 7-4 on page 7-25](#).

### DMA Error Interrupts

The `SPIUNF` and `SPIOVF` bits of the `SPIDMAC` register indicate transmission errors during a DMA operation in Slave mode. When one of the bits is set, an SPI interrupt occurs. The following sequence details the steps to respond to this interrupt.

With disabling the SPI:

1. Disable the SPI port by writing `0x00` to the `SPICTL` register.
2. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO. For example, write `0x80` to the `SPIDMAC` register. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation clears before configuring a new DMA operation.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bit in the `SPISTAT` register. This ensures that the error bits `SPIOVF` and `SPIUNF` (in the `SPIDMAC` register) clear when a new DMA is configured.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTL` register and enable SPI using the `SPIEN` bit.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the `SPIDMAC` register.

Without disabling the SPI:

1. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO. For example, write 0x80 to the `SPIDMAC` register. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation clears before configuring a new DMA operation.
2. Clear `RXSPI/TXSPI` without disabling SPI. This can be done by ORing 0xc0000 with the present value in the `SPICTL` register. Use the `RXFLSH` and `TXFLSH` bits to clear the `RXSPI/TXSPI` registers.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the `SPISTAT` register. This ensures that error bits `SPIOVF` and `SPIUNF` in the `SPIDMAC` register are cleared when a new DMA is configured.
4. Reconfigure `SPICTL` to clear the `RXSPI/TXSPI` register bits.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the `SPIDMAC` register.

### DMA Chaining

DMA chaining is enabled when the `SPICHEN` bit is set to 1 in the `SPIDMAC` register. In this mode, the DMA registers are loaded using a DMA transfer from a predefined Transfer Control Block (TCB). When this load occurs, it causes the Chaining Status bit (`SPICHS`) to be set. Once the chain pointer load completes, the `SPICHS` bit is cleared. Upon completion of the transfer block load, the normal DMA transfer is initiated. [Table 10-2](#) describes the order of loading. For more information about chaining, refer to [“Chaining DMA Processes” on page 7-10](#).

## SPI Transfer Formats

Table 10-2. DMA Chaining Sequence

Address	Register	Description
CPSPI	DMA Start Address	Address in Memory
CPSPI – 1	DMA Address Modifier	Address increment
CPSPI – 2	DMA Word Count	Number of words to transfer
CPSPI – 3	DMA Next TCB	Pointer to address of next TCB

## SPI Transfer Formats

The ADSP-2126x SPI supports four different combinations of serial clock phases and polarity. The application code can select any of these combinations using the `CLKPL` and `CPHASE` bits in the `SPICTL` register.

[Figure 10-6 on page 10-27](#) shows the transfer format when `CPHASE = 0` where `SPICLK` starts toggling in the middle of the data transfer, `WL = 0`, and `MSBF = 1`. [Figure 10-7 on page 10-28](#) shows the transfer format when `CPHASE = 1`. Each diagram shows two waveforms for `SPICLK`—one for `CLKPL = 0` and the other for `CLKPL = 1`. The diagrams may be interpreted as master or slave timing diagrams since the `SPICLK`, `MISO`, and `MOSI` pins are directly connected between the master and the slave. The `MISO` signal is the output from the slave (slave transmission), and the `MOSI` signal is the output from the master (master transmission).

The `SPICLK` signal is generated by the master, and the `SPIDS` signal represents the slave device select input to the processor from the SPI master. The diagrams represent 8-bit transfers (`WL = 0`) with MSB first (`MSBF = 1`). Any combination of the `WL` and `MSBF` bits of the `SPICTL` register is allowed. For example, a 16-bit transfer with the LSB first is one possible configuration.

The clock polarity and the clock phase should be identical for the master device and slave devices involved in the communication link. The transfer

format from the master may be changed between transfers to adjust to various requirements of a slave device.

When  $CPHASE = 0$ , the slave select line,  $\overline{SPIDS}$ , must be inactive (HIGH) between each word in the transfer. When  $CPHASE = 1$ ,  $\overline{SPIDS}$  may either remain active (LOW) between successive transfers or be inactive (HIGH).

Figure 10-7 shows the SPI transfer protocol for  $CPHASE = 1$ . Note that  $SPICLK$  starts toggling at the beginning of the data transfer,  $WL = 0$ , and  $MSBF = 1$ .

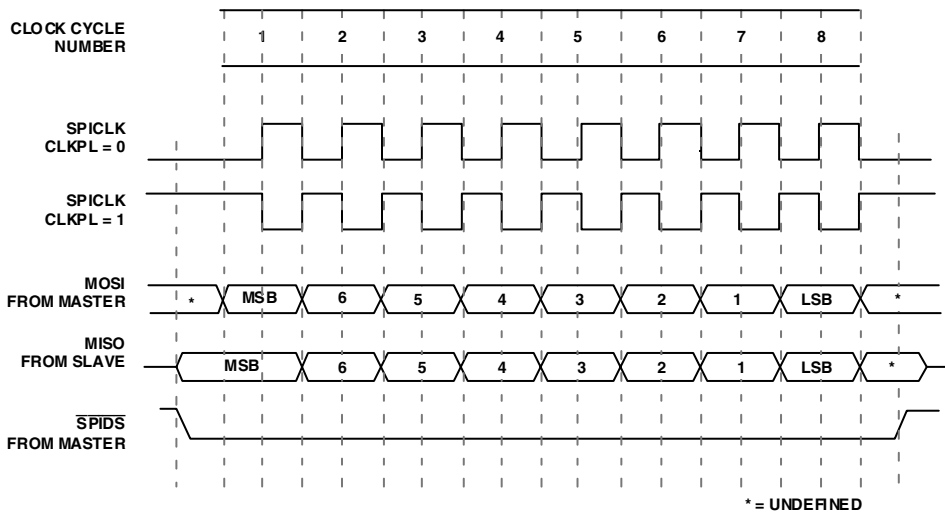


Figure 10-6. SPI Transfer Protocol for  $CPHASE = 0$

## SPI Transfer Formats

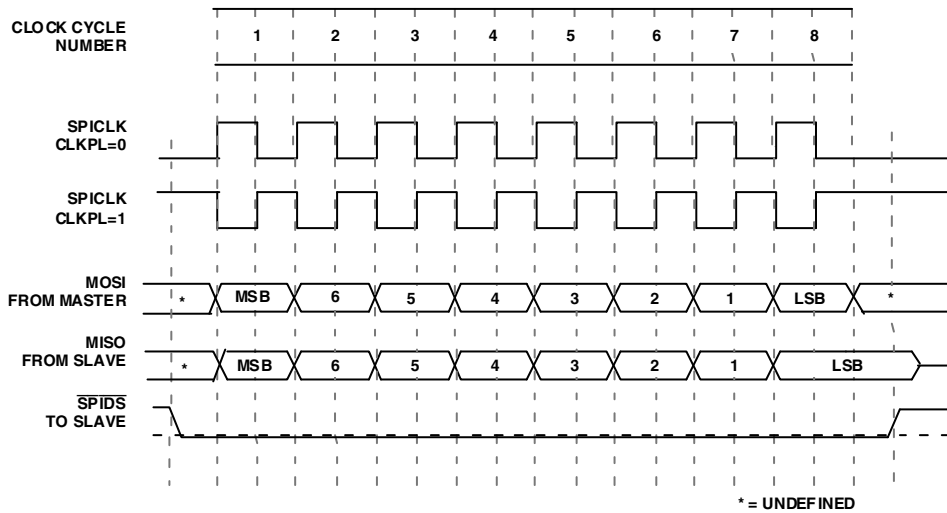


Figure 10-7. SPI Transfer Protocol for CPHASE = 1

## Beginning and Ending an SPI Transfer

An SPI transfer's defined start and end depend on the following: whether the device is configured as a master or a slave, whether the CPHASE mode is selected, and whether the transfer initiation mode is (TIMOD) selected. For a master SPI with CPHASE = 0, a transfer starts when either the TXSPI register is written or the RXSPI register is read, depending on the TIMOD selection. At the start of the transfer, the enabled slave-select outputs are driven active (LOW). However, the SPICLK starts toggling after a delay equal to one-half the SPICLK period. For a slave with CPHASE = 0, the transfer starts as soon as the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  input transitions to low.

For CPHASE = 1, a transfer starts with the first active edge of SPICLK for both slave and master devices. For a master device, a transfer is considered complete after it sends and simultaneously receives the last data bit. A transfer for a slave device is complete after the last sampling edge of SPICLK.



The `RXS` bit defines when the receive buffer can be read; the `TXS` bit defines when the transmit buffer can be filled. The end of a single word transfer occurs when the `RXS` bit is set. This indicates that a new word has just been received and latched into the receive buffer, `RXSPI`. The `RXS` bit is set shortly after the last sampling edge of `SPICLK`. The latency is typically a few core clock cycles and is independent of `CPHASE`, `TIMOD`, and the baud rate. If configured to generate an interrupt when `RXSPI` is full (`TIMOD = 00`), the interrupt becomes active one core clock cycle after `RXS` is set. When not relying on this interrupt, the end of a transfer can be detected by polling the `RXS` bit.

To maintain software compatibility with other SPI devices, the SPI Transfer Finished bit (`SPIF`) is also available for polling. This bit may have slightly different behavior from that of other commercially available devices. For a slave device, `SPIF` is set at the same time as `RXS`; for a master device, `SPIF` is set one-half of the `SPICLK` period after the last `SPICLK` edge, regardless of `CPHASE` or `CLKPL`.

The baud rate determines when the `SPIF` bit is set. In general, `SPIF` is set after `RXS`, but at the lowest baud rate settings (`SPIBAUD < 4`). The `SPIF` bit is set before the `RXS` bit is set, and consequently before new data has been latched into the `RXSPI` buffer. For `SPIBAUD = 2` or `SPIBAUD = 3`, the processor must wait for the `RXS` bit to be set (after `SPIF` is set) before reading the `RXSPI` buffer. For larger `SPIBAUD` settings (`SPIBAUD > 4`), `RXS` is set before `SPIF` is set.

## SPI Word Lengths

The processor's SPI port can transmit and receive the word widths described in the following sections.

## SPI Word Lengths

### 8-Bit Word Lengths

Eight-bit word lengths can be used when transmitting or receiving. When transmitting, the SPI port sends out only the lower eight bits of the word written to the SPI buffer.

For example, if the processor executes the instructions below, the SPI port transmits 0x78.

```
r0 = 0x12345678
dm(TXSPI) = r0;
```

When receiving, the SPI port packs the 8-bit word to the lower 32 bits of the RXSPI buffer while the upper bits in the registers are zeros.

For example, if an SPI host sends the processor the 32-bit word 0x12345678, the processor receives the following words:

```
0x00000078 //first word
0x00000056 //second word
0x00000034 //third word
0x00000012 //forth word
```

This code works only if the MSBF bit is zero in both the transmitter and receiver, and the SPICLK frequency is small. If MSBF = 1 in the transmitter and receiver, and SPICLK has a small frequency, the received words follow the order 0x12, 0x34, 0x56, 0x78.

### 16-Bit Word Lengths

Sixteen-bit word lengths can be used when transmitting or receiving. When transmitting, the SPI port sends out only the lower 16 bits of the word written to the SPI buffer.

For example, if the processor executes the following instructions, the SPI port transmits 0x5678.

```
r0 = 0x12345678
dm(TXSPI) = r0;
```

When receiving, the SPI port packs the 16-bit word to the lower 32 bits of the RXSPI buffer while the upper bits in the register are zeros.

For example, if an SPI host sends the processor the 32-bit word 0x12345678, the processor receives the following words:

```
0x00005678 //first word
0x00001234 //second word
```

### 32-Bit Word Lengths

Thirty-two bit word lengths can be used when transmitting or receiving. No packing of the RXSPI or TXSPI registers is necessary as the entire 32-bit register is used for the data word.

### Packing

In order to communicate with 8-bit SPI devices and store 8-bit words in internal memory, a packed transfer feature is built into the SPI port. Packing is enabled through the PACKEN bit in the SPICTL register. The SPI is unpacks data when it transmits and packs data when it receives. When packing is enabled, two 8-bit words are packed into one 32-bit word. When the SPI port is transmitting, two eight-bit words are packed into one 32-bit word. When receiving, words are unpacked from one 32-bit word into two eight-bit words.

## SPI Interrupts

### Transmitter packing example:

The value  $0xXXLMXXJK$  (where  $XX$  is any random value and  $JK$  and  $LM$  are the data words to be transmitted out of the SPI port) is written to the  $TXSPI$  register. The processor transmits  $0xJK$  first and then transmits  $0xLM$ .

### Receiver packing example:

The receiver unpacks the value and two words are received,  $0xJK$  and then  $0xLM$ . They appear in the  $RXSPI$  register as:

$0x00LM00JK \Rightarrow$  if  $SGN$  is configured to 0  
 $0xFFLMFFJK \Rightarrow$  if  $SGN$  is configured to 1 and  $L, J > 7$ .

## SPI Interrupts

The SPI port can generate an interrupt in five different situations. During core-driven transfers, an SPI interrupt is triggered in these instances:

1. When the  $TXSPI$  buffer has the capacity to accept another word from the core
2. When the  $RXSPI$  buffer contains a valid word to be retrieved by the core

The  $TIMOD$  (Transfer Initiation and Interrupt) register determines whether the interrupt is based on the  $TXSPI$  or  $RXSPI$  buffer status. For more information, refer to the  $TIMOD$  bit descriptions in the  $SPICL$  register in [Table on page A-96](#).

During IOP-driven transfers (DMA), an SPI interrupt is triggered in these instances:

1. When a single DMA transfer completes
2. When a number of DMA sequences (if DMA chaining is enabled) completes
3. When a DMA error has occurred

Again, the `TIMOD` register must be initialized properly to enable DMA interrupts.

All of these interrupts are serviced using the high priority (`SPIHI`) or low priority (`SPILO`) SPI interrupt. Whenever an SPI interrupt occurs (regardless of the cause), both `SPILO` and `SPIHI` are latched. Programs specify the SPI interrupt priority by masking (disabling) one of the interrupts. To service the SPI port using the high priority interrupt, unmask (set = 1) the `SPIHI` bit (bit 12) in the `IMASK` register. To service the SPI port using the low priority interrupt, unmask (set = 1) the `SPILOMSK` bit (bit 19) in the `LIRPTL` register. For a list of these bits, see [Table 7-1 on page 7-5](#).

To globally enable interrupts set (= 1), the `IRPTEN` bit in the `MODE1` register. When using DMA transfers, programs must also specify whether to generate interrupts based on transfer or error status. For DMA transfer status based interrupts, set the `INTEN` bit in the `SPIDMAC` register; otherwise, set the `INTERR` bit to trigger the interrupt if one of the error conditions is triggered during the transmission—multimaster error (`MME`), transmit buffer underflow (`TUNF` – only if `SPIRCV` = 0), or receive buffer overflow (`ROVF` – only if `SPIRCV` = 1). During core-driven transfers, the `TUNF` and `ROVF` error conditions do not generate interrupts.

When DMA is disabled, the processor core may read from the `RXSPI` register or write to the `TXSPI` data buffer. The `RXSPI` and `TXSPI` buffers are memory-mapped IOP registers. A maskable interrupt is generated when the receive buffer is not empty or the transmit buffer is not full. The `TUNF` and `ROVF` error conditions do not generate interrupts in these modes.

## SPI Registers

- See the “[Program Sequencer Registers](#)” on page A-23 for IRPTL and LIRPTL register bit descriptions.
- See “[SPI DMA Configuration \(SPIDMAC\) Register](#)” on page A-103 for SPIDMAC register bit descriptions.

## SPI Registers

The SPI peripheral in the ADSP-2126x SHARC processor includes several memory-mapped registers, some of which are accessible by the IOP. Four registers contain control and status information—SPIBAUD, SPICTL, SPIFLG, and SPISTAT. Two registers are used for buffering receive and transmit data—RXSPI and TXSPI. Five registers are related to DMA functionality—SPIDMAC, IISPI, IMSPI, CSPI and CPSPI. Additionally, the four-deep SPI DMA FIFO and the SPI Transmit and Receive Shift registers, TXSR and RXSR, are not accessible.

## Control and Status Registers

The following registers are used to control certain functions of the SPI or to provide SPI status information.

### SPI Baud Setup Register (SPIBAUD)

The SPI Baud Rate register (SPIBAUD) is used to set the bit transfer rate for a master device. When configured as a slave, the value written to this register is ignored. The serial clock frequency is determined by the following formula:

$$\text{SPI Baud Rate} = \frac{\text{Core Clock Rate}}{(4) \times (\text{BAUDR})}$$

Writing a value of zero to the register disables the serial clock. Therefore, the maximum serial clock rate is one-fourth the core clock rate (CCLK).

Table 10-3 provides the bit descriptions for the SPIBAUD register.

Table 10-3. SPIBAUD Register Bits

Bit(s)	Name	Function	Default
0		Reserved	
15:1	BAUDR	<b>Baud Rate</b> enables the SPICLK baud rate per the following equation: SPI Baud Rate = Core clock (CCLK) divided by (4* BAUDR)	0
31:16	Reserved		

Table 10-4 lists several possible baud rate values for the SPIBAUD register.

Table 10-4. SPI Master Baud Rate Example

BAUDR Decimal Value	SPI Clock Divide Factor	Baud Rate for CCLK @ 200 MHz
0	N/A	N/A
1	4	50 MHz
2	8	25 MHz
3	12	16.67 MHz
4	16	12.5 MHz
5	20	10.0 MHz
and up to 32,767 (0x7FFF) <sup>1</sup>	131,068	1.526 kHz

<sup>1</sup> BAUDR decimal values of 6 to 32,766 are also possible.

### Use of DSxEN Bits in SPIFLG for Multiple Slave SPI Systems

The DSxEN bits in the SPIFLG register are used in a multiple slave SPI environment. For example, if there are five SPI devices in the system with an ADSP-2126x master, then the master ADSP-2126x processor can support the SPI mode transactions across all four other devices. This configuration requires that only one ADSP-2126x be a master. For example, assume that SPI0 is the master. The four flag pins on the ADSP-2126x master can be connected to each of the slave SPI device's  $\overline{\text{SPID5}}$  pins. In this configuration, the DSxEN bits in the SPIFLG register can be used in three ways.

In cases 1 and 2, the processor acts as the master, and the four SPI microcontrollers/peripherals act as slaves. In this configuration, the ADSP-2126x processor can:

1. Transmit to all four SPI devices at the same time in Broadcast mode. Here, all the DSxEN bits are set.
2. Receive and transmit from one SPI device by enabling only one slave SPI device at a time.

In case 3, all five devices connected via SPI ports can be ADSP-2126x processors.

3. If all the slaves are also ADSP-2126x processors, then the requestor can receive data from only one ADSP-2126x processor (enable this by setting the DMISO bit in the other slave processors) at a time and transmit broadcast data to all four at the same time. This DMISO feature may be available in some other microcontrollers. Therefore, it would be possible to use the DMISO feature with any other SPI device which includes this functionality.

Figure 10-8 shows one ADSP-2126x processor as a master with three ADSP-2126x processors (or other SPI-compatible devices) as slaves.



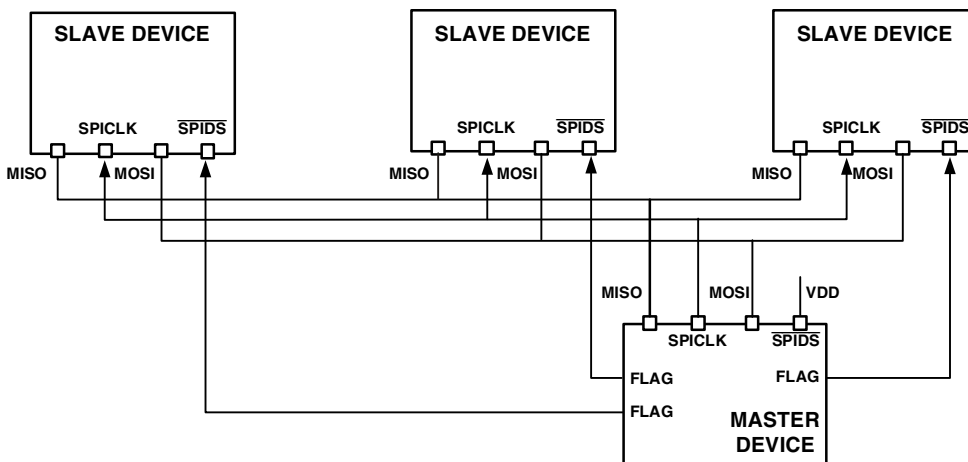


Figure 10-8. Single Master, Multiple Slave Configuration

## SPI Device Select Input Pin

The behavior of the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  input depends on the configuration of the SPI. If the SPI is a slave,  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  acts as the slave-select input. When enabled as a master,  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  can serve as an error-detection input for the SPI in a multi-master environment. The `ISSEN` bit (bit 4) in the `SPICTL` register enables the SPI master mode feature. When `ISSEN=1`, the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  input is the master mode error input; otherwise,  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  is ignored. The state of these input pins can be observed in the flag I/O module's data register.

## Buffering and Transmit/Receive Registers

The `TXSPI` and `RXSPI` registers are 32-bit memory-mapped registers that hold SPI data for transmit and receive operations.

Check the buffer status before reading from or writing to these registers because the core does not hang when it attempts to read from an empty buffer or write to a full buffer. When the core writes to a full buffer, the data in that buffer is overwritten and the SPI begins transmitting the new data. Invalid data is obtained when the core reads from an empty buffer.

## SPI Registers

### SPI Transmit Data Buffer Register (TXSPI)

The Transmit Data Buffer register (TXSPI) is a 32-bit read-write (RW) register. Data is loaded into this register before being transmitted. Just prior to the beginning of a data transfer, the data in TXSPI is loaded into the Transmit Shift Data (SFDR) register. A normal core read of TXSPI can be done at any time and does not interfere with, or initiate, SPI transfers.

With DMA enabled for transmit operations, the IOP loads data into this register. Core writes to TXSPI should not be made to prevent corrupting the DMA data to be transmitted.

With DMA enabled for receive operations, the contents of the TXSPI register are repeatedly transmitted. A normal core write to TXSPI is permitted in this mode, and this data is transmitted. If the Send Zeroes Control bit (SENDZ) is set, TXSPI resets once the data is transferred from TX to TXSR.

If multiple writes to TXSPI occur while a transfer is already in progress, only the last data written is transmitted. None of the intermediate values written to TXSPI are transmitted. Multiple writes to TXSPI are possible but not recommended. To avoid overwriting data, be sure to poll the TXS bit before writing to TXSPI.



To prevent transmit collision errors, ensure that the program writes to the TXSPI register before the load to the Shift register occurs by writing to TXSPI whenever TXS is cleared. Programs should refrain from writing to TXSPI when TXS is set. For slave mode, data should exist in TXSPI before the first SPI clock edge (or negative edge of device select) occurs.

The TXCOL bit can be set when there is a TUNF condition and there are attempts to write to the TXSPI register. In this case, TXS is not set and the program wants to send new data. To ensure that TXSPI is written into before the next load to a Shift register occurs, write to the TXSPI register as soon as the SPIF bit (bit 0 in the SPISTAT register) goes from one to zero.

### SPI Receive Data Buffer Register (RXSPI)

The Receive Data Buffer register (RXSPI) is a 32-bit read-only (RO) register that is accessible by both the software and DMA. At the end of a data transfer, the data in the Receive Shift register (RXSR) loads into the RXSPI register. During a DMA receive operation, the data in the RXSPI register is automatically read by the DMA. A shadow register for the receive data buffer, RXSPI, supports software debugging functions. See “[SPI Receive Data Buffer Shadow Register \(RXSPI\\_SHADOW\)](#)” on page A-101.

### DMA Registers

The following registers configure and manage SPI DMA functions.

#### SPI DMA Internal Index Register (IISPI)

This 19-bit register contains the address where the IOP transfers data to or from. Initially, this register holds the first address of the source or destination buffer, and then as the DMA progresses, this register is modified by the value in IMSPI.


#### SPI DMA Address Modifier Register (IMSPI)

This 16-bit register contains the DMA address modifier. After the IOP transfers each word between memory and the TXSPI/RXSPI register, this value is used to increment the internal index, IISPI

## Error Signals and Flags

### SPI DMA Word Count Register (CSPI)

This 16-bit register contains the number of DMA words to be transferred. When this register decrements from one to zero, the DMA is complete, and an interrupt may be triggered.

-  To prematurely end a DMA transfer, software should write the value one to the Count register so that it will decrement to zero. Writing a value of zero causes the count to decrement to a negative number, and this is not advised.

## Error Signals and Flags

This section describes the error signals and flags that determine the cause of transmission errors for an SPI port. The bits MME, TUNF and ROVF are set in the SPISTAT register when a transmission error occurs. Corresponding bits (SPIMME, SPIUNF and SPIOVF) in the SPIDMAC register are set when an error occurs during a DMA transfer. These sticky bits generate an SPI interrupt when any one of them are set.

### Mode Fault Error (MME)

The MME bit is set in the SPISTAT register when the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  input pin of a device that is enabled as a master is driven low by some other device in the system. This occurs in multimaster systems when another device is also trying to be the master.

To enable this feature, set the ISSEN bit in the SPICTL register. As soon as this error is detected, the following actions are taken.

1. The SPIMS control bit in SPICTL is cleared, configuring the SPI interface as a slave.
2. The SPIEN control bit in SPICTL is cleared, disabling the SPI system.

3. The MME status bit in SPISTAT is set.
4. An SPI interrupt is generated.

These four conditions persist until the MME bit is cleared by a write 1-to-clear (W1C-type) software operation. Until the MME bit is cleared, the SPI cannot be re-enabled, even as a slave. Hardware prevents the program from setting either SPIEN or SPIMS while MME is set.

When MME is cleared, the interrupt is deactivated. Before attempting to re-enable the SPI as a master, the state of the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  input pin should be checked to ensure that it is high; otherwise, once SPIEN and SPIMS are set, another mode-fault error condition will immediately occur. The state of the input pin is reflected in the Input Slave Select Status bit (bit 7) in the SPIFLG register.

As a result of SPIEN and SPIMS being cleared, the SPI data and clock pin drivers (MOSI, MISO, and SPICLK) are disabled. However, the slave-select output pins revert to control by the flag I/O module registers. This may cause contention on the slave-select lines if these lines are still being driven by the ADSP-2126x. In order to ensure that the slave-select output drivers are disabled once a MME error occurs, the program must configure these pins as inputs by clearing (= 0) the FLG00, FLG10, FLG20, and FLG30 bits in the FLAGS register prior to configuring the SPI port. See the “[Flag Value Register \(FLAGS\)](#)” on page A-39.

### Transmission Error Bit (TUNF)

The TUNF bit is set in the SPISTAT register when all of the conditions of transmission are met and there is no new data in TXSPI (TXSPI is empty). In this case, the transmission contents depend on the state of the SENDZ bit in the SPICTL register. The TUNF bit is cleared by a W1C-type software operation.


## Programming Model

### Reception Error Bit (ROVF)

The `ROVF` flag is set in the `SPISTAT` register when a new transfer has completed before the previous data could be read from the `RXSPI` register. This bit indicates that a new word was received while the receive buffer was full. The `ROVF` flag is cleared by a `W1C`-type software operation. The state of the `GM` bit in the `SPICTL` register determines whether the `RXSPI` register is updated with the newly received data or whether that new data is discarded.

### Transmit Collision Error Bit (TXCOL)

The `TXCOL` flag is set in the `SPISTAT` register when a write to the `TXSPI` register coincides with the load of the Shift register. The write to `TXSPI` can be via the software or the DMA. This bit indicates that corrupt data may have been loaded into the Shift register and transmitted. In this case, the data in `TXSPI` may not match what was transmitted. This error can easily be avoided by proper software control. The `TXCOL` bit is cleared by a `W1C`-type software operation.

 This bit is never set when the SPI is configured as a slave with `CPHASE = 0`. The collision may occur, but it cannot be detected.

## Programming Model

The section describes which sequences of software steps are required to get the peripheral working successfully.

## Master Mode Core Transfers

When the SPI is configured as a master, the SPI ports should be configured and transfers started using the following steps:

1. When  $CPHASE$  is set to 0 with  $CPHASE = 1$ , the slave-selects are automatically controlled by the SPI port. When  $CPHASE = 1$ , the slave-selects are controlled by the core, and the user software has to control the pins through the  $SPIFLGx$  bits. Before enabling the SPI port, programs should specify which of the slave-select signals to use, setting one or more of the required SPI flag select bits ( $DSxEN$ ) in the  $SPIFLGx$  registers.
2. Write to the  $SPICTLx$  and  $SPIBAUDx$  registers, enabling the device as a master and configuring the SPI system by specifying the appropriate word length, transfer format, baud rate, and other necessary information.
3. If  $CPHASE = 1$  (user-controlled, slave-select signals), activate the desired slaves by clearing one or more of the SPI flag bits ( $SPIFLGx$ ) in the  $SPIFLGx$  registers.
4. Initiate the SPI transfer. The trigger mechanism for starting the transfer is dependant upon the  $TIMOD$  bits in the  $SPICTLx$  registers. See [Table 10-1 on page 10-16](#) for details.
5. The SPI generates the programmed clock pulses on  $SPICLK$ . The data is shifted out of  $MOSI$  and shifted in from  $MISO$  simultaneously. Before starting to shift, the transmit shift register is loaded with the contents of the  $TXSPIx$  registers. At the end of the transfer, the contents of the receive shift register are loaded into the  $RXSPIx$  registers.
6. With each new transfer initiate command, the SPI continues to send and receive words, according to the SPI transfer mode ( $TIMOD$  bit in  $SPICTLx$  registers). See [Table 10-1 on page 10-16](#) for more details.

## Programming Model

If the transmit buffer remains empty, or the receive buffer remains full, the device operates according to the states of the `SENDZ` and `GM` bits in the `SPICTLx` registers.

- If `SENDZ = 1` and the transmit buffer is empty, the device repeatedly transmits zeros on the `MOSI` pin. One word is transmitted for each new transfer initiate command.
- If `SENDZ = 0` and the transmit buffer is empty, the device repeatedly transmits the last word transmitted before the transmit buffer became empty.
- If `GM = 1` and the receive buffer is full, the device continues to receive new data from the `MISO` pin, overwriting the older data in the `RXSPI` buffer.
- If `GM = 0` and the receive buffer is full, the incoming data is discarded, and the `RXSPI` register is not updated.

## Slave Mode Core Transfers

When a device is enabled as a slave (and DMA mode is not selected), the start of a transfer is triggered by a transition of the `SPIDS` select signal to the active state (`LOW`) or by the first active edge of the clock (`SPICLK`), depending on the state of `CPHASE`.

The following steps illustrate SPI operation in slave mode.

1. Write to the `SPICTLx` registers to make the mode of the serial link the same as the mode that is set up in the SPI master.
2. Write the data to be transmitted into the `TXSPIx` registers to prepare for the data transfer.
3. Once the `SPIDS` signal's falling edge is detected, the slave starts sending and receiving data on active `SPICLK` edges.



4. The reception or transmission continues until `SPIDS` is released or until the slave has received the proper number of clock cycles.
5. The slave device continues to receive or transmit with each new falling-edge transition on `SPIDS` or active `SPICLK` clock edge.

If the transmit buffer remains empty, or the receive buffer remains full, the devices operate according to the states of the `SENDZ` and `GM` bits in the `SPICTLx` registers.

- If `SENDZ = 1` and the transmit buffer is empty, the device repeatedly transmits zero's on the `MISO` pin.
- If `SENDZ = 0` and the transmit buffer is empty, it repeatedly transmits the last word transmitted before the transmit buffer became empty.
- If `GM = 1` and the receive buffer is full, the device continues to receive new data from the `MOSI` pin, overwriting the older data in the `RXSPI` buffer.
- If `GM = 0` and the receive buffer is full, the incoming data is discarded, and the `RXSPIx` registers are not updated.

## Master Mode DMA Transfers

To configure the SPI port for master mode DMA transfers:

1. Specify which `FLAG` pins to use as the slave-select signals by setting one or more of the `DSxEN` bits (bits 3–0) in the SPI flag (`SPIFLGx`) registers.
2. Enable the device as a master and configure the SPI system by selecting the appropriate word length, transfer format, baud rate, and so on in the `SPIBAUDx` and `SPICTLx` registers. The `TIMOD` field (bits 1–0) in the `SPICTLx` registers is configured to select transmit or receive with DMA mode (`TIMOD = 10`).

## Programming Model

3. Activate the desired slaves by clearing one or more of the SPI flag bits (SPIFLG<sub>x</sub>) of the SPIFLG<sub>x</sub> registers, if CPHASE = 1.
4. For a single DMA, define the parameters of the DMA transfer by writing to the IISPI<sub>x</sub>, IMSPI<sub>x</sub>, and CSPI<sub>x</sub> registers. For DMA chaining, write the chain pointer address to the CPSPI<sub>x</sub> registers.

Write to the SPI DMA configuration registers, (SPIDMAC<sub>x</sub>), to specify the DMA direction (SPIRCV, bit 1) and to enable the SPI DMA engine (SPIDEN, bit 0). If DMA chaining is desired, set (= 1) the SPICHEN bit (bit 4) in the SPIDMAC<sub>x</sub> registers.

If DPI pins are used as slave selects, programs should route them appropriately after the SPICTL<sub>x</sub> and SPIBAUD<sub>x</sub> registers are configured, but before enabling the DMA. When CPHASE = 0, or CPHASE = 1, the DPI pins are automatically activated by the SPI ports.

When enabled as a master, the DMA engine transmits or receives data as follows.

1. If the SPI system is configured for transmitting, the DMA engine reads data from memory into the SPI DMA FIFO. Data from the DMA FIFO is loaded into the TXSPI<sub>x</sub> registers and then into the transmit shift register. This initiates the transfer on the SPI port.
2. If configured to receive, data from the RXSPI<sub>x</sub> registers is automatically loaded into the SPI DMA FIFO. Then the DMA engine reads data from the SPI DMA FIFO and writes to memory. Finally, the SPI initiates the receive transfer.
3. The SPI generates the programmed signal pulses on SPICLK and the data is shifted out of MOSI and in from MISO simultaneously.
4. The SPI continues sending or receiving words until the SPI DMA word count register transitions from 1 to 0.

If the DMA engine is unable to keep up with the transmit stream during a transmit operation because the IOP requires the IOD (I/O data) bus to

service another DMA channel (or for another reason), the `SPICLK` stalls until data is written into the `TXSPI` register. All aspects of SPI receive operation should be ignored. The data in the `RXSPI` register is not intended to be used, and the `RXS` (bits 28–27 and 31–30 in the `SPICTLX` registers) and `SPISTAT` bits (bits 26 and 29) should be ignored. The `ROVF` overrun condition cannot generate an error interrupt in this mode.

If the DMA engine cannot keep up with the receive data stream during receive operations, then `SPICLK` stalls until data is read from `RXSPI`. While performing a receive DMA, the processor core assumes the transmit buffer is empty. If `SENDZ = 1`, the device repeatedly transmits 0s. If `SENDZ = 0`, it repeatedly transmits the contents of the `TXSPI` register. The `TUNF` underrun condition cannot generate an error interrupt in this mode.

A master SPI DMA sequence may involve back-to-back transmission and/or reception of multiple chained DMA transfers. The SPI controller supports such a sequence with minimal processor core interaction.

### Slave Mode DMA Transfers

A slave mode DMA transfer occurs when the SPI port is enabled and configured in slave mode, and DMA is enabled. When the `SPIDS` signal transitions to the active-low state or when the first active edge of `SPICLK` is detected, it triggers the start of a transfer.

When the SPI is configured for receive/transmit DMA, the number of words configured in the DMA count register should match the actual data transmitted. When the SPI DMA is used, the internal DMA request is generated for a DMA count of four. In case the count is less than four, one DMA request is generated for all the bytes. For example, when a DMA count of 16 is programmed, four DMA requests are generated (that is, four groups of four). For a DMA count of 18, five DMA requests are generated (four groups of four and one group of two). In case the SPI DMA is programmed with a value more than the actual data transmitted, some

## Programming Model

bytes may not be received by the SPI DMA due to the condition for generating the DMA request.

To configure for slave mode DMA:

1. Write to the `SPICTLx` register to make the mode of the serial link the same as the mode that is set up in the SPI master. Configure the `TIMOD` field to select transmit or receive DMA mode (`TIMOD = 10`).
2. Define DMA receive (or transmit) transfer parameters by writing to the `IISPIx`, `IMSPIx`, and `CSPIx` registers. For DMA chaining, write to the chain pointer address of the `CPSPIx` registers.
3. Write to the `SPIDMACx` registers to enable the SPI DMA engine and configure the following:
  - A receive access (`SPIRCV = 1`) or
  - A transmit access (`SPIRCV = 0`)If DMA chaining is desired, set the `SPICHEN` bit in the `SPIDMACx` registers.



Enable the SPI port before enabling DMA to avoid data corruption.

## Chained DMA Transfers

The sequence for setting up and starting a chained DMA is outlined in the following steps.

1. Clear the chain pointer register.
2. Configure the TCB associated with each DMA in the chain except for the first DMA in the chain.

3. Write the first three parameters for the initial DMA to the `IISPI`, `IMSPI`, `CSPI`, `IISPIB`, `IMSPIB`, and `CSPIB` registers directly.
4. Select a baud rate using the `SPIBAUD` register.
5. Select which flag to use as the SPI slave select signal in the `SPIFLG` register.
6. Configure and enable the SPI port with the `SPICTL`, `SPICTLB` registers.
7. Configure the DMA settings for the entire sequence, enabling DMA and DMA chaining in the `SPIDMAC` register.

Begin the DMA by writing the address of a TCB (describing the second DMA in the chain) to the `CPSPI`, `CPSPI` registers.

### Stopping Core Transfers

When performing transmit operations with the SPI port, disabling the SPI port prematurely can cause data corruption and/or not fully transmitted data. Before the program disables the SPI port in order to reconfigure it, the status bits should be polled to ensure that all valid data has been completely transferred. For core-driven transfers, data moves from the `TXSPI` buffer into a shift register. The following bits should be checked before disabling the SPI port:

1. Wait for the `TXSPIx` buffers to empty into the shift register. This is done when the `TXS` bit (bit 3) of the `SPISTATx` registers becomes zero.
2. Wait for the SPI shift registers to finish shifting out data. This is done when the `SPIF` bit (bit 0 of `SPISTATx` registers) becomes one.
3. Disable the SPI ports by setting the `SPIEN` bit (bit 0) in the `SPICTLx` registers to zero.

### Stopping DMA Transfers

When performing transmit DMA transfers, data moves through a four deep SPI DMA FIFO, then into the  $TXSPIx$  buffers, and finally into the shift register. DMA interrupts are latched when the I/O processor moves the last word from memory to the peripheral. For the SPI, this means that the SPI “DMA complete” interrupt is latched when there are six words remaining to be transmitted (four in the FIFO, one in the  $TXSPIx$  buffers, and one being shifted out of the shift register). To disable the SPI port after a DMA transmit operation, use the following steps:

1. Wait for the DMA FIFO to empty. This is done when the  $SPIStx$  bits (bits 13–12 in the  $SPIStMACx$  registers) become zero.
2. Wait for the  $TXSPIx$  registers to empty. This is done when the  $TXS$  bit, (bit 3) in the  $SPIStATx$  registers becomes zero.



- When stopping receive DMA transfers, it is recommended that programs follow the SPI disable steps provided in [“Switching from Receive to Receive/Transmit DMA”](#) below.
3. Wait for the SPI shift register to finish transferring the last word. This is done when the  $SPIF$  bit (bit 0) of the  $SPIStATx$  registers becomes one.
  4. Disable the SPI ports by setting the  $SPIEN$  bit (bit 0) of the  $SPICTLx$  registers to zero.

### Switching from Transmit To Transmit/Receive DMA

The following sequence details the steps for switching from transmit to receive DMA.

With disabled SPI:

1. Write 0x00 to the `SPICTLx` registers to disable SPI. Disabling the SPI also clears the `RXSPIx/TXSPIx` registers and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA by writing 0x00 to the `SPIDMAXC` register.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the `SPISTATx` registers. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTLx` registers and enable the SPI ports.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and enable DMA.

With enabled SPI:

1. Clear the `RXSPIx/TXSPIx` registers and the buffer status without disabling the SPI. This can be done by OR'ing 0xC0000 with the present value in the `SPICTLx` registers. For example, programs can use the `RXFLSH` and `TXFLSH` bits to clear `TXSPIx/RXSPIx` and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA by writing 0x00 to the `SPIDMAC` register.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the `SPISTAT` register. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTL` register to remove the clear condition on the `TXSPI/RXSPI` registers.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and enable DMA.

### Switching from Receive to Receive/Transmit DMA

Use the following sequence to switch from receive to transmit DMA. Note that `TXSPIx` and `RXSPIx` are registers but they may not contain any bits, only address information.

With disabled SPI:

1. Write `0x00` to the `SPICTLx` registers to disable SPI. Disabling SPI also clears the `RXSPIx/TXSPIx` register contents and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA and clear the DMA FIFO by writing `0x80` to the `SPIDMACx` registers. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation is cleared because the `SPICLK` signal runs for five more word transfers even after the DMA count falls to zero in the receive DMA.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the `SPISTATx` registers. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTLx` registers and enable SPI.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the `SPIDMACx` register.



With enabled SPI:

1. Clear the `RXSPIx/TXSPIx` registers and the buffer status without disabling the SPI by ORing `0xC0000` with the present value in the `SPICTLx` registers. Use the `RXFLSH` (bit 19) and `TXFLSH` (bit 18) bits in the `SPICTLx` registers to clear the `RXSPIx/TXSPIx` registers and the buffer status.
2. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO by writing `0x80` to the `SPIDMACx` registers. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation is cleared because `SPICLK` runs for five more word transfers even after the DMA count is zero in receive DMA.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the `WIC`-type bits in the `SPISTATx` registers. This ensures that no interrupts occur due to errors from a previous DMA operation.
4. Reconfigure the `SPICTLx` registers to remove the clear condition on the `TXSPIx/RXSPIx` registers.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers (described in [“Setting Up DMA Channel Allocation and Priorities” on page 7-17](#)) and the `SPIDMACx` registers using the `SPIDEN` bit (bit 0).

### DMA Error Interrupts

The `SPIUNF` and `SPIOVF` bits of the `SPIDMACx` registers indicate transmission errors during a DMA operation in slave mode. When one of the bits is set, an SPI interrupt occurs. The following sequence details the steps to respond to this interrupt.

## Programming Model

With disabling the SPI:

1. Disable the SPI port by writing 0x00 to the SPICTLx registers.
2. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO by writing 0x80 to the SPIDMACx registers. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation is cleared before configuring a new DMA operation.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the SPISTATx registers. This ensures that the error bits SPIOVF and SPIUNF (in the SPIDMACx registers) are cleared when a new DMA is configured.
4. Reconfigure the SPICTLx registers and enable the SPI using the SPIEN bit.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the SPIDMACx registers.

Without disabling the SPI:

1. Disable DMA and clear the FIFO by writing 0x80 to the SPIDMAC register. This ensures that any data from a previous DMA operation is cleared before configuring a new DMA operation.
2. Clear the RXSPIx/TXSPIx registers and the buffer status without disabling SPI. This can be done by ORing 0xc0000 with the present value in the SPICTLx registers. Use the RXFLSH and TXFLSH bits to clear the RXSPIx/TXSPIx registers and the buffer status.
3. Clear all errors by writing to the W1C-type bits in the SPISTAT register. This ensures that error bits SPIOVF and SPIUNF in the SPIDMACx registers are cleared when a new DMA is configured.
4. Reconfigure the SPICTL register to remove the clear condition on the RXSPI/TXSPI register bits.
5. Configure DMA by writing to the DMA parameter registers and the SPIDMACx register.

# 11 INPUT DATA PORT

The signal routing unit (SRU) provides paths among both on-chip and off-chip peripherals. To make this feature effective in a real-world system, a low overhead method of making data from various serial formats parallel and routing them back to the main core memory is needed. The Input Data Port (IDP) provides this mechanism for a large number of asynchronous channels.

This chapter describes how data is routed into the core's memory space.

[Figure 11-1](#) provides a graphical overview of the Input Data Port architecture. Notice that each channel is independent and each contains a separate clock and frame sync input.

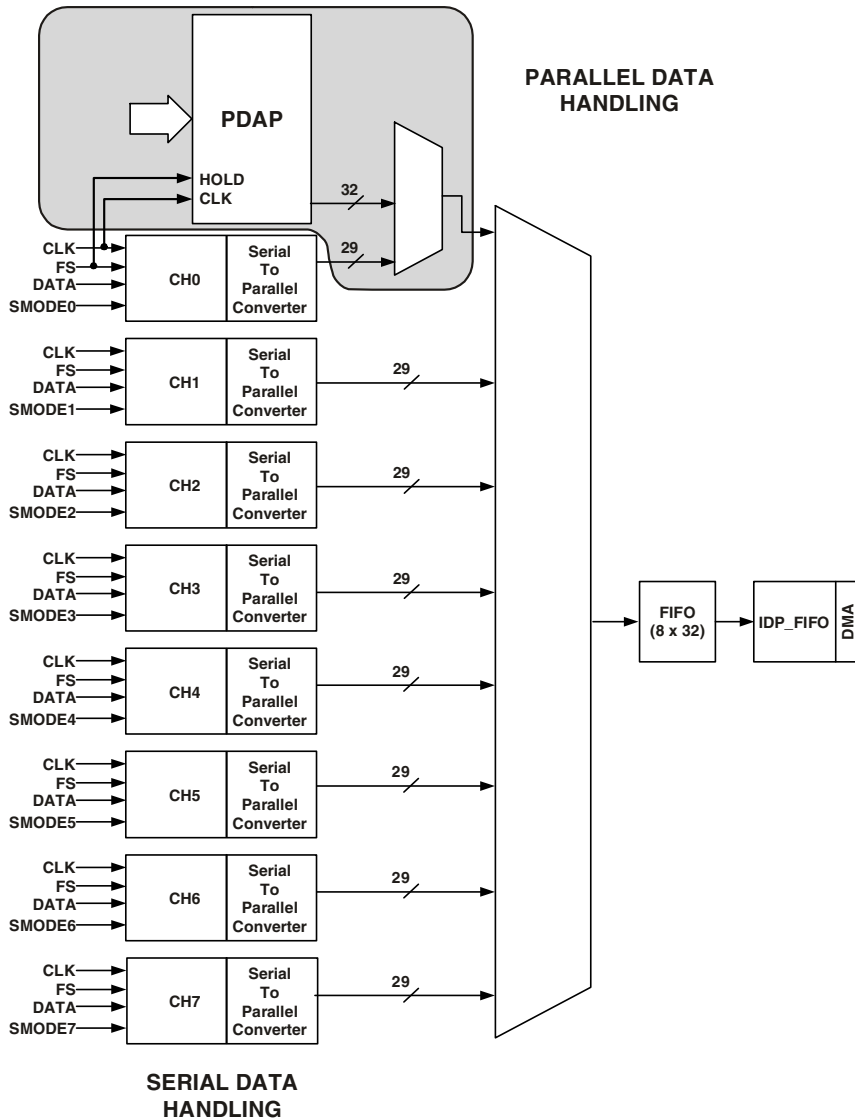


Figure 11-1. The Input Data Port

Channels 0 through 7 can accept serial data in audio format. Channel 0 can also be configured to accept parallel data. The parallel input bypasses the serial-to-parallel converter and latches up to 20 bits per clock cycle.

The parallel data is acquired through the Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP) which provides a means of moving high bandwidth data to the core's memory space. The data may be sent to memory as one 32-bit word per input clock or packed together (up to four clock cycles of data).

Figure 11-2 illustrates the data flow for the IDP channel 0, where either the PDAP or serial input can be selected via control bit `IDP_PDAP_EN` (bit 31 of the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register).

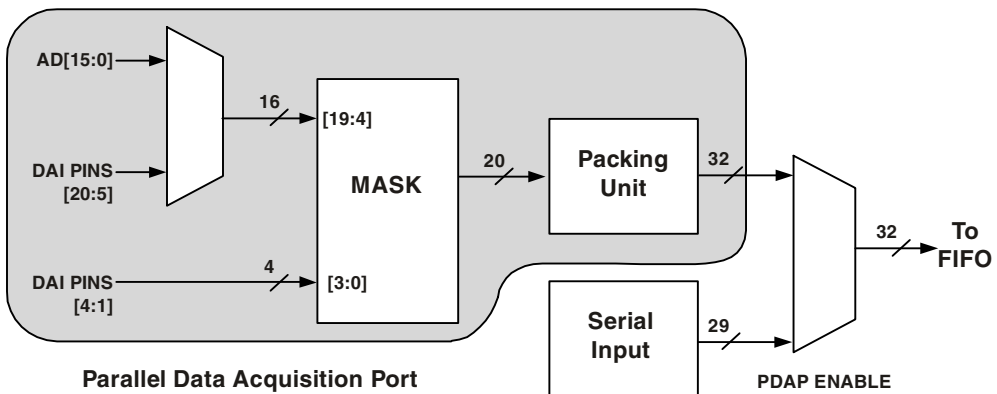


Figure 11-2. Detail of IDP Channel 0

The following sections describe each of the Input Data Port functions.

## Serial Inputs

The IDP provides up to eight serial input channels—each with its own clock, frame sync, and data inputs. The eight channels are automatically multiplexed into a single 32-bit by eight-deep FIFO. Data is always formatted as a 64-bit frame and divided into two 32-bit words. The serial

## Serial Inputs

protocol is designed to receive audio channels in I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, or Right-justified mode. One frame sync cycle indicates one 64-bit left-right pair, but data is sent to the FIFO as 32-bit words (that is, one-half a frame at a time).

Contained within the 32-bit word is an audio signal that is normally 24 bits wide. An additional four bits are available for status and formatting data (compliant with the IEC 90958, S/PDIF, and AES3 standards). An additional bit identifies the left-right one-half of the frame. If the data is not in IEC standard format, the serial data can be any data word up to 28 bits wide. Regardless of mode, bit 3 always specifies if the data is received in the first half (left channel), or the second half (right channel) of the same frame, as shown in [Figure 11-3](#). The remaining three bits are used to encode one of the eight channels being passed through the FIFO to the core. The FIFO output may feed eight DMA channels, where the appropriate DMA channel (corresponding to the channel number) is selected automatically.

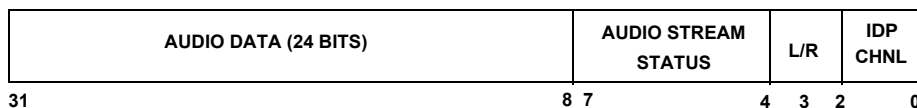


Figure 11-3. Word Format

**i** Note that each input channel has its own clock and frame sync input, so unused IDP channels do not produce data and therefore have no impact on FIFO throughput. The clock and frame sync of any unused input should be assigned to LOW to avoid unintentional acquisition.

The framing format is selected by using IDP\_SMODE<sub>x</sub> bits (three bits per channel) in the IDP\_CTL register. The bits [31:8] of the IDP\_CTL register control the input format modes for each of the eight channels. The eight groups of three bits indicate the mode of the serial input for each of the eight IDP channels, as shown in [Table 11-1](#).

Table 11-1. Serial Modes

Bit Field Values IDP_SMODEx	Mode
000	Left-justified Sample Pair
001	I <sup>2</sup> S
010	Reserved
011	Reserved
100	Right-justified Sample Pair 24 bits
101	Right-justified Sample Pair 20 bits
110	Right-justified Sample Pair 18 bits
111	Right-justified Sample Pair 16 bits

The polarity of left-right encoding is independent of the serial mode frame sync polarity selected in IDP\_SMODE for that channel (Table 11-1). Note that I<sup>2</sup>S mode uses a LOW frame sync (left-right) signal to dictate the first (left) channel, and Left-justified Sample Pair mode uses a HIGH frame sync (left-right) signal to dictate the first (left) channel of each frame. In either mode, the left channel has bit 3 set (= 1) and the right channel has bit 3 cleared (= 0).

Figure 11-4 shows the relationship between frame sync, serial clock, and Left-justified Sample Pair data.

Figure 11-5 shows the relationship between frame sync, serial clock, and I<sup>2</sup>S data.

## Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP)

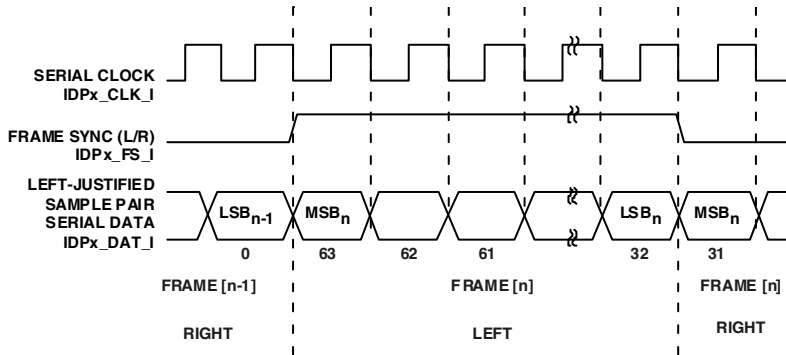


Figure 11-4. Timing in Left-justified Sample Pair Mode

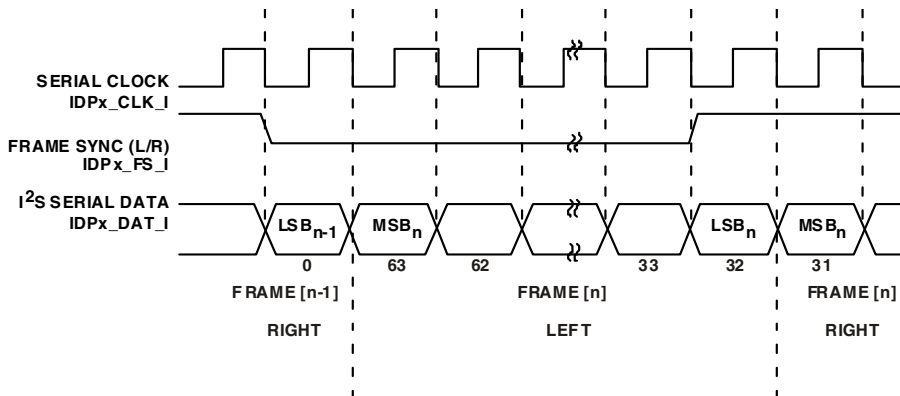


Figure 11-5. Timing in I<sup>2</sup>S Mode

## Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP)

The input to channel 0 of the IDP is multiplexed, and may be used either in the serial mode, described in [“Serial Inputs” on page 11-3](#), or in a direct Parallel Input mode. Serial or parallel input is selected by setting IDP\_PDAP\_EN bit 31 in the IDP\_PDAP\_CTL register. When used in parallel mode, the clock input for channel 0 is used to latch parallel sub words. Multiple latched parallel sub-word samples may be packed into 32-bit words for



efficiency. The frame sync input is used to hold off latching of the next sample (that is, ignore the clock edges). The data then flows through the FIFO and is transferred by a dedicated DMA channel into the core's memory as with any IDP channel. As shown in [Figure 11-6](#), the PDAP can accept input words up to 20 bits wide, or can accept input words that are packed as densely as four input words up to eight bits wide.

The `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register also provides a reset bit that zeros any data that is waiting in the packing unit to be latched into the FIFO. When asserted, the `IDP_PDAP_RESET` bit (bit 30 in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register) causes the reset circuit to strobe, then automatically clear itself. Therefore, this bit always returns a value of zero when read. The `IDP_PORT_SELECT` bit (bit 26 in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register) selects between the two sets of pins that may be used as the parallel input port. When `IDP_PORT_SELECT` is set (= 1), the upper 16 bits are read from the `AD[15:0]`. When `IDP_PORT_SELECT` is cleared (= 0), the upper 16 bits are read from `DAI_P[20:5]`. Note that the four least significant bits (LSBs) of the parallel port input are not multiplexed. These input bits are always read from Digital Audio Interface (DAI) pins 4–1, as shown in [Figure 11-6](#). The `DAI_P[4:1]` pins are always connected as bits 3 through 0. A sample PDAP program is located at the end of this chapter. See [Listing 11-2](#).

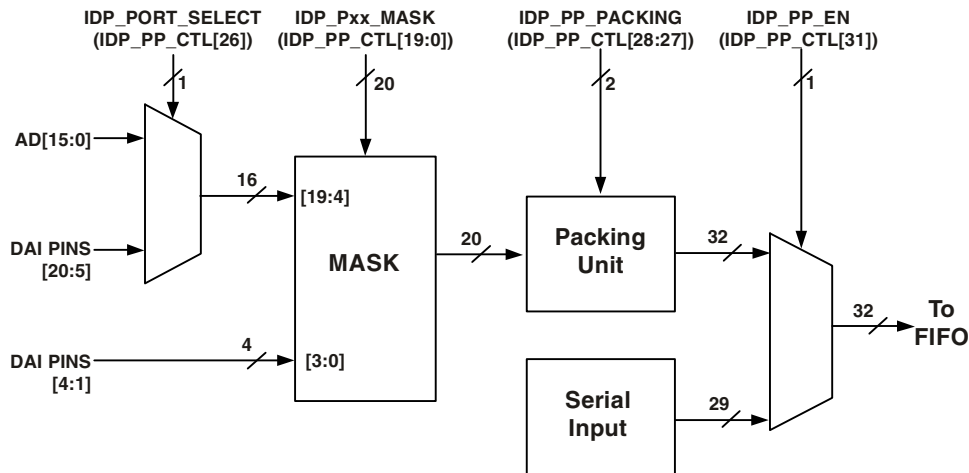


Figure 11-6. Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP) Functions

## Masking

The `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register provides 20 mask bits that allow the input from any of the 20 pins to be ignored. The mask is specified by setting the `IDP_Pxx_PDAPMASK` bits (bits 19–0 of the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register) for the 20 parallel input signals. For each of the parallel inputs, a bit is set (= 1) to indicate the bit is unmasked and therefore its data can be passed on to be read, or masked (= 0) so its data will not be read. After this masking process, data gets passed along to the packing unit.

## Packing Unit

The Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP) packing unit receives masked parallel sub words from the 20 parallel input signals and packs them into a 32-bit word. The `IDP_PDAP_PACKING` bit field (bits 28–27 of the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register), indicates how data is to be packed. Data can be packed in any of four modes. Selection of Packing mode is made based on the application.

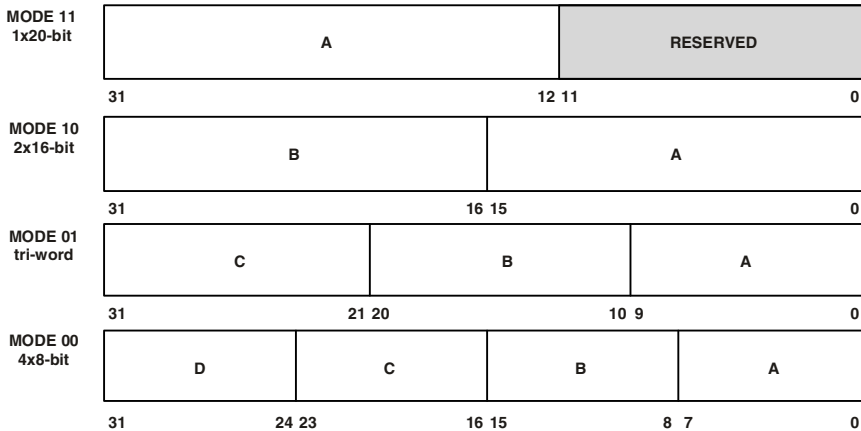


Figure 11-7. Packing Modes in IDP\_PDAP\_CTL

## Packing Mode 11

Mode 11 provides for 20 bits coming into the packing unit and 32 bits going out to the FIFO in a single cycle. On every clock edge, 20 bits of data are moved and placed in a 32-bit register, left-aligned. That is, bit 19 maps to bit 31. The lower bits [11:0] are always set to zero, as shown in [Figure 11-7 on page 11-9](#).

This mode sends one 32-bit word to FIFO for each input clock cycle—the DMA transfer rate will match the PDAP input clock rate.

## Packing Mode 10

On the first clock edge (cycle A), the packing unit latches parallel data up to 16 bits wide (bits 19–4 of the parallel input) and places it in bits 15–0 (the lower half of the word), then waits for the second clock edge (cycle B). On the second clock edge (cycle B), the packing unit takes the same set of inputs and places the word into bits 31–16 (the upper half of the word).

This mode sends one packed 32-bit word to FIFO for every two input clock cycles—the DMA transfer rate is one-half the PDAP input clock rate.

### **Packing Mode 01**

Mode 01 packs three acquired samples together. Since the resulting 32-bit word is not divisible by three, up to ten bits are acquired on the first clock edge and up to eleven bits are acquired on each of the second and third clock edges:

- On clock edge 1, bits 19:10 are moved to bits 9:0 (10 bits)
- On clock edge 2, bits 19:9 are moved to bits 20:10 (11 bits)
- On clock edge 3, bits 19:9 are moved to bits 31:21 (11 bits)

This mode sends one packed 32-bit word to FIFO for every three input clock cycles—the DMA transfer rate is one-third the PDAP input clock rate.

### **Packing Mode 00**

Mode 00 moves data in four cycles. Each input word can be up to 8 bits wide.

- On clock edge 1, bits 19:12 are moved to bits 7:0
- On clock edge 2, bits 19:12 are moved to bits 15:8
- On clock edge 3, bits 19:12 are moved to bits 23:16
- On clock edge 4, bits 19:12 are moved to bits 31:24

This mode sends one packed 32-bit word to FIFO for every four input clock cycles—the DMA transfer rate is one-quarter the PDAP input clock rate.

## Clocking Edge Selection

Notice that in all four packing modes described, data is read on a clock edge, but the specific edge used (rising or falling) is not indicated. Clock edge selection is configurable using the `IDP_PDAP_CLKEDGE` bit (bit 29 of the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register). Setting this bit (= 1) causes the data to be latched on the falling edge. Clearing this bit (= 0) causes data to be latched on the rising edge (default).

## Hold Input

A synchronous clock enable can be passed from any DAI pin to the PDAP packing unit. This signal is called `PDAP_HOLD`.



The `PDAP_HOLD` signal is actually the same physical internal signal as the frame sync for IDP channel 0. Its functionality is determined by the PDAP Enable bit (`IDP_PDAP_EN`).

When the `PDAP_HOLD` signal is HIGH, all latching clock edges are ignored and no new data is read from the input pins. The packing unit operates as normal, but it pauses and waits for the `PDAP_HOLD` signal to be deasserted and waits for the correct number of distinct input samples before passing the packed data to the FIFO.

[Figure 11-8](#) shows the affect of the hold input (B) for four 8-bit words in Packing Mode 00, and [Figure 11-9](#) shows the affect of the hold input (B) for two 16-bit words in Packing Mode 10.

# Parallel Data Acquisition Port (PDAP)

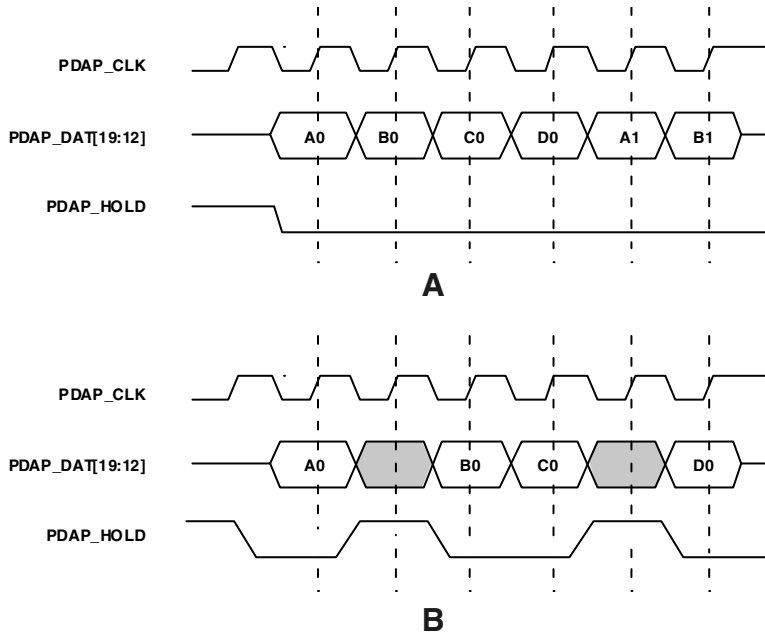


Figure 11-8. Hold Timing for Four 8-bit Words to 32 bits (Mode 00)

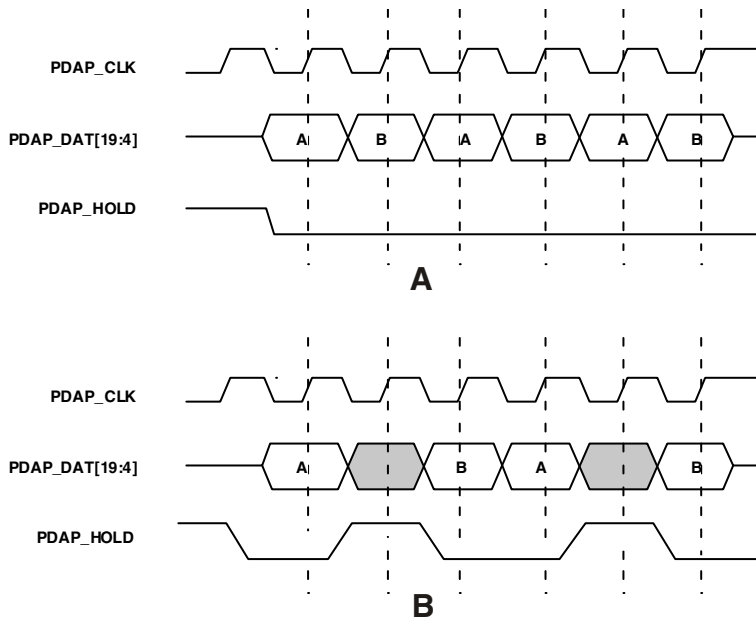


Figure 11-9. Hold Timing for Two 16-bit Words to 32 bits (Mode 10)

## PDAP Strobe

Whenever the PDAP packing unit receives the number of sub words corresponding to its select mode, it asserts the PDAP output strobe signal (all timing can be found the *ADSP-2126x SHARC Processor Data Sheet*). This signal can be routed through the SRU using the MISC unit to any of the DAI pins. See “[SRU Connection Groups](#)” on page 12-17 for more information.

# FIFO Control and Status

Several bits can be used to control and monitor FIFO operations:

- **IDP Enable.** The `IDP_ENABLE` bit (bit 7 of the `IDP_CTL` register) enables the IDP.
- **IDP Buffer Hang Disable.** The `IDP_BHD` bit (bit 4 in the `IDP_CTL` register) determines whether or not the core hangs on reads when the FIFO is empty.
- **Number of Samples in FIFO.** The `IDP_FIFOSZ` bits (bits 31–28 in the `DAI_STAT` register) monitors the number of valid data words in the FIFO.
- **FIFO Overflow Status.** The `IDP_FIFO_OVER` bit (bit 25 in the `DAI_STAT` register) monitors overflow error conditions in the FIFO.
- **FIFO Overflow Clear bit.** The `IDP_CLR0VR` bit (bit 6 of the `IDP_CTL` register) clears an indicated FIFO overflow error.

The IDP is enabled through the `IDP_ENABLE` bit. When this bit is set (= 1), the IDP is enabled. When this bit is cleared (= 0), the IDP is disabled, and data can not come to the `IDP_FIFO` register from the IDP channels. When this bit transitions from 1 to 0, all data in the IDP FIFO is cleared.

The `IDP_BHD` bit is used for buffer hang disable control. When there is no data in the FIFO, reading the `IDP_FIFO` register causes the core to hang. This condition continues until the FIFO contains valid data. Setting the `IDP_BHD` bit (= 1) prevents the core from hanging on reads from an empty `IDP_FIFO` register. Clearing this bit (= 0) causes the core to hang under the conditions described previously.

The `IDP_FIFOSZ` bits track the number of words in the FIFO. This four-bit field identifies the number of valid data samples in the IDP FIFO.



The `IDP_FIFO_OVER` bit provides IDP FIFO overflow status information. This bit is set (= 1), whenever an overflow occurs. When this bit is cleared (= 0), it indicates there is no overflow condition. This read-only bit is a *sticky* bit, which does not automatically reset to 0 when it is no longer in overflow condition. This bit must be reset manually, using the `IDP_CLROVR` bit in the `IDP_CTL` register. Writing one to this bit clears the overflow condition in the `DAI_STAT` register. Since `IDP_CLROVR` is a write-only bit, it always returns LOW when read.

## FIFO to Memory Data Transfer

The data from each of the eight IDP channels is inserted into an eight register deep FIFO, which can only be transferred to the core's memory space sequentially. Data is moved into the FIFO as soon as it is fully received. When more than one channel has data ready, the channels access the FIFO with fixed priority, from low to high channel number (that is, channel 0 is the highest priority and channel 7 is the lowest priority).

One of two methods can be used to move data from the IDP FIFO to internal memory:

- The core can remove data from the FIFO manually by reading the memory-mapped register, `IDP_FIFO`. The output of the FIFO is held in the (read-only) `IDP_FIFO` register. When this register is read, the corresponding element is removed from the IDP FIFO, and the next element is moved into the `IDP_FIFO` register. A mechanism is provided to generate an interrupt when more than a specified number of words are in the FIFO. This interrupt signals the core to read the `IDP_FIFO` register.

This method of moving data from the IDP FIFO is described in [“Interrupt-Driven Transfers” on page 11-16](#).

## FIFO to Memory Data Transfer

- Eight dedicated DMA channels can sort and transfer the data into one buffer per source channel. When the memory buffer is full, the DMA channel raises an interrupt in the DAI Interrupt Controller.

This method of moving data from the IDP FIFO is described in [“DMA Transfers” on page 11-18](#).

## Interrupt-Driven Transfers

The output of the FIFO can be directly fetched by reading from the `IDP_FIFO` register. The `IDP_FIFO` register is used only to read and remove the top sample from the FIFO, which is eight locations deep.

As data is read from the `IDP_FIFO` register, it is removed from the FIFO and new data is copied into the `IDP_FIFO` register. The contents of the `IDP_NSET` bits (bits 3–0 in the `IDP_CTL` register) represent a threshold number of entries ( $N$ ) in the FIFO. When the FIFO fills to a point where it has more than  $N$  words (data in FIFO exceeds the value set in the `IDP_NSET` bit field, bits 3–0 of `IDP_CTL` register), a DAI interrupt is generated. This DAI interrupt corresponds to the `IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT` bit, the eighth interrupt in `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H`. The core can use this interrupt to detect when data needs to be read.

## Starting an Interrupt-Driven Transfer

To start an interrupt-driven transfer:

1. Clear and halt FIFO by setting ( $= 1$ ) and clearing ( $= 0$ ) the `IDP_ENABLE` bit (bit 7 in the `IDP_CTL` register).
2. Set the required values for:
  - `IDP_SMODEX` bits in the `IDP_CTL` register to specify the frame sync format for the serial inputs ( $I^2S$ , Left-justified Sample Pair, or Right-justified Sample Pair Mode).

- `IDP_Pxx_PDAPMASK` bits in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify the input mask, if the PDAP is used.
  - `IDP_PORT_SELECT` bits in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify input from the DAI pins or the Parallel Port pins, if the PDAP is used.
  - `IDP_PDAP_CLKEDGE` bit (bit 29) in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify if data is latched on the rising or falling clock edge, if the PDAP is used.
3. Keep the clock and frame sync inputs of all serial inputs and/or PDAP connected to LOW. Use the `SRU_CLK1`, `SRU_CLK2`, `SRU_FS1`, and `SRU_FS2` registers to specify these inputs.
  4. Connect all of the inputs to the IDP by writing to the `SRU_DAT3`, `SRU_DAT4`, `SRU_FS1`, `SRU_FS2`, `SRU_CLK1` and `SRU_CLK2` registers. Connect the clock and frame sync of any unused ports to LOW.
  5. Set the desired value for *N<sub>SET</sub>* variable (the `IDP_NSET` bits, 3–0, in the `IDP_CTL` register).
  6. Set the `IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT` bit (bit 8 of the `DAI_IRPTL_RE` register) to HIGH and set the corresponding bit in the `DAI_IRPTL_FE` register to LOW to unmask the interrupt. Set bit 8 of the `DAI_IRPTL_PRI` register (`IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT`) as needed to generate a high priority or low priority core interrupt when the number of words in the FIFO is greater than the value of *N* set in step 5.
  7. Enable the PDAP by setting `IDP_PDAP_EN` (bit 31 in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register), if required.
  8. Enable the IDP by setting `IDP_ENABLE` bit (bit 7 in the `IDP_CTL` register).



Do *not* set the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit (bit 5 of the `IDP_CTL` register).

### Interrupt-Driven Transfer Notes

The following items provide general information about interrupt driven transfers.

- The three LSBs of FIFO data are the encoded channel number. These are transferred “as is” for this mode. These bits can be used by software to decode the source of data.
- The number of data samples in the FIFO at any time is reflected in the `IDP_FIFOSZ` bit field (bits 31–28 in the `DAI_STAT` register), which tracks the number of samples in FIFO.

When using the interrupt scheme, the `IDP_NSET` bits (bits 3–0 of the `IDP_CTL` register) can be set to  $N$ , so  $N + 1$  data can be read from the FIFO in the interrupt service routine (ISR).

- If the `IDP_BHD` bit (bit 4 in the `IDP_CTL` register) is not set, attempts to read more data than is available in the FIFO results in a core hang.

### DMA Transfers

DMA access is enabled when the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit (bit 5 of the `IDP_CTL` register) is set (= 1).

### Starting DMA Transfers

To start a DMA transfer from the FIFO to memory:

1. Clear and halt the FIFO by setting (= 1) and then clearing (= 0) the `IDP_ENABLE` bit (bit 7 in the `IDP_CTL` register).

2. While the `IDP_DMA_EN` and `IDP_ENABLE` bits are LOW, set the values for the DMA parameter registers that correspond to channels 7–0. If some channels are not going to be used, then the corresponding parameter registers can be left in their default states:

- Index registers (`IDP_DMA_Ix`)
- Modifier registers (`IDP_DMA_Mx`)
- Counter registers (`IDP_DMA_Cx`)

For each of these registers, “x” is 0 to 7. Refer to [“DMA Channel Parameter Registers”](#) on page 11-22.

3. Keep the clock and the frame sync input of the serial inputs and/or the PDAP connected to LOW, by setting proper values in the `SRU_CLK1`, `SRU_CLK2`, `SRU_FS1`, and `SRU_FS2` registers.
4. Set required values for:
  - `IDP_SMODEx` bits in the `IDP_CTL` register to specify the frame sync format for the serial inputs (I<sup>2</sup>S, Left-justified Sample Pair, or Right-justified Sample Pair modes).
  - `IDP_Pxx_PDAPMASK` bits in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify the input mask, if the PDAP is used.
  - `IDP_PORT_SELECT` bits in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify input from the DAI pins or the Parallel Port pins, if the PDAP is used.
  - `IDP_PDAP_CLKEDGE` bit (bit 29) in the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register to specify if data is latched on the rising or falling clock edge, if the PDAP is used.

## FIFO to Memory Data Transfer

5. Connect all of the inputs to the IDP by writing to the `SRU_DAT3`, `SRU_DAT4`, `SRU_FS1`, `SRU_FS2`, `SRU_CLK1`, and `SRU_CLK2` registers. Keep the clock and frame sync of the ports connected to `LOW` when data transfer is not intended.
6. Enable DMA, IDP, and PDAP (if required) by setting each of the following bits to one:
  - The `IDP_DMA_EN` bit (bit 5 of the `IDP_CTL` register)
  - The `IDP_PDAP_EN` bit (bit 31 in `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register)
  - The `IDP_ENABLE` bit (bit 7 in the `IDP_CTL` register)

A DAI interrupt is generated at the end of each DMA.


### DMA Transfer Notes

The following items provide general information about DMA transfers.

- A DMA can be interrupted by changing the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit in the `IDP_CTL` register. None of the other control settings (except for the `IDP_ENABLE` bit) should be changed. Clearing the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit (`= 0`) does not affect the data in the FIFO, it only stops DMA transfers. If the IDP remains enabled, an interrupted DMA can be resumed by setting the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit again.
- Using DMA transfer overrides the mechanism used for interrupt-driven manual reads from the FIFO. When the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit is set, the eighth interrupt in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers (`IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT`) is *not* generated. This interrupt detects the condition that the number of data available in FIFO is more than the number set in the `IDP_NSET` bits (bits [3:0]) of the `IDP_CTL` register).

- At the end of the DMA transfer for individual channels, interrupts are generated. These interrupts are generated after the last DMA data from a particular channel have been transferred to memory. These interrupts are mapped to the `IDP_DMA7_INT` bit (bit 17), to the `IDP_DMA0_INT` bit (bit 10) in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers and generate interrupts when they are set (= 1). These bits are OR'ed and reflected in high-level interrupts sent to the core.
- If the combined data rate from the channels is more than the DMA can service, a FIFO overflow occurs. This condition is reflected by the `IDP_FIFO_OVER` bit (25) in the `DAI_STAT` register. This is a sticky bit that must be cleared by writing to the `IDP_CLR0VR` bit (bit 6 of the `IDP_CTL` register). When an overflow occurs, incoming data from IDP channels is not accepted into the FIFO, and data values are lost. New data is only accepted once space is again created in the FIFO.
- For serial input channels, data is received in an alternating fashion from left and right channels. Data is not pushed into the FIFO as a full left/right frame. Rather, data is transferred as alternating left/right words as it is received. For the PDAP, data is transferred as packed 32-bit words.
- The state of all eight DMA channels is reflected in the `IDP_DMAx - _STAT` bits (bits 24–17 of `DAI_STAT` register). These bits are set once `IDP_DMA_EN` is set, and remain set until the last data from that channel is transferred. Even if `IDP_DMA_EN` remains set, this bit clears once the required number of data transfers takes place. [For more information, see “DAI Pin Status Register \(DAI\\_PIN\\_STAT\)” on page A-166.](#)

## FIFO to Memory Data Transfer

-  Note that when a DMA channel is not used (that is, parameter registers are at their default values), that DMA channel's corresponding `IDP_DMAx_STAT` bit is set (= 1).
- The three LSBs of data from the serial inputs are channel encoding bits. Since the data is placed into a separate buffer for each channel, these bits are not required and are set to `LOW` when transferring data to internal memory through the DMA. Bit 3 will still contain the left/right status information.

## DMA Channel Parameter Registers

The eight DMA channels each have an I-register (pointer, 19 bits), an M-register (modifier/stride, 6 bits), and a C-register (count, 16 bits). For example, `IDP_DMA_IO`, `IDP_DMA_MO` and `IDP_DMA_CO` are the registers that control the DMA for Channel 0. For a detailed description of addressing using the I-register, see [“Addressing” on page 7-26](#).

The IDP DMA parameter registers have these functions:

- **Internal Index registers** (`IDP_DMA_Ix`). Index registers provide an internal memory address, acting as a pointer to the next internal memory location where data is to be written.
- **Internal Modify registers** (`IDP_DMA_Mx`). Modify registers provide the signed increment by which the DMA controller post-modifies the corresponding internal memory Index register after each DMA write.
- **Count registers** (`IDP_DMA_Cx`). Count registers indicate the number of words remaining to be transferred to internal memory on the corresponding DMA channel.

For a descriptions of these registers see [“Input Data Port DMA Control Registers” on page A-152](#).



## IDP (DAI) Interrupt Service Routines for DMAs

The IDP can trigger either the high priority DAI core interrupt reflected in the `DAI_IRPTL_H` register or the low priority DAI core interrupt reflected in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register. The ISR must read the corresponding `DAI_IRPTL_H` or `DAI_IRPTL_L` register to find all the interrupts currently latched. The `DAI_IRPTL_H` register reflects the high priority interrupts and the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register reflects the low priority interrupts. When these registers are read, it clears the latched interrupt bits. This is a destructive read.

The following steps describe how an IDP ISR should be handled.

1. When the DMA for a channel completes, an interrupt is generated and program control jumps to the ISR.
2. The program should clear the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit in the `IDP_CTL` register (= 0).
3. The program should read the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers to determine which DMA channels have completed.

To ensure that the DMA of a particular IDP channel is complete, (all data is transferred into internal memory) wait until the `IDP_DMAX_STAT` bit of that channel becomes zero in the `DAI_STAT` register. This is required if a high priority DMA (for example a SPORT DMA) is occurring at the same time as the IDP DMA.

As each DMA channel completes, a corresponding bit in either the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers for each DMA channel is set (`IDP_DMAX_INT`). Refer to [Figure A-73 on page A-169](#) and [Figure A-74 on page A-170](#) for more information on the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers.


4. Reprogram the DMA registers for finished DMA channels.

## Input Data Port Programming Example

More than one DMA channel may have completed during this time period. For each, a bit is latched in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers. Ensure that the DMA registers are reprogrammed. If any of the channels is not used, then its clock and frame sync must be held `LOW`.

5. Read the `DAI_IRPTL_L` or `DAI_IRPTL_H` registers to see if more interrupts have been generated.
  - If the value(s) are not zero, repeat step 4.
  - If the value(s) are zero, continue to step 6.
6. Re-enable the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit in the `IDP_CTL` register (set to 1).
7. Exit the ISR.

If a zero is read in step 5 (no more interrupts are latched), then all of the interrupts needed for that ISR have been serviced. If another DMA completes after step 5 (that is, during steps 6 or 7), as soon as the ISR completes, the ISR is called again because the OR of the latched bits will be nonzero again. DMAs in process run to completion.

 If step 5 is not performed, and a DMA channel expires during step 4, then when IDP DMA is re-enabled (step 6) the completed DMA will *not* have been reprogrammed and its buffer will overrun.

## Input Data Port Programming Example

[Listing 11-1](#) shows a data transfer using an interrupt service routine (ISR). The transfer takes place through the Digital Audio Interface (DAI). This code implements the algorithm outlined in “[FIFO to Memory Data Transfer](#)” on page 11-15.

## Listing 11-1. Interrupt-Driven Data Transfer

```

/* Using Interrupt-Driven Transfers from the IDP FIFO */

#define IDP_ENABLE      (8)          /* IDP_ENABLE = IDP_CTL[7] */
#define IDP_CTL         (0x24B0)    /* Memory-mapped register */
#define IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT (8)        /* Bit 8 in interrupt regs */
#define IDP_FIFO        (0x24D0)    /* IDP FIFO packing mode */
#define DAI_IRPTL_FE    (0x2480)    /* Falling edge int latch */
#define DAI_IRPTL_RE    (0x2481)    /* Rising edge int latch */
#define DAI_IRPTL_PRI   (0x2484)    /* Interrupt priority */

.section/dm seg_dmda;
.var OutBuffer[6];

.section/pm seg_pmco;

initIDP:

    r0 = dm(IDP_CTL);          /* Reset the IDP */
    r0 = BSET r0 BY IDP_ENABLE;
    dm(IDP_CTL) = r0;
    r0 = BCLR r0 BY IDP_ENABLE;

    r0 = BCLR r0 BY 10;        /* Set IDP serial input channel 0 */
    r0 = BCLR r0 BY 9;         /* to receive in I2S format */
    r0 = BCLR r0 BY 8;
    dm(IDP_CTL) = r0;
    /*****
    /* Connect the clock, data and frame sync of IDP */
    /* channel 0 to DAI pin buffers 10, 11 and 12. */
    *****/

    /* Connect IDP0_CLK_I to DAI_PB10_0 */

```

## Input Data Port Programming Example

```
/*          (SRU_CLK1[19:15] = 01001)   */

/* Connect IDP0_DAT_I to DAI_PB11_0 */
/*          (SRU_DAT3[11:6] = 001010)   */

/* Connect IDP0_FS_I to DAI_PB12_0 */
/*          (SRU_FS1[19:15] = 01011)   */

/*****/
/* Pin buffers 10, 11 and 12 are always being used as */
/* inputs. Tie their enables to LOW (never driven).   */
/*****/

/* Connect PBEN10_I to LOW */
/* (SRU_PIN1[29:24] = 111110) */

/* Connect PBEN11_I to LOW */
/* (SRU_PIN2[5:0] = 111110) */

/* Connect PBEN12_I to LOW */
/* (SRU_PIN2[11:6] = 111110) */

/*****/
/* Assign a value to N_SET. An interrupt will be raised */
/* when there are N_SET+1 words in the FIFO.           */
/*****/

r0 = dm(IDP_CTL);          N = 6 */
r0 = BSET r0 BY 0;
r0 = BSET r0 BY 1;
r0 = BSET r0 BY 2;
r0 = BCLR r0 BY 3;
dm(IDP_CTL) = r0;
```

```
r0 = dm(DAI_IRPTL_RE);          /* Unmask for rising edge */
r0 = BSET r0 BY IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT;
dm(DAI_IRPTL_RE) = r0;

r0 = dm(DAI_IRPTL_FE);          /* Mask for falling edge */
r0 = BCLR r0 BY IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT;
dm(DAI_IRPTL_FE) = r0;

r0 = dm(DAI_IRPTL_PRI);         /* Map to high priority in core */
r0 = BSET r0 BY IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT;
dm(DAI_IRPTL_PRI) = r0;

r0 = dm(IDP_CTL);               /* Start the IDP */
r0 = BSET r0 BY IDP_ENABLE;
dm(IDP_CTL) = r0;
initIDP.end:

IDP_ISR:
    i0 = OutBuffer;
    m0 = 1;
    LCNTR = 5, DO RemovedFromFIFO UNTIL LCE;
    r0 = dm(IDP_FIFO);
    dm(i0,m0) = r0;
RemovedFromFIFO:
    RTI;
IDP_ISR.end:
```

## Listing 11-2. PDAP Example

```
main:
    IRPTL=0x0;                  /* clear all latched interrupts */
    bit set IMASK DAIHI;        /* enable hi-priority DAI interrupt
                                in core interrupt register */
    bit set MODE1 CBUFEN;       /* enable circular buffering */
```

## Input Data Port Programming Example

```
r0 = 0x000FFFFF;
dm(DAI_PIN_PULLUP) = r0; /* pullup un-used DAI pins */

ustat2 = dm(IDP_CTL); /* Reset the IDP by enabling... */
bit set ustat2 IDP_EN;
dm(IDP_CTL) = ustat2;
bit clr ustat2 IDP_EN; /* ...and then disabling it */
dm(IDP_CTL) = ustat2;

/*setup for DMA-driven data handling FIFO-->Internal memory */
r9=INTERNAL_MEM_ADDRESS;
dm(IDP_DMA_I0)=r9; /* initialize the index register
                    with the normal-word alias of data
                    buffer to store the data */

r0= 1;
dm(IDP_DMA_M0)=r0; /* initialize the modify register with
                    a stride of 1 */

r0= 8;
dm(IDP_DMA_C0)=r0; /* FIFO is 8-deep x32, so initialize the
                    count register to 8 */

ustat2=
IDP_PDAP_PACKING2| /* two 16-bit words per 32-bit location
                    in fifo */
DP_PP_SELECT| /* Use AD[15-0] if set, if cleared use
               DAI_P[20-5] */
IDP_P20_PDAPMASK| /* Bits in the data buffer can be
                   masked out */
IDP_P19_PDAPMASK| /* clr=masked*/
IDP_P18_PDAPMASK| /* set=unmasked*/ */
IDP_P17_PDAPMASK|
IDP_P16_PDAPMASK|
```

```

        IDP_P15_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P14_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P13_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P12_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P11_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P10_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P09_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P08_PDAPMASK|
        IDP_P07_PDAPMASK|
    IDP_PDAP_CLKEDGE;    /* latch data in falling
                           edge of the clock that is
                           provided to the PDAP */

    dm(IDP_PP_CTL) = ustat2;
    ustat2 = IDP_DMA0_INT;
    dm(DAI_IRPTL_PRI)=ustat2;    /* unmask individual interrupt
                                   for DMA_INT (PDAP) in RIC */
    dm(DAI_IRPTL_RE)=ustat2;    /* PDAP interrupt latches on
                                   the rising edge only */
/* Following are two macros that setup the Signal Routing Unit
(SRU) to configure the two pins we'll be using there, PDAP_CLK &
PDAP_HOLD. The data pins in this case are routed through the parallel
ports AD15-0 pins, but could alternatively be routed via the SRU */

/* Hold */
SRU(LOW,DAI_PB01_I);
SRU(DAI_PB01_0, IDPO_FS_I);
SRU(LOW,PBEN01_I);

/* Clk */
SRU(LOW,DAI_PB02_I);
SRU(DAI_PB02_0, IDPO_CLK_I);
SRU(LOW,PBEN02_I);

```

## Input Data Port Programming Example

```
ustat2 = dm(IDP_PP_CTL);
bit set ustat2 IDP_PDAP_EN;      /* PDAP if set, IDP channel 0
                                   if cleared */

ustat2 = dm(IDP_CTL);           /* Start the IDP */
bit set ustat2 IDP_EN;
dm(IDP_CTL) = ustat2;

/* in packing mode 2, the data is stored in the buffer like this:
1|0000PPPP|
2|MMMMNNNN|
3|KKKKLLLL|
4|IIIIJJJJ|
5|GGGGHHHH|
6|EEEEFFFF|
7|CCCCDDDD|
8|BBBBAAAA|
where AAAA is Sample 1 and BBBB is Sample 2, etc. */

IDP_ISR:      /* This interrupt indicates that the current DMA
               has completed */

/* test for IDP_DMA0_INT (Read of DAI_IRPTL clears latched
   interrupt) */
   r0=dm(DAI_IRPTL_H);
   btst r0 by 10;
   if not SZ call dma_again;    /* SZ flag cleared if tested
                                   bit = 1 */

   rti;
dma_again:
   ustat2 = dm(IDP_CTL);
   bit clr ustat2 IDP_DMA_EN;   /* disable DMA */
   dm(IDP_CTL) = ustat2;
```



```
rts;  
IDP_ISR.end:
```

## Input Data Port Programming Example

# 12 DIGITAL AUDIO INTERFACE

The Digital Audio Interface (DAI) is comprised of a group of peripherals and the signal routing unit (SRU). The inputs and outputs of the peripherals are not directly connected to external pins. Rather, the SRU connects the peripherals to a set of pins and to each other, based on a set of configuration registers. This allows the peripherals to be interconnected to suit a wide variety of systems. It also allows the ADSP-2126x processor to include an arbitrary number and variety of peripherals while retaining high levels of compatibility without increasing pin count.

## Structure of the DAI

The DAI incorporates a set of peripherals and a very flexible routing (connection) system permitting a large combination of signal flows. A set of DAI-specific registers make such design, connectivity, and functionality variations possible. All routing related to peripheral states for the DAI interface is specified using DAI registers. For more information on pin states, refer to [Figure 12-5 on page 12-8](#).


The function of the DAI in the ADSP-2126x processors can be compared with the SPORTs' communication with the core. SPORTs communicate with the core directly, just as the DAI communicates directly with the core. The DAI, however, makes use of the SRU to communicate with the core.

The DAI may be used to connect any combination of inputs to any combination of outputs. This function is performed by the SRU via memory-mapped registers.

## DAI System Design

This *virtual connectivity* design offers a number of distinct advantages:

- Flexibility
- Increased numbers and kinds of configurations
- Connections can be made via software—no hard-wiring is required

 Inputs may only be connected to outputs.

## DAI System Design

[Figure](#) and [Figure](#) show how the DAI pin buffers are connected via the SRU. The SRU allows for very flexible data routing. In its design, the DAI makes use of several types of data from a large variety of sources, including:

- Timers, which are shown in [Figure](#) .
- Six serial ports (SPORTS). Serial ports offer Left-justified Sample Pair and I<sup>2</sup>S mode support via 12 programmable and simultaneous receive or transmit pins. These pins support up to 24 transmit or 24 receive I<sup>2</sup>S channels of audio when all six SPORTs are enabled, or six full-duplex TDM streams of up to 128 channels per frame. [For more information, see “Serial Ports” on page 9-1.](#)
- Precision Clock Generators (PCG). The PCG consists of two units, each of which generates a pair of signals derived from a clock input signal. See [“Precision Clock Generator” on page 13-1](#) for more information.
- Input Data Port (IDP). The IDP provides an additional mechanism for peripherals to communicate with memory. Part of the IDP’s function is to convert information from serial format to parallel format so that it can be moved into memory using a parallel FIFO. IDP is described in [“Input Data Port” on page 11-1.](#)

- Digital Audio Interface Pins. These pins provide the physical interface to the SRU. The DAI pins are described in [“Pins Interface” on page 12-7](#).
- Signal Routing Unit. The SRU provides the connection between the serial ports, IDP, and PCG and DAI\_P20-1 pins. The SRU is described in [“Signal Routing Unit” on page 12-3](#).

For a sample of a DAI system configuration, refer to [“Using the SRU\(\) Macro” on page 12-31](#).

## Signal Routing Unit

This section describes how to use the signal routing unit (SRU) to connect inputs to outputs.

### Connecting Peripherals

The SRU can be likened to a set of patch bays, which contains a bank of inputs and a bank of outputs. For each input, there is a set of permissible output options. Outputs can feed any number of inputs in parallel, but every input must be patched to exactly one valid output source. Together, the set of inputs and outputs are called a group. The signal's inputs and outputs that comprise each group all serve similar purposes. They are

# Signal Routing Unit

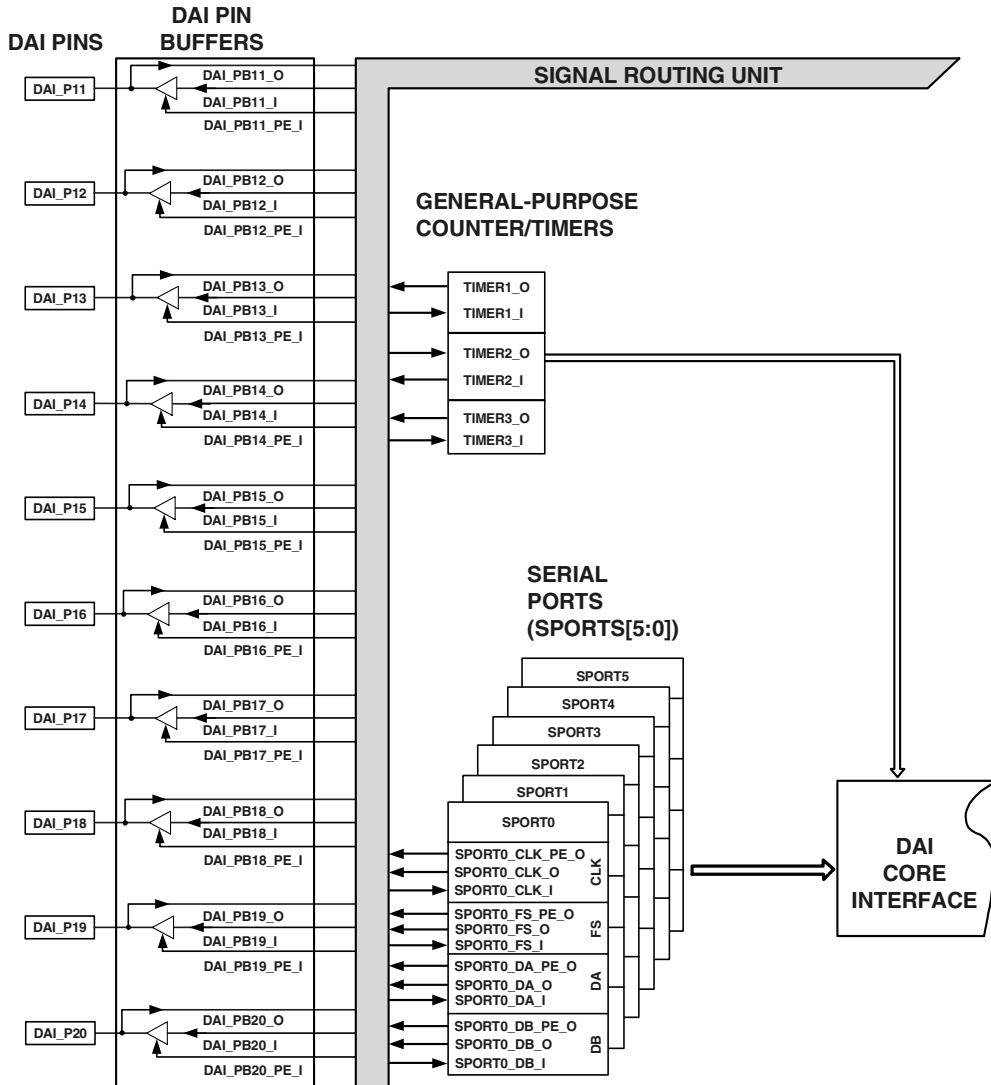


Figure 12-1. DAI System Design

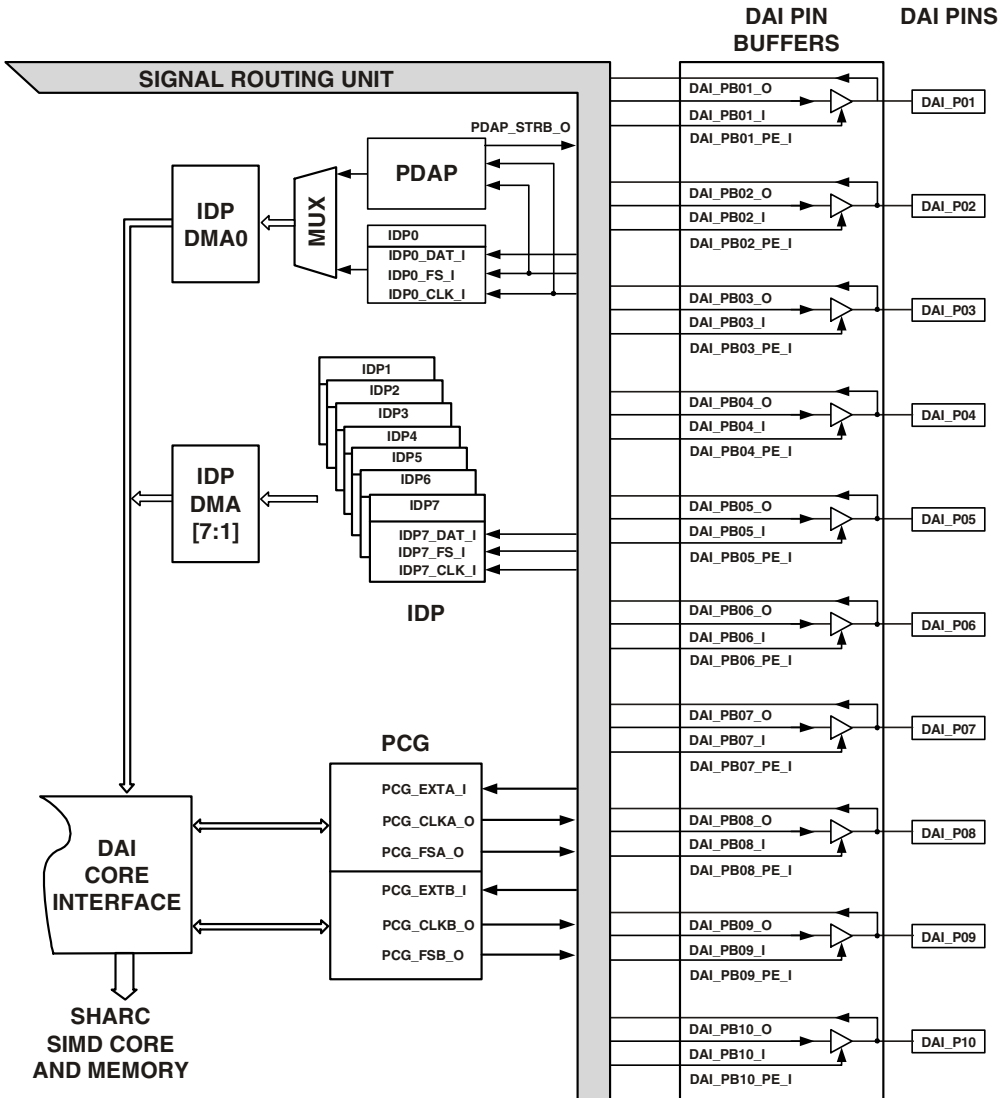


Figure 12-2. DAI System Design (continued)

## Signal Routing Unit

compatible such that almost any output-to-input patch makes functional sense.

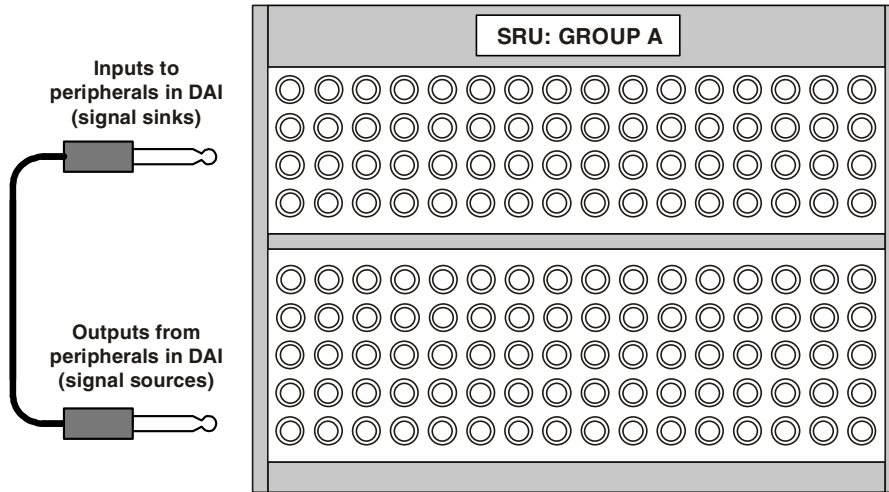


Figure 12-3. Group A as a Patch Bay

The SRU contains six groups that are named sequentially A through F. Each group routes a unique set of signals with a specific purpose. For example, Group A routes clock signals, Group B routes serial data signals, and Group C routes frame sync signals. Together, the SRU's six groups include all of the inputs and outputs of the DAI peripherals, a number of additional signals from the core, and all of the connections to the DAI pins.

Each input and output in each group is given a unique mnemonic. In the few cases where a signal appears in more than one group, the mnemonic is slightly different to distinguish between the connections. The convention is to begin the name with an identifier for the peripheral that the signal is coming to/from followed by the signal's function. A number is included if the DAI contains more than one peripheral type (for example, serial ports) or if the peripheral has more than one signal that performs this function



(for example, IDP channels). The mnemonic always ends with `_I` if the signal is an input, or with `_O` if the signal is an output.

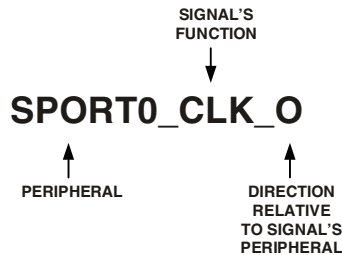


Figure 12-4. Example SRU Mnemonic

Note that it is not possible to connect a signal in one group directly to a signal in a different group (analogous to wiring from one patch bay to another). However, Group D is largely devoted to routing in this vein.

## Pins Interface

Within the context of the SRU, physical connections to the DAI pins are replaced by a logical interface known as a *pin buffer*. This is a three terminal active device capable of sourcing/sinking output current when its driver is enabled, and passing external input signals when disabled. Each pin has a pin input, output, and enable as shown in [Figure 12-5](#). The inputs and the outputs are defined with respect to the pin, similar to a peripheral device. This is consistent with the SRU naming convention.

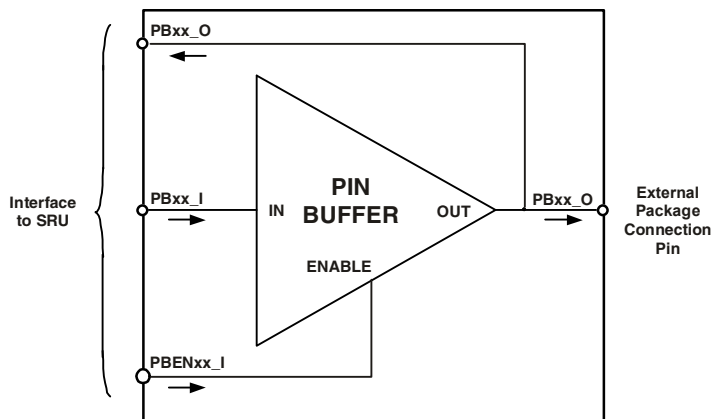


Figure 12-5. Pin Buffer Example

The notation for pin input and output connections can be quite confusing at first because, in a typical system, a pin is simply a wire that connects to a device. The manner in which pins are connected within the SRU requires additional nomenclature. The pin interface's input may be thought of as the input to a buffer amplifier that can drive a load on the physical external lead. The pin interface enable is the input signal that enables the output of the buffer by turning it on when its value is logic high, and turning it off when its value is logic low.

When the pin enable is asserted, the pin output is logically equal to pin input, and the pin is driven. When the pin enable is deasserted, the output of the buffer amplifier becomes high impedance. In this situation, an external device may drive a level onto the line, and the pin is used as an input to the ADSP-2126x processor.

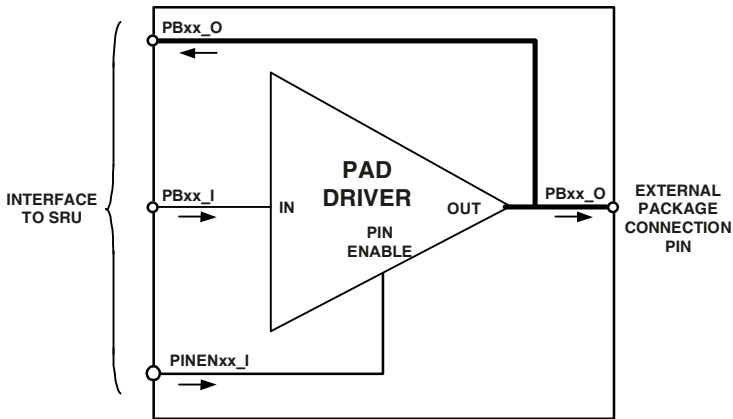


Figure 12-6. Input Signal from Off-chip Drives Pin Output when Pin is not Enabled

While the pin is high impedance and another device is driving a logic level onto the external pin, this value is sent to the SRU as the pin interface output. Even though the signal is an input to the processor, it is an output from the pin interface (as a three-terminal device) and may be patched to the signal inputs of peripherals within the SRU. Pin output is equal to pin input when the pin enable is asserted, but pin output is equal to the external (input) signal when the pin enable is deasserted.

**i** If a DAI pin is not being used, the pin enable (`DAI_PBxx_I`) for its pin buffer should be connected to `LOW` and its associated bit in the `DAI_PIN_PULLUP` register should be set (`= 1`) to enable a pull-up resistor for that pin.

## Pin Buffers as Signal Output Pins

In a typical embedded system, most pins are designated as either inputs or outputs when the circuit is designed, even if they may have the ability to be used in either direction. Each of the DAI pins can be used as either an output or an input. Although the direction of a DAI pin is set simply by writing to a memory-mapped register, most often the pin's direction is

dictated by the designated use of that pin. For example, if the DAI pin is hard-wired to only the input of another interconnected circuit, it would not make sense for the corresponding pin buffer to be configured as an input. Input pins are commonly tied to logic high or logic low to set the input to a fixed value. Similarly, setting the direction of a DAI pin at system startup by tying the pin buffer enable to a fixed value (either logic high or logic low) is often the simplest and cleanest way to configure the SRU.

When the DAI pin is to be used only as an output, connect the corresponding pin buffer enable to logic high as shown in Figure 12-7. This enables the buffer amplifier to operate as a current source and to drive the value present at the pin buffer input onto the DAI pin and off-chip. When the pin buffer enable ( $PBEN_{xx\_I}$ ) is set ( $= 1$ ), the pin buffer output ( $PB_{xx\_O}$ ) will be the same signal as the pin buffer input ( $PB_{xx\_I}$ ), and this signal will be driven as an output.

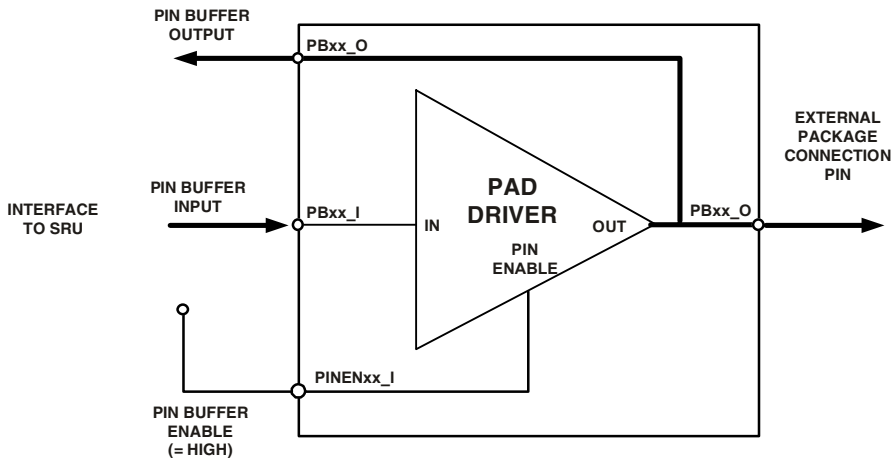


Figure 12-7. Pin Buffer as Output

## Pin Buffers as Signal Input Pins

When the DAI pin is to be used only as an input, connect the corresponding pin buffer enable to logic low as shown in Figure 12-8. This disables the buffer amplifier and allows an off-chip source to drive the value present on the DAI pin and at the pin buffer output. When the pin buffer enable ( $PBEN_{xx\_I}$ ) is cleared ( $= 0$ ), the pin buffer output ( $PB_{xx\_O}$ ) will be the signal driven onto the DAI pin by an external source, and the pin buffer input ( $PB_{xx\_I}$ ) is not used.

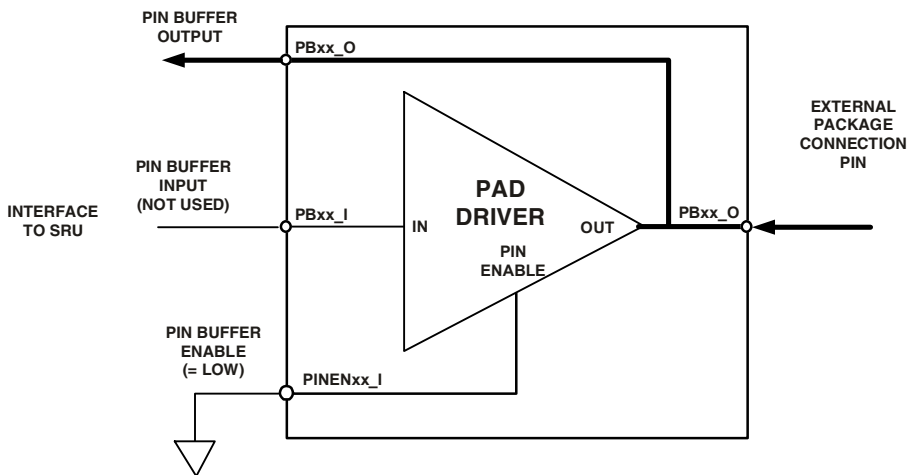


Figure 12-8. Pin Buffer as Input

Although not strictly necessary, it is recommended programming practice to tie the pin buffer input to logic low whenever the pin buffer enable is tied to logic low. By default, the pin buffer enables are connected to SPORT pin enable signals that may change value. Tying the pin buffer input low decouples the line from irrelevant signals and can make code simpler to debug. It also ensures that no voltage is driven by the pin if a bug in your code accidentally asserts the pin enable.

## Bidirectional Pin Buffers

All peripherals within the DAI that have bidirectional pins generate a corresponding pin enable signal. Typically, the settings within a peripheral's Control registers determine if a bidirectional pin is an input or an output, and is then driven accordingly. Both the peripheral's Controls registers and the configuration of the SRU can effect the direction of signal flow in a pin buffer.

For example, from an external perspective, when a serial port (SPORT) is completely routed off-chip, it uses four pins—clock, frame sync, data channel A, and data channel B. Because all four of these pins comprise the interface that the serial port presents to the SRU, there is a total of 12 connections as shown in [Figure 12-9](#).

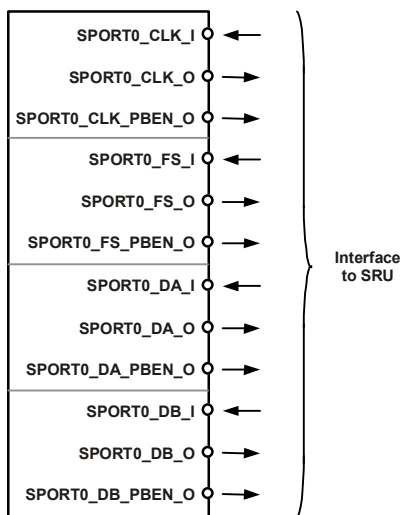


Figure 12-9. SRU Connections for SPORTx

For each bidirectional line, the serial port provides three separate signals. For example, a SPORT clock has three separate SRU connections—an input clock to the SPORT ( $SPORT_x\_CLK\_I$ ), an output clock from the SPORT ( $SPORT_x\_CLK\_O$ ), and an output enable from the SPORT

(SPORT<sub>x</sub>\_CLK\_PE\_0). Note that the input and output signal pair are never used simultaneously. The pin enable signal dictates which of the two SPORT lines appears at the DAI pin at any given time. By connecting all three signals through the SRU, the standard SPORT configuration registers behave as documented in “[Serial Ports](#)” in [Chapter 9, Serial Ports](#). The SRU then becomes transparent to the peripheral. [Figure 12-10](#) demonstrates SPORT0 properly routed to DAI pins one through four; although it can be equally well routed to any of the 20 DAI pins.

Though SPORT signals are capable of operating in this bidirectional manner, it is not required that they be connected to the pin buffer this way. As mentioned above, if the system design only uses a SPORT signal in one direction, it is simpler and safer to connect the pin buffer enable pin directly high or low as appropriate. Furthermore, signals in the SRU other than the pin buffer enable signal (which is generated by the peripheral) may be routed to the pin buffer enable input. For example, an outside source may be used to ‘gate’ a pin buffer output by controlling the corresponding pin buffer enable.

# Signal Routing Unit

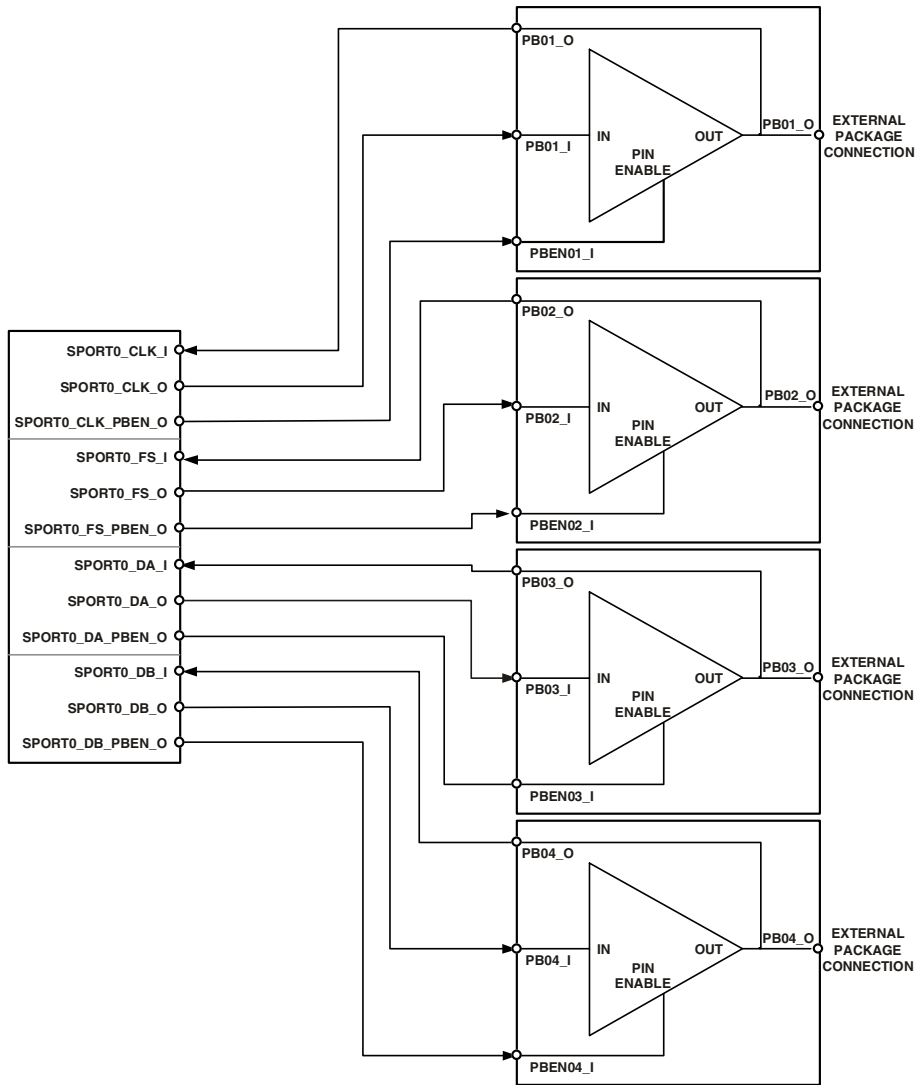


Figure 12-10. SRU Connection to Four Bidirectional SPORT Pins



## Making Connections in the SRU

As described previously, the SRU is similar to a set of patch bays. Each bay routes a distinct set of outputs to compatible inputs. These connections are implemented as a set of memory-mapped registers with a bit field for each input. The outputs are implemented as a set of bit encodings. Conceptually, a patch cord is used to connect an output to an input. In the SRU, a bit pattern that is associated with a signal output (shown as item 1 in [Figure 12-11](#)) is written to a bit field corresponding to a signal input (shown as item 2 in [Figure 12-11](#)).

The memory-mapped SRU registers are arranged by groups, referred to as Group A through Group F and described in “[Signal Routing Unit Registers](#)” on [page A-113](#). Each group has unique encodings for its associated output signals and a set of Configuration registers. For example, Group A is used to route clock signals. Four memory-mapped registers, `SRU_CLK[3:0]`, contain 5-bit wide fields corresponding to the clock inputs of various peripherals. The values written to these bit fields specify a signal source that is an output from another peripheral. All of the possible encodings represent sources that are clock signals (or at least could be clock signals in some systems). [Figure 12-11](#) diagrams the input signals that are controlled by the Group A register, `SRU_CLK0`. All bit fields in the SRU Configuration registers correspond to inputs. The value written to the bit field specifies the signal source. This value is also an output from some other component within the SRU.

Note that the lower portion of the patch bay in [Figure 12-11](#) is shown with a large number of ports to reinforce the point that one output can be connected to many inputs. The same encoding can be written to any number of bit fields in the same group. It is not possible to run out of patch points for an output signal.

## Making Connections in the SRU

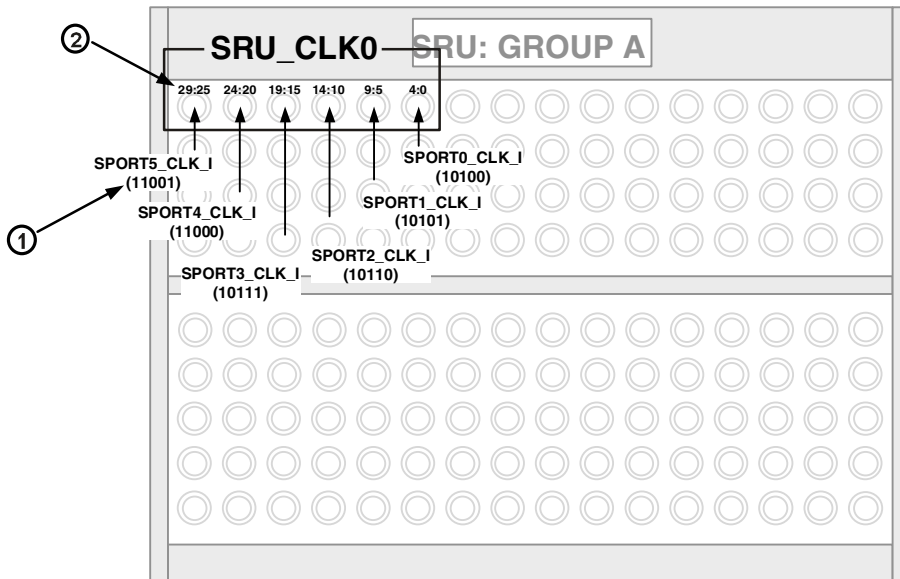


Figure 12-11. Patching to the Group A Register SRU\_CLK0

Just as Group A routes clock signals, each of the other groups route a collection of compatible signals. Group B routes serial data streams. Group C routes frame sync signals. Group D routes signals to pins so that they may be driven off-chip. Note that all of the groups have encodings that allow a signal to flow from a pin output to the input being specified by the bit field, but Group D is required to route a signal to the pin input. Group F routes signals to the pin enables, and the value of these signals determines if a DAI pin is used as an output or an input. These groups are described in more detail in the following sections.

## SRU Connection Groups

The DAI/SRU has the default configuration shown in [Table 12-1](#).

Table 12-1. Default DAI/SRU Configuration (Pin Routing)

Pin Number	Signal Name	Pin Type
DAI_01	SDATA0A	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_02	SDATA0AB	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_03	SCLK0	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_04	SFS0	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_05	SDATA1A	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_06	SDATA1B	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_07	SCLK1	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_08	SFS1	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_09	SDATA2A	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_10	SDATA2B	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_11	SDATA2C	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_12	SDATA2D	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_13	SCLK2	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_14	SFS2	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_15	SDATA3A	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_16	SDATA3B	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_17	SDATA3C	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_18	SDATA3D	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_19	SCLK3	Three-State with programmable Pull-up
DAI_20	SFS3	Three-State with programmable Pull-up

There are five separate groups of connections that are used in the SRU. The following sections summarize each groups of connections.

# Making Connections in the SRU

## Group A Connections – Clock Signals

Group A is used to route signals to clock inputs. The SPORT's clock inputs (when the SPORTs are in clock slave mode), the clock inputs to the eight IDP channels and the two Precision Clock Generators (PCGs) external sources are selected from the list of Group A sources and set in the Group A registers. When channel 0 of the IDP is configured for PDAP input, the clock source set here is used as the parallel word latch instead of the serial bit clock (Table 12-2).

**i** All unused clock inputs should be set to logic LOW. Any IDP channels that receive clock signals set here will send data to the FIFO. When a SPORT is used as a clock master, setting the unused SPORT clock input to logic LOW improves signal integrity. The registers, and input and output signals for group A are shown in Table 12-6.

Table 12-2. Group A Sources – Serial Clock

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
Clock Register	Bit field	
SRU_CLK0	SPORT0_CLK_I SPORT1_CLK_I SPORT2_CLK_I SPORT3_CLK_I SPORT4_CLK_I SPORT5_CLK_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• 20 External Pins (DAI_PBxx_O)</li><li>• 6 Serial Port x Clock Outs (SPORTx_CLK_O)</li><li>• 2 Precision Clock Generators (A/B) (PCG_CLKx_O)</li><li>• 2 Logic Level (HIGH/LOW) Options</li></ul>
SRU_CLK1	IDP0_CLK_I IDP1_CLK_I IDP2_CLK_I	
SRU_CLK2	IDP3_CLK_I IDP4_CLK_I IDP5_CLK_I IDP6_CLK_I IDP7_CLK_I	
SRU_CLK3	PCG_EXT_A_I PCG_EXT_B_I	

## Group B Connections – Data Signals

Group B connections, shown in [Table 12-3](#), are used to route signals to serial data inputs. The serial data inputs to both the A and B channels of the SPORTs and to each of the eight IDP channels are selected from the list of Group B sources and set in the Group B registers. When a SPORT is not configured to receive, the data source set here is ignored. Likewise, when channel 0 of the IDP is used for the PDAP, the serial data source set here is ignored.

Table 12-3. Group B Sources – Serial Data

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
Serial Data Register	Bit field	
SRU_DAT0	SPORT0_DA_I SPORT0_DB_I SPORT1_DA_I SPORT1_DB_I SPORT2_DA_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 20 External Pins (DAI_PBxx_O)</li> <li>• 12 Serial Port x Data Outs (SPORTx_DB_O)</li> <li>• 2 Logic Level (High/Low) Options</li> </ul>
SRU_DAT1	SPORT2_DB_I SPORT3_DA_I SPORT3_DB_I SPORT4_DA_I SPORT4_DB_I	
SRU_DAT2	SPORT5_DA_I SPORT5_DB_I	
SRU_DAT3	IDP0_DAT_I IDP1_DAT_I IDP2_DAT_I IDP3_DAT_I	
SRU_DAT4	IDP4_DAT_I IDP5_DAT_I IDP6_DAT_I IDP7_DAT_I	

# Making Connections in the SRU

## Group C Connections – Frame Sync Signals

Group C connections are used to route signals to frame sync inputs. The SPORT frame sync inputs (when the SPORT is in slave mode) and the frame sync inputs to the eight IDP channels are selected from the list of Group C sources and set in the Group C registers.

Each of the frame sync inputs specified is connected to a frame sync source based on the 5-bit values described in the Group C frame sync sources, listed in [Table 12-4](#). Thirty-two possible frame sync sources can be connected using the registers `SRU_FS0-2` described in [Figure A-43 on page A-123](#) through [Figure A-45 on page A-124](#).

Table 12-4. Group C Sources – Frame Sync

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
Frame Sync Register	Bit field	
SRU_FS0	SPORT0_FS_I SPORT1_FS_I SPORT2_FS_I SPORT3_FS_I SPORT4_FS_I SPORT5_FS_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• 20 External Pins (DAI_PBxx_O)</li><li>• 6 Serial Port FS Output Options (SPORTx_FS_O)</li><li>• 2 Precision Frame Sync (A/B) Outputs (PCG_FSx_O)</li><li>• 2 Frame Sync Logic Level (High/Low) Options</li></ul>
SRU_FS1	IDP0_FS_I IDP1_FS_I IDP2_FS_I	
SRU_FS2	IDP3_FS_I IDP4_FS_I IDP5_FS_I IDP6_FS_I IDP7_FS_I	

## Group D Connections – Pin Signal Assignments

Group D is used to specify any signals that will be driven off-chip by the pin buffers. A pin buffer input ( $DAI\_PB_{xx\_I}$ ) is driven as an output from the processor when the pin buffer enable is set (= 1). Note that DAI pins 19 and 20 may be configured as either active high or active low by setting the corresponding invert bit.

Each physical pin (connected to a bonded pad) may be routed via the SRU to any of the outputs of the DAI audio peripherals, based on the 6-bit values listed in [Table 12-5](#). The SRU also may be used to route signals that control the pins in other ways. These signals may be configured for use as flags, timers, precision clock generators, or miscellaneous control signals.

Group D registers are  $SRU\_PIN0-3$ , described in [Figure A-46](#) on [page A-127](#) through [Figure A-49](#) on [page A-128](#).

## Making Connections in the SRU

Table 12-5. Group D Sources – Pin Signal Assignments

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
DAI Pin Register	Bit field	
SRU_PIN0	DAI_PB01_I DAI_PB02_I DAI_PB03_I DAI_PB04_I DAI_PB05_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 20 External Pins (DAI_PBxx_O)</li> <li>• 12 Serial Port Data Channel Output Options (two for each SPORT, and one for each Channel A/B) (SPORTx_DB_O)</li> <li>• 6 Serial Port Clock Output Options (one for each SPORT) (SPORTx_CLK_O)</li> <li>• 6 Serial Port FS Output Options (one for each SPORT) (SPORTx_FS_O)</li> <li>• 3 Timers (TIMERx_O)</li> <li>• 6 Flags (FLGxx_O)</li> <li>• 4 Miscellaneous Control B Options (MISCBx_O)</li> <li>• 2 PCG Clock (A/B) Outputs</li> <li>• 2 PCG Frame Sync (A/B) Outputs</li> <li>• 2 Pin Logic Level (High/Low) Designations</li> </ul>
SRU_PIN1	DAI_PB06_I DAI_PB07_I DAI_PB08_I DAI_PB09_I DAI_PB10_I	
SRU_PIN2	DAI_PB11_I DAI_PB12_I DAI_PB13_I DAI_PB14_I DAI_PB15_I	
SRU_PIN3	DAI_PB16_I DAI_PB17_I DAI_PB18_I DAI_PB19_I DAI_PB20_I DAI_PB19_INVERT DAI_PB20_INVERT	



## Group E Connections – Miscellaneous Signals

Group E connections, shown in [Table 12-6](#), are slightly different from the others in that the inputs and outputs being routed vary considerably in function. This group routes control signals (flags, timers, and so on) and provides a means of connecting signals between groups. Signals with names such as `MISCxy` appear as inputs in Group E, but do not directly feed any peripheral. Rather, they reappear as outputs in Group D and Group F.

Additional connections among Groups D, E, and F provide a surprising amount of utility. Since Group D routes signals off-chip and Group F dictates pin direction, these few signal paths enable an enormous number of possible uses and connections for DAI pins. A few examples include:

- One pin's input can be patched to another pin's output, allowing board-level routing under software control.
- A pin input can be patched to another pin's enable, allowing an off-chip signal to gate an output from the processor.
- Any of the DAI pins can be used as interrupt sources or general-purpose I/O (GPIO) signals.
- Both input and output signals of the timers can be routed to DAI pins. These peripherals are capable of counting in up, down, or elapsed time modes.
- Many types of bidirectional signaling may be created by routing an output of the PCG to a pin enable.

The SRU enables many possible functional changes, both within the processor as well as externally. Used creatively, it allows system designers to radically change functionality at run time, and potentially to reuse circuit boards across many products.

## Making Connections in the SRU

Table 12-6. Group E Sources – Misc. Assignment

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
DAI Pin Register	Bit field	
SRU_EXT_MISCA	MISCA0_I DAI_INT_28 FLG13_I MISCA1_I DAI_INT_29 MISCA2_I DAI_INT_30 FLG14_I MISCA_3_I DAI_INT_31 MISCA_4_I MISCA_5_I INV_MISCA4_I INV_MISCA5_I MISCB_0_I DAI_INT_22 TIMER0_I MISCB_1_I DAI_INT_23 TIMER1_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 20 External Pins (DAI_PBxx_O)</li> <li>• 3 Timers (TIMERx_O)</li> <li>• 1 IDP Parallel Input Strobe Output (PDAP_STRB_O)</li> <li>• 2 Clock A/B Outputs (PCG_CLKx_O)</li> <li>• 2 PCG Frame Sync A/B Outputs (PCG_FSx_O)</li> <li>• 2 Logic Level (High/Low) Options</li> </ul>
SRU_EXT_MISCB	MISCB_2_I DAI_INT_24 TIMER2_I MISCB_3_I DAI_INT_25 FLG10_I MISCB_4_I DAI_INT26 FLG11_I MISCB_5_I DAI_INT_27 FLG12_I	

## Group F – Pin Enable Signals

Group F signals, shown in [Table 12-7](#), are used to specify whether each DAI pin is used as an output or an input by setting the source for the pin buffer enables. When a pin buffer enable (DAI\_PBEN $_{xx}$ \_I) is set (= 1) the signal present at the corresponding pin buffer input (DAI\_PB $_{xx}$ \_I) is driven off-chip as an output. When a pin buffer enable is cleared (= 0) the signal present at the corresponding pin buffer input is ignored.

The Pin Enable Control registers activate the drive buffer for each of the 20 DAI pins. When the pins are not enabled (driven), they can be used as inputs.

Table 12-7. Group F Sources – Pin Output Enable

Signal Inputs		Signal Sources
DAI Pin Register	Bit field	
SRU_PBEN0	DAI_PB01_I DAI_PB02_I DAI_PB03_I DAI_PB04_I DAI_PB05_I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 2 Pin Enable Logic Level (High/Low) Options</li> <li>• 6 Miscellaneous A Control Pins (MISCA<math>_{x}</math>_O)</li> <li>• 24 Pin Enable Options for 6 Serial Ports (one each for FS, Data Channel A/B, and Clock) (SPORT<math>_{x}</math>_CLK_PBEN_O), (SPORT<math>_{x}</math>_FS_PBEN_O), (SPORT<math>_{x}</math>_DA_PBEN_O), (SPORT<math>_{x}</math>_DB_PBEN_O)</li> <li>• 3 Timer Pin Enables (TIMER<math>_{x}</math>_PBEN_O)</li> <li>• 6 Flags Pin Enables (FLG<math>_{xx}</math>_PBEN_O)</li> </ul>
SRU_PBEN1	DAI_PB06_I DAI_PB07_I DAI_PB08_I DAI_PB09_I DAI_PB10_I	
SRU_PBEN2	DAI_PB11_I DAI_PB12_I DAI_PB13_I DAI_PB14_I DAI_PB15_I	
SRU_PBEN3	DAI_PB16_I DAI_PB17_I DAI_PB18_I DAI_PB19_I DAI_PB20_I	

# General-Purpose I/O (GPIO) and Flags

Any of the DAI pins may also be considered general-purpose input/output (GPIO) pins. Each of the DAI pins can also be set to drive a high or low logic level signal to assert signals. They can also be connected to miscellaneous signals and used as interrupt sources or as control inputs to other blocks. Other than these, out of the 16 flags available, six (10:15) can use 20 DAI pins.

## Miscellaneous Signals

In a standard SHARC processor, a clock out connects to a clock in. Likewise, a frame sync out is connected to a frame sync in, and a data out is connected to a data in, and so on. In the ADSP-2126x processor, there are exceptions to these standard connection practices. Signals:

- May also be configured as interrupt sources
- Can be configured as invert signals (forcing a signal to active low)
- Can connect one pin to another
- Can be configured as pin enables

## DAI Interrupt Controller

The DAI contains a dedicated Interrupt Controller that signals the core when DAI-peripheral events have occurred.

## Relationship to the Core

Generally, interrupts are classified as catastrophic or normal. Catastrophic events include any hardware interrupts (for example, resets) and emulation interrupts (under the control of the PC), math exceptions, and

“reads” of memory that do not exist. Catastrophic events are treated as high priority events. In comparison, normal interrupts are “deterministic”—specific events emanating from a source (the causes), the result of which is the generation of an interrupt. The expiration of a timer can generate an interrupt, a signal that a serial port has received data that must be processed, a signal that an SPI has either transmitted or received data, and other software interrupts like the insertion of a trap that causes a break-point—all are conditions which identify to the core that an event has occurred.

Since DAI-specific events generally occur infrequently, the DAI IC classifies such interrupts as either high or low priority interrupts. Within these broad categories, users can indicate which interrupts are high and which are classified as low.

Any interrupt causes a two-cycle stall, since it forces the core to stop processing an instruction in process, then vector to the Interrupt Service routine (ISR), (which is basically an Interrupt Vector Table (IVT) lookup), then proceed to implement the instruction referenced in the IVT. For more information, see [“Interrupt Vector Addresses” in Appendix B, Interrupt Vector Addresses](#).

When an interrupt from the DAI must be serviced, one of the two core ISRs must query the DAI’s Interrupt Controller to determine the source(s). Sources can be any one or more of the Interrupt Controller’s 32-configurable channels (`DAI_INT[31:0]`). [For more information, see “DAI Interrupt Controller Registers” on page A-167.](#)

DAI events trigger two interrupts in the primary IVT—one each for low or high priority. When any interrupt from the DAI needs to be serviced, one of the two core ISRs must interrogate the DAI’s Interrupt Controller to determine the source(s).





Reading the DAI’s interrupt latches clears them. Therefore, the ISR must service *all* the interrupt sources it discovers.

### DAI Interrupts

There are several registers in the DAI Interrupt Controller that can be configured to control how the DAI interrupts are reported to and serviced by the core's Interrupt Controller. Among other options, each DAI interrupt can be mapped either as a high or low priority interrupt in the primary interrupt controller, certain DAI interrupts can be triggered on either the rising or falling edge of signals, and each DAI interrupt can also be independently masked.

Just as the core has its own interrupt latch registers (`IRPTL` and `LIRPTL`), the DAI has its own latch registers (`DAI_IRPTL_L` and `DAI_IRPTL_H`). When a DAI interrupt is configured to be high priority, it is latched in the `DAI_IRPTL_H` register. When any bit in the `DAI_IRPTL_H` register is set (= 1), bit 11 in the `IRPTL` register is also set and the core services that interrupt with high priority. When a DAI interrupt is configured to be low priority, it is latched in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register. Similarly, when any bit in the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register is set (= 1), bit 6 in the `LIRPTL` register is also set and the core services that interrupt with low priority. Regardless of the priority, when a DAI interrupt is latched and promoted to the core interrupt latch, the ISR must query the DAI's Interrupt Controller to determine the source(s). Sources can be any one or more of the Interrupt Controller's 32-configurable channels (`DAI_INT[31:0]`). [For more information, see “DAI Interrupt Controller Registers” on page A-167.](#)

-  Reading the DAI's interrupt latches clears them. Therefore, the ISR must service all the interrupt sources it discovers. That is, if multiple interrupts are latched in one of the `DAI_IRPTL_x` registers, all of them must be serviced before executing an `RTI` instruction.
-  The `IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT` interrupt is not cleared when the `DAI_IRPTL_H/L` registers are read. This interrupt is cleared automatically when the situation that caused of the interrupt goes away.

## High and Low Priority Latches

In the ADSP-2126x, a pair of registers (`DAI_IRPTL_H` and `DAI_IRPTL_L`) replace functions normally performed by the `IRPTL` register. A single register (`DAI_IRPTL_PRI`) specifies the latch to which each of these interrupts are mapped.

Two registers (`DAI_IRPTL_RE` and `DAI_IRPTL_FE`) replace the DAI peripheral's version of the `IMASK` register. As with the `IMASK` register, these DAI registers provide a way to specify which interrupts to notice and handle, and which interrupts to ignore. These dual registers function like `IMASK` does, but with a higher degree of granularity.

Signals from the SRU can be used to generate interrupts. For example, when `SRU_EXTMISCA2_INT` (bit 30) or `DAI_IRPTL_H` is set to one, any signal from the external miscellaneous Channel 2 generates an interrupt. If set to one, DAI interrupts trigger an interrupt in the core and the interrupt latch is set. A read of this bit does not reset it to zero. The bit is only set to zero when the cause of the interrupt is cleared. A DAI interrupt indicates the source (in this case, external miscellaneous A, Channel 2), and checks the IVT for an instruction (next operation) to perform.

The 32 interrupt signals within the Interrupt Controller are mapped to two interrupt signals in the primary Interrupt Controller of the SHARC core. The `DAI_IRPT_PRI` register specifies if the Interrupt Controller interrupt is mapped to the high or low core interrupt (1 = high priority and 0 = low priority).

The `DAI_IRPTL_H` register is a read-only register with bits set for every DAI interrupt latched for the high priority core interrupt. The `DAI_IRPTL_L` register is a read-only register with bits set for every DAI interrupt latched for the low priority core interrupt. When a DAI interrupt occurs, the low or high priority core ISR should interrogate its corresponding register to determine which of the 32 interrupt sources to service. When the `DAI_IRPTL_H` register is read, the high priority latched interrupts are all

## DAI Interrupt Controller

cleared. When the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register is read, the low priority latched interrupts are all cleared.

### Rising and Falling Edge Masks

For interrupt sources that correspond to waveforms (as opposed to DAI event signals such as DMA complete or buffer full), the edge of a waveform may be used as an interrupt source as well. Just as interrupts can be generated by a source, interrupts can also be generated latched on the rising (or falling) edges of a signal. This concept does not exist in the main Interrupt Controller, only in the DAI Interrupt Controller.

When a signal comes in, the system needs to determine what kind of signal it is and what kind of protocol, as a result, to service. The preamble indicates the signal type. When the protocol changes, output (signal) type is noted.


For audio applications, the ADSP-2126x needs information about interrupt sources that correspond to waveforms (not event signals). As a result, the falling edge of the waveform may be used as an interrupt source as well. Programs may elect to use any of four conditions:

- Latch on the rising edge
- Latch on the falling edge
- Latch on *both* the rising and falling edge

The DAI Interrupt Controller may be configured using three registers. Each of the 32 interrupt lines can be independently configured to trigger in response to the incoming signal's rising edge, its falling edge, both the rising edge and the falling edge, or neither the rising edge nor the falling edge. Setting a bit in either the `DAI_IRPTL_RE` or `DAI_IRPTL_FE` registers enables the interrupt level on the rising and falling edges, respectively. For more information on these registers, see [Figure A-76 on page A-172](#) and [Figure A-76 on page A-172](#).



Programs can manage responses to signals by configuring registers. In a sample audio application, for example, upon detection of a change of protocol, the output can be muted. This change of output and the resulting behavior (causing the sound to be muted) results in an alert signal (an interrupt) being introduced in response (if the detection of a protocol change is a high priority interrupt).

 The `DAI_IRPTL_FE` register can only be used for latching interrupts on the falling edge.

Use of the `DAI_IRPT_RE` or `DAI_IRPT_FE` registers allows programs to notice and respond to rising edges, falling edges, both rising and falling edges, or neither rising nor falling edges so they can be masked separately.

Enabling responses to changes in condition signals (including changes in DMA state, introduction of error conditions, and so on) can only be enabled using the `DAI_IRPT_RE` register.

## Using the `SRU()` Macro

As discussed above, the Signal Routing Unit is controlled by writing values that correspond to signal sources into bit fields that further correspond to signal inputs. The SRU is arranged into functional groups such that the registers that are made up of these bit fields accept a common set of source signal values.

In order to ease the coding process, the include file `sru2126x.h`, is included with the CrossCore or VisualDSP++ tools. This file implements a macro that abstracts away most of the work of signal assignments and functions.

The macro has identical syntax in C/C++ and assembly, and makes a single connection from an output to an input:

```
SRU(OutputSignal,InputSignal);
```

## Using the SRU() Macro

The names passed to the macro are the names given in [Table 12-2](#) through [Table 12-7](#) and in the DAI registers section in “[Signal Routing Unit Registers](#)” on [page A-113](#). Note that each processor has its own specific version of the macro that implements the bit field encodings appropriate to that part. For example, in code for the ADSP-21262 processor, add the following line in your source code:

```
#include <sru21262.h>;
```


The following lines illustrate how the macro is used:

```
/* Route SPORT 1 clock output to pin buffer 5 input */
    SRU(SPORT1_CLK_0,DAI_PB05_I);

/* Route pin buffer 14 out to IDP3 frame sync input */
    SRU(DAI_PB14_0,IDP3_FS_I);

/* Connect pin buffer enable 19 to logic low */
    SRU(LOW,PBEN19_I);
```

Additional example code is available on the [Analog Devices Web site](#).

 There is a macro that has been created to connect peripherals used in a DAI configuration. This code can be used in both Assembly and C code. See the `INCLUDE` file `SRU.H`.

# 13 PRECISION CLOCK GENERATOR

The Precision Clock Generator (PCG) consists of two units, each of which generates a pair of signals derived from a clock input signal. The pair of units, A and B, are identical in functionality and operate independently of each other. Each unit generates two signals that are normally used as a clock frame sync pair. The unit that generates the clock is relatively simple, since digital clock signals are usually regular and symmetrical. The unit that generates the frame sync output, however, is designed to be extremely flexible and capable of generating the wide variety of framing signals needed by the many types of peripherals that can be connected to the signal routing unit (SRU). [For more information, see “Signal Routing Unit” on page 12-3.](#)

The core phase locked loop (PLL) has been designed to provide clocking for the processor core. Although the performance specifications of this PLL are appropriate for the core, they have not been optimized or specified for precision data converters where jitter directly translates into time quantization errors and distortion.

The PCG can accept its clock input either directly from the external oscillator (or discrete crystal) connected to the CLKIN/XTAL pins or from any of the 20 DAI pins. This allows a design to contain an external clock with performance specifications appropriate for the application target.

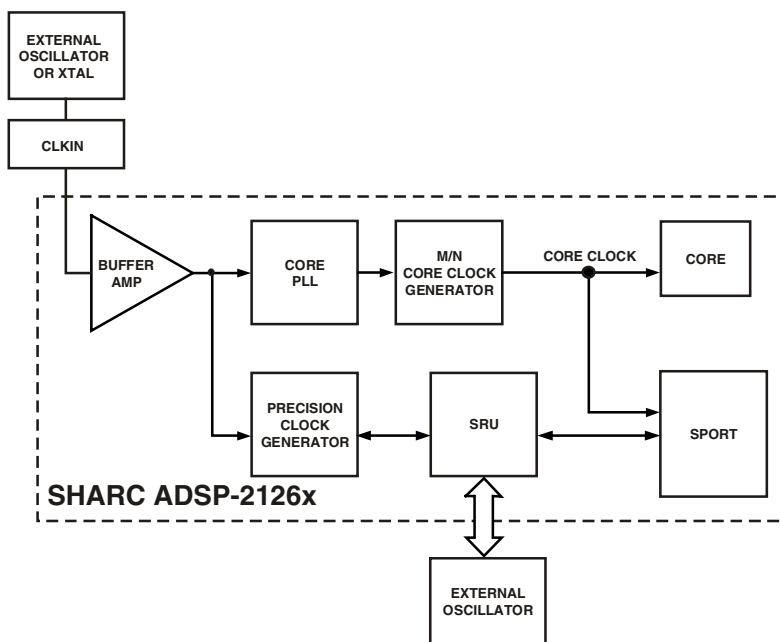



Figure 13-1. Clock Inputs

Note that any clock and frame sync signals generated by the serial ports are also subject to these jitter problems because the SPORT clock is generated from the core clock. However, a SPORT can produce data output while being a clock and frame sync slave. The clock generated by the SPORT is sufficient for most serial communications, but it is suboptimal for analog conversion. Therefore, all precision data converters should be synchronized to a clock generated by the PCG or to a clean (low jitter) clock that is fed into the SRU off-chip via a pin.

-  Any clock or frame sync unit should be disabled (have its enable bit cleared) before changing any of the associated parameters. After disabling PCG, delay of N core clock cycles ( $N = \text{PCG source clock period} / \text{CLKIN period}$ ) should be provided before programming PCG with new parameters.

## Clock Outputs

As stated in the overview, each of the two units (A and B) produces a clock output and a frame sync output. The clock output is derived from the input to the PCG with a 20-bit divisor.

$$\text{Frequency of Clock Output} = \frac{\text{Frequency of Clock Input}}{\text{Clock Divisor}}$$

If the divisor is either zero or one, the PCG's clock generation unit is bypassed, and the clock input is connected directly to the clock output. Otherwise, the PCG unit clock output frequency is equal to the input clock frequency, divided by a 20-bit integer. The integer is specified in the `CLKADIV` bit field (bits 19–0 of the `PCG_CTLA_1` register) for unit A and a corresponding bit field in the `PCG_CTLB_1` register for unit B. See also [Figure A-57 on page A-143](#) and [Figure A-59 on page A-145](#).

The clock outputs have two other control bits that enable the A and B units, `ENCLKA` and `ENCLKB`, respectively (bits 31 of the `PCG_CTLA_0` and `PCG_CTLB_0` registers). These bits enable (= 1) and disable (= 0) the clock output signal for units A and B, respectively. When disabled, clock output is held at logic low.


The `CLKASOURCE` bit (bit 31 in the `PCG_CTLA_1` register) specifies the input source for the clock of unit A. When this bit is cleared (= 0), the input is sourced from the external oscillator, as shown in [Figure 13-1](#). When set (= 1), the input is sourced from the SRU, as specified in the `SRU_CLK3` register in `PCG_EXT_A_I` (bits 4–0). See [Table A-41 on page A-144](#).

The PCG unit B functions identically, except that the `PCG_CTLB_1` bit (bit 31) indicates that the external source for unit B is specified in `PCG_EXT_B_I` (bits 9–5 of the `SRU_CLK3` register). See [Table A-44 on page A-147](#).

Note that the clock output is always set (as closely as possible) to a 50% duty cycle. If the clock divisor is even, the duty cycle of the clock output is exactly 50%. If the clock divisor is odd, then the duty cycle is slightly less

## Frame Sync Outputs

than 50%. The low period of the output clock is one input clock period more than the high period of the output clock.

 A PCG clock output cannot be fed to its own input. Setting `SRU_CLK3[4:0] = 28` connects `PCG_EXT_A_I` to logic low, not to `PCG_CLK_A_0`. Setting `SRU_CLK3[9:5] = 29` connects `PCG_EXT_B_I` to logic low, not to `PCG_CLK_B_0`.

## Frame Sync Outputs

Each of the two units (A and B) also produces a synchronization signal for framing serial data. The frame sync outputs are much more flexible since they need to accommodate the wide variety of serial protocols used by peripherals.

There are two modes of operation for the PCG frame sync. The divisor field determines if the frame sync will operate in Normal mode (divisor > 1) or Bypass mode (divisor = 0 or 1).

## Frame Sync

For a given frame sync, the output is determined by the following:

- **Divisor.** A 20-bit divisor of the input clock that determines the period of the frame sync. When set to zero or one, the frame sync operates in Bypass mode, otherwise it operates in Normal mode.
- **Phase.** A 20-bit value that determines the phase relationship between the clock output and the frame sync output. Settings for phase can be anywhere between zero to  $DIV - 1$ .

- **Pulse width.** A 16-bit value that determines the width of the framing pulse. Settings for pulse width can be zero to  $DIV-1$ . If the pulse width is equal to zero, then the actual pulse width of the output frame sync is:

$$\text{For even divisors: } \frac{\text{Frame Sync Divisor}}{2}$$

$$\text{For odd divisors: } \frac{\text{Frame Sync Divisor} - 1}{2}$$

The frequency of the frame sync output is determined by:

$$\text{Frequency of Frame Sync Output} = \frac{\text{Frequency of Clock Input}}{\text{Frame Sync Divisor}}$$

When the divisor is set to any value *other* than zero or one, the ADSP-2126x operates in Normal mode.

The frame sync A divisor is specified in bits 19–0 of the `PCG_CTLA_0` register and the frame sync B divisor is specified in bits 19–0 of the `PCG_CTLB_0` register. The pulse width of frame sync output is equal to the number of input clock periods specified in the 16-bit field of the `PCG_PW` register. Bits 15–0 specify the pulse width of frame sync A, and bits 31–16 specify the pulse width of frame sync B.

## Frame Sync Output Synchronization with External Clock

The frame sync output may be synchronized with an external clock by programming the `SRU_EXT_MISCA`, `SRU_CLK2` and `SRU_CLK3` registers appropriately. In this mode, the PCG frame sync output is synchronized with the rising edge of the external clock (shown in [Figure 13-2](#)). The external clock is routed to the PCG block from any of the SRU group E sources

## Frame Sync Outputs

through the `MISCA4_I` (for PCGA) and `MISCA5_I` (for PCGB) signals of the `SRU_EXT_MISCA` register. For more information, see “Miscellaneous SRU Registers (`SRU_EXT_MISCAx`, Group E)” on page A-132.

Synchronization with the external clock is enabled by setting bit 25 of the `SRU_CLK2` register for PCGA frame sync output and bit 10 of the `SRU_CLK3` register for PCGB frame sync output. For more information, see “Clock Routing Control Registers (`SRU_CLKx`, Group A)” on page A-114. The phase must be programmed to three, so that the rising edge of the external clock is in sync with the frame sync. Programming should occur in the following order:

1. Program PCG control registers `SRU_EXT_MISCA`, `SRU_CLK2` and `SRU_CLK3` as mentioned above.
2. Enable the clock, frame sync, or both. In other words, program all the values before enabling the PCG (clock and frame sync).

Since the rising edge of the external clock is used to synchronize with the frame sync, the frame sync output is not generated until a rising edge of the external clock is sensed.

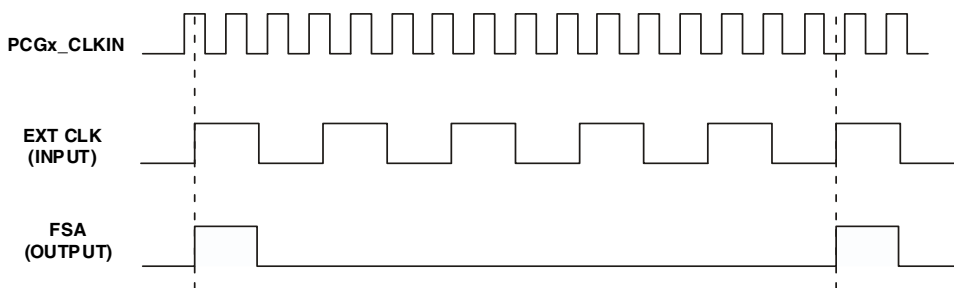


Figure 13-2. Clock Output Synchronization with External Clock

The clock output cannot be aligned with the rising edge of the external clock as there is no phase programmability. Once `CLKA` and `CLKB` have been enabled, by programming bit 31 of `PCG_CTLA_0` and `PCG_CTLB_0` registers



respectively, these outputs are activated when a low to high transition is sensed in the external clock (MISCA4\_I, MISCA5\_I).

## Phase Shift

Another PCG frame sync parameter provides for phase shifting with respect to the clock of the same unit. This feature allows shifting in time relative to clock signals. Frame sync phase shifting is often required by peripherals that need to lead or lag a clock signal. For example, the I<sup>2</sup>S protocol specifies that the frame sync should transition from high to low one clock cycle before the beginning of a frame. Since an I<sup>2</sup>S frame is 64 clock cycles long, delaying the frame sync by 63 cycles produces the required framing.

The amount of phase shifting is specified as a 20-bit value in the FSA-PHASE\_HI bit field (bits 29–20) of the PCG\_CTLA\_0 register and in the FSAPHASE\_LO bit field (bits 9–20) of the PCG\_CTLA\_1 register for unit A. A single 20-bit value spans these two bit fields. The upper half of the word [19:10] is in the PCG\_CTLA\_0 register, and the lower half [9:0] is in the PCG\_CTLA\_1 register.

Similarly, the phase shift for frame sync B is specified in the PCG\_CTLB\_0 and PCG\_CTLB\_1 registers.



When using a clock and frame sync as a synchronous pair, the units must be enabled in a single atomic instruction before their parameters are modified. Both units must also be disabled in a single atomic instruction.

## Phase Shift Settings

The phase shift between clock and frame sync outputs may be programmed under these conditions:

- The input clock source for the clock generator output and the frame sync generator output is the same.
- Clock and frame sync are enabled at the same time using a single atomic instruction.
- Frame sync divisor is an integral multiple of the clock divisor.

If the phase shift is zero, the clock and frame sync outputs rise at the same time. If the phase shift is one, the frame sync output transitions one input clock period ahead of the clock transition. If the phase shift is  $\text{DIVISOR} - 1$ , the frame sync transitions  $\text{DIVISOR} - 1$  input clock periods ahead of the clock transitions. This translates to the input clock period after the clock transition, which further translates to one input clock period after the clock transition.

Phase shifting is represented as a full 20-bit value so that even when frame sync is divided by the maximum amount, the phase can be shifted to the full range, from zero to one input clock short of the period.

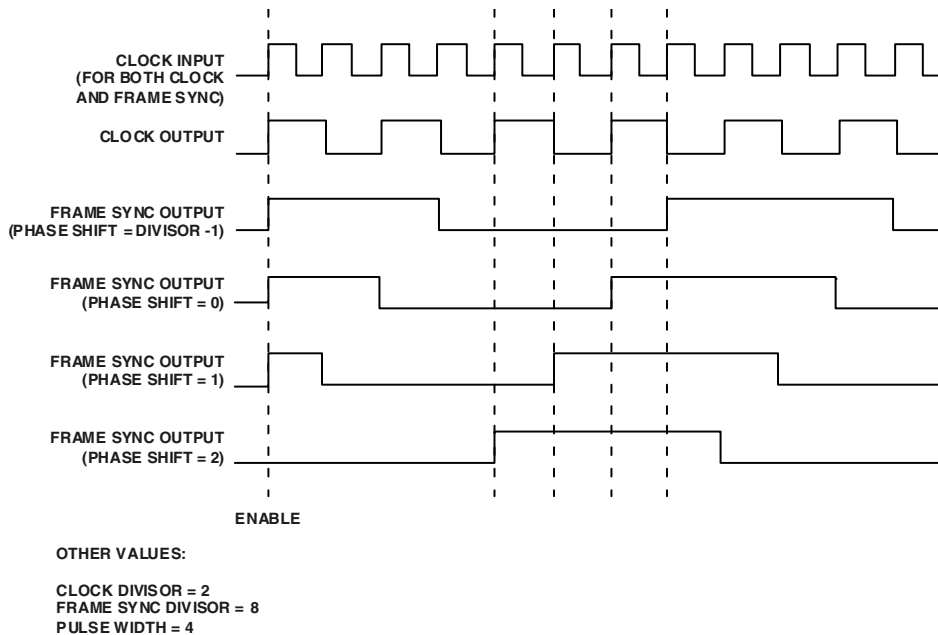


Figure 13-3. Adjusting Frame Sync Phase Shift

## Pulse Width

Pulse width is the number of input clock periods for which the frame sync output is HIGH. Pulse width should be less than the divisor of the frame sync. The pulse width of frame sync A is specified in bits 15–0 of the PCG\_PW register and the pulse width of frame sync B is specified in bits 31–16 of the PCG\_PW register.

If the pulse width is equal to zero, then the actual pulse width of the frame sync output is equal to:

$$\frac{\text{DIVISOR}}{2}$$


if the divisor is even, or

$$\frac{\text{DIVISOR} - 1}{2}$$

if the divisor is odd.

## Bypass Mode

When the divisor for the frame sync has a value of zero or one, the frame sync is in Bypass mode, and the `PCG_PW` register has different functionality than in Normal mode. Two bit fields determine the operation in this mode. The One Shot Frame Sync A or B (`STROBEX`) bit (bits 0 and 16, respectively) determines if the frame sync has the same width as the input, or of a single strobe. These bits also determine whether the Active Low Frame Sync Select for the Frame Sync A or B (`INVFSX`) bit (bits 1 and 17, respectively) inverts the input. For additional information about the `PCG_PW` register, see [Figure A-60 on page A-146](#).

 In Bypass mode, bits 15–2 and bits 31–18 of the `PCG_PW` register are ignored.

## Bypass as a Pass Through

When the `STROBEA` bit in the `PCG_PW` register for unit A or the `STROBEB` bit in the `PCG_PW` register for unit B equals zero, the unit is bypassed and the output equals the input. If `INVFSA` (bit 1) for unit A or `INVFSB` (bit 17) for unit B is set, then the signal is inverted.

Bypass mode also enables the generation of a strobe pulse (“one shot”). Strobe usage ignores the counter and looks to the SRU to provide the input signal.

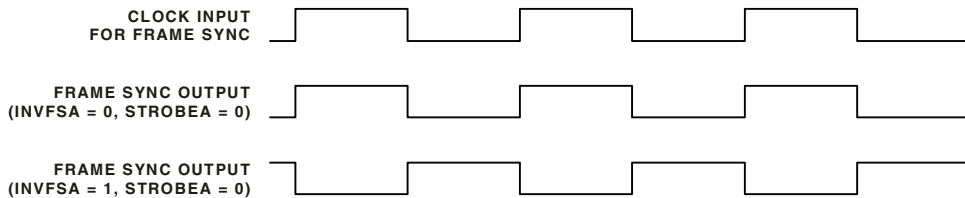


Figure 13-4. Frame Sync Bypass

### Bypass as a One Shot

When the `STROBEA` bit (bit 0 of the `PCG_PW` register) or `STROBE B` bit (bit 16 of the `PCG_PW` register) is set (= 1), the One Shot option is used. When the `STROBEx` bit is set (= 1), the frame sync is a pulse with a duration equal to one period, or one full cycle, of `MISCA2_I` for unit A and `MISCA3_I` for unit B that repeats at the beginning of every clock input period. This pulse is generated during the high period when the `INV FSA/B` bits (bits 1 or 17, respectively = 0), are cleared or low period when invert bit (`INV FSA/B` = 1) of the input clock.

A *strobe period* is equal to the period of the normal clock input signal specified by `FSASOURCE` (bit 30 in the `PCG_CTLA_1` register for unit A) and `FSBSOURCE` (bit 30 in the `PCG_CTLB_1` register for unit B).

The output pulse width is equal to the period of the SRU source signal (`MISCA2_I` for frame sync A and `MISCB3_I` for frame sync B). The pulse begins at the second rising edge of `MISCxx_I` following a rising edge of the clock input. When the `INV FSA/B` bit is set, the pulse begins at the second rising edge of `MISCxx_I` coincident or following a falling edge of the clock input.

For more information, see “Group E Connections – Miscellaneous Signals” on page 12-23.

## PCG Programming Examples

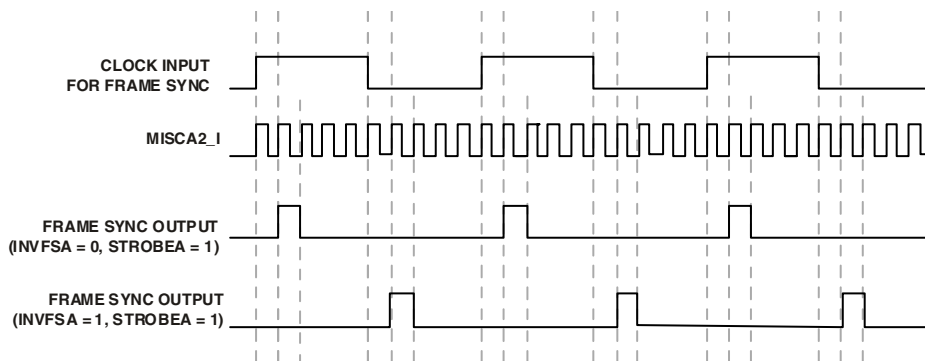


Figure 13-5. One Shot (Synchronous Clock Input and MISCA2\_I)

The second `INVFSA` bit (bit 1) of the Pulse Width Control (`PCG_PW`) register determines whether the falling or rising edge is used. When set (`= 1`), this bit selects an active low frame sync, and the pulse comes during the low period of clock input. When cleared (`= 0`) this bit is set to active high frame sync and the pulse comes during the high period of clock input. For more information on the `PCG_PW` register, refer to [Table A-44 on page A-147](#).

## PCG Programming Examples

This section provides two programming examples written for the ADSP-21262 processor. The first listing, [Listing 13-1](#), uses PCG channel B to output a clock on DAI pin 1 and frame sync on DAI pin 2. The input used to generate the clock and frame sync is `CLKIN`. This example demonstrates the clock and frame sync divisors, as well as the pulse width and phase shift capabilities of the PCG.

The second listing, [Listing 13-2](#), uses both PCG channels. Channel A is set up to only generate a clock signal. This clock signal is used as the input to channel B via the SRU. The clock and frame sync are routed to DAI pins 1 and 2, respectively, in the same manner as the first example. This

frame sync generated in this example is set for a 50% duty cycle, with no phase shift.

### Listing 13-1. PCG Channel B Output Example

```

/* Register definitions */
#define SRU_CLK3      0x2434
#define SRU_PIN0     0x2460
#define SRU_PBEN0    0x2478
#define PCG_CTLB1    0x24C3
#define PCG_CTLB0    0x24C2
#define PCG_PW       0x24C4

/* SRU definitions */
#define PCG_CLKB_P    0x39
#define PCG_FSB_P    0x3B
#define PBEN_HIGH_of 0x01

//Bit Positions
#define DAI_PB02      6
#define PCG_PWB       16

/* Bit definitions */
#define ENFSB         0x40000000
#define ENCLKB        0x80000000

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.section/pm seg_pmco;
_main:
/* Route PCG Channel B clock to DAI Pin 1 via SRU */
/* Route PCG Channel B frame sync to DAI Pin 2 via SRU */
r0 = PCG_CLKB_P|(PCG_FSB_P<<DAI_PB02);
dm(SRU_PIN0) = r0;

```

## PCG Programming Examples

```
/* Enable DAI Pins 1 & 2 as outputs */
r0 = PBEN_HIGH_Of|(PBEN_HIGH_Of<<DAI_PB02);
dm(SRU_PBEN0) = r0;

r0 = (100<<PCG_PWB); /* PCG Channel B FS Pulse width = 100 */
dm(PCG_PW) = r0;

r2 = 1000; /* Define 20-bit Phase Shift */
r0 = (ENFSB|ENCLKB| /*Enable PCG Channel B Clock and FS*/
      1000000); /* FS Divisor = 1000000 */
r1 = lshift r2 by -10;
/* Deposit the upper 10-bits of the Phase Shift in the */
/* correct position in PCG_CTLB0 (Bits 20-29) */
r1 = fdep r1 by 20:10;
r0 = r0 or r1; /* Phase Shift 10-19 = 0 */
dm(PCG_CTLB1) = r0;
dm(PCG_CTLB0) = r0;

r0 = (100000); /* Clk Divisor = 100000 */
/* Use CLKIN as clock source */
/* Deposit the lower 10-bits of the Phase Shift in the */
/* correct position in PCG_CTLB1 (Bits 20-29) */
r1 = fdep r2 by 20:10;
r0 = r0 or r1; /* Phase Shift 10-19 = 0x3E8 */
dm(PCG_CTLB1) = r0;
//-----
_main.end: jump(pc,0);
```

### Listing 13-2. PCG Channel A and B Output Example

```
/* Register Definitions */
#define SRU_CLK3 0x2434
```



```
#define SRU_PIN0      0x2460
#define SRU_PBEN0    0x2478
#define PCG_CTLA1    0x24C1
#define PCG_CTLA0    0x24C0
#define PCG_CTLB1    0x24C3
#define PCG_CTLB0    0x24C2
#define PCG_PW       0x24C4

/* SRU Definitions */
#define PCG_CLKA_0    0x1c
#define PCG_CLKB_P    0x39
#define PCG_FSB_P     0x3B
#define PBEN_HIGH_Of 0x01

//Bit Positions
#define PCG_EXTB_I    5
#define DAI_PB02     6
#define PCG_PWB      16

/* Bit Definitions */
#define ENCLKA        0x80000000
#define ENFSB         0x40000000
#define ENCLKB        0x80000000
#define CLKBSOURCE    0x80000000
#define FSBSOURCE     0x40000000

/* Main code section */
.global _main; /* Make main global to be accessed by ISR */
.section/pm seg_pmco;
_main:
/*Route PCG Channel A clock to PCG Channel B Input via SRU*/
r0 = (PCG_CLKA_0<<PCG_EXTB_I);
dm(SRU_CLK3) = r0;
```

## PCG Programming Examples

```
/* Route PCG Channel B clock to DAI Pin 1 via SRU */
/* Route PCG Channel B frame sync to DAI Pin 2 via SRU */
r0 = (PCG_CLKB_P|(PCG_FSB_P<<DAI_PB02));
dm(SRU_PIN0) = r0;

/* Enable DAI Pins 1 & 2 as outputs */
r0 = (PBEN_HIGH_Of|(PBEN_HIGH_Of<<DAI_PB02));
dm(SRU_PBEN0) = r0;

r0 = ENCLKA; /* Enable PCG Channel A Clock, No Channel A FS */
/* FS Divisor = 0, FS Phase 10-19 = 0 */
dm(PCG_CTLA0) = r0;

r1 = 0xffff; /* Clk Divisor = 0xffff, FS Phase 0-9 = 0 */
/* Use CLKIN as clock source */
dm(PCG_CTLA1) = r1;

r0 = (5<<PCG_PWB); /* PCG Channel B FS Pulse width = 1 */
dm(PCG_PW) = r0;

r0 = (ENFSB|ENCLKB|10); /*Enable PCG Channel B Clock and FS*/
/* FS Divisor = 10, FS Phase 10-19 = 0 */
dm(PCG_CTLB0) = r0;

r0 = (CLKBSOURCE|FSBSOURCE|10); /* Clk Divisor = 10 */
/* FS Phase 0-9 = 0, Use SRU_MISC4 as clock source */
dm(PCG_CTLB1) = r0;

_main.end: jump(pc,0);
```

# 14 PERIPHERAL TIMER

In addition to the internal core timer, the ADSP-2126x contains three identical 32-bit timers that can be used to interface with external devices. Each timer can be individually configured in any of three modes:

- “Pulse Width Modulation Mode (PWM\_OUT)” on page 14-7
- “Pulse Width Count and Capture Mode (WDTH\_CAP)” on page 14-10
- “Pulse Width Count and Capture Mode (WDTH\_CAP)” on page 14-10

## Timer Architecture

Each timer has one dedicated bidirectional chip signal, `TIMERx`. The three timer signals are connected to the 20 Digital Audio Interface (DAI) pins through the Signal Routing Unit (SRU). The timer signal functions as an output signal in `PWM_OUT` mode and as an input signal in `WDTH_CAP` and `EXT_CLK` modes. To provide these functions, each timer has four, 32-bit registers. The registers for each timer are:

- Timer x Configuration (`TMxCTL`) register
- Timer x Word Count (`TMxCNT`) register
- Timer x Word Period (`TMxPRD`) register
- Timer x Word Pulse Width (`TMxW`) register

## Timer Architecture

The timers also share one common status and control register, the Timer Global Status and Control (TMSTAT) register.

For information on the Timer registers, see [“Peripheral Timer Registers”](#) on page A-157.

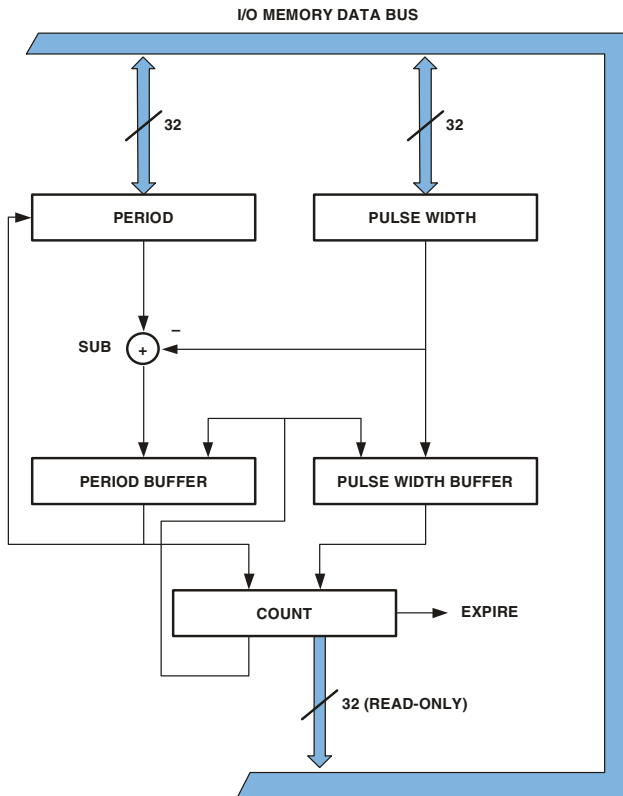


Figure 14-1. Timer Block Diagram


When clocked internally, the clock source is the ADSP-2126x's core clock (CCLK). The timer produces a waveform with a period equal to  $2 \times \text{TMxPRD}$  and a width equal to  $2 \times \text{TMxW}$ . The period and width are set

through the  $TMxPRD[30:0]$  and the  $TMxW[30:0]$  bits. Bit 31 is ignored for both. Assuming  $CCLK = 200$  MHz:

maximum period =  $2 \times (2^{31} - 1) \times 5$  ns = 20 seconds.

## Timer Status and Control

The Timer Global Status and Control ( $TMSTAT$ ) register indicates the status of all three timers using a single read. The  $TMSTAT$  register also contains timer enable bits. Within  $TMSTAT$ , each timer has a pair of sticky Status bits, that require a write one-to-set ( $TIMxEN$ ) or write one-to-clear ( $TIMxDIS$ ) to enable and disable the timer respectively.

 Writing a one to both bits of a pair disables that timer.

Each timer also has an Overflow Error Detection bit,  $TIMxOVF$ . When an overflow error occurs, this bit is set in the  $TMSTAT$  register. A program must write one-to-clear this bit.

See [Table 14-1](#) for more information about bits in the  $TMSTAT$  register.

## Timer Status and Control

Table 14-1. Timer Global Status and Control (TMSTAT) Register Bits

Bit(s)	Name	Definition
0	TIM0IRQ Timer 0 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output) <sup>1</sup>
1	TIM1IRQ Timer 1 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output) <sup>1</sup>
2	TIM2IRQ Timer 2 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output) <sup>1</sup>
3	Reserved	
4	TIM0OVF Timer 0 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
5	TIM1OVF Timer 1 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
6	TIM2OVF Timer 2 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
7	Reserved	
8	TIM0EN Timer 0 Enable	Write one-to-enable Timer 0
9	TIM0DIS Timer 0 Disable	Write one-to-disable Timer 0
10	TIM1EN Timer 1 Enable	Write one-to-enable Timer 1
11	TIM1DIS Timer 1 Disable	Write one-to-disable Timer 1
12	TIM2EN Timer 2 Enable	Write one-to-enable Timer 2
13	TIM2DIS Timer 2 Disable	Write one-to-disable Timer 2
31-14	Reserved	

- 1 This bit is set to one when an interrupt generating event occurs. When the program writes a one to this bit position, it clears the source event which causes this bit to clear. A subsequent read of this bit will return a zero.

After the timer has been enabled, its  $TIM_xEN$  bit is set (= 1). The timer then starts counting three core clock cycles after the  $TIM_xEN$  bit is set. Setting (writing one to) the timer's  $TIM_xDIS$  bit stops the timer without waiting for another event.

## Timer Interrupts

Each timer generates a unique interrupt request signal. A common register latches these interrupts so that a program can determine the interrupt

source without reference to the timer's interrupt signal. The `TMSTAT` register contains an Interrupt Latch bit (`TIMxIRQ`) and an Overflow/Error Indicator bit (`TIMxOVF`) for each timer.

The three timer interrupts are connected as follows:

- `TIM0IRQ` to `GPTMROI`, bit 13 in the `IRPTL` register
- `TIM1IRQ` to `GPTMR1I`, bit 4 in the `LIRPTL` register
- `TIM2IRQ` to `GPTMR2I`, bit 8 in the `LIRPTL` register

These sticky bits are set by the timer hardware and may be watched by software. They need to be cleared in the `TMSTAT` register by software explicitly. To clear, write a one to the corresponding bit in the `TMSTAT` register.



Interrupt and overflow bits may be cleared simultaneously with timer enable or disable.

To enable a timer's interrupt, set the `IRQEN` bit in the timer's Configuration (`TMxCTL`) register and unmask the timer's interrupt by setting the corresponding bit of the `IMASK` register. With the `IRQEN` bit cleared, the timer does not set its Interrupt Latch (`TIMxIRQ`) bits. To poll the `TIMxIRQ` bits without generating a timer interrupt, programs can set the `IRQEN` bit while leaving the timer's interrupt masked.

With interrupts enabled, ensure that the interrupt service routine (ISR) clears the `TIMxIRQ` latch before the `RTI` instruction to assure that the interrupt is not serviced erroneously. In External Clock (`EXT_CLK`) mode, the latch should be reset at the very beginning of the interrupt routine so as not to miss any timer event.

## Enabling a Timer

To enable an individual timer, set the timer's `TIMxEN` bit in the `TMSTAT` register. To disable an individual timer, set the timer's `TIMxDIS` bit in the

## Enabling a Timer

TMSTAT register. To enable all three timers in parallel, set all the  $TIMxEN$  bits in the TMSTAT register.

Before enabling a timer, always program the corresponding timer's Configuration ( $TMxCTL$ ) register. This register defines the timer's operating mode, the polarity of the  $TIMERx$  signal, and the timer's interrupt behavior. Do not alter the operating mode while the timer is running. For more information on the  $TMxCTL$  register, see “[Timer Configuration Registers \( \$TMxCTL\$ \)](#)” on page A-157.

The timer enable and disable timing appears in [Figure 14-2](#).

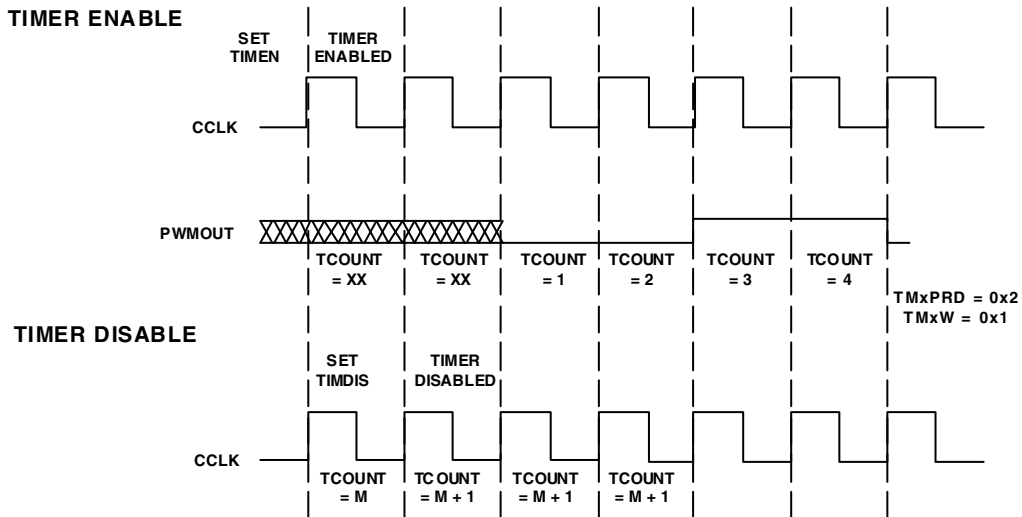


Figure 14-2. Timer PWM Enable and Disable Timing

When the timer is enabled, the Count register is loaded according to the operation mode specified in the  $TMxCTL$  register. When the timer is disabled, the Counter registers retain their state; when the timer is re-enabled, the counter is reinitialized based on the operating mode. The software should never write the counter value directly.



Any of the timers can be used to implement a watchdog functionality that can be controlled by either an internal or an external clock source.

For software to service the watchdog, the program must reset the timer value by disabling and then re-enabling the timer. Servicing the watchdog periodically prevents the Count register from reaching the period value and prevents the timer interrupt from being generated. When the timer reaches the period value and generates the interrupt, reset the DSP within the corresponding watchdog's ISR.

## Pulse Width Modulation Mode (PWM\_OUT)

In `PWM_OUT` mode, the timer supports on-the-fly updates of period and width values of the PWM waveform. The period and width values can be updated once every PWM waveform cycle, either within or across PWM cycle boundaries.

To enable `PWM_OUT` mode, set the `TIMODE1-0` bits to `01` in the timer's Configuration (`TMxCTL`) register. This configures the timer's `TIMERx` signal as an output with its polarity determined by `PULSE` as follows:

- If `PULSE` is set (= 1), an active high width pulse waveform is generated at the `TIMERx` signal.
- If `PULSE` is cleared (= 0), an active low width pulse waveform is generated at the `TIMERx` signal.

The timer is actively driven as long as the `TIMODE` field remains `01`.

[Figure 14-3](#) shows a flow diagram for `PWM_OUT` mode. When the timer becomes enabled, the timer checks the period and width values for plausibility (independent of the value set with the `PRDCNT` bit) and does *not* start to count when any of the following conditions are true:

## Enabling a Timer

- Width is equal to zero
- Period value is lower than width value
- Width is equal to period

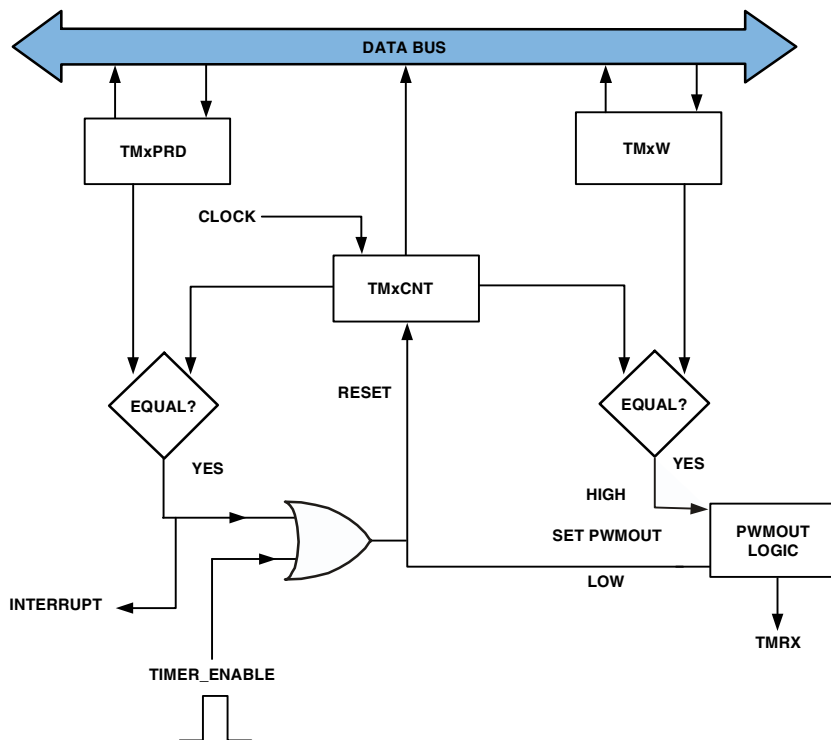


Figure 14-3. Timer Flow Diagram - PWM\_OUT Mode

On invalid conditions, the timer sets both the  $TMxOVF$  and the  $TIMIRQx$  bits and the Count register is not altered. Note that after reset, the timer registers are all zero.

As mentioned earlier,  $2 \times TMxPRD$  is the period of the PWM waveform and  $2 \times TMxW$  is the width. If the period and width values are valid after the timer is enabled, the Count register is loaded with the value resulting from

0xFFFF FFFF – width. The timer counts upward to 0xFFFF FFF. Instead of incrementing to 0xFFFF FFFF, the timer then reloads the counter with the value derived from 0xFFFF FFFF – (period – width) and repeats.

### PWM Waveform Generation

If the `PRDCNT` bit is set, the internally-clocked timer generates rectangular signals with well-defined period and duty cycles. This mode also generates periodic interrupts for real-time DSP processing.

The 32-bit Period (`TMxPRD`) and Width (`TMxW`) registers are programmed with the values of the timer count period and pulse width modulated output pulse width.

When the timer is enabled in this mode, the `TIMERx` signal is pulled to a deasserted state each time the pulse width expires, and the signal is asserted again when the period expires (or when the timer is started).

To control the assertion sense of the `TIMERx` signal, the `PULSE` bit in the corresponding `TMxCTL` register is either cleared (causes a low assertion level) or set (causes a high assertion level).

When enabled, a timer interrupt is generated at the end of each period. An ISR must clear the Interrupt Latch bit `TIMxIRQ` and might alter period and/or width values. In pulse width modulation applications, the software needs to update the period and pulse width values while the timer is running.

When a program updates the timer configuration, the `TMxW` register must always be written to last, even if it is necessary to update only one of the registers. When the `TMxW` value is not subject to change, the ISR reads the current value of the `TMxW` register and rewrite it again. On the next counter reload, all of the timer Control registers are read by the timer.

To generate the maximum frequency on the `TIMERx` output signal, set the period value to two and the pulse width to one. This makes the `TIMERx` signal toggle every two `CCLK` clock cycles.

## Enabling a Timer

### Single-Pulse Generation

If the `PRDCNT` bit is cleared, the `PWM_OUT` mode generates a single pulse on the `TIMERx` signal. This mode can also be used to implement a well defined software delay that is often required by state machines. The pulse width ( $= 2 \times \text{TMxW}$ ) is defined by the width register and the period register is not used.

At the end of the pulse, the Interrupt Latch bit (`TIMxIRQ`) is set and the timer is stopped automatically. If the `PULSE` bit is set, an active high pulse is generated on the `TIMERx` signal. If the `PULSE` bit is not set, the pulse is active low.

### Using a General-Purpose Timer as a Core Timer

Programs can use a general-purpose timer as a core timer. When in this mode, the timer can also generate a periodic interrupt in a fashion similar to the core timer. In this case there is no need to route the timer signal to an external pin.

To implement this behavior, it is necessary to set the `TIMODEPWM` bits, the `PRDCNT` bit, and the `IRQEN` bit in the applicable `TMxCTL` register. The period at which the interrupt is latched is the pulse period ( $2 \times$  value in `TMxPRD` register) in core cycles. Even though the `TMxW` register is not used in this case, it is necessary to initialize it to a nonzero value less than the value in the `TMxPRD` register for correct operation.

Unlike the core timer, programs must manually clear the interrupt in the `TMSTAT` register for each interrupt that is serviced.

### Pulse Width Count and Capture Mode (`WDTH_CAP`)

To enable `WDTH_CAP` mode, set the `TIMODE1-0` bits in the `TMxCTL` register to 10. This configures the `TIMERx` signal as an input signal with its polarity determined by `PULSE`. If `PULSE` is set ( $= 1$ ), an active high width pulse waveform is measured at the `TIMERx` signal. If `PULSE` is cleared ( $= 0$ ), an

active low width pulse waveform is measured at the `TIMERx` signal. The internally-clocked timer is used to determine the period and pulse width of externally-applied rectangular waveforms. The Period and Width registers are read-only in `WDTH_CAP` mode. The period and pulse width measurements are with respect to a clock frequency of `CCLK/2`.

Figure 14-4 shows a flow diagram for `WDTH_CAP` mode. In this mode, the timer resets words of the count in the `TMxCNT` register value to `0x0000 0001` and does not start counting until it detects the leading edge on the `TIMERx` signal.

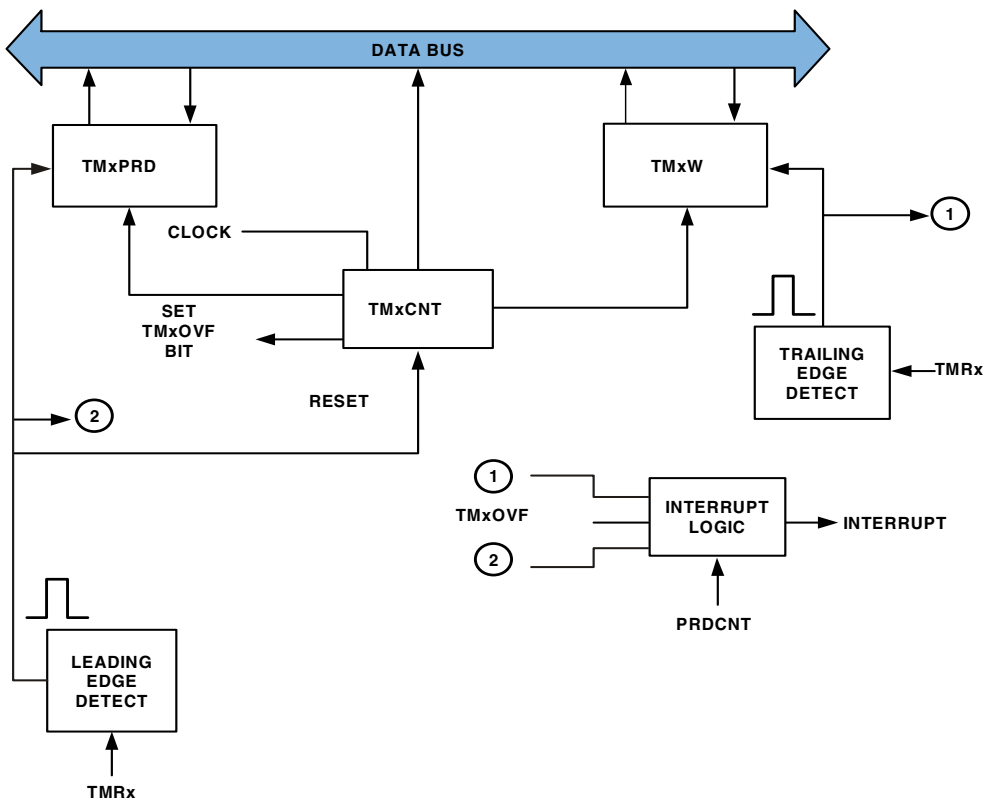


Figure 14-4. Timer Flow Diagram – `WDTH_CAP` Mode

## Enabling a Timer

When the timer detects a first leading edge, it starts incrementing. When it detects the trailing edge of a waveform, the timer captures the current value of the Count register ( $= \text{TMxCNT}/2$ ) and transfers it into the  $\text{TMxW}$  width registers. At the next leading edge, the timer transfers the current value of the Count register ( $= \text{TMxCNT}/2$ ) into the  $\text{TMxPRD}$  period register. The Count registers are reset to `0x0000 0001` again, and the timer continues counting until it is either disabled or the count value reaches `0xFFFF FFFF`.

In this mode, software can measure both the pulse width and the pulse period of a waveform. To control the definition of the leading edge and trailing edge of the  $\text{TIMERx}$  signal, the `PULSE` bit in the  $\text{TMxCTL}$  register is set or cleared. If the `PULSE` bit is cleared, the measurement is initiated by a falling edge, the Count register is captured to the Width register on the rising edge, and the Period register is captured on the next falling edge.

The `PRDCNT` bit in the  $\text{TMxCTL}$  register controls whether an enabled interrupt is generated when the pulse width or pulse period is captured. If the `PRDCNT` bit is set, the Interrupt Latch bit ( $\text{TIMxIRQ}$ ) gets set when the pulse period value is captured. If the `PRDCNT` bit is cleared, the  $\text{TIMxIRQ}$  bit gets set when the pulse width value is captured.

If the `PRDCNT` bit is cleared, the first period value has not yet been measured when the first interrupt is generated. Therefore, the period value is not valid. If the interrupt service routine reads the period value anyway, the timer returns a period value of zero. When the period expires, the period value is loaded in the  $\text{TMxPRD}$  register.

A timer interrupt (if enabled) is also generated if the Count register reaches a value of `0xFFFF FFFF`. At that point, the timer is disabled automatically, and the  $\text{TIMxOVF}$  Status bit is set, indicating a count overflow. The  $\text{TIMxIRQ}$  and  $\text{TMxOVF}$  bits are sticky bits, and software must explicitly clear them.

The first width value captured in `WDTH_CAP` mode is erroneous due to synchronizer latency. To avoid this error, software must issue two `NOP` instructions between setting `WDTH_CAP` mode and setting `TIMxEN`.

## External Event Watchdog Mode (`EXT_CLK`)

To enable `EXT_CLK` mode, set the `TIMODE1-0` bits in the `TMxCTL` register to 11 in the `TMxCTL` register. This configures the `TIMERx` signal as an input. The `PULSE` bit determines the `TIMERx` signal polarity. The timer works as a counter clocked by any external source, which can also be asynchronous to the DSP clock. Therefore, in `EXT_CLK` mode, the `TMxCNT` register should not be read when the counter is running.

The operation of the `EXT_CLK` mode is:

1. Program the `TMxPRD` Period register with the value of the maximum timer external count.
2. Set the `TIMxEN` bits. This loads the period value in the Count register and starts the countdown.
3. When the period expires, an interrupt, (`TIMxIRQ`) occurs.

After the timer is enabled, it waits for the first rising edge on the `TIMERx` signal. The `PULSE` bit defines the rising edge and trailing edge. The rising edge forces the Count register to be loaded by the value  $(0xFFFF\ FFFF - TMxPRD)$ . Every subsequent rising edge increments the Count register. After reaching the count value `0xFFFF FFFE`, the `TIMxIRQ` bit is set and an interrupt is generated. The next rising edge reloads the Count register with  $(0xFFFF\ FFFF - TMxPRD)$  again.

The Configuration bit, `PRDCNT`, has no effect in this mode. Also, `TIMxOVF` is never set and the width register is unused.

# Timer Programming Examples

This section provides three programming examples written for the ADSP-2126x.

The first listing, [Listing 14-1](#), sets up Timer 0 in External Watchdog mode, using DAI pin 1 as its input. The Timer generates an interrupt when it senses the number of edges are equal to the Timer Period setting.

The second listing, [Listing 14-2](#), uses both Timer 0 and Timer 1. Timer 0 is set up in PWMOUT mode, using DAI pin 1 as its output. Timer 1 is set up in Width Capture mode, using Timer 0 as its input. The period and pulse width measured by Timer 1 are identical to the settings of Timer 0.

### Listing 14-1. External Watchdog Mode Example

```
/* Register Definitions */
#define TMSTAT (0x1400) /* GP Timer 0 Status register */
#define TMOCTL (0x1401) /* GP Timer 0 Control register */
#define TMOPRD (0x1403) /* GP Timer 0 Period register */
#define TMOW (0x1404) /* GP Timer 0 Width register */
#define SRU_EXT_MISCB (0x2471)

/* SRU definitions */
#define DAI_PB01_0 0x00

/* Bit Positions */
#define TIMERO_I 0
/* Bit Definitions */
#define TIMODEEXT 0x00000003
#define PULSE 0x00000004
#define PRDCNT 0x00000008
#define IRQEN 0x00000010
```



```

#define TIM0EN      0x00000100

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.section/pm seg_pmco;
_main:

/* Route Timer 0 Input to DAI Pin 1 via SRU */
r0 = (DAI_PB01_0<<TIMER0_I);
dm(SRU_EXT_MISCB)=r0;
ustat3 = TIMODEEXT|      /* External Watchdog Mode */
        PULSE|          /* Positive edge is active */
        IRQEN|          /* Enable Timer 0 interrupt */
        PRDCNT;         /* Count to end of period */
dm(TMOCTL) = ustat3;
R0 = 0xff;
dm(TMOPRD) = R0;          /* Timer 0 period = 255 */
/* An interrupt is generated when the Timer senses end of the
selected period, In this example Interrupts are disabled, so pro-
gram flow will not be affected */

R0 = TIM0EN;             /* Enable timer 0 */
dm(TMSTAT) = R0;

_main.end: jump (pc,0);  /* endless loop */

```

### Listing 14-2. PWMOUT and Width Capture Mode Example

```

/* Register Definitions */
#define TMSTAT (0x1400) /* GP Timer 0 Status register */
#define TMOCTL (0x1401) /* GP Timer 0 Control register */
#define TMOCNT (0x1402) /* GP Timer 0 Count register */

```

## Timer Programming Examples

```
#define TM0PRD (0x1403) /* GP Timer 0 Period register */
#define TM0W (0x1404) /* GP Timer 0 Width register */
#define TM1CTL (0x1409) /* GP Timer 1 Control register */
#define TM1CNT (0x140A) /* GP Timer 1 Count register */
#define TM1PRD (0x140B) /* GP Timer 1 Period register */
#define TM1W (0x140C) /* GP Timer 1 Width register */
#define SRU_PIN0 (0x2460)
#define SRU_PBEN0 (0x2478)
#define SRU_EXT_MISCB (0x2471)

/* Bit Definitions */
#define TIMODEPWM 0x00000001
#define TIMODEW 0x00000002
#define PULSE 0x00000004
#define PRDCNT 0x00000008
#define IRQEN 0x00000010
#define TIMOEN 0x00000100
#define TIM1EN 0x00000400
#define GPTMR1I 0x00000010

/* SRU Definitions */
#define TIMER0_0d 0x2C
#define TIMER0_0e 0x14
#define PBEN_HIGH_0f 0x01
/* Bit positions */
#define TIMER1_I 5

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.section/pm seg_pmco;
_main:
/* Set up and enable Timer 0 in PWM Out mode*/
```

```

/* Route Timer 0 Output to DAI Pin 1 via SRU */
r0 = TIMER0_0d;dm(SRU_PIN0) = r0;

/* Enable DAI pin 1 as an output */
r0 = PBEN_HIGH_0f;
dm(SRU_PBEN0) = r0;
ustat3 = TIMODEPWM|          /* PWM Out Mode */
          PULSE|             /* Positive edge is active */
          PRDCNT;           /* Count to end of period */
dm(TMOCTL) = ustat3;

R0 = 0xFF;
dm(TMOPRD) = R0;    /* Timer 0 period = 255 */

R1 = 0x3F;
dm(TMOW) = R1;     /* Timer 0 Pulse width = 15 */

R0 = TIMOEN;      /* enable timer 0 */
dm(TMSTAT) = R0;

/* -----End of Timer 0 Setup----- */

/* Set up and enable Timer 1 in Width Capture mode */
/* Use the output of Timer 0 as the input to Timer 1 */
/* Route Timer 0 Output to Timer 1 Input via SRU */
r0=(TIMER0_0e<<TIMER1_I);
dm(SRU_EXT_MISCB)=r0;

ustat3 = TIMODEW|          /* PWM Out Mode */
          PULSE|             /* Positive edge is active */

```

## Timer Programming Examples

```
                IRQEN|          /* Enable Timer 1 Interrupt */
                PRDCNT;        /* Count to end of period */
dm(TM1CTL) = ustat3;

R0 = TIM1EN;          /* enable timer 1 */
dm(TMSTAT) = R0;

/* Poll the Timer 1 interrupt latch, the interrupt will latch
when the measured period and pulse width are ready to read */
bit tst LIRPTL GPTMR1I;
if not tf jump(pc,-1);
/* Read the measured values */
r0 = dm(TM1PRD);
r1 = dm(TM1W);
/* r0 and r1 will match the Timer 0 settings above */
_main.end: jump (pc,0);
```

### Listing 14-3. Using a General-Purpose Timer as a Core Timer

```
/* Register Definitions */#define TMSTAT (0x1400) /* GP Timer
Status Register */
#define TMOCTL (0x1401) /* GP Timer 0 Control Register */
#define TMOPRD (0x1403) /* GP Timer 0 Period Register */
#define TMOW (0x1404) /* GP Timer 0 Width Register */

/* Bit Definitions */#define TIMODEPWM (0x00000001)
#define PRDCNT (0x00000008)
#define IRQEN (0x00000010)
#define TIMOEN (0x00000100)

/* Main code section */
.global _main;
.section/pm seg_pmco;
```

```

_main:

/* Using PWM Out mode as a core timer */
ustat3 = TIMODEPWM|      /* PWM Out Mode */
  PRDCNT|                /* Count to end of period */
  IRQEN;
dm(TMOCTL) = ustat3;
R0 = 0x8000;
dm(TMOPRD) = R0;      /* Timer 0 period = 0x8000 */
R1 = 1;
dm(TMOW) = R1;       /* Timer 0 Pulse width = 1 */
R0 = TIMOEN;        /* enable timer 0 */
dm(TMSTAT) = R0;

/* Get start clock count */
R1 = EMUCLK;

// Wait until TIM0IRQ is set
// Alternatively, we could test GPTMR0I in IRPTL
r0=dm(TMSTAT);
btst r0 by 0;
if not sz jump (pc,2);
jump(pc,-3) (db);

/* Get end clock count */
R2=EMUCLK;

/* Subtract the start count from the end count
to obtain the number of cycles before the interrupt */
R4=R2-R1;

// R4 will be double the value of TMOPRD
_main.end: jump(pc,0);

```

## Timer Programming Examples

# 15 SYSTEM DESIGN

The processor supports many system design options. The options implemented in a system are influenced by cost, performance, and system requirements. This chapter provides the following system design information:

- [“Pin Descriptions” on page 15-2](#)
- [“Phase-Locked Loop Startup” on page 15-13](#)
- [“Conditioning Input Signals” on page 15-14](#)
- [“Designing for High Frequency Operation” on page 15-15](#)
- [“Booting” on page 15-19](#)

Other chapters also discuss system design issues. Some other locations for system design information include:

- [“SPORT Operation Modes” on page 9-9](#)
- [“SPI General Operations” on page 10-7](#)

By following the guidelines described in this chapter, you can ease the design process for your ADSP-2126x product. Development and testing of your application code and hardware can begin without debugging the debug port.

# Pin Descriptions

The processor's pin descriptions are fully described in the *ADSP-2126x SHARC Processor Data Sheet*.

## Pin Multiplexing

The ADSP-2126x provides the same functionality as other SHARC processors but with a much lower pin count which helps to reduce total system costs. It does this through extensive use of pin multiplexing. [Table 15-2](#) shows an example multiplexing scheme. The following registers (addresses) and bits are used.

Table 15-1. Register and their Bits Used for Multiplexing

Registers Used (Address)	Bits Used
SYSCTL (0x3024)	PPFLGS, TMREXPEN, IRQxEN
SPIFLG (0x1001)	SPIFLGx (3:0)
SPICTL (0x1000)	SPIMS
IDP_PDAP_CTL (0x24B1)	IDP_PP_SELECT
PMCTL (0x2000)	CLOCKOUTEN (for debug only)



Table 15-2. ADSP-2126x Processor Pin Multiplexing Scheme

External Pin	Function	Type I = input O = output	Control 0 = cleared 1 = set x = do not care
FLG <sub>n</sub> <sup>1</sup>	FLG <sub>n</sub>	I/O	PPFLGS = 0 SPIFLG[n] = 0 and SPIMS=0 IRQ <sub>x</sub> EN = 0
	$\overline{TRQn}^2$	I	PPFLGS=0 SPIFLG[n] = 0 and SPIMS = 0 IRQ <sub>x</sub> EN = 1
	SPI Device Select <sup>3</sup>	O	PPFLGS=0 SPIFLG[n] = 1 and SPIMS = 1 IRQ <sub>x</sub> EN = 0
AD[15:0]	AD[15:0]	I/O	PPFLGS = 0 <sup>4</sup> IDP_PP_SELECT = 0
	PDAP	I	PPFLGS = 0 IDP_PP_SELECT = 1
	FLG[15:0]	I/O	PPFLGS = 1 <sup>5</sup> IDP_PP_SELECT = 0
DAI_P[20:1] <sup>6</sup>	PDAP	I	IDP_PP_SELECT = 0
	FLG[15:10]	I/O	Note <sup>7</sup>
	Other	I/O	Note <sup>6</sup>
CLKOUT	CLKOUT	O	PMCTL [12] = 1 (for debug only)
	$\overline{RESETOUT}$	O	PMCTL [12] = 0

1 n = 0, 1, 2, 3.

2 For n = 3 function is FLG3 or TIMEXP, not  $\overline{TRQ3}$ .

3 These pins are used at boot time as device selects during SPI Master booting.

4 Setting PPFLGS = 1 and IDP\_PP\_SELECT = 1 at the same time is illegal.

5 When PPFLGS = 1, the FLG pins toggle then alternate functions. For example  $\overline{TRQx}$  and TIMEXP.

6 For complete information on the operation of these pins, see [“Digital Audio Interface” on page 12-1](#).

7 For complete information on the operation of these pins, see [“Clock Routing Control Registers \(SRU\\_CLKx, Group A\)” on page A-114](#).

## Pin Descriptions



If the system clock to the `SPICLK` module is shut off in the `PMCTL` register, `FLG0-3` are not usable.

## Input Synchronization Delay

The processor has several asynchronous inputs—`RESET`, `TRST`, `TRQ2-0`, `DAI` pins and `FLG15-0` (when configured as inputs). These inputs can be asserted in arbitrary phase to the processor clock, `CLKIN`. The processor synchronizes the inputs prior to recognizing them. The delay associated with recognition is called the synchronization delay.

Any asynchronous input must be valid prior to the recognition point in a particular cycle. If an input does not meet the setup time on a given cycle, it may be recognized in the current cycle or during the next cycle.

To ensure recognition of an asynchronous input, it must be asserted for at least one full processor cycle plus setup and hold time, except for `RESET`, which must be asserted for at least four processor cycles. The minimum time prior to recognition (the setup and hold time) is specified in the data sheet.

## Clock Derivation

The processor uses a PLL on the chip, to provide clocks that switch at higher frequencies than the system clock (`CLKIN`). The PLL-based clocking methodology used influences the clock frequencies and behavior for the serial, SPI, and parallel ports, in addition to the processor core and internal memory. In each case, the processor PLL provides a non-skewed clock to the port logic and I/O pins.

The PLL provides a clock that switches at the processor core frequency to the serial ports. Each of the serial ports can be programmed to operate at clock frequencies derived from this clock. The six serial ports' transmit and receive clocks are divided down from the processor core clock frequency by setting the `DIVx` registers appropriately.

On power-up, the `CLKCFG1-0` pins are used to select ratios of 16:1, 8:1, and 3:1. After booting, numerous other ratios (slowing or speeding up the clock) can be selected via software control using the Power Management Control register.

## Power Management Control Register

The ADSP-2126x has a Power Management Control register (`PMCTL`) that allows programs to determine the amount of power dissipated. This includes the ability to program the PLL dynamically in software. This feature eases design for systems that need to use specific clock frequencies or are sensitive to power consumption.

In addition to changing the clock rate on the fly, The `PMCTL` register also allows programs to disable the clock source to a particular processor peripheral completely, (for example the serial ports or the timers), to further conserve power. By default, each peripheral block has its internal `CLK` enabled only after it is initialized. Programs can use the `PMCTL` register to turn the specific peripheral off after the application no longer needs it. After reset these clocks are not enabled until the peripheral is initialized by the program.

[Listing 15-1](#) and [Listing 15-2](#) are examples that show how to use the Power Management Control register to enable/disable clocking to a peripheral.

### Listing 15-1. Power Management Example

```
ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);  
bit set ustat2 SPIPDN; /* disable internal peripheral clock for  
                        SPI module. SPIPDN is defined as bit 3  
                        of PMCTL*/  
dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;
```

## Pin Descriptions

### Listing 15-2. PMCTL Example Code.

```
PLL Divisor modification:
  ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);
  bit set ustat2 DIVEN|PLLD8; /* set and enable PLL Divisor for
                               CoreCLK = CLKIN/8 */
  dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;

PLL Multiplier modification:
  ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);
  bit set ustat2 PLLM8 | PLLBP; /* set a multiplier of 8
                               (default divisor is 2) and put
                               PLL in Bypass */
  dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;
  waiting loop:
  r0 = 4096; /* wait for PLL to lock at new rate
             (requirement for modifying multiplier only) */
  lcntr = r0, do pllwait until lce;
  pllwait:nop;
  ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);
  bit clr ustat2 PLLBP;
  /* take PLL out of Bypass, PLL is now at CLKIN*4 (CoreCLK = CLKIN
  * M/N = CLKIN* 8/2) */
  dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;

PLL Input Divider Usage:
  ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);
  bit set ustat2 INDIV | PLLBP; /* divide clk/2, put
                               PLL in Bypass */
  dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;

  waiting loop:
```

```

r0 = 4096;          /* wait for PLL to lock at new rate
                    (requirement for modifying multiplier
                    and setting INDIV bit only) */
lcntr = r0, do pllwait until lce;
pllwait:nop;
ustat2 = dm(PMCTL);
bit clr ustat2 PLLBP;
/* take PLL out of Bypass */
dm(PMCTL) = ustat2;

PMCTL register bit definitions:
/* Power Management Control register (PMCTL) */
#define PLLM8    (BIT_3)    // PLL Multiplier 8
#define PLLD8    (BIT_7)    // PLL Divisor 8
#define INDIV    (BIT_8)    // Input Divider
#define DIVEN    (BIT_9)    // Enable PLL Divisor
#define CLKOUTEN (BIT_12)   // Mux select for CLKOUT/RESETOUT
#define PLLBP    (BIT_15)   // PLL Bypass mode indication
#define SPIPDN   (BIT_30)   // Shutdown clock to SPI

```

## RESET and CLKIN

The processor receives its clock input on the CLKIN pin. The processor uses an on-chip phase-locked loop (PLL) to generate its internal clock, which is a multiple of the CLKIN frequency (Figure 15-1 on page 15-11). Because the PLL requires some time to achieve phase lock, CLKIN must be valid for a minimum time period during reset before the RESET signal can be deasserted. For information on minimum clock setup, see the specific ADSP-2126x data sheet.

Table 15-3 and Table 15-4 show the internal clock to CLKIN frequency ratios supported by the processor. Note that programs control the PLL through the PMCTL register. This register is described in “Power Management Registers” on page A-65.

When using an external crystal, the maximum crystal frequency cannot exceed 25 MHz. The internal clock generator, when used in conjunction with the XTAL pin and an external crystal, is designed to support up to a maximum of 25 MHz external crystal frequency. For all other external clock sources, the maximum CLKIN frequency is 50 MHz.

Table 15-3. Clock Rate Ratios After Reset (Default)

CLKCFG[1-0]	Core to CLKIN Ratio
00	3:1, PLLD = 2, PLLM = 6
01	16:1, PLLD = 2, PLLM = 32
10	8:1, PLLD = 2, PLLM = 16
11	Reserved

Table 15-4. PLL Multiplier and Divider Settings

PLLD[7:6]	PLL Divider Ratio	PLLM[5:0]	PLL Multiplier Ratio
00 (= reset)	Clock Divider = 2	000000	Clock Multiplier = 64
01	Clock Divider = 4	000001	Clock Multiplier = 1
10	Clock Divider = 8	...	...
11	Clock Divider = 16	111111	Clock Multiplier = 63

Table 15-5 shows the internal core clock switching frequency across a range of CLKIN frequencies. The minimum operational range for any given frequency is constrained by the operating range of the PLL. Note that the goal in selecting a particular clock ratio for the processor application is to provide the highest internal frequency, given a CLKIN frequency.

If an external master clock is used, it should not drive the CLKIN pin when the processor is not powered. The clock must be driven immediately after power-up—otherwise, internal gates stay in an undefined (hot) state and can draw excess current. After power-up, there should be sufficient time for the oscillator to start up, reach full amplitude, and deliver a stable CLKIN signal to the processor before the reset is released. This may take

100  $\mu$ s depending on the choice of crystal, operating frequency, loop gain and capacitor ratios. For details on timing, refer to the product-specific data sheet.

After the external processor  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  signal is deasserted, the PLL starts operating. The rest of the chip will be held in reset for 4096 CLKIN cycles after  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  is deasserted by an internal reset signal. This sequence allows the PLL to lock and stabilize. Add one CLKIN cycle if  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  doesn't meet setup requirements with respect to the CLKIN falling edge.

Table 15-5. Selecting Core to CLKIN Ratio

		Typical Crystal and Clock Oscillators Inputs					
		12.5	16.67	25	33.3	40	50
Core CLK (MHz)	Clock Ratios						
3:1		37.5	50	75	100	120	150
8:1		100	133.36	200	N/A	N/A	N/A
16:1		200	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

## Reset Generators

It is important that a processor (or programmable device) have a reliable active  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  that is released once the power supplies and internal clock circuits have stabilized. The  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  signal should not only offer a suitable delay, but it should also have a clean monotonic edge. Analog Devices has a range of microprocessor supervisory ICs with different features. Features include one or more of the following:

- Power-up reset
- Optional manual reset input

- Power low monitor
- Backup battery switching

The part number series for supervisory circuits from Analog Devices are:

- ADM69x
- ADM70x
- ADM80x
- ADM1232
- ADM181x
- ADM869x

A simple power-up reset circuit is shown below, using the ADM809-RART reset generator. The ADM809 provides an active low  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  signal whenever the supply voltage is below 2.63 V. At power-up, a 240 ms active reset delay is generated to give the power supplies and oscillators time to stabilize.

Another part, the ADM706TAR, provides power on  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  and optional manual  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ . It allows designers to create a more complete supervisory circuit that monitors the supply voltage. Monitoring the supply voltage allows the system to initiate an orderly shutdown in the event of power failure. The ADM706TAR also allows designers to create a watchdog timer that monitors for software failure. This part is available in an eight-lead SOIC package. [Figure 15-2](#) shows a typical application circuit using the ADM706TAR.



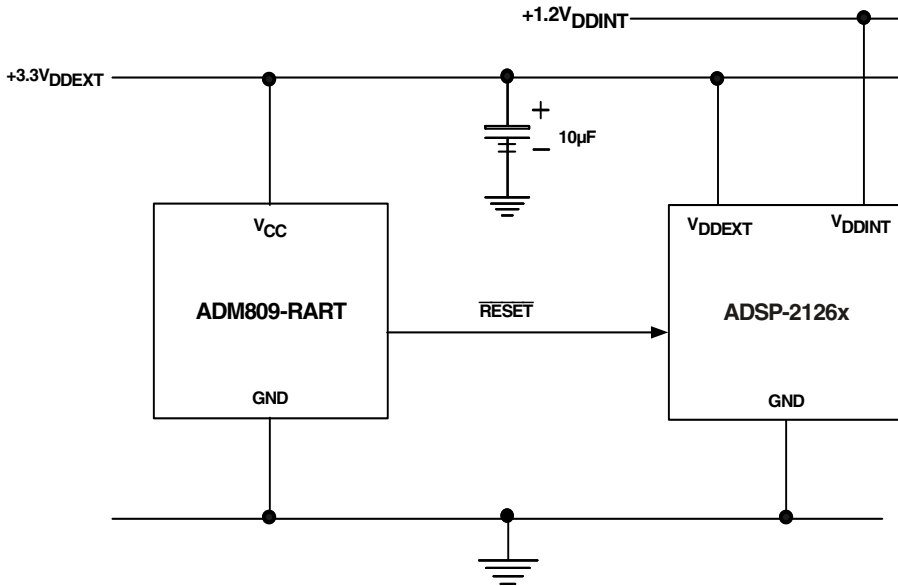


Figure 15-1. Simple Reset Generator

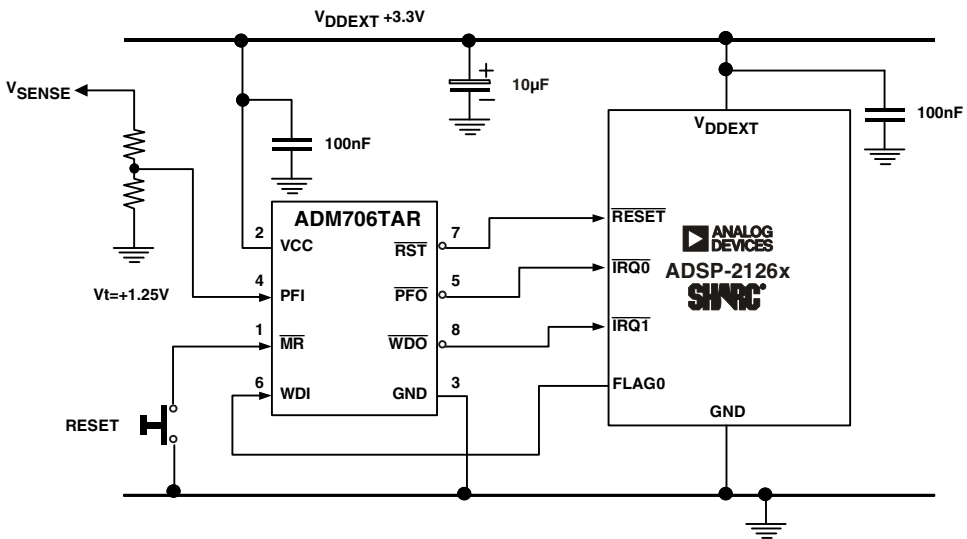


Figure 15-2. Reset Generator and Power Supply Monitor

### Interrupt and Peripheral Timer Pins

The processor's external interrupt pins, flag pins, and timer pin can be used to send and receive control signals to and from other devices in the system. Hardware interrupt signals  $\overline{\text{TRQ2-0}}$  are received on the FLG2-0 pins and the TIMEXP pin is mapped on the FLG3 pin. Hardware interrupt signals ( $\overline{\text{TRQ2-0}}$ ) are received on the FLG2-0 pins. Interrupts can come from devices that require the processor to perform some task on demand. A memory-mapped peripheral, for example, can use an interrupt to alert the processor that it has data available.

The TIMEXP output is generated by the on-chip timer. It indicates to other devices that the programmed time period has expired.

### Core-Based Flag Pins

The FLG3-0 pins allow single bit signaling between the processor and other devices. For example, the processor can raise an output flag to interrupt a host processor. Each flag pin can be programmed to be either an input or output. In addition, many instructions can be conditioned on a flag's input value, enabling efficient communication and synchronization between multiple processors or other interfaces.

The flags are bidirectional pins and all have the same functionality. The FLGx0 bits in the FLAGS register program the direction of each flag pin.

### JTAG Interface Pins

The JTAG Test Access Port (TAP) consists of the TCK, TMS, TDI, TDO, and  $\overline{\text{TRST}}$  pins. The JTAG port can be connected to a controller that performs a boundary scan for testing purposes. This port is also used by the Analog Devices Tools product line of JTAG emulator and development software to access on-chip emulation features. To allow the use of the emulator, a connector for its in-circuit probe must be included in the target system.

If the  $\overline{\text{TRST}}$  pin is not asserted (or held low) at power-up, the JTAG port is in an undefined state that may cause the processor to drive out on I/O pins that would normally be three-stated at reset. The  $\overline{\text{TRST}}$  pin can be held low with a jumper to ground on the target board connector.

A detailed discussion of JTAG and its use can be found in the Engineer-to-Engineer Note (EE-68), *Analog Devices JTAG Emulation Technical Reference*. This document is available on the Analog Devices Web site at [www.analog.com](http://www.analog.com).

## Phase-Locked Loop Startup

The  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  signal can be held low long enough to guarantee a stable  $\text{CLKIN}$  source and stable  $\text{VDDINT}/\text{VDDEXT}$  power supplies before the PLL is reset.

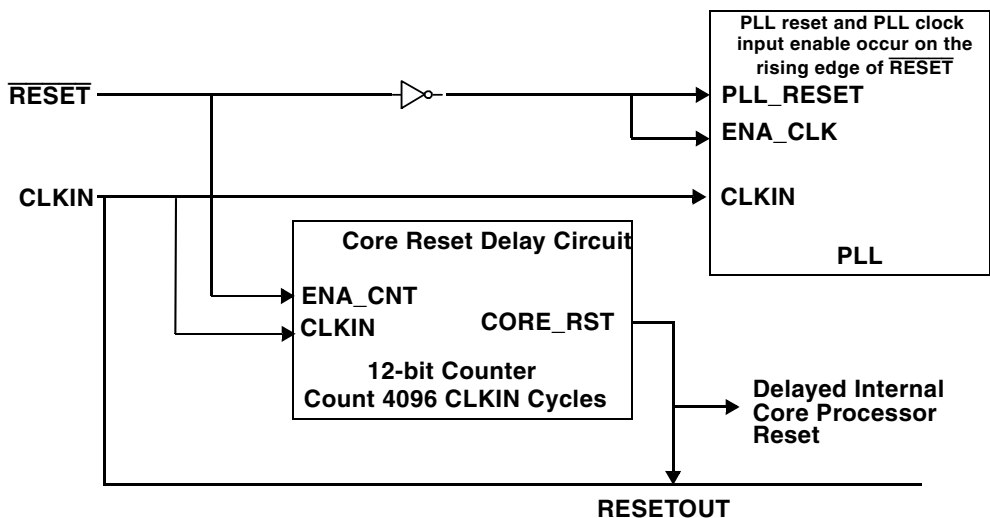


Figure 15-3. Chip Reset Circuit

In order for the PLL to lock to the  $\text{CLKIN}$  frequency, the PLL needs time to lock before the core can execute or begin the boot process. A delayed core reset has been added via the delay circuit. There is a 12-bit counter that

## Conditioning Input Signals

counts up to 4096 CLKIN cycles after  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$  is transitioned from low to high. The delay circuit is activated at the same time the PLL is taken out of reset.

The advantage of the delayed core reset is that the PLL can be reset any number of times without having to power-down the system. If there is a brown-out situation, the watchdog circuit only has to control the  $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ .

## Conditioning Input Signals

The processor is a CMOS device. It has input conditioning circuits which simplify system design by filtering or latching input signals to reduce susceptibility to glitches or reflections.

The following sections describe why these circuits are needed and their effect on input signals.

A typical CMOS input consists of an inverter with specific N and P device sizes that cause a switching point of approximately 1.4 V. This level is selected to be the midpoint of the standard TTL interface specification of  $V_{IL} = 0.8 \text{ V}$  and  $V_{IH} = 2.0 \text{ V}$ . This input inverter, unfortunately, has a fast response to input signals and external glitches wider than 1 ns. Filter circuits and hysteresis are added after the input inverter on some processor inputs, as described in the following sections.

### Input Pin Hysteresis

Hysteresis (shown in [Figure 15-4](#)) is used on all SHARC input signals. Hysteresis causes the switching point of the input inverter to be slightly above 1.4 V ( $V_T$ ) for a rising edge ( $V_{T+}$ ) and slightly below 1.4 V for a falling edge ( $V_{T-}$ ). The value of the hysteresis is approximately  $\pm 100 \text{ mV}$ . The hysteresis is intended to prevent multiple triggering of signals that are allowed to rise slowly, as might be expected for example on a reset line with a delay implemented by an RC input circuit. Hysteresis is not used to



## Designing for High Frequency Operation

Jitter should be kept to an absolute minimum. High frequency jitter on the clock to the processor may result in abbreviated internal cycles.

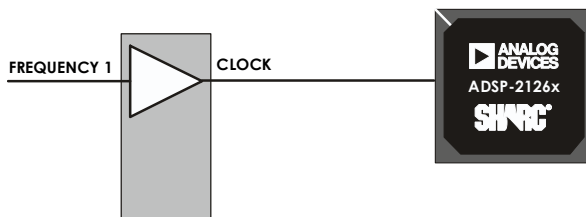


Figure 15-5. Reducing Clock Jitter and Ring

**i** Never share a clock buffer IC with a signal of a different clock frequency. This introduces excessive jitter.

As shown in [Figure 15-5](#), keep the portions of the system that operate at different frequencies as physically separate as possible. The clock supplied to the processor must have a rise time of 3 ns or less and must meet or exceed a high and low voltage of 2 V and 0.4 V, respectively.


## Other Recommendations and Suggestions

- Use more than one ground plane on the PCB to reduce crosstalk. Be sure to use lots of vias between the ground planes. One  $V_{DD}$  plane for each supply is sufficient. These planes should be in the center of the PCB.
- To reduce crosstalk, keep critical signals such as clocks, strobes, and bus requests on a signal layer next to a ground plane and away from or layout perpendicular to other non-critical signals.
- If possible, position the processors on both sides of the board to reduce area and distances.
- To allow better control of impedance and delay, and to reduce crosstalk, design for lower transmission line impedances.

- Use 3.3 V peripheral components and power supplies to help reduce transmission line problems, ground bounce and noise coupling (the receiver switching voltage of 1.5 V is close to the middle of the voltage swing).
- Experiment with the board and isolate crosstalk and noise issues from reflection issues. This can be done by driving a signal wire from a pulse generator and studying the reflections while other components and signals are passive.

## Decoupling Capacitors and Ground Planes

Ground planes must be used for the ground and power supplies. Designs should use a minimum of eight bypass capacitors (six 0.1  $\mu\text{F}$  and two 0.01  $\mu\text{F}$  ceramic). The capacitors should be placed very close to the  $V_{\text{DDEXT}}$  and  $V_{\text{DDINT}}$  pins of the package as shown in [Figure 15-6](#). Use short and fat traces for this. The ground end of the capacitors should be tied directly to the ground plane inside the package footprint of the processor (underneath, on the bottom of the board), not outside the footprint. A surface-mount capacitor is recommended because of its lower series inductance. Connect the power plane to the power supply pins directly with minimum trace length. The ground planes must not be densely perforated with vias or traces as their effectiveness is reduced. In addition, there should be several large tantalum capacitors on the board.

 Designs can use either bypass placement case shown in [Figure 15-6](#), or combinations of the two. Designs should try to minimize signal feedthroughs that perforate the ground plane.

## Oscilloscope Probes

When making high speed measurements, be sure to use a “bayonet” type or similarly short (< 0.5 inch) ground clip, attached to the tip of the oscilloscope probe. The probe should be a low capacitance active probe with 3 pF or less of loading. The use of a standard ground clip with four

## Designing for High Frequency Operation

inches of ground lead causes ringing to be seen on the displayed trace and makes the signal appear to have excessive overshoot and undershoot. A 1 GHz or better sampling oscilloscope is needed to see the signals accurately.

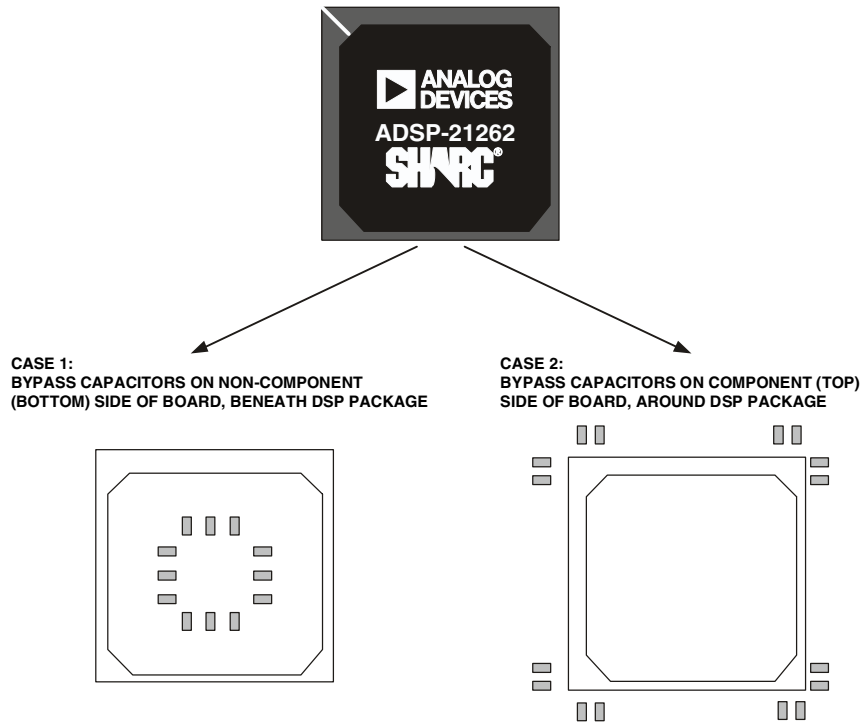


Figure 15-6. Bypass Capacitor Placement

## Recommended Reading

The text *High-Speed Digital Design: A Handbook of Black Magic* is recommended for further reading. This book is a technical reference that covers the problems encountered in state-of-the-art, high frequency digital



circuit design. It is also an excellent source of information and practical ideas. Topics covered in the book include:

- High-Speed Properties of Logic Gates
- Measurement Techniques
- Transmission Lines
- Ground Planes and Layer Stacking
- Terminations
- Vias
- Power Systems
- Connectors
- Ribbon Cables
- Clock Distribution
- Clock Oscillators

*High-Speed Digital Design: A Handbook of Black Magic*, Johnson & Graham, Prentice Hall, Inc., ISBN 0-13-395724-1.

## Booting

When a processor is initially powered up, its internal SRAM is undefined. Before actual program execution can begin, the application must be loaded from an external non-volatile source such as flash memory or a host processor. This process is known as *bootstrap loading* or *booting* and is automatically performed by the ADSP-2126x processor after power-up or after a software reset.

## Booting

The ADSP-2126x supports three booting modes—EPROM, SPI master and SPI slave. Each of these modes uses the following general procedure:

1. At reset, the ADSP-2126x is hardwired to load two hundred fifty-six 32-bit instruction words via a DMA starting at location 0x80000. In this chapter, these instructions are referred to as the *boot kernel* or *loader kernel*.
2. The DMA completes and the interrupt associated with the peripheral that the processor is booting from is activated. The processor jumps to the applicable interrupt vector location (0x80030 for SPI and 0x80050 for the parallel port) and executes the code located there. (Typically, the first instruction at the interrupt vector is a Return From Interrupt (RTI) instruction.)
3. The loader kernel executes a series of Direct Memory Accesses (DMAs) to import the rest of the application, overwriting itself with the applications' Interrupt Vector Table (IVT).
4. After executing the kernel, the processor returns to location 0x80005 where normal program execution begins.

To support this process, a 256-word loader kernel and loader (which converts executables into boot-loader images) are supplied with the CrossCore or VisualDSP++ development tools for both SPI and parallel port booting. For more information on the loader, see the tools documentation.

The boot source is determined by strapping the two `BOOTCFGx` pins to either logic low or logic high. These settings are shown in [Table 15-6](#).

Table 15-6. Booting Modes

BOOT_CFG1-0	Description
00	SPI Slave boot
01	SPI Master boot
10	EPROM boot via parallel port
11	ROM Boot mode (not available on all ADSP-2126x processors)

## Parallel Port Booting

The ADSP-2126x supports an 8-bit boot mode through the parallel port. This mode is used to boot from external 8-bit wide memory devices. The processor is configured for 8-bit boot mode when the BOOT\_CFG1-0 pins = 10. When configured for parallel boot loading, the parallel port transfers occur with the default bit settings (shown in [Table 15-7](#)) for the PPCTL register.

Table 15-7. Parallel Port Boot Mode Settings in the PPCTL Register

Bit	Setting
PPALEPL	= 0; ALE is active high
PPEN	= 1
PPDUR	= 10111; (24 core clock cycles per data transfer cycle)
PPBHC	= 1; insert a bus hold cycle on every access
PP16	= 0; external data width = 8 bits
PPDEN	= 1; use DMA
PPTRAN	= 0; receive (read) DMA
PPBHD	= 0; buffer hang enabled

## Booting

For a complete description of the Parallel Port Control register, see “[Parallel Port Control Register \(PPCTL\)](#)” on page A-108.

The parallel port DMA channel is used when downloading the boot kernel information to the processor. At reset, the DMA Parameter registers are initialized to the values listed in [Table 15-8](#).



 Unlike previous SHARC processors, the ADSP-2126x does not have a Boot Memory Select ( $\overline{\text{BMS}}$ ) pin.

Table 15-8. Parameter Initialization Value

Parameter Register	Initialization Value	Comment
PPCTL	0x0000 016F	See <a href="#">Table 15-7</a> .
IIPP	0	This is the offset from internal memory normal word starting address of 0x80000.
ICPP	0x180 (384)	This is the number of 32-bit words that are equivalent to 256 instructions.
IMPP	0x01	
EIPP	0x00	
ECPP	0x600	This is the number of bytes in 0x100 48-bit instructions.
EMPP	0x01	

## SPI Port Booting

The ADSP-2126x supports booting from a host processor via SPI Slave mode ( $\text{BOOT\_CFG1-0} = 00$ ), and booting from an SPI Flash, SPI PROM, or a host processor via SPI Master mode ( $\text{BOOT\_CFG1-0} = 01$ ).

 In both (master and slave) boot modes, the LSBF format is used and SPI mode 3 is selected (clock polarity and clock phase = 1).

Both SPI boot modes support booting from 8-, 16-, or 32-bit SPI devices. In all SPI boot mode, the data word size in the shift register is hardwired

to 32 bits. Therefore, for 8 or 16-bit devices, data words are packed into the Shift register to generate 32-bit words least significant bit (LSB) first, which are then shifted into internal memory. The relationship between the 32-bit words received into the `RXSPI` register and the instructions that need to be placed in internal memory is shown in [Figure 15-7](#).

For more information about 32- and 48-bit internal memory addressing, see [“Setting Data Access Modes”](#) on page 5-27.

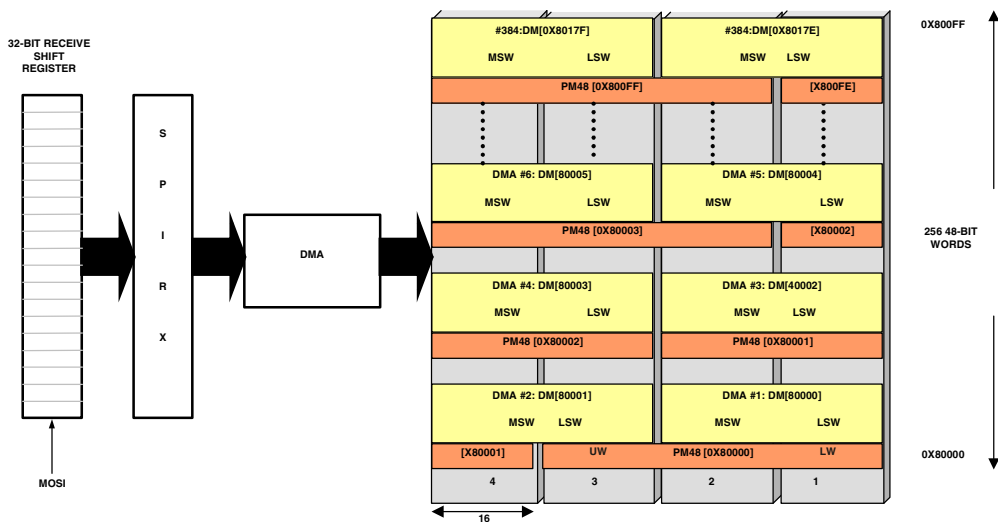


Figure 15-7. SPI Data Packing

For 16-bit SPI devices, two words shift into the 32-bit receive Shift register (`RXSR`) before a DMA transfer to internal memory occurs. For 8-bit SPI devices, four words shift into the 32-bit receive shift register before a DMA transfer to internal memory occurs.

When booting, the ADSP-2126x processor expects to receive words into the `RXSPI` register seamlessly. This means that bits are received continuously without breaks. [For more information, see “Core Transmit and Receive Operations”](#) on page 10-12. For different SPI host sizes, the

# Booting

processor expects to receive instructions and data packed in a least significant word (LSW) format.

Figure 15-8 shows how a pair of instructions are packed for SPI booting using a 32-, 16-, and an 8-bit device. These two instructions are received as three 32-bit words as illustrated in Figure 15-7.

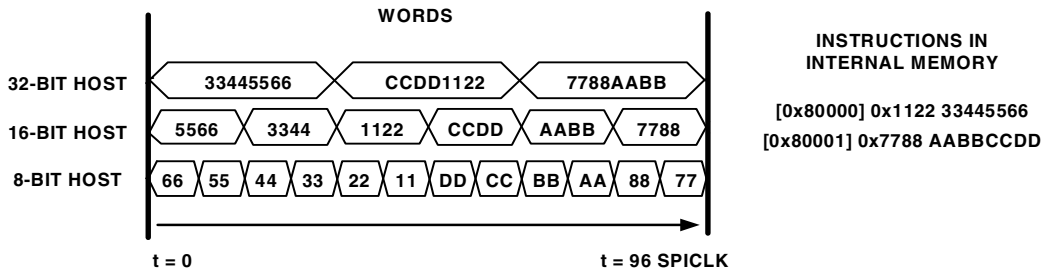


Figure 15-8. Instruction Packing for Different Hosts

The following sections examine how data is packed into internal memory during SPI booting for SPI devices with widths of 32, 16, or 8 bits.

## 32-bit SPI Host Boot

Figure 15-9 shows 32-bit SPI host packing of 48-bit instructions executed at PM addresses 0x80000 and 0x80001. The 32-bit word is shifted to internal program memory during the 256-word kernel load.

The following example shows a 48-bit instructions executed:

```
[0x80000] 0x112233445566  
[0x80001] 0x7788AABBCCDD
```

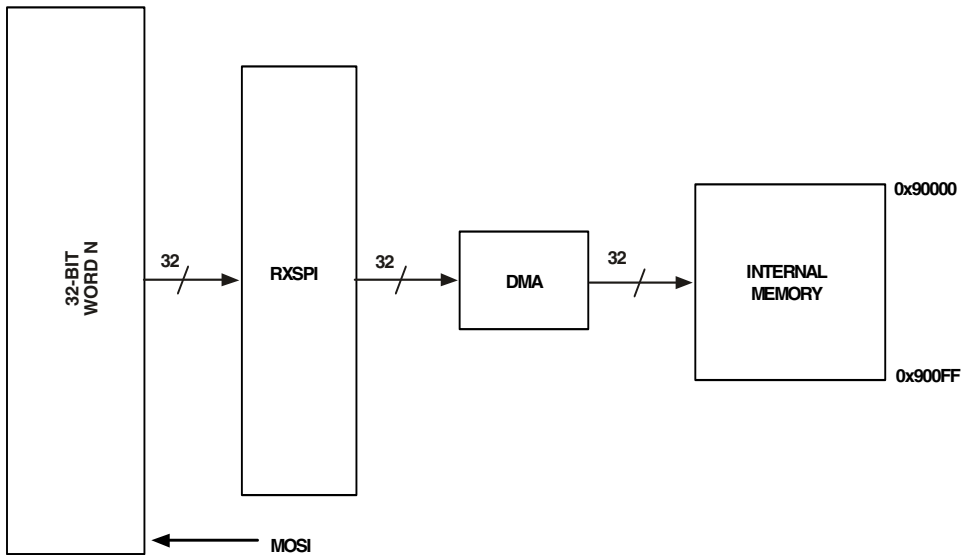


Figure 15-9. 32-Bit SPI Host Packing

The 32-bit SPI host packs or prearranges the data as:

SPI word 1 = 0x33445566

SPI word 2 = 0xCCDD1122

SPI word 3 = 0x7788AABB

## 16-bit SPI Host Boot

Figure 15-10 shows how a 16-bit SPI host packs 48-bit instructions at PM addresses 0x80000 and 0x80001. For 16-bit hosts, two 16-bit words are packed into the shift register to generate a 32-bit word. The 32-bit word shifts to internal program memory during the kernel load.

The following example shows a 48-bit instructions executed.

[0x80000] 0x112233445566

[0x80001] 0x7788AABBCCDD

## Booting

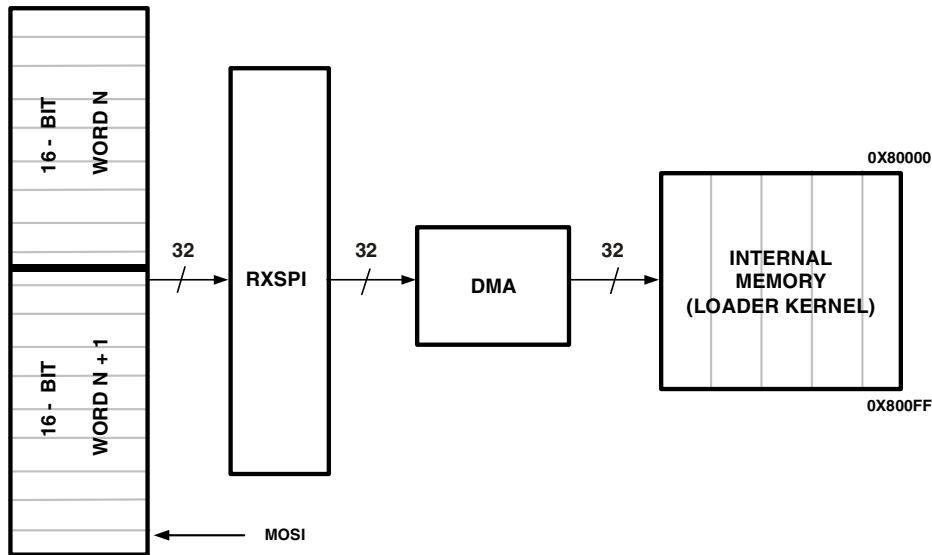


Figure 15-10. 16-Bit SPI Host Packing

The 16-bit SPI host packs or prearranges the data as:

SPI word 1 = 0x5566 SPI word 2 = 0x3344

SPI word 3 = 0x1122 SPI word 4 = 0xCCDD

SPI word 5 = 0xAABB SPI word 6 = 0x7788

The initial boot of the 256-word loader kernel requires a 16-bit host to transmit 768 16-bit words. Two packed 16-bit words comprise the 32-bit word. The SPI DMA count value of 0x180 is equivalent to 384 words. Therefore, the total number of 16-bit words loaded is 768.

### 8-bit SPI Host Boot

Figure 15-11 shows 8-bit SPI host packing of 48-bit instructions executed at PM addresses 0x80000 and 0x80001. For 8-bit hosts, four 8-bit words pack into the shift register to generate a 32-bit word. The 32-bit word



shifts to internal program memory during the load of the 256-instruction word kernel.

The following example shows a 48-bit instructions executed.

[0x80000] 0x112233445566

[0x80001] 0x7788AABBCCDD

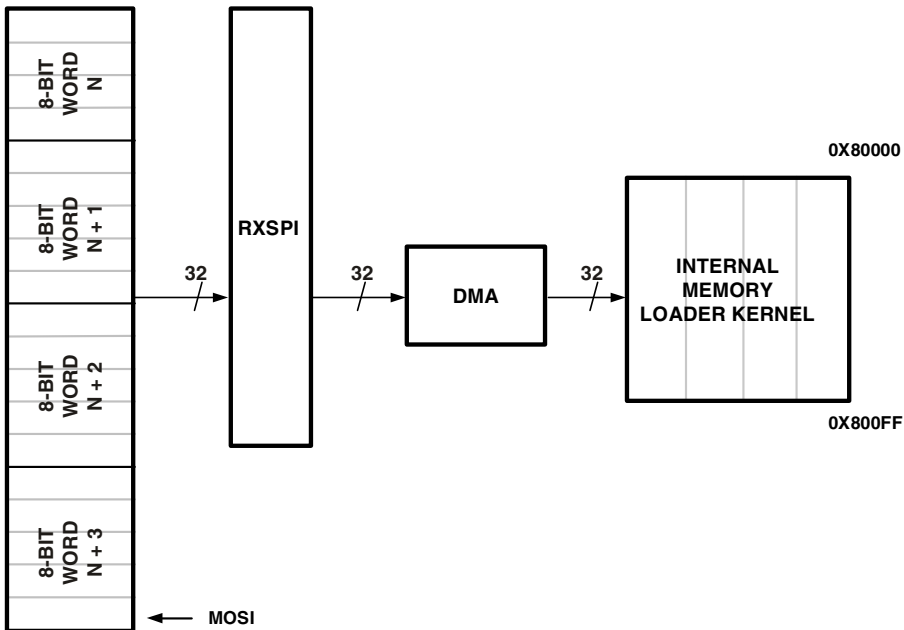


Figure 15-11. 8-Bit SPI Host Packing

The 8-bit SPI host packs or prearranges the data as:

SPI word 1 = 0x66 SPI word 2 = 0x55

SPI word 3 = 0x44 SPI word 4 = 0x33

SPI word 5 = 0x22 SPI word 6 = 0x11


SPI word 7 = 0xDD SPI word 8 = 0xCC

## Booting

SPI word 9 = 0xBB  
SPI word 10 = 0xAA

SPI word 11 = 0x88  
SPI word 12 = 0x77

The initial boot of the 256-word loader kernel requires an 8-bit host to transmit fifteen hundred thirty-six 8-bit words. The SPI DMA count value of 0x180 is equal to 384 words. Since one 32-bit word is created from four packed 8-bit words, the total number of 8-bit words transmitted is 1536.

 For all boot modes, the loader automatically outputs the correct word width and count based on the project settings. For more information, see the CrossCore or VisualDSP++ tools documentation.

### Slave Boot Mode

In Slave boot mode, the host processor initiates the booting operation by activating the  $\overline{\text{SPICLK}}$  signal and asserting the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  signal to the active low state. The 256-word kernel is loaded 32 bits at a time, via the SPI Receive Shift register (RXSR). To receive 256 instructions (48-bit words) properly, the SPI DMA initially loads a DMA count of 0x180 (384) 32-bit words, which is equivalent to 0x100 (256) 48-bit words.


 The processor's  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  pin should not be tied low. When in SPI Slave mode, including booting, the  $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$  signal is required to transition from high to low. SPI slave booting uses the default bit settings shown in [Table 15-9](#).

Table 15-9. SPI Slave Boot Bit Settings

Bit	Setting	Comment
SPIEN	Set (= 1)	SPI enabled
SPIMS	Cleared (= 0)	Slave device
MSBF	Cleared (= 0)	LSB first
WL	10, 32-bit SPI	Receive Shift register word length
DMISO	Set (= 1) MISO	MISO disabled
SENDZ	Cleared (= 0)	Send last word
SPIRCV	Set (= 1)	Receive DMA enabled
CLKPL	Set (= 1)	Active low SPI clock
CPHASE	Set (= 1)	Toggle SPICLK at the beginning of the first bit

The SPI DMA channel is used when downloading the boot kernel information to the processor. At reset, the DMA Parameter registers are initialized to the values listed in [Table 15-10](#).

Table 15-10. Parameter Initialization Value for Slave Boot

Parameter Register	Initialization Value	Comment
SPICTL	0x0000 4D22	
SPIDMAC	0x0000 0007	Enabled, RX, initialized on completion
IISPI	0x0008 0000	Start of Block 0 NW memory
IMSPI	0x0000 0001	32-bit data transfers
CSPI	0x0000 0180	

# Booting

## Master Boot

In Master Boot mode, the ADSP-2126x initiates the booting operation by:

1. Activating the `SPICLK` signal and asserting the `FLG0` signal to the active low state.
2. Writing the read command `0x03` and address `0x00` to the slave device as shown in [Figure 15-8](#).

Master Boot mode is used when the processor is booting from an SPI compatible serial PROM, serial FLASH, or slave host processor. The specifics of booting from these devices are discussed individually. On reset, the interface starts up in Master mode performing a three hundred eighty-four 32-bit word DMA transfer.

SPI master booting uses the default bit settings shown in [Table 15-11](#).

Table 15-11. SPI Master Boot Mode Bit Settings

Bit	Setting	Comment
SPIEN	Set (= 1)	SPI Enabled
SPIMS	Set (= 1)	Master device
MSBF	Cleared (= 0)	LSB first
WL	10	32-bit SPI Receive Shift register word length
DMISO	Cleared (= 0)	MISO enabled
SENDZ	Set (= 1)	Send zeros
SPIRCV	Set (= 1)	Receive DMA enabled
CLKPL	Set (= 1)	Active low SPI clock
CPHASE	Set (= 1)	Toggle SPICLK at the beginning of the first bit

The SPI DMA channel is used when downloading the boot kernel information to the processor. At reset, the DMA parameter registers are initialized to the values listed in [Table 15-12](#).

Table 15-12. Parameter Initialization Value for Master Boot

Parameter Register	Initialization Value	Comment
SPICTL	0x0000 5D06	
SPIBAUD	0x0064	CCLK/400 = 500 KHz@ 200 MHz
SPIFLG	0xfe01	FLG0 used as slave-select
SPIDMAC	0x0000 0007	Enable receive interrupt on completion
IISPI	0x0008 0000	Start of block 0 normal word memory
IMSPI	0x0000 0001	32-bit data transfers
CSPI	0x0000 0180	0x100 instructions = 0x180 32-bit words

From the perspective of the ADSP-2126x processor, there is no difference between booting from the three types of SPI slave devices. Since SPI is a full-duplex protocol, the processor is receiving the same amount of bits that it sends as a read command. The read command comprises a full 32-bit word (which is what the processor is initialized to send) comprised of a 24-bit address with an 8-bit opcode. The 32-bit word that is received while this read command is transmitted is thrown away in hardware, and can never be recovered by the user. Because of this, special measures must be taken to guarantee that the boot stream is identical in all three cases. The processor boots in Least Significant Bit First (LSBF) format, while most serial memory devices operate in Most Significant Bit First (MSBF) format. Therefore, it is necessary to program the device in a fashion that is compatible with the required LSBF format.

Also, because the processor always transmits 32 bits before it begins reading boot data from the slave device, it is necessary for the CrossCore or VisualDSP++ tools to insert extra data to the boot image (in the loader file) if using memory devices that do not use the LSBF format. CrossCore

## Bootling

and VisualDSP++ have built-in support for creating a boot stream compatible with both endian formats, and devices requiring 16-bit and 24-bit addresses, as well as those requiring no read command at all.

### Bootling From an SPI Flash

For SPI flash devices, the format of the boot stream will be identical to that used in SPI Slave mode, with the first byte of the boot stream being the first byte of the kernel. This is because SPI flash devices do not drive out data until they receive an 8-bit command and a 24-bit address.

### Bootling From an SPI PROM (16-bit address)

SPI EEPROMS only require an 8-bit opcode and a 16-bit address. These devices begin transmitting on clock cycle 24. However, because the processor is not expecting data until clock cycle 32, it is necessary to pad an extra byte to the beginning of the boot stream when programming the PROM. In other words, the first byte of the kernel will be the second byte of the boot stream. The CrossCore and VisualDSP++ tools automatically handle this in the loader file generation process for SPI PROM devices.

### Bootling From an SPI Host Processor

Typically, host processors in SPI Slave mode transmit data on every SPICLK cycle. This means that the first four bytes that are sent by the host processor are part of the first 32-bit word that is thrown away by the processor). Therefore, it is necessary to pad an extra four bytes to the beginning of the boot stream when programming the host, for example, the first byte of the kernel will be the fifth byte of the boot stream. CrossCore and VisualDSP++ automatically handle this in the loader file generation process.

# A REGISTERS REFERENCE

The ADSP-2126x processor has general-purpose and dedicated registers in each of its functional blocks. The register reference information for each functional block includes bit definitions, initialization values, and memory-mapped addresses (for IOP registers). Information on each type of register is available at:

- [“Core Registers” on page A-2](#)
- [“I/O Processor Registers” on page A-62](#)

When writing programs, it is often necessary to set, clear, or test bits in the processor’s registers. While these bit operations can all be done by referring to the bit’s location within a register or (for some operations) the register’s address with a hexadecimal number, it is much easier to use symbols that correspond to the bit’s or register’s name. For convenience and consistency, Analog Devices provides a header file that provides these bit and registers definitions. CrossCore Embedded Studio provides processor-specific header files in the `SHARC/include` directory. An `#include` file is provided with VisualDSP++ tools and can be found in the `Visu-aDSP/2126x/include` directory.



Many registers have reserved bits. When writing to a register, programs may only clear (write zero to) the register’s reserved bits.

# Core Registers

The DSP has general-purpose and dedicated registers in each of its functional blocks. The register reference information for each functional block includes bit definitions, initialization values, and memory-mapped addresses (for I/O processor registers). Information on each type of register is available at the following locations:

- “Control and Status System Registers” on page A-3
- “Processing Element Registers” on page A-20
- “Program Sequencer Registers” on page A-23
- “Data Address Generator Registers” on page A-37
- “Peripheral Timer Registers” on page A-157
- “Power Management Registers” on page A-65

When writing DSP programs, it is often necessary to set, clear, or test bits in the DSP’s registers. While these bit operations can all be done by referring to the bit’s location within a register or (for some operations) the register’s address with a hexadecimal number, it is much easier to use symbols that correspond to the bit’s or register’s name. For convenience and consistency, Analog Devices provides a header file that contains these bit and registers definitions. CrossCore Embedded Studio provides processor-specific header files in the `SHARC/include` directory. VisualDSP++ tools includes a `#include` file in the `VisualDSP/2126x/include` directory.



Many registers have reserved bits. When writing to a register, programs may only clear (write zero to) the register’s reserved bits.



## Control and Status System Registers

The DSP's Control And Status System registers determine how the processor core operates and indicate the status of many processor core operations. In the *SHARC Processor Programming Reference*, these registers are referred to as System registers (*Sreg*), which are a subset of the DSP's Universal registers (*Ureg*). Not all registers are valid in all assembly language instructions. In the assembly syntax descriptions, the register group name (*Ureg*, *Sreg*, and others) indicates which type of register is valid within the instruction's context. [Table A-1](#) lists the processor core's Control And Status registers with their initialization values. Descriptions of each register follow. Other system registers (*Sreg*) are in the I/O processor. [For more information, see "I/O Processor Registers" on page A-62.](#)

Table A-1. Control and Status Registers for the Processor Core

Register Name and Page Reference	Initialization After Reset
<a href="#">"Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2)" on page A-7</a>	0x0000 0000
<a href="#">"Mode Mask Register (MMASK)" on page A-9</a>	0x0020 0000
<a href="#">"Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2)" on page A-7</a>	0x4200 0000
<a href="#">"Arithmetic Status Registers (ASTATx and ASTATy)" on page A-11</a>	0x0000 0000
<a href="#">"Sticky Status Registers (STKYx and STKYy)" on page A-16</a>	0x0540 0000
<a href="#">"User-Defined Status Registers (USTATx)" on page A-20</a>	0x0000 0000

# Core Registers

## Mode Control 1 Register (MODE1)

The mode control 1 register is a non memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). [Figure A-1](#) and [Table A-3](#) provide bit information for the MODE1 register.

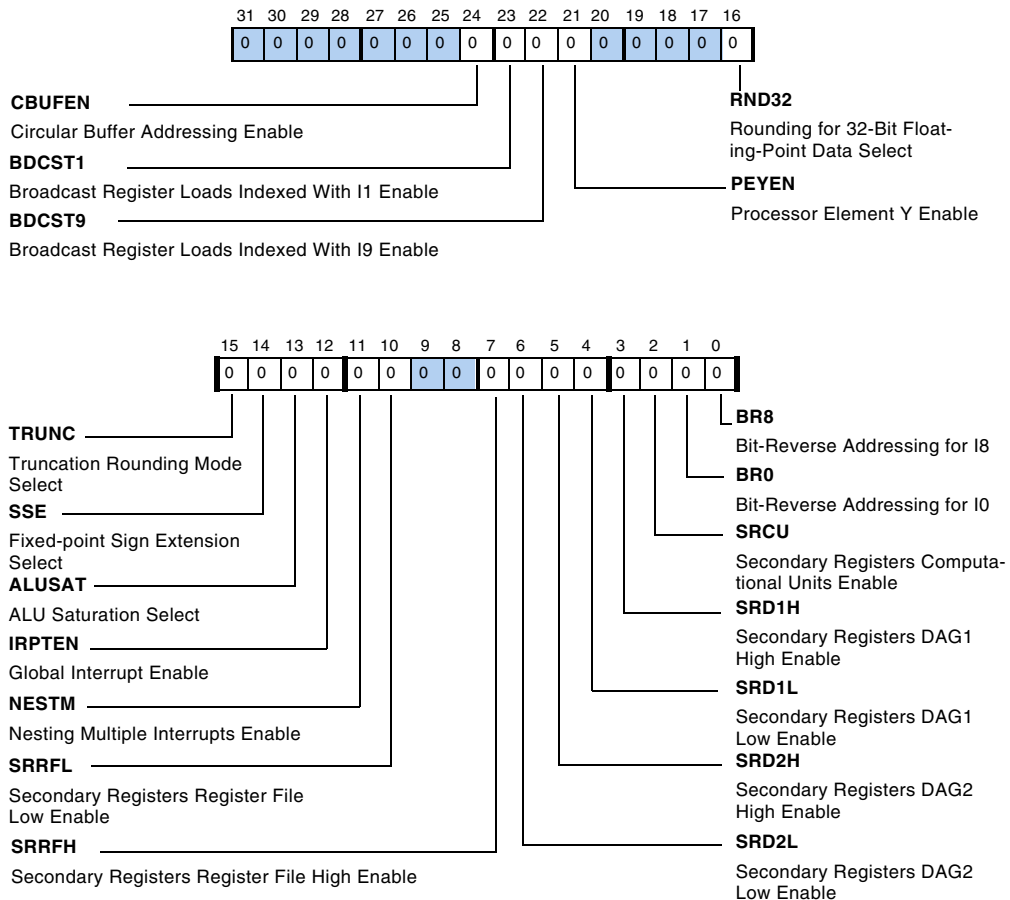


Figure A-1. Mode Control 1 Register

Table A-2. Mode Control 1 Register (MODE1) Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description
0	BR8	<b>Bit-Reverse Addressing For Index I8 Enable.</b> Enables (bit reversed if set, = 1) or disables (normal if cleared, = 0) bit-reversed addressing for accesses that are indexed with DAG2 register I8.
1	BR0	<b>Bit-Reverse Addressing For Index I0 Enable.</b> Enables (bit reversed if set, = 1) or disables (normal if cleared, = 0) bit-reversed addressing for accesses that are indexed with DAG1 register I0.
2	SRCU	<b>MRx Result Registers Swap Enable.</b> Enables the swapping of the MRF and MRB registers contents if set (= 1). This can be used as foreground and background registers. In SIMD Mode the swapping also performed between MSF and MSB registers. This works similar to the RF swapping instructions Rx<->Sx.
3	SRD1H	<b>Secondary Registers For DAG1 High Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary DAG1 registers for the upper half (I, M, L, B7–4) of the address generator.
4	SRD1L	<b>Secondary Registers For DAG1 Low Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary DAG1 registers for the lower half (I, M, L, B3–0) of the address generator.
5	SRD2H	<b>Secondary Registers For DAG2 High Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary DAG2 registers for the upper half (I, M, L, B15–12) of the address generator.
6	SRD2L	<b>Secondary Registers For DAG2 Low Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary DAG2 registers for the lower half (I, M, L, B11–8) of the address generator.
7	SRRFH	<b>Secondary Registers For Register File High Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary data registers for the upper half (R15-R8/S15-S8) of the computational units.
9–8	Reserved	
10	SRRFL	<b>Secondary Registers For Register File Low Enable.</b> Enables (use secondary if set, = 1) or disables (use primary if cleared, = 0) secondary data registers for the lower half (R7-R0/S7-S0) of the computational units.

## Core Registers

Table A-2. Mode Control 1 Register (MODE1) Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
11	NESTM	<b>Nesting Multiple Interrupts Enable.</b> Enables (nest if set, = 1) or disables (no nesting if cleared, = 0) interrupt nesting in the interrupt controller. When interrupt nesting is disabled, a higher priority interrupt can not interrupt a lower priority interrupt's service routine. Other interrupts are latched as they occur, but the processor processes them after the active routine finishes. When interrupt nesting is enabled, a higher priority interrupt can interrupt a lower priority interrupt's service routine. Lower interrupts are latched as they occur, but the processor processes them after the nested routines finish.
12	IRPTEN	<b>Global Interrupt Enable.</b> Enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) all maskable interrupts.
13	ALUSAT	<b>ALU Saturation Select.</b> Selects whether the computational units saturate results on positive or negative fixed-point overflows (if 1) or return unsaturated results (if 0).
14	SSE	<b>Fixed-Point Sign Extension Select.</b> Selects whether the computational units sign-extend short-word, 16-bit data (if 1) or zero-fill the upper 32 bits (if 0).
15	TRUNC	<b>Truncation Rounding Mode Select.</b> Selects whether the computational units round results with round-to-zero (if 1) or round-to-nearest (if 0).
16	RND32	<b>Rounding For 32-Bit Floating-Point Data Select.</b> Selects whether the computational units round floating-point data to 32 bits (if 1) or round to 40 bits (if 0).
20–17	Reserved	
21	PEYEN	<b>Processor Element Y Enable.</b> Enables computations in PE <sub>Y</sub> —SIMD mode—(if 1) or disables PE <sub>Y</sub> —SISD mode—(if 0). When set, Processing Element Y (computation units and register files) accepts instruction dispatches. When cleared, Processing Element Y goes into a low power mode. Note if SIMD Mode disabled you can load data to the secondary registers e.g. s0=dm(i0,m0); only computation does not work.

Table A-2. Mode Control 1 Register (MODE1) Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
22	BDCST9	<b>Broadcast Register Loads Indexed With I9 Enable.</b> Enables (broadcast I9 if set, = 1) or disables (no I9 broadcast if cleared, = 0) broadcast register loads for loads that use the data address generator I9 index. When the BDCST9 bit is set, data register loads from the PM data bus that use the I9 DAG2 Index register are “broadcast” to a register or register pair in each PE.
23	BDCST1	<b>Broadcast Register Loads Indexed With I1 Enable.</b> Enables (broadcast I1 if set, = 1) or disables (no I1 broadcast if cleared, = 0) broadcast register loads for loads that use the data address generator I1 index. When the BDCST1 bit is set, data register loads from the DM data bus that use the I1 DAG1 Index register are “broadcast” to a register or register pair in each PE.
24	CBUFEN	<b>Circular Buffer Addressing Enable.</b> Enables (circular if set, = 1) or disables (linear if cleared, = 0) circular buffer addressing for buffers with loaded I, M, B, and L DAG registers.
31–25	Reserved	

## Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2)

The `MODE2` register is a non memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). [Figure A-2](#) and [Table A-3](#) provide bit information for the `MODE2` register.

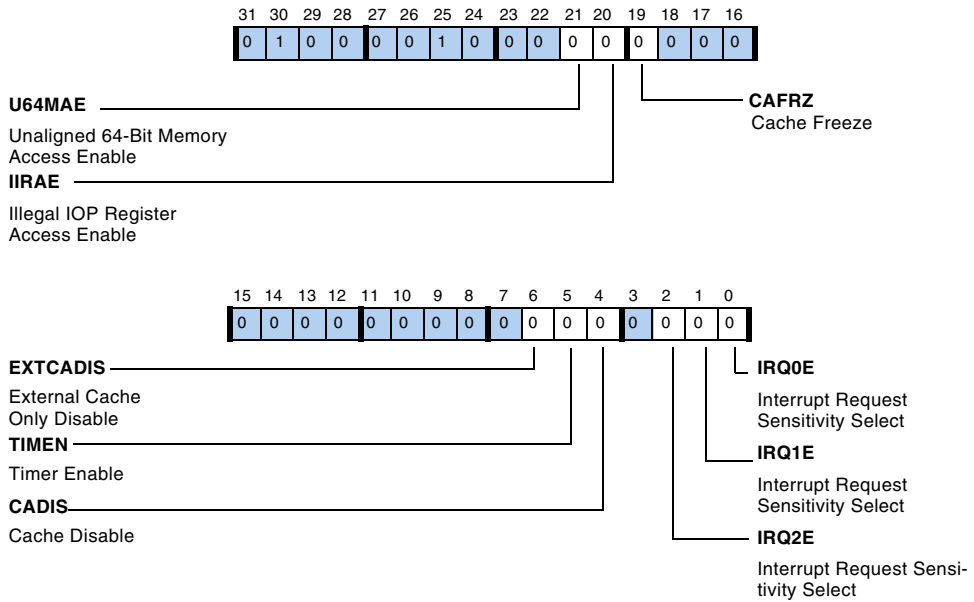


Figure A-2. MODE2 Control Register

Table A-3. Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2) Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description
0	$\overline{\text{IRQ0E}}$	$\overline{\text{IRQ0}}$ Sensitivity Select. Selects sensitivity for the flag configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ0}}$ as edge-sensitive (if set, = 1) or level-sensitive (if cleared, = 0).
1	$\overline{\text{IRQ1E}}$	$\overline{\text{IRQ1}}$ Sensitivity Select. Selects sensitivity for the flag configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ1}}$ as edge-sensitive (if set, = 1) or level-sensitive (if cleared, = 0).
2	$\overline{\text{IRQ2E}}$	$\overline{\text{IRQ2}}$ Sensitivity Select. Selects sensitivity for the flag configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ2}}$ as edge-sensitive (if set, = 1) or level-sensitive (if cleared, = 0).
3	Reserved	

Table A-3. Mode Control 2 Register (MODE2) Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
4	CADIS	<b>Cache Disable.</b> This bit disables the instruction cache (if set, = 1) or enables the cache (if cleared, = 0). If this bit is set, then the caching of instructions from internal memory and external memory both are disabled (see bit 6).
5	TIMEN	<b>Timer Enable.</b> Enables the core timer (starts, if set, = 1) or disables the core timer (stops, if cleared, = 0).
6	EXTCADIS	<b>External Cache Only Disable.</b> Disables the caching of the instructions coming from external memory (if set, =1) or enables caching of the instructions coming from external memory (if cleared, = 0 and CADIS bit 4 = 0). This bit can only be used with the ADSP-214xx products.
18–7	Reserved	
19	CAFRZ	<b>Cache Freeze.</b> Freezes the instruction cache (retain contents if set, = 1) or thaws the cache (allow new input if cleared, = 0).
20	IIRAE	<b>Illegal I/O Processor Register Access Enable.</b> Enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) detection of I/O processor register accesses. If IIRAE is set, the processor flags an illegal access by setting the IIRA bit in the STKYx register.
21	U64MAE	<b>Unaligned 64-Bit Memory Access Enable.</b> Enables (if set, = 1) or disables (if cleared, = 0) detection of unaligned long word accesses. If U64MAE is set, the processor flags an unaligned long word access by setting the U64MA bit in the STKYx register.
31–22	Reserved	

## Mode Mask Register (MMASK)

This is a non memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). Each bit in the MMASK register corresponds to a bit in the MODE1 register. Bits that are set in the MMASK register are used to clear bits in the MODE1 register when the processor's status stack is pushed. This effectively disables different modes upon servicing an interrupt, or when executing a PUSH STS instruction. [Figure A-3](#) provides bit information for the MMASK register.

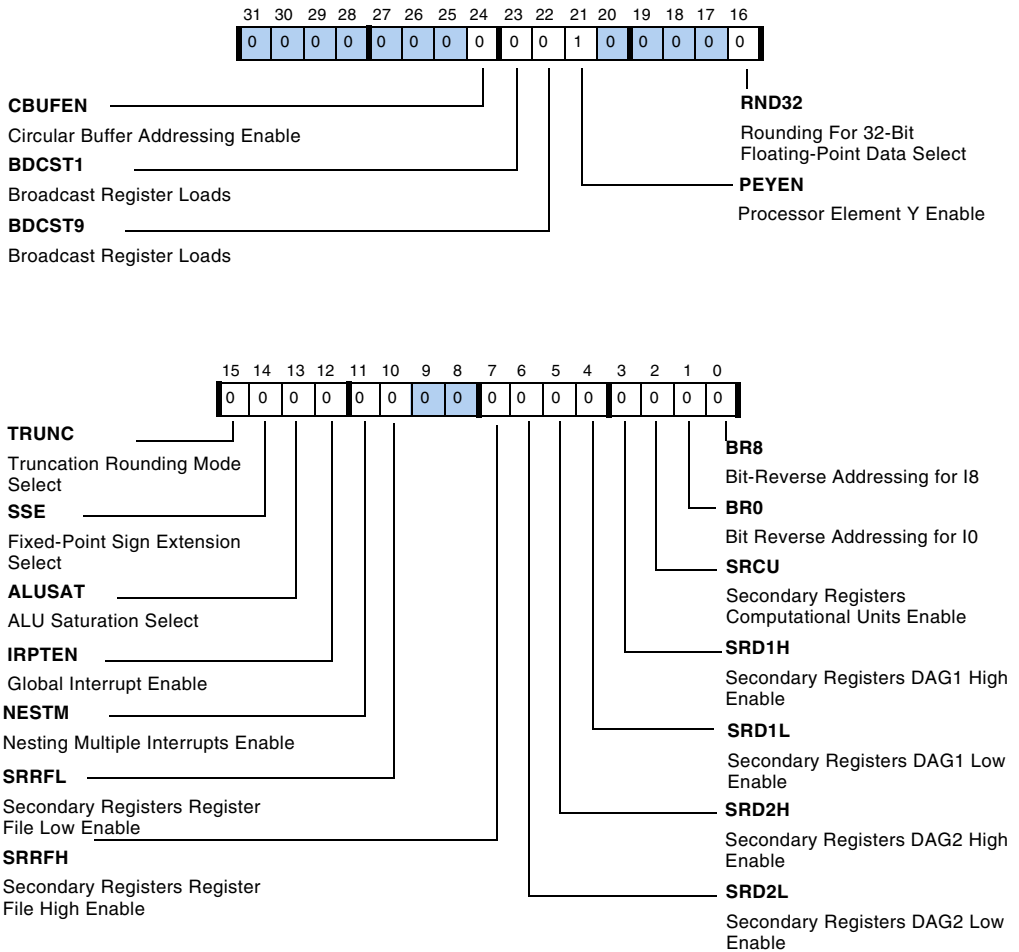


Figure A-3. MMASK Register Bits



## Arithmetic Status Registers (ASTATx and ASTATy)

The ASTATx and ASTATy registers are non memory-mapped, universal, system registers (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). Each processing element has its own ASTAT register. The ASTATx register indicates status for PEx operations, the ASTATy register indicates status for PEy operations. Figure A-4 and Table A-4 provide bit information for the ASTAT registers.

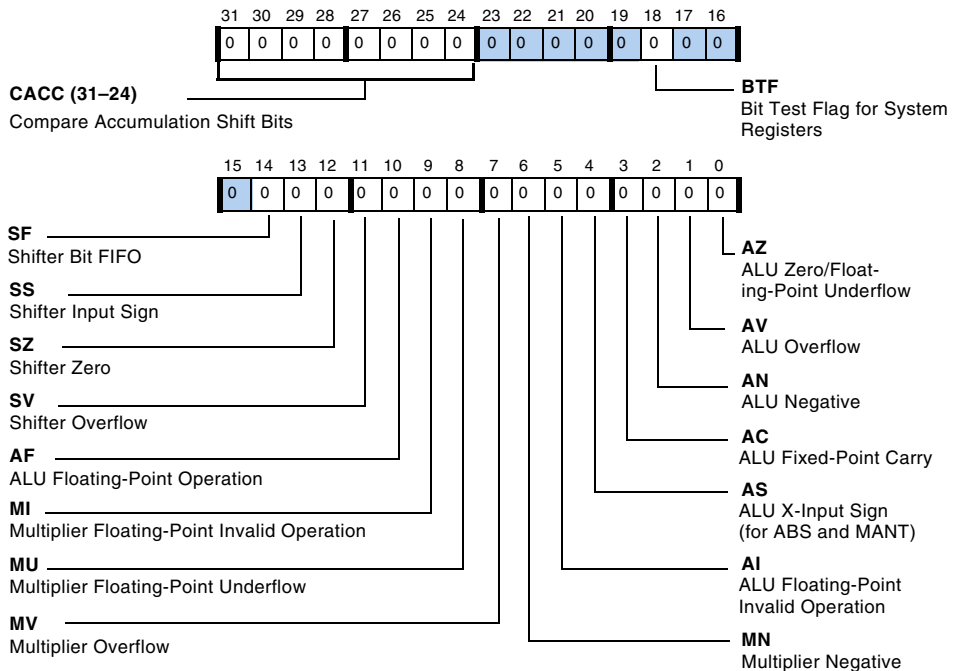


Figure A-4. ASTAT Register



If these registers are loaded manually, there is a one cycle effect latency before the new value in the ASTATx register can be used in a conditional instruction.

## Core Registers

Table A-4. ASTATx and ASTATy Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description
0	AZ	<b>ALU Zero/Floating-Point Underflow.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation's result was zero (if set, = 1) or non-zero (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AZ for all fixed-point and floating-point ALU operations. AZ can also indicate a floating-point underflow. During an ALU underflow (indicated by a set (= 1) AUS bit in the STKYx/y register), the processor sets AZ if the floating-point result is smaller than can be represented in the output format.
1	AV	<b>ALU Overflow.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation's result overflowed (if set, = 1) or did not overflow (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AV for all fixed-point and floating-point ALU operations. For fixed-point results, the processor sets AV and the AOS bit in the STKYx/y register when the XOR of the two most significant bits (MSBs) is a 1. For floating-point results, the processor sets AV and the AVS bit in the STKYx/y register when the rounded result overflows (unbiased exponent > 127).
2	AN	<b>ALU Negative.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation's result was negative (if set, = 1) or positive (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AN for all fixed-point and floating-point ALU operations.
3	AC	<b>ALU Fixed-Point Carry.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation had a carry out of the MSB of the result (if set, = 1) or had no carry (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AC for all fixed-point operations. The processor clears AC during the fixed-point logic operations: PASS, MIN, MAX, COMP, ABS, and CLIP. The ALU reads the AC flag for the fixed-point accumulate operations: Addition with Carry and Fixed-point Subtraction with Carry.
4	AS	<b>ALU X-Input Sign (for ABS and MANT).</b> Indicates if the last ALU ABS or MANT operation's input was negative (if set, = 1) or positive (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AS only for fixed- and floating-point ABS and MANT operations. The ALU clears AS for all operations other than ABS and MANT.

Table A-4. ASTATx and ASTATy Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
5	AI	<p><b>ALU Floating-Point Invalid Operation.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation's input was invalid (if set, = 1) or valid (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AI for all fixed- and floating-point ALU operations. The processor sets AI and AIS in the STKYx/y register if the ALU operation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Receives a NAN input operand</li> <li>• Adds opposite-signed infinities</li> <li>• Subtracts like-signed infinities</li> <li>• Overflows during a floating-point to fixed-point conversion when saturation mode is not set</li> <li>• Operates on an infinity when the saturation mode is not set</li> </ul>
6	MN	<p><b>Multiplier Negative.</b> Indicates if the last multiplier operation's result was negative (if set, = 1) or positive (if cleared, = 0). The multiplier updates MN for all fixed- and floating-point multiplier operations.</p>
7	MV	<p><b>Multiplier Overflow.</b> Indicates if the last multiplier operation's result overflowed (if set, = 1) or did not overflow (if cleared, = 0). The multiplier updates MV for all fixed-point and floating-point multiplier operations. For floating-point results, the processor sets MV and MVS in the STKYx/y register if the rounded result overflows (unbiased exponent &gt; 127). For fixed-point results, the processor sets MV and the MOS bit in the STKYx/y register if the result of the multiplier operation is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Twos-complement, fractional with the upper 17 bits of MR not all zeros or all ones</li> <li>• Twos-complement, integer with the upper 49 bits of MR not all zeros or all ones</li> <li>• Unsigned, fractional with the upper 16 bits of MR not all zeros</li> <li>• Unsigned, integer with the upper 48 bits of MR not all zeros</li> </ul> <p>If the multiplier operation directs a fixed-point result to an MR register, the processor places the overflowed portion of the result in MR1 and MR2 for an integer result or places it in MR2 only for a fractional result.</p>

## Core Registers

Table A-4. ASTATx and ASTATy Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)


Bit	Name	Description
8	MU	<p><b>Multiplier Floating-Point Underflow.</b> Indicates if the last multiplier operation's result underflowed (if set, = 1) or did not underflow (if cleared, = 0). The multiplier updates MU for all fixed- and floating-point multiplier operations. For floating-point results, the processor sets MU and the MUS bit in the STKYx/y register if the floating-point result underflows (unbiased exponent &lt; -126). Denormal operands are treated as zeros, therefore they never cause underflows. For fixed-point results, the processor sets MU and the MUS bit in the STKYx/y register if the result of the multiplier operation is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Twos-complement, fractional: with upper 48 bits all zeros or all ones, lower 32 bits not all zeros</li> <li>• Unsigned, fractional: with upper 48 bits all zeros, lower 32 bits not all zeros</li> </ul> <p>If the multiplier operation directs a fixed-point, fractional result to an MR register, the processor places the underflowed portion of the result in MR0.</p>
9	MI	<p><b>Multiplier Floating-Point Invalid Operation.</b> Indicates if the last multiplier operation's input was invalid (if set, = 1) or valid (if cleared, = 0). The multiplier updates MI for floating-point multiplier operations. The processor sets MI and the MIS bit in the STKYx/y register if the ALU operation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Receives a NAN input operand</li> <li>• Receives an Infinity and zero as input operands</li> </ul>
10	AF	<p><b>ALU Floating-Point Operation.</b> Indicates if the last ALU operation was floating-point (if set, = 1) or fixed-point (if cleared, = 0). The ALU updates AF for all fixed-point and floating-point ALU operations.</p>
11	SV	<p><b>Shifter Overflow.</b> Indicates if the last shifter operation's result overflowed (if set, = 1) or did not overflow (if cleared, = 0). The shifter updates SV for all shifter operations. The processor sets SV if the shifter operation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shifts the significant bits to the left of the 32-bit fixed-point field</li> <li>• Tests, sets, or clears a bit outside of the 32-bit fixed-point field</li> <li>• Extracts a field that is past or crosses the left edge of the 32-bit fixed-point field</li> <li>• Performs a LEFTZ or LEFTO operation that returns a result of 32</li> </ul>

Table A-4. ASTATx and ASTATy Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
12	SZ	<b>Shifter Zero.</b> Indicates if the last shifter operation's result was zero (if set, = 1) or non-zero (if cleared, = 0). The shifter updates SZ for all shifter operations. The processor also sets SZ if the shifter operation performs a bit test on a bit outside of the 32-bit fixed-point field.
13	SS	<b>Shifter Input Sign.</b> Indicates if the last shifter operation's input was negative (if set, = 1) or positive (if cleared, = 0). The shifter updates SS for all shifter operations.
14	SF	<b>ShifterBit FIFO.</b> Indicates the current value of Write Pointer. SF is set when write pointer is greater than or equal to 32, otherwise it is cleared. (upon ADSP-2146x processors only)
17–15	Reserved	
18	BTF	<b>Bit Test Flag for System Registers.</b> Indicates if the system register bit is true (if set, = 1) or false (if cleared, = 0). The processor sets BTF when the bit(s) in a system register and value in the Bit Tst instruction match. The processor also sets BTF when the bit(s) in a system register and value in the Bit Xor instruction match.
23–19	Reserved	
31–24	CACC	<b>Compare Accumulation Shift Register.</b> Bit 31 of CACC indicates which operand was greater during the last ALU compare operation: X input (if set, = 1) or Y input (if cleared, = 0). The other seven bits in CACC form a right-shift register, each storing a previous compare accumulation result. With each new compare, the processor right shifts the values of CACC, storing the newest value in bit 31 and the oldest value in bit 24.

### Sticky Status Registers (STKYx and STKYy)

These are non memory-mapped, universal, system registers (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). Each processing element has its own STKY register. The STKY<sub>x</sub> register indicates status for PEx operations and some program sequencer stacks. The STKY<sub>y</sub> register only indicates status for PEy operations.

 STKY bits do not clear themselves after the condition they flag is no longer true. They remain “sticky” until cleared by the program.

The processor sets a STKY bit in response to a condition. For example, the processor sets the AUS bit in the STKY register when an ALU underflow set AZ in the ASTAT register. The processor clears AZ if the next ALU operation does not cause an underflow. The AUS bit remains set until a program clears the STKY bit. Interrupt service routines (ISRs) must clear their interrupt’s corresponding STKY bit so the processor can detect a reoccurrence of the condition. For example, an ISR for a floating-point underflow exception interrupt (FLTUI) clears the AUS bit in the STKY register near the beginning of the routine. [Figure A-5](#), [Figure A-6](#), and [Table A-5](#) provide bit information for both the STKY<sub>x</sub> and STKY<sub>y</sub> registers.

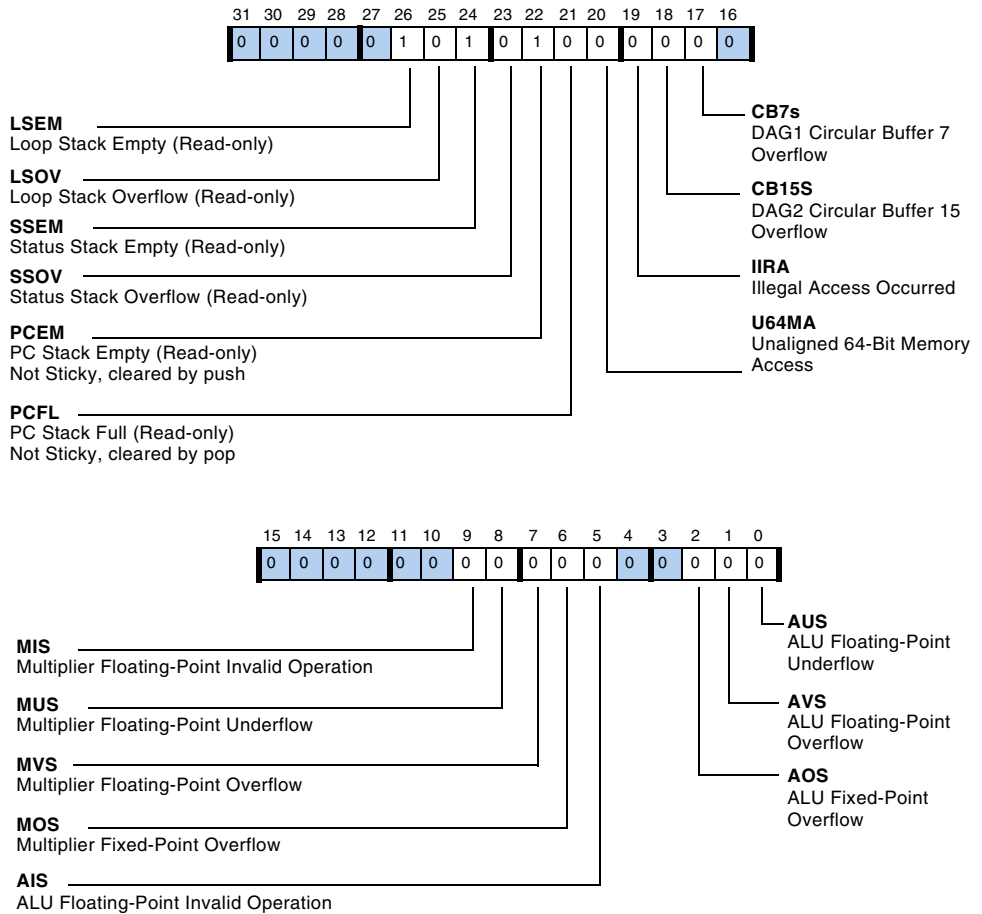


Figure A-5. STKYx Register

# Core Registers

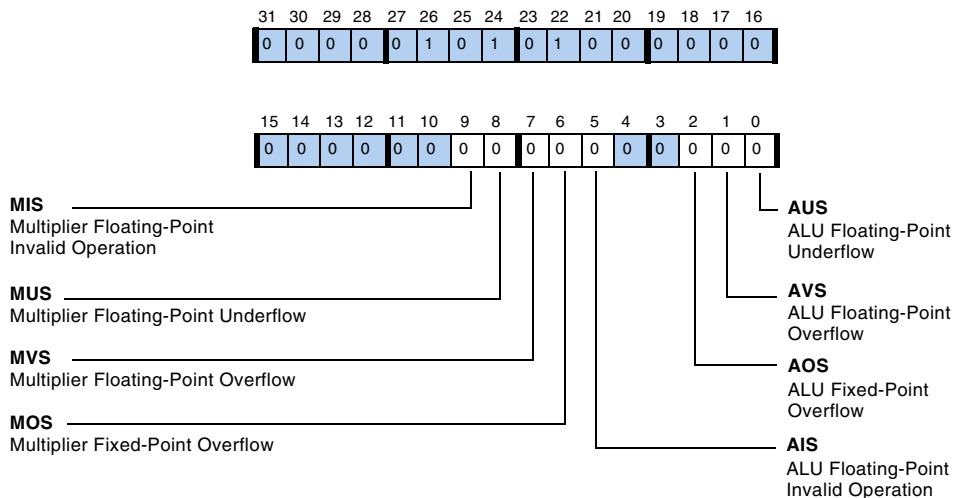


Figure A-6. STKYy Register

Table A-5. STKYx and STKYy Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description: $\checkmark$ shows bits in both STKYx/y $\times$ shows bits in STKYx only	
0	AUS	<b>ALU Floating-Point Underflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the ALU AZ bit. <i>For more information, see “AZ” on page A-12.</i>	$\checkmark$
1	AVS	<b>ALU Floating-Point Overflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the ALU AV bit. <i>For more information, see “AV” on page A-12.</i>	$\checkmark$
2	AOS	<b>ALU Fixed-Point Overflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the ALU AV bit. <i>For more information, see “AV” on page A-12.</i>	$\checkmark$
4–3	Reserved		
5	AIS	<b>ALU Floating-Point Invalid Operation.</b> A sticky indicator for the ALU AI bit. <i>For more information, see “AI” on page A-13.</i>	$\checkmark$
6	MOS	<b>Multiplier Fixed-Point Overflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the multiplier MV bit. <i>For more information, see “MV” on page A-13.</i>	$\checkmark$



Table A-5. STKYx and STKYy Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description: √ shows bits in both STKYx/y × shows bits in STKYx only	
7	MVS	<b>Multiplier Floating-Point Overflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the multiplier MV bit. <a href="#">For more information, see “MV” on page A-13.</a>	√
8	MUS	<b>Multiplier Floating-Point Underflow.</b> A sticky indicator for the multiplier MU bit. <a href="#">For more information, see “MU” on page A-14.</a>	√
9	MIS	<b>Multiplier Floating-Point Invalid Operation.</b> A sticky indicator for the multiplier MI bit. <a href="#">For more information, see “MI” on page A-14.</a>	√
16–10	Reserved		
17	CB7S	<b>DAG1 Circular Buffer 7 Overflow.</b> Indicates if a circular buffer being addressed with DAG1 register I7 has overflowed (if set, = 1) or has not overflowed (if cleared, = 0). A circular buffer overflow occurs when DAG circular buffering operation increments the I register past the end of buffer.	×
18	CB15S	<b>DAG2 Circular Buffer 15 Overflow.</b> Indicates if a circular buffer being addressed with DAG2 register I15 has overflowed (if set, = 1) or has not overflowed (if cleared, = 0). A circular buffer overflow occurs when DAG circular buffering operation increments the I register past the end of buffer.	×
19	IIRA	<b>Illegal IOP Register Access.</b> Indicates if set (= 1) the core had accessed the IOP register space or not.	×
20	U64MA	<b>Unaligned 64-Bit Memory Access.</b> Indicates if set (= 1) if a Normal word access with the LW mnemonic addressing an uneven memory address has occurred or has not occurred (if 0).	×
21	PCFL	<b>PC Stack Full.</b> Indicates if the PC stack is full (if 1) or not full (if 0)—Not a sticky bit, cleared by a Pop.	×
22	PCEM	<b>PC Stack Empty.</b> Indicates if the PC stack is empty (if 1) or not empty (if 0)—Not sticky, cleared by a Push.	×
23	SSOV	<b>Status Stack Overflow.</b> Indicates if the status stack is overflowed (if 1) or not overflowed (if 0)—sticky bit.	×

## Core Registers

Table A-5. STKYx and STKYy Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description: ✓ shows bits in both STKYx/y × shows bits in STKYx only	
24	SSEM	<b>Status Stack Empty.</b> Indicates if the status stack is empty (if 1) or not empty (if 0)—not sticky, cleared by a Push.	×
25	LSOV	<b>Loop Stack Overflow.</b> Indicates if the loop counter stack and loop stack are overflowed (if 1) or not overflowed (if 0)—sticky bit.	×
26	LSEM	<b>Loop Stack Empty.</b> Indicates if the loop counter stack and loop stack are empty (if 1) or not empty (if 0)—not sticky, cleared by a Push.	×
31–27	Reserved		

### User-Defined Status Registers (USTATx)

These are non-memory-mapped, universal, system registers (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). The reset value for these registers is 0x0000 0000. The USTATx registers are user-defined, general-purpose status registers. Programs can use these 32-bit registers with bit-wise instructions (SET, CLEAR, TEST, and others). Often, programs use these registers for low overhead, general-purpose flags or for temporary 32-bit storage of data.

### Processing Element Registers

Except for the PX register, the DSP's Processing Element registers store data for each element's ALU, multiplier, and shifter. The inputs and outputs for processing element operations go through these registers. The PX register lets programs transfer data between the data buses, but cannot be an input or output in a calculation.

Table A-6. Processing Element Registers

Register Name and Page Reference	Initialization After Reset
<a href="#">“Data File Data Registers (Rx, Sx)” on page A-21</a>	Undefined
<a href="#">“PEx Multiplier Result Registers (MRFx, MRBx)” on page A-22</a>	Undefined
<a href="#">“Program Memory Bus Exchange Register (PX)” on page A-23</a>	Undefined

### Data File Data Registers (Rx, Sx)

The Data File Data registers are non memory-mapped, universal, data registers (*Ureg* and *Dreg*). Each of the DSP’s processing elements has a data register file—a set of 40-bit data registers that transfer data between the data buses and the computation units. These registers also provide local storage for operands and results.

The *R* and *S* prefixes on register names do not effect the 32-bit or 40-bit data transfer; the naming convention determines how the ALU, multiplier, and shifter treat the data and determines which processing element’s data registers are being used. For more information on how to use these registers, see [“Data Register File” on page 2-38](#).

### Alternate Data File Data Registers (Rx', Sx')

The processor includes alternate register sets for all data registers to facilitate fast context switching. Bits in the *MODE1* register control when alternate registers become accessible. While inaccessible, the contents of alternate registers are not affected by processor operations. Note that there is an one cycle latency between writing to *MODE1* and being able to access an alternate register set.

# Core Registers

## PEx Multiplier Result Registers (MRFx, MRBx)

The MRF<sub>x</sub> and MRB<sub>x</sub> registers are non memory-mapped. The PEx unit has a primary or foreground (MRF) register and alternate or background (MRB) results register. Fixed-point operations place 80-bit results in the multiplier’s foreground MRF register or background MRB register, depending on which is active. For more information on selecting the Result register, see “Alternate (Secondary) Data Registers” on page 2-40. For more information on result register fields, see “Data Register File” on page 2-38.

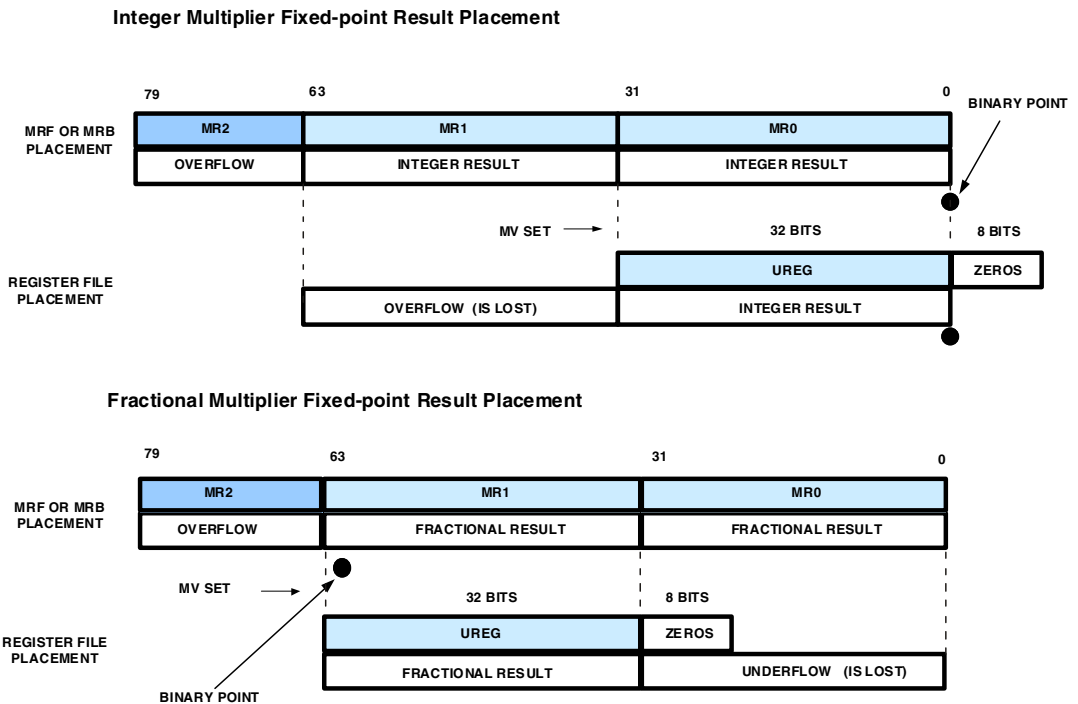


Figure A-7. MRF<sub>x</sub> and MRB<sub>x</sub> Registers

## PEy Multiplier Result Registers (MSFx, MSBx)

The MSFx and MSBx registers are non memory-mapped. The PEy unit has a primary or foreground (MSF) register and alternate or background (MSB) results register. Fixed-point operations place 80-bit results in the multiplier's foreground MSF register or background MSB register, depending on which is active. For more information on selecting the Result register, see [“Alternate \(Secondary\) Data Registers” on page 2-40](#). For more information on result register fields, see [“Data Register File” on page 2-38](#).

## Program Memory Bus Exchange Register (PX)

The PX register is a non-memory-mapped, universal registers (*Ureg* only). The PM Bus Exchange (PX) register permits data to flow between the PM and DM data buses. The PX register can work as one 64-bit register or as two 32-bit registers (PX1 and PX2). The PX1 register is the lower 32 bits of the PX register and PX2 is the upper 32 bits of PX. See the section [“Internal Data Bus Exchange” on page 5-6](#) for more information about the PX register.

## Program Sequencer Registers

The DSP's program sequencer registers direct the execution of instructions. These registers include support for the:

- Instruction pipeline
- Program and loop stacks
- Timer
- Interrupt mask and latch

## Core Registers

Table A-7. Program Sequencer Registers

Register	Initialization After Reset
“Interrupt Latch Register (IRPTL)” on page A-25	0x0000 0000 (cleared)
“Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)” on page A-25	0x0000 0003
“Interrupt Mask Pointer Register (IMASKP)” on page A-26	0x0000 0000 (cleared)
“Interrupt Register (LIRPTL)” on page A-30	0x0000 0000 (cleared)

Table A-8. Program Counter Registers

Register	Initialization After Reset
“Program Counter Register (PC)” on page A-33	Undefined
“Program Counter Stack Register (PCSTK)” on page A-34	Undefined
“Program Counter Stack Pointer Register (PCSTKP)” on page A-34	Undefined
“Fetch Address Register (FADDR)” on page A-35	Undefined
“Decode Address Register (DADDR)” on page A-35	Undefined
“Loop Address Stack Register (LADDR)” on page A-35	Undefined
“Current Loop Counter Register (CURLCNTR)” on page A-36	Undefined
“Loop Counter Register (LCNTR)” on page A-36	Undefined
“Timer Period Register (TPERIOD)” on page A-36	Undefined
“Timer Count Register (TCOUNT)” on page A-37	Undefined

## Interrupt Latch Register (IRPTL)

The IRPTL register is a non-memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). The IRPTL register indicates latch status for interrupts. [Figure A-8](#) and [Table A-9](#) provide bit definitions for the IRPTL register.

The programmable interrupt latch bits (P0I-P5I, P14I-P16I) are controlled through the priority interrupt control registers (PICR). The descriptions provided are their default source. For information on their optional use, see “Programmable Interrupt Control Registers (PICRx)” in the processor-specific hardware reference.

## Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)

The IMASK register is a non-memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). Each bit in the IMASK register corresponds to a bit with the same name in the IRPTL registers. The bits in the IMASK register unmask (enable if set, = 1), or mask (disable if cleared, = 0) the interrupts that are latched in the IRPTL register. Except for the  $\overline{RSTI}$  and EMUI bits, all interrupts are maskable.

When the IMASK register masks an interrupt, the masking disables the processor’s response to the interrupt. The IRPTL register still latches an interrupt even when masked, and the processor responds to that latched interrupt if it is later unmasked. [Figure A-8](#) and [Table A-9](#) provide bit definitions for the IMASK register.

### Interrupt Mask Pointer Register (IMASKP)

The IMASKP register is a non-memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). Each bit in the IMASKP register corresponds to a bit with the same name in the IRPTL registers. The IMASKP register field descriptions are shown in [Figure A-8](#), and described in [Table A-9](#). Shaded cells indicate user programmable interrupts.

This register supports an interrupt nesting scheme that lets higher priority events interrupt an ISR and keeps lower priority events from interrupting.

When interrupt nesting is enabled, the bits in the IMASKP register mask interrupts that have a lower priority than the interrupt that is currently being serviced. Other bits in this register unmask interrupts having higher priority than the interrupt that is currently being serviced. Interrupt nesting is enabled using NESTM in the MODE1 register. The IRPTL register latches a lower priority interrupt even when masked, and the processor responds to that latched interrupt if it is later unmasked.

When interrupt nesting is disabled (NESTM = 0 in the MODE1 register), the bits in the IMASKP register mask all interrupts while an interrupt is currently being serviced. The IRPTL register still latches these interrupts even when masked, and the processor responds to the highest priority latched interrupt after servicing the current interrupt.



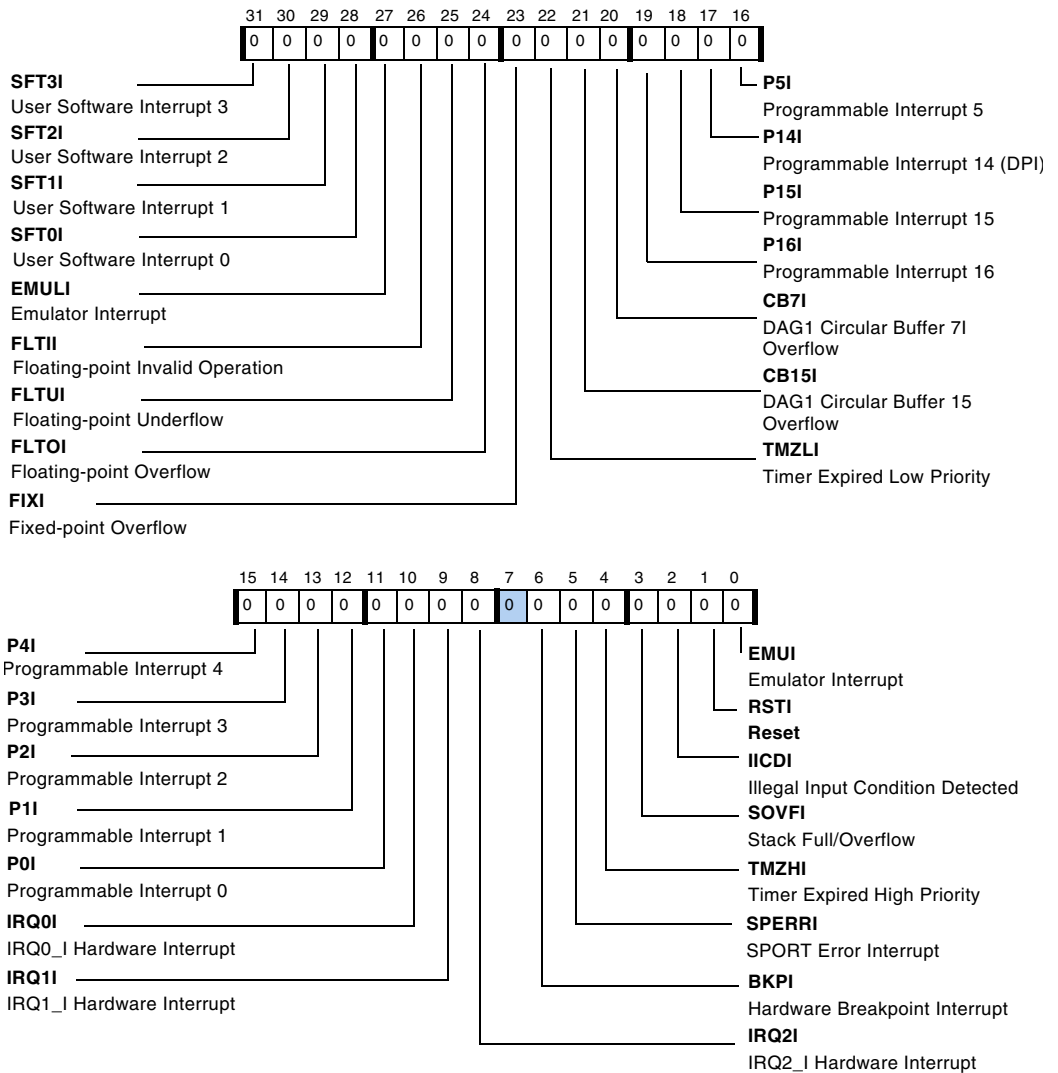


Figure A-8. IRPTL, IMASK, and IMASKP Registers

## Core Registers

Table A-9. IRPTL, IMASK, IMASKP Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Definition
0	EMUI	<b>Emulator Interrupt.</b> An EMUI occurs when the external emulator triggers an interrupt or the core hits a emulator breakpoint. Note this interrupt has highest priority, it is read-only and non-maskable
1	RSTI	<b>Reset Interrupt.</b> An RSTI occurs as an external device asserts the RESET pin or after a software reset (SYSCTL register). Note this interrupt is read-only and non-maskable.
2	IICDI	<b>Illegal Input Condition Detected Interrupt.</b> An IICDI occurs when a TRUE results from the logical OR'ing of the illegal I/O processor register access (IIRA) and unaligned 64-bit memory access bits in the STKYx registers.
3	SOVFI	<b>Stack Overflow/Full Interrupt.</b> A SOVFI occurs when a stack in the program sequencer overflows or is full.
4	TMZHI	<b>Core Timer Expired High Priority.</b> A TMZHI occurs when the timer decrements to zero. Note that this event also triggers a TMZLI. Since the timer expired event (TCOUNT decrements to zero) generates two interrupts, TMZHI and TMZLI, programs should unmask the timer interrupt with the desired priority and leave the other one masked.
5	SPERRI <sup>1</sup>	<b>Sport Error Interrupt.</b> A SPERRI occurs on a FIFO underflow/overflow or a frame sync error.
6	BKPI	<b>Hardware Breakpoint Interrupt.</b> When the processor is servicing another interrupt, indicates if the BKPI interrupt is unmasked (if set, = 1), or masked (if cleared, = 0).
7	Reserved	
8	$\overline{\text{IRQ2I}}$	<b>Hardware Interrupt.</b> An $\overline{\text{IRQ2I}}$ occurs when an external device asserts the FLAG2 pin configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ2}}$ . The $\overline{\text{IRQ2E}}$ bit (MODE2) defines if interrupt latched on edge or level.
9	$\overline{\text{IRQ1I}}$	<b>Hardware Interrupt.</b> An $\overline{\text{IRQ1I}}$ occurs when an external device asserts the FLAG2 pin configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ1}}$ . The $\overline{\text{IRQ1E}}$ bit (MODE2) defines if interrupt latched on edge or level.
10	$\overline{\text{IRQ0I}}$	<b>Hardware Interrupt.</b> An $\overline{\text{IRQ0I}}$ occurs when an external device asserts the FLAG2 pin configured as $\overline{\text{IRQ0}}$ . The $\overline{\text{IRQ0E}}$ bit (MODE2) defines if interrupt latched on edge or level.

Table A-9. IRPTL, IMASK, IMASKP Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Definition
11	P0I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 0.</b> A P0I interrupt occurs when the default/programmed peripheral sets (= 1) this bit.
12	P1I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 1.</b> See P0I
13	P2I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 2.</b> See P0I
14	P3I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 3.</b> See P0I
15	P4I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 4.</b> See P0I
16	P5I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 5.</b> See P0I
17	P14I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 14.</b> See P0I
18	P15I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 15.</b> See P0I
19	P16I	<b>Programmable Interrupt 16.</b> See P0I
20	CB7I	<b>DAG1 Circular Buffer 7 Overflow Interrupt.</b> A circular buffer overflow occurs when the DAG circular buffering operation increments the I7 register past the end of the buffer.
21	CB15I	<b>DAG2 Circular Buffer 15 Overflow Interrupt.</b> A circular buffer overflow occurs when the DAG circular buffering operation increments the I15 register past the end of the buffer.
22	TMZLI	<b>Core Timer Expired (Low Priority) Interrupt.</b> A TMZLI occurs when the timer decrements to zero. (Refer to TMZHI)
23	FIXI	<b>Fixed-Point Overflow Interrupt.</b> Refer to the status registers for the execution units (ASTAT <sub>x/y</sub> , STKY <sub>x/y</sub> ).
24	FLTOI	<b>Floating-Point Overflow Interrupt.</b> Refer to the status registers for the execution units (ASTAT <sub>x/y</sub> , STKY <sub>x/y</sub> ).
25	FLTUI	<b>Floating-Point Underflow Interrupt.</b> Refer to the status registers for the execution units (ASTAT <sub>x/y</sub> , STKY <sub>x/y</sub> ).
26	FLTHI	<b>Floating-Point Invalid Operation Interrupt.</b> Refer to the status registers for the execution units (ASTAT <sub>x/y</sub> , STKY <sub>x/y</sub> ).
27	EMULI	<b>Emulator Low Priority Interrupt.</b> An EMULI occurs during Background telemetry channels (BTC). This interrupt has a lower priority than EMUI, but higher priority than software interrupts.

## Core Registers


Table A-9. IRPTL, IMASK, IMASKP Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Definition
28	SFT0I	<b>User Software Interrupt 0.</b> An SFT0I occurs when a program sets (= 1) this bit.
29	SFT1I	<b>User Software Interrupt 1.</b> See SFT0I.
30	SFT2I	<b>User Software Interrupt 2.</b> See SFT0I.
31	SFT3I	<b>User Software Interrupt 3.</b> See SFT0I. Lowest priority.

1 The SPERRI interrupt (bit 5) is reserved for ADSP-21362/3/4/5/6 SHARC processors.

### Interrupt Register (LIRPTL)

The LIRPTL register is a non-memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). The LIRPTL register indicates latch status, select masking, and displays mask pointers for interrupts. [Figure A-9](#) and [Table A-10](#) provide bit definitions for the LIRPTL register.

 The MSKP bits in the LIRPTL register, and the entire IMASKP register are for interrupt controller use only. Modifying these bits interferes with the proper operation of the interrupt controller.

The programmable interrupt latch bits (P6I–P13I, P17I, P18I) are controlled through the programmable interrupt controller registers (PICRx). The descriptions provided are their default source. For information on their optional use, see “Programmable Interrupt Priority Control Registers” in the product related hardware reference.

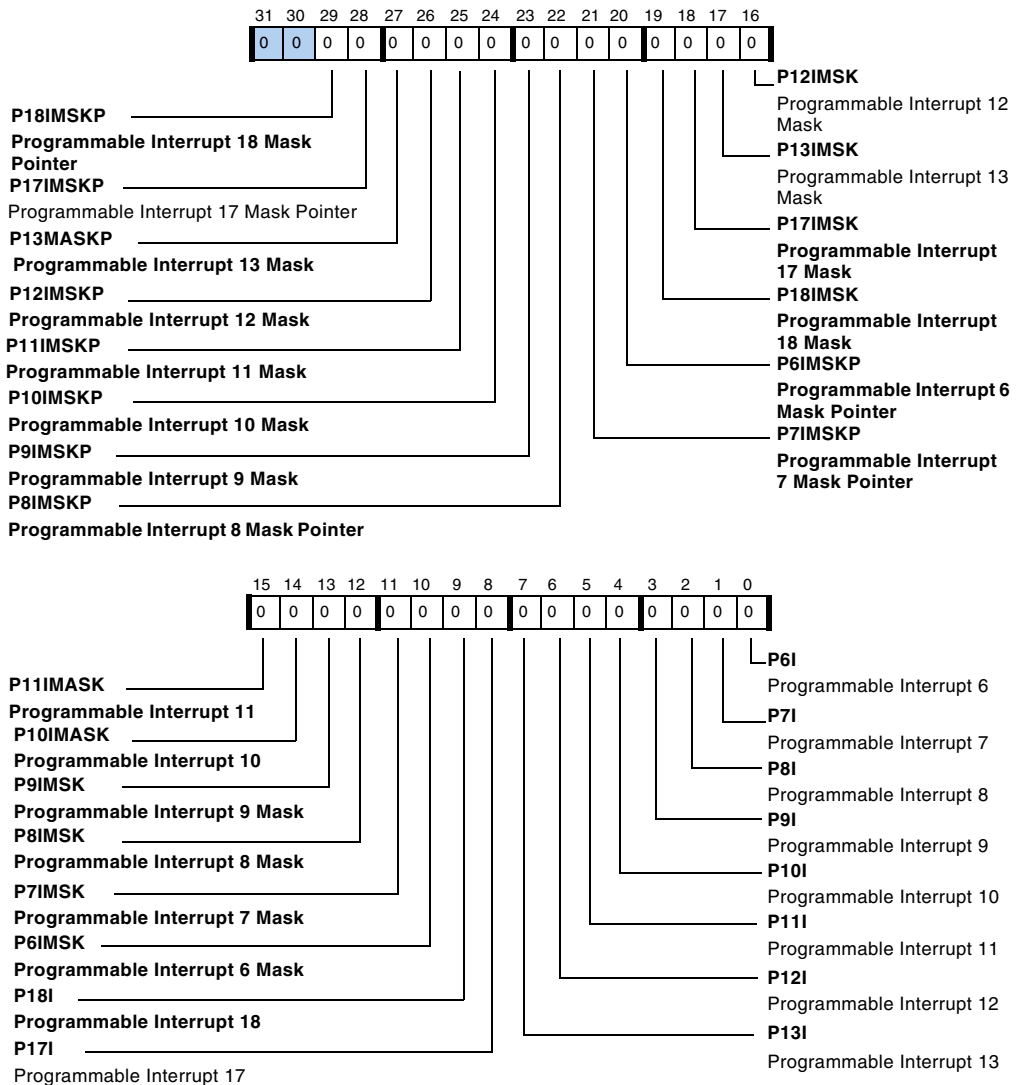


Figure A-9. LIRPTL Register

## Core Registers

Table A-10. LIRPTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Definition
0	P6I	Programmable Interrupt 6.
1	P7I	Programmable Interrupt 7
2	P8I	Programmable Interrupt 8
3	P9I	Programmable Interrupt 9
4	P10I	Programmable Interrupt 10
5	P11I	Programmable Interrupt 11
6	P12I	Programmable Interrupt 12
7	P13I	Programmable Interrupt 13
8	P17I	Programmable Interrupt 17
9	P18I	Programmable Interrupt 18
10	P6IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 6. Unmasks the P6I interrupt (if set, = 1), or masks the P6I interrupt (if cleared, = 0).
11	P7IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 7. See P6IMSK.
12	P8IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 8. See P6IMSK.
13	P9IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 9. See P6IMSK.
14	P10IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 9. See P6IMSK.
15	P11IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 11. See P6IMSK.
16	P12IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 12. See P6IMSK.
17	P13IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 12. See P6IMSK.
18	P17IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 17. See P6IMSK.
19	P18IMSK	Programmable Interrupt Mask 18. See P6IMSK.
20	P6IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 9. When the processor is servicing another interrupt, indicates if the P6I interrupt is unmasked (if set, = 1), or the P6I interrupt is masked (if cleared, = 0).

Table A-10. LIRPTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Definition
21	P7IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 7. See P6IMSKP.
22	P8IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 8. See P6IMSKP.
23	P9IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 9. See P6IMSKP.
24	P10IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 10. See P6IMSKP.
25	P11IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 11. See P6IMSKP.
26	P12IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 12. See P6IMSKP.
27	P13IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 13. See P6IMSKP.
28	P17IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 17. See P6IMSKP.
29	P18IMSKP	Programmable Interrupt Mask Pointer 18. See P6IMSKP.
31–30	Reserved	

### Program Counter Register (PC)

The PC register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Program Counter register is the last stage in the fetch-decode-execute instruction pipeline and contains the 24-bit address of the instruction that the DSP executes on the next cycle. The PC couples with the Program Counter Stack, PCSTK, which stores return addresses and top-of-loop addresses. All addresses generated by the sequencer are 24-bit program memory instruction addresses.

As shown in [Figure A-10](#), the address buses can handle 32-bit addresses, but the program sequencer only generates 24-bit addresses over the PM bus.

# Core Registers

PM and DM Address Buses and DAGs Can Handle 32-Bit Addresses

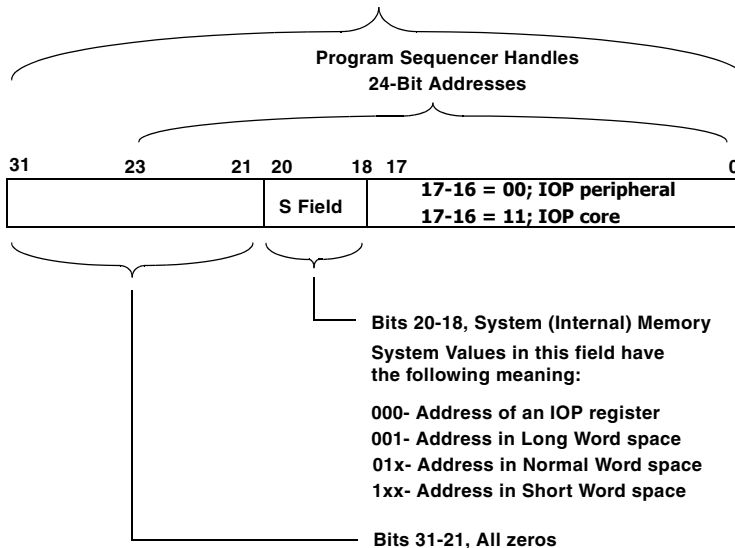


Figure A-10. PM and DM Bus Addresses Versus Sequencing Addresses

## Program Counter Stack Register (PCSTK)

This is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Program Counter Stack register contains the address of the top of the PC stack. This register is a readable and writable register.

## Program Counter Stack Pointer Register (PCSTKP)

The PCSTKP register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Program Counter Stack Pointer register contains the value of PCSTK. This value is given as follows: 0 when the PC stack is empty, 1...30 when the stack contains data, and 31 when the stack overflows. This register is readable and writable. A write to PCSTKP takes effect after a one-cycle delay. If the PC stack is overflowed, a write to PCSTKP has no effect.



## Status Stack Register (STS)

The  $\overline{\text{STS}}$  register is a status stack register that stores three status registers ( $\text{MODE1}$ ,  $\text{ASTATx}$  and  $\text{ASTATy}$ ). The register is 3x32-bit wide and 15 locations deep. For the  $\overline{\text{TRQ2-0}}$  and timer interrupts, the sequencer automatically pushes and pops the status stack. Note the  $\overline{\text{STS}}$  register can only be accessed by `push sts` or `pop sts` instructions.

## Fetch Address Register (FADDR)

The  $\text{FADDR}$  register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Fetch Address register is the first stage in the fetch-decode-execute instruction pipeline and contains the 24-bit address of the instruction that the DSP fetches from memory on the next cycle.

## Decode Address Register (DADDR)

The  $\text{DADDR}$  register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Decode Address register is the second stage in the fetch-decode-execute instruction pipeline and contains the 24-bit address of the instruction that the DSP decodes on the next cycle.

## Loop Address Stack Register (LADDR)

The  $\text{LADDR}$  register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Loop Address Stack is six levels deep by 32 bits wide. The 32-bit word of each level consists of a 24-bit loop termination address, a 5-bit termination code, and a 2-bit loop type code.

## Core Registers

Table A-11. LADDR Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Value
23–0	Loop Termination Address
28–24	Termination Code
29	Reserved (always reads zero)
31–30	<b>Loop Type Code</b> 00 = arithmetic condition-based (not LCE) 01 = counter-based, length 1 10 = counter-based, length 2 11 = counter-based, length > 2

### Current Loop Counter Register (CURLCNTR)

The CURLCNTR register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Current Loop Counter register provides access to the loop counter stack and tracks iterations for the DO UNTIL LCE loop being executed. For more information on how to use the CURLCNTR register, see [“Loop Counter Stack” on page 3-32](#).

### Loop Counter Register (LCNTR)

The LCNTR register is a non-memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Loop Counter register provides access to the loop counter stack and holds the count value before the DO UNTIL LCE loop is executed. For more information on how to use the LCNTR register, see [“Loop Counter Stack” on page 3-32](#).

### Timer Period Register (TPERIOD)

The TPERIOD register is a non memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Timer Period register contains the decrementing timer count value, counting down the cycles between timer interrupts. For more information on how to use the TPERIOD register, see [“Timer and Sequencing” on page 3-46](#).

## Timer Count Register (TCOUNT)

The TCOUNT register is a non memory-mapped, universal register (*Ureg* only). The Timer Count register contains the timer period, indicating the number of cycles between timer interrupts. For more information on how to use the TCOUNT register, see [“Timer and Sequencing” on page 3-46](#).

## Data Address Generator Registers

The DSP’s Data Address Generator (DAG) registers hold data addresses, modify values, and circular buffer configurations. Using these registers, the DAGs can automatically increment addressing for ranges of data locations (a buffer). [For more information, see “Data Address Generators” on page 4-1.](#)

Table A-12. DAG Registers

Register	Initialization After Reset
<a href="#">“Index Registers (Ix)” on page A-37</a>	Undefined
<a href="#">“Modify Registers (Mx)” on page A-37</a>	Undefined
<a href="#">“Length and Base Registers (Lx, Bx)” on page A-38</a>	Undefined

## Index Registers (Ix)

The Ix registers are non-memory-mapped, universal registers (*Ureg* only). The DAGs store addresses in Index registers (I0–I7 for DAG1 and I8–I15 for DAG2). An index register holds an address and acts as a pointer to a memory location.

## Modify Registers (Mx)

The Mx register are non-memory-mapped, universal registers (*Ureg* only). The DAGs update stored addresses using Modify registers (M0–M7 for DAG1 and M8–M15 for DAG2). A Modify register provides the increment

## Core Registers

or step size by which an Index register is pre- or post-modified during a register move.

### Length and Base Registers (Lx, Bx)

The Lx and Bx registers are non-memory-mapped, universal registers (*Ureg* only). The DAGs control circular buffering operations with Length and Base registers (L0–L7 and B0–B7 for DAG1 and L8–L15 and B8–B15 for DAG2). Length and Base registers set up the range of addresses and the starting address for a circular buffer.

### Alternate DAG Registers (Ix', Mx', Lx', Bx')

The processor includes alternate register sets for all DAG registers to facilitate fast context switching. Bits in the MODE1 register ([“Mode Control 1 Register \(MODE1\)” on page A-4](#)) control when alternate registers become accessible. While inaccessible, the contents of alternate registers are not affected by processor operations. Note that there is a one cycle latency between writing to MODE1 and being able to access an alternate register set.

### Revision ID Register (REVPID)

The REVPID register is top layer metal programmable 8-bit register. Because REVPID register bits 7-0 are the DSP ID and silicon revision, the reset value varies with the system setting and silicon revision, that is, if value in top-level metal layer changes. External devices can poll this register for the DSP’s processor ID and silicon revision numbers.

As shown in [Table A-13](#), the bit position from 0–3 signifies the Processor-id. For the ADSP-2126x, the process-id is 0001. The bit position 4–7 signifies the silicon revision-id. For the ADSP-2126x the present silicon revision -id is 0000.

Table A-13. REVPID Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
3–0	PID	Processor Identification (Read-only) PID
7–4	Silicon Revision	Silicon Revision

## Flag Value Register (FLAGS)

The `FLAGS` register is a non-memory-mapped, universal, system register (*Ureg* and *Sreg*). At reset:

- `FLG0` bit is `FLAG0` pin value
- `FLG1` bit is `FLAG1` pin value
- `FLG2` bit is `FLAG2` pin value
- `FLG3` bit is `FLAG3` pin value
- Other `FLGx` bit values are unknown
- `FLGx0` bits are zero

The `FLAGS` register indicates the state of the `FLGx` pins. When a `FLGx` pin is an output, the processor outputs a high in response to a program setting the bit in `FLAGS`. The I/O direction (input or output) selection of each bit is controlled by its `FLGx0` bit in the `FLAGS` register. The `FLAGS` register bit definitions are given in [Figure A-11](#).





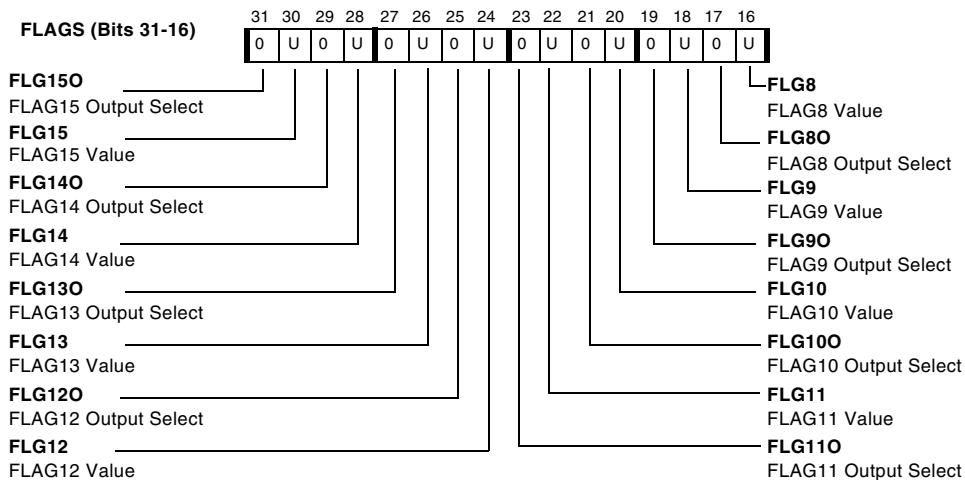
When the flag pins are changed from inputs to outputs, the value that is driven is the value that had been sampled while the pins were inputs.

There are 16 flags in ADSP-2126x. All are multiplexed with other pins. The `FLAG[0:3]` pins have four dedicated pins. The `FLAG[10:15]` pins are accessible to the Signal Routing Unit (SRU). All 16 flags are routed to the

# Core Registers

AD pins when the PPFLGS bit in the SYSCTL register (= 1). While this bit is set, the parallel port is not operational and the four dedicated FLAG[0:3] pins switch to their alternate state— $\overline{IRQ0}$ ,  $\overline{IRQ1}$ ,  $\overline{IRQ2}$ , and TMREXP.

-  When the SPIPDN bit (bit 30 in the PMCTL register) is set (= 1 which shuts down the clock to the SPI), the FLGx pins cannot be used (via the FLGS7-0 register bits) because the FLGx pins are synchronized with the clock. “Power Management Registers” on page A-65.
-  Programs cannot change the Output Selects of the FLAGS register and provide a new value in the same instruction. Instead, programs must use two write instructions—the first to change the output select of a particular FLG pin, and the second to provide the new value.



- For all FLGx bits, FLAGx values are as follows: 0=low, 1=high.
- For all FLGxO bits, FLAGx output selects are as follows: 0=FLAGx Input, 1=FLAGx Output.
- U indicates the bit value is unknown at reset.

Figure A-11. FLAGS Register (Upper Bits)

Table A-14. FLAGS Register Bit Descriptions

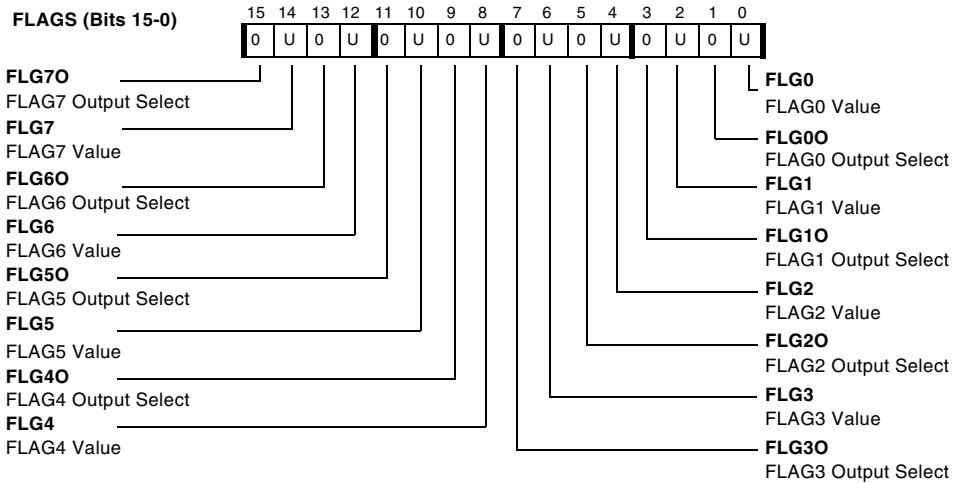
Bits	Name	Definition
0	FLG0	<b>FLAG0 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLG0 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
1	FLG0O	<b>FLAG0 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLG0 pin, the flag is programmed as an output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
2	FLG1	<b>FLAG1 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLG1 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
3	FLG1O	<b>FLAG1 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLG1 pin—an output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
4	FLG2	<b>FLAG2 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLG2 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
5	FLG2O	<b>FLAG2 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLG2 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
6	FLAG3	<b>FLAG3 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG3 pin—high (if set, = 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
7	FLG3O	<b>FLAG3 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG3 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
8	FLG4	<b>FLAG4 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG4 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
9	FLG4O	<b>FLAG4 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG4 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
10	FLG5	<b>FLAG5 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG5 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
11	FLG5O	<b>FLAG5 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG5 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
12	FLG6	<b>FLAG6 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG6 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
13	FLG6O	<b>FLAG6 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG6 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
14	FLG7	<b>FLAG7 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG7 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
15	FLG7O	<b>FLAG7 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG7 pin—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).

## Core Registers

Table A-14. FLAGS Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
16	FLG8	<b>FLAG8 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG8 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
17	FLG8O	<b>FLAG8 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG8—output if set, (= 1) or an input if cleared, (= 0).
18	FLG9	<b>FLAG9 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG9 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
19	FLG9O	<b>FLAG9 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG9—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
20	FLG10	<b>FLAG10 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG10 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
21	FLG10O	<b>FLAG10 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG10—output if set, (= 1) or an input if cleared, (= 0).
22	FLG11	<b>FLAG11 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG11 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
23	FLG11O	<b>FLAG11 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for the FLAG11—output if set, (= 1) or an input if cleared, (= 0).
24	FLG12	<b>FLAG12 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG12 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
25	FLG12O	<b>FLAG12 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG12—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
26	FLG13	<b>FLAG13 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG13 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
27	FLG13O	<b>FLAG13 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG13—output if set, (= 1) or an input if cleared, (= 0).
28	FLG14	<b>FLAG14 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG14 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
29	FLG14O	<b>FLAG14 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG14—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).
30	FLG15	<b>FLAG15 Value.</b> Indicates the state of the FLAG15 pin—high if set, (= 1) or low if cleared, (= 0).
31	FLG15O	<b>FLAG15 Output Select.</b> Selects the I/O direction for FLAG15—output if set, (= 1) or input if cleared, (= 0).





- For all FLGx bits, FLAGx values are as follows: 0=low, 1=high.
- For all FLGxO bits, FLAGx output selects are as follows: 0=FLAGx Input, 1=FLAGx Output.
- U indicates the bit value is unknown at reset.

Figure A-12. FLAGS Register (Lower Bits)

## System Control Register (SYSCTL)

The `SYSCTL` register is used to set up system configuration selections. This register's address is `0x30024`. The reset value for this register is zero. Bit descriptions for this register are shown in [Figure A-13](#) and described in [Table A-15](#). The reset value has all bits initialized to zero.

# Core Registers

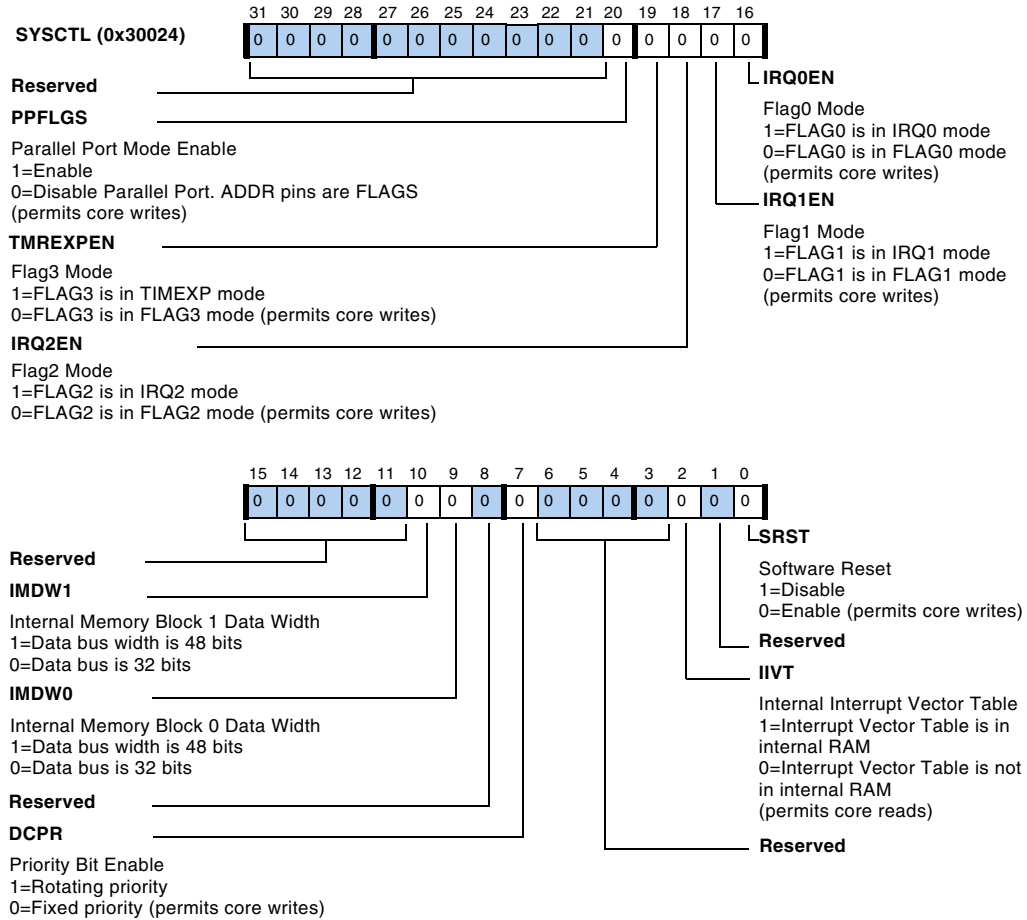


Figure A-13. SYSCTL Register

Table A-15. SYSCTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
0	SRST	<b>Software Reset.</b> Resets (when set, = 1) the processor. When a program sets (= 1) SRST, the processor responds to the non-mas-kable RSTI interrupt and clears (= 0) SRST.
1	Reserved	
2	IIVT	<b>Internal Interrupt Vector Table.</b> Forces placement of the inter-rupt vector table at address 0x0008 0000 regardless of booting mode (if 1) or allows placement of the interrupt vector table as selected by the booting mode (if 0).
6–3	Reserved	
7	DCPR	<b>DMA Channel Priority Rotation Enable.</b> Enables (rotates if set, = 1) or disables (fixed if cleared, = 0) priority rotation among DMA channels. Permits core writes.
8	Reserved	
9	IMDW0	<b>Internal Memory Data Width 0.</b> Selects the data access size for internal memory as 48-bit data if set, (= 1) or 32-bit data if cleared, (= 0). Permits core writes.
10	IMDW1	<b>Internal Memory Data Width 1.</b> Selects the data access size for internal memory as 48-bit data if set, (= 1) or 32-bit data if cleared, (= 0). Permits core writes.
15–11	Reserved	
16	IRQ0EN	<b>Flag0 Interrupt Mode.</b> 1 = Flag0 pin is allocated to interrupt request $\overline{TRQ0}$ . 0 = Flag0 pin is a general purpose I/O pin. Permits core writes.
17	IRQ1EN	<b>Flag1 Interrupt Mode.</b> 1 = Flag1 pin is allocated to interrupt request $\overline{TRQ1}$ . 0 = Flag1 pin is a general purpose I/O pin. Permits core writes.
18	IRQ2EN	<b>Flag2 Interrupt Mode.</b> 1 = Flag2 pin is allocated to interrupt request $\overline{TRQ2}$ . 0 = Flag2 pin is a general purpose I/O pin. Permits core writes.
19	TMREXPEN	<b>Flag Timer Expired Mode.</b> Read/Write 1 = Flag3 pin outputs are timer-expired signal (TIMEXP). 0 = Flag3 pin is a general purpose I/O pin. Permits core writes.

## Core Registers

Table A-15. SYSCTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
20	PPFLGS	<b>Parallel Port Select.</b> 0 = Parallel port is selected. 1 = Parallel port is not selected. ADDR and DATA pins are in FLAG mode. Permits core writes. Configuring the parallel port pins to function as FLAG0-15 also causes the FLAG[0:3] pins to change to their alternate role, $\overline{TRQ0-2}$ and TIMEXP.
31-21	Reserved	

## Emulation Registers

The following sections describe the emulation registers.

### Hardware Breakpoint Control Register (BRKCTL)

The BRKCTL register controls how breakpoints are used (if the UMODE bit is set). This user-accessible register in the BRKCTL register is located at address 0x30025.

The BRKCTL register is a 32-bit memory-mapped I/O register. The processor core can write into this register. The bits related to the breakpoint register are same as in the EMUCTL register.

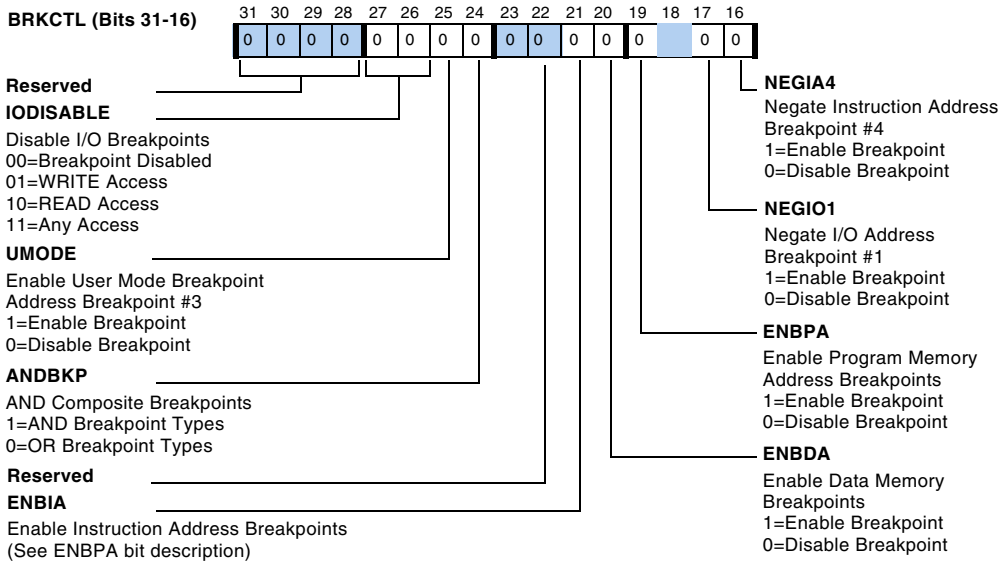


Figure A-14. BRKCTL Register (Upper Bits)

# Core Registers

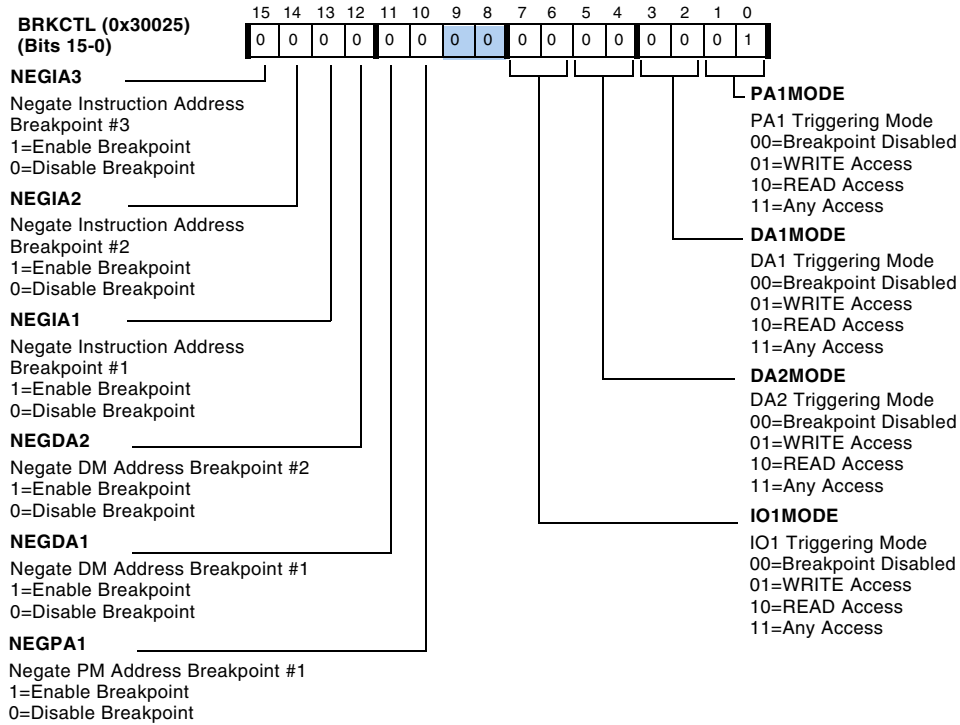


Figure A-15. BRKCTL Register (Lower Bits)

Table A-16. BRKCTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bit #	Name	Function
1-0	PA1MODE	<b>PA1 Triggering Mode</b> 00 = Breakpoint Disabled 01 = WRITE Access 10 = READ Access 11 = Any access
3-2	DA1MODE	<b>DA1 Triggering Mode</b> 00 = Breakpoint Disabled 01 = WRITE Access 10 = READ Access 11 = Any access

Table A-16. BRKCTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit #	Name	Function
5–4	DA2MODE	<b>DA2 Triggering Mode</b> 00 = Breakpoint Disabled 01 = WRITE Access 10 = READ Access 11 = Any Access
7–6	IO1MODE	<b>IO1 Triggering Mode</b> trigger on the following conditions: Mode Triggering condition 00 = Breakpoint is disabled 01 = WRITE accesses only 10 = READ accesses only 11 = Any access
9–8	Reserved	
10	NEGPA1	<b>Negate Program Memory Data Address Breakpoint</b> Enable breakpoint events if the address is greater than the end register value OR less than the start register value. This function is useful to detect index range violations in user code. 0 = Disable Breakpoint 1 = Enable Breakpoint
11	NEGDA1	<b>Negate Data Memory Address Breakpoint #1</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
12	NEGDA2	<b>Negate Data Memory Address Breakpoint #2</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
13	NEGIA1	<b>Negate Instruction Address Breakpoint #1</b> 0 = Disable Breakpoint 1 = Enable Breakpoint
14	NEGIA2	<b>Negate Instruction Address Breakpoint #2</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
15	NEGIA3	<b>Negate Instruction Address Breakpoint #3</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
16	NEGIA4	<b>Negate Instruction Address Breakpoint #4</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
17	NEGIO1	<b>Negate I/O Address Breakpoint</b> For more information, see NEGPA1 bit description.
18	Reserved	

## Core Registers

Table A-16. BRKCTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit #	Name	Function
19	ENBPA	<b>Enable Program Memory Data Address Breakpoints</b> The ENB* bits enable each breakpoint group. Note that when the ANDBKP bit is set, breakpoint types not involved in the generation of the effective breakpoint must be disabled. 0 = Disable Breakpoints 1 = Enable Breakpoints
20	ENBDA	<b>Enable Data Memory Address Breakpoints</b> For more information, see ENBPA bit description.
21	ENBIA	<b>Enable Instruction Address Breakpoints.</b> For more information, see ENBPA bit description.
23–22	Reserved	
24	ANDBKP	<b>AND composite breakpoints</b> Enables ANDing of each breakpoint type to generate an effective breakpoint from the composite breakpoint signals. 0 = OR Breakpoint Types 1 = AND Breakpoint Types
25	UMODE	<b>User Mode Breakpoint Functionality Enable</b> Address Breakpoint 3 0 = Disable Breakpoint 1 = Enable Breakpoint
27–26	IODISABLE	<b>Enable I/O Breakpoints</b> 00 = Breakpoint Disabled 01 = WRITE Access 10 = READ Access 11 = Any Access
31–28	Reserved	

## Emulation Control (EMUCTL) Register

The EMUCTL Serial Shift register is located in the system unit. The EMUCTL register is 40 bits wide and is accessed by the emulator through the TAP. The EMUCTL register controls all of the ADSP-2126x emulation functionality. [Table A-17](#) lists the EMUCTL register's bits and describes their function.



Table A-17. Emulation Control Register (EMUCTL) Definitions

Bit #	Name	Function
0	EMUENA	<b>Emulator Function Enable.</b> Enables processor emulation functions. (0 = ignore breakpoints and emulator interrupts, 1=respond to breakpoints and emulator interrupts)
1	EIRQENA	<b>Emulator Interrupt Enable.</b> Enables the emulation logic to recognize external emulator interrupts. (0 = disable, 1 = enable)
2	BKSTOP	<b>Enable Autostop on Breakpoint.</b> Enables the ADSP-2126x DSP to generate an external emulator interrupt when any breakpoint event occurs. (0=disable, 1=enable)
3	SS	<b>Enable Single Step Mode.</b> Enables single-step operation. (0=disable, 1=enable)
4	SYSRST	<b>Software Reset of the ADSP-2126x.</b> Resets the ADSP-2126x DSP in the same manner as the external $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ pin. The SYSRST bit must be cleared by the emulator.(0=normal operation, 1=reset)
5	ENBRKOUT	<b>Enable the BRKOUT pin.</b> Enables the $\overline{\text{BRKOUT}}$ pin operation. (0 = $\overline{\text{BRKOUT}}$ pin at high impedance state, 1 = $\overline{\text{BRKOUT}}$ pin enabled)
6	IOSTOP	<b>Stop IOP DMAs in EMU Space.</b> Disables all DMA requests when the DSP is in emulation space. Data that is currently in the SPI or SPORT DMA buffers is held there unless the internal DMA request was already granted. IOSTOP causes incoming data to be held off and outgoing data to cease. Because SPORT receive data cannot be held off, it is lost and the overrun bit is set. (0 = I/O continues, 1 = I/O Stops)
7	Reserved	
8	NEGPA1	<b>Negate program memory data address breakpoint.</b> Enable breakpoint events if the address is greater than the end register value OR less than the start register value. This function is useful to detect index range violations in user code. (0 = disable breakpoint, 1 = enable breakpoint) Instruction address and program memory breakpoint negates have an effect latency of four (4) core clock cycles.

## Core Registers

Table A-17. Emulation Control Register (EMUCTL) Definitions (Cont'd)

Bit #	Name	Function
9	NEGDA1	Negate data memory address breakpoint #1 see NEGPA1 bit description.
10	NEGDA2	Negate data memory address breakpoint #2 see NEGPA1 bit description.
11	NEGIA1	Negate instruction address breakpoint #1 see NEGPA1 bit description.
12	NEGIA2	Negate instruction address breakpoint #2. see NEGPA1 bit description.
13	NEGIA3	Negate instruction address breakpoint #3 see NEGPA1 bit description.
14	NEGIA4	Negate instruction address breakpoint #4 see NEGPA1 bit description.
15	NEGIO1	Negate I/O address breakpoint see NEGPA1 bit description.
16	NEGEP1	Negate EP address breakpoint see NEGPA1 bit description.
17	ENBPA	Enable program memory data address breakpoints. Enable each breakpoint group. Note that when the ANDBKP bit is set, breakpoint types not involved in the generation of the effective breakpoint must be disabled. (0 = disable breakpoints, 1 = enable breakpoints)
18	ENBDA	Enable data memory address breakpoints see ENBPA bit description.
19	ENBIA	Enable instruction address breakpoints see ENBPA bit description.
20–21	Reserved	

Table A-17. Emulation Control Register (EMUCTL) Definitions (Cont'd)

Bit #	Name	Function
22-23	PA1MODE	<b>PA1 breakpoint triggering mode</b> trigger on the following conditions: 00 = Breakpoint is disabled 01 = WRITE accesses only 10 = READ accesses only 11 = any access
24-25	DA1MODE	<b>DA1 breakpoint triggering mode</b> see PA1MODE bit description.
26-27	DA2MODE	<b>DA2 breakpoint triggering mode</b> see PA1MODE bit description.
28-29	IO1MODE	<b>IO1 breakpoint triggering mode</b> see PA1MODE bit description.
30-31	Reserved	
32	ANDBKP	<b>AND composite breakpoints.</b> Enables ANDing of each breakpoint type to generate an effective breakpoint from the composite breakpoint signals. (0=OR breakpoint types, 1=AND breakpoint types)
33	Reserved	
34	NOBOOT	<b>No power-up boot on reset.</b> Forces the DSP into the No boot mode. In this mode, the processor does not boot load, but begins fetching instructions from 0x0008 0004 in internal memory. (0 = disable, 1 = force No boot mode)
35	Reserved	
36	BHO	<b>Buffer Hang Override bit.</b> The BHO control bit overrides the BHD bit in SYSCON, disabling BHD's control over core access of data buffer behavior. Note that the default (reset) state of BHD is now set for the DSP, a change from ADSP-2106x. (0 = normal BHD operation, 1 = override BHD operation)
37-39	Reserved	

## Core Registers

### Breakpoint (PSx, DMx, IOx) Registers

The PSx, DMx, IOx (Breakpoint) registers are located in the I/O processor register set. The emulation breakpoint registers are user-accessible if the `UMODE` bit is set in the `BRKCTL` register. Otherwise they can be written only when the DSP is in emulation space or test mode. The Breakpoint registers vary in size according to the address type: instruction (24-bit address), data (32-bit address), or I/O data (19-bit address).

The ADSP-2126x contains nine sets of emulation Breakpoint registers. Each set consists of a start and end register which describe an address range, with the start register setting the lower end of the address range. Each breakpoint set monitors a particular address bus. When a valid address is in the address range, then a breakpoint signal is generated. The address range includes the start and end addresses.

The eight breakpoint sets are grouped into four types—instruction (IA), DM data (DA), PM data (PA), and I/O data (I/O). The individual breakpoint signals in each type are ORed together to create five composite breakpoint signals.

These composite signals can be optionally ANDed or ORed together to create the effective breakpoint event signal used to generate an emulator interrupt. The `ANDBKP` bit in the `EMUCTL` register selects the function used.

Each breakpoint type has an enable bit in the `EMUCTL` register. When set, these bits add the specified breakpoint type into the generation of the effective breakpoint signal. If cleared, the specified breakpoint type is not used in the generation of the effective breakpoint signal. This allows the user to trigger the effective breakpoint from a subset of the breakpoint types.

To provide further flexibility, each individual breakpoint can be programmed to trigger if the address is in range AND one of these conditions is met: READ access, WRITE access, ANY access, or NO access. The control bits for this feature are also located in `EMUCTL` register. For more information, see the `PAIMODES` bit description.

The address ranges of the emulation Breakpoint registers are negated by setting the appropriate negation bits in the `EMUCTL` register. For more information, see the `NEGPA1` bit description. Each breakpoint can be disabled by setting the start address larger than the end address.

Four of the breakpoints monitor the instruction address. Two monitor the data memory address. One monitors the program memory data address, and one monitors the I/O address bus.

The instruction address breakpoints monitor the address of the instruction being executed, not the address of the instruction being fetched. If the current execution is aborted, the breakpoint signal does not occur even if the address is in range. Data address breakpoints (DA and PA only) are also ignored during aborted instructions. The nine breakpoint sets appear in [Table A-18](#).

Table A-18. PS<sub>x</sub>, DM<sub>x</sub>, IO<sub>x</sub>, and EP<sub>x</sub> (Breakpoint) Registers

Register	Function	Group <sup>1</sup>
PSA1S	Instruction Address Start #1	IA
PSA1E	Instruction Address End #1	IA
PSA2S	Instruction Address Start #2	IA
PSA2E	Instruction Address End #2	IA
PSA3S	Instruction Address Start #3	IA
PSA3E	Instruction Address End #3	IA
PSA4S	Instruction Address Start #4	IA
PSA4E	Instruction Address End #4	IA
DMA1S	Data Address Start #1	DA
DMA1E	Data Address End #1	DA
DMA2S	Data Address Start #2	DA
DMA2E	Data Address End #2	DA

## Core Registers

Table A-18. PSx, DMx, IOx, and EPx (Breakpoint) Registers (Cont'd)

Register	Function	Group <sup>1</sup>
PMDAS	Program Data Address Start	PA
PMDAE	Program Data Address End	PA
IOAS	I/O Address Start	I/O
IOAE	I/O Address End	I/O

<sup>1</sup> Group IA = 24-bit addresses, Groups DA and PA = 32-bit addresses,  
Group I/O = 19-bit addresses.

Table A-19. EEMUSTAT (Breakpoint Status) Register Definitions

Bits	Name	Function
0	STATPA	<b>Program memory Data Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Program memory breakpoint occurs 0 = No program memory breakpoint occurs
1	STATDA0	<b>Data Memory Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Data memory #0 breakpoint occurs 0 = No data memory #0 breakpoint occurs
2	STATDA1	<b>Data Memory Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Data memory #1 breakpoint occurs 0 = No Data memory #1 breakpoint occurs
3	STATIA0	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Instruction address #0 breakpoint occurs 0 = no Instruction address #0 breakpoint occurs
4	STATIA1	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Instruction address #1 breakpoint occurs 0 = no Instruction address #1 breakpoint occurs
5	STATIA2	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit<sup>1</sup></b> 1 = Instruction address #2 breakpoint occurs 0 = no Instruction address #2 breakpoint occurs

Table A-19. EEMUSTAT (Breakpoint Status) Register Definitions

Bits	Name	Function
6	STATIA3	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit</b> <sup>1</sup> 1 = Instruction address #3 breakpoint occurs 0 = no Instruction address #3 breakpoint occurs
7	STATIO	<b>I/O Address Breakpoint Hit</b> 1 = I/O address breakpoint occurs 0 = no I/O address breakpoint occurs
8	Reserved1	
9	EEMU- OUTIRQEN	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT Interrupt Enable</b> <sup>2</sup> 1 = EEMUOUT interrupt enable 0 = EEMUOUT interrupt disable Note: Interrupts are of low priority interrupts
10	EEMUOUTRDY	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT Ready</b> <sup>3</sup> 1 = EEMUOUT FIFO contains valid data 0 = EEMUOUT FIFO is empty
11	EEMUOUTFULL	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT FIFO Status</b> <sup>3</sup> 1 = EEMUOUT FIFO FULL 0 = EEMUOUT FIFO is not FULL
12	EEMUINFULL	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUIN Register Status</b> <sup>4</sup> 1 = EEMUIN register full 0 = EEMUIN register is empty
13	EEMUENS	<b>Enhanced Emulation Feature Enable</b> <sup>4</sup> 1 = Enhanced emulation feature enable 0 = Enhanced emulation feature disable
14	OSPIDENS	<b>OSPID Register Enable</b> <sup>4</sup> 1 = OSPID register enable 0 = OSPID register disable
15	EEMUINENS	<b>EEMUIN Interrupt Enable.</b> 1 = EEMUIN interrupt enable 0 = EEMUIN interrupt disable
31:16	Reserved for future use.	

1 Internal hardware sets this bit.

## Core Registers

- 2 This bit is set and reset by the core.
- 3 The FIFO controller sets and resets this bit.
- 4 Internal hardware sets and resets this bit.

### EEMUIN Register

The EEMUIN register is a one-deep, 32-bit memory-mapped I/O buffer that is readable by the core. This buffer is used by the background telemetry channel to allow the emulator to pass data to the DSP without interrupting the core. When this buffer is full, a low priority emulator interrupt is generated. This register's address is 0x30020.

### Enhanced Emulation Status Register (EEMUSTAT)

The EEMUSTAT register reports the breakpoint status of the programs that run on the SHARC processors. This register is a memory-mapped IOP register that can be accessed by the core. The bit settings for these registers are shown in [Figure A-16](#).



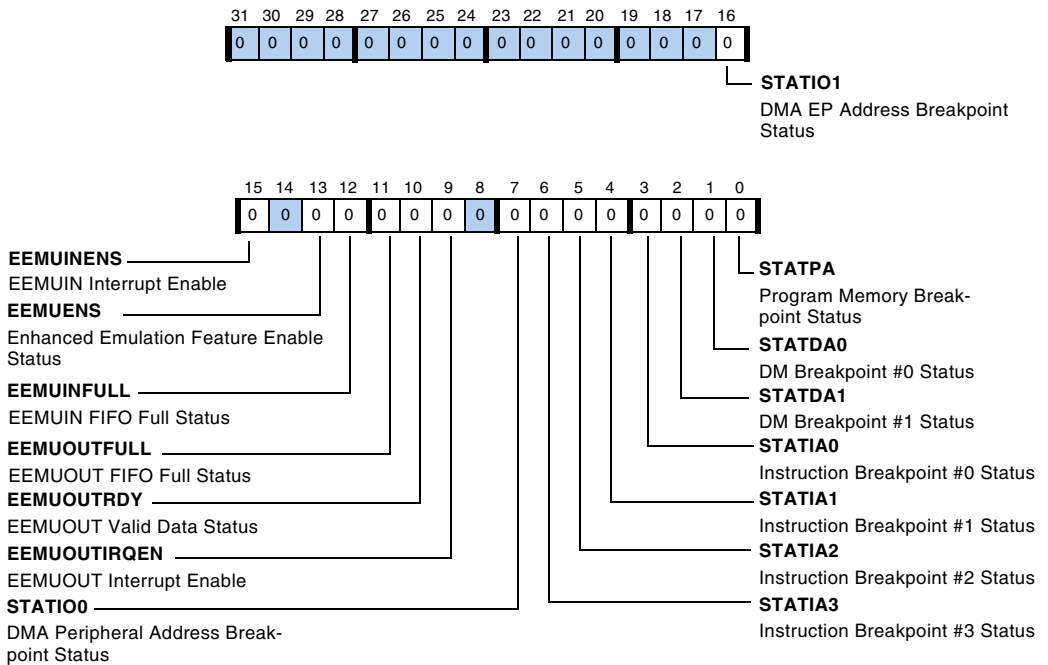


Figure A-16. EEMUSTAT Register

Table A-20. EEMUSTAT Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description
0	STATPA	<b>Program Memory Data Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No program memory breakpoint occurs 1 = Program memory breakpoint occurs
1	STATDA0	<b>Data Memory Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No data memory #0 breakpoint occurs 1 = Data memory #0 breakpoint occurs
2	STATDA1	<b>Data Memory Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No data memory #1 breakpoint occurs 1 = Data memory #1 breakpoint occurs

## Core Registers

Table A-20. EEMUSTAT Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
3	STATIA0	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No instruction address #0 breakpoint occurs 1 = Instruction address #0 breakpoint occurs
4	STATIA1	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No instruction address #1 breakpoint occurs 1 = Instruction address #1 breakpoint occurs
5	STATIA2	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No instruction address #2 breakpoint occurs 1 = Instruction address #2 breakpoint occurs
6	STATIA3	<b>Instruction Address Breakpoint Hit.</b> <sup>1</sup> 0 = No instruction address #3 breakpoint occurs 1 = Instruction address #3 breakpoint occurs
7	STATIO0	<b>DMA Peripheral Address Breakpoint Status.</b> <sup>1</sup> Set bit if breakpoint hit detected on the IOD/IOD0 bus 0 = No DMA peripheral address breakpoint occurs 1 = DMA peripheral address breakpoint occurs
8	Reserved	
9	EEMUOUTIRQEN	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT Interrupt Enable.</b> <sup>2</sup> 0 = EEMUOUT interrupt disable 1 = EEMUOUT interrupt enable Note: Interrupts are of the low priority variety
10	EEMUOUTRDY	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT Ready.</b> <sup>3</sup> 1 = EEMUOUT FIFO contains valid data 0 = EEMUOUT FIFO is empty
11	EEMUOUTFULL	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUOUT FIFO Status.</b> <sup>3</sup> 0 = EEMUOUT FIFO is not full 1 = EEMUOUT FIFO full
12	EEMUINFULL	<b>Enhanced Emulation EEMUIN Register Status.</b> <sup>4</sup> 0 = EEMUIN register is empty 1 = EEMUIN register full

Table A-20. EEMUSTAT Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Description
13	EEMUENS	<b>Enhanced Emulation Feature Enable.</b> <sup>4</sup> 0 = Enhanced emulation feature enable 1 = Enhanced emulation feature disable
14	Reserved	
15	EEMUINENS	<b>EEMUIN Interrupt Enable.</b> <sup>4</sup> 0 = EEMUIN interrupt disable 1 = EEMUIN interrupt enable
16	STATIO1	<b>DMA EP Address Breakpoint Status.</b> Set bit if breakpoint hit detected on the IOD1 bus (between EP and internal memory) 0 = No EP DMA breakpoint occurs 1 = EP DMA Breakpoint occurs (reserved for ADSP-21362/3/4/5/6 processors)
31–17	Reserved	

- 1 Internal hardware sets this bit.
- 2 This bit is set and reset by the core.
- 3 The FIFO controller sets and resets this bit.
- 4 Internal hardware sets and resets this bit.

## EEMUOUT Register

The EEMUOUT register is a four-deep memory, 32-bit memory-mapped I/O buffer that is writable by the core. Its address is 0x30022.

## Emulation Clock Counter Registers


The EMUCLK (clock counter) and EMUCLK2 (clock counter scaling) registers are located in the Universal (*Ureg*) register set. EMUCLK and EMUCLK2 registers are user accessible and can be written only when the DSP is in emulation space. These registers are read-only from normal-space and can be written only when the ADSP-2126x is in emulation space. The Emulation Clock Counter consists of a 32-bit Count register (EMUCLK) and a 32-bit scaling register (EMUCLK2). The EMUCLK register counts clock cycles

## I/O Processor Registers

while the user has control of the DSP and stops counting when the emulator gains control. These registers let you gauge the amount of time spent executing a particular section of code. The `EMUCLK2` register extends the time `EMUCLK` can count by incrementing each time the `EMUCLK` value rolls over to zero. The combined emulation clock counter can count accurately for thousands of hours.

## I/O Processor Registers

The I/O Processor (IOP) registers are accessible as part of the processor's memory map. [Table A-21 on page A-63](#) lists the IOP memory-mapped registers and provides a cross-reference to a description of each register. These registers occupy addresses `0x0000 0000` through `0x0003 FFFF` of the memory map. The IOP memory-mapped space is sub divided into peripheral and core memory mapped registers. The IOP registers control the following operations: Parallel port, Serial port, Serial Peripheral Interface port (SPI), and Input Data port (IDP).

 IOP registers have a one cycle effect latency (changes take effect on the second cycle after the change).

Since the IOP registers are part of the processor's memory map, buses access these registers as locations in memory. While these registers act as memory-mapped locations, they are separate from the processor's internal memory and have different bus access. One bus can access one IOP register group at a time. [Table A-21 on page A-63](#) lists the IOP register groups.

When there is contention among the buses for access to registers, the processor arbitrates register access as:

- Data Memory (DM) bus accesses
- Program Memory (PM) bus accesses
- IOP (IO) bus (lowest priority) accesses

The bus with highest priority gets access to the IOP register, and the other buses are held off from accessing that I/O processor register group until that access been completed.

Table A-21. I/O Processor Registers

Register Group	IOP Registers
Core I/O Registers	SYCTL, REVPID, EEMUIN, EEMUSTAT, EEMUOUT, OSPID, BRKCTL, PSA1S, PSA1E, PSA2S, PSA2E, PSA3S, PSA3E, PSA4S, PSA4E, DMA1S, DMA1E, DMA2S, DMA2E, PMDAS, PMDAE, EMUN, IOAS, IOAE
Parallel Port (PP) Registers	PPCTL, RXPP, TXPP, EIPP, EMPP, ECPP, IIPP, IMPP, ICPP
Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI) Registers	RXSPI, SPIFLG, TXSPI, SPICTL, SPISTAT, SPIBAUD, SPIDMAC, IISPI, IMSPI, RXSPI_SHADOW, CPSPI, CSPI
Timer Registers	TM0STAT, TM0CTL, TM0CNT, TM0PRD, TM0W, TM1STAT, TM1CTL, TM1CNT, TM1PRD, TM1W, TM2STAT, TM2CTL, TM2CNT, TM2PRD, TM2W
Power Management Registers	PMCTL

# I/O Processor Registers

Table A-21. I/O Processor Registers (Cont'd)

Register Group	IOP Registers
Serial Port (SP) Registers	IISP0A, IISP0B, IMSP0A, IMSP0B, CSP0A, CSP0B, CPSP0A, CPSP0B, IISP1A, IISP1B, IMSP1A, IMSP1B, CSP1A, CSP1B, CPSP1A, CPSP1B, IISP2A, IISP2B, IMSP2A, IMSP2B, CSP2A, CSP2B, CPSP2A, CPSP2B, IISP3A, IISP3B, IMSP3A, IMSP3B, CSP3A, CSP3B, CPSP3A, CPSP3B, IISP4A, IISP4B, IMSP4A, IMSP4B, CSP4A, CSP4B, CPSP4A, CPSP4B, IISP5A, IISP5B, IMSP5A, IMSP5B, CSP5A, CSP5B, CPSP5A, CPSP5B RXSP0A, RXSP0B, TXSP0A, TXSP0B, SPCTL0, DIV0, MT0CS0, MT0CCS0, MT0CS1, MT0CCS1, MT0CS2, MT0CCS2, MT0CS3, MT0CCS3 RXSP1A, RXSP1B, TXSP1A, TXSP1B, SPCTL1, DIV1, MR1CS0, MR1CCS0, MR1CS1, MR1CCS1, MR1CS2, MR1CCS2, MR1CS3, MR1CCS3 RXSP2A, RXSP2B, TXSP2A, TXSP2B, SPCTL2, DIV2, MT2CS0, MT2CCS0, MT2CS1, MT2CCS1, MT2CS2, MT2CCS2, MT2CS3, MT2CCS3 RXSP3A, RXSP3B, TXSP3A, TXSP3B, SPCTL3, DIV3, MR3CS0, MR3CCS0, MR3CS1, MR3CCS1, MR3CS2, M3CCS2, MR3CCS2, MR3CS3, MR3CCS3 RXSP4A, RXSP4B, TXSP4A, TXSP4B, SPCTL4, DIV4, MT4CS0, MT4CCS0, MT4CS1, MT4CCS1, MT4CS2, MT4CCS2, MT4CS3, MT4CCS3 RXSP5A, RXSP5B, TXSP5A, TXSP5B, SPCTL5, DIV5, MR5CS0, MR5CCS0, MR5CS1, MR5CCS1, MR5CS2, MR5CCS2, MR5CS3, MR5CCS3 SPMCTL01, SPMCTL23, SPMCTL45

Table A-21. I/O Processor Registers (Cont'd)

Register Group	IOP Registers
DAI Registers	SRU_CLK0, SRU_CLK1, SRU_CLK2, SRU_CLK3 SRU_DAT0, SRU_DAT1, SRU_DAT2, SRU_DAT3, SRU_DAT4 SRU_FS0, SRU_FS1, SRU_FS2 SRU_PIN0, SRU_PIN1, SRU_PIN2, SRU_PIN3 SRU_EXT_MISCA, SRU_EXT_MISCB SRU_PBEN0, SRU_PBEN1, SRU_PBEN2, SRU_PBEN3 PCG_CTLA_0, PCG_CTLA_1, PCG_CTLB_0, PCG_CTLB_1, PCG_PW IDP_CTL, DAI_STAT, IDP_FIFO, IDP_DMA_I0, IDP_DMA_I1, IDP_DMA_I2, IDP_DMA_I3, IDP_DMA_I4, IDP_DMA_I5, IDP_D- MA_I6, IDP_DMA_I7, IDP_DMA_M0, IDP_DMA_M1, IDP_D- MA_M2, IDP_DMA_M3, IDP_DMA_M4, IDP_DMA_M5, IDP_DMA_M6, IDP_DMA_M7, IDP_DMA_C0, IDP_DMA_C1, IDP_DMA_C2, IDP_DMA_C3, IDP_DMA_C4, IDP_DMA_C5, IDP_D- MA_C6, IDP_DMA_C7, IDP_PP_CTL DAI_PIN_PULLUP, DAI_PIN_STAT, DAI_IRPTL_H, DAI_IRPTL_L, DAI_IRPTL_PRI, DAI_IRPTL_RE, DAI_IRPTL_FE

Since the I/O processor registers are memory-mapped, the processor's architecture does not allow programs to directly transfer data between these registers and other memory locations, except as part of a DMA operation. To read or write IOP registers, programs must use the processor core registers.

The register names for IOP registers are not part of the processor's assembly syntax. To ease access to these registers, programs should use the header file containing the registers' symbolic names and addresses as described [on page A-62](#).

## Power Management Registers

The following sections describe the registers associated with the DSP's power management functions.

## Power Management Control Register (PMCTL)

The Power Management Control register is a 32-bit memory-mapped register. The PMCTL register's address is 0x2000. This register contains bits to control phase lock loop (PLL) multiplier and Divider (both input and output) values, PLL bypass mode, and clock enabling control for peripherals (see Table A-22). This register also contains status bits, which keep track of the status of the CLK\_CFG pins (read-only).

The core can write to all bits except the read-only status bits. The DIVEN bit is a logical bit, that is, it can be set, but on reads it always responds with zero.

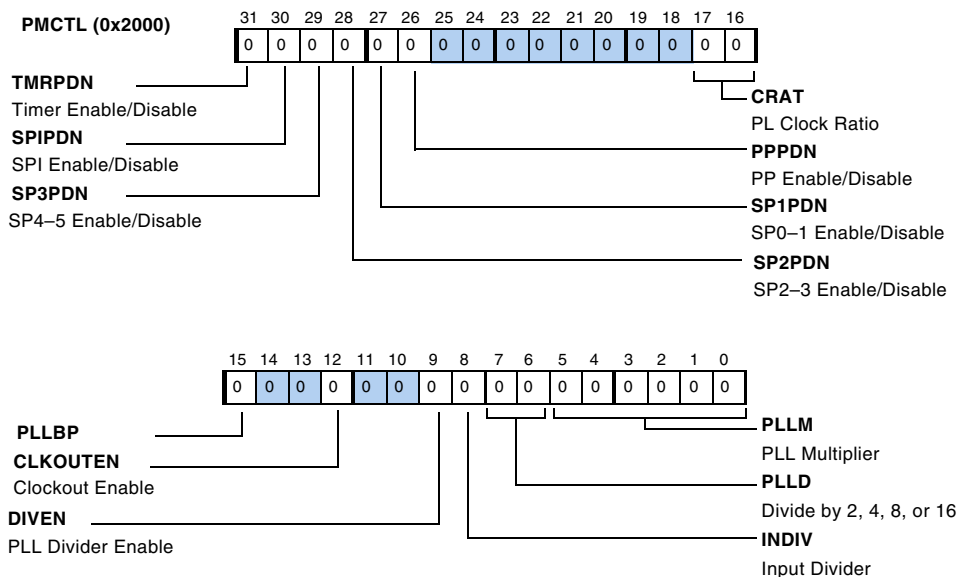


Figure A-17. PMCTL Register



Table A-22. PMCTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
5–0	PLLM	<b>PLL Multiplier.</b> Read/Write PLLM = 0 PLL Multiplier = 64 0 < PLLM < 63 PLL Multiplier = PLLM CLK_CFG[1:0] Reset Value 00 = 0000110 01 = 100000 10 = 010000 11 = 000110
7:6	PLLDx	<b>PLL Divider.</b> Read/Write 00 = CK divider = 2 01 = CK divider = 4 10 = CK divider = 8 11 = CK divider = 16 CLK_CFG[1:0] Reset Value x x 00
8	INDIV	<b>Input Divisor.</b> Read/Write 0 = divide by 1 1 = divide by 2 Reset Value = 0
9	DIVEN	<b>Enable PLL Divider Value Loading.</b> Read/Write 0 = Do not load PLLDx 1 = Load PLLDx Reset Value = 0
11–10	Reserved	
12	CLKOUTEN	<b>Clockout Enable.</b> Read/Write (Use for debug only) Mux select for CLKOUT and RESETOUT 0 Mux output = RESETOUT 1 Mux output = CLKOUT Reset Value = 0
14–13	Reserved	
15	PLLBP	<b>PLL Bypass Mode Indication.</b> Read/Write 0 = PLL is in normal mode 1 = Put PLL in bypass mode Reset Value = 0

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-22. PMCTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
17:16	CRAT	<b>PLL clock ratio (CLKIN to CK).</b> Read only. For more detail look for refer to the ADSP-2126x clock configuration pin description. Reset Value = CLK_CFG[1:0]
25–18	Reserved	
26	PPPDN	<b>PP Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = PP is in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to PP Reset Value = 0
27	SP1PDN	<b>SP1 Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = SP0–1 are in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to SP0–1 Reset Value = 0
28	SP2PDN	<b>SP2 Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = SP2–3 are in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to SP2–3 Reset Value = 0
29	SP3PDN	<b>SP3 Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = SP4–5 are in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to SP4–5 Reset Value = 0
30	SPIPDN	<b>SPI Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = SPI is in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to SPI NOTE: When this bit is set (= 1), the FLAGx pins cannot be used (via the FLAG7–0 register bits) because the FLAGx pins are synchronized with the clock. Reset Value = 0
31	TMRPDN	<b>Timer Enable/Disable.</b> Read/Write 0 = Timer is in normal mode 1 = Shutdown clock to Timer Reset Value = 0

## Serial Port Registers

The following section describes Serial Port (SPORT) registers.

### SPORT Serial Control Registers (SPCTLx)

The SPORT Serial Control registers' addresses are:

SPCTL0 – 0xc00	SPCTL1 – 0xc01
SPCTL2 – 0x400	SPCTL3 – 0x401
SPCTL4 – 0x800	SPCTL5 – 0x801

The reset value for these registers is 0x0000 0000. The SPCTLx registers are Transmit and Receive Control registers for the corresponding serial ports (SPORT 0 through 5).

- [Figure A-18](#) and [Figure A-19](#) provide bit definitions for the SPCTLx register in Standard DSP Serial mode.
- [Figure A-20](#) and [Figure A-21](#) provide bit definitions in Left-justified Sample Pair and I<sup>2</sup>S mode.
- [Figure A-22](#) and [Figure A-23](#) provide bit definitions for SPORTS 1, 3, and 5 (receive) in Multichannel mode.
- [Figure A-24](#) and [Figure A-25](#) provide bit definitions for SPORTS 0, 2, and 4 (transmit) in Multichannel mode.

# I/O Processor Registers

**SPCTL0 (0xc00)**  
**SPCTL1 (0xc01)**  
**SPCTL2 (0x400)**  
**SPCTL3 (0x401)**  
**SPCTL4 (0x800)**  
**SPCTL5 (0x800)**  
 (Bits 31-16)

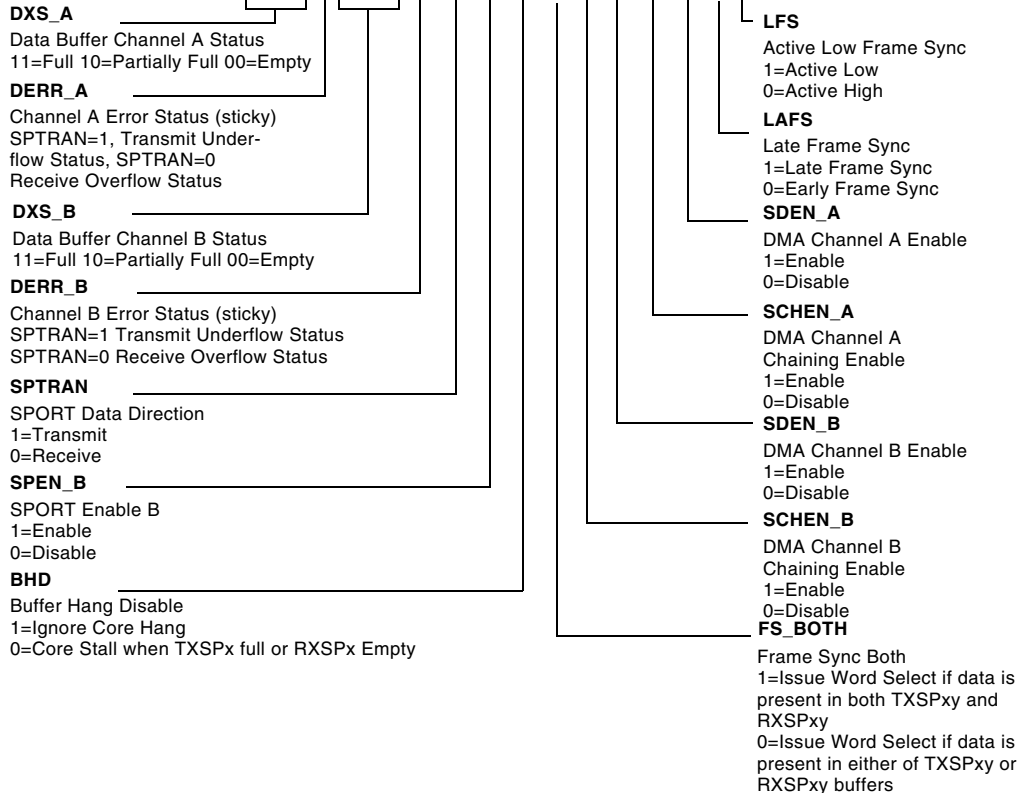
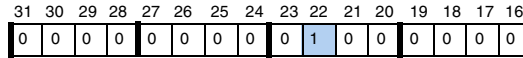


Figure A-18. SPCTLx Control Bits for Standard DSP Serial Mode (Upper)

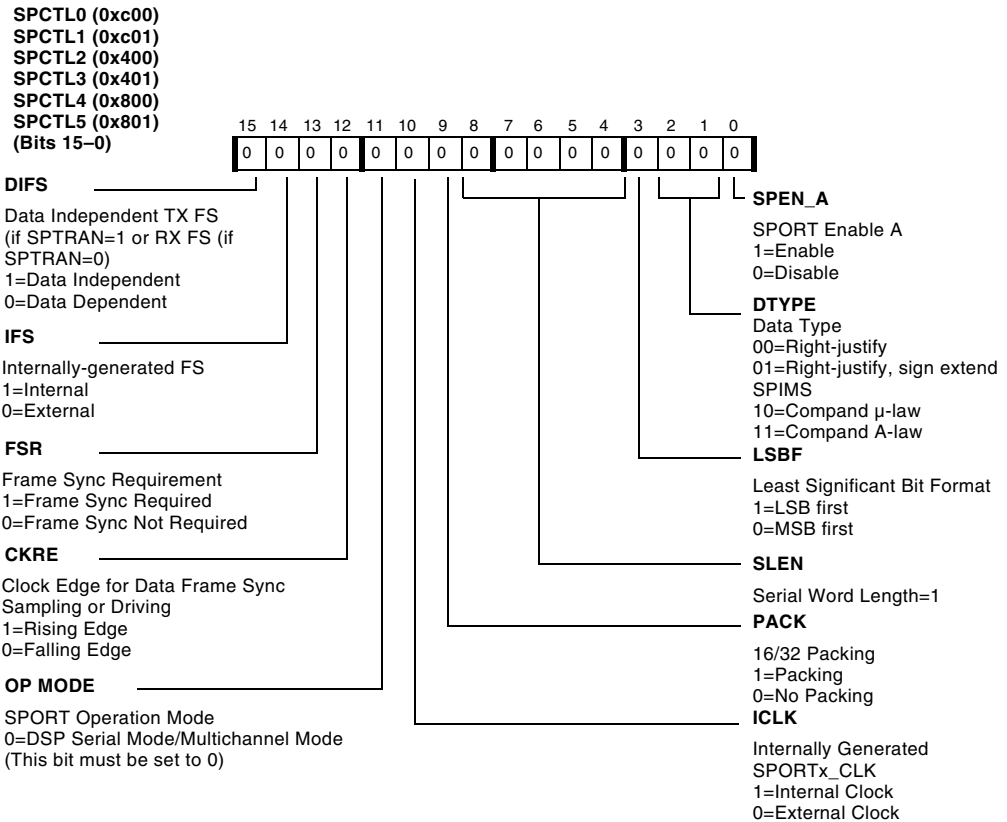


Figure A-19. SPCTLx Control Bits for Standard DSP Serial Mode (Lower)

# I/O Processor Registers

**SPCTL0 (0xc00)**  
**SPCTL1 (0xc01)**  
**SPCTL2 (0x400)**  
**SPCTL3 (0x401)**  
**SPCTL4 (0x800)**  
**SPCTL5 (0x801)**

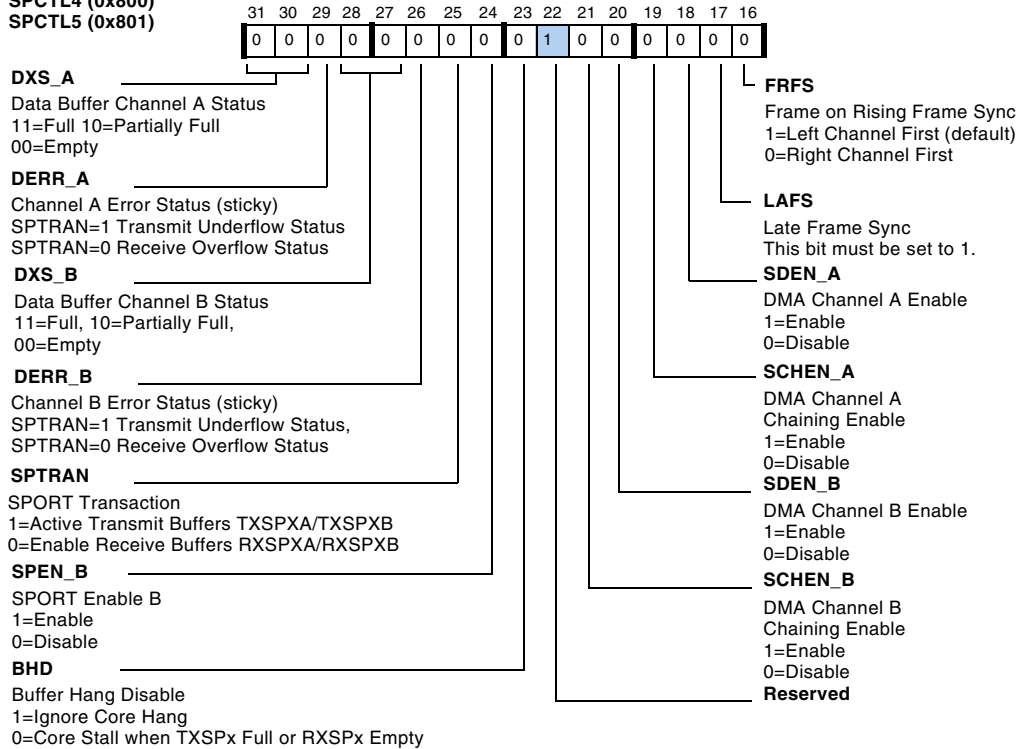


Figure A-20. SPCTLx Control Bits – for I<sup>2</sup>S and Related Modes (Upper)

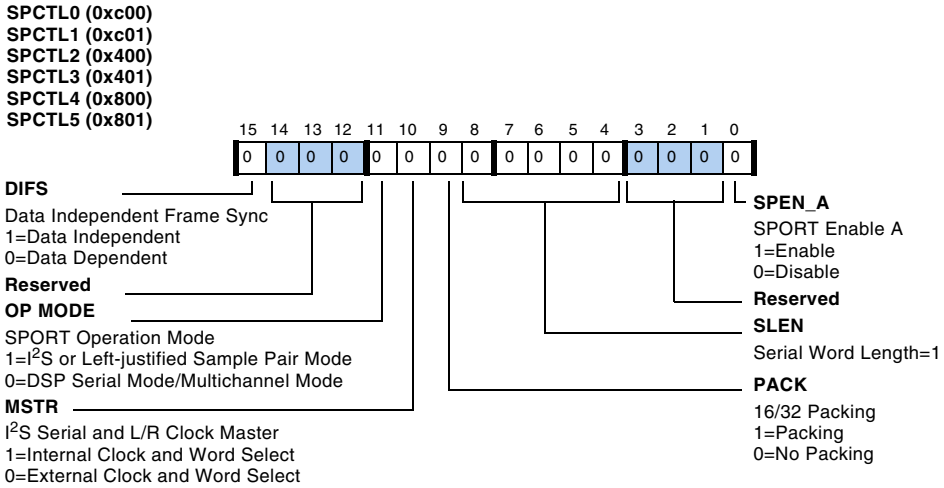


Figure A-21. SPCTLx Control Bits – for I<sup>2</sup>S and Related Modes (Lower)

# I/O Processor Registers

SPCTL1 (0xc01)

SPCTL3 (0x401)

SPCTL5 (0x801)

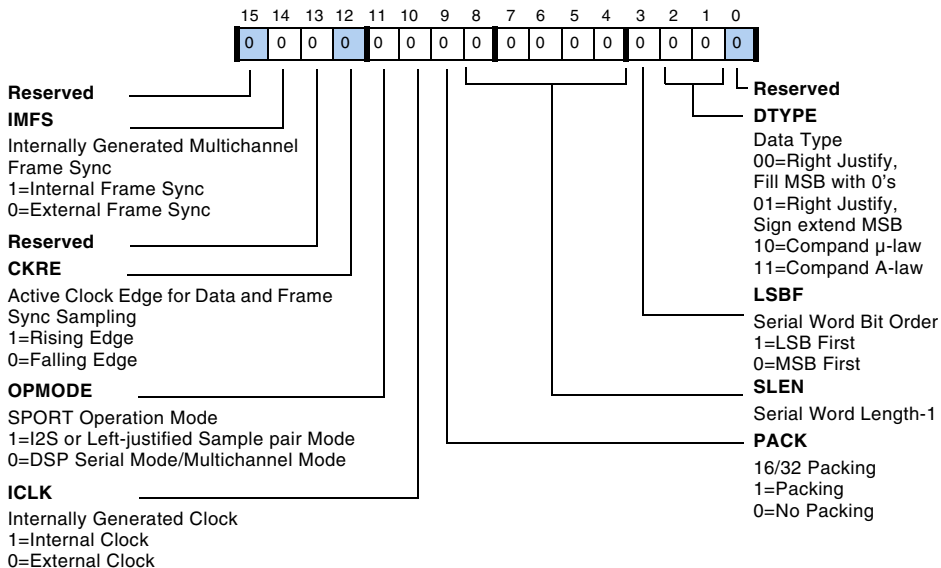
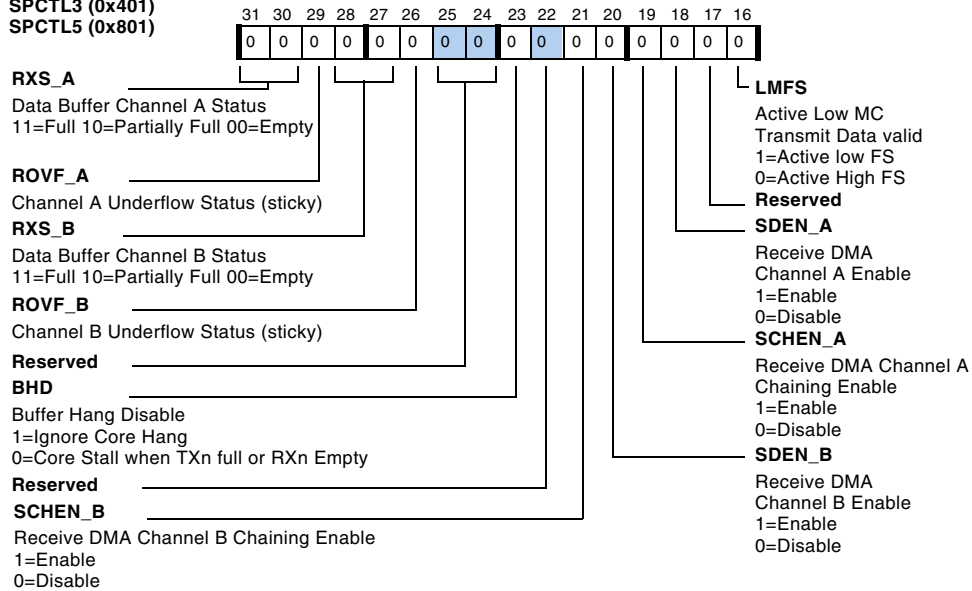


Figure A-22. SPCTLx Receive Control Bits – Multichannel Mode



**SPCTL0 (0xc00)**

**SPCTL2 (0x400)**

**SPCTL4 (0x800)**

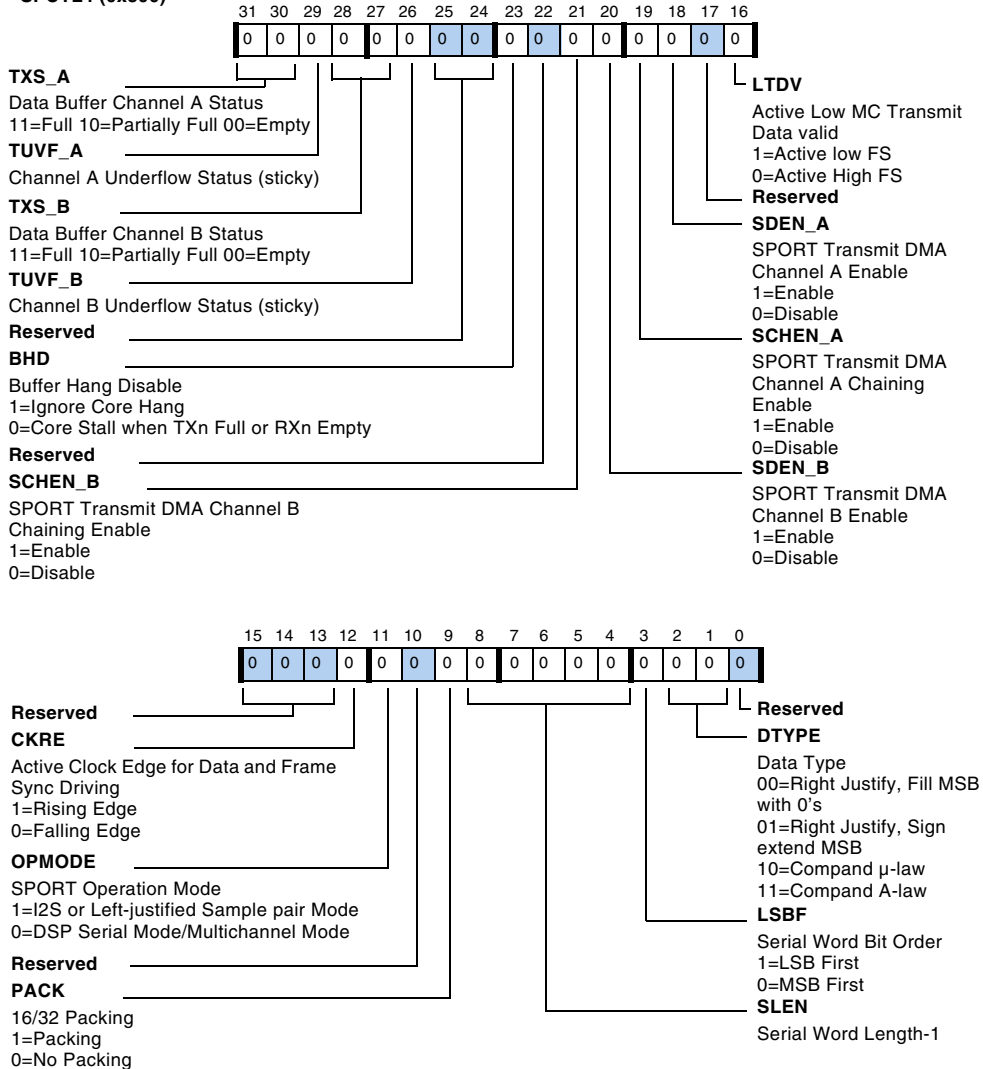


Figure A-23. SPCTLx Transmit Control Bits – Multichannel Mode

## I/O Processor Registers

When changing SPORT operating modes, programs should clear a serial port's control register before writing new settings to the control register.

Table A-23. SPCTLx Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
0	SPEN_A	<b>Enable Channel A Serial Port.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the corresponding serial port A channel. This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
2–1	DTYPE	<b>Data Type Select.</b> Selects the data type formatting for normal and multichannel transmissions as follows: <b>NormalMultiData Type Formatting</b> 00x0 Right-justify, zero-fill unused MSBs 01x1 Right-justify, sign-extend unused MSBs 100x Compand using $\mu$ -law 111x Compand using A-law
3	LSBF	<b>Serial Word Endian Select.</b> Selects little-endian words (LSB first, if set, = 1) or big-endian words (MSB first, if cleared, = 0). This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in I <sup>2</sup> S or Left-Justified Sample Pair mode.
8–4	SLEN	<b>Serial Word Length Select.</b> Selects the word length in bits. For DSP serial and multichannel modes, word sizes can be from 3 bits to 32 bits. For I <sup>2</sup> S and Left-justified modes, word sizes can be from 8 bits to 32 bits.
9	PACK	<b>16-bit to 32-bit Word Packing Enable.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) 16- to 32-bit word packing.
10	ICLK  MSTR (I <sup>2</sup> S mode only)	<b>Internal Clock Select.</b> Selects the internal transmit clock if set, (= 1) or external transmit clock if cleared, (= 0). This bit applies to DSP Serial and multichannel modes.  In I <sup>2</sup> S and Left-justified Sample Pair mode, this bit selects the word source and internal clock if set, (= 1) or external clock if cleared, (= 0)
11	OPMODE	<b>Sport Operation Mode.</b> Selects the I <sup>2</sup> S/Left-justified Sample Pair mode if set (= 1) or DSP Serial/Multichannel mode if cleared (= 0).

Table A-23. SPCTLx Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
12	CKRE	<b>Clock Rising Edge Select.</b> Selects whether the serial port uses the rising edge if set, (= 1) or falling edge if cleared, (= 0) of the clock signal to sample data and the frame sync. CKRE is reserved when the SPORT is in I <sup>2</sup> S and Left-justified Sample Pair mode.
13	FSR	<b>Frame Sync Required Select.</b> Selects whether the serial port requires if set, (= 1) or does not require if cleared, (= 0) a transfer frame sync. FSR is reserved when the SPORT is in I <sup>2</sup> S mode, Left-Justified Sample Pair mode and multichannel mode.
14	IFS (IMFS)	<b>Internal Frame Sync Select.</b> Selects whether the serial port uses an internally generated frame sync if set, (= 1) or uses an external frame sync if cleared, (= 0). This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in I <sup>2</sup> S, Left-justified Sample Pair mode and Multichannel mode.
15	DIFS	<b>Data Independent Frame Sync Select.</b> Selects whether the serial port uses a data-independent frame sync (sync at selected interval, if set, = 1) or uses a data-dependent frame sync (sync when TX FIFO is not empty or when RX FIFO is not full). This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
16	LFS (LMFS, FRFS)	<b>Active Low Frame Sync Select.</b> Selects an active low FS if set, (= 1) or active high FS if cleared, (= 0).
17	LAFS	<b>Late Transmit Frame Sync Select.</b> Selects a late frame sync (FS during first bit, if set, = 1) or an early frame sync (FS before first bit, if cleared, = 0). This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in multichannel mode.
18	SDEN_A	<b>Enable Channel A Serial Port DMA.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the serial port's A channel DMA.
19	SCHEN_A	<b>Enable Channel A Serial Port DMA Chaining.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the serial port's channel A DMA chaining.
20	SDEN_B	<b>Enable Channel B Serial Port DMA.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the serial port's channel B DMA.
21	SCHEN_B	<b>Enable Channel B Serial Port DMA Chaining.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the serial port's channel B DMA chaining.

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-23. SPCTLx Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
22	FS_BOTH	<b>FS Both Enable.</b> This bit issues WS if data is present in <b>both</b> transmit buffers, if set (= 1). If cleared (= 0), WS is issued if data is present in either transmit buffer. This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in multichannel, I <sup>2</sup> S and Left-justified Sample Pair mode.
23	BHD	<b>Buffer Hang Disable.</b> This bit ignores a core hang, when set (= 1). When cleared (= 0), this bit indicates a core stall. The core stall occurs when the transmit buffer is full or the receive buffer is empty and the core tries to write or read from the FIFO respectively. This bit applies to all modes
24	SPEN_B	<b>Enable Channel B Serial Port.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the corresponding serial port B channel. This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
25	SPTRAN	<b>Data Direction Control.</b> Enables receive buffers if cleared (= 0), or activates transmit buffers if set (= 1). This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
26	ROVF_B, TUVE_B	<b>Channel B Error Status (sticky, read-only).</b> Indicates if the serial transmit operation has underflowed or a receive operation has overflowed in the channel B data buffer. This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
28–27	DXS_B	<b>Channel B Data Buffer Status (read-only).</b> Indicates the status of the serial port's channel B data buffer as follows: 11 = full, 00 = empty, 10 = partially full. This bit is reserved when the SPORT is in Multichannel mode.
29	ROVF_A or TUVE_A	<b>Channel A Error Status (sticky, read-only).</b> Indicates if the serial transmit operation has underflowed or a receive operation has overflowed in the channel A data buffer.
31–30	RXS_A or TXS_A	<b>Channel A Data Buffer Status (read-only).</b> Indicates the status of the serial port's channel A data buffer as follows: 11 = full, 00 = empty, 10 = partially full.

### SPORT Multichannel Control Registers (SPMCTLxy)

The SPORT Multichannel Control registers' addresses are:

SPMCTL01	0xc04
SPMCTL23	0x404
SPMCTL45	0x804

The `SPMCTL01` register is the Multichannel Control register for SPORTs 0 and 1. The `SPMCTL23` register is the Multichannel Control register for SPORTs 2 and 3. The `SPMCTL45` register is the Multichannel Control register for SPORTs 4 and 5. The reset value for these registers is undefined.

# I/O Processor Registers

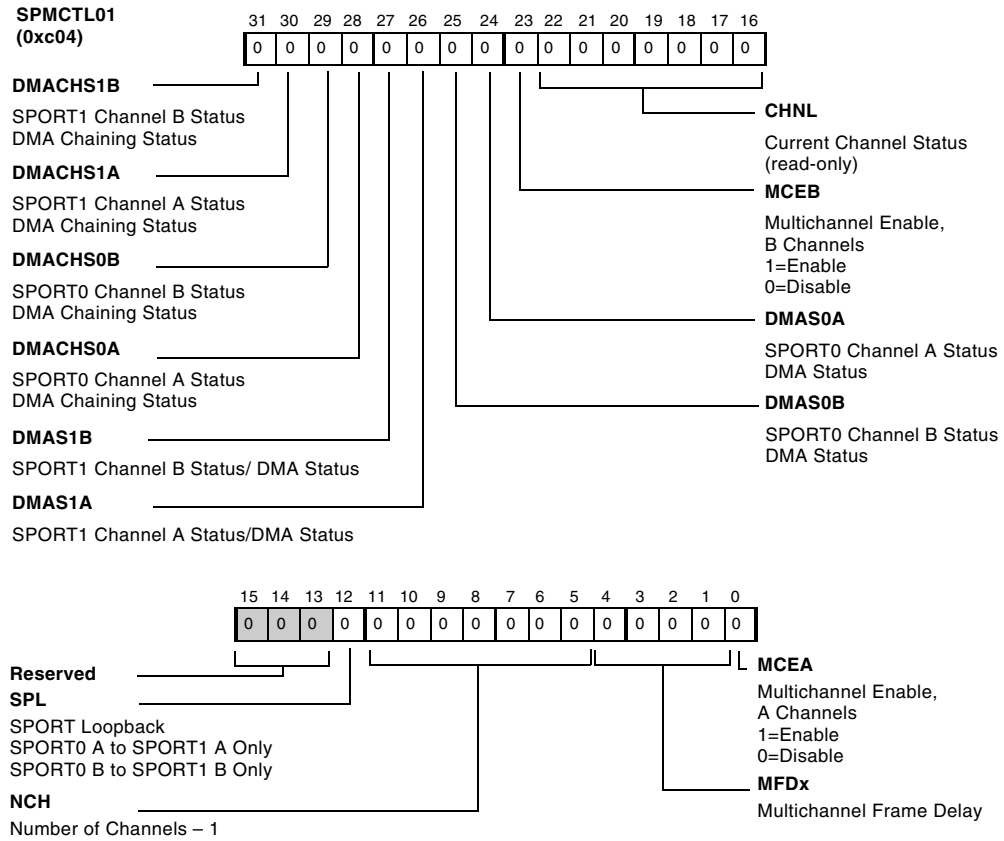


Figure A-24. SPMCTL01 Register – Multichannel Mode

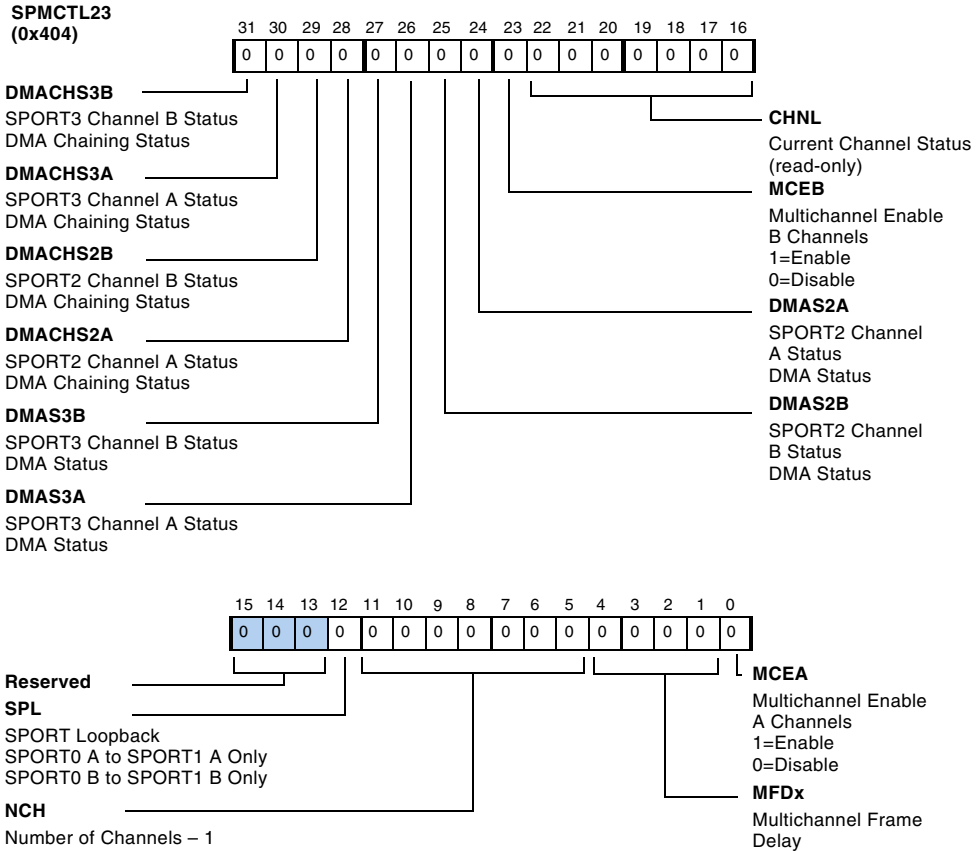


Figure A-25. SPMCTL23 Registers – Multichannel Mode

# I/O Processor Registers

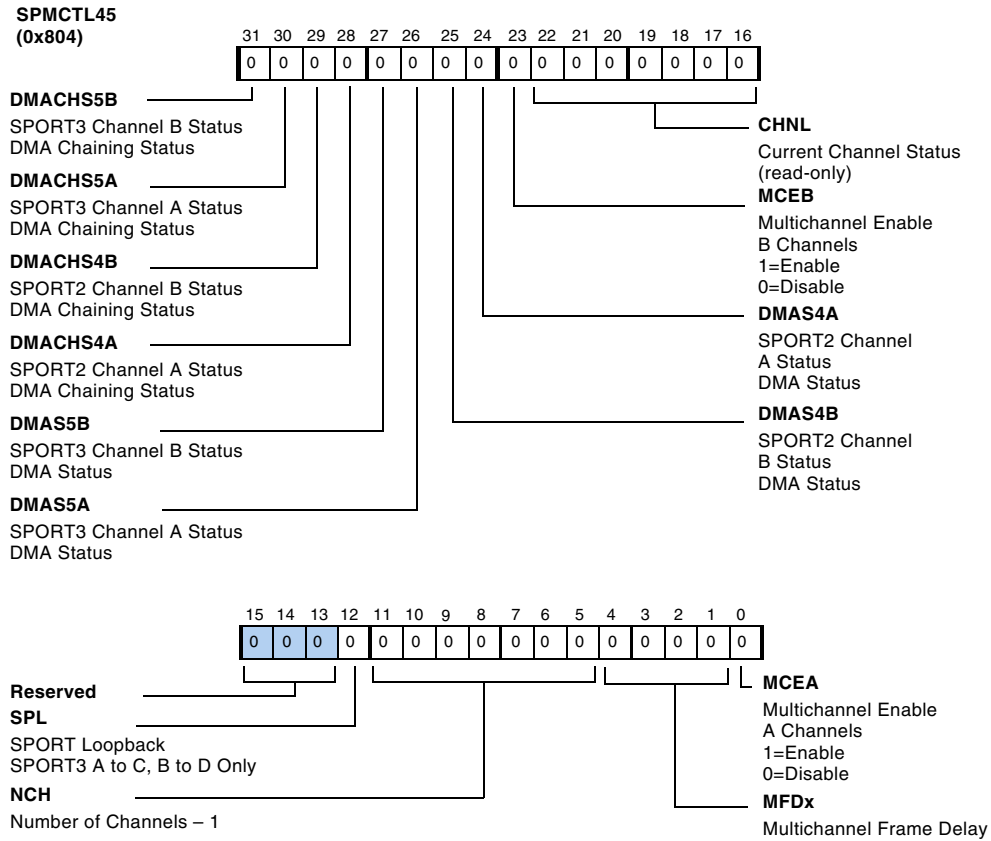


Figure A-26. SPMCTL45 Registers – Multichannel Mode



For a detailed description of the bits in the SPMCTL<sub>xy</sub> register, refer to [Table A-24](#).

Table A-24. SPMCTL<sub>xy</sub> Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
0	MCEA	<b>Multichannel Mode Enable.</b> Standard and Multichannel modes only. One of two configuration bits that enable and disable multichannel mode on serial port channels. See also, OPMODE on page A-26. 0 = Disable multichannel operation 1 = Enable multichannel operation if OPMODE = 0
4–1	MFD	<b>Multichannel Frame Delay.</b> Set the interval, in number of serial clock cycles, between the multichannel frame sync pulse and the first data bit. These bits provide support for different types of T1 interface devices. Valid values range from 0 to 15 with bits SPMCTL01 [4:1] or SPMCTL23[4:1] or SPMCTL45[4:1]. Values of 1 to 15 correspond to the number of intervening serial clock cycles. A value of 0 corresponds to no delay. The multichannel frame sync pulse is concurrent with first data bit.
11–5	NCH	<b>Number of Multichannel Slots (minus one).</b> Select the number of channel slots (maximum of 128) to use for multichannel operation. Valid values for actual number of channel slots range from 1 to 128. Use this formula to calculate the value for NCH: $NCH = \text{Actual number of channel slots} - 1$ .

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-24. SPMCTL<sub>xy</sub> Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
12	SPL	<p><b>SPORT Loopback Mode.</b> Enables if set (= 1) or disables if cleared (= 0) the channel loopback mode. Loopback mode enables developers to run internal tests and to debug applications. Loopback only works under the following SPORT configurations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• SPORT0 (configured as a receiver or transmitter) together with SPORT1 (configured as a transmitter or receiver). SPORT0 can only be paired with SPORT1, controlled via the SPL bit in the SPMCTL01 register.</li> <li>• SPORT2 (as a receiver or transmitter) together with SPORT3 (as a transmitter or receiver). SPORT2 can only be paired with SPORT3, controlled via the SPL bit in the SPMCTL23 register.</li> <li>• SPORT4 (configured as a receiver or transmitter) together with SPORT5 (configured as a transmitter or receiver). SPORT4 can only be paired with SPORT5, controlled via the SPL bit in the SPMCTL45 register. Either of the two paired SPORTs can be set up to transmit or receive, depending on their SPTRAN bit configurations.</li> </ul>
15–13	Reserved	
22–16	CHNL	<b>Current Channel Selected (Read-only, Sticky).</b> Identify the currently selected transmit channel slot (0 to 127).
23	MCEB	<p><b>Multichannel Enable, B Channels.</b></p> <p>0 = Disable 1 = Enable</p>
27–24	DMAS <sub>xy</sub>	<p><b>DMA Status.</b> Selects the transfer format.</p> <p>0 = Inactive 1 = Active (Read-only)</p>
31–28	DMACHS <sub>xy</sub>	<p><b>DMA Chaining Status.</b></p> <p>0 = Inactive 1 = Active (Read-only)</p>

## SPORT Transmit Buffer Registers (TXSPx)

The addresses of the TXSPx registers are:

TXSP0A – 0xc60	TXSP0B – 0xc62
TXSP1A – 0xc64	TXSP1B – 0xc66
TXSP2A – 0x460	TXSP2B – 0x462
TXSP3A – 0x464	TXSP3B – 0x466
TXSP4A – 0x860	TXSP4B – 0x862
TXSP5A – 0x864	TXSP5B – 0x866

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The 32-bit TXSPx registers hold the output data for serial port transmit operations. For more information on how transmit buffers work, see [“Transmit and Receive Data Buffers” on page 9-60](#).

## SPORT Receive Buffer Registers (RXSPx)

The addresses of the RXSPx registers are:

RXSP0A – 0xc61	RXSP0B – 0xc63
RXSP1A – 0xc65	RXSP1B – 0xc67
RXSP2A – 0x461	RXSP2B – 0x463
RXSP3A – 0x465	RXSP3B – 0x467
RXSP4A – 0x861	RXSP4B – 0x863
RXSP5A – 0x865	RXSP5B – 0x867

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The 32-bit RXSPx registers hold the input data from serial port receive operations. For more information on how receive buffers work, see [“Transmit and Receive Data Buffers” on page 9-60](#).

# I/O Processor Registers

## SPORT Divisor Registers (DIVx)

The addresses of the  $DIV_x$  registers are:

$DIV_0 - 0xc02$        $DIV_1 - 0xc03$   
 $DIV_2 - 0x402$        $DIV_3 - 0x403$   
 $DIV_4 - 0x802$        $DIV_5 - 0x803$

The reset value for these registers is undefined. These registers contain two fields:

- Bits 15–1 are  $CLKDIV$ . These bits identify the Serial Clock Divisor value for internally-generated  $SCLK$  as follows:

$$CLKDIV = \frac{f_{CCLK}}{4(f_{SCLK})} - 1$$

- Bits 31–16 are  $FSDIV$ . These bits select the Frame Sync Divisor for internally-generated  $TFS$  as follows:

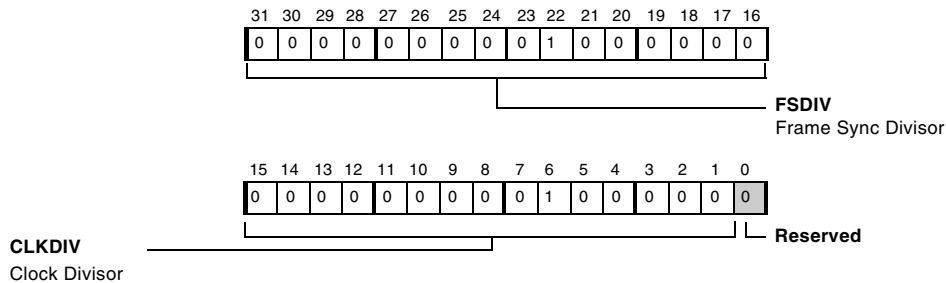


Figure A-27.  $DIV_x$  Register

$$FSDIV = \frac{f_{SCLK}}{f_{SFS}} - 1$$

## SPORT Count Registers (SPCNTx)

The addresses of the SPCNTx registers are:

SPCNT0 – 0xC15	SPCNT1 – 0xC16
SPCNT2 – 0x415	SPCNT3 – 0x416
SPCNT4 – 0x815	SPCNT5 – 0x816

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The SPCNTx registers provides status information for the internal clock and frame sync.

## SPORT Transmit Select Registers (MTxCSy)

The addresses of the MTxCSy registers are:

MT0CS0 – 0xC05	MT0CS1 – 0xC06
MT0CS2 – 0xC07	MT0CS3 – 0xC08
MT2CS0 – 0x405	MT2CS1 – 0x406
MT2CS2 – 0x407	MT2CS3 – 0x408
MT4CS0 – 0x805	MT4CS1 – 0x806
MT4CS2 – 0x807	MT4CS3 – 0x808

The reset value for these registers is undefined.

Each bit, 31–0, set (= 1) in one of four MTxCSy registers corresponds to an active transmit channel, 127–0, on a Multichannel mode serial port. When the MTxCSy registers activate a channel, the serial port transmits the word in that channel’s position of the data stream. When a channel’s bit in the MTxCSy register is cleared (= 0), the serial port’s data transmit pin three-states during the channel’s transmit time slot.

## I/O Processor Registers

### SPORT Transmit Compand Registers (MTxCCSy)

The addresses of the MTxCCSy registers are:

MT0CCS0 – 0xC0D	MT0CCS1 – 0xC0E
MT0CCS2 – 0xC0F	MT0CCS3 – 0xc10
MT2CCS0 – 0x40D	MT2CCS1 – 0x40E
MT2CCS2 – 0x40F	MT2CCS3 – 0x410
MT4CCS0 – 0x80D	MT4CCS1 – 0x80E
MT4CCS2 – 0x80F	MT4CCS3 – 0x810

The reset value for these registers is undefined.

Each bit, 31–0, set (= 1) in one of four MTxCCSy registers corresponds to an companded transmit channel, 127–0, on a Multichannel mode serial port. When the MTxCCSy register activates companding for a channel, the serial port applies the companding from the serial port's DTYPE selection to the transmitted word in that channel's position of the data stream. When a channel's bit in the MTxCCSy register is cleared (= 0), the serial port does not compand the output during the channel's receive time slot.

### SPORT Receive Select Registers (MRxCSy)

The addresses of the MRxCSx registers are:

MR1CS0 – 0xC09	MR1CS1 – 0xC0A
MR1CS2 – 0xC0B	MR1CS3 – 0xC0C
MR3CS0 – 0x409	MR3CS1 – 0x40A
MR3CS2 – 0x40B	MR3CS3 – 0x40C
MR5CS0 – 0x809	MR5CS1 – 0x80A
MR5CS2 – 0x80B	MR5CS3 – 0x80C

The reset value for these registers is undefined.

Each bit, 31–0, set (= 1) in one of the four  $MRxCSx$  registers corresponds to an active receive channel, 127–0, on a Multichannel mode serial port. When the  $MRxCSx$  register activates a channel, the SPORT receives the word in that channel's position of the data stream and loads the word into the  $RXSPx$  buffer. When a channel's bit in the  $MRxCSx$  register is cleared (= 0), the serial port ignores any input during the channel's receive time slot.

### SPORT Receive Compand Registers ( $MRxCCSy$ )

These addresses for the  $MRxCCSy$  registers are:

$MR1CCS0 - 0xC11$	$MR1CCS1 - 0xC12$
$MR1CCS2 - 0xC13$	$MR1CCS3 - 0xC14$
$MR3CCS0 - 0x411$	$MR3CCS1 - 0x412$
$MR3CCS2 - 0x413$	$MR3CCS3 - 0x414$
$MR5CCS0 - 0x811$	$MR5CCS1 - 0x812$
$MR5CCS2 - 0x813$	$MR5CCS3 - 0x814$

The reset value for these registers is undefined.

Each bit, 31–0, set (= 1) in the  $MRxCCSy$  registers corresponds to an companded receive channel, 127–0, on a Multichannel mode serial port. When one of the four  $MRxCCSy$  registers activate companding for a channel, the serial port applies the companding from the serial port's  $DTYPE$  selection to the received word in that channel's position of the data stream. When a channel's bit in the  $MRxCCSy$  registers are cleared (= 0), the serial port does not compand the input during the channel's receive time slot.

## I/O Processor Registers

### SPORT DMA Index Registers (IISP<sub>x</sub>)

The addresses of the IISP<sub>x</sub> registers are:

IISP0A – 0xC40	IISP0B – 0xC44
IISP1A – 0xC48	IISP1B – 0xC4C
IISP2A – 0x440	IISP2B – 0x444
IISP3A – 0x448	IISP3B – 0x44C
IISP4A – 0x840	IISP4B – 0x844
IISP5A – 0x848	IISP5B – 0x84C

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The IISP<sub>x</sub> register is 19 bits wide and it holds an address and acts as a pointer to memory for a DMA transfer. [For more information, see “I/O Processor” in Chapter 7, I/O Processor.](#)

### SPORT DMA Modifier Registers (IMSP<sub>x</sub>)

The addresses of the IMSP<sub>x</sub> registers are:

IMSP0A – 0xC41	IMSP0B – 0xC45
IMSP1A – 0xC49	IMSP1B – 0xC4D
IMSP2A – 0x441	IMSP2B – 0x445
IMSP3A – 0x449	IMSP3B – 0x44D
IMSP4A – 0x841	IMSP4B – 0x845
IMSP5A – 0x849	IMSP5B – 0x84D

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The IMSP<sub>x</sub> register is 16 bits wide and it provides the increment or step size by which an IISP<sub>x</sub> register is post-modified during a DMA operation. [For more information, see “I/O Processor” in Chapter 7, I/O Processor.](#)



## SPORT DMA Count Registers (CSPx)

The CSP<sub>x</sub> registers' addresses are:

CSP0A – 0xC42	CSP0B – 0xC46
CSP1A – 0xC4A	CSP1B – 0xC4E
CSP2A – 0x442	CSP2B – 0x446
CSP3A – 0x44A	CSP3B – 0x44E
CSP4A – 0x842	CSP4B – 0x846
CSP5A – 0x84A	CSP5B – 0x84E

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The CSP<sub>x</sub> registers are 16 bits wide and they hold the word count for a DMA transfer. [For more information, see “I/O Processor” in Chapter 7, I/O Processor.](#)

## SPORT Chain Pointer Registers (CPSPxx)

The addresses of the CPSP<sub>xx</sub> registers are:

CPSP0A – 0xC43	CPSP0B – 0xC47
CPSP1A – 0xC4B	CPSP1B – 0xC4F
CPSP2A – 0x443	CPSP2B – 0x447
CPSP3A – 0x44B	CPSP3B – 0x44F
CPSP4A – 0x843	CPSP4B – 0x847
CPSP5A – 0x84B	CPSP5B – 0x84F

The reset value for these registers is undefined. The CPSP<sub>xx</sub> registers are 20 bits wide and they hold the address for the next Transfer Control Block in a chained DMA operation. [For more information, see “I/O Processor” in Chapter 7, I/O Processor.](#)


### SPI Registers

The following sections describe the registers associated with the Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI).

#### SPI Port Status Register (SPISTAT)

The SPI Status register (`SPISTAT`) is used to detect when an SPI transfer is complete or if transmission/reception errors occur. The `SPISTAT` register can be read at any time.

Some of the bits in the `SPISTAT` register are read-only (RO) and cannot be cleared. The remainder of the bits can be read, but can also be cleared by a write one-to-clear (W1C-type) operation. Bits that provide information about the SPI are also read-only; these bits get set and cleared by the hardware. Bits that are W1C-type are set when an error condition occurs (see [Table A-25 on page A-93](#)); these bits are set by hardware and must be cleared by software. To clear a W1C-type bit, the program must write a one to the desired bit position of the `SPISTAT` register. For example, if the `TUNF` bit is set, the program must write a one to bit 2 of `SPISTAT` to clear the `TUNF` error condition. This allows the program to read the status register without changing its value.

 Write one-to-clear (W1C-type) bits can only be cleared by writing 1 to them. Writing zero does not clear (or have any effect on) a W1C-type bit. [Table A-25](#) provides the bit descriptions for the `SPISTAT` register.

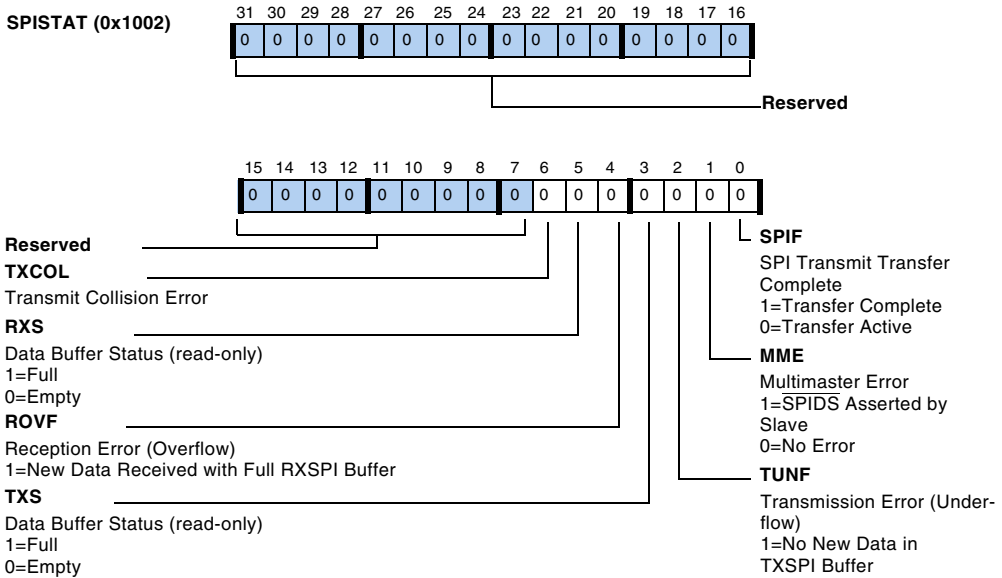


Figure A-28. SPISTAT Register

Table A-25. SPISTAT Register Bits

Bit	Name	Function	Type	Default
0	SPIF	<b>SPIRCV bits in SPICTL.</b> Set to 1 when the appropriate shift-register has completed shifting in or out data.	RO	1
1	MME	<b>Multimaster Error or Mode-fault Error.</b> Set when the processor is configured as the SPI master and another device tries to become the master by driving the $\overline{\text{SPIDS}}$ signal low. See <a href="#">“Mode Fault Error (MME)” on page 10-40.</a>	W1C	0
2	TUNF	<b>Transmission Error (Underflow).</b> Set when a transmission occurred with no new data in the TXSPI register. See <a href="#">“Transmission Error Bit (TUNF)” on page 10-41.</a>	W1C	0

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-25. SPISTAT Register Bits (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Function	Type	Default
3	TXS	<b>Transmit Data Buffer Status.</b> Indicates the TXSPI data buffer status. 0 = Empty 1 = Full	RO	0
4	ROVF	<b>Reception Error (Overflow).</b> Set when data is received and the receive buffer is full. 1 = New data received with full RXSPI register. See <a href="#">“Reception Error Bit (ROVF)” on page 10-42.</a>	W1C	0
5	RXS	<b>Receive Data Buffer Status.</b> Indicates the RXSPI data buffer status. 0 = Empty 1 = Full	RO	0
6	TXCOL	<b>Transmission Collision Error.</b> The TXCOL flag is set in the SPISTAT register when a write to the TXSPI register coincides with the load of the shift register. See <a href="#">“Transmit Collision Error Bit (TXCOL)” on page 10-42</a>	W1C	0
31-7	Reserved			

The transmit buffer is full after data is written to it and is empty when a transfer begins and the transmit value loads into the Shift register. The receive buffer is full at the end of a transfer when the Shift register value is loaded into the receive buffer. It is empty when the receive buffer is read.

The SPI status also depends on the `PACKEN` bit in the `SPICTL` register. If packing is enabled, then the receive buffer status is set to full only after two transfers from the Shift register.

## SPI Port Flags Register (SPIFLG)

This register's address is 0x1001. The reset value for this register is 0x0F80. The SPIFLG register is used to enable individual SPI slave select lines when the SPI is enabled as a master.

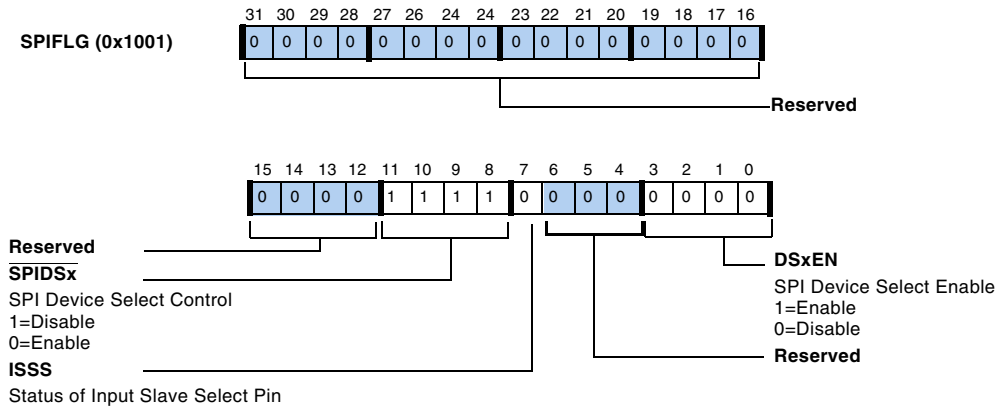


Figure A-29. SPIFLG Register

Table A-26. SPIFLG Register Bits

Bit	Name	Function
3–0	DSxEN (3–0)	<b>SPI Device Select Bits.</b> This bit enables or disables if set, (= 1 or if cleared = 0) the corresponding flag output to be used for an SPI slave-select.
6–4	Reserved	
7	ISSS	<b>Input Service Select Bit.</b> This read-only bit reflects the status of the slave select input pin.
11–8	SPIFLGx (3–0)	<b>SPI Device Select Control.</b> This bit if cleared, (= 0) selects a corresponding flag output to be used for SPI slave-select.
31–12	Reserved	

# I/O Processor Registers

## SPI Control Register (SPICTL)

This register's address is 0x1000. The reset value for this register is 0x0400. The SPI Control register (SPICTL) is used to configure and enable the SPI system. This register is used to set up SPI configurations such as selecting the device as a master or slave or determining the data transfer rate and word size.

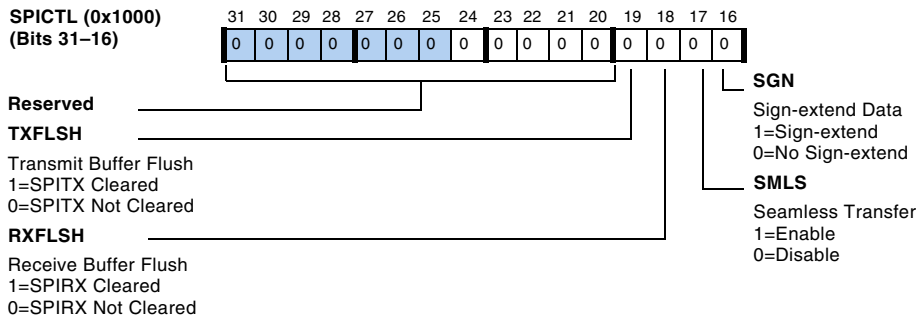


Figure A-30. SPICTL Register (Upper bits)

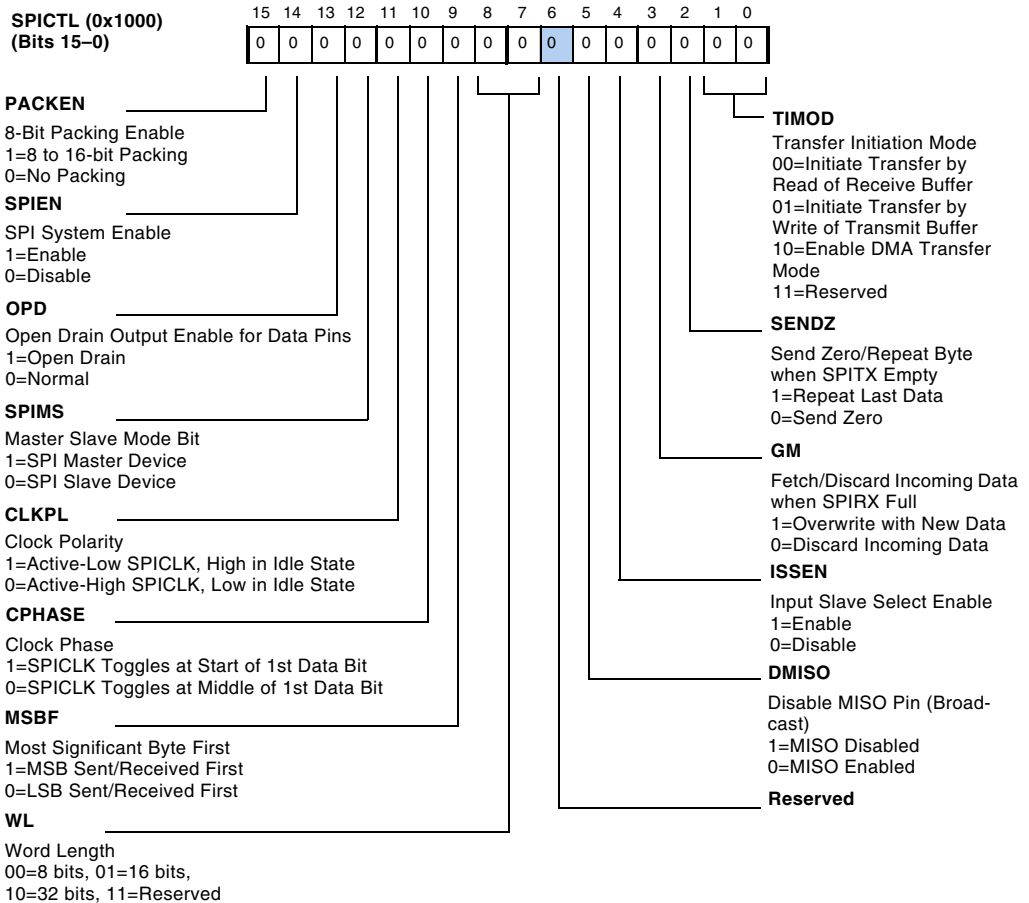


Figure A-31. SPICTL Register (Lower bits)

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-27. SPICTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
1–0	TIMOD	<b>Transfer Initiation Mode.</b> Defines the transfer initiation mode and interrupt generation. 00 = Initiate transfer by read of receive buffer. Interrupt active when receive buffer is full. 01 = Initiate transfer by write to transmit buffer. Interrupt active when transmit buffer is empty. 10 = Enable DMA Transfer mode. Interrupt configured by DMA 11 = Reserved
2	SENDZ	<b>Send Zero.</b> Send Zero or last word when TXSPI is empty. 0 = Send Last Word 1 = Send Zeros
3	GM	<b>Get Data.</b> When RXSPI is full, get data or discard incoming data. 0 = Discard incoming data 1 = Get more data, overwrites the previous data
4	ISSEN	<b>Input Slave Select Enable.</b> Enables Slave-Select ( $\overline{SPIDS}$ ) input for the master. When not used, $\overline{SPIDS}$ can be disabled, freeing up a chip pin as a general-purpose I/O pin. 0 = Disable 1 = Enable
5	DMISO	<b>Disable MISO Pin.</b> Disables MISO as an output in an environment where the master wishes to transmit to various slaves at one time (broadcast). Only one slave is allowed to transmit data back to the master. Except for the slave from whom the master wishes to receive, all other slaves should have this bit set. 0 = MISO Enabled 1 = MISO Disabled
6	Reserved	
8–7	WL	<b>Word Length.</b> 00 = 8 bits, 01 = 16 bits, 10 = 32 bits
9	MSBF	<b>Most Significant Byte First.</b> 1 = MSB sent/received first 0 = LSB sent/received first
10	CPHASE	<b>Clock Phase.</b> Selects the transfer format. 0 = SPICLK starts toggling at the middle of 1st data bit 1 = SPICLK starts toggling at the start of 1st data bit



Table A-27. SPICTL Register Bit Descriptions (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Definition
11	CLKPL	<b>Clock Polarity.</b> 0 = Active-high SPICLK (SPICLK low is the idle state) 1 = Active-low SPICLK (SPICLK high is the idle state)
12	SPIMS	<b>Master Select.</b> Configures SPI module as master or slave 0 = Device is a slave device 1 = Device is a master device
13	OPD	<b>Open Drain Output Enable.</b> Enables open drain data output enable (for MOSI and MISO) 0 = Normal 1 = Open Drain
14	SPIEN	<b>SPI Port Enable.</b> 0 = SPI Module is disabled 1 = SPI Module is enabled
15	PACKEN	<b>Packing Enable.</b> 0 = No Packing 1 = 8-16 Packing Note: This bit may be 1 only when WL = 00 (8-bit transfer). When in transmit mode, PACKEN bit will unpack data.
16	SGN	<b>Sign Extend Bit.</b> 0 = No sign extension 1 = Sign Extension
17	SMLS	<b>Seamless Transfer Bit.</b> 0 = Seamless transfer disabled 1 = Seamless transfer enabled not supported in mode TIMOD[1:0] = 00 and CPHASE = 0 for all modes.
18	TXFLSH	<b>Flush Transmit Buffer.</b> Write a 1 to this bit to clear TXSPI 0 = TXSPI not Cleared 1 = TXSPI Cleared
19	RXFLSH	<b>Clear RXSPI.</b> Write a 1 to this bit to clear RXSPI 0 = RXSPI not Cleared 1 = RXSPI Cleared
31–20	Reserved	

# I/O Processor Registers

## Shift Registers

The processor core contains two separate 32-bit shift registers—one for reception (RXSR) and one for transmission (TXSR).

### Receive Shift Register (RXSR)

The RXSR register is clocked on the sampling edge of the SPICLK clock. The active edge is the opposite edge from the sampling edge. The RXSR register behaves the same way whether the device is in Slave or Master mode.

The register is configured by the MSBF and WL bits of the SPICCTL register. The MSBF bit indicates the data format (LSB-first or MSB-first) and selects the direction of the shift. The WL bit indicates the length of the transfer—8 bits if WL = 00, 16 bits if WL = 01, and 32 bits if WL = 10. [For more information, see “SPI Control Register \(SPICCTL\)” on page A-96.](#)

### Transmit Shift Register (TXSR)

The TXSR register is clocked on the active or shifting edge. The active edge is the opposite edge from the sampling edge. The TXSR register can be shifted right or left, depending on the direction of the data flow. This register can also be loaded from the TXSPI register with data that is to be transmitted.

This register behaves the same way whether the device is in Slave or Master mode. The TXSR register contains 32 shift cells.

Each Shift register is configured by the MSBF and WL bits of the SPICCTL register. The MSBF bit indicates the data format (LSB-first or MSB-first) and selects the direction of the shift. The WL bit indicates the length of the transfer—8 bits if WL = 00, 16 bits if WL = 01, and 32 bits if WL = 10. When WL = 00, the upper 24 MSBs of the register loads with zeroes after a write to the TXSPI register. [For more information, see “SPI Control Register \(SPICCTL\)” on page A-96.](#)

### **SPI Receive Data Buffer Shadow Register (RXSPI\_SHADOW)**

Use the `RXSPI_SHADOW` register for the receive data buffer (`RXSPI`) to debug software. The `RXSPI_SHADOW` register resides at a different address from `RXSPI`, but its contents are identical to the `RXSPI`. When `RXSPI` is read via the software, the `RXS` bit clears and an SPI transfer may be initiated (if `TIMOD = 00`). No such hardware action occurs when the shadow register is read. The `RXSPI_SHADOW` register is a read-only (RO) register accessible only by the software and not the DMA. For more information, see “SPI Receive Buffer Register (`RXSPI`)” on page A-101.

### **SPI Receive Buffer Register (RXSPI)**

The SPI Receive Buffer register’s address is `0x1004`. The reset value for this register is undefined. This is a 32-bit read-only register accessible by the core or DMA controller. At the end of a data transfer, the `RXSPI` register is loaded with the data in the Shift register. During a DMA receive operation, the data in `RXSPI` is automatically loaded into the internal memory. For core- or interrupt-driven transfers, programs can also use the `RXS` status bits in the `SPISTAT` register to determine if the receive buffer is full.

### **SPI Transmit Data Buffer Register (TXSPI)**

The SPI Transmit Buffer register’s address is `0x1003`. The reset value for this register is undefined. This SPI Transmit Data register is a 32-bit register which is part of the IOP register set and can be accessed by the core or the DMA controller. Data is loaded into this register before being transmitted. Prior to the beginning of a data transfer, data in the `TXSPI` register is automatically loaded into the Transmit Shift register. During a DMA transmit operation, the data in the `TXSPI` register is automatically loaded from internal memory.

## I/O Processor Registers

### SPI Baud Rate Register (SPIBAUD)

The SPI Baud Rate register's address is 0x1005 and its reset value is undefined. This SPI register is a 16-bit read-write register that is used to set the bit transfer rate for a master device. When configured as a slave, the value written to this register is ignored. The SPIBAUD register can be read or written at any time.

Writing a value of zero or one to the register disables the serial clock. Therefore, the maximum serial clock rate is one-fourth the core clock rate (CCLK).

Table A-28. SPIBAUD Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Definition
0	Reserved	
15–1	BAUDR	Enables the SPICLK per the following equation: SPICLK baud rate = core clock (CCLK)/4 x BAUDR Default = 0.
31–16	Reserved	

Table A-29. SPI Master Baud Rate Example

BAUDR (Decimal Value)	SPI Clock Divide Factor	Baud Rate for CCLK @ 200 MHz
0	N/A	N/A
1	4	50.0 MHz
2	8	25.0 MHz
3	12	16.67 MHz
4	16	12.5 MHz
32,767, (0x7FFF)	131,068	1.53 KHz

## SPI DMA Registers

There are five SPI DMA-specific registers which are described in the following sections.

### SPI DMA Configuration (SPIDMAC) Register

The SPI DMA Configuration Register contains the control bits for SPI DMA transfers. [Table A-30](#) provides the bit descriptions for the SPIDMAC register.

The `SPI_MME`, `SPI_UNF`, and `SPI_OVF` bits are sticky; these bits remain set even if the corresponding `SPI_STAT` bits (`MME`, `TUNF`, and `ROVF`) are cleared. To clear these bits, clear corresponding bits in the `SPI_STAT` register then configure a new DMA

# I/O Processor Registers

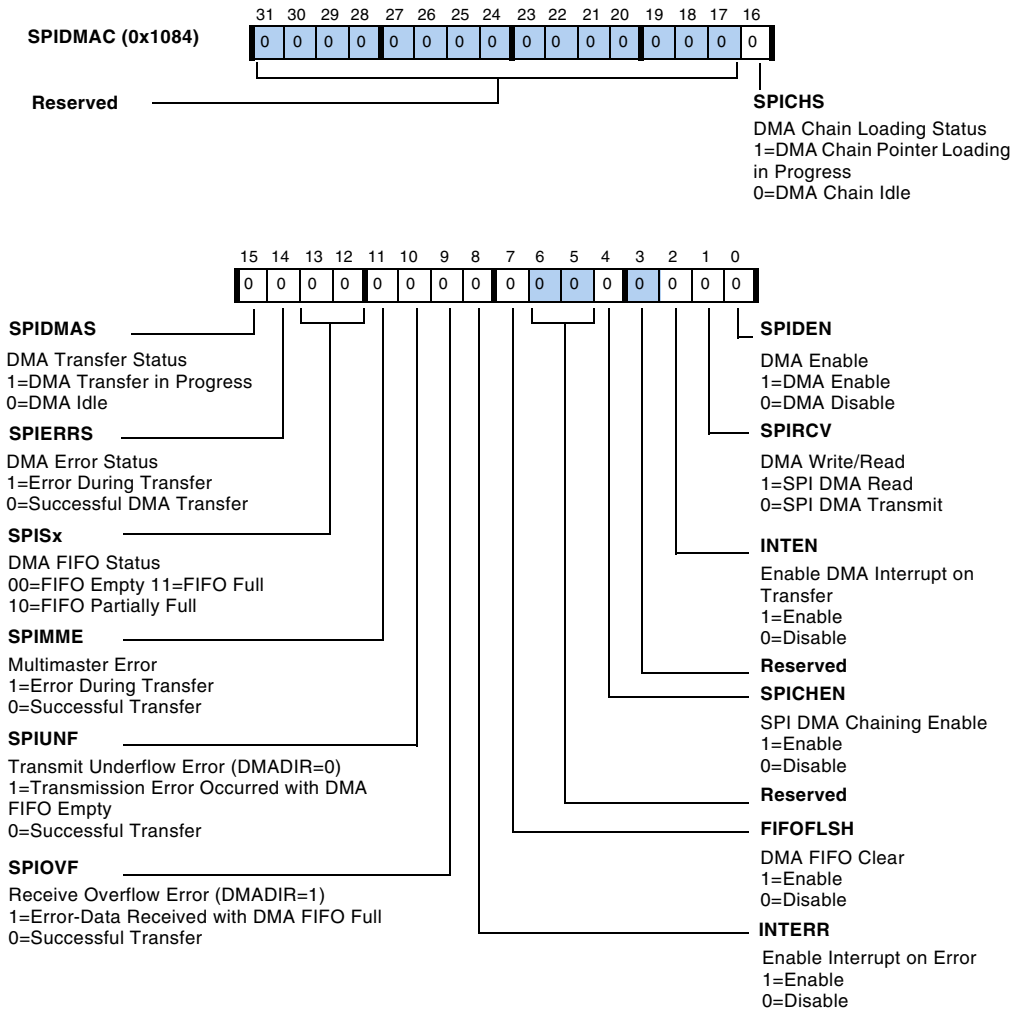


Figure A-32. SPIDMAC Register

Table A-30. SPIDMAC Register Bits

Bit(s)	Name	Function	Type	Default
0	SPIDEN	<b>DMA Enable.</b> Enables if set (= 1) or disables if cleared (= 0) DMA for the SPI port.	Control	0
1	SPIRCV	<b>DMA Direction.</b> When set, the IOP empties the RXSPI buffer, when cleared, the IOP fills the TXSPI buffer. 0 = SPI Transmit DMA (Memory read) 1 = SPI Receive DMA (Memory write)	Control	0
2	INTEN	<b>Enable DMA Interrupt.</b> Enables if set (= 1) or disables if cleared (= 0) an interrupt upon completion of the DMA transfer.	Control	0
3	Reserved			
4	SPICHEN	<b>SPI DMA Chaining Enable.</b> Enables if set (=1) or disables if cleared (= 0) DMA chaining.	Control	0
6:5	Reserved			
7	FIFOFLSH	<b>DMA FIFO Flush.</b> Clears the four-deep FIFO and FIFO status bits if set (= 1). Once a one is written to this bit, it remains set. A zero need to be written to clear this bit.	Control	0
8	INTERR	<b>Enable Interrupt on Error.</b> Enables if set (= 1) or disables if cleared (= 0) an interrupt when an error in the transmission occurs.	Control	0
9	SPIOVF	<b>Receive Overflow Error (SPIRCV=1).</b> Set when SPIRCV = 1 and data is received with the receive buffer full (1 = error data received with receive data buffer RXSPI full in receive mode DMA).	Status	0
10	SPIUNF	<b>SPI Transmit Underrun Error.</b> Set when SPIRCV = 0 and the SPI transmits without any new data in the transmit buffer TXSPI.	Status	0

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-30. SPIDMAC Register Bits (Cont'd)

Bit(s)	Name	Function	Type	Default
11	SPIMME	<b>SPI Multimaster Error.</b> Set when MME is set in the SPISTAT register and DMA is enabled.	Status	0
13:12	SPISx	<b>DMA FIFO Status 0.</b> Indicates the status of the DMA FIFO as follows: 00 = FIFO empty 11 = FIFO full 10 = FIFO partially full 01 = Reserved	Status	
14	SPIERRS	<b>DMA Error Status.</b> Set if any of the following error bits get set: SPIOVE, SPIUNE, or SPIMME	Status	0
15	SPIDMAS	<b>DMA Transfer Status.</b> Indicates the status of the DMA transfer as follows: 1 = DMA in progress, 0 = DMA idle	Status	0
16	SPICHS	<b>DMA Chain Loading Status.</b> Indicates the status of the DMA chain loading as follows: 1 = DMA chain pointer loading in progress, 0 = Chain idle	Status	0
31:17	Reserved			

### SPI DMA Start Address Register (IISPI)

The SPI DMA Start Address (IISPI) register's address is 0x1080. The reset value for this register is undefined. This SPI register is a 19-bit read/write register that contains the start address of the buffer in memory.


### SPI DMA Address Modifier Register (IMSPI)

The SPI DMA Address Modifier (IMSPI) register's address is 0x1081. The reset value for this register is undefined. This SPI register is a 16-bit read/write register that contains the address modifier.



## SPI DMA Word Count Register (CSPI)

This 16-bit register contains the number of DMA words to be transferred. When this register decrements from one to zero, the DMA is complete, and an interrupt may be triggered.

-  To prematurely end a DMA transfer, software should write the value one to the Count register so that it will decrement to zero. Writing a value of zero causes the count to decrement to a negative number, and this is not advised.

## SPI DMA Chain Pointer Register (CPSPI)

This register contains the address of the Transfer Control Block (TCB) in memory when DMA chaining is enabled. This register's address is 0x1083 and its reset value is undefined. [For more information, see “Transfer Control Block Chain Loading \(TCB\)” on page 7-13.](#)

[Table A-31](#) provides the bit descriptions for the CPSPI register.

Table A-31. CPSPI Register Bits

Bits	Function	Default
18:0	<b>Next Chain Pointer Address.</b> The address of the next transfer control block (TCB) in memory.	0
19	<b>PCI – Program Controlled Interrupt.</b> Affects interrupt functionality when DMA chaining is enabled. Setting this bit (= 1) causes an interrupt to occur after each DMA in the chain completes. Clearing this bit (= 0) causes an interrupt to occur only after the final DMA transfer in the chain is completed.	0

## Parallel Port Registers

The Parallel Port peripheral in the ADSP-2126x processor includes several user-accessible registers. One register, (PPCTL), contains control and status. Two registers, (RXPP and TXPP), are used for buffering receive and transmit operations. Six registers are used for DMA functionality—IIPP, IMPP, ICPP, EIPP, EMPP, and ECPP.

Table A-32. Parallel Port Registers

Function	Registers	Description
Control and Status Register	PPCTL	“Parallel Port Control Register (PPCTL)” on page A-108
Buffering Receive and Transmit Data	TXPP	“Parallel Port DMA Transmit Register (TXPP)” on page A-111
	RXPP	“Parallel Port DMA Receive Register (RXPP)” on page A-112
DMA functionality	IIPP	“Parallel Port DMA Start Internal Index Address Register (IIPP)” on page A-112r
	IMPP	“Parallel Port DMA Internal Modifier Address Register (IMPP)” on page A-112
	ICPP	“Parallel Port DMA Internal Word Count Register (ICPP)” on page A-112
	EIPP	“Parallel Port DMA Start External Index Address Register (EIPP)” on page A-112
	EMPP	“Parallel Port DMA External Modifier Address Register (EMPP)” on page A-113
	ECPP	“Parallel Port DMA External Word Count Register (ECPP)” on page A-113

## Parallel Port Control Register (PPCTL)

The Parallel Port Control Register (PPCTL) is used to configure and enable the parallel port system. This register's address is 0x1800. [Figure A-33](#) and [Table A-33](#) describe the bits in this register.

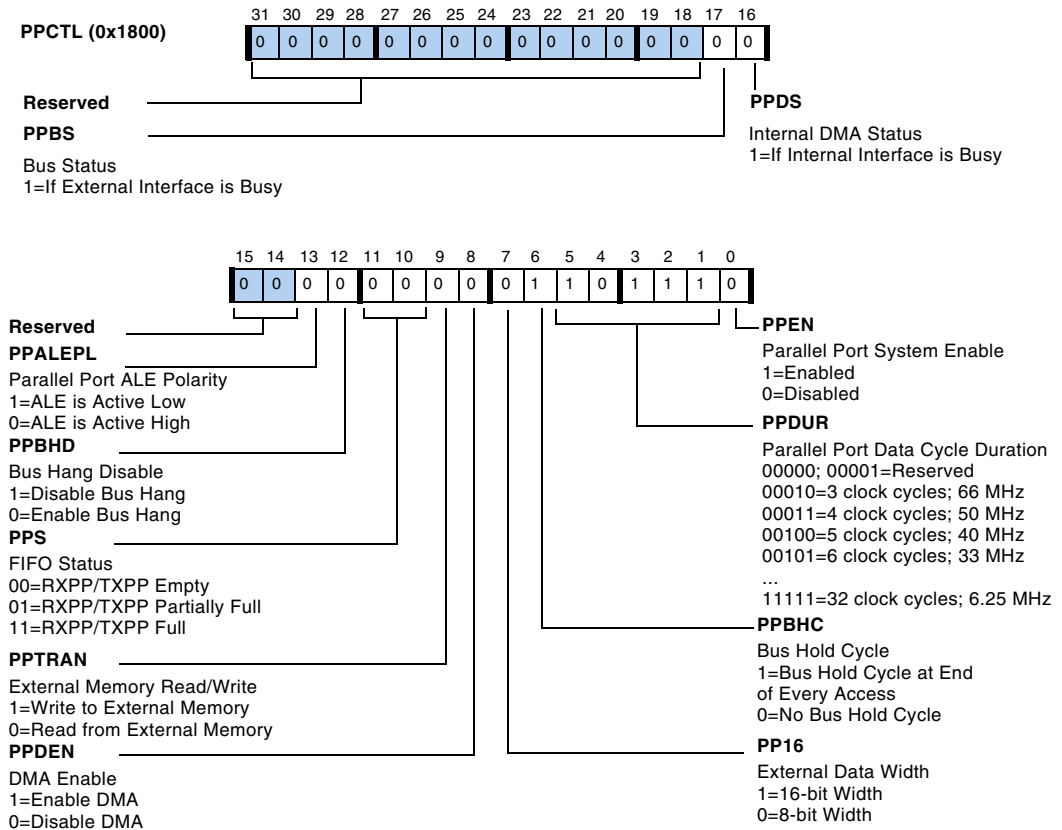


Figure A-33. PPCTL Register

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-33. Parallel Port Register (PPCTL) Bit Definitions

Bit	Name	Definition	Default
0	PPEN	<b>Parallel Port Enable.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) or disables if cleared, (= 0) the parallel port. Clearing this bit clears FIFO and status. If an $\overline{RD}$ , $\overline{WR}$ , or ALE cycle has already started, it completes normally before the port is disabled. The parallel port is ready to transmit or receive 2 cycles after enabling. An ALE cycle always occurs before the first read or write cycle after PPEN is enabled.	0
5–1	PPDUR	<b>Parallel Port Duration.</b> The duration of Parallel Port data cycles is based on core-clock and controlled by these five bits as follows: 00000 = Reserved 00001 = Reserved 00010 = 2 Wait States = 3 Core Clock Cycles; 66 MHz throughput 00011 = 3 Wait States = 4 Core Clock Cycles; 50 MHz throughput 00100 = 4 Wait States = 5 Core Clock Cycles; 40 MHz throughput 00101 = 5 Wait States = 6 Core Clock Cycles; 33 MHz throughput ... 11111 = 31 wait states; 6.25MHz throughput	Bit 1 = 1 Bit 2=1 Bit 3=1 Bit 4=0 Bit 5=1
6	PPBHC	<b>Bus Hold Cycle.</b> Inserts a bus hold cycle at the end of every access (read or write cycle) if set, (= 1) or no bus hold cycle occurs if cleared, (= 0). During a BHC address and/or data continue to be driven for one cycle.	1
7	PP16	<b>Parallel Port External Data Width.</b> Selects the external data width to 16 bits if set, (= 1) or 8 bits if cleared, (= 0).	0
8	PPDEN	<b>Parallel Port DMA Enable.</b> Enables if set, (= 1) DMA on the parallel port or disables DMA if cleared, (= 0). When PPDEN is cleared, any DMA requests already in the pipeline complete, and no new DMA requests are made. This does not affect FIFO status.	0
9	PPTRAN	<b>Parallel Port Transmit/Receive Select.</b> Indicates if the processor is reading from external memory if cleared, (= 0) or writing to external memory if set, (= 1).	0

Table A-33. Parallel Port Register (PPCTL) Bit Definitions (Cont'd)

Bit	Name	Definition	Default
11-10	PPS	<b>Parallel Port FIFO Status.</b> These read-only bits indicate the status of the parallel port FIFO as follows: 00 = RXPP/TXPP is empty 01 = RXPP/TXPP is partially full 11 = RXPP/TXPP is full	0
12	PPBHD	<b>Parallel Port Buffer Hang Disable.</b> When cleared (= 0), core stalls occur normally when the core attempts to write to a full transmit buffer or read from an empty receive buffer. Prevents a core hang when set (= 1). The old data present in the receive buffer is read again if the core tries to read it. If a write to the transmit buffer is performed, the core will overwrite the current data in the buffer.	0
13	PPALEPL	<b>Parallel Port ALE Polarity Level.</b> Asserts ALE active low if set, (= 1) or active high if cleared, (= 0).	0
15-14	Reserved		0
16	PPDS	<b>DMA Status.</b> Indicates that the internal DMA interface is active if set, (= 1) or not active if cleared, (= 0).	0
17	PPBS	<b>Parallel Port Bus Status.</b> Indicates that the external bus interface is busy if set, (= 1) or available if cleared, (= 0). The bus will be “busy” until one ALE cycle, $\overline{RD}$ cycle or $\overline{WR}$ cycle has taken place.	0
31-18	Reserved		0

### Parallel Port DMA Transmit Register (TXPP)

This register's address is 0x1808. This Transmit Data register is a 32-bit register that is part of the IOP register set and can be accessed by the core or the DMA controller. Data is loaded into this register before being transmitted. Prior to the beginning of a data transfer, data in the TXPP register is automatically loaded into the Transmit Shift register. During a DMA transmit operation, the data in TXPP is automatically loaded from internal memory.

## I/O Processor Registers

### Parallel Port DMA Receive Register (RXPP)

This register's address is 0x1809. This is a 32-bit read-only register accessible by the core or the DMA controller. At the end of a data transfer, RXPP is loaded with the data in the shift register. During a DMA receive operation, the data in the RXPP register is automatically loaded into the internal memory. For core or interrupt driven transfer, you can also use the RXS status bits in the PPSTAT register to determine if the receive buffer is full.

### Parallel Port DMA Start Internal Index Address Register (IIPP)

This register's address is 0x1818. This 19-bit register contains the offset from the DMA starting address of 32-bit internal memory.

### Parallel Port DMA Internal Modifier Address Register (IMPP)

This register's address is 0x1819. This 16-bit register contains the internal memory DMA address modifier.

### Parallel Port DMA Internal Word Count Register (ICPP)

This register's address is 0x181A. This 16-bit register contains the number of words in internal memory to be transferred via DMA.

### Parallel Port DMA Start External Index Address Register (EIPP)

This register's address is 0x1810. This 24-bit register contains the external memory DMA address index.

### Parallel Port DMA External Modifier Address Register (EMPP)

This register's address is 0x1811. This 2-bit register contains the external memory DMA address modifier. It supports only +1, 0, -1.

### Parallel Port DMA External Word Count Register (ECPP)

This register's address is 0x1812. This 24-bit register contains the number of words in external memory to be transferred via DMA.

## Signal Routing Unit Registers

The Digital Audio Interface (DAI) is comprised of a group of peripherals and the signal routing unit (SRU).

The SRU is a matrix routing unit that enables the peripherals provided by the DAI and serial ports to be interconnected under software control. This removes the limitations associated with hard-wiring audio or other peripherals to each other and to the rest of the processor. The SRU allows the programs to make optimal use of the peripherals for a wide variety of applications. This flexibility enables a much larger set of algorithms than would be possible with non-configurable signal paths.

The SRU provides groups of control registers, described in the sections that follow. The registers define the interconnections between the functional modules within the DAI as well as to the core and to the pins. The SRU is a series of multiplexers that connect the:

- serial ports, `SPORT[5:0]`
- input data port, (IDP) `IDP[7:0]` including the parallel data acquisition port pins and their output enable drivers: `DAI_PB[20:1]`
- precision clock generators, (`PCG_CTLA_1` and `PCG_CTLB_1`)

## I/O Processor Registers

Each of these modules is separated from each other by the SRU, and their input and output signals (the “junctions”) may only be connected via the SRU.

### Clock Routing Control Registers (SRU\_CLKx, Group A)

The Clock Routing Control registers route a serial data clock, a sample clock, and signals to the SPORTs and the Input Data Port (IDP) channels. Each of the clock inputs specified are connected to a clock source, based on the five bit values in the [Table A-34](#). When either of the precision clock generators is in external source mode, the SRU\_CLK3[4:0] and/or SRU\_CLK3[9:5] bits specify the source.

The Clock Routing Control registers correspond to the Group A clock sources, listed in [Table A-34](#). Thirty-two possible clock sources can be connected using these read/write registers:

- SRU\_CLK0, described in [Figure A-34](#)
- SRU\_CLK1, described in [Figure A-35](#)
- SRU\_CLK2, described in [Figure A-36 on page A-116](#)
- SRU\_CLK3, described in [Figure A-37 on page A-116](#)



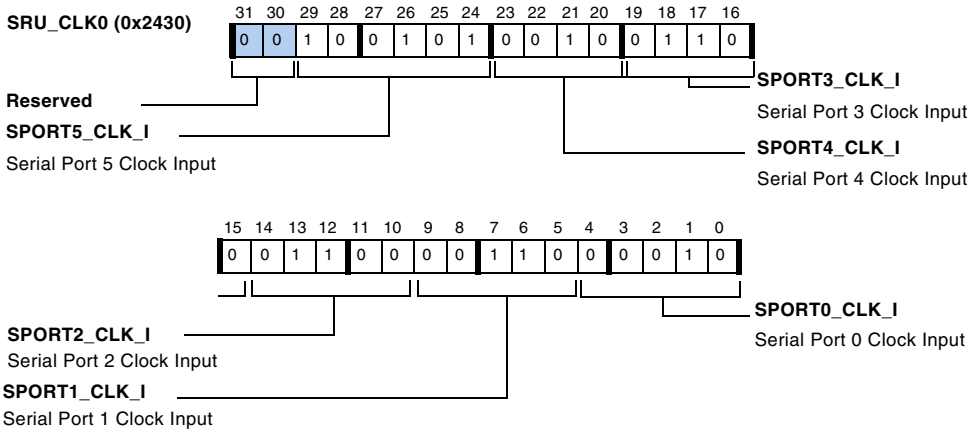


Figure A-34. SRU\_CLK0 Register

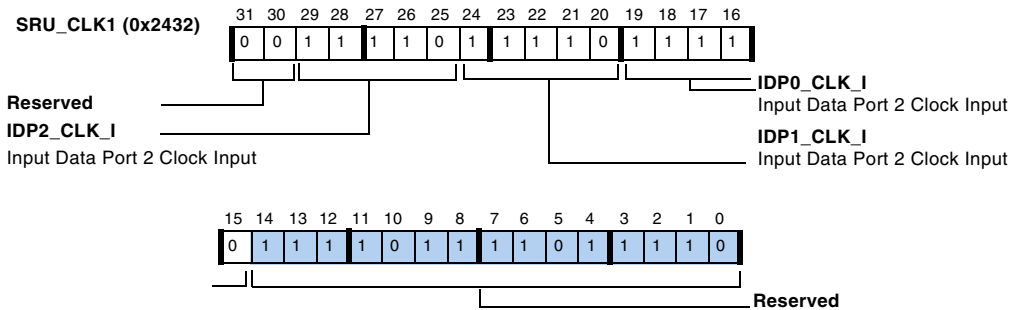


Figure A-35. SRU\_CLK1 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

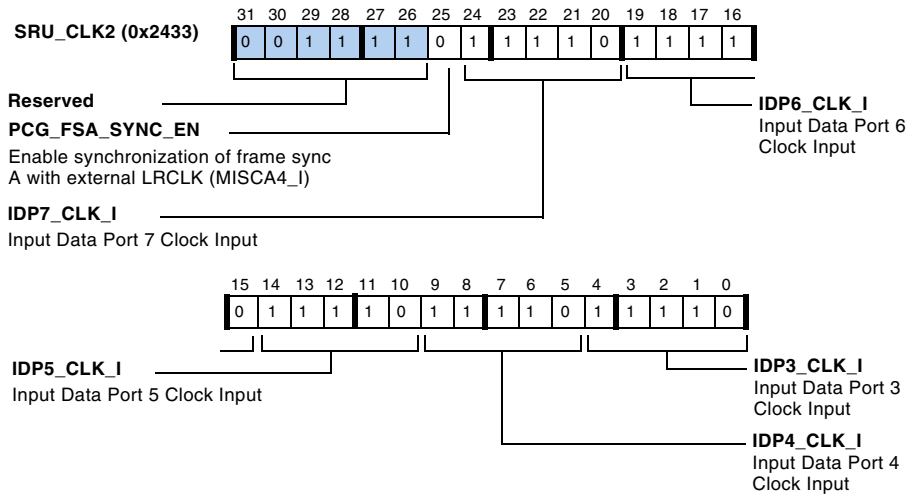


Figure A-36. SRU\_CLK2 Register

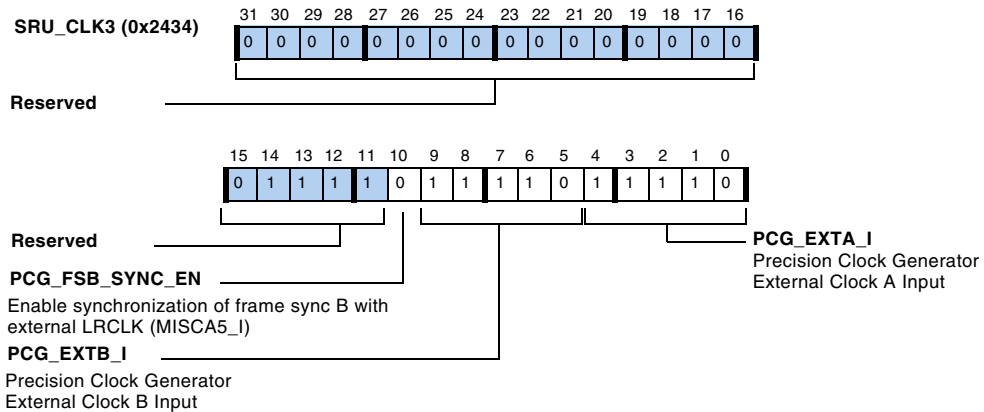


Figure A-37. SRU\_CLK3 Register

Table A-34. Group A Sources – Serial Clock

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
00000 (0x0)	DAI_PB01_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 1 as the source
00001 (0x1)	DAI_PB02_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 2 as the source
00010 (0x2)	DAI_PB03_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 3 as the source
00011 (0x3)	DAI_PB04_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 4 as the source
00100 (0x4)	DAI_PB05_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 5 as the source
00101 (0x5)	DAI_PB06_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 6 as the source
00110 (0x6)	DAI_PB07_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 7 as the source
00111 (0x7)	DAI_PB08_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 8 as the source
01000 (0x8)	DAI_PB09_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 9 as the source
01001 (0x9)	DAI_PB10_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 10 as the source
01010 (0xA)	DAI_PB11_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 11 as the source
01011 (0xB)	DAI_PB12_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 12 as the source
01100 (0xC)	DAI_PB13_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 13 as the source
01101 (0xD)	DAI_PB14_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 14 as the source
01110 (0xE)	DAI_PB15_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 15 as the source
01111 (0xF)	DAI_PB16_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 16 as the source
10000 (0x10)	DAI_PB17_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 17 as the source
10001 (0x11)	DAI_PB18_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 18 as the source
10010 (0x12)	DAI_PB19_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 19 as the source
10011 (0x13)	DAI_PB20_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 20 as the source
10100 (0x14)	SPORT0_CLK_O	Select SPORT 0 Clock as the source
10101 (0x15)	SPORT1_CLK_O	Select SPORT 1 Clock as the source
10110 (0x16)	SPORT2_CLK_O	Select SPORT 2 Clock as the source
10111 (0x17)	SPORT3_CLK_O	Select SPORT 3 Clock as the source
11000 (0x18)	SPORT4_CLK_O	Select SPORT 4 Clock as the source
11001 (0x19)	SPORT5_CLK_O	Select SPORT 5 Clock as the source

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-34. Group A Sources – Serial Clock (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
11010 (0x1A)	Reserved	
11011 (0x1B)	Reserved	
11100 (0x1C)	PCG_CLKA_O	Select Precision Clock A Output as the source
11101 (0x1D)	PCG_CLKB_O	Select Precision Clock B Output as the source
11110 (0x1E)	LOW	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
11111 (0x1F)	HIGH	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source

Setting `SRU_CLK3[4:0] = 28` connects `PCG_EXT_A_I` to logic low, not to `PCG_CLKA_O`.

Setting `SRU_CLK3[9:5] = 29` connects `PCG_EXT_B_I` to logic low, not to `PCG_CLKB_O`.

### Serial Data Routing Registers (SRU\_DATx, Group B)

The Serial Data Routing Control registers route serial data to the serial ports (a, b) and the IDP. Each of the data inputs specified are connected to a data source based on the six bit values shown in [Table A-35](#).

Sixty-four possible data sources can be designated for these registers:

- `SRU_DAT0`, described in [Figure A-38](#)
- `SRU_DAT1`, described in [Figure A-39](#)
- `SRU_DAT2`, described in [Figure A-40](#)
- `SRU_DAT3`, described in [Figure A-41](#)
- `SRU_DAT4`, described in [Figure A-42](#)

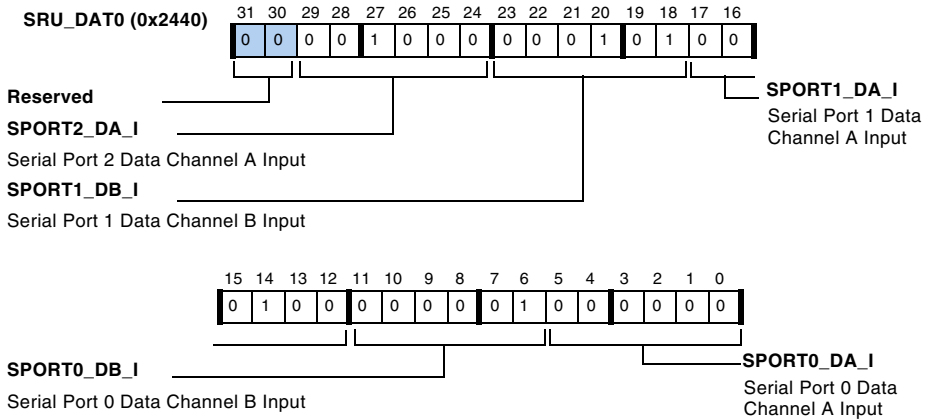


Figure A-38. SRU\_DAT0 Register

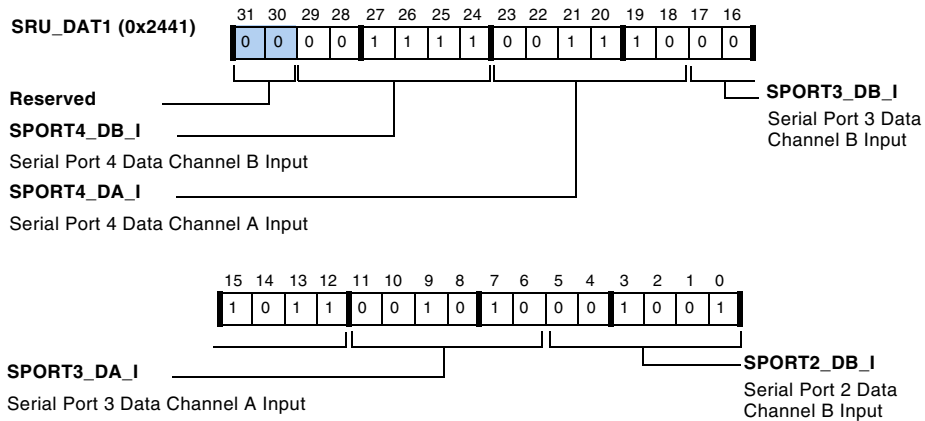


Figure A-39. SRU\_DAT1 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

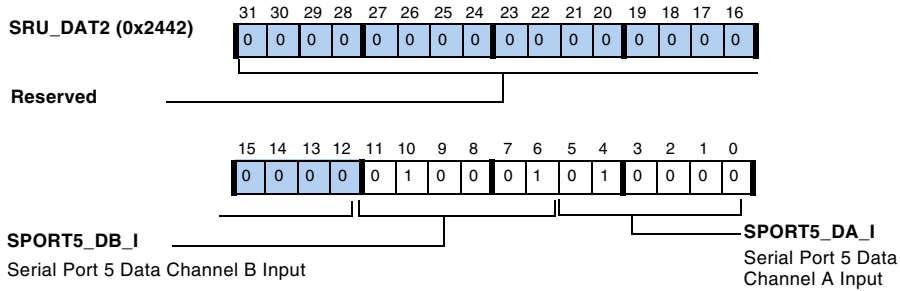


Figure A-40. SRU\_DAT2 Register

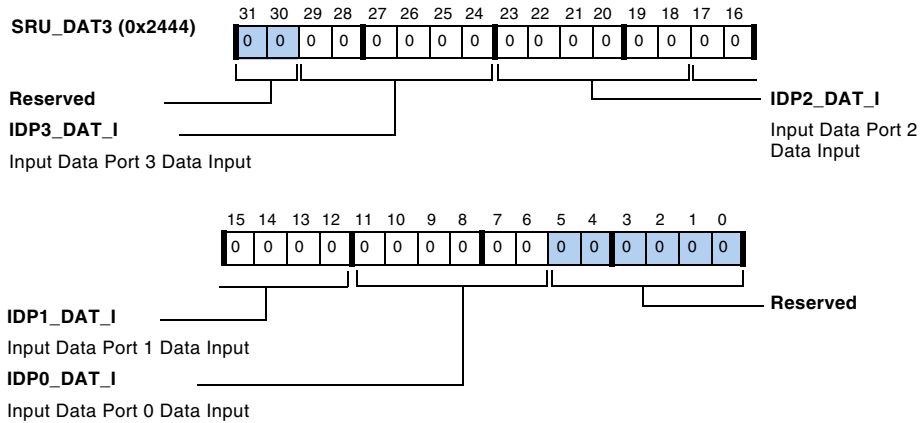


Figure A-41. SRU\_DAT3 Register

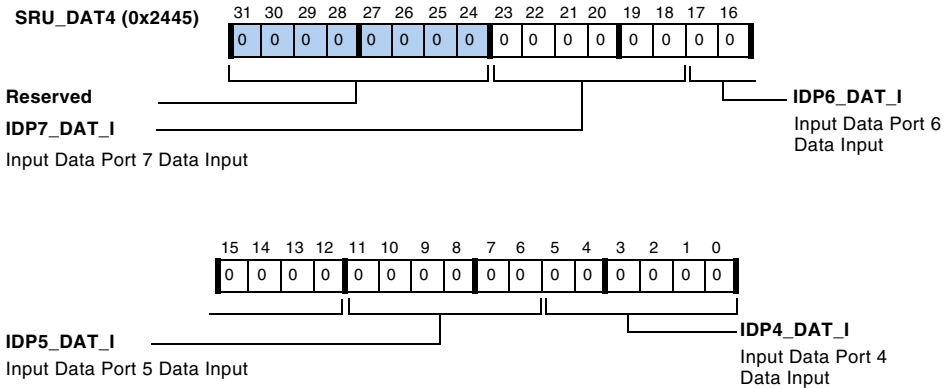


Figure A-42. SRU\_DAT4 Register

Table A-35. Group B Sources – Serial Data

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
000000 (0x0)	DAI_PB01_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 1 as the source
000001 (0x1)	DAI_PB02_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 2 as the source
000010 (0x2)	DAI_PB03_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 3 as the source
000011 (0x3)	DAI_PB04_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 4 as the source
000100 (0x4)	DAI_PB05_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 5 as the source
000101 (0x5)	DAI_PB06_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 6 as the source
000110 (0x6)	DAI_PB07_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 7 as the source
000111 (0x7)	DAI_PB08_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 8 as the source
001000 (0x8)	DAI_PB09_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 9 as the source
001001 (0x9)	DAI_PB10_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 10 as the source
001010 (0xA)	DAI_PB11_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 11 as the source
001011 (0xB)	DAI_PB12_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 12 as the source
001100 (0xC)	DAI_PB13_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 13 as the source
001101 (0xD)	DAI_PB14_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 14 as the source
001110 (0xE)	DAI_PB15_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 15 as the source

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-35. Group B Sources – Serial Data (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
001111 (0xF)	DAI_PB16_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 16 as the source
010000 (0x10)	DAI_PB17_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 17 as the source
010001 (0x11)	DAI_PB18_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 18 as the source
010010 (0x12)	DAI_PB19_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 19 as the source
010011 (0x13)	DAI_PB20_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 20 as the source
010100 (0x14)	SPORT0_DA_O	Select SPORT 0A data as the source
010101 (0x15)	SPORT0_DB_O	Select SPORT 0B data as the source
010110 (0x16)	SPORT1_DA_O	Select SPORT 1A data as the source
010111 (0x17)	SPORT1_DB_O	Select SPORT 1B data as the source
011000 (0x18)	SPORT2_DA_O	Select SPORT 2A data as the source
011001 (0x19)	SPORT2_DB_O	Select SPORT 2B data as the source
011010 (0x1A)	SPORT3_DA_O	Select SPORT 3A data as the source
011011 (0x1B)	SPORT3_DB_O	Select SPORT 3B data as the source
011100 (0x1C)	SPORT4_DA_O	Select SPORT 4A data as the source
011101 (0x1D)	SPORT4_DB_O	Select SPORT 4B data as the source
011110 (0x1E)	SPORT5_DA_O	Select SPORT 5A data as the source
011111 (0x1F)	SPORT5_DB_O	Select SPORT 5B data as the source
100000 (0x20) – 101001 (0x29)	Reserved	
101010 (0x2A)	LOW	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
101011 (0x2B)	HIGH	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source
101100 (0x2C) – 111111 (0x3F)	Reserved	



## Frame Sync Routing Control Registers (SRU\_FSx, Group C)

The Frame Sync Routing Control registers route frame sync, or a word clock, to the serial ports and IDP. Each of the frame sync inputs specified is connected to a frame sync source based on the values described in the Group C frame sync sources listed in [Table A-36](#). Thirty-two possible frame sync sources can be connected using these registers:

- SRU\_FS0, described in [Figure A-43](#)
- SRU\_FS1, described in [Figure A-44](#)
- SRU\_FS2, described in [Figure A-45](#)

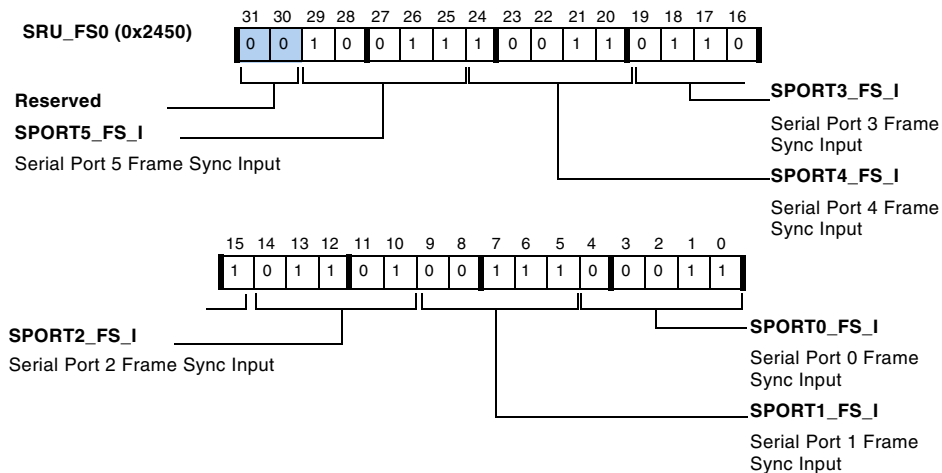


Figure A-43. SRU\_FS0 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

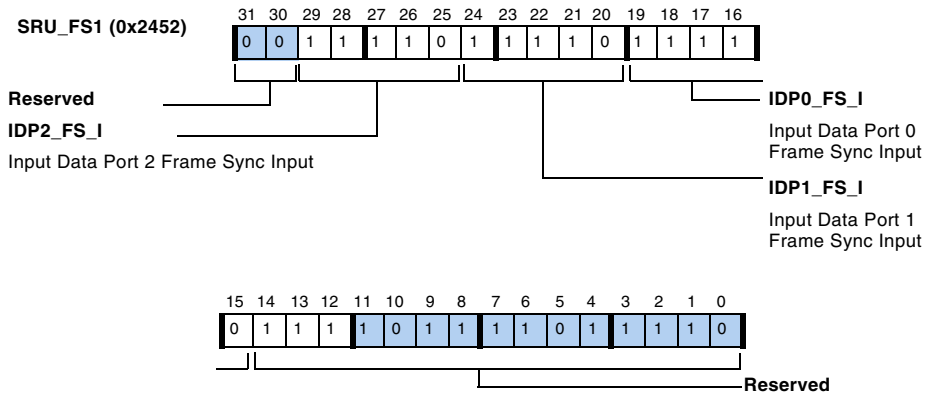


Figure A-44. SRU\_FS1 Register

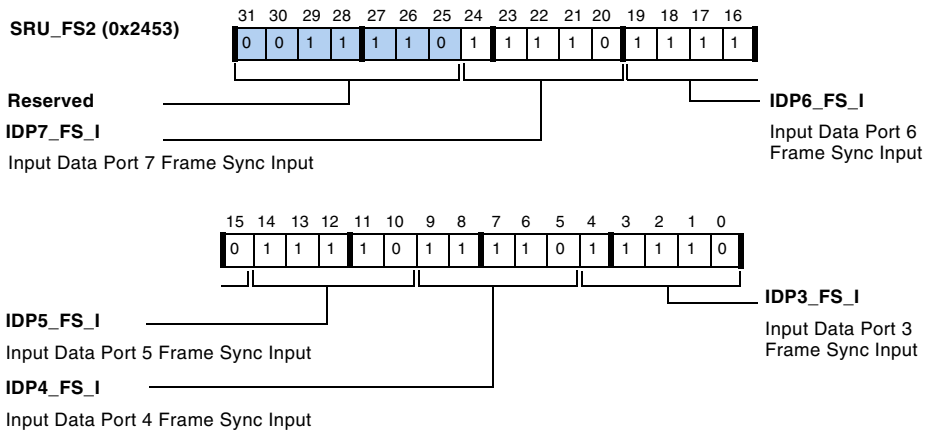


Figure A-45. SRU\_FS2 Register

Table A-36. Group C Sources – Frame Sync

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
00000 (0x0)	DAI_PB01_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 1 as the source
00001 (0x1)	DAI_PB02_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 2 as the source
00010 (0x2)	DAI_PB03_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 3 as the source

Table A-36. Group C Sources – Frame Sync (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
00011 (0x3)	DAI_PB04_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 4 as the source
00100 (0x4)	DAI_PB05_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 5 as the source
00101 (0x5)	DAI_PB06_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 6 as the source
00110 (0x6)	DAI_PB07_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 7 as the source
00111 (0x7)	DAI_PB08_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 8 as the source
01000 (0x8)	DAI_PB09_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 9 as the source
01001 (0x9)	DAI_PB10_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 10 as the source
01010 (0xA)	DAI_PB11_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 11 as the source
01011 (0xB)	DAI_PB12_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 12 as the source
01100 (0xC)	DAI_PB13_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 13 as the source
01101 (0xD)	DAI_PB14_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 14 as the source
01110 (0xE)	DAI_PB15_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 15 as the source
01111 (0xF)	DAI_PB16_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 16 as the source
10000 (0x10)	DAI_PB17_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 17 as the source
10001 (0x11)	DAI_PB18_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 18 as the source
10010 (0x12)	DAI_PB19_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 19 as the source
10011 (0x13)	DAI_PB20_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 20 as the source
10100 (0x14)	SPORT0_FS_O	Select SPORT 0 Frame Sync as the source
10101 (0x15)	SPORT1_FS_O	Select SPORT 1 Frame Sync as the source
10110 (0x16)	SPORT2_FS_O	Select SPORT 2 Frame Sync as the source
10111 (0x17)	SPORT3_FS_O	Select SPORT 3 Frame Sync as the source
11000 (0x18)	SPORT4_FS_O	Select SPORT 4 Frame Sync as the source
11001 (0x19)	SPORT5_FS_O	Select SPORT 5 Frame Sync as the source
11010 (0x1A)	Reserved	
11011 (0x1B)	Reserved	

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-36. Group C Sources – Frame Sync (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
11100 (0x1C)	PCG_FSA_O	Select Precision Frame Sync A Output as the source
11101 (0x1D)	PCG_FSB_O	Select Precision Frame Sync B Output as the source
11110 (0x1E)	LOW	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
11111 (0x1F)	HIGH	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source

### Pin Signal Assignment Registers (SRU\_PINx, Group D)

Each physical pin (connected to a bonded pad) can be routed via the SRU to any of the inputs or outputs of the DAI peripherals, based on the 6-bit values listed in [Table A-37](#). The SRU can also be used to route signals that control the pins in other ways. The pin signal assignments are shown in the following figures:

- SRU\_PIN0, described in [Figure A-46](#)
- SRU\_PIN1, described in [Figure A-47](#)
- SRU\_PIN2, described in [Figure A-48](#)
- SRU\_PIN3, described in [Figure A-49](#)

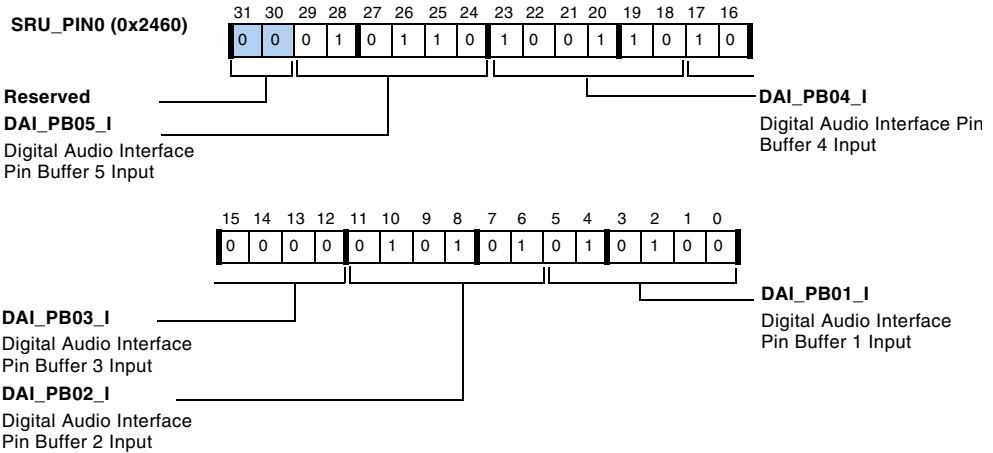


Figure A-46. SRU\_PIN0 Register

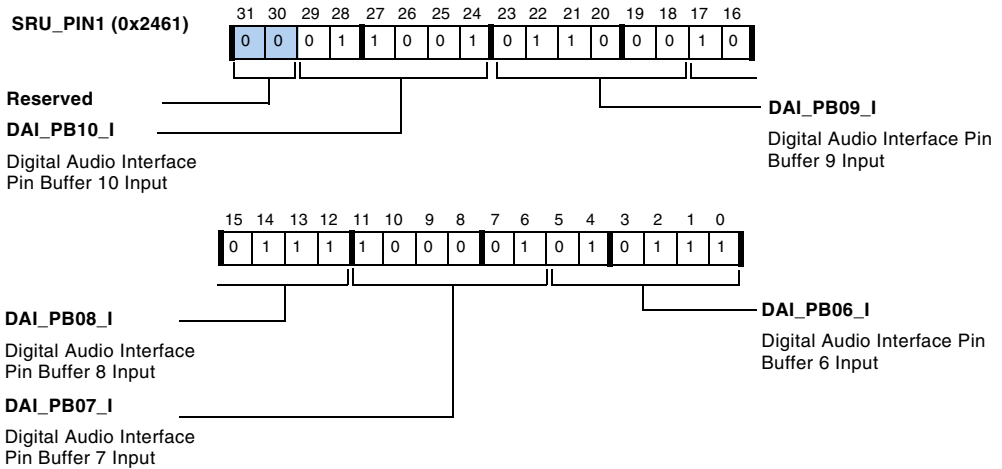


Figure A-47. SRU\_PIN1 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

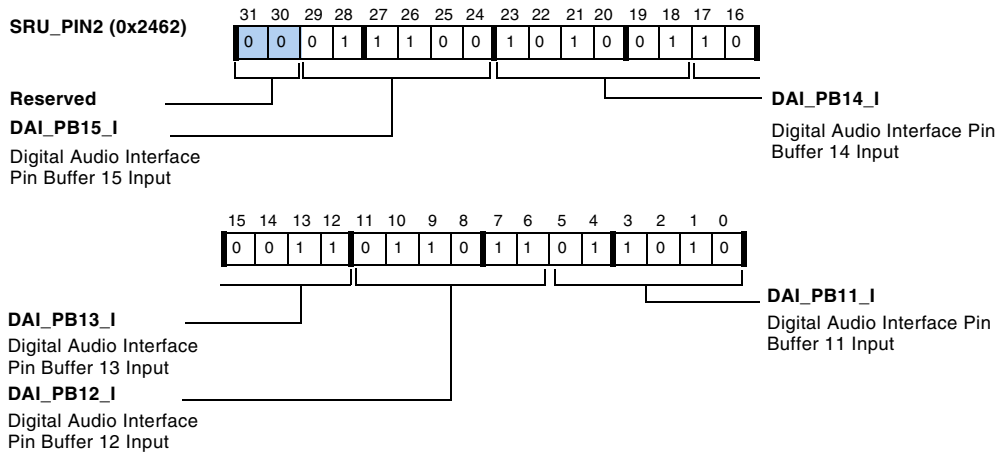


Figure A-48. SRU\_PIN2 Register

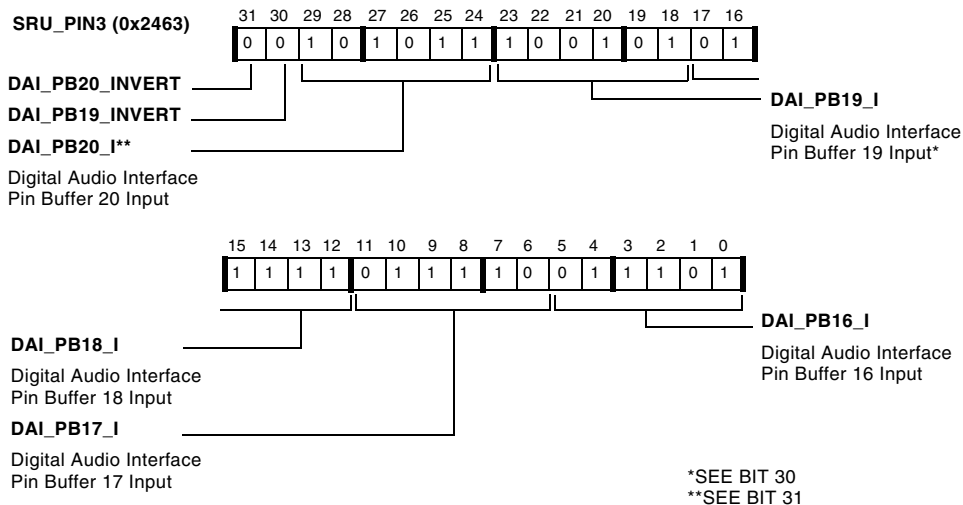


Figure A-49. SRU\_PIN3 Register

Setting the SRU\_PIN3 bit 30 to HIGH inverts the level of the DAI\_PB18\_I pin. Setting the SRU\_PIN3[31] bit to HIGH inverts the level of DAI\_PB19\_I.

If the SRU\_PIN3[23:18] bits = 18, then setting SRU\_PIN3[30] to HIGH does not invert the output. If the SRU\_PIN3[29:24] bits = 19, then setting SRU\_PIN3[31] to HIGH does not invert the output.

Table A-37. Group D Sources – Pin Signal Assignments

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
000000 (0x0)	DAI_PB01_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 1 as the source
000001 (0x1)	DAI_PB02_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 2 as the source
000010 (0x2)	DAI_PB03_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 3 as the source
000011 (0x3)	DAI_PB04_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 4 as the source
000100 (0x4)	DAI_PB05_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 5 as the source
000101 (0x5)	DAI_PB06_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 6 as the source
000110 (0x6)	DAI_PB07_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 7 as the source
000111 (0x7)	DAI_PB08_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 8 as the source
001000 (0x8)	DAI_PB09_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 9 as the source
001001 (0x9)	DAI_PB10_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 10 as the source
001010 (0xA)	DAI_PB11_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 11 as the source
001011 (0xB)	DAI_PB12_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 12 as the source
001100 (0xC)	DAI_PB13_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 13 as the source
001101 (0xD)	DAI_PB14_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 14 as the source
001110 (0xE)	DAI_PB15_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 15 as the source
001111 (0xF)	DAI_PB16_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 16 as the source
010000 (0x10)	DAI_PB17_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 17 as the source
010001 (0x11)	DAI_PB18_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 18 as the source
010010 (0x12)	DAI_PB19_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 19 as the source
010011 (0x13)	DAI_PB20_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 20 as the source
010100 (0x14)	SPORT0_DA_O	Select SPORT 0A Data as the source
010101 (0x15)	SPORT0_DB_O	Select SPORT 0B Data as the source
010110 (0x16)	SPORT1_DA_O	Select SPORT 1A Data as the source

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-37. Group D Sources – Pin Signal Assignments (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
010111 (0x17)	SPORT1_DB_O	Select SPORT 1B Data as the source
011000 (0x18)	SPORT2_DA_O	Select SPORT 2A Data as the source
011001 (0x19)	SPORT2_DB_O	Select SPORT 2B Data as the source
011010 (0x1A)	SPORT3_DA_O	Select SPORT 3A Data as the source
011011 (0x1B)	SPORT3_DB_O	Select SPORT 3B Data as the source
011100 (0x1C)	SPORT4_DA_O	Select SPORT 4A Data as the source
011101 (0x1D)	SPORT4_DB_O	Select SPORT 4B Data as the source
011110 (0x1E)	SPORT5_DA_O	Select SPORT 5A Data as the source
011111 (0x1F)	SPORT5_DB_O	Select SPORT 5B Data as the source
100000 (0x20)	SPORT0_CLK_O	Select SPORT 0 Clock as the source
100001 (0x21)	SPORT1_CLK_O	Select SPORT 1 Clock as the source
100010 (0x22)	SPORT2_CLK_O	Select SPORT 2 Clock as the source
100011 (0x23)	SPORT3_CLK_O	Select SPORT 3 Clock as the source
100100 (0x24)	SPORT4_CLK_O	Select SPORT 4 Clock as the source
100101 (0x25)	SPORT5_CLK_O	Select SPORT 5 Clock as the source
100110 (0x26)	SPORT0_FS_O	Select SPORT 0 Frame Sync as the source
100111 (0x27)	SPORT1_FS_O	Select SPORT 1 Frame Sync as the source
101000 (0x28)	SPORT2_FS_O	Select SPORT 2 Frame Sync as the source
101001 (0x29)	SPORT3_FS_O	Select SPORT 3 Frame Sync as the source
101010 (0x2A)	SPORT4_FS_O	Select SPORT 4 Frame Sync as the source
101011 (0x2B)	SPORT5_FS_O	Select SPORT 5 Frame Sync as the source
101100 (0x2C)	TIMER0_O	Select Timer 0 as the source
101101 (0x2D)	TIMER1_O	Select Timer 1 as the source
101110 (0x2E)	TIMER2_O	Select Timer 2 as the source
101111 (0x2F)	FLAG10_O	Select Flag 10 as the source <sup>1</sup>



Table A-37. Group D Sources – Pin Signal Assignments (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
110000 (0x30)	MISCB_2_O	Select Miscellaneous Control B-2 as the source
110001 (0x31)	MISCB_3_O	Select Miscellaneous Control B-3 as the source
110010 (0x32)	MISCB_4_O	Select Miscellaneous Control B-4 as the source
110011 (0x33)	MISCB_5_O	Select Miscellaneous Control B-5 as the source
110100 (0x34)	FLAG11_O	Select Flag 11 as the source
110101 (0x35)	FLAG12_O	Select Flag 12 as the source
110110 (0x36)	FLAG13_O	Select Flag 13 as the source
110111 (0x37)	FLAG14_O	Select Flag 14 as the source
111000 (0x38)	PCG_CLKA_O	Select Precision Clock A as the source
111001 (0x39)	PCG_CLKB_O	Select Precision Clock B as the source
111010 (0x3A)	PCG_FSA_O	Select Precision Frame Sync A as the source
111011 (0x3B)	PCG_FSB_O	Select Precision Frame Sync B as the source
111100 (0x3C)	FLAG15_O	Select Flag 15 as the source
111101 (0x3D)	Reserved	
111110 (0x3E)	LOW	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
111111 (0x3F)	HIGH	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source

- 1 The ADSP-2126x SHARC processor supports 16 flags including: four pins in the IRQ, six pins (FLAG10-15) in the Digital Application Interface (DAI), and 16 address pins in the Parallel Port can act as flags. Parallel ports function as flags when the PPFLGS bit (bit 20) of the SY-SCTL register is set (= 1). This bit causes the 16 address pins to function as FLAG0–FLAG15. The IRQ acts as a flag that also generates an interrupt.

### Miscellaneous SRU Registers (SRU\_EXT\_MISCA, Group E)

The Miscellaneous Signal Routing registers are a very powerful and versatile feature of the DAI. These registers allow external pins, timers, and clocks to serve as interrupt sources or timer inputs and outputs. They also allow pins to connect to other pins, or to invert the logic of other pins. Note that MISC2\_I, MISC3\_I, MISC4\_I, and MISC5\_I may be mapped directly to the DAI pin buffers using Group D registers (see [Table A-37](#)).

The Miscellaneous Signal Routing registers correspond to the Group E miscellaneous signals listed in [Table A-38](#). Thirty-two possible signal sources can be connected using these read/write registers:

- SRU\_EXT\_MISCA, described in [Figure A-50 on page A-133](#)
- SRU\_EXT\_MISCB, described in [Figure A-51 on page -134](#)

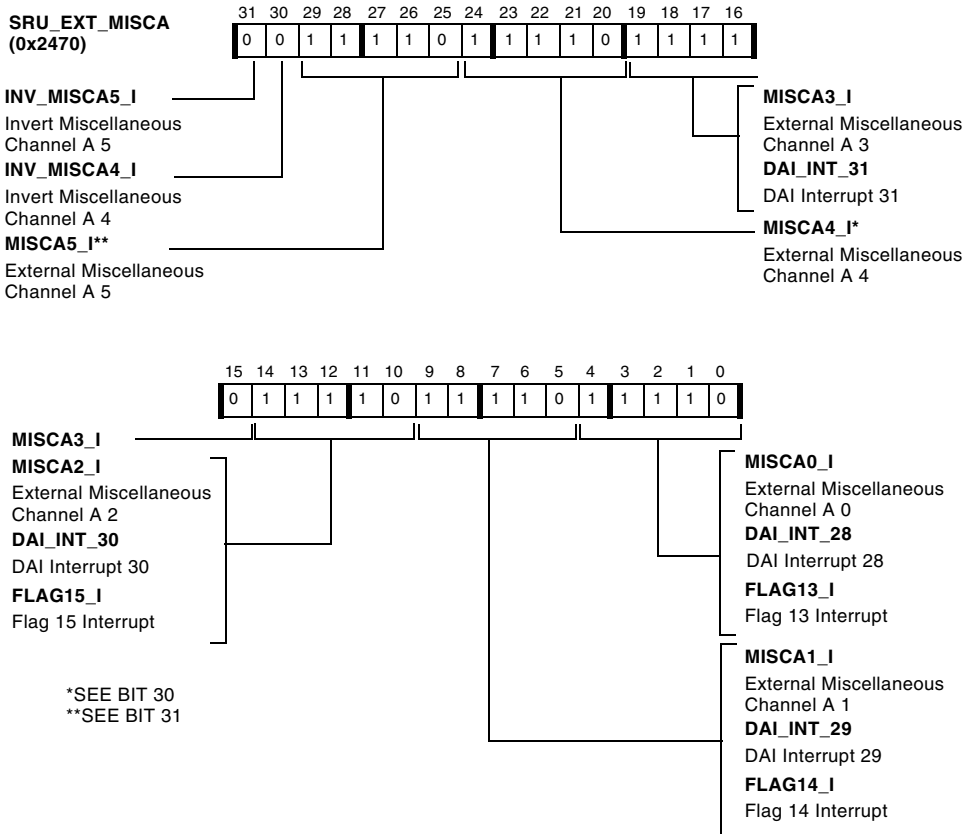


Figure A-50. SRU\_EXT\_MISCA Register

# I/O Processor Registers

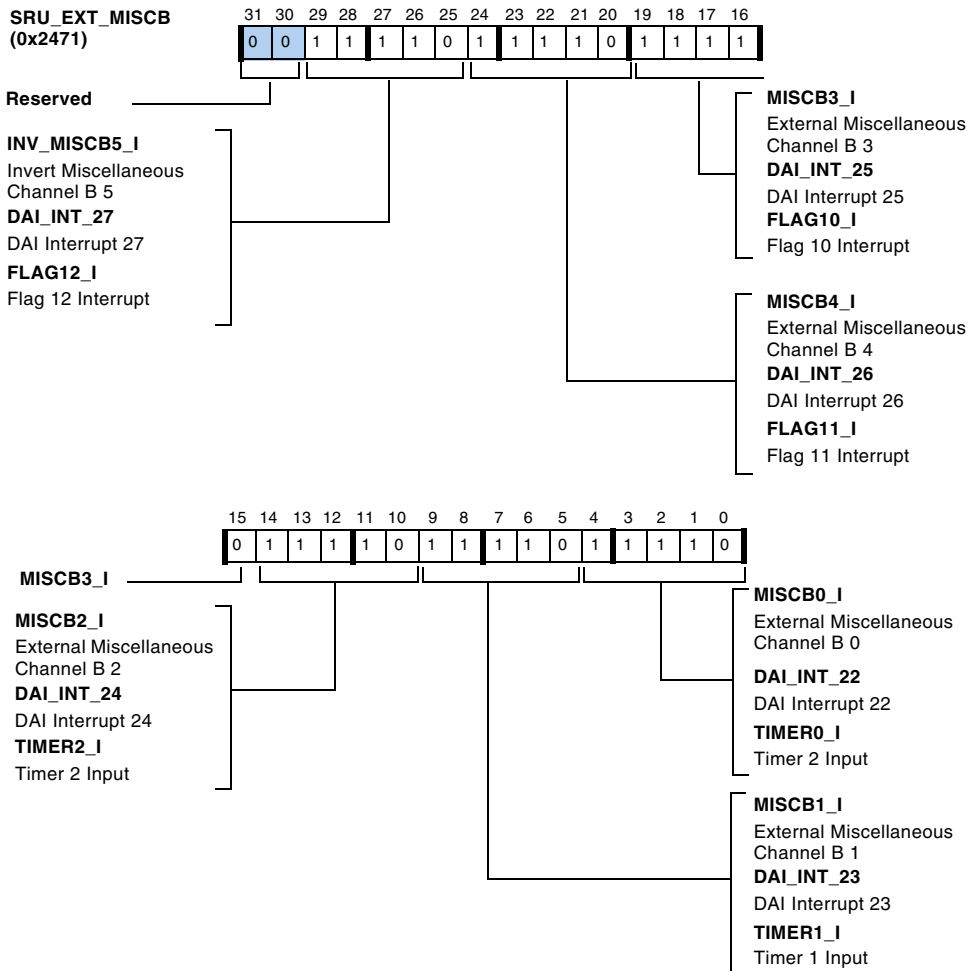


Figure A-51. SRU\_EXT\_MISCB Register

Setting the SRU\_EXT\_MISCB[30] bit to HIGH inverts the level of MISC4\_I, and setting the SRU\_EXT\_MISCB[31] bit to HIGH inverts the level of MISC5\_I.

Table A-38. Group E Sources – Miscellaneous Signals

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
00000 (0x0)	DAI_PB01_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 1 Output as the source
00001 (0x1)	DAI_P02_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 2 Output as the source
00010 (0x2)	DAI_P03_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 3 Output as the source
00011 (0x3)	DAI_P04_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 4 Output as the source
00100 (0x4)	DAI_P05_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 5 Output as the source
00101 (0x5)	DAI_P06_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 6 Output as the source
00110 (0x6)	DAI_P07_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 7 Output as the source
00111 (0x7)	DAI_P08_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 8 Output as the source
01000 (0x8)	DAI_P09_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 9 Output as the source
01001 (0x9)	DAI_P10_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 10 Output as the source
01010 (0xA)	DAI_P11_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 11 Output as the source
01011 (0xB)	DAI_P12_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 12 Output as the source
01100 (0xC)	DAI_P13_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 13 Output as the source
01101 (0xD)	DAI_P14_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 14 Output as the source
01110 (0xE)	DAI_P15_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 15 Output as the source
01111 (0xF)	DAI_P16_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 16 Output as the source
10000 (0x10)	DAI_P17_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 17 Output as the source
10001 (0x11)	DAI_P18_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 18 Output as the source
10010 (0x12)	DAI_P19_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 19 Output as the source

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-38. Group E Sources – Miscellaneous Signals (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
10011 (0x13)	DAI_P20_O	Select DAI Pin Buffer 20 Output as the source
10100 (0x14)	TIMER0_O	Select Timer 0 Output as the source
10101 (0x15)	TIMER1_O	Select Timer 1 Output as the source
10110 (0x16)	TIMER2_O	Select Timer 2 Output as the source
10111 (0x17); 11000 (0x18)	Reserved	
11001 (0x19)	PDAP_STRB_O	Select PDAP Strobe Output as the source
11010 (0x1A)	PCG_CLKA_O	Select Precision Clock A Output as the source
11011 (0x1B)	PCG_FSA_O	Select Precision Frame Sync A Output as the source
11100 (0x1C)	PCG_CLKB_O	Select Precision Clock B Output as the source
11101 (0x1D)	PCG_FSB_O	Select Precision Frame Sync B Output as the source
11110 (0x1E)	MISC_LOW_MISC_O	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
11111 (0x1F)	MISC_HIGH_MISC_O	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source

Setting the `SRU_EXT_MISCA[30]` bit to HIGH inverts the level of the `EXT_MS-CA_4` bit. Setting the `SRU_EXT_MISCA[31]` bit to HIGH inverts the level of the `EXT_MISCA_5` bit.

### DAI Pin Buffer Enable Registers (`SRU_PBENx`, Group F)

The Pin Enable Control registers activate the drive buffer for each of the 20 DAI pins. When the pins are not enabled (driven), they can be used as inputs. Each of the pin enables are connected, based on the 6-bit values in

Table A-39. Sixty-four possible signal sources can be designated for these read/write registers:

- SRU\_PBEN0, described in Figure A-52
- SRU\_PBEN1, described in Figure A-53
- SRU\_PBEN2, described in Figure A-54
- SRU\_PBEN3, described in Figure A-55

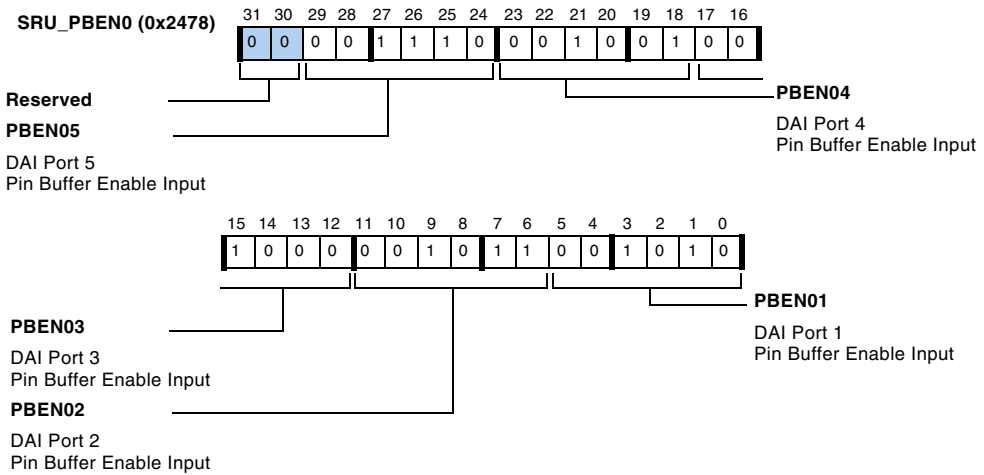


Figure A-52. SRU\_PBEN0

# I/O Processor Registers

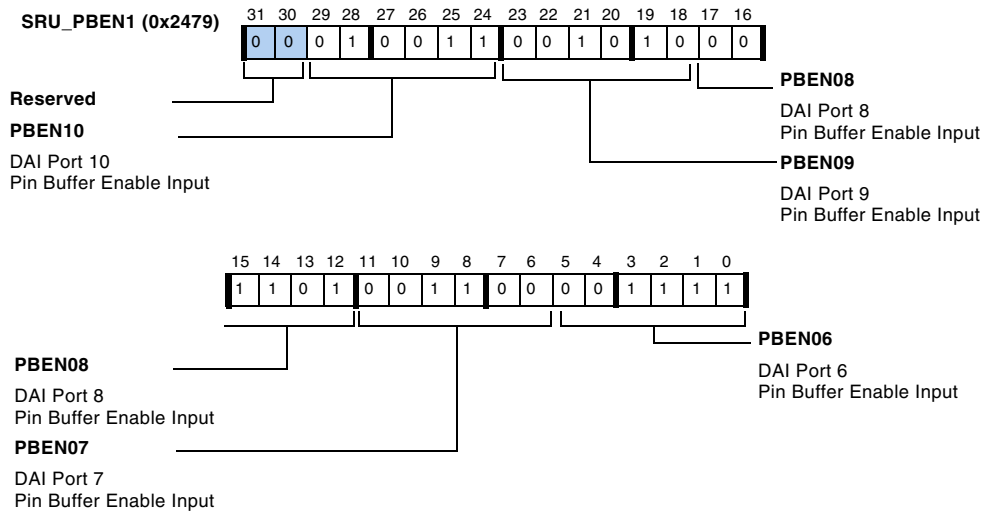


Figure A-53. SRU\_PBEN1

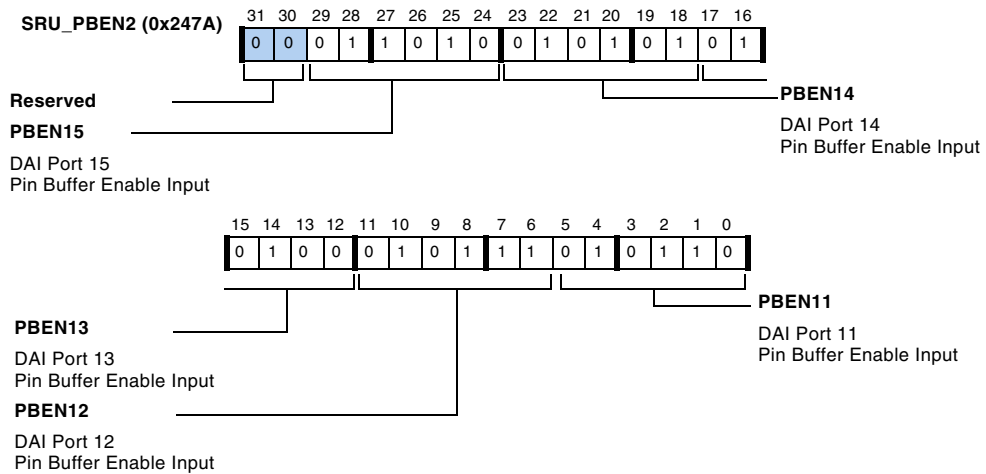


Figure A-54. SRU\_PBEN2



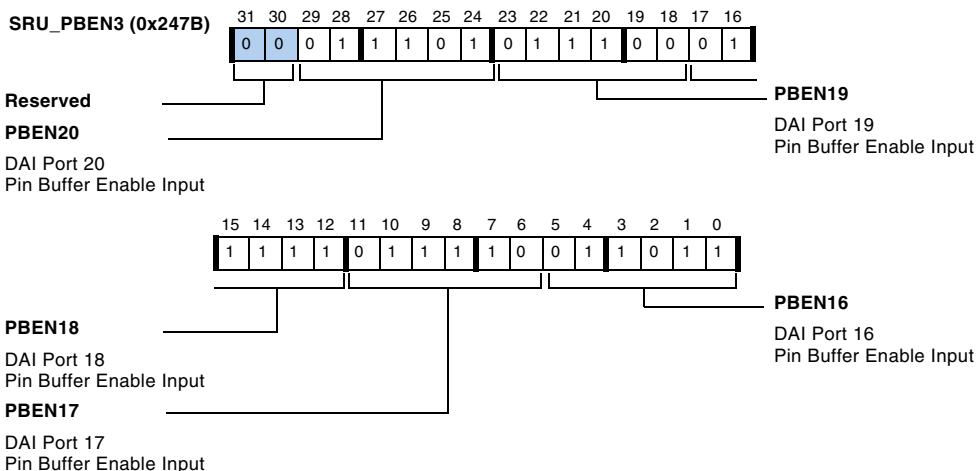


Figure A-55. SRU\_PBEN3

Table A-39. Group F Sources – Pin Output Enable

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
000000 (0x0)	LOW	Select Logic Level Low (0) as the source
000001 (0x1)	HIGH	Select Logic Level High (1) as the source
000010 (0x2)	MISCA0_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A0 Output to a pin
000011 (0x3)	MISCA1_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A1 Output to a pin
000100 (0x4)	MISCA2_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A2 Output to a pin
000101 (0x5)	MISCA3_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A3 Output to a pin
000110 (0x6)	MISCA4_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A4 Output to a pin
000111 (0x7)	MISCA5_O	Assign Miscellaneous Control A5 Output to a pin
001000 (0x8)	SPORT0_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 0 Clock Output Enable as the source

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-39. Group F Sources – Pin Output Enable (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
001001 (0x9)	SPORT0_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 0 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
001010 (0xA)	SPORT0_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 0 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
001011 (0xB)	SPORT0_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 0 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
001100 (0xC)	SPORT1_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 1 Clock Output Enable as the source
001101 (0xD)	SPORT1_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 1 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
001110 (0xE)	SPORT1_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 1 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
001111 (0xF)	SPORT1_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 1 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
010000 (0x10)	SPORT2_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 2 Clock Output Enable as the source
010001 (0x11)	SPORT2_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 2 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
010010 (0x12)	SPORT2_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 2 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
010011 (0x13)	SPORT2_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 2 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
010100 (0x14)	SPORT3_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 3 Clock Output Enable as the source
010101 (0x15)	SPORT3_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 3 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
010110 (0x16)	SPORT3_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 3 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
010111 (0x17)	SPORT3_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 3 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
011000 (0x18)	SPORT4_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 4 Clock Output Enable as the source

Table A-39. Group F Sources – Pin Output Enable (Cont'd)

Selection Code	Source Signal	Description
011001 (0x19)	SPORT4_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 4 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
011010 (0x1A)	SPORT4_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 4 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
011011 (0x1B)	SPORT4_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 4 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
011100 (0x1C)	SPORT5_CLK_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 5 Clock as the Output Enable source
011101 (0x1D)	SPORT5_FS_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 5 Frame Sync Output Enable as the source
011110 (0x1E)	SPORT5_DA_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 5 Data Channel A Output Enable as the source
011111 (0x1F)	SPORT5_DB_PBEN_O	Select Serial Port 5 Data Channel B Output Enable as the source
100000 (0x20)	TIMER0_PBEN_O	Select Timer 0 Output Enable as the source
100001 (0x21)	TIMER1_PBEN_O	Select Timer 1 Output Enable as the source
100010 (0x22)	TIMER2_PBEN_O	Select Timer 2 Output Enable as the source
100011 (0x23)	FLAG10_PBEN_O	Select Flag 10 Output Enable as the source
100100 (0x24)	FLAG11_PBEN_O	Select Flag 11 Output Enable as the source
100101 (0x25)	FLAG12_PBEN_O	Select Flag 12 Output Enable as the source
100110 (0x26)	FLAG13_PBEN_O	Select Flag 13 Output Enable as the source
100111 (0x27)	FLAG14_PBEN_O	Select Flag 14 Output Enable as the source
101000 (0x28)	FLAG15_PBEN_O	Select Flag 15 Output Enable as the source
101001 (0x29)	Reserved	

## Precision Clock Generator Registers

The Precision Clock Generator (PCG) consists of two identical units. Each of these two units (A and B) generates one clock signal (CLKA\_0 or CLKB\_0) and one frame sync (FSA\_0 or FSB\_0) output. The PCGs are controlled by the following five memory-mapped registers in the DAI:

- PCG\_CTLA\_0, described in [Figure A-56](#)
- PCG\_CTLA\_1, described in [Figure A-57](#)
- PCG\_CTLB\_0, described in [Figure A-58](#)
- PCG\_CTLB\_1, described in [Figure A-59](#)
- PCG\_PW, described in [Figure A-60](#)

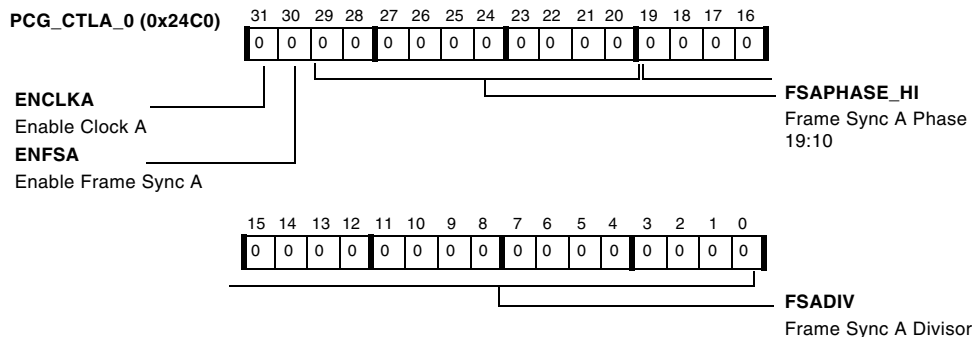


Figure A-56. PCG\_CTLA\_0 Register

Table A-40. PCG\_CTLA\_0 Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
19–0	FSADIV	Divisor for Frame Sync A.
29–20	FSAPHASE_HI	Phase for Frame Sync A. Represents the upper half of the 20-bit value for the channel A frame sync phase. The phase represents the number of input clocks remaining in the first frame after the signal is enabled. See FSAPHASE_LO (Bits 29-20) in PCG_CTLA_1 described on <a href="#">page A-144</a> .
30	ENFSA	Enable Frame Sync A. 0 = Frame Sync A generation disabled 1 = Frame Sync A generation enabled
31	ENCLKA	Enable Clock A. 0 = Clock A generation disabled 1 = Clock A generation enabled

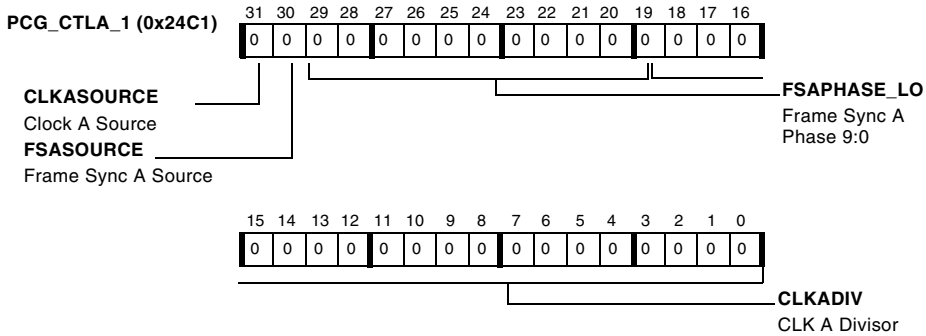


Figure A-57. PCG\_CTLA\_1 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

Table A-41. PCG\_CTLA\_1 Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
19–0	CLKADIV	Divisor for Clock A.
29–20	FSAPHASE_LO	Phase for Frame Sync A. Note: This field represents the lower half of the 20-bit value for the channel A frame sync phase. The phase represents the number of input clocks remaining in the first frame after the signal is enabled. See also FSAPHASE_HI (Bits 29-20) in PCG_CTLA_0 shown in <a href="#">on page A-143</a> .
30	FSASOURCE	Frame Sync A Source Master Clock Source for Frame Sync A. 0 = CLKIN input selected for Frame Sync A 1 = PCG_EXT_A_I selected for Frame Sync A
31	CLKASOURCE	Clock A Source Master Clock Source for Clock A. 0 = CLKIN input selected for Clock A 1 = PCG_EXT_A_I selected for Clock A

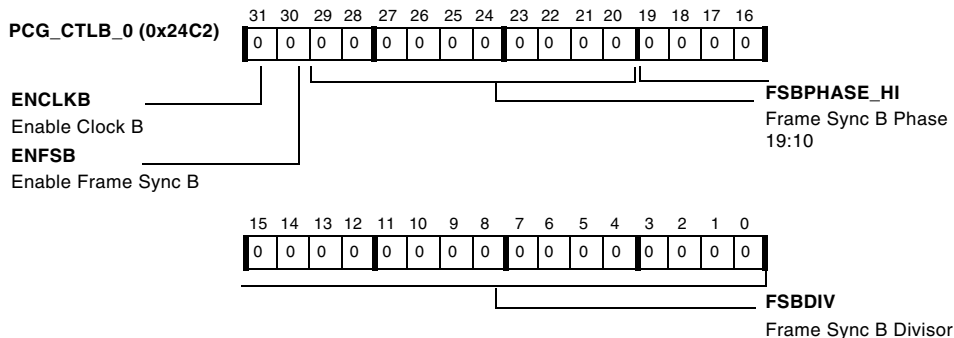


Figure A-58. PCG\_CTLB\_0 Register

Table A-42. PCG\_CTLB\_0 Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
19–0	FSBDIV	Divisor for Frame Sync B.
29–20	FSBPHASE_HI	<b>Phase for Frame Sync B.</b> This field represents the upper half of the 20-bit value for the channel B frame sync phase. The phase represents the number of input clocks remaining in the first frame after the signal is enabled. See also FSBPHASE_LO (Bits 29-20) in PCG_CTLB_1 shown in <a href="#">Figure A-59 on page A-145</a> .
30	ENFSB	<b>Enable Frame Sync B.</b> 0 = Frame Sync B generation disabled 1 = Frame Sync B generation enabled
31	ENCLKB	<b>Enable Clock B.</b> 0 = Clock B generation disabled 1 = Clock B generation enabled

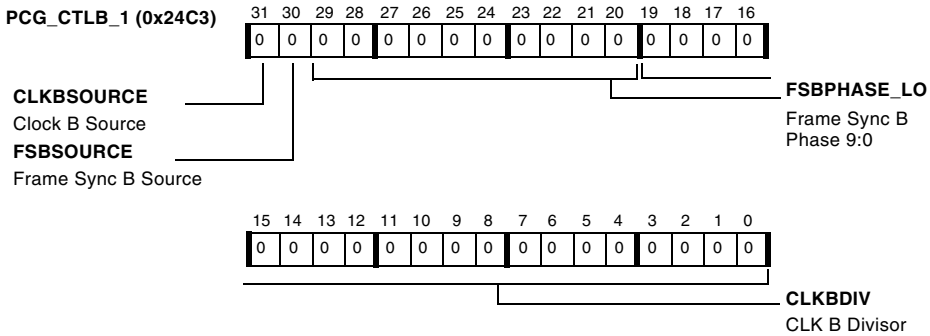


Figure A-59. PCG\_CTLB\_1 Register

# I/O Processor Registers

Table A-43. PCG\_CTLB\_1 Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
19–0	CLKBDIV	Divisor for Clock B.
29–20	FSBPHASE_LO	<b>Phase for Frame Sync B.</b> Note: This field represents the lower half of the 20-bit value for the channel B frame sync phase. The phase represents the number of input clocks remaining in the first frame after the signal is enabled. See also FSBPHASE_HI (Bits 29-20) in PCG_CTLB_0 shown in <a href="#">Figure A-58 on page A-144</a> .
30	FSBSOURCE	<b>Frame Sync B Source.</b> Master Clock Source for Frame Sync B. 0 = CLKIN input selected for Frame Sync B 1 = PCG_EXTB_I selected for Frame Sync B
31	CLKBSOURCE	<b>Clock B Source.</b> Master Clock Source for Clock B. 0 = CLKIN input selected for Clock B 1 = PCG_EXTB_I selected for Clock B

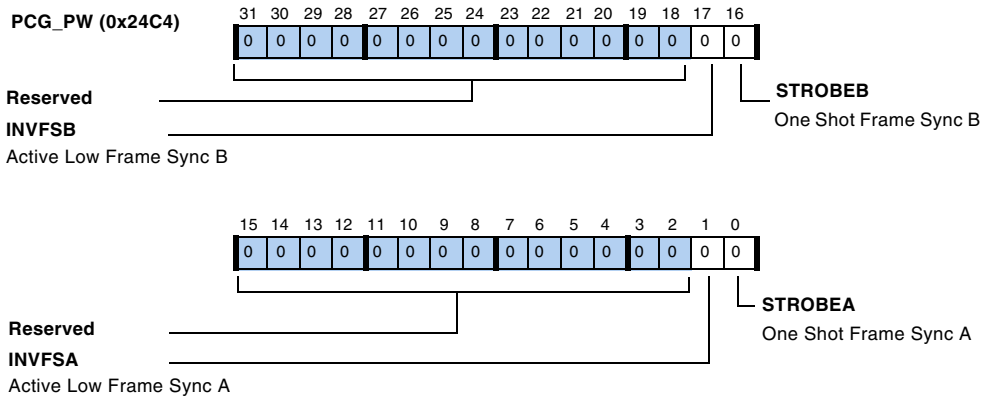


Figure A-60. PCG\_PW Register (Bypass Mode)



Table A-44. PCG\_PW Register (Bypass Mode)

Bits	Name	Description
0	STROBEA	<b>One Shot Frame Sync A.</b> Frame sync is a pulse with duration equal to one period of MISCA2_I signal repeating at the beginning of every frame. Note: This is valid in bypass mode only.
1	INVFSA	<b>Active Low Frame Sync Select for Frame Sync A.</b> Selects an active low FS if set, (= 1) or active high FS if cleared, (= 0).
15–2	Reserved <sup>1</sup>	
16	STROBEB	<b>One Shot Frame Sync B.</b> Frame Sync is a pulse with duration equal to one period of MISCA3_I signal repeating at the beginning of every frame. Note: This is valid in bypass mode only.
17	INVFSB	<b>Active Low Frame Sync Select.</b> Selects an active low FS if set, (= 1) or active high FS if cleared, (= 0).
31–18	Reserved <sup>1</sup>	

1 In bypass mode, Bits 15-2 and Bits 31-18 are ignored.

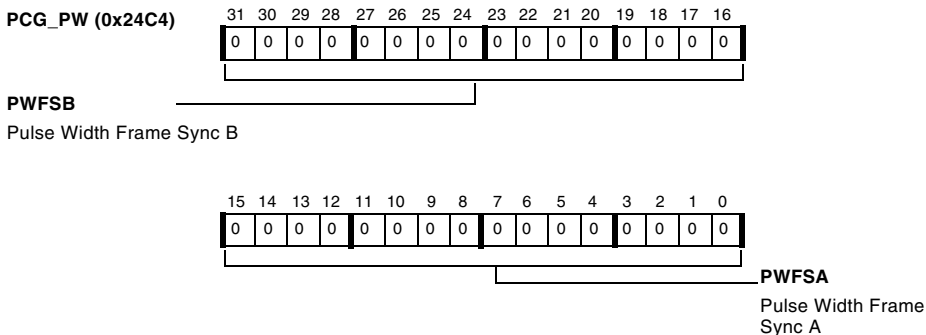


Figure A-61. PCG\_PW Register (Normal Mode)

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-45. PCG\_PW Register (Normal Mode)

Number of Bits	Name	Description
15–0	PWFSA	<b>Pulse Width for Frame Sync A.</b> These bits are valid when not in Bypass mode.
31–16	PWFBSB	<b>Pulse Width for Frame Sync B.</b> These bits are valid when not in Bypass mode.

## Input Data Port Registers

The Input Data Port (IDP) provides an additional input path to the processor core, configurable as 8 channels of serial data or 7 channels of serial data, and a single channel of up to a 20-bit wide parallel data. Seven registers are used to specify modes, track status of inputs and outputs, permit the IDP FIFO buffer to be read, and so on.

- IDP\_CTL, described in [Figure A-62](#)
- DAI\_STAT, described in [Figure A-70](#)
- IDP\_FIFO, described on [Figure A-63](#)
- IDP\_DMA\_Ix (including IDP\_DMA\_I0, IDP\_DMA\_I1, IDP\_DMA\_I2, IDP\_DMA\_I3, IDP\_DMA\_I4, IDP\_DMA\_I5, IDP\_DMA\_I6, and IDP\_DMA\_I7) described beginning with [Figure A-64](#)
- IDP\_DMA\_Mx (including IDP\_DMA\_M0, IDP\_DMA\_M1, IDP\_DMA\_M2, IDP\_DMA\_M3, IDP\_DMA\_M4, IDP\_DMA\_M5, IDP\_DMA\_M6, and IDP\_DMA\_M7), described beginning with [Figure A-65](#)
- IDP\_DMA\_Cx (including IDP\_DMA\_C0, IDP\_DMA\_C1, IDP\_DMA\_C2, IDP\_DMA\_C3, IDP\_DMA\_C4, IDP\_DMA\_C5, IDP\_DMA\_C6, and IDP\_DMA\_C7), described beginning with [Figure A-66](#)
- IDP\_PDAP\_CTL, described in [Figure A-67](#)

## Input Data Port Control Register (IDP\_CTL)

The IDP\_CTL[31:8] bits control the input format modes for each of the eight channels.

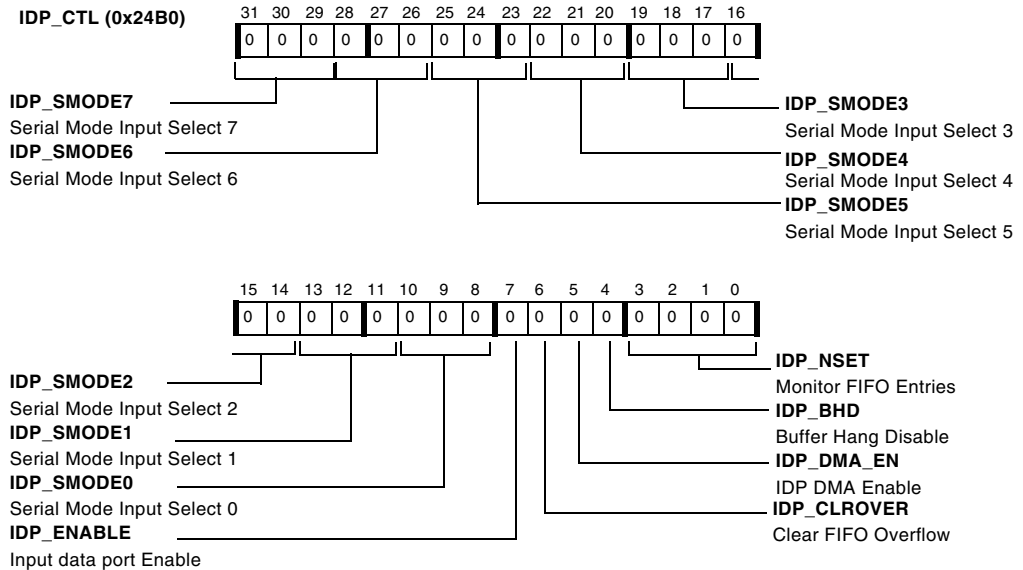


Figure A-62. IDP\_CTL Register

Table A-46. IDP\_CTL Register

Bits	Name	Description
3-0	IDP_NSET	Monitored number of FIFO entries where N > samples raises Interrupt Controller bit 8.
4	IDP_BHD	<b>IDP Buffer Hang Disable.</b> Reads of an empty FIFO or writes to a full FIFO make the core hang. This condition continues until the FIFO has valid data (in the case of reads) or the FIFO has at least one empty location (in the case of writes). 1 = Core hang is disabled 0 = Core hang is enabled

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-46. IDP\_CTL Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
5	IDP_DMA_EN	<b>DMA Enable.</b> Enables DMA on all IDP channels.
6	IDP_CLROVR	<b>FIFO Overflow Clear Bit.</b> Writes of 1 to this bit will clear the overflow condition in the DAI_STAT register. Because this is a write-only bit; it always returns LOW when read.
7	IDP_ENABLE	<b>Enable IDP.</b> 1 to 0 transition on this bit clears the IDP_FIFO. 1 = IDP is enabled 0 = IDP is disabled and data does not come to IDP_FIFO from IDP channels
10–8	IDP_SMODE0	<b>Serial Input Mode Select.</b> These eight inputs (0-7), each of which is 3-bits, indicate the mode of the serial input for each of the eight IDP channels. Input format: 000 = Left-justified Sample Pair mode 001 = I <sup>2</sup> S mode 010 = RESERVED 011 = RESERVED 100 = Right-justified 24-bits 101 = Right-justified 20-bits 110 = Right-justified 18-bits 111 = Right-justified 16-bits
13–11	IDP_SMODE1	
16–14	IDP_SMODE2	
19–17	IDP_SMODE3	
22–20	IDP_SMODE4	
25–23	IDP_SMODE5	
28–26	IDP_SMODE6	
31–29	IDP_SMODE7	

### Input Data Port FIFO Register (IDP\_FIFO)

The IDP\_FIFO register provides information about the output of the IDP FIFO. Normally, the IDP\_FIFO register is used only to read and remove the top sample from the FIFO. However, the core may also write to this register. When it does so, the audio data word is pushed into the input side of the FIFO, as if it had come from the SRU on the channel encoded in the three LSBs. This can be useful for verifying the operation of the

FIFO, the DMA channels, and the status portions of the IDP. The IDP FIFO is an eight-deep FIFO.

**i** Channel encoding provides for eight combinations, corresponding to the eight inputs. When using Channels 1–7, this register format applies, as well as when using Channel 0 in Serial mode. When using Channel 0 in Parallel mode, refer to the descriptions of the four possible packing modes. For more information, see “Packing Unit” on page 11-8.

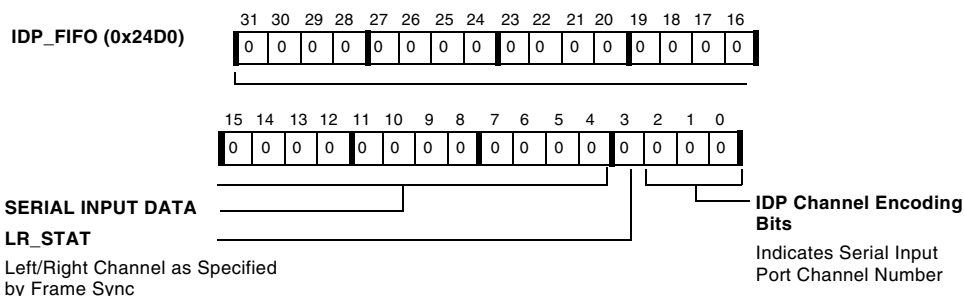


Figure A-63. IDP\_FIFO Register

Table A-47. IDP\_FIFO Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
2–0		<b>IDP Channel Encoding Bits.</b> Indicate serial input port channel number that gave this serial input data. Note: This information is not valid when data comes from PDAP channel.
3	LR_STAT	<b>Left/Right Channel Status.</b> Indicate whether the data in bits 31–4 is the left or the right audio channel as dictated by the frame sync signal. The polarity of the encoding depends on the serial mode selected in IDP_SMODE for that channel. See IDP_CTL description in <a href="#">Table A-46 on page A-149</a> .
31–4		<b>Input Data (Serial).</b> Some LSBs can be zero, depending on the mode.

## I/O Processor Registers



The information in this table is not valid for the case where data comes from the PDAP channel.

### Input Data Port DMA Control Registers

Each of the eight DMA channels have an I register with an Index pointer (19 bits), an M register with an M modifier/stride (6 bits), and a C register with a count (16 bits). For example, IDP\_DMA\_IO, IDP\_DMA\_MO and IDP\_DMA\_CO control the DMA for Channel 0. These registers are:

- IDP\_DMA\_I<sub>x</sub> (Index) registers
- IDP\_DMA\_M<sub>x</sub> (Modifier) registers
- IDP\_DMA\_C<sub>x</sub> (Count) registers

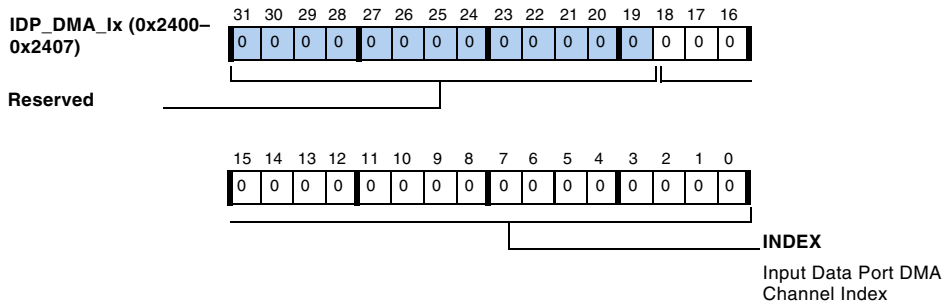


Figure A-64. IDP\_DMA\_I<sub>x</sub> Register

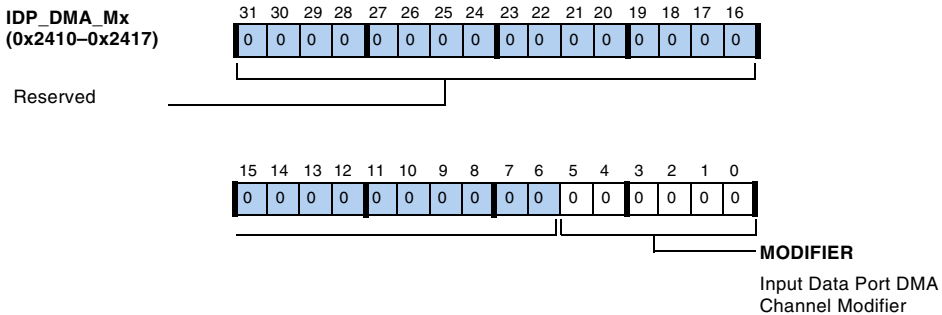


Figure A-65. IDP\_DMA\_Mx Register

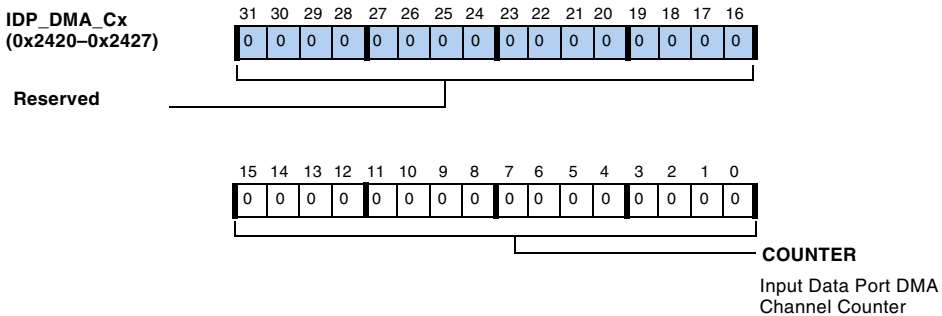


Figure A-66. IDP\_DMA\_Cx Register

## Parallel Data Acquisition Port Control Register (IDP\_PDAP\_CTL)

Setting the IDP\_PDAP\_CTL[31] bit enables either the 20 DAI pins or the 16 parallel port address/data pins to be used as a parallel input channel. These parallel words may be packed into 32-bit words for efficiency. The data then flows through the FIFO and is transferred by a dedicated DMA channel into the core's memory as with any IDP channel.

The IDP\_PDAP\_CTL register provides 20 mask bits that allow the input from any of the 20 pins to be ignored. When the mask bit is cleared, the corresponding bit is cleared in the acquired data word. This register also

## I/O Processor Registers

provides a reset bit that zeros any data waiting in the packing unit to be latched into the FIFO. The `RESET` bit (bit 30) causes the reset circuit to strobe when asserted, and then automatically clears. Therefore, this bit always returns a value of zero when read. Bit 26 of the `IDP_PDAP_CTL` register selects between the two sets of pins that may be used as the parallel input port. When the `IDP_PDAP_CTL[26]` bit is set, the upper 16 bits are read from the `AD[15:0]` pins. When the `IDP_PDAP_CTL[26]` bit is cleared, the upper 16 bits are read from the `DAI_P[20:5]` pins.

Note that the four LSBs of the parallel data acquisition port input are not multiplexed, and this input value is always read from the `DAI_P` pins, `DAI_P[4:1]`.

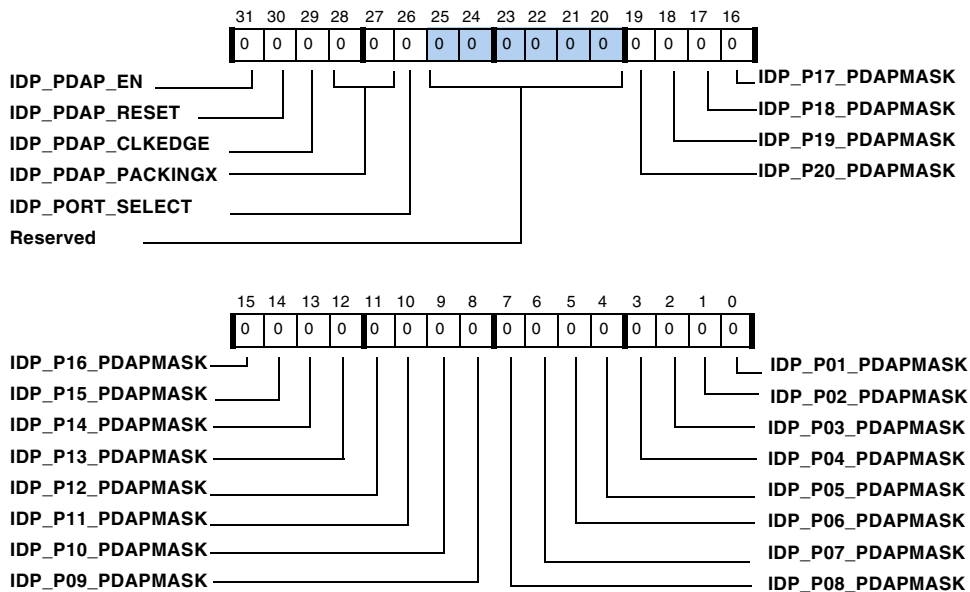


Figure A-67. IDP\_PDAP\_CTL Register



Table A-48. IDP\_PDAP\_CTL Register

Bits	Name	Description
0	IDP_P01_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_01 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_01 is un-masked
1	IDP_P02_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_02 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_02 is un-masked
2	IDP_P03_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_03 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_03 is un-masked
3	IDP_P04_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_04 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_04 is un-masked
4	IDP_P05_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_05/DATA0 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_05/DATA0 is un-masked
5	IDP_P06_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_06/DATA1 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_06/DATA1 is un-masked
6	IDP_P07_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_07/DATA2 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_07/DATA2 is un-masked
7	IDP_P08_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_08/DATA3 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_08/DATA3 is un-masked
8	IDP_P09_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_09/DATA4 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_09/DATA4 is un-masked
9	IDP_P10_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_10/DATA5 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_10/DATA5 is un-masked
10	IDP_P11_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_11/DATA6 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_11/DATA6 is un-masked

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-48. IDP\_PDAP\_CTL Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
11	IDP_P12_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_12/DATA7 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_12/DATA7 is un-masked
12	IDP_P13_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_13/ADDR0 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_13/ADDR0 is un-masked
13	IDP_P14_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_14/ADDR1 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_14/ADDR1 is un-masked
14	IDP_P15_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_15/ADDR2 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_15/ADDR2 is un-masked
15	IDP_P16_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_16/ADDR3 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_16/ADDR3 is un-masked
16	IDP_P17_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_17/ADDR4 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_17/ADDR4 is un-masked
17	IDP_P18_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_18/ADDR5 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_18/ADDR5 is un-masked
18	IDP_P19_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_19/ADDR6 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_19/ADDR6 is un-masked
19	IDP_P20_PDAPMASK	<b>Parallel Data Acquisition Port Mask</b> 0 = Input data from DAI_20/ADDR7 is masked 1 = Input data from DAI_20/ADDR7 is un-masked
25–20	Reserved	
26	IDP_PORT_SELECT	<b>Port Select: Input Pins Select</b> 1 = Selects upper 16 inputs from AD[15:0] (ADDR7–ADDR0, DATA7–DATA0) 0 = Selects upper 16 inputs from DAI_P[20:5]

Table A-48. IDP\_PDAP\_CTL Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
28–27	IDP_PDAP_PACKING	<b>PACKING</b> Selects PDAP packing mode 00 = 8 to 32 packing 01 = {11,11,10} to 32 packing 10 = 16 to 32 packing 11 = 20 to 32 packing
29	IDP_PDAP_CLKEDGE	<b>PDAP (Rising or Falling) Clock Edge</b> Setting this bit (= 1) causes the data to be latched on the falling edge. Clearing this bit causes data to be latched on the rising edge of the clock (IDP0_CLK_I).
30	IDP_PDAP_RESET	<b>PDAP Reset</b> Setting this bit (= 1) causes the PDAP reset circuit to strobe; then this bit is cleared automatically. This bit will always return a value of zero when read.
31	IDP_PDAP_EN	<b>PDAP Enable</b> Setting this bit (= 1) enables either the 20 DAI pins or the 16 parallel port address/data pins to be used as a parallel input channel. Clearing this bit (= 0) disables those pins from use as parallel input channels. Note: When this bit is set to 1, then IDP Channel 0 cannot be used as a serial input port.

## Peripheral Timer Registers

The timer peripheral module provides general-purpose timer functionality. It consists of three identical timer units. Each timer has memory-mapped registers described in the following sections.

## Timer Configuration Registers (TMxCTL)

All timer clocks are gated off when the specific timer’s configuration register is set to zero at system reset or subsequently reset by user programs. These registers are shown in [Figure A-68](#).

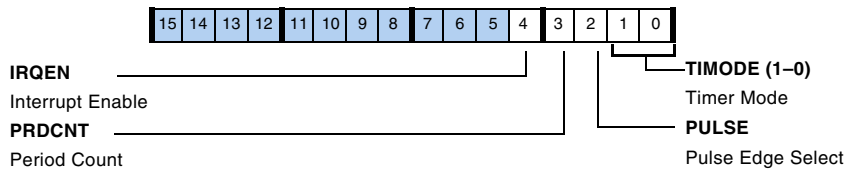


Figure A-68. TMxCTL Register

Table A-49. TMxCTL Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Definition
1–0	TIMODE	<b>Timer Mode.</b> 00 = Reset 01 = PWM_OUT mode (TIMODEPWM) 10 = WIDTH_CAP mode (TIMODEW) 11 = EXT_CLK mode (TIMODEEXT)
2	PULSE	<b>Pulse Edge Select.</b> 1 = Positive active pulse 0 = Negative active pulse
3	PRDCNT	<b>Period Count.</b> 1 = Count to end of period 0 = Count to end of width
4	IRQEN	<b>Interrupt Enable.</b> 1 = Enable 0 = Disable

## Timer Status Registers (TMxSTAT)

The global status registers  $TM_xSTAT$  are shown in [Figure A-69](#). Status bits are sticky and require a write-one to clear operation. During a status register read access, all reserved or unused bits return a zero. Each timer generates a unique processor interrupt request signal,  $TIM_xIRQ$ .

A common status register latches these interrupts. Interrupt bits are sticky and must be cleared to assure that the interrupt is not reissued.

Each timer is provided with its own sticky status register  $TIM_xEN$  bit. To enable or disable an individual timer, the  $TIM_xEN$  bit is set or cleared. For example, writing a one to bit 8 sets the  $TIM0EN$  bit; writing a one to bit 9 clears it. Writing a one to both bit 8 and bit 9 clears  $TIM0EN$ . Reading the status register returns the  $TIM0EN$  state on both bit 8 and bit 9. The remaining  $TIM_xEN$  bits operate similarly.

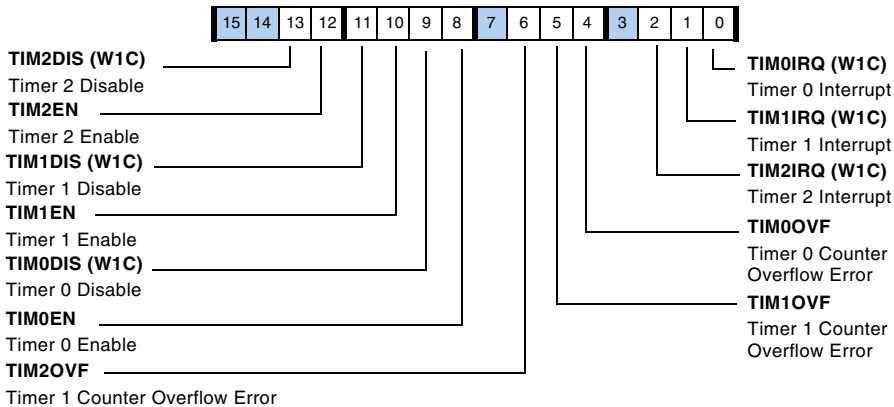


Figure A-69.  $TM_xSTAT$  Register

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-50. TMxSTAT Register Bit Descriptions

Bit	Name	Description
0	TIM0IRQ Timer 0 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
1	TIM1IRQ Timer 1 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
2	TIM2IRQ Timer 2 Interrupt Latch	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
3	Reserved	
4	TIM0OVF Timer 0 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
5	TIM1OVF Timer 1 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
6	TIM2OVF Timer 2 Overflow/Error	Write one-to-clear (also an output)
7	Reserved	
8	TIM0EN Timer 0 Enable	Write one to enable timer 0
9	TIM0EN Timer 0 Disable	Write one to disable timer 0
10	TIM1EN Timer 1 Enable	Write one to enable timer 1
11	TIM1EN Timer 1 Disable	Write one to disable timer 1
12	TIM2EN Timer 2 Enable	Write one to enable timer 2
13	TIM2EN Timer 2 Disable	Write one to disable timer 2
31–11	Reserved	

## DAI Registers

The digital applications interface (DAI) is comprised of a group of peripherals and the signal routing unit (SRU).

### Digital Audio Interface Status Register (DAI\_STAT)

The `DAI_STAT` register is a read-only register located at address `0x24B8`. The state of all eight DMA channels is reflected in the `IDP_DMAx_STAT` bits (bits 24–17) of the `DAI_STAT` register. These bits are set once the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit is set and they remain set until the last data in that channel is transferred. Even if the `IDP_DMA_EN` bit is set, it goes low once the required number of data transfers occurs. Even if the DMA through some channel is not intended, its `IDP_DMAx_STAT` goes high.

# I/O Processor Registers

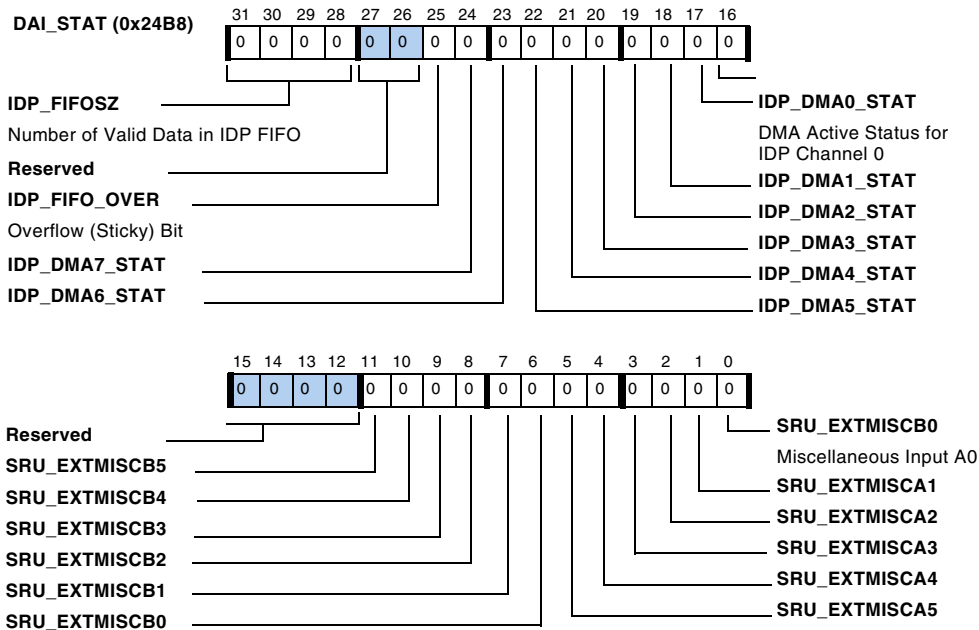


Figure A-70. DAI\_STAT Register

Table A-51. DAI\_STAT Register Bit Descriptions

Bits	Name	Description
11–0	SRU_EXTMISC <sub>Cyx</sub>	<b>Miscellaneous Input A/B Signals.</b> Indicate the status of the MISC <sub>Cx</sub> _I signals.
16–12	Reserved	
24–17	IDP_DMA <sub>x</sub> _STAT	<b>Input Data Port DMA Status.</b> 1 = DMA is active 0 = DMA is not active
25	IDP_FIFO_OVER	<b>IDP_FIFO Overflow Status.</b> This (sticky) bit provides IDP FIFO overflow status information. 1 = Overflow has occurred 0 = No overflow
27–26	Reserved	
31–28	IDP_FIFO_SZ	Number of samples in FIFO



### DAI Resistor Pull-up Enable Register (DAI\_PIN\_PULLUP)

This 20-bit read/write register is located at address 0x247D. Bits 19–0 of this register control the enabling/disabling 22.5 K $\Omega$  pull-up resistor on the DAI\_PO[19:0] bits. Setting a bit to one enables a pull-up resistor on the corresponding pin. After RESET, the value of this register is 0xFFFF, which means pull-up is enabled on all 20 DAI pins.

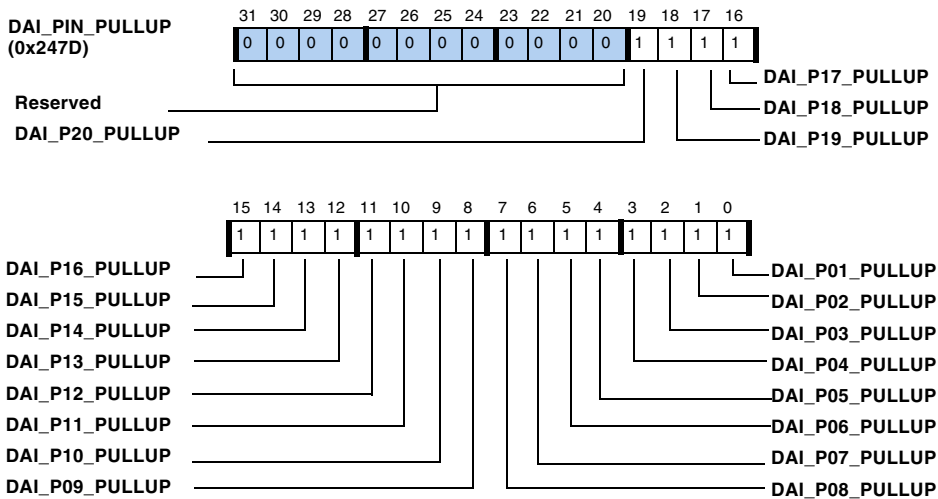


Figure A-71. DAI\_PIN\_PULLUP Register

Table A-52. DAI\_PIN\_PULLUP Register

Bits	Name	Description
0	DAI_P01_PULLUP	Enable/Disable 22.5 K $\Omega$ Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P01 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P01 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P01
1	DAI_P02_PULLUP	Enable/Disable 22.5 K $\Omega$ Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P02 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P02 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P02
2	DAI_P03_PULLUP	Enable/Disable 22.5 K $\Omega$ Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P03 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P03 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P03

## I/O Processor Registers

Table A-52. DAI\_PIN\_PULLUP Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
3	DAI_P04_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P04</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P04 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P04
4	DAI_P05_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P05</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P05 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P05
5	DAI_P06_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P06</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P06 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P06
6	DAI_P07_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P07</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P07 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P07
7	DAI_P08_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P08</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P08 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P08
8	DAI_P09_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P09</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P09 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P09
9	DAI_P10_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P10</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P10 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P10
10	DAI_P11_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P11</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P11 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P11
11	DAI_P12_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P12</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P12 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P12
12	DAI_P13_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P13</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P13 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P13
13	DAI_P14_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P14</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P14 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P14

Table A-52. DAI\_PIN\_PULLUP Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
14	DAI_P15_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P15</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P15 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P15
15	DAI_P16_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P16</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P16 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P16
16	DAI_P17_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P17</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P17 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P17
17	DAI_P18_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P18</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P18 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P18
18	DAI_P19_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P19</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P19 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P19
19	DAI_P20_PULLUP	<b>Enable/Disable 22.5 K<math>\Omega</math> Pull-up Resistor for DAI_P20</b> 1 = enables pull-up on DAI_P20 0 = disables pull-up on DAI_P20
31–20	Reserved	

# I/O Processor Registers

## DAI Pin Status Register (DAI\_PIN\_STAT)

This 20-bit read-only register is located at address 0x24B9. Bits 19–0 of this register indicate the status of DAI\_P[20:1]. Reads from bits 31–20 always return 0. This register is updated at ½ core clock rate.

DAI\_PIN\_STAT (0x24B9)

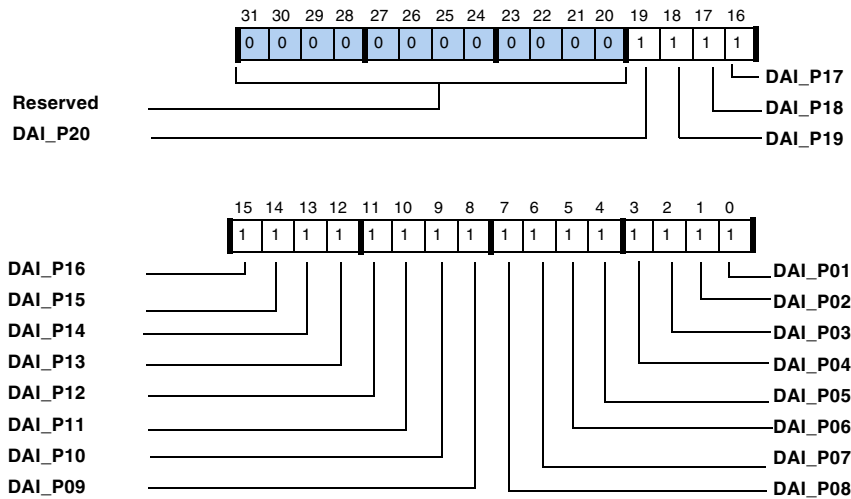


Figure A-72. DAI\_PIN\_STAT Register

Table A-53. DAI\_PIN\_STAT Register

Bits	Name	Description
0	DAI_P01	Provides status of DAI_P01 pin
1	DAI_P02	Provides status of DAI_P01 pin
2	DAI_P03	Provides status of DAI_P03 pin
3	DAI_P04	Provides status of DAI_P04 pin
4	DAI_P05	Provides status of DAI_P05 pin
5	DAI_P06	Provides status of DAI_P06 pin

Table A-53. DAI\_PIN\_STAT Register (Cont'd)

Bits	Name	Description
6	DAI_P07	Provides status of DAI_P07 pin
7	DAI_P08	Provides status of DAI_P08 pin
8	DAI_P09	Provides status of DAI_P09 pin
9	DAI_P10	Provides status of DAI_P10 pin
10	DAI_P11	Provides status of DAI_P11 pin
11	DAI_P12	Provides status of DAI_P12 pin
12	DAI_P13	Provides status of DAI_P13 pin
13	DAI_P14	Provides status of DAI_P14 pin
14	DAI_P15	Provides status of DAI_P15 pin
15	DAI_P16	Provides status of DAI_P16 pin
16	DAI_P17	Provides status of DAI_P17 pin
17	DAI_P18	Provides status of DAI_P18 pin
18	DAI_P19	Provides status of DAI_P19 pin
19	DAI_P20	Provides status of DAI_P20 pin
31–20	Reserved	

## DAI Interrupt Controller Registers



The DAI contains its own Interrupt Controller that indicates to the core when DAI audio peripheral related events occur. Since audio events generally occur infrequently relative to the SHARC processor core, the DAI Interrupt Controller reduces all of its interrupts onto two interrupt signals within the core's primary interrupt systems—one mapped with low priority and one mapped with high priority. This architecture allows the user to indicate priority broadly. In this way, the DAI interrupt controller registers provide 32 independently configurable interrupts labeled `DAI_INT[31:0]`, respectively.

## I/O Processor Registers

The DAI Interrupt Controller is configured using three registers. Each of the 32 interrupt lines can be independently configured to trigger based on the incoming signal's rising edge, falling edge, both or neither. Setting a bit in the `DAI_IRPTL_RE` or `DAI_IRPTL_FE` registers enables the interrupt level on the rising and falling edges, respectively.

The 32 interrupt signals within the DAI are mapped to two interrupt signals in the primary Interrupt Controller of the SHARC processor core. The `DAI_IRPTL_PRI` register selects if the DAI interrupt is mapped to the high priority or low priority core interrupt (1 = high priority, 0 = low priority).

The `DAI_IRPTL_H` register is a read-only register that has bits set for every DAI interrupt latched for the high priority core interrupt. The `DAI_IRPTL_L` register is a read-only register that has bits set for every DAI interrupt latched for the low priority core interrupt. When a DAI interrupt occurs, the low or high priority core ISR should query its corresponding register to determine which of the 32 interrupt sources requires service. When the `DAI_IRPTL_H` register is read, the high priority latched interrupts are cleared. When the `DAI_IRPTL_L` register is read, the low priority latched interrupts are cleared.

-  DMA, overflow, and greater than N interrupts can be sensed only at rising edges. Falling edges are not used for these ten interrupts (eight DMA, one overflow, and one FIFO valid data greater than N).
-  The `IDP_FIFO_GTN_INT` interrupt is not cleared when the `DAI_IRPTL_H/L` registers are read. This interrupt is cleared automatically when the situation that caused of the interrupt goes away.

The following registers are used primarily to provide status of the Resident Interrupt Controller:

- High Priority Interrupt Latch (DAI\_IRPTL\_H) register, described on page A-169
- Low Priority Interrupt Latch (DAI\_IRPTL\_L) register, described on page A-170
- Core Interrupt Priority Assignment (DAI\_IRPTL\_PRI) register, described on page A-171
- Rising Edge Interrupt Mask (DAI\_IRPTL\_RE) register, described on page A-172
- Falling Edge Interrupt Mask (DAI\_IRPTL\_FE) register, described on page A-173

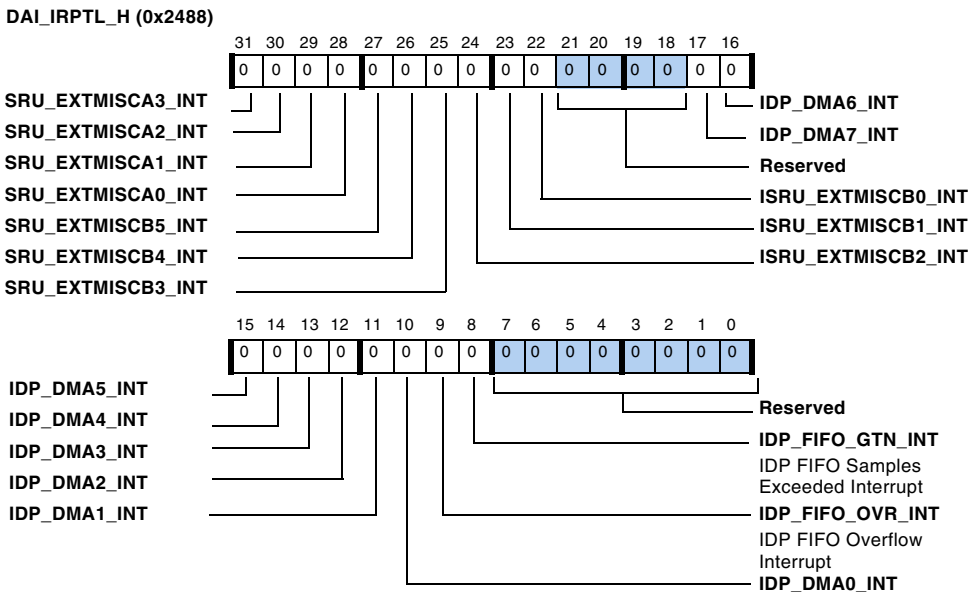


Figure A-73. DAI\_IRPTL\_H Register

## I/O Processor Registers

An explicit read resets these register values to zero, except for the IDP\_FIFO\_GTN\_INT (IDP FIFO samples exceeded interrupt) bit. The interrupt on the IDP\_FIFO\_GTN\_INT bit clears automatically when the condition that caused the interrupt goes away.

DAI\_IRPTL\_L (0x2489)

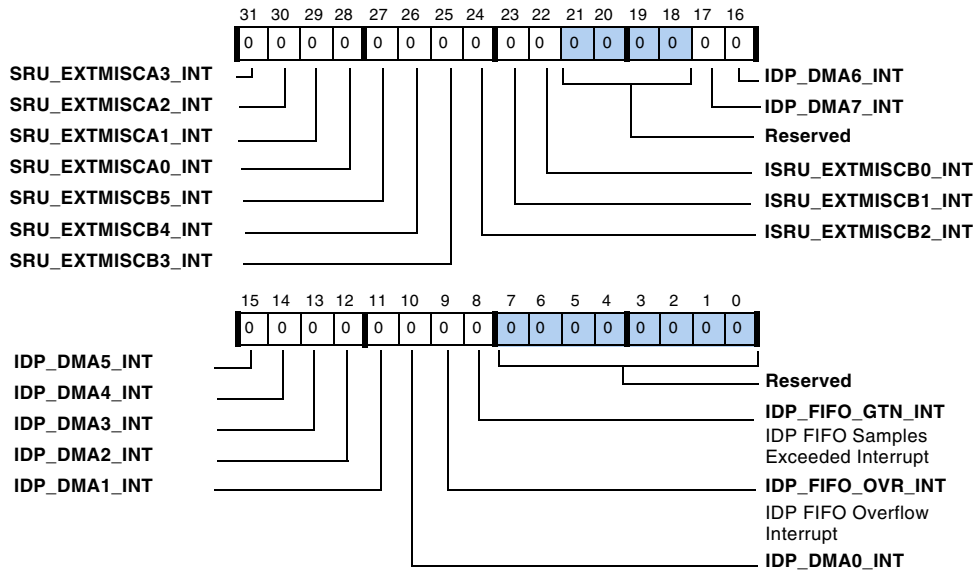


Figure A-74. DAI\_IRPTL\_L Register

A read resets the value to zero, except under the following condition—the IDP\_FIFO\_GTN\_INT bit is not cleared when DAI\_IRPTL\_H/L registers are read. This bit is cleared when the cause of this interrupt is zero.



DAI\_IRPTL\_PRI (0x2484)

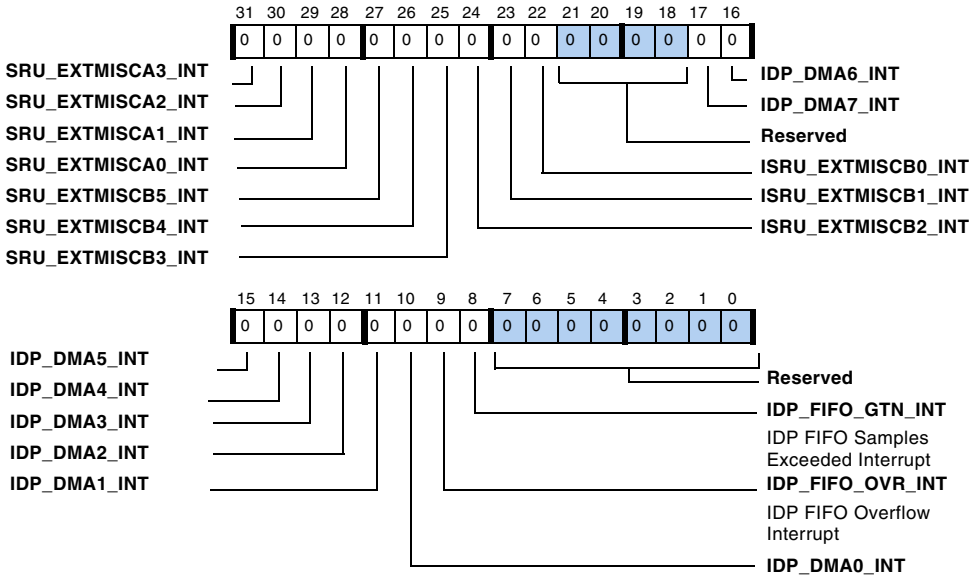


Figure A-75. DAI\_IRPTL\_PRI Register

# I/O Processor Registers

DAI\_IRPTL\_RE (0x2481)

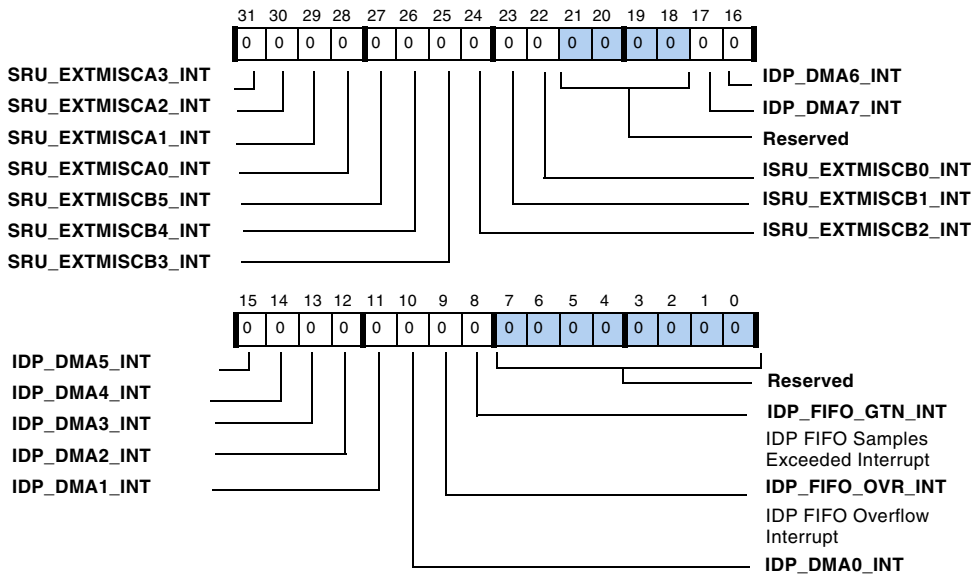


Figure A-76. DAI\_IRPTL\_RE Register

DAI\_IRPTL\_FE (0x2480)

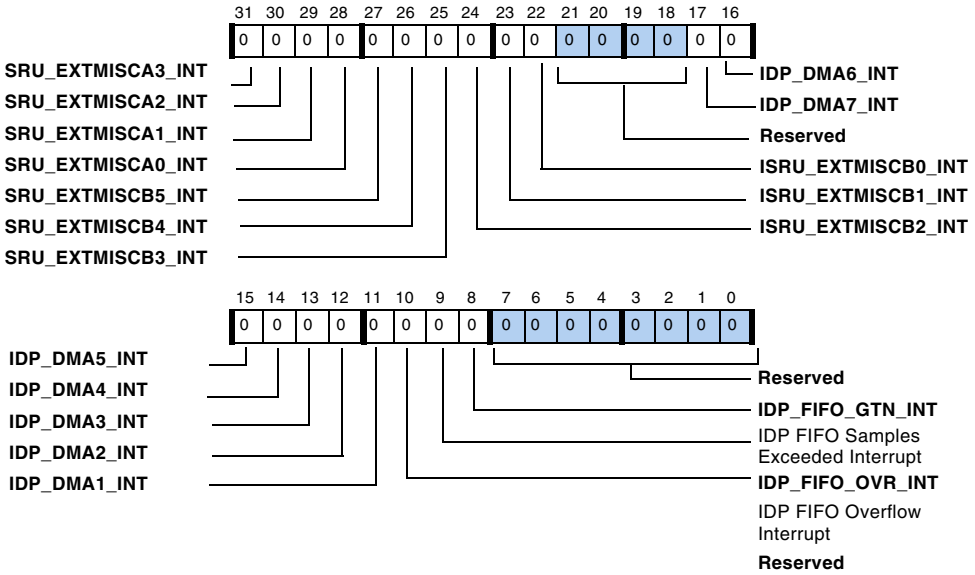


Figure A-77. DAI\_IRPTL\_FE Register

## I/O Processor Registers

# B INTERRUPT VECTOR ADDRESSES

Table B-2 shows all the ADSP-2126x processor interrupts, listed according to their bit position in the IRPTL, LIRPTL, and IMASK registers. For more information, see “Interrupt Latch Register (IRPTL)” on page A-25, “Interrupt Register (LIRPTL)” on page A-30, and “Interrupt Mask Register (IMASK)” on page A-25. Also shown is the address of the interrupt vector. Each vector is separated by four memory locations. The addresses in the vector table represent offsets from a base address. For an Interrupt Vector Table in internal RAM, the base address is 0x8 0000 and for internal ROM, the base address is 0xA 0000. These are 48-bit addresses.

Table B-1. Interrupt Vector Table Base Address

Address <sup>1</sup>	Description
0x0008 0000	Internal RAM
0x000A 0000	Internal ROM

1 These are 48-bit addresses.

The interrupt name column in Table B-2 lists a mnemonic name for each interrupt as they are defined by the definitions file (def2126x.h) that comes with the software development tools.



SPI has only one interrupt for both transmit and receive.



Each serial port (SPORT) has only one interrupt for both transmit and receive.

Table B-2. ADSP-2126x Interrupt Vector Addresses

Register	IRPTL/ IMASK, LIRPTL Bit#	Vector Address	Interrupt Name	Function
IRPTL	0	0x00	EMUI	Emulator (read-only, non-maskable); HIGHEST PRIORITY
IRPTL	1	0x04	RSTI	Reset (read-only, non-maskable)
IRPTL	2	0x08	IICDI	Illegal Input Condition Detected
IRPTL	3	0x0C	SOVFI	Status loop or mode stack overflow; or PC stack full
IRPTL	4	0x10	TMZHI	Timer = 0 (high priority option)
IRPTL	5	0x14		Reserved
IRPTL	6	0x18	BKPI	Hardware Breakpoint Interrupt
IRPTL	7	0x1C		Reserved
IRPTL	8	0x20	IRQ2I	IRQ2I_ is asserted
IRPTL	9	0x24	IRQ1I	IRQ1I_ is asserted
IRPTL	10	0x28	IRQ0I	IRQ0I_ is asserted
IRPTL	11	0x2C	DAIHI	DAI High Priority Interrupt
IRPTL	12	0x30	SPIHI	SPI Transmit or Receive (higher priority option)
IRPTL	13	0x34	GPTMR0I	General-purpose IOP Timer 0 Interrupt
IRPTL	14	0x38	SP1I	SPORT1 Interrupt
IRPTL	15	0x3C	SP3I	SPORT3 Interrupt
IRPTL	16	0x40	SP5I	SPORT5 Interrupt
LIRPTL	0	0x44	SP0I	SPORT0 Interrupt
LIRPTL	1	0x48	SP2I	SPORT2 Interrupt
LIRPTL	2	0x4C	SP4I	SPORT4 Interrupt
LIRPTL	3	0x50	PPI	Parallel Port Interrupt

Table B-2. ADSP-2126x Interrupt Vector Addresses (Cont'd)

Register	IRPTL/ IMASK, LIRPTL Bit#	Vector Address	Interrupt Name	Function
LIRPTL	4	0x54	GPTMR1I	General-purpose IOP Timer 1 Interrupt
LIRPTL	5	0x58	--	Reserved
LIRPTL	6	0x5C	DAILI	DAI Low Priority Interrupt
LIRPTL	7	0x60	--	Reserved
IRPTL	17, 18, 19	0x64-0x6F	--	Reserved
LIRPTL	8	0x70	GPTMR2I	General-purpose IOP Timer 2 Interrupt
LIRPTL	9	0x74	SPILI	SPI Transmit or Receive (lower priority option)
IRPTL	20	0x78	CB7I	Circular Buffer 7 Overflow
IRPTL	21	0x7C	CB15I	Circular Buffer 15 Overflow
IRPTL	22	0x80	TMZLI	Timer=0(Low Priority Option)
IRPTL	23	0x84	FIXI	Fixed-point Overflow
IRPTL	24	0x88	FLTOI	Floating-point Overflow Exception
IRPTL	25	0x8C	FLTUI	Floating-point Underflow Exception
IRPTL	26	0x90	FLTII	Floating-point invalid exception
IRPTL	27	0x94	EMULI	Emulator Low Priority Interrupt
IRPTL	28	0x98	SFT0I	User Software Interrupt 0
IRPTL	29	0x9C	SFT1I	User Software Interrupt 1
IRPTL	30	0xA0	SFT2I	User Software Interrupt 2
IRPTL	31	0xA4	SFT3I	User Software Interrupt 3; LOW-EST PRIORITY





# G GLOSSARY

**Autobuffering Unit (ABU).** See I/O processor on [page G-5](#) and DMA on [page G-3](#).

**Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU).** This part of a processing element performs arithmetic and logic operations on fixed-point and floating-point data.

**Auxiliary registers.** See Index Registers on [page G-5](#).

**Base address.** The starting address of a circular buffer to which the DAG wraps around. This address is stored in a DAG Bx register.

**Base registers.** A base (Bx) register is a Data Address Generator (DAG) register that sets up the starting address for a circular buffer.

**Bit-reverse addressing.** The Data Address Generator (DAG) provides a bit-reversed address during a data move without reversing the stored address.

**Block repeat.** See Do/Until instructions in *ADSP-21160 DSP Instruction Set Reference*.

**Block size register.** See Length Registers on [page G-6](#).

**Broadcast data moves.** The Data Address Generator (DAG) performs dual data moves to complementary registers in each processing element to support SIMD mode.

**Buffered serial port.** See Serial ports on [page G-9](#).

**Bus slave or slave mode.** A DSP can be a bus slave to another DSP or to a host processor. The DSP becomes a host bus slave when the HBG signal is returned.

**Circular buffer addressing.** The DAG uses the Ix, Mx and Lx register settings to constrain addressing to a range of addresses. This range contains data that the DAG steps through repeatedly, “wrapping around” to repeat stepping through the range of addresses in a circular pattern.

**Companding (compressing/expanding).** This is the process of logarithmically encoding and decoding data to minimize the number of bits that must be sent.

**Conditional branches.** These are JUMP or CALL/return instructions whose execution is based on testing an IF condition.

**DAGEN,** Data address generator. See Data Address Generator (DAG).

**Data Address Generator (DAG).** The data address generators (DAGs) provide memory addresses when data is transferred between memory and registers.

**Data register file.** This is the set of data registers that transfer data between the data buses and the computation units. These registers also provide local storage for operands and results.

**Data registers (Dreg).** These are registers in the PEx and PEy processing elements. These registers are hold operands for multiplier, ALU, or shifter operations and are denoted as Rx when used for fixed point operations or Fx when used for floating-point operations.

**Deadlock Resolution.** When both the DSP subsystem and the system try to access each other’s bus in the same cycle, a deadlock may occur in which neither access can complete. Techniques for resolving deadlock vary with the interface: DRAM, host, or multiprocessor DSP.

**Delayed branches.** These are JUMPS and CALL/return instructions with the delayed branches (DB) modifier. In delayed branches, no instruction cycles are lost in the pipeline, because the DSP executes the two instructions after the branch while the pipeline fills with instructions from the new branch.

**Denormal operands.** When the biased exponent is zero, smaller numbers can only be represented by making the integer bit (and perhaps other leading bits) of the significant zero. The numbers in this range are called denormalized (or tiny) numbers. The use of leading zeros with denormalized numbers allows smaller numbers to be represented.

**Direct branches.** These are JUMP or CALL/return instructions that use an absolute—not changing at runtime—address (such as a program label) or use a PC-relative address.

**Direct reads & writes.** A direct access of the DSP's internal memory or I/O processor registers by another DSP or by a host processor.

**DMA (Direct Memory Accessing).** The DSP's I/O processor supports DMA of data between DSP memory and external memory, host, or peripherals through the external, link, and serial ports. Each DMA operation transfers an entire block of data.

**DMA chaining.** The DSP supports chaining together multiple DMA sequences. In chained DMA, the I/O processor loads the next Transfer Control Block (DMA parameters) into the DMA parameter registers when the current DMA finishes and auto-initializes the next DMA sequence.

**DMA Parameter Registers.** These registers function similarly to data address generator registers, setting up a memory access process. These registers include Internal Index registers (IISPX, IISPI), Internal Modify registers (IMSPI), Count registers (CSPx, CSPI), Chain Pointer registers (CPSPI), External Index registers (EIPP), External Modify registers (EMPP), and External Count registers (ECPPI).

**DMA TCB chain loading.** This is the process that the I/O processor uses for loading the TCB of the next DMA sequence into the parameter registers during chained DMA.

**Edge-sensitive interrupt.** The DSP detects this type of interrupt if the input signal is high (inactive) on one cycle and low (active) on the next cycle when sampled on the rising edge of CLKIN.

**Endian Format, Little Versus Big.** The DSP uses big-endian format—moves data starting with most-significant-bit and finishing with least-significant-bit—in almost all instances. The two exceptions are bit order for data transfer through the serial port and word order for packing through the parallel port. For compatibility with little-endian (least-significant-first) peripherals, the DSP supports both big- and little-endian bit order data transfers. Also for compatibility little endian hosts, the DSP supports both big and little endian word order data transfers.

**Explicit Versus Implicit operations.** In SIMD mode, identical instructions execute on the PEx and PEy computational units; the difference is the data. The data registers for PEy operations are identified (implicitly) from the PEx registers in the instruction. This implicit relation between PEx and PEy data registers corresponds to complementary register pairs.

**Field deposit (Fdep) instructions.** These shifter instructions take a group of bits from the input register (starting at the LSB of the 32-bit integer field) and deposit the bits as directed anywhere within the result register.

**Field extract (Fext) instructions.** These shifter extract a group of bits as directed from anywhere within the input register and place them in the result register (aligned with the LSB of the 32-bit integer field).

**Programmable Flag pins.** These pins (FLAGx) can be programmed as input or output pins using bit settings in the MODE2 register. The status of the flag pins is given in the FLAGS or IOFLAG register.

**General purpose input/output pins.** See Programmable Flag pins.

**Flag update.** The DSP's update to status flags occurs at the end of the cycle in which the status is generated and is available on the next cycle.

**Harvard architecture.** DSPs use memory architectures that have separate buses for program and data storage. The two buses let the DSP get a data word and an instruction simultaneously.

**Hold time cycle.** This is an inactive bus cycle that the DSP automatically generates at the end of a read or write (depending on the parallel port access mode) to allow a longer hold time for address and data. The address—and data, if a write—remains unchanged and is driven for one cycle after the read or write strobes are deasserted.

**I/O processor register.** One of the control, status, or data buffer registers of the DSP's on-chip I/O processor.

**Idle cycle.** This is an inactive bus cycle that the DSP automatically generates (depending on the parallel port access mode) to avoid data bus driver conflicts. Such a conflict can occur when a device with a long output disable time continues to drive after RD is deasserted while another device begins driving on the following cycle.

**IDLE.** An instruction that causes the processor to cease operations, holding its current state until an interrupt occurs. Then, the processor services the interrupt and continues normal execution.

**Index registers.** An index register is a Data Address Generator (DAG) register that holds an address and acts as a pointer to memory.

**Indirect branches.** These are JUMP or CALL/return instructions that use a dynamic—changes at runtime—address that comes from the PM data address generator.

**Inexact flags.** An inexact flag is an exception flag whose bit position is inexact.

**Interleaved data.** To take advantage of the DSP's data accesses to 4- and 3-column locations, programs must adjust the interleaving of data into (not necessarily sequential) memory locations to accommodate the memory access mode.

**Internal memory space.** This space ranges from address 0x0000 0000 through 0x0005 3FFF (Normal word). Internal memory space refers to the DSP's on-chip SRAM and memory mapped registers.

**Interrupts.** Subroutines in which a runtime event (not an instruction) triggers the execution of the routine.

**JTAG port.** This port supports the IEEE standard 1149.1 Joint Test Action Group (JTAG) standard for system test. This standard defines a method for serially scanning the I/O status of each component in a system.

**Jumps.** Program flow transfers permanently to another part of program memory.

**Length registers.** A length registers is a Data Address Generator (DAG) register that sets up the range of addresses a circular buffer.

**Level-sensitive interrupts.** The DSP detects this type of interrupt if the signal input is low (active) when sampled on the rising edge of CLKIN.

**Loops.** One sequence of instructions executes several times with zero overhead.

**McBSP, Multichannel buffered serial port.** See Serial port.

**MCM, Multichannel mode.** See Multichannel mode on [page G-10](#).

**Memory Access Modes.** The DSP supports Asynchronous external memory space. In asynchronous access mode, the DSP's RD and WR strobes change before CLKIN edge. In synchronous access mode, the DSP's RD and WR strobes change on CLKIN edge.

**Memory blocks and banks.** The DSP's internal memory is divided into **blocks** that are each associated with different data address generators. The DSP's external memory spaces is divided into **banks**, which may be addressed by either data address generator.

**Modified addressing.** The DAG generates an address that is incremented by a value or a register.

**Modify address.** The Data Address Generator (DAG) increments the stored address without performing a data move.

**Modify registers.** A modify register is a Data Address Generator (DAG) register that provides the increment or step size by which an index register is pre- or post-modified during a register move.

**Multichannel Mode.** In this mode, each data word of the serial bit stream occupies a separate channel.

**Multifunction computations.** Using the many parallel data paths within its computational units, the DSP supports parallel execution of multiple computational instructions. These instructions complete in a single cycle, and they combine parallel operation of the multiplier and the ALU or dual ALU functions. The multiple operations perform the same as if they were in corresponding single-function computations.

**Multiplier.** This part of a processing element does floating-point and fixed-point multiplication and executes fixed-point multiply/add and multiply/subtract operations.

**Nonzero numbers.** Nonzero, finite numbers are divided into two classes: normalized and denormalized

**Neighbor Registers.** In Long word addressed accesses, the DSP moves data to or from two neighboring data registers. The least-significant-32 bits moves to or from the explicit (named) register in the neighbor register pair. In forced Long word accesses (Normal word address with LW mnemonic), the DSP converts the Normal word address to Long word, placing the even Normal word location in the explicit register and the odd Normal word location in the other register in the neighbor pair.

**Parallel port.** This port extends the DSP's internal address and data buses off-chip, providing the processor's interface to off-chip memory devices.

**PAGEN, Program address generation logic.** [“Chapter 3, Program Sequencer.”](#)

**Peripherals.** This refers to everything outside the processor core. The ADSP-2126x processor's peripherals include internal memory, parallel port, I/O processor, JTAG port, and any external devices that connect to the DSP.

**Precision.** The precision of a floating-point number depends on the number of bits after the binary point in the storage format for the number. The DSP supports two high precision floating-point formats: 32-bit IEEE single-precision floating-point (which uses 8 bits for the exponent and 24 bits for the mantissa) and a 40-bit extended precision version of the IEEE format.

**Post-modify addressing.** The Data Address Generator (DAG) provides an address during a data move and auto-increments the stored address for the next move.

**Pre-modify addressing.** The Data Address Generator (DAG) provides a modified address during a data move without incrementing the stored address.

**Registers swaps.** This special type of register-to-register move instruction uses the special swap operator, <->. A register-to-register swap occurs when registers in different processing elements exchange values.



**Saturation (ALU saturation mode).** In this mode, all positive fixed-point overflows return the maximum positive fixed-point number (0x7FFF FFFF), and all negative overflows return the maximum negative number (0x8000 0000).

**Semaphore.** This is a flag that can be read and written by any of the processors sharing the resource. Semaphores can be used in multiprocessor systems to allow the processors to share resources such as memory or I/O. The value of the semaphore tells the processor when it can access the resource. Semaphores are also useful for synchronizing the tasks being performed by different processors in a multiprocessing system.

**Serial ports.** The DSP has six synchronous serial ports that provide an inexpensive interface to a wide variety of digital and mixed-signal peripheral devices.

**SHARC.** This is an acronym for Super Harvard Architecture. This DSP architecture balances a high performance processor core with high performance buses (PM, DM, I/O).

**Shifter.** This part of a processing element completes logical shifts, arithmetic shifts, bit manipulation, field deposit, and field extraction operations on 32-bit operands. Also, the Shifter can derive exponents.

**SMUL, Saturation on multiplication.** See Multiplier on [page G-7](#).

**S/PDIF.** (Sony/Philips Digital InterFace) A serial interface for transferring digital audio between devices such as CD and DVD players and amplifiers. S/PDIF is the consumer version of the AES/EBU interface and uses unbalanced 75 ohm coaxial cable with RCA or BNC connectors.

**SST, Saturation on store.** See Multiplier on [page G-7](#).

**Subroutines.** The processor temporarily interrupts sequential flow to execute instructions from another part of program memory.

**TADD, TDM address.** See Multichannel Mode on [page G-7](#).

**TCB chain loading.** The process in which the DSP's DMA controller downloads a Transfer Control Block from memory and autoinitializes the DMA parameter registers.

**Time Division Multiplexed (TDM) mode.** The serial ports support TDM or multichannel operations. In multichannel mode, each data word of the serial bit stream occupies a separate channel— each word belongs to the next consecutive channel so that, for example, a 24-word block of data contains one word for each of 24 channels.

**Transfer control block (TCB).** A set of DMA parameter register values stored in memory that are downloaded by the DSP's DMA controller for chained DMA operations.

**Tristate Versus Three-state.** Analog Devices documentation uses the term “three-state” instead of “tristate” because Tristate™ is a trademarked term, which is owned by National Semiconductor.

**Universal registers (Ureg).** These are any processing element registers (data registers), any Data Address Generator (DAG) registers, any program sequencer registers, and any I/O processor registers.

**Von Neumann architecture.** This is the architecture used by most (non-DSP) microprocessors. This architecture uses a single address and data bus for memory access.

**Wait states.** The time spent waiting for an operation to take place. It may refer to a variable length of time a program has to wait before it can be processed, or to a fixed duration of time, such as a machine cycle.

When memory is too slow to respond to the CPU's request for it, wait states are introduced until the memory can catch up.

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