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Contents Overview

Section A: Overview 21
1. Introduction ........................................................................................................... 23
2. Getting Started ...................................................................................................... 29
3. Document Construction ......................................................................................... 31

Section B: CPU System 35
4. 8051 Core ............................................................................................................. 37
5. Cortex™-M3 Microcontroller .................................................................................. 67
6. PSoC 3 Cache Controller ....................................................................................... 81
7. PSoC 5 Cache Controller ...................................................................................... 87
8. PHUB and DMAC .................................................................................................. 91
9. Interrupt Controller .............................................................................................. 107

Section C: Memory 119
10. Nonvolatile Latch ................................................................................................. 121
11. SRAM ................................................................................................................. 125
12. Flash Program Memory ........................................................................................ 129
13. EEPROM ............................................................................................................. 131
14. EMIF ................................................................................................................... 133
15. Memory Map ....................................................................................................... 141

Section D: System Wide Resources 145
16. Clocking System .................................................................................................. 147
17. Power Supply and Monitoring .............................................................................. 163
18. Low Power Modes ............................................................................................... 169
19. Watchdog Timer .................................................................................................. 175
20. Reset .................................................................................................................. 179
21. I/O System .......................................................................................................... 187
22. Flash, Configuration Protection ............................................................................ 205

Section E: Digital System 211
23. Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) .......................................................................... 213
24. UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect ....................................................... 255
25. Controller Area Network (CAN) ............................................................................ 263
26. USB .................................................................................................................... 279
27. Timer, Counter, and PWM .................................................................................... 295
Contents Overview

28. I2C .......................................................................................................................... 311
29. Digital Filter Block (DFB) ............................................................................... 327

Section F: Analog System 343
30. Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time .............................................................. 345
31. Analog Routing .................................................................................................. 359
32. Comparators ...................................................................................................... 375
33. Opamp ................................................................................................................. 379
34. LCD Direct Drive ............................................................................................... 383
35. CapSense® ......................................................................................................... 397
36. Temperature Sensor .......................................................................................... 403
37. Digital-to-Analog Converter .............................................................................. 409
38. Precision Reference .......................................................................................... 413
39. Delta Sigma Converter ....................................................................................... 417
40. Successive Approximation Register ADC ....................................................... 437

Section G: Program and Debug 441
41. Test Controller .................................................................................................. 443
42. 8051 Debug on-Chip ........................................................................................ 455
43. Cortex-M3 Debug and Trace ............................................................................. 465
44. Nonvolatile Memory Programming ................................................................... 473

Glossary 479
Index 495
# Contents

## Section A: Overview

| Document Revision History | 21 |

## 1. Introduction

| 1.1 Top Level Architecture | 23 |
| 1.2 Features | 26 |
| 1.3 CPU System | 26 |
| 1.3.1 Processor | 26 |
| 1.3.2 Interrupt Controller | 26 |
| 1.3.3 DMA Controller | 26 |
| 1.3.4 Cache Controller | 26 |
| 1.4 Memory | 26 |
| 1.5 System Wide Resources | 27 |
| 1.5.1 I/O Interfaces | 27 |
| 1.5.2 Internal Clock Generators | 27 |
| 1.5.3 Power Supply | 27 |
| 1.5.3.1 Boost Converter | 27 |
| 1.5.3.2 Sleep Modes | 27 |
| 1.6 Digital System | 27 |
| 1.7 Analog System | 28 |
| 1.7.1 Delta Sigma ADC | 28 |
| 1.7.2 Successive Approximation Register ADC | 28 |
| 1.7.3 Digital Filter Block | 28 |
| 1.7.4 Digital-to-Analog Converters | 28 |
| 1.7.5 Additional Analog Subsystem Components | 28 |
| 1.8 Program and Debug | 28 |

## 2. Getting Started

| 2.1 Support | 29 |
| 2.2 Product Upgrades | 29 |
| 2.3 Development Kits | 29 |

## 3. Document Construction

| 3.1 Major Sections | 31 |
| 3.2 Documentation Conventions | 31 |
| 3.2.1 Register Conventions | 31 |
| 3.2.2 Numeric Naming | 32 |
| 3.2.3 Units of Measure | 32 |
| 3.2.4 Acronyms | 32 |

## Section B: CPU System

| Top Level Architecture | 35 |
# Contents

## 4. 8051 Core

4.1 Features .................................................................37  
4.2 Block Diagram .......................................................37  
4.3 How It Works .........................................................38  
  4.3.1 Memory Spaces .................................................38  
  4.3.2 Instruction Set ..................................................38  
  4.3.3 8051 Core Enhancements .................................38  
  4.3.4 Interrupt Controller Interface ..........................38  
4.4 CY 8051 Wrapper ...................................................39  
  4.4.1 SFR – I/O Interface .............................................39  
4.5 8051 Instructions ....................................................39  
  4.5.1 Internal Data Space Map .....................................39  
  4.5.2 Addressing Modes ............................................39  
  4.5.3 Arithmetic Logic Unit Functions .......................40  
    4.5.3.1 Arithmetic Instructions .................................40  
    4.5.3.2 Logical Instructions ......................................41  
    4.5.3.3 Data Transfer Instructions ...........................42  
    4.5.3.4 Boolean Instructions 1 .................................43  
    4.5.3.5 Program Branching Instructions .................43  
    4.5.3.6 Instruction Set Details .................................44  
  4.5.4 Special Function Registers (SFRs) ..................44  
  4.6 8051 Special Function Registers (SFRs) ............46  
    4.6.1 SFRs ..............................................................42  
    4.6.2 Dual Data Pointer SFRs ..................................43  
    4.6.3 24-Bit Data Pointer SFRs ...............................44  
    4.6.4 I/O Port Access SFRs ......................................55  
    4.6.5 Interrupt Enable (IE) ......................................55  
4.7 Program and External Data Spaces ..................66  
  4.7.1 Program Space ................................................66  
  4.7.2 External Data Space .........................................66  
4.8 CPU Halt Mechanisms ..........................................66  

## 5. Cortex™-M3 Microcontroller

5.1 Features .................................................................67  
5.2 How it Works .........................................................69  
  5.2.1 Registers ..........................................................69  
    5.2.1.1 Special Registers ...........................................71  
    5.2.2 Operating Modes ............................................72  
    5.2.3 Pipelining ........................................................73  
  5.2.4 Thumb-2 Instruction Set ...................................73  
    5.2.4.1 Data Processing Operations .......................73  
    5.2.4.2 Load Store Operations .................................74  
    5.2.4.3 Branch Operations .......................................74  
    5.2.4.4 Instruction Barrier and Memory Barrier Instructions ........................................ 74  
    5.2.4.5 Saturation Operations .................................74  
    5.2.5 SysTick Timer ................................................74  
    5.2.6 Debug and Trace: ............................................75  
5.3 Memory Map ..........................................................75  
  5.3.1 Bus Interface to SRAM Memory ....................75  
5.4 Exceptions .............................................................76  
  5.4.1 Priority Definitions .........................................77  
  5.4.2 Fault Exceptions .............................................77  
  5.4.3 System Call Exceptions .................................78  
5.5 Nested Vector Interrupt Controller (NVIC) ..........78
6. **PSoc 3 Cache Controller**

6.1 Features ................................................. 81
6.2 Block Diagram ........................................... 81
6.3 Cache Memory Organization and Addressing ........................................... 82
  6.3.1 Cache Operation ..................................... 83
  6.3.2 Cache Line Locking: ............................... 83
  6.3.3 Cache Line Loading in Firmware .............. 83
  6.3.4 Cache Line Replacement Policy ................ 83
  6.3.5 Background Fill (BFILL): ....................... 84
  6.3.6 ECC (Error Correction Code) .................. 84
    6.3.6.1 Interrupts ........................................ 84
  6.3.7 Flash Low Power Mode ......................... 85

7. **PSoc 5 Cache Controller**

7.1 Features ................................................. 87
7.2 Block Diagram ........................................... 87
7.3 Cache Enabling and Disabling ........................................... 88
7.4 Code Protection and Security .......................................... 88
7.5 Invalidating the Cache Line ........................................... 88
  7.5.1 Measuring Cache Hits or Misses ............... 88
7.6 Cache Induced Flash Low Power Mode ......................... 88
7.7 Sleep Mode Behavior ........................................... 88
7.8 Cache Limitations ........................................... 88

8. **PHUB and DMAC**

8.1 PHUB ....................................................... 91
  8.1.1 Features ................................................. 91
  8.1.2 Block Diagram ........................................... 91
  8.1.3 How It Works ........................................... 92
  8.1.4 Arbiter .................................................... 93
8.2 DMA Controller ............................................. 93
  8.2.1 Local Memory ........................................... 93
  8.2.2 How the DMAC Works .............................. 93
    8.2.2.1 Interspoke Transfers ............................. 94
    8.2.2.2 Intraspoke Transfer .............................. 95
    8.2.2.3 Handling Multiple DMA Channels ........ 96
    8.2.2.4 DMA Channel Priority ......................... 96
    8.2.2.5 DMA Latency in case of Nonideal Conditions 98
    8.2.2.6 Request per Burst Bit ......................... 103
    8.2.2.7 Work Sep Bit ...................................... 104
8.3 DMA Transaction Modes .................................. 104
  8.3.1 Simple DMA .............................................. 104
  8.3.2 Auto Repeat DMA ...................................... 104
  8.3.3 Ping Pong DMA ........................................... 104
  8.3.4 Circular DMA .............................................. 104
## 9. Interrupt Controller

### 9.1 Features

### 9.2 Block Diagram

### 9.3 How It Works

*Enabling Interrupts*

*Pending Interrupts*

*Interrupt Priority*

*Level versus Pulse Interrupt*

*Interrupt Execution*

### 9.4 PSoC 3 Features

*Active Interrupts*

*Interrupt Nesting*

*Interrupt Vector Addresses*

*Sleep Mode Behavior*

### 9.5 PSoC 5 Features

*Active Interrupts*

*Interrupt Nesting*

*Interrupt Vector Addresses*

*Tail Chaining*

*Late Arrival Interrupts*

*Exceptions*

*Interrupt Masking*

### 9.6 Interrupt Controller and Power Modes

## Section C: Memory

### Top Level Architecture

## 10. Nonvolatile Latch

### 10.1 Features

### 10.2 Device Configuration NV Latch

*PRTxRDM[1:0]*

*XRESMEN*

*CFGSPEED*

*DPS[1:0]*

*ECCEN*

*DIG_PHS_DLY[3:0]*

### 10.3 Write Once NV Latch

### 10.4 Programming NV Latch

### 10.5 Sleep Mode Behavior

## 11. SRAM

### 11.1 Features

### 11.2 Block Diagram

### 11.3 How It Works

## 12. Flash Program Memory

### 12.1 Features

### 12.2 Block Diagram
13. EEPROM  
13.1 Features .................................................................................................................... 131  
13.2 Block Diagram .......................................................................................................... 131  
13.3 How It Works ............................................................................................................ 132  

14. EMIF  
14.1 Features .................................................................................................................... 133  
14.2 Block Diagram .......................................................................................................... 133  
14.3 How It Works ............................................................................................................ 134  
14.3.1 List of EMIF Registers ........................................................................................... 134  
14.3.2 External Memory Support ..................................................................................... 134  
14.3.3 Sleep Mode Behavior ............................................................................................ 137  
14.4 EMIF Timing ............................................................................................................. 138  
14.5 Using EMIF with Memory-Mapped Peripherals ....................................................... 140  
14.6 Additional Configuration Guidelines ......................................................................... 140  
14.6.1 Address Bus Configuration ................................................................................... 140  
14.6.2 Data Bus Configuration ......................................................................................... 140  
14.6.3 16-bit Memory Transfers ....................................................................................... 140  
14.6.4 8-bit Memory Transfers ......................................................................................... 140  

15. Memory Map  
15.1 Features .................................................................................................................... 141  
15.2 Block Diagram .......................................................................................................... 141  
15.3 How It Works ............................................................................................................ 141  
15.3.1 PSoC 3 Memory Map ............................................................................................ 142  
15.3.2 PSoC 5 Memory Map ............................................................................................ 143  

Section D: System Wide Resources  
Top Level Architecture ..................................................................................................... 145  

16. Clocking System  
16.1 Features .................................................................................................................... 147  
16.2 Block Diagram .......................................................................................................... 148  
16.3 Clock Sources ............................................................................................................ 148  
16.3.1 Internal Oscillators ............................................................................................... 148  
16.3.1.1 Internal Main Oscillator ................................................................................. 149  
16.3.1.2 Internal Low Speed Oscillator ....................................................................... 149  
16.3.2 External Oscillators .............................................................................................. 150  
16.3.2.1 MHz Crystal Oscillator ................................................................................... 150  
16.3.2.2 32.768 kHz Crystal Oscillator ....................................................................... 151  
16.3.3 Oscillator Summary .............................................................................................. 152  
16.3.4 DSI Clocks ........................................................................................................... 152  
16.3.5 Phase-Locked Loop .............................................................................................. 153  
16.4 Clock Distribution ..................................................................................................... 154  
16.4.1 Master Clock Mux ................................................................................................. 155  
16.4.2 USB Clock ........................................................................................................... 156  
16.4.3 Clock Dividers ...................................................................................................... 157  
16.4.3.1 Single Cycle Pulse Mode ................................................................................ 157  
16.4.3.2 50% Duty Cycle Mode .................................................................................... 157  
16.4.3.3 Early Phase Option ......................................................................................... 158  
16.4.4 Clock Synchronization .......................................................................................... 158
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16.4.5</td>
<td>Phase Selection and Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.4.6</td>
<td>Divider Update</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.4.7</td>
<td>Power Gating of Clock Outputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.4.8</td>
<td>System Clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.4.9</td>
<td>Asynchronous Clocks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>Low Power Mode Operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>Clock Naming Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>Block Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>How It Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.1</td>
<td>Regulator Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.1.1</td>
<td>Internal Regulators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.1.2</td>
<td>Sleep Regulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.1.3</td>
<td>Hibernate Regulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.2</td>
<td>Boost Converter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.2.1</td>
<td>Modes of Operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.2.2</td>
<td>Status Monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.3</td>
<td>Voltage Monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.3.1</td>
<td>Low Voltage Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.3.2</td>
<td>High Voltage Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.3.3</td>
<td>Processing a Low/High Voltage Detect Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3.3.4</td>
<td>Reset on a Voltage Monitoring Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>Register Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.2.1</td>
<td>Entering Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.2.2</td>
<td>Exiting Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>Alternative Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.3.1</td>
<td>Entering Alternative Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.3.2</td>
<td>Exiting Alternative Active Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>Sleep Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.4.1</td>
<td>Entering Sleep Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.4.2</td>
<td>Exiting Sleep Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>Hibernate Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.5.1</td>
<td>Entering Hibernate Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.5.2</td>
<td>Exiting Hibernate Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>Timewheel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.6.1</td>
<td>Central Timewheel (CTW)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.6.2</td>
<td>Fast Timewheel (FTW)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>Register List</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>Block Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>How It Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.3.1</td>
<td>Enabling and Disabling the WDT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.3.2</td>
<td>Setting the WDT Time Period and Clearing the WDT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.3.3</td>
<td>Operation in Low Power Modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.3.4</td>
<td>Watchdog Protection Settings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
20. Reset

20.1 Reset Sources ................................................................. 179
  20.1.1 Power-on Reset .......................................................... 179
  20.1.2 Watchdog Reset ....................................................... 179
  20.1.3 Software Initiated Reset .......................................... 179
  20.1.4 External Reset ........................................................... 179
  20.1.5 Identifying Reset Sources ......................................... 180

20.2 Reset Diagram ............................................................... 180

20.3 Reset Summary ............................................................. 181

20.4 Boot Process and Timing .................................................. 182
  20.4.1 Manufacturing Configuration NV Latch ....................... 183
    20.4.1.1 Device Configuration NV Latch .............................. 183
  20.4.2 Boot Phase ............................................................... 183
  20.4.3 User Mode ............................................................... 184

20.5 Register List ................................................................. 185

21. I/O System ........................................................................ 187

21.1 Features ........................................................................... 187

21.2 Block Diagrams ............................................................... 188

21.3 How It Works .................................................................... 190
  21.3.1 Usage Modes and Configuration ................................. 190
  21.3.2 I/O Drive Modes ........................................................ 191
    21.3.2.1 Drive Mode on Reset .............................................. 192
    21.3.2.2 High Impedance Analog ........................................... 192
    21.3.2.3 High Impedance Digital ........................................... 192
    21.3.2.4 Resistive Pull Up or Resistive Pull Down ................... 192
    21.3.2.5 Open Drain, Drives High and Drives Low ............... 192
    21.3.2.6 Strong Drive ......................................................... 192
    21.3.2.7 Resistive Pull Up and Pull Down ............................... 192
    21.3.2.8 Slew Rate Control ................................................. 192
    21.3.2.9 Digital I/O Controlled by Port Register .................... 192
      21.3.2.10 Port Configuration Registers ................................. 193
      21.3.2.11 Pin Wise Configuration Register Alias .................. 193
      21.3.2.12 Port Wide Configuration Register Alias ............... 194
    21.3.3 SFR to GPIO ................................................................ 194
    21.3.4 Digital I/O Controlled Through DSI ......................... 194
      21.3.4.1 DSI Output .......................................................... 194
      21.3.4.2 DSI Input ............................................................. 195
      21.3.4.3 DSI for Output Enable Control .............................. 195
    21.3.5 Analog I/O .................................................................. 196
    21.3.6 LCD Drive ............................................................... 196
    21.3.7 CapSense ................................................................. 197
    21.3.8 External Memory Interface (EMIF) .............................. 197
    21.3.9 SIO Functions and Features ....................................... 197
      21.3.9.1 Regulated Output Level ......................................... 197
      21.3.9.2 Adjustable Input Level .......................................... 197
      21.3.9.3 Hot Swap ............................................................. 198
    21.3.10 Special Functionality ............................................... 198
    21.3.11 I/O Port Reconfiguration .......................................... 200
    21.3.12 Power Up I/O Configuration ..................................... 200
    21.3.13 Overvoltage Tolerance ............................................. 200

19.4 Register List .................................................................... 177
2.2. Flash, Configuration Protection

2.2.1 Flash Protection.................................................................205
2.2.2 Device Security..................................................................206
2.2.3 Configuration Segment Protection....................................206
   2.2.3.1 Locking/Unlocking Segment Configuration Register ........207
   2.2.3.2 Locking and Protecting Segments.................................207
   2.2.3.3 Example.........................................................................209
2.2.4 Frequently Asked Questions About Best Practices for Flash Protection and Device Security...209

Section E: Digital System

Top Level Architecture ..............................................................212

23. Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)

23.1 Features .............................................................................213
23.2 Block Diagram ....................................................................213
23.3 How It Works ......................................................................214
   23.3.1 PLDs.............................................................................214
   23.3.1.1 PLD Macrocells..........................................................215
   23.3.1.2 PLD Carry Chain.........................................................217
   23.3.1.3 PLD Configuration.....................................................217
   23.3.2 Datapath .....................................................................217
   23.3.2.1 Overview.................................................................219
   23.3.2.2 Datapath FIFOs.........................................................220
   23.3.2.3 FIFO Status...............................................................227
   23.3.2.4 Datapath ALU............................................................227
   23.3.2.5 Datapath Inputs and Multiplexing.............................230
   23.3.2.6 CRC/PRS Support......................................................230
   23.3.2.7 Datapath Outputs and Multiplexing.........................233
   23.3.2.8 Datapath Parallel Inputs and Outputs.....................235
   23.3.2.9 Datapath Chaining....................................................235
   23.3.2.10 Dynamic Configuration RAM...............................236
   23.3.3 Status and Control Module.........................................237
   23.3.3.1 Status and Control Mode.........................................238
   23.3.3.2 Control Register Operation.....................................240
   23.3.3.3 Parallel Input/Output Mode.....................................241
   23.3.3.4 Counter Mode..........................................................242
   23.3.3.5 Sync Mode...............................................................243
   23.3.3.6 Status and Control Clocking.................................243
   23.3.3.7 Auxiliary Control Register.................................243
   23.3.3.8 Status and Control Register Summary.................244
23.3.4 Reset and Clock Control Module................................244
   23.3.4.1 Clock Control.........................................................245
   23.3.4.2 Reset Control.........................................................247
## Contents

25.8 Error Handling and Interrupts in CAN ............................................................... 276
25.8.1 Types of Errors ............................................................................................. 276
  25.8.1.1 BIT Error .................................................................................................. 276
  25.8.1.2 FORM Error ............................................................................................ 276
  25.8.1.3 ACKNOWLEDGE Error ........................................................................... 276
  25.8.1.4 CRC Error ................................................................................................ 276
  25.8.1.5 STUFF Error ............................................................................................ 277
  25.8.2 Error States in CAN .................................................................................... 277
  25.8.3 Interrupt Sources in CAN ........................................................................... 277

25.9 Operating Modes in CAN .................................................................................. 278
  25.9.1 Listen Only Mode ........................................................................................ 278
  25.9.2 Run/Stop Mode ............................................................................................ 278

### 26. USB

26.1 Features ........................................................................................................... 279
26.2 Block Diagram .................................................................................................. 280
  26.2.1 Serial Interface Engine (SIE) ........................................................................ 281
  26.2.2 Arbiter ........................................................................................................... 282
    26.2.2.1 SIE Interface Module ............................................................................. 282
    26.2.2.2 CPU Interface Block ............................................................................ 282
    26.2.2.3 Memory Interface .................................................................................. 282
    26.2.2.4 DMA Interface ...................................................................................... 282
    26.2.2.5 Arbiter Logic .......................................................................................... 282
    26.2.2.6 Synchronization Block .......................................................................... 283
  26.3 How it Works .................................................................................................... 283
    26.3.1 Operating Frequency .................................................................................. 283
    26.3.2 Operating Voltage ..................................................................................... 283
    26.3.3 Transceiver ................................................................................................. 283
    26.3.4 Endpoints .................................................................................................... 284
    26.3.5 Transfer Types ............................................................................................ 284
    26.3.6 Interrupts ...................................................................................................... 284
  26.4 Logical Transfer Modes ................................................................................... 285
    26.4.1 Store and Forward Mode ............................................................................ 286
      26.4.1.1 No DMA Access .................................................................................. 286
      26.4.1.2 Manual DMA Access .......................................................................... 287
    26.4.2 Cut Through Mode ..................................................................................... 289
    26.4.3 Control Endpoint Logical Transfer ............................................................. 291
  26.5 PS/2 and CMOS I/O Modes ............................................................................. 292
  26.6 Register List ..................................................................................................... 293

### 27. Timer, Counter, and PWM

27.1 Features ............................................................................................................ 295
27.2 Block Diagram .................................................................................................. 295
27.3 How It Works ..................................................................................................... 296
  27.3.1 Clock Selection ............................................................................................ 296
  27.3.2 Enabling and Disabling Block ...................................................................... 297
  27.3.3 Input Signal Characteristics ......................................................................... 297
    27.3.3.1 Enable Signal ....................................................................................... 298
    27.3.3.2 Capture Signal ...................................................................................... 298
    27.3.3.3 Timer Reset Signal ............................................................................... 300
    27.3.3.4 Kill Signal ............................................................................................. 300
  27.3.4 Operating Modes .......................................................................................... 301
    27.3.4.1 Timer Mode – Free Run Mode .............................................................. 301
30. Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time 345

30.1 Features ................................................................. 345
30.2 Block Diagram .......................................................... 345
30.3 How it Works .............................................................. 347
  30.3.1 Operational Mode of Block is Set ......................... 347
30.4 Naked Opamp ........................................................... 347
  30.4.1 Bandwidth/Stability Control .............................. 347
    30.4.1.1 BIAS_CONTROL .............................................. 347
    30.4.1.2 SC_COMP[1:0] ............................................. 348
    30.4.1.3 SC_REDC[1:0] .............................................. 348
30.5 Continuous Time Unity Gain Buffer .......................... 349
30.6 Continuous Time Programmable Gain Amplifier ....... 349
30.7 Continuous Time Transimpedance Amplifier .......... 350
30.8 Continuous Time Mixer .............................................. 352
30.9 Sampled Mixer .......................................................... 353
30.10 Delta Sigma Modulator ............................................. 355
  30.10.1 First-Order Modulator, Incremental Mode .......... 356
30.11 Track and Hold Amplifier ........................................ 357

31. Analog Routing 359

31.1 Features ................................................................. 359
31.2 Block Diagram .......................................................... 362
31.3 How it Works .............................................................. 362
  31.3.1 Analog Globals (AGs) ........................................ 362
  31.3.2 Analog Mux Bus (AMUXBUS) ............................ 362
  31.3.3 Liquid Crystal Display Bias Bus (LCDBUS) ........... 362
  31.3.4 Analog Local Bus (abus) ..................................... 364
  31.3.5 Switches and Multiplexers .................................. 364
    31.3.5.1 Control of Analog Switches ......................... 364
  31.4 Analog Resource Blocks – Routing and Interface .... 366
    31.4.1 Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC) .................. 367
    31.4.2 Comparator ..................................................... 368
    31.4.3 Delta Sigma Modulator (DSM) ......................... 369
    31.4.4 Switched Capacitor ........................................ 370
    31.4.5 Opamp .......................................................... 371
    31.4.6 Low Pass Filter (LPF) ...................................... 371
31.5 Low Power Analog Routing Considerations .............. 372
  31.5.1 Mitigating Analog Routes with Degraded Low Power Signal Integrity .. 372
31.6 Analog Routing Register Summary .......................... 373

32. Comparators 375

32.1 Features ................................................................. 375
32.2 Block Diagram .......................................................... 375
32.3 How it Works .............................................................. 376
  32.3.1 Input Configuration .............................................. 376
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32.3.2</td>
<td>Power Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.3</td>
<td>Output Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.4</td>
<td>Hysteresis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.5</td>
<td>Wake Up from Sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.6</td>
<td>Comparator Clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.7</td>
<td>Offset Trim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.3.8</td>
<td>Register Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>Opamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>Block Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>How it Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3.1</td>
<td>Input and Output Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3.2</td>
<td>Power Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3.3</td>
<td>Buffer Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.3.4</td>
<td>Register Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>LCD Direct Drive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>LCD System Operational Modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>LCD Always Active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.3.1.1</td>
<td>Functional Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.3.1.2</td>
<td>LCD DAC Block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.3.1.3</td>
<td>UDB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.3.1.4</td>
<td>DMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>LCD Low Power Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.4.1.1</td>
<td>LCD Timer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.4.1.2</td>
<td>UDB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.4.1.3</td>
<td>DMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.4.1.4</td>
<td>LCD DAC and Driver: Low Power Feature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>LCD Usage Models</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>CapSense®</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>Block Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>How It Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3.1</td>
<td>Reference Driver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3.2</td>
<td>Low Pass Filter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3.3</td>
<td>Analog Mux Bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3.4</td>
<td>GPIO Configuration for CapSense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.3.5</td>
<td>Other Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>CapSense Delta Sigma Algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>Temperature Sensor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>Block Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>How It Works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>Command and Status Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.4.1</td>
<td>Status Codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.4.2</td>
<td>Temperature Sensor Commands</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
37. Digital-to-Analog Converter 409
  37.1 Features ................................................................................................................... 409
  37.2 Block Diagram .............................................................................................................. 409
  37.3 How It Works ............................................................................................................... 410
    37.3.1 Current DAC ........................................................................................................ 410
    37.3.2 Voltage DAC ........................................................................................................ 410
    37.3.3 Output Routing Options ....................................................................................... 410
    37.3.4 Making a Higher Resolution DAC ...................................................................... 411
  37.4 Register List ................................................................................................................ 412

38. Precision Reference 413
  38.1 Block Diagram .............................................................................................................. 413
  38.2 How It Works ............................................................................................................... 413

39. Delta Sigma Converter 417
  39.1 Features ................................................................................................................... 417
  39.2 Block Diagram .............................................................................................................. 417
  39.3 How It Works ............................................................................................................... 418
    39.3.1 Input Buffer .......................................................................................................... 418
    39.3.2 Delta Sigma Modulator ....................................................................................... 419
      39.3.2.1 Clock Selection ............................................................................................. 420
      39.3.2.2 Capacitance Configuration........................................................................... 420
      39.3.2.3 Gain Configuration ..................................................................................... 421
      39.3.2.4 Power Configuration ................................................................................... 422
      39.3.2.5 Other Configuration Options ..................................................................... 426
      39.3.2.6 Quantizer ..................................................................................................... 426
      39.3.2.7 Reference Options ...................................................................................... 426
      39.3.2.8 Reference for DSM: Usage Guidelines ....................................................... 429
    39.3.3 Analog Interface .................................................................................................... 430
      39.3.3.1 Conversion of Thermometric Code to Two’s Complement ..................... 431
      39.3.3.2 Modulation Input....................................................................................... 431
      39.3.3.3 Clock Selection and Synchronization ......................................................... 431
    39.3.4 Decimator ............................................................................................................. 431
      39.3.4.1 Shifters ....................................................................................................... 431
      39.3.4.2 CIC Filter ................................................................................................... 432
      39.3.4.3 Post Processing Filter ................................................................................. 432
    39.3.5 Coherency Protection ............................................................................................ 433
      39.3.5.1 Protecting Writes (Gain/Offset) with Coherency Checking ...................... 433
      39.3.5.2 Protecting Reads (Output Sample) with Coherency Checking ............... 433
    39.3.6 Modes of Operation .............................................................................................. 434

40. Successive Approximation Register ADC 437
  40.1 Features ................................................................................................................... 437
  40.2 How It Works .............................................................................................................. 438
    40.2.1 Input Selection ..................................................................................................... 438
    40.2.2 Clock Selection ................................................................................................... 438
    40.2.3 Input Sampling .................................................................................................... 438
    40.2.4 Power Modes ..................................................................................................... 438
    40.2.5 Reference Selection ............................................................................................ 438
    40.2.6 Operational Modes .............................................................................................. 438
Section G: Program and Debug

41. Test Controller

41.1 Features

41.2 Block Diagram

41.3 Background Information

41.3.1 JTAG Interface

41.3.2 Serial Wire Debug Interface

41.4 How It Works on PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 Devices

41.4.1 Clocking

41.4.2 PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 JTAG Instructions

41.4.3 DP/AP Access Register

41.4.4 JTAG/SWD Addresses (PSoC 3)

41.4.5 Debug Port and Access Port Registers (PSoC 3)

41.4.6 PSoC 3 Register Access Examples

41.4.7 Debug Port and Access Port Registers (PSoC 5)

41.5 Boundary Scan Pin Order

41.6 Test Controller Interface Pins

41.7 Test Controller Acquisition

41.7.1 Changing Interface from SWD to JTAG

41.7.2 Changing Interface from JTAG to SWD

41.7.3 Boundary Scan

41.7.4 Functional Test

41.7.5 Programming Flash/EEPROM

41.7.6 Program Debug/Trace

42. 8051 Debug on-Chip

42.1 Features

42.2 Block Diagram

42.3 How It Works

42.3.1 Enabling and Activating

42.3.2 Halting, Stepping

42.3.3 Accessing PSoC Memory And Registers

42.3.4 Breakpoints

42.3.4.1 Program Address Breakpoints

42.3.4.2 Memory Access Breakpoint

42.3.4.3 Watchdog Trigger Breakpoint

42.3.4.4 Breakpoint Chaining

42.3.5 CPU Reset

42.3.6 Tracing Program Execution

42.3.6.1 Reading Traces

42.3.6.2 Trace Time Stamp

42.3.7 DOC Registers

42.4 Serial Wire Viewer

42.4.1 SWV Protocols

42.4.1.1 Manchester Encoding

42.4.1.2 UART Encoding

42.4.2 SWV Registers

43. Cortex-M3 Debug and Trace

43.1 Features
43.2 How It Works.................................................................................................................466
   43.2.1 Test Controller (TC) .............................................................................................466
   43.2.2 PSoC 5 JTAG Instructions ..................................................................................467
      43.2.2.1 Debug Port and Access Port Registers .......................................................467
      43.2.2.2 Test Controller Interface Pins ....................................................................467
   43.2.3 TRACEPORT.......................................................................................................467
43.3 Core Debug.....................................................................................................................467
   43.3.1 Enabling the Debug.............................................................................................467
   43.3.2 Halting ..................................................................................................................467
   43.3.3 Stepping ...............................................................................................................467
   43.3.4 Accessing PSoC Memory and Registers ............................................................468
43.4 System Debug...............................................................................................................468
   43.4.1 Flash Patch and Breakpoint (FPB) Unit ..............................................................468
   43.4.2 Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) .....................................................................469
   43.4.3 Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) ..............................................................469
   43.4.4 Embedded Trace Macrocell (ETM) ............................................................470
43.5 Tracing Interface..........................................................................................................470
   43.5.1 Single Wire Viewer (SWV) ..................................................................................471
      43.5.1.1 Enabling SWV ............................................................................................471
      43.5.1.2 Communicating with SWV ........................................................................471
   43.5.2 TRACEPORT .......................................................................................................471
      43.5.2.1 Enabling TRACEPORT ............................................................................471
      43.5.2.2 Communicating with TRACEPORT ..........................................................471
   43.5.3 Using Multiple Interfaces Simultaneously ..........................................................471

44. Nonvolatile Memory Programming 473
   44.1 Features ..................................................................................................................473
   44.2 Block Diagram .........................................................................................................473
   44.3 How It Works ..........................................................................................................474
      44.3.1 Commands ........................................................................................................474
         44.3.1.1 Command Code Descriptions ..................................................................475
         44.3.1.2 Command Failure Codes ........................................................................477
      44.3.2 Register Summary .............................................................................................477
      44.3.3 Flash Protection Settings ..................................................................................477

Glossary 479

Index 495
Section A: Overview

This document encompasses the PSoC® 3 CY8C38 Family and the PSoC® 5 CY8C55 Family. In conjunction with the device datasheet, it contains complete and detailed information about how to use and design with the IP blocks that construct a PSoC 3 or PSoC 5 device. This document describes the analog and digital architecture to give the designer a better understanding of features and limitations of PSoC 3. The routing of both digital and analog signals should be left to the tool (PSoC Creator™). Hand routing, analog or digital, by use of registers, may conflict with the routing performed by PSoC Creator and produce unexpected results.

This section encompasses the following chapters:

- Introduction chapter on page 23
- Getting Started chapter on page 29
- Document Construction chapter on page 31

See the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) for complete register sets.

Document Revision History

Table 1-1. PSoC® 3, PSoC® 5 Architecture TRM (Technical Reference Manual) Revision History

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revision</th>
<th>Issue Date</th>
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<tr>
<td>*B</td>
<td>06.22.2009</td>
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1. Introduction

With a unique array of configurable digital and analog blocks, the Programmable System-on-Chip (PSoC®) is a true system-level solution, offering a modern method of signal acquisition, processing, and control with exceptional accuracy, high bandwidth, and superior flexibility. Its analog capability spans the range from thermocouples (DC voltages) to ultrasonic signals.

PSoC 3 (CY8C38xxxx, CY8C36xxx, CY8C34xxx, CY8C32xxx) and PSoC 5 (CY8C55xxx, CY8C54xxx, CY8C53xxx, CY8C52xxx) families are fully scalable 8-bit and 32-bit PSoC platform devices that share these characteristics:

■ Fully pin, peripheral compatible
■ Same integrated development environment software
■ High performance, configurable digital system that supports a wide range of communication interfaces, such as USB, I2C, and CAN
■ High precision, high performance analog system with up to 20-bit ADC, DACs, comparators, opamps, and programmable blocks to create PGAs, TIAs, mixers, etc.
■ Easily configurable logic array
■ Flexible routing to all pins
■ High performance, 8-bit single-cycle 8051 (PSoC 3) or 32-bit ARM Cortex-M3 (PSoC 5) core

This document describes PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices in detail. Using this information, designers can easily create system-level designs, using a rich library of prebuilt components, or custom verilog, and a schematic entry tool that uses the standard design blocks. PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices provide unparalleled opportunities for analog and digital bill of materials (BOM) integration, while easily accommodating last-minute design changes.

1.1 Top Level Architecture

Figure 1-1 on page 24 shows the major components of PSoC 3 architecture and Figure 1-2 on page 25 shows the major components of PSoC 5 devices. The PSoC 3 device uses the 8051 core and the PSoC 5 device uses the 32-bit Cortex M3 core.
Introduction

Figure 1-1. Top Level Architecture for PSoC 3 Devices
Introduction

Figure 1-2. Top Level Architecture for PSoC 5 Devices
1.2 Features

PSoC 3 and PSoc 5 devices have these major components. See Figure 1-1 on page 24 and Figure 1-2 on page 25.

- 8051 or Cortex-M3 Central Processing Unit (CPU) with a nested vectored interrupt controller and a high performance DMA controller
- Several types of memory elements including SRAM, flash, and EEPROM
- System integration features, such as clocking, a feature-rich power system, and versatile programmable inputs and outputs
- Digital system that includes configurable Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) and specific function peripherals, such as CAN and USB
- Analog subsystem that includes configurable switched capacitor (SC) and continuous time (CT) blocks, up to 20-bit Delta Sigma converters, 8-bit DACs that can be configured for 12-bit operation, more than one SAR ADC, comparators, PGAs, and more
- Programming and debug system through JTAG, Serial Wire Debug (SWD), and Single Wire Viewer (SWV)

1.3 CPU System

The PSoc 3 and PSoc 5 CPUs are different. These sections discuss the differences.

1.3.1 Processor

PSoc 3 and PSoc 5 CPUs are different. These sections discuss the differences:

- PSoc 3 CPU subsystem is built around an 8-bit single cycle pipelined 8051 processor, running up to 67 MHz. The single cycle 8051 CPU runs ten times faster than a standard 8051 processor. The PSoc 3 instruction set is compatible with the original MCS-51 instruction set.
- The PSoc 5 CPU subsystem is built around a 32-bit three stage pipelined ARM Cortex-M3 processor running up to 80 MHz. The PSoc 5 instruction set is the same as the Thumb-2 instruction set available on standard Cortex-M3 devices.

1.3.2 Interrupt Controller

The CPU subsystem includes a programmable Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller (NVIC), DMA (Direct Memory Access) controller, Flash cache ECC, and RAM. The NVIC of both PSoc 3 and PSoc 5 devices provides low latency by allowing the CPU to vector directly to the first address of the interrupt service routine, bypassing the jump instruction required by other architectures.

The PSoc 5 interrupt controller also offers a few advanced interrupt management capabilities, such as interrupt tail chaining to improve stack management with multiple pending interrupts providing lower latency.

1.3.3 DMA Controller

The DMA controller allows peripherals to exchange data without CPU involvement. This allows the CPU to run slower, save power, or use its cycles to improve the performance of firmware algorithms.

1.3.4 Cache Controller

In PSoc 5 devices, the flash cache also reduces system power consumption by reducing the frequency with which flash is accessed. The processor speed itself is configurable allowing for active power consumption tuned for specific applications.

1.4 Memory

The PSoc nonvolatile subsystem consists of Flash, byte-writable EEPROM, and nonvolatile configuration options.

The CPU can reprogram individual blocks of Flash, enabling boot loaders. An Error Correcting Code (ECC) can enable high reliability applications.

A powerful and flexible protection model allows the user to selectively lock blocks of memory for read and write protection, securing sensitive information. The byte-writable EEPROM is available on-chip for the storage of application data. Additionally, selected configuration options, such as boot speed and pin drive mode, are stored in nonvolatile memory, allowing settings to become active immediately after power on reset (POR).
1.5 System Wide Resources

The individual elements of system wide resources are discussed in these sections.

1.5.1 I/O Interfaces

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices have three I/O types:

- **General Purpose Input/Output (GPIO)** – Every GPIO has analog I/O, digital I/O, LCD drive, CapSense®, flexible interrupt, and slew rate control capability. All I/Os have a large number of drive modes that are set at POR. PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices also provide up to four individual I/O voltage domains through the VDDIO pins.

- **Special Input/Output (SIO)** – The SIOs on PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices allow the user to set VOH independently of VDDIO when used as outputs. When SIOs are in input mode, they are high impedance, even when the device is not powered or when the pin voltage goes above the supply voltage. This makes the SIO ideally suited for use on an I2C bus where the PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices are not powered, even though other devices on the bus are powered. The SIO pins also have high current sink capability for applications such as LED drive.

- **USB Input/Output (USBIO)** – For devices with Full Speed USB, the USB physical interface is also provided (USBIO). When not using USB, these pins can be used for limited digital functionality and device programming.

1.5.2 Internal Clock Generators

PSoC devices incorporate flexible internal clock generators, designed for high stability and factory-trimmed for absolute accuracy. The Internal Main Oscillator (IMO) is the master clock base for the system with 1% absolute accuracy at 3 MHz. The IMO can be configured to run from 3 MHz up to 48 MHz. Multiple clock derivatives are generated from the main clock frequency to meet application needs.

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices provide a PLL to generate system clock frequencies up to the maximum operating frequency of the device (67 MHz or 80 MHz, respectively). The PLL can be driven from the IMO, an external crystal, or an external reference clock. The devices also contain a separate, very low power Internal Low Speed Oscillator (ILO) for the sleep and watchdog timers. The ILO provides two primary outputs, 1 kHz and 100 kHz. A 32.768 kHz external watch crystal is also supported for use in Real Time Clock (RTC) applications. The clocks, together with programmable clock dividers, provide the flexibility to integrate most timing requirements.

1.5.3 Power Supply

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices support extensive supply operating ranges from 1.7 V to 5.5 V, allowing operation from regulated supplies such as 1.8 ± 5%, 2.5 V ±10%, 3.3 V ± 10%, 5.0V ± 10%, or directly from a wide range of battery types.

1.5.3.1 Boost Converter

The PSoC platform provides an integrated high efficiency synchronous boost converter that is used to power the device from supply voltages as low as 0.5V. This converter enables the device to power directly from a single battery or solar cell. A user can employ the boost converter to generate other voltages required by the device, such as a 3.3 V supply for LCD glass drive. The boost output is available on the VBOOST pin, allowing other devices in the application to draw power from the PSoC device.

1.5.3.2 Sleep Modes

The PSoC platform supports five low power sleep modes, from the lowest current RAM retention mode (hibernation) to the full function active mode. A 1.0 μA RTC mode runs the optional 32.768 kHz watch crystal continuously to drive the RTC timer that is used to maintain RTC. Power to all major functional blocks, including the programmable digital and analog peripherals, is controlled independently by firmware. This function allows low power background processing when some peripherals are not in use.

1.6 Digital System

The digital subsystems of PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices provide these devices their first half of unique configurability.

The subsystem connects a digital signal from any peripheral to any pin through the Digital System Interconnect (DSI). It also provides functional flexibility through an array of small, fast, low-power Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs).

Each UDB contains Programmable Array Logic (PAL) and Programmable Logic Device (PLD) functionality, together with a small state machine engine to support a wide variety of peripherals.

In addition to the flexibility of the UDB array, PSoC devices provide configurable digital blocks targeted at specific functions. These blocks include 16-bit timer/counter/PWM blocks, I2C slave/master/multi-master, Full Speed USB, and CAN 2.0b. See the device data sheet for a list of available specific function digital blocks.
1.7 Analog System

The PSoC analog subsystem provides the device the second half of its unique configurability. All analog performance is based on a highly accurate absolute voltage reference with less than ±0.1% error over temperature and voltage.

The configurable analog subsystem includes:

- Analog muxes
- Comparators
- Voltage references
- Opamps
- Mixers
- Trans Impedance Amplifiers (TIA)
- Analog-to-Digital Converters (ADC)
- Digital-to-Analog Converters (DAC)
- Digital Filter Block (DFB)

All GPIO pins can route analog signals into and out of the device, using the internal analog bus. This feature allows the device to interface up to 62 discrete analog signals.

1.7.1 Delta Sigma ADC

The heart of the analog subsystem is a fast, accurate, configurable Delta Sigma ADC. With less than 100 µV offset, a gain error of ±0.1%, Integral Non-Linearity (INL) less than 1 LSB, Differential Non-Linearity (DNL) less than 0.5 LSB, and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) better than 90 dB (Delta Sigma) in 16-bit mode, this converter addresses a wide variety of precision analog applications, including some of the most demanding sensors.

1.7.2 Successive Approximation Register ADC

Another type of ADC seen on PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices is the Successive Approximation Register (SAR) ADC. Featuring 12-bit conversions at up to 1 Msps, it offers low non-linearity, low offset errors, and an SNR better than 70 dB; it is well suited for a variety of higher-speed analog applications. Some PSoC devices offer both types of ADC and can have multiple instances of each. See the device datasheet for specific details.

1.7.3 Digital Filter Block

The output of the ADC can optionally feed the programmable Digital Filter Block (DFB) via DMA without CPU intervention. The DFB can be configured to perform IIR and FIR digital filters and a variety of user defined custom functions. The DFB can implement filters with up to 64 taps.

1.7.4 Digital-to-Analog Converters

Four high speed voltage or current DACs support 8-bit output signals at waveform frequencies up to 8 MHz and can be routed out of any GPIO pin. These DACs can be combined together to create a higher resolution 12-bit DAC.

Higher resolution voltage DAC outputs are created using the UDB array to create a pulse width modulated (PWM) DAC of up to 10 bits, at up to 48 kHz. The digital DACs in each UDB support PWM, PRS, or Delta Sigma algorithms with programmable widths.

1.7.5 Additional Analog Subsystem Components

In addition to the ADCs, DACs, and the DFB, the analog subsystem provides components such as multiple comparators, uncommitted opamps, and configurable Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time (SC/CT) blocks supporting trans impedance amplifiers, programmable gain amplifiers, and mixers.

1.8 Program and Debug

TAG (4-wire) or Serial Wire Debugger (SWD) (2-wire) interfaces are used for programming and debug. The 1-wire Single Wire Viewer (SWV) can also be used for “printf” style debugging. By combining SWD and SWV, the designer can implement a full debugging interface with just three pins.

Using these standard interfaces enables the designer to debug or program the PSoC device with a variety of hardware solutions from Cypress or third party vendors.

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices support on-chip break points, and an instruction and data trace memory for debug. The PSoC 5 device offers many more advanced debugging features, such as Flash patch breakpoint capability to update instructions without reprogramming, fast “printf” style debugging using the Trace Port Interface Unit (TPIU) module, clock cycle counting capability, and various other features with Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) modules. JTAG also supports standard JTAG scan chains for board level test and chaining multiple JTAG devices.
2. Getting Started

The quickest path to understanding any PSoC® device is to read the device datasheet and use PSoC Designer™ or PSoC Creator™ Integrated Development Environments (IDEs) software. This technical reference manual helps to understand the details of the PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 integrated circuit and its implementation.

For the most up-to-date ordering, packaging, or electrical specification information, refer to the individual PSoC device's datasheet or go to http://www.cypress.com/psoc.

2.1 Support

Free support for PSoC products is available online at http://www.cypress.com. Resources include Training Seminars, Discussion Forums, Application Notes, PSoC Consultants, TightLink Technical Support Email/Knowledge Base, and Application Support Technicians.

Applications Assistance can be reached at http://www.cypress.com/support/ or by phone at: 1-800-541-4736.

2.2 Product Upgrades

Cypress provides scheduled upgrades and version enhancements for PSoC Creator free of charge. Upgrades are available from your distributor on CD-ROM or download them directly from http://www.cypress.com under the Software tab. Also provided are critical updates to system documentation under the Documentation tab.

2.3 Development Kits

Development Kits are available from Digi-Key, Avnet, Arrow, and Future. The Cypress Online Store contains development kits, C compilers, and the accessories you need to successfully develop PSoC projects. Go to the Cypress Online Store web site at http://www.cypress.com/shop/. Under Product Categories click PSoC (Programmable System-on-Chip) to view a current list of available items.
3. Document Construction

The content sections of this technical reference manual start after this section – Section A: Overview on page 21. The following sections include these topics:

- Section B: CPU System on page 35
- Section C: Memory on page 119
- Section D: System Wide Resources on page 145
- Section E: Digital System on page 211
- Section F: Analog System on page 343
- Section G: Program and Debug on page 441

3.1 Major Sections

The major sections of the technical reference manual are:

- Sections – Presents the top-level architecture, how to get started and conventions and overview information about any particular area that help inform the reader about the construction and organization of the product.
- Chapter – Presents the chapters specific to some individual aspect of the Section topic. These are the detailed implementation and use information for some aspect of the integrated circuit.
- Glossary – Defines the specialized terminology used in this technical reference manual. Glossary terms are presented in bold, italic font throughout.

For ease of use, information is organized into sections and chapters that are divided according to device functionality. Each section begins with some interpretation detail and contains a top level architectural explanation. This is followed by chapters that contain detailed explanation required for the implementation and use of the individual functions described. The *PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual)* are contained in separate .pdf files.

3.2 Documentation Conventions

There are only four distinguishing font types used in this document, besides those found in the headings.

- The first is the use of *italics* when referencing a document title or file name.
- The second is the use of **bold italics** when referencing a term described in the Glossary of this document.
- The third is the use of Times New Roman font, distinguishing equation examples.
- The fourth is the use of Courier New font, distinguishing code examples.

3.2.1 Register Conventions

Register conventions are detailed in the *PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual)*.
3.2.2 Numeric Naming

Hexadecimal numbers are represented with all letters in uppercase with an appended lowercase ‘h’ (for example, ‘14h’ or ‘3Ah’) and hexadecimal numbers may also be represented by a ‘0x’ prefix, the C coding convention. Binary numbers have an appended lowercase ‘b’ (for example, ‘01010100b’ or ‘01000011b’). Numbers not indicated by an ‘h’ or ‘b’ are decimal.

3.2.3 Units of Measure

This table lists the units of measure used in this document.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit of Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>°C</td>
<td>degrees Celsius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dB</td>
<td>decibels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fF</td>
<td>femtofarads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hz</td>
<td>Hertz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>kilo, 1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>kilo, 2^10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KB</td>
<td>1024 bytes, or approximately one thousand bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kbit</td>
<td>1024 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kHz</td>
<td>kilohertz (32,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kΩ</td>
<td>kilohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHz</td>
<td>megahertz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MΩ</td>
<td>megaohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μA</td>
<td>microamperes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μF</td>
<td>microfarads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μs</td>
<td>microseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μV</td>
<td>microvolts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μVrms</td>
<td>microvolts root-mean-square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mA</td>
<td>milliamperes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ms</td>
<td>milliseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mV</td>
<td>millivolts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nA</td>
<td>nanoamperes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ns</td>
<td>nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nV</td>
<td>nanovolts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ω</td>
<td>ohms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pF</td>
<td>picofarads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pp</td>
<td>peak-to-peak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ppm</td>
<td>parts per million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPS</td>
<td>samples per second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ</td>
<td>sigma: one standard deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>volts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.4 Acronyms

This table lists the acronyms that are used in this document.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit of Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABUS</td>
<td>analog output bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>alternating current</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADC</td>
<td>analog-to-digital converter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>API</td>
<td>application programming interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APOR</td>
<td>analog power-on reset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>broadcast clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIFC</td>
<td>bit implemented functioning connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BINC</td>
<td>bit implemented no connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOM</td>
<td>bill of materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BR</td>
<td>bit rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRA</td>
<td>bus request acknowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRQ</td>
<td>bus request</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAN</td>
<td>controller area network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBUS</td>
<td>comparator bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>carry in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP</td>
<td>compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMRR</td>
<td>common mode rejection ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>carry out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU</td>
<td>central processing unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>cyclic redundancy check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>continuous time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC</td>
<td>digital-to-analog converter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAP</td>
<td>debug access port on ARM Cortex™-M3 of PSoC 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC</td>
<td>direct current</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFB</td>
<td>digital filter block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC</td>
<td>debug on-chip module/block in PSoC 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoC</td>
<td>debug on-chip mode in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DI</td>
<td>digital or data input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMA</td>
<td>direct memory access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMAC</td>
<td>direct memory access controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNL</td>
<td>differential nonlinearity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>digital or data output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSI</td>
<td>digital signal interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>external crystal oscillator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPROM</td>
<td>electrically erasable programmable read only memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF</td>
<td>external memory interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB</td>
<td>feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSR</td>
<td>full scale range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIE</td>
<td>global interrupt enable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>general purpose I/O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP2C</td>
<td>inter-integrated circuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICE</td>
<td>In-circuit emulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>integrated development environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3-2. Acronyms (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Unit of Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RW</td>
<td>read/write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAR</td>
<td>successive approximation register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>switched capacitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCIE</td>
<td>serial interface engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>special I/O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE0</td>
<td>single-ended zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNR</td>
<td>signal-to-noise ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOF</td>
<td>start of frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOI</td>
<td>start of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>stack pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPD</td>
<td>sequential phase detector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPI</td>
<td>serial peripheral interconnect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPIM</td>
<td>serial peripheral interconnect master</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPIS</td>
<td>serial peripheral interconnect slave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAM</td>
<td>static random-access memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SROM</td>
<td>supervisory read only memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSADC</td>
<td>single slope ADC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSC</td>
<td>supervisory system call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWD</td>
<td>single wire debug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV</td>
<td>single wire viewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TC</td>
<td>terminal count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TD</td>
<td>transaction descriptors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIA</td>
<td>transimpedance amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDB</td>
<td>universal digital block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB</td>
<td>universal serial bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USBIO</td>
<td>USB I/O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCO</td>
<td>voltage controlled oscillator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WDT</td>
<td>watchdog timer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WDR</td>
<td>watchdog reset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRES_N</td>
<td>external reset, active low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ILO**: internal low-speed oscillator  
**IMO**: internal main oscillator  
**INL**: integral nonlinearity  
**I/O**: input/output  
**IOR**: I/O read  
**IOW**: I/O write  
**IRES**: initial power on reset  
**IRA**: interrupt request acknowledge  
**IRQ**: interrupt request  
**ISR**: interrupt service routine  
**ISSP**: In-system serial programming  
**IVR**: interrupt vector read  
**LFSR**: linear feedback shift register  
**LRb**: last received bit  
**LRB**: last received byte  
**LSb**: least significant bit  
**LSB**: least significant byte  
**LUT**: lookup table  
**MISO**: master-in-slave-out  
**MOSI**: master-out-slave-in  
**MSb**: most significant bit  
**MSB**: most significant byte  
**NVIC**: nested vectored interrupt controller on Cortex-M3 of PSoC 5  
**PC**: program counter  
**PCH**: program counter high  
**PCL**: program counter low  
**PD**: power down  
**PGA**: programmable gain amplifier  
**PHUB**: peripheral hub  
**PICU**: port interrupt control unit  
**PM**: power management  
**PMA**: PSoC memory arbiter  
**POR**: power-on reset  
**PPOR**: precision power-on reset  
**PRS**: pseudo random sequence  
**PSoC®**: Programmable System-on-Chip  
**PSRAM**: pseudo SRAM  
**PSRR**: power supply rejection ratio  
**PSSDC**: power system sleep duty cycle  
**PVT**: process voltage temperature  
**PWM**: pulse-width modulator  
**RAM**: random-access memory  
**RAS**: row address strobe  
**RETI**: return from interrupt  
**RO**: relaxation oscillator  
**ROM**: read only memory
Section B: CPU System

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 Central Processing Units (CPUs) are different. The PSoC 3 8051 CPU subsystem is built around a single cycle pipelined 8051 8-bit processor, running up to 67 MHz. The single cycle 8051 CPU runs ten times faster than a standard 8051 processor. The PSoC 3 instruction set is compatible with the original MCS-51 instruction set. The PSoC 5 CPU subsystem is built around a 32-bit three stage pipelined ARM Cortex-M3 processor running up to 80 MHz.

This section encompasses the following chapters:
- 8051 Core chapter on page 37
- Cortex™-M3 Microcontroller chapter on page 67
- PHUB and DMAC chapter on page 91
- Interrupt Controller chapter on page 107

Top Level Architecture
4. 8051 Core

The PSoC® 3 CY8C38xx 8051 core is a high performance, speed optimized 8-bit Central Processing Unit (CPU). It is 100% binary compatible with the industry standard 8051. The CY8C38 family includes wrapper logic around the 8051 core. This wrapper includes internal data Random Access Memory (RAM), an external data space interface, a Special Function Register – Input/Output (SFR – I/O) interface, and a CPU clock divider.

4.1 Features

The PSoC 3 8051 has the following features:
- Pipelined RISC architecture that executes ten times faster than the industry standard 8051
- 100% binary compatible with the industry standard 8051 instruction set
- Most instructions executed in one or two cycles
- 256 bytes of internal data RAM
- Dual DPTR extension to the standard 8051 architecture
- 24-bit external data space that enables access to on-chip memory and registers, and to off-chip memory
- New interrupt interface that enables direct interrupt vectoring. See 4.3.4 Interrupt Controller Interface on page 38
- New special function registers (SFRs) enable fast access to PSoC 3 I/O ports

4.2 Block Diagram

Figure 4-1 on page 38 shows a diagram of the wrapper around the 8051 and its interface to different blocks on the device.
4.3 How It Works

The PSoC 3 8051 core is fully compatible with the standard 8051 microcontroller, maintaining all instruction mnemonics and binary compatibility. The CY8C38 8051 core incorporates enhancements that allow it to execute instructions with high performance.

4.3.1 Memory Spaces

The PSoC 3 8051 memory map is very similar to the standard 8051 memory map. There are separate address spaces for program and data memory. The data space is further divided into internal and external data spaces. See 4.5.1 Internal Data Space Map on page 39, and 4.7 Program and External Data Spaces on page 66.

4.3.2 Instruction Set

The PSoC 3 8051 core instruction set is highly optimized for 8-bit processing and Boolean operations. Types of instructions supported include:

- Arithmetic
- Logical
- Data Transfer
- Boolean
- Program Branching

See 4.5.3 Arithmetic Logic Unit Functions on page 40.

4.3.3 8051 Core Enhancements

The PSoC 3 8051 core has several enhancements:

- Dual DPTRs – see 4.6.2 Dual Data Pointer SFRs on page 63
- 24-bit external data space with DPTR extension SFRs – see 4.6.3 24-Bit Data Pointer SFRs on page 64
- Vectored interrupt controller interface removes the need for hard interrupt vectors in the program space – see 4.3.4 Interrupt Controller Interface on page 38

4.3.4 Interrupt Controller Interface

With the PSoC 3 8051 there is no need to place a JMP instruction at address zero, because the interrupt controller interface jumps directly to ISRs with dynamic vector addresses. When an interrupt occurs, the current instruction is completed and the program counter pushed onto the stack. Code execution then jumps to the program address provided by the vector.

After the ISR has completed, an RETI instruction returns execution to the instruction following the previously inter-
rupted instruction, by popping the program counter from the stack.

4.4 CY 8051 Wrapper

The wrapper logic around the 8051 core provides an interface to the rest of the PSoC 3 device. See Figure 4-1 on page 38. The wrapper has the following features:

- The 8051 is one of two bus masters, the other is the DMA controller – see the PHUB and DMAC chapter on page 91
- The two bus slaves are the on-chip SRAM and the PHUB:
  - Accessed within the 8051 external data space
  - Enables access to all PSoC 3 registers and to external memory
- An SFR – I/O interface allows direct access to some I/O port registers using SFRs – see 4.4.1 SFR – I/O Interface on page 39

4.5 8051 Instructions

The 8051 has a full-featured set of instructions that supports a number of flexible addressing modes.

4.5.1 Internal Data Space Map

A diagram of the 8051 internal data space is shown in Figure 4-2.

4.4.1 SFR – I/O Interface

Each I/O port supports two interfaces:

- SFRs in the 8051 – allows faster access to a limited set of I/O port registers
- PHUB – allows boot configuration and access to all I/O port registers

4.5.2 Addressing Modes

The following addressing modes are supported by the 8051:

- Direct Addressing – The operand is specified by a direct 8-bit address field. Only the lower 128 bytes of internal RAM, and the SFRs, are accessed using this mode.
- Indirect Addressing – The instruction specifies the register that contains the address of the operand. Registers R0, R1, or SP are used to specify the 8-bit address for all 256 bytes of internal RAM. The data pointer (DPTR) register is used to specify the 16-bit address for the program and external data spaces.
- Register Addressing – Certain instructions access one of the registers in the specified register bank. These instructions are more efficient because there is no need for an address field.
- Register Specific Instructions – Some instructions are specific to certain registers. For example, some instructions always act on the Accumulator. In this case, there is no need to specify the operand.
- Immediate Constants – The instruction contains a constant value.
- Bit Addressing – The operand is one of 256 bits.
4.5.3 Arithmetic Logic Unit Functions

The Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) section of the processor performs extensive data manipulation (see 4.5 8051 Instructions on page 39) and includes:

- **8-bit ALU** – performs:
  - Typical arithmetic operations – such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division
  - Additional operations – such as increment, decrement, BCD decimal adjust, and compare
  - AND, OR, Exclusive OR, complement, and rotation
  - Bit operations – such as set, clear, complement, jump-if-not-set, jump-if-set-and-clear, and move to/from carry

- **ACC (SFR 0xE0) register** – accumulator for results of most instructions
- **B (SFR 0xF0) register** – used during multiply and divide operations. In other cases, it is used as a general purpose register, directly addressable
- **PSW (SFR 0xD0) register** – used as the program status word, which contains several bits that reflect the current state of the CPU

### 4.5.3.1 Arithmetic Instructions

Arithmetic instructions support the direct, indirect, register, immediate, and register-specific addressing modes. They support addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, increment, and decrement operations. Standard 8051 8 x 8 multiplications and divisions are done in just 2 and 6 cycles, respectively. **Table 4-1** lists the various arithmetic instructions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADD A,Rn</td>
<td>Add register to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD A,Direct</td>
<td>Add direct byte to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD A,@Ri</td>
<td>Add indirect RAM to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD A,#data</td>
<td>Add immediate data to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADDC A,Rn</td>
<td>Add register to accumulator with carry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADDC A,Direct</td>
<td>Add direct byte to accumulator with carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADDC A,@Ri</td>
<td>Add indirect RAM to accumulator with carry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PSW 0x0D0 (Program Status Word SFR)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access: POR</th>
<th>RW: 00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bit Name</td>
<td>CY AC F0 RS1 RS0 OV F1 P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>CY</td>
<td>Carry flag – affected by arithmetic and bit instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Auxiliary carry – affected by ADD, ADDC, SUBB instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>F0</td>
<td>General purpose flag 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4, 3</td>
<td>RS[1:0]</td>
<td>Register bank select bits:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>00 – Bank 0, data address 0x00-0x07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>01 – Bank 1, data address 0x08-0x0F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 – Bank 2, data address 0x10-0x17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 – Bank 3, data address 0x18-0x1F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>OV</td>
<td>Overflow flag – affected by ADD, ADDC, SUBB, MUL, DIV instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>F1</td>
<td>General purpose flag 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Parity flag – set/cleared after each instruction to indicate an odd/even number of 1s in the accumulator</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4-1. Arithmetic Instructions**
4.5.3.2 **Logical Instructions**

Logical instructions perform Boolean operations such as AND, OR, XOR, rotate and swap of nibbles. The Boolean operations on the bytes are performed on the bit-by-bit basis. Table 4-2 lists logical instructions and their descriptions.

**Table 4-2. Logical Instructions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL A,Rn</td>
<td>AND register to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL A,Direct</td>
<td>AND direct byte to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL A,@Ri</td>
<td>AND indirect RAM to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL A,#data</td>
<td>AND immediate data to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL Direct, A</td>
<td>AND accumulator to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL Direct, #data</td>
<td>AND immediate data to direct byte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL A,Rn</td>
<td>OR register to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL A,Direct</td>
<td>OR direct byte to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL A,@Ri</td>
<td>OR indirect RAM to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL A,#data</td>
<td>OR immediate data to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL Direct, A</td>
<td>OR accumulator to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL Direct, #data</td>
<td>OR immediate data to direct byte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL A,Rn</td>
<td>XOR register to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL A,Direct</td>
<td>XOR direct byte to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL A,@Ri</td>
<td>XOR indirect RAM to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL A,#data</td>
<td>XOR immediate data to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL Direct, A</td>
<td>XOR accumulator to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRL Direct, #data</td>
<td>XOR immediate data to direct byte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLR A</td>
<td>Clear accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are three types of data transfer instructions:

- **Internal data** – includes transfer between any two internal RAM locations or SFRs. These instructions use direct, indirect, register, and immediate addressing.
- **External data** – includes only the transfer between the accumulator and the external address. It uses only the MOVX instruction.
- **Lookup tables** – includes only the transfer between the accumulator and the program memory address. It can use only the MOVC instruction.

Table 4-3 lists the available data transfer instructions.

### Table 4-3. Data Transfer Instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV A,Rn</td>
<td>Move register to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV A,Direct</td>
<td>Move direct byte to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV A,@Ri</td>
<td>Move indirect RAM to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV A,#data</td>
<td>Move immediate data to accumulator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn,A</td>
<td>Move accumulator to register</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn,Direct</td>
<td>Move direct byte to register</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn,#data</td>
<td>Move immediate data to register</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Direct, A</td>
<td>Move accumulator to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Direct, Rn</td>
<td>Move register to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Direct, Direct</td>
<td>Move direct byte to direct byte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Direct, @Ri</td>
<td>Move indirect RAM to direct byte</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV Direct, #data</td>
<td>Move immediate data to direct byte</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, A</td>
<td>Move accumulator to indirect RAM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, Direct</td>
<td>Move direct byte to indirect RAM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, #data</td>
<td>Move immediate data to indirect RAM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV DPTR, #data16</td>
<td>Load data pointer with 16 bit constant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVC A, @A+DPTR</td>
<td>Move code byte relative to DPTR to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVC A, @A + PC</td>
<td>Move code byte relative to PC to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVX A,@Ri</td>
<td>Move a byte from external data space to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVX A, @DPTR</td>
<td>Move a byte from external data space to accumulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVX @Ri, A</td>
<td>Move a byte from accumulator to external RAM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOVX @DPTR, A</td>
<td>Move a byte from accumulator to external RAM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUSH Direct</td>
<td>Push direct byte onto stack</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POP Direct</td>
<td>Pop direct byte from stack</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.3.4 Boolean Instructions

The 8051 core has a bit addressable memory with 128 bits of bit addressable RAM (at internal data addresses 0x20 - 0x2F), and a set of SFRs that are bit addressable. The instruction set includes move, set, clear, toggle, and OR and AND instructions, as well as conditional jump instructions. An abundance of bit-level instructions makes the 8051 an excellent bit processor.

Table 4-4 lists the available Boolean instructions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLR C</td>
<td>Clear carry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLR bit</td>
<td>Clear direct bit</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SETB C</td>
<td>Set carry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SETB bit</td>
<td>Set direct bit</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL C</td>
<td>Complement carry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL bit</td>
<td>Complement direct bit</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL C, bit</td>
<td>AND direct bit to carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANL C, /bit</td>
<td>AND complement of direct bit to carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL C, bit</td>
<td>OR direct bit to carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORL C, /bit</td>
<td>OR complement of direct bit to carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV C, bit</td>
<td>Move direct bit to carry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOV bit, C</td>
<td>Move carry to direct bit</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JC rel</td>
<td>Jump if carry is set</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JNC rel</td>
<td>Jump if no carry is set</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JB bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if direct bit is set</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JNB bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if direct bit is not set</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JBC bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if direct bit is set and clear bit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3.5 Program Branching Instructions

The 8051 supports a set of conditional and unconditional jump instructions to modify the program execution flow.

Table 4-5 shows the list of jump instructions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACALL addr11</td>
<td>Absolute subroutine call</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCALL addr16</td>
<td>Long subroutine call</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RET</td>
<td>Return from subroutine</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RETI</td>
<td>Return from interrupt</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AJMP addr11</td>
<td>Absolute jump</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 4.5.3.6 Instruction Set Details

The following instructions are supported by the 8051 and are listed in alphabetical order.

#### ACALL addr11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACALL addr11</td>
<td>Absolute call</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 &lt;br&gt; (SP) ← (SP) + 1 &lt;br&gt; ((SP)) ← (PC7-0) &lt;br&gt; (SP) ← (SP) + 1 &lt;br&gt; ((SP)) ← (PC15-8) &lt;br&gt; (PC10-0) ← page address</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x11, 0x31, 0x51, 0x71, 0x91, 0xB1, 0xD1, 0xF1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unconditionally calls a subroutine located at the indicated address. The destination address is obtained by concatenating the five high-order bits of the incremented PC, opcode bits 7-5, and the second byte of the instruction. The subroutine called must start within the same 2K block of program memory as the first byte of the instruction following the ACALL.

#### ADD A, Rn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADD A, Rn</td>
<td>Add a register to ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 &lt;br&gt; (A) ← (A) + (Rn)</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x28 – 0x2F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adds the register indicated to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry and auxiliary carry flags are set, respectively, if there is a carry out of bit 7 or bit 3, and cleared otherwise. When adding unsigned integers, the overflow (OV) flag indicates an overflow occurred. OV is set if there is a carry out of bit 6 but not out of bit 7, or a carry out of bit 7 but not out of bit 6; otherwise OV is cleared. When adding signed integers, OV indicates a negative number produced as the sum of two positive operands, or a positive sum from two negative operands.

#### ADD A, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADD A, direct</td>
<td>Add a direct byte to ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 &lt;br&gt; (A) ← (A) + (direct)</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adds the direct byte indicated to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**ADD A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADD A, @Ri| Add an indirect byte to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 1  
(A) ← (A) + ((Ri)) | C, AC, OV | 0x26, 0x27 | 1     | 2      |

Adds a byte pointed to by R0 or R1 to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**ADD A, #data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADD A, #data| Add an immediate byte to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 2  
(A) ← (A) + data | C, AC, OV | 0x24 | 2 | 2 |

Adds an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction) to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**ADDC A, Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADDC A, Rn | Add a register and C to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 1  
(A) ← (A) + (C) + (Rn) | C, AC, OV | 0x38 – 0x3F | 1 | 1 |

Adds the register indicated, and the carry flag, to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry and auxiliary carry flags are set, respectively, if there is a carry out of bit 7 or bit 3, and cleared otherwise. When adding unsigned integers, the overflow flag indicates an overflow occurred. OV is set if there is a carry out of bit 6 but not out of bit 7, or a carry out of bit 7 but not out of bit 6; otherwise OV is cleared. When adding signed integers, OV indicates a negative number produced as the sum of two positive operands, or a positive sum from two negative operands.

**ADDC A, direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADDC A, direct | Add a direct byte and C to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 2  
(A) ← (A) + (C) + (direct) | C, AC, OV | 0x35 | 2 | 2 |

Adds the direct byte indicated, and the carry flag, to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**ADDC A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADDC A, @Ri | Add an indirect byte and C to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 1  
(A) ← (A) + (C) + ((Ri)) | C, AC, OV | 0x36, 0x37 | 1 | 2 |

Adds a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, and the carry flag, to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**ADDC A, #data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ADDC A, #data | Add an immediate byte and C to ACC | (PC) ← (PC) + 2  
(A) ← (A) + (C) + data | C, AC, OV | 0x34 | 2 | 2 |

Adds an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), and the carry flag, to the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.
### AJMP addr11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AJMP addr11</td>
<td>Absolute jump</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (PC10-0) page address</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x01, 0x21, 0x41, 0x61, 0x81, 0xA1, 0xC1, 0xE1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unconditionally transfers program control to the indicated address. The address is obtained by concatenating the five high-order bits of the incremented PC, opcode bits 7-5, and the second byte of the instruction. The destination must be within the same 2K block of program memory as the first byte of the instruction following the AJMP.

### ANL A, Rn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL A, Rn</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) and (Rn)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x58 – 0x5F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the accumulator and a register, leaving the result in the accumulator.

### ANL A, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL A, direct</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) and (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x55</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the accumulator and a direct byte, leaving the result in the accumulator.

### ANL A, @Ri

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL A, @Ri</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) and ((Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x56, 0x57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the accumulator and a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, leaving the result in the accumulator.

### ANL A, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL A, #data</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) and data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x54</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the accumulator and an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), leaving the result in the accumulator.

### ANL direct A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL direct A</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) and (A)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x52</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between a direct byte and the accumulator, leaving the result in the direct byte.
**ANL direct, #data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL direct, #data</td>
<td>Logical AND for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) and data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x53</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between a direct byte and an immediate byte (the third byte of the instruction), leaving the result in the direct byte.

**ANL C, bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL C, bit</td>
<td>Logical AND for bit operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (C) ← (C) and (bit)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the carry flag and a bit, leaving the result in the carry flag.

**ANL C, /bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANL C, /bit</td>
<td>Logical AND for bit operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (C) ← (C) and / (bit)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical AND operation between the carry flag and the inversion of a bit, leaving the result in the carry flag.

**CJNE A, direct, rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CJNE A, direct, rel</td>
<td>Compare and jump if not equal</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 If (A) ≠ (direct) then (PC) ← (PC) + rel If (A) &lt; (direct) then (C) ← 1 Else (C) ← 0</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compares the magnitudes of the accumulator and the direct byte, and branches if their values are not equal. The branch destination is computed by adding the signed relative displacement in the last instruction byte to the PC, after incrementing the PC to the start of the next instruction. The carry flag is set if the unsigned integer value of the accumulator is less than the unsigned integer value of the direct byte; otherwise, the carry is cleared. Neither operand is affected.

**CJNE A, #data, rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CJNE A, #data, rel</td>
<td>Compare and jump if not equal</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 If (A) ≠ data then (PC) ← (PC) + rel If (A) &lt; data then (C) ← 1 Else (C) ← 0</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compares the magnitudes of the accumulator and the immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), and branches if their values are not equal. The branch destination and carry flag are set as described above. The accumulator is not affected.
### CJNE Rn, #data, rel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CJNE Rn, #data, rel</td>
<td>Compare and jump if not equal</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB8 –</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If (Rn) ≠ data then</td>
<td></td>
<td>0xBF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If (Rn) &lt; data then</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(C) ← 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Else</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(C) ← 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compares the magnitudes of the indicated register and the immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), and branches if their values are not equal. The branch destination and carry flag are set as described above. The register is not affected.

### CJNE @Ri, #data, rel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CJNE @Ri, #data, rel</td>
<td>Compare and jump if not equal</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB6,</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If ((Ri)) ≠ data then</td>
<td></td>
<td>0xB7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If ((Ri)) &lt; data then</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(C) ← 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Else</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(C) ← 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compares the magnitudes of the byte pointed to by R0 or R1 and the immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), and branches if their values are not equal. The branch destination and carry flag are set as described above. The byte pointed to by R0 or R1 is not affected.

### CLR A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLR A</td>
<td>Clear accumulator</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 ( (A) ← 0 )</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All bits of the accumulator are cleared (set to zero).

### CLR bit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLR bit</td>
<td>Clear bit</td>
<td>( (PC) ← (PC) + 2 ( (bit) ← 0 )</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated bit is cleared (set to zero).

### CLR C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLR C</td>
<td>Clear carry</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 ( (C) ← 0 )</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The carry flag is cleared (set to zero).

### CPL A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPL A</td>
<td>Complement accumulator</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 ( (A) ← \overline{(A)} )</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each bit of the accumulator is logically complemented (one’s complement). Bits that previously contained a one are changed to zero and vice versa.
**CPL bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPL bit</td>
<td>Complement bit</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (bit) ← ~ (bit)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xB2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bit variable specified is complemented. A bit that had been a one is changed to zero and vice versa. CPL can operate on the carry or any directly addressable bit. When this instruction is used to modify an output pin, the value used as the original data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pin.

**CPL C**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPL C</td>
<td>Complement carry</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (C) ← ~ (C)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xB3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The carry flag is complemented. A bit that had been a one is changed to zero and vice versa.

**DAA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DA A</td>
<td>Decimal adjust accumulator for addition</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 if ([ (A3-0) &gt; 9 ] \lor [ (AC) = 1 ] ) then (A3-0) ← (A3-0) + 6 next if ([ (A7-4) &gt; 9 ] \lor [ (C) = 1 ] ) then (A7-4) ← (A7-4) + 6</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xDB4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjusts the value in the accumulator resulting from the earlier addition of two variables (each in packed BCD format), producing two four-bit digits. Any ADD or ADDC instruction may have been used to perform the addition. If accumulator bits 3-0 are greater than nine (xxxx1010-xxxx1111), or if the AC flag is one, six is added to the accumulator producing the proper BCD digit in the low-order nibble. This internal addition sets the carry flag if a carry-out of the low order four-bit field propagated through all high-order bits, but does not clear the carry flag otherwise.

If the carry flag is now set, or if the four high-order bits now exceed nine (1010xxxx-1111xxxx), these high-order bits are incremented by six, producing the proper BCD digit in the high-order nibble. Again, this sets the carry flag if there was a carry-out of the high-order bits, but does not clear the carry. The carry flag thus indicates if the sum of the original two BCD variables is greater than 100, allowing multiple precision decimal addition. OV is not affected.

All of this occurs during the one instruction cycle. Essentially, this instruction performs the decimal conversion by adding 00H, 06H, 60H, or 66H to the accumulator, depending on initial accumulator and PSW conditions. DA A cannot simply convert a hexadecimal number in the accumulator to BCD notation, nor does DA A apply to decimal subtraction.

**DEC A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEC A</td>
<td>Decrement accumulator</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The accumulator is decremented by 1. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF.

**DEC Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEC Rn</td>
<td>Decrement register</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (Rn) ← (Rn) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x18 – 0x1F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated register is decremented by 1. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF.
**DEC direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEC direct</td>
<td>Decrement direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated direct byte is decremented by 1. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

**DEC @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEC @Ri</td>
<td>Decrement indirect byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 ((Ri)) ← (Ri) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x16, 0x17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The byte pointed to by R0 or R1 is decremented by 1. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

**DIV**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIV</td>
<td>Divide</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A15-8) ← (A) / (B) result’s bits 15..8 (B7-0) ← (A) / (B) result’s bits 7..0</td>
<td>C, OV</td>
<td>0x84</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Divides the unsigned integer in the accumulator by the unsigned integer in register B. The accumulator receives the integer part of the quotient; register B receives the integer remainder. If B had originally contained 0, the values returned in the accumulator and register B are undefined and the overflow flag is set. Otherwise the overflow flag is cleared. The carry flag is cleared.

**DJNZ Rn, rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DJNZ Rn, rel</td>
<td>Decrement and jump if not zero</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (Rn) ← (Rn) - 1 if (Rn) ≠ 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD8 – 0xDF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decrments the register indicated by 1, and branches to the address indicated by the second operand if the resulting value is not zero. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF. The branch destination would be computed by adding the signed relative-displacement value in the last instruction byte to the PC, after incrementing the PC to the first byte of the following instruction.

**DJNZ direct, rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DJNZ direct, rel</td>
<td>Decrement and jump if not zero</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 (direct) ← (direct) – 1 if (direct) ≠ 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decrments the direct byte indicated by 1, and branches to the address indicated by the second operand if the resulting value is not zero. An original value of 0 will underflow to 0xFF. The branch destination would be computed as described above. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

**INC A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC A</td>
<td>Increment accumulator</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The accumulator is incremented by 1. An original value of 0xFF will overflow to 0.
INC Rn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC Rn</td>
<td>Increment register</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x08−0xF</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated register is incremented by 1. An original value of 0xFF will overflow to 0.

INC direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC direct</td>
<td>Increment direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x05</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated direct byte is incremented by 1. An original value of 0xFF will overflow to 0. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

INC @Ri

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC @Ri</td>
<td>Increment indirect byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 ((Ri)) ← ((Ri)) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x06, 0x07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The byte pointed to by R0 or R1 is incremented by 1. An original value of 0xFF will overflow to 0. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

INC DPTR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC DPTR</td>
<td>Increment data pointer</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (DPTR) ← (DPTR) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Increment the 16-bit data pointer by 1. A 16-bit increment is performed; an overflow of the low-order byte of the data pointer (DPL) from 0xFF to 0 will increment the high-order byte (DPH). This is the only 16-bit register that can be incremented.

JB bit, rel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JB bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if bit is set</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 if (bit) = 1 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the indicated bit is a one, jump to the address indicated; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed by adding the signed relative-displacement in the third instruction byte to the PC, after incrementing the PC to the first byte of the next instruction. The bit tested is not modified.

JBC bit, rel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JBC bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if bit is set and clear bit</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 if (bit) = 1 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the indicated bit is one, branch to the address indicated; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. In either case, clear the designated bit. The branch destination is computed as described above. When this instruction is used to test an output pin, the value used as the original data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pin.
If the carry flag is set, jump to the address indicated; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed as described above.

**JMP @A + DPTR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JMP @A + DPTR</td>
<td>Jump indirect</td>
<td>(PC) ← (A) + (DPTR)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add the 8-bit unsigned contents of the accumulator with the 16-bit data pointer, and load the resulting sum to the program counter. This will be the address for subsequent instruction fetches. 16-bit addition is performed: a carry-out from the low-order 8 bits propagates through the high order bits. Neither the accumulator nor the data pointer is altered.

**JNB bit, rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JNB bit, rel</td>
<td>Jump if bit is not set</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 if (bit) = 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the indicated bit is a zero, jump to the address indicated; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed by adding the signed relative-displacement in the third instruction byte to the PC, after incrementing the PC to the first byte of the next instruction. The bit tested is not modified.

**JNC rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JNC rel</td>
<td>Jump if carry is not set</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 if (C) = 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the carry flag is set, jump to the address indicated; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed as described above.

**JNZ rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JNZ rel</td>
<td>Jump if accumulator is not zero</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 if (A) ≠ 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x70</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If any bit of the accumulator is a one, branch to the indicated address; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed as described above. The accumulator is not modified.

**JZ rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JZ rel</td>
<td>Jump if accumulator is zero</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 if (A) = 0 then (PC) ← (PC) + rel</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x60</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If all bits of the accumulator are zero, branch to the indicated address; otherwise proceed with the next instruction. The branch destination is computed as described above. The accumulator is not modified.
**LCALL addr16**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LCALL addr16</td>
<td>Long call</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(SP) ← (SP) + 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>((SP)) ← (PC7-0)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(SP) ← (SP) + 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>((SP)) ← (PC15-8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(PC) ← addr15-0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calls a subroutine located at the indicated address. The high-order and low-order bytes of the PC are loaded, respectively, with the second and third bytes of the LCALL instruction. Program execution continues with the instruction at this address. The subroutine may therefore begin anywhere in the full 64 KB program memory address space.

**LJMP addr16**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LJMP addr16</td>
<td>Long jump</td>
<td>(PC) ← addr15...addr0</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x02</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Does an unconditional branch to the indicated address, by loading the high-order and low-order bytes of the PC (respectively) with the second and third instruction bytes. The destination may therefore be anywhere in the full 64K program memory address space.

**MOV A, Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV A, Rn</td>
<td>Copy a register to ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE8 – 0xEF</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(A) ← (Rn)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the register indicated to the accumulator. The register is not affected.

**MOV A, direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV A, direct</td>
<td>Copy a direct byte to ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(A) ← (direct)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the direct byte indicated to the accumulator. The direct byte is not affected.

**MOV A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV A, @Ri</td>
<td>Copy an indirect byte to ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE6, 0xE7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(A) ← ((Ri))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies a byte pointed to by R0 or R1 to the accumulator. The byte pointed to by R0 or R1 is not affected.

**MOV A, #data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV A, #data</td>
<td>Load ACC with immediate data</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(A) ← #data</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the accumulator with an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction).

**MOV Rn, A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn, A</td>
<td>Copy ACC to a register</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF8 – 0xFF</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Rn) ← (A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the accumulator to the register indicated. The accumulator is not affected.
### MOV Rn, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn, direct</td>
<td>Copy a direct byte to a register</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (Rn) ← (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xA8 – 0xAF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the direct byte indicated to the register indicated. The direct byte is not affected.

### MOV Rn, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV Rn, #data</td>
<td>Load a register with immediate data</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (Rn) ← data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x78 – 0x7F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the register indicated with an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction).

### MOV direct, A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV direct, A</td>
<td>Copy ACC to a direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (A)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the accumulator to the direct byte indicated. The accumulator is not affected.

### MOV direct, Rn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
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<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV direct, Rn</td>
<td>Copy a register to a direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (Rn)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x88 – 0x8F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the register indicated to the direct byte indicated. The register is not affected.

### MOV direct, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV direct, direct</td>
<td>Copy a direct byte to a direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 (direct) ← (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x85</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the direct source byte indicated to the direct destination byte indicated. The direct source byte is not affected.

### MOV direct, @Ri

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV direct, @Ri</td>
<td>Copy an indirect byte to a direct byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← ((Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x86, 0x87</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the byte pointed to by R0 or R1 to the direct byte indicated. The byte pointed to by R0 or R1 is not affected.

### MOV direct, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV direct, #data</td>
<td>Load a direct byte with immediate data</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3 (direct) ← data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the direct byte indicated with an immediate byte (the third byte of the instruction).
### MOV @Ri, A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, A</td>
<td>Copy ACC to an indirect byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF6, 0xF7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the accumulator to a byte pointed to by R0 or R1. The accumulator is not affected.

### MOV @Ri, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, direct</td>
<td>Copy a direct byte to an indirect byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xA6, 0xA7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the direct byte indicated to a byte pointed to by R0 or R1. The direct byte is not affected.

### MOV @Ri, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV @Ri, #data</td>
<td>Load an indirect byte with immediate data</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x76, 0x77</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads a byte pointed to by R0 or R1 with an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction).

### MOV C, bit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV C, bit</td>
<td>Copy a bit to C</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xA2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Boolean variable indicated (directly addressable bit) is copied into the carry flag.

### MOV bit, C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV bit, C</td>
<td>Copy C to a bit</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x92</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The carry flag is copied into the Boolean variable indicated (directly addressable bit).

### MOV DPTR, #data16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOV DPTR, #data16</td>
<td>Load DPTR with immediate data</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 3</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x85</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the data pointer with the 16-bit constant indicated. The 16 bit constant is loaded into the second and third bytes of the instruction. The second byte (DPH) is the high-order byte, while the third byte (DPL) holds the low-order byte. This is the only instruction that moves 16 bits of data at once.

### MOVC A, @A + DPTR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVC A, @A + DPTR</td>
<td>Load ACC with a code byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the accumulator with a code byte, or constant from program memory. The address of the byte fetched is the sum of the original unsigned accumulator contents and the contents of the 16-bit DPTR. A 16-bit addition is performed so a carry-out from the low-order eight bits may propagate through higher-order bits.
**MOVC A, @A + PC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVC A, @A + PC</td>
<td>Load ACC with a code</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← ((A) + (PC))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x83</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loads the accumulator with a code byte, or constant from program memory. The address of the byte fetched is the sum of the original unsigned accumulator contents and the contents of the 16-bit PC. The PC is incremented to the address of the following instruction before being added to the accumulator. 16-bit addition is performed so a carry-out from the low-order eight bits may propagate through higher-order bits.

**MOVX A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
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<th>Flags</th>
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<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVX A, @Ri</td>
<td>Copy an external byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (MXAX : P2 : (Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE2, 0xE3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies a byte of external data memory to the accumulator. The 24-bit external address is formed by concatenating the MXAX register (SFR address 0xEA), the P2AX register (SFR address 0xA0), and the contents of R0 or R1. The external byte is not affected.

**MOVX A, @DPTR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVX A, @DPTR</td>
<td>Copy an external byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (DPX : DPTR)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xE0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies a byte of external data memory to the accumulator. The 24-bit external address is formed by concatenating the DPX register (SFR address 0x93 or 0x95) and the contents of DPTR. The external byte is not affected.

**MOVX @Ri, A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVX @Ri, A</td>
<td>Copy ACC to an external byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (MXAX : P2 : (Ri)) ← (A)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF2, 0xF3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the accumulator to the external data memory address indicated. The 24-bit external address is formed as described in MOVX A, @Ri above. The accumulator is not affected.

**MOVX @DPTR, A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOVX @DPTR, A</td>
<td>Copy ACC to an external byte</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (DPX : DPTR) ← (A)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xF0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copies the accumulator to the external data memory address indicated. The 24-bit external address is formed as described above. The accumulator is not affected.

**MUL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MUL</td>
<td>Multiply</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) x (B) result's bits 7...0 (B) ← (A) x (B) result's bits 15...8</td>
<td>C, OV</td>
<td>0xA4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiplies the unsigned 8-bit integers in the accumulator and register B. The low-order byte of the 16-bit product is left in the accumulator, and the high-order byte in B. If the product is greater than 255 (0xFF) the overflow flag is set; otherwise it is cleared. The carry flag is always cleared.
NOP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOP</td>
<td>No operation</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No operation. Execution continues at the following instruction.

ORL A, Rn

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL A, Rn</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) or (Rn)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x48 – 0x4F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the accumulator and a register, leaving the result in the accumulator.

ORL A, direct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL A, direct</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) or (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the accumulator and a direct byte, leaving the result in the accumulator.

ORL A, @Ri

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL A, @Ri</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) or ((Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x46, 0x47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the accumulator and a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, leaving the result in the accumulator.

ORL A, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL A, #data</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) or data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x44</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the accumulator and a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, leaving the result in the accumulator.

ORL direct, A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL direct, A</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) or (A)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x42</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between a direct byte and the accumulator, leaving the result in the direct byte. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

ORL direct, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL direct, #data</td>
<td>Logical OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ← (direct) or data</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x43</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between a direct byte and an immediate byte (the third byte of the instruction), leaving the result in the direct byte. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.
**ORL C, bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL C, bit</td>
<td>Logical OR for bit oper-</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0x72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ands</td>
<td>(C) ← (C) or (bit)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the carry flag and a bit, leaving the result in the carry flag.

**ORL C, /bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ORL C, /bit</td>
<td>Logical OR for bit oper-</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0xA0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ands</td>
<td>(C) ← (C) or / (bit)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical OR operation between the carry flag and the inversion of a bit, leaving the result in the carry flag.

**POP direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POP direct</td>
<td>Pop from stack</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (direct) ←</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>((SP))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(SP) ← (SP) – 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The contents of the internal RAM location addressed by the stack pointer are read, and the stack pointer is decremented by one. The value read is copied to the direct byte indicated.

**PUSH direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PUSH direct</td>
<td>Push to stack</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (SP) ← (SP) + 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>((SP)) ← (direct)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The stack pointer is incremented by one. The contents of the direct byte indicated are then copied into the internal RAM location addressed by the stack pointer.

**RET**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RET</td>
<td>Return from subroutine</td>
<td>(PC15-8) ← ((SP)) (SP) ← (SP) – 1 (PC7-0) ← ((SP)) (SP) ← (SP) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pops the high and low-order bytes of the PC successively from the stack, decrementing the stack pointer by two. Program execution continues at the resulting address, generally the instruction immediately following an ACALL or LCALL.

**RETI**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RETI</td>
<td>Return from interrupt</td>
<td>(PC15-8) ← ((SP)) (SP) ← (SP) – 1 (PC7-0) ← ((SP)) (SP) ← (SP) – 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pops the high and low-order bytes of the PC successively from the stack, and restores the interrupt logic to accept additional interrupts at the same priority level as the one just processed. The stack pointer is left decremented by two. No other registers are affected; the PSW is not automatically restored to its pre-interrupt status. Program execution continues at the resulting address, which is generally the instruction immediately after the point at which the interrupt request was detected. If a lower or same-level interrupt is pending when the RETI instruction is executed, that one instruction will be executed before the pending interrupt is processed.
**RL A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
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<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RL A</td>
<td>Rotate ACC left</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (An + 1) ← (An) n = 0-6 (A0) ← (A7)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The eight bits in the accumulator are rotated one bit to the left. Bit 7 is rotated into the bit 0 position.

**RLC A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
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<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RLC A</td>
<td>RLC A</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (An + 1) ← (An) n = 0-6 (A0) ← (C) (C) ← (A7)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0x33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The eight bits in the accumulator and the carry flag are together rotated one bit to the left. Bit 7 moves into the carry flag; the original state of the carry flag moves into the bit 0 position.

**RR A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RR A</td>
<td>Rotate ACC right</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (An) ← (An + 1) n = 0-6 (A7) ← (A0)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x03</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The eight bits in the accumulator are rotated one bit to the right. Bit 0 is rotated into the bit 7 position.

**RRC A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RRC A</td>
<td>Rotate ACC right through C</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (An) ← (An + 1) n = 0-6 (A7) ← (C) (C) ← (A0)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0x13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The eight bits in the accumulator and the carry flag are together rotated one bit to the right. Bit 0 moves into the carry flag; the original state of the carry flag moves into the bit 7 position.

**SETB bit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SETB bit</td>
<td>Set bit</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (bit) ← 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The indicated bit is set (to one).

**SETB C**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SETB C</td>
<td>Set carry</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (C) ← 1</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The carry flag is set (to one).
**SJMP rel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SJMP rel</td>
<td>Short jump</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x80</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Program control branches unconditionally to the address indicated. The branch destination is computed by adding the signed displacement in the second instruction byte to the PC, after incrementing the PC twice. Therefore, the range of destinations allowed is from 128 bytes preceding this instruction to 127 bytes following it. Note the an SJMP with a displacement of 0xFE would be a one-instruction infinite loop.

**SUBB A, Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUBB A, Rn</td>
<td>Subtract a register and C from ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) - (C) - (Rn)</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x98 – 0x9F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtracts the register indicated, and the carry flag, from the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry (borrow) flag is set if a borrow is needed for bit 7, and otherwise C is cleared. (If C was set before executing the instruction, this indicates that a borrow was needed for the previous step in a multiple precision subtraction, so the carry is subtracted from the accumulator along with the source operand.) AC is set if a borrow is needed for bit 3, and cleared otherwise. OV is set if a borrow is needed into bit 6 but not into bit 7, or into bit 7 but not bit 6. When subtracting signed integers OV indicates a negative number produced when a negative value is subtracted from a positive value, or a positive result when a negative number is subtracted from a negative number.

**SUBB A, direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUBB A, direct</td>
<td>Subtract a direct byte and C from ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) - (C) - (direct)</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x95</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtracts the direct byte indicated, and the carry flag, from the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**SUBB A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUBB A, @Ri</td>
<td>Subtract an indirect byte and C from ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) - (C) - (@(Ri))</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x96, 0x97</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtracts a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, and the carry flag, from the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**SUBB A, #data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUBB A, #data</td>
<td>Subtract an immediate byte and C from ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) - (C) - #data</td>
<td>C, AC, OV</td>
<td>0x94</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subtracts an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), and the carry flag, from the accumulator, leaving the result in the accumulator. The carry, auxiliary carry, and overflow flags are set as described above.

**SWAP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>_OPCODES</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SWAP</td>
<td>Swap nibbles within ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A3-0) ← (A7-4), (A7-4) ← (A3-0)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SWAP A interchanges the low and high-order nibbles (four-bit fields) of the accumulator (bits 3-0 and bits 7-4). The operation can also be thought of as a four-bit rotate instruction.
**XCH A, Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XCH A, Rn</td>
<td>Exchange a register with ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (Rn)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC8 – 0xCF</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exchanges the register indicated with the accumulator.

**XCH A, direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XCH A, direct</td>
<td>Exchange a direct byte with ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exchanges the direct byte indicated with the accumulator.

**XCH A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XCH A, @Ri</td>
<td>Exchange an indirect byte with ACC</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← ((Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xC6, 0xC7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exchanges a byte pointed to by R0 or R1 with the accumulator.

**XCHD A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XCHD A, @Ri</td>
<td>Exchange a digit</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A3-0) ← ((Ri)3-0)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0xD6, 0xD7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

XCHD exchanges the low-order nibble of the accumulator (bits 3-0, generally representing a hexadecimal or BCD digit), with that of the byte pointed to by R0 or R1. The high-order nibbles (bits 7-4) are not affected.

**XRL A, Rn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XRL A, Rn</td>
<td>Logical exclusive OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) xor (Rn)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x68 – 0x6F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between the accumulator and a register, leaving the result in the accumulator.

**XRL A, direct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XRL A, direct</td>
<td>Logical exclusive OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 2 (A) ← (A) xor (direct)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x65</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between the accumulator and a direct byte, leaving the result in the accumulator.

**XRL A, @Ri**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XRL A, @Ri</td>
<td>Logical exclusive OR for byte operands</td>
<td>(PC) ← (PC) + 1 (A) ← (A) xor ((Ri))</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0x66, 0x67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between the accumulator and a byte pointed to by R0 or R1, leaving the result in the accumulator.
XRL A, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| XRL A, #data | Logical exclusive OR for byte operands | (PC) ← (PC) + 2
(A) ← (A) xor data | None | 0x64    | 2     | 2      |

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between the accumulator and an immediate byte (the second byte of the instruction), leaving the result in the accumulator.

XRL direct, A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| XRL direct, A | Logical exclusive OR for byte operands | (PC) ← (PC) + 2
(direct) ← (direct) xor (A) | None | 0x62    | 2     | 3      |

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between a direct byte and the accumulator, leaving the result in the direct byte. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

XRL direct, #data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mnemonic</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Opcodes</th>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Cycles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| XRL direct, #data | Logical exclusive OR for byte operands | (PC) ← (PC) + 2
(direct) ← (direct) xor data | None | 0x63    | 3     | 3      |

Performs a bitwise logical exclusive OR operation between a direct byte and an immediate byte (the third byte of the instruction), leaving the result in the direct byte. When this instruction is used to modify an output port, the value used as the original port data will be read from the output data latch, not the input pins.

4.6 8051 Special Function Registers (SFRs)

The Special Function Registers (SFRs) provide access to I/Os and other functions. All 8051 registers except the PC - ACC, B, PSW, SP, DPTR - can also be accessed as SFRs.

4.6.1 SFRs

Table 4-6 shows the map for the SFRs space.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0/8 (Bit Addressable)</th>
<th>1/9</th>
<th>2/A</th>
<th>3/B</th>
<th>4/C</th>
<th>5/D</th>
<th>6/E</th>
<th>7/F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0xF8</td>
<td>SFRPR15DR</td>
<td>SFRPR15PS</td>
<td>SFRPR15SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xF0</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SFRPR12SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xE8</td>
<td>SFRPR12DR</td>
<td>SFRPR12PS</td>
<td>MXAX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xE0</td>
<td>ACC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xD8</td>
<td>SFRPR16DR</td>
<td>SFRPR16PS</td>
<td>SFRPR16SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xD0</td>
<td>PSW</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xC8</td>
<td>SFRPR15DR</td>
<td>SFRPR15PS</td>
<td>SFRPR15SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xC0</td>
<td>SFRPR14DR</td>
<td>SFRPR14PS</td>
<td>SFRPR14SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xB8</td>
<td>SFRPR13DR</td>
<td>SFRPR13PS</td>
<td>SFRPR13SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xA8</td>
<td>IE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xA0</td>
<td>P2AX</td>
<td>SFRPR11SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x98</td>
<td>SFRPR12DR</td>
<td>SFRPR12PS</td>
<td>SFRPR12SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x90</td>
<td>SFRPR13DR</td>
<td>SFRPR13PS</td>
<td>DPX0</td>
<td>DPX1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x88</td>
<td>SFRPR0PS</td>
<td>SFRPR0SEL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x80</td>
<td>SFRPR0DR</td>
<td>SP</td>
<td>DPL0</td>
<td>DPH0</td>
<td>DPL1</td>
<td>DPH1</td>
<td>DPS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.2 Dual Data Pointer SFRs

Dual data pointer (DPTR) SFRs are implemented to speed up data block copying. DPTR0 and DPTR1 are located at four SFR addresses. The active DPTR register is selected by the SEL bit (0x86.0). If the SEL bit is equal to 0, DPTR0 (SFRs 0x83:0x82) is selected; if not, DPTR1 (SFRs 0x85:0x84) is used.

4.6.2.1 DPTR0 (Data Pointer 0 SFR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPH0[7:0]</td>
<td>Upper Byte of DPTR0 register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPL0[7:0]</td>
<td>Lower Byte of DPTR0 register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.2.2 DPTR1 (Data Pointer 1 SFR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPH1[7:0]</td>
<td>Upper Byte of DPTR1 register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPL1[7:0]</td>
<td>Lower Byte of DPTR1 register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.2.3 DPS 0x86 (Data Pointer Select SFR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:1</td>
<td>SEL</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>SEL</td>
<td>Select current DPTR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data pointer select register is used in the following instructions:

- MOVX @DPTR,A
- MOVX A, @DPTR
- MOV C A, @A+DPTR
- JMP @A+DPTR
- INC DPTR
- MOV DPTR, #data16
4.6.3 24-Bit Data Pointer SFRs

Extended data pointer SFRs DPX0, DPX1, MXAX, and P2AX hold the most significant parts of memory addresses during access to the external data memory space. After reset, each of these registers have 0x00 values.

4.6.3.1 DPX0 0x93 (Data Pointer 0 eXtended SFR)

During a MOVX instruction using DPTR0 register, the most significant part of address XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of DPX0 (SFR 0x93).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPX0[7:0]</td>
<td>During MOVX instruction using DPTR0 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of DPX0 (SFR 0x93).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.3.2 DPX1 0x95 (Data Pointer 1 eXtended SFR)

During a MOVX instruction using DPTR1 register, the most significant part of address XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of DPX1 (SFR 0x95).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>DPX1[7:0]</td>
<td>During MOVX instruction using DPTR1 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of DPX1 (SFR 0x95).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.3.3 MXAX 0xEA (MOVX @Ri eXtended SFR)

During MOVX using R0 or R1 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of MXAX (SFR 0xEA).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>MXAX[7:0]</td>
<td>During MOVX using R0 or R1 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of MXAX (SFR 0xEA).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.3.4 P2AX 0xA0 (P2 Read-Write SFR)

During MOVX using R0 or R1 register, XRAMADDR[15:8] is always equal to the contents of P2AX (SFR 0xA0).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7:0</td>
<td>P2AX[7:0]</td>
<td>During MOVX using R0 or R1 register, XRAMADDR[15:8] is always equal to the contents of P2AX (SFR 0xA0).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During a MOVX instruction using the DPTR0/DPTR1 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of DPX0 (SFR 0x93) / DPX1 (SFR 0x95).

During a MOVX instruction using the R0 or R1 register, XRAMADDR[23:16] is always equal to the contents of MXAX (SFR 0xEA), and XRAMADDR[15:8] is always equal to the contents of P2AX (SFR 0xA0).
4.6.4 I/O Port Access SFRs

Each I/O port supports two interfaces:
- PHUB bus – allows boot configuration and access to all I/O port registers
- SFR bus – allows faster access to a limited set of I/O port registers

SFR registers contain three registers for each I/O port, making a total of 27 registers for 9 I/O ports. The registers function in this manner:
- SFRPRTxDR – sets the output data state of the port (where x is port number and includes ports 0-6, 12, and 15)
- SFRPRTxSEL – selects each SFRPRTxDR register bit to set the output state of corresponding pin:
  - If the SFRPRTxSEL[y] bit is high, the SFRPRTxDR[y] bit sets the output state for the pin
  - If the SFRPRTxSEL[y] bit is low, PRTxDR[y] of port logic sets the output state of the pin (where y varies from 0 to 7)
- SFRPRTxPS – a read-only register that contains pin state values of the port pins

Figure 4-3 shows the connections between the 8051 and the I/O ports.

Figure 4-3. SFR – I/O Connections

4.6.5 Interrupt Enable (IE)

Bit 7 of IE (SFR 0xA8) enables or disables all 8051 interrupts.

4.6.5.1 Interrupt Enable 0xA8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bit Name</th>
<th>Access: POR</th>
<th>RW: 00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.7 Program and External Data Spaces

The 8051 has separate address spaces for program and data memory. The Internal, External, SFRs, and Program memory areas have their own address spaces. Data memory is divided onto 16 MB of external and 256 bytes of internal data memory, with an additional 128 bytes of SFR memory area.

4.7.1 Program Space

Program memory space begins at address 0x0000 and ends at address 0xFFFF. The 16-bit Program Counter register (PC) points to the next instruction to be read. Data can be read from the program space, but only through the MOV instruction.

On reset, the PC is set to 0x0000. In the standard 8051, the instruction at address 0x0000 is usually a JMP, because interrupt vectors are hard-located at addresses 0x0003, 0x000B, 0x0013, 0x001B, and so on. Because CY8C38 has a vectored interrupt controller, the 8051 can simply start executing code at address 0x0000.

4.7.2 External Data Space

The 8051 can address up to 16 MB external data memory (see the Memory Map chapter on page 141). This memory is accessed by MOVX instructions only.

4.8 CPU Halt Mechanisms

The CPU halts in the following circumstances:

- Boot Logic – asserted when the part comes out of reset – the CPU remains halted until the boot process completes.
- Miscellaneous Logic – writing a ‘1’ to the stop bit in register MLOGIC.CPU.SCR[0] asserts a halt request to the CPU. The CPU remains stopped until a DMA, reset, or the DoC sets this bit to ‘0’.
- Debug on-Chip (DoC) – when the debugger is enabled, a DoC halt request is asserted by writing to DBG_CTRL[1]. See the 8051 Debug on-Chip chapter on page 455.
5. Cortex™-M3 Microcontroller

The PSoC 5 ARM Cortex-M3 core is a high performance, low power 32-bit Central Processing Unit (CPU). It has an efficient Harvard 3-stage pipeline core, a fixed 4 GB memory map, and supports the 16/32-bit Thumb-2 instruction set. The Cortex-M3 also features hardware divide instructions and low-latency ISR (Interrupt Service Routine) entry and exit.

The Cortex-M3 processor includes a number of other components that are tightly linked to the CPU core. These include a Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller (NVIC), a SYSTICK timer, and numerous debug and trace blocks.

This section gives an overview of the Cortex-M3 processor. For further details please see the ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual available at http://www.arm.com. Figure 5-1 shows a diagram of the Cortex-M3 and its interface to different blocks on the device.

5.1 Features

- Three stage pipelining operating at 1.25 DMIPS/MHz. This helps to increase execution speed or reduce power.
- Supports Thumb-2 instruction set:
  - The Thumb-2 instruction set supports complex operations with both 16- and 32-bit instructions
  - Atomic bit level read and write instructions
  - Support for unaligned memory access
- Improved code density, ensuring efficient use of memory.
- Easy to use, ease of programmability and debugging:
  - Ensures easier migration from 8- and 16-bit processors
- Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller (NVIC) unit to support interrupts and exceptions:
  - Helps to achieve rapid interrupt response
- Extensive debug support including:
  - Serial Wire Debug Port (SWD-DP), Serial Wire JTAG Debug Port (SWJ-DP)
  - Break points
  - Flash patch
  - Instruction tracing
  - Code tracing
The bus interfaces in the Cortex-M3 are based on AHB-Lite (Advanced High Performance Bus-Lite) and the APB (Advanced Peripheral Bus) protocols. The bus interfaces available in the Cortex-M3 are:

- I-Code Bus for instruction fetches
- D-Code Bus for data fetches
- System Bus for instruction and data fetches in memory regions 0x20000000 to 0xFFFFFFF and 0xE0100000 to 0xFFFFFFFF
- External Private Peripheral Bus used to debug components
- Debug Access Port used to connect the debug interface blocks such as SWJ-DP
5.2 How it Works

The Cortex-M3 is a 32-bit processor with a 32-bit data path, 32-bit register, and a 32-bit memory interface. It supports both 16-bit and 32-bit instructions in the Thumb-2 instruction set. Since the Cortex-M3 does not support the ARM instruction set it is not backward compatible with the ARM7 processor.

The processor supports two operating modes: a single cycle 32-bit multiplication instruction, and hardware divide instructions.

5.2.1 Registers

The Cortex-M3 has 16 32-bit registers (Figure 5-2). They are:

- R0 to R12 - general purpose registers
  - R0 to R7 – can be accessed by all instructions
  - R8 to R12 – can be accessed by all 32-bit and some 16-bit instructions

- R13 – Stack Pointer (SP). There are two stack pointers, with only one available at a time. The SP is always 32-bit word aligned; bits [1:0] are always ignored and considered to be ‘0’.

- R14 – Link register. Stores the return program counter during function calls.

- R15 – Program counter. This register can be written to control program flow.
Figure 5-2. Cortex-M3 Registers

- **R0**: General Purpose Register
- **R1**: General Purpose Register
- **R2**: General Purpose Register
- **R3**: General Purpose Register
- **R4**: General Purpose Register
- **R5**: General Purpose Register
- **R6**: General Purpose Register
- **R7**: General Purpose Register
- **R8**: General Purpose Register
- **R9**: General Purpose Register
- **R10**: General Purpose Register
- **R11**: General Purpose Register
- **R12**: General Purpose Register
- **R13 (MSP)**: Main Stack Pointer (MSP)
- **R13 (PSP)**: Process Stack Pointer (PSP)
- **R14**: Link Register
- **R15**: Program Counter
5.2.1.1 Special Registers

The special registers can be accessed only using special instructions and cannot be used for normal data processing. Cortex-M3 supports three sets of special registers:

Program Status Registers

These registers consist of:
- Application Program Status Register (APSR)
- Interrupt Program Status Register (IPSR)
- Execution Program Status Register (EPSR)

These registers provide ALU flags (zero, carry), execution status, and current executing interrupt number. The three PSRs can be accessed separately or collectively, using the special instructions MSR and MRS. They can be collectively addressed as xPSR.

Interrupt Mask Registers

These registers are used by the NVIC to mask an interrupt or exception.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>xPSR</th>
<th>PRIMASK</th>
<th>FAULTMASK</th>
<th>BASEPRI</th>
<th>CONTROL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Where:
- N – Negative Flag
- Z – Zero Flag
- C – Carry/Borrow Flag
- V – Overflow Flag
- Q – Sticky Saturation Flag
- ICI / IT – Interrupt-Continual Instruction (ICI) bits / IF-THEN instruction status bit
- T – Thumb-2 Instruction. Always set to 1. Clearing this results in an exception
- Exception Number – Indicates which exception the processor is currently handling

Interrupt Mask Registers

- PRIMASK – Used to disable all interrupts except the Nonmaskable Interrupt (NMI) and HardFault
- FAULTMASK – Used to disable all interrupts except NMI
- BASEPRI – Used to disable interrupts of specified or lower priority levels.

These registers are used by the NVIC to mask an interrupt or exception.
Control Register

This register controls the stack pointer selection and the privilege level of the processor. It has only two bits:

CONTROL[0]
- '0' Privileged in Thread Mode
- '1' User state in Thread mode

CONTROL[1]
- '0' Default stack is used
- '1' Alternate stack is used

5.2.2 Operating Modes

The Cortex-M3 supports two privilege levels:
- Privileged – Code has no limit to resources
- User – Code has some limits to the resources

Privilege level can be controlled using the control register.

When the code is in user level, it cannot access the debug resources and certain important registers.

In addition to the privilege levels, the processor supports two types of operating modes:

- **Thread Mode** – Thread mode is used by all normal applications. During the thread mode the Process Stack Pointer (PSP) is used. The thread mode can exist in both privileged level and user level. Switching from privileged level to user level can be done by just writing to the control register but the reverse cannot be done. When an exception occurs, the system is automatically taken to privileged level and at the exit of the exception it comes back to the user level. Restoring to the privileged level can be done only by going through an exception handler that programs the control register for the privileged mode.

- **Handle Mode** – Handle mode is used by OS kernel and exception handlers. During this mode, the main stack pointer (MSP) is used. The handle mode can exist only in the privileged level.

Figure 5-5. Operating Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Privilege Level</th>
<th>User</th>
<th>Privileged</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Handle Mode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thread Mode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Handle Mode: running an interrupt service routine
Thread Mode: running background code
5.2.3 Pipelining

The three stage pipelining includes:

- **Fetch** – The instruction is fetched from memory
- **Decode** – Generating the addresses and branch prediction
- **Execute** – Instruction execution based on the address and branches

The branch prediction unit has been enhanced so that it gives nearly no ALU usage penalty.

Pipelining can give zero to two wait states when executing an instruction.

5.2.4 Thumb-2 Instruction Set

The Cortex-M3 supports a wide range of 16- and 32-bit instructions. It does not support all ARM instructions, including:

- Branch with link and exchange state
- Switch endian
- Certain coprocessor instructions
- Hint instructions
- DSP instructions
- Change process instructions

The instruction includes these data processing operations:

- Multiply and divide
- Bit
- Shift
- Load store
- Branch
- Barrier
- Exception generating
- System

- Saturation
- Miscellaneous

Cortex-M3 supports unique instructions. The following table is a summary of the important instructions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>Functionality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSR, MRS</td>
<td>To access special registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>IF-THEN instruction supporting up to 4 succeeding instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBZ, CBNZ</td>
<td>Compare and then branch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDIV, UDIV</td>
<td>Signed and Unsigned Divide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REV, REVH, REVSH</td>
<td>Reverse the byte order in data word, upper half word, lower half word, respectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RBIT</td>
<td>Reverses bit order in a data word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SXTB, SXTH, UXTB, UXTH</td>
<td>Extend a byte or half word into a word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFC, BFI</td>
<td>BFC - Clears any number of adjacent bits in any position BFI - Copies any number of bits from any register to another register to any mentioned location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBFX, SBFX</td>
<td>Unsigned and signed bit field extract instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDRD, STRD</td>
<td>Transfer 2 words of data from or into 2 registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBB, TBH</td>
<td>Table Branch Byte and Table Branch Halfword for branch tables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sections beginning with 5.2.3.1 detail some of the instruction types. For the entire summary of the instruction set, refer to the *ARMv7-M Application Level Architecture Reference Manual* available at [http://www.arm.com](http://www.arm.com).

5.2.4.1 Data Processing Operations

The Cortex-M3 provides many different instructions for data processing. A few basics are introduced here. Many data operation instructions can have multiple instruction formats.

The Cortex-M3 supports arithmetic functions ADD, SUB (subtract), MUL (multiply), and UDIV/SDIV (unsigned and signed divide).
The Cortex-M3 supports 32-bit multiply instructions and multiply accumulate instructions that give 64-bit results. These instructions support signed or unsigned values.

Another group of data processing instructions are logical operations such as AND, ORR (or), EOR (exclusive OR), and rotate and shift functions. In some cases the rotate operation can be combined with other operations.

Another group of data processing instructions is used for reversing data bytes in a register. These instructions are usually used for conversion between little endian and big endian data.

The last group of data processing instructions is for bit field processing. Instructions such as BFC, BFI, SBFX, and UBFX are used to clear, set, and copy bits with sign extension or zero extension.

5.2.4.2 Load Store Operations

One of the most basic functions in a processor is transfer of data. In the Cortex-M3, data transfers can be one of the following types:

- Moving data between register and register
- Moving data between memory and register
- Moving data between special register and register
- Moving an immediate data value into a register

The command to move data between registers is MOV (move). For example, moving data from register R3 to register R8 looks like this:

MOV R8, R3

Another instruction can generate the negative value of the original data; it is called MVN (move negative).

The basic instructions for accessing memory are Load and Store. Load (LDR) transfers data from memory to registers, and Store transfers data from registers to memory. The transfers can be in different data sizes (byte, half word, word, and double word).

Multiple Load and Store operations can be combined into single instructions called LDM (Load Multiple) and STM (Store Multiple).

ARM processors also support memory accesses with pre-indexing and post-indexing. Two other types of memory operation are stack PUSH and stack POP.

The Cortex-M3 has a number of special registers. To access these registers, use the instructions MRS and MSR.

5.2.4.3 Branch Operations

The branch operations include:

- Call and Unconditional branch instructions
- Decision and Conditional branch instructions
- Combined Compare and Conditional Branch
- Conditional Branching using IT instructions

The IT (IF-THEN) instruction block is very useful for handling small conditional code. It avoids branch penalties because there is no change to program flow. It can provide a maximum of four conditionally executed instructions with one condition check.

5.2.4.4 Instruction Barrier and Memory Barrier Instructions

The Cortex-M3 supports a number of barrier instructions. These instructions are needed with complex memory systems. In some cases, if memory barrier instructions are not used, race conditions can occur.

There are three barrier instructions in the Cortex-M3:

- DMB (Data Memory Barrier) – Ensures that all memory accesses are completed before new memory access is committed. For example, when you do a data write followed immediately by a read on a dual port memory, if the memory write is buffered, the DMB instruction can be used to ensure the read gets the updated value.
- DSB (Data Synchronization Barrier) – Ensures that all memory accesses are completed before the next instruction is executed
- ISB (Instruction Synchronization Barrier) – Flushes the pipeline and ensures that all previous instructions are completed before executing new instructions

5.2.4.5 Saturation Operations

The Cortex-M3 supports two instructions that provide signed and unsigned saturation operations: SSAT and USAT (for signed data type and unsigned data type, respectively).

Saturation is commonly used in signal processing, for example, in signal amplification.

The saturation operation does not prevent the distortion of the signal, but the amount of distortion is greatly reduced in the signal waveform.

5.2.5 SysTick Timer

The SysTick timer is integrated with the NVIC and generates the SYSTICK interrupt. This interrupt can be used for task management in a real time system. The timer has a reload register with 24 bits available to use as a countdown value. The timer can take an internal clock (the free running clock on the CM3 processor) or an external clock through...
the STCLK. In PSoC 5 devices use one of three sources as, ILO (1 kHz), ILO_100 (100 kHz), or the SYSCLK (BUSCLK).

5.2.6 Debug and Trace:
The Cortex-M3 provides a wide range of debugging components. The debug unit is tightly linked with the core.

The important features of the debug and trace are:

- Debug access to all memory and registers in the system including Cortex-M3 register bank when the core is running, halted, or held in reset.
- Serial Wire Debug Port (SW-DP) and Serial Wire JTAG Debug Port (SWJ-DP) debug access.
- Flash Patch and Breakpoint (FPB) unit for implementing breakpoints and code patches.
- Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) unit for implementing breakpoints, data tracing, and system profiling.
- Support for six breakpoints and four watchpoints.
- Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) for support of printf style debugging.
- Embedded Trace Macrocell (ETM) for instruction trace.
- Trace Port Interface Unit (TPIU) for bridging to a Trace Port Analyzer (TPA).

The Cortex-M3 supports a separate debug and trace interface. The debug interface uses the APB (Access Port Bus), which supports both JTAG and SWD. The trace interface uses the TPIU (Trace Port Interface Unit).

For further details about the debug and trace feature, refer to the Test Controller chapter on page 443 and the 8051 Debug on-Chip chapter on page 455.

5.3 Memory Map
The Cortex-M3 has a linear 32-bit (4 GB) address space, as shown in Figure 5-7. See also the Memory Map chapter on page 141.

The address space includes two bit-band alias regions, one for the SRAM space and the other for the Peripherals space. Accesses to a bit-band alias region affect individual bits in the corresponding bit-band region. For example, writing a 1 to address 0x22000000 sets bit 0 of address 0x20000000, and writing a 0 to address 0x42000004 clears bit 1 of address 0x40000000. Reading address 0x22000008 returns a 1 or 0, depending on the value of bit 2 of address 0x20000000.

The processor supports unaligned accesses. Unlike aligned access where the data can be situated only at even addresses, the unaligned accesses support data operations at odd addresses also. Unaligned accesses have limita-
5.4 Exceptions

The Cortex-M3 provides a feature-packed exception architecture that supports a number of system exceptions and external interrupts. Exceptions are numbered 1 to 15 for system exceptions and 16 and above for external interrupt inputs. PSoC 5 architecture supports 32 external interrupts. The exceptions are handled by the NVIC.
Most of the exceptions have programmable priority, and a few have fixed priority. Table 5-2 shows the list of exceptions available in the Cortex-M3:

Table 5-2. PSoC 5 Exceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrupt Number</th>
<th>Exception Type</th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reset</td>
<td>-3 (highest)</td>
<td>Not programmable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NMI</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>Not programmable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Maskable Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hard Fault</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>Not Programmable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>All fault conditions if the corresponding handler is not enabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>MemManage Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Memory management fault; access to illegal locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bus Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Bus error occurs when AHB interface receives an error response from a bus slave (also called prefetch abort if it is an instruction fetch or data abort if it is a data access)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Usage Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Exceptions due to program error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>SVCall</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>System Service Call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Debug Monitor</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Debug monitor (watchpoints, breakpoints, external debug request)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>PendSV</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Pendable request for system device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>SYSTICK</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>System Tick Timer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of the current running exception is indicated by the special register IPSR or from the NVIC’s Interrupt Control State Register (the VECTACTIVE field).

Interrupts are a subset of exceptions. So exceptions are handled the same way as an interrupt. The exception handler for each exception is stored in the interrupt vector table. The vector table begins with the exception handler and is followed by the interrupt service routine addresses. The vector table pointer is dynamically changeable. Also, if the vector table is in SRAM, then vectors can be dynamically changeable.

5.4.1 Priority Definitions

In the Cortex-M3, whether and when an exception can be carried out can be affected by the priority of the exception. A higher priority (smaller number in priority level) exception can preempt a lower priority (larger number in priority level) exception; this is the nested exception/interrupt scenario. From the above table, you can see that some of the exceptions (reset, NMI, and hard fault) have fixed priority levels. They are negative numbers to indicate that they are higher priority than other exceptions. Other exceptions have programmable priority levels.

5.4.2 Fault Exceptions

A number of system exceptions are useful for fault handling. There are several categories of faults:

- Bus faults
- Memory Management Faults
- Usage Faults
- Hard Faults

The faults can be enabled by setting the corresponding bits in the handler control and state register. The reason for a particular fault is updated in the corresponding status register (for example, BFSR register for bus fault, MFSR for memory management fault, UFSR for Usage Fault, HFSR for Hard Fault). These registers can be read to know the exact reason for fault.

When these types of faults (except vector fetches) take place, and if the corresponding exception handler is enabled and no other exceptions with the same or higher priority are running, the fault exception handler will be executed. If the exception handler is enabled but at the same time the core receives another exception handler/interrupt with higher priority, this fault exception handler will be pending and will be executed after the high priority exception/interrupt has completed its execution.

If the fault handler is not enabled or when the fault happens in an exception handler that has the same or higher priority than the current fault handler, the hard fault handler will be executed instead.

**Bus Faults**
Bus faults are produced when an error response is received during a transfer on the AHB interfaces. It can happen during prefetch, data read/write, or during stacking and unstacking operations.

**Memory Management Faults**

Memory management faults can be caused by certain illegal accesses, including the following:

- Trying to execute code from non-executable memory regions
- Writing to read-only regions
- Access in the user state to a region defined as privileged access only

**Usage Faults**

Usage faults can be caused by a number of things, including the following:

- Undefined instructions
- Coprocessor instructions (the Cortex-M3 processor does not support a coprocessor, but it is possible to use the fault exception mechanism to run software compiled for other Cortex processors via coprocessor emulation)
- Trying to switch to the ARM state (software can use this faulting mechanism to test whether the processor on which it runs supports ARM code; since the Cortex-M3 does not support the ARM state, a usage fault takes place if there is an attempt to switch)
- Invalid interrupt return (link register contains invalid/incorrect values)
- Unaligned memory accesses using multiple load or store instructions

It is also possible, by setting up certain control bits in the NVIC, to generate usage faults for:

- Divide by zero
- Any unaligned memory accesses

**Hard Faults**

The hard fault handler can be caused by:

- Usage faults, bus faults, and memory management faults if their handler cannot be executed.
- Bus faults during vector fetch (reading of a vector table during exception handling).

**5.4.3 System Call Exceptions**

SVC (System Service Call) and PendSV (Pended System Call) are two exceptions targeted at software and operating systems.

**SVC**

SVC is for generating system function calls. It can be configured to generate an interrupt. This interrupt can be used for task management in a realtime system. SVC is generated using the SVC instruction.

**PendSV**

PendSV works with SVC in the OS. Although SVC (by SVC instruction) cannot be pended (an application calling SVC will expect the required task to be done immediately), PendSV can be pended and is useful for an OS to pend an exception so that an action can be performed after other important tasks are completed. PendSV is generated by writing ‘1’ to the NVIC PendSV pending register. A typical use of PendSV is context switching.

**SysTick Timer Exception**

The SysTick Timer exception takes the vector number 15. Cortex-M3 supports a 24-bit down counter. This timer is very useful to perform task management where the software can be handled inside the timer interrupt.

The SYSTICK Timer can be used to generate interrupts. It has a dedicated exception type and exception vector. It makes porting operating systems and software easier because the process is the same across different Cortex-M3 products.

The SYSTICK Timer is controlled by four registers. Of the four registers, TICKINT is used to enable or disable the timer exception.

**5.5 Nested Vector Interrupt Controller (NVIC)**

The Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller, or NVIC, is an integral part of the Cortex-M3 processor. It is closely linked to the Cortex-M3 CPU core logic. Its control registers are accessible as memory-mapped devices. Besides control registers and control logic for interrupt processing, the NVIC also contains control registers for the SYSTICK Timer, and debugging controls.

Following are the important features of the NVIC:

- Supports 32 interrupts and 16 exceptions.
- Configurable priority levels.
- Dynamic reprioritization of interrupts.
- Support for nested interrupts
- Programmable interrupt vector
- Supports tail-chaining and late arrival interrupts. This enables back-to-back interrupt processing without the
overhead of state saving and restoration between interrupts.

- Processor state automatically saved upon interrupt entry, and restored upon interrupt exit, with no instruction overhead.

### 5.5.1 Basic Interrupt Configuration

Each external interrupt has several associated registers.

- Enable and Clear Enable
- Set Pending and Clear Pending
- Priority Level
- Active Status
- Exception-masking registers (PRIMASK,FAULTMASK, and BASEPRI)
- Vector Table Offset

The interrupt enable and clear enable registers are 32-bit registers. They are used to enable/disable an interrupt. An interrupt that is waiting for the CPU execution sets the pending bit in the set pending register. Once the interrupt has been executed by the CPU, the interrupt is cleared automatically by setting the clear-pending register. The interrupts can take priorities 0 to 7. The priorities are configured using the 3-bit priority registers. They can be dynamically configured during run time.

The Active Status register stores the details of the interrupt currently active. A bit set in this register indicates that the corresponding interrupt is currently active. An interrupt is called active if it is currently executed by the CPU or if it is already nested and put to the stack. Once the interrupt execution is complete, the active status bit of the interrupt is automatically cleared. With PSoC 5 devices, the addresses of the interrupt service routine are stored in the Interrupt vector table. The interrupt vector table can be located either in RAM or ROM. The position of the vector table is controlled using the Vector Table Offset register.

The exception masking registers, PRIMASK,FAULTMASK and BASEPRI, are special registers used to mask the interrupts and exceptions.

- PRIMASK – When set, all interrupts except NMI and Fault interrupts are masked
- FAULTMASK – When set, all interrupts except NMI are masked
- BASEPRI – Masks all interrupts at the specified priority and lower priorities

### 5.5.1.1 Example Procedures in Setting Up an Interrupt

Here is a simple example procedure for setting up an interrupt:

1. Copy the Hard Fault and NMI handlers to a new vector table location if vector table relocation is required. (In simple applications, this might not be needed.)
2. The Vector Table Offset register should also be set up to get the vector table ready (optional).
3. Set up the interrupt vector for the interrupt. Since the vector table could have been relocated, you might need to read the Vector Table Offset register; then calculate the correct memory location for your interrupt handler. This step might not be needed if the vector is hardcoded in ROM.
4. Set up the priority level for the interrupt.
5. Enable the interrupt.

### 5.5.2 Nested Interrupts

Nested interrupt support is built into the Cortex-M3 processor core and the NVIC. The nesting is done based on the priority of the interrupts. When the processor is handling an exception, all other exceptions with the same or lower priority will be blocked. When a high priority interrupt occurs, the low priority interrupt is nested and the high priority interrupt completes the execution. Since automatic hardware stacking and unstacking is done, nesting is done without risk of losing data in registers. Since Cortex-M3 uses the main stack to store the nesting interrupt details, care should be taken to ensure sufficient stack space is available.

Reentrant exceptions are not supported in the Cortex-M3.

### 5.5.3 Tail-Chaining Interrupts

The Cortex-M3 uses a number of methods to improve interrupt latency. Tail-chaining is one such method.

When an exception takes place but the processor is handling another exception of the same or higher priority, the exception will be pended. When the processor has finished executing the current exception handler, instead of POP, the registers go back into the stack and PUSH it back in again, skipping the unstacking and the stacking. In this way the timing gap between the two exception handlers is greatly reduced.

### 5.5.4 Late Arrivals

Another feature that improves interrupt performance is late arrival exception handling. When an exception takes place and the processor has started the stacking process, and if during this delay a new exception arrives with higher pre-
emption priority, the late arrival exception will be processed first.

For example, if Exception #1 (lower priority) takes place a few cycles before Exception #2 (higher priority), the processor will behave such that Handler #2 is executed as soon as the stacking completes. After this the Handler #1 will be executed.

5.5.5 Interrupt Latency

The term interrupt latency refers to the delay from the start of the interrupt request to the start of interrupt handler execution.

- In the Cortex-M3 processor, if the memory system has zero latency, and provided that the bus system design allows vector fetch and stacking to happen at the same time, the interrupt latency can be as low as 12 cycles. This includes stacking the registers, vector fetch, and fetching instructions for the interrupt handler. However, this depends on memory access wait states and a few other factors.

- For tail-chaining interrupts, since there is no need to carry out stacking operations, the latency of switching from one exception handler to another exception handler can be as low as 6 cycles.

- When the processor is executing a multi-cycle instruction such as divide, load double, or store double, the instruction could be abandoned and restarted after the interrupt handler completes.

- To reduce exception latency, the Cortex-M3 processor allows exceptions in the middle of multiple load and store instructions (LDM/STM). If the LDM/STM instruction is executing, the current memory accesses will be completed, and the next register number will be saved in the stacked xPSR (ICI bits). After the exception handler completes, the multiple load/store will resume from the point at which the transfer stopped.

5.5.6 Faults Related to Interrupts

Faults (bus fault, memory fault) can happen during the following stages of interrupt execution:

- Stacking
- Unstacking
- Vector Fetches
6. PSoC 3 Cache Controller

The cache block is an instruction cache only. It is responsible for servicing instruction fetches from the CPU. It stores lines of code from the flash in its internal buffer for fast accesses made by the CPU at a later time.

6.1 Features

- Single Port Cache RAM (CRAM) – either one read or one write at a time
- Instruction cache
- Fully associative
- 512 bytes total cache memory in PSoC 3
- Control to enable and disable cache
- Designed to put flash into sleep automatically to save power

6.2 Block Diagram

The PSoC 3 cache controller block diagram is in Figure 6-1.
CRAMIF logic handles the communication between the cache and the other blocks - CPU, background fill (BFILL), and PHUB requests.

### 6.3 Cache Memory Organization and Addressing

PSoC 3 has a total of 512 bytes of cache memory, which is divided into eight lines. A line is the cache channel where group of bytes move in or out. Each line has an eight word capacity and each word contains eight bytes. This gives each cache line a 64 byte capacity.

With this structure, a cache location is addressed by addressing the line, the word in the line, and the byte in the word.

Bytes within a word are organized into a little endian format where byte 0 is least significant byte.
Each cache line has tag information. The address that is used to look up the cache is broken down into these fields:

Figure 6-4. Cache Byte Format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Tag Address</th>
<th>Word offset</th>
<th>Byte offset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instruction fetch access selects the particular line with matching tag value, word offset selects the particular word in the line and byte offset selects a byte in a word. Firmware can access these CRAM bytes and tag information.

Tag information is available using the CACHE_TAG[0..7] register. Cache RAM memory has the base address of 0x30000.

6.3.1 Cache Operation

You enable the cache by setting the CACHE_EN bit of the CACHE_CR register to 1.

The CPU sends out instruction fetch request to CPUIF; CPUIF, which interfaces to Cache IF and Flash IF, determines whether the instruction that is requested by CPU is already present in Cache (hit) or if not (miss), then it accesses the instruction from either Flash, 8 byte pre-fetch buffer of CPUIF or 8 byte prefetch buffer of BFILL (Background fill).

On cache miss and if the cache is enabled, CPUIF writes the instruction fetched from the flash into CRAM, so that it is available in the next time CPU requests the same location. Moreover CPUIF has an 8-byte prefetch buffer that is used to save all the instructions and operands each time the CPU requests. Note that each time the flash is requested it is always an 8 byte fetch. These 8 bytes are loaded into the cache (if enabled) and the prefetch buffer of the CPUIF. The CPUIF prefetch buffer contains its own tag information. This forms an alternative to CRAM and allows the data in the prefetch buffer to be immediately returned to the CPU if there is address match rather than fetching from CRAM or flash, thus reducing power and improving performance.

If the cache is disabled it is never updated by the hardware. However, CPUIF still performs cache look ups and may produce hits. The instruction fetch request from the CPU is serviced from the cache as a regular hit. In this mode, firmware can update the cache and the tag values. This is useful for the ISRs that require minimal latency, which can be loaded into the cache manually in firmware.

6.3.2 Cache Line Locking:

Each cache line can be locked so that it is not replaced at next the flash instruction request. A cache line can be locked by setting TAG_LOCK bit of corresponding tag register CACHE_TAG[0...7] to 1.

6.3.3 Cache Line Loading in Firmware

Firmware can be used to load instructions into the cache directly and set the tags to allow the CPU to fetch instructions from the cache instead of flash.

Follow the steps
1. Clear CACHE_EN bit of CACHE_CR register to prevent instruction fetch from causing writes to CRAM during update.
2. Invalidate lines by clearing the appropriate tag register bits (TAG_VALID bits of CACHE_TAG register) to prevent instruction fetch from causing reads from the lines being loaded.
3. Write CRAM locations corresponding to the bytes invalidated in step 2.
4. Update appropriate tag register bits to mark as valid and lock modified lines. Setting lock bits will ensure that bytes do not get evicted from the cache.
5. Set CACHE_EN to reactivate writes to cache CRAM caused by the cache misses.

6.3.4 Cache Line Replacement Policy

An instruction fetch requested by the CPU may not exist in the cache. If the cache is full, then an existing valid cache line is evicted from the cache to create room for new line. The algorithm to select a line for eviction is the Least Recently Used (LRU) line that is not locked.
The LRU points to the cache line, which is the oldest of the used cache lines. The cache line that is evicted can be the line which is pointed by the LRU, however if the line pointed by LRU is locked, then the unlocked line which is closer is evicted. The process of replacing the cache line can be understood by above figure.

An instruction fetch that produces a hit will mark that line as the Most Recently Used (MRU) regardless of that line is locked or not.

6.3.5 Background Fill (BFILL):

Background fill fetches the data from the flash and writes into CRAM. When the CPU is waiting for an instruction fetch and the cache controller encounter a miss on either a cache line or an invalid word in a valid cache line, the background fill state machine starts requesting the data from flash to fill any invalid words on the MRU line of the cache. When the BFILL reaches the end of the line, it wraps back to the beginning of the MRU line.

BFILL can be enabled by setting the BFILL_EN bit of CACHE_CR register. Generally whenever cache is enabled, it is good idea to also turn ON BFILL to improve cache performance. However since background fill is a speculative function, it could be create what turns out to be wasteful reads from the flash. Thus for highly power sensitive applications, it may be desirable to disable the BFILL function to save some power at the expense of performance.

6.3.6 ECC (Error Correction Code)

The ECC block checks the data read from the flash. It is responsible for error detection and correction. The cache gets the error status from the ECC block. The error status gets logged into firmware visible registers. If the error is correctable, ECC block corrects it and updates the CACHE_INT_LOG3 register. If the error is not correctable, it updates the details of the flash location where error occurred, into CACHE_INT_LOG4 register. This block can issue interrupt to the CPU, explained in the “interrupt” section.

6.3.6.1 Interrupts

There are four interrupts related to the cache controller that are issued to the CPU. The interrupts can be enabled by setting appropriate bits of CACHE_INT_MSK register.

1. ISR loading violation: If the cache is enabled and if firmware tries to write into Cache tag or CRAM, then this interrupt is issued. The write into the tag or CRAM will not be executed. A log is created (the associated cache line number where the violation happened), in CACHE_INT_LOG0 register.

2. Coherency violation: This interrupt is caused by:
   a. If the CACHE_EN bit of CACHE_CR register is set to 0 and write to tag register (CACHE_TAG) except bits (23:16) is attempted
   b. If the CACHE_EN bit is set to 0 and a write to line in CRAM is attempted whose corresponding TAG_VALID is set
In both cases the write is allowed so that the.
CACHE_INT_LOG1 register can be accessed to see in
which cache line the error happened.

3. Duplicate Tag Violation: This interrupt occurs when
   CACHE_EN bit is set to 0 and if firmware tries to create
two tags with the same tag address. CACHE_INT_LOG2
   register can be accessed to see which two lines have
got the identical tags and the tag address.

4. ECC - Single Bit: This interrupt occurs when a single bit
   error is encountered during a fill operation and was fixed.
   CACHE_INT_LOG3 register is updated with the flash
   location address where error occurred.

5. ECC- Multiple bits: This interrupt occurs when multiple
   bit error is encountered during a fill operation. This error
   cannot be fixed. CACHE_INT_LOG4 register is updated
   with the flash location address where error occurred.

6.3.7 Flash Low Power Mode

The cache controller has the ability to send the flash into a
low power mode while continuing to run normally. When the
number of cache hits reaches the programmed threshold,
cache puts the flash into sleep thus saving the power.
Threshold value can be set in CACHE_LP_MODE register.
The flash is in low power mode until the next cache miss
occurs.
7. PSoC 5 Cache Controller

The cache block is an Instruction cache only. It services instruction fetches from the CPU. It stores lines of code from the flash in its internal buffer for fast accesses made by the CPU at a later time.

7.1 Features

- Instruction cache
- Direct mapped
- 128 bytes total cache memory
- Registers for measuring cache hit/miss ratios
- Error correction code (ECC) support
- Error logging and interrupt generation
- Designed to put flash into sleep automatically to save power

7.2 Block Diagram

Figure 7-1 shows the system interaction with the cache block as well as the cache interfaces and data/instruction flow.

Figure 7-1. Cache Interfaces
7.3 Cache Enabling and Disabling

To enable the cache, set the DISABLE bit (Bit 0) of CACHE.CC_CTL register to 0.

7.4 Code Protection and Security

The ECC block is responsible for error detection and correction. The cache gets the error status from the ECC block for requested fills from the flash. The error status gets logged into software visible registers in the cache. An uncorrectable error will prevent the fill data from being written into the cache RAM and causes entire line to be invalidated.

ECC_ADDR[0:28] field of CACHE.ECC_CORR register gives the flash address where error was detected; this address field is valid only when INT_VALID field of this register is set to 1. Interrupt can also be generated on ECC correction by setting INT_ENB bit of CACHE.ECC_CORR register.

If ECC correction fails, then the flash address where error happened can be obtained from CACHE.ECC_ERR register.

7.5 Invalidating the Cache Line

Software can invalidate all cached data associated with an interface by setting the Flush bit (Bit 2) of CACHE.CC_CTL register. Invalidate takes effect in 1 cycle and affects all lines.

7.5.1 Measuring Cache Hits or Misses

The CACHE.HITMISS register provides two 16-bit counters that count the number of cache hits and misses. To measure the cache performance, reset the HITMISS register to 0 at the start of the block of code to measure. Then the code is executed and at the end of the code under measurement, the HITMISS register should be read. The cache hit ratio can be computed as:

\[
\text{Cache hit ratio} = \frac{\text{the number of cache hits (HITMISS [31:16])}}{\text{Number of cache misses (HITMISS[15:0])}}
\]

7.6 Cache Induced Flash Low Power Mode

Flash is put to low power mode when the cache predicts that a flash access is not needed in the near future, based on reaching a programmed number of sequential hits. This feature helps to reduce the overall power consumption of the device. The threshold value of sequential hits can be programmed in LP_MODE bits of CACHE.CC_CTL register. To put the FLASH into low power mode immediately, LP_MODE bits should be set to 0. This should be done when executing code from SRAM.

7.7 Sleep Mode Behavior

When the device wakes up from low power modes, all cache data and tags are invalidated. However, all the cache registers (where cache settings are made) maintain their state and are not reset. The cache will be refilled as the CPU begins fetching instructions.

Cache status on system reset:

On reset, cache is invalidated and begins to fill with the first request from the CPU.

7.8 Cache Limitations

All instructions are assumed to be in the flash. There is no direct path from the cache to the external memory. Instructions from the external memory must be explicitly moved into the flash by software, before they can be used by the CPU.
Cache coherency is the software's responsibility; no hardware mechanism exists to ensure coherency. If the software modifies the FLASH or memory contents, it also needs to invalidate the cache and ensure the new instruction is fetched into the cache.
PSoC 5 Cache Controller
8. PHUB and DMAC

PSoc® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices use a high-performance bus for peripheral access and bulk data transfer. The high-performance bus and the associated central controller are known as the peripheral hub (PHUB). The PHUB is a programmable and configurable central bus backbone within a PSoC 3 or PSoC 5 device that ties the various on-chip system elements together. It consists of multiple spokes; each spoke is connected to one or more peripheral blocks. The PHUB also includes a direct memory access controller (DMAC), which is used for data transfer. The DMAC supports multiple DMA channels.

There are two bus masters (blocks that can initiate bus traffic) in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. These are the DMAC and the CPU. An arbiter in the PHUB is responsible for arbitrating requests from the CPU and the DMAC. Upon receiving a request from the microcontroller or the DMAC, the PHUB relays the request to the appropriate peripheral spoke.

8.1 PHUB

PHUB manages arbitration between the CPU and the DMAC.

8.1.1 Features

The PHUB has the following features:

- Industry-standard Advanced Microcontroller Bus Architecture High-performance Bus (AMBA -HB) lite protocol
- 8 spokes connected to various peripherals
- 8-/16-/32-bit data-width support
- Peripherals of various address widths connected to the same spoke
- Includes programmable DMAC with 24 direct memory access (DMA) channels
- Byte order and data width difference translation

8.1.2 Block Diagram

Figure 8-1 on page 92 is the block diagram of the PHUB. The DMAC is also shown.
8.1.3 How It Works

The PHUB is used to connect the CPU to memory and peripherals, including SRAM, flash, EEPROM, analog subsystem, digital blocks, digital filter block, and others.

The PHUB connects to the peripherals using a spoke. There are eight spokes. Each spoke connects to one or more peripherals. Each spoke is configured for:

- **Address width** – The address width of a spoke depends on the maximum number of addresses required for the peripherals connected to the spoke.
- **Data width** – The data width of a spoke can be 16 or 32 bits. Eight-bit data transfer can be performed on 16- and 32-bit spokes.
- **Number of peripherals** – This depends on the device architecture. Each spoke is usually connected to multiple peripherals.

Table 8-1 shows the address width, data width, and peripherals connected to each spoke in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 device.

- The peripherals connected to each spoke can have data widths longer than the spoke. For example, a Delta-Sigma ADC can support up to 20-bit data although it is placed in the 16-bit spoke (spoke 03).

In this case, the PHUB uses an internal FIFO to accommodate the width differences during data transfer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoke</th>
<th>Address Width (in bits)</th>
<th>Data Width (in bits)</th>
<th>Peripheral Names</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>SRAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>IO interface, port interrupt control unit (PICU), external memory interface (EMIF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>PHUB local spoke, power management, clock, serial wire viewer (SWV), EEPROM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Delta-sigma ADC, analog interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>USB, CAN, fixed-function I²C, fixed-function timers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Digital filter block (DFB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>UDB set 0 registers (including DSI, configuration, and control registers), UDB interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>UDB set 1 registers (including DSI, configuration, and control registers)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One peripheral can extend across multiple spokes. In this case, the peripheral will have different address spaces that are connected to each spoke. For example, Table 8-1 shows that UDB registers extend across two spokes. UDB registers can be accessed in 8-bit mode and also in 16-bit mode. In this case, the 8-bit mode access needs a different address space than the 16-bit mode access though they reside in the same spoke.

Peripherals of different data widths can be connected to a single spoke. An example of this is spoke 3, which is connected to the analog interface (digital-to-analog converter) and delta-sigma ADC. The delta-sigma ADC can support up to 20-bit data, and the digital-to-analog converter register is 8-bit.

Spoke 0 is connected to SRAM. The CPU can access the SRAM without going through the PHUB. The DMAC accesses the SRAM through PHUB.

The spoke address width, data width, and peripherals are fixed in a device and cannot be changed. The spoke and the peripheral details affect the time required for data transfer. Interspoke and intraspoke transfers take different amounts of time.

The effects of spoke data width, and interspoke and intraspoke transfer, on latency of data transfer are explained in 8.1.4 Arbiter.

### 8.1.4 Arbiter

The PHUB receives data read or write requests from either the CPU or the DMAC. The PHUB processes each request to determine which spoke and peripheral should be accessed, and then manages the data access.

When the DMAC and CPU initiate transactions in the PHUB at the same time, the arbiter decides which request has priority. The priority can be configured for every spoke except spoke 0. Spoke 0 is accessed only by the DMAC because the CPU has a separate interface to SRAM. You can configure priority using the “spk_cpu_pri” bits in the PHUB_CFG register.

When the CPU and DMAC access different spokes simultaneously, both accesses are independent and arbitration is not necessary. This enables a multiprocessing environment. The exception is the SRAM, which has direct access by the CPU and PHUB. In this case, there is no arbitration required for SRAM. This helps to reduce the SRAM latency access.

The arbitration issues when the CPU and DMA want to access the same spoke simultaneously are detailed in further sections.

### 8.2 DMA Controller

The DMA Controller (DMAC) transfers data between memory and peripherals.

- Uses the PHUB for data transfer
- Includes 24 DMA channels
- Includes 128 transaction descriptors (TD)
- Eight levels of priority per channel
- Transactions can be triggered by any digitally routable signal, the CPU, or another DMA channel
- Transactions can be stalled or canceled
- Each transaction can be from 1 to 64 KB
- Large transactions can be broken into smaller bursts of 1 to 127 bytes.
- Each channel can be configured to generate an interrupt at the end of transfer
- Supports byte swapping, for conversion between big-endian and little-endian formats
- Handles data-width differences

#### 8.2.1 Local Memory

As shown in Figure 8-1 on page 92, the PHUB includes local memory to store configuration data. The local memories are called

- Configuration memory (CFGMEM)
- Transaction descriptor memory (TDMEM)

The PHUB also includes a 16-byte FIFO for data handling during data transfers.

The CGFMEM is used to store the DMA channel configuration data. There are two registers: CGFMEMn.CFG0 and CGFMEMn.CFG1 (where n can be from 0 to 23) for each channel. Each register is 32 bits, so the size of CGFMEM is 8 bytes × 24 channels = 192 bytes.

The TDMEM is used to store the TD configuration data, which includes the number of bytes to transfer, source address, destination address, next TD, and other configuration data. Each TD has two registers: TDMEMn.ORIG_TD0 and TDMEMn.ORIG_TD1. Each register is 32 bits, so the size of TDMEM is 8 bytes × 128 TDs = 1 KB of memory.

The local memory is accessed through the local spoke of the PHUB (see Table 8-1 on page 92).

#### 8.2.2 How the DMAC Works

The DMAC is one of the bus masters for PHUB. The DMAC can perform the following data transfers:

- Memory to memory
PHUB and DMAC

- Memory to peripheral
- Peripheral to memory
- Peripheral to peripheral

Any DMA channel goes through the following phases to perform data transfers:
- Arbitration phase
- Fetch phase
- Source engine phase
- Destination engine phase
- Write back phase

The total time required for a DMA transfer depends on the time taken for each phase. The DMA transfer can be either an intraspoke DMA transfer or interspoke DMA transfer.

In an intraspoke transfer, the data transfer happens within the same spoke. This transfer makes use of the internal FIFO.

- Arbitration phase
  The DMAC selects which DMA channel to process based on the priority.
- Fetch phase
  The DMAC fetches the TD and DMA channel details from the configuration registers.
- Source engine phase
  The source engine selects the spoke to which the source peripheral is connected. Once the spoke is available for data transfer, the data transfer from the source begins.
- Destination engine phase
  This phase selects the spoke on which the destination peripheral is available. Once the spoke is available, the data collected in the source engine phase is transferred to the destination peripheral.
- Write back phase
  This phase is the completion phase where the TD and DMA channel configurations are updated after data transfer.

Ideal conditions for data transfer are:
- Single requestor
- CPU doesn't interrupt the fetch phase
- Both source and destination spoke are readily available
- Source spoke and destination spoke are of same width
- Source and destination address start at even addressing
- Transfer count is a multiple of burst count
- Burst count matches the spoke width

The number of bursts for transfer \( N \) = Transfer count \(/\) Spoke width

8.2.2.1 Interspoke Transfers

The timing diagram for an interspoke transfer under ideal conditions is shown in Figure 8-2.

---

**8.2.2.1 Interspoke Transfers**

The timing diagram for an interspoke transfer under ideal conditions is shown in Figure 8-2.

---

The total number of cycles for data transfer in the case of interspoke DMA transfers is the sum of cycles required for each phase.

Total cycle time = Arbitration phase time (1) + Fetch phase (1) + Source Engine phase (N + 3) + Destination engine phase (0, because it happens in parallel with the source engine phase) + Write back phase (1)

Total cycle time = N + 6 cycles (where N = Transfer count \(/\) Spoke width)

**Example**
You want to move five samples of 16-bit ADC data to memory.

Notes
- The ADC (decimator) is connected to spoke 3 which is a 16-bit spoke.
- Memory is in Spoke 0, which is a 32-bit spoke)

The DMA configuration includes:
- DMA channel burst count (configured in CFGMEMn.CFG0) = 2
- TD transfer count (configured in TDMEMn.ORIG_TD0) = 2 bytes × 5 samples = 10
- TD configuration includes an Increment Destination Address to copy data to an array in the memory (configured in TDMEMn.ORIG_TD0)
- \( N = \text{Transfer count} \div \text{Spoke width} = 10 \div 2 = 5 \)

For more information about the DMA configuration, refer to the PHUB registers in *PSoc 3 Registers TRM* and *PSoc 5 Registers TRM*.

The source engine phase needs \( N + 3 \) cycles = 8 cycles.
Total cycle time required for interspoke transfer is \( N + 6 = 5 + 6 = 11 \) cycles.

### 8.2.2.2 Intraspoke Transfer

The timing diagram for intraspoke transfer under ideal conditions is shown in [Figure 8-3](#).

![Figure 8-3. Intraspoke Transfer Cycle Timing](image)

The total number of cycles for data transfer in the case of intraspoke DMA transfer is the sum of the cycles required for each phase.

Total cycle time = Arbitration phase time (1) + Fetch phase (1) + Source engine phase (\( N + 1 \)) + Destination engine phase (\( N + 1 \)) + Write back phase (1)

Total cycle time = \( 2N + 5 \) cycles (where \( N = \text{Transfer count} \div \text{Spoke width} \))

In intraspoke DMA transfers, because the source and destination reside in the same spoke, the 16-byte internal FIFO of the PHUB is used as an intermediate buffer. Once the FIFO is full, the PHUB waits for the FIFO to be emptied and the destination engine to read the data, and then fills the next set of data. This is the reason why the destination engine phase cannot happen in parallel with the source engine phase.

**Example**

You want to move four 32-bit data words from one SRAM location to another SRAM location.

Notes
- SRAM lies in spoke 0, which is a 32-bit spoke.
**PHUB and DMAC**

- In this case, both source and destination is SRAM.

The DMA configuration includes:
- Burst count (configured in CFGMEMn.CFG0) = 4
- Transfer count (configured in TDMEMn.ORIG_TD0) = 4 bytes × 4 words = 16
- TD configuration includes increment source address and increment destination address to copy data from one array to another (configured in TDMEMn.ORIG_TD0)
- \( N = \text{Transfer count} \div \text{Spoke width} = 16 \div 4 = 4 \)

The source and destination engine phase needs
\( 2N + 2 \text{ cycles} = (2 \times 4) + 2 = 10 \text{ cycles} \)

Total cycle time required for intraspoke transfer is \( 2N + 5 = (2 \times 4) + 5 = 13 \text{ cycles} \)

### 8.2.2.3 Handling Multiple DMA Channels

The DMAC can perform phases in parallel. This helps to reduce the latency for executing data transfer. When multiple channels need to execute, the channels can be pipelined.

*Figure 8-4* shows processing of two DMA channels that were requested at the same time. The figure shows only the inter-spoke transfer. The same is applicable also for intraspoke transfer.

#### Figure 8-4. Multiple DMA Channel Processing

**8.2.2.4 DMA Channel Priority**

Each channel can take a priority from 0 to 7 with 0 being the highest priority.

The DMAC supports two different methods to handle the priority: simple priority, and grant allocation fairness algorithm.

The priority handling method can be changed by writing to register PHUB.CFG bit “simple_pr” (bit 23).

- Simple Priority: This method handles the channels like any normal priority algorithm where high priority channel can interrupt low priority channel
- Grant allocation Fairness algorithm: In this method, the channel 0 and 1 take highest priority and no other priority can interrupt the channels with priority 0 and 1. A DMA Channel of priority 0 and priority 1 occupy the bus 100%. Rest of the priorities share the bus based on the number of channels requested at that time. Since priority 0 has higher priority than 1, priority 0 can interrupt priority 1.

In both the cases, a DMA channel of low priority can be interrupted by a high priority channel only during the source engine phase

The Arbitration phase time depends on the number of channels requesting the DMAC (non-ideal conditions).

When there is only 1 channel requesting an idle DMAC, the arbitration phase takes 1 cycle.
When there is more than 1 channel requesting a free DMAC, the arbitration phase takes 2 cycles.

Examples using the Grant allocation Fairness Algorithm

Scenario 1
DMAC is free. Channel A with Priority 0 comes

Scenario 2
DMAC is free. Channel B with Priority 1 is executing. Channel A with Priority 0 comes

Scenario 3
DMAC is free. Channel B with Priority 2 is executing. Channel A with Priority 0/1 comes

Scenario 4
DMAC is free. Channel B with Priority 3 is executing. Channel A with Priority 2 comes
The below table shows the minimum guarantee for a DMA channel priority to get bus access

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority Level</th>
<th>Bus Allocation Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since there are as many 24 DMA Channels but only 8 priority levels, there can be multiple channels taking the same priority levels.

DMAC uses the Round Robin method to handle DMA Channels with same priority. In case of Round Robin algorithm, the DMA channel which was not executed recently takes a higher priority. The execution of same priority DMA channels when round robin algorithm is enabled depends on

- The last time when the channel was enabled
- If the last time is the same for 2 channels, then DMA Channel with lower number takes higher priority

8.2.2.5 *DMA Latency in case of Nonideal Conditions*

The previous section explained the latency in case of ideal condition. But in real time, the ideal condition rarely exists. This section explains the latency calculation in case of non-ideal conditions. The latency calculation in case of nonideal conditions cannot be explained using formula as against the ideal condition.

**Multiple Requestors**

In real time system the PHUB will be requested by multiple channels and by CPU also.

If there are multiple DMA channels sending request at the same time, the arbitration phase will take 2 cycles instead of the ideal 1 cycle

**CPU Interrupts with Fetch Phase**

The fetch phase ideally takes only 1 cycle for the PHUB to access the configuration registers through the PHUB local spoke. When CPU interrupts the fetch phase, the latency depends on when the CPU releases the configuration registers. Typically CPU takes 2 cycles for the access of configuration registers.

Also, there might be some high priority DMA channel in the Fetch phase. These scenarios will also add to the DMA Channel execution latency.

**Source and Destination Spokes in Use**

The source and destination for a particular DMA Channel should be free for the channel to use it. In real time, a source or destination spoke may be already used by CPU or another DMA channel

When source and destination spoke is already in use, the PHUB does the arbitration. The following flow chart shows the arbitration mechanism.
This latency is not measurable and depends on the real time situation where same spoke can be accessed by multiple resources.

**Source and destination peripherals are not Ready**

When the source or the destination peripheral is not ready to send or receive data, then the DMA channel has to wait till it is ready. In case of source peripheral not ready, the DMA channel will wait for the source peripheral to become ready.

In case of destination peripheral not ready, the DMA channel will use the 16 byte FIFO of the PHUB. It reads the data from the source and fills it in the FIFO till the destination peripheral is ready. Thus the internal 16 byte FIFO is used during intra-spoke transfer and also during the conditions where the source and destination peripherals are no ready.

Source and destination spoke are of different width.

The spoke widths play a very important role in latency. There are chances that the source spoke might be smaller than the destination spoke and vice versa. In this case the burst count also plays an important role. Let’s see some examples for this condition.

**Scenario 1** (Inter spoke: 16 bit spoke to 32 bit spoke; Burst of 2)

- Source: 16 bit spoke (ADC)
- Destination: 32 bit spoke (DFB)
- Burst count: 2 (for 16 bit ADC data)
PHUB and DMAC

Figure 8-11. Data Transfer between 16-bit and 32-bit Spoke

Scenario 2 (Inter spoke: 16 bit spoke to 32 bit spoke; Burst of 4)
- Source: 16 bit spoke (ADC)
- Destination: 32 bit spoke (DFB)
- Burst count: 4 (for 20 bit ADC data)

Figure 8-12. Data Transfer Between 16 bit and 32 bit Spoke

Scenario 3 (Inter spoke: 32 bit spoke to 16 bit spoke; Burst of 4)
- Source: 32 bit spoke (Memory)
- Destination: 16 bit spoke (UDB peripheral)
- Burst count: 4

Figure 8-13. Data Transfer Between 16 bit and 32 bit Spoke

Scenario 4 (Inter spoke: 16 bit spoke to 16 bit spoke; Burst of 2)
- Source: 16 bit spoke
- Destination: 16 bit spoke
- Burst count: 2

**Figure 8-14. Data Transfer Between Two 16 bit Spoke**

Scenario 5 (Inter spoke: 16 bit spoke to 16 bit spoke; Burst of 4)
- Source: 16 bit spoke
- Destination: 16 bit spoke
- Burst count: 4

**Figure 8-15. Data Transfer Between Two 16 bit Spoke**

Scenario 6 (Intra spoke: 16 bit spoke; Burst of 1)
- Source and destination: Same spoke (16 bit)
- Burst count: 1
Scenario 6 (Intra spoke: 16 bit spoke; Burst of 2)
- Source and destination: Same spoke (16 bit)
- Burst count: 2

**Figure 8-16. Intra Spoke Data Transfer**

- Peripheral A (16 bit data)
- Peripheral B (16 bit data)
- Bus clock

1 Byte to PHUB FIFO
Burst Count = 1
PHUB FIFO to Destination

Data read and write using intermediate PHUB FIFO

**Figure 8-17. Intra Spoke Data Transfer**

- Peripheral A (16 bit data)
- Peripheral B (16 bit data)
- Bus clock

2 Bytes to PHUB FIFO
Burst Count = 2
PHUB FIFO to Destination

Data read and write using intermediate PHUB FIFO
Source and destination address do not have even addressing

The address of the source and destination play a very important role in deciding the latency. The AHB protocol supports reading from even addresses.

Use this notation for a 32 bit spoke.

**Figure 8-18. Addressing in 32 bit Spoke**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address n</th>
<th>Byte 0</th>
<th>Byte 1</th>
<th>Byte 2</th>
<th>Byte 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Address n + 1</td>
<td>Byte 0</td>
<td>Byte 1</td>
<td>Byte 2</td>
<td>Byte 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 8-19. Addressing in 16 bit Spoke**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address n</th>
<th>Byte 0</th>
<th>Byte 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Address n + 1</td>
<td>Byte 0</td>
<td>Byte 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scenario 1: 32 bit spoke, Burst count of 4, Address begins at Byte 1

**Figure 8-20. Odd Addressing in 32-Bit Spoke**

As seen from the above figure, when the even addressing is not met, the bus cycle increases. In ideal condition where the address begins at Byte 0, a single cycle is sufficient to read all the 4 bytes.

Scenario 2: 16 bit spoke, Burst count of 2, Address begins at Byte 1

**Figure 8-21. Odd Addressing In 16 bit Spoke**

8.2.2.6 **Request per Burst Bit**
The data to be transferred can be split into multiple burst - each of same size. This feature is useful under the following situations:

- When the user doesn’t want to hog the bus with a single channel which has huge data to transfer
- When the user needs to control the transfer times

The “Request per bit” is bit 7 in CFGMEMn.CFG0 register. This bit is available for individual channel. When this bit is set, the DMA needs a request to transfer the next burst of data. When this bit is set, the DMA channel should go through the whole process from Arbitration phase till Write back phase for every burst. Thus the “Request per bit” parameter will significantly increase the transfer time.

8.2.2.7 Work Sep Bit

The “work_sep” bit is bit 5 of the Chn.BASIC_CFG register. This bit is available for individual channel. When this bit is cleared, a TD mapped to that particular DMA channel cannot restore its initial configuration after the data transfer. The TD will retain its last source address, destination address and transfer count details at the end of transfer.

When this bit is set, a TD mapped to that particular DMA channel restores its initial configuration after the data transfer. This is very useful when the TD should be repeated. When the “work_sep” bit is set, DMA uses a separate processing area to store the TD configuration details.

8.3 DMA Transaction Modes

The DMA channels can be chained to perform complex operation. Similarly TDs can be nested or chained to perform complex operations. Chaining of TDs is done using the bit “next_td_ptr” in TDMEMn.ORID_TD0 register. This flexibility of the DMA channel and TD helps to create both simple and complex cases.

General use cases might include the following types

8.3.1 Simple DMA

A single TD is used to transfer data between two peripherals or memory locations.

8.3.2 Auto Repeat DMA

A static pattern is repetitively read from system memory and written to a peripheral. This is done with a single TD that chain to itself.

8.3.3 Ping Pong DMA

Double buffering is used to allow one buffer to be filled by one client, while another client is consuming the data previously received in the other buffer. In its simplest form, this is done by chaining two TDs together where each TD calls the opposite TD when complete.

8.3.4 Circular DMA

This is similar to ping pong DMA except that it contains more than two buffers. In this case, there are multiple TDs where after the last TD is complete it chains back to the first TD.

8.3.5 Indexed DMA

An external master requires access to locations on the system bus as if those locations were shared memory.
Example: If a peripheral was configured as an SPI or I2C slave where an address is received by the external master, that address becomes an index or offset into the internal system bus memory space. This is accomplished with an initial “address fetch” TD that reads the target address location from the peripheral and writes that value into a subsequent TD in the chain. This causes the TD chain to be modified during the process. When the “address fetch” TD completes, it can move onto the next TD, which has the new address information embedded in it. This TD carries out the data transfer with the address location requested by the external master.

Figure 8-26. Indexed DMA

8.3.6 Scatter Gather DMA

Multiple noncontiguous sources or destinations are required to effectively carry out an overall DMA transaction.

Example: A packet can be required to be transmitted off of the device and the packet elements, including the header, payload, and trailer exist in various non-continuous locations in memory. Scatter-gather DMA allows the segments to concatenate together by using multiple TDs in a chain that gathers data from multiple locations.

A similar concept applies for the reception of data onto the device. Certain parts of the received data may need to be scattered to various locations in memory for software-processing convenience. Each TD in the chain specifies the location for each discrete element in the chain.

8.3.7 Packet Queuing DMA

This is similar to scatter gather DMA, but it specifically connotes packet protocols whereby there can be separate configuration, data, and status phases associated with sending or receiving a packet.

Example: For transmitting a packet, a memory mapped configuration register could be written inside a peripheral specifying the overall length of the ensuing data phase. This configuration information can be setup by the CPU anywhere in system memory and copied with a simple TD to the peripheral. After the configuration phase, a data phase TD (or a series of data phase TDs) can begin (potentially using scatter gather). After the data phase TDs finish, a status phase TD could be invoked that reads some memory mapped status information from the peripheral and copies it to a location in system memory specified by the CPU for later inspection. Multiple sets of configuration/data/status phase sub-chains can be strung together to create larger chains that transmit multiple packets in this way. A similar concept exists in the opposite direction for the reception of the packets.

8.3.8 Nested DMA

One TD can modify another TD, as the TD configuration space is memory mapped, just as any other peripheral.

Example: A first TD loads a second TDs configuration and then calls the second TD. The second TD moves data as required by the application. When complete, the second TD calls the first TD, which again updates the second TDs configuration. This process repeats as often as necessary.
## 8.4 Register List

Table 8-3. PHUB and DMA Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CFG</td>
<td>PHUB General Configuration register</td>
<td>Specifies prune_clock delay, number of wait states, allocation fairness algorithm, priority, priority spoke, CPU_CLOCK_EN setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_ERR</td>
<td>PHUB Error Detection register</td>
<td>PHUB detects the following errors:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Bus Timeout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Unpopulated address access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Peripheral AHB ERROR response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If the error was detected as a result of a CPU access then PHUB will send an AHB ERROR response to the CPU. If the error was detected as a result of either a CPU or DMA access then PHUB will set the corresponding bit in the following ERR register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_ERR_ADDR</td>
<td>PHUB Error Address register</td>
<td>Contains the address that caused an error to trigger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CH[0..23]_BASIC_CFG</td>
<td>Channel Basic Configuration register</td>
<td>Sets basic channel configurations in gates inside PHUB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CH[0..23]_ACTION</td>
<td>Channel Action register</td>
<td>Sets action for each channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CH[0..23]_BASIC_STATUS</td>
<td>Channel Basic Status register</td>
<td>Provides status information in gates inside PHUB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CFGMEM[0..23]_CFG0</td>
<td>PHUB Channel Configuration register 0</td>
<td>Each channel has some configuration information stored in RAM. This configuration information is called CHn_CFG0/1. CHn_CFG0/1 are stored in CFGMEM at {CH_NUM[5:0], 000}.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_CFGMEM[0..23]_CFG1</td>
<td>PHUB Channel Configuration register 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_TDMEM[0..127]_ORIG_TD0</td>
<td>PHUB Original Transaction Descriptor 0</td>
<td>Each channel has a TD chain (as short as one TD in length) that provides instructions to the DMAC for carrying out a DMA sequence for the channel. The TD chain is comprised of one or more CHn_ORIG_TD0/1 TDs. DMAC accesses the CHn_ORIG_TD0/1 chain from TDMEM and the address in TDMEM of the current TD in the chain is (TD_PTR[7:0], 000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHUB_TDMEM[0..127]_ORIG_TD1</td>
<td>PHUB Original Transaction Descriptor 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Interrupt Controller

The Interrupt Controller provides the mechanism for hardware resources to change the program address to a new location independent of the current execution in the main code. The interrupt controller also handles continuation of the interrupted code being executed after the completion of the interrupt service routine.

9.1 Features

The following are features of the interrupt controller:

- Supports 32 interrupt lines
- Programmable interrupt vector
- Configurable priority levels from 0 to 7
- Support for dynamic change of priority levels
- Support for individual enable/disable of each interrupt
- Nesting of interrupts
- Multiple sources for each interrupt line (can be either fixed function, UDB, or from DMA)
- Supports both level trigger and pulse trigger
- Tail chaining, late arrivals and exceptions are supported in PSoC® 5 devices

9.2 Block Diagram

Figure 9-1 is a block diagram of the interrupt controller.

Figure 9-1. Interrupt Controller Block Diagram
9.3 How It Works

The interrupt controller supports 32 interrupt signals. The interrupt signal can come from one of the three sources (see Figure 9-2):

- Fixed function block
- DMA channels
- UDB blocks

The interrupt signal routing is very flexible with PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architectures. The interrupt lines pass through a multiplexer. The mux selects one among the following: Fixed function IRQ (Interrupt request), UDB IRQ with level, UDB IRQ with Edge, and DMA IRQ. The IDMUX.IRQ_CTL register is used to configure the mux for the IRQ selection.

![Figure 9-2. Interrupt and DMA Processing in the IDMUX](image)

The interrupt controller unit prioritizes and sends the request to the CPU for execution. The list of interrupt sources and the corresponding interrupt number is available in the device datasheet.

9.3.1 Enabling Interrupts

The interrupt controller provides features to enable and disable individual interrupt lines. The Enable register (SETEN) and the Clear Enable register (CLREN), respectively, enable and disable the interrupt lines. Each bit in the register corresponds to an interrupt line; these registers enable and disable interrupts and read the enable status of interrupts. The register that is updated latest (SETEN or CLREN register) determines the interrupt enable status. Table 9-1 shows the status of bits during read and write.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Bit Value</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SETEN</td>
<td>Write</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>To enable the interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>No effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interrupt is enabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Interrupt is disabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLREN</td>
<td>Write</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>To disable the interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>No effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interrupt is enabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Interrupt is disabled</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9-1. Bit Status During Read and Write
9.3.2 Pending Interrupts

When the interrupt controller receives the interrupt signal, it sets the pending bit.

“Set Pending register” (SETPEND) and the “Clear Pending register” (CLRPEND) also allow the pending bit to be set and cleared through software. Each bit in the register corresponds to an interrupt line. The pending bit status can be read by reading these registers. For both pulse/level interrupts, the pending bit is cleared immediately upon receiving the acknowledgement from the CPU on interrupt entry (IRA). For pulse interrupts, the pending bit can be set again by arrival of a new pulse interrupt on the same line after the IRA. But for level interrupt, the interrupt controller checks the status of the interrupt line when it receives the acknowledgement from the CPU on interrupt exit (IRC). During that time, if the interrupt line is still asserted, the pending bit is reset. If there is no assertion on the interrupt line, the pending bit remains in cleared state.

Table 9-2. Pending Bit Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Bit Value</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SETPEND</td>
<td>Write</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>To put an interrupt to pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>No effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interrupt is pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Interrupt is not pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLRPEND</td>
<td>Write</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>To clear a pending interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>No effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interrupt is pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Interrupt is not pending</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pending register can also be written by software. When the software writes a 1 to the pending bit, it activates the interrupt. When software clears the pending bit, the interrupt does not occur. When the software request to clear a pending bit and hardware request to set the pending bit occurs simultaneously, the hardware request takes the higher priority.

Setting of the pending bit when the same bit is already set results in only one execution of the interrupt. The pending bit can be updated regardless of whether or not the corresponding enable bit is set. If the enable bit is not set, the interrupt line will be pended until the interrupt is enabled, unless the user clears the bit. It is advisable to check the state of the pending bit before enabling the interrupt. The choice is left to the user, of whether to set the pending bit before or after the enable bit is set, for enabling the corresponding interrupt.

9.3.3 Interrupt Priority

The interrupt controller provides a priority handling feature to help a user assign priority for each interrupt. Characteristics of this feature are as follows:

- Eight levels of interrupt priorities from 0 to 7.
- Priority level 0 is highest and level 7 is lowest.
- Priority levels set using the Interrupt Priority Registers PRI_\[x\].
- Support of dynamic configuration of priority levels – A change of priority level of an interrupt on the fly does not affect the current execution of the same interrupt; it takes effect for the next assertion.

Priority handling is very important in the following cases:

**Case 1** – If an interrupt (INT B) is asserted when another interrupt (INT A) is being executed, there are three possibilities with unique handling sequences:

- If INT A has lower priority than INT B:
  1. INT A is stopped at the point of execution.
  2. The details of INT A are pushed to the stack, and INT B begins to execute.
  3. After the execution of INT B, INT A execution is resumed from the point of its interruption.

- If INT A has higher priority than INT B:
  1. INT B has to wait until INT A has been executed.
  2. After the execution of INT A, INT B can start execution.

- If INT A and INT B have equal priority:
  1. If INT A is being executed; INT B has to wait until INT A has been executed. After the execution of INT A, INT B can start execution.
  2. If INT B is being executed; INT A has to wait until INT B has been executed. After the execution of INT B, INT A can start execution.

**Case 2** – During the simultaneous occurrence of interrupts:

- If INT A has lower priority than INT B, then INT B wins arbitration and begins to execute.
- If INT A has higher priority than INT B, then INT A wins arbitration and begins to execute.
- If INT A and INT B have equal priority, then the interrupt with the lower index number wins arbitration and begins to execute.
9.3.4 Level versus Pulse Interrupt

The interrupt controller supports both Level and Pulse interrupts. The interrupt controller includes the Pulse detection logic, which detects the rising edge on the interrupt line. The pulse detection logic pends the interrupt bit whenever it detects the rising edge. The interrupt controller detects any assertion in the interrupt signal and executes the interrupt as follows:

- **Level Interrupt** – With level interrupts, the interrupt request bit in the corresponding peripheral register must be cleared by the firmware inside the interrupt service routine. If the interrupt request bit in the peripheral register is set, it results in a level high signal on the interrupt line. At the interrupt exit, if the interrupt request bit is set in the peripheral register, the interrupt pending bit is set again and the interrupt is processed again if it is enabled.

- **Pulse Interrupt** – A pulse occurs at the interrupt line. The low to high edge of the pulse sets the pending bit and the corresponding interrupt is executed. If the pulse occurs while the pending bit is already set, the second pulse has no effect, because the pending bit is already set. The Pending bit is automatically cleared by the interrupt controller at ISR entry. However, if the pulse comes while the interrupt is currently active, the interrupt pending bit is set again, and the interrupt is executed again.

9.3.5 Interrupt Execution

The interrupt controller controls both Level and Pulse interrupt in the following sequence:

1. Interrupt execution corresponding to the interrupt signal requires the interrupt to be enabled (assuming priority and interrupt vector address are programmed already).
2. When an assertion occurs in the interrupt signal, the pending bit corresponding to the interrupt number is set in the pending register, indicating that the interrupt is waiting for its execution.
3. The Priority Decoding unit reads the priority and determines when the interrupt can be executed.
4. The interrupt controller sends the interrupt request to the CPU, along with the interrupt vector address for execution.
5. The CPU receives the request.
6. **Interrupt Entry (IRA)** – The CPU acknowledges the interrupt entry. The next assertion in the same interrupt line can be detected only after the interrupt entry. Any assertions before that are ignored. The interrupt controller clears the pending bit upon receiving the acknowledgement.
7. The current interrupt number and its priority are pushed to the interrupt controller stack by the interrupt controller.
8. **Interrupt Exit (IRC)** – When interrupt execution has been completed, the processor is free to address the next request. The CPU acknowledges the interrupt exit. At the interrupt exit, the interrupt context (i.e., interrupt number and priority) is popped from the stack.

Figure 9-3 lists the basic operations during an interrupt signal assertion and its handling.
Figure 9-3. Interrupt Signal Assertion and Handling

1. **Assertion on the interrupt Line**
2. **Set of Pending Bit**
3. **Send to Priority Decoding Unit**
   - **Is this the highest priority Interrupt?**
     - **Yes**: **Send request to CPU (with IRQ and IVA)**
       - **CPU accepts request**
         - **IRA sent by CPU (INTC pushes interrupt details to its stack)**
         - **Interrupt execution**
           - **Interrupt Exit acknowledgment (IRC) from CPU (INTC pops interrupt details from the stack)**

4. **No**: Wait until all high priority interrupts finish

   **Pending bit cleared for Pulse and Level Interrupt**

   **Interrupt line is checked in case of Level interrupt. If interrupt line has a high level, the pending bit is sent again.**
9.4 PSoC 3 Features

PSoC 3 architecture handles active interrupts, stacks, and interrupt vector addresses differently from PSoC 5 architecture. This section describes the following:

- Registers for the active interrupt
- Use of stacks during nesting of interrupts when a high priority interrupt is asserted during the execution of a low priority interrupt
- Registers that handle the vector addresses that correspond to every interrupt line

9.4.1 Active Interrupts

The active interrupt is the one being executed currently. The interrupt priority and interrupt number of the active interrupt are stored in eight level hardware stacks. The hardware stack is available with the Interrupt controller. There are two different stacks used to store the active interrupt details – one stores the interrupt priority, and the other stores the interrupt number. Following are the details of the stacks:

- STK – Stores the priority of the interrupt
- STK_INT_NUM – Stores the interrupt number

The top of the above stacks have the details of the current active interrupt and interrupt priority. The registers ACT_INT_NUM and ACT_VECT store the details of the latest interrupt execution requested to the CPU and its corresponding vector address. The value in these registers is valid only between the "Interrupt request to the CPU (IRQ)" and "Interrupt Entry (IRA)." Any read outside this time frame may result in invalid values.

9.4.2 Interrupt Nesting

PSoC 3 devices support nesting of up to eight interrupts. Nesting of an interrupt occurs when a high priority interrupt is asserted during a low priority interrupt execution. In PSoC 3, the nesting of interrupts uses both the interrupt controller stack and the CPU stack.

- **Interrupt Controller Stack** – The interrupt controller stack is available with the interrupt controller and is used to store the interrupt number and interrupt priority. There are two stacks with a depth of eight levels. Following are the stack details:
  - STK – Stores the interrupt priority information.
  - STK_INT_NUM – Stores the interrupt number information.

Both of the stacks grow upwards. The push and pop in the interrupt controller stack is handled by the interrupt controller itself.

- **CPU Stack** – The CPU stack is used to store other general registers, such as the PC, GPR, SFR, PSW, ACC, and B, depending on the application. The CPU handles the automatic push/pop of the PC register (low byte pushed first). The rest of the required registers must be pushed/popped using the firmware inside the interrupt handler routine.

The sequence of interrupt nesting is as follows:

1. When a high priority interrupt assertion occurs during the execution of the low priority interrupt, the low priority interrupt execution is stopped at that point.
2. The CPU accepts the request, stops the execution of the low priority interrupt, and pushes the PC.
3. The CPU sends the acknowledgment (for the high priority interrupt entry) to the interrupt controller.
4. The interrupt controller pushes the interrupt number and interrupt priority of the low priority interrupt to its stack. It pushes the higher priority interrupt context to the top of the stack.
5. The interrupt service routine can push the other registers, such as the PSW, GPR, SFR, ACC, and B, to the CPU stack. The high priority interrupt execution begins.
6. When the higher priority interrupt has been executed, the CPU sends the IRC. The details of the high priority interrupt are popped from the interrupt controller stack leaving the low priority interrupt at the top of the stack. The details of the low priority interrupt are popped from the CPU stack. The low priority interrupt continues its execution from the point of suspension.
7. Because the push and pop of the stack are handled by the hardware, there is minimum latency, because no instruction is involved in the operation.

Figure 9-4 on page 113 shows the states of the stack during the nesting operation.
In Figure 9-4, INT A is suspended, and the high priority interrupt INT B is executed. During nesting, INT A is pushed to registers. After INT B is executed, the registers are popped. When an interrupt begins to execute the interrupt, information is pushed to stack; when it finishes, the stack is popped.

### 9.4.3 Interrupt Vector Addresses

PSoc 3 devices have a feature that allows a user to specify the interrupt service routine starting address for every interrupt line. The address of the interrupt service routine is programmable. The call of the interrupt service routine corresponding to an interrupt line is not a branch instruction. The address of the interrupt service routine is stored in the vector address register, resulting in the direct call of the routine, preventing latency.

1. The interrupt service routine address is programmable and is stored in Vector Address registers called VECT[0…31].

   There are 32 vector address registers corresponding to the 32 interrupt lines.

   Each Vector Address register is 16 bits.

2. During the interrupt assertion, the address of the service routine is retrieved from these registers and given to the CPU for execution of the interrupt.

### 9.4.4 Sleep Mode Behavior

The Interrupt Controller works in all of the power modes (Active, Stand by, Sleep and Hibernate) unless the user switches the clocks off manually. All of the registers (status and configuration) except the pending register and interrupt controller stack, retain their values during Sleep mode. The Pending and Interrupt Controller Stack registers are set with the power on value at wakeup. Because the pending registers are nonretention registers, the requests that are pended will be missed when the device goes to sleep.

Do not change the power mode change inside the Interrupt Service routine. If a change in mode is requested, the device will finish the ISR, exit the ISR, and then switch the power mode.

The clock for the Interrupt Controller can be enabled and disabled by setting the register bit “CLOCK_EN” in the INTC_CLOCK_EN register. When the clock is switched off
for the Interrupt Controller, the CPU should not access the ISR (as the IRA and IRC cannot be processed by the Interrupt Controller).

9.5 PSoC 5 Features

Because PSoC 5 architecture is based on the Cortex-M3 core, it has additional features supported by the Cortex-M3 core. In PSoC 5 devices, the interrupt controller is a part of the Cortex-M3 core. For more detailed information about the PSoC 5 Interrupt Controller, refer to the ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual available at http://www.arm.com.

9.5.1 Active Interrupts

An active interrupt is the one being executed currently. The interrupt priority and interrupt number of the active interrupt are stored in the CPU stack. Whenever an interrupt begins to execute, the interrupt priority and number are pushed to the stack. The contents of the stack can be read to find the Active Interrupt details. With PSoC 5 devices, the CPU stack is used. There are two stacks accessed using two different stack pointers: The Process Stack Pointer (PSP) and the Main Stack Pointer (MSP).

Cortex-M3 can be configured to use two stacks. When it is configured to use both the stacks, the first interrupt uses the PSP or the MSP to store interrupt details, depending on which is currently active. The stack grows downwards. A nested interrupt uses only MSP to store the details. When it is not configured to use two stacks, only the MSP is used.

PSoC 5 devices also support an ACTIVE register to store the active status of the interrupt. Its characteristics are:

- Each bit in the register indicates the active state of the corresponding interrupt.
- When the bit is set to 1 in the ACTIVE register, the interrupt is active. When the bit is set to 0, the interrupt is currently inactive.
- When the current running interrupt is suspended due to a high priority interrupt, the state of the current running interrupt is maintained as "Active" because it continues its execution after execution of the high priority interrupt.
- The active state of the bit is cleared only after execution of the interrupt.

PSoC 5 devices also support exceptions other than interrupts. The ACTIVE bits correspond only to interrupts and not to exceptions. The active status details of exceptions are stored in the Exception Status register. Exception Status registers are not only used to read the active status but also to enable exceptions.

9.5.2 Interrupt Nesting

Nesting of an interrupt occurs when a high priority interrupt is asserted during a low priority interrupt execution. With PSoC 5 architecture, only the CPU stack is available to store all nesting interrupt details.

- Current interrupt number, current interrupt priority
- Program counter, PSR, R0 to R3, R12 and LR
- Depending on the application, other registers from R4 to R11

The CPU stack grows down while the CPU handles push and pop.

The configuration controls how you use PSP and MSP. If both stacks are used, the Process Stack Pointer or Main Stack Pointer, which ever is currently active, is used by the first interrupt. All other nested interrupts use only the MSP. If only one stack is configured for use, the interrupt details are stored in the MSP. The sequence is:

1. When the high priority interrupt comes during the execution of the low priority interrupt, the interrupt controller sends a request to the CPU and low priority interrupt execution is stopped by the CPU at that point.
2. The details, such as instruction pointer and other general purpose registers for the low priority interrupt, are pushed to the stack. (The stack used depends on nesting. It can be either MSP or PSP as explained previously).
3. The number of nesting supported depends on the availability of stack space. Because system stack is used, the user should ensure that sufficient stack space is available. Insufficient stack space causes undetermined results. After the stack push for the low priority is done, the details of the current active interrupt (high priority interrupt) is stored in the CPU stack. The high priority interrupt executes.
4. After the higher priority interrupt has executed, the interrupt details of the high priority interrupt are popped from the stack. Following this, the details of the low priority interrupt (PC and other register details) are popped from the stack. The low priority interrupt continues its execution from the point of suspension.
5. Because the push and pop of stack is handled by the hardware, there is minimum latency; no instruction is involved in the operation.

Figure 9-5 on page 115 shows a timing diagram of the register states during the nesting operation.
In Figure 9-5, INT A is suspended, and the high priority interrupt INT B is executed. During nesting, the INT A is pushed to the stack. During execution of INT B, INT C occurs. So INT B is pushed, and INT C is executed. After INT C is executed, INT B is popped and executed. After INT B is executed, the stack is popped. When an interrupt begins to execute, interrupt information is stored in the stack; when it completes, the stack is popped. The use of both PSP and MSP is shown. It is assumed that PSP is active during the first interrupt and that the first active interrupt uses the PSP.
9.5.3 Interrupt Vector Addresses

PSoC 5 architecture has a feature that allows a user to specify the interrupt service routine for every interrupt line. The call of the interrupt service routine corresponding to an interrupt line is not a branch instruction. The address of the interrupt service routine is stored in the vector table, which results in the direct call of the routine. This method of execution prevents latency in the call of the interrupt service routine.

When interrupt assertion occurs, the following sequence occurs:
1. The address of the interrupt service routine is taken from the interrupt vector table and is executed.
2. The list of interrupt vector addresses is stored in the vector table. The interrupt service routine address is programmable and is stored in the vector table. The vector table is a location in the memory and has a base address; the other vector addresses are accessed as offset from the base address. By default, the vector table is at location 0x00 in the ROM.

   The base address of the vector table can be changed; the vector table can be moved, either in the ROM itself or to the RAM. Each vector address is 32 bits long; when moving the vector table, the user should ensure that there is enough space to hold the supported 4-byte addresses for the 32 interrupt lines.
3. PSoC 5 devices contain the Vector Table Offset register that contains two data:
   Position of vector table in ROM/RAM.
   Offset value from the start ROM or RAM region. This offset value acts as the base address for the vector table.
4. When the vector table is moved, the boot image should contain the stack pointer value, Reset vector, NMI vector, and hard Fault vector, because these are required for the beginning of execution of code.
5. Because the vector address is 32 bits long, the LSB is filled with 0x01, and the MSB contains the corresponding 24-bit ISR address to be executed. The presence of 0x01 in the LSB indicates Thumb instructions.
6. During the interrupt signal assertion, the address of the interrupt service routine (the Interrupt Vector Address (IVA)) is retrieved from this table and given to the CPU for execution of the interrupt.
7. Because PSoC 5 devices also support exceptions, the vector table has the address corresponding to the 15 exceptions followed by the interrupt service routine addresses.

9.5.4 Tail Chaining

Tail chaining is the process used to reduce interrupt latency. When a new interrupt assertion occurs at the same time as another interrupt being executed with the same or higher priority, the following sequence occurs:
1. The new interrupt with a lower priority is pended.
2. After the current interrupt has been executed, the details of the current interrupt in the stack are not popped.
3. The details of the new interrupt are pushed to the stack and the new interrupt begins its execution.
4. After the execution of the new interrupt, details of the new interrupt and the previous interrupt are popped from the stack.

Because stacking and unstacking are avoided between the two, interrupts, latency is greatly reduced. Tail chaining can save a maximum of six cycles.

9.5.5 Late Arrival Interrupts

A late arrival interrupt occurs when another interrupt is being pushed to the stack for execution. Another feature reduces interrupt latency by handling such late arrival interrupts.

The following sequence describes the process:
1. A low priority interrupt is asserted.
2. The details of the low priority interrupt are being pushed to the stack, when a high priority interrupt assertion happens.
3. After the stacking of the low priority interrupt, the high priority interrupt is stacked and executed, instead of the low priority interrupt.
4. After execution of the high priority interrupt, the low priority interrupt is executed.
9.5.6 Exceptions

PSOC 5 architecture supports 15 different exceptions, as shown in Table 9-3.

These exceptions are used to handle fault conditions that can occur in the system. Exceptions can have fixed priority or configurable priority. Exceptions are handled in the same manner as interrupts. The State register is used to enable or disable exceptions.

Table 9-3. PSOC 5 Exceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrupt Number</th>
<th>Exception Type</th>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reset</td>
<td>-3 (highest)</td>
<td>Reset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NMI</td>
<td>-2 not programmable</td>
<td>Non-Maskable Interrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hard Fault</td>
<td>-1 not programmable</td>
<td>All fault conditions if the corresponding handler is not enabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>MemManage Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Memory management fault; MPU violation or access to illegal locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bus Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Bus error; occurs when AHB interface receives an error response from a bus slave (also called prefetch abort if it is an instruction fetch or data abort if it is a data access)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Usage Fault</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Exceptions due to program error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>SVCall</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>System Service Call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Debug Monitor</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Debug monitor (watchpoints, breakpoints, external debug request)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>PendSV</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>Pendable request for system device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>SYSTICK</td>
<td>Programmable</td>
<td>System Tick Timer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.5.7 Interrupt Masking

PSOC 5 architecture supports special methods to mask interrupts and exceptions, preventing them from execution. Any new assertions in the interrupt lines are detected and pended until the interrupts are unmasked.

Masking of interrupts is different from enabling or disabling. When masked, the interrupt is blocked for some time, even though it is enabled. This feature is useful when it is necessary to protect some critical section of code. When interrupts are masked, pending interrupts are not executed, even though the interrupts are enabled in the enable register. The interrupts are executed only when masking is cleared.

PSOC 5 devices have special registers to provide masking facilities, including:

- **PRIMASK** – When the bit in the PRIMASK register is set, all interrupts and exceptions except NMI and Hard fault are blocked.
- **FAULTMASK** – When the bit in the FAULTMASK register is set, all interrupts and exceptions except NMI are blocked.
- **BASEPRI** – When interrupts below a certain priority level must be masked, the priority number can be specified in the BASEPRI register. All interrupts with a priority number equal to or less than the priority level specified in the BASEPRI register are masked.

9.6 Interrupt Controller and Power Modes

The CPU core (8051/Cortex-M3) could be executing even when the power or clock for the Interrupt Controller is switched off. In this case, care should be taken during entry/
exit into different low power modes (alternate active, sleep and hibernate).

Do not do these steps before switching off the Interrupt Controller clock.
1. Clear all pending interrupts and disable all interrupts in Interrupt Controller.
2. NOP.
3. Disable the Global Interrupt bit.
4. Turn OFF the clock for Interrupt Controller in the CLOCK_EN bit in the INTC.CLOCK_EN register.

It is preferred not to operate any Interrupt related functions when the clock to the interrupt controller is not available. When an Interrupt Service routine is executed by the CPU when the clock to the interrupt controller is switched off, the CPU should make sure the clock for the Interrupt Controller is re-enabled before the exit from the ISR (to process the IRC signal). If this is not taken care, it will lead to undefined behavior.

When returning from the lower power mode or wants to continue in the alternate active mode, follow these steps:
1. Clock must be available to Interrupt Controller
2. Enable the Global interrupt bit
3. Enable the required interrupts in the Interrupt Controller

The CPU can run when the interrupt controller clock is switched off only during active and alternate active modes. When the user wants to switch from alternate active to Active mode when the Interrupt controller clock is switched off.

a. Follow the steps mentioned above to switch off the clock for the Interrupt controller
b. Now the CPU can run any code that doesn't involve the Interrupt functionality.
c. Switch to the active state whenever required
d. To switch to active mode only on wake up on interrupt, then the CPU should keep polling the PM.MODE_CSR register to find when the system should switch to active mode.
e. When switching back to active mode, follow the procedures mentioned above for switching from low power mode to active mode.
The PSoC® nonvolatile subsystem consists of Flash, byte-writable EEPROM, and nonvolatile configuration options. The CPU can reprogram individual blocks of Flash, enabling boot loaders. An Error Correcting Code (ECC) can enable high reliability applications.

A powerful and flexible protection model allows the user to selectively lock blocks of memory for read and write protection, securing sensitive information. The byte-writable EEPROM is available on-chip for the storage of application data. Additionally, selected configuration options, such as boot speed and pin drive mode, are stored in nonvolatile memory, allowing settings to become active immediately after power on reset (POR).

This section encompasses the following chapters:
- Nonvolatile Latch chapter on page 121
- SRAM chapter on page 125
- Flash Program Memory chapter on page 129
- EEPROM chapter on page 131
- EMIF chapter on page 133
- Memory Map chapter on page 141
- Cache chapter on page 147

**Top Level Architecture**

(Block diagram here taken from main block diagram in Introduction.)

[Memory Block Diagram Image]
A Nonvolatile Latch (NVL or NV latch) is an array of programmable, nonvolatile memory elements whose outputs are stable at low voltage. It is used to configure the device at Power on Reset. Each bit in the array consists of a volatile latch paired with a nonvolatile cell. On POR release nonvolatile cell outputs are loaded to volatile latches and the volatile latch drives the output of the NVL.

10.1 Features

NV latches include:
- A 4x8-bit NV latch for device configuration
- A 4x8-bit Write Once NV latch for device security

10.2 Device Configuration NV Latch

Device configuration NV latches allow configuration of PSoC® device parts before the CPU reset is released. For example, the user may configure each I/O port to be in one of four drive modes before CPU reset is released. Device configuration NV latch values have lower endurance and must be written in a narrower temperature window. Programming temperature range and endurance have been traded off to meet the low voltage and wide temperature requirements. For endurance, retention, and temperature specs for NV latches see the specific device datasheet. The Device Configuration NV Latch register map is shown in Table 10-1.

Table 10-1. Device Configuration Register Map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00</td>
<td>PRT3RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT2RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT1RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT0RDM[1:0]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x01</td>
<td>PRT12RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT6RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT5RDM[1:0]</td>
<td>PRT4RDM[1:0]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x02</td>
<td>XRESMEN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x03</td>
<td>DIG_PHS_DLY[3:0]</td>
<td>ECCEN</td>
<td>DPS[1:0]</td>
<td>CFGSPEED</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.2.1 PRTxRDM[1:0]

Port Reset Drive mode NVL bits enable selection of one of four drive modes to be in effect between the release of POR and the configuration of the device by user firmware. These four drive modes are a subset of the drive modes available by writing to the port drive mode registers. Refer to the I/O System chapter on page 187 for more details. The following is a summary of the four NVL drive mode settings:
- 00b – High impedance analog
- 01b – High impedance digital
- 10b – Resistive pull up
- 11b – Resistive pull down
10.2.2  XRESMEN

GPIO pin (P1[2]) may be configured as an external reset (XRES_N) pin. The configuration of that pin is controlled with this NVL bit:

- 0 – GPIO
- 1 – XRES_N

10.2.3  CFGSPEED

The Configuration Speed NVL bit determines if the IMO defaults to a fast or slow speed. Refer to the Clocking System chapter on page 147 for more details. This configuration is intended to balance the need for rapid boot and configuration against peak power consumption.

- 0 – Slow (12 MHz IMO frequency)
- 1 – Fast (48 MHz IMO frequency)

10.2.4  DPS[1:0]

Debug Port Select NVL bits allow the user to select a debugging port interface that is active after POR is released. If the debug port's disabled setting is used, the acquire functions of the test controller must be used to activate the debug port. Refer to the Test Controller chapter on page 443 for more details. These NVL bits do not enable the debugger logic; they enable only the physical interface. The only way to enable the debug logic is for the user's firmware or configuration to write the debugger enable bit.

- 00b – 5-wire JTAG
- 01b – 4-wire JTAG
- 10b – SWD (single wire debug)
- 11b – Debug ports disabled

10.2.5  ECCEN

For devices that support an Error Correcting Code (ECC) in the Flash, this NVL bit is used to set whether ECC is enabled. Refer to the Flash Program Memory chapter on page 129 for more details.

- 0 – ECC disabled
- 1 – ECC enabled

10.2.6  DIG_PHS_DLY[3:0]

This bit selects the digital clock phase delay in 1 ns increments. Refer to the Clocking System chapter on page 147 for more details.

- 0x00 – Clock disabled
- 0x01 – 2.5 ns delay
- 0x02 – 3.5 ns delay
- ...
10.4 Programming NV Latch

The volatile latch is intended to be initialized from a nonvolatile memory cell at POR release. NV Latches are configured by writing to the volatile cells of the array and then programming the volatile cell data into the nonvolatile cells (Write Nonvolatile Cell Mode). See the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 for more details on NV latch programming sequence.

NV programming is done through a simple command/status register interface. Commands and data are sent as a series of bytes to either SPC_CPU_DATA or SPC_DMA_DATA, depending on the source of the command. Response data is read via the same register to which the command was sent. The following commands are used to program NVLs:

- **Command 0x00 – Load Byte**
  Loads a single byte of data into the volatile cells at the given address.

- **Command 0x10 – Read Byte**
  Reads a single byte of data from volatile cells at the given address.

- **Command 0x06 – Write User NVL**
  Writes all nonvolatile cells in a User NVL with the corresponding values in its volatile latches.

- **Command 0x03 – Read User NVL**
  Reads a single byte of data from nonvolatile cells at the given address. Note that when this command is executed, all of the bytes are transferred from nonvolatile cells to the volatile cells of the array.

10.5 Sleep Mode Behavior

NV latches remain powered up during sleep, but they stay in an idle state, not allowing any direct reads or writes. During sleep, the outputs of the NVLs remain stable.
Nonvolatile Latch
11. SRAM

PSoc® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices include on-chip SRAM. These families offer devices that range from 2 to 64 kilobytes. PSoC 3 devices offer an additional 4 kilobytes as a trace buffer.

11.1 Features

PSoc 3 and PSoC 5 SRAM has these features:
- Organized as up to three blocks of 4 KB each, including the 4 KB trace buffer, for CY8C38 family.
- Organized as up to 16 blocks of 4 KB each, for CY8C55 family.
- Code can be executed out of portions of SRAM, for CY8C55 family.
- 8-, 16-, or 32-bit accesses. In PSoC 3 devices the CPU has 8-bit direct access to SRAM.
- Zero wait state accesses.
- Arbitration of SRAM accesses by the CPU and the DMA controller.
- Different blocks can be accessed simultaneously by the CPU and the DMA controller.

11.2 Block Diagram

Block diagrams for the CY8C38 and CY8C55 families are as indicated. Figure 11-1 shows CY8C38 family SRAM accesses.

Figure 11-1. CY8C38 Family SRAM Accesses
Figure 11-2 shows internal SRAM organization for the CY8C38 family.

**Figure 11-2. CY8C38 Family SRAM Organization**
Figure 11-3 shows CY8C55 family SRAM accesses.

Figure 11-4 shows internal SRAM organization for the CY8C55 family.
11.3 How It Works

The CY8C38 family has up to 12 KB SRAM implemented as three 4 KB blocks. All 12 KB are accessible by the 8051 CPU and by the PHUB DMA controller in normal operation. During debug, the Debug on-Chip (DoC) accesses the upper 4 KB of SYSMEM as a trace buffer. If the trace buffer is not used for tracing, it may be used as additional SRAM for normal operation.

The CY8C55 family has up to 64 KB SRAM implemented as sixteen 4 KB blocks. All 64 KB are accessible by the Cortex-M3 CPU and by the PHUB DMA controller in normal operation. The SRAM is further organized as two 32 KB memory banks, centered at address 0x20000000. This allows access to both SRAM banks with either the c-Bus (Cortex-M3 I and D buses) or the s-Bus (Cortex-M3 system bus). Code can be executed from all SRAM below address 0x20000000.

The PHUB can use SRAM as a DMA source or target.

All data paths to SRAM are 32 bits wide except the data path from the 8051 CPU, which is 8 bits wide.

The CPU has a direct connection to SRAM without going through the PHUB. In addition to faster SRAM access by the CPU, this allows for simultaneous accesses to SRAM by both the CPU and the PHUB DMA controller, because SRAM is physically implemented as multiple separate blocks. If the CPU and the PHUB are accessing separate blocks, they both have simultaneous unimpeded access.

In case of contention, the following applies:

- **CY8C38 family** – The 8051 has priority over the PHUB for the lower and upper 4 KB (SRAM BANK0 and BANK2), and the PHUB has priority over the CPU for the middle 4 KB (SRAM BANK1). When DoC tracing is active, the DoC has exclusive access to the upper 4 KB (SRAM BANK2) – neither the CPU nor the PHUB can access this bank while tracing is active.

- **CY8C55 family** – In most cases, the Cortex-M3 CPU has priority over the PHUB for all SRAM.

The SRAM responds to CPU, PHUB, and CY8C38 DoC accesses with zero wait states for both reads and writes as long as the access does not lose priority arbitration. Arbitration is done on a cycle-by-cycle basis at the time of SRAM access. The losing master is held off until the winning master has finished accessing the SRAM block; the losing master gains access on the cycle immediately after.

SRAM data is maintained during all low power and sleep modes. At reset, the SRAM contents are not initialized; they power up as unknown values.
12. Flash Program Memory

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 include on-chip Flash memory. These two families offer devices that range from 16 to 256 kilobytes. Additional Flash is available for either error correction bytes or data storage.

12.1 Features

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 Flash memory have the following features:

- Organized in rows, where each row contains 256 data bytes plus 32 bytes for either error correcting codes (ECC) or data storage.
- For PSoC 3 architecture: CY8C38 Family, organized as one block of 64, 128, or 256 rows.
- For PSoC 5 architecture: CY8C55 Family, organized as either one block of 128 or 256 rows, or as multiple blocks of 256 rows each.
- Stores CPU program and bulk or nonvolatile data
- For PSoC 5 architecture: CY8C55 Family, 8-, 16-, or 32-bit read accesses. PSoC 3 architecture has only 8-bit direct access.
- Programmable with a simple command / status register interface (see Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473).
- Four levels of protection (see Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 and Flash, Configuration Protection chapter on page 205).

12.2 Block Diagram

Figure 12-1 is a block diagram of the Flash programming system.
12.3 How It Works

Flash memory provides nonvolatile storage for firmware, device configuration data, bulk data storage, ECC data, factory configuration data, and protection information.

Flash memory contains two regions – a main region, and a much smaller, extended region. All user data is stored in the main region, including ECC data. Factory configuration and user-defined protection data are stored in the extended region, also known as the hidden rows of Flash.

The main region of Flash in the CY8C38 family is 72 KB, consisting of 64 KB of user space and 8 KB of ECC. The extended region is four rows of 256 bytes each.

For each row, protection bits control whether the Flash can be read or written by external debug devices and whether it can be reprogrammed by a boot loader. For more information see the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 and Flash, Configuration Protection chapter on page 205.

Flash can be read by both the CPU and the DMA controller.

Flash is erased in 64-row sectors or in its entirety, and it is programmed in rows. Erase and programming operations are done by a programming system, using a simple command/status register interface. For more information see the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473.

12.4 ECC Error Detection and Interrupts

The ECC detects conditions that may interfere with software operation. The information is logged into individual interrupt registers that become latched until the software clears the corresponding valid bit. All interrupt sources within the ECC are passed through a mask condition; then, they are reduced into a single interrupt request to the Interrupt Controller unit.

When the software has been notified about an existing interrupt in the ECC, the following sequence occurs:

1. The software reads the Interrupt Status register CACHE_INT_SR that provides the valid bits of all interrupts in a single read operation.
2. The software examines individual interrupt registers for more log information (CACHE_INT_LOG[0..5]).
3. Stored log information is cleared on read of registers.
4. After clearing of log information, the status register (CACHE_INT_SR) is automatically cleared, because it is a collection of valid bits of the log registers.

Logging is always enabled; reporting may be disabled through the Interrupt Mask Register (CACHE_INT_MSK).

The following conditions are detected by the hardware and logged as potential interrupt sources:

- **ECC – Single Bit** – A single bit error was encountered during a fill operation and was fixed.
- **ECC – Multi Bit** – A multi-bit error was encountered during a fill operation, but it could not be corrected.
- **Attempted Flash Write** – If a write to Flash through the PHUB is attempted.
13. EEPROM

PSoc® 3 and PSoc® 5 devices have on-chip EEPROM memory. These two families offer devices that range from 512 bytes to 2 kilobytes.

13.1 Features

PSoc 3 and PSoc 5 EEPROM memory have the following features:

- Organized in rows, where each row contains 16 bytes
- Organized as one block of 32, 64, or 128 rows, depending on the device
- Stores nonvolatile data
- Write and erase using SPC commands
- Byte read access by CPU or DMA using the PHUB
- Programmable with a simple command/status register interface (see Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473)

13.2 Block Diagram

There is no block diagram associated with EEPROM.
13.3 How It Works

EEPROM memory provides nonvolatile storage for user data. EEPROM write and erase operation is done using SPC commands. It may be read by both the CPU and the DMA controller, using the PHUB. All read accesses are 8-bit.

If a PHUB access is attempted while the SPC is in control of EEPROM, a System Fault Interrupt is generated to the interrupt controller and the bit EEPROM_error is set in SPC_EE_ERR[0]. Once set, this bit remains set until it is read from the PHUB. EEPROM can be taken in and out of sleep mode by setting the bit EE_SLEEP_REQ in SPC_FM_EE_CR[4], as shown in Table 13-1. Before a PHUB access of EEPROM is done, set the firmware EEPROM request bit AHB_EE_REQ in SPC_EE_SCR[0], then poll for the EEPROM acknowledge bit EE_AHB_ACK in SPC_EE_SCR[1] to be set. Before a PHUB access of EEPROM is done, firmware should set the EEPROM request bit AHB_EE_REQ in SPC_EE_SCR[0], then poll for the EEPROM acknowledge bit EE_AHB_ACK in SPC_EE_SCR[1] to be set.

It is also possible to check the current sleep status of the EEPROM by reading the bit EE_AWAKE in SPC_FM_EE_CR[5], as shown in Table 13-2.

Table 13-1. Bit Settings for EE_SLEEP_REQ in SPC_FM_EE_CR[4]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>Wake up EEPROM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Put EEPROM to sleep</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13-2. Bit Settings for EE_AWAKE in SPC_FM_EE_CR[5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>EEPROM is asleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (default)</td>
<td>EEPROM is awake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EEPROM is erased in 64-row sectors, or in its entirety, and is programmed in rows. Erase, programming and read operations are done by a programming system using a simple command/status register interface. For more information see Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473.
14. EMIF

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 architectures provide an external memory interface (EMIF) for connecting to external memory devices and peripheral devices. The connection allows read and write access to the devices. The EMIF operates in conjunction with UDBs, I/O ports, and other PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 components to generate the necessary address, data, and control signals.

The EMIF does not intercept address data between the PHUB and the I/O ports. It only generates the required control signals to latch the address and data at the ports. The EMIF generates a clock to run external synchronous and asynchronous memories. It can generate four different clock frequencies, which are the bus clock divided by 1, 2, 3, or 4.

14.1 Features

The EMIF supports four types of external memory: synchronous SRAM, asynchronous SRAM, cellular RAM/PSRAM, and NOR Flash. External memory can be accessed via the 8051 data space or the ARM Cortex-M3 external RAM space; up to 24 address bits can be used. The memory can be 8 or 16 bits wide.

14.2 Block Diagram

Figure 14-1 is the EMIF block diagram.
14.3  How It Works

The address component of the EMIF uses up to three I/O ports. The I/O ports used for external memory address are selected by configuring the 3-bit portEmifCfg field in the PRT*_CTL register. The register can be configured so that the port is selected as either the most significant byte, the middle byte, or the least significant byte of the address. (See the I/O System chapter on page 187 for details of the PRT*_CTL register.)

The data component of the EMIF uses one or two I/O ports. The I/O port or ports used for external memory data are selected by configuring the 3-bit portEmifCfg field in the PRT*_CTL register. The register can be configured so that the port is selected as either the most significant byte or the least significant byte of the data. (See the I/O System chapter on page 187 for details of the PRT*_CTL register.)

The control component of the EMIF uses a single I/O port. The I/O port used for external memory control is selected by configuring the 3-bit portEmifCfg field in the PRT*_CTL register. The I/O port must be further configured by setting the byPass bit in the PRT*_BYP register. This allows the EMIF to drive the pins. The control signals are sent from the EMIF to the I/O port over the digital signal interface (DSI).

14.3.1  List of EMIF Registers

This table lists EMIF registers.

Table 14-1.  EMIF Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_NO_UDB</td>
<td>Controls whether a synchronous or asynchronous RAM is supported, versus a custom memory interface requiring additional UDB logic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_RP_WAIT_STATES</td>
<td>Number of additional wait states used in a read operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_MEM_DWN</td>
<td>Puts the external memory into a power down state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_MEMCLK_DIV</td>
<td>Sets the clock divider for the external memory clock frequency, which can equal the bus clock frequency divided by 1, 2, 3 or 4. Note that the external memory clock frequency cannot exceed 33 MHz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_CLOCK_EN</td>
<td>Enables/disables the clock for the EMIF block, effectively turning the block on or off.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_EM_TYPE</td>
<td>Controls whether to generate control signals for a synchronous or asynchronous SRAM in NO_UDB mode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIF_WP_WAIT_STATES</td>
<td>Number of additional wait states used in a write operation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14.3.2  External Memory Support

Table 14-2 on page 137 shows how different external memory types can be connected to the PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. Address lines use up to three I/O ports. Data lines use one or two ports, depending on whether the external memory is x8 or x16. Control lines use 3 to 6 pins on one I/O port. Spare pins on the address and data ports are not available for any other purpose. Spare pins on the control port are available for other purposes.
Figure 14-2. Synchronous SRAM

PSoC 3/ PSoC 5

ADDR LO Port
[7:0] → A0–A7
ADDR MID Port
[7:0] → A8–A15
ADDR Hi Port
[7:0] → A16
[7:1] Unused
Data LO Port
[7:0] → D0–D7
Data Hi Port
[7:0] → D8–D15

Control Port
CE - → CE1
OE - → OE
WE - → GW
ADSC - → ADSC
EM-Clock → CLK
EM-Sleep → ZZ

Spare → Vdd

Syncronous SRAM (such as CY7C1342H)

ADS A
ADV
CE2
BWE
CE3
BWA
BWB
Mode
Figure 14-3. Asynchronous SRAM

Asynchronous SRAM or Flash (such as CY7C1041D)

- ADDR LO Port
  - [7:0] -> A0 – A7
  - [7:0] -> A8 – A15
  - [1:0] -> A16, A17
- ADDR MID Port
  - [7:2] -> D0 – D7
  - [7:0] -> D8 – D15
- ADDR Hi Port
  - [7:0] -> CE -
  - [7:0] -> OE -
  - Unused
  - Unused
  - Unused
- Data LO Port
  - [7:0] -> WE -
  - Unused
  - Unused
  - Unused
- Data Hi Port
  - [7:0] -> ADSC -
  - EM-Clock
  - EM-Sleep
  - Unused
  - Unused
  - Unused
  - Unused
  - Spare

Control Port
14.3.3 Sleep Mode Behavior

All EMIF registers keep their value during sleep mode. The MEM_DWN register controls external memory sleep mode; the external control signal ZZ is asserted or deasserted. If an external memory access happens when MEM_DWN is set, ZZ is not asserted until after the current transfer is completed. ZZ is deasserted when the MEM_DWN register is cleared; it then takes two external memory clock cycles for the memory to wake up.

To completely turn off the EMIF block, clear the CLOCK_EN register.
14.4 EMIF Timing

The EMIF is clocked by bus clock – the same signal that clocks the CPU and the PHUB. Within the EMIF block, the bus clock can be divided by 1, 2, 3, or 4; the output is the EM_CLOCK signal to the external memory IC.

The following table shows the number of PHUB wait states generated by the EMIF depending on how much the input clock is divided.

Table 14-3. PHUB Wait States Generated by EMIF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EM_CLOCK = Bus Clock Divided By</th>
<th>Read Wait States</th>
<th>Write Wait States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The EMIF.WAIT_STATES register can also be used to add up to seven more wait states.

An important limitation is that the maximum I/O rate of PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 GPIO pins is 33 MHz. This makes the maximum frequency of EM_CLOCK 33 MHz. The following table shows limitations of EM_CLOCK frequency relative to the bus clock:

Table 14-4. Limitations of EM_CLOCK Relative to Bus Clock

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bus Clock Frequency</th>
<th>EM_CLOCK = Bus Clock Divided By</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 33 MHz</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, or 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 - 66 MHz</td>
<td>2, 3, or 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 66 MHz</td>
<td>3 or 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The maximum frequency of the bus clock is 67 MHz for PSoC 3 devices and 80 MHz for PSoC 5 devices. In most cases, EMIF_MEMCLK_DIV must be used to divide EM_CLOCK to a frequency less than or equal to 33 MHz.

Given the above restriction on EM_CLOCK frequency, and the relation of EM_CLOCK to EM_ADSC-, EM_CE-, and EM_WE-, it can be seen that the minimum pulse widths of these signals is 30.3 ns.
Figure 14-5. Synchronous Read Cycle Timing

Figure 14-6. Asynchronous Write Cycle Timing

Figure 14-7. Asynchronous Read Cycle Timing
14.5 Using EMIF with Memory-Mapped Peripherals

The EMIF can also be used with external peripheral devices that have a bus interface similar to asynchronous memory devices, that is, they address, data, CE-, WE-, and OE-. The speed of the interface must be considered in the same manner as described above. The maximum data bus size is 16 bits, and the minimum address bus size is 8 bits. If multiple external memory and peripheral devices are used, address decoding to the multiple device selects may become complex and must be given careful consideration.

14.6 Additional Configuration Guidelines

The PHUB assumes all peripherals including external memory are byte addressable. Port logic is natively 16 bits wide, so care must be taken when setting up communication with either an 8 or 16 bit external memory. The following section describes some guidelines to configure the port pins and set up the memory access methods (either CPU or DMA) for optimal performance.

14.6.1 Address Bus Configuration

Configure three of the available ports as output EMIF address ports. Since PHUB peripherals are byte addressable regardless of the external memory data bus size, up to $2^{24}$ bytes of external memory can be accessed. If an 8-bit memory is used, up to 24-bit address lines can be directly connected to the memory. If a 16-bit memory is used, the LSB address line (A0) of the memory chip should be connected to the second address line (A1) of the PSoC and the LSB address line (A0) of the PSoC should be ignored. This is because the PHUB increments the address by 2 while doing 16-bit transactions.

14.6.2 Data Bus Configuration

For 16 bit memories, two ports should be configured as bidirectional EMIF data ports. For 8bit memories, only one port should be configured as a bidirectional EMIF data port.

14.6.3 16-bit Memory Transfers

DMA Transfers: For DMA transfers to/from 16bit external memory, odd burst counts are not supported because 8 bit transfers are not supported on a 16bit interface.

CPU Transfers: With the 8bit 8051 processor in PSoC 3, 16-bit external memory cannot be directly accessed by the CPU. With the 32 bit ARM M3 processor in PSoC 5, 16-bit memory can be directly accessed by the CPU. The only limitation here is the PSoC 5 cannot initiate 8 bit transfers to 16-bit memories and should not initiate unaligned 16-bit or 32-bit transfers to an external memory, as the processor may convert these into multiple 8 bit aligned accesses. However, 32 or 16-bit aligned transfers are handled correctly by the processor and PHUB.

14.6.4 8-bit Memory Transfers

DMA Transfers: For DMA transfers to/from an 8 bit external memory, the burst count should always be 1, irrespective of the transfer count. For example, if the burst count is set as 2 in order to transfer two bytes to external memory, the PHUB will try to do a 16-bit transfer in a single burst instead of breaking the transfer down into two individual transfers with the 8-bit memory.
15. Memory Map

All PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 memory (Flash, EEPROM, Nonvolatile Latch, and SRAM) and all registers are accessible by the CPU, DMA controller, and in most cases by the debug systems. This chapter contains an overall map of the addresses of the memories and registers.

15.1 Features

The PSoC 3 memory map has the following features:

- Flash is accessed in the 16-bit (64 KB) 8051 code space.
- All other memories, and all registers, are accessed in the 24-bit 8051 external memory space.
- 8051 has internal SFRs to provide fast access to some registers. Refer to the 8051 Core chapter on page 37 for details.

The PSoC 5 memory map has the following features:

- ARM Cortex-M3 32-bit linear address space, with regions for code, SRAM, peripherals, external RAM, and CPU internal registers.
- Flash is mapped to the Cortex-M3 code region.
- Half of SRAM is mapped to the code region, the other half to the SRAM bitband region.
- SRAM mapped to the code region is also accessible by DMA in the SRAM bitband region.
- External memory (see the EMIF chapter on page 133) is mapped to the external RAM region.
- All other memories, and all registers, are accessed in the Cortex-M3 peripheral bitband region.

15.2 Block Diagram

There is no block diagram associated with the memory map.

15.3 How It Works

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 memory maps are detailed in the following sections. For additional information refer to the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual).
### 15.3.1 PSoC 3 Memory Map

The map of the 8051 external memory (xdata) space is listed in Table 15-1. For additional information, refer to the 8051 Core chapter on page 37.

#### Table 15-1. PSoC 3 Memory Map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Range</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00 0000 - 0x00 1FFF</td>
<td>SRAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4000 - 0x00 42FF</td>
<td>Clocking, PLLs, and oscillators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4300 - 0x00 43FF</td>
<td>Power management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4400 - 0x00 44FF</td>
<td>Interrupt controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4500 - 0x00 45FF</td>
<td>Ports interrupt control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4700 - 0x00 47FF</td>
<td>Flash programming interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4900 - 0x00 49FF</td>
<td>I²C controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4E00 - 0x00 4EFF</td>
<td>Decimator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 4F00 - 0x00 4FFF</td>
<td>Fixed timer/counter/PWMs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 5000 - 0x00 51FF</td>
<td>General purpose I/Os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 5300 - 0x00 530F</td>
<td>Output port select register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 5400 - 0x00 54FF</td>
<td>External memory interface control registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 5800 - 0x00 5FFF</td>
<td>Analog subsystem interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 6000 - 0x00 60FF</td>
<td>USB controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 6400 - 0x00 6FFF</td>
<td>UDB configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 7000 - 0x00 7FFF</td>
<td>PHUB configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 8000 - 0x00 8FFF</td>
<td>EEPROM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 A000 - 0x00 A400</td>
<td>CAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x00 C000 - 0x00 C800</td>
<td>Digital filter block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x01 0000 - 0x01 FFFF</td>
<td>Digital interconnect configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x05 0220 - 0x05 02F0</td>
<td>Debug controller – accessible via JTAG/SWD only, not accessible via PHUB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x08 0000 - 0x08 1FFF</td>
<td>Flash ECC bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x80 0000 - 0x0F FFFF</td>
<td>External Memory Interface (EMIF)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15.3.2 PSoC 5 Memory Map

The ARM Cortex-M3 has a fixed address map allowing access to peripherals using simple memory access instructions. The 32-bit (4 GB) address space is divided into the regions shown in Table 15-2. Note that code can be executed from the code, SRAM, and external RAM regions.

Table 15-2. PSoC 5 Memory Map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Range</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00000000 – 0x1FFFFFFF</td>
<td>0.5 GB</td>
<td>Program code. Includes the exception vector table at power up, which starts at address 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x20000000 – 0x3FFFFFFF</td>
<td>0.5 GB</td>
<td>SRAM. This includes a 1 Mbyte bit-band region starting at 0x20000000, and a 32 Mbyte bit-band alias region starting at 0x22000000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x20000000 – 0x3FFFFFFF</td>
<td>0.5 GB</td>
<td>SRAM. This includes a 1 Mbyte bit-band region starting at 0x20000000, and a 32 Mbyte bit-band alias region starting at 0x22000000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x40000000 – 0x5FFFFFFF</td>
<td>0.5 GB</td>
<td>Peripherals. This includes a 1 Mbyte bit-band region starting at 0x40000000, and a 32 Mbyte bit-band alias region starting at 0x42000000.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x60000000 – 0x9FFFFFFF</td>
<td>1 GB</td>
<td>External RAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xA0000000 – 0xDFFFFFFF</td>
<td>1 GB</td>
<td>External peripherals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xE0000000 – 0xFFFFFFFF</td>
<td>0.5 GB</td>
<td>Internal peripherals, including the NVIC and debug and trace modules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The PSoC 5 address map is shown in Table 15-3. For more information refer to the Cortex-M3 chapter.

Table 15-3. PSoC 5 Address Map

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Range</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x0000 0000 – 0x0003 FFFF</td>
<td>Up to 256 KB Flash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x1FF 8000 – 0x1FFF FFFF</td>
<td>Up to 32 KB SRAM in code region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x2000 0000 – 0x2000 7FFF</td>
<td>Up to 32 KB SRAM in SRAM region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x2000 8000 – 0x2000 FFFF</td>
<td>Alias of address range 0x1FF 8000 – 0x1FFF FFFF, accessible by DMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4000 – 0x4000 42FF</td>
<td>Clocking, PLLs, and oscillators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4300 – 0x4000 43FF</td>
<td>Power management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4500 – 0x4000 45FF</td>
<td>Ports interrupt control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4700 – 0x4000 47FF</td>
<td>Flash programming interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4900 – 0x4000 49FF</td>
<td>12C controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4E00 – 0x4000 4EFF</td>
<td>Decimator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 4F00 – 0x4000 4FFF</td>
<td>Fixed timer/counter/PWMs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 5000 – 0x4000 51FF</td>
<td>General purpose I/Os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 5300 – 0x4000 530F</td>
<td>Output port select register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 5400 – 0x4000 54FF</td>
<td>External memory interface control registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 5800 – 0x4000 5FFF</td>
<td>Analog subsystem interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 6000 – 0x4000 60FF</td>
<td>USB controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 6400 – 0x4000 6FFF</td>
<td>UDB configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 7000 – 0x4000 7FFF</td>
<td>PHUB configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 8000 – 0x4000 87FF</td>
<td>EEPROM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 A000 – 0x4000 A400</td>
<td>CAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4000 C000 – 0x4000 C800</td>
<td>Digital filter block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4001 0000 – 0x4001 1FFF</td>
<td>Digital interconnect configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x4800 0000 – 0x4800 7FFF</td>
<td>Flash ECC bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x6000 0000 – 0x60FF FFFF</td>
<td>External Memory Interface (EMIF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xE000 0000 – 0xE000 FFFF</td>
<td>Cortex-M3 PPB registers, including NVIC, debug, and trace modules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section D: System Wide Resources

The System Wide Resources section details three types of I/O, internal clock generators, power supply, boost converter, and sleep modes.

This section contains these chapters:
- Clocking System chapter on page 147
- Power Supply and Monitoring chapter on page 163
- Low Power Modes chapter on page 169
- Watchdog Timer chapter on page 175
- Reset chapter on page 179
- Auxiliary ADC chapter on page 179
- I/O System chapter on page 187
- Flash, Configuration Protection chapter on page 205

Top Level Architecture

System Wide Resources Block Diagram
16. Clocking System

The clock generator provides the main/master time bases for the entire device. It allows the user to trade off current, frequency, and accuracy. A wide range of frequencies can be generated, using multiple sources of clock inputs combined with the ability to set divide values.

16.1 Features

The clock system has these:

- Four internal clock sources increase system integration:
  - 3 to 67 MHz Internal Main Oscillator (IMO) ±1% at 3 MHz
  - 1 kHz, 33 kHz, 100 kHz Internal Low Speed Oscillator (ILO) outputs
  - 12 to 67 MHz clock doubler output, sourced from IMO, MHz External Crystal Oscillator (MHzECO), and Digital System Interconnect (DSI)
  - 24 to 67 MHz fractional Phase-Locked Loop (PLL) sourced from IMO, MHzECO, and DSI
- DSI signal from an external I/O pin or other logic as well as a clock source
- Two external clock sources provide high precision clocks:
  - 4 to 33 MHz External Crystal Oscillator (MHzECO)
  - 32.768 kHz External Crystal Oscillator (kHzECO) for Real Time Clock (RTC)
- Dedicated 16-bit divider for bus clock
- Eight individually sourced 16-bit clock dividers for the digital system peripherals
- Four individually sourced 16-bit clock dividers for the analog system peripherals
- IMO has a USB mode that auto locks to the USB bus clock, requiring no external crystal for USB. (USB equipped parts only)
16.2 Block Diagram

Figure 16-1 gives a generic view of the Clocking System in PSoC® 3, PSoC® 5 devices.

The components of the clocking system block diagram are defined as follows:

- Internal Main Oscillator (IMO)
- Internal Low-speed Oscillator (ILO)
- A 4 to 33 MHz External Crystal Oscillator (MHzECO)
- A 32 kHz External Crystal Oscillator (kHzECO)
- Digital System Interconnect (DSI) signal, which can be the clocks developed in UDBs or off-chip clocks routed through pins
- A PLL to boost the clock frequency on select internal and external sources
- Five types of clock outputs:
  - Digital clocks
  - Analog clocks
  - Special purpose clocks
  - System clock
  - USB clock

16.3 Clock Sources

Clock sources for the device are classified as internal oscillators and external crystal oscillators. There is an option of using a PLL or a frequency doubler to derive higher frequency outputs from existing clocks. Signals can be routed from the DSI and used as clocks in the clock trees.

16.3.1 Internal Oscillators

PSoc devices have two internal oscillators: the Internal Main Oscillator (IMO) and the Internal Low Speed Oscillator (ILO).
16.3.1.1 Internal Main Oscillator

The IMO operates with no external components and outputs a stable clock, clk_im0, at a variety of user-selectable frequencies: 3, 6, 12, 24, and 48 MHz. Frequencies are selected using the register FASTCLK_IMO_CR [2:0]. The clock accuracy is 1% typical at 3 MHz and it varies with frequency. See the device datasheet for IMO accuracy specification.

Clock Doubler

The block has one additional clock output. A doubled clock, IMOCLKX2 outputs a clock at twice the frequency of the input clock. The doubler works for input frequencies in the range 6 – 33 MHz. The doubler is enabled by register bit FASTCLK_IMO_CR[4]. The doubler can also take clock inputs (XCLK) other than IMO and have a DSI or MHzECO as input. This feature is enabled by the bit FASTCLK_IMO_CR[5]. The DSI / MHzECO can be selected in the CLKDIST_CR[6] register bit.

The clock distribution register CLKDIST_CR[5:4] is responsible for selecting between IMO or IMO × 2 outputs.

Figure 16-2 is a summary block diagram of the IMO.

Fast Start IMO (FIMO)

An alternate mode of the IMO is available for fast start-up out of sleep modes. This Fast-start IMO (FIMO) mode provides a clock output within 1 µs after exiting the power down state. This alternate oscillator runs only at 48 MHz and is less precise (10%) than the primary IMO. This function is activated only when waking up and is selected by setting the FASTCLK_IMO_CR [3] bit. When this mode is selected, the FIMO clock replaces the IMO clock at the next wakeup.

16.3.1.2 Internal Low Speed Oscillator

The ILO produces two primary independent output clocks with no external components and with very low power consumption. These two outputs operate at nominal frequencies of 1 kHz and 100 kHz. The two clocks run independently, are not synchronized to each other, and can be enabled or disabled together or independently. The 1 kHz clock is typically used for a background central timewheel and also for the watchdog timer. The 100 kHz clock can provide a low power system clock, or it can be used to time intervals such as for sleep mode entry and exit. A third clock output is available — a divide-by-3 of the 100 kHz output.

In addition to the multiplexed output that can enter the clock distribution, the output clocks route to the following functions:

- clk_ilo1K – to the central timewheel (also called the sleep timer) and watchdog timer. Refer to the Low Power Modes chapter on page 169 for more details.
- clk_ilo100K – to the fast timewheel.
- clk_ilo33K – to the 32 kHz crystal oscillator (kHzECO) for start-up monitoring – This output has a dedicated connection to the 32k-crystal oscillator block for this. Operation of the 33 kHz crystal requires the 100 kHz ILO clock to be enabled.

This oscillator operates at very low current and is, therefore, the best fit for use in low power modes. The two sources, 1 kHz and 100 kHz, can be enabled and disabled, using the SLOWCLK_ILO_CR0 [1] and SLOWCLK_ILO_CR0 [2], respectively. SLOWCLK_ILO_CR0 [5] enables the divide by 3 to create the 33 kHz output. The outputs from the ILO can be routed to the clock distribution network. CLKDIST_CR [3:2] is responsible for this selection.
The ILO clocks are all disabled in the Hibernate mode. SLOWCLK_ILO_CR0 [4] is the power down mode bit governing the wakeup speeds of the device. Setting the bit slows down the startup, but it provides a low power operation.

16.3.2 External Oscillators
PSoC devices have two external crystal oscillators: the MHz Crystal Oscillator (MHzECO) and the 32.768 kHz Crystal Oscillator (kHzECO).

16.3.2.1 MHz Crystal Oscillator
The 4-33 MHz external crystal oscillator MHzECO circuit provides for precision clock signals. The block supports a variety of fundamental mode parallel resonance crystals. When used in conjunction with the on-chip PLL, a wide range of precision clock frequencies can be synthesized, up to 67 MHz.

The crystal pins are shared with a standard I/O function (GPIO / LCD / Analog Global), which must be tristated to operate the crystal oscillator with an attached external crystal.

The crystal output routes to the clock distribution network as a clock source option, and it can also route through the IMO doubler to produce doubled frequencies, if the crystal frequency is in the valid range for the doubler.

The oscillator allows for a wide range of crystal types and frequencies. Startup times vary with frequency and crystal quality. The xcfg bits of the FASTCLK_XMHZ_CFG0 [4:0] register are used to match the oscillator settings to the crystal. The oscillator can be enabled by FASTCLK_XMHZ_CSR [0].

Figure 16-4 is a block diagram of the MHzECO.
Fault Recovery

The block contains an option to detect crystal oscillator failure. The clock failure can occur due to environmental conditions (such as moisture) that affect the crystal and cause oscillators to stop. Clock failure status is indicated by clock error status bit (FASTCLK_XMHZ_CSR[7]).

If the FASTCLK_XMHZ_CSR[6] bit is set, the fault recovery option is enabled. In this case, when the crystal oscillator fails, the crystal oscillator output is driven low. The IMO is enabled (if it is not already running), and the IMO output routes through the crystal oscillator output mux. In this way, the system can continue to operate through a crystal fault. This functionality is diagrammed in Figure 16-5.

Low Power Operation

The MHz crystal oscillator operation is not required in the SLEEP/HIBERNATE modes. This means that you need to disable the oscillator in order to enter SLEEP/HIBERNATE modes. The 32 kHz crystal oscillator can be kept active, for precise timing (RTC), in the SLEEP/HIBERNATE modes. If the MHz crystal oscillator is not disabled when the device is put into any of these modes, the mode entry is skipped, and the code continues to execute in active mode. Because this clock must be disabled to enter SLEEP mode, a typical approach is to switch clock trees to the IMO source and then disable the crystal oscillator (and the PLL also, if it is on). Then SLEEP/HIBERNATE mode can be entered. After waking up from a sleep mode, the crystal oscillator can be re-enabled and used as a clock source when stable.

16.3.2.2 32.768 kHz Crystal Oscillator

The 4 MHz to 33 MHz external crystal oscillator kHzECO circuit produces a precision timing signal at very low power. The circuit uses an inexpensive external 32.768 kHz crystal and associated network capacitors that can be used to produce a real time clock. Current consumption can be much less than 1 µA.

This clock routes to the clock distribution network as an input clock source and also to the RTC timer. This oscillator is one of the clock sources available to the clock distribution logic. The kHzECO is enabled and disabled by the register SLOWCLK_X32_CR[0].

Figure 16-6 is a block diagram of the kHzECO.
**Real Time Clock**

One of the major uses of the kHzECO oscillator is for RTC implementation. The block level illustration of the RTC implementation is shown in Figure 16-7.

The RTC timing is derived from the 32 kHz external crystal oscillator, as shown in Figure 16-7. Therefore, for the functioning of the RTC, the 32 kHz external crystal must be enabled through the register SLOWCLK_X32_CR [0]. The generated 32 kHz is divided to achieve a one pulse per second. The register PM_TW_CFG2[4] enables one pulse per second functionality.

By enabling the bit PM_TW_CFG2[5], the RTC generates an interrupt every second. The interrupt is routed through the DSI and is brought out as an interrupt. Refer to the UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect chapter on page 255 for more details on usage. RTC functionality is available for use in all power modes except the Hibernate mode.

![Figure 16-7. RTC Implementation](image)

### 16.3.3 Oscillator Summary

An oscillator summary is listed in Table 16-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Fmin</th>
<th>Fmax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMO</td>
<td>3 MHz</td>
<td>67 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>1 kHz</td>
<td>100 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHzECO</td>
<td>4 MHz</td>
<td>33 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kHzECO</td>
<td>32 kHz</td>
<td>32 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLL</td>
<td>12 MHz</td>
<td>67 MHz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 16.3.4 DSI Clocks

Signals can be routed from the Digital Signal Interconnect (DSI) and used as clocks in the clock trees. The sources of these clocks include:

- Clocks developed in UDBs
- Off-chip clocks routed through pins
- Clock outputs from the clock distribution; fed directly back into the network through the routing fabric

![Figure 16-8. PLL Block Diagram](image)
16.3.5 Phase-Locked Loop

The on-chip Phase-Locked Loop (PLL) can be used to boost the clock frequency of the selected clock input (i.e., IMO, MHzECO, and DSI clock) to run the device at maximum operating frequency. The PLL can synthesize clock frequencies in the range of 24 – 67 MHz. Its input and feedback dividers allow fine enough resolution to create many desired system clock frequencies. The PLL output routes to the clock distribution network as one of the possible input sources. The PLL is shown in Figure 16-8.

The PLL uses a 4-bit input divider Q (FASTCLK_PLL_Q) on the reference clock and an 8-bit feedback divider P (FASTCLK_PLL_P). The outputs of these two dividers are compared and locked, resulting in an output frequency that is P/Q times the input reference clock. The PLL achieves frequency lock in less than 100 µs, and provides a bit that shows lock status (FASTCLK_PLL_SR[0]). When lock is achieved, the PLL output clock can be routed into the clock trees.

The PLL takes inputs from the IMO, the crystal oscillator MHzECO, or the DSI, which can be an external clock.

Low Power Operation

The PLL must be disabled before going into SLEEP/HIBERNATE mode. This allows clean entry into SLEEP/HIBERNATE and wakeup. The PLL can be reenabled after wakeup and when it is locked; then it can be used as a system clock. The device is designed not to go into SLEEP/HIBERNATE mode if the PLL is enabled when mode entry is attempted. (Execution continues without going into SLEEP/HIBERNATE mode in this case.)
16.4 Clock Distribution

All of the clock sources discussed are distributed into the various domains of the device through clock distribution logic. Figure 16-9 shows a block diagram of the clock distribution system.

Figure 16-9. Clock Distribution System

All of the clocks available in the device are routed across the device through digital and analog clock dividers. There are certain peripherals that require specific clock source for its operation. For example, Watchdog Timer (WDT) requires Internal Low Speed Oscillator (ILO). In such cases, the corresponding clock source is directly routed to the peripheral.

The clock distribution can be considered to be a combination of the following clock trees.

- System clock
- Digital clock
- Analog clock
- USB clock

The clock distribution provides a set of eight dividers for the digital clock tree and four analog clock dividers for the analog clock tree. All of the clock sources come as input options for all of the clock dividers through eight input mux. Also, the divider outputs are synchronized to their respective domain clocks.
A Master Clock Mux is available for distributing the sync clocks. There are options to provide delay on the digital sync clock. All eight digital dividers are synchronized to the same digital clock, but each of the analog clock divider outputs can be synchronized to analog clocks of different delays. The clock distribution also is responsible for the generation of the major clock domains in the device, such as the System clock, bus clock, and others.

### 16.4.1 Master Clock Mux

The Master Clock Mux, shown in Figure 16-10, selects one clock from among the PLL, selected IMO output, the MHz crystal oscillator, and the DSI input (dsi_clkin). This clock source feeds the phase mod circuit to produce skewed clocks that are selected by the digital and analog phase mux blocks. The Master Clock Mux provides the re-sync clocks for the network: clk_sync_dig and the analog system clocks, clk_sync_a. The master clock must be configured to be the fastest clock in the system. The master clock also provides a mechanism for switching the clock source for multiple clock trees instantaneously, while maintaining clock alignments. For systems that must maintain known clock relationships, clock trees select the clk_sync_dig (or clk_sync_a*) clock as their input source.

Therefore, when the source is changed (for example, when moving from the IMO source initially to a new PLL-synthesized frequency), all clocks change together through the Master Clock Mux output. The Master Clock Mux contains an 8-bit divider to generate lower frequency clocks, (CLKDIST_MSTR0[7:0]). It outputs an approximately 50% clock.

---

**Figure 16-10. Master Clock Mux**

Diagram showing the Master Clock Mux with inputs clk_pll, clk_imo, clk_eco_MHz, dsi_clkin, and outputs clk_pll Sel, clk_pll, clk_imo, clk_eco_MHz, dsi_clkin, 8-bit divider (1-256), Divide-by-1, clk_sync.
16.4.2 USB Clock

The USB clock domain is unique because it can operate largely asynchronously from the main clock network. The USB logic contains a synchronous bus interface to the device while being able to run on a potentially asynchronous clock to process USB data. For full speed USB, the clock must have an accuracy of ±0.25%.

The USB Clock Mux, shown in Figure 16-11, provides the clock to the USB logic.

![USB Clock Mux](Image)

The USB clock mux selects the USB clock from these clock sources.

- **imo1x** (these options are available inside the IMO block):
  - 48 MHz DSI clock subjected to the accuracy of the source of the clock
  - Crystal oscillator will not work at 48 MHz, so it has to be multiplied by PLL to get to 48 MHz
  - Cannot use 48 MHz IMO due to clock accuracy issues
- **imo2x** (these options are available inside the IMO block):
  - 24 MHz crystal with doubler
  - 24 MHz IMO with doubler with USB lock
  - 24 MHz DSI input with doubler
- **clk_pll**:
  - Crystal with PLL to generate 48 MHz
  - IMO with PLL to generate 48 MHz
  - DSI input with PLL to generate 48 MHz
- **DSI input**:
  - 48 MHz

In this situation, any of the choices can produce a valid 48 MHz clock for the USB. If the internal main oscillator is selected, it must be run with the oscillator locking function enabled, in which case it self tunes to the required USB accuracy when USB traffic arrives at the device.

**USB Mode Operation**

This device works with an automatic clock frequency locking circuit for USB operation. This design allows for small frequency adjustments based on measurements of the incoming USB timing (frame markers) versus the IMO clock rate. With this clock locking loop, the clock frequency can stay within spec for the USB Full Speed mode (±0.25% accurate). The IMO must be operated at 24 MHz for proper clock locking, with the doubler supplying 48 MHz for USB logic. The USB locking feature for the IMO can be enabled by the register bit FASTCLK_IMO_CR [6].

Alternately, a 24 MHz crystal controlled clock (doubled to 48 MHz) can be supplied for Full Speed USB operation. Other crystal frequencies, such as 4 MHz could be used with the PLL to synthesize the necessary 48 MHz.

Valid frequency for the PLL output, in this case, is 48 MHz. The DSI signal, dsi_glb_div [0], provides another DSI signal choice in addition to the clk_imo option above. As with the PLL, this clock must have USB accuracy and be 48 MHz.
16.4.3 Clock Dividers

Clock dividers form the main part of the clock distribution module and are used to divide and synchronize clock domains. Various clock sources and divider modes may be used together to generate many frequencies with some control over the duty cycle, as depicted in Figure 16-12.

The divider automatically reloads its divide count after reaching the terminal count of zero. The divider count is set in the register CLKDIST_DCFG[0..7]_CFG0/1 for digital dividers and CLKDIST_ACFG[0..3]_CFG0/1 for analog dividers. The counter is driven by the clock source selected from an 8-input mux, and the source selection is done in the register CLKDIST_DCFG[0..7]_CFG2[2:0] for digital dividers and CLKDIST_ACFG[0..7]_CFG2[2:0] for analog dividers. There are two divider output modes: single-cycle pulse and 50% duty cycle.

In either output mode, a divide value of 0 causes the divider to be bypassed, giving a divide by 1. In this case, the input clock is passed to the output after a resync, if the sync option is selected (see Clock Synchronization on page 158).

For a load value of M, the total period of the output clock is \( N = M + 1 \) cycles (of the selected input clock). For example, a load value of 4 gives a 5-cycle long output clock period.

Divider outputs can each be configured to give one of four waveforms, as described below.

16.4.3.1 Single Cycle Pulse Mode

In Single Cycle Pulse mode, by default, the divider generates a single high pulse clock at either the cycle after the terminal (zero) count or the half-count, and is otherwise low. This produces an output clock that is high for one cycle of the input clock, resulting in a 1-of-\( N \) duty cycle clock. This is illustrated in Figure 16-12.

16.4.3.2 50% Duty Cycle Mode

In 50% Duty Cycle mode, the output produces a clock that has an approximate 50% duty cycle, depending on whether the total number of counter cycles is even or odd. The 50% clock rising edge occurs at the equivalent rising edge location of the 1/N clock.

For a count of M, there are \( N = M + 1 \) input clock cycles in the divider period. If M is odd, the total cycle count N is
Clocking System

16.4.3 Clocking System

even, allowing for a nominal 50% duty cycle. The clock is high for the first \((M + 1)/2\) cycles, and then goes low for the remaining \((M + 1)/2\) cycles.

If \(M\) is even, the total cycle count is odd, which means that the output clock is high longer than it is low (in standard phase mode). Specifically, it is high for the first \((M/2) + 1\) cycles and then low for the remaining \(M/2\) cycles. This is illustrated in Figure 16-12 on page 157 for \(M = 3\) and \(M = 4\).

The \(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{DCFG}[x] \_\text{CFG2}[4]\) or \(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{ACFG}[x] \_\text{CFG2}[4]\) bit in the configuration register for each clock output can be set high to provide the 50% duty cycle mode. An exact 50% duty cycle cannot be guaranteed in all cases, as it depends on the phase and frequency differences between the output clock and the sync clock.

16.4.3.3 Early Phase Option

In addition to the two duty cycle choices, the outputs can be phase shifted to either go high after the terminal count, or at the half-period cycle. The default is referred to as Standard phase, with the rising edge of the output after the terminal count.

The other option is referred to as the Early Phase because the output can be considered to be shifted earlier in time to an approximate count that is one-half of the divide value. The \(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{DCFG} \_\text{CFG2}[5]\) or \(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{ACFG} \_\text{CFG2}[5]\) bit in the configuration register for each clock output can be set high to give the Early Phase mode, with the rising edge near the half count.

Analog clock dividers are similar in their architecture to digital dividers. However, they have an extra resync circuit to synchronize the analog clock to the digital domain clocks. Therefore, each of the analog dividers also has an output synchronized with the digital domain. This clock is synchronized to the output of the digital phase mux. The digital synchronized analog divider output is called \(\text{clk}_\text{ad}\). This divider is useful for clean communication between analog and digital domain.

16.4.4 Clock Synchronization

All digital and analog divider outputs have an option to be synchronized to the \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}_\text{dig}\) signals (\(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{DCFG}[x] \_\text{CFG3}[3]\) or \(\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{ACFG}[x] \_\text{CFG3}[3]\)), as shown in Figure 16-13.

Each digital divider can be synchronized to the digital phase mux output by setting the sync bit \((\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{DCFG}[x] \_\text{CFG2}[3])\). The phase delay for the digital divider is based on the phase shift field of Nonvolatile Latch (NVL) bits \(\text{DIG} \_\text{PHS} \_\text{DLY}[3:0]\).

Each of the four analog dividers can be synchronized to four distinct phase shifted clocks. The phase on the respective analog dividers sync clocks can be provided in the \(\text{PHASE} \_\text{DLY}\) field \((\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{ACFG}[x] \_\text{CFG3}[3:0])\). The analog clocks become synchronized when the \(\text{SYNC}\) bit is set \((\text{CLKDIST} \_\text{ACFG}[x] \_\text{CFG2}[3])\). These divided clocks synchronized to the analog clocks are called \(\text{clk}_\text{a}\).

The output of each clock tree provides for selection of one of four output clocks:

- **Resynchronized clock** – A clock running at a maximum rate of \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}/2\) is resynchronized by the phase delayed \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}\). This output is activated by setting the sync bit.

- **Phase delayed \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}\) (such as \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}_\text{dig}\))** – The clock tree runs at the same rate as \(\text{clk}_\text{sync}\), but just outputs this clock with proper phase delay. Note that the input clock source is ignored in this case. The output buffer is designed to match the final sync flop delay.

- **Unsynchronized divided clock** – This produces an asynchronous clock, subject to the limitations described in Asynchronous Clocks on page 160. This mode is applicable when the sync bit is reset and the divider has a nonzero divide value.

- **Bypassed clock source** – This routes the clock trees selected source to the output without going through the divider. This happens when the divider value is set to 0 and sync bit is reset. As in the previous case, this also produces an asynchronous clock.

![Figure 16-13. Resync Option Diagram](image-url)
16.4.5 Phase Selection and Control

To keep the environment quiet in the analog processing domain, a phase difference must exist between the analog and digital system clocks. For this reason, in PSoC devices, a delay chain circuit provides taps to control the phase for the digital and analog clocks. This delay chain provides up to a 10 ns phase adjustment with nominal steps of 0.5 ns. The phase shifter is shown in Figure 16-14.

The phase shifter consists of a chain of (nominally) 0.5 ns buffers connected in cascade, with the output of each buffer ported out of the circuit (21 outputs). The input to this chain is clk_sync from the master clock divider. Five 5-bit muxes select the sync clock to drive the resync circuits. One is clk_sync_dig for the digital clock dividers (clk_bus and all digital clock dividers). The other four are independent delay selections, one for each analog divider. The selected phase value is defined in NVL bits for the digital and ACFG[PHASE_DLY] for the analog clocks.

The clk_sync_dig phase shift selection must be applied at power up through NVL settings, because changing its value can cause clock glitching; the clk_bus clock should not be stopped for such a change. The analog phase shift selections can be made dynamically, because their output clocks can be disabled during any phase shift change.

Outputs in the delay chain may have increased jitter. The expectation is that, in systems that need a low-jitter analog clock, the undelayed output (first tap) is selected because it has the lowest jitter.
16.4.6 Divider Update

To allow for clean updates of the dividers while running, and to align the starting point for a group of dividers, a load enable mechanism is provided. When a clock is running, it automatically reloads its count value on the terminal count. If a new value has been loaded during countdown of the counter, this new value is loaded at the end of the count, and the next output clock period uses the new value. Because the divide value is 16 bits, there is a possibility that, when updating this register with two 8-bit writes, the full update might not complete when the terminal count occurs. This would lead to an unexpected period being reloaded.

To avoid this problem, a 16-bit shadow value (contained in registers {CLKDIST_WRK0*} and {CLKDIST_WRK1*}) allows atomic loads of the dividers, so the 16-bit dividers can be safely updated dynamically (while running). The shadow value can be loaded with two separate 8-bit operations.

The mask registers ({CLKDIST_DMASK*} and {CLKDIST_AMASK*}) allow the user to select the target dividers for this shadow value. When the load bit, {CLKDIST_LD}_LOAD, register is written with a 1, all dividers selected in the mask registers have their period count updated to the shadow value. (If the divider is not enabled, it is safe to do partial writes directly to the divider period register without using the shadow register.)

To align clocks, the mask registers are used again, but this time, they select dividers for auto-alignment. When the load bit, {CLKDIST_LD}_SYNC_EN, register is written with a 1, all dividers selected in mask registers start (or re-start) together. If the dividers are already enabled, they immediately reload and continue counting from this value. If they are not enabled, writing the SYNC_EN bit also sets any corresponding enable bits in the divider enable registers ({PM_ACT_CFG*}), and the dividers begin counting.

Writing a 1 to both the {CLKDIST_LD}_LOAD and {CLKDIST_LD}_SYNC_EN bits can combine these two operations. This causes all selected dividers to load the shadow register value into their count value, to set all selected divider register enables (if not already enabled), and then to start (or restart) with this setting. The sync loading feature is not supported for clocks that are asynchronous to clk_bus. Therefore, to enter a sleep

16.4.7 Power Gating of Clock Outputs

Clock trees may be gated off (disabled). These gating signals come from the power manager, which contains a register, {PM_ACT_CFG1, PM_ACT_CFG2*}, to allow user selection of trees to enable or disable.

When a clock tree is disabled, its divider is reset so that when reenabled, it reloads its count value. That is, the divider counters do not pause and hold their counts when disabled; they always start over with the latest configured divide count when reenabled.

16.4.8 System Clock

The System Clock is derived from the clk_sync_dig, which is a phase shifted version of clk_sync. The System Clock, also named clk_bus, is the clock that drives the PHUB and associated bus logic. This must be the fastest synchronous clock that outputs to the system. There is an option for a 16-bit divider on the clk_sync_dig to generate the clk_bus CLKDIST_BCFG1/2. This also has the same resynchronization options as the other digital dividers.

16.4.9 Asynchronous Clocks

Generally, all clocks used in the device must be derived from the same source, or synchronized to the main clk_sync clock. However there are possible exceptions:

- A signal that comes on-chip routes through a GPIO, routes to the UDB array, interacts only with self-contained UDB functions, and routes out of the device.
- Similar to the previous, but the signal routes to the interrupt controller instead of off-chip. The interrupt controller is able to handle arbitrarily phased events.
- USB operation with the IMO locking to USB traffic. Although unlikely, in this case, the rest of the device may run off of a different clock, because the USB circuitry contains its own clk_bus synchronous interface, even if its USB clock is not synchronous.

16.5 Low Power Mode Operation

During sleep modes, clock network outputs are gated off, and most clock sources are disabled automatically by the power manager. The low frequency (kHz) clocks may still run, and various clocks are configured by the power manager to support wakeup and buzz modes. Refer to the Low Power Modes chapter on page 169 for more details.

The system will not go into a sleep mode if either the MHz crystal oscillator or the PLL are enabled. If either of these clocks are enabled, the part will simply continue execution without entering a sleep mode. Therefore, to enter a sleep
mode when using either the MHz crystal oscillator or PLL, the user must configure the part to run from the IMO and then disable those clock sources. After that, the part may be configured to enter a sleep mode. Wakeup will then occur with the IMO as the main clock, and then the user may reactivate alternate sources as desired. This is necessary for fast wakeup and proper monitoring of PLL or crystal oscillator startup.

### 16.6 Clock Naming Summary

Table 16-2 lists clock signals and their descriptions.

#### Table 16-2. Clock Signals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clock Signal</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clk_sync</td>
<td>Synchronization clock from the Master clock mux used to synchronize the dividers in the distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dsi_clkin</td>
<td>Clocks that are taken as input into the clock distribution from DSI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_bus</td>
<td>Bus clock for all peripherals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_d[0:7]</td>
<td>Output clock from the seven digital dividers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_ad[0:3]</td>
<td>Output clock from the four analog dividers synchronized to the digital domain clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_a[0:3]</td>
<td>Output clock from the four analog dividers synchronized to the analog synchronization clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_usb</td>
<td>Clock for USB block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_imo2x</td>
<td>Output of the doubler in the IMO block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_imo</td>
<td>IMO output clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_i10k</td>
<td>1 kHz output from ILO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_i100k</td>
<td>100 kHz output from ILO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_i33k</td>
<td>33 kHz output from ILO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_eco_kHz</td>
<td>32.768 kHz output from the kHz ECO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_eco_MHz</td>
<td>4-33 MHz output of the MHz ECO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clk_pll</td>
<td>PLL output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dsi_glb_div</td>
<td>DSI global clock source to USB block</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. Power Supply and Monitoring

PSOC® 3 and PSOC® 5 devices have separate external analog and digital supply pins, labeled respectively $V_{dda}$ and $V_{ddd}$. The devices have two internal 1.8V regulators that provide the digital ($V_{ccd}$) and analog ($V_{cca}$) supplies for the internal core logic. The output pins of the regulators ($V_{ccd}$ and $V_{cca}$) have very specific capacitor requirements that are listed in the datasheet.

17.1 Features

These regulators are available:

- Analog regulator for the analog domain supply
- Digital regulator for the digital domain supply
- Sleep regulator for the sleep domain
- I²C regulator for powering the I²C logic
- Hibernate regulator for supplying keep alive power for state retention during hibernate mode
17.2 Block Diagram

The power system consists of separate analog, digital, and I/O supply pins, labeled Vdda, Vddd, and Vddiox, respectively. It also includes two internal 1.8V regulators that provide the digital (Vccd) and analog (Vcca) supplies for the internal core logic. The output pins of the regulators (Vccd and Vcca) and the Vddio pins must have capacitors connected as shown in Figure 17-1. The power system also contains a sleep regulator, an I2C regulator, and a hibernate regulator.

Figure 17-1. Power Domain Block Diagram
17.3 How It Works

The regulators shown in Figure 17-1 on page 164 power the various domains of the device. All regulators, except the analog regulator, draw their input power from the $V_{dd}$ pin supply.

17.3.1 Regulator Summary

Digital and analog regulators are active during the active or alternate device active modes. They go into a low power mode of operation in sleep or hibernate mode. The sleep and hibernate regulators are designed to fulfill power requirements in the low power modes of the device.

17.3.1.1 Internal Regulators

For external supplies from 1.8 V to 5.5 V, regulators are powered and the supply is provided through the $V_{dd}$ / $V_{dda}$ pins. An external cap of ~1 µF is connected to the $V_{ccd}$ and $V_{cca}$ pins.

For the $1.71 \, V < V_{cc} < 1.89 \, V$ external supply, power up the device with $V_{ccd}$/$V_{cca}$ pins. In this mode, short the $V_{dd}$ pin $V_{cc}$ and short the $V_{dda}$ pin to $V_{cca}$. The internal regulator remains powered by default. After power up, disable the regulators, using register PWRSYS. CR0 to reduce power consumption.

17.3.1.2 Sleep Regulator

The sleep regulator supplies power to these circuits during the device sleep mode.

- 32 kHz ECO
- ILO
- RTC Timer
- WDT
- Central Timewheel (CTW)
- Fast Timewheel (FTW)

17.3.1.3 Hibernate Regulator

The Hibernate regulator, whose output is called Keep Alive power ($V_{pwrKA}$), powers domains of the device responsible for the state retention in hibernate mode. The $V_{pwrKA}$ is shorted to the active domain during active mode.
17.3.2 Boost Converter

PSOC devices also have a boost converter that accepts an input voltage supplied by a battery or other source and produces a selectable, higher output voltage than the input voltage; the voltage is boosted.

The input voltage can be from various sources, such as a battery source or solar cells. The converter uses an external inductor to boost the voltage. An external Schottky Diode must be connected between the pins IND and V\text{boost} when boost voltage is greater than 3.6V.

Figure 17-2 is an application diagram of the boost converter.

The boost converter is enabled or disabled by the register bit BOOST\_CR1[3]. The device provides the option of changing the boost output voltage by writing into the register BOOST\_CR0[4:0]. By default, at startup the boost converter is enabled and configured for a 1.8V output. If the boost converter is not used, the pin V\text{bat} should be tied to ground, and the IND pin should be left floating.

17.3.2.1 Modes of Operation

The boost converter has two main operating modes selected by the register BOOST\_CR0[6:5]; these are:

- **Active** – This is the normal mode of operation where the Boost Regulator actively generates a regulated output voltage from the battery input. The switching frequency is selected by BOOST\_CR1[1:0] and is not synchronized to any other clock. The switching frequency selections are 2 MHz, 500 kHz, and 125 kHz, respectively.

- **Standby** – In this mode, only the band gap and boost circuit comparators are active, while other systems are disabled, thus reducing power consumption of the boost circuit itself. Output voltage is continuously monitored and supervisory data provided in BOOST\_SR[4:0]. This register provides supervisory data against the output voltage selected. Therefore, the processor can use the thump bit BOOST\_CR0[7] to switch the transistor ON for a 1 µs pulse.

The converter can be configured to provide low power, low current regulation in the standby mode. A 32 kHz clock is present which generates inductor boost pulses on the rising and falling edge of the clock when the output voltage is less than the programmed value. This is called automatic thump mode (ATM) and is enabled in the BOOST\_CR2[0].

In device sleep mode, all comparators and other circuits are turned off, except for the band gap. This configuration inhibits output; the boost output is High Z. Output voltage is the voltage on the output load capacitor minus any loads being supplied by the capacitor during sleep time.

Over a prolonged period of time, output voltage decays. The microcontroller can manage power during periodic wakeups to implement a digital control loop and maintain the required voltage during sleep mode.

17.3.2.2 Status Monitoring

Status monitoring for input and output voltages of the boost converter are available in the status register BOOST\_SR.

- **Output Voltage Monitor** – The register BOOST\_SR[4:0] gives a status of the output voltage against the set nominal voltage output.

  Bit 4: ov – Above overvoltage threshold (nominal + 50 mV).
  Bit 3: vhi – Above High regulation threshold (nominal +25 mV).
  Bit 2: vnom – Above Nominal threshold (nominal).
  Bit 1: vlo – Below Low regulation threshold (nominal to 25 mV).
  Bit 0: uv – Below undervoltage limit (nominal to 50 mV).
17.3.3 Voltage Monitoring

The device has two circuits for detecting voltages that deviate from the selected threshold on the external digital / analog supplies:

- **Low Voltage Interrupt (LVI)** – The LVI circuit generates an interrupt when it detects a voltage below the set value.
- **High Voltage Interrupt (HVI)** – The HVI circuit generates an interrupt when it detects a voltage above the set value.

The basic block diagram of voltage monitoring is shown in Figure 17-3.

Figure 17-3. Voltage Monitoring Block Diagram

17.3.3.1 Low Voltage Interrupt

The LVI circuit generates an interrupt when it detects a voltage below the set value. These low voltage monitors are off by default, but the trip level for the LVI can be set in the register RESET_CRO from 1.7V to 5.45V in steps of 250 mV.

The LVI circuit has a persistent status register bit in RESET_SR0 that is set until cleared by the user by reading from the register or until a POR. This bit is set whenever the voltage goes below the set value. There is distinct monitoring for low voltage on the analog and digital supply. The analog low voltage interrupt (ALVI), enabled by RESET_CR1[1] and RESET_CR0[7:4], sets the ALVI threshold. The digital low voltage interrupt (DLVI), enabled by RESET_CR1[0] and RESET_CR0[3:0], sets the DLVI threshold. Apart from this, when the voltage monitoring is enabled and corresponding PRES bit is also enabled in RESET_CR3[7:6], the low voltage condition would trigger a corresponding reset.

The interrupt is generated only when the corresponding bit in register RESET_CR1 is set and corresponding bits in RESET_CR3[7:6] cleared. Even if the interrupt output is not used to generate a processor interrupt, the status registers are updated by the circuit whenever LVI functions are enabled. In addition, the real-time status of each LVI circuit is available and captured in a real-time status register bit in RESET_SR2, so that the user can determine if an under / over voltage condition is still in effect.

17.3.3.2 High Voltage Interrupt

The HVI circuit generates an interrupt when it detects a voltage above the fixed, safe operating value of 5.75V on the external analog supply. There is just one HVI for both analog and digital supplies. The selection between monitoring the digital or analog supply is done by the RESET_CR1[2] bit.

These high voltage monitors are off by default, but this feature can be enabled in the register RESET_CR1[2].

The HVI circuit has a persistent status register bit in RESET_SR0 that is set until it is cleared by the user by reading or writing to the register or until a POR reset. This bit is set when the analog voltage value goes beyond the threshold value.

The interrupt is generated only when the corresponding bit in the register RESET_CR1[2] is unmasked. Even if the interrupt output is not used to generate a processor interrupt, the status registers are updated by the circuit whenever HVI functions are enabled. In addition the real-time
output of each HVI circuit is available and captured in a real-time register bit in RESET_SR2, so that the user can determine if an overvoltage condition is still in effect.

17.3.3.3 Processing a Low/High Voltage Detect Interrupt

Both low and high voltage interrupt circuits (LVI, HVI) cause the same interrupt output signal, which is made available to the Interrupt Controller.

Further execution of the interrupt depends on the enable status for the interrupt line in the Interrupt Controller. After the interrupt occurs, the user code can interrogate status registers to determine which LVI or HVI circuit detected an under or over voltage condition.

The actual interrupt output (LVD) is an OR function of the three persistent status register bits corresponding to LVI-D, LVI-A, and HVI. Therefore, to clear the interrupt, the ISR must clear these three register bits.

The LVI and HVI interrupts are prone to a glitch when they are enabled. Exercise caution in the firmware to avoid any interrupt generated by the voltage detection circuitry at the moment when voltage detection is being enabled. One way to achieve this is by disabling the LVD interrupt before enabling the voltage detection and enabling it after some time, which avoids the potential glitch caused while enabling.

During Sleep mode, LVI and HVI circuits may be buzzed (periodically activated). If an interrupt occurs during buzzing, the system will first go through its wakeup sequence; then the interrupt is recognized and serviced.

17.3.3.4 Reset on a Voltage Monitoring Interrupt

The ALVI and DLVI can be configured to directly reset the device by setting the corresponding bits in RESET_CR3[7:6]. When this bit is set to 1 along with the RESET_CR1[0/1] set to 1, the corresponding LVI becomes an additional reset source through the PRES reset path. When this bit is cleared to 0 along with the RESET_CR1[0/1] set to 1, the corresponding LVI is only used as an interrupt source. If the RESET_CR1[0/1] is cleared to 0, the bit state (either a zero or a one) has no impact on the reset or interrupt functionality.

17.4 Register Summary

Table 17-1. Power Supply Register Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PWRSYS_CR0</td>
<td>Regulator control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWRSYS_CR1</td>
<td>Analog regulator control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOST_CR0</td>
<td>Boost Thump, voltage selection and mode select</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOST_CR1</td>
<td>Boost enable and control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOST_CR2</td>
<td>Boost control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOST_CR3</td>
<td>Boost PWM duty cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOST_SR</td>
<td>Boost status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_CR0</td>
<td>LVI trip value setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_CR1</td>
<td>Voltage monitoring control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SR0</td>
<td>voltage monitoring status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SR2</td>
<td>Real-time voltage monitoring status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18. Low Power Modes

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices feature a set of four power modes with a goal of reducing the average power consumption of the device.

18.1 Features

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 power mode features, in order of decreasing power consumption, are:

- Active
- Alternative Active
- Sleep
- Hibernate

Active and alternative active are the main processing modes, and the list of enabled peripherals is programmable for each mode.

Sleep and Hibernate modes are used when processing is not necessary for an extended time. All subsystems are automatically disabled in these two modes, regardless of the settings in the active template register. Some subsystems have an additional available bit [PM_Avail_CRx] that can mark a subsystem as unused and prevent it from waking back up. This reduces the power overhead of waking up the part, in that not all subsystems are repowered.

The allowable transitions between power modes are illustrated in Figure 18-1.

Figure 18-1. State Diagram of Allowable Power Mode Transitions
Low Power Modes

The various power modes reduce power by affecting the following resources:

- Regulators for the digital and analog supply in the device
- Clocks such as the IMO, ILO, and External crystal oscillator (ECO32K, ECOM)
- Central Processing Unit (CPU) and all other peripherals

Power savings, resume time, and supported wakeup sources depend on the particular mode. The four global power-reducing modes are described in Table 18-1 and are listed in decreasing order of power consumption.

Table 18-1. Power Consumption-Reducing Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Power Modes</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Entry Condition</th>
<th>Wakeup Source</th>
<th>Active Clocks</th>
<th>Regulator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Primary mode of operation, all peripherals available (programmable)</td>
<td>Wakeup, reset, manual register entry</td>
<td>Any (programmable)</td>
<td>All regulators available. Digital and analog regulators can be disabled if external regulation used.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative</td>
<td>Similar to Active mode, and is typically configured to have lesser number of peripherals active to reduce power</td>
<td>Manual register entry</td>
<td>Interrupt, PICU, CMP, RTC, CTW, FTW, XRES_N, WDR, PPOR</td>
<td>Any (programmable)</td>
<td>All regulators available. Digital and analog regulators can be disabled if external regulation used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>All subsystems automatically disabled</td>
<td>Manual register entry</td>
<td>PICU, CMP, RTC, CTW, XRES_N, WDR, PPOR</td>
<td>ILO/ECO32K</td>
<td>Both digital and analog regulators buzzed. Digital and analog regulators can be disabled if external regulation used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hibernate</td>
<td>All subsystems automatically disabled</td>
<td>Manual register entry</td>
<td>PICU, CMP, XRES_N,</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Only hibernate regulator active</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Configuration and memory contents retained
18.2 Active Mode

Active mode is the primary power mode of the PSoC device. This mode provides the user with an option to use every possible subsystem/peripheral in the device. All of the clocks in the device are available for use in this mode.

Each power-controllable subsystem is enabled or disabled in Active mode, using the active power configuration template bits [PM_ACT_CFGx registers]. This is a set of 14 registers in which each bit is allocated to enable/disable a distinct power controllable subsystem. When a subsystem is disabled, the clocks are gated and/or analog bias currents are reduced.

Firmware may be used to dynamically enable or disable subsystems by setting or clearing bits in the active configuration template. It is possible for the CPU to disable itself, while the rest of the system remains in Active mode. The CPU Active mode bit is not sticky; therefore the CPU is always awakened whenever the system returns to Active mode.

18.2.1 Entering Active Mode

Any wakeup event, any reset, or writing 0 into PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] register while in alternate active mode transitions the device into active mode. When a wakeup event occurs in alternate active/sleep/hibernate mode, the global mode always returns to active and the CPU is automatically enabled, regardless of its template settings. Active mode is the default global power mode upon boot.

18.2.2 Exiting Active Mode

A register write into PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] can transition to another mode. Firmware must ensure the SPC Idle bit in the SPC_SR[1] register is ‘1’ prior to writing to the PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] register to ensure any SPC commands have completed. Any pending wakeup source prevents the device from exiting Active mode.

18.3 Alternative Active Mode

Alternative active mode is similar to active mode in most of its functionality. Alternative active mode also has its own additional set of subsystem template bits [PM_STBY_CFGx], which determine whether a subsystem is enabled or disabled. This mode is made available for quick transitions between Active and an alternate low power mode.

For example, the user can write to the template bits to disable CPU and enable certain peripherals to operate in alternate active mode. While in alternate active mode, if any interrupt is generated, the device automatically transitions to active mode and begins executing the firmware in active mode.

18.3.1 Entering Alternative Active Mode

Alternative active mode is entered by writing into [PM_MODE_CSR]. Firmware must ensure the SPC Idle bit in the SPC_SR[1] register is ‘1’ prior to writing to the PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] register to ensure any SPC commands have completed.

The essential difference between Active and Alternative Active mode is that the device cannot wake up from Sleep/Hibernate mode into the Alternative Active mode.

18.3.2 Exiting Alternative Active Mode

Any interrupt or writing the [PM_MODE_CSR] register can return the system to Active mode.

18.4 Sleep Mode

Sleep mode powers down the CPU and other internal circuitry to reduce power consumption. Supervisory services, such as the central timewheel, RTC, WDT, and periodic low voltage detection, remain available in this mode.

When a wakeup event occurs, the system reactivates in a single phase and returns to Active mode. Both analog and digital regulators are nominally disabled during Sleep mode. By default, regulators configured for internal regulation are buzzed (periodically activated) to provide supervisory services and improve wakeup time by periodically charging the external Vcao/Vcdo capacitor.

Buzz rates are programmable and can trade off between average current and wakeup time. It is not fatal if the capacitor discharges below the minimum voltage boundary listed for Sleep mode. However, this discharge increases wake time, because the regulators must fully charge the capacitor before it can enter Active mode. If the device is configured for external regulation, the system returns to Active mode more quickly.

18.4.1 Entering Sleep Mode

Sleep mode is entered by writing the appropriate code into PM_MODE_CSR [2:0]. Firmware must ensure the SPC Idle bit in the SPC_SR[1] register is ‘1’ prior to writing to the PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] register to ensure any SPC commands have completed. Entry must be from a state where the CPU is available (active). The system ignores any request to enter sleep mode for the first 1 ms after POR.
Low Power Modes

18.4.2 Exiting Sleep Mode

Only PICU interrupts, comparator wakeup, supervisory interrupts, or resets wake up the system. At wakeup, the system activates all previously available domains from Active mode template and begins executing the firmware in Active mode.

18.5 Hibernate Mode

Hibernate mode consumes/dissipates the lowest power, and nearly all internal functions are disabled. There is no buzzing, and the external capacitors are permitted to discharge. The hibernate-regulator is always active to generate the keep-alive voltage ($V_{pwrka}$) used to retain the system state. Refer to 17.3.3 Voltage Monitoring on page 167.

Configuration state and all memory contents are preserved in Hibernate mode. GPIOs configured as digital outputs maintain their previous values, and pin interrupt settings are preserved. The voltage used to retain state is lower than the nominal core voltage.

In Hibernate mode, voltage is monitored with a lower degree of precision than in the other power modes. The hibernate mode has a higher probability of having soft errors. Hence for safety critical applications the MFGCFG.PWR-SYS.HIB.TR1[7] can be programmed to prevent hibernate mode. When this bit is asserted, the command to enter Hibernate will put the system into Sleep mode. This is important in the case where there are chances of an accidental entry into Hibernate and the Watchdog is disabled.

18.5.1 Entering Hibernate Mode

Hibernate mode is entered by a write into PM_MODE_CSR [2:0]. Firmware must ensure the SPC Idle bit in the SPC_SR[1] register is ’1’ prior to writing to the PM_MODE_CSR [2:0] register to ensure any SPC commands have completed. The extremely low current hibernate regulator requires at least 1 ms to start up after a reset. During this time, the system ignores requests to enter Hibernate mode.

18.5.2 Exiting Hibernate Mode

Return from Hibernate mode can occur only in response to a PICU, comparator, or reset event. The digital, analog, and sleep regulators are disabled in Hibernate mode. Upon wakeup, the system activates all previously available domains, unless the (PM_MODE_CFG1 [2]) field is set.

18.6 Timewheel

Timers and timewheels schedule events. They can be programmed to generate periodic interrupts for timing or to wake the system from a low power mode.

18.6.1 Central Timewheel (CTW)

The Central Timewheel (CTW) is a 1 kHz, free-running, 13-bit counter clocked by the ILO. The CTW is always available, except in Hibernate mode and when the CPU is stopped during Debug on-Chip (DoC) mode. The main functions of the CTW are:

- Buzzing during Sleep mode
- Waking up the device from a low power mode
- Watchdog timer (WDT)
- General timing purposes

CTW settings are programmable, using PM_TW_CFG1[3:0].

Although the CTW is free-running, separate settings are used for the wakeup and watchdog timeouts. The CTW can be programmed, using the {PM_TW_CFG2[2]} registers, to wake the system periodically and optionally issue an interrupt by programming the bit {PM_TW_CFG2[3]}.

18.6.2 Fast Timewheel (FTW)

The Fast Timewheel (FTW) is a 100 kHz, 5-bit counter clocked by the ILO that can also be used to wake the system. The FTW settings are programmable, using PM_TW_CFG0 [4:0], and the counter automatically resets when the terminal count is reached. The FTW enables flexible, periodic wakeups of the CPU at a higher rate than the rate allowed using the CTW. To wake up on the FTW, the user must write into register PM_TW_CFG0 [0]. If the associated FTW interrupt is enabled using PM_TW_CFG0 [1], an interrupt is generated each time the terminal count is reached.
## 18.7 Register List

Table 18-2. Low Power Modes Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Registers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_ACT_CFGx</td>
<td>Active mode template</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_STBY_CFGx</td>
<td>Alternate Active mode template</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_AVAIL_CFGx</td>
<td>Available settings for limited Active mode transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_AVAIL_SRx</td>
<td>Availability Status register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_MODE_CFG0</td>
<td>Not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_MODE_CFG1</td>
<td>Interrupt and settings for low power modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_MODE_CSR</td>
<td>Power Mode Control and Status register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_INT_SR</td>
<td>Power Mode Interrupt Status register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_TW_CFG0</td>
<td>Fast Timewheel (FTW) Configuration register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_TW_CFG1</td>
<td>Central Timewheel (CTW) Configuration register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_TW_CFG2</td>
<td>Configuration settings for CTW and FTW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Low Power Modes
19. **Watchdog Timer**

The Watchdog Timer (WDT) circuit automatically reboots the system in the event of an unexpected execution path. This timer must be serviced periodically. If not, the CPU resets after a specified period of time. Once the WDT is enabled it cannot be disabled except during a reset event. This is done to prevent any errant code from disabling the WDT reset function. To use the WDT function, the user is required to enable the WDT function during their startup code.

### 19.1 Features

The WDT has the following features:

- Protection settings to prevent accidental corruption of the WDT
- Optionally-protected servicing (feeding) of the WDT
- A configurable low power mode to reduce servicing requirements during sleep mode
- A status bit for the watchdog event that shows the status even after a watchdog reset

### 19.2 Block Diagram

*Figure 19-1* is a block diagram of the WDT circuit.
19.3 How It Works

The WDT circuit asserts a hardware reset to the device after a pre-programmed interval, unless it is periodically serviced in firmware. If an unexpected execution path is taken through the code and the pre-programmed interval times out, the system is restarted. It can also restart the system from the CPU halt state.

The WDT timeout is between two and three programmable tap periods, based on the free-running Central Timewheel. See the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual).

Each time the central timewheel crosses the programmed tap point, the Watchdog counter increments. When the counter reaches three, a Watchdog reset is asserted, and the counter is reset. When the WDT is serviced in software, the counter is reset to zero.

The time between servicing and the first tap crossing is usually less than the complete tap period; therefore, software should be programmed to service the WDT within two tap periods. Actual WDT timeouts may differ slightly from nominal, caused by inaccuracy of the frequency of the ILO.

19.3.1 Enabling and Disabling the WDT

The WDT is enabled by setting the PM_WDT_CFG[4] register bit. After this bit has been set, it cannot be cleared again except by a power reset event. This is done so that errant code cannot accidentally disable the Watchdog.

Users must either reenable the Watchdog function at startup after a reset occurs or include code to reenable the function should a reset occur, allowing a dynamic choice whether to enable the Watchdog.

A status bit (RESET_SR0[3]) becomes set on the occurrence of a Watchdog reset. This bit remains set until cleared by the user, by reading or writing to the register, or until a POR reset. All other resets leave this bit untouched.

19.3.2 Setting the WDT Time Period and Clearing the WDT

The user can select a tap from the central timewheel using the register PM_WDT_CFG[1:0]. Based on the tap selected, the WDT is timed at various periods, shown in Figure 19-1 on page 175. The Watchdog Timer counts until reaching three counts, based on the tap from the central timewheel. If the firmware does not clear the WDT before this time, a Watchdog reset is initiated.

To prevent an automatic reset, the WDT must be periodically serviced by firmware. In the default mode, this is accomplished by writing any value to the PM_WDT_CR field. It is a good idea to service the WDT in a firmware main loop, that is, not in an interrupt handler. If the WDT is serviced in an interrupt handler, and the main loop code goes astray, the WDT may never generate a reset because the interrupt may still be active, causing the interrupt handler to continue to service the WDT.

19.3.3 Operation in Low Power Modes

A configurable low power mode of the WDT reduces servicing requirements during sleep mode. The register PM_WDT_CFG[6:5] governs the low power mode for the WDT.

If the Watchdog-Timer (WDT) is enabled, these two bits define how the WDT behaves when the part enters sleep/idle/hibtimers (low power) mode. By default its left to 01, the system will automatically use the longest WDT interval when Sleep/idle/Hibtimers mode is entered - so SW isn't burdened with waking just to feed the WDT. This is true regardless of the value programmed in the wdt_interval register. Upon wakeup, the interval will remain at the highest setting until the WDT is fed the first time by the user. A feeding at this point will cause the interval to automatically return to the normal setting (value in wdt_interval). If this field is set to NOCHANGE (’00’), the system does not change the interval and does not feed the WDT when entering Sleep/idle/Hibtimers mode. If DISABLED (wdt_lpmode=11), the WDT is turned off when Sleep/idle/Hibtimers mode is entered and remains disabled until the first feeding by the user after Active mode is reentered.

19.3.4 Watchdog Protection Settings

By use of the registers MLOGIC_SEG_CR and MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0, Watchdog timer registers are protected from accidental corruption as follows:

- Clear, low-power enable, and Watchdog enable registers are protected as segment 0 as one-time system settings.
- The servicing of WDT clear is protected in segment 1 as a reconfigurable system setting.

See 22.3 Configuration Segment Protection on page 206.
## 19.4 Register List

Table 19-1. Reset Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PM_WDT_CFG</td>
<td>Configuration register for Watchdog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM_WDT_CR</td>
<td>Watchdog clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SRO</td>
<td>Persistent Status register for Watchdog reset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
20. Reset

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 architectures support several types of resets that allow error-free operation during power up for any voltage ramping profile, user-supplied external or software resets, and recovery from errant code operation.

20.1 Reset Sources

The following is a description of reset sources. For power up supply monitoring, PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices support POR (power on reset). They also support WRES (watchdog reset) for recovery from errant code, and SRES and XRES_N for user-supplied software and external resets, respectively. When a reset is initiated, all registers are restored to their default states with minor exceptions, such as some of the persistent status registers.

20.1.1 Power-on Reset

Power on Reset (POR) is provided primarily for a system reset at power up. The IPOR will hold the device in reset until all four voltages; Vdda, Vcca, Vddd, Vccd, are to datasheet specification. The POR activates automatically at power up and consists of:

- An imprecise POR (IPOR) – is used to keep the device in reset during initial power up of the device until the POR can be activated
- A precision POR (PRES) – derived from a circuit calibrated for a very accurate location of the POR trip point.

The power on RESET clears all the reset status registers explained in 20.1.5 Identifying Reset Sources on page 180.

20.1.2 Watchdog Reset

Watchdog Reset (WRES) is provided errant code by causing a reset if the watchdog timer is not cleared within the user-specified time limit. The user must always set the WRES initialization code. This was done to allow the user to dynamically choose whether or not to enable the watchdog timer.

This feature is enabled by setting the PM_WDT_CFG [4] register bit. After this bit has been set, it cannot be cleared again except by a reset event. When a watchdog timer event occurs, device reset occurs normally, but the watchdog timer enable bit is not cleared. This scheme allows the watchdog timer enable bit to be a flag available to firmware or software to indicate that a watchdog timer event occurred. See the Watchdog Timer chapter on page 175.

The RESET_SR0 [3] status bit becomes set on the occurrence of a watchdog reset. This bit remains set until cleared by the user or until a POR reset. All other resets leave this bit untouched. Except for the status bit, the watchdog reset functions as all other system resets.

20.1.3 Software Initiated Reset

Software Initiated Reset (SRES) is a mechanism that allows a software-driven reset. The RESET_CR2 register forces a device reset when a 1 is written into bit 0. This setting can be made by firmware or with a DMA.

The RESET_SR0 [5] status bit becomes set on the occurrence of a software reset. This bit remains set until cleared by the user or until a POR reset.

20.1.4 External Reset

External Reset (XRES_N) is a user-supplied reset that causes immediate system reset when asserted. XRES_N is available on a dedicated pin on some devices, as well as a shared GPIO pin P[2] on all devices. The shared pin is available through a customer-programmed NV Latch setting and supports low pin count parts that don’t have a dedicated XRES_N pin. This path is typically configured during the boot phase immediately after power up. See the Nonvolatile Latch chapter on page 121 for more details.

Either the dedicated pin or the GPIO pin, if configured, holds the part in reset while held active. When the pin is released, the part goes through a normal boot sequence. The external reset is active low, so that a low voltage (near ground) on the XRES_N pin causes a reset.

The RESET_SR0 [4] status bit becomes set on the occurrence of an XRES_N. This bit remains set until cleared by the user or until a POR.
20.1.5 Identifying Reset Sources

When the device comes out of reset, it is beneficial to know the cause of the reset. This is achieved in the device through the registers RESET_SR0 and RESET_SR1. All types of resets mentioned above set corresponding status bits in the RESET_SR0/1 registers. These persistent status bits are only available when the tstrst_en bit (bit 4) is set in the Test Controller TC_TST_CR2.

These two registers have specific status bits allocated for the various RESET sources, except POR. The bits are set on the occurrence of the corresponding reset, and remain set after the reset, until the tstrst_en bit (bit 4) is cleared in the Test Controller TC_TST_CR2 and they are cleared by the user or a POR reset.

Therefore, all of the other RESET sources can be identified after the reset. In the case of POR or the entire register is cleared, indicating a power on reset.

---

20.2 Reset Diagram

Figure 20-1 is a simplified logic diagram of the RESET module. Any active source of reset will make the System RESET.

Figure 20-1. Logic Diagram of the RESET Module
Figure 20-2 is a diagram showing the operation of various RESETs with the change in $V_{dd}/V_{cc}$. The diagram also shows the functioning of RESETs in a normal power up.

![Figure 20-2. Resets Resulting from Various Reset Sources](image)

**20.3 Reset Summary**

All Reset sources and their triggers/effects are described in Table 20-1.

Table 20-1. Reset Sources, Triggers, and Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POR</th>
<th>WRES</th>
<th>SRES</th>
<th>XRES_N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trigger</td>
<td>$V_{ccd} &lt; 1.6V$</td>
<td>WDT not written in time window</td>
<td>RESET_CR2[0] set External XRES_N pin active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enable by Default?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block Power</td>
<td>50 µA</td>
<td>&lt;1 µA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep Mode Operation</td>
<td>Buzzed</td>
<td>Not in Hibernate</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


## 20.4 Boot Process and Timing

The boot process trims and configures the silicon to its ideal state before the first line of the user code is executed. The PSoc 3 life cycle consists of reset, boot, and user phases. Figure 20-3 gives a brief view of these phases.

![Figure 20-3. Boot Process](image)

The process from supply voltage stabilization to user code entry is shown in Figure 20.4. After the voltage is high enough, the NVL Data load is initiated. The NVL load takes care of loading configuration data stored in the NV Latches. These are configuration data that control the reset behavior of the device. The maximum time for this NVL load is 10 µs from the time of initiation. This resets the I/Os to the NVL drive mode settings as well as setting the other Manufacturing Configuration data for the device. At this point the device enters the reset state. The two types of NVL loads that happen here are explained in section 20.4.1 Manufacturing Configuration NV Latch.

If the external reset pin (XRES_N) is asserted low, the device stays in the reset state. If the external reset pin (XRES_N) is not asserted and all the voltages are at their correct operating values it triggers the reset hold off circuitry to begin bringing the device out of the reset state.

The IMO clock is then started in a fast IMO (FIMO) mode which is a faster start up version of the IMO. The reset hold off counter continues to hold the device in reset until the other systems like band-gap and precision resets stabilize. The length of the hold off is approximately 20 µs to allow enough time for these circuits to stabilize. If the band-gap or precision reset blocks are not ready or there is a problem with any of these devices stabilizing by the end of the hold-off counter, a fresh reset cycle is initiated and the hold-off counter is restarted. If there are no problems and the hold-off counter completes and the device is released from reset.

After releasing from reset the IMO is switched to either 12 or 48 MHz, the system bus clock is started, and the boot cycle begins. Until now the bus clock was fed from the FIMO which has lesser accuracy compared to the IMO. Once the reset is released it moves into the IMO which is more precise. The boot phase is explained in section 20.4.3 User Mode. During this boot configuration time, if there is no toggling of the external pins P1_0 and P1_1 and the configuration finishes, the system moves into the user mode. Toggling of P1_0 and P1_1 would imply a debug port acquire is being attempted which would have to trigger a debug port entry.

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![Figure 20-4. Power Up Reset Boot User Mode Cycle](image)

In this phase two types of NV Latches are loaded to set reset states and trims in the device. The two types of the configuration are explained below. Both the configuration explained in sections 20.4.1 Manufacturing Configuration NV Latch and 20.4.1.1 Device Configuration NV Latch occur simultaneously in the reset phase.

### 20.4.1 Manufacturing Configuration NV Latch

There are some circuits that must receive part specific trim values before the device comes out of reset. Manufacturing NV latches provides these trim values. Conceptually an example of such a circuit is the power on reset. This circuit is responsible for holding the device in reset until a safe supply voltage is reached. The POR circuit requires a trim value which would be stored in an NV latch. NV latch's output is stable at approximately 1 V while the lowest operating voltage in the PSoC 3 platform is 1.71 V.

### 20.4.1.1 Device Configuration NV Latch

Device Configuration is similar to Manufacturing Configuration NV in that it occurs while the device is in reset; however, it differs in that customers are selecting optional configuration settings not trim values for circuits. Manufacturing configuration and device configuration occur in parallel. One such example of a device configuration is the NV latches that determine the I/O drive modes during reset which determine the reset state of the drive mode registers.

### 20.4.2 Boot Phase

Though many settings for the device are done using NV latch setting during the preboot process, there are other trim values that require to be written during the boot process. These values are stored in reserved space in the Flash memory (I/O System chapter on page 187) and the boot process takes care of moving this data to the corresponding blocks. This loading of the configuration happens using the DMA and the PHUB. A DMA channel fetches the configuration bytes from the flash and places them in the SRAM. The check sum block does a check sum to determine integrity.
Once the data is verified it is then transferred using the DMA to the corresponding configuration register. If the check sum fails it would trigger a system reset.

Note that some circuits have mode dependent trim values, for example the IMO's trim value depends on the speed setting of the IMO. For circuits with mode dependent trim values the boot process loads the trim value that matches the default mode. When the user's firmware or configuration changes the mode, the firmware also retrieves the correct trim value corresponding to the modes from the tables stored in flash and writes them to the appropriate register.

The CPU halts until boot completes, therefore, you cannot use the CPU to complete the boot process. The PHUB, DMA, and a special checksum block are used for boot to move the manufacturing configuration data from the flash to the appropriate registers. These three blocks work together to accomplish these objectives:

- Minimize boot time, giving you the quickest path to firmware execution
- Provide a data integrity check on the manufacturing configuration data
- Provide flexibility in the order and addresses manufacturing configuration data is written to

Once the boot process is complete the device enters the user mode where the user code starts executing.

20.4.3 User Mode

Once the boot phase is complete the device enters the User mode to enable firmware code execution. This is where code execution starts for the startup/configuration code developed by PSoC Creator. Only after executing this part of the PSoC Creator generated code does the code execution reach the main().
20.5 Register List

Table 20-2. Reset Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RESET_CR2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SR0</td>
<td>Persistent status bits for WRES, SRES, XRES_N, and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SR1</td>
<td>Persistent status bits for Segment reset, PRES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET_SR2</td>
<td>Real-time Reset Status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21. I/O System

The I/O system provides the interface between the CPU core and peripheral components to the outside world. The flexibility of PSoC® devices and the capability of its I/O to route any signal to any pin greatly simplifies circuit design and board layout. There are two types of I/O pins on every device, general purpose I/O (GPIO) and special I/O (SIO); those with USB provide a third type. Both GPIO and SIO provide similar digital functionality. The primary differences are their analog capability and drive strength. Devices that include USB also provide two USBIO pins that support specific USB functionality as well as specialized general purpose capability.

All I/O pins are available for use as digital inputs and outputs for both the CPU and digital peripherals. In addition, all I/O pins can generate an interrupt. All GPIO pins can be used for analog input, CapSense®, and LCD segment drive, while SIO pins are used for voltages in excess of Vdda and for programmable output voltages and input thresholds.

21.1 Features

The PSoC I/O system has these features, depending on the pin type.

Supported by both GPIO and SIO pins:
- User programmable I/O state and drive mode on device reset
- Flexible drive modes
- Support level and edge interrupts on pin basis
- Slew rate control
- Supports CMOS and low voltage TTL input thresholds
- Separate port read and write registers
- Separate I/O supplies and voltages for up to four groups of I/O

Provided only on the GPIO pins:
- Supports LCD drive
- Supports CapSense
- Supports JTAG interface
- Analog input and output capability
- 8 mA sink and 4 mA source current
- Ports can be configured to support EMIF address and data

Provided only on SIO pins:
- Hot swap capability (5V tolerance at any operating V_{dd})
- Single enable and differential input with programmable threshold
- Regulated output voltage level option
- Overvoltage tolerance up to 5.5V
- Higher drive strength than GPIO
- 25 mA sink and 4 mA source current
USBIO features:
- USB 2.0 compliant I/O
- 25 mA source/24 mA sink current

21.2 Block Diagrams

Figure 21-1, Figure 21-2 on page 189, and Figure 21-3 on page 190 are block diagrams of three main categories of I/Os: GPIO, SIO, and USBIO, respectively. Each diagram emphasizes the main blocks that drive the system, as well as the signals and register settings that control the main blocks.

Figure 21-1. GPIO Block Diagram
Figure 21-2. SIO Block Diagram

Digital Input Path

- PRT[x]SIO_HYST_EN
- PRT[x]DBL_SYNC_IN
- Digital System Input
- PRT[x]PS
- PICU[x]INTTYPE[y]
- PICU[x]INTSTAT
- Pin Interrupt signal
- PICU[x]SNAP

Digital Output Path

- PRT[x]SLW
- PRT[x]BYP
- PRT[x]DR
- Output from DSI
- PRT[x]SYNC_OUT
- PRT[x]DM2
- PRT[x]DM1
- PRT[x]DM0
- Output Enable from DSI
- PRT[x]BIE

Naming Convention
'x' = Port Number
'y' = Pin Number

In
Drive Logic
Slew Ctrl
OE
Reference Generator
Driver Vhigh
PIN

Interrupt Logic
Input Buffer Disable
Reference Generator
21.3 How It Works

PSoC I/Os provide:

- Digital input sensing
- Digital output drive
- Pin interrupts
- Connectivity for analog inputs and outputs
- Connectivity for LCD segment drive and EMIF
- Access to internal peripherals:
  - Directly for defined ports
  - Through the Universal Digital Blocks (UDB) via the Digital System Interconnect (DSI)

The I/Os are arranged into ports, with up to eight pins per port. Some of the I/O pins are multiplexed with special functions (USB, debug port, crystal oscillator). Special functions are enabled using control registers associated with the specific functions. For example, the Crystal Oscillator control register enables the crystal oscillator function for the I/O pin multiplexed with the crystal oscillator function.

21.3.1 Usage Modes and Configuration

Because of the variety of I/O capabilities, it is necessary to understand the modes thoroughly and the configuration for each function.
21.3.2 I/O Drive Modes

Each GPIO and SIO pin is individually configurable into one of the eight drive modes listed in Table 21-1 and shown in Figure 21-4, which depicts a simplified pin view based on each of the eight drive modes.

The I/O pin drive state is based on the port data register value (DR) or on a DSI signal, if bypass mode is selected. The actual I/O pin voltage is determined by a combination of the DR value, the selected drive mode, and the load at the pin. The state of the pin can be read from the Port Status register (PS) or routed to a DSI signal, or both. Three configuration bits are used for each pin (DM [2:0]) and set in the PRTxDM [2:0] registers.

### Table 21-1. I/O Drive Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode Number</th>
<th>Drive Mode</th>
<th>PRTxDM2 DM2</th>
<th>PRTxDM1 DM1</th>
<th>PRTxDM0 DM0</th>
<th>Data = 1</th>
<th>Data = 0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>High Impedance Analog</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>High Z</td>
<td>High Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>High Impedance Digital</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High Z</td>
<td>High Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Resistive Pull Up</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Res 1 (5k)</td>
<td>Strong 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Resistive Pull Down</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strong 1</td>
<td>Res 0 (5k)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Open Drain, Drives Low</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>High Z</td>
<td>Strong 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Open Drain, Drives High</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strong 1</td>
<td>High Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Strong Drive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Strong 1</td>
<td>Strong 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Resistive Pull Up and Down</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Res 1 (5k)</td>
<td>Res 0 (5k)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 21-4. I/O Drive Mode Diagram
21.3.2.1 Drive Mode on Reset

The factory drive mode default is high impedance analog mode, which is appropriate for most designs. The Drive Mode on Reset feature allows the user to change the factory default to any of the four listed drive modes if the application requires faster configuration to low or high logic levels. The Reset drive mode is set at POR release. The Drive Mode on Reset setting is a port wide setting and is not set per pin. Each pin is individually configured during the device configuration step after POR release; this setting overwrites the reset drive mode. The Resistive Pull Up Drive Mode on Reset also sets the Port Data Register to 0xFF to ensure the port is pulled up; all other modes leave the Data Register 0x00.

- High impedance analog
- High impedance digital
- Resistive pull up
- Resistive pull down

Refer to the Nonvolatile Latch chapter on page 121 for details.

21.3.2.2 High Impedance Analog

High Impedance Analog mode is the default reset state; both output driver and digital input buffer are turned off. This state prevents a floating voltage from causing a current to flow into the I/O digital input buffer. This drive mode is recommended for pins that are floating or that support an analog voltage. High impedance analog pins cannot be used for digital inputs. Reading the pin state register returns a 0x00 regardless of the data register value.

To achieve the lowest device current in sleep modes, all I/Os must either be configured to the high impedance analog mode, or they must have their pins driven to a power supply rail (ground) by the PSoC device or by external circuitry.

21.3.2.3 High Impedance Digital

High Impedance Digital mode is the standard high impedance (High Z) state recommended for digital inputs. In this state, the input buffer is enabled for digital signal input.

21.3.2.4 Resistive Pull Up or Resistive Pull Down

Resistive modes provide a series resistance in one of the data states and strong drive in the other. Pins can be used for digital input and output in these modes. Interfacing to mechanical switches is a common application for these modes. If a pull up is needed with the Resistive Pull Up Drive mode, a 1 must be written to that pin’s Data Register bit. If a pull down is required with the Resistive Pull Down Drive mode, a 0 must be written to that pin’s Data Register bit.

21.3.2.5 Open Drain, Drives High and Drives Low

Open Drain modes provide high impedance in one of the data states and strong drive in the other. Pins are used for digital input and output in these modes. A common application for these modes is driving I²C bus signal lines.

21.3.2.6 Strong Drive

The Strong Drive mode is the standard digital output mode for pins; it provides a strong CMOS output drive in both high and low states. Strong drive mode pins must not be used as inputs under normal circumstances. This mode is often used to drive digital output signals or external FETs.

21.3.2.7 Resistive Pull Up and Pull Down

The Resistive Pull Up and Pull Down mode is a single mode and is similar to the Resistive Pull Up and Resistive Pull Down modes, except that, in the single mode, the pin is always in series with a resistor. The high data state is pull up while the low data state is pull down. This mode is used when the bus is driven by other signals that may cause shorts.

21.3.3 Slew Rate Control

GPIO and SIO pins have fast and slow output slew rate options for strong drive modes – not resistive drive modes. The fast slew rate is for signals between 1 MHz and 33 MHz. Because it results in reduced EMI, the slow option is recommended for signals that are not speed critical – generally less than 1 MHz. Slew rate is individually configurable for each pin and is set by the PRTxSLW registers.

21.3.4 Digital I/O Controlled by Port Register

The Port Control registers (see Table 21-2 on page 193) have separate configuration bit for each port pins. In addition to port control registers, the device also provides registers for port-wide and pin wise configuration.

The port wide configuration register writes the same configuration for all the port pins in a single write. This is useful to configure all the port pins to a specific configuration.

The pin wise configuration register writes to all configuration bits for a specific I/O pin in a single write. This is useful to configure individual port pins to a specific configuration.
Outputs are driven from the CPU by writing to the port data registers (PRTx_DR). Digital inputs are read by the CPU through the pin state registers (PRTx_PS).

### 21.3.4.1 Port Configuration Registers

Table 21-2 lists port control registers.

#### Table 21-2. Functional Registers Accessed through Pin and Port Configuration Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_BYP</td>
<td>A bit set in this register connects the corresponding port pin to the Digital System Interconnect (DSI), and disconnects it from the DR register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_SLW</td>
<td>Each bit controls the output edge rate of the corresponding port pin – fast edge rate mode (Slew=0) or slow edge rate mode (Slew=1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_BIE</td>
<td>Each bit set controls the bidirectional mode of the corresponding port pin. 0 = Output always enabled 1 = Output Enable controlled by DSI input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_PS</td>
<td>This register reads the logical pin state for the corresponding GPIO port.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_DM[0..2]</td>
<td>The combined value of these registers – PRTx_DM2, PRTx_DM1, and PRTx_DM0 – determines the unique drive mode of each pin in a GPIO port.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_DR</td>
<td>Data written to this register specifies the high (Data=1) or low (Data=0) state for the GPIO pin at each bit location of the selected port.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**21.3.4.2 Pin Wise Configuration Register Alias**

The port pin configuration registers (PRTxPC0 through PRTxPC7) access several configuration or status bits of a single I/O port pin at once, as shown in Figure 21-5 on page 193.

**Figure 21-5** shows an example of a read from {PRT*_PC[4]}. Bit four of the port control registers associated with the port configuration register is read and driven onto the data bus.
21.3.4.3 Port Wide Configuration Register Alias

The Port Configuration Register accesses several available configuration registers on a port-wide basis with a single bit write.

This register PRT*_PRT aliases a subset of the configuration registers, allowing the user to configure a complete port in a single write.

Figure 21-6. [PRT*.PRT] Write Example

21.3.5 SFR to GPIO

All I/Os allow 8051 Special Function Register (SFR) direct read/write access to the data register and read access to the pin state register. This feature gives the user another method to read from and write to the ports.

I/O ports are linked to the CPU through the PHUB. In addition, all of the I/O ports are linked to the SFR bus. Each of the I/O ports supports two interfaces: the SFR bus and the PHUB bus. The SFR bus allows for the most efficient I/O access during normal operation, while the PHUB bus provides full control to all I/O registers.

As shown in Table 21-3, SFR registers contain three registers for each I/O port.

Table 21-3. SFR Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIOx</td>
<td>Sets the output data state for port x with respect to setting in SFR_USER_GPIOx_SEL register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIOx_SEL</td>
<td>Sets output for each bit in port x register to corresponding pin in port x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIRDx</td>
<td>Read only register; contains pin state value of port x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21-4 shows three examples illustrating results from setting selected bits in the SFR register.

Table 21-4. SFR Register Bit Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Settings</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For Port 0, Bit 0</td>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIO0_SEL, bit0=1; SFR_USER_GPIO0, bit 0=1</td>
<td>Port0 [0] =1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Port 0, Bit 0</td>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIO0_SEL, bit0=1; SFR_USER_GPIO0, bit 0=0</td>
<td>Port0 [0] =0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Port 0, Bit 0</td>
<td>SFR_USER_GPIO0_SEL, bit0=0; SFR_USER_GPIO0, bit 0=1</td>
<td>SFR does not set corresponding GPIO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For more information, see the 8051 Core chapter on page 37.

21.3.6 Digital I/O Controlled Through DSI

GPIO, USBIO, and SIO pins are connected to the internal peripheral blocks through the UDB via the digital system interconnect (DSI). Any peripheral connected to the UDB can be connected to any I/O pin through the DSI.

Each port has 20 unique connections to the UDB through DSI: eight inputs, eight outputs, and four output control signals.

21.3.6.1 DSI Output

The bypass register (PRTx_BYP) selects either the selected DSI output signal or the data register (PRTx_DR) to drive the port pin.

Mapping of the DSI signal to the output pin is illustrated in Figure 21-7 on page 195.

Together, output select registers PRTx_OUT_SEL1 and PRTx_OUT_SEL0 select the DSI output signal to drive the corresponding output port pin.
21.3.6.2  **DSI Input**

The port pin input is directly connected to the UDB array through DSI for routing the input to various internal peripheral blocks. The control for these port inputs are at the DSI inputs. See the **Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)** chapter on page 213 for port-to-DSI connections.

21.3.6.3  **DSI for Output Enable Control**

High-speed bidirectional capability is provided through the (PRT*_BIE) register. When this mode is enabled and the auxiliary control signal is high, the I/O pin immediately goes into a High Z output drive state with input buffer enabled. When this signal is low (or returns low), the I/O pin assumes the pin state configured through the (PRT*_DM[2]), (PRT*_DM[1]), and (PRT*_DM[0]) registers. This allows fast turnaround of the I/O pin. Four DSI control signals are available for dynamic drive control of the pins. Mapping of the DSI control signal to port pin output enable is shown in **Figure 21-8 on page 196**.
21.3.7 Analog I/O

The only way that analog signals can pass to and from the PSoC core is through GPIO.

To connect a pin to an internal analog resource through analog global bus or analog mux line, each GPIO connects to one of the analog global lines and to one of the analog mux lines. The switches that connect the I/O pin to Analog global lines and analog mux line are configured by the \(\text{PRT}_x^* \_AG\) and \(\text{PRT}_x^* \_AMUX\) registers.

Refer to the Analog Routing chapter on page 359 for a description of the analog global network configuration. Selected pins provide direct connections to specific analog features, such as DACs or uncommitted opamps.

For analog I/O pins, the drive mode should be configured to High Z Analog in most situations, which disables the input buffer. The input buffer can also be disabled using the port input disable (\(\text{PRT}_x \_INP\_DIS\)) register. The buffer should remain enabled to allow simultaneous use of the pin as a digital input and analog input or output.

21.3.8 LCD Drive

All GPIO pins can be configured for LCD drive capabilities. \(\text{PRT}_x^* \_LCD\_EN\) registers are used to enable individual pins for LCD drive. \(\text{PRT}_x^* \_LCD\_COM\_SEG\) registers are used to select whether a pin is set as a common or segment drive pin.
In LCD mode, the GPIO pins are configured into a High Z output mode, allowing the LCD drivers to control the pin state.

### 21.3.9 CapSense

All GPIO pins can be used to create CapSense buttons and sliders. The primary analog bus for CapSense is the AMUX-BUS, which has two nets (AMUXBUSL and AMUXBUSR) for two simultaneous sensing operations. These can also be shorted to form a single net that connects to all GPIOs. See the CapSense® chapter on page 397 for more information.

### 21.3.10 External Memory Interface (EMIF)

The EMIF uses the port interface and the UDB to connect to external memory. When in EMIF mode, the ports directly pass to the pads the address and data out from the PHUB. Data reads from the EMIF pass through the port to the PHUB. See the EMIF chapter on page 133 for more information.

### 21.3.11 SIO Functions and Features

GPIO and SIO provide similar digital functionality. The primary differences are in their analog capability and drive strength. This section describes adjustable input and output level and hot swap features that are available only with SIO.

#### 21.3.11.1 Regulated Output Level

SIO port pins support the ability to provide a regulated high output level. This can be useful for interfacing to external signals with voltages lower than the SIO $V_{ddio}$. This regulated output sets the $V_{oh}$ for the SIO pair. The SIO are grouped into pairs. Each pair shares the same reference generator, thus the regulated output level applies for both pins.

Configuration is provided for each SIO pair through the \{PRT*_SIO_CFG\} registers, as shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(vreg_en[y])</th>
<th>(ibuf_sel[y])</th>
<th>Mode Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single Ended Input Buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Differential Input Buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single Ended Input Buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Differential Input Buffer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 21.3.11.2 Adjustable Input Level

SIO pins support a differential input mode with programmable thresholds. The SIO pair input buffer voltage levels are set by the \(vref\_sel\) and \(vtrip\_sel\) bits of the \{PRT*SIO_DIFF\} register. See the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(vref_sel[y])</th>
<th>(vtrip_sel[y])</th>
<th>Mode Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.5 × (vcc_io)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4 × (vcc_io)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.5 × (voh_ref)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(voh_ref)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 21-9. SIO Configuration Diagram

![Diagram of SIO configuration](image-url)
21.3.11.3 Hot Swap
SIO pins support hot swap capability. It is possible to connect to another system without loading the signals connected to the SIO pins and without applying power to the PSoC device.

The unpowered PSoC device can maintain a high impedance load to the external device while preventing the PSoC device from being powered through a GPIO pin’s protection diode.

21.3.12 Special Functionality
Special purpose capability may uniquely exist on some pins such as:
- 4 to 25 MHz crystal input and output
- 32 kHz crystal input and output
- Test modes
- \( \text{i}^2\text{C} \)
- SPI
- CAN
- USB

Special functions and peripherals such as \( \text{i}^2\text{C} \), crystal oscillators, USB, XRES_N, JTAG TAP, SWD, high-current DAC outputs, \( V_{\text{REF}} \) inputs, and high drive analog output buffers have fixed pin assignments.

The \( \text{i}^2\text{C} \) block supports three pin assignment options: SIO pin pair P12[0:1], SIO pin pair P12[4:5], or any GPIO / SIO pin pair routed via the DSI.

System reset (XRES_N, active low, resistive pull up) functionality is supported on either the dedicated XRES_N pin or the P1[2] GPIO (since the XRES_N pin is not bonded on the 48-pin package). The IEEE 1149.1 JTAG TAP five pin interface may be enabled on the P1[0:1,3:5] pins.

Serial wire debug is supported over the USBIO pins (P15[6:7]) or the same pins as TMS / TCK (P1[0:1]). Analog function fixed pin assignments include two pairs of VIDAC outputs to support high-current mode, two \( V_{\text{REF}} \) inputs, and four sets of analog output buffer pins. The “left side” VIDAC and analog buffer pins are assigned to port 0 and are available on all package options. The “right side” VIDAC and linear buffer pins are assigned to port 3 and are available on all package options except the 48-pin package.
Table 21-7. Fixed Pin Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Signal Name</th>
<th>Pad #</th>
<th>Pad Name</th>
<th>Pad Type</th>
<th>TQPF 100</th>
<th>QFN 68</th>
<th>SSOP 48</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I²C</td>
<td>SCL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>P12[4]</td>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SIO pair on Vio2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDA</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>P12[5]</td>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SCL</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>P12[0]</td>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SDA</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>P12[1]</td>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHz ECO</td>
<td>Xo</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>P15[0]</td>
<td>GPIO / Xtal</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xi</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>P15[1]</td>
<td>GPIO / Xtal</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 kHz ECO</td>
<td>Xo</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>P15[2]</td>
<td>GPIO / Xtal</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Xi</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>P15[3]</td>
<td>GPIO / Xtal</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XRES_N</td>
<td>XRES_N</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>XRES_N</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Fixed function XRES_N / TSTRST_N pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE 1149.1 JTAG TAP</td>
<td>TMS</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>P1[0]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TCK</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>P1[1]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TDO</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>P1[3]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serial Wire Debug</td>
<td>SWDIO</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>P1[0]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>SWD on GPIO pins option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SWDCK</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>P1[1]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>SWD on GPIO pins option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SWO</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>P1[7]</td>
<td>USBIO</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>SWD on USB pins option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIDAC High Current Output</td>
<td>Abuffer0L</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>P0[6]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuffer1L</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>P0[7]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuffer0R</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>P3[0]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuffer1R</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>P3[1]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Vref</td>
<td>Exref0</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>P0[3]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exref1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>P3[2]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analog Linear Output Buffer</td>
<td>Abuf0+</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>P0[2]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf0-</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>P0[3]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf0out</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>P0[1]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf1+</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>P3[4]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf1-</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>P3[5]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf1out</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>P3[6]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf2+</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>P0[4]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf2-</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>P0[5]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf2out</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>P0[0]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf3-</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>P3[2]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf3+</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>P3[3]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abuf3out</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>P3[7]</td>
<td>GPIO</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21.3.13 I/O Port Reconfiguration

Care must be taken not to lose the current configuration during reconfiguration of pins when the device is connected directly to a digital peripheral. The I/O pins should hold their current configurations during a reconfiguration. If the ports are driven by the data registers, configuration maintenance is automatic.

However, if the ports are bypassed and driven by the DSI, the current value must be read and written to the data register (PRT*_DR) before initiating reconfiguration. Saving of the current configuration occurs as follows:

1. The software reads the GPIO / SIO pin state, PRT*_PS.
2. The software writes this value into the data registers, PRT*_DR.
3. I/O ports driven by the DSI must be driven by the data register by de-asserting the bypass register value, PRT*_BYP.

At this point, it is safe to reconfigure the device. When reconfiguration is complete, the I/O sources can be driven by the DSI by setting the PRT*_BYP register value.

21.3.14 Power Up I/O Configuration

By default, all I/Os power up in a known state, either driving a 0, driving a 1, or set to High Z. Input buffers are disabled during power up. The value set in the nonvolatile (NV) latches determines the value driving each port.

A pair of NV latches is associated with each I/O port; these latches serve two functions:

- Latch values configure the pins on a port-wide basis during power up.
- Latch values load reset values for the drive mode and data registers to correctly configure the port, when IPOR_disabled is deasserted.

See the Nonvolatile Latch chapter on page 121 for more information.

If the NVLs are set to 0x00 for the port, by default all I/Os reset to the High Impedance Analog state but are reprogrammable on a port-by-port basis. They can be reset as High Impedance Analog, Pull Down, or Pull Up, based on the requirements of the application.

21.3.15 Overvoltage Tolerance

All I/O pins provide an overvoltage (V_{ddio} < V_{in} < V_{dda}) tolerance feature at any operating voltage. Limitations include the following:

- No current limitations for the SIO pins, because they present a high impedance load to the external circuit.
- GPIO pins must be limited to 100 µA, using a current limiting resistor. Outside the current limitation, GPIO pins clamp the pin voltage to approximately one diode above the V_{ddio} supply.

A common application for this feature is connection to a bus such as I²C, where different devices are running from different supply voltages. In the I²C case, the PSoC device is configured into the Open Drain, Drives Low mode using an SIO pin. This allows an external pull up to pull the I²C bus voltage above the pin's V_{ddio} supply. For example, the PSoC device could operate at 1.8V, and an external device could run from 5V. The SIO pin's V_{IH} and V_{IL} levels are determined by the associated V_{ddio} supply pin.

The I/O pin must be configured into a High Impedance drive mode, Open Drain Low mode, or Resistive Pull Down mode, for overvoltage tolerance to work properly.

Absolute maximum ratings for the device must be observed for all I/O pins.

21.3.16 I/O Power Supply

The V_{ddio} supply must be less than or equal to the voltage on the device's V_{dda} pin. This feature allows users to provide different I/O interface levels for different pins on the device. Refer to the datasheet to determine V_{ddio} capability for a given device and pin.

SIO port pins support an additional regulated high output capability, as discussed in 21.3.11.2 Adjustable Input Level.

21.3.17 Sleep Mode Behavior

The GPIO/SIO pad will maintain the current pin state during sleep modes. Port pin interrupts remain active in all sleep modes, allowing the PSoC device to wake from an externally generated interrupt.

21.3.18 Low Power Behavior

In all low power modes, I/O pins retain their states until the part is awakened and changed or reset. To awaken the part, use a pin interrupt, because the port interrupt logic continues to function in all low power modes.
21.4 Port Interrupt Controller Unit

This section describes the functions of the port interrupt controller unit (PICU) for PSoC I/O.

21.4.1 Features

The features of the PICU are as follows:

- All eight pins in each port interface with their own PICU and associated interrupt vector
- Pin status bits provide easy determination of interrupt source down to the pin level
- Rising/falling/either edge interrupts are handled
- Pin interrupts can be individually enabled or disabled
- Interfaces to the PHUB for read and write into its registers
- Sends out a single interrupt request (PIRQ) signal to the interrupt controller

21.4.2 Interrupt Controller Block Diagram

Figure 21-11 is a block diagram of the PICU showing the function of control signal generation and data manipulation blocks. These blocks send appropriate control signals to interrupt-generating pin logic blocks, simultaneously recording these signals in status and snap registers.
21.4.3 Function and Configuration

Each pin of the port can be configured independently to generate interrupt on rising edge, falling edge, or either edge. Level sensitive interrupts are not directly supported. UDB provides this functionality to the system when needed. This configuration is done by writing into the interrupt type register corresponding to each pin. The sequence is as follows:

1. Depending on the configured mode for each pin, whenever the selected edge occurs on a pin, its corresponding status bit in the status register is set to ‘1’, and an interrupt request is sent to the interrupt controller.

2. Status bits that have ‘1’ are cleared upon a read of the status register. Other bits of the status register can still respond to incoming interrupt sources.

3. If an interrupt is pending, and the status register is being read, all of the incoming events on the same interrupt source (GPIO) are blocked until the read is complete. However, all of the other interrupt sources that were not pending an interrupt in status register are not blocked.

4. Each PICU has a wakeup_in input and a wakeup_out output signal. The wakeup_in signal in a PICU is ORed together with other pin interrupts to generate a wakeup_out signal, as shown in Figure 21-11.

5. All of the PICUs are daisy chained together to generate a final wakeup signal that goes to the power manager.

21.5 Register Summary

Registers shown in Table 21-8 are associated with a single I/O port and are specific to both the GPIO and SIO ports.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_DR)</td>
<td>The Port Data Output register sets the data output state for the corresponding GPIO port. It is aliased to continuous address space in the PRT*_DR_ALIASED registers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_PS)</td>
<td>The Port Pin State register reads the logical pin state for the corresponding GPIO port. It is aliased to continuous address space in the PRT*_PS_ALIASED registers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT<em>_DM</em>)</td>
<td>The Port Drive Mode registers ([PRT<em>_DM[0]], [PRT</em>_DM[1]], and [PRT*_DM[2]]) specify the drive mode for I/O pins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_SLW)</td>
<td>The Port Slew Control register sets the slew rate for pin outputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_BYP)</td>
<td>The Port Bypass register selects port output data from either the data output register or digital global input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_BIE)</td>
<td>The Port Bidirectional Enable register enables dynamic bidirectional mode at any pin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_INP_DIS)</td>
<td>The Port Input Buffer disable allows the user to override the input buffer default drive mode settings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_BIT_MSK)</td>
<td>Mask of which bits within the [PRT<em>_DR] and [PRT</em>_PS] are accessible via read / writes to [PRT<em>_DR_ALIAS] and reads of [PRT</em>_PS_ALIAS].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_AG)</td>
<td>The Analog Global control enable register selects on a pin-by-pin basis whether to connect the pin to the analog global bus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_AMUX)</td>
<td>The Analog Global Multiplexer Register selects on a pin-by-pin basis whether to connect the pin to the analog mux bus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_PRT)</td>
<td>The Port Configuration Register allows configuration of several configuration bits of the entire I/O port simultaneously. This register aliases the port functional registers on a port-wide basis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT<em>_PC</em>)</td>
<td>The Port Pin Configuration Registers ([PRT<em>_PC[0]] through [PRT</em>_PC[7]]) access several configuration or status bits of a single I/O port pin simultaneously. These registers alias the functional registers on a pin-by-pin basis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_DR_ALIAS)</td>
<td>Aliased port data. Allows read / write access to [PRT<em>_DR] if [PRT</em>_BIT_MSK] is set. Allows access to all port data registers as a contiguous block simplifying DMA access.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PRT*_PS_ALIAS)</td>
<td>Aliased port data. Allows read access to [PRT<em>_PS] if [PRT</em>_BIT_MSK] is set. Allows access to all port state registers as a contiguous block simplifying DMA access.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21-9 shows registers specific to a GPIO port.

Table 21-9. GPIO Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_CTL}</td>
<td>Port-wide configuration register. This contains the portEmifCfg[2:0] and port-wide vtrip_sel for the corresponding GPIO register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_LCD_COM_SEG}</td>
<td>LCD com_seg setting. This selects common or segment mode when the LCD is enabled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_LCD_EN}</td>
<td>LCD enable, allows port pins not connected to LCD to be used for other functions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21-10 shows registers specific to an SIO port.

Table 21-10. SIO Port Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_SIO_DIFF}</td>
<td>Differential input buffer reference voltage select, 2 bits per SIO pair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_SIO_CFG}</td>
<td>Input buffer enable and Output buffer Configuration, 2 bits per SIO pair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_SIO_HYST_EN}</td>
<td>Differential hysteresis enable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Registers shown in Table 21-11 involve DSI bit selection. These registers are associated with all I/O ports and are located within the port logic.

Table 21-11. DSI Selection Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{PRT<em>_OUT_SEL</em>}</td>
<td>Data output from UDB to Digital System Array Input Select registers. There are two select lines per port pin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT<em>_OE_SEL</em>}</td>
<td>UDB set dynamic Output Enable control select. There are two select lines per port pin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_DBL_SYNC_IN}</td>
<td>The Port Double Sync In register enables synchronization of the data in from the port before driving the digital system interconnect (DSI) signals to the UDB.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PRT*_SYNC_OUT}</td>
<td>The Port Sync Out register enables synchronization of the data in from the UDB digital system interconnect (DSI) using the existing {PRT*_DR} register.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21-12 shows the register associated with the PICU.

Table 21-12. PICU-Associated Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{PICU<em>_INTTYPE</em>}</td>
<td>This register defines the interrupt type to configure the pin interrupt – 1 register for each pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PICU*_INTSTAT}</td>
<td>Status register provides information on currently posted interrupts – 1 register for each PICU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{PICU*_SNAP}</td>
<td>The Port Snapshot register provides information on the state of the input pins at the most recent read to the status (INTSTAT) register – 1 register for each PICU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices offer a host of Flash and configuration protection options and device security features that can be leveraged to meet the security and protection requirements of an application. These requirements range from protecting configuration settings or Flash data to locking the entire device from external access. The following section discusses in detail these features together with their usage cases.

22. Flash, Configuration Protection

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 architectures provide a variety of Flash and configuration protection options and device security features that can be utilized to meet the security and protection requirements of an application. These requirements range from protecting configuration settings or Flash data to locking the entire device from external access. The following section discusses these features in detail together with their usage cases.

22.1 Flash Protection

The objective of Flash protection is to prevent access or modification to the Flash contents. The only nonvolatile (NV) storage on a PSoC 3 or PSoC 5 device that has protection options is the Flash; there are no EEPROM and NV latch protection options. Flash memory in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architectures is organized as Flash arrays. Depending on the Flash memory size, there can be one or more than one Flash array. Each Flash array can have a maximum of 256 rows. Each Flash array row has 256 bytes of data. PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architectures offer customers the ability to assign one of four protection levels to each row of Flash in a device. For each Flash array, Flash protection bits are stored in a hidden row in that array. In the hidden row, two protection bits per row are packed into a byte, so each byte in the hidden row has protection settings for four Flash rows. The Flash rows are ordered so that the first two bits in the hidden row correspond to the protection settings of Flash row 0 (see Figure 22-1). Refer to the Flash Program Memory chapter on page 129 to learn more about Flash memory organization in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 22-1. Flash Protection Modes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Applies to Test Controller and Read commands.

When a read/write/erase operation is done for a row, the corresponding protection bits are checked. The command is executed only if allowed under the current protection mode. If the command is not allowed, the command fails.

As shown in Table 22-1, four Flash protection levels are available for every row of Flash in a device. A customer may
Flash, Configuration Protection

choose any one of these protection levels independent of the protection choice for all other rows in the Flash.

The following list provides a few additional details on the features and use cases for each of these protection levels.

- **00 – No Protection**
  - No external device can read a flash block that is read protected.
  - The SPC Read commands cannot be used to read a block that is read protected.
  - Only the processor and the PHUB can access a block of Flash that is read protected.
  - Offers only read protection.

- **01 – Read Protect**
  - No external device can read a flash block that is read protected.
  - The SPC Read commands cannot be used to read a block that is read protected.
  - Only the processor and the PHUB can access a block of Flash that is read protected.
  - Offers only read protection.

- **10 – External Write Protection**
  - No external device can erase or write a row of Flash that is external write protected.
  - Includes all Read Protect restrictions.
  - Boot loaders work at this protection level.

- **11 – Fully Protected**
  - The processor cannot erase or write a block of Flash that is fully protected.
  - Includes all protections from lower levels of Flash data protection.
  - This level is used when a block of Flash should never be modified by an internal process or external device.

### 22.2 Device Security

The objective of device security is to prevent the PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 device in an application from being used as a host to compromise the application. The device security feature is enabled by writing to the Write Once (WO) latch.

The WO latch is a type of nonvolatile latch. When the output is ‘1’, the Write Once NVL locks the part out of Debug and Test modes; it also permanently gates off the ability to erase or alter the contents of the latch.

The user can write a correct 32-bit key (0x50536F43) into the WO latch to disable the part from entering into Debug and Test modes. This precaution prevents anyone from erasing or altering the content of the internal memory.

If the device is protected with a WO latch setting, Cypress cannot perform failure analysis and, therefore, cannot accept an RMA from customers. The WO latch is read out via serial wire debug (SWD) to electrically identify protected parts. The user writes the key in the WO latch to lock out external access only if no Flash protection is set. However, after setting the values in the WO latch, a user still has access to the device until it is reset. The output of the WOL is only sampled upon reset. Therefore, a user could write the key into the WO latch, program the Flash protection data, and then reset the part to lock it.

Refer to the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 for information about writing to the Write Once (WO) nonvolatile latch.

### 22.3 Configuration Segment Protection

Part of the PSoC platform’s value to customers is its ability to change the functionality of the device in real time. Changing the functionality can be as simple as enabling an external crystal or as dramatic as changing the functionality of UDBs from timers to CRC generators. Based on the application needs, the customer may also want to protect certain Configuration registers.

Not all configuration registers need the same level of security and protection. Hence, the configuration registers are grouped into four segments, with registers assigned to a segment based on the presumed application use cases. The following list defines the different segments. Refer to the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual), to find out the segment to which a particular configuration register is assigned.

**Segment 0.** One time system settings. This segment has system registers that are configured only once during program execution. The registers in this segment come under the following broad categories:

- Power System
- Reset
- Watchdog
- Internal low speed oscillator (ILO)

**Segment 1.** Reconfigurable system settings. This segment has registers that can be reconfigured during program execution. The registers in this segment come under the following broad categories:

- LVI Detect
- Voltage regulators
- Power Manager
- Wakeup Sources
- Boost Converter

**Segment 2.** UDB array configuration registers.

All UDB array configuration registers, such as the clock selection and datapath input/output multiplexer selection, come under this segment.
Segment 3. Analog interface (Registers related to analog interface configuration).

It must be noted that Segment 0 registers can be configured either as the one time configurable or reconfigurable type. The same applies to Segment 1 and Segment 2 registers as well. But as a best practice, it is advisable to set Segment 0 registers as one time configurable. The settings for the rest of the segments depend on application requirements. To find out the segment to which a register is allocated, see the segment field for the register in the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual).

Write access to the Configuration registers in various segments is enabled using the Segment Configuration register (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0). Write access to the Segment Configuration register (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0) is enabled using the Segment Control register (MLOGIC_SEG_CR).

22.3.1 Locking/Unlocking Segment Configuration Register

The 8-bit Segment Control register (MLOGIC_SEG_CR) is used to control write access to the Segment Configuration register (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0) bits. By default, write access to the Segment Configuration register is disabled. Attempted writes will appear to execute normally, but the contents of the register will remain unchanged.

Segment configuration write access is enabled by writing 0xB5 to the Segment Control register and is disabled by writing 0xB4 to the Segment Control register. Upon device reset, the Segment Control register resets to the locked state and disables write to the Segment Configuration register.

When illegal values (values other than 0xB4 and 0xB5) are written to the Segment Control register, it causes a device reset and is indicated by the Segment reset (SEGRS) bit in Reset Status (RESET_SR1) register. The segment reset bit remains set until cleared by the user or POR.

22.3.2 Locking and Protecting Segments

The 8-bit Segment Configuration register (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0) holds a pair of bits for each segment (Segment 0 to Segment 3) that are used to regulate access to the Configuration registers in that segment. The pair consists of one protect bit and one lock bit; these bits operate independently of each other.

Protect Bit. The segment protect (LOCK_PROTECT_x) bit controls the ability to write the segment’s lock bit.

If the segment protect bit is ‘0’, the segment’s lock bit can be written as a ‘0’ or ‘1’ at anytime. If the protect bit is ‘1’, the segment’s lock bit cannot be modified.

The segment protect (LOCK_PROTECT_x) bit is a write-to1 once bit. It cannot change from a ‘1’ to a ‘0’ except as a result of a hardware reset, such as a POR or XRES_N. For one time configuration of a segment, it must be locked and protected after configuration.

Lock Bit. The segment lock (LOCK_x) bit controls the write access to the Configuration registers in the segment. Setting the LOCK_x bit prevents write access to the Control registers; clearing the lock bit allows a write.

For dynamic configuration of a segment, it must not be protected and can be locked after every configuration.

Table 22-2 describes the behavior for different protect and lock bit settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protect/Lock Bits</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00b</td>
<td>The Configuration registers are not protected and not locked. They can be written at anytime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01b</td>
<td>The Configuration registers are not protected but locked. This is used to temporarily lock the configuration and is used in the case of dynamic reconfiguration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10b</td>
<td>The Configuration register are protected and not locked. They can be written at anytime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11b</td>
<td>The Configuration registers are protected and locked. This is used for one time configuration.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 22-3. Segment 0: One Time System Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Register Names</th>
<th>PHUB Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reset</td>
<td>RESET.CR3</td>
<td>0x46F7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.CR4</td>
<td>0x46F8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.CR5</td>
<td>0x47F9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.TR</td>
<td>0x46FB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.IPOR_CR0</td>
<td>0x46F0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.IPOR_CR1</td>
<td>0x46F1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.IPOR_CR2</td>
<td>0x46F2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.IPOR_CR3</td>
<td>0x46F3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power System</td>
<td>MFGCFG.HIB_TR0</td>
<td>0x4680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.HIB_TR1</td>
<td>0x4681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.I2C_TR</td>
<td>0x4682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.SLP_TR</td>
<td>0x4683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.BUZZ_TR</td>
<td>0x4684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.WAKE_TR0</td>
<td>0x4685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.WAKE_TR1</td>
<td>0x4686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.BREF_TR</td>
<td>0x4687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.BG_TR</td>
<td>0x4688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.WAKE_TR2</td>
<td>0x4689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.WAKE_TR3</td>
<td>0x468a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PWRSYS.CR0</td>
<td>0x4330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>MFGCFG.ILO_TR0</td>
<td>0x4690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.ILO_TR1</td>
<td>0x4691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SLOWCLK.ILO.CR0</td>
<td>0x4300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watchdog</td>
<td>PM.WDT_CFG</td>
<td>0x4383</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 22-4. Segment 1: Reconfigurable System Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Register Names</th>
<th>PHUB Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LVI Detect</td>
<td>RESET.CR0</td>
<td>0x46F4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.CR1</td>
<td>0x46F5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RESET.CR2</td>
<td>0x46F6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volt Regulators</td>
<td>PWRSYS.CR1</td>
<td>0x4331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power Manager</td>
<td>PM.TW_CFG0</td>
<td>0x4380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.TW_CFG1</td>
<td>0x4381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.TW_CFG2</td>
<td>0x4382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.WDT_CR</td>
<td>0x4384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.MODE_CFG0</td>
<td>0x4391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.MODE_CFG1</td>
<td>0x4392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.MODE_CSR</td>
<td>0x4393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wakeup Sources</td>
<td>PM.WAKEUP_CFG0</td>
<td>0x4398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PM.WAKEUP_CFG1</td>
<td>0x4399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boost</td>
<td>BOOST.CR0</td>
<td>0x4320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOOST.CR1</td>
<td>0x4321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOOST.CR2</td>
<td>0x4322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BOOST.CR3</td>
<td>0x4323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Clock</td>
<td>FASTCLK.*</td>
<td>0x4200-0x42FF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.IMO.*</td>
<td>0x46A0-0x46A7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.XMHZ.TR</td>
<td>0x46A8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FLASH LPM</td>
<td>0x4801</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 22-5. Segment 2: UDB Array

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Register Names</th>
<th>PHUB Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UDB Config</td>
<td>UCFG.*</td>
<td>0x10000-0x150FF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 22-6. Segment 3: Analog Interface

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Register Names</th>
<th>PHUB Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analog IF</td>
<td>ANAIF.*</td>
<td>0x5800-0x5FFFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MFGCFG.ANAIF.*</td>
<td>0x4600-0x467F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 22.3.3 Example

The device peripherals are enabled/disabled by the PM_ACT_CFG* registers in Active mode. These registers are mapped in Segment1. The following steps explain the procedure to configure these registers and then lock the configuration information so that runaway code does not overwrite the values.

1. Write 0xB5 to the Segment Control register (MLOGIC_SEG_CR) to enable the write access to the Segment Configuration register.
2. Clear the lock bit for Segment 1 to get write access to the Configuration registers in Segment 1. This is done by clearing the lock bit corresponding to Segment 1, which is MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0[2]. Here, it is assumed that the protect bit for this segment, MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0[3], is not set. If the protect bit has been set by the user, the lock bit cannot be modified, other than by a device reset.
3. Write to the Active Power Mode Template registers (PM_ACT_CFG*) to enable/disable the required peripherals.
4. Set the lock bit (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0[2]) and clear the protect bit (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0[3]) for Segment 1 in the Segment Configuration register (MLOGIC_SEG_CFG0).
5. Write 0xB4 to the Segment Control register to disable the write access to the Segment Configuration register.

### 22.4 Frequently Asked Questions About Best Practices for Flash Protection and Device Security

**Question 1.** How do I decide on the Flash protection level needed for the application?

The protection settings for Flash memory must be set based on the following criteria:

- If the application warrants the need for a field upgrade, then set the Disable External Write mode for the Flash rows that are going to be updated in the field. This allows you to use the bootloader application to update the flash using communication interfaces such as I2C and USB.
- If the application code must be protected from being copied or modified to protect IP, the Flash security level for the rows containing the IP code must be set to Full Protection mode.

**Question 2.** Is it possible to modify the Flash protection settings that have already been set?

It is not possible to directly alter the Flash protection setting. The only way to change the Flash protection settings is to completely erase the entire Flash memory using the Erase All command, reprogram the Flash memory, and then set the new protection settings. Refer to the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 to learn more about Flash erase/program commands.

**Question 3.** Is it possible to reprogram a Flash memory that has been configured with Full Protection?

The only way to reprogram the fully protected rows is to erase the entire Flash memory using the Erase All command, reprogram the Flash memory, and then set the new protection settings as described in Question 2 above.

**Question 4.** Is it necessary to enable protection for the entire Flash memory, or only the for the region of Flash memory that the application uses?

It is sufficient to configure Flash security for memory regions that are used by the application, leaving the unused locations unprotected, provided that there is no possibility of the program execution going to the unprotected region. If there is a possibility of code executing from the unprotected region (due to, for instance, function calls), malicious code can be written in the unprotected region to read the Flash data in the fully protected region. Remember that internal read is permitted in all protection modes; therefore, it is always a good practice to set protection for the entire Flash memory.
**Question 5.** Is it ever necessary to configure different protection settings for different memory regions?

Yes, depending on the application requirements. Different flash rows may need different protection settings. A typical example would be the case of field upgrade using the bootloader component. The portion of Flash that needs to be upgraded in the field with bootloadable code must be configured in External Write Protect mode. The remaining Flash memory (base code or bootloader code, unused flash memory) can be set to Full Protection.

**Question 6.** Are Flash protection settings obeyed in Debug mode?

The Read Protection setting is not obeyed in Debug mode, which means the Flash memory can be read regardless of Flash protection setting. The Write Protection setting is still intact. Setting Full Protection makes it impossible to write to the Flash memory in Debug mode.

Because the Debug mode is used during the application development phase, there is no need to protect the Flash. After the application development phase is over, and code has been finalized, the user can disable the debug feature.

**Question 7.** What is device security?

Device security is the feature in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architecture that prevents the device from entering Debug and Test modes. To enable device security, write a 32-bit key (0x50536F43) into the Write Once (WO) latch. After writing this key, the device cannot be reprogrammed by entering test mode. Entering debug mode while using JTAG boundary scan is also not possible. This prevents external access to registers and nonvolatile memory. Refer to Device Security on page 206 of this chapter to learn more about device security.

**Question 8.** What are the risks associated with enabling device security?

If the device is protected with a WO latch setting, Cypress cannot perform failure analysis and, therefore, cannot accept RMAs from customers. The WO latch can be read via the SWD to electrically identify protected parts.

**Question 9.** Are device security and flash protection interrelated or independent?

The answer is both. While flash protection settings and device security are configured independently, enabling device security does not allow external read or write of Flash memory, regardless of the flash protection settings. There is one important exception. Even with device security enabled, it is still possible to update the Flash memory using a bootloader application, provided the Flash memory is not fully protected.

**Question 10.** Is it possible to implement OTP (one time programmable) functionality such that Flash content can never be altered after it is programmed?

The Full Protection setting for Flash memory, along with the device security feature can prevent the Flash from ever being modified. This combination is the highest level of security setting available in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. The steps to do this are given below

1. Erase the entire Flash memory using the Erase All command
2. Reprogram the Flash content.
3. Write a 32-bit key (0x50536F43) into the WO latch to enable device security.
4. Set Flash Protection setting to Full Protection.
5. Reset the part to lock it.
Section E: Digital System

The digital subsystems of PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 architectures provide these devices their first half of unique configurability. The subsystem connects a digital signal from any peripheral to any pin through the Digital System Interconnect (DSI). It also provides functional flexibility through an array of small, fast, low-power Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs).

PSoC Creator™ provides a library of pre-built and tested standard peripherals that are mapped onto the UDB array by the tool (UART, SPI, LIN, PRS, CRC, timer, counter, PWM, AND, OR, and so on). Nonstandard peripherals are easily implemented using a Hardware Description Language (HDL) such as Verilog. Each UDB contains Programmable Array Logic (PAL) and Programmable Logic Device (PLD) functionality, together with a small state machine engine to support a wide variety of peripherals.

In addition to the flexibility of the UDB array, PSoC devices provide configurable digital blocks targeted at specific functions. These blocks can include 16-bit timer/counter/PWM blocks, \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) slave/master/multi-master, Full Speed USB, and CAN 2.0b. Refer to the device datasheet for a list of available specific function digital blocks.

This section encompasses the following chapters:

- Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) chapter on page 213
- UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect chapter on page 255
- Controller Area Network (CAN) chapter on page 263
- USB chapter on page 279
- Timer, Counter, and PWM chapter on page 295
- \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) chapter on page 311
- Digital Filter Block (DFB) chapter on page 327
Top Level Architecture

Digital System Block Diagram

System Bus

DIGITAL SYSTEM

Universal Digital Block Array (N x UDB)

- CAN 2.0
- I2C Master/Slave
- FS USB 2.0

Usage Example for UDB

- UART
- Logic
- 12-Bit PWM
- 8-Bit Timer Quadrature Decoder
- 16-Bit PRS
- 8-Bit SPI
- USB 2.0 PHY

CAN 2.0

I2C Master/Slave

FS USB 2.0

USB PHY

N x Timer Counter PWM

D+ D-
This chapter shows how the PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) enable the development of programmable digital peripheral functions. The UDB architecture provides balance between configuration granularity and efficient implementation; UDBs consist of a combination of uncommitted logic similar to programmable logic devices (PLDs), structured logic (datapaths), and a flexible routing scheme.

23.1 Features

- For optimal flexibility, each UDB contains several components:
  - ALU-based 8-bit datapath (DP) with an 8-word instruction store and multiple registers and FIFOs
  - Two PLDs, each with 12 inputs, eight product terms and four macrocell outputs
  - Control and status modules
  - Clock and reset modules
- A PSoC 3 or PSoC 5 device contains an array of up to 24 UDBs
- Flexible routing through the UDB array
- Portions of UDBs can be shared or chained to enable larger functions
- Flexible implementations of multiple digital functions, including timers, counters, PWM (with dead band generator), UART, I²C, SPI, and CRC generation/checking

23.2 Block Diagram

Figure 23-1 on page 214 illustrates the UDB as a construct containing a pair of basic PLD logic blocks, a datapath, and control, status, clock and reset functions.
23.3 How It Works

The major components of a UDB are:

- **PLDs (2)** – These blocks take inputs from the routing channel and form registered or combinational sum-of-products logic to implement state machines, control for datapath operations, conditioning inputs, and driving outputs.

- **Datapath** – This block contains a dynamically programmable ALU, four registers, two FIFOs, comparators, and condition generation.

- **Control and Status** – These modules provide a way for CPU firmware to interact and synchronize with UDB operation. Control registers drive internal routing, and status registers read internal routing.

- **Reset and Clock Control** – These modules provide clock selection and enabling, and reset selection, for the other blocks in the UDB.

- **Chaining Signals** – The PLDs and datapath have chaining signals that enable neighboring blocks to be linked, to create higher precision functions.

- **Routing Channel** – UDBs are connected to the routing channel through a programmable switch matrix for connections between blocks in one UDB, and to all other UDBs in the array. Routing is covered in detail in the UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect chapter on page 255.

- **System Bus Interface** – All registers and RAM in each UDB are mapped into the system address space and are accessible by the CPU and DMA as both 8-bit and 16-bit data.

23.3.1 PLDs

There are two “12C4” PLDs in each UDB. PLD blocks, shown in Figure 23-2 on page 215, can be used to implement state machines, perform input or output data conditioning, and to create lookup tables (LUTs). PLDs may also be configured to perform arithmetic functions, sequence the datapath, and generate status. General purpose RTL can be synthesized and mapped to the PLD blocks. This section presents an overview of the PLD design.

A PLD has 12 inputs which feed across eight product terms (PT) in the AND array. In a given product term, the true (T) or complement (C) of the input can be selected. The output of the PTs are inputs into the OR array. The 'C' in 12C4 indicates that the OR terms are constant across all inputs, and each OR input can programmatically access any or all of the PTs. This structure gives maximum flexibility and ensures that all inputs and outputs are permutable.
23.3.1.1 **PLD Macrocells**

The macrocell architecture is shown in Figure 23-3 on page 216. The output drives the routing array, and can be registered or combinational. The registered modes are D Flip-Flop with true or inverted input, and Toggle Flip-Flop on input high or low. The output register can be set or reset for purposes of initialization, or asynchronously during operation under control of a routed signal.
PLD Macrocell Read Only Register

In addition to driving the routing array, the outputs of the macrocells from both PLDs are mapped into the address space as an 8-bit read only register, which can be accessed by the CPU or DMA.
23.3.1.2 PLD Carry Chain

PLDs are chained together in UDB address order. As shown in Figure 23-6 the carry chain input “selin” is routed from the previous UDB in the chain, through each macrocell in both of the PLDs, and then to the next UDB as the carry chain out “selout”. To support the efficient mapping of arithmetic functions, special product terms are generated and used in the macrocell in conjunction with the carry chain.

Figure 23-5. PLD Carry Chain and Special Product Term Inputs

23.3.1.3 PLD Configuration

Each PLD appears to the CPU or DMA as a 16-bit wide RAM. The AND array has 12 X 8 X 2 bits, or 24 bytes, for programming, and the OR array has 4 x 8 bits, or 4 bytes, for programming. In addition, each macrocell has one configuration byte, resulting in 32 total configuration bytes per PLD. Since each UDB contains two PLDs, there are 64 total PLD configuration bytes per UDB. See UDB Configuration Address Space on page 252 for more information.

23.3.2 Datapath

The datapath, shown in Figure 23-6 below, contains an 8-bit single-cycle ALU, with associated compare and condition generation circuits. A datapath may be chained with datapaths in neighboring UDBs to achieve higher precision functions. The datapath includes a small RAM-based control store, which can dynamically select the operation to perform in a given cycle.

The datapath is optimized to implement typical embedded functions such as timers, counters, PWMs, PRS, CRC, shifters and dead band generators. The addition of add and subtract functions allow support for digital delta-sigma operations.
Figure 23-6. Datapath Top Level

Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)
23.3.2.1 Overview

The following sections present an overview description of key datapath features:

**Dynamic Configuration**

Dynamic configuration is the ability to change the datapath function and interconnect on a cycle-by-cycle basis, under sequencer control. This is implemented using the configuration RAM, which stores eight unique configurations. The address input to this RAM can be routed from any block connected to the routing fabric, most typically PLD logic, I/O pins, or other datapaths.

**ALU**

The ALU can perform eight general-purpose functions: increment, decrement, add, subtract, AND, OR, XOR, and PASS. Function selection is controlled by the configuration RAM on a cycle-by-cycle basis. Independent shift (left, right, nibble swap) and masking operations are available at the output of the ALU.

**Conditionals**

Each datapath has two comparators, with bit masking options, which can be configured to select a variety of datapath register inputs for comparison. Other detectable conditions include all zeros, all ones, and overflow. These conditions form the primary datapath output selects to be routed to the digital routing fabric or inputs to other functions.

**Built in CRC/PRS**

The datapath has built-in support for single-cycle Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) computation and Pseudo Random Sequence (PRS) generation of arbitrary width and arbitrary polynomial specification. To achieve longer than 8-bit CRC/PRS widths, signals may be chained between datapaths. This feature is controlled dynamically, and therefore can be interleaved with other functions.

**Variable MSB**

The most significant bit of an arithmetic and shift function can be programmatically specified. This supports variable width CRC/PRS functions and, in conjunction with ALU output masking, can implement arbitrary width timers, counters, and shift blocks.

**Input/Output FIFOs**

Each datapath contains two 4-byte FIFOs, which can be individually configured for direction as an input buffer (CPU or DMA writes to the FIFO, datapath internals read the FIFO), or an output buffer (datapath internals write to the FIFO, the CPU or DMA reads from the FIFO). These FIFOs generate status that can be routed to interact with sequencers, interrupt, or DMA requests.

**Chaining**

The datapath can be configured to chain conditions and signals with neighboring datapaths. Shift, carry, capture, and other conditional signals can be chained to form higher precision arithmetic, shift, and CRC/PRS functions.

**Time Multiplexing**

In applications that are oversampled, or do not need the highest clock rates, the single ALU block in the datapath can be efficiently shared between two sets of registers and condition generators. ALU and shift outputs are registered and can be used as inputs in subsequent cycles. Usage examples include support for 16-bit functions in one (8-bit) datapath, or interleaving a CRC generation operation with a data shift operation.

**Datapath Inputs**

The datapath has three types of inputs: configuration, control, and serial and parallel data. The configuration inputs select the control store RAM address. The control inputs load the data registers from the FIFOs and capture accumulator outputs into the FIFOs. Serial data inputs include shift in and carry in. A parallel data input port allows up to eight bits of data to be brought in from routing.

**Datapath Outputs**

There are a total of 16 signals generated in the datapath. Some of these signals are conditional signals (for example, compares), some are status signals (for example, FIFO status), and the rest are data signals (for example, shift out). These 16 signals are multiplexed into the six datapath outputs and then driven to the routing matrix. By default the outputs are single synchronized (pipelined). A combinational output option is also available for these outputs.
**Datapath Working Registers**

Each datapath module has six 8-bit working registers. All registers are readable and writable by CPU or DMA:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accumulator</td>
<td>A0, A1</td>
<td>The accumulators may be both a source and a destination for the ALU. They may also be loaded from a Data register or a FIFO. The accumulators typically contain the current value of a function, such as a count, CRC, or shift. These registers are nonretention; they lose their values in sleep and are reset to 0x00 on wakeup.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data</td>
<td>D0, D1</td>
<td>The Data registers typically contain constant data for a function, such as a PWM compare value, timer period, or CRC polynomial. These registers retain their values across sleep intervals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIFOs</td>
<td>F0, F1</td>
<td>The two 4-byte FIFOs provide both a source and a destination for buffered data. The FIFOs can be configured as both input buffers, both output buffers, or as one input buffer and one output buffer. Status signals indicate the read and write status of these registers. Usage examples include buffered TX and RX data in the SPI or UART and buffered PWM compare and buffered timer period data. These registers are nonretention; they lose their values in sleep and are reset to 0x00 on wakeup.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input/Output</td>
<td>In input mode the CPU or DMA writes to the FIFO and the data is read and consumed by the datapath internals. In output mode the FIFO is written to by the datapath internals and is read and consumed by the CPU or DMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Buffer</td>
<td>The FIFO operates as a single buffer with no status. Data written to the FIFO is immediately available for reading, and can be overwritten at anytime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level/Edge</td>
<td>The control to load the FIFO from the datapath internals can be either level or edge triggered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Datapath FIFOs**

**FIFO Modes and Configurations**

Each FIFO has a variety of operation modes and configurations available:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal/Fast</td>
<td>The control to load the FIFO from the datapath source is sampled on the currently selected datapath clock (normal) or the bus clock (fast). This allows captures to occur at the highest rate in the system (bus clock), independent of the datapath clock.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Software Capture</td>
<td>When this mode is enabled, and the FIFO is in output mode, a read by the CPU or DMA of the associated accumulator (A0 for F0, A1 for F1) initiates a synchronous transfer of the accumulator value into the FIFO. The captured value may then be immediately read from the FIFO. If chaining is enabled, the operation follows the chain to the MS block for atomic reads by datapaths of multi-byte values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asynch</td>
<td>When the datapath is being clocked asynchronously to the bus clock, the FIFO status signals can be routed to the rest of the datapath either directly, single sampled to the DP clock, or double sampled in the case of an asynchronous DP clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Clock Polarity</td>
<td>Each FIFO has a control bit to invert polarity of the FIFO clock with respect to the datapath clock.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 23-7** shows the possible FIFO configurations controlled by the input/output modes. The TX/RX mode has one FIFO in input mode and the other in output mode. The primary usage example of this configuration is SPI. The dual capture configuration provides independent capture of A0 and A1, or two separately controlled captures of either A0 or A1. Finally, the dual buffer mode can provide buffered periods and compares, or two independent periods/compares.
Figure 23-7. FIFO Configurations

Figure 23-8 shows a detailed view of the FIFO sources and sinks.
Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)

When the FIFO is in input mode, the source is the system bus and the sinks are the Dx and Ax registers. When in output mode, the sources include the Ax registers and the ALU, and the sink is the system bus. The multiplexer selection is statically set in UDB configuration register CFG15 as shown in the following table for the F0_INSEL[1:0] or F1_INSEL[1:0]:

### Table 23-3. FIFO Multiplexer Set in UDB Configuration Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fx_INSEL[1:0]</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Input Mode - System bus writes the FIFO, FIFO output destination is Ax or Dx.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Output Mode - FIFO input source is A0, FIFO output destination is the system bus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Output Mode - FIFO input source is A1, FIFO output destination is the system bus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Output Mode - FIFO input source is the ALU output, FIFO output destination is the system bus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FIFO Status

Each FIFO generates two status signals, "bus" and "block," which are sent to the UDB routing through the datapath output multiplexer. The "bus" status can be used to assert an interrupt or DMA request to read/write the FIFO. The "block" status is primarily intended to provide the FIFO state to the UDB internals. The meanings of the status bits depend on the configured direction (Fx_INSEL[1:0]) and the FIFO level bits. The FIFO level bits (Fx_LVL) are set in the Auxiliary Control Working register in working register space. Options are shown in the following table:

### Table 23-4. FIFO Status Options

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fx_INSEL[1:0]</th>
<th>Fx_LVL</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Signal</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not Full</td>
<td>Bus Status</td>
<td>Asserted when there is room for at least 1 byte in the FIFO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>At Least Half Empty</td>
<td>Bus Status</td>
<td>Asserted when there is room for at least 2 bytes in the FIFO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Empty</td>
<td>Block Status</td>
<td>Asserted when there are no bytes left in the FIFO. When not empty, the datapath internals may consume bytes. When empty the datapath may idle or generate an underrun condition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not Empty</td>
<td>Bus Status</td>
<td>Asserted when there is at least 1 byte available to be read from the FIFO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>At Least Half Full</td>
<td>Bus Status</td>
<td>Asserted when there are at least 2 bytes available to be read from the FIFO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Block Status</td>
<td>Asserted when the FIFO is full. When not full, the datapath internals may write bytes to the FIFO. When full, the datapath may idle or generate an overrun condition.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FIFO Illustrated Operation

Figure 23-9 on page 223 illustrates a typical sequence of reads and writes and the associated status generation. Although the figure shows reads and writes occurring at different times, a read and write could also occur simultaneously.
FIFO Fast Mode (FIFO FAST)

When the FIFO is configured for output, the FIFO load operation normally uses the currently selected datapath clock for sampling the write signal. As shown in Figure 23-10, with the FIFO fast mode set, the bus clock can be optionally selected for this operation. Used in conjunction with edge sensitive mode, this operation reduces the latency of accumulator-to-FIFO transfer from the resolution of the DP clock to the resolution of the bus clock, which can be much higher. This allows the CPU or DMA to read the captured result in the FIFO with minimal latency.

As shown in Figure 23-10, the fast load operation is independent of the currently selected datapath clock, however, using the bus clock may cause higher power consumption.
**FIFO Edge/Level Write Mode**

There are two modes for writing the FIFO from the datapath. In the first mode, data is synchronously transferred from the accumulators to the FIFOs. The control for that write (FX_LD) is typically generated from a state machine or condition that is synchronous to the datapath clock. The FIFO will be written in any cycle where the input load control is a ‘1’. In the second mode, the FIFO is used to capture the value of the accumulator in response to a positive edge of the FX_LD signal. In this mode the duty cycle of the waveform is arbitrary (however, it must be at least one datapath clock cycle in width). An example of this mode is capturing the value of the accumulator using an external pin input as a trigger. The limitation of this mode is that the input control must revert to ‘0’ for at least one cycle before another positive edge is detected.

Figure 23-11 shows the edge detect option on the FX_LD control input. One bit for this option sets the mode for both FIFOs in a UDB. Note that edge detection is sampled at the rate of the selected FIFO clock.

![Figure 23-11. Edge Detect Option for Internal FIFO Write Sinks](image)

**FIFO Software Capture Mode**

A common and important requirement is to allow the CPU or DMA the ability to reliably read the contents of an accumulator during normal operation. This is done with software capture and is enabled by setting the FIFO Cap configuration bit. This bit applies to both FIFOs in a UDB, but is only operational when a FIFO is in output mode. When using software capture, F0 should be set to load from A0 and F1 from A1.

As shown in Figure 23-12, reading the accumulator triggers a write to the FIFO from that accumulator. This signal is chained so that a read of a given byte simultaneously captures accumulators in all chained UDBs. This allows an 8-bit processor to reliably read 16 bits or more simultaneously. The data returned in the read of the accumulator should be ignored; the captured value may be read from the FIFOs immediately.

![Figure 23-12. FIFO Software Capture Mode](image)

The routed FX_LD signal, which generates a FIFO load, is ORed with the software capture signal; the results could be unpredictable when both hardware and software capture are used at the same time. As a general rule these functions should be mutually exclusive, however, hardware and software capture can be used simultaneously with the following settings:

- FIFO capture clocking mode is set to FIFO FAST
- FIFO write mode is set to FIFO EDGE

With these settings, hardware and software capture work essentially the same and in any given bus clock cycle, either signal asserted initiates a capture.

It is also recommended to clear the target FIFO in firmware (ACTL register) before initiating a software capture. This initializes the FIFO read and write pointers to a known state.
FIFO Control Bits

There are four bits in the Auxiliary Control register that may be used to control the FIFO during normal operation.

The FIFO0 CLR and FIFO1 CLR bits are used to reset or flush the FIFO. When a ‘1’ is written to one of these bits, the associated FIFO is reset. The bit must be written back to ‘0’ for FIFO operation to continue. If the bit is left asserted, the given FIFO is disabled and operates as a one byte buffer without status. Data can be written to the FIFO; the data is immediately available for reading and can be overwritten at anytime. Data direction using the Fx INSEL[1:0] configuration bits is still valid.

The FIFO0 LVL and FIFO1 LVL bits control the level at which the 4-byte FIFO asserts bus status (when the bus is either reading or writing to the FIFO) to be asserted. The meaning of FIFO bus status depends on the configured direction, as shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIFOx LVL</th>
<th>Input Mode (Bus is Writing FIFO)</th>
<th>Output Mode (Bus is Reading FIFO)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Not Full At least 1 byte can be written</td>
<td>Not Empty At least 1 byte can be read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>At Least Half Empty At least 2 bytes can be written</td>
<td>At Least Half Full At least 2 bytes can be read</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIFO Asynchronous Operation

Figure 23-13 illustrates the concept of asynchronous FIFO operation. As an example, assume F0 is set for input mode and F1 is set for output mode, which is a typical configuration for TX and RX registers.

On the TX side, the datapath state machine uses “empty” to determine if there are any bytes available to consume. Empty is set synchronously to the DP state machine, but is cleared asynchronously due to a bus write. When cleared, the status is synchronized back to the DP state machine.

On the RX side, the datapath state machine uses “full” to determine whether there is a space left to write to the FIFO. Full is set synchronously to the DP state machine, but is cleared asynchronously due to a bus read. When cleared, the status is synchronized back to the DP state machine.

A single FIFO ASYNCH bit is used to enable this synchronization method; when set it applies to both FIFOs. It is only applied to the block status, as it is assumed that bus status is naturally synchronized by the interrupt process.

FIFO Overflow Operation

Use FIFO status signaling to safely implement both internal (datapath) and external (CPU or DMA) reads and writes. There is no built-in protection from underflow and overflow conditions. If the FIFO is full, and subsequent writes occur (overflow), the new data overwrites the front of the FIFO (the data currently being output, the next data to read). If the FIFO is empty, and subsequent reads occur (underflow), the read value is undefined. FIFO pointers remain accurate regardless of underflow and overflow.
FIFO Clock Inversion Option

Each FIFO has a control bit called Fx CK INV that controls the polarity of the FIFO clock, with respect to the polarity of the DP clock. By default the FIFO operates at the same polarity as the DP clock. When this bit is set, the FIFO operates at the opposite polarity as the DP clock. This provides support for “both clock edge” communication protocols, such as SPI.

FIFO Dynamic Control

Normally, the FIFOs are configured statically in either input or output mode. As an alternative, each FIFO can be configured into a mode where the direction is controlled dynamically, that is, by routed signals. One configuration bit per FIFO (Fx DYN) enables the mode. Figure 23-14 on page 227 shows the configurations available in dynamic FIFO mode.
In internal access mode, the datapath can read and write the FIFO. In this configuration, the Fx INSEL bits must be configured to select the source for the FIFO writes. Fx INSEL = 0 (CPU bus source) is invalid in this mode; they can only be 1, 2 or 3 (A0, A1, or ALU). Note that the only read access is to the associated accumulator; the data register destination is not available in this mode.

In external access mode, the CPU or DMA can both read and write the FIFO.

The configuration between internal and external access is dynamically switchable using datapath routing signals. The datapath input signals d0_load and d1_load are used for this control. Note that in the dynamic control mode, d0_load and d1_load are not available for their normal use in loading the D0/D1 registers from F0/F1. The dx_load signals can be driven by any routed signal, including constants.

In one usage example, starting with external access (dx_load == 1), the CPU or DMA can write one or more bytes of data to the FIFO. Then toggling to internal access (dx_load == 0), the datapath can perform operations on the data. Then toggling back to external access, the CPU or DMA can read the result of the computation.

Since the Fx INSEL must always be set to 01, 10 or 11 (A0, A1, or ALU), which is “output mode” in normal operation, the FIFO status signals have the following definitions (also dependent on Fx LVL control):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status Signal</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Fx LVL = 0</th>
<th>Fx LVL = 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fx_blk_stat</td>
<td>Write Status</td>
<td>FIFO full</td>
<td>FIFO full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fx_bus_stat</td>
<td>Read Status</td>
<td>FIFO not empty</td>
<td>At least ½ full</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the datapath and CPU may both write and read the FIFO, these signals are no longer considered “block” and “bus” status. The blk_stat signal is used for write status, and the bus_stat signal is used for read status.

23.3.2.3 FIFO Status

There are four FIFO status signals, two for each FIFO: fifo0_bus_stat, fifo0_blk_stat, fifo1_bus_stat and fifo1_blk_stat. The meaning of these signals depends on the direction of the given FIFO, which is determined by static configuration. FIFO status is covered in detail in section 23.3.2.2 Datapath FIFOs on page 220.

23.3.2.4 Datapath ALU

The ALU core consists of three independent 8-bit programable functions, which include an arithmetic/logic unit, a shifter unit, and a mask unit.
Arithmetic and Logic Operation

The ALU functions, which are configured dynamically by the RAM control store, are shown in the following table:

Table 23-7. ALU Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Func[2:0]</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>000</td>
<td>PASS</td>
<td>srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>INC</td>
<td>++srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>--srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>srca + srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>SUB</td>
<td>srcb - srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>XOR</td>
<td>srca ^ srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>AND</td>
<td>srca &amp; srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>srca</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carry In

The carry in is used in arithmetic operations. There is a default carry in value for certain functions as shown in Table 23-8.

Table 23-8. Carry In Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Default Carry In Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>++srca</td>
<td>srca + 00h + ci, where ci is forced to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>--srca</td>
<td>srca + ffh + ci, where ci is forced to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>srca + srcb</td>
<td>srca + srcb + ci, where ci is forced to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB</td>
<td>srcb - srca</td>
<td>srcb + ~srcb + ci, where ci is forced to 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to this default arithmetic mode for carry operation, there are three additional carry options. The CI SELA and CI SELB configuration bits determine the carry in for a given cycle. Dynamic configuration RAM selects either the A or B configuration on a cycle-by-cycle basis. The options are defined in Table 23-9.

Table 23-9. Additional Carry In Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CI SELA CI SEL B</th>
<th>Carry Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Default</td>
<td>Default arithmetic mode as described in Table 23-8.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Registered</td>
<td>Carry Flag, result of the carry from the previous cycle. This mode is used to implement carry in for add and subtract with borrow operations. It can be used in successive cycles to emulate a double precision operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Routed</td>
<td>Carry is generated elsewhere and routed to this input. This mode can be used to implement controllable counters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Chained</td>
<td>Carry is chained from the previous datapath. This mode can be used to implement single cycle operations of higher precision involving two or more datapaths.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When a routed carry is used, the meaning with respect to each arithmetic function is shown in Table 23-10. Note that in the case of the decrement and subtract functions, the carry is active low (inverted).

Table 23-10. Routed Carry In Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Carry In Polarity</th>
<th>Carry In Active</th>
<th>Carry In Inactive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>++srca</td>
<td>srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>Inverted</td>
<td>--srcb</td>
<td>srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>(srca + srcb) + 1</td>
<td>srca + srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB</td>
<td>Inverted</td>
<td>(srca - srcb) - 1</td>
<td>(srca - srcb)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carry Out

The carry out is a selectable datapath output and is derived from the currently defined MSB position, which is statically programmable. This value is also chained to the next most significant block as an optional carry in. Note that in the case of decrement and subtract functions, the carry out is inverted.

Table 23-11. Carry Out Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Carry Out Polarity</th>
<th>Carry Out Active</th>
<th>Carry Out Inactive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>++srca == 0</td>
<td>srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>Inverted</td>
<td>--srca == -1</td>
<td>srca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>True</td>
<td>srca + srcb &gt; 255</td>
<td>srca + srcb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB</td>
<td>Inverted</td>
<td>srca - srcb &lt; 0</td>
<td>(srca - srcb)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carry Structure

Options for carry in, and for MSB selection for carry out generation, are shown in Figure 23-15 on page 229. The registered carry out value may be selected as the carry in for a subsequent arithmetic operation. This feature can be used to implement higher precision functions in multiple cycles.
Shift Operation

The shift operation occurs independently of the ALU operation, according to Table 23-12.

Table 23-12. Shift Operation Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shift[1:0]</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Shift Left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Shift Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Nibble Swap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A shift out value is available as a datapath output. Both shift out right (sor) and shift out left (sol_msb) share that output selection. A static configuration bit (SHIFT SEL in register CFG15) determines which shift output is used as a datapath output. When no shift is occurring, the sor and sol_msb signal is defined as the LSB or MSB of the ALU function, respectively.

The SI SELA and SI SELB configuration bits determine the shift in data for a given operation. Dynamic configuration RAM selects the A or B configuration on a cycle-by-cycle basis. Shift in data is only valid for left and right shift; it is not used for pass and nibble swap. The selections and usage apply to both left and right shift directions and are shown in Table 23-13.

Table 23-13. Shift In Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI SEL A</th>
<th>SI SEL B</th>
<th>Shift In Source</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td></td>
<td>Default/Arithmetic</td>
<td>The default input is the value of the DEF SI configuration bit (fixed 1 or 0). However, if the MSB SI bit is set, then the default input is the currently defined MSB (for right shift only).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td></td>
<td>Registered</td>
<td>The shift in value is driven by the current registered shift out value (from the previous cycle). The shift left operation uses the last shift out left value. The shift right operation uses the last shift out right value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Routed</td>
<td>Shift in is selected from the routing channel (the SI input).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chained</td>
<td>Shift in left is routed from the right datapath neighbor and shift in right is routed from the left datapath neighbor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The shift out left data comes from the currently defined MSB position, and the data that is shifted in from the left (in a shift right operation) goes into the currently defined MSB position. Both shift out data (left or right) are registered and can be used in a subsequent cycle. This feature can be used to implement a higher precision shift in multiple cycles.
Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)

Note that the bits that are isolated by the MSB selection are still shifted. In the example shown, bit 7 still shifts in the s1 value on a right shift and bit 5 shifts in bit 4 on a left shift. The shift out either right or left from the isolated bits is lost.

**ALU Masking Operation**

An 8-bit mask register in the UDB static configuration register space defines the masking operation. In this operation, the output of the ALU is masked (ANDed) with the value in the mask register. A typical use for the ALU mask function is to implement free-running timers and counters in power of two resolutions.

### 23.3.2.5 Datapath Inputs and Multiplexing

The datapath has a total of nine inputs as shown in Table 24-16, including six inputs from the channel routing. These consist of the configuration RAM address, FIFO and data register load control signals, and the data inputs shift in and carry in.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RAD2</td>
<td>RAD1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F0 LD</td>
<td>F1 LD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D0 LD</td>
<td>D1 LD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>This is a data input value that can be used for either shift in left or shift in right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>This is the carry in value used when the carry in select control is set to &quot;routed carry.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Figure 23-17, each input has a 6-to-1 multiplexer, therefore, all inputs are permutable. Inputs are handled in one of two ways, either level sensitive or edge sensitive. RAM address, shift in and data inputs in values are level sensitive; FIFO and data register load signals are edge sensitive.

![Figure 23-17. Datapath Input Select](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 23-14. Datapath Inputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAD2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F0 LD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D0 LD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 23.3.2.6 CRC/PRS Support

The datapath can support Cyclic Redundancy Checking (CRC) and Pseudo Random Sequence (PRS) generation. Chaining signals are routed between datapath blocks to support CRC/PRS bit lengths of longer than 8 bits.

The most significant bit (MSB) of the most significant block in the CRC/PRS computation is selected and routed (and chained across blocks) to the least significant block. The MSB is then XORed with the data input (SI data) to provide the feedback (FB) signal. The FB signal is then routed (and chained across blocks) to the most significant block. This feedback value is used in all blocks to gate the XOR of the polynomial (from the Data0 or Data1 register) with the current accumulator value.

Figure 23-18 shows the structural configuration for the CRC operation. The PRS configuration is identical except that the shift in (SI) is tied to ‘0’. In the PRS configuration, D0 or D1 contain the polynomial value, while A0 or A1 contain the initial (seed) value and the CRC residual value at the end of the computation.

To enable CRC operation, the CFB_EN bit in the dynamic configuration RAM must be set to ‘1’. This enables the AND of SRCB ALU input with the CRC feedback signal. When set to zero, the feedback signal is driven to ‘1’, which allows for normal arithmetic operation. Dynamic control of this bit on a cycle-by-cycle basis gives the capability to interleave a CRC/PRS operation with other arithmetic operations.

![Figure 23-18. Datapath Input Select](image)
Figure 23-18. CRC Functional Structure

![CRC Functional Structure Diagram]

**CRC/PRS Chaining**

Figure 23-19 illustrates an example of CRC/PRS chaining across three UDBs. This scenario can support a 17- to 24-bit operation. The chaining control bits are set according to the position of the datapath in the chain as shown.

![CRC/PRS Chaining Configuration Diagram]

**How the CRC/PRS feedback signal (cfbo, cfbi) is chained:**
- If a given block is the least significant block, then the feedback signal is generated in that block from the built-in logic that takes the shift in from the right (sir) and XORs it with the MSB signal. (For PRS, the "sir" signal is tied to '0'.)
- If a given block is not the least significant block, the CHAIN FB configuration bit must be set and the feedback is chained from the previous block in the chain.

**How the CRC/PRS MSB signal (cmsbo, cmsbi) is chained:**
- If a given block is the most significant block, the MSB bit (according to the polynomial selected) is configured using the MSB_SEL configuration bits.
- If a given block is not the most significant block, the CHAIN MSB configuration bit must be set and the MSB signal is chained from the next block in the chain.

**CRC/PRS Polynomial Specification**

As an example of how to configure the polynomial for programming into the associated D0/D1 register, consider the CCITT CRC-16 polynomial, which is defined as $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$. The method for deriving the data format from the polynomial is shown in Figure 23-20.

The $x^0$ term is inherently always '1' and therefore does not need to be programmed. For each of the remaining terms in the polynomial, a '1' is set in the appropriate position in the alignment shown.

**Note** This polynomial format is slightly different from the format normally specified in HEX. For example, the CCITT CRC16 polynomial is typically denoted as 1021H. To convert to the format required for datapath operation, shift right by one and add a '1' in the MSB bit. In this case, the correct polynomial value to load into the D0 or D1 register is 8810H.
Example CRC/PRS Configuration

The following is a summary of CRC/PRS configuration requirements, assuming that D0 is the polynomial and the CRC/PRS is computed in A0:

1. Select a suitable polynomial (example above) and write it into D0.
2. Select a suitable seed value (for example, all zeros for CRC, all ones for PRS) and write it into A0.
3. Configure chaining if necessary as described above.
4. Select the MSB position as defined in the polynomial from the MSB_SEL static configuration register bits and set the MSB_EN register bit.
5. Configure the dynamic configuration RAM word fields:
   a. Select D0 as the ALU "SRCB" (ALU B Input Source)
   b. Select A0 as the ALU "SRCA" (ALU A Input Source)
   c. Select "XOR" for the ALU function
   d. Select "SHIFT LEFT" for the SHIFT function
   e. Select "CFB_EN" to enable the support for CRC/PRS
   f. Select ALU as the A0 write source

If a CRC operation, configure "shift in right" for input data from routing and supply input on each clock. If a PRS operation, tie "shift in right" to '0'.

Clocking the UDB with this configuration generates the required CRC or outputs the MSB, which may be output to the routing for the PRS sequence.

External CRC/PRS Mode

A static configuration bit may be set (EXT CRCPRS) to enable support for external computation of a CRC or PRS. As shown in Figure 23-21, computation of the CRC feedback is done in a PLD block. When the bit is set, the CRC feedback signal is driven directly from the CI (Carry In) data-path input selection mux, bypassing the internal computation. The figure shows a simple configuration that supports up to an 8-bit CRC or PRS. Normally the built-in circuitry is used, but this feature gives the capability for more elaborate configurations, such as up to a 16-bit CRC/PRS function in one UDB using time division multiplexing.

In this mode, the dynamic configuration RAM bit CFB_EN still controls whether the CRC feedback signal is ANDed with the SRCB ALU input. Therefore, as with the built-in CRC/PRS operation, the function can be interleaved with other functions if desired.
23.3.2.7 Datapath Outputs and Multiplexing

Conditions are generated from the registered accumulator values, ALU outputs, and FIFO status. These conditions can be driven to the digital routing for use in other UDB blocks, for use as interrupts or DMA requests, or to I/O pins. The 16 possible conditions are shown in the table below:

Table 23-15. Datapath Condition Generation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Chain?</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ce0</td>
<td>Compare Equal</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A0 == D0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cl0</td>
<td>Compare Less Than</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A0 &lt; D0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z0</td>
<td>Zero Detect</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A0 == 00h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ff0</td>
<td>Ones Detect</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A0 == FFh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ce1</td>
<td>Compare Equal</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A1 or A0 == D1 or A0 (dynamic selection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cl1</td>
<td>Compare Less Than</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A1 or A0 &lt; D1 or A0 (dynamic selection)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z1</td>
<td>Zero Detect</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A1 == 00h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1</td>
<td>Ones Detect</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>A1 == FFh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ov_msib</td>
<td>Overflow</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Carry(msib) ^ Carry(msib-1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co_msib</td>
<td>Carry Out</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Carry out of MSB defined bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cmsib</td>
<td>CRC MSB</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>MSB of CRC/PRS function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>Shift Out</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Selection of shift output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f0_blk_stat</td>
<td>FIFO0 Block Status</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Definition depends on FIFO configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1_blk_stat</td>
<td>FIFO1 Block Status</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Definition depends on FIFO configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f0_bus_stat</td>
<td>FIFO0 Bus Status</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Definition depends on FIFO configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1_bus_stat</td>
<td>FIFO1 Bus Status</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Definition depends on FIFO configuration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)

Comparators

There are two compares, one of which has fixed sources (Compare 0) and the other has dynamically selectable sources (Compare 1). Each compare has an 8-bit statically programmed mask register, which enables the compare to occur in a specified bit field. By default, the masking is off (all bits are compared) and must be enabled.

Comparator 1 inputs are dynamically configurable. As shown in the table below, there are four options for Comparator 1, which applies to both the "less than" and the "equal" conditions. The CMP SELA and CMP SELB configuration bits determine the possible compare configurations. A dynamic RAM bit selects one of the A or B configurations on a cycle-by-cycle basis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CMP SEL A</th>
<th>CMP SEL B</th>
<th>Comparator 1 Compare Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td></td>
<td>A1 Compare to D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td></td>
<td>A1 Compare to A0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>A0 Compare to D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>A0 Compare to A0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compare 0 and Compare 1 are independently chainable to the conditions generated in the previous datapath (in addressing order). Whether to chain compares or not is statically specified in UDB configuration registers. Figure 23-23 illustrates compare equal chaining, which is just an ANDing of the compare equal in this block with the chained input from the previous block.

Figure 23-23. Compare Equal Chaining

Figure 23-24 illustrates compare less than chaining. In this case, the "less than" is formed by the compare less than output in this block, which is unconditional. This is ORed with the condition where this block is equal, and the chained input from the previous block is asserted as less than.

Figure 23-24. Compare Less Than Chaining
**All Zeros and All Ones Detect**

Each accumulator has dedicated all zeros detect and all ones detect. These conditions are statically chainable as specified in UDB configuration registers. Whether to chain these conditions is statically specified in UDB configuration registers. Chaining of zero detect is the same concept as the compare equal. Successive chained data is ANDed if the chaining is enabled.

**Overflow**

Overflow is defined as the XOR of the carry into the MSB and the carry out of the MSB. The computation is done on the currently defined MSB as specified by the MSB_SEL bits. This condition is not chainable, however the computation is valid when done in the most significant datapath of a multi-precision function as long as the carry is chained between blocks.

### 23.3.2.8 Datapath Parallel Inputs and Outputs

As shown in Figure 23-25, the datapath Parallel In (PI) and Parallel Out (PO) signals give limited capability to bring routed data into and out of the Datapath. Parallel Out signals are always available for routing as the ALU asrc selection between A0 and A1.

![Datapath Parallel In/Out](image)

Parallel In needs to be selected for input to the ALU. There are two options, static operation or dynamic operation. For static operation, the PI SEL bit forces the ALU asrc to be PI. The PI DYN bit is used to enable the PI dynamic operation. When it is enabled, and assuming the PI SEL is 0, the PI multiplexer may then be controlled by the CFB_EN dynamic control bit. The primary function of the CFB_EN bit is to enable PRS/CRC functionality.

### 23.3.2.9 Datapath Chaining

Each datapath block contains an 8-bit ALU, which is designed to chain carries, shifted data, capture triggers, and conditional signals to the nearest neighbor datapaths, to create higher precision arithmetic functions and shifters. These chaining signals, which are dedicated signals, allow single-cycle 16-, 24- and 32-bit functions to be efficiently implemented without the timing uncertainty of channel routing resources. In addition, the capture chaining supports the ability to perform an atomic read of the accumulators in chained blocks. As shown in Figure 23-21, all generated conditional and capture signals chain in the direction of least significant to most significant blocks. Shift left also chains from least to most significant. Shift right chains from most to least significant. The CRC/PRS chaining signal for feedback chains least to most significant; the MSB output chains from most to least significant.
23.3.2.10 Dynamic Configuration RAM

Each datapath contains a 16 bit-by-8 word dynamic configuration RAM, which is shown in Figure 23-27. The purpose of this RAM is to control the datapath configuration bits on a cycle-by-cycle basis, based on the clock selected for that datapath. This RAM has synchronous read and write ports for purposes of loading the configuration via the system bus. An additional asynchronous read port is provided as a fast path to output these 16-bit words as control bits to the datapath. The asynchronous address inputs are selected from datapath inputs and can be generated from any of the possible signals on the channel routing, including I/O pins, PLD outputs, control block outputs, or other datapath outputs. The primary purpose of the asynchronous read path is to provide a fast single-cycle decode of datapath control bits.

The fields of this dynamic configuration RAM word are shown in the following tables. A description of the usage of each field follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFGRAM</td>
<td>61h - 6Fh (Odd)</td>
<td>FUNC[2:0]</td>
<td>SRCA</td>
<td>SRCB[1:0]</td>
<td>SHIFT[1:0]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFGRAM</td>
<td>60h - 6Eh (Even)</td>
<td>A0 WRSRC[1:0]</td>
<td>A1 WRSRC[1:0]</td>
<td>CFB</td>
<td>CI</td>
<td>SEL</td>
<td>SI</td>
<td>SEL</td>
<td>CMPSEL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 23-17. Dynamic Configuration Quick Reference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Bits</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FUNC[2:0]</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>ALU Function</td>
<td>000 PASS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>001 INC SRCA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>010 DEC SRCA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>011 ADD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100 SUB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>101 XOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>110 AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>111 OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRCA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ALU A Input Source</td>
<td>0 A0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRCB</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ALU B Input Source</td>
<td>00 D0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01 D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 A0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHIFT[1:0]</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>SHIFT Function</td>
<td>00 PASS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01 Left Shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 Right Shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 Nibble Swap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A0 WR SRC[1:0]</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A0 Write Source</td>
<td>00 None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01 ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 D0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 F0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1 WR SRC[1:0]</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>A1 Write Source</td>
<td>00 None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01 ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 F1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFB EN</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>CRC Feedback Enable</td>
<td>0 Enable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Disable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI SEL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Carry In Configuration Select</td>
<td>0 ConfigA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 ConfigB&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI SEL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Shift In Configuration Select</td>
<td>0 ConfigA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 ConfigB&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP SEL</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Compare Configuration Select</td>
<td>0 ConfigA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 ConfigB&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. For CI, SI, and CMP, the RAM fields select between two predefined static settings. See Static Register Configuration.

23.3.3 Status and Control Module

A high level view of the Status and Control module is shown in Figure 23-28. The Control register drives into the routing to provide firmware control inputs to UDB operation. The Status register read from routing provides firmware a method of monitoring the state of UDB operation.

![Figure 23-28. Status and Control Registers](image-url)
A more detailed view of the Status and Control module is shown in Figure 23-29. The primary purpose of this block is to coordinate CPU firmware interaction with internal UDB operation. However, due to its rich connectivity to the routing matrix, this block may be configured to perform other functions.

Figure 23-29. Status and Control Module

Modes of operation include:

- **Status Input** – The state of routing signals can be input and captured as status and read by the CPU or DMA.
- **Control Output** – The CPU or DMA can write to the control register to drive the state of the routing.
- **Parallel Input** – To datapath parallel input.
- **Parallel Output** – From datapath parallel output.
- **Counter Mode** – In this mode, the control register operates as a 7-bit down counter with programmable period and automatic reload. Routing inputs can be configured to control both the enable and reload of the counter. When this mode is enabled, control register operation is not available.
- **Sync Mode** – In this mode, the status register operates as a 4-bit double synchronizer. When this mode is enabled, status register operation is not available.

### 23.3.3.1 Status and Control Mode

When operating in status and control mode, this module functions as a status register, interrupt mask register, and control register in the configuration shown in Figure 23-30 on page 239.
Status Register Operation

One 8-bit, read only status register is available for each UDB. Inputs to this register come from any signal in the digital routing fabric. The Status register is nonretention; it loses its state across sleep intervals and is reset to 0x00 on wakeup. Each bit can be independently programmed to operate in one of two ways, as shown below:

Table 23-18. Status Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAT MD</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Transparent read. A read returns the current value of the routed signal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sticky, clear on read. A high on the input is sampled and captured. It is cleared when the register is read.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An important feature of the status register clearing operation is to note that the clear of status is only applied to the bits that are set. This allows other bits that are not set to continue to capture status, so that a coherent view of the process can be maintained.

Transparent Status Read

By default, a CPU read of this register transparently reads the state of the associated routing net. This mode can be used for a transient state that is computed and registered internally in the UDB.

Sticky Status, with Clear on Read

In this mode, the status register inputs are sampled on each cycle of the status and control clock. If the signal is high in a given sample, it is captured in the status bit and remains high, regardless of the subsequent state of the input. When the CPU or DMA reads the status register the bit is cleared. The status register clearing is independent of mode and occurs even if the UDB clock is disabled; it is based on the bus clock and occurs as part of the read operation.

Status Latching During Read

Figure 23-31 on page 240 shows the structure of the status read logic. The sticky status register is followed by a latch, which latches the status register data and holds it stable during the duration of the read cycle, regardless of the number of wait states in a given read.
Interrupt Generation

In most functions, interrupt generation is tied to the setting of status bits. As shown in Figure 23-31, this feature is built into the status register logic as the masking and OR reduction of status. Only the lower 7 bits of status input can be used with the built-in interrupt generation circuitry. The most significant bit is typically used as the interrupt output and may be routed to the interrupt controller through the digital routing. In this configuration, the MSB of the status register is read as the state of the interrupt bit.

23.3.3.2 Control Register Operation

One 8-bit control register is available for each UDB. This operates as a standard read/write register on the system bus, where the output of these register bits are selectable as drivers into the digital routing fabric.

The Control register is nonretention; it loses its contents across sleep intervals and is reset to 0x00 on wakeup.

Control Register Operating Modes

There are three available modes that may be configured on a bit-by-bit basis. The configuration is controlled by the concatenation of the bits of the two 8-bit registers CTL_MD1[7:0] and CTL_MD0[7:0]. For example {CTL_MD1[0],CTL_MD0[0]} controls the mode for Control Register bit 0, as shown in Figure 23-19.

Table 23-19. Mode for Control Register Bit 0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CTL_MD</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Direct mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Sync mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>(reserved)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pulse mode</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Control Register Direct Mode

The default mode is Direct mode. As shown in Figure 23-32, when the Control Register is written by the CPU or DMA the output of the control register is driven directly to the routing on that write cycle.

Control Register Sync Mode

In Sync mode, as shown in Figure 23-33, the control register output is driven by a re-sampling register clocked by the currently selected Status and Control (SC) clock. This allows the timing of the output to be controlled by the selected SC clock, rather than the bus clock.

Control Register Pulse Mode

Pulse mode is similar to Sync mode in that the control bit is re-sampled by the SC clock; the pulse starts on the first SC clock cycle following the bus write cycle. The output of the control bit is asserted for one full SC clock cycle. At the end of this clock cycle, the control bit is automatically reset.

With this mode of operation, firmware can write a 1 to a control register bit to generate a pulse. After it is written as a 1 it
Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs)

will be read back by firmware as a 1 until the completion of the pulse, after which it will be read back as a 0. The firmware can then write another 1 to start another pulse. A new pulse cannot be generated until the previous one has been completed. Therefore the maximum frequency of pulse generation is every other SC clock cycle.

Control Register Reset

The control register has two reset modes, controlled by the EXT RES configuration bit, as shown in Figure 23-34. When EXT RES is 0 (the default) then in sync or pulse mode the routed reset input resets the synced output but not the actual control bit. When EXT RES is 1 then the routed reset input resets both the control bit and the synced output.

Figure 23-34. Control Register Reset

23.3.3.3 Parallel Input/Output Mode

In this mode, the status and control routing is connected to the datapath parallel in and parallel out signals. To enable this mode, the SC OUT configuration bits are set to select datapath parallel out. The parallel input connection is always available, but these routing connections are shared with the status register inputs, counter control inputs, and the interrupt output.

Figure 23-35. Parallel Input/Output Mode
23.3.3.4 **Counter Mode**

As shown in Figure 23-36, when the block is in counter mode, a 7-bit down counter is exposed for use by UDB internal operation or firmware applications. This counter has the following features:

- A 7-bit read/write period register.
- A 7-bit read/write count register. It can be accessed only when the counter is disabled.
- Automatic reload of the period to the count register on terminal count (0).
- A firmware control bit in the Auxiliary Control Working register called CNT START, to start and stop the counter. (This is an overriding enable and must be set for optional routed enable to be operational.)
- Selectable bits from the routing for optional dynamic control of the counter enable and load functions:
  - EN, routed enable to start or stop counting.
  - LD, routed load signal to force the reload of period. When this signal is asserted, it overrides a pending terminal count. It is level sensitive and continues to load the period while asserted.
- The 7-bit count may be driven to the routing fabric as sc_out[6:0].
- The terminal count may be driven to the routing fabric as sc_out[7].

In default mode the terminal count is registered. In alternate mode the terminal count is combinational.

In default mode, the routed enable, if used, must be asserted for routed load to operate. In alternate mode the routed enable and routed load signals operate independently.

To enable the counter mode, the SC_OUT_CTI[1:0] bits must be set to counter output. In this mode the normal operation of the control register is not available. The status register can still be used for read operations, but should not be used to generate an interrupt because the mask register is reused as the counter period register. The Period register is retention and will maintain its state across sleep intervals. For a period of N clocks, the period value of N-1 should be loaded. N = 1 (period of 0) is not supported as a clock divide value, and will result in the terminal count output of a constant 1. The use of SYNC mode depends on whether or not the dynamic control inputs (LD/EN) are used. If they are not used, SYNC mode is unaffected. If they are used, SYNC mode is unavailable.
23.3.3.5  Sync Mode

As shown in Figure 23-37, the status register can operate as a 4-bit double synchronizer, clocked by the current SC_CLK, when the SYNC MD bit is set. This mode may be used to implement local synchronization of asynchronous signals, such as GPIO inputs. When enabled, the signals to be synchronized are selected from SC_IN[3:0], the outputs are driven to the SC_IO_OUT[3:0] pins, and SYNC MD automatically puts the SC_IO pins into output mode. When in this mode, the normal operation of the status register is not available, and the status sticky bit mode is forced off, regardless of the control settings for this mode. The control register is not affected by the mode. The counter can still be used with limitations. No dynamic inputs (LD/EN) to the counter can be enabled in this mode.

Figure 23-37. Sync Mode

23.3.3.6  Status and Control Clocking

The status and control registers require a clock selection for any of the following operating modes:

- Status register with any bit set to sticky, clear on read mode.
- Control register in counter mode.
- Sync mode.

The clock for this is allocated in the reset and clock control module. See 23.3.4 Reset and Clock Control Module on page 244.

23.3.3.7  Auxiliary Control Register

The read-write Auxiliary Control register is a special register that controls fixed function hardware in the UDB. This register allows CPU or DMA to dynamically control the interrupt, FIFO, and counter operation. The register bits and descriptions are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auxiliary Control Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNT START INT EN FIFO0 LVL FIFO0 LVL FIFO0 CLR FIFO0 CLR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIFO0 Clear, FIFO1 Clear

The FIFO0 CLR and FIFO1 CLR bits are used to reset the state of the associated FIFO. When a ‘1’ is written to these bits, the state of the associated FIFO is cleared. These bits must be written back to ‘0’ to allow FIFO operation to continue. When these bits are left asserted, the FIFOs operate as simple one-byte buffers, without status.

FIFO0 Level, FIFO1 Level

The FIFO0 LVL and FIFO1 LVL bits control the level at which the 4-byte FIFO asserts bus status (when the bus is either reading or writing to the FIFO) to be asserted. The meaning of FIFO bus status depends on the configured direction, as shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 23-20. FIFO Level Control Bits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIFOx LVL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrupt Enable

When the status register’s generation logic is enabled, the INT EN bit gates the resulting interrupt signal.

Count Start

The CNT START bit may be used to enable and disable the counter (only valid when the SC_OUT_CTL[1:0] bits are configured for counter output mode).
23.3.3.8 Status and Control Register Summary

The table below summarizes the function of the status and control registers. Note that the control and mask registers are shared with the count and period registers and the meaning of these registers is mode dependent.

Table 23-21. Status, Control Register Function Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Control/Count</th>
<th>Status/SYNC</th>
<th>Mask/Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Control Out</td>
<td>Status In or SYNC</td>
<td>Status Mask</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Count Out</td>
<td>Status In</td>
<td>Count Period(^a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Control Out or Count Out</td>
<td>Status Mask</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYNC</td>
<td>SYNC</td>
<td>NA(^b)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Note that in counter mode, the mask register is operating as a period register and cannot function as a mask register. Therefore, interrupt output is not available when counter mode is enabled.

\(^b\) Note that in SYNC mode, the status register function is not available, and therefore, the mask register is unusable. However, it can be used as a period register for count mode.

23.3.4 Reset and Clock Control Module

The primary function of the reset and clock block is to select a clock from the available global system clocks or bus clock for each of the PLDs, the datapath, and the status and control block. It also supplies dynamic and firmware-based resets to the UDB blocks. As shown in Figure 23-38, there are four clock control blocks, and one reset block. Four inputs are available for use from the routing matrix (RC_IN[3:0]). Each clock control block can select a clock enable source from these routing inputs, and there is also a multiplexer to select one of the routing inputs to be used as an external clock source. As shown, the external clock source selection can be optionally synchronized. There are a total of 10 clocks that can be selected for each UDB component: 8 global digital clocks, bus clock, and the selected external clock (ext clk). Any of the routed input signals (rc_in) can be used as either a level sensitive or edge sensitive enable. The reset function of this block provides a routed reset for the PLD blocks and SC counter, and a firmware reset capability to each block to support reconfiguration.

The bus clock input to the reset and clock control is distinct from the system bus clock. This clock is called “bus_clk_app” because it is gated just like the other global digital clocks and used for UDB applications. The system bus clock is only used for I/O access and is automatically gated, per access. The datapath clock generator produces three clocks: one for the datapath in general, and one for each of the FIFOs.
23.3.4.1 Clock Control

Figure 23-39 illustrates one instance of the clock selection and enable circuit. There are four of these circuits in each UDB: one for each of the PLD blocks, one for the datapath, and one for the status and control block. The main components of this circuit are a global clock selection multiplexer, clock inversion, clock enable selection multiplexer, clock enable inversion, and edge detect logic.
Clock Selection

There are eight global digital clocks routed to all UDBs; any of these clocks may be selected. Global digital clocks are the output of user selectable clock dividers. See the Clocking System chapter on page 147. Another selection is bus clock, which is the highest frequency in the system. Called “bus_clk_app,” this signal is routed separately from the system bus clock. In addition, an external routing signal can be selected as a clock input to support direct-clocked functions such as SPI. Since application functions are mapped to arbitrary boundaries across UDBs, individual clock selection for each UDB subcomponent block supports a fine granularity of programming.

Clock Inversion

The selected clock may be optionally inverted. This limits the maximum frequency of operation due to the existence of one half cycle timing paths. Simultaneous bus writes and internal writes (for example writing a new count value while a counter is counting) are not supported when the internal clock is inverted and the same frequency as bus clock. This limitation affects A0, A1, D0, D1, and the Control register in counter mode.

Clock Enable Selection

The clock enable signal may be routed to any synchronous signal and can be selected from any of the four inputs from the routing matrix that are available to this block.

Clock Enable Inversion

The clock enable signal may be optionally inverted. This feature allows the clock enable to be generated in any polarity.

Clock Enable Mode

By default, the clock enable is OFF. After configuring the target block operation, software can set the mode to one of the following using the CFGxEN MODE[1:0] register shown in Figure 23-39.

Table 23-22. Clock Enable Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clock Enable Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OFF</td>
<td>Clock is OFF.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ON</td>
<td>Clock is ON. The selected global clock is free running.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Edge</td>
<td>A gated clock is generated on each positive edge detect of the clock enable input. Maximum frequency of enable input is the selected global clock divided by two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Clocks are generated while the clock enable input is high (1').</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clock Enable Usage

There are two general usage scenarios for the clock enable.

Firmware Enable – It is assumed that most functions require a firmware clock enable to start and stop the function. Since the boundary of a function mapped into the UDB array is arbitrary, i.e., it may span multiple UDBs and/or portions of UDBs, there must be a way to enable a given function atomically. This is typically implemented from a bit in a
control register routed to one or more clock enable inputs. This scenario also supports the case where applications require multiple, unrelated blocks to be enabled simultaneously.

**Emulated Local Clock Generation** – This feature allows local clocks to be generated by UDBs, and distributed to other UDBs in the array by using a synchronous clock enable implementation scheme, rather than directly clocking from one UDB to another. Using the positive edge feature of the clock enable mode eliminates restrictions on the duty cycle of the clock enable waveform.

**Special FIFO Clocking**
The datapath FIFOs have special clocking considerations. By default, the FIFO clocks follow the same configuration as the datapath clock. However, the FIFOs have special control bits that alter the clock configuration:

- Each FIFO clock can be inverted with respect to the selected datapath clock polarity.
- When FIFO FAST mode is set, the bus clock overrides the datapath clock selection normally in use by the FIFO.

### 23.3.4.2 Reset Control
There are two modes of reset control: legacy mode and standard mode. The modes are controlled by the ALT RES bit in each UDB configuration register CFG31. The default for this bit is 0 (legacy mode); it is recommended that it be set to 1 for standard mode. Standard mode has greater granularity - routed resets can be used by individual blocks within the UDB. Contact Cypress for information on legacy mode reset.

**PLD Reset Control**

*Figure 23-40* shows the PLD reset system.

**Datapath Reset Control**

*Figure 23-41* shows the datapath reset system. The routed reset is applied to all datapath registers and states except the data registers D0 and D1. The data registers are retention registers. The FIFO data is unknown after reset because it is RAM based.
Figure 23-41. Datapath Reset Structure

```
rc_in[3:0]

sysreset_ret

sysreset

rc_in[3:0]

cfgx

dp res sel[1:0]

reset select
00: rc_in[0]
01: rc_in[1]
10: rc_in[2]
11: rc_in[3]

cfgx
dp res pol
reset inversion
0: true
1: inverted

fgx

en res dp

carry out

shift out

left register

output

sync

registers

res

data registers

res

accumulators

res

carry out

right register

res

shift out

left register

res

fifo0 status

res

fifo1 status

actl

f0 clr

actl

f1 clr
```
Status and Control Reset Control

Figure 23-42 shows the status and control block reset system. The status and control/count registers share the routed reset, however they are individually enabled. The mask/period and auxiliary control registers are retention registers.

23.3.4.3 UDB POR Initialization

Register and State Initialization

Table 23-23. UDB POR State Initialization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Element</th>
<th>State Element</th>
<th>POR State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Configuration Latches</td>
<td>CFG 0 - 31</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ax, Dx, CTL, ACTL, MSK</td>
<td>Accumulators, data registers, auxiliary control register, mask register</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST, MC</td>
<td>Status and macrocell read only registers</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DP CFG RAM &amp; Fx (FIFOs)</td>
<td>Datapath configuration RAM and FIFO RAM</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLD RAM</td>
<td>PLD configuration RAM</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Routing Initialization

On POR, the state of input and output routing is as follows:

- All outputs from the UDB that drive into the routing matrix are held at '0'.
- All drivers out of the routing and into UDB inputs are initially gated to '0'.

As a result of this initialization, conflicting drive states on the routing are avoided and initial configuration occurs in an order-independent sequence.
23.3.5 UDB Addressing

There are three unique address spaces in a UDB pair:

- **8-Bit Working Registers** – A bus master that can only access 8 bits of data per bus cycle, such as the PSoC 3 8051, can use this address space to read or write any UDB working register. These are the registers with which the CPU and DMA interact during normal operation.

- **16-Bit Working Registers** – A bus master with 16-bit capability, such as the DMA or the PSoC 5 Cortex-M3, can access 16 bits per bus cycle to facilitate the data transfer of functions that are inherently 16 bits or greater. Although this address space is mapped into a different area than the 8-bit space, the same registers are accessed, two registers at a time.

- **8- or 16-Bit Configuration Registers** – These registers configure the UDB to perform a function. Once configured, they are normally left in a static state during operation. These registers maintain their state through sleep.

23.3.5.1 Working Register Address Space

Working registers are accessed during normal operation and include accumulators, data registers, FIFOs, status and control registers, mask register, and the auxiliary control register.

Figure 23-43 shows the register map for one UDB.

On the right in Figure 23-43 is the 16-bit address, which is always even aligned. The UDB number is 5 bits instead of 4, due to the even address alignment. The upper 4 bits is still the register number.

Figure 23-43. UDB Working Registers

In this mode, all UDB registers are accessed on byte-aligned addresses. In 8-bit register access mode, as shown in Figure 23-44, all data bytes written to the UDBs are aligned with the low byte of the 16-bit UDB bus.

Only one byte at a time can be accessed in this mode.

8-Bit Working Register Access

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8-Bit Addresses</th>
<th>16-Bit Addresses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0xh</td>
<td>0xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1xh</td>
<td>2xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2xh</td>
<td>4xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3xh</td>
<td>6xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4xh</td>
<td>8xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5xh</td>
<td>A1xh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6xh</td>
<td>Cxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7xh</td>
<td>Exx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8xh</td>
<td>10xx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9xh</td>
<td>12xx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Axh</td>
<td>14xx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bxh</td>
<td>16xx</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 23-44. 8-Bit Working Register Access
16-Bit Working Register Address Space

The 16-bit address space is designed for efficient DMA access and to provide support for CPU firmware access in processors that can support it, such as the Cortex-M3 in PSoC 5. There are two modes of 16-bit register access, the “default” mode and the “concat” mode. As shown in Figure 23-45, the default mode accesses a given register in UDB ‘i’ in the lower byte and the same register in UDB ‘i+1’ in the upper byte. This makes 16-bit data handling efficient in neighboring UDBs (address order) that are configured as a 16-bit function.

Figure 23-45. 16-Bit Working Register Default Access Mode

In concat mode, the registers of a single UDB are concatenated to form 16-bit registers as shown in Figure 23-46. In this mode, the 16-bit UDB array data bus has access to pairs of registers in the UDB in the format shown in the figure. For example, an access at A0 accesses A0 in the low byte and A1 in the high byte.

Figure 23-46. 16-Bit Working Register Concat Access Mode

There is a limitation in the use of DMA with respect to the 16-bit working register address space. It is inefficient for use when the function is greater than 16 bits. This is because the addressing overlaps, as shown in Table 23-24.

Table 23-24. Optimized Address Space for 16-Bit UDB Function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Upper Byte Goes</th>
<th>Lower Byte Goes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>UDB1</td>
<td>UDB0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>UDB2</td>
<td>UDB1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>UDB3</td>
<td>UDB2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the DMA transfers 16 bits to address 0, the lower and upper bytes are written to UDB0 and UDB1, respectively. On the next 16 bit DMA transfer at address 2, you overwrite the value in UDB1 with the lower byte of that transfer.

To avoid having to provide redundant data organization in memory buffers to support this addressing, it is recommended that 8-bit DMA transfers in the 8-bit working space be used for functions over 16 bits.
23.3.5.2 Configuration Register Address Space

Configuration is done at the UDB pair level. A UDB pair consists of two UDBs and an associated routing channel, as shown in Figure 23-47.

Figure 23-47. UDB Pair Configuration Address Map

![Diagram showing UDB Pair Configuration Address Map]

23.3.5.3 UDB Configuration Address Space

Figure 23-48 shows the address map for configuration of a given UDB. As shown, this UDB configuration space is replicated for the two UDBs in the UDB pair. There are 128 bytes (7 bits of address) reserved for each UDB configuration, which is organized in 16-bit width. There are individual byte write enables for this address space to support both 16- and 8-bit access. Note that 16-bit access on odd boundaries is not supported. Reads always return 16 bits in configuration space, and the byte not required can be ignored.

Figure 23-48. UDB Configuration Address Space

![Diagram showing UDB Configuration Address Space]

23.3.5.4 Routing Configuration Address Space

UDB routing configuration consists of embedded RAM bits to control the state of transmission gate switches, segmentation, and input/output buffers. For more information, see the UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect chapter on page 255.
23.3.6 System Bus Access Coherency

UDB registers have dual access modes:

- System bus access, where the CPU or DMA is reading or writing a UDB register.
- UDB internal access, where the UDB function is updating or using the contents of a register.

23.3.6.1 Simultaneous System Bus Access

The following table lists the possible simultaneous access events and required behavior:

Table 23-25. Simultaneous System Bus Access

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>UDB Write Bus Write</th>
<th>UDB Write Bus Read</th>
<th>UDB Read Bus Write</th>
<th>UDB Read Bus Read</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ax</td>
<td>Undefined result</td>
<td>Not allowed directly(^a, b)</td>
<td>UDB reads previous value</td>
<td>Current value is read by both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dx</td>
<td>Not supported (UDB and bus must be opposite access)</td>
<td>If FIFO status flags are used, no simultaneous read/write at the same location is possible</td>
<td>Not supported (UDB and bus must be opposite access)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fx</td>
<td>NA, bus does not write</td>
<td>Bus reads previous value</td>
<td>NA, UDB does not read</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>NA, UDB does not write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTL</td>
<td>Undefined result</td>
<td>Not allowed directly(^c)</td>
<td>UDB reads previous value</td>
<td>Current value is read by both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTL</td>
<td>NA, UDB does not write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PER</td>
<td>MC (RO)</td>
<td>Not allowed directly(^d)</td>
<td>NA, bus does not write</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) The Ax registers can be safely read by using software capture feature of the FIFOs.
\(^b\) The Dx registers can only be written dynamically by the FIFOs. When this mode is programmed, direct read of the Dx registers is not allowed.
\(^c\) The CNT register can only be safely read when it is disabled. An alternative for dynamically reading the CNT value is to route the output to the SC register (in transparent mode).
\(^d\) MC register bits can also be routed to the status register (in transparent mode) inputs for safe reading.

23.3.6.2 Coherent Accumulator Access

(Atomic Reads and Writes)

The UDB accumulators are the primary target of data computation. Therefore, reading these registers directly during normal operation gives an undefined result, as indicated in the table above). However, there is built-in support for atomic reads in the form of software capture, which is implemented across chained blocks. In this usage model, a read of the least significant accumulator transfers the data from all chained blocks to their associated FIFOs. This operation is explained in FIFO Software Capture Mode on page 224. Atomic writes to the accumulator can be implemented programmatically. Individual writes can be performed to the input FIFOs, and then the status signal of the last FIFO written can be routed to all associated blocks and simultaneously transfer the FIFO data into the Dx or Ax registers.
### 23.4 UDB Working Register Reference

All registers except the FIFO are cleared upon any system reset. The FIFO status is cleared, but FIFO data is random. These registers are not retention registers so they must be reset upon wakeup from a power cut-off sequence.

#### Datapath Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>8-Bit Address</th>
<th>16-Bit Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A0</td>
<td>0xh</td>
<td>00xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>1xh</td>
<td>02xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D0</td>
<td>2xh</td>
<td>04xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
<td>3xh</td>
<td>06xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F0</td>
<td>4xh</td>
<td>08xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>5xh</td>
<td>0Axh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Datapath Registers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Accumulator 0 Value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Accumulator 1 Value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Data Register 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Data Register 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(FIFO 0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(FIFO 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Status and Control Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>8-Bit Address</th>
<th>16-Bit Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>6xh</td>
<td>0Cxh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTL/CNT</td>
<td>7xh</td>
<td>0Exh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSK/PER</td>
<td>8xh</td>
<td>10xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status and Control Registers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Status Register)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTL/CNT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Control / Count Register)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSK/PER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Interrupt Mask / Period Register)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Auxiliary Control Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>8-Bit Address</th>
<th>16-Bit Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACTL</td>
<td>9xh</td>
<td>12xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auxiliary Control Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACTL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNT START INT EN FIFO1 LVL FIFO0 LVL FIFO1 CLR FIFO0 CLR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PLD Macrocell Register

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>8-Bit Address</th>
<th>16-Bit Address</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MC</td>
<td>Axh</td>
<td>14xh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLD Macrocell Register</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLD1 MC[3:0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLD0 MC[3:0]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect

This chapter describes the structure of the UDB Array and Digital System Interconnect (DSI). Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) are organized in the form of a two-dimensional array with programmable interconnect provided by the DSI. In addition to connecting UDB components, the DSI routing also provides connection between other hardware resources on the device, such as I/O pins, interrupts, and fixed function blocks.

24.1 Features
■ Offers a homogeneous array of UDBs which provide flexible function mapping
■ Provides array level interconnect routing between the components of the UDB hardware
■ Provides device level interconnect routing between UDBs, device peripherals, and I/O pins

24.2 Block Diagram
Figure 24-1 illustrates the programmable digital architecture for PSoC 3 and PSoC 5.
The main components of this system are:

- **UDB Array**: UDB blocks are arrayed within a matrix of programmable interconnect. UDB pairs consisting of 2 UDBs are the basic building blocks of the UDB array. UDB pairs are tiled to create an array. UDB pairs can connect with neighboring UDB pairs in seamless fashion.

- **DSI**: Routing interface tiled at top and bottom of UDB array core. Provides general purpose programmable routing between device peripherals, including UDBs, I/Os, and fixed function blocks.

- **System Interface (not shown)**: Built in 8/16-bit bus interface with parallel access to all registers to support fast configuration. Also provides clock distribution and clock gating functionality.

The following section explains in detail the DSI routing and System Interface.

### 24.3 How It Works

The purpose of the DSI is to provide general purpose programmable connectivity across the device. Peripherals and system blocks that require connectivity are routed to this interface at the UDB array, which allows connections into the core of the array or directly between device peripherals.

Signals in this category include:

- Interrupt requests from all digital peripherals in the system
- DMA requests from all digital peripherals in the system
- Digital peripheral data signals that need flexible routing to I/Os
- Digital peripheral data signals that need connections to UDBs
- Connections to the interrupt and DMA controllers
- Connection to I/O pins
- Connection to analog system digital signals

Figure 24-2 and Figure 24-4 show some examples of the device peripherals that are connected to this interface, including UDBs, I/Os, analog peripherals, interrupts, DMA, and fixed function peripherals.
Figure 24-3. DSI Example Connections between Peripherals, I/O Pins, and UDBs
24.4 UDB Array System Interface

The system interface consists of infrastructure blocks that distribute and interface the device system bus to the UDB array bus and to the UDB blocks, the DSI channel routing, and the UDB pair channel routing. Depending on the configuration of the array, there is one or more AHB interfaces that connect to PHUB spokes providing an interface to the UDB array system bus. Both 8-bit and 16-bit bus access is supported. The system interface also provides support for clock distribution and gating for the digital global clocks and bus clock. A gated clock tree distribution is implemented to allow only those clocks that are in use to be activated.

Following are the system interface components:

- **AHB Interface** – Connects to a standard PHUB spoke and provides support for up to 1 bank of UDBs (16). Controls array wait states and translates AHB signaling into array register and routing configuration access control.
- **DSI Channel IF** – Interfaces the UDB array bus to the DSI routing channel for writing and reading configuration.
- **UDB Local IF** – Interfaces the UDB array bus to the UDB blocks for registers and RAM access, and provides local clock gating.
- **UDB Pair Channel** – Interfaces the UDB array bus to the pair routing channel for writing and reading configuration.
- **Bank IF** – Contains the master clock gating and bank wide configuration interface signals.
- **8-Bit WAIT_CFG Register** – Sets the read and write wait states for working and configuration registers.
- **4-Bit BANK_CTL Register** – Contains global bank control bits.
  - One bit to globally enable all DSI inputs. On POR, all DSI inputs are gated off until the DSI channel is configured. This bit globally enables DSI inputs to drive the routing.
  - One to disable all UDB status register clear-on-read function for debug support.
  - One to put the embedded DP RAM into test mode for DFT support.
  - One to put the bank into global write mode, also for DFT support.

There are eight digital global clocks, plus the application bus clock, routed to each bank of UDBs. The UDB local interface blocks contain clock gating control registers, which must be set by configuration firmware to enable clock distribution. There are four registers in each block:

- **8-Bit MDCLK_EN (Master Digital Clock Enable)** – This register individually enables the digital global clocks at the input to the UDB array.
- **1-Bit MBCLK_EN (Master Bus Clock Enable)** – This register individually enables the application bus clock at the input to the UDB array.
- **8-Bit DCLK_ENx (Quadrant Digital Clock Enable)** – This register individually enables the digital global clocks to the associated quadrant (4 UDBs) of the UDB array.
- **1-Bit BCLK_ENx (Quadrant Bus Clock Enable)** – This register individually enables the bus clock to the associated quadrant (4 UDBs) of the UDB array. It also contains bits to put the associated routing channel RAM into global write mode.

24.4.1 UDB Array POR Initialization

The key aspects of POR initialization are summarized as follows.

- All UDB clocks are gated off. There are three levels of clock gating configuration: one at the UDB level for each individual block clock control and a set of registers at the array level that controls master and quadrant clock gating.
- The state of all drivers into the routing matrix is gated to ‘0’ with a global routing enable control. This includes UDB block outputs, DSI inputs, and segmentation buffers. Since the routing is initialized to a random state, the state of routing nets will be either ‘0’ or ‘Z’.
- The inputs of all routing output buffers, including segmentation buffers, are gated to ‘0’ with a global routing enable control. This prevents floating routes from causing high power states. This also drives the buffer outputs to ‘0’ and that is the state for all DSI outputs.
- Configuration can occur in an order-independent way. When configuration is complete, each bank of UDBs has a global routing enable which is asserted to activate the connections (forced gating is disabled).
- After routing is enabled, a global clock enable bit (bank enable) can be set (residing in the power manager) which then enables clocking in the array. The bank enable bit prevents any spurious operation until the array is completely configured.
24.4.2 UDB POR Configuration Sequence

The previous section documented the POR state for the UDB array. From this initial state, configuration will proceed in the order shown in Figure 24-4.

Figure 24-4. POR Configuration Sequence

- **Step 1 POR**
  - Routing configuration is random, but due to the fact that routing and clocking is disabled, array is in a benign state.

- **Step 2 Configure Array**
  - Configure routing, PLD RAM, Datapath RAM, and Datapath CFG registers in the UDB blocks. Also can configure working registers if desired. Configuration is order independent.

- **Step 3 Enable Clock Configuration to Input Routed Clock Enable**
  - Now that routing and UDB block configuration is done, you can enable clock configuration input to use the routed enable for the clock. The clock trees are still gated off.

- **Step 4 Enable Quadrant Clock Enables and Then Global Clock Enables**
  - The set of clocks to enable is determined by how clocks are allocated in the array. Enabling only clocks that are used reduces the UDB array power. This does not actually enable the clocks. There is a global clock enable for the UDB array in the power manager block (Step 6).

- **Step 5 Enable Routing**
  - Routing between blocks and initial DSI outputs are enabled.

- **Step 6 Enable the UDB Bank Enable Bit in the Power Manager**
  - There is one bit per bank (in one register) in the Power Manager register set. This allows for a global atomic clock enable for the entire UDB array.

- **Step 7 - Done. User Can Write to Firmware Enable Bits in Control Register to Start Functions**
  - Need to start from the sources and work forward to avoid temporary high current states. Need to include a routed enable to implement an atomic firmware enable.
24.4.2.1 Quadrant Route Disable

To support fast bring up of initial functionality, the Quadrant Bus Clock Enable register contains a bit called Route Disable to disable the routing for the associated UDB quadrant (2 UDB pairs). By default, this bit is cleared and is not disabling the routing. If this bit is set to ‘1’ during initial configuration, the associated channel routing RAM does not need to be configured. The global route enable bit can be set and this routing will remain in a benign state. Routing configuration for this quadrant can occur at a future time when this bit can be cleared to ‘0’ to enable the routing (assuming that the global route enable bit is set).

24.4.3 UDB Sleep and Power Control

The UDB array has support for low power operation in the form of a sleep control input and power switch control inputs. All static configurations are on the “keep-alive” domain which retains state during a sleep/power down period. However, all application level working registers, including the accumulators, the data registers, the FIFO, control and status registers, etc., lose their state and must be reinitialized on power up. Nonretention registers and FIFO state are reset after a sleep period to insure a good initial state.

24.4.4 UDB Register References and Address Mapping

UDB registers are classified as shown in the Figure 24-5. There are five address spaces: one for 8-bit working registers (registers that are accessed during normal operation), one for 16-bit working registers, and three for configuration. Each bank of UDBs is on a separate spoke, so a total of 6 select lines are generated from the PHUB to support the UDB array. The working registers are on the main 64K page (Page 0). The configuration registers have their own page (Page 1). Details of these registers are located in the PSoC® 3 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual) and the PSoC® 5 Registers TRM (Technical Reference Manual).
Figure 24-6 shows the register mapping for working and configuration registers of UDB and DSI.

**Figure 24-6. UDB Array Base Addresses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Page 0</th>
<th>Address Page 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6400h</td>
<td>Bank 0 Array Configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6500h</td>
<td>0000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6600h</td>
<td>0000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6700h</td>
<td>1000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6800h</td>
<td>2000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6A00h</td>
<td>3000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C00h</td>
<td>4000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6E00h</td>
<td>4800h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7000h</td>
<td>5000h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5010h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5020h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5100h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5200h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **8-Bit Working Register Address Space**
  - 512 Bytes
  - UDB Array Configuration Space (maximum used: 13K)

- **16-Bit Working Register Address Space**
  - 1K Bytes
  - DSI Configuration Space (maximum used: 4K)

- **Reserved**
  - Bank Configuration Space
  - Interrupt and DMA Configuration

- **Reserved**
  - Bank 0 Control
  - Bank 1 Control
  - Reserved
  - Reserved
  - Reserved
  - INT/DMA Configuration

- **Reserved**
  - 8K Bytes
  - 3K Bytes
  - 32 Bytes
  - 256 Bytes
25. Controller Area Network (CAN)

The CAN peripheral is a fully functional Controller Area Network (CAN) supporting communication baud rates up to 1 Mbps. The CAN controller is CAN2.0A and CAN2.0B compliant per the ISO-11898 specification. The CAN protocol was originally designed for automotive applications with a focus on a high level of fault detection and recovery. This ensures high communication reliability at a low cost. Because of its success in automotive applications, CAN is used as a standard communication protocol for motion oriented embedded control applications (CANOpen) and factory automation applications (DeviceNet). The CAN features allow the efficient implementation of higher level protocols without affecting the performance of the microcontroller CPU.

25.1 Features

- Compliant with CAN2.0A/B protocol specification:
  - Standard and extended frames
  - Remote Transmission Request (RTR) support
  - Programmable bit rate up to 1 Mbps
- Receive path:
  - 16 receive message buffers
  - 16 acceptance filters and acceptance masks
  - DeviceNet addressing support
  - Option to link multiple receive buffers to form a hardware FIFO
- Transmit path:
  - Eight transmit message buffers
  - Programmable priority for each transmit message buffer
- CAN Transmit (Tx), Receive (Rx), and EN can be routed to any I/O
- Listen Only mode for auto baud detection
- Ability to wake up the device from Sleep mode on bus activity
25.2 **Block Diagram**

To transmit a message, the host controller stores a message in the transmit message buffer and informs the transmit message handler which transmits the message. When a message is received, it is stored in the memory buffer and the host controller can process it on demand. The transmission and reception are mainly governed by the status and configuration registers. The various interrupts of the CAN module are handled by the interrupt controller unit. Figure 25-2 illustrates this process.

![Figure 25-2. CAN Block Diagram](image)

25.3 **CAN Message Frames**

In CAN the transmission and reception of messages are governed by four main frame types:

- Data frames
- Remote frame
- Error frame
- Overload frame

25.3.1 **Data Frames**

Data frames are mainly used to transfer data between transmitter and receiver. CAN supports mainly two types of data frames: Standard Data Frame and Extended Data Frame. For a CAN frame, '0' is referred to as the dominant bit and '1' as a recessive bit.

25.3.1.1 **Standard Data Frame**

The standard data frame for CAN is illustrated in Figure 25-3 on page 265.
Start of frame. The beginning of a data frame is indicated by the start of frame bit. It is a single dominant bit.

Identifier. For a basic CAN data frame, the identifier is 11 bits long. It is mainly used to filter the data at the receiver side.

Remote Transmission Request Bit (RTR). Set the RTR bit '0' (dominant) for a data frame and set to '1' (recessive) for a remote frame. The identifier and RTR bit are known as the Arbitration Field.

Extended Identifier Bit (IDE). This bit must be a '0' (dominant for a standard data frame and a '1' (recessive) for extended CAN data frame.

R0. Reserved bit.

Data Length Code (DLC). These 4 bits indicate the number of data bytes in the data field. The IDE, R0, and DLC bits constitute the Control Field.

Data Field. This field contains the message data. It is of variable length and can have a maximum of 8 bytes.

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC). Frame checking is carried out by the method of cyclic redundancy check (CRC). The field consists of a 15-bit CRC code followed by a CRC delimiter.

Acknowledgement Field (ACK). The ACK field is two bits long and recessive by default. When a receiver receives a message correctly, it overwrites the ACK field with a dominant bit.

End of Frame. The end of every frame is indicated by End of Frame field and it consists of seven recessive bits.

25.3.1.2 Extended Data Frame

The extended CAN frame format is illustrated in Figure 25-4. The extended CAN has a 29-bit identifier. It is arranged as an 11-bit identifier field and an 18-bit identifier field separated by a Substitute Remote Request (SRR) bit and an IDE bit. The SRR bit is in the same position as the RTR bit in the standard frame, and is recessive. The IDE bit is set for extended frames. The Control Field of the extended data frame has an additional reserve bit 'R1' compared to the standard data frame.
25.3.2 Remote Frame

The CAN bus allows a destination node to request data from the source by sending a Remote Frame. There are two differences between a Data Frame and a Remote Frame. First, the RTR bit is transmitted as a recessive bit in the remote Frame. Second, there is no Data Field in the Remote Frame.

For extended remote frame, the SRR bit is also transmitted as a recessive bit.

**Interframe Space.** Interframe space separates the data frames and remote frames from the preceding frames.

25.3.3 Error Frame

The Error frame is generated by a node when it detects any bus error. The error frame consists of an error flag and error delimiter. The error flag are classified into two types: error active flag and error passive flag.

**Error Active Flag.** When an error active station detects an error it sends six dominant bits as an active error flag. The format of the error flag thus violates the rule of bit stuffing thereby forcing all other nodes to send out error flags resulting in a series of six to twelve dominant bits on the bus.

**Error Passive Flag.** An error passive flag consists of six recessive bits. When an error passive station detects an error it sends a passive error flag. A passive error does not affect any other nodes and the error is detected only if the transmitting node detects a bus error. The Error Delimiter consists of eight recessive bits.

25.3.4 Overload Frame

The overload frame (EOF) consists of an overload flag and an overload delimiter. CAN supports reactive overload frame which is activated when the following conditions occur:

- Detection of a dominant bit during first two bits of intermission
- Detection of a dominant bit in the last bit of EOF by a receiver
- Detection of a dominant bit by any node at the last bit of error delimiter or overload delimiter

25.4 Transmitting Messages in CAN

The CAN module supports eight transmit message holding buffers. An internal priority arbiter selects the message according to the chosen arbitration scheme. The arbitration scheme is either a round robin or fixed priority scheme. When a message is transmitted or when there is a message arbitration loss, the priority arbiter re-evaluates the message priority of the next message. The receive message buffers can also transmit remote transmit requests, which are explained later in this chapter.
Figure 25-5. Transmit (Tx) Block Diagram
25.4.1 Message Arbitration

The priority arbiter supports a round robin and fixed priority arbitration. The arbitration mode is selected using the configuration register.

**Round Robin.** In a round robin scheme, Buffer 0 is selected first, then Buffer 1 and so on till Buffer 7, and it continues again with Buffer 0 thus forming a cycle. A particular buffer is only selected if its TxREQ flag is set. This scheme guarantees that all buffers receive the same probability to send a message.

**Fixed Priority.** Buffer 0 has the highest priority. Designate Buffer 0 as the buffer for critical messages to guarantee that message is sent first. Priority arbitration is selected using the CFG_ARBITER bit in the Configuration register (CAN_CSR_CFG[12]).

**Note** RTR message requests are served before TxMessage buffers are handled. For example, RTRreq0, RTRreq15, TxMessage0, TxMessage1, and TxMessage7.

25.4.2 Message Transmit Process

**Figure 25-6** shows the registers associated with a message that is transmitted.

The main steps in transmitting a standard data frame are:

1. Write the message into an empty transmit message holding buffer. An empty buffer is indicated by TxREQ flag equal to zero.
   a. For standard data frame, write '0' (dominant) to the RTR and IDE bit.
   b. Write the DLC bits appropriately to specify the number of data bytes to be transferred. The maximum number of data bytes is limited to eight. Data bytes with MSb (most significant bit) first in each byte are written in D0, D1…D7 locations.
   c. The 11-bit message identifiers are written to the ID[31:21] bit field.
2. Choose an appropriate priority arbitration scheme. The internal message priority arbiter selects the message according to the chosen arbitration scheme.
3. Request transmission by setting the respective TxREQ flag to ‘1’.
4. The TxREQ flag remains set as long as the message transmit request is pending. The content of the message buffer must not be changed while the TxREQ flag is set.

Once the message is transmitted, the TxREQ flag is cleared and the TX_MSG interrupt status bit [CAN_CSR_INT_SR[11]] in the interrupt status register CAN_CSR_INT_SR is asserted. The interrupt status bit is only asserted if the TxINT ENBL (CAN_TX[n].CMD[2]) is set to ‘1’.
25.4.3 Message Abort

A message is aborted by setting the TxABORT flag (CAN_TX [n]_CMD[1]) in the CAN_TX [n]_CMD register. This bit is automatically cleared by the hardware when the message is aborted.

**Note 1.** The CAN Buffer register (CAN_CSR_BUF_SR) is used to read whether any transmission requests are pending.

**Note 2.** If the write protect bit wpn2 (CAN_TX [n]_CMD[23]) is ‘0’, then the bits [21:16] of the Command register cannot be modified because they are protected and provides an undefined value on read back.

**Note 3.** If the write protect bit wpn1 (CAN_TX [n]_CMD[3]) is ‘0’, then the bit [2] of the Command register cannot be modified. This bit gives a ‘0’ upon read back.

**Note 4.** Using the WPN flags(wpn1 and wpn2) enables simple retransmission of the same message by only having to set the TxREQ flag without taking care of the special flags (RTR,IDE,DLC and TxINTENBL).

25.4.4 Transmitting Extended Data Frames

For transmitting an extended data frame certain register settings must change compared to that of a standard data frame. These changes are as follows.

- For extended data frame, write ‘1’ (recessive) to the IDE bit.
- The message identifiers are written to the ID[31:3] bit field.

25.5 Receiving Messages in CAN

The CAN module has 16 receive message buffers as illustrated in Figure 25-7. Each message buffer has a dedicated acceptance filter. The CAN message is received by the CAN framer and then the received message is simultaneously compared with all the acceptance filters and the accepted message is stored in the respective receive message buffer. The message available (MSG AV) bit in the message buffer is set to indicate the availability of the new message. Message receipt must be acknowledged by clearing the MSG AV flag to allow receipt of another message.

The acceptance filter is configured by the Acceptance Mask Register (AMR) and the Acceptance Code Register (ACR).

![Figure 25-7. Receive (Rx) Block Diagram](image)
25.5.1 Message Receive Process

Figure 25-8 shows the registers associated with a received message.

The main steps in receiving a message are:

1. After receipt of a new message, the RxMessageHandler hardware (as seen in Figure 25-7) searches all receive buffer starting from RxMessage0 until it finds a valid buffer. A valid buffer is indicated by:
   a. Receive buffer is enabled indicated by BUFF ENBL = '1' (CAN_RX[n]_CMD[3]).
   b. Acceptance filter of the receive buffer matches incoming message.
2. If the RxMessageHandler finds a valid buffer that is empty, then the message is stored and the MSG AV flag of this buffer is set to '1'.
3. If the Rx INT ENBL flag is set, then the RX_MSG flag (CAN_CSR_INT_SR[12]) of the interrupt controller is asserted.
4. If the receive buffer already contains a message indicated by MSG AV = '1' and the Link Flag is not set, then the RX_MSG_LOSS interrupt flag (CAN_CSR_INT_SR[10]) is asserted. The existing message is overwritten with the new received message.

Note The CAN Buffer register (CAN_CSR_BUF_SR) determines if any receive message buffer is available.

Following message fields are covered:

- Identifier
- IDE
- RTR
- Data byte 1 and data byte 2
  For a standard CAN message when IDE=0, the 11 bit identifier are the bits [31:21] of AMR and ACR.

25.5.2.1 Example

A message and the acceptance filter settings to accept that message are shown in Figure 25-9 on page 271.

25.5.2 Acceptance Filter

Each receive buffer has its own acceptance filter that is used to filter incoming messages. An acceptance filter is configured by the Acceptance Mask register (AMR) and the Acceptance Code register (ACR).

AMR: '0'. The incoming bit is checked against the respective ACR bit. The message is not accepted when the incoming bit does not match respective ACR bit.

AMR: ‘1’. The incoming bit is Do Not Care.
As seen in the Figure 25-9, the shaded areas are masked bits. When a bit is set to ‘1’ in the AMR register, the corresponding bit in the ACR register is not checked against the received message frame. In the example, bits 30, 29, and bits from 3 to 20 are set to ‘1’ and are masked. Since other bits in the AMR register are written as ‘0’, the respective bits in the ACR register are compared with message bits as shown in Figure 25-9. If the corresponding bits in ACR match with that of the message, the message is then stored in the receive message buffer. If the corresponding bits in ACR do not match with the message, the incoming message is rejected.

**AMR Settings:**
- ID[28:21], ID[31] = 0
- ID[30], ID[29] = 1
- ID[20:3] = All Ones
- IDE = 0
- RTR = 0

**ACR Settings:**
- ID[31:21] = 182h
- ID[20:3] = Do Not Care
- IDE = 0
- RTR = 0
25.5.3 DeviceNet Filtering

For some CAN high level protocols such as DeviceNet, additional protocol related information is contained in the first and second data bytes. The acceptance filters provide additional coverage of these two bytes for a more efficient implementation of the protocol. The data bits of the first two bytes of the incoming message are compared with the ACRD register (CAN_RX [n]_ACRD) and the respective bits that are compared are specified using AMRD register (CAN_RX [n]_AMRD). Using the Example on page 270, DeviceNet filtering is illustrated in Figure 25-10.

**Figure 25-10. DeviceNet Filter**

In Figure 25-10 the data field of the message frame is compared with those bits of the ACRD register, which are not masked by the AMRD register.

To accept this message, the acceptance filter settings are as follows.

**AMR Settings:**
- ID[28:21], ID[31] = 0
- ID[30], ID[29] = 1
- ID[20:3] = All Ones
- IDE = 0
- RTR = 0

AMR [15:11], AMR [8:6] = 0
AMR [10:9], AMR [5:0] = All Ones

**ACR Settings:**
- ID[31:21] = 182h
- ID[20:3] = Do Not Care
- IDE = 0
- RTR = 0
- ACRD [15:6] = 06h
- ACRD [5:0] = Do Not Care

The example in Figure 25-10 shows the filtering using 10 data bits. Using AMRD, up to 16 data bits, can be used for filtering.

25.5.4 Filtering of Extended Data Frames

Filtering the extended data frame is very similar to the standard date frame with the following exception.
- IDE bit in AMR and ACR registers must be set to check for extended data frame.
25.5.5 Receiver Message Buffer Linking

Several receive buffers can link together to form a receive buffer array that acts almost like a receive FIFO. To accomplish this, do the following:

- Set the Link flag CAN_RX[n]_CMD[6] for the buffers that need to be linked.
- Make sure that all buffers of the same array have the same message filter setting (AMR and ACR are identical).
- Do not set the Link flag of the last buffer of an array.

When a receive buffer already contains a message (MSG AV='1') and a new message arrives for this buffer, then this message is discarded (RX_MSG_LOSS Interrupt). To avoid this situation, several receive buffers are linked together. When the CAN controller receives a new message, the RxMessageHandler searches for a valid receive buffer. If one is found that is already full (MSG AV = '1') and the ‘Link Flag’ is set, the search for a valid receive buffer is continued. If found, the message is transferred to that buffer thereby forming an array. If no other buffer is found, then the RX_MSG_LOSS interrupt is set.

It is possible to build several message arrays. Each of these arrays must use the same AMR and ACR.

25.6 Remote Frames

Remote frames are used for initiating transmission between two nodes and the node acting as a receiver sends the remote frame. A remote frame can use either standard format or extended format. A remote frame is different from a data frame in that the RTR bit is always equal to ‘1’ and the data field is absent, independent of the value of DLC field. The flow of a remote transmit request is illustrated in Figure 25-11.

As shown in Figure 25-11:

- The message buffer0 of node1 transmits a remote frame into the CAN bus.
- The RTR request is received by the RxMessageHandler of node 2 and sends it to the acceptance filters.
- The acceptance filter settings of the receive message buffer 15 matches with that of the message and then the message is moved to the receive message buffer 15.
- If the RTR Auto Reply feature is enabled, the receive message buffer 15 will transmit the message with the same identifier as it received (without CPU intervention).
- The acceptance filter of the receive message buffer 1 of node1 has the same identifier settings as that of the transmitted message node 1. Hence, the RTR message will be stored in the receive message buffer 1 of node 1.

Figure 25-11. Remote Transmit Request
25.6.1 Transmitting a Remote Frame by the Requesting Node

The process to transmit a remote frame by a requesting node (Node 1 as shown in Figure 25-11 on page 273) is as follows.
1. Write a message to an empty transmit buffer. An empty buffer is indicated by Tx_REQ = '0' (CAN_TX[n]_CMD[0]).
2. Set the RTR bit (CAN_TX[n]_CMD[21]) to ‘1’.
3. Choose an appropriate priority arbitration scheme.
4. Set the transmit request flag to initiate transmission.
5. The Identifier transmitted in a message must be the same as the identifier of receiving message.

25.6.2 Receiving a Remote Frame

The process to receive a remote frame is as follows.
1. The acceptance filter must be configured to receive the desired message ID.
2. Enable the automatic RTR message handling by setting bit ‘RTR REPLY’ to ‘1’.
   a. If enabled, it will automatically transmit the remote frame with the same identifier.
   b. Else the remote frame must be transmitted following the standard routine as that of a data frame.
3. Set the requesting node that receives the replied RTR message to receive a normal message. Do not set the RTR Reply bit.

25.6.3 RTR Auto Reply

The CAN module supports automatic answering of RTR message requests. All 16 receive buffers support this feature. If an RTR message is accepted in a receive buffer where the RTR REPLY FLAG is set, then this buffer automatically replies to this message with the content of the receive buffer. The ‘RTR REPLY PNDG FLAG’ is set when the RTR message request is received. It is reset when the message is sent or when the message buffer is disabled. To abort a pending RTR reply message, use the RTR ABORT-command.

25.6.4 Remote Frames in Extended Format

The transmission and reception of remote frames in extended format is similar to standard format except for the following.
- The IDE bit (CAN_TX[n]_CMD[20]) is set to ‘1’ to make it an extended data frame.
- The identifier is 29 bits long compared to the 11 bits of a standard data frame.

25.7 Bit Time Configuration

The CAN module operates on a single clock input CLK_BUS. This section explains how to configure the programmable bit-rate divider to achieve the desired bit rate and its relationship with CLK_BUS.

25.7.1 Allowable Bit Rates and System Clock (CLK_BUS)

Across the industry, most implementations of CAN-Bus use one of 10 bit rates:
- 1 Mbps
- 800 Kbps
- 500 Kbps
- 250 Kbps
- 125 Kbps
- 100 Kbps
- 50 Kbps
- 20 Kbps
- 10 Kbps
- 5 Kbps

These bit rates are configurable if CLK_BUS is 8 MHz or a multiple. All except 800 Kb are configurable if CLK_BUS is 10 MHz or a multiple. With a very few exceptions, all 10 bit rates are not possible if CLK_BUS is not evenly divisible by 1,000,000 Hz. From a bit rate generation point of view, the accuracy for CLK_BUS must be at least 1.58% for 125 Kbps and slower bit rates, and 0.5% or better for bit rates faster than 125 Kbps. Figure 25-12 on page 275 shows a table of the 10 bit rates that are supported for any given fclk frequency from 8 MHz to 100 MHz. Note that maximum possible frequency for PSoC3 is 67MHz and PSoC5 is 80MHz.
25.7.2 Setting Bit Rate TSEG1 and TSEG2

The bit rate is defined as the number of bits transmitted on a CAN bus per second. Bit time is the reciprocal of bit rate. Bit time is divided into three segments as shown in Figure 25-13. Each segment is represented in terms of fixed units of time called Time Quanta (TQ) which is derived from the oscillator clock.

![Figure 25-13. Bit Time](image)

The bit rate pre scaler is a register that performs a pre scaling function on CLK_BUS to generate the clock for CAN module. See Figure 25-14.

**Synchronization Segment.** This is the first segment with 1 TQ length and is mainly used for synchronization. An edge is expected to fall within this segment.

**Tseg1, Tseg2.** These segments compensate for the edge phase shift errors. The tseg1 also takes in the propagation time which includes any delays in the network. The length of the segments is increased or decreased to compensate for the error due to phase shift of edges which is known as resynchronization.

**Sample Point.** This is the point at which the state of the bus is read and the bit is interpreted. It is located at the end of tseg1.

**Synchronization Jump Width.** By resynchronization, the tseg1 is lengthened or tseg2 is shortened. Synchronization jump width puts a limit to this resynchronization. The length

### Equation 1

$\text{BitTime} = (1 + (\text{tseg1} + 1) + (\text{tseg2} + 1)) \times TQ$

### Equation 2

$TQ = \frac{\text{BRP} + 1}{\text{clk_bus}}$

**Note** Bit rate pre scaler is a register that performs a pre scaling function on CKL_BUS to generate the clock for CAN module. See Figure 25-14.
of tseg2 must be greater than the synchronization jump width.

The Configuration register CAN_CSR_CFG is used for setting the bit rate prescaler (BRP), tseg1, tseg2, and the synchronization jump width. CAN peripheral clock (CAN_CLK) is generated by dividing the system clock (CLK_BUS) by (BRP+1). See the Clocking section for detailed information on available options to generate the system clock. For N time quanta in a bit time, the CAN peripheral clock frequency must be configured to N time the CAN bus bit rate.

Figure 25-14. Bit Timing Block Diagram

```
clk_bus       divider       can_clk

BRP = (CAN_CSR_CFG[14:0])
```

25.7.2.1 Example

An example to achieve 1 Mbps speed with 40 MHz is described as follows.

1. Since the speed is 1 MHz, the bit time is 1 µs.
2. Choosing a minimum value of 8 TQ in the bit time, 1TQ = 0.125 µs.
3. BRP = ((time quanta * clk_bus) – 1) = 4.
4. Therefore write a value of ‘4’ into the CFG_BITRATE bits in the configuration register.
5. Choose the sampling point to be 60% of the bit time, which is approximately equal to 5TQ. Since the sampling point is at the end of tseg1, this implies that (tseg2+1) = 3TQ or tseg2 = 2TQ.
6. To fix the sampling point synchronization jump width, use a value ‘1’ by writing to the bits CFG_SJW = ‘1’.
7. Write to the bits cfg_tseg2 a value of ‘2’ to set the value of tseg2 to 2TQ.
8. Now tseg1 is calculated using the following equation:
   \[
   tseg1 = \frac{\text{BitTime} - (1TQ + tseg2 + 1TQ)}{1TQ} - 1TQ
   \]
   \[
   \text{...which is } tseg1 = 3TQ.
   \]
9. Therefore, write a value of ‘3’ into the bits cfg_tseg1 in the configuration register.

This procedure above is applied to achieve the standard bit rates using the clock frequencies as specified in the table in Figure 25-12 on page 275.

Observe the following conditions for setting tseg1 and tseg2:
- tseg1 = 0 or tseg1 = 1 are not allowed.
- tseg2 = 0 is not allowed; tseg2 = 1 is only allowed in direct sampling mode.

Note 1. Sampling_mode bit in the Configuration register (CAN_CSR_CFG) specifies whether or not one sampling point is used in the receiver path or three sampling points with majority decision are used.

Note 2. Edge_mode bit in the Configuration register (CAN_CSR_CFG) specifies whether or not the high to low edge is used for synchronization or both edges are used.

25.8 Error Handling and Interrupts in CAN

According to the CAN protocol specification, there are five different types of errors. Each CAN node in the bus tries to detect an error, and when it does, it sends out an error frame. The different types of errors and the process of error handling are explained in the following sections.

25.8.1 Types of Errors

25.8.1.1 BIT Error

A CAN unit sending a bit on the bus also monitors the bus. When the bit value that is monitored is different from the bit value that is sent, a BIT error is detected. An exception is the sending of a ‘recessive’ bit during the stuffed bit stream of the Arbitration Field or during the ACK Slot. A Transmitter sending a Passive Error Flag and detecting a ‘dominant’ bit does not interpret this as a BIT error.

25.8.1.2 FORM Error

A FORM error is detected when there is an error in the CAN message format. The fixed format fields in the message frame such as End of Frame, Interframe Space, etc., contain illegal bits.

25.8.1.3 ACKNOWLEDGE Error

A transmitter sending a recessive bit during the ACK slot monitors the ACK slot for a dominant bit. If a receiver receives a message correctly, a dominant bit is written in the ACK slot. Therefore, if the transmitter does not find a dominant bit in the ACK slot after transmission, then an ACKNOWLEDGE error is detected.

25.8.1.4 CRC Error

A transmitting node performs certain calculations to generate a CRC code and transmits it in the CRC field. A receiving node also performs the same calculations to generate a CRC code. If the code generated by the receiver does not match the code transmitted then a CRC error is detected.
25.8.1.5 STUFF Error

When there are six consecutive equal bit levels in a message field that is coded by the message of bit stuffing, a STUFF error is detected during the bit time of the sixth consecutive bit level.

25.8.2 Error States in CAN

There are three main error states in CAN:

Error Active. An error active node can take part in normal bus communication. When it detects an error it sends out an ERROR ACTIVE FLAG.

Error Passive. An error passive node takes part in bus communication. When it detects an error it sends out an ERROR PASSIVE FLAG. After sending out the ERROR PASSIVE FLAG, it waits before proceeding with further transmission. An error passive node sends additional 8 recessive bits during the interframe space. This period is also known as suspend transmission since no transmission takes place.

Bus Off. A node that is in Bus Off does not take part in any bus communication. It has no effect on the bus.

The error status in CAN is indicated by the error status register CAN_CSR_ERR_SR. The bits ERR_STATE (CAN_CSR_ERR_SR[17:16]) indicate which error state the CAN node is in. The error states in CAN are determined according to the values of two counters:

- Transmit Error Counter (CAN_CSR_ERR_SR[7:0])
- Receive Error Counter (CAN_CSR_ERR_SR[15:8])

The error counters are modified according to the CAN 2.0B Specification.

A node is in ‘error active’ state if the Transmit Error Counter or the Receive Error Counter are less than or equal to 127 decimal. A node is in ‘error passive’ state if the Transmit or Receive Error Counter value exceeds or equals 128 decimal. A node is in ‘Bus Off’ state if the Transmit Error Counter exceeds or equals the value of 256 decimal.

An ‘error passive’ node becomes ‘error active’ again when both the Transmit Error Count and the Receive Error Count are less than or equal to 127.

A node which is in ‘Bus Off’ state becomes ‘error active’ with its error counters both set to ‘0’ after 128 occurrences of 11 consecutive ‘recessive’ bits are monitored on the bus.

There are two bits in the error status register:

- ‘txgte96’ (CAN_CSR_ERR_SR[18])
- ‘rxgte96’ (CAN_CSR_ERR_SR[19])

that indicate if the Transmit Error Counter and Receive Error Counter, respectively, are greater than or equal to 96 decimal. This is a feature. It serves as an error warning because an error count value greater than and around 96 indicates a heavily disturbed bus.

25.8.3 Interrupt Sources in CAN

The interrupt controller governs the various interrupt sources in CAN.

The interrupt controller contains an interrupt status and an interrupt enable register. The interrupt status register (CAN_CSR_INT_SR) stores internal interrupt events. Once a bit is set, it remains set until it is cleared by writing a ‘1’ to it. The interrupt enable register has no effect on the interrupt status register.

The interrupt enable register (CAN_CSR_INT_EN) controls which particular bits from the interrupt status register are used to assert the interrupt output INT_N. INT_N is asserted if a particular interrupt status bit and the respective enable bit are set.

The various interrupt sources in CAN are as follows:

- rx_msg. Indicates a message received.
- tx_msg. Indicates a message sent.
- rx_msg_loss. Is set when a new message arrives but the RxMessage flag MSG AV is set.
- bus_off. The CAN has reached the bus off state.
- crc_err. A CAN CRC error detected.
- form_err. A CAN message format error detected.
- ack_err. A CAN message acknowledge error detected.
- stuff_err. A bit stuffing error detected.
- bit_err. A bit error detected.
- ovr_load. An overload frame received.
- arb_loss. The arbitration lost while sending a message.
25.9 Operating Modes in CAN

The CAN module operates mainly in three different modes. The command register CAN_CSR_CMD is used to select the operating modes by setting the corresponding bit for each mode. The three operating modes are as follows:

- SRAM Test Mode: CAN_CSR_CMD[2]
- Listen Only Mode: CAN_CSR_CMD[1]
- Run/Stop Mode: CAN_CSR_CMD[0]

25.9.1 Listen Only Mode

In Listen Only mode, the CAN controller only listens to the CAN receive line without acknowledging the received messages on the bus. It does not send any messages in this mode. However, the error flags are updated so that the bit timing is adjusted until no error occurs.

The various steps involved in automatic baud rate detection are as follows.

1. The CAN controller is initialized for acceptance of all messages (i.e., the global/local mask is set to '0').
2. The bit timing values of the first possible CANOpen bit rate (10 Kbps) is loaded and the controller is switched into "Listen Only" mode.
3. Assuming that there is traffic on the network and the bit rate is correct, the message is accepted.
4. The error registers will not change and the flag for message reception is set inside the CAN controller. This means the correct bit rate is detected.
5. Assuming the bit rate is not correct, the error flags are updated (stuff-, CRC, or form-error).
6. In this scenario, the CAN controller is switched off and the next possible bit timing values are loaded from the bit rate table.

25.9.2 Run/Stop Mode

The CAN controller is in Run mode when it is operating normally. The CAN controller is stopped while it is in the SRAM Test mode.
26. USB

The PSoC® USB block acts as a USB device that communicates with a USB host. The USB block is available as a fixed function digital block in the PSoC device. It supports full speed communication (12 Mbps) and is designed to be compliant with the USB Specification Revision 2.0. USB devices can be designed for plug and play applications with the host and also support hot swapping. This chapter details the PSoC USB block and transfer modes. For details about the USB specification, see the USB Implementers Forum web site.

26.1 Features

The PSoC USB has these features:

- Complies with USB Specification 2.0
- Supports full speed peripherals device operation with a signaling bit rate of 12 Mbps
- Supports 8 data endpoints and 1 control endpoint
- Supports four types of transfers – bulk, interrupt, isochronous, and control
- Supports Plug and Play
- Supports two types of logical transfer modes:
  - Store and Forward mode
  - Cut Through mode
- Differential signal (D+ and D-) output
- Supports maximum packet size of 64 bytes using the Store and Forward mode and maximum packet size of 1023 for Isochronous transfer using the Cut through mode
- Capable of supplying PS/2 and CMOS signals
- Supports two Vccd voltage ranges, with a nominal voltage of 3.3 V
26.2 Block Diagram

Figure 26-1 illustrates the architecture of the USB block. It consists of the Serial Interface Engine (SIE) and Arbiter.
26.2.1 Serial Interface Engine (SIE)

The Serial Interface Engine (SIE) is responsible for handling the decoding and creating of data and control packets during transmit and receive. It decodes the USB bit streams into USB packets during receive and creates USB bit streams during transmit. The following are the features of the SIE block:

- Conforms to the USB 2.0 Specification
- Supports 1 device address
- Supports 8 data endpoints and 1 control endpoint
- Supports interrupt for each endpoint
- Operates at Full Speed with a 48 MHz Clock (maximum permitted tolerance is ±0.25%)
- Integrates an 8-byte buffer in the Control endpoint

The registers for this block are mainly used to configure the data endpoint operations and the Control Endpoint Data buffers. The register also controls the interrupt available for each endpoint.

The SIE generates an interrupt at the end of a transfer. The interrupt enabling and disabling for an endpoint can be done using the USB_SIE_INT_EN register. The status of the interrupt for an endpoint is obtained from the USB_SIE_INT_SR register.

The SIE registers CNT0 and CNT1 hold the count value for each endpoint which reports the number of data bytes in a USB transfer. In the case of an OUT endpoint, the firmware programs the maximum number of bytes that can be received for the endpoint. The SIE updates the register with the number of bytes received. In the case of an IN endpoint, it holds the number of bytes that will be transmitted.

The SIE Control register for each endpoint, USB_SIE_EPx_CR0, holds the mode value. The mode value determines the response of the USB block to the host. Refer to Table 26-1 for the different mode values. The table describes the mode values corresponding to each type token: the SETUP, IN and OUT tokens.

Transition error is also reported by the SIE. The bit “err_in_txn” in the USB_SIE_EPx_CR0 register indicates the occurrence of an error. When this bit is set and the USB block is in Store and Forward mode, the hardware automatically retransmits the same data when it receives another IN token from the host. In Cut Through mode, this bit can be read by the firmware to determine if the data should be retransmitted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Encoding</th>
<th>SETUP</th>
<th>IN</th>
<th>OUT</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disable</td>
<td>0000</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore all USB traffic to this endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAK IN/OUT</td>
<td>0001</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>NAK</td>
<td>NAK</td>
<td>NAK IN and OUT token</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status OUT Only</td>
<td>0010</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>Check</td>
<td>When this mode is set, it accepts a SETUP token, STALLs in case of IN token and ACKs with a zero length packet in case of OUT token. Used for control endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STALL IN/OUT</td>
<td>0011</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>When this mode is set, it accepts a SETUP token, STALLs in case of IN and OUT token. Used for control endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>0100</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISO OUT</td>
<td>0101</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td></td>
<td>Isochronous OUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status IN only</td>
<td>0110</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>TX 0 byte</td>
<td>STATLL</td>
<td>When this mode is set, it accepts a SETUP token, STALLs in case of OUT token and ACKs with a zero length packet in case of IN token. Used for control endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISO IN</td>
<td>0111</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>TX Count</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Isochronous IN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAK OUT</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>NAK</td>
<td>Send NAK handshake to OUT token</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACK OUT (STALL = 0)</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>ACK</td>
<td>This mode is changed by the SIE to mode 1000 on issuance of ACK handshake to an OUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACK OUT (STALL = 1)</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>STALL</td>
<td>STALL the OUT transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ignore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACK OUT – STATUS IN</td>
<td>1011</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>TX0 byte</td>
<td>ACK</td>
<td>ACK the OUT token or send zero length data packet for IN token</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAK IN</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>NAK</td>
<td>Ignore</td>
<td>Send NAK handshake for IN token</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
26.2.2 Arbiter

The Arbiter is the block which handles access of the SRAM memory by the endpoints. The SRAM memory can be accessed by the CPU or the SIE. The Arbiter handles the arbitration between the CPU and the SIE. The Arbiter consists of the following blocks:

- SIE Interface Module
- CPU Interface Module
- Memory Interface
- DMA Engine
- Arbiter Logic
- Synchronization Module

The Arbiter registers are used to handle the endpoint configurations, the Read address, and the Write address for the endpoints. It also configures the logical transfer type required for each endpoint. The types of logical transfers are discussed below. Also, each endpoint supports interrupt. The Arbiter has only one interrupt line for the Interrupt Controller. The Arbiter registers handle the enabling/disabling of the interrupts for the endpoints and hold the status of the interrupts. The Arbiter is also responsible for the memory management (i.e., sharing the available 512 bytes of SRAM among the data endpoints).

26.2.2.1 SIE Interface Module

This module handles all the transactions with the SIE block. The SIE reads data from the SRAM memory and transmits to the host. Similarly, it writes the data received from the host to the SRAM memory. These requests are registered in the SIE Interface module and are handled by this block.

26.2.2.2 CPU Interface Block

This module handles all the transactions with the CPU. The CPU makes requests for the reads and writes to the SRAM memory for each endpoint. These requests are registered in the CPU Interface block and are handled by the block.

26.2.2.3 Memory Interface

The memory interface is used to control the interface between the USB block and the SRAM memory unit. The maximum memory size supported is 512 bytes organized as 256 x a 16-bit memory unit. This is a dedicated memory for the USB. All the control and data lines, including the Data In lines, Data Out lines, Enable line, Address lines, and Direction Control line between the USB and the memory unit, are handled by the memory interface. The memory access can be requested by the SIE or by the CPU. The SIE Interface block and the CPU Interface block handle these requests.

26.2.2.4 DMA Interface

When Direct Memory Access (DMA) is configured, the DMA interface is responsible for all transactions back and forth between the DMA and USB. The block supports the DMA request line for each data endpoint. The behavior of the DMA depends on the type of logical transfer mode configured in the Configuration register. Note that DMA transfers from UDBs to the USB block must first go through SRAM to ensure that proper timing is kept. An additional transaction descriptor should be used to transfer from UDBs to SRAM, and then from SRAM to USB. Other applicable DMA transfers from sources besides UDBs are not constrained to this path.

26.2.2.5 Arbiter Logic

This is the main block of the Arbiter. It is responsible for arbitrations for all the transactions that happen in the Arbiter. It arbitrates the CPU, DMA, and SIE access to the memory unit and the registers. This block also handles the memory management. The memory management is either “Manual” or “Automatic.” In the case of Manual Memory Management, the read and write address manipulations are done by the firmware. In the case of Automatic management, all the memory handling is done by this block itself. This block takes care of the buffer size allocation, depending on the programmed buffer size (using the USB_BUF_SIZE). It also does the handling of common memory area.

This block also handles the interrupt requests for each endpoint. Each endpoint can have interrupts due to:

- DMA Grants
- IN Buffer Full
- Buffer Overflow
- Buffer Underflow
These arbiter interrupt requests are routed to only one interrupt line which acts as a signal to the interrupt controller.

### 26.2.2.6 Synchronization Block

The USB block uses 2 clocks: the System Clock and the USB Clock. The System Clock is used by the Arbiter. The USB Clock is used by the SIE and the OsClock module. Since these two are different clocks, synchronization is required between the blocks. The handling of the synchronization is done by this block.

### 26.3 How it Works

The USB Block operates at a certain frequency and voltage range. For proper operation of the USB block, the user must ensure that the operating ranges are within tolerances. The following sections discuss the operating ranges required for the PSoC USB.

#### 26.3.1 Operating Frequency

The USB block needs two different clocks to work: the System Clock which controls the Arbiter, memory and the register block, and the USB clock which controls the SIE and the OsClock.

- Minimum system clock – 24 MHz
- USB Clock for Full Speed operation – 48 MHz (+0.25% tolerance)

The USB needs a 48 MHz clock to function. The clock to the USB is called the clk_usb. The clk_usb can be derived from either IMOCLK, doubler clock (IMOCLK * 2), PLL, or the DSI clock. For further details on the clock for this block, refer to the Clocking System chapter on page 147. The OsClock block of the USB trims the USB clock to lock to the frequency of the USB packets. The USB clock is clocked to the USB token as per the USB 2.0 Specification. When the frequency is locked with other USB bit streams, the block will locate a particular edge in the USB packet. The number of clock periods between these edges is measured to lock the internal oscillator frequency with the frequency of the USB packet. The frequency tuning value is sent to the Clocking system by the USB Block to lock the frequency. The locking of the frequency is done by the hardware and needs no user intervention. The Synchronization Block of the Arbiter handles the synchronization of the USB Clock and System Clock.

#### 26.3.2 Operating Voltage

The USB block can operate in two voltage ranges:

- Standard voltage range – 4.35V to 5.25V
- Lower voltage range – 3.15V to 3.45V

The USB needs a nominal voltage of 3.3V for its operation. The block uses the regulated digital voltage Vccd. It supports an internal regulator which is used for voltage regulation. While in the Standard Voltage Range, the voltage is regulated to 3.3V by the internal regulator. While in the Lower Voltage Range, the internal regulator should be bypassed. The “reg_enable” bit in the USB_USB_CR1 register is used to control the regulator usage.

In all other voltage ranges (that is, 1.7V to 3.15V, 3.45V to 4.35V, and 5.25V to 5.5V, the “suspend,” “pull up,” and “high impedance drive” modes will work properly because the current specification is met. The Drive modes can be selected using the registers USB_USBIO_CR1 and USB_USBIO_CR2.

#### 26.3.3 Transceiver

The USB block includes the transmitter and the receiver. The signal between the USB device and the host is a differential signal. The receiver receives the differential signal and converts it to a single ended signal. The single ended input is given to the USB block at a nominal voltage range of 1.55V to 1.95V. The transmitter converts the single ended signal to the differential signal and transmits it to the host. The differential signal is given to the upstream devices at a nominal voltage range of 0V to 3.3V.

The transceiver also supports the PS/2 signals. It can receive and transmit PS/2 signals at a nominal voltage of 0V to 5V. The transceiver has the pull up resistors to support the PS/2 signals.

Apart from the PS/2 signals, the transceiver also supports the CMOS signal levels. The PS/2 and the CMOS modes can be selected using the registers USB_USBIO_CR1 and USB_USBIO_CR2.

The Transmitter can be manually forced to transmit signals. The register USB_USBIO_CR0 is used to manually transmit the signals. Examples are as follows:

- When the manual transmission is enabled, the register can be configured to transmit Single Ended Zero signal (that is, D+ and D- are low).
- Configurable to transmit the USB signals. The USB signals can be two types:
  - D+ low and D- high = J
  - D+ high and D- low = K
- The register also has a bit which is used to read the received signal levels. The bit can show if D+ < D- or D+ > D-.
26.3.4 Endpoints

The SIE and Arbiter support 8 data endpoints (EP1 to EP8) and one control endpoint (EP0). The data endpoints share the SRAM memory area of 512 bytes. The endpoint memory management can be either “Manual” or “Automatic.” The endpoints are configured for direction and other configuration using the SIE and arbiter registers. The endpoint “read address” and “write address” registers are accessed through the Arbiter. Each endpoint supports a set of interrupts. The interrupts can be enabled or disabled for an individual endpoint. The interrupts for each endpoint can also be collectively enabled or disabled.

The endpoints can be individually made active. In the Auto Management mode, the register USB_EP_ACTIVE is written to control the active state of the endpoint. The endpoint activation cannot be dynamically changed during runtime. In Manual Memory Management mode the firmware decides the memory allocation, so it is not required to specify the active endpoints. The USB_EP_TYPE register is used to control the transfer direction (IN, OUT) for the endpoints. The control endpoint has a separate 8 bytes for its data.

26.3.5 Transfer Types

The PSoC USB supports Full Speed transfers and is compliant with the USB 2.0 Specification. It supports four types of transfers:
- Interrupt Transfer
- Bulk Transfer
- Isochronous Transfer
- Control Transfer

For further details about these transfers, refer to the USB Specification 2.0.

26.3.6 Interrupts

The interrupts are generated by the SIE and the Arbiter. The following interrupt lines are available for the interrupt controller:
- Nine SIE interrupt lines (one for each endpoint and control endpoint)
- Arbiter interrupt line
- SIE interrupt line for SOF
- SIE data endpoints interrupt line
- Reset interrupt line

Nine SIE Interrupts
- Generated after the completion of packet transmission.
- Automatic for acknowledged transfer
- Can be enabled for non-acknowledged transfer

The register USB_SIE_EP_INT_EN is used to enable the SIE interrupt for each endpoint. Each bit in the register corresponds to each endpoint.

The status of the SIE interrupt can be read using the USB_SIE_EP_INT_SR register. These bits are sticky bits and need firmware to clear the status.

Separate interrupt line for each data endpoint and control endpoint.

The register SIE_EP_INT_EN and SIE_EP_INT_SR control/ show the status of both the SIE and the Data Endpoint interrupts.

Arbiter Interrupt Line

The arbiter generates interrupts for the endpoints during these events:
- Buffer overflow
- Buffer underflow
- DMA grant
- IN endpoint local buffer full

This information applies to the arbiter interrupts.

These interrupts can be generated by every endpoint. The register USB_ARB_EPx_INT_EN (where x = 1 to 8 for each endpoint) is used to enable or disable each interrupt for the endpoint.

The Status of each interrupt for every endpoint can be read using the USB_ARB_EPx_INT_SR (where x = 1 to 8 for each endpoint) register.

The interrupt for an endpoint can be collectively enabled or disabled using the USB_ARB_INT_EN register. Each bit in this register corresponds to each endpoint.

The status of the Arbiter interrupt for an endpoint can be read using the USB_ARB_INT_SR register.

There is only one arbiter line common for all the endpoints.

SIE Interrupt for SOF
- Generated whenever the SOF is received.

SIE Data Interrupt
- Interrupt generated for the data valid or error in transaction.
- One interrupt line common for all endpoints.
- The sticky bit “data_valid,” in the USB_SIE_EPx_CNT0 register, indicates the data valid state.
- The sticky bit “err_in_txn” in the USB_SIE_EPx_CR0 register indicates the error in transaction state.
26.4 Logical Transfer Modes

The USB block in PSoC devices supports two types of logical transfers. The logical transfers can be configured using the register setting for each endpoint. Any of the logical transfer methods can be adapted to support the three types of data transfers (Interrupt, Bulk, and Isochronous) mentioned in the USB 2.0 Specification. The Control transfer is mandatory in any USB device.

The logical transfer mode is a combination of memory management and DMA configurations. The Logical Transfer modes are related to the data transfer within the USB block (i.e., to/from the SRAM memory unit for each endpoint). It does not represent the transfer methods between the device and the host (i.e., the transfer types specified in the USB 2.0 Specification).

The USB block supports two basic types of transfer modes and are detailed in Table 26-2 on page 285.

- Store and Forward mode
- Cut Through mode

---

Every endpoint has a set of registers that need to be handled during the modes of operation, as detailed in Table 26-3.

---

### Table 26-2. USB Transfer Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Store and Forward Mode</th>
<th>Cut Through Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SRAM Memory Usage</td>
<td>Requires more memory</td>
<td>Requires less memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAM Memory Management</td>
<td>Manual</td>
<td>Auto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRAM Memory Sharing</td>
<td>512 bytes of SRAM shared between endpoints. Sharing is done by firmware.</td>
<td>Each endpoint is allocated less share of memory automatically by the block. Rest of memory is available as “Common Area.” This Common Area is used during the transfer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN Command</td>
<td>Entire packet present in SRAM memory before the IN command is received.</td>
<td>Memory filled with data only when SRAM IN command is received. Data is given to host when enough data is available (based on DMA configuration). Does not wait for the entire data to be filled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUT Command</td>
<td>Entire packet is written to SRAM memory on OUT command. After entire data is available, it is copied from SRAM memory to the USB device.</td>
<td>Waits only for enough bytes (depends on DMA configuration) to be written in SRAM memory. Once enough bytes are present, it is immediately copied from SRAM memory to the USB device.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of Data</td>
<td>Data is transferred when all bytes have been written to the memory.</td>
<td>Data is transferred when enough bytes are available. It does not wait for the entire data to be filled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types Based on DMA</td>
<td>No DMA mode</td>
<td>Only Auto DMA mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supported Transfer Types</td>
<td>Best suited for Interrupt and Bulk transfers</td>
<td>Best suited for Isochronous transfer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Table 26-3. Endpoint Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARB_RWx_WA</td>
<td>Endpoint Write Address register</td>
<td>Address of the SRAM</td>
<td>This register indicates the SRAM location to which the data in the Data register is to be written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARB_RWx_RA</td>
<td>Endpoint Read Address register</td>
<td>Address of the SRAM</td>
<td>This register indicates the SRAM location from which the data must be read and stored to the Data register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARB_RWx_DR</td>
<td>Endpoint Data Register</td>
<td>8-Bit Data</td>
<td>Data register is read/written to perform any transaction. IN command: Data written to the Data register is copied to the SRAM location specified by the WA register. After write, the WA value is automatically incremented to point to the next memory location. OUT command: Data available in the SRAM location pointed by the RA register is read and stored to the DR. Once the DR is read, the value of RA is automatically incremented to point to the next SRAM memory location that must be read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIE_EPx_CNT0 and SIE_EPx_CNT1</td>
<td>Endpoint Byte Count Register</td>
<td>Number of Bytes</td>
<td>Holds the number of bytes that can be transferred. IN command: Holds the number of bytes to be transferred to host. OUT command: Holds the maximum number of bytes that can be received. The firmware programs the maximum number of bytes that can be received for that endpoint. The SIE updates the register with the number of bytes received for the endpoint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mode</em> bits in SIE_EPx_CR0</td>
<td>Mode Values</td>
<td>Response to the Host</td>
<td>Controls how the USB device responds to the USB traffic and the USB host. Some examples of mode include ACK, NAK, STALL, etc. Refer to Table 26-1 on page 281 for additional details.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the Manual Memory Management case, the endpoint read and endpoint write address registers are updated by the firmware. So the memory allocation can be done as required by the user and the memory allocation decides which endpoints are active. (i.e., the user can decide to share the 512 bytes for all the 8 endpoints or a lesser number of endpoints).

In the Automatic memory management case, the endpoint read and endpoint write address registers are updated by the USB block. The block assigns memory to the endpoints which have been activated using the EP_ACTIVE register. The size of memory allocated depends on the value in the BUF_SIZE register. The rest of the memory, after allocation, is called the “Common Area” memory and used for the transfer of data.

In the following text, the algorithm for the IN and OUT transaction for each mode is discussed. An IN transaction is when the data is read by the USB host (for example, PC). An OUT transaction is when the data is written by the USB host to the USB device (in this case, PSoC 3 or PSoC 5). The choice of using the DMA and memory management can be configured using the USB_ARB_CFG register and the mode is common to all endpoints.

26.4.1 Store and Forward Mode

26.4.1.1 No DMA Access

This is the Manual Memory Management mode with no DMA access.

**IN Transaction (CPU Write, SIE Read).** The steps for an IN transaction on an IN endpoint are shown in Figure 26-2.

**OUT Transaction (CPU Read, SIE Write).** The steps for an OUT transaction on an OUT endpoint are shown in Figure 26-3.
26.4.1.2 Manual DMA Access

This is the Manual Memory Management mode with Manual DMA Access. This mode requires the configuration of the DMA controller. See DMA Interface on page 282 for details and constraints regarding DMA transfers to the USB block.

This mode is similar to the No DMA Access except that the write/read of packets is performed by DMA. A DMA request for an endpoint is generated by setting the DMA_CFG bit in the ARB_EPx_CFG register. When the DMA service is granted and is done (DMA_GNT), an arbiter interrupt can be programmed to occur. The transfer is done using a single DMA cycle or multiple DMA cycles. After completion of every DMA cycle the arbiter interrupt (DMA_GNT) is generated. Similarly, when all the bytes of data (programmed in the byte count) have been written to the memory, the arbiter interrupt occurs and the IN_BUF_FULL bit is set.

IN Transaction (CPU Write, SIE Read). The steps for an IN transaction on an IN endpoint are shown in Figure 26-4.

![Figure 26-3. No DMA Access OUT Transaction](image)
**OUT Transaction (CPU Read, SIE Write).** The steps for an OUT transaction on an OUT endpoint are shown in Figure 26-5.
26.4.2 Cut Through Mode

This is the Auto Memory Management mode with Auto DMA Access. The CPU programs the initial buffer size requirement for IN/OUT packets and informs the Arbiter block of the endpoint configuration details for the particular application being considered. The block then controls memory partitioning and handling of all memory pointers. During the memory allocation, each active IN endpoint (set by the EP_ACTIVE and EP_TYPE registers) is allocated a small amount of memory configured using the BUF_SIZE register. The remaining memory is left as “Common Area” and is common for all endpoints.

In this mode, the memory requirement is less and it is suitable for the Full Speed “Isochronous Transfer” up to 1023 bytes.

When an IN command is sent by the host, the device responds with the data present in the dedicated memory area for that endpoint. It simultaneously issues a DMA request for more data for that EP. This data fills up in the Common Area. The device does not wait for the entire packets of data to be available. It only waits for the $(USB\_DMA\_THRES\_MSB, USB\_DMA\_THRES)$ number of data available in the SRAM memory and begins the transfer from the common area. See DMA Interface on page 282 for details and constraints regarding DMA transfers to the USB block.

Similarly, when an OUT command is received, the data for the OUT endpoint is written to the common area. Once some data (data greater than $(USB\_DMA\_THRES\_MSB, USB\_DMA\_THRES)$) is available in the common area, the Arbiter block initiates a DMA request to the PHUB and the data is immediately written to the device. The device does not wait for the common area to be filled.

This mode requires the configuration of the DMA_THRES and DMA_THRES_MSB registers to hold the number of bytes that can be transferred in one DMA transfer. Similarly, the PHUB register must be configured for the BURSTCNT values. The BURSTCNT value must always be equal to the value set in the DMA_THRES registers. The block sends the Termin signal to the PHUB along with the last data byte of the packet. Apart from the DMA registers, this mode also needs the configuration of the BUF_SIZE for the IN and the OUT buffers and the EP_ACTIVE and the EP_TYPE registers.

**IN Transaction (CPU Write, SIE Read).** The steps for an IN transaction on an IN endpoint are shown in Figure 26-6 on page 290.
Write packet size of the endpoint to Byte Count register

Set IN_DATA_RDY for the endpoint in ARB_EP1_CFG register

Block automatically raises interrupt for DMA

DMA writes to Data register.

Data automatically read and written to SRAM pointed by WA. WA++

IN_BUF_FULL Interrupt generated

Is the endpoint buffer filled?

Update Mode value in the Mode register

Wait

Is IN command received

Yes

Block automatically sends the ACK. (Configured as Mode value)

Yes

Is the complete data available in the memory?

Wait

Initiate PHUB transfer.

Block transfer data available in Common Area

Set the data valid bits

End

SIE reads data from SRAM (specified by location RA) and transmits to host

RA++

Is all data in buffer transmitted?

Set the data valid bits

End

IN_BUF_FULL Interrupt generated

Is the endpoint buffer filled?

Wait

Is IN command received

Yes

Block automatically sends the ACK. (Configured as Mode value)

Yes

Is the complete data available in the memory?

Wait

Initiate PHUB transfer.

Block transfer data available in Common Area

Set the data valid bits

End

This memory location is very limited. The memory location is filled initially to make sure the host does not stall when an IN command is sent. When an IN command is received the PHUB initiates the copy of data from device to common area. This initialization would take some time. The data in the end point buffer is transmitted until the data is copied to the common area.
OUT Transaction (CPU Read, SIE Write). The steps for an OUT transaction on an OUT endpoint are shown in Figure 26-7.

Figure 26-7. Cut Through Mode OUT Transaction

26.4.3 Control Endpoint Logical Transfer

The control endpoint has a special logical transfer mode. It doesn't share the 512 bytes of memory. Instead it has dedicated 8 byte register buffer. The IN and OUT transaction for the control endpoint is detailed below:

Figure 26-8. IN Transaction
26.5 PS/2 and CMOS I/O Modes

The USB transceiver is designed in such a way that, apart from the USB signals, it can also transmit other signal levels. The pull up resistors are available at the transmitter end, which enables additional signal levels. The registers USB_USBIO_CR1 and USB_USBIO_CR2 must be configured to get different signal levels.

The "test_res" bit in the USBIO_CR2 register puts the transmitter in pull up mode where the pull up resistors are connected.

The I/O mode bit in the USBIO_CR1 register puts the USB in either USB mode or Drive mode. When put in Drive mode, the USB signals are disabled and the bits DMI and DPI are used to drive D- and D+, respectively. There are two different drive modes. In CMOS Drive mode, D+ follows the DPI and D- follows the DMI. In the case of Open Drain mode, the pull up resistors play a role. In this state, when the DPI and DMI bits are set to high, D+ and D- are high impedance.

The pull up resistors can be connected between Vdd and D+ and D-, independent of the Drive modes. The bit "p2puen" is used for this.

An internal pull up of 1.5 kΩ is also supported and can be enabled using the register USBIO_CR1. The USBIO_CR1 register is also used to poll the state of the D+ and D- pins.
## 26.6 Register List

Table 26-4. USB Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Registers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_CR0</td>
<td>USB Control register 0</td>
<td>To enable the USB and store the USB Device address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_CR1</td>
<td>USB Control register 1</td>
<td>To monitor the bus activity and control the regulator operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USBIO_CR0</td>
<td>USB I/O Control register 0</td>
<td>To control the operation on D+ and D- signals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USBIO_CR1</td>
<td>USB I/O Control register 1</td>
<td>To configure the pull up registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USBIO_CR2</td>
<td>USB I/O Control register 2</td>
<td>To control in test modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_BUF_SIZE</td>
<td>Dedicated endpoint buffer size register</td>
<td>Stores the dedicated buffer size for each endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_EP_ACTIVE</td>
<td>Endpoint active register</td>
<td>Stores the status of active endpoints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_EP_TYPE</td>
<td>Endpoint Type register</td>
<td>Stores the type of endpoint either IN/OUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_EP0_DRx</td>
<td>Control endpoint Data register</td>
<td>The endpoint 0 is the control endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_EP0_CR</td>
<td>Endpoint 0 Control register</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_EP0_CNT</td>
<td>Endpoint 0 Count register</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SIE Registers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SIE_EP_INT_EN</td>
<td>Interrupt enable register</td>
<td>To enable the interrupts for each endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SIE_EP_INT_SR</td>
<td>Interrupt status register</td>
<td>To find the status of interrupt for each endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SIE_EPx_CNT0</td>
<td>Non control endpoint Count register</td>
<td>Handles the Data toggle state and MSB of the 11 bit counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SIE_EPx_CNT0</td>
<td>Non control endpoint Count register</td>
<td>LSb of the 11 bit counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SIE_EPx_CR0</td>
<td>Non control endpoint Control register</td>
<td>Controls the mode for the endpoint and stores the state of error, ACK and NACK for the endpoint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OsClock Registers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSCLK_DR0</td>
<td>OsClock Lock register 0</td>
<td>The LSB of the Oscillator locking circuit output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSCLK_DR1</td>
<td>OsClock Lock register 1</td>
<td>The MSB of the Oscillator locking circuit output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arbiter Registers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_EPx_CFG</td>
<td>Endpoint configuration register</td>
<td>Stores the configuration for the transfer modes, reset of pointers and CRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_Epx_INT_EN</td>
<td>Endpoint Interrupt enable register</td>
<td>To enable the required interrupts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_Epx_SR</td>
<td>Endpoint status register</td>
<td>To indicate status like overflow, underflow, DMA grant and Local buffer full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_RWx_WA</td>
<td>Endpoint Write address register</td>
<td>Stores the LSB 8 bits of the Write address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_RWx_WA_MSB</td>
<td>Endpoint Write address register</td>
<td>Stores the MSB 1 bit of the Write address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_RWx_RA</td>
<td>Endpoint Read address register</td>
<td>Stores the LSB 8 bits of the Read address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_RWx_RA_MSB</td>
<td>Endpoint Read address register</td>
<td>Stores the MSB 1 bit of the Read address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_CFG</td>
<td>Arbiter Configuration register</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_INT_EN</td>
<td>Arbiter Interrupt Enable register</td>
<td>To enable the interrupt for each endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_ARB_INT_SR</td>
<td>Arbiter Interrupt Status register</td>
<td>To store the interrupt status for each endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_CWA</td>
<td>Common Area Write Address register</td>
<td>The LSB 8 bits of the Write address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_CWA_MSB</td>
<td>Common Area Write Address register</td>
<td>The MSB 1 bit of the Write address pointer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_DMA_THRES</td>
<td>DMA Threshold Count register</td>
<td>The LSB 8 bits of the DMA threshold count register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 26-4. USB Register List (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USB_DMA_THRES_MSB</td>
<td>DMA Threshold Count register</td>
<td>The MSB 1 bit of the DMA threshold count register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SOF0</td>
<td>Start of Frame register 0</td>
<td>LSB 8 bits of the Start of Frame counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_SOF1</td>
<td>Start of Frame register 1</td>
<td>MSB 3 bits of the Start of Frame counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB_BUS_RST_CNT</td>
<td>Bus reset count register</td>
<td>The reset counter for the USB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. Timer, Counter, and PWM

Timer blocks in PSoC® devices are 8/16 bits and configurable to act as Timer, Counter, or Pulse Width Modulator (PWM) blocks that play important roles in embedded systems. PSoC devices give a maximum of four instances of the block. If additional blocks are required, they can be configured in the UDBs using PSoC Creator™. Timer blocks have various clock sources and are connected to the General Purpose Input/Output (GPIO) though the Digital System Interconnect (DSI).

27.1 Features

- 8/16-bit timer/counter/PWM that acts as a down counter
- Supports the following modes:
  - Timer
  - Gated Timer
  - Pulse-width Modulator (PWM)
  - One Shot
- Supports interrupts upon:
  - Terminal count – the final value in the Count register is reached
  - Compare true – the timer value matches with the Compare register
  - Capture – capture of timer value on edge detection in the Capture signal
- Counts when Enable signal is asserted
- Supports the free running timer
- Period reload on start, reset, and terminal count
- Selectable clock source
- Supports kill and dead band features

27.2 Block Diagram

Figure 27-1 on page 296 shows one timer block.
27.3 How It Works

The block receives a clock signal that is selectable from different sources. The block in PSoC devices is a down counter and counts for every rising edge of the input clock. It counts down from the period value to zero. When it reaches zero (terminal count) the period value is reloaded into the count register, and the timer continues to count. If the timer is configured for One Shot mode, the timer stops when it reaches the terminal count.

The timer block can act in various modes, depending on appropriate configuration of the registers:

- Timer
  - Free Run
  - Gated Timer
    - Pulse Width
    - Period
    - Stop on Interrupt
- PWM
- One Shot

The block can be used as a timer to capture time of external event, to measure period and pulse width of the input signal, and to find the time of occurrence of interrupt and as a PWM generation unit.

27.3.1 Clock Selection

The block supports the flexibility to select the required clock source. As shown in Figure 27-2 on page 297, the block uses the CLK_BUS frequency, or it is routed through one of the eight selectable clock lines CLK_BUS_EN 0…7, which are synchronous to the clock bus.

Clock selection is done through the Configuration register CFG1. If the CLK_BUS bit in register CFG1 is set, the block uses the CLK_BUS frequency, instead of the eight selectable digital clock lines.

If the CLK_BUS bit is set to 0, one of the eight selectable lines is used for the clock. The bits CLK_BUS_EN_SEL in Configuration register CFG1 are set to choose one of eight selectable digital clock lines. The clock for the digital clock lines can be derived from the CLK_BUS or it can be another UDB signal or external clock signal.
27.3.2 Enabling and Disabling Block

The block is enabled or disabled by setting the Enable bit EN in Configuration register TMRx_CFG0. All the required configurations for the block must be done before it is enabled. When the block is enabled, it functions in the configured mode (Timer or PWM). Enabling a block updates the registers with the new configured value. Disabling a block retains the values in the registers until it is enabled again.

- When the EN bit is set, the previous state is cleared and the count register is loaded with the reload value from the period register. The block starts to count.
- When Configuration and Period registers are modified with the EN bit set to ‘1’, the changes go into effect only after the completion of the current running period (at the terminal count).
- When Configuration and Period registers are modified with the EN bit set to ‘0’, the changes go into effect immediately after the EN bit is set to ‘1’.
- When the block is enabled, the count value is loaded with the new reload value, regardless of the state of the register before setting EN = ‘0’.

When the register values are changed after setting EN = ‘0’, the changes go into effect immediately. This is useful during the PWM mode, where the user can change the PWM period or duty cycle immediately.

27.3.3 Input Signal Characteristics

The block has four input signals separate from the clock signal:

- Enable
- Capture
- Timer Reset
- Kill

Input signals are connected to the GPIO through the Digital System Interconnects (DSI). The user maps the input pins to the DSI routing through External Routing register RT0. DSI 1 through DSI 4 within any block can be routed to as any of the above input signals, depending on user mapping. Mapping between DSI routing and the input pins is not fixed. See Figure 27-1 on page 296.

The block has two outputs, terminal count and compare output. They are synchronized to the clock signal. This is done by setting the bits in the external routing register RT1. When the pins are set as asynchronous, the changes go into effect immediately. If synchronous, the changes go into effect during the next clock cycle.
27.3.3.1 **Enable Signal**

The effect of the enable signal is explained in the timing diagram for each mode. The following characteristics apply:

- Gated timer pulse width mode and period mode take the Enable signal as input.
- Gated timer stop at interrupt mode and PWM mode need an asserted Enable signal to function properly.
- Free run mode is independent of the enable signal.
- Enable signal polarity is reversed by setting the bit INV in configuration register CFG0.
- Use of the capture signal to capture a time instance is valid only when the enable signal is asserted.

27.3.3.2 **Capture Signal**

The capture signal is useful to find the time when an event occurs. The capture signal is usually combined with the free run timer mode. For the timer block to respond to the capture signal, the enable signal must be asserted before asserting the capture signal. The following describes the process:

- The time value is captured in the capture register by assertion of the Capture signal for the block.
- Whenever the rising edge of the Capture signal is detected, the count value is captured in the Capture register.
- The capture register is read to find the time when the assertion of Capture signal occurred.
- With every assertion of the Capture signal, a new value is captured to the Capture register.
- An interrupt can be configured to occur at the assertion of the Capture signal. The interrupt bit in the Status register should be unmasked for the capture interrupt to occur. The Capture register value can be read in the capture ISR.
- When using a fixed function timer with interrupt on capture enabled, read the capture register twice. The first reading yields an incorrect value (0xff)."
Figure 27-3. Capture Mode Timing Diagram
27.3.3.3  Timer Reset Signal

When the timer reset pin is asserted, the count value in the Count register (TMRx_CNT) is set to 0x00. When the timer reset pin is deasserted, the TMRx_CNT register is reloaded with the period value, and it functions in the configured mode. This signal stops the block operation for the time during which the timer reset signal is high and then restarts the operation from the beginning.

Figure 27-4 is a timing diagram for the timer reset signal (Period register = 0xFFFF).

![Timer Reset Signal Timing Diagram](image)

27.3.3.4  Kill Signal

The Kill signal is valid only during PWM mode. The effect of the kill signal is explained in PWM mode in the sections ahead.
27.3.4 Operating Modes

27.3.4.1 Timer Mode – Free Run Mode

The register configuration for Timer mode is:

- Registers to set – TMTx_CFG0, TMRx_CFG1
- Bit MODE in TMRx_CFG0 = 0 – Timer mode
- Bits MODE_CFG in TMRx_CFG1 = 0 – Timer runs in continuous mode

The Free Run mode is mainly used to obtain the current system time. Timer operation, automatically forced into the Free Run mode, occurs independent of the state of the Enable pin. This mode is called Free Run because the timer runs even if the state of the Enable pin is low.

The following describes the process:

- The timer is a down counter, and the current time value is stored in the TMRx_CNT registers.
- The reload value for the timer is stored in the Period registers TMRx_PER0 and TMRx_PER1.
- After the count reaches zero (terminal count), the period value is reloaded automatically to the Count registers for the timer to count. The reload value determines the period for the timer. Two types of output result when the terminal count is reached:
  - A terminal count output signal that generates a pulse at the terminal count – The terminal count output signal can be routed to any GPIO through the DSI.
  - An interrupt at the terminal count – To initiate an interrupt, the terminal count interrupt in the Status register must be unmasked.

- The current timer value is read from the 8-bit Count registers CNT0 and CNT1. In the case of the 32-bit controller, a 16-bit read of the Capture register can be done.
- In the case of the 8-bit controller, the 8-bit read is done. When an 8-bit read is done for the CNT0 register (LSB) the values of LSB and MSB are automatically captured in the Capture registers. The user can read the Capture register to obtain the 16-bit time value.

Figure 27-5 shows the terminal count output signal and the terminal count interrupt behavior in the Free Run mode (Period register value = 0xFFFF) and illustrates the following behavior.

- Independence of the Timer from the Enable signal for the block
- The effect of changing the Period register with both EN = ‘1’ and EN = ‘0’
  - When the Period register is changed without setting EN = 1, the effect takes place only after the terminal count.
  - When the Period register is changed with EN = 0, the effect takes place immediately after setting EN = 1.

![Figure 27-5. Free Run Mode Timing Diagram](image-url)
27.3.4.2 Gated Timer Mode

In the Gated Timer mode, the timer does not run continuously; it starts and stops, based on certain criteria. The Gated Timer mode measures some parameters of the input signal, including the period of the input signal, the pulse width of the input signal, and the time after which an interrupt occurs. Depending on the configuration of the register, the following modes are supported:

- Pulse Width
- Period
- Stop on Interrupt

The register configuration for the Counter mode is:

- Registers to set – TMRx_CFG0, TMRx_CFG1
- Bit MODE in TMRx_CFG0 = 0 – block acts in gated timer mode
- Three bits MODE_CFG in TMRx_CFG1 – gated timer runs in various modes

The modes are achieved by setting the MODE_CFG bit appropriately, as shown in Table 27-1.

Table 27-1. MODE_CFG Bit Settings in Gated Timer Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODE_CFG</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>Pulse width count – counts from positive edge to negative edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>Period count – counts from one positive edge to the next positive edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td>Counts from enabled to IRQ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The signal for which the pulse or period is measured is given to the Enable pin.

The following describes the process:

- When the EN bit is set to ‘1’, the Count register is loaded with the period value from the Period register.
- The timer begins counting whenever a rising edge occurs in the enable input. The Count register counts for every clock cycle.
- When the next edge is reached (falling edge in the case of a Pulse Width count and the next rising edge in the case of a Period count), the timer stops to count.
- On reaching the terminal count, the TMRx_CNT register is automatically reloaded with the period value. The timer stop interrupt can be configured to occur when the timer stops to count. The timer stop interrupt enable bit should be unmasked for the interrupt to occur.
- The state of the timer is obtained from the TSTOP bit in the Status register. This sticky bit shows whether the timer has stopped counting; the user must clear the bit.
**Pulse Width Mode**

The input signal is given to the Enable pin. The timer begins counting at the rising edge of the Enable signal and stops counting at the falling edge of the Enable signal. There is a latency of one clock cycle for the block to detect the edges. The difference in the count value before and after the count is equal to the pulse width of the input signal in terms of counts.

The count value is read using 16-bit read in case of a 32-bit controller and 8-bit read in case of a 8-bit controller. During 16-bit read, the count values are read as one 16-bit value and the value is captured in the Capture register. During the 8-bit read, a read of the CNT0 (LSB value) captures the LSB and MSB in the Capture register. The user can read the Capture register to obtain the time value.

Figure 27-6 shows the Gated Timer in Pulse Width mode. In this figure, the One Shot mode is disabled, so the timer will start to count when the next rising edge is encountered. When the One Shot mode is enabled, the timer stops after the falling edge and should be enabled again.

![Figure 27-6. Gated Timer in Pulse Width Mode](image)
Period Mode

The input signal is given to the Enable pin. In this mode, the timer begins counting at the rising edge of the Enable signal and stops counting at the next rising edge. There is a latency of one clock cycle for the block to detect the edges. The difference in the count value between the start and the end of the count is equal to the period (in counts) of the input signal.

The count value is read, using a 16-bit read in the case of a 32-bit controller and an 8-bit read in case of an 8-bit controller. During a 16-bit read, the count values are read as one 16-bit value, and the value is captured in the Capture register. During the 8-bit read, a read of the CNT0 register (LSB value) captures the LSB and MSB in the Capture register. The user can read the Capture register to obtain the time value.

Figure 27-7 shows the Gated Timer in Period mode. In this figure, the One Shot mode is disabled; the timer starts to count when encountering the next rising edge after the period calculation. When the One Shot mode is enabled, the timer stops after the second rising edge and should be enabled again.

![Gated Timer in Period Mode](image)
Stop on Interrupt Mode

The Stop on Interrupt mode is useful to stop the timer on occurrence of a specific event for the block. In this mode, the timer starts counting when the EN bit is set to ‘1’ and stops counting when an Interrupt Request (IRQ) is received. The IRQ is any configured interrupt (Terminal Count/Capture, Compare/Timer Stop) of the block. When the IRQ is received, the timer is automatically disabled. The timer should be enabled (EN = ‘1’) to start the timer again.

The timer begins to run only after it is disabled and enabled again. The count value is read using a 16-bit read in case of 32-bit controller and an 8-bit read in case of 8-bit controller. During a 16-bit read, the count values are read as one value and the value is also captured in the Capture register. During the 8-bit read, a read of the CNT0 register (LSB value) captures the LSB and MSB in the Capture register. The user can read the Capture register to obtain the time value.

Figure 27-8 shows the Gated Timer in IRQ mode.
27.3.4.3 Pulse-width Modulator Mode

The Pulse-width Modulator (PWM) mode is also called the Comparator mode, because the comparison output is a PWM output with a varying duty cycle and a varying period. The duty cycle depends on the compare type and compare value. The period depends on the Period register. For example, consider a 16-bit PWM block with a clock of 48 MHz. The period value is set to 0x8000 (32768 in decimal). This block gives a PWM period as follows:

\[
\text{PWM Period} = \left( \frac{\text{Period Value} \times 1}{\text{Clock frequency}} \right)
\]

PWM period for this example = \((32768 \times 1/48\text{MHz}) = 682.7\) microsecond

The register configuration for the Comparator mode is:
- Registers to set – TMRx_CFG0, TMRx_CFG1
- Bit MODE in TMRx_CFG0 = 1 – block acts as Comparator
- Three Bits MODE_CFG in TMRx_CFG1 – Comparator runs in various compare modes

The following table lists appropriate register settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODE_CFG</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>000</td>
<td>Timer Value == Comparator Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>Timer Value &lt; Comparator Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>Timer Value &lt;= Comparator Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td>Timer Value &gt; Comparator Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>Timer Value &gt;= Comparator Value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Comparator mode compares the timer value and the Compare register value, using either "==", "<", "<=", ">" or ">=" depending on the mode configuration in the CFG1 register.

The following describes the compare process:
1. The timer value begins to count when EN = ‘1’.
2. When the compare is true, the compare output signal is asserted or the compare interrupt signal is asserted. The block continues to count.
3. The CNT register is reloaded with the period value when the terminal count is reached and begins to count compare again.
4. The output of the compare is either the compare output signal or interrupt at the compare.
5. The interrupt occurs when the compare interrupt enable bit is unmasked in the Status register.
6. The compare output signal is routed to the GPIO pin using the DSI.

During the Comparator mode alone, the terminal count output pin acts as the complement to the compare output pin. To use this feature, enable the dead band mode (see Dead Band Feature on page 308). Enable the dead band feature by setting ‘1’ in the DB bit of CFG0. In the Comparator mode, theCNT register cannot be read.

Compare Types

The following is a description of various compare types.

MODE_CFG = 000

The compare output pin generates a pulse when the timer value = the comparator value. In this case, the width of the pulse = one clock cycle. The compare output interrupt signal occurs when the compare value = Timer Value.

MODE_CFG = 001

The compare output pin generates a pulse when the timer value is less than the comparator value. The following describes the event:

- The width of the pulse = one clock cycle x Comparator value.
- The rising edge occurs when the timer value becomes less than the comparator value, such as when the less than condition is met.
- The falling edge of the pulse occurs when the terminal count is reached, such as when the condition changes to false.
- When the comparator is disabled (EN = ‘0’) before the terminal count, the output remains high.
- The Compare output interrupt signal occurs when the timer value is less than the Compare value.

MODE_CFG = 010

The compare output pin generates a pulse when the timer value is less than or equal to the comparator value. The following describes the event:

- The width of the pulse = one clock cycle x Comparator value + 1).
- The rising edge occurs when the timer value becomes equal to the comparator value, such as when the less than or equal to condition is met.
- The falling edge of the pulse occurs when the terminal count is reached, such as when the condition changes to false.
- When the comparator is disabled (EN = ‘0’) before the terminal count, the output remains high.
- The Compare output interrupt signal occurs when the timer value = Compare value.
**MODE_CFG = 011**

The compare output pin generates a pulse when the timer value is greater than the comparator value. The following describes the event:

- The width of the pulse = one clock cycle x (Period – Comparator value).
- The rising edge occurs when the Count register is reloaded with the period value, such as when the greater than condition is met.
- The falling edge of the pulse occurs at the end of count value = (Comparator value + 1), such as when the condition changes to false.
- When the comparator is disabled (EN = '0') before the condition changes to false, the output remains high.
- The Compare output interrupt signal occurs after the reload of the period value.

**MODE_CFG = 100**

The compare output pin generates a pulse when the timer value is greater than or equal to the comparator value. The following describes the event:

- The width of the pulse = one clock cycle x (Period – Comparator value + 1).
- The rising edge occurs when the Count register is reloaded with the period value, such as when the greater than or equal to condition is met.
- The falling edge of the pulse occurs at the end of count value = Comparator value, such as when the condition changes to false.
- When the comparator is disabled (EN = '0') before the condition changes to false, the output remains high.
- The Compare output interrupt signal occurs after the reload of the period value.

Figure 27-9 shows the compare output for various Compare types. The Period register is loaded with 0xFFFF, and the Compare register is loaded with 0x1000.
On the Fly Duty Cycle Update

Support for multiple comparisons depends on the bit CMP_BUFF in Configuration register CFG0. The following describes the process:

- When the CMP_BUFF is set to ‘1’, the updated comparator value takes effect only after completion of the currently running period. After the terminal count, the new compare value is taken for further comparison. When this mode is used, the PWM block detects only one compare during a period.

- When the CMP_BUFF is set to ‘0’, the updated comparator value takes effect immediately even before the completion of the current running period. This may result in another toggling of the pin even before the completion of current period, thus supporting multiple comparisons.

Dead Band Feature

The dead band feature is used only in Comparator mode. To enable the dead band feature, set the DB bit in Configuration register TMRx_CFG0 to ‘1’. In the dead band mode, the terminal count output pin complements the comparator output pin.

During the dead band period, both compare output and complement compare output are low for a period, determined by the DEADBAND_PERIOD bits in the TMRx_CFG0 register. The dead band feature allows generation of two PWM pulses with non-overlapping outputs. The dead band feature uses a counter. The following describes the process:

- When the comparator asserts the comparator output, it negates the asserted output for the dead band period.

- The dead band period is loaded and counted for the period configured in the DEADBAND_PERIOD bits.

- When the dead band period has completed, the signal is asserted, and the complement is negated.
- A dead band period of zero has no effect.
- When the rate of change in the compare output is less than the dead band period, the immediate change is ignored. Transitions in the compare and complement compare output occur only for the next change in the compare output.
- When the rate of change in the compare output is more than the dead band period, the transitions occur at both compare output changes.

**Kill Feature**

The Kill signal is mainly used to deactivate the PWM signal in case of fault. Used only in Comparator mode, this signal places the output signals of the block in an unasserted state.

The following describes the process:
- When the Kill signal is asserted, the compare output and the complement of the compare output (if it exists) go to its unasserted state. The terminal count output acts as the complement of the compare output when the dead band feature is enabled.
- When the Kill signal is reasserted, the output signal is restored to its default state. Kill signal duration should be at least one full clock cycle for proper stopping and restoration of the output signal. There is a latency of two clock cycles before the output signal is restored.
- When the Kill signal is asserted, any change in the compare output is ignored, and the deassertion of the Kill signal results only in the previous default state.

27.3.4.4 One Shot Mode

The One Shot mode works in combination with all of the modes specified above. The only difference is that the automatic reload of the Count register with the period does not occur. The block stops working when the required criteria are reached; there is no further reload and running of the block.

The register configuration for the One Shot mode is:
- Bit ONESHOT in Configuration register TMRx_CFG0 = 1 – enabled One Shot mode

The following table shows end criteria (where the block would stop) for each mode. When an end criterion is met, the block stops running and the EN bit is cleared. If the user wants to run the block again, then the block must be enabled (EN = ‘1’):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modes</th>
<th>Sub-Types</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Timer</td>
<td>Free Run Mode</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capture Mode</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter</td>
<td>Pulse Width Mode</td>
<td>Negative Edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Period Mode</td>
<td>Second Positive Edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IRQ Mode</td>
<td>IRQ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWM</td>
<td>MODE_CFG = 000</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MODE_CFG = 001</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MODE_CFG = 010</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MODE_CFG = 011</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MODE_CFG = 100</td>
<td>Terminal Count</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27.3.5 Interrupt Enabling

The block supports four types of interrupt:
- Terminal Count
- Capture/Compare
- Timer Enable
- Timer Stop

These interrupts are enabled by setting the corresponding bits in the Status register; occurrences are stored in the Status registers. Because these Status register bits are sticky, the interrupt request bits must be cleared explicitly by the software on occurrence of the interrupt. See Figure 27-1 on page 296. The process is described as follows:
- Interrupt signals are sent to the Interrupt controller block, where execution is decided and processed.
- The blocks are configured to support any combination of the four interrupts; only one interrupt is supported at a time.
- When another interrupt signal comes during the execution of one interrupt, the new interrupt request is held pending until the previous interrupt execution is completed.
- After the completion of the previous interrupt the new interrupt begins the execution.
Interrupt signals can be of two types:

- **Raw Interrupt** – Sent whenever the interrupt occurs. These interrupt signals do not wait for the execution of the previous interrupt request; they are continuously sent whenever the interrupt occurs. This type of interrupt signal is called "pulse input" because for every interrupt occurrence, a pulse is sent on the interrupt signal and does not wait for acknowledgement from the CPU.

- **Status Interrupt** – Sent depending on the status bits in the Status register. When the status bit is set to ‘1’, the interrupt signal is sent. The next interrupt signal is sent only after the status bit is cleared. The clearing of the status bit is handled by the software inside the interrupt service routine. The interrupt signal is not sent for every interrupt occurrence, but for every new setting of the status bit in the Status register. These types of interrupt allow the user control over the execution of the interrupt. This type of interrupt signal is called "level input" because the signal is asserted and remains asserted until the bit is cleared by the software. The selection of the interrupt signal type is decided using the bit IRQ_SEL, available in the configuration register TMRx_CFG1.

### 27.3.6 Sleep Mode Behavior

The block supports the following two power saving features:

- When the timer blocks are not accessed by the PHUB, the clock to the AHB interface is gated off, preventing all registers in the block from accessing the clock.

- When the EN bit for a block is not asserted, the clock for that particular block is gated off.

The block retains the values of the Period, Configuration, and Compare registers during the sleep and hibernate states. The Count register value is not retained during the sleep and hibernate states.

### 27.4 Register Listing

The following table lists the registers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 27-4. Registers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Register Names</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_CFG0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_CFG1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_PER0, TMRx_PER1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_CNT_CMP0, TMRx_CNT_CMP1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_CAP0, TMRx_CAP1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_SR0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMRx_RT0, TMRx_RT1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
28. I\textsuperscript{2}C

PSoC\textsuperscript{3} and PSoC\textsuperscript{5} devices include a fixed block I\textsuperscript{2}C peripheral designed to interface the PSoC device with an I\textsuperscript{2}C communications bus. Additional I\textsuperscript{2}C interfaces can be created using Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) and PSoc Creator\textsuperscript{TM}. This chapter describes the fixed block I\textsuperscript{2}C interface. For details on the UDB-based interface, see the component datasheet in PSoc Creator. Users not familiar with the I\textsuperscript{2}C interface and the basics of an I\textsuperscript{2}C transaction should refer to 28.3 Background Information.

28.1 Features

The I\textsuperscript{2}C communication block is a serial to parallel processor, designed to connect the PSoc device to a two wire I\textsuperscript{2}C serial communications bus. To eliminate the need for excessive CPU intervention and overhead, this block gives I\textsuperscript{2}C specific support for status detection and framing bit generation.

This block operates as a slave, a master, both, or a multimaster. When active in slave mode, the unit listens for a start condition, or sends or receives data. The master modes works in conjunction with slave mode. The master has the ability to generate a START and STOP condition and determine whether or not other masters are on the bus. For multimaster mode lock synchronization is supported.

Basic I\textsuperscript{2}C features include:

- Slave/master/multimaster, transmitter and receiver operation
- Byte processing for low CPU overhead
- Provides support for bus status detection and generation of framing bits
- Generates interrupts for a variety of bus events
- Interrupt or polling CPU interface
- Supports bus stalling
- Support for clock rates of up to 1MHz (Fast-mode plus)
- 7 or 10-bit addressing (10-bit addressing requires firmware support)
- SMBus operation (through firmware support - NO SMBus timeout protocol HW support)
- Routes SDA and SCL connection directly to one of two pairs of assigned pins on the SIO port, or through the DSI to any pair of GPIO or SIO pins
- Provides HW address compare, and wake from sleep on address match
- Provides 50 ns glitch filtering

28.2 Block Diagram

Figure 28-1 is a block diagram of the PSoc I\textsuperscript{2}C interface.
Figure 28-1. Block Diagram of the PSoC i²C Interface

PHUB Interface  Slave Mode Logic  Master Mode Logic

Serial Interface

IRQ

I²C Registers
28.3 Background Information

The following information is provided to familiarize the user with the \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) bus and the way it transfers data.

28.3.1 \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) Bus Description

The Inter IC, or \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \), bus was developed by Philips Semiconductors (now NXP) to provide a simple means to allow multiple ICs to communicate directly with each other over a common bus. Features of the \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) bus include:

- Only two bus lines are required: (1) serial data (SDA) and (2) serial clock (SCL).
- Serial, 8-bit, bi-directional data transfers can be made at up to 100 kbps in the standard mode, up to 400 kbps in the fast mode and up to 1 Mbps in the fast mode plus. See Figure 28-2 for bus states.
- Devices are connected to the bus using open collector or open-drain output stages, with pull up resistors, for wired AND functions.
- Each slave device connected to the bus is software addressable by a unique address.
- Simple master/slave relationships exist; masters and slaves can operate as either transmitters or receivers.
- Multiple masters are supported, using collision detection and arbitration if two or more masters simultaneously initiate data transfer.


28.3.2 Typical \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) Data Transfer

In a typical \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) transaction, the following sequence takes place:

1. A master device controls the SCL line and generates a Start condition followed by a data byte. The data byte contains a 7-bit slave address and a Read / Write (RW) bit. The bit sets the direction of the data transfer, relative to the master. It is high for read and low for write.
2. The slave device recognizes its address and acknowledges (ACK) the byte by pulling the data line low during the ninth bit time.
3. If the slave does not respond to the first data byte with an ACK, a Stop condition is generated by the master to terminate the transfer. A Repeated Start condition may also be generated for a retry attempt.
4. The master transmits or receives an indeterminate number of bytes, depending on the RW direction.
5. When the transfer is complete, the master generates a Stop condition.

For details about the operation of these three modes, see 28.4.6 Operating the \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) Interface on page 315 and sec-

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28.4 How It Works

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) interface provides support for bus status detection and generation of framing bits. It can operate at up to fast mode plus speeds, in these modes:

- Slave – The interface listens for Start and Stop conditions to begin and end data transfers.
- Master – The interface generates the Start and Stop conditions and initiates data transfers by transmitting a slave address.
- Multi-Master – The interface provides clock synchronization and arbitration to allow multiple masters on the same bus. Slave mode can be enabled at the same time as master mode.

For details about the operation of these three modes, see 28.4.6 Operating the \( \text{I}^2\text{C} \) Interface on page 315 and sec-
The **I²C** interface supports either 7-bit or 10-bit addressing. The hardware supports 7-bit address compare. In slave mode, 7-bit address detection is done by using either a hardware address compare or by the CPU in firmware. A 10-bit address detection must be done by the CPU in firmware. In master mode, 10-bit address generation must be done by the CPU in firmware.

### 28.4.1 Bus Stalling (Clock Stretching)

After a byte is transferred on the **I²C** bus, a slave device may need time to store the received byte or to prepare another byte to be transmitted. In that case, the slave can hold the SCL line low before or after acknowledgment of a byte, which forces the master into a wait state until the slave is ready. This operation is known as stalling the **I²C** bus. Some devices in master mode may not support bus stalling; the system design should be checked before using bus stalling in slave mode.

The **I²C** interface can stall the bus on every received address and on every completed byte transfer. After a byte is transferred, the CPU has half of the SCL clock cycle period to write/read the next byte before stalling begins. SCL is released when the next byte is written/read, and the next byte transfer begins.

### 28.4.2 System Management Bus

The **I²C** interface generates interrupts for these conditions:

- Byte transfer (receive or transmit) complete
- **I²C** bus Stop condition detected
- **I²C** bus error detected

The **I²C** interface cannot generate DMA requests.

### 28.4.4 **I²C** Interrupts

The **I²C** interface is controlled by reading and writing a set of configuration, control, and status registers listed in the following table. These 8-bit wide registers are used to turn the **I²C** interface on or off, connect to I/O pins, set the baud rate, provide status and control for the data transfer processes, and monitor for exceptions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I2C_CFG</td>
<td>Configuration – basic operating modes, oversample rate, and selection of interrupts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_XCFG</td>
<td>Configuration – configures enhanced features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_CLK_DIV1</td>
<td>Clock Divide – sets baud rate (along with oversample rate in I2C_CFG).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_CLK_DIV2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 28.4.5 Control by Registers

The **I²C** block controls the data (SDA) and the clock (SCL) to the external **I²C** interface, through direction connections to the GPIO/SIO pins. When **I²C** is enabled, these GPIO/SIO pins are not available for general purpose use.

The **I²C** interface can be directly routed to one of two pairs of assigned pins on the SIO port. The connections can also be routed through the DSI to any other pair of GPIO or SIO pins. In all cases, the GPIO or SIO pins must be configured for “Open Drain, Drives Low” mode (see 21.3.2.5 Open Drain, Drives High and Drives Low on page 192).

The **I²C** must be routed to the SIO pins in order to use the block in sleep.
28.4.6 Operating the I2C Interface

Operate the I2C interface in this manner:

1. Turn on the I2C interface by setting the I2C_XCFG bit 7, csr_clk_en.
2. To route the SDA and SCL to the desired pin pair, set up I2C_CFG as described in Table 28-2.
3. Select the baud rate (SCL clock frequency) by setting the I2C_CFG register, bit 2 and the I2C_CLK_DIV1 and I2C_CLK_DIV2 registers as shown in Table 28-3. The formula to determine the baud rate is:
   \[
   \text{Baud Rate} = \frac{\text{Bus clock frequency}}{(\text{Clock Division Factor} \times \text{Oversample Rate})}
   \]
4. Enable the desired mode of operation, following the instructions in 28.4.6.1 Slave Mode on page 316, 28.4.6.2 Master Mode on page 317, or 28.4.6.3 Multi-Master Mode on page 318.

### Table 28-1. I2C Registers (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I2C_CSR</td>
<td>Control / Status – used to control the flow of data bytes and to keep track of the bus state during a transfer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_MCSR</td>
<td>Master Mode Control / Status – implements I2C framing controls and provides bus status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_ADR</td>
<td>Slave Address – for slave address recognition in hardware, holds the 7-bit slave address.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2C_D</td>
<td>Data – provides read / write access to the data shift register.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 28-2. Configuration of the I2C_CFG Register, Bit 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pin Pair</th>
<th>Port Pins</th>
<th>Register Settings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any other GPIO / SIO pin pair</td>
<td>Selectable</td>
<td>I2C_CFG[6] = 0, other DSI and GPIO registers according to pin pair selected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The port pins used must be configured to “Open drain, Drives Low” mode (mode 4). The SIO pins are more suited for this purpose than the GPIO pins as the SIO pins have higher current sink capability and over voltage tolerance.

### Table 28-3. Configuration For I2C Baud Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMO Bus Clock (MHz)</th>
<th>I2C Mode</th>
<th>Oversample Rate</th>
<th>Divide Factor</th>
<th>SCL (kHz)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b00</td>
<td>(2)b00000010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b01</td>
<td>(2)b00000010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b02</td>
<td>(1)b00000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b03</td>
<td>(4)b00000010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b04</td>
<td>(2)b00000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b05</td>
<td>(8)b00001000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b06</td>
<td>(4)b00000100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b07</td>
<td>(16)b00010000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b08</td>
<td>(8)b00001000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Fast plus</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b09</td>
<td>(3)b00000011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b10</td>
<td>(21)b00010101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b11</td>
<td>(11)b00001011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Fast plus</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b12</td>
<td>(4)b00000100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>(0)b13</td>
<td>(25)b00011001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b14</td>
<td>(13)b00001101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Fast plus</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>(0)b15</td>
<td>(5)b00000101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Other values of bus clock, oversample rate and clock divider cause the baud rate to be scaled accordingly.
### 28.4.6.1 Slave Mode

To enable slave mode operation, set \( \text{I2C}_\text{CFG} \) bit 0, Enable Slave. See Figure 28-3.

#### Successful Slave Transmitter/Receiver

In slave mode, the I\(^2\)C interface continually monitors the bus for a Start condition. When a Start condition is detected, the following ensues:

1. The first byte, which is the Address / RW byte, starts to be shifted in. When all eight bits have been received, a Byte Complete status is generated.

2. On the following low of the clock, the bus is stalled by holding SCL low, until the address byte is read and compared. An ACK or NACK is then issued, based on that comparison.

3. If there is an address match, the RW bit determines the direction of the data transfer, as shown in the two branches of Figure 28-3. After each byte is received, or when a new byte can be transmitted, a Byte Complete status is generated, and SCL is held low to stall the bus until the CPU handles the interrupt and transfers the next byte.

4. When transmitting bytes, the slave receives an ACK / NACK from the master for each byte sent. ACK is a signal that the master wants another byte. NACK or a Stop condition is a signal that the master doesn’t want any more bytes – the CPU should let the I\(^2\)C interface go to an idle state.

5. When receiving bytes, the slave ACKs / NACKs each byte received from the master. ACK is a signal that the slave can accept another byte. NACK is a signal that no more bytes can be accepted – after generating a NACK the CPU should then let the I\(^2\)C interface go to an idle state.

6. Data transfer is complete when the master generates a Stop condition.

7. At anytime when a Stop condition or Bus Error is detected, the I\(^2\)C interface is automatically reset to an idle state.
Slave Address Recognition

The slave address recognition feature can be enabled in hardware to reduce CPU usage. To enable hardware address recognition:
1. Set the 7-bit slave address in I2C_ADR, bits 0 to 6.
2. Set I2C_XCFG, bit 0, HW Addr En.

When hardware address recognition is enabled, the address portion of the first byte received after a bus Start condition is compared to the value in I2C_ADR.
- If no match is detected, the byte is automatically NAKed.
- If a match is detected, the byte is automatically ACKed, a byte complete interrupt is generated, and the remainder of the transfer is performed as described above.

28.4.6.2 Master Mode

To enable master mode operation, set the I2C_CFG bit 1, Enable Master. See Figure 28-4.

If Enable Slave is not set, the I2C interface is in Master Only mode and ignores all externally generated Start conditions.

Operation in master mode is as follows:
1. To start a transfer, the CPU writes the slave address/direction byte to I2C_D and sets I2C_MCSR bit 0, Start Gen (or bit 1, Restart Gen).
   In a single-master environment the Start condition is successfully generated, the byte is transmitted, and a Byte Complete is generated. If the byte is ACKed by the slave, data bytes can be sent or received as shown in the two branches of Figure 28-4.
2. When transmitting bytes, the master receives an ACK/NACK from the slave for each byte sent. ACK is a signal that the slave can accept another byte. NACK is a signal that no more bytes can be accepted.
3. When receiving bytes, the master ACKs/NACKs each byte received from the slave.
   ACK is a signal that the master wants another byte.
   NACK is a signal that the master is done accepting bytes.

4. When data transfer is complete, the CPU issues a Stop command. The I2C interface generates a Stop condition and goes to an idle state.
   Instead of a Stop condition, the CPU can issue a Restart command, and another transfer is immediately started.

28.4.6.3 Multi-Master Mode
Multi-master mode becomes enabled when Master mode is enabled by setting the I2C_CFG bit 1, Enable Master.

In Multi-master mode, the CPU starts the transfer in the same manner as in a single-master environment. However, before generating a Start condition, the master must monitor the Bus Free bit in I2C_MCSR, and wait until the I2C bus is free.

After a Start condition is generated other outcomes may result, causing the CPU to delay or abort the transfer:

- Another master in a multimaster environment has generated a valid Start, and the bus is now busy. The Start condition is not generated. The resulting behavior depends upon whether Slave mode is enabled.
  - Slave mode is enabled – A Byte Complete interrupt is generated. When reading I2C_MCSR, the master sees that the Start Gen bit is still set and that I2C_CSR has the Address bit set, indicating that the block has been addressed as a slave. The firmware may then ACK the address to continue the transfer as a slave, or NACK the address.
  - Slave mode is not enabled – The Start Gen bit remains set, and the transfer is delayed until the bus becomes free. A Byte Complete is generated when the Start condition has been generated and the address byte has been transmitted.

- The Start condition is generated, but the master loses arbitration to another master. The resulting behavior depends upon whether Slave mode is enabled.
  - Slave mode is enabled – A byte complete interrupt is generated. When reading I2C_MCSR, the master sees that the Start Gen bit is clear, indicating that the Start condition was generated. However, the Lost Arb bit is set in I2C_CSR. The Address status is also set, indicating that the block has been addressed as a slave. The firmware may then ACK the address to continue the transfer as a slave, or NACK the address.
  - Slave mode is not enabled – A Byte Complete interrupt is generated. The Start Gen bit is clear and the Lost Arb bit is set. The hardware waits for a command from the CPU, stalling the bus if necessary. The master clears I2C_CSR to release the bus and allow the transfer to continue, and the I2C interface goes back to idle mode. The firmware can then retry the transfer when the bus becomes free again.

28.5 Hardware Address Compare
The hardware has the ability to compare the seven address bits received on the SDA line with that configured in the I2C.ADR register. On a true compare, the address is automatically ACKed, the SCL line held low, and a byte complete interrupt is issued. On reception of the byte complete interrupt from the hardware, the firmware needs to read bit [0] of the data register to determine Read/Write direction for the transfer. The firmware must then set the transmit bit in the I2C_CSR register to release the SCL. On an mismatch the address is automatically NAKed and the hardware revert to an idle state waiting for the new Start detection.

28.6 Wake from Sleep
When the HW address compare is enabled and the device is put to sleep, the slave can be used to wake the device on an I2C HW address match (only when either of the SIO pairs are used as I2C pins). While in sleep, the master clock is disabled. The incoming SCL clock is used to latch the address into the block. Once the address matches, the wakeup interrupt is asserted to wake the system up, and the SCL is pulled low until the master clock is operational. After the system wakes, the I2C block is switched back to normal operation, and all other transaction proceed.

The I2C Block only responds to transactions during sleep if and only if:

- The I2C block is enabled in slave mode and slave mode only
- Hardware address compare is enabled
- There is an address value written in the I2C.ADR
- The I2C_ON bit in I2C_XCFG is set to 1'b1

Follow this procedure before putting the part to sleep, to ensure proper sleep mode I2C operation.

1. The CPU must set the Force NACK bit of the I2C_XCFG register when it wants to put the part into sleep.
2. The FW must poll the Ready_To_Sleep bit in the I2C_XCFG bit. One the bit is high, FW can put the part to sleep.
28.7 Slave Mode Transfer Examples

Slave mode receives or transmits data, as described in this section.
### 28.7.1 Slave Receive

A slave receive operation is accomplished as shown in Figure 28-5.

Figure 28-5. Slave Receive Operation Sequence

- Write '1' to I2C_CFG[7], csr_clk_en, to start up the I2C interface hardware.
- Write '0' to I2C.CSR to clear all bits.
- Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.
- Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.
- Set I2C_CFG[0], Enable Slave, to start Slave mode.
- Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA0) != 0?
  - Write '0' to I2C_CSR[3] to reset address.
  - Copy I2C_D to receive data buffer.
  - Done?
    - NO
      - STOP
      - Copy I2C_D to receive data buffer.
      - Reports and handles error.
    - YES
      - Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to ACK
      - Report and handle error.
- Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to NACK
- Write '0' to I2C_CSR[4] to ACK.
- Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to NACK
- Write '0' to I2C_CSR[3] to reset address.
- Write '0' to I2C_CSR[3] to ACK.
- Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to NACK.
28.7.2 Slave Transmit

A slave transmit operation is accomplished as shown in Figure 28-6.

Figure 28-6. Slave Transmit Operation Sequence

Flow Chart for Slave Transmit

Start

- Write '1' to I2C_XCFG[7], Clk Gate En, to start up the I2C interface hardware.
- Write '0' to I2C_CSR to clear all bits
- Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.
- Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.
- Set I2C_CFG[0], Enable Slave, to start slave mode.

Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA0) != 0?

- Write '0' to I2C_CSR[3] to reset address.
- I2C_CSR[3] == 1, Address?

- Write '0' to I2C_CSR[4] to NACK.
- Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to ACK.

Copy first/next byte from transmit data buffer to I2C_D. Write '1' to I2C_CSR[2] to start transmitting byte.

- Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA8) != 0?

- Error
- NO

- Stop Status, I2C_CSR[5] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0?

- NO

- Yes
- Report a successful transfer.

End

Note that, instead of waiting for Byte Complete or Error, an interrupt can be generated for each of these conditions, as well as for the I²C Stop condition. The interrupt handler can then do some or all of the functions shown.
28.8 Master Mode Transfer Examples

Master mode receives or transmits data, as described in this section.

28.8.1 Single Master Receive

A master receive operation in a single-master system is accomplished as shown in Figure 28-7.

Figure 28-7. Single Master Mode Receive Operation

Flow Chart for Single Master Receive

Start

Write '1' to I2C_XCFG[7], Clk Gate En, to start up the I2C interface hardware.

Write '0' to I2C_CSR to clear all bits.

Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.

Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.

Set I2C_CFG[1], Enable Master, to start master mode.

Set I2C_D = Slave Addr/Read

Write '1' to I2C_MCSR[0], Start Gen, to start the transfer.

Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA0) != 0 or I2C_MCSR[2] != 1?

NO

NACK

Byte ACK’ed or NACK’ed? I2C_CSR[1]

ACK

Write '0' to I2C_CSR[2] to set Receive mode.

* If address byte is NACK’ed, instead of retry, an error can be reported.

E

Error

Copy I2C_D to receive data buffer.

Done?

NO

Write '1' to I2C_CSR[4] to ACK.

YES

Report and handle error.

E

NO

Write '0' to I2C_CSR[4] to NACK.

NO

Stop Status, I2C_CSR[5] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0?

YES

Report a successful transfer.

End
28.8.2 Single Master Transmit

Figure 28-8 illustrates the process by which you generate a master transmit operation in a single master system.

Figure 28-8. Single Master Mode Transmit Operation

Flow Chart for Single Master Transmit

1. Start
2. Write '1' to I2C_XCFG[7], Clk Gate En, to start up the I2C interface hardware.
3. Write '0' to I2C_CSR to clear all bits.
4. Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.
5. Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.
6. Set I2C_CFG[1], Enable Master, to start master mode.
7. Set I2C_D = Slave Addr/Write.
8. Write first/next byte from transmit data buffer to I2C_D. Write '1' to I2C_CSR[2] to start transmitting byte.
9. Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA0) != 0 or I2C_MCSR[2] != 1?
   a. Yes
      - Write '1' to I2C_CSR[2] to set transmit mode.
   b. NO
      - Stop Status, I2C_CSR[5] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0?
         a. Yes
            - Report a successful transfer.
         b. NO
            - Write '0' to I2C_CSR[2] to generate a Stop condition.
    a. Yes
       - Report and handle error.
    b. NO
       - Byte ACK'ed or NACK'ed?
          a. Yes
             - ACK
          b. NO
             - Stop Status, I2C_CSR[5] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0?
                a. Yes
                   - Report and handle error.
                b. NO
                   - Byte ACK'ed or NACK'ed?
                      a. Yes
                         - ACK
                      b. NO
                         - NACK
    c. YES
       - Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, (I2C_CSR & 0xA0) != 0 or I2C_MCSR[2] != 1?
       - Write '1' to I2C_CSR[0], Start Gen, to start the transfer.

End
Defining single master operations allows the following assumptions to be made:
- There is no need to check for bus busy (I2C_MCSR[3]) or Lost Arb (I2C_CSR[6]).
- There is no need to Enable Slave (I2C_CFG[0]) when enabling the master mode, as the interface will never be forced into slave mode due to bus busy or lost arbitration.

28.9  Multi-Master Mode Transfer Examples

In multi-master mode, data transfer can be achieved with the slave mode not enabled or with the slave mode enabled.

28.9.1  Multi-Master, Slave Not Enabled

A master data transfer operation in a multi-master system, where the slave mode is not enabled is accomplished as shown in Figure 28-9.

Figure 28-9.  Multi-Master Mode, Slave Not Enabled Sequence

**Flow Chart for Multi-Master, Slave Not Enabled**

[Flow chart diagram]

- Start
- Write '1' to I2C_XCFG[7], Clk Gate En, to start up the I2C interface hardware.
- Write '0' to I2C_CSR to clear all bits.
- Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.
- Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.
- Set I2C_CFG[1], Enable Master, to start Master mode with slave not enabled.
- Set I2C_D = Slave Addr/Read or Write
  - YES
  - NO
  - Bus became busy.
- Start condition? I2C_MCSR[0] == 0
  - NO
  - YES
  - Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0 or I2C_MCSR[2] != 1?
    - NO
    - YES
    - ERROR
    - NO
    - YES
      - NO
      - YES
      - Lost arbitration, restart transfer.
      - NO
      - Continue with data transfer as in single master.
    - Report and handle error.
28.9.2 Multi-Master, Slave Enabled

A master data transfer operation in a multi-master system, where the slave mode is enabled is accomplished as shown in Figure 28-10.

Figure 28-10. Multi-Master Mode, Slave Enabled Sequence

Flow Chart for Multi-Master, Slave Enabled

Start

Write '1' to I2C_XCFG[7], Clk Gate En, to start up the I2C interface hardware.

Write '0' to I2C_CSR to clear all bits.

Set I2C_CFG[3:2], Clock Rate, and I2C_CLK_DIV to set the SCL frequency.

Set I2C_CFG[7:6], SIO Select and PSelect, to connect SDA and SCL to the appropriate pins.

Set I2C_CFG[1], Enable Master, and I2C_CFG[0], Enable Slave, to start both modes.

Set I2C_D = Slave Addr/Read or Write.

Bus Busy? I2C_MCSR[3]

YES

NO

Write '1' to I2C_MCSR[0], Start Gen, to start the transfer.

ERROR

Byte Complete, I2C_CSR[0] == 1, or Error, I2C_CSR[7] != 0?

YES

Report and handle error.

NO

Bus became busy, or lost arbitration?

I2C_MCSR[0] == 1 and I2C_CSR[3] == 1

YES

Continue with address recognition as a slave.

NO

Continue with data transfer as in single master.
i2C
29. Digital Filter Block (DFB)

Some PSoC® devices have a dedicated hardware Digital Filter Block (DFB) used to filter applications. The heart of DFB is a multiply and accumulate unit (MAC), which can do 24 bit * 24 bit multiply and 48 bit accumulate in one system clock cycle. In addition, there are data RAMs to store data and coefficients of digital filters.

29.1 Features

- Two 24-bit wide streaming data channels
- Two sets of data RAMs each that can store 128 words of 24-bit width each
- One interrupt and two DMA request channels
- Three Semaphore bits to interact with system software
- Data alignment and coherency protection support options for input and output samples

29.2 Block Diagram

The Digital Filter Block (DFB) is a 24-bit fixed point, programmable limited scope DSP engine. The DFB is made up of four primary subfunctions as shown in the DFB Basic Block diagram in Figure 29-1.

- Controller
- Datapath
- Address Calculation Units (ACUs)
- Bus Interface

The Controller consists of a small amount of digital logic and memories. The memories in the controller are filled with assembled code that make up the data transform function the DFB is intended to perform.

The Datapath subblock is a 24-bit fixed point, numerical processor containing a Multiply and Accumulator (MAC), a multifunction Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU), sample and coefficient and data RAM (data RAM is shown in Figure 29-1) as well as data routing, shifting, holding, and rounding functions. The datapath block is the calculation unit inside the DFB.

The addressing of the two data RAMs in the datapath block are controlled by the Address Calculation Units (ACUs). There are two (identical) ACUs, one for each RAM.

These three subfunctions make up the core of the DFB block and are wrapped with a 32-bit DMA-capable AHB-Lite Bus Interface with Control/Status registers. Each of these four subfunctions are discussed in the following sections.
29.3 How It Works

29.3.1 Controller

The controller consists of a RAM-based state machine, a RAM-based control store, program counters, and next state control logic (see Figure 29-2 on page 329). Its function is to control the address calculation units and the datapath, and to communicate with the bus interface to move data in and out of the datapath.
The contents of FSM RAM, the two control store RAMs, the ACU RAM, and potentially the two datapath RAM (if initial conditions are required) must be loaded by the system before use. The contents of the DFB RAMs are stored in flash memory from where they are written into the RAM before the DFB operation is enabled.

The next state decode logic and the FSM RAM comprise the main DFB branch control. The next state decoder generates the FSM RAM’s address and the RAM produces next state information as well as branch flag masks. These masks enable the use of flags as jump conditions for conditional branching. This state machine controls the program counter to produce the address for the Control Store RAMs.

There are two identical Control Store (CS) RAMs and an associated Program Counter to allow an interleaving methodology for CS opcode fetches. The CS RAMs are 64x32 each.

Both CS RAMs are sometimes filled with identical data. It is possible to effectively double the control store instruction space by using different contents in each RAM. It is during branch conditions that next state address calculations happen. Hence, the two possible branch addresses are supplied – one to each RAM. When the branch condition is determined, late in the cycle, the controller simply picks the correct CS RAM output. Opcode execution then switches to and stays with the CS RAM until the next jump condition.

29.3.1.1 FSM RAM

FSM RAM is 64x32 RAM. It is used as ROM. The FSM RAM is filled with control flow information implementing the desired function of the DFB prior to use. This RAM is loaded typically at system boot time, but is not restricted to any particular time as long as the DFB is not running (run is deasserted in DFB_CR[0]). The code in this and the Control Store RAMs can be altered at anytime to change the function performed by the DFB. In fact, some applications have the algorithm loaded routinely and swapped out when several channels of data need processing or when one channel needs multiple transforms — when the code is too large to fit in the available space.

The FSM RAM is addressed as two banks of 32x32. The Bank selection is achieved using the CSR bit (DFB_CR[1]). The primary use of the two banks is to allow two separate code stores to load and jump between without incurring the reload penalty of the FSM RAM.
Table 29-1 shows the bit fields used for the controller by the 32-bit FSM RAM.

### Table 29-1. FSM RAM Bit Field Mapping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Enables</th>
<th>Loop</th>
<th>Jump Address</th>
<th>False Jump Limit</th>
<th>False Jump Address</th>
<th>Next State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Signal</td>
<td>enabes</td>
<td>loop</td>
<td>jaddr</td>
<td>fjlim</td>
<td>fjaddr</td>
<td>nstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bits</td>
<td>31:24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22:17</td>
<td>16:11</td>
<td>10:5</td>
<td>4:0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Enables for the top 8 input branching conditions</th>
<th>Signifies a code loop</th>
<th>Jump address for CS RAMs on TRUE</th>
<th>Address loop limit</th>
<th>Jump address for CS RAMs on FALSE*</th>
<th>Next state address for FSM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

* This false jump address is for use only in a loop state, where the controller moves back to the start of the loop on a false condition. If the state is not a loop state, then this address is used for the next state on false value.

### 29.3.1.2 Program Counter

The primary purpose of the program counter (PC) is to supply correct addresses to the Control Store (CS) RAMs. This is not as simple as providing a direct address from the FSM RAM because jump addresses must be determined and held in the PC before branches are taken. The PC also controls the incrementing and wrapping of addresses for loops, allowing the FSM to sit in one state during looping processes. For this reason the FSM RAM sends out the jump address and loop conditions to the PC.

### 29.3.1.3 Control Store

The term Control Store (CS) refers to a bank of two interleaved RAMs used to hold control opcodes for the ACUs and the Datapath unit. These RAMs are addressed by the FSM RAM indirectly through the Program Counters and set the per-cycle operation state of the DP and ACUs.

The outputs of these two 32-bit wide RAMs are muxed to one control bus (based upon which is presently the active RAM denoted by DFB_SR[0]) and provide the following bit-fields to the ACUs and Datapath unit listed in Table 29-2.

### Table 29-2. Control Store RAM Bit Field Mapping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>DP CTRL</th>
<th>Bus WR</th>
<th>ACU-A Opcode</th>
<th>ACU-B Opcode</th>
<th>ACU Addr</th>
<th>End of Block</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Signal</td>
<td>dp_ctrl</td>
<td>buswr</td>
<td>acua_op</td>
<td>acub_op</td>
<td>acu_addr</td>
<td>eob</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bits</td>
<td>31:14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12:9</td>
<td>8:5</td>
<td>4:1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Control bus to the Datapath Unit</th>
<th>Signifies a data output condition to the bus</th>
<th>ACU A's opcode</th>
<th>ACU B's opcode</th>
<th>ACU RAM's address</th>
<th>End of Block marker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 29.3.1.4 Next State Decoder

The Next State Decoder is combination logic that controls the state transitions in the FSM RAM. The next state decoder is the logic that gives the address (state address) to the FSM. The result of the next state decoder is governed by the branching signal conditions. You get a state transition when one of these two conditions exist:

- EOB is high and the signal condition goes high. This is the jump on true branch.
- Loop (cfsmram[23]) is low meaning no loop, EOB is high, and condition is low. This is the flow through condition for a false condition.

The branching conditions are:

1. End of block is encountered for a control store block – a condition for a jump because a jump instruction signifies the end of the block.

2. Datapath status inputs such as sign, threshold, and equal.
   - Dpsign – A jump based on the MSB of the ALU output. If ALU output goes negative, assert.
   - Dpthresh – Datapath Threshold – Asserted when the ALU detects a sign change, such as a zero crossing detection.
   - Dpeq – Datapath Equity – Asserted when the ALU hardware detects an output value of zero.

3. Acueq – ACU A or B REG is equal to MREG or LREG, if modflag is set. ACU A or B REG is equal to 127 or 0, if modflag is cleared. This means that the pointer to the DP Data registers has reached its upper/lower limit. Refer to 29.3.2 Datapath on page 331 for clarity.
4. IN1 or IN2 – When new data is available in one of the staging registers A or B. Signals a new input cycle and is available for consumption. Remains asserted until cleared by a bus read command.
5. globali1 – Branch control input from DSI port.
6. globali2 – Branch control input from DSI port.
7. The sat_det flag (Saturation) from ALU – This flag is set when saturation occurs in MAC, ALU, or Shifter.
8. Any of the semaphores (refer to the PHUB and DMAC chapter on page 91).

For branching, the branching conditions must be enabled. The ENGLOBALS, ENSATRND, ENSEM, SETSEM, and CLEARSEM commands are used.

If the ALU command is ENSEM, then the data on acu_addr[2:0] is written to the register sem_en for enabling semaphores to be branching conditions. The acu_addr[2:0] is converted bitwise to enable each of the three semaphores.

The SETSEM and CLEARSEM are used to set or clear the semaphores based on the semaphore selected in acu_addr[2:0].

Acu_addr[1] -> semaphore1
Acu_addr[0] -> semaphore0

The ENGLOBALS command is used to enable the use of external dsi inputs and datapath saturation flags as branching conditions. ENGLOBALS shares an ALU opcode with ENSATRND. They are differentiated by the acu_addr[3] bit as shown in Table 29-3.

The heart of the DP unit is a 48-bit Multiply and Accumulator (MAC). Two 24-bit values can be multiplied and the result added to the 48-bit accumulator in each clock cycle. This accumulator or any memory value can be routed to the ALU. Results from the ALU can then be stored on the ALU as 24-bit values representing the high-order 24 bits in the accumulator shifted by one (bits 46:23). The MAC assumes an implied binary point after the MSB which shifts the result down a bit in the output of the MAC. For this reason, bits 46:23 are used instead of 47:24.

The DP unit also contains an optimized ALU that supports add, subtract, comparison, threshold, absolute value, squelch, saturation, and other functions.

With the exception of the DP RAM addresses, the DP unit is completely controlled by seven control fields totaling 18 bits coming from the DFB Controller as the DP_CTRL control bus (Table 29-2 on page 330). These 18 bits of control are listed in Table 29-4.

### 29.3.2 Datapath

Datapath (DP) is the name used to refer to the numerical calculation unit of the DFB. The datapath subblock is a 24-bit fixed-point numerical processor containing a 48-bit MAC, a multi-function ALU, sample and coefficient data RAMs as well as data routing, shifting, holding and rounding functions.

The DP architecture makes use of two 128x24 single-port RAMs (RAM A and RAM B). The RAMs can be loaded from the bus or from the datapath output (feedback). These RAMs hold data and coefficients with size and location under full DFB controller control.

The DP unit also contains an optimized ALU that supports add, subtract, comparison, threshold, absolute value, squelch, saturation, and other functions.

With the exception of the DP RAM addresses, the DP unit is completely controlled by seven control fields totaling 18 bits coming from the DFB Controller as the DP_CTRL control bus (Table 29-2 on page 330). These 18 bits of control are listed in Table 29-4.

Note how the different signals from Table 29-4 affect the functioning of the different elements in the datapath.

---

**Table 29-3. ENGLOBALS and ENSATRND Commands**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Englobals</th>
<th>Acu_addr[3]=0</th>
<th>Acu_addr[0]: enables globali1</th>
<th>Acu_addr[1]: enables globali2</th>
<th>Acu_addr[2]: enables sat_det</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ensatrnd</td>
<td>Acu_addr[3]=1</td>
<td>Acu_addr[0]: writes to rnd_flag</td>
<td>Acu_addr[1]: writes to sat_flag</td>
<td>Acu_addr[2]: creates strobe to clear saturation flag</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 29-4. Datapath Opcode Bit Field Mapping**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>B Mux Ctrl</th>
<th>A Mux Ctrl</th>
<th>MAC Opcode</th>
<th>ALU Opcode</th>
<th>Shift Opcode</th>
<th>RAM A WR</th>
<th>RAM B WR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Signal</td>
<td>muxb*_ctrl</td>
<td>muxa*_ctrl</td>
<td>mac_op</td>
<td>alu_op</td>
<td>shift</td>
<td>dpa_r_wb</td>
<td>dpa_r_wb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Width</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>mux1b mux2b</td>
<td>mux1a mux2a</td>
<td>MAC opcode</td>
<td>ALU opcode</td>
<td>DP output shifter opcode</td>
<td>Write signal to RAM A</td>
<td>Write signal to RAM B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note how the different signals from Table 29-4 affect the functioning of the different elements in the datapath.
Round Mode – If DP is in Round mode, any result passing out of the DP unit is being rounded to a 16-bit value. This feature status is shown in the register setting, DFB_SR[2].

Saturation Mode – If DP is in Saturation mode, any mathematical operation that produces a number outside the range of a 24-bit 2’s complement number is clamped to the maximum positive or negative number. Enabling and disabling saturation and rounding is under the control of DFB controller. See the ALU instruction set. The status is visible at DFB_SR[1].

29.3.2.1 MAC
The multiply add function takes two 24-bit signed numbers and calculates a 48-bit signed result, then adds a signed 48-bit value ((a*b)+c).

The accumulator consists of a 48-bit register and the multiply adder.

Together these two functions, along with some control logic, make up the MAC. Based on the opcode (mac_op) coming from the DFB controller it can do one of the following operation:
- Multiply and accumulate with previous Values
- Clear Accumulator and load with current product.
- Hold accumulator, no multiply (no power in mult)
- Add ALU value to product and start new accumulation

The output of MAC is higher order 24 bits of multiply accumulate operation. The MAC assumes an implied binary point after the MSB, which shifts the result down a bit in the output of the MAC. For this reason, bits 46:23 are used instead of 47:24. The instruction set for the MAC, ALU and Shifter is listed in Table 29-7 on page 339, Table 29-6 on page 339, and Table 29-8 on page 340.

29.3.2.2 ALU
The ALU provides data control on the output end of the data path. ALU supports add, subtract comparison, threshold, absolute value, squelch, saturation, and other functions. See Table 29-6 for various instructions supported by ALU.

The ALU commands as well as inputs are pipelined. This pipelining can be made use for data movement in some filtering applications. This pipelining causes a delay of two clock cycles for the ALU input to reach the output.

29.3.2.3 Shifter and Rounder
The shifter at the ALU output can be used to shift the ALU results as required. See Table 29-8 for various shifter commands. Rounder rounds the results to a 16 bit value when the data path is operating in round mode.
29.3.3 Address Calculation Unit

The Address Calculation Units (ACUs) generate addresses for each DP RAM. There are two address calculation unit for supporting sophisticated branching operations.

The ACU is capable of saving and restoring address, incrementing or decrementing address by 1 or n (n is a constant value stored in FREG), flagging a programmable terminal count, and a number of other functions.

**REG** – Stores the current value that the ACU is operating on and outputs it on every cycle, unless a command specifies otherwise.

**FREG** – Loads with a value to increment or decrement by, when using the ADDF and SUBF commands. For example, load two into FREG and then it is possible to increment through the data RAMs by two.

**MREG** – Stores the maximum value before a wraparound if modulo arithmetic is turned on. When the address calculated by the ACU exceeds MREG value, it will wraparound to LREG value, if modulo arithmetic is turned on.

**LREG** – Stores the minimum value before a wraparound to the MREG value when modulus arithmetic is turned on.

Modulus arithmetic is enabled using the SETMODE ACU command and disabled using the UNSETMOD command. Modulus arithmetic prevents the ACU from incrementing past the value of MREG and from decrementing below the value of LREG. Make sure the REG value is within the LREG:MREG range at the time modulus arithmetic is turned on to avoid unexpected results.

The ACU (including the ACU RAM) is initialized whenever a hard reset event occurs or when the RUN bit in the DEC_CR register is ‘0’. Initialization is as follows:

ACU RAM Contents=0, MREG=127, LREG=0, FREG=2.

The current address and state of the register of both ACUs can be stored or retrieved from memory with assembly instructions. This is used in context switching. A 16x14 ACU RAM is used for this purpose. The 16x14 RAM is used by both ACUs. The upper seven bits are for ACU B and the lower seven bits are for ACU A. Thus, each ACU can store 16 addresses or state elements.

The ACU instructions perform incrementing/decrementing of the data RAM addresses by one or the value in FREG. Apart from this, the modulus arithmetic is used to enable a wrap around at user defined limits.

**Note** Apart from addressing the ACU RAM, the ACU_addr is also used as an argument for other ALU and branching commands. The single ACU_addr value can be used simultaneously for different commands (ACU, ALU...) if coincidence requires the same value on the ACU_addr for all commands involved.

29.3.4 Bus Interface and Register Descriptions

The DFB block is wrapped with a 32-bit AHB-Lite Slave bus interface. A 32-bit bus was chosen to accommodate the fact that the RAMs in the DFB are all 24 bits and most of the bus transfers to the DFB are 24 bits.

The DFB has a set of expanded Control and Status Registers (CSR) that are accessible through the system bus at all times. The registers containing CSR bit information are address mapped as 32-bit registers with active bits only in the low byte. This arrangement works well for both 8-bit and 32-bit MCUs.

The CSRs that hold sample data are 24-bits wide (Staging and Hold register) and coherency interlocking HW is included to allow 8-bit and 16-bit accesses.

In normal mode of operation, the DFB RAMs (except the input staging and output holding registers) is controlled by the DFB controller and is not accessible to CPU/DMA. If CPU/DMA needs control of this DFB RAM memory it should make use of DFB_RAM_DIR control bits (one per RAM) to give the RAM control to system bus.

29.3.4.1 Streaming Mode

In streaming mode the filter coefficients and historic data are loaded into DFB before starting the DFB operations. Run-time data movement is through the staging and holding registers.

The DFB has:

- Two 24-bit input staging registers
- Two 24-bit output holding registers

These registers can be accessed by both DFB as well as AHB Bus (CPU/DMA). In reality, these registers are double buffered, but to the DFB controller and the system bus, they appear as single registers. In streaming mode data to be filtered is streamed in to staging registers. Filter output is streamed out through DFB holding registers.

The two sets of input and output registers aid stereo data processing applications. Applications requiring more than two concurrent channels must use block mode.
In input Streaming mode, the sample rate is determined by the ADC or other sampling resources providing the input samples. By definition the DFB must be running (processing) samples faster than or at the exact same rate as the sample source to function properly. Therefore, the DFB knows how to stall and wait for subsequent input data or postpone operation on that channel and switch to another channel (if in use).

When the calculation engine is finished processing a sample, a bus read instruction can be issued. At this point, the next staged sample is read or, if not present yet, the DFB controller stalls while waiting for the next input sample. If two streaming channels are being processed, the DFB controller, upon completion of a calculation, can jump to the other channel.

The full or empty status of the two Staging registers is visible to the DFB controller and it can branch based on the status information, allowing it control of which channel it is working on.

When the bus read instruction is issued by the DFB controller, it does not request the bus, generate an interrupt, or DMA request. It simply tells the DFB bus interface that it wants the next sample and will wait until it arrives. In this state, the DFB controller waits until the bus interface signals that the sample has arrived. A one 24-bit word Staging register is used for a sample rate at or below 1 Msps and guaranteed bus latency lower than the sample period. There are two Staging registers: one for each supported channel.

In streaming mode new samples arrive in the staging registers. The DFB controller checks for new data write to staging registers and branch to process data depending on the CFSM code.

The input staging registers are read by the DFB controller by asserting the bus read signal and addressing the two registers with the low order ACU RAM address bit (acu_addr[0]). If the address bit is low, Staging register A is read; if the address bit is high, B is read. When read, the associated Stage Valid signal is automatically cleared by the hardware.

Apart from this, the Staging register also has a key coherency byte setting. This setting is available to reduce errors due to bus access being less wide as compared to the register width. The staging registers are protected on writes, so the underlying hardware does not incorrectly use the field when it is partially updated by the system software. If the system software is in the middle of reading from the holding registers, the DFB will not update the holding registers until the coherency key byte is read. The Key Coherency byte is basically the user (software) telling the hardware which byte of the field is written or read last when an update to the field is desired. In the Staging register the new value availability is flagged only when the key coherency byte is written to.

### 29.3.4.2 Block Transfer Modes

Block mode is defined by the system software moving sets of samples or coefficient data in and out of the DFB data RAMs in blocks. This method of using the DFB supports such features as multi-channel processing and deeper filters than the embedded data RAMs will support. It can also be used to initialize the DFB RAMs for streaming mode operation.

The DFB datapath block has two 128x24 embedded data RAMs. These hold the data (signal or coefficients) used in the calculation of numerical processes. These two RAMs are completely separate memories from the bus’ point of view. The DFB views these two RAMs as a working set, as shown in Figure 29-5 on page 335.
The primary concept of Block mode is to allow the system software full control of what is in the data RAM for each calculation cycle of the DFB. In general, this extends the functionality of the DFB by trading performance for fundamental features such as the ability to implement filters with more taps than 128 or to time division multiplex the processing of more than two low sample rate channels. The system software burden of Block mode is in the management of the RAM's contents. Both system and DFB performance is lost due to software servicing of the DFB and because the DFB must stall while the system software reads/writes the data RAMs. Block mode also creates more bus traffic on the system bus for a given sample rate.

The system software takes control of memory by putting it on the system bus with the use of (DFB_RAM_DIR) control bits (one per RAM). It then reads/writes the data and "passes" the memory back to the DFB by toggling the control bit back. While this is happening, the DFB must stall, unless it is performing some function that only requires one of the two data RAMs. The two data RAMs are individually controlled by the system software as to which resource has control of them – the bus or the DFB.

Any number of data channels can be supported with Block mode (within reason). With each added data channel, the system software has the additional burden of tracking and managing sample rates supported reduces considerably since the DFB must be stalled for data movement operations.

The DFB controller provides a semaphore methodology to communicate with the system software as to the status of the data RAMs when being passed back and forth for block transfers. Optional interrupt support can be associated with the setting and clearing of semaphores.

Typically, results of DFB applications are streaming in nature. However, in cases where results are created as data sets, Block mode can be used to move the resultant data sets out of the DFB data RAMs.

### 29.3.4.3 Result Handling

Frequently DFB block output results are generated at periodic intervals after a series of mathematical calculations. This also happens after a wait for the input sample stream. The generation rate of these result elements will vary radically based on the function being programmed and run on the DFB.

To assist system software with the handling of resultant data, the DFB implements two Holding registers, 24 bits wide, for output results. In reality, these two Holding registers are double buffered, but to the DFB controller and the system bus, they appear as a single register. They are referred to as a single register hereafter, but keep in mind there are really two registers to deal with bus latency issues. The fact they are double buffered is transparent to both the bus and the DFB controller. Hardware automatically manages the fact that they are double buffered.

The intent of having two fully addressed Holding registers is primarily to allow the controller and system software to map filter channels so that DMA requests are much easier to support. The two Holding registers are addressed with the low-order ACU address bit out of the Control Store.

When bus write is asserted in the CS word and the low-order ACU address bit (acu_addr[0]) is low, Holding register A is written and Holding register B is written when the low-order address bit is high.

There are a couple of methods provided to read the Holding registers on the system bus. These registers are generic...
Digital Filter Block (DFB)

read only CSRs. They can be read manually by software running on the MCU under poled or interrupt control (DFB_INTR_CTRL), or each can be associated with a DMA request signal and read by the system DMA controller (DFB_DMA_CTRL). Pending interrupts from the Holding register update is monitored from the DFB_SR register.

Operations on the Holding registers are protected. The nature of the protection is set by the coherence bits (DFB_COHER). The Holding registers are protected on reads so that the underlying HW doesn’t update it when partially read by the System SW or DMA. The key coherency byte is selected in the Coherency register. The Key Coherency byte is basically the user (software) telling the hard-

ware which byte of the field is read last. The Holding registers are considered read once the key coherency byte is read.

Note 1 In Block mode, when more than two channels are being processed, management of the output results is more burdensome to the system software as it can no longer be constantly mapped one-to-one with a Holding register or DMA request.

Note 2 In 8-bit devices, reading the Holding registers manually results in a multi-cycle operation.

Figure 29-6 explains DFB control signals can be used for data streaming and result handling.

Figure 29-6. Control Signals for Data Streaming and result handling
29.3.4.4 Data Alignment

The hardware provides a data alignment feature in the input Staging registers and in the output Holding registers for system software convenience.

Both staging and holding registers support byte accesses that addresses alignment issues for input and output samples of 8 bits or less. Also, all of these four registers are mapped as 32-bit registers (only three of the four bytes are used) so there are no alignment issues for samples between 17 and 24 bits. However, for sample sizes between 9 and 16, it is convenient to read and write these samples on bus bits 15:0, while they source and sink on bits 23:8 of the Holding and Staging registers.

The CSR DALIGN provides bits that enable an alignment feature which allows bus bits 15:0 to either be sourced from Holding register bits 23:8 or sink to Staging register bits 23:8. Each Staging and Holding register can be configured individually with a bit in the DALIGN register. If the bit is set high, the effective byte shift occurs. For example, if an output sample from the Decimator is 12 bits wide, aligned to bit 23 of the Decimator Output Sample register, and is desired to stream this value to the DFB, the similar data alignment feature of the Decimator can be enabled, allowing the 16 bits of the Decimator Output Sample register to be read on bus bits 15:0. Setting the alignment feature in the DFB for the Staging A input register, these 16 bits can be written on bus bits 15:0 and will be written into bits 23:8 of the Staging A register when required.

29.3.4.5 DMA and Semaphores

The DFB bus interface supports two DMA request signals. These can be associated with the two Holding registers (optional) or associated with the semaphore bits (see register DFB_DMA_CTRL).

The DFB provides three generic semaphore register bits that the system software and the DFB controller can use to communicate. The intent of these three semaphores is to allow the system software and the DFB controller to communicate the status of data movement in and out of the DFB and, in particular, the handling of block data transfers. The definition of these three bits is left to the system and controller software architects.

To set and clear semaphores bits, two DP ALU commands are available: SEM_SET and SEM_CLR. For each active high bit of the ACU address, the corresponding semaphore bit is either set or cleared.

For system software to write into a semaphore bit the register DFB_SEMA is used. The mask bit is set when the corresponding semaphore bit in the register is updated.

Any of the semaphore bits can be optionally (programmable) associated with the system interrupt signal (DFB_INTR_CTRL) or either of the DMAREQ (DFB_DMA_CTRL) outputs leaving the DFB, and/or either of the outgoing Global signal. Pending semaphore interrupts are monitored from the DFB_SR register.

29.3.4.6 DSI Routed Inputs and Outputs

The DFB has the option to take two DSI global inputs (globali1 and globali2) and two DSI global outputs (globalo1 and globalo2).

Use of the global outputs is optional. If needed, they can be programmed to carry one of four different DFB internal status/control signals. These can be routed to the DSI and used as inputs to other circuits. The global outputs can be configured to carry semaphore, an interrupt, or DP status signals as listed in Table 29-5 on page 338. This is done using the DFB_DSI_CTRL register.

The DSI inputs into the DFB to control operations of the FSM are optionally used as branching inputs to the Controller's next state decoder. See the section on 29.3.1.4 Next State Decoder on page 330 for more details.
29.4  DFB Instruction Set

Each control word for the DFB is 32 bits long. The fields in the control word are as follows:

- Datapath Mux Control – 6 bits
- Data RAM R/W – 2 bits
- Bus R/W – 1 bit
- ALU Control – 5 bits
- MAC Control – 2 bits
- Shifter Control – 3 bits
- ACU Control – 8 bits
- ACURAM Address – 4 bits
- End of Code Block – 1 bit

The mux control bits are split equally between the A and B paths each having 3 bits. Three bits are allocated and encode the control of the mux1, mux2, and mux3 functions as shown in Table 29-5.

Table 29-5. Mux Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Assembly Name</th>
<th>Function MUX1</th>
<th>Function MUX2</th>
<th>Function MUX3</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>mux1 = AHB Bus</td>
<td>mux2 = mux1</td>
<td>mux3 = mux2</td>
<td>AHB -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>mux1 = dp_out</td>
<td>mux2 = mux1</td>
<td>mux3 = mux2</td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>BRA</td>
<td>mux1 = AHB Bus</td>
<td>mux2 = RAM out</td>
<td>mux3 = mux2</td>
<td>AHB -&gt; RAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AHB -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>SRA</td>
<td>mux1 = dp_out</td>
<td>mux2 = RAM out</td>
<td>mux3 = mux2</td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; RAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>BM</td>
<td>mux1 = AHB Bus</td>
<td>mux2 = mux1</td>
<td>mux3 = MAC</td>
<td>AHB -&gt; MAC -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>mux1 = dp_out</td>
<td>mux2 = mux1</td>
<td>mux3 = MAC</td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; MAC -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>BRM</td>
<td>mux1 = AHB Bus</td>
<td>mux2 = RAM out</td>
<td>mux3 = MAC</td>
<td>AHB -&gt; MAC -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AHB -&gt; RAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>SRM</td>
<td>mux1 = dp_out</td>
<td>mux2 = RAM out</td>
<td>mux3 = MAC</td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; MAC -&gt; ALU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dp_out -&gt; RAM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ALU functions are programmed as shown in Table 29-6 and are encoded in 5 bits.

### Table 29-6. ALU Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Assembly Name</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>SET0</td>
<td>Set ALU output to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SET1</td>
<td>Set ALU output to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>SETA</td>
<td>PASS A to ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>SETB</td>
<td>PASS B to ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>NEGA</td>
<td>Set ALU output to –A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>NEGB</td>
<td>Set ALU output to –B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>PASSRAMA</td>
<td>Pass RAM A output directly to ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>PASSRAMB</td>
<td>Pass RAM B output directly to ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>ADD</td>
<td>Add A and B and put result on the ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>TDECA</td>
<td>Put A-1 on the ALU output, set threshold detection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>SUBA</td>
<td>Put B-A on the ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>SUBB</td>
<td>Put A-B on the ALU output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>ABSA</td>
<td>Put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>ABSB</td>
<td>Put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>ADDABSA</td>
<td>Put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>ADDABSB</td>
<td>Put A +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>HOLD</td>
<td>Hold ALU output from previous cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>ENSATRND, -</td>
<td>Enables global and saturation jump conditions using a 3-bit field to specify which events are active jump conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>ENSEM, ---</td>
<td>Enables semaphores as jump conditions using a 3-bit field to specify which are active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>SETSEM, ---</td>
<td>Set the semaphores high using the 3-bit mask</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>CLEARSEM, ---</td>
<td>Set the semaphores low using mask, addr[2:0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>TSUBA</td>
<td>Put B-A on the ALU output, set threshold detection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>TSUBB</td>
<td>Put A-B on the ALU output, set threshold detection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>TADDABSA</td>
<td>Put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>TADDBSB</td>
<td>Put A +</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>SQLCMP</td>
<td>Load squelch comparison register with a value from side A, Pass Side B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>SQLCNT</td>
<td>Load squelch count register with value from side A, Pass Side B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>SOA</td>
<td>Squelch side A: If value is above threshold pass it. If value is below threshold and the squelch count register is zero, pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>SOB</td>
<td>Squelch side B: If value is above threshold pass it. If value is below threshold and the squelch count register is zero, pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29-31</td>
<td>UNDEFINED</td>
<td>Undefined Opcodes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MAC functions are programmed as shown in Table 29-7 and are encoded in 2 bits.

### Table 29-7. MAC Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Assembly Name</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>LOADALU</td>
<td>Add ALU value to product and start new accumulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>CLRA</td>
<td>Load accumulator with product but a 0 sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>HOLD</td>
<td>Hold accumulator, no multiply (no power in mult)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MACC</td>
<td>Default – just accumulate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Shifter functions are programmed as shown in Table 29-8 and are encoded in 3 bits. If deeper shifts are required, data can be passed through the ALU on multiple cycles.

Table 29-8. Shifter Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Assembly Name</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>&lt;default&gt;</td>
<td>No shift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>shift(right,1)</td>
<td>Shift right 1 (divide by 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>shift(right,2)</td>
<td>Shift right 2 (divide by 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>shift(right,3)</td>
<td>Shift right 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>shift(right,4)</td>
<td>Shift right 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>shift(right,8)</td>
<td>Shift right 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>shift(left,1)</td>
<td>Shift left 1 (multiply by 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>shift(left,2)</td>
<td>Shift left 2 (multiply by 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two ACUs are supplied. There are 16 functions per ACU as shown in Table 29-9 and are encoded in 4 bits. This RAM is useful when parallel filters or algorithms are implemented and control flow needs to shift from one to the other, while still maintaining the relative addresses for each filter.

Table 29-9. ACU Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Assembly Name</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>HOLD</td>
<td>Put REG on output, hold REG in REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>INCR</td>
<td>If (modflag &amp;&amp; REG = MREG) Put LREG on output, write to REG else If (modflag &amp;&amp; REG = 127) Put 0 on output, write to REG else Put REG+1 on the output, write to REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>DECR</td>
<td>If (modflag &amp;&amp; REG = LREG) Put MREG on output, write to REG else If (modflag &amp;&amp; REG = 0) Put 127 on output, write to REG else Put REG-1 on the output, write to REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>READ</td>
<td>Read ACU RAM and put value on output Write to REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>WRITE</td>
<td>Put REG on output, write output to RAM Hold REG in REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>LOADF</td>
<td>Load FREG from ACU RAM, put REG on output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>LOADL</td>
<td>Load LREG from ACU RAM, put REG on output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>LOADM</td>
<td>Load MREG from ACU RAM, put REG on output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>WRITEL</td>
<td>Put LREG on output, assert RAM write enable Hold REG in REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>SETMOD</td>
<td>Set modflag true, put REG on output Hold REG in REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>UNSETMOD</td>
<td>Set modflag false, put REG on output Hold REG in REG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>CLEAR</td>
<td>If (modflag) Put LREG on output, write to REG else Put 0 on output, write to REG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29.5 Usage Model

The instruction set is programmed into the controller based on dual control stores and a control finite state machine.

The control store contains sequential blocks of instructions to execute an algorithm. In the simplest programming model, all of the statements will appear in line and the program counter will step from zero to the end of the last instruction.

In this architecture it is more efficient to reuse blocks of code (such as implementing a biquad IIR section). In this specific case, a block of 12 instructions are looped through with offsets in the ACU adjusted so that the correct coefficients and data are used. To control the use of this subroutine, a branching controller is needed. This is the Control Finite State Machine (CFSM) in the controller.

The CFSM contains information on branching. At the end of each clock cycle, the various datapath flags, ACU flags, and globals are evaluated to determine if a jump condition is met. A jump is only allowed at the end of a CS block, which is indicated when the EOB (end of block) bit in the control store word is set to ‘1’. The CFSM RAM stores information about the current state, bits to control which of the input flags are active, and the jump address.

Loop counters are often found in architectures supporting a single instruction MAC for FIR filtering. The loop counter function can be achieved more generally in this architecture through the use of the ACU. The equal flag in the ACU gets set when the address is equal to the mask in the MREG and when the end of the ram is reached or zero. Thus a branch is triggered when the address reaches a certain address. This is how a single instruction, zero instruction overhead branch loop for FIR filtering can be implemented.
Digital Filter Block (DFB)
Section F: Analog System

The PSOC® analog subsystem provides the device the second half of its unique configurability. All analog performance is based on a highly accurate absolute voltage reference with less than 0.2% error over temperature and voltage. The configurable analog subsystem includes analog mixers, comparators, mixers, voltage references, analog-to-digital converters (ADC), digital-to-analog converters (DAC), and digital filter blocks (DFB). All GPIO pins can route analog signals into and out of the device, using the internal analog bus. This feature allows the device to interface up to 62 discrete analog signals.

This section encompasses the following chapters:
- Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time chapter on page 345
- Analog Routing chapter on page 359
- Comparators chapter on page 375
- Opamp chapter on page 379
- LCD Direct Drive chapter on page 383
- CapSense® chapter on page 397
- Temperature Sensor chapter on page 403
- Digital-to-Analog Converter chapter on page 409
- Precision Reference chapter on page 413
- Delta Sigma Converter chapter on page 417
- Successive Approximation Register ADC chapter on page 437

Top Level Architecture

Analog System Block Diagram

System Bus

ANALOG SYSTEM

ADCs

N x SAR ADC

SPC ADC

N x Del Sig ADC

Digital Filter Block

N x DAC

N x SC/CT Blocks (TIA, PGA, Mixer, etc.)

Digital Filter Block

N x DAC

N x DAC

CapSense

N x SC/CT Blocks (TIA, PGA, Mixer, etc.)

Temperature Sensor

LCD Direct Drive

Opamp

N x Opamp

N x CMP

N x CMP

N x SAR ADC
30. Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 Switched Capacitor (SC) – Continuous Time (CT) block is a general purpose block constructed of a rail-to-rail amplifier with arrays of switches, capacitors, and resistors. Register configurations select the block functional topology, power level, and bandwidth.

30.1 Features

The PSoC SC/CT block has these features:

- Multiple configurations:
  - Naked Opamp
  - Continuous Time Unity Gain Buffer
  - Track and Hold Amplifier
  - Continuous Time Programmable Gain Amplifier
  - Continuous Time Trans Impedance Amplifier
  - Continuous Time Mixer
  - Sampled Mixer (non return-to-zero sample and hold -- NRZ S/H)
  - Delta Sigma Modulator
- Routability to GPIO
- Routable reference selection
- Programmable power and bandwidth
- Sample and hold configuration

30.2 Block Diagram

The overall block diagram of the block is shown in Figure 30-1 on page 346. Individual block diagrams for the possible implementations are shown in separate sections.
Figure 30-1. Switched Capacitor and Continuous Time Block Diagram

- **Vin**
- **Vref**
- **Vout**
- **Trk Hld**: 4.0 pF
- **Mod, CT, TIA**: 850 fF
- **SC**: 850 fF
- **Comp<1:0>**: 1.25 fF – 5 pF
- **20 k or 40 k**
- **Mod Gain**: 0: 850 fF, 1: 425 fF
- **CT, TIA**: 850 fF
- **Vgnd**

Diagram showing the block diagram with components labeled as per the text.
30.3 How it Works

Each instance of the SC/CT block is able to implement any of the available configurations. Selection of the mode bits configures most of the resources required to implement these configurations.

30.3.1 Operational Mode of Block is Set

The operational mode of the SC/CT block is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR1 register, bits [3:1].

Table 30-1. SC/CT Block Operational Mode Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_MODE[2:0]</th>
<th>Operational Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[000]</td>
<td>Naked Opamp Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[001]</td>
<td>Trans Impedance Amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[010]</td>
<td>Continuous Time Mixer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[011]</td>
<td>Discrete Time Mixer – NRZ S/H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[100]</td>
<td>Unity Gain Buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[101]</td>
<td>First-Order Modulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[110]</td>
<td>Programmable Gain Amplifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>Track and Hold Amplifier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30.4 Naked Opamp

The naked opamp mode provides direct access to the input and output terminals of the opamp. All of the other circuitry (resistors and capacitors) is disconnected in this mode. This mode is used for applications that require a general purpose opamp with external components.

Figure 30-2. Naked Opamp Configuration

\[ V_{IN}^+ \quad + \quad - \quad V_{OUT} \]

The naked opamp is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR0 to 000. The opamp is a two stage design with a rail-to-rail input folded cascade first stage and a class A second stage. The opamp is internally compensated. To accommodate varying load conditions, the compensation capacitor and output stage drive strength is programmable.

The setting to apply is determined from the minimum required slew rate determined from the signal swing and time, and load capacitance. This is primarily a consideration for the stability reasons.

\[ I_{load} = C_{load} \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta t} \]

...where \( C_{load} \) includes the total internal capacitance at the output node of the amplifier plus any external capacitive loads. A value of 10 pF should be used for the internal load from analog bus routing. Set the drive controls, SC_DRIVE[1:0], according to the slew requirements at the output in SC[0..3]_CR1[1:0] register bits.

Table 30-2. Output Load Current by Drive Setting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_DRIVE[1:0]</th>
<th>( I_{load} ) (µA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0b00</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0b01</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b10</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b11</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 30-3. Naked Opamp Drive Control I_LOAD

30.4.1 Bandwidth/Stability Control

This block has three control options for modifying closed loop bandwidth and stability that apply to all configurations: current through the first stage of the amplifier (BIAS_CONTROL), Miller capacitance between the amplifier input and the output stage (SC_COMP[1:0]), and feedback capacitance between the output stage and the negative input terminal (SC_REDC[1:0]).

30.4.1.1 BIAS_CONTROL

The bias control option doubles the current through the amplifier stage. AC open loop stability analysis for all continuous time modes shows that leaving this option set to ‘1’ and then controlling the bandwidth/stability using the capacitor options results in a greater overall bandwidth once the circuit is stabilized than using the option of less current in the first stage. The bias current is doubled by setting the SC[0..3]_CR2[0] register bit.
30.4.1.2 SC_COMP[1:0]

SC_COMP bits set the amount of compensation capacitance used in the amplifier. This directly affects the gain bandwidth of the amplifier and is an important tool in tuning the circuit stability. Follow the recommendations in the upcoming tables for this setting. The Miller capacitance is set to one of the four values in the SC[0..3]_CR1[3:2] register bits.

Table 30-3. Miller Capacitance between Amplifier Output and Output Driver

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_COMP[1:0]</th>
<th>CMiller (pF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30.4.1.3 SC_REDC[1:0]

The capacitance option between the output driver and the negative input terminal is another stability control option. Depending on the continuous time configuration, this capacitor option generally contributes to a higher frequency zero and a lower frequency pole, thus reducing the overall bandwidth and gaining some phase margin at the unity gain frequency. This capacitance is set to one of the four values in SC[0..3]_CR2[3:2] register bits.

Table 30-4. CFB in CT Mix, PGA, Opamp, Unity Gain Buffer, and T/H Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_REDC[1:0]</th>
<th>CFB (pF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recommended Settings by Mode

Stability settings for each mode are listed in Table 30-5 on page 348. These are the settings that were used to simulate each mode.

For the transimpedance amplifier (TIA) mode, the analog global load was modeled at the input as 10 pF between two 150Ω switch impedances with an additional 40 pF added to the input to model the input diode capacitance.

For all continuous time modes, the output was modeled with two 150Ω switches with an 8 pF load in between, then followed by a 300Ω impedance and a 50 pF external load.

The modulator mode was simulated with a 0.5 pF load at the output.

Table 30-5. Recommended Stability Settings by Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[001]</td>
<td>Trans Impedance Amplifier</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[010]</td>
<td>Continuous Time Mixer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[011]</td>
<td>Discrete Time Mixer -- NRZ S/H</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[100]</td>
<td>Unity Gain Buffer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[101]</td>
<td>First-Order Modulator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[110]</td>
<td>Programmable Gain Amplifier</td>
<td></td>
<td>See Table 30-7 on page 350</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>Track and Hold Amplifier</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 30.5 Continuous Time Unity Gain Buffer

The Continuous Time Unity Gain Buffer is a naked opamp with the inverting input locally connected to the output. Use of routing features external to the block is not required to implement this function.

Figure 30-4. Unity Gain Buffer Configuration

![Unity Gain Buffer Configuration](image)

The unity gain buffer is used when an internally generated signal with high output impedance, such as a voltage DAC output, is required to drive a load; or when an external source with a high impedance is required to drive a significant on-chip load, such as the Continuous Time Mixer.

### 30.6 Continuous Time Programmable Gain Amplifier

The Programmable Gain Amplifier (PGA) is a continuous time opamp with selectable taps for input and feedback resistances. The PGA is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0...3]_CR0 register to ‘110’.

Figure 30-5. PGA Configuration

![PGA Configuration](image)

The PGA can be implemented as either a positive gain or negative gain topology, or as half of a differential amplifier. The specific gain configuration is selected by the SC_GAIN bit [5] in register SCL[0...3]_CR1. Any added input resistance from analog routing affects the PGA gain.

Table 30-6. PGA Gain Configuration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_GAIN</th>
<th>Gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Inverting (-RFB/RIN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Non-inverting (1+ RFB/RIN)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The positive gain (non-inverting) topology is shown in Figure 30-6.
The differential amplifier two PGAs in parallel. The connection ($R_{LAD}$) is external to the SC blocks and has very low impedance to reduce gain error. When not in differential mode, $R_{IN}$ is connected to the analog or global routing and $R_{LAD}$ is at very high impedance to minimize gain errors. The output of the differential amplifier is

$$V_{OUT^+} - V_{OUT^-} = \text{Gain} \times (V_{IN^+} - V_{IN^-}). \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

The common mode voltage of the output remains at the common mode voltage of the input.

$$V_{CM} = \frac{(V_{IN^+} + V_{IN^-})}{2}. \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

Because of capacitive loading, each gain step has a different requirement for compensation capacitors.

The negative gain (inverting) topology is shown in Figure 30-7.

### Table 30-7. PGA Stability Settings by Gain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_RVA</th>
<th>R20_40B</th>
<th>Non-Inverting Gain</th>
<th>BIAS</th>
<th>SC_COMP [1:0]</th>
<th>SC_REDC [1:0]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bin</td>
<td>Bin</td>
<td>Lin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The negative gain (inverting) topology is shown in Figure 30-7.

### 30.7 Continuous Time Transimpedance Amplifier

The Transimpedance Amplifier (TIA) is a continuous time opamp with dedicated and selectable feedback resistor. The TIA is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR0 register to ‘001’.
The output of the transimpedance amplifier is a voltage that is proportional to input current; the conversion gain is a resistor value, where:

\[ V_{OUT} = V_{REF} - (I_{IN} \cdot R_{FB}) \]  

Equation 4

The output voltage is referenced to \( V_{REF} \), which is routable to the analog globals or through local analog routing to any selected reference.

The feedback resistor can be programmed from 20 k\( \Omega \) to 1.0 M\( \Omega \) in eight steps, selected in bits [6:4] of the SCL[0..3]_CR2 register.

Table 30-8. Feedback Resistor Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_RVAL[2:0]</th>
<th>Nominal R_{FB} (k( \Omega ))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>000</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The feedback resistor is untrimmed polysilicon, so the absolute resistance value varies largely with process and temperature. Calibration of the TIA gain is expected to be done by the user using the precise outputs of the current output DAC combined with measurements in the ADC.

Stability of this opamp topology in general is affected by shunt capacitance on the inverting input. This capacitance is determined largely by parasitic capacitances in the analog global routing and at the input pin. An internal shunt feedback capacitor is used to maintain stability. Because the input capacitance is larger in the TIA than in other modes, the stability capacitance is somewhat larger.

The \( C_{FB} \) options for TIA mode are larger than for the other continuous time modes, as shown in Table 30-9. The feedback capacitance is set in bits [3:2] of the SCL[0..3]_CR2 register.

Table 30-9. Feedback Capacitance Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_REDC[1:0]</th>
<th>C_{FB} (pF)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A large source capacitance causes instability in the TIA with the small feedback resistor settings. Therefore, in applications where the internal capacitance is not sufficient to stabilize the TIA, an external capacitance is necessary. This is connected using the analog global routing.
30.8 Continuous Time Mixer

The Continuous Time Mixer uses input switches to toggle a PGA between an inverting PGA gain of -1 and a noninverting PGA gain of +1. The maximum toggle frequency is 1 MHz. The continuous time mixer is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR0 register to ‘010’.

The continuous time mode was chosen to achieve up conversion because it provides higher conversion gain relative to the sampled mixer. In the CT mixer the magnitude of the $F_{CLK}+F_{IN}$ and $F_{CLK}-F_{IN}$ are equal, while in the sampled case, there is attenuation between the two configurations.

Example waveforms where the input is at 200 kHz and the carrier is at 255 kHz are shown in Figure 30-10.

Figure 30-10. Continuous Time Mixer Waveforms

The output spectrum of the mixer includes terms at 455 kHz, 55 kHz, at $3f_{CARRIER} \pm f_{SIGNAL}$, $5f_{CARRIER} \pm f_{SIGNAL}$, $7f_{CARRIER} \pm f_{SIGNAL}$, etc. The up conversion is ultimately achieved by filtering out the desired harmonic of the mixed product of the input frequency and modulating frequency using gain toggling.

Usage options for the continuous time mixer mode include controlling the sampling function and setting the value of the resistor in the inverting gain configuration. The continuous time mixer configuration can be seen in Figure 30-11.

Figure 30-11. Continuous Time Mixer Configuration

![Continuous Time Mixer Configuration Diagram]

Table 30-10. Sampling Configurations for CT Mixer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_DYN_CNTRL</th>
<th>Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Inverting Amplifier with Gain of 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Unity Gain Buffer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 30-11. Input Resistor Settings for CT Mixer Inverting Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R20_40B</th>
<th>R_MIX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>40 kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20 kΩ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
30.9 Sampled Mixer

The Sampled Mixer is a nonreturn-to-zero (NRZ) sample and hold circuit with very fast response. The mixer is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR0 register to ‘011’. The discrete time mode has a maximum F_{CLK} of 4 MHz. The maximum input frequency in discrete time mode is 14 MHz. The mixer output is designed to drive an off-chip ceramic filter (i.e., 455 kHz Murata Cerafil) or the internal ADC through the on-chip analog routing. In order for the ADC to correctly sample the mixer output, the sample clock for the ADC and mixer must be the same.

The sample and hold mixer is primarily used for down-conversion mixing. The down conversion is achieved by filtering the desired harmonics of the mixed product of the input frequency and sample clock frequency. Correct frequency planning is required to achieve the desired results. For a given input carrier frequency, F_{IN}, a sample clock frequency, F_{CLK}, can be chosen to provide the desired IF frequency, F_{IF}, for the system.

Provided that F_{CLK} is less than 4 MHz, and F_{IN} is less than 14 MHz:

If

\[
\frac{2N-1}{2} F_{CLK} < F_{IN} < N \cdot F_{CLK}
\]

then

\[
F_{IF} = N \cdot F_{CLK} - F_{IN}
\]

Equation 5

If

\[
N \cdot F_{CLK} < F_{IN} < \frac{2N+1}{2} F_{CLK}
\]

then

\[
F_{IF} = F_{IN} - (N \cdot F_{CLK})
\]

Equation 7

Equation 1 and Equation 2 can be summarized as:

\[
F_{IF} = \text{abs}(N \cdot F_{CLK} - F_{IN})
\]

Equation 8

Consider an example using an input carrier frequency of 13.5 MHz and a desired IF frequency of 500 kHz. We set the sample clock frequency and the ADC sample frequency to be 2 MHz.

From the down conversion equations above, we can calculate the IF frequency with N = 7.

\[
F_{IF} = 7 \cdot F_{CLK} - F_{IN} = 500kHz
\]

Equation 10

In this example, we have a 500 kHz down-converted signal, but we are sampling it at 2 MHz. Since the ADC and the switched capacitor block can both run at the same 2 MHz sample rate, there is no need to low pass filter the output of the switched capacitor block. Its output can be fed directly into the ADC input.

A few examples illustrate the frequency shifting capabilities of the mixer. For a signal frequency at 1.36 MHz, and a carrier at 1.28 MHz, the output frequency is the difference between the two frequencies, as shown in Figure 30-12.

Figure 30-12. Sampled Mixer N = 1

For a higher frequency signal at 13.6 MHz, and the carrier at 3.2 MHz, the output is at the same frequency, but longer separation between the samples, as shown in Figure 30-13.

Figure 30-13. Sampled Mixer N = 3

There is no increase in harmonic distortion, only an increase in the level of the sampling aliases. When the mixer output is sampled at the same rate as the carrier frequency, the aliases are suppressed.

The discrete time mixer configuration (NRZ S+H) is shown in Figure 30-14 on page 354. The options specific to this...
configuration are the reference option and the clock division option.

Figure 30-14. Switched Capacitor Discrete Time Mixer Configuration

Table 30-12. External Reference Option for Sample and Hold Mixer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_GNDVREF</th>
<th>Amplifier/Capacitor Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>External Voltage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Internal Ground</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the internal ground can cause different step sizes up versus down because the amplifier does not respond identically when the negative terminal jumps below ground. To avoid this distortion, use the external reference option and set it to 500 mV or greater.

The architecture of the discrete mixer is such that the output changes with a new hold value on both the rising and falling edge of the input clock. The SC_DIV control signal can be used to designate that output only change on the rising edge of the input clock. This is achieved by resetting the SC[0..3]_CR1[4] bit.

Table 30-13. Clock Division Option for Sample and Hold Mixer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_DIV</th>
<th>SC_CLOCK Requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>SC_CLOCK should be set to half the desired sample frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SC_CLOCK should be set to the desired sample frequency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
30.10 Delta Sigma Modulator

The SC/CT block can be programmed to function as a switched capacitor integrator to use in a first-order modulator loop at high oversampling ratios.

The Delta Sigma Modulator is selected by setting the MODE[2:0] bits in the SC[0..3]_CR0 register to ‘101’. The integrator output is compared to a reference level and fed back to the input in a feedback loop. The modulator output is clocked at the high sampling rate, and needs to be decimated down to the signal band of interest using a decimation filter.

The modulator can also be used as an incremental modulator by using a reset switch that is placed across the integrating capacitor. The accuracy of the sampled data from the first-order modulator is determined from several factors: the maximum input signal bandwidth, oversampling ratio, and the sampling clock jitter. The oversampling clock is limited to a maximum of 4 MHz. Oversampling below x64 does not produce a stable output. Table 30-14 below shows the expected performance from a system simulation.

Table 30-14. Incremental Modulator Expected Performance from System Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maximum Input Signal Frequency</th>
<th>Oversampling Rate OSR (fsamp/fsig/2)</th>
<th>Sampling Clock Frequency (MHz)</th>
<th>Signal-to-Noise Ratio After Decimation by OSR (at Maximum Input Signal)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 kHz</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>54 dB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 kHz</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>64 dB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 kHz</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.096</td>
<td>54 dB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 kHz</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>4.096</td>
<td>64 dB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) values include the effects of limit cycle oscillations.

The configuration diagram of the discrete time first-order modulator is shown in Figure 30-16 on page 356. There are two mode-specific usage options: a reset switch placed across the integrating capacitor and a gain setting to adjust the allowable input amplitude range.
30.10.1 First-Order Modulator, Incremental Mode

The dynamic control input SC[0..3]_CR1[5] can be used to reset the integrating capacitor if to perform an incremental conversion:

Table 30-15. First-Order Modulator, Integrating/Incremental Mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_DYN_CNTRL</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Integrating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reset. $V_{OUT}$ is connected to amplifier negative terminal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The range of the allowed input amplitude can be set using the SC_GAIN SC[0..3]_CR1[5] control signal as shown in Table 30-16.

Table 30-16. First-Order Modulator, Input Amplitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_GAIN</th>
<th>Maximum Input Amplitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>$\pm \frac{1}{2} V_{REF}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$\pm 2 V_{REF}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
30.11 Track and Hold Amplifier

Track and hold amplifier mode is derived using the unity gain buffer amplifier. Implementation is shown in Figure 30-17.

Figure 30-17. Track and Hold Block Diagram

The track and hold mode tracks to 1 percent of a 5.5V input step in less than 1 µs. The charge injection error from the sample switch is < 1.1 mV. The hold loss is < 0.2 mV.

The control of the amplifier between track and hold is done using the SC_DYN_CNTRL input as shown in Table 30-17.

This feature is enabled by setting the register bit value SC[0..3]_CLK[5].

Table 30-17. Track and Hold Amplifier Control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SC_DYN_CNTRL</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Track VIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hold sampled value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
31. Analog Routing

PSOC® 3 and PSOC® 5 have a flexible analog routing architecture to route signals between GPIOs and analog resource blocks such as the ADC, Switched Capacitor, DAC, etc. One of the strong points of this flexible routing architecture is that it allows dynamic configuration of input/output connections to the different analog blocks. For example, the comparator input could be switched between two GPIOs, on the fly, by DSI control signals and register settings. Knowing and understanding the architecture enables efficient and optimal utilization of the device analog routing resources.

31.1 Features

PSOC® analog routing has the following features:

- Flexible, configurable analog routing architecture
- Dedicated routing options for LCD drive capability
- Eight analog globals (AGs) and one analog multiplexer bus (AMUXBUS) for GPIOs on each side
- Flexible routing options within the analog core to interconnect analog resource blocks using analog local bus (abus)

31.2 Block Diagram

The PSOC 3 and PSOC 5 analog system block diagram is shown in Figure 31-1 on page 360. In Figure 31-1, the CapSense® system is limited to the GPIO controls, there are no separate blocks. Figure 31-2 on page 361 shows detailed analog routing architecture. All the figures used to explain analog routing in this chapter are derived from Figure 31-2.
Figure 31-1. Analog System Block Diagram

ANALOG SYSTEM

Left Side Analog Globals and Muxes

Left Side ARBs

Right Side ARBs

Right Side Analog Globals and Muxes

Delta Sigma Channel (1x)

LPF

Switched Capacitor (2x)

DAC (2x)

Opamp (2x)

Comparator (2x)

CapSense Refbuf

SAR0

SAR1

Precision Reference

Analog Interface

Left Side GPIO

Right Side GPIO

Analog Interface

Analog Global Bus

Analog Mux Bus

Analog Local Bus

LCD

Delta Sigma Channel (1x)

LPF

Switched Capacitor (2x)

DAC (2x)

Opamp (2x)

Comparator (2x)

CapSense Refbuf

SAR0

SAR1

Precision Reference

Analog Interface

Analog Global Bus

Analog Mux Bus

Analog Local Bus

LCD
Figure 31-2. Analog Interconnect

Notes:
- * Denotes pins on all packages
- LCD signals are not shown.

- Denotes pins on all packages
- LCD signals are not shown.

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PSoC 3, PSoC 5 Architecture TRM, Document No. 001-50235 Rev. *E
361
31.3 How it Works

Analog routing resources in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices include analog globals (AGs), analog mux bus (AMUXBUS), liquid crystal display bias bus (LCDBUS), and local analog buses (abus). The analog globals and AMUXBUS go to the GPIOs and provide a way to route signals between the GPIOs and the analog resource blocks (ARBs). The LCDBUS is used for LCD bias signal routing.

Analog resource blocks include the following: DACs, comparators, CapSense, switched capacitors, Delta Sigma ADC, and opamps. The analog local buses (abus) are local buses used for connections between ARBs.

In addition, there is a VREF bus as shown in Figure 31-2 on page 361. This VREF bus carries the reference voltages for different analog blocks that are generated by the precision reference block. Refer to the Precision Reference chapter on page 413 for details on these reference voltages.

Analog switches and muxes establish connections between the above mentioned analog routing buses and the ARBs.

All these analog routing resources are explained in detail in the following sections.

Figure 31-4 on page 364 illustrates the difference between switches and muxes.

31.3.1 Analog Globals (AGs)

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 die is divided into four quadrants as shown in Figure 31-2 on page 361 and Figure 31-3 on page 363. The analog global bus has eight routes on each side, AGL[7:0] on the left, and AGR[7:0] on the right. Within each side, the bus is divided into two groups, AGR[3:0] and AGR[7:4] for the right side, and AGL[3:0] and AGL[7:4] for the left side. The lower four globals on each side are routed to the GPIO in the lower half of the die and the upper four globals on each side are routed to the GPIO in the upper half of the die. All eight analog globals on each side get routed to ARBs on the same side. Analog globals can be used as single ended or differential signal paths. The left and right half globals may operate independently or they may be joined through the switches that are shown at the top and bottom of Figure 31-3 on page 363.

Each GPIO may be connected to an analog global through a switch in the following manner:

- In the lower left half, Px[3:0] maps to AGR[3:0] and Px[7:4] maps to AGR[3:0]

This means that two pins on each port are connectable to the same global as shown in the diagram. The analog global bus connects to inputs and/or outputs of the following ARBs: DAC, comparator, output buffer, switched capacitor, Delta Sigma ADC, and CapSense (which is a virtual block). These connections are made through switches and muxes. PRT[x]_AG registers are used to configure the analog globals (AGs) for each GPIO port pin. Refer to 31.6 Analog Routing Register Summary on page 373 for register details.

Port 12 contains the Special Input/Output (SIO) pins. These pins are grouped in pairs for each quadrant of the device (lower right: P12[6] and P12[7], lower left: P12[4] and P12[5], upper left: P12[2] and P12[3], upper right: P12[0] and P12[1]), with each pair sharing a reference generation (REFGEN) block. The SIO REFGEN block can select from one of two analog globals routed to the pair shown in Figure 31-2 on page 361. The mux selection is controlled by the (PRT12_AG) register. Refer to the I/O System chapter on page 187 for details about SIO operation.

31.3.2 Analog Mux Bus (AMUXBUS)

There are two AMUXBUS routes in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. The device can be divided into two halves (left and right), with each half having one AMUXBUS (AMUXBUSR, AMUXBUSL). The left and right AMUXBUS may be shorted together with an analog switch. Every GPIO has the provision to connect to an AMUXBUS through an analog switch. CapSense applications use the AMUXBUS for their operation. Refer to the CapSense® chapter on page 397 for details on using this bus for CapSense applications. PRT[x]_AMUX registers are used to configure the AMUXBUS routing for each GPIO port pin. Refer to 31.6 Analog Routing Register Summary on page 373 for register details.

31.3.3 Liquid Crystal Display Bias Bus (LCDBUS)

The LCD bias bus contains five routes that connect to every GPIO. These routes are continuous around the device periphery and are not separated by switches at the midline as are the analog globals and AMUXBUS. Each LCD route is individually configurable so that they are driven by the analog local bus or LCD bias voltage to the LCD driver buffer located in the GPIO. Connecting to an analog bus allows low frequency analog signals to drive off-chip through the LCD driver buffers.
The LCDBUS mux selections are given in the following table. Refer to the LCD Direct Drive chapter on page 383 for LCD operation and biasing. Refer to 31.6 Analog Routing Register Summary on page 373 for register details.

Table 31-1. LCD Bias Bus Mux Selections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Output</th>
<th>Mux Selections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LCD_BIAS_BUS[0]</td>
<td>(0=LCDDAC_V0,1=abusr[0],2=abusl[0],3=NA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCD_BIAS_BUS[1]</td>
<td>(0=LCDDAC_V1,1=abusr[1],2=abusl[1],3=NA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCD_BIAS_BUS[2]</td>
<td>(0=LCDDAC_V2,1=abusr[2],2=abusl[2],3=NA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCD_BIAS_BUS[3]</td>
<td>(0=LCDDAC_V3,1=abusr[3],2=abusl[3],3=NA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCD_BIAS_BUS[4]</td>
<td>(0=LCDDAC_V4,1=AMUXBUSR,2=AMUXBUSL,3=NA)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 31-3. Analog Globals, AMUXBUS, and LCDBUS Routing
Analog Routing

31.3.4 Analog Local Bus (abus)

There are eight analog local bus (abus) routes in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices, four in the left half (abus[0:3]) and four in the right half (abus[4:7]) as shown in Figure 31-2 on page 361. These are local routes located in the analog subsystem and are for interconnecting ARBs, which reduces the usage of AGs. They do not route directly out into GPIOs. It is possible to short the left and right abus' together with four analog switches. ARBs may connect to each other through analog globals (AG) or the analog local bus (abus).

For example, in Figure 31-2 on page 361, a DAC output (V1, for example) may be used as a reference for a comparator negative input (COMP1, for example). Using an analog switch, the DAC output could be placed on AGR0 and the comparator input switch could also be set to AGR0. Since there are a limited number of available analog globals (eight per side), some block to block connections can be made through analog local bus for direct connections between blocks. For above example, the DAC output (V1) can be routed directly to the analog local bus (abus3) that goes to the negative input of the comparator (COMP1). This saves the GPIO routing resource from being used for interconnecting two ARBs.

31.3.5 Switches and Multiplexers

Switches and multiplexers are used to establish connections using different analog routing buses. They are placed on the various buses to direct signals into and out of the GPIOs and ARBs.

In a switch with ‘n’ inputs and one output, zero through ‘n’ switches may be on at a time, whereas in a multiplexer (mux) with ‘n’ inputs and one output, only one switch may be on at a time. Note that a group of eight analog switches requires eight bits for configuration, whereas, a mux with eight analog switches requires only three bits. Figure 31-4 illustrates the difference between switches and muxes, in switch and mux symbols.

For example, in Figure 31-4, there are two muxes (ARB, LCD). In both these muxes, only one of the analog switches can be selected for routing. In the same figure, there are two switches (GPIO, ARB). For these switches, more than one analog switch can be selected for routing. Note that both muxes and switches are formed using analog switches.

Each GPIO is connected through two analog switches to an analog global and an AMUXBUS. The ARBs use ARB switches and ARB muxes for input/output routing options.

31.3.5.1 Control of Analog Switches

Analog globals (AGs), analog mux bus (AMUXBUS) and the analog local bus (abus) all use analog switches to establish connections. As stated earlier, analog switches can be grouped together to form multiplexers or switches.

Each GPIO has two analog switches, one to connect the pin to the analog global and the other to connect the pin to the AMUXBUS. The open/close control signals for these analog switches can be generated by either one of the following two ways:

1. The registers corresponding to the GPIO pin, PRT[x]_AMUX and PRT[x]_AG, can be used to control the open/close state of the analog switches. This is the default option.

2. In addition, there is a provision to dynamically control these switches by means of the DSI control signal that is connected to the input of the port pin logic block. This option is enabled by setting the bit in the Port Bidirection Enable register (PRT[x]_BIE). For example, to control pin 3 of port 0, a value of 0x08 is written to PRT[0]_BIE. The switch control signal is the logical AND of the register setting, as in the first case, and the DSI control signal, as shown in Figure 31-5.
In addition, there are control signals that are dedicated for CapSense applications as shown in Figure 31-5 above. Refer to the CapSense® chapter on page 397 for the usage of these control signals.

The analog switches corresponding to the analog resource blocks can be controlled only by the register settings of the respective ARBs.

For example, to switch comparator input between two GPIOs that are connected to the same analog global, the register settings for the input select of the comparator are configured to select the analog global to which the GPIOs are connected. The DSI control signal can dynamically select between the two GPIOs after the corresponding PRT[x]_BIE register has been configured.
31.4 Analog Resource Blocks – Routing and Interface

The Analog Interface (ANAIF) is the interface between the analog blocks and other PSoC systems (UDB, DSI, clock, and decimator). The analog interface has 2 kilobytes of memory, which stores the configuration settings of all analog resource blocks. The configuration space is written to and read by the PHUB. The analog interface also interfaces clock distribution to the various analog resource blocks. For ARBs that deal with both analog and digital signals, like the ADC, DAC, and comparator, the analog interface connects the digital and analog portions. For example, the comparator output is routed to the Digital Systems Interconnect (DSI) through the analog interface. The modulator output (digital) is routed to the decimator through the analog interface. Similarly, the strobe and other digital signals for the DAC are routed through the analog interface. More details about how the interfaces are provided by the ANAIF are given in the individual chapters in Section F: Analog System on page 343. The following figure shows the top level diagram of the analog interface.

Figure 31-6. Analog Interface System Diagram
31.4.1 Digital-to-Analog Converter (DAC)

The DAC routing options and connections to other PSoC subsystems through the analog interface are shown in Figure 31-7. The output for each DAC is selected by control registers that are connected to multiplexer select lines. The DAC receives input data and control signals from the analog interface. The control signals include the strobe signal for the DAC, the reset signal, the DAC current-off signal, and output current direction. These control signals come from UDBs or control registers. Refer to the Digital-to-Analog Converter chapter on page 409 to learn more about DAC control and operation.

Figure 31-7. DAC Routing, Interface
31.4.2 Comparator

The comparator routing options and connections to other PSoC subsystems through the analog interface are shown in Figure 31-8. The input for each comparator is selected by control registers, which are connected to the multiplexer select lines. The outputs of the comparators are routed to the ANAIF for further processing (see the following figure). The analog interface contains lookup tables (LUTs) that are used to implement logic functions on comparator outputs. The LUT outputs (LUT_OUT) are routed to the UDB block through the Digital System Interconnect (DSI). In addition, LUT outputs can generate interrupts (LUT_IRQ) to the device. Refer to the Comparators chapter on page 375 to learn more about comparator control and operation.

![Comparator Routing Diagram](image-url)
31.4.3 Delta Sigma Modulator (DSM)

The Delta Sigma modulator (DSM) is part of the Delta Sigma ADC and consists of various blocks that are mentioned in the Delta Sigma Converter chapter on page 417. The DSM can select its clock from any of the four analog clocks. The decimator block and the synchronization circuit in the ANAIF use the clock, CLK_DEC, which is selected from the corresponding digitally aligned analog clocks. The DSM output DSM0_DOUT and the overload detect status bits are routed to the ANAIF block for post processing. DSM also receives the reset signals and modulation signal from the analog interface. These control signals may originate from UDBs and or from control registers. Refer to the Delta Sigma Converter chapter on page 417 to learn more about the control and operation of this block.

Figure 31-9. DSM Routing, Interface
31.4.4 Switched Capacitor

The switched capacitor block provides various analog functions. It has a modulator output SCN.MODOUT, which is routed to a register and is also routed to the UDB array as SCN.MODOUT_SYNC (Figure 31-10). The four analog clocks and the corresponding digitally aligned clocks, as well as the UDB generated clock, are selectable for each switched capacitor block instance. The interrupt signal corresponding to the switched capacitor blocks (SC_IRQ) is also routed to the UDB array. The polarity of the dynamic control input, SC_DYN_CNTRL, switches the amplifier between the inverting and non-inverting configuration. Refer to the Switched Capacitor/Continuous Time chapter on page 345 to learn more about SC/CT.

Figure 31-10. Switched Capacitor Routing, Interface
31.4.5  Opamp

The input and output routing options for the output buffer (opamp) are shown in Figure 31-11. Refer to the Opamp chapter on page 379 for details on configuration and operation of this block.

Figure 31-11.  Opamp Input/Output Routing

31.4.6  Low Pass Filter (LPF)

Two tunable low pass filter blocks are available. The inputs are selectable in a 2:1 mux for each LPF as shown in Figure 31-12. On the left side, the LPF inputs are AMUXBUSL and AGL0. On the right side, the inputs are AMUXBUSR and AGR0. The outputs are connected through switches to abusL0 and abusR0, respectively. The tunability of the LPF allows the user to select an R of either 1 MΩ or 200 kΩ and a C of either 5 pF or 10 pF. The LPF control registers are LPF0_CR0 and LPF1_CR0.

Figure 31-12.  LPF Routing
31.5 Low Power Analog Routing Considerations

Figure 31-2 illustrates the analog global routing network, overlaid on top of the ARBs. Each ARB has a set of muxes and switches that it uses to connect to the global analog routing. By connecting to one of the analog routing channels virtually any ARB can be connected to any other ARB or pin on the chip.

Not all pins or ARBs are connected to every analog global routing channel. To get a signal from a particular ARB out to a specific pin, the PSoC Creator analog routing algorithm implements a technique known as “Track Jumping”. Track jumping connects two analog globals together via one of the ARBs analog global switching structures, without connecting to that particular ARB resource.

For example, assume we want to connect P3.5 to P3.4 in a simple pass-through configuration. This is illustrated Figure 31-12. This illustration is taken from the full chip diagram shown in Figure 31-2. P3.5 enters the chip on analog global AG5. P3.4 enters the chip on analog global AG4. To connect these two pins together we need to Track Jump between AG4 and AG5. To do this we can use the Comparator ARBs comp1 positive input switches (assuming the rest of our project isn’t using these switches). The switch for AG4 and AG5 on the Comparator comp1 positive input is closed, while the rest of the switches remain open. The inputs to the Comparator ARB itself are isolated from the switch group via a transmission gate.

Once this configuration is programmed into the device, any signal seen on P3.5 will show up on P3.4.

31.5.1 Mitigating Analog Routes with Degraded Low Power Signal Integrity

The analog router in PSoC Creator uses track jumping to connect analog globals together. Track jumping is done on the muxes/switches of unused ARBs. The auto-router in PSoC Creator will always choose routes which ensure signal integrity in all power modes.

If the auto-router is not sufficient and the designer needs to resort to manual routing techniques to realize a design, then special care should be taken. For performance reasons, the SC/CT ARB controls the availability of all of its associated analog switches.

A designer can modify which analog routes are chosen by using the manual routing components in PSoC Creator, the designer must make certain to avoid routing which uses the SC/CT block for track jumping purposes if the SC/CT is not enabled in Hibernate/Sleep modes.

If a design utilizes SC/CT analog switches to realize a design, in Sleep/Hibernate modes but has this block powered down, significant degradation in signal integrity may be experienced. Explicitly Start() components derived from the SC/CT block and leave on in Hibernate/Sleep if it is necessary to still use these switches to route the design. Not starting the ST/CT block is equivalent to stopping it. By starting this block its routing resources become available for routing. See the PSoC Creator Data Sheet associated with Manual Routing for more details on how to use the MARS tool.
### 31.6 Analog Routing Register Summary

Table 31-2. Analog Routing Register Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_AMUX</td>
<td>These registers control the connection between the analog mux bus and the corresponding GPIO pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT15s_AMUX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT[0..11]_AG</td>
<td>These registers control the connection between the analog global buses and the corresponding GPIO pin. Port 12 is the SIO port and the PRT12_AG register is for SIO reference selection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT12_AG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRT15_AG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_SW0</td>
<td>Comparator positive input to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_SW2</td>
<td>Comparator positive input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_SW3</td>
<td>Comparator positive input to AMUXBUS and reference buffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_SW4</td>
<td>Comparator negative input to AMUXBUS and VREF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_SW6</td>
<td>Comparator negative input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP[0..3]_CLK</td>
<td>Comparator sampling clock selection and clock control register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_SW0</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator positive input to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_SW2</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator positive input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_SW3</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator positive input to AMUXBUS and VSSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_SW4</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator negative input to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_SW6</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator negative input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSM0_CLK</td>
<td>Delta Sigma modulator clock selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_SW0</td>
<td>DAC voltage output to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_SW2</td>
<td>DAC voltage output to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_SW3</td>
<td>DAC voltage output to AMUXBUS and direct to pad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_SW4</td>
<td>DAC current output to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_SW6</td>
<td>DAC current to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC[0..3]_STROBE</td>
<td>DAC strobe selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW0</td>
<td>Switched capacitor (SC) positive input to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW2</td>
<td>SC positive input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW3</td>
<td>SC positive input to AMUXBUS and VREF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW4</td>
<td>SC negative input to AMUXBUS and VREF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW5</td>
<td>SC negative input to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW6</td>
<td>SC negative input to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW7</td>
<td>SC output to AMUXBUS, other SC negative and positive inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW8</td>
<td>SC output to analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_SW10</td>
<td>SC output to analog local bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC[0..3]_CLK</td>
<td>SC clock selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABUF[0..3]_MX</td>
<td>These registers select positive and negative inputs to the output buffer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABUF[0..3]_SW</td>
<td>These registers control the switch between the output and negative input, the switch between the output and GPIO, the switch between the negative input and GPIO, and the switch between the positive input and GPIO.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUT[0..3]_CR</td>
<td>These registers select the signals to comparator LUT and also select the LUT function.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCDDAC_SW[0:4]</td>
<td>These registers select the signals on the LCD bias bus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analog Routing

Table 31-2. Analog Routing Register Summary (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{BUS_SW0}</td>
<td>This register controls the switches that tie AGR[7:0] to AGL[7:0].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{BUS_SW2}</td>
<td>This register controls the switches that tie abusL[7:0] to abusR[7:0] (left and right analog local bus) lines together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{BUS_SW3}</td>
<td>This register controls the switch that ties AMUXBUSR to AMUXBUSL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{LPF0_CR0}</td>
<td>LPF registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{LPF1_CR0}</td>
<td>LPF registers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
32. Comparators

PSOC® 3 and PSOC® 5 devices each have four analog comparator modules. The positive and negative inputs to the comparators come through muxes with inputs from analog globals (AGs), local analog bus (ABUS), Analog Mux Bus (AMUXBUS), and precision reference. The output from each comparator is routed through a synchronization block to a two-input Lookup Table (LUT). The output of the LUT is routed to the UDB Digital System Interface (DSI). The comparator can also be used to wake the device from sleep. An ‘x’ used with a register name denotes the particular comparator number (x = 0 to 3).

32.1 Features

PSOC® comparators have the following features:

■ Flexible input selection
■ Speed power tradeoff
■ Optional 10 mV input hysteresis
■ Low input offset voltage (<1 mV)
■ Glitch filter for comparator output
■ Sleep wakeup

32.2 Block Diagram

Figure 32-1 on page 376 is a block diagram of PSOC Comparators.
32.3 How it Works

The following describes the operation of PSoC comparators.

32.3.1 Input Configuration

Inputs to the comparators are as follows:

- Positive – from analogglobals, analog locals, analog mux bus, and comparatorreference buffer. Refer to the CapSense® chapter on page 397.
- Negative – from analogglobals, analog locals, analog mux bus, and voltage reference.

All of the possible connections to the positive and negative inputs are shown in Figure 32-1. Inputs are configured using registers CMPx_SW0, CMPx_SW2, CMP_SW3, CMP_SW4, and CMP_SW6.

32.3.2 Power Configuration

The comparator can operate in three power modes – fast, slow, and ultra low power. The power mode is configured using power mode select (SEL[1:0]) bits in the comparator control (CMPx_CR) register.

Power modes differ in response time and power consumption; power consumption is maximum in fast mode and minimum in ultra low power mode. Exact specifications for power consumption and response time are provided in the datasheet.

32.3.3 Output Configuration

Comparator output can pass through an optional glitch filter. The glitch filter is enabled by setting the filter enable (FILT) bit in the control (CMPx_CR[6]) register. The output of the comparator is stored in the CMP_WRK register and can be read over the PHUB interface.
Comparators

Four LUTs in the device allow logic functions to be applied to comparator outputs. LUT logic has two inputs:
- Input A – selected using MX_A[1:0] bits in LUT control (LUTx_CR1:0) register
- Input B – selected using MX_B[1:0] bits in LUT Control (LUTx_CR5:4) register

The logic function implemented in the LUT is selected using control (Q[3:0]) bits in the LUT Control register (LUTx_CR) register. The bit settings for various logic functions are given in Table 32-1.

Table 32-1. Control Words for LUT Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Word (Binary)</th>
<th>Output (A and B are LUT Inputs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0000</td>
<td>FALSE (‘0’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0001</td>
<td>A AND B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0010</td>
<td>A AND (NOT B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0011</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0100</td>
<td>(NOT A) AND B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0101</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0110</td>
<td>A XOR B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0111</td>
<td>A OR B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>A NOR B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001</td>
<td>A XOR B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1010</td>
<td>NOT B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1011</td>
<td>A OR (NOT B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100</td>
<td>NOT A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1101</td>
<td>(NOT A) OR B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1110</td>
<td>A NAND B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1111</td>
<td>TRUE (‘1’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The output of the LUT is routed to the digital system interface of the UDB array. From the digital system interface of the UDB array, these signals can be connected to other blocks in the device or to an I/O pin.

The state of the LUT output is indicated in the LUT output (LUTx_OUT) bit in the LUT clear-on-read sticky status (LUT_SR) register and can be read over PHUB interface.

The LUT interrupt can be generated by all four LUTs and is enabled by setting the LUT mask (LUTx_MSK) bit in the LUT mask (LUT_MSK) register. The LUT interrupt is optional and can be bypassed by setting the bypass_sync (LUT_CLK [4]) bit.

32.3.5 Wake Up from Sleep

The comparator can run in sleep mode and the output used to wake the device from sleep. Comparator operation in sleep mode is enabled by setting the override (PD_OVERRIDE) bit in the control (CMPx_CR[2]) register.

32.3.6 Comparator Clock

Comparator output changes asynchronously and can be synchronized with a clock. The clock source can be one of the four digitally-aligned analog clocks or any UDB clock.

Clock selection is done in mx_clk bits [2:0] of CMP_CLK register. The selected clock can be enabled or disabled by setting or clearing the clk_en (CMP_CLK [3]) bit. Comparator output synchronization is optional and can be bypassed by setting the bypass_sync (CMP_CLK [4]) bit.

32.3.7 Offset Trim

Comparator offset is dependent on the common mode input voltage to the comparator. The offset is factory trimmed for common mode input voltages 0.1V and Vdd - 0.1V to less than 1 mV. If the user knows the common mode input range at which to operate the comparator, a custom trim can be done to reduce the offset voltage further.

The Comparator offset trim is performed in the CMPx_TR0 register. This register has two trim fields, trim1 (CMPx_TR0[3:0]) and trim2 (CMPx_TR0[7:4]). If shorting of the inputs is desired for offset calibration, the calibration enable field (cal_en) in the control register(CMPx_CR[4]) helps to achieve it.

The method for a custom trim is described as follows:
1. Set the two inputs ‘inn’ and ‘inp’ to the desired value.
2. Change the trim1 register settings:
   b. Increase the value of trim1 [2:0] until offset measured is less than 1 mV.
3. If the polarity of the offset measured has changed, but the offset is still greater than 1 mV, use trim2 [3:0] to fine tune the offset value. This is valid only for the slow mode of comparator operation.
4. If trim1 [2:0] is 07h, and the measured offset is still greater than 1 mV, set or clear trim2 [3], depending on the polarity of offset. Increase the value of trim2 [2:0] until the offset measured is less than 1 mV.
### 32.3.8 Register Summary

*Table 32-2 is a summary listing of applicable registers.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW0</td>
<td>Configures connection between positive input and analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW2</td>
<td>Configures connection between positive input and analog locals 0-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW3</td>
<td>Configures connection between analog mux bus to the two inputs and the voltage reference to negative input, CapSense® reference buffer to the positive input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW4</td>
<td>Configures connection between negative input and analog globals 0-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_SW6</td>
<td>Configures connection between negative input and analog locals 0-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_TR0</td>
<td>Trims the offset. Two groups of 4-bits for lower and higher end of common mode input ranges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMP_WRK</td>
<td>Stores the output state of the comparator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_CLK</td>
<td>These registers enable and disable synchronization of the output for comparators and the clock signal for synchronization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMPx_CR</td>
<td>These registers are used to select the mode of operation of the comparator between the high speed and low speed modes and to enable/disable the comparator channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUTx_CR</td>
<td>Selects the input(s) and function for the LUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUT_SR</td>
<td>Stores the status of LUT outputs. It's a clear on read register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUT_MSK</td>
<td>Enables interrupt request for a particular LUT output</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices have four operational amplifiers. An ‘x’ used with register name identifies the particular opamp number (x = 0 to 3).

### 33.1 Features

PSoC® operational amplifiers have the following features:

- 25 mA current drive capability
- 3 MHz gain bandwidth for 200 pF load
- Offset trimmed to less than 0.5 mV
- Low noise
- Rail-to-rail to within 50 mV of Vss or Vdda for 1 mA load
- Rail-to-rail to within 500 mV of Vss or Vdda for 25 mA load
- Slew rate 3 V/µs for 200 pF load
33.2 Block Diagram

Figure 33-1 is the PSoC operational amplifiers block diagram.

33.3 How it Works

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices have up to four operational amplifiers. The opamps are configurable as a unity gain buffer, to drive high current loads or as an uncommitted opamp. For example, a DAC output or voltage reference can be buffered using an opamp to drive a high current load.

33.3.1 Input and Output Configuration

The positive and negative inputs to the operational amplifier can be selected through muxes and analog switches. A mux is used to connect an analog global, local analog bus, or reference voltage to an input, and an analog switch is used to connect a GPIO to an input. This is shown in Figure 33-1. Inputs are:

- **Positive** – The positive input analog switch, controlled by bit ABUFx_SW[2], is used to select an input from an external pin. The positive input mux (controlled by bits ABUFx_MX[3:0]), is used to select an input from an internal signal.
- **Negative** – The negative input analog switch, controlled by bit ABUFx_SW[1], selects an input from an external pin. The negative input mux, controller by bit ABUFx_MX[3:0], selects an input from an internal signal.

The opamp output is connected directly to a fixed port pin.

33.3.2 Power Configuration

The opamp can operate in three power modes – low, medium, and high. Power modes are configured using the (PWR_MODE[1:0]) power mode bits in the (OPAMPx_CR[1:0]) control register. The slew rate and gain bandwidth are maximum in high power mode and minimum in low power mode. Refer to the device datasheet for gain bandwidth and slew rate specifications in various power modes.
33.3.3 Buffer Configuration

The opamp is configured as a unity gain buffer by closing the feedback switch, using the OPAMPx_SW[0] bit. Setting the OPAMPx_SW[0] bit internally connects the output terminal to the negative opamp input.

33.3.4 Register Summary

Table 33-1 summarizes applicable registers.

Table 33-1. Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OPAMPx_SW</td>
<td>Controls positive input switch, negative input switch and feedback switch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPAMPx_MX</td>
<td>Selects the internal signal for positive and negative input.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPAMPx_CR</td>
<td>Configures the power mode.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
34. LCD Direct Drive

The PSoC® Liquid Crystal Display (LCD) drive system is a highly configurable peripheral that allows the PSoC device to directly drive a broad range of LCDs. The flexible power settings allow this peripheral to be used in applications where a battery is the power source.

34.1 Features

Key features of the PSoC LCD system are:

- LCD panel direct drive
- Type A (standard) and Type B (low power) waveform support
- Wide LCD bias range support (2 V to supply voltage)
- Static, 1/3, 1/4, and 1/5 bias voltage levels
- Internal bias voltage generation
- Up to 62 total common and segment outputs
- Supports up to 16 common glasses (16:1 mux)
- Drives up to 736 total segments (16 backplane × 46 front plane)
- 64 levels of software controlled contrast
- Ability to move display data from memory buffer to LCD driver through direct memory access (DMA) without CPU intervention
- Adjustable LCD refresh rate from 10 Hz to 150 Hz
- Ability to invert LCD display for negative image
- Various LCD driver drive modes, allowing power optimization

34.2 LCD System Operational Modes

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 LCD architecture contains two operation modes.

- LCD always active
- LCD low power

LCD always active mode is used when the device is not in low power mode and when the LCD does not need to be operational in device low power mode.

LCD low power mode is used when the LCD needs to be operational while the device is in low power mode. This uses the same LCD always active system, but with some additional hardware.

The LCD drive system doesn't work when the chip is placed in hibernate mode.

The details of both modes are discussed in the following sections.
34.3 LCD Always Active

A complete functional LCD always active drive system is formed using the following major blocks:

- **Dedicated LCD hardware**
  - LCD DAC
  - LCD driver
  - LCD bias generator
- **System resources**
  - DMA
  - Clocks: global
  - RAM
  - Universal digital block (UDB)

Any LCD drive system requires the bias generating circuitry and system to interpret the data supplied, in order to display correctly on the LCD. PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 contain dedicated LCD drive hardware, which works in conjunction with system resources. It contains a dedicated DAC that generates the five bias voltages, V0 to V4, along with ground. These bias voltages are distributed to all of the drivers of the LCD-capable pins. This DAC also helps to set contrast control.

LCDs have two sets of pins: commons and segments. LCD functionality in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 GPIOs can be enabled by setting the appropriate bits of the PRT[0..11]_LCD_EN register. These GPIOs can be configured to act as either common or segment drive pins by setting bits of PRT[0..11]_LCD_COM_SEG.

The LCD driver blocks are the final interface to the pins. Each pin capable of driving an LCD contains driver logic. The function of this block is to select the bias level. It also drives the pin, depending on the LCD refresh state, whether the pin is configured as common or segment, and the display data.
The LCD display data resides in the system memory (SRAM). This display data needs to be transferred to the LCD driver logic. This is done using the direct memory access controller (DMAC). The DMAC takes the display data from the SRAM and loads it into the port data registers. The LCD driver latchs this port data register value when a refresh action begins.

Refreshing the LCD requires LCD state updates with accurate timing. This is done using a configurable clock, sourced from the internal main oscillator (IMO), which feeds the UDB block. The UDB is responsible for generating all of the control signals required by the rest of the blocks of the LCD system.

34.3.1 Functional Description

This section provides details of the LCD DAC, LCD driver, UDBs, clocking, DMA, CPU, and RAM, which all contribute to generating and sequencing the driving voltage for the LCD glass.

34.3.1.1 LCD DAC

The LCD DAC is a 6-bit resistor ladder DAC. The LCD DAC is responsible for contrast control and bias voltage generation for the LCD drive system. When the device is put in low power mode, the LCD can remain operational. During this low power mode, the DAC can directly drive the LCD pixel, bypassing the driver, thus compensating for the leakage. This is possible in LCD low power mode, which is explained in section 34.4 LCD Low Power Mode on page 389.

Figure 34-2. LCD DAC (inputs and outputs)

The LCD DAC generates five voltages that are driven to LCD driver block. Important points regarding LCD DAC are:

- All of the voltages V0 to V4 are generated using an internal resistor divider; V0 is the highest voltage and V4 the lowest voltage. By default, the five bias voltages, V0 to V4, from the LCD DAC are driven to each of the LCD driver blocks.
- Analog mux bus and analog local bus can be selected to drive the LCD driver blocks, instead of the LCD DAC, by setting the appropriate bits of the LCDDAC_SW[0...4] registers. This is useful if you require external dividers to generate the drive voltages and optimize the power by switching off the internal DAC. In this mode, there is no software contrast control available.
- The LCD DAC can directly drive the LCD pixel, bypassing the LCD driver block. This is useful for driving the LCD even when the chip is put to sleep. You can do this by setting the LCDDAC.CR0[3] bit, which enables the continuous drive of the LCD DAC.

34.3.1.1.1 Contrast Control

Contrast is controlled by varying the DAC output voltage, V0. This can be done by setting the LCD contrast control register (LCDDAC_CR1[5:0]), which sets the 6-bit DAC input (D[5:0], as shown in Figure 34-2). Thus, it provides 2^6 = 64 levels of contrast. Table 34-1 shows the V0 range and step size for 3.0-V and 5.5-V supply voltage.

Table 34-1. LCD DAC V0 Range and Step Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3.0 V Supply</th>
<th>5.5 V Supply</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V0 Range</td>
<td>2 V to 3 V</td>
<td>2 V to 5.5 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Size</td>
<td>27.3 mV</td>
<td>50 mV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34.3.1.1.2 Bias Ratio/Multiplex Ratio Selection

Bias ratio/multiplex ratio is selected by setting the bias_sel field of the LCDDAC_CR0 register. This sets the DAC output voltages V1 to V4 as shown in Table 34-2 on page 386.
### LCD Direct Drive

#### 34.3.1.2 LCD Driver Block

The LCD driver block is associated with each GPIO. The output of LCD DAC through MUX is provided to the LCD driver block to drive the LCD glass. The architecture of the LCD driver block is shown in Figure 34-3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bias Select Input: <code>lcd_bias_select[1:0]</code></th>
<th>Multiplex</th>
<th>Bias</th>
<th>V0</th>
<th>V1</th>
<th>V2</th>
<th>V3</th>
<th>V4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>b1b0</code></td>
<td>Ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Invalid – default to 16:1</td>
<td>Default to 1/5</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.800 × V0</td>
<td>0.600 × V0</td>
<td>0.400 × V0</td>
<td>0.200 × V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16:1</td>
<td>1/5</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.800 × V0</td>
<td>0.600 × V0</td>
<td>0.400 × V0</td>
<td>0.200 × V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>8:1</td>
<td>1/4</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.750 × V0</td>
<td>0.500 × V0</td>
<td>0.500 × V0</td>
<td>0.250 × V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>4:1</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>3:1</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>2:1</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td>2.0 V to supply</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
<td>0.666 × V0</td>
<td>0.333 × V0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 34-3. LCD Driver Block
The LCD driver contains three major blocks:
1. Buffer and associated control logic for power modes
2. 4:1 Output multiplexer
3. Common/Segment switches

As shown in Figure 34-3 on page 386, the LCD driver block receives bias voltages V0 to V4 and GND voltage. It passes through a set of 2:1 muxes controlled by the COM-SEG bit of the PRT[x]_LCD_COM_SEG register. This register configures the pin as either a common or segment drive pin. If the bit is set, it configures the corresponding pin as common; otherwise, it is configured as a segment drive pin. As shown in Figure 34-3, V4 and GND voltages are forwarded to the next mux. If the pin is selected as a segment line, then V0, V2, V3, and GND are forwarded. These are the only voltages required at common and segment lines for any bias ratio, multiplex ratio, and LCD update state. Out of these four bias levels, only one level is selected by the 4:1 multiplexer. The select lines of the multiplexer are driven by display data and the frame signal. Frame is a global signal driven by the UDB control logic. This signal toggles every time the LCD waveform needs to be updated. Table 34-3 shows the 4:1 multiplexer output and driver input for different combinations of COM_SEG, DISP_DATA and the frame signal.

Table 34-3. LCD DAC Output Selection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>com_seg</th>
<th>disp_data</th>
<th>fr</th>
<th>drvr_in/out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>V3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>V2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>GND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>V4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>V1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>V0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>GND</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34.3.1.2.1 Buffer Modes

The output of the 4:1 multiplexer is driven to the buffer, which drives the common or segment line of the LCD. The buffer in the LCD drive block has eight modes of operation, selectable from the Mode[2:0] bits. Mode[0] comes from LCDDRVR_CR[1]; the remaining two bits are driven from the UDB through the digital system interconnect (DSI).

Each mode has a different power drive capability. Depending on the LCD, the appropriate one can be used to eliminate AC coupling between segment and common lines.

Note that these buffer power modes are different than the I/O drive modes.

Table 34-4. LCD Drive Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Bits</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Drive Strength</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The LCD display size and capacitance and the application power budget are two criteria for selecting buffer modes. The buffer is enabled only when the drive signal is high. Drive signal high time can be configured according to the application requirements. The drive current provided by the High Drive mode of the buffer (the mode that is normally used) is high, so it charges the pixel capacitance quickly. The disadvantage of this is higher power consumption. The time for which the buffer is kept on depends on the power budget and the LCD waveform's rise time requirements. The Low Drive mode of the buffer and the DAC are other options. It is possible to dynamically select the Low Drive mode by two mode control signals generated by the UDB. You would do this in the case of extremely leaky glasses, when it is preferable to use the buffer to drive the LCD continuously throughout the refresh period. This is more effective than using the DAC, whose current drive ability is lower than that of the buffer Low Drive mode. Use the DAC when you have normal glasses and the charge leakage is small. If the leakage is small enough for the offset to be negligible, then the pin can be tristated by clearing the bypass_en bit, after charging the pixel using the High Drive buffer mode.
In normal operation, the buffer in High Drive mode drives the LCD for a while, then a low-power source (either the DAC or the buffer in Low Drive mode) takes over and drives the LCD for the remaining time.

- **When using High Drive and DAC:**
  Initially, for some period of time, the buffer quickly charges the LCD pixel capacitance near to the desired value. Later, when the drive signal goes low, the DAC directly drives the LCD for the remaining period (if the bypass_en bit is set) to sustain the voltage at the LCD pin. If the bypass_en bit is not set to 1, the pin is tristated and no source drives the LCD. This can lead to charge leakage from the pixel capacitance.

- **When using High Drive and Low Drive:**
  The drive signal always remains high. This means that the buffer is always enabled. The UDB controls the time for which the buffer remains in High Drive and Low Drive modes.

---

### 34.3.1.2.2 LCD Driver Bias Generator

The LCD bias generator block creates a bandgap-based voltage reference for the LCD driver block. The input to this block is a 2.5-µA bandgap current. The output is a bias voltage and the associated ground line.

Figure 34-5 shows various control signals to the LCD driver block.

---

**Figure 34-4. The DAC Charging an LCD Segment Pin in Two Different States**

**Figure 34-5. Control Signals of LCD Driver Block**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type A</th>
<th>*1:4 Multiplex Ratio</th>
<th>Type B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Frame</td>
<td>1/3 Bias</td>
<td>1 Frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCD Drive Voltage Level</td>
<td></td>
<td>LCD CLK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display Data</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*Cypress Perform*
34.3.1.3 UDB
The UDB performs the following actions in the LCD system:
- Triggers the DMA periodically to bring the display data from SRAM to the port data registers
- Generates various control signals for the functioning of the LCD system hardware
  - The drive signal, which is used to enable the driver buffer
  - Two mode control signals for the buffer
  - A synchronous LCD CLK, which is used to latch the port data register value for a particular pin
  - The frame signal
The clock for the UDB is derived from the IMO. The clock value changes with the refresh rate and the number of commons of LCD.

34.3.1.4 DMA
DMA is used to transfer the display data into various port data registers. The display data is stored in SRAM. Data transfer is initiated by the UDB at the beginning of the LCD refresh cycle. Depending on which and how many ports are configured for the LCD drive, several transaction descriptors (TDs) associated with the DMA channel may need to be chained together.

There is no separate display memory, as such, in PSoC. Display data resides in the SRAM connected to the peripheral hub (PHUB). The image/display buffer can be any block of available memory.

To work more effectively with the DMA in transferring data to the LCD drivers, port data registers are aliased to a separate contiguous region in the memory map. These PRTx_DR_ALIAS registers are contiguous, to reduce the number of TDs required to move data.

An additional set of registers (per port), the PRTx_BIT_MASK registers, mask off the write capability to the PRTx_DR_ALIAS registers on a bit level. This is an advantage if all of the pins on a given port are not being used for LCD; the unused pins can be masked off and used for other purposes. The port data register (PRTx_DR) can still be used to address pins masked off in the aliased data registers.

34.4 LCD Low Power Mode
This mode is useful when LCD is required to be functional while the device is in low power mode. This requires special hardware and firmware logic to wake the system up at regular intervals, refresh the LCD, and put the device back to sleep. Periodic refresh should happen at the specified rate, even if there are other interrupts in the system.

LCD low power mode uses all of the components that are used for LCD always active mode. In addition to this, it also uses a programmable wakeup source and small dedicated digital logic to allow bug-free transitions to and from the low power mode. Figure 34-6 on page 390 shows the block diagram for the LCD low power mode.
A complete functional LCD low power system is formed using these major blocks:

- Dedicated LCD hardware
  - LCD timer
  - LCD DAC
  - LCD driver
  - LCD bias generator
- System resources
  - Clocks: 1-kHz ILO and 8-kHz one pulse per second (OPPS)
  - UDB implementation for sleep acknowledgement
  - DMA for frame data transfer
  - UDB implementation for control signal generation (frame, drive, LCD mode, LCD CLK)
  - DMA for display data transfer

The blocks in bold are unique to the LCD low power system. The other blocks are same as the LCD always active system.

What makes the LCD low power system different from the LCD always active system?

- It can wake the system
- It can continuously drive the LCD even when the chip is put in low power mode

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 contain several clock sources that operate during device low power mode. ILO and OPPS timer are examples. These clock sources are used to trigger periodic interrupts to the device to wake the system up. As shown in Figure 34-6, these two clock sources are selectable using a mux. The selected clock is fed to the 6-bit LCD timer. It is a continuously running timer; that is, when the timer overflows, the original period is reloaded in the timer register. The terminal count pulse from this timer triggers the interrupt to the chip. This restores the main clocks of the chip. When this happens, the interrupt signal from the LCD timer is intercepted by the UDB-implemented pulse generator. In response, the block generates a synchronous clock that causes several operations. See 34.4.1.2 UDB on page 391 for more details. Overall, the UDB’s role is to provide control signals to various functional blocks of the LCD low power system.

At this time, the system must be put back to sleep after the LCD refresh. In an LCD low power system, the CPU issues a chip low power (LP) mode command to the power management (PM) controller. (For this, firmware needs to be structured in a specific way explained in later section.) Consent is given by the LCD hardware.

This is because the LCD refresh happens in hardware and CPU doesn’t know when it is completed. So, a control signal (LP_ACK signal shown in Figure 34-6) is generated from the UDB, which keeps the LP command from the CPU on hold...
until the LCD refresh is completed. This control signal is driven to the power management controller of the device.

There are two DMAs used in this architecture. One DMA is used for the transfer of display data to the port data register, which is the same as in an LCD always active system. The other DMA is used to update the frame information into the control register of the UDB each time the chip wakes up.

### 34.4.1 Functional Description
This section gives details of the blocks and features used specifically in LCD low power mode.

#### 34.4.1.1 LCD Timer
The LCD timer is a 6-bit timer dedicated only for the LCD drive application. Its period is set based on the required refresh rate of the LCD. The period of this timer can be configured by setting the period field of the LCDTIMER_CFG register. There are two options for the LCD timer clock source:

- 1-kHz ILO
- 8-kHz OPPS. This requires that an external 32-kHz crystal be connected to the system.

The source can be selected by setting the clk_sel field of the LCDTIMER_CFG register.

The clock timer provides periodic interrupts to the system PM controller. The interrupt signal is also driven to the UDB to generate the LCD CLK signal.

#### 34.4.1.2 UDB
LCD low power mode uses the UDB to generate various signals that control the functioning of the LCD system. These control signals are generated using the functional blocks listed below:

- Pulse generator
- BGREF timer
- Drive pulse-width modulator (PWM)
- Control register for frame data
- Mode control signals to the LCD driver

![Figure 34-7. LCD UDB Logic](image-url)
The pulse generator samples the interrupt signal from the LCD timer; in response, it generates one synchronous clock pulse (LCD CLK), which is routed to the BGREF timer and DMA (for frame data). This synchronous clock triggers these operations:

- Puts the sleep command issued by CPU, if any, on hold (using signal LP_ACK) until LCD refresh operation is completed.
- Enables the BGREF timer. The BGREF timer is used to provide a 2.5-µs delay, which is necessary to stabilize the bandgap reference circuit.
- Triggers the DMA to transfer the frame data into the UDB control register. Frame is a square wave signal that is used for proper sequencing of LCD refresh action. Each cycle of the frame signal represents one common update state.

After the DMA transfer for frame data and the BGREF timeout are completed, Drive PWM is enabled. The Drive PWM output “Drive” signal is routed to all the LCD driver blocks associated with the GPIO. It enables the LCD buffer to drive the LCD glass. The UDB also provides the two signals that set the drive mode of the LCD buffer.

### 34.4.1.3 DMA

Two DMA channels are used by the LCD component for:

- Transferring the frame information into the control register of the UDB from the system memory (RAM)
- Transferring the display information from system memory (RAM) into the port register

#### Table 34-5. LCD DAC Operating Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chip Mode</th>
<th>Block Mode</th>
<th>pwrdn_n</th>
<th>continuous_drive</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>LCD DAC is active. It can drive I/Os or LCD drivers depending on the LCD driver mode.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>Sleep with bypass drive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>LCD DAC is active and driving I/Os even though the chip is in sleep. LCD drivers are bypassed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Sleep/ Hibernate</td>
<td>OFF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>LCD DAC is powered down</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 34.4.1.4 LCD DAC and Driver: Low Power Feature

The LCD DAC and driver have some features that are useful for LCD low power mode functioning and help to achieve the lowest power consumption when the LCD system is shut down.

The LCD DAC can remain active when the chip is put in sleep mode. In this mode, the DAC can continue to drive the inputs of LCD drivers. To enable this mode, set the continuous_drive bit in the LCDDAC.CR0 register to 1. The LCD DAC receives a pwrdn signal, which shuts the DAC off when it is HIGH.

The LCD driver receives a display blank signal, dispblnk, controlled by the LCDDRV.CR register. This signal sets the output to be either tristated or grounded when the chip is in low power mode. This function works when the power down signal (pwrdn_n) signal is low. The pwrdn_n signal is used when the LCD system needs to be shut down.

The buffer present in the LCD driver can be bypassed by setting the bypass_en bit of the LCDDRV.CR register to 1.

Thus, for operation in sleep mode, for an LCD low power system, continuous_drive, bypass_en, and pwrdn bit must be set to 1, and pwrdn_n must be set to 0. This causes the DAC to directly drive the LCD, bypassing the LCD driver section, which is shut down in chip low power mode.

The various operating modes of the LCD DAC and LCD driver are summarized in Table 34-5 and Table 34-6 on page 393.
LCD Direct Drive

### Table 34-6. LCD Driver Operating Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chip Mode</th>
<th>Block Mode</th>
<th>pwrdn_n</th>
<th>dispblink</th>
<th>Drive</th>
<th>bypass_en</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Active drive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>LCD driver is driving the pin in one of the High Drive or Low Drive modes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Active with bypass drive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>LCD driver is bypassed. LCD DAC is driving the I/O.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Active with tristate drive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>LCD driver is active but the I/O is tri-stated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep</td>
<td>Off with bypass drive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>LCD driver is powered down. LCD DAC is in sleep with bypass drive mode and driving the I/O.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Sleep/ Hibernate</td>
<td>Off with ground drive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>LCD driver is powered down. Output is grounded. This is the power down mode for LCD applications. LCD DAC is off.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active/ Sleep/ Hibernate</td>
<td>Off with tristate drive</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>LCD driver is powered down. Output is tri-stated. This is the power down mode for non-LCD applications. LCD DAC is off.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 34.4.2 Timing Diagram for LCD Low Power Mode

Figure 34-8 shows the timing in low power mode.

A refresh timer overflow triggers an interrupt to the PM system and also drives the UDB pulse generator logic. After a few microseconds, system clocks are restored. This puts all of the resources on the chip in operation. The UDB-implemented pulse generator outputs an LCD CLK pulse, which:

- Triggers the DMA to transfer frame information into the control register of the UDB
- Enables the BGREF timer (implemented using UDB)
- Copies the display data from the port data register into the driver for the present LCD state
- Clears the refresh rate timer interrupt
- Puts the sleep command from the CPU on hold

After the frame information transfer, another DMA is triggered to transfer the display data into the port data register for the next LCD state. When the frame data transfer is completed and the BGREF timer overflows, the LCD drive buffer is enabled using the drive signal from the Drive PWM. This is when LCD glass refresh begins. The drive mode of the LCD drive buffer determines the current drive. After the drive time is set, the drive line goes low, disabling the buffer. This also releases the sleep command hold set by the LCD CLK. This causes PM to execute the sleep command issued by the CPU. During the rest of the period, the LCD is driven continuously from the LCD DAC, bypassing the driver buffer.

Figure 34-9 on page 394 shows the sequence of operations and relative current consumption for low-power mode.
Figure 34-9. LCD Sequence of Operation

NOT TO SCALE

Chip Power Mode

Sleep

Active

Sleep

DMA Track

A

B

C

D

E

F

G

H

Main/CPU Track

A) Chip wake up process
B) 'Main' execution: Check for interrupts, request sleep
C) Power Manager (PM) asserts low power request (lp_req) to all subsystems and waits for all acknowledge signals (lp_ack) to assert
H) PM Completes Active -> Sleep Mode transition

Analog Track

Turn On CPU and Bus Clock

Begin LCD Drive Pulse

Turn On LCD DAC and Bias Generator

Chip Transition to Sleep Mode

Relative Current Consumption

Power Phase

Turn On LCD DAC and Bias Generator

End LCD Drive Pulse (LCD lp_ack Asserts)

Main/CPU Track

D) DMA TD: Update FR value
   (must complete before starting 'G')
E) DMA TD: Setup Display Data for next LCD refresh cycle

Analog Track

F) LCD DAC and LCD bias generator power up (2.5 µs)
   (must complete before starting 'G')
G) "Drive" pulse
34.5 LCD Usage Models

The LCD can be used in these cases:

- The chip is always maintained in active mode. The LCD driver buffer will drive in high drive mode for the specified time; later on, it will switch back to low drive mode. This mode can be used when the system is always on and a power saving feature is not needed. This uses LCD always active mode.

- The chip enters low power mode and the LCD does not need to function. Disable the entire LCD system before putting the device to low power mode. This also uses LCD always active mode.

- The chip enters low power mode and the LCD must be functional. In this situation, the background LCD refresh timer allows the chip to be put to sleep and awakened at regular intervals to refresh the LCD glass. This system uses LCD low power mode. There are restrictions in refresh rates due to the low frequency clock used for the LCD timer.

Table 34-7 shows the allowed refresh rate values for this case:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commons</th>
<th>ILO Max</th>
<th>ILO Min</th>
<th>ECO Max</th>
<th>ECO Min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LCD Direct Drive
35. CapSense®

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices have a capacitive sensing feature called CapSense®. This feature allows users to take advantage of the capacitive properties of their fingers to toggle aesthetically superior buttons, sliders, and wheels. Touch pads and touch screens are common examples of capacitive sensing interfaces. The underlying principle of these technologies is the measurement of capacitance between a plate (the sensor) and its environment.

35.1 Features

Features of CapSense include:
- Resources to support two capacitive sensors scanning simultaneously
- Configurable low pass filter to remove switching noise for accurate measurement
- Reference buffer with High Drive mode for faster measurement

35.2 Block Diagram

A block diagram of the overall capacitive sensing architecture is shown in Figure 35-1.

Figure 35-1. CapSense Module Block Diagram
35.3 How It Works

The PSoC device has configurable hardware for CapSense to optimize factors such as speed, power, sensitivity, noise immunity and resource usage. It implements CapSense Sigma Delta (CSD) method of capacitive sensing.

35.3.1 Reference Driver

This driver is used to quickly initialize nets to a voltage independent of the power supply. This ability speeds up capacitive scanning and improves Power Supply Rejection Ratio (PSRR). Two reference drivers operate independently; one drives to AMUXBUSL, and one for AMUXBUSR. The driver is connected to the AMUXBUS by setting the out_en bit in the \{CAPSx_CFG0\}.

The reference driver supports Normal and High drive modes; the drive mode is selected using the boost bit in the \{CAPSx_CFG0\} register. In Normal mode, capacitances up to 100 pF can be driven in less than 600 ns. In High mode, capacitances up to 30 nF can be driven in less than 15 µs.

35.3.2 Low Pass Filter

Two tunable Low Pass Filter (LPF) blocks are available. The inputs are selectable in a 2:1 mux for each LPF. On the left side, the LPF inputs are AMUXBUSL and AGL[0]; on the right side, the inputs are AMUXBUSR and AGR[0]. LPF input is selected by using the swin[1:0] bits in the LPFx.CR0 register. The outputs are connected through switches to abusl[0] and abusr[0], respectively. The tunability of the LPF allows the user to select a (nominal) R of either 200 kΩ or 1000 kΩ, and a C of either 5 pF or 10 pF. The rsel and csel bits in the LPFx_CR0 register are used to select resistance and capacitance respectively. The LPF control registers are LPF0_CR0 and LPF1_CR0.

35.3.3 Analog Mux Bus

All GPIO pins support CapSense operations except SIO and USB pins. The primary analog mux bus for CapSense is the AMUXBUS, which has two nets (AMUXBUSL and AMUXBUSR) for two simultaneous sensing operations. These can also be shorted to form a single net that connects to all GPIO. Refer to the device datasheet for details about GPIOs available in each package and to the Analog Routing chapter on page 359 for a diagram of AMUXBUS connectivity for the GPIO.

AMUXBUSL and AMUXBUSR nets connect to all GPIO pins on their respective halves of the device. CapSense uses the AMUXBUS net, along with an analog global net (AGR[0] with AMUXBUSR, and AGL[0] with AMUXBUSL) to provide feedback to the reference driver. This feedback is from a pin connected to a large off-chip capacitor serving as integration or modulation capacitor.

35.3.4 GPIO Configuration for CapSense

The GPIO switching structure supporting CapSense is shown in Figure 35-2.

![Figure 35-2. GPIO Structure](image)

The port analog global mux register (PRT[x]_AMUX) is used to connect the port pin to the analog mux bus. The pull up or pull down is enabled using io_ctrl[1:0] bits in the CAPSx_CFG1 register.

Sense capacitance is switched in two configurations, shown in Figure 35-3 on page 399 and Figure 35-4 on page 399, to convert the capacitance into equivalent resistance for measurement.

The equivalent resistance can be calculated as:

\[ R_s = \frac{1}{(f_s C_s)} \]

Here:

- \(C_s\) = Sensor Capacitance
- \(\phi_1\) and \(\phi_2\) = Non-overlapping clocks, which may be configured in a pseudo random sequence (PRS).
- \(f_s\) = Frequency of the clock
- \(C_{mod}\) = External Modulation Capacitance

The CapSense methods can generally be done with either switching high or switching low at the GPIO pin. The rest of the hardware is configured with the appropriate polarity to match to the pull up or pull down choice.
The CapSense clock is used for switching. Two alternatives are available to generate the CapSense clock (refer also to Figure 21-1 on page 188).

- The UDB generates two global clocks (caps_dsi_lft and caps_dsi_rt), and routes to GPIO logic of the I/O pins in the respective side. The PRT[x]_CAPS_SEL[y] registers (per port per pin basis) are set to select the global clock for switching the sensor during measurement.

- The DSI output to the I/O pin can be used to source the CapSense clock from the UDB. The PRTx_BIE[y] must be programmed for input (per port per pin basis) and PRT[x]_CAPS_SEL[y] is cleared to select the DSI output signal for the CapSense clock.

With either of these paths, the nonoverlapping clock phases discussed above are automatically generated within the GPIO switching structure.

Note that to connect an external integration capacitance ($C_{\text{mod}}$) statically (without switching), connect it to AMUXBUS using PRT[x]_AMUX register and then PRTx_CAPS_SEL[y] = 0 and PRTx_BIE[y] = 0.

GPIOs pins can be made as Shield Electrodes. The shield electrodes help in reliable operation in presence of water film or water droplets. The effect of these factors on shield electrode is measured and is removed from the CapSense Buttons. The CapSense algorithms discussed below support the shield electrode.

### 35.3.5 Other Resources

CSD CapSense techniques use many resources in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. These include UDBs, Comparators, and V-I DAC. See the Universal Digital Blocks (UDBs) chapter on page 213, Comparators chapter on page 375, and Digital-to-Analog Converter chapter on page 409 for more detail on those.
35.4 CapSense Delta Sigma Algorithm

The CapSense Delta Sigma (CSD) algorithm shown in Figure 35-5 and Figure 35-6 on page 401 measures capacitance with the hardware configured like a Delta Sigma modulator. Delta Sigma capacitive sensing operates by holding an integration capacitor voltage near a target threshold, and charging or discharging the capacitor, based on the present state of a comparator output. The sense capacitor is continuously switched between V_{dd} and the integration capacitor, which drives the integrated voltage up on each switching cycle. The CSD algorithm operates as follows:

1. When the integration voltage reaches the reference voltage, the comparator enables current DAC to discharge the capacitor.

2. When the capacitor voltage discharges below the reference voltage, the current DAC is disabled to allow the capacitor to continue charging.

3. As the integration capacitor voltage moves back and forth across the comparator threshold, the comparator high outputs are counted in an interval to give a measure of the sense capacitor.

4. The sense capacitance increases with touch, therefore equivalent resistance decreases. This decreased resistance causes an increase in the current flowing through switch CapSense resistor.

5. To maintain the voltage on C_{mod} near V_{REF} during a touch, the IDAC sinks current for longer duration to compensate for the larger sense capacitance. This changes the count value accordingly.

A PRS (pseudo random sequence) clock may be used instead of a fixed clock source to drive the precharge switches. The PRS clock produces less radiated noise on the sense capacitor, compared to a fixed clock source, hence improving EMI and interference performance.

Figure 35-5. CSD Hardware Configuration
The PSoC device also supports other variants of the CSD algorithm as follows:

- Switched Capacitor Resistor (see Figure 35-3 on page 399) is used to charge the integration capacitor; an external bleeding resistor is used (instead of IDAC) to discharge the integration capacitor, based on comparator output.

- Polarities are reversed so that the IDAC is used to charge up the integration capacitor and Switched Capacitor Resistor (see Figure 35-4 on page 399) discharges the integration capacitor toward ground, based on comparator output.
36. Temperature Sensor

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices have an on-chip Temperature Sensor that is used to measure the internal die temperature. The temperature sensor uses the Delta Vbe method for digital temperature measurement.

The temperature sensor block has an auxiliary analog-to-digital converter (ADC) for measuring the internal die temperature. The auxiliary ADC is a 10-bit accurate ADC in the system performance controller (SPC) primarily designed for measuring temperature sensor output but can also be used for general purposes supplementing the main Delta-Sigma ADC. It is also possible to route the analog output of diode in temperature sensor block to analog globals to measure temperature more accurately using the Delta-Sigma ADC in PSoC 3.

36.1 Features

The temperature sensor offers the following features:
- ± 5 degrees Celsius accuracy over commercial temperature range (-50°C to +150°C)
- Ability to route temperature sensor output to analog global line, AGL3.

36.2 Block Diagram

The block diagram for the temperature sensor is illustrated in Figure 36-1.

Figure 36-1. Temperature Sensor
36.3 How It Works

The base-to-emitter voltage of a Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT) device has a strong dependence on temperature at a constant collector current and zero collector-base voltage. The temperature sensor output \( V_{be} \) is measured with two different drive currents: first with low bias current and second with high bias current. A current ratio of 1:29 is maintained between the conversions.

By making the ratio between the two drive currents high, the voltage difference between the \( V_{be} \) values is linearly proportional to temperature. The output voltage of the temperature sensor is either driven to the Delta Sigma ADC or other on-chip resources using analog global line (AGL3). To increase accuracy, the PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 temperature sensors use the following techniques:

- Dynamic Element Matching technique is implemented using a sequencer that cyclically selects among the eight current mirror paths during conversion (low current mode and high current mode).
- Curvature compensation circuit to increase linearity when the temperature sensor output is routed to an external resource with a High Z buffer such as the on-chip Delta Sigma ADC.
- A two point linear fit calibration routine for accurate temperature measurements using the Auxiliary ADC.

36.4 Command and Status Interface

The commands associated with the temperature sensor are executed through the simple command/status register interface. “Get Temp,” “Setup Temperature Sensor,” and “Disable Temperature Sensor” are commands associated with the temperature sensor. The command is sent as a series of bytes to either SPC_CPU_DATA or SPC_DMA_DATA, depending on the source of the command. Response data is read via the same register to which the command was sent. The status register, SPC_SR, indicates whether a new command can be accepted, when data is available for the most recent command, and success/failure response (status code) for the most recent command.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Size (Bits)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPC_CPU_DATA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Data to or from CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC_DMA_DATA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Data to or from DMAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC_SR</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Status – ready, data available, status code</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The command sequence consists of a 2-byte key, followed by command code and the parameters associated with the command:

- Key byte #1 – always 0xB6
- Key byte #2 – 0xD3 plus the command code (ignore overflow)
- Command code byte
- Command parameter bytes
- Command data bytes

Before sending a command to the SPC_CPU_DATA or SPC_DMA_DATA register, the SPC_Idle bit in SPC_SR[1] must be ‘1’. SPC_Idle will go to ‘0’ when the first byte of a command (0xB6) is written to a DATA register, and then go back to ‘1’ when command execution is complete or an error is detected. Commands sent to either DATA register while SPC_Idle is ‘0’ are ignored.
36.4.1 Status Codes

If the value of the 2-byte key is wrong or if any of the parameters passed are invalid, the command is ignored and the error condition is indicated by the status code in the Status register (SPC_SR). The Status_Code bits (7:2 in the Status register) are used to determine if the command operation is executed successfully or any error occurred. Table 36-2 lists the status code bit values.

Table 36-2. Status Code Bit Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status_Code Bit Values (Bits[7:2] in SPC_SR register)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00</td>
<td>Command successfully executed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x02</td>
<td>Invalid key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0B</td>
<td>Invalid command code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0D</td>
<td>Invalid parameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0E</td>
<td>Temperature Sensor Vbe is currently driven to an external device</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

36.4.2 Temperature Sensor Commands

36.4.2.1 Get Temperature

“Get Temperature” (command code: 0x0E). This command uses auxiliary ADC to measure the die temperature and the ADC output. It returns 2 bytes corresponding to a temperature value. The first byte is the sign of the temperature (0 = negative, 1 = positive). The second byte is the magnitude. These values are read from the SPC Data register. The command sequence is shown in Figure 36-2.

Command Parameters

numSamp. This parameter specifies the number of samples taken. The number of samples is equal to 2^numSamp. Valid values for this parameter are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, thereby resulting in 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, or 32 samples, respectively. The ADC output is read after the averaging has been done over all the samples as specified by this parameter. The averaging routine can be bypassed by selecting the numSamp value as 0.
Reading Temperature Output

Once the command and its parameters are sent, the Temperature Sensor/ADC block is configured and starts the conversion.

When the conversion is complete, the DATA READY bit in the Status register (SPC_SR) is set. The CPU must poll this bit to check if the ADC output is ready. When the bit is high, the first byte (Sign byte) of output is read from the Data register (SPC_CPU_DATA). The DATA READY bit is reset once a read operation is done. When the second byte (Magnitude byte) is ready to read, the DATA READY bit becomes high once again and the second byte is read from the Data register (SPC_CPU_DATA).

36.4.2.2 Setup Temperature Sensor

“Setup Temperature Sensor” (command code: 0x11). The purpose of this command is to connect the raw temperature sensor analog output onto AGL3 for measurement by the High Z buffer/Delta Sigma ADC(DSM) or other external resources. The auxiliary ADC cannot be operated at the same time when the sensor output is routed to AGL3. This command disables the functionality of the auxiliary ADC such that it does not load the sensor when the sensor output voltage is being driven into the DSM or other external ADCs. The “Setup Temperature Sensor” and “Disable Temperature Sensor” are the commands associated with this purpose and drive the temperature sensor output to AGL3. When temperature sensor output is routed to an analog global line, auxiliary ADC cannot be used to measure the temperature.

Note that AGL3 should not be used by analog blocks other than the temperature sensor output when this command is executed. Even though PSoC Creator™ takes care of routing, the user must ensure that there are no resource conflicts in using AGL3. The command sequence is shown in Figure 36-3.

Figure 36-3. Setup Temperature Command Sequence
Temperature Sensor

Command Parameters

Sequence Select. The temperature sensor output (Vbe) voltage is measured with low bias current and then with high bias current. A current ratio of 1:29 is established between the low bias and high bias current. This ratio is fixed and not configurable. The difference between the two output voltages is linearly proportional to temperature.

- 0 – Low bias current.
  The temperature sensor is driven with low bias current.
- 1 – High bias current.
  The temperature sensor is driven with high bias current.

Sequence Freeze. In low bias and high bias current modes, Dynamic Element Matching (DEM) is implemented by a sequencer that cyclically selects among the eight current mirror paths.

- 0 – Sequencer is enabled.
- 1 – Sequencer is disabled.
  No cycling of the current paths occurs.

clkDivider. This parameter sets the divider value for clock generation from the SPC clock (spcCLK, which is 36 MHz). This clock is used by the sequencer to cycle through the current mirrors. The clock frequency is equal to:

\[
\frac{spcCLK}{(clkDivider + 1)}
\]

The clock divider value (clkDivider) is of 8 bits allowing clock to have 256 different frequencies ranging from spcCLK down to spcCLK/256 (spcCLK is 36 MHz). In general, the slower the clock, the better the linearity that will be achieved.

Curvature Compensation Enable. The temperature sensor has a feature to correct for a curvature in its behavior and align it to a more linear path, thus giving it more accuracy when its output is routed to an external resource with a High Z buffer, such as the on-chip Delta Sigma ADC. A High Z buffer is required because the curvature compensation circuit needs to be buffered before driving an external ADC front end.

- 0 – No curvature compensation is used.
- 1 – Curvature compensation is enabled.

36.4.2.3 Disable Temperature Sensor

"Disable Temperature Sensor" (Command code: 0x12). This command is used to disable the temperature sensor from driving its output voltage to the analog global line (AGL3). After calling this command, the “Get Temp” command can be executed, as well as commands using the erase portion of the Smart Write algorithm. This command has no parameters and does not return any value. The command sequence is shown in Figure 36-4.

Figure 36-4. Disable Temperature Command Sequence
Temperature Sensor
37. Digital-to-Analog Converter

The Digital-to-Analog (DAC) Converter is an 8-bit digital-to-analog converter that is configured to output either a voltage or a current. The 8-bit DAC supports CapSense®, power supply regulation, and waveform generation.

37.1 Features

The DAC has the following features:

- Adjustable voltage or current output in 255 steps
- Programmable step size (range selection)
- Eight bits of calibration to correct ± 25% of gain error
- Source/sink option for current output
- Output rate for current IDAC output: 8 Msps
- Output rate for VDAC voltage output: 1 Msps
- Monotonic in nature

37.2 Block Diagram

A block diagram of the DAC is shown in Figure 37-1.
37.3 How It Works

This DAC generates either a voltage or a current output. It is built using current mirror architecture; current is mirrored from a reference source to a mirror DAC. Calibration and value current mirrors are responsible for the 8-bit calibration [DACx_TR] and the 8-bit DAC value. The current is then diverted into the scaler to generate the current corresponding to the DAC value. The DAC value can either be given from the register DACx_D or from 8 lines from the UDB. This selection is made using the DACx_CR1[5] bit. Using the UDB to write the DAC value uses the DAC bus. Since there is only one DAC bus available for each device, this bus must be shared by all the DACs in the device.

The DAC is strobed to get its output to change for the input code. The strobe control is enabled by the DACx_STROBE[3] bit. The strobe sources for the DAC can be selected from the bus write strobe, analog clock strobe to any UDB signal strobe. This selection is done on the basis of setting in DACx_STROBE[2:0].

- **Current (IDAC) Mode** – The two mirrors for the current source and sink provide output as a current source or current sink, respectively. These mirrors also provide range options in the current mode.
- **Voltage (VDAC) Mode** – The current is routed through resistors according to the range and voltage across it provided as output.

The output from the DAC is single-ended in both IDAC and VDAC modes.

37.3.1 Current DAC

When used as an IDAC, the output is an 8-bit digital-to-analog conversion current. This is done by setting the DACx_CR0 [4] register. The reference source is a current reference from the analog reference called IREF(DAC). In this mode, there are three output ranges selected by register DACx_CR0 [3:2].

- 0 to 2.048 mA, 8 µA/bit
- 0 to 256 µA, 1 µA/bit
- 0 to 32 µA, 0.125 µA/bit

For each level, there are 255 equal steps of M/256 where M = 2.048 mA, 256 µA, or 32 µA. In the 2.040 mA configuration, the block is intended to output a current into an external 600Ω load.

The IDAC is capable of converting up to 8 Msps. The user also has the option of selecting if the output is a current source or a sink. This is done by the DACx_CR1[2] register. The selection between source and sink for the IDAC can also be done using a UDB input. UDB control for the source-sink selection is enabled using the DACx_CR1[3] bit.

37.3.2 Voltage DAC

When used as a VDAC, the output is an 8-bit digital-to-analog conversion voltage to support applications where reference voltages are needed. Here the reference source is a voltage reference from the Analog reference block called VREF(DAC). The DAC can be configured to work in voltage mode by setting the DACx_CR0[4] register. In this mode, there are two output ranges selected by register DACx_CR0[3:2].

- 0V to 1.024 V
- 0V to 4.096 V

Both output ranges have 255 equal steps.

The VDAC is implemented by driving the output of the current DAC through resistors and obtaining a voltage output. Because no buffer is used, any DC current drawn from the DAC affects the output level. Therefore, in this mode any load connected to the output should be capacitive.

The VDAC is capable of converting up to 1 Msps. In addition, the DAC is slower in 4V mode than 1V mode, because the resistive load to VSSA is 4 times larger. In 4V mode, the VDAC is capable of converting up to 250 kspsz.

37.3.3 Output Routing Options

Output routing options for the DAC are attained through two separate muxes for current and voltage modes. These muxes are controlled by the DACx_SWx registers, as shown in Figure 37-2 on page 411.
The user can route output as follows:
- **Voltage Mode** – to the analog globals, analog mux bus, or the analog local bus
- **Current Mode** – to the analog globals, analog mux bus, or to a specific port

### 37.3.4 Making a Higher Resolution DAC

It is possible to achieve a higher resolution current output DAC by summing the outputs of two 8-bit current DACs, each one having a different segment of the input bus for input. The range of the two DACs used partially overlap.

For example, the implementation of a 12-bit DAC using two 8-bit DACs require:
- One DAC scaled to the range 0 to 2.048 mA and the second one scaled to the range 0 to 32 µA.
- The middle 4 bits of the lowest range DAC are used as inputs to the lower 4 bits. See Figure 37-4 on page 412.

This architecture may have problems of mismatch in the two DACs and therefore might require adjustment and scaling. The last two bits of the LSB DAC are used for minor calibration requirements.
37.4 Register List

Table 37-1. DAC Register List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Name</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DACx_CR0</td>
<td>DAC Control register 0</td>
<td>Select DAC mode, range, and speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_CR1</td>
<td>DAC Control register 1</td>
<td>Control DAC data source, reset, and direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_SW0</td>
<td>DAC Analog routing register 0</td>
<td>Routing for the DAC voltage output to analog (global) bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_SW2</td>
<td>DAC Analog routing register 2</td>
<td>Routing for the DAC voltage output to analog (local) bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_SW3</td>
<td>DAC Analog routing register 3</td>
<td>Routing for the DAC current/voltage output to AMUXBUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_STROBE</td>
<td>DAC Strobe register</td>
<td>DC strobe control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_D</td>
<td>DAC Data register</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACx_TR</td>
<td>DAC Block Trim register</td>
<td>DAC trim values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
38. Precision Reference

A voltage/current reference with value independent of supply voltage and temperature is an essential building block of many analog circuits. For example, accurate biasing voltages are critical for many circuit schemes; in ADC, a reference voltage is required to quantify an input, while in V/I DAC, voltage/current reference is required to define the output full-scale range.

38.1 Block Diagram

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices have a curvature compensated voltage bandgap along with a trim buffer to get absolute value accuracy. The trim buffer is a multiple reference generator. It takes the bandgap reference voltage as input and produces outputs ranging from 0.256V to 1.2V. The reference voltage is buffered by low power 5 \( \mu \)A, high accuracy buffers, and sent to multiple destinations. There is also a temperature corrected (to flat) current reference that is mirrored and sent to current DAC.

The voltage reference block diagram is illustrated in Figure 38-1 on page 414.

38.2 How It Works

The principle of the bandgap circuit relies on two groups of diode-connected bipolar junction transistors running at different emitter current densities. By canceling the negative temperature dependence of the PN junctions in one group of transistors with the positive temperature dependence from a PTAT (proportional-to-absolute-temperature) circuit (which includes the other group of transistors), a fixed DC voltage that does not change with temperature is generated.
**Note 1** Analog supply Vdda or Vdda/2 can be routed to the analog blocks through the analog local bus, ABUSL0. The voltage level is selected using the BG_CR0[3] bit and the switch is enabled using the BG_CR0[2] bit.

**Note 2** Reference voltage input (VREF1) to the comparator is selected using the BG_CR0[1:0] bits. It selects either bandgap reference voltage or the analog supply voltage.

**Note 3** IREF (DAC) is the reference current for the DAC during IDAC mode operation.
## Table 38-1. Reference Voltages and Blocks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voltage</th>
<th>Block</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VREF0 (Comparator)</td>
<td>Comparator</td>
<td>1.024V</td>
<td>To Comparator negative inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF1 (Comparator)</td>
<td>Comparator</td>
<td>Vdda (or)</td>
<td>To Comparator negative inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vdda/2 (or)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>256 mV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF (Opamp)</td>
<td>Opamp</td>
<td>1.024V</td>
<td>To Opamp positive inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF (SC/CT)</td>
<td>SC/CT Block</td>
<td>1.024V</td>
<td>To SC/CT block positive and negative inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABUSL0</td>
<td>Comparator</td>
<td>Vdda (or)</td>
<td>All blocks connected to the analog local bus ABUSL0 can get this voltage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opamp</td>
<td>Vdda/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DAC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SC/CT Block</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DSM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF (DAC)</td>
<td>DAC</td>
<td>256 mV</td>
<td>Reference voltage for DAC during VDAC mode operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF2 (DSM)</td>
<td>DSM</td>
<td>1.2V</td>
<td>Reference voltage to Delta Sigma Modulator. This voltage is buffered in the DSM block by a 10 ( \mu )A buffer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF1 (DSM)</td>
<td>DSM</td>
<td>1.024V</td>
<td>Reference voltage to Delta Sigma Modulator. This voltage is buffered in the DSM block by a 10 ( \mu )A buffer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF1_CM (DSM)</td>
<td>DSM</td>
<td>0.8V</td>
<td>Common mode reference voltage for Delta Sigma Modulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF2_CM (DSM)</td>
<td>DSM</td>
<td>0.7V</td>
<td>Common mode reference voltage for Delta Sigma Modulator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VREF (TEMP SENSOR)</td>
<td>TEMP SENSOR</td>
<td>0.9V</td>
<td>Analog ground option to auxiliary ADC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39. Delta Sigma Converter

The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 ADC is a high resolution ADC implemented in Delta Sigma technology. Delta Sigma converters are integrating converters that provide high SNR/resolution by oversampling, noise shaping, averaging, and decimation. A Delta Sigma Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC) has two main components: a modulator and a decimator. The modulator converts the analog input signal to a high data rate (oversampling), low resolution (usually 1 bit) bitstream, the average value of which gives the average of the input signal level. This bitstream is passed through a decimation filter to obtain the digital output at high resolution and lower data rate. The decimation filter is a combination of downsampler and a digital low pass (averaging) filter that averages the bitstream to get the digital output.

39.1 Features

- 8 - to 20-bit resolution
- Configurable gain from 0.25 to 256
- Differential/single ended inputs
- Optional input buffer with RC low pass filter
- Internal and external reference options
- Reference filtering for low noise
- Incremental/continuous mode
- Gain and offset correction

39.2 Block Diagram

Figure 39-1 is the converter block diagram.
### 39.3 How It Works

The PSoC 3, PSoC 5 Delta Sigma converter has a third-order modulator, followed by a fourth-order decimation filter. The modulator has a high impedance front end buffer followed by a bypassable RC filter.

- The modulator sends out a high data rate bitstream in thermometric format (see 39.3.2.6 Quantizer on page 426).
- The output of the modulator is passed on to the analog interface that converts the thermometric output to two’s complement (4 bit) and passes it on to the decimation filter.
- The decimation filter takes 4-bit two’s complement input and provides a higher resolution (user selectable) output at a lower data rate.

A detailed description of the individual blocks and their configuration options is given in this section.

#### 39.3.1 Input Buffer

The input impedance of the modulator is very low and not suitable for many applications. For applications that require a higher input impedance, two buffers (one for each differential input) are provided. Figure 39-2 shows the buffer and the RC filter that follows it.

The buffers are of very low noise, are independent of each other, and can be bypassed (DSM_BUF0[1], DSM_BUF1[1]) or powered down (DSM_BUF0[0], DSM_BUF1[0]) individually by setting the bits listed in the braces. The buffer can also be used to amplify the input signal; it can be configured to provide gain of 1, 2, 4 and 8 in DSM_BUF1[3:2] register bits. The buffer has two separate modes, selected in the DSM_BUF0[2] bit to support a 0 to Vdd - 0.2 V input common mode range. The modes are:

- **Level Shifted** – Buffer output can be level shifted up from the input when the input is close to 0V input common mode range. The operating range is 0 - vdda- 600 mV.
- **Rail-to-Rail** – This is used when input is rail-to-rail. The operating voltage range is vssa+200 mV to vdda-200 mV.

The input structure is illustrated in Figure 39-2.

---

#### Table 39-1. Maximum Input Signal Levels (ADC Reference Vref -> 1.024V)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gain</th>
<th>Modulator Quantization Levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.1875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.0938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.0469</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39.3.2 Delta Sigma Modulator

The Delta Sigma modulator does:

- Sampling the input signal (oversampling)
- Optional gain by adjusting the ratio of Cin1 to Cref
- Coarse quantization (2, 3, or 9 levels/1, 1.5, or 2.2 bits)
- Overload detection and chopping

PSOC 3, PSOC 5 Delta Sigma modulator implementation is shown in Figure 39-3.

Figure 39-3. Delta Sigma Modulator Implementation

The Delta Sigma modulator consists of these subsystems:

- Three active integrators
- An active summer
- A programmable quantizer
- A switched capacitor feedback DAC
Delta Sigma Converter

A few points about the modulator:

- The three active integrators and the programmable quantizer form the third order modulator. The transfer function of the integrators and the quantizer together account for the high pass noise shaping. Higher the order of the modulator, better is the high pass filter response and lower is the noise in the signal frequency band.

- The three integrators and quantizer stages are followed by an active summer. The analog input and the output of all three opamp stages are summed here.

- The summer output is quantized by a quantizer. The quantizer is programmable to output 2, 3, or 9 levels.

- The DAC (V_ref, V_out and C_ref constitute the DAC) connects the quantizer output back to the first stage opamp input. It is this feedback DAC that ensures that the average of the quantizer output is equal to the average input signal level.

39.3.2.1 Clock Selection

Any one of the four analog clocks or a UDB-generated clock can be used as the input sampling clock. The clock input can also be disabled. The DSM0_CLK register helps in selecting the clock source and enabling or disabling it. The maximum clock that can be applied to the modulator is 6.144 MHz. Make certain that the clock to the decimator = fs/n, n = 2,3,4,..., fs is the PHUB clock.

39.3.2.2 Capacitance Configuration

All of the capacitors shown in Figure 39-3 on page 419 have binary weighted programmability. The value of a capacitance can be configured by setting the following three fields:

- **Offset Capacitance** – single bit that enables or disables an offset capacitance
- **Cap Array[n:0]** – n+1 binary weighted bits
- **LSB Enable** – additional unit capacitance

Capacitance configuration (configuration of the above fields) is done in registers DSM_CR4 through DSM_CR12.

Capacitance value is described by following equation:

\[ \text{Cap value} = (\text{offset} \times C_{off}) + (\text{cap}[n:0] \times C_{unit}) + (\text{EN} \times C_{unit}) \]

Where:

- **C_{off}** is the offset capacitor value.
- **C_{unit}** is the unit capacitor value.
- **Offset** is the binary value (single bit) programmed in the offset field.
- **EN (LSB enable)** is the binary value (single bit) programmed in the EN field.
- **Cap[n:0]** is the decimal equivalent of the binary value programmed in the cap array[n:0] field.

The unit capacitance, offset capacitance, and default values for all of the capacitances are given in Table 39-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Default</th>
<th>Typical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FCP1OFFSET</td>
<td>Offset cap for first stage feedback cap</td>
<td>3.4 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP1[6:0]</td>
<td>Binary weighted first stage feedback cap</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 100 ) fF</td>
<td>1000000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP1EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB CAP of FCP1</td>
<td>100 fF - 12.8 pF in 100 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCP1OFFSET</td>
<td>Offset cap for first stage input cap</td>
<td>4.8 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCP1[6:0]</td>
<td>First stage Input CAP (binary)</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 100 ) fF</td>
<td>1010000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCP1EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB cap of IPCP1</td>
<td>100 fF - 12.8 pF in 100 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAP[5:0]</td>
<td>DAC cap (each unit) - binary</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 12 ) fF</td>
<td>1011000</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>Resonator cap (binary)</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 12 ) fF</td>
<td>000000</td>
<td>0 fF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAPEN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB cap of RESCAP</td>
<td>12 fF - 96 fF in 12 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP2[3:0]</td>
<td>Second stage Feedback cap - binary</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 50 ) fF</td>
<td>101111</td>
<td>0.55 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP2EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB CAP of FCP2</td>
<td>50-800 fF in 50 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCP2[2:0]</td>
<td>Second stage input CAP - binary</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 50 ) fF</td>
<td>101100</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCP2EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of IPCP2</td>
<td>50-400 fF in 50 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACP3[3:0]</td>
<td>Third stage feedback cap</td>
<td>( C_{unit} = 100 ) fF</td>
<td>111011</td>
<td>1.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP3EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of FCP3</td>
<td>100 fF-1.6 pF in 100 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39.3.2.3 Gain Configuration

The modulator provides gain from 0.25 to 16 to the input signal. Gain is the ratio of input and DAC capacitances, as described in the following equation.

\[ \text{Gain} = \frac{C_{\text{in}}}{C_{\text{ref}}} \]  

Equation 1

However, increasing only the input capacitance to increase gain disturbs the transfer characteristics of the modulator. Therefore, other capacitors also must be scaled to maintain the modulator transfer characteristics. Recommended values of capacitors for gains of 1, 2, 4, 8 are shown in Table 39-3, and those for 16, 0.25, and 0.5 are shown in Table 39-4.

Table 39-2. Capacitance Values (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Default</th>
<th>Typical Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>Third stage input cap</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of IPCAP3</td>
<td>50-400 fF in 50 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPIN[4:0]</td>
<td>Summer cap for input path</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>00101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPINEN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of SUMCAPIN</td>
<td>50-1.55 pF in 50 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFB[3:0]</td>
<td>Summer cap for feedback path</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.5 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBEN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of SUMCAPFB</td>
<td>50-750 fF in 50 fF steps</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1[2:0]</td>
<td>Summer cap for first stage output</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>Summer cap for second stage output</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>Summer cap for third stage output</td>
<td>( C_{\text{unit}} = 50 \text{ fF} )</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3EN</td>
<td>Enable for LSB Cap of SUMCAP3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39-3. Gains 1, 2, 4, and 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Gain = 1</th>
<th>Gain = 2</th>
<th>Gain = 4</th>
<th>Gain = 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
<td>Typical Value</td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
<td>Typical Value</td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1[6:0]</td>
<td>00101000</td>
<td>8.8 pF</td>
<td>1111111</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1EN</td>
<td>0001</td>
<td>4 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAP5[5:0]</td>
<td>0101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
<td>101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAPEN</td>
<td>01000</td>
<td>0.4 pF</td>
<td>01000</td>
<td>0.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPINEN</td>
<td>0101000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>01000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBB[3:0]</td>
<td>0100</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBBEN</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1[2:0]</td>
<td>0010100</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>0101100</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2EN</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>0010100</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3EN</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39.3.2.4 **Power Configuration**

There are separate power settings for the first opamp stage, the summer, and the quantizer. The second and third stages share the same power settings. The power for all of these stages is configured in registers DSM_CR14 and DSM_CR16. The various configurable power settings are shown in Table 39-5.

**Table 39-5. Configurable Power Settings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Truth Table, Typical IDD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POWER1</td>
<td>Power control for first stage</td>
<td>000 - LOW (42 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>001 - MEDIUM (114 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>010 - HIGH (430 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>011 - 1.5X (650 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100 - 2X (900 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>101 - C/2 at 3MSPS (254 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>110 = C/4 at 3MSPS (170 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>111 - 2.5X (1.35 mA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER2_3[2:0]</td>
<td>Power control for second stage/third stage</td>
<td>000 - LOW (4 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>001 - MEDIUM (16 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>010 - HIGH (62 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>011 - 1.5X (100 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100 - 2X (135 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_SUM[2:0]</td>
<td>Power control for summer</td>
<td>000 - LOW (4 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>001 - MEDIUM (16 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>010 - HIGH (62 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>011 - 1.5X (100 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100 - 2X (135 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_COMP[1:0]</td>
<td>Comparator power control</td>
<td>00 - Very Low (2.2 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>01 - Normal (8.6 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 - 6 MHz (17 µA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 - 6 MHz (35 µA)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 39-5 indicates how to configure power for the individual blocks. Power dissipation, capacitances, clock frequency and quantization levels are interrelated to each other.

Configuring power without varying the other parameters mentioned above affects the proper operation of the modulator. The tables below show a set of operational modes that indicate how to configure power based upon the other parameters or vice versa.

Table 39-6. Power Configuration Based on Quantization Levels and Clock Frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Mode - 3 MHz 9 Level</th>
<th>Mode - 6 MHz 9 Level</th>
<th>Mode - 3 MHz 2 Level and 3 Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
<td>Typical Value</td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1[6:0]</td>
<td>1010000</td>
<td></td>
<td>0010100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1[6:0]</td>
<td>0101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
<td>0001011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAP[6:0]</td>
<td>101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
<td>001011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAP[2:0]</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>0 pF</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP2[3:0]</td>
<td>1011</td>
<td>0.55 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACP3[3:0]</td>
<td>1110</td>
<td>1.4 pF</td>
<td>0011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPIN[4:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>00001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPINEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFB[3:0]</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.5 pF</td>
<td>0010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QLEVEL[1:0]</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>level=9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODET_TH[4:0]</td>
<td>01100</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>01100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCHOP[2:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>Fclk/4</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NONOV[1:0]</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>3.5 ns</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER1[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>430 µA</td>
<td>010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER2[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>62 µA</td>
<td>010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_COMP[1:0]</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>9 µA</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Table 39-7. Power Configuration Based on Capacitances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Mode - C/2</th>
<th>Mode - C/4</th>
<th>Mode - C/8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
<td>Typical Value</td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 pF</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP[6:0]</td>
<td>0101000</td>
<td>4 pF</td>
<td>0010100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP[6:0]</td>
<td>0010110</td>
<td>2.2 pF</td>
<td>0001011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAP[5:0]</td>
<td>010110</td>
<td>2.2 pF</td>
<td>001011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAPEN</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAP[2:0]</td>
<td>01001</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
<td>00001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP2[3:0]</td>
<td>0101</td>
<td>0.5 pF</td>
<td>00101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACP3[3:0]</td>
<td>0101</td>
<td>0.5 pF</td>
<td>00111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPIN[4:0]</td>
<td>00010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>00001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPINEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFB[3:0]</td>
<td>0100</td>
<td>0.2 pF</td>
<td>00100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP21EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>0.1 pF</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QLEVEL[1:0]</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>level=9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODET_TH[4:0]</td>
<td>01100</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>01100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCHOP[2:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>Fclk/4</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NONOV[1:0]</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>3.5 ns</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER1[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>254 µA</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER2_3[2:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>16 µA</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_SUM[2:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>16 µA</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_COMP[1:0]</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18 µA</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 39-8. Configuration Based on Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Bit</th>
<th>Mode - Medium Power</th>
<th>Mode - Low Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bit Setting</td>
<td>Typical Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAP1[6:0]</td>
<td>1010000</td>
<td>8 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1OFFSET</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP1[6:0]</td>
<td>0101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACCAP[5:0]</td>
<td>101100</td>
<td>4.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAPEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP2[3:0]</td>
<td>1011</td>
<td>0.55 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP3[3:0]</td>
<td>1110</td>
<td>1.4 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPIN[4:0]</td>
<td>00101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPINEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFB[3:0]</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>0.5 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAPFBEN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP1EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP2EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3[2:0]</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.25 pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMCAP3EN</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QLEVEL[1:0]</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>level=9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODET_TH[4:0]</td>
<td>01100</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCHOP[2:0]</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>Fclk/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NONOV[1:0]</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>3.5 ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER1[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>114 µA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER2_3[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>16 µA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_SUM[2:0]</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>16 µA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POWER_COMP[1:0]</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>9 µA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 39.3.2.5 Other Configuration Options

The modulator can be chopped for a low offset of 100 µV. The chopping frequency can be set from fclk/2 to fclk/256, where fclk is the input sampling clock. Chopping enable and chopping frequency setting are done in the DSM_CR2 register.

The modulator can be configured for inverting the gain by setting the sign bit in DSM_CR3[7].

The modulator can be reset (all capacitances are reset) by the UDB or decimator, and the reset source is selected by the DSM_CR2[7] register. More details about reset are in the Reset chapter on page 179.

### 39.3.2.6 Quantizer

The quantizer can be configured for 2, 3, or 9 levels. A 9 level quantizer offers a better SNR and a 2 level quantizer offers better linearity. Depending on the application requirement, the user can choose quantization levels. The number of quantization levels is configured in DSM_CR0[1:0] register bits. The quantizer outputs data in thermometric format. The quantizer output is stored in the register DSM_OUT1.

Thermometric format is explained by the pattern of output levels shown in the following table. In thermometric format, the number of ones increases from LSB to MSB as the quantization level increases.

#### Table 39-9. Quantizer Output Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Quantizer Output Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>2 Level Quantizer</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3 Level Quantizer</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>00001111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9 Level Quantizer</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>00000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>00000011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4</td>
<td>00000111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5</td>
<td>00011111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 6</td>
<td>00111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 7</td>
<td>01111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 8</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 9</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 39.3.2.7 Reference Options

The Delta Sigma channel has selectable analog reference input (REFBUF0) options, as shown in Figure 39-4 on page 427. Also illustrated are the opamp output common mode (VCMBUF0) and the negative input buffer (REFBUF1) selection schemes. The various reference selections for the DSM ADC may be broadly classified into the following modes:

- Internal Reference (reference generated on-chip) that is buffered but unfiltered (Figure 39-5 on page 427)
- Internal Reference that is buffered and filtered with an external capacitor tied between P0[3] and ground or P3[2] and ground (Figure 39-6 on page 428)
- External Reference source driving reference into the DSM (Figure 39-7 on page 428)
Figure 39-4. Delta Sigma Channel Analog Reference Selection

Figure 39-5. Connection Scenario: Internal Reference with No RC Filtering (using P0[3])
Figure 39-6. Connection Scenario: Internal Reference with RC Filtering

Figure 39-7. Connection Scenario: External Reference Only
There are several selectable options for internal reference, based on refmux[2:0] programming in DSM_REF0 register. The places in the DSM block (Figure 39-3 on page 419) that require a reference value are:

- DAC capacitor (Cref) sampling in the first integrator
- Reference for the resistive ladder inside the quantizer block
- Common Mode Voltage (VCM) for the differential circuits. This voltage is typically 0.8V with an option to go to 0.7V for better head rooms. A provision for applying VDD / 2 is also provided.

39.3.2.8 Reference for DSM: Usage Guidelines

The following table shows the state of various switches and the two reference buffers for certain selectable reference options.

Not every possible combination of closing the switches marked S0-S13 is discussed in this section. The configuration of these switches (therefore the reference selection) is made in registers DSM_REF2 and DSM_REF3. The reference buffers can be configured in low, medium, high, and turbo power modes in the DSM.CR17 register. The common mode voltage buffer, internal reference voltage buffer, and the negative input buffer are powered down, using DSM.CR17[1], DSM.CR17[0], and DSM_REF0[3] register bits, respectively.

1. Power on the VCMBUF0 for the DSM to function.
2. Turn on the reference buffer REFBUF1 only when you want to drive the ADC reference to the negative input mux of the DSM channel.
3. Power down REFBUF0 only when you want to drive reference to the ADC from an off-chip source (See the external reference option in Table 39-10).

To get low reference noise, the option to filter is provided with the special connections to pins P3[2] and P0[3], as shown in Figure 39-4 on page 427 and Figure 39-7 on page 428. Therefore, for low noise floor requirements, use the external capacitor filter. Only two pins, P3[2] and P0[3], are dedicated for this purpose in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices. The switches in Table 39-10 that are marked as ON mean that the switch is closed, and a path is created for reference to reach DSM. Empty cells indicate that the switches are open.

Table 39-10. Analog Reference Modes for the Delta Sigma Channel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Switch States</th>
<th>REFBUF0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Internal Reference (No Filtering)</td>
<td>ON ON ON ON</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Internal Reference (Filter with P3[2])</td>
<td>ON ON ON ON</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Internal Reference (Filter with P0[3])</td>
<td>ON ON ON ON ON</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>External Reference only (P3[2])</td>
<td>ON ON</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>External Reference only (P0[3])</td>
<td>ON ON</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$V_{para}$ is internal reference</td>
<td>ON ON</td>
<td>ON OFF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39.3.3 Analog Interface

The analog interface connects the modulator to the other blocks including the decimator and the UDB. As shown in Figure 39-8 on page 430, the analog interface converts thermometric code sent by the modulator to two’s complement and allows for selection of modulation input, selecting and synchronizing clocks.

Figure 39-8. Analog Interface
39.3.3.1 Conversion of Thermometric Code to Two’s Complement

The following table shows the conversion from thermometric format to two’s complement for 2, 3, and 9 level quantizations performed by the analog interface. This two’s complement input is fed to the decimator.

Table 39-11. Two’s Complement Conversion Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inputs</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>qlev[1:0]</td>
<td>dout[7:0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>00001111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00000011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00000111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00001111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00011111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>00111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>01111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1x</td>
<td>11111111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

39.3.3.2 Modulation Input

As discussed in 39.3.2.5 Other Configuration Options on page 426, modulator gain can be inverted by the sign bit in DSM_CR3. The sign can also be changed by a direct digital input from LUTs or the UDB. The modulation input assists in this process. Depending on whether the modulation input is high or low, the gain is normal or inverted. The modulation input can be enabled by setting the DSM_CR3[4] register bit. Modulation input is selected by DSM_CR3[3:0] control bits.

39.3.3.3 Clock Selection and Synchronization

The output of the modulator (quantizer) Q[7:0] can be synchronized with respect to the digitally aligned clock of the analog clock selected for the modulator. As mentioned in 39.3.2 Delta Sigma Modulator on page 419, clock selection is done by DSM_CLK[2:0] register bits. Clock synchronization is enabled by clearing the DSM_CLK[4] register bit.

39.3.4 Decimator

The decimator takes the 4-bit input (low resolution) in two’s complement format and converts it into a high resolution output. The 4-bit two’s complement values coming into the decimator at the input sampling rate are averaged over a specified number of samples (decimation ratio), down sampled, and passed through an optional post-processing filter, achieving a higher resolution. The decimator in PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices is a fourth order Cascaded Integrator Comb (CIC) filter. The decimator structure is shown in Figure 39-9 on page 432.

Table 39-12. Programmed Shifter1 Values for Various Decimation Ratios (Programmed in DR1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decimation Ratio</th>
<th>Quantization Levels</th>
<th>Max Values in Range</th>
<th>Bit Width</th>
<th>Shift Adjustment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>4095 to -4096</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Left shift 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16383 to -16384</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Left shift 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>65535 to -65536</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Left shift 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>262143 to -262144</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Left shift 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>1048575 to -1048576</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Left shift 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4194303 to -4194304</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Left shift 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>16777215 to -16777216</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Left shift 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>67108863 to -67108864</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Left shift 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>2, 3</td>
<td>268435455 to -268435456</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Left shift 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>173741823 to -1073741824</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Left shift 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39.3.4.2 CIC Filter

The CIC filter has four cascaded integrator sections operating at the modulator sample rate, followed by four cascaded comb sections operating at a lower sample rate (determined by DR1). This combination implements a sinc4 Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter. The CIC filter is controlled by a finite state machine that allows it to sequence events in the various modes of operation of the decimator. The decimation ratio is programmed in the DEC_DR1 register. The registers in CIC filter are 32-bits wide and, therefore, for proper operation, the decimation ratio should not exceed the values given in Table 39-14.

The decimation ratios to be configured for 12, 14, 16 and 20 bit resolutions for 9 level quantization are shown in Table 39-15.

39.3.4.3 Post Processing Filter

The Post Processor receives 28-bit data from the output of the CIC Decimation filter for further convenience or post processing. Available functions are:

- Add a programmable offset coefficient to the CIC result
- Multiply a programmable gain coefficient to the CIC result
- Apply both offset and gain
- Apply a sinc1 FIR filter
- Apply both a sinc1 filter and offset correction
- Apply both a sinc1 filter and gain correction
- Apply all three

When more than one of the three functions is enabled to operate concurrently on the data, they are always performed in the order: FIR > Offset > Gain. The decimator process is shown in Figure 39-9.

---

Table 39-13. Programmed Shifter2 Values for Various Decimation Ratios (Programmed in DR2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value of D2</th>
<th>Right Shift Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No shift, bypass sync (boxcar) filter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1024</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39-14. Maximum Decimation Ratio Values for CIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Bit Width</th>
<th>Encoding (Decimal)</th>
<th>Max Allowed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-1, 1</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-1, 0, 1</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 39-15. Decimation Ratios for 9 Level Quantization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Final Resolution</th>
<th>Clock, Decimation Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12-bit</td>
<td>6.144 MHz, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-bit</td>
<td>6.144 MHz, 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-bit</td>
<td>3.072 MHz, 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-bit</td>
<td>3.072 MHz, 16384 (CIC + post processor)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
Delta Sigma Converter

The offset value to be added is programmed in registers DEC_OCOR, DEC_OCORM, and DEC_OCORH. The 24-bit offset is given in signed two’s complement format. The registers are coherency interlock protected (see 39.3.5 Coherency Protection on page 433).

The gain correction coefficient is programmed in registers DEC_GCOR, DEC_GCORH. The number of bits that are valid in the above register is programmed in the DEC_GVAL[3:0] register bits. This allows use of a part of the 16-bits for gain correction. The registers are coherency interlock protected. If the gain feature is used, the value programmed into the DR1 register (CIC decimation ratio) cannot be smaller than 2+2*GVAL, allowing time for the hardware to do a shift-add multiple during the decimation period.

The FIR filter is a summer that implements the sinc1 filter. It is used in cases where decimation ratios greater than 128 are desired. When the FIR function is enabled, the Post Processor sums samples from the CIC filter, DR2 at a time, where DR2 (10 bits) is the decimation ratio programmed in the DEC_DR2, DEC_DR2H[1:0] registers.

Gain correction, offset correction, and FIR filtering features can be enabled and disabled in the DEC_CR[6:4] register bits. The Post Processor implements saturation logic that prevents over- and under-flow wraparound in the accumulator. If the DEC_CR[7] bit is set, the ALU does not wrap when the most positive or negative number is exceeded.

The output of the conversion is stored in registers OUTSAMP, OUTSAMPm, and OUTSAMPH. In some configurations of the block, output results of interest are placed in bits 23:8 of the output sample field. To allow reading such values in one bus cycle, an alignment feature is added to shift the result right by 8 bits. This feature is enabled by the OUTPUT_ALIGN bit of the DEC_SR register.

39.3.5 Coherency Protection

Coherency refers to the hardware added to a block to protect against malfunctions of the block in cases where register fields are wider than the bus access, leaving intervals in time when fields are partially written or read (incoherent). Coherency checking is an option and is enabled in the DEC_COHER register.

The hardware provides coherency checking on three register fields that are all up to three bytes wide:

- Gain and Gain Value (write protected) – really two fields, but they are checked for coherency as if they are a single field protected on writes so that the underlying hardware does not incorrectly use the field when it partially updated by system software.

- Offset Value (write protected) – protected on writes so that the underlying hardware does not incorrectly use the field when it is partially updated by the system software.

- Output Sample Value (read protected) – protected on reads so that the underlying hardware does not update it when partially read by the system software or DMA. Depending on the configuration of the block, not all bits of the output sample register are of interest.

The coherency methodology allows for any size output field and handles it properly. In the COHER register, coherency is both enabled, and a Key Coherency Byte is selected. The Key Coherency Byte allows the user to tell the hardware which byte of the field will be written or read last when an update to the field is desired. Each for the three protected fields has a Coherency Interlock Flag (CIF). This flag signifies whether the field is coherent.

The coherency hardware understands both 8-bit and 16-bit accesses and when tracking coherency, handles each appropriately. A hard or soft reset sets all CIF to coherent.

39.3.5.1 Protecting Writes (Gain/Offset) with Coherency Checking

Starting from a coherent state (CIF is set), the software can write any of the other non-key bytes. This action flags the field incoherent (clears the CIF). When a field is incoherent, it is ignored by the underlying hardware, and a shadow register containing the last valid value is used. The field remains flagged incoherent until the Key Coherency Byte is written. At this time, the field is flagged coherent (CIF is again set), and the next time the hardware generates a new output sample result, the field is updated with the new value.

39.3.5.2 Protecting Reads (Output Sample) with Coherency Checking

Starting from a coherent state (CIF is set), the software can read any of the other non-key bytes of the field. This action flags the field incoherent (clears the CIF). When a field is incoherent, it is protected against updates from the underlying hardware, and any new samples that may be generated while incoherent are dropped (without warning). The field remains flagged incoherent until the Key Coherency Byte is read. At this time, the field is flagged coherent (CIF is again set), and the next time the hardware reads the field value, the new value is used, and the shadow register is updated with the new value.
39.3.6 Modes of Operation

This block has four primary operating modes:

- Single Sample
- Fast Filter
- Continuous
- Fast FIR

In Single Sample mode, the block sits in the standby state waiting for one of two start signals (START_CONV bit in CR register or ext_start). When a start is signaled, the block performs one sample conversion (four decimation periods where a decimation period is the count programmed in register DEC_DR1). It then captures the result, and signals the system by a polling or an interrupt that the process is complete and waits for the next signal as it reenters the standby state.

The Fast Filter mode captures single samples back to back, resetting itself and the Modulator between each sample. Upon completion of a sample, the next sample is initiated continuously. Polling and interrupts mark result events. Fast Filter mode is simply a continuous string of Single Samples with channel resets between them. This mode should be used when multiplexing channels.

If signaled to run Continuous, the filter resets the channel then runs continuously from that point forward, until signaled to stop, with no intervening resets of the channel. The hardware blocks the first three decimation periods but then provides a result every decimation cycle thereafter.

Fast FIR mode is very much like Continuous mode, except that the ADC channel is reset and the filter restarted when the FIR decimation period (DR2) is reached. For example, if the DR2 register is set to 15 and this mode is selected, the filter:

- Resets the channel
- Blocks the first three decimation periods (DR1)
- Produces 16 samples for the FIR function to operate on
- Generates one output result
- Repeats this sequence until signaled to halt

The decimator is set to one of the four modes by DEC_CR[3:2] bits. All four modes are started by either a write to the start bit in the DEC_CR[0] register or an assertion of the input signal ext_start. Set the DEC_CR[1] register bit when using the external start feature. When set, this bit ignores the DEC_CR[0] start bit. Figure 39-10 on page 435 shows the state diagram of various modes of operation of the decimator.
Figure 39-10. Decimator Modes

Single Sample

- IDLE
  - Start
  - Reset Modulator
    - Clear Start
    - Wait 3 Cycles to Prime
      - 4 Stage CIC
      - Count out DR1
    - Terminal Count
    - Result in Output Register or to Post Processor if in Use

Fast Filter

- IDLE
  - Start
  - Reset Modulator
    - Clear Start
    - Wait 3 Cycles to Prime
      - 4 Stage CIC
    - Count out DR1
    - Result in Output Register or to Post Processor if in Use

Continuous

- IDLE
  - Start
  - Reset Modulator
    - Clear Start
    - Wait 3 Cycles to Prime
      - 4 Stage CIC
      - Count out DR1
      - Terminal Count
      - Result in Output Register or to Post Processor if in Use
      - Runs until stopped by CSR write of Soft Reset

Fast FIR

- IDLE
  - Start
  - Reset Modulator
    - Clear Start
    - Wait 3 Cycles to Prime
      - 4 Stage CIC
    - Count out DR1
    - Result in Output Register or to Post Processor if in Use

- Terminal Count

- Pass Result to Post Processor to Process
  - Count out DR2
  - Terminal Count
  - Result in Output Register

**Runs Once**

**Terminal Count**

**Terminal Count not**
40. Successive Approximation Register ADC

The PSoC® 5 architecture has two successive approximation register analog to digital convertors (SAR ADC) in addition to the delta sigma ADC. The SAR ADC is designed for applications that require medium resolution and high data rate. The SAR ADC takes its input from the analog globals, locals and the mux bus and the output can be taken from a register or be sent to the UDB for further processing.

40.1 Features

- 12-bit resolution
- Single ended, differential input
- Rail-to-rail input (0V to Vdda)
- 1 MSPS sample rate
- Four power modes
- Single shot or continuous running mode

Figure 40-1. SAR ADC Block Diagram
40.2 **How It Works**

40.2.1 **Input Selection**

The SAR ADC takes differential inputs which are well connected to the analog routing structure. The positive input connects to analog globals, analog locals and Vssa. The negative input connects to analog globals, analog locals, analog mux bus, voltage reference and Vssa. The input selection, both positive and negative, is made through the input selection mux, which can be controlled through either the SAR routing registers in the analog interface or through the UDB. Setting the SARx_CSR[4] bit takes the positive input through UDB and clearing the bit takes the positive input through registers. Similarly, setting the SARx_CSR[3] bit takes the negative input through UDB and clearing the bit takes the negative input through registers. If the positive and negative input selection is made through the registers, registers SARx_SW0, SARx_SW2, SARx_SW3, SARx_SW4 and SARx_SW6 help in making the selection.

40.2.2 **Clock Selection**

The clock to the SAR can come from one of the four available analog clocks or a UDB generated clock. The clock selection for the SAR is made in SARx_CLK[2:0] register bits. The clock can be enabled or disabled through the gate control bit SARx_CLK[3]. The maximum input clock that can be applied to the SAR is 18 MHz. The digital output will be synchronized with respect to the corresponding digitally aligned clock of the selected analog clock. This synchronization can be bypassed using SARx_CLK[4] register bit.

40.2.3 **Input Sampling**

The input sampling time can be programmed from the 1 to 64 cycles in register SARx_CSR2[5:0] register bits. The user can also retain the earlier DAC value or clear it at the beginning of the new sampling clock. This is done in SARx_CSR0[3] register bit. The conversion time is 18 cycles for input sampling time up to four cycles. The maximum conversion time is 78 cycles for input sampling time of 64 cycles. The sampling time is chosen based on the source’s input impedance so that the input settling time is lower than the sampling time.

40.2.4 **Power Modes**

The SAR ADC can be operated in different power modes. The user can configure to operate the SAR ADC in four power modes, namely maximum power, half of maximum power, 1/3 of maximum power or 1/4 of maximum power. There is a direct tradeoff between reducing the power with one of these modes and the SNR. The power selection is done in SARx_CSR0[7:6] register bits.

40.2.5 **Reference Selection**

The SAR ADC can take either an internal or an external reference. The internal reference can be Vdda/2, 1.024V, 1.2V or DAC’s output voltage. The reference selection is done in SAR_CSR1[7:5] register bits. In order for the Vdda/2 reference selection be available, SAR_CSR3[6] register bit has to be set.

40.2.6 **Operational Modes**

The SAR can be configured in two modes, single capture or continuous. In single capture, the SAR ADC completes one conversion on a trigger; in the continuous mode the SAR ADC performs continuous conversion. The trigger can be either software or hardware. The software trigger comes from SARx_CSR0[0] register bit and the hardware trigger is from the UDB. The selection between software and UDB trigger is made in SARx_CSR0[2] register bit.

As long the SOF stays high the conversion continues, the conversion stops once the SOF goes low.

The two modes, single capture and continuous, is realized in the way the SOF bit is configured, i.e., level or edge sensitive SOF. In the level sensitive mode, the SAR ADC performs the conversion as long as the SOF bit is asserted.

---

Table 40-1. SAR Analog Reference Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Switch States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>External Reference</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Internal Reference with External Capacitor</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Internal Reference without External Capacitor</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Vdda as Reference Voltage</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
high. So, the level sensitive mode is used for continuous conversion.

In the edge sensitive mode, the SAR performs a conversion on the edge and the bit is automatically reasserted low on the completion of the conversion (on the end of frame (EOF)). So, it has to be reasserted high for the next edge for the SAR ADC to start conversion. This mode helps in performing single sample conversions.

In case of hardware enabled SOF, the user can sync the conversion to a PWM frequency by configuring it in the edge mode.

The level or edge triggered function of the SOF signal is configured in the SARx_CSR0[1] register bit.

### 40.2.7 SAR ADC Output

The SAR ADC output includes:

- End of Frame (EOF) bit
- The output bits of user configured resolution
- An optional interrupt on EOF

The resolution can be configured to be 8, 10 or 12 bits in SARx_CSR2[7:6] register bits. Once a conversion is complete the End of Frame (EOF) bit is asserted high in SARx_CSR1[0] register bit. This bit is a clear on read sticky status bit and is cleared automatically on a data read. The conversion result is stored in the registers SARx_WRK0 and SARx_WRK1 register. The SARx_WRK1 register bits [3:0] stores the higher four bits [11:8] of the output. Coherency protection can be applied to the SAR output by setting SARx_CSR0[4] register bit. It ensures that a new output is written only when both the registers are read.

The EOF output can be used to generate interrupt to the CPU or DMA. The interrupt is enabled by setting the SARx_CSR1[1] register bit. The interrupt can be made edge/level interrupt by setting/clearing SARx_CSR1[2] register bit.

#### Table 40-2. SAR Connections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VP</th>
<th>Decode Table</th>
<th>VN</th>
<th>Connection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ABUSL[2]</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>VSSA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Hi-Z (N/C)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

PSoC 3, PSoC 5 Architecture TRM, Document No. 001-50235 Rev. *E 439
JTAG (4- or 5-wire) or Serial Wire Debugger (SWD) (2 wire) interfaces are used for programming and debug. The 1-wire Single Wire Viewer (SWV) can also be used for “printf” style debugging. By combining SWD and SWV, the designer can implement a full debugging interface with just three pins. Using these standard interfaces enables the designer to debug or program the PSoC® device with a variety of hardware solutions from Cypress or third-party vendors.

This section encompasses the following chapters:
- Test Controller chapter on page 443
- 8051 Debug on-Chip chapter on page 455
- Cortex-M3 Debug and Trace chapter on page 465
- Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473
The PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 architectures include a test controller used for the following purposes:

- Access to I/O pins for boundary scan testing.
- Access to the device memory and registers (via the PHUB) through either the PSoC 3 Debug on-Chip (DOC) module or the PSoC 5 Cortex-M3 Debug Access Port (DAP) for functional testing, device programming, and program debugging.

The test controller connects to off-chip devices via the Joint Test Action Group (JTAG) interface or the Serial Wire Debug (SWD) interface. These interfaces use I/O port pins; the exact number of pins depends on the type of interface used.

### 41.1 Features

The test controller has the following features:

- Supports JTAG or SWD interface to a debug host
- SWD interface available on either GPIO or USB pins
- Supports boundary scan in accordance with the JTAG IEEE Standard 1149.1-2001 “Test Access Port and Boundary-Scan Architecture”
- Supports additional JTAG instructions/registers beyond IEEE Standard 1149, for access to the rest of the device
- Interfaces to PSoC 3 or PSoC 5 debug modules for access to the rest of the device for program and debug operations

### 41.2 Block Diagram

In PSoC 3 architecture, the test controller translates JTAG instructions/registers or SWD accesses to register accesses in the Debug on-Chip (DOC) module. See Figure 41-1.

![Figure 41-1. PSoC 3 Test Controller Block Diagram](image-url)
In PSoC 5 architecture, under certain JTAG instructions, the JTAG or SWD signals are simply passed to the ARM Debug Access Port (DAP). See Figure 41-2.

**41.3 Background Information**

The following information is provided to familiarize the user with the JTAG interface and the IEEE 1149 specification.

**41.3.1 JTAG Interface**

In response to higher pin densities on ICs, the Joint Test Action Group (JTAG) proposed a method to test circuit boards by controlling the pins on the ICs (and reading their values) via a separate test interface. The solution, later formalized as IEEE Standard 1149.1-2001, is based on the concept of a serial shift register routed across all of the pins of the IC – hence the name “boundary scan.” The circuitry at each pin is supplemented with a multipurpose element called a boundary scan cell. In PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices, most GPIO and SIO port pins have a boundary scan cell associated with them (see GPIO and SIO block diagrams in the I/O System chapter on page 187).

The interface used to control the values in the boundary scan cells is called the Test Access Port (TAP) and is commonly known as the JTAG interface. It consists of three signals: (1) Test Data In (TDI), (2) Test Data Out (TDO), and (3) Test Mode Select (TMS). Also included is a clock signal (TCK) that clocks the other signals.

TDI, TMS, and TCK are all inputs to the device, and TDO is output from the device. This interface enables testing multiple ICs on a circuit board, in a daisy-chain fashion, as shown in Figure 41-3.

**Figure 41-3. JTAG Interface to Multiple ICs on a Circuit Board**
Within each device, the JTAG interface architecture is shown in Figure 41-4. Data at TDI is shifted in, through one of several available registers, and out to TDO.

Figure 41-4. JTAG Interface Architecture

The TMS signal controls a state machine in the TAP. The state machine controls which register (including the boundary scan path) is in the TDI-to-TDO shift path, as shown in Figure 41-5 on page 446.

The following terms apply:

- **ir** – the instruction register
- **dr** – one of the other registers (including the boundary scan path), as determined by the contents of the instruction register
- **capture** – transfer the contents of a dr to a shift register, to be shifted out on TDO (read the dr)
- **update** – transfer the contents of a shift register, shifted in from TDI, to a dr (write the dr)
The registers in the TAP are:

- **Instruction** – Typically 2 to 4 bits wide, holds the current instruction that defines which data register is placed in the TDI-to-TDO shift path.

- **Bypass** – 1 bit wide, directly connects TDI with TDO, causing the device to be bypassed for JTAG purposes.

- **ID** – 32 bits wide, used to read the JTAG manufacturer/part number ID of the device.

- **Boundary Scan Path (BSR)** – Width equals the number of I/O pins that have boundary scan cells, used to set or read the states of those I/O pins.

Other registers may be included in accordance with device manufacturer specifications.

The standard set of instructions (values that can be shifted into the instruction register), as specified in IEEE 1149, are:

- **EXTEST** – Causes TDI and TDO to be connected to the boundary scan path (BSR).

  The device is changed from its normal operating mode to a test mode. Then, the device's pin states can be sampled using the capture dr JTAG state, and new values can be applied to the pins of the device using the update dr state.

- **SAMPLE** – Causes TDI and TDO to be connected to the BSR, but the device is left in its normal operating mode during this instruction, the BSR can be read by the capture dr JTAG state, to take a sample of the functional data entering and leaving the device.
PRELOAD – Causes TDI and TDO to be connected to the BSR, but device is left in its normal operating mode. The instruction is used to preload test data into the BSR prior to loading an EXTEST instruction.

Optional, but commonly available, instructions are:

- **IDCODE** – Causes TDI and TDO to be connected to an IDCODE register.
- **INTEST** – Causes TDI and TDO to be connected to the BSR. While the EXTEST instruction allows access to the device pins, INTEST enables similar access to the core-logic signals of a device.


---

### 41.3.2 Serial Wire Debug Interface

The SWD interface was developed by ARM in response to the need for a debug interface that uses fewer pins than JTAG. Boundary scan is not available from the SWD interface. Only two signals are used – a bidirectional data signal (SWDIO) and a clock for the data signal (SWDCK).

Each data transfer consists of two or three phases:

- **Packet Request** – External host debugger issues a request to the device.
- **Acknowledge Response** – Device sends an acknowledge response to the host.
- **Data** – Present only when a packet request is followed by a valid (OK) acknowledge response – The data transfer is either:
  - Device to host, following a read request – RDATA
  - Host to device, following a write request – WDATA

Figure 41-6 shows a successful SWD write, and Figure 41-7 shows a successful SWD read.

![Figure 41-6. Successful SWD Write](image)

![Figure 41-7. Successful SWD Read](image)
In Figure 41-6 and Figure 41-7, the following sequence occurs:

1. The start bit initiates a transfer; it is always logic ‘1’.
2. The APnDP bit determines whether the transfer is an Access Port access, ‘1’, or a Debug Port access, ‘0’.
3. The next bit is RnW, which is ‘1’ for a read from the device or ‘0’ for a write to the device.
4. The ADDR bits are register select bits for the Access Port or Debug Port.
5. The Parity bit has the parity of APnDP, RnW, and ADDR. If the number of logical 1s in these bits is odd then Parity must be ‘1’, otherwise ‘0’.
   a. If the parity bit is not correct, the header is ignored; there is no ACK response.
   b. When the host detects that the header was ignored, it must wait for a complete read transfer time before attempting another transfer.
6. The Stop bit is always logic 0.
7. The Park bit is not driven by the host, the SWD interface on the device pulls the line high, and the device reads this bit as a logic ‘1’.
8. The ACK bits are the device-to-host response. Possible values are shown in Table 41-1.

The data phase includes a parity bit (odd parity, same as for the packet request phase). Also, there is a single-cycle turnaround time between the packet request and the ACK phases, as well as between the ACK and the data phases for write transfers.

Table 41-1. SWD Possible ACK Bit Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACK Code [2:0]</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>001</td>
<td>OK – header acknowledged, data transfer follows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td>WAIT – previous transfer still being processed, host should retry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>FAULT – a fault flag is set in the Debug Port control/status register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The SWD interface can be reset by clocking 50 or more cycles with SWDIO high. To go back to the idle state SWDIO must be clocked low once.


## 41.4 How It Works on PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 Devices

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 JTAG and SWD interfaces comply with standard specifications and offer extensions unique to PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architectures.

### 41.4.1 Clocking

The clock signal (TCK) for JTAG mode and the data signal clock (SWDCK) for SWD interface share the same I/O pin (P1[1]). (An alternate SWDCK can be input on the USB Dpin, P15[7].) Clocking limits apply to both clocks in either mode. The frequency of the clock must be between 1 MHz and CPU_CLK/3 or 25 MHz, whichever is less.

### 41.4.2 PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 JTAG Instructions

The PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 JTAG interface complies with the IEEE 1149.1-2001 specification, and provides additional instructions. The instruction register is 4 bits wide. Instructions are listed in Table 41-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bit Code</th>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>PSoC 3, PSoC 5 Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1111</td>
<td>BYPASS</td>
<td>See IEEE 1149.1-2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1110</td>
<td>IDCODE</td>
<td>See IEEE 1149.1-2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0010</td>
<td>SAMPLE / PRELOAD</td>
<td>See IEEE 1149.1-2001. SAMPLE and PRELOAD share the same bit code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0000</td>
<td>EXTEST</td>
<td>See IEEE 1149.1-2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0100</td>
<td>INTTEST</td>
<td>Same as EXTEST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0101</td>
<td>CLAMP</td>
<td>Connects TDI and TDO to the BYPASS register, and sets the pins to the current contents of the boundary scan register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1010</td>
<td>DPACC</td>
<td>Connects TDI and TDO to the DP/AP Access register, for accesses to the Debug Port registers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1011</td>
<td>APACC</td>
<td>Connects TDI and TDO to the DP/AP Access register, for accesses to the Access Port registers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>ABORT</td>
<td>PSoC 5 devices only – aborts the current AP access instruction. Connects TDI and TDO to the DP/AP Access register.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100</td>
<td>SLEEP</td>
<td>Notifies the PSoC 3, PSoC 5 power manager that it may power down the Test Controller (TC) if necessary. If this instruction is not set then the TC cannot be put to sleep.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
41.4.3 DP/AP Access Register

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 architecture has a DP/AP Access register that is 35 bits wide. This register is used to transfer data between the JTAG or SWD interface and the Debug Port and Access Port registers. The SWD interface enables direct reads and writes of the DP/AP Access register; the JTAG interface uses the DPACC and APACC instructions.

In the JTAG update dr state, or when writing the register from the SWD interface, the structure is as shown in the following figure.

Figure 41-8. Writing the Register

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\end{array}
\]

- **Bits 34 to 3** – 32 bits of data – If the Port register is less than 32 bits wide, only the N LS bits are transferred, where N is the width of the Port register.
- **Bits 2 to 1** – 2-bit address for Debug or Access Port register select – In PSoC 5 devices, it is transferred to bits [3:2] of the register select; bits [1:0] are 0.
- **Bit 0 – RnW** – 1 = read (from device to debug host); 0 = write (to device from debug host)

In the JTAG capture dr state, or when reading the register from the SWD interface, the structure is as shown in the following figure.

Figure 41-9. Reading the Register

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
34 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & \text{ReadResult}[34:3] & \text{ACK}[2:0] \\
\end{array}
\]

- **Bits 34 to 3** – 32 bits of data – If the Port register is less than 32 bits wide, only the N LS bits are transferred, where N is the width of the port register.
- **Bits 2 to 0** – ACK response code – Depending on the interface, the ACK response is as indicated in Table 41-3.

Table 41-3. ACK Response for JTAG/SWD Transfers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACK[2:0]</th>
<th>JTAG</th>
<th>SWD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OK</td>
<td>010</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WAIT</td>
<td>001</td>
<td>010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41.4.4 JTAG/SWD Addresses (PSoC 3)

In the PSoC 3 architecture, the 2-bit address, transferred by either JTAG or SWD as described above, is used to access Debug Port, Access Port, and ID Code registers as shown in Table 41-4.

Table 41-4. JTAG/SWD Addresses (PSoC 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address</th>
<th>DPACC (APnDP = 0)</th>
<th>APACC (APnDP = 1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>IDCODE (SWD only)*</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>DBGPRT_CFG</td>
<td>TRNS_ADDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>DATA_RW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The SWD protocol is designed around direct access to the DP/AP Access register as described above. In addition, IDCODE can be read using the SWD interface with a packet request containing ADDR = 00, APnDP = 0, and RnW = 1. This feature is not available in JTAG because JTAG has an IDCODE instruction.
41.4.5 Debug Port and Access Port Registers (PSoC 3)

All of the registers listed in Table 41-5 are read/write, except for bit 7 of the DBGPRT_CFG register.

Table 41-5. Debug Port and Access Port Registers (PSoC 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Instruction (AP/DP)</th>
<th>Address (Register Select)</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DBGPRT_CFG</td>
<td>DPACC</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>8 bits</td>
<td>Debug Port configuration register – transfer size (8, 16, or 32 bits), auto-increment TRNS_ADDR, detect/clear write error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRNS_ADDR</td>
<td>APACC</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>24 bits</td>
<td>Transfer address (see the Memory Map chapter on page 141)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATA_RW</td>
<td>APACC</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32 bits</td>
<td>Data to be written to or read from the address in TRNS_ADDR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41.4.6 PSoC 3 Register Access Examples

The following directions show how to access an address in the 8051 xdata space, using either the JTAG or the SWD interface. Assume the address value to be 0xADD8E5.

1. To use JTAG to write the address value to the TRNS_ADDR register, the debug host must:
   a. Shift the APACC instruction into the Instruction register.
   b. Shift a 0 (write) followed by a 01 (Access Port register select) followed by a 0x00ADD8E5 (32-bit address), into the 35-bit DP/AP Access register. For each element, the LS bit is shifted first.
   c. Go to the JTAG update dr state.

2. To use SWD to write the address value to the TRNS_ADDR register, the debug host must:
   a. Send a packet request where APnDP = 1, RnW = 0, and ADDR = 01.
   b. Get an ACK response from the PSoC device.
   c. In the data phase, send 0x00ADD8E5.

3. To write a value 0xDA to address 0xADD8E5:
   a. Write 0x00ADD8E5 to the TRNS_ADDR register, as described above.
   b. Write 0x000000DA to the DATA_RW register, as described above except that the address is 11 instead of 01.
   c. The test controller initiates a write transfer request to the PSoC3 DOC.

4. To read from address 0xADD8E5:
   a. Write 0x00ADD8E5 to the TRNS_ADDR register, as described above.
   b. Read the DATA_RW register as described above except that the address is 11 instead of 01 and the RnW bit is 1 instead of 0.
   c. The test controller initiates a read transfer request to the PSoC 3 DOC; the data read from DATA_RW is invalid.
   d. Wait at least 5 TCK/SWDCK clock cycles, to avoid a WAIT response.
   e. Read the DATA_RW register again. The data is now valid.

Up to four sequential addresses can be written/read by setting the transfer size in DBGPRT_CFG. If the TRNS_ADDR auto-increment bit is set, sequential addresses can be written/read without updating TRNS_ADDR at each access.

To do this, invoke the DPACC instruction through either JTAG or SWD. And then access the appropriate Debug Port configuration registers.

For PSoC 3 there is only one Debug Port configuration register, DBGPRT_CFG. Bits [2:1] determine if the transfer size is 8, 16 or 31 bits. Bit [3] enables the auto address increment functionality. For 8-bit increment write 2'b00 to Bits [2:1], for 16 bit increment write 2'b01 to Bits [2:1], and for 32 bit increment write 2'b10 to Bits [2:1]. To enable auto increment write a 1'b1 to Bit [3].

41.4.7 Debug Port and Access Port Registers (PSoC 5)

The registers listed in Table 41-6 on page 451 are part of the ARM Cortex-M3 Debug Access Port (DAP). In the PSoC 5 Cortex-M3, the DAP consists of the SWD/JTAG Debug Port (SWJ-DP) and the AHB Access Port (AHB-AP).

For further information on these ports and their registers, see the ARM Debug Interface Architecture Specification (for the SWJ-DP), and the ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference
41.5 Boundary Scan Pin Order

For the 100-pin TQFP device, the PSoC 3, PSoC 5 boundary scan path (BSR) is connected to the I/O pins around the part from TDI (P1[4]) through TDO (P1[3]), in the order shown in the following table.

Table 41-7. Boundary Scan Pin Order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>BSR#</th>
<th>Pin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Similar boundary scan paths exist on the 68-pin QFN and 48-pin SSOP parts.
41.6 Test Controller Interface Pins

Two NV latch bits determine the state of the JTAG/SWD interface pins at reset. The settings of the bits are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CNVL_DPS[1:0]</th>
<th>Port Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00 (default)</td>
<td>5 – Wire JTAG (nTRST is included)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>4 – Wire JTAG (nTRST is not used)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Serial Wire Debug (SWD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Debug Port Disabled (GPIO)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, PSoC 3 architecture contains a Single Wire Viewer (SWV) module, whose interface consists of a single output signal SWV. The test controller routes SWV to the JTAG/SWD pins; SWV shares a pin with the JTAG TDO signal. When the pins are configured for SWD mode then SWV is also routed to the TDO/SWV pin. For further details on the SWV, see the 8051 Debug on-Chip chapter on page 455.

41.7 Test Controller Acquisition

If the debug port is disabled, the only way to gain debug access to the part is to enter a valid port acquire key within a key window period of 8 µs after reset (8 µs is only the initial window, it extends to 400 µs if 8 clocks are sampled in 8 µs). The port acquire key must be transmitted over one of the two SWD pin pairs, as indicated in the following table.

Table 41-9. SWD Pin Pairs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SWD Pin Pair</th>
<th>SWDIO</th>
<th>SWDCK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>P1[0]</td>
<td>P1[1]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The SWD packet request phase consists of:
- APnDP = 0
- RnW = 0
- ADDR = 11
- WDATA = 0x7B0C06DB with WDATA Parity = 0

The SWD frame should be transmitted at least twice, ignoring the ACK on the first transmit; it should be transmitted until the ACK response is OK. The SWD interface will be in the idle state, ready for the next write. The debug host can then either continue using the SWD interface or switch to the JTAG interface.

41.7.1 Changing Interface from SWD to JTAG

This can be done only if the port was acquired using the standard SWD pin pair. To switch to JTAG, clock in 50 cycles with SWDIO = 1 then clock in 0xE73C (LS bit first) on SWDIO. The test controller will then be configured for 4-wire JTAG, and the TAP will be in the JTAG test logic reset state.

41.7.2 Changing Interface from JTAG to SWD

Clock in 50 cycles with TMS = 1, then clock in 0xE79E (LS bit first) on TMS. The test controller will then be configured for SWD in the reset state.

At power on reset, the PSoC 5 ARM Cortex-M3 DAP starts up in JTAG mode. For details on how to switch the DAP between the JTAG and SWD modes, see the ARM CoreSight™ Component Technical Reference Manual available at http://www.arm.com.

41.7.3 Boundary Scan

To perform a boundary scan:
1. At reset, assume that the pins state is unknown.
2. Do a port acquire within the key window, which enables the SWD interface.
3. Shift to the JTAG interface.
4. Start doing boundary scan operations.

41.7.4 Functional Test

To perform a functional test:
1. At reset, assume that the pins state is unknown.
2. Do a port acquire within the key window, which enables the SWD interface.
3. Use the SWD interface or, if desired, shift to the JTAG interface.
4. Start writing or reading PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices to or from registers and memory for functional tests.

41.7.5 Programming Flash/EEPROM

To program Flash or EEPROM:
1. At reset, assume that the pins state is unknown.
2. Do a port acquire within the key window, which enables the SWD interface.
3. Use the SWD interface or if desired shift to the JTAG interface.
4. Start writing or reading PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 SPC registers to program Flash/EEPROM. Refer to the Nonvolatile Memory Programming chapter on page 473 for details.
41.7.6 Program Debug/Trace

To perform a debug or trace:

1. At any time during normal operation, use the SWD or JTAG interface as set up by the NV latch bits.
2. Start writing or reading to or from PSoC 3 DOC or PSoC 5 Cortex-M3 DAP debug module registers to do program debug/trace operations.

In PSoC 3, the test controller can access the DOC only when the DOC is enabled. This is done under program control by setting the DEBUG_ENABLE bit in the MLOGIC_DBG_DBE[0] register. The bit is 0 at reset.
42. 8051 Debug on-Chip

PSoc® 3 debug modules consist of the Debug on-Chip (DOC) and the Single Wire Viewer (SWV). The DOC interfaces between the CPU and the Test Controller (TC). It is used to debug and trace code execution and to troubleshoot device configuration. The DoC exists only on the 8051-based PSoC 3, CY8C38 family. The ARM Cortex-M3-based PSoC® 5 CY8C55 family uses ARM's CoreSight components for debug and trace. For details see the Cortex™-M3 Microcontroller chapter on page 67.

The SWV module allows target resident code to communicate diagnostic information to the outside world through a single pin. Usage examples include data monitoring, viewing OS task switches, printf debugging, and call graph profiling.

42.1 Features

The DOC is capable of taking over the 8051 CPU and using its PHUB interface to access any address accessible by the CPU. It provides the following features:

- TC interface for access via either JTAG or SWD
- Access of CPU internal memory and SFRs, and the Program Counter (PC) (see the 8051 Core chapter on page 37)
- CPU halt
- CPU single step through instructions
- 8 program address breakpoints
- 1 memory access breakpoint
- Watchdog trigger breakpoint
- Breakpoint chaining
- Trace CPU instruction execution:
  - Trace CPU program counter (PC), accumulator (ACC), and one byte from CPU internal memory or SFR
  - 2048 instruction trace buffer if tracing PC only
  - 1024 instruction trace buffer if tracing PC, ACC, and a memory/SFR byte
  - Continuous, triggered, or windowed mode
  - On trace buffer full, either CPU halt or overwrite oldest trace
  - When not tracing, trace buffer is available as normal SRAM

The SWV has the following features:

- 32 stimulus port registers
- Simple, efficient packing and serializing protocol
- Two pin output modes, UART or Manchester encoding
42.2 Block Diagram

In PSoC 3 devices, the TC translates JTAG instructions and registers or SWD accesses to register accesses in the Debug on-Chip (DOC). SWV data is output through the TC onto a single pin SWV. The SWV pin is shared with the JTAG TDO signal. Figure 42-1 shows a block diagram of the relationship among the TC, DOC, CPU, and SWV. (See the Test Controller chapter on page 443.)

![Figure 42-1. TC, DOC, CPU, and SWV](image)

The DOC module interfaces between the CPU and the TC, as shown in Figure 42-2. The memory interface is used for system reads and writes through the CPU.

![Figure 42-2. DOC, CPU, and TC Block Diagram](image)
42.3 How it Works

DOC functions are controlled by accessing a series of registers within the DOC. The DOC registers are accessible only through the TC interface; they are not accessible through the PHUB.

42.3.1 Enabling and Activating

Before any DOC operations can be done, debugging must be enabled by the CPU. Bit 0, debug_enable, in the MLOGIC_DEBUG register, is used by the CPU to enable or disable debug, as shown in Table 42-1.

Table 42-1. MLOGIC_DEBUG, debug_enable, Bit 0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Enable debug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>Disable debug</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, the DOC module must be activated by the TC interface. Bit 0, DBG_ACT, of the debug control register, DOC_DBG_CTRL, is used by the TC to activate or deactivate debug, as shown in Table 42-2.

Table 42-2. DOC_DBG_CTRL, DBG_ACT, Bit 0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Activate debug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>Deactivate debug</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Setting the DBG_ACT bit also pauses the Central Time-wheel (CTW). This makes certain that CTW interrupts or Watchdog Resets (WDR) do not occur while the CPU is paused. Every write to the debug control register, DOC_DBG_CTRL, must contain in bits [7:4] the debug key value 0b1011, otherwise the write is ignored.

42.3.2 Halting, Stepping

Bit 1, HALT, of the debug control register, DOC_DBG_CTRL, controls CPU halt, as shown in Table 42-3.

Table 42-3. DOC_DBG_CTRL, HALT, Bit 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Halt the CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>Un-halt the CPU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bit 2, STEP, of the debug control register, DOC_DBG_CTRL, is used to control CPU stepping, as shown in Table 42-4.

Table 42-4. DOC_DBG_CTRL, STEP, Bit 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Single-step the CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>No effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After writing a 1 to this bit, the CPU executes one instruction then halts. The STEP bit is reset to 0. The following applies:

- The HALT bit must be set to 1 to write the STEP bit.
- The debug enable and the debug activate bits must both be set to 1 to write the HALT or STEP bit.
- Every write to the debug control register, DOC_DBG_CTRL, must contain in bits [7:4] the debug key value 0b1011, otherwise the write is ignored.

42.3.3 Accessing PSoC Memory And Registers

The TC receives debug commands via JTAG or SWD, and passes them to the DOC. Based on the received address, either the TC or DOC registers are accessed, or the address and data are passed on to the DOC memory interface. The DOC has multiple memory interfaces; it decodes the incoming address and sends it to the correct memory interface address output. When the memory access is complete, the DOC signals the TC either that the write is complete or that data from a read command is available.

TC commands specify the data size as 8, 16, or 32 bits wide; along with the address and data, the data size is passed to the DOC memory interface. All accesses to the TC and DOC registers are 32 bits wide; the data size setting does not apply.

The DOC memory interface is used for system reads and writes through the CPU. The DOC memory interface takes over the CPU memory interfaces, allowing the DOC to perform reads and writes to memory as if the request were coming from the CPU. There are four memory interfaces: Flash, CPU internal memory, CPU SFRs, and CPU external memory/registers. There is also a CPU Program Counter (PC) interface. The interface chosen for a read or write transaction depends on the address. See the following table.

Table 42-5. PSoC Memory and Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Address Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x050000 – 0x0500FF</td>
<td>CPU internal memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x05014E – 0x05014F</td>
<td>CPU PC (16-bit register)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x050180 – 0x0501FF</td>
<td>CPU SFR space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x050200 – 0x05FFFF</td>
<td>TC and DOC registers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all other addresses</td>
<td>CPU external memory/registers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The CPU must be halted before reading or writing the PC.
42.3.4 Breakpoints

The PSoC 3 DOC has eight program address breakpoints, one memory access breakpoint, and a watchdog trigger breakpoint. These breakpoints are used to halt the CPU at specified events in the execution of the program.

42.3.4.1 Program Address Breakpoints

The program address breakpoints use the eight registers DOC_PA_BKPT0 through DOC_PA_BKPT7. To set a program address breakpoint, write the address compare value to bits [15:0] and set the breakpoint enable in bit 16. When the CPU Program Counter (PC) matches the compare value on an instruction fetch, the CPU is halted.

Since the PC address is compared, the memory access breakpoint is also able to act as a program access breakpoint.

Before the CPU is unhalted, the breakpoint enable bit must be reset to '0'.

42.3.4.2 Memory Access Breakpoint

To set the memory access breakpoint, use the DOC_MEM_BKPT register. Write the address compare value to bits [23:0], and write one of the following to the configuration bits [25:24]: See Table 42-6.

The compare address value is compared with all CPU addresses — PC, internal memory, SFRs, and external memory. When any of those addresses matches the compare value and the read or write access matches the configuration bits, the CPU is halted. Note that since the PC address is compared, the memory access breakpoint can also act as a program access breakpoint.

Before the CPU is unhalted, the configuration bits must be reset to disabled, 00.

42.3.4.3 Watchdog Trigger Breakpoint

If the Watchdog is triggered during debug mode, Watchdog Reset (WRES) can be used as a breakpoint to halt the CPU instead of resetting the system. Bit 10, WDRBKPT, of the breakpoint configuration register DOC_BKPT_CFG, is used to enable or disable this feature. See Table 42-7.

When enabled with the Watchdog triggered, the DoC halts the CPU. When the CPU is unhalted, WRES is asserted to the system.

The BKPT_CFG register also contains a bit Watchdog Reset Triggered (bit 11, WDR_TRG). This is a read-only bit that can be used to determine if the CPU was halted because a WDR occurred. The bit is set to 1 if the CPU was halted due to WDR, otherwise it is read as a 0.

42.3.4.4 Breakpoint Chaining

Breakpoint chaining is used to halt the CPU after a series of breakpoints occur. Besides the memory access breakpoint, all program address breakpoints can be chained.

To set up breakpoint chaining, do the following:
1. Set all of the required compare values in registers DOC_PA_BKPT0 – DOC_PA_BKPT7, and DOC_MEM_BKPT.
2. Set the memory access read/write configuration bits in DOC_MEM_BKPT.
3. Do not set the breakpoint enable bits in DOC_PA_BKPT0 – DOC_PA_BKPT7.
4. After the compare values are set, set the breakpoint chain enable bit, BC_ENA, in DOC_BKPT_CFG[0], to 1.
5. Set the chain include bits in DOC_BKPT_CFG to 1 for each breakpoint included in the chain. There is one bit for each breakpoint, as shown in Table 42-8.

Table 42-6. DOC_MEM_BKPT, Configuration Bits [25:24]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00 (default)</td>
<td>Memory breakpoint disabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Break on read only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Break on write only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Break on read or write</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chain include bits cannot be set unless BC_ENA is set to 1.
The breakpoints are chained in numeric order; a lower numbered breakpoint must occur before a higher numbered breakpoint. For example, PA_BKPT5 cannot be set as the trigger for PA_BKPT3. When the last breakpoint in the chain is triggered, the CPU is halted.

When breakpoint chaining is enabled, breakpoints not in the chain can still be enabled; the CPU can be halted either on an individual breakpoint or on a chain of breakpoints.

The register DOC_BKPTCS is used to determine the breakpoints in the chain that have or have not yet triggered. There is one bit for each breakpoint. See Table 42-9.

If a bit is set to 1, that breakpoint is part of the chain and has not yet triggered. If all bits are set to 0 and breakpoint chaining is enabled, then all breakpoints in the chain have triggered, and the CPU is halted.

Before the CPU is unhalted, the breakpoint chain enable bit, BC_ENA, must be reset to 0.

### 42.3.5 CPU Reset

The CPU can be held in a reset state by setting the bit RST, in DOC_CPU_RST[0]. This setting has no effect on overall system resets.

### 42.3.6 Tracing Program Execution

When CPU program tracing is enabled, as each CPU instruction is executed, copies of various CPU registers are written to a trace buffer. This operation is done in real time; neither CPU nor system speed is affected. The trace buffer can be examined to review program execution history.

The trace buffer size is 4096 bytes. If tracing is not being done, the trace buffer can be used as an additional 4K of SRAM, operating in the same manner as the rest of SRAM.

To enable tracing, set the trace control bits, TRC_CNTRL, in DOC_TRC_CFG[1:0]. See Table 42-10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00 (default)</td>
<td>Trace disabled – trace buffer is available for use as SRAM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Trace in Continuous mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Trace in Trigger mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Trace in Window mode</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following applies:

- In Continuous mode, trace runs constantly until the CPU is halted.
- In Trigger mode, trace starts running when the CPU PC equals the compare value in breakpoint register #6, DOC_PA_BKPT6. The breakpoint enable bit in this register need not be set. Trace then runs constantly until the CPU is halted.
- In Window mode, trace starts running when the CPU PC equals the compare value in breakpoint register #6, DOC_PA_BKPT6. Trace then runs constantly until the PC equals the compare value in breakpoint register #7, DOC_PA_BKPT7 or until the CPU is halted. The breakpoint enable bits in these registers need not be set. Trace restarts if the PC equals breakpoint register #6 again. If both breakpoint registers have the same value, no tracing is done.

The CPU registers written to the trace buffer are controlled by bit 2, TRC_FLTR, in DOC_TRC_CFG[2]. See Table 43-11.

The address of the internal memory/SFR byte is set in the TRC_PMEM bits of register DOC_TRC_CFG[15:8]. Values 0x00 – 0x7F address the lower 128 bytes of CPU internal memory. Values 0x80 – 0xFF address the CPU SFRs.
The registers are written to the trace buffer after the instruction is executed; the values shown in Table 42-12 are saved.

Table 42-12. Saved Values in the Trace Buffer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Value Written to Trace Buffer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>Address (in flash) of the first byte of the instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>Value after instruction execution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal memory/SFR byte</td>
<td>Value after instruction execution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, if the instruction is POP 0xE0 (0xE0 is the SFR address of ACC), and TRC_PMEM = 0x81 (the SFR address of SP), then, in addition to the address of the instruction, the trace contains the value popped from the stack and the new value of the stack pointer.

When tracing in trigger point or windowed mode, the internal memory/SFR byte must be initialized before tracing can begin. This is done as follows:

1. Load TRC_PMEM bits with the byte address.
2. Write a value to the memory/SFR at that address. If the value cannot be changed, read it first, then write the read value back to the address.
3. Set the TRC_CNTRL bits to enable tracing.

The CPU can be halted when the trace buffer is full. This is controlled by the bit TRC_FULL, in DOC_TRC_CFG[3]. See Table 42-13.

Table 42-13. DOC_TRC_CFG, TRC_FULL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 (default)</td>
<td>Don't halt CPU, oldest trace is overwritten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Halt CPU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the CPU is unhalted, tracing may restart. Because the CPU is halted when the buffer is full, tracing always restarts at the beginning of the buffer.

In Overwrite mode, the overwrite address is not available; therefore, when the trace buffer is examined, it is impossible to tell which trace is the oldest.

42.3.6.1 Reading Traces

The trace buffer memory is located in the CPU external memory space at address 0x002000; in a part with 8K SRAM the trace buffer is contiguous to SRAM.

Writes to this memory are done either by the DOC in trace mode or through the PHUB (by the CPU or DMAC). All reads from the memory are done through the PHUB. See Figure 42-3.

At anytime, an external debug system can read the trace data via the JTAG/SWD interface, TC, DOC, CPU, and PHUB.

42.3.6.2 Trace Time Stamp

Two registers are included in the DOC for time stamping (counting the number of cycles in a trace window), as shown in Table 42-14. The registers can be used only in trace Window mode. Both registers are 32 bits wide.

Table 42-14. DOC Time Stamping Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ENTR_TS</td>
<td>Number of clock cycles from when the trace is enabled and CPU started and the trace window is enabled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXIT_TS</td>
<td>Number of clock cycles from when the trace is enabled and CPU started to the exit point of the trace window</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
42.3.7 DOC Registers

The DOC registers are accessible only through the TC interface; they are not accessible through the PHUB. Table 42-15 shows these registers.

Table 42-15. DOC Registers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Size (Bits)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DOC_DBG_CTRL</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Debug control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_PA_BKPTx</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Program address breakpoint 0 to 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_MEM_BKPT</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Memory access breakpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_BKPT_CFG</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Breakpoint configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_BKPTCS</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Breakpoint chain status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_TRC_CFG</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Trace configuration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_PC</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>CPU Program Counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_CPU_RST</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>CPU reset control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_ENTR_TS</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Entry time stamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC_EXIT_TS</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Exit time stamp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

42.4 Serial Wire Viewer

In addition to the DOC, the PSoC3 CY8C38 family includes a Serial Wire Viewer (SWV) module. The SWV allows target resident code to communicate diagnostic information to the outside world through a single pin. Usage examples include data monitoring, viewing OS task switches, printf debugging, and call graph profiling.

SWV data is output through the TC onto a single pin SWV. The SWV pin is shared with the JTAG TDI signal and GPIO pin P1[3]. To connect the pin to SWV, set to SWD mode the NV latch bits that determine the state of the JTAG/SWD interface pins at reset. (See the Test Controller chapter on page 443.) SWV can be used simultaneously with SWD, but not with JTAG.

The SWV is composed of two CoreSight™ components produced by ARM (http://www.arm.com). The components are the Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) and the Serial Wire Output (SWO). Both components have multiple data, control and status registers. For details on these registers see the ARM document CoreSight™ Components Technical Reference Manual.

To control the bit rate of the output, use the Prescaler, in register SWV_SWO_CAOSD[12:0] (register CODR in the ARM document). The SWV is clocked by BUS_CLK, which must be divided down to the desired bit rate. The actual divisor is the value of the Prescaler plus one. The maximum frequency that can exist on any CY8C38 family port pin is 33 MHz.

To select an output protocol, use the Pin Protocol bits, in register SWV_SWO_SPP[1:0] (register SPPR in the ARM document). See Table 42-16.

Table 42-16. SWV_SWO_SPP[1:0], Pin Protocol Bits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01 (default)</td>
<td>Manchester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>UART</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Reserved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To output instrumentation trace data to the SWV pin, do the following:
1. Set the bit ITMEN, SWV_ITM_CR[0], which enables the module.
2. Set bits in the enable register, SWV_ITM_TER, corresponding to any of the 32 stimulus registers SWV_ITM_SPR_DATA[0..31] to be used.
3. Write the data to an enabled stimulus register SWV_ITM_SPR_DATA[0..31]. All stimulus registers are 32 bits in size; data written to a stimulus register is loaded into a FIFO to be transmitted as a 4-byte Software Instrumentation Trace (SWIT) packet.

Other types of packets may also be sent by the SWV under firmware program control, such as time stamps and synchronization packets. For details on these packets see the ARM document CoreSight™ Components Technical Reference Manual.

42.4.1 SWV Protocols

Both Manchester and UART protocols operate over a single pin (SWV) and do not require separate clock or control pins. Every data packet is in 8-bit multiples (bytes) when either protocol is selected.

For a trace capture device to correctly interpret trace data from SWV, it must be able to decode where data exists on the various pin protocols. This section describes how protocols must be decoded to establish the underlying transmit data.
42.4.1.1 Manchester Encoding

In the Manchester protocol, the SWV outputs up to eight bytes of data between a start bit and a stop bit, as shown in Figure 42-4. Table 42-17 describes Manchester pin protocol encoding.

![Manchester Encoded Data Sequence](image)

Table 42-17. Manchester Pin Protocol Encoding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Logic ‘0’</th>
<th>Logic ‘1’</th>
<th>Idle State (No Data)</th>
<th>Valid Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRACESWO</td>
<td>LOW-HIGH (01)</td>
<td>HIGH-LOW (10)</td>
<td>LOW (00)</td>
<td>Start bit: HIGH-LOW transition/Logic ‘1’ between 1 and 8 bytes of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stop bit: output LOW, not a valid Manchester symbol</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 42-5 shows how a sequence of bytes is transmitted using Manchester bit encoding.

![Manchester Encoding Example](image)

42.4.1.2 UART Encoding

In the UART protocol, data is sent out in packets of ten bits, with start and stop bits, as shown in Figure 42-6 and Table 42-18. Capture devices are expected to operate at the same clocking speed as the SWV pin and synchronize by waiting for a start bit.

![UART Encoding Example](image)

Table 42-18. UART Encoding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Logic ‘0’</th>
<th>Logic ‘1’</th>
<th>Idle State (No Data)</th>
<th>Valid Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRACESWO</td>
<td>LOW</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
<td>HIGH</td>
<td>10 bit sequence: Logic ‘0’ 8 data bits Logic ‘1’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 42.4.2 SWV Registers

SWV registers are as listed in Table 42-19.

**Table 42-19. SWV Registers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Size (Bits)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SWV_SWO_CAOSD</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Output speed divisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV_SWO_SPP</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Output protocol (Manchester or UART)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV_ITM_CR</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>ITM control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV_ITM_TER</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Enable for each of the stimulus ports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV_ITM_SPRxx</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Stimulus ports 0 to 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWV_ITM_SCR</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Synchronization packet control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
43. Cortex-M3 Debug and Trace

The PSoC® platform provides extensive support for programming, testing, debugging, and tracing both hardware and firmware. PSoC 5 supports four interfaces: JTAG, SWD, SWV, and TRACEPORT. Cortex-M3 debug and trace functionality enables full device debugging in the final system using the standard production device.

Cortex-M3 debugging features are classified into two types: invasive debugging and noninvasive debugging. Invasive debugging includes program halting and stepping, breakpoints, data watchpoints, register value access, and ROM-based debugging. Noninvasive debugging includes memory access, instruction trace, data trace, software trace, and profiling.

43.1 Features

- Debug access to all memory and registers in the system, including Cortex-M3 register bank when the core is running, halted, or held in reset.
- JTAG or SWD access.
- Flash Patch and Breakpoint (FPB) block for implementing breakpoints and code patches.
- Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) block for implementing watchpoints, trigger resources, and system profiling.
- Embedded Trace Macrocell (ETM) for instruction trace.
- Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) for support of printf style debugging.
- Support for six breakpoints and four watchpoints.
- Trace Port Interface Unit (TPIU) for bridging to a Trace Port Analyzer (TPA).
Debug control and data access occurs through the Advanced High-performance Bus-Access Port (AHB-AP) interface. This interface is driven by either the Serial Wire Debug Port (SW-DP) or Serial Wire JTAG Debug Port (SWJ-DP) components.

Through internal PPB, the debugger can access:
- Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller (NVIC). Debug access to the processor core is made through the NVIC.
- DWT
- FPB
- ITM

Through external PPB, the debugger can access:
- ETM
- Trace Port Interface Unit (TPIU)

Through the DCODE bus, the debugger can access memory located in the code space. The system bus provides access to bus, memory, and peripherals located in the system bus space.

43.2 How It Works

The PSoC 5 JTAG and SWD interfaces comply with standard specifications and offer extensions unique to PSoC 5 architecture.

43.2.1 Test Controller (TC)

The Test Controller is used for the following purposes:
- Access to I/O pins for boundary scan testing.
- Access to the device memory and registers (via the PHUB) through PSoC 5 Cortex-M3 Debug Access Port (DAP) for functional testing, device programming, and program debugging.

The Test Controller's Debug on-Chip (DoC) differs between PSoC 5 and PSoC 3 architectures. This is because the IP
provided by the ARM contains debug functionality that is accessed through the ARM’s Debug Access Port (DAP). Therefore, the Test Controller samples the JTAG/SWD input signals and then outputs the same JTAG/SWD signals to the DAP.

Figure 43-2. PSoC 5 Test Controller interface

In PSoC 5 devices, under certain JTAG instructions, the JTAG or SWD signals are simply passed to the ARM Debug Access Port. For more details refer to the Test Controller chapter on page 443.

43.2.2 PSoC 5 JTAG Instructions

The PSoC 5 JTAG interface complies with the IEEE 1149.1-2001 specification, and provides additional instructions. The instruction register is 4 bits wide. Instructions are listed in Table 41-2 on page 448.

43.2.2.1 Debug Port and Access Port Registers

The registers are part of the ARM Cortex-M3 Debug Access Port (DAP). In the PSoC 5 Cortex-M3, the DAP consists of the SWD/JTAG Debug Port (SWJ-DP) and the AHB Access Port (AHB-AP). The registers are listed in Table 41-6 on page 451.

For further information on these ports and their registers, see the ARM Debug Interface Architecture Specification (for the SWJ-DP), and the ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual (for the AHB-AP), both available at http://www.arm.com.

43.2.2.2 Test Controller Interface Pins

Two Nonvolatile (NV) latch bits determine the state of the JTAG/SWD interface pins at reset. The settings of the bits are shown in Table 41-8 on page 452.

The Single Wire Viewer (SWV) interface consists of a single output signal (TRACESWO) that shares a pin with the JTAG TDO signal. When the pins are configured for SWD mode, then SWV is also routed to the TDO/TRACESWO pin.

43.2.3 TRACEPORT

In PSoC 5 devices, the TRACEPORT pins are a part of the TPIU and are used to provide the trace output. The TRACEPORT has five pins and is used for the fast transmission of large trace streams.

43.3 Core Debug

Core debug allows users to exercise features such as enabling debug, halting, stepping, and accessing the PSoC memory and registers. Core debug is accessed through the core debug registers. The main core debug registers are:

- Debug Halting Control and Status Register (DHCSR)
- Debug Exception and Monitor Control Register (DEMCR)
- Debug Core Register Data Register (DCRDR)
- Debug Core Register Selector Register (DCRSR)

Among these the Debug Halting Control and Status Register allows enabling the core debug, providing status information about the state of the processor and halting and stepping the processor. More details regarding these registers can be found in the ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual, available at http://www.arm.com.

43.3.1 Enabling the Debug

The core debug can be enabled by setting the C_DEBUGEN bit of the Debug Halting Control and Status Register.

43.3.2 Halting

The debugger can halt the core by setting the C_DEBUGEN and C_HALT bits of the Debug Halting Control and Status Register. The core acknowledges when halted by setting the S_HALT bit of the Debug Halting Control and Status Register.

43.3.3 Stepping

The core can be single stepped by halting the core, setting the C_STEP bit to ‘1’, and then clearing the C_HALT bit to ‘0’. The core acknowledges completion of the step and rehalts by setting the S_HALT bit of the Debug Halting Control and Status Register.

The core can exit halting debug by clearing the C_DEBUGEN bit in the Debug Halting Control and Status Register.
43.3.4 Accessing PSoC Memory and Registers

The Debug Core Register Data Register (DCRDR) and Debug Core Register Selection Register (DCRSR) are used for accessing the PSoC memory and registers. The register and memory access are 32 bits wide.

To use the registers to read the contents of a register, the following steps should be performed:

1. Set the C_DEBUGEN and C_HALT bits of the Debug Halting Control and Status Register. This enables the debug and halts the core.
2. Wait for the S_HALT bit of the Debug Halting and Status Register to be set. This indicates that the core is halted.
3. Write to the DCRSR with bit 16 set to ‘0’, indicating it is a read operation.
4. Poll until the S_REGRDY bit in DHCSR is ‘1’.
5. Write the register number to be read into the Debug Core Register Selector Register.
6. Read the value from the Debug Core Register Data Register.

To write to a register, the following steps should be performed:

1. Make sure the processor is halted by following steps 1 and 2 mentioned above.
2. Write data value to the DCRDR.
3. Write to the DCRSR with bit 16 set to ‘1’, indicating it is a write operation.
4. Write the register number that you want to write to into the DCRSR.
5. Poll until the S_REGRDY bit in DHCSR is ‘1’. When the bit becomes ‘1’, the write operation is complete.

The Memory Access Port (MEM-AP) provides access to the memory through the DAP. All accesses to a MEM-AP are made through the MEM-AP registers. All registers are 32 bits wide. The important registers required for memory access include:

- Control/Status Word Register (CSW) – The CSW Register configures and controls accesses through the MEM-AP to or from a connected memory system.
- Transfer Address Register (TAR) – The TAR holds the memory address to be accessed.
- Data Read/Write Register (DRW) – The DRW holds a 32-bit data value. In write mode, the DRW holds the value to write for the current transfer to the address specified in TAR[31:0]. In read mode, the DRW holds the value read in the current transfer from the address specified in TAR[31:0].
- Configuration Register (CFG) – The CFG Register provides information about the configuration of the MEM-AP implementation. It indicates whether memory accesses by the MEM-AP are big-endian or little-endian.
- Debug Base Address Register (BASE) – The BASE Register provides an index into the connected memory-mapped resource. This index value points to one of the following, the start of a set of debug registers or a ROM table that describes the connected debug components.


43.4 System Debug

The processor contains several system debug components that facilitate low cost debug, trace and profiling, breakpoints, watchpoints and code patching.

The system debug components are:

- Flash Patch and Breakpoint (FPB) unit to implement breakpoints and code patches.
- Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) unit to implement watchpoints, trigger resources, and system profiling.
- Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) for application-driven trace source that supports printf style debugging.
- Embedded Trace Macrocell (ETM) for instruction trace. The processor is supported in versions with and without the ETM.

43.4.1 Flash Patch and Breakpoint (FPB) Unit

The main functions of the FPB are:

- Implement hardware breakpoint (generates a breakpoint event to the processor to invoke debug modes such as halt or debug monitor).
- Patch instruction or data from code memory space to SRAM.

The FPB unit contains:

- Two comparators for matching against literal loads from code space, and remapping to a corresponding area in system space.
- Six instruction comparators for matching against instruction fetches from code space, and remapping to a corresponding area in system memory space. Alternatively, it is possible to individually configure the comparators to return a Breakpoint Instruction (BKPT) to the processor core upon a match, providing hardware breakpoint capability.
The FPB has a flash patch control register that contains an enable bit to enable the FPB. In addition, each comparator comes with a separate enable bit in its comparator control register. Both of the enable bits must be set to ‘1’ for a comparator to operate. If the comparison for an entry matches, the address is remapped to the address set in the remap register plus an offset corresponding to the comparator that matched, or is remapped to a BKPT instruction, if that feature is enabled.

43.4.2 Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT)

The DWT has a number of debugging functionalities. It has four comparators, each of which can be configured as follows:

- Hardware watchpoint (generates a watchpoint event to processor to invoke debug modes such as halt or debug monitor)
- ETM trigger (causes the ETM to emit a trigger packet in the instruction trace stream)
- PC sampler event trigger
- Data address sampler trigger
- The first comparator can also be used to compare against the clock cycle counter instead of comparing to a data address

The DWT also has counters for counting:

- Clock cycles (CYCCNT)
- Folded Instructions: A folded instruction is one that does not incur even one cycle to execute
- Load Store Unit (LSU) Operations: LSU counts include all LSU costs after the initial cycle for the instruction
- Sleep cycles
- Cycles per instruction (CPI)
- Interrupt overhead
- PC sampling at regular intervals to count the number of core cycles
- Applications and debuggers can use the counter to measure elapsed execution time
- Interrupt events trace

When used as a hardware watchpoint or ETM trigger, the comparator can be programmed to compare either data addresses or program counters. Otherwise, it compares the data addresses.

43.4.3 Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM)

The ITM is a an application driven trace source that supports printf style debugging to trace Operating System (OS) and application events, then emit diagnostic system information. The ITM emits trace information as packets. There are three sources that can generate packets. If multiple sources generate packets at the same time, the ITM arbitrates the order in which packets are output. The three sources in decreasing order of priority are:

- Software Trace. Software can write directly to ITM stimulus registers. This emits packets.
- Hardware Trace. The DWT generates these packets, and the ITM emits them.
- Time Stamping. The ITM can generate timestamp packets that are inserted into a trace stream to help the debugger find out the timing of events. The ITM contains a 21-bit counter to generate the timestamp. The Cortex-M3 clock or the bit clock rate of the Serial Wire Viewer (SWV) output clocks the counter.

One of the main uses of the ITM is to support printf style debugging. The ITM contains 32 stimulus ports, allowing different software processes to output to different ports, and messages that can be separated later at the debug host. Each port can be enabled or disabled by the Trace Enable Register (SWV_ITM_TER) and can be programmed (in groups of eight ports) to allow or disallow user processes to write to it. The output messages can be collected at the trace port interface or the Serial Wire Viewer (SWV) on the TPIU.

The ITM is used in output of hardware trace packets. The packets are generated from the DWT and the ITM acts as a trace packet merging unit. To use DWT trace, you need to enable the DWTEn bit in the ITM Control Register (SWV_ITM_CR).

ITM has a timestamp feature that allows trace capture tools to find out timing information by inserting delta timestamp packets into the traces when a new trace packet enters the FIFO inside the ITM. The timestamp packet is also generated when the timestamp counter overflows.

The timestamp packets provide the time difference (delta) with previous events. Using the delta timestamp packets, the trace capture tools can then establish the timing of when each packet is generated and hence reconstruct the timing of various debug events.
43.4.4 Embedded Trace Macrocell (ETM)

The ETM is an optional debug component that enables reconstruction of program execution. The ETM is designed as a high speed, low power debug tool that only supports instruction trace. This ensures that area is minimized, and that gate count is reduced.

The Cortex-M3 system can perform low-bandwidth data tracing using the Data Watchpoint and Trace (DWT) and Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) components. To enable support of instruction trace with a low pin count, data trace is not included in the ETM. This considerably reduces gate count for the ETM because the triggering resources are simplified.

Because the ETM does not generate data trace information, the lower bandwidth reduces the requirement for complex triggering capabilities. This means that the ETM does not include the following: internal comparators, counters, and sequencers.

For more details on system debug components and registers, refer to the *Definitive Guide To ARM Cortex-M3* and *ARM Cortex-M3 Technical Reference Manual*, both available at [http://www.arm.com](http://www.arm.com).

43.5 Tracing Interface

The Trace Port Interface Unit (TPIU) consists of SWV and TRACEPORT, which provides trace output from the DWT, ETM, and ITM. TRACEPORT is faster but uses more pins. SWV is slower but uses only one pin. The SWV and TRACEPORT interfaces provide trace data to a debug host via the Cypress MiniProg3 or an external trace port analyzer. The 5-pin TRACEPORT is used for rapid transmission of large trace streams. The single pin SWV mode is used to minimize the number of trace pins. SWV is shared with a JTAG pin.

![Figure 43-3. TPIU Block Diagram](image)

The following functions are included in the TPIU:

- Asynchronous FIFO – The asynchronous FIFO enables trace data to be driven out at a speed that is not dependent on the speed of the core clock.
- Formatter – The formatter inserts source ID signals into the data packet stream so that trace data can be re-associated with its trace source.
- Trace Out – The trace out block serializes formatted data before it goes off-chip.
- ATB Interface – TPIU accepts trace data from the trace sources ETM or ITM.

- APB Interface – The APB interface is the programming interface for the TPIU.
- TRACECLKIN – Decoupled clock from ATB to enable easy control of the trace port speed. Typically this is derived from a controllable clock source on-chip. Data changes on the rising edge only.
- TRACEPORT – It includes TRACEDATA[3:0] and TRACECLK.
- TRACESWO – Trace output pin for SWV.
43.5.1 Single Wire Viewer (SWV)

Single Wire viewer (SWV) allows target resident code to communicate diagnostic information to the outside world through a single pin. The Serial Wire Viewer block is a combination of the Instrumentation Trace Macrocell (ITM) and the Serial Wire Output (SWO). ITM is a software application trace source.

The SWV's trace output (TRACESWO) is channeled through the Test Controller, so that the Test Controller can output the trace data over the TDO pin when SWD is enabled.

SWV can only be used when using the Serial Wire Debug (SWD) because its trace data is output over the same pin as JTAG's TDO.

43.5.1.1 Enabling SWV

The Trace Enable Register (SWV_ITM_TER) is used to enable the stimulus ports so that trace data can be written into the stimulus port registers. Each bit in the Trace Enable Register is set to enable the corresponding stimulus port register. Also, the ITM should be enabled using the global enable bit, ITMEn, in the Control Register (SWV_ITM_CR).

43.5.1.2 Communicating with SWV

Trace data is written into the stimulus port registers (SWV_ITM_SPR_DATA [0…31]). Each of the 32 stimulus ports has its own address. A write to one of these locations causes data to be written into the FIFO if the corresponding bit in the Trace Enable Register is set. Reading from any of the stimulus ports returns the FIFO status. A '0' is returned if the FIFO is full and a '0' is returned otherwise, only if the bit in the Trace Enable Register is set.

43.5.2 TRACEPORT

TRACEPORT is used for rapid transmission of large trace streams. There are five TRACEPORT pins: four data pins, TRACEDATA [3:0] and one clock pin, TRACECLK. TRACEPORT supports synchronous mode of operation while TRACESWO does not.

43.5.2.1 Enabling TRACEPORT

TRACEPORT mode can be enabled using the Select Pin Protocol Register (SWV_SWO_SPP). The format of the register is as shown in Figure 43-4.

As shown in Figure 43-4, TRACEPORT can be enabled by writing 2'h10 to the SPP[1:0] bits.
44. Nonvolatile Memory Programming

PSoC® 3 and PSoC® 5 devices have three types of nonvolatile memory: Flash, Electronically Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EEPROM), and Nonvolatile Latch (NVL). These can all be programmed by either the CPU running a boot loader program or by an external system via the JTAG/SWD interface.

44.1 Features

The nonvolatile memory programming system has the following features:

- Simple command/status register interface
- Flash can be programmed at the 288-byte row level
- Each row of Flash has 256 bytes of data plus an additional 32 bytes for ECC/configuration
- EEPROM can be programmed at the 16-byte row level
- All configuration NVL bytes can be programmed simultaneously
- A single write once NVL byte can be programmed

44.2 Block Diagram

Figure 44-1 is a block diagram of the Flash programming system.

![Flash Block Diagram](Figure 44-1). Flash Block Diagram
## 44.3 How It Works

All programming operations are done through a simple command/status register interface summarized in Table 44-1.

### 44.3.1 Commands

Before sending a command to the SPC_CPU_DATA or SPC_DMA_DATA register, the SPC_Idle bit in SPC_SR[1] must be ‘1’. SPC_Idle will go to ‘0’ when the first byte of a command (0xB6) is written to a data register, and go back to ‘1’ when command execution is complete or an error is detected. Commands sent to either data register while SPC_Idle is ‘0’ are ignored. All commands must adhere to the format shown below:

- Key byte #1 – always 0xB6
- Key byte #2 – 0xD3 plus the command code (ignore overflow)
- Command code byte
- Command parameter bytes
- Command data bytes

The command codes are shown in Table 44-2. See 44.3.1.1 Command Code Descriptions on page 475 for details.

### Table 44-1. Command and Status Register Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register</th>
<th>Size (Bits)</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPC_CPU_DATA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Data to/from the CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC_DMA_DATA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Data to/from the DMAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC_SR</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Status – ready, data available, status code</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 44-2. Command Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command Code</th>
<th>Command Name</th>
<th>Memory Type</th>
<th>Access</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00</td>
<td>Load byte</td>
<td>NVL</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Loads a single byte of data into the volatile latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x01</td>
<td>Load multi bytes</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Loads 1 to 32 bytes of data into the row latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x02</td>
<td>Load row</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Loads a row of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x03</td>
<td>Read byte</td>
<td>NVL</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Read a byte from NV memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x04</td>
<td>Read multi bytes</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>TC only</td>
<td>Reads 1 – 256 data bytes, does not cross row boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x05</td>
<td>Write row</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Erases then programs a row with data in row latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x06</td>
<td>Write NVL</td>
<td>NVL</td>
<td>TC only</td>
<td>Programs all of user NVL with data in the volatile latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x07</td>
<td>Program row</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Programs a row with data in row latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x08</td>
<td>Erase sector</td>
<td>Flash, EEPROM</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Erases a 64-row sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x09</td>
<td>Erase all</td>
<td>Flash</td>
<td>TC only</td>
<td>Erases all Flash, including ECC and row protection bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0B</td>
<td>Protect</td>
<td>Flash</td>
<td>TC only</td>
<td>Program Flash protection bits with data in row latch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0C</td>
<td>Get Checksum</td>
<td>Flash</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Computes 4 byte checksum for given memory locations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some commands are available only when the device is being controlled by an external system via the JTAG/SWD interface and the test controller (see the Test Controller chapter on page 443).

Some commands require an array ID as a parameter. Array ID codes are shown in Table 44-3.

Table 44-3. Array ID Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Array ID Code</th>
<th>Memory Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00 – 0x3E</td>
<td>Single Flash array</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0F</td>
<td>Single EEPROM array</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x80</td>
<td>User NVL array</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0xF8</td>
<td>Write Once NVL array</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Flash array has, at most, 64 KB plus ECC bytes. PSoC 3 architecture has one Flash array, the size of which is 16 KB, 32 KB, or 64 KB plus ECC bytes; therefore, the only valid array ID is 0x00. PSoC 5 architecture has one or more arrays, where each array is 64K plus ECC bytes. For example, if a PSoC 5 device has 256 KB Flash, there are four arrays, and the only valid array IDs are 0x00 – 0x03.

An EEPROM array has, at most, 2 KB. PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices have one EEPROM array, the size of which is 512 bytes, 1 KB, or 2 KB.

PSoC 3 and PSoC 5 devices have one user NVL array and one write once NVL array.

For commands operating on Flash or EEPROM, all array IDs within the number of Flash and EEPROM arrays are valid. If a non-existent array is selected, the array ID wraps. For example, if a device has two Flash arrays (IDs = 0 and 1) and a command is sent with array ID = 3 then the upper bits of the ID are truncated and so array ID 1 is selected.

Some commands require an address as a parameter. As with array IDs, any address is valid for a Flash or EEPROM array. Upper address bits are truncated to allow only addressing of valid locations. For example, if a device has 512 bytes EEPROM and address 0x202 (514) is passed as a parameter, the operation takes place on address 0x002.

Array IDs and addresses do not wrap for NVL accesses.

Some commands use the row latch size for Flash and EEPROM. Row latch sizes are shown in the following table.

Table 44-4. Row Latch Sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Array Type</th>
<th>Size (Bytes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flash, with ECC Enabled</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flash, with ECC Disabled</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EEPROM</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

44.3.1 Command Code Descriptions

The following are descriptions of the command codes listed in Table 44-2 on page 474.

■ Command 0x00 – Load Byte
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Address, Data
This command loads the given data byte into the volatile latch for the selected NVL array (in accordance with the array ID) at the given address. Only addresses within the selected NVL array are valid.

■ Command 0x01 – Load Multiple Bytes
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Start address high, Start address low, Number of bytes (N), Data0, …, DataN
This command loads N + 1 given data bytes into a row latch for Flash or EEPROM. N may range from 0 to 31 for Flash or 0 to 15 for EEPROM. The given start address + N must be less than the array row latch size. See Table 44-4.

■ Command 0x02 – Load Row
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Data0, …, Data(row latch size -1)
This command loads the given data bytes into a row latch for Flash or EEPROM. The number of data bytes expected equals the row latch size. See Table 44-4.

■ Command 0x03 – Read Byte
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Address
This command returns a data byte from the selected NVL array (per the array ID), at the given address. Only addresses within the selected NVL array are valid. Note that when this command is executed all of the data bytes are transferred from the nonvolatile cells to the volatile latch portion of the NVL.

■ Command 0x04 – Read Multiple Bytes
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Start address high, Start address mid, Start address low, Number of bytes (N)
This command returns N + 1 data bytes from Flash or EEPROM, starting at the given address. In Flash arrays, two address spaces exist – data and ECC/configuration. Bit 7 of the Address high parameter selects which of the two address spaces is addressed. If
the bit is 0 then the data space is selected, otherwise the ECC/configuration space is selected. For example, if the address is 0x80000B and N is 0x08, the command reads 9 ECC/configuration bytes starting at address 0x00000B.

The address plus N must not cross a row boundary – 256 for the Flash data space, 32 for the Flash ECC/configuration space, and 16 for EEPROM. Address wrapping applies; if the address is greater than the Flash or EEPROM size, the upper bits are then ignored. For example, 16 bits of address are needed to access the data space in a 64 KB Flash array, so the seven LS bits of the Address high parameter are ignored. Address 0x045A8B actually addresses 0x005A8B.

Similarly, 13 address bits are needed to access the 8 KB ECC/configuration space associated with a 64 KB Flash array, and 11 address bits are needed to access a 2 KB EEPROM. For example, for a 64 KB Flash array (which also has 8 KB ECC/configuration bytes), valid address ranges are:
- Data space – 0x000000 – 0x00FFFF (64 KB)
- ECC/configuration space – 0x800000 – 0x801FFF (8 KB)

■ Command 0x05 – Write Row
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Row ID high, Row ID low, Temperature sign, Temperature magnitude
This command erases the addressed Flash/EEPROM row and then programs it with the data in the row latch. If the row ID is greater than the array size (in rows), then the row ID wraps (the upper bits are ignored).

For Flash, data bytes and ECC/configuration bytes are both programmed. If ECC is enabled then the ECC syndrome bytes are automatically generated and loaded into the ECC/configuration bytes of the row latch before programming takes place.

The die temperature parameters can be acquired by sending the Get Temperature command (see the Temperature Sensor chapter on page 403).

■ Command 0x06 – Write User NVL
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID
This command writes all of the bytes in the volatile latch for the selected NVL array (per the array ID) to that NVL array. All Flash protection bits must be cleared (no Flash protection) or the command fails.

■ Command 0x07 – Program Row
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Row ID high, Row ID low
This command programs the addressed Flash/EEPROM row with the data in the row latch. If the row ID is greater than the array size (in rows), the row ID wraps (the upper bits are ignored).

The row must have been previously erased (commands 0x08 and 0x09).

For Flash, data bytes and ECC/configuration bytes are both programmed. If ECC is enabled, the ECC syndrome bytes are automatically generated and loaded into the ECC/configuration bytes of the row latch before programming takes place.

For devices with multiple Flash arrays, the All Flash array ID (0x3F) can be used with this command. This option causes each Flash array to have its addressed row programmed with its row latch contents simultaneously with the other arrays, reducing the overall Flash programming time.

■ Command 0x08 – Erase Sector
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Sector ID
This command erases a sector of Flash/EEPROM. A sector is a block of 64 contiguous rows that starts at a 64-row boundary. For Flash arrays, all associated ECC/configuration bytes are also erased. The sector ID wraps if it exceeds the number of sectors.

■ Command 0x09 – Erase All
Command Parameter Bytes – None
This command erases all Flash data and ECC/configuration bytes, all Flash protection rows, and all row latches in all Flash arrays on the device.

■ Command 0x0B – Protect
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Row Select
This command programs a Flash protection row with data in the Flash row latch (see 44.3.3 Flash Protection Settings on page 477). This command can be executed only if none of the protection bits are currently set – no Flash protection. Any bytes of the protection row that are marked as unused space are programmed with 0x00. This occurs regardless of what values are loaded into the row latches prior to sending this command.

The Row Select parameter is used for Flash arrays that have a row size less than 256 bytes. Because all Flash arrays have 256-byte rows, this parameter should always be 0x00.

When the Flash protection data is programmed, this command cannot be sent again until an Erase All command is sent first.

For devices with multiple Flash arrays, the All Flash array ID (0x3F) may be used with this command. This causes each Flash array to have its protection row programmed with its row latch contents, simultaneously with the other arrays, reducing the overall Flash programming time.

■ Command 0x0C – Get Checksum
Command Parameter Bytes – Array ID, Start row high, Start row low, Number of rows high, Number of rows low
This command computes a 4-byte checksum for the given number of Flash rows + 1, starting at the given
row. The checksum is computed by a running simple addition of all values in the rows. If ECC is disabled, the computation includes all data from the user space and the ECC / configuration space. If ECC is enabled, the computation includes only data from the user space.

If the array ID is All Flash, the checksum computed includes all Flash data on all Flash arrays on the device. The rest of the command parameters are ignored. The checksum value is returned MS byte first.

### 44.3.1.2 Command Failure Codes

In response to commands, a success/failure code is returned in the SPC_SR register: These codes are described in Table 44-5.

Table 44-5. Command Failure Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Success/Failure Code (Bits[7:2] in SPC_SR register)</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00</td>
<td>Command successfully executed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x01</td>
<td>Invalid array ID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x02</td>
<td>Invalid key</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x03</td>
<td>Array is asleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x04</td>
<td>External access failure: command must be sent via test controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x05</td>
<td>Invalid 'N' value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x07, 0x08</td>
<td>Program/Erase failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x09</td>
<td>Protection check failure: protection settings are in a state that prevents the command from executing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0A</td>
<td>Invalid address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0B</td>
<td>Invalid command code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0C</td>
<td>Invalid row ID</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 44.3.3 Flash Protection Settings

Each row of Flash has its own protection settings. For each Flash array, Flash protection bits are stored in a "hidden" row in that array. A hidden row is one that is not readable by the CPU, and contains no CPU program or data bytes. In the hidden row, two bits per Flash row are packed into a byte; therefore, each byte in the hidden row has protection settings for four Flash rows. As shown in Figure 44-2, the Flash rows are ordered so that the first two bits in the hidden row correspond to the protection settings of Flash row 0.

Protection is cumulative in that modes have successively higher protection levels and include the lower protection modes. The following table shows the protection modes.

Table 44-6. Protection Modes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Read&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>External Write&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Internal Write&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Unprotected</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Read Protect</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Disable External Write</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Disable Internal Write</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Read – Applies to Test Controller and Read Commands.  
<sup>b</sup> External Write – Test Controller/third-party programmers.  
<sup>c</sup> Internal Write – Boot loading or writes due to firmware execution.

When a read/write/erase operation is to be done for a row, the corresponding protection bits are checked. The command is executed only if allowed under the current protection mode. If the command is not allowed, the command then fails.

### 44.3.2 Register Summary

All programming operations are done through a simple command/status register interface, shown in Table 44-1 on page 474.

Figure 44-2. Flash Protection Bits

Byte 0 in Flash Hidden Row 0: Contains protection data for Flash rows 0 through 3.
The Glossary section explains the terminology used in this technical reference manual. Glossary terms are characterized in **bold, italic font** throughout the text of this manual.

### Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>accumulator</strong></td>
<td>In a CPU, a register in which intermediate results are stored. Without an accumulator, it would be necessary to write the result of each calculation (addition, subtraction, shift, and so on.) to main memory and read them back. Access to main memory is slower than access to the accumulator, which usually has direct paths to and from the arithmetic and logic unit (ALU).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **active high**           | 1. A logic signal having its asserted state as the logic 1 state.  
2. A logic signal having the logic 1 state as the higher voltage of the two states. |
| **active low**            | 1. A logic signal having its asserted state as the logic 0 state.  
2. A logic signal having its logic 1 state as the lower voltage of the two states: inverted logic. |
| **address**               | The label or number identifying the memory location (RAM, ROM, or register) where a unit of information is stored. |
| **algorithm**             | A procedure for solving a mathematical problem in a finite number of steps that frequently involve repetition of an operation. |
| **ambient temperature**   | The temperature of the air in a designated area, particularly the area surrounding the PSoC device. |
| **analog**                | See analog signals. |
| **analog blocks**         | The basic programmable opamp circuits. These are SC (switched capacitor) and CT (continuous time) blocks. These blocks can be interconnected to provide ADCs, DACs, multi-pole filters, gain stages, and much more. |
| **analog output**         | An output that is capable of driving any voltage between the supply rails, instead of just a logic 1 or logic 0. |
| **analog signals**        | A signal represented in a continuous form with respect to continuous times, as contrasted with a digital signal represented in a discrete (discontinuous) form in a sequence of time. |
| **analog-to-digital (ADC)** | A device that changes an analog signal to a digital signal of corresponding magnitude. Typically, an ADC converts a voltage to a digital number. The *digital-to-analog (DAC)* converter performs the reverse operation. |
Glossary

**AND**

See Boolean Algebra.

**API (Application Programming Interface)**

A series of software routines that comprise an interface between a computer application and lower-level services and functions (for example, user modules and libraries). APIs serve as building blocks for programmers that create software applications.

**array**

An array, also known as a vector or list, is one of the simplest data structures in computer programming. Arrays hold a fixed number of equally-sized data elements, generally of the same data type. Individual elements are accessed by index using a consecutive range of integers, as opposed to an associative array. Most high level programming languages have arrays as a built-in data type. Some arrays are multi-dimensional, meaning they are indexed by a fixed number of integers; for example, by a group of two integers. One- and two-dimensional arrays are the most common. Also, an array can be a group of capacitors or resistors connected in some common form.

**assembly**

A symbolic representation of the machine language of a specific processor. Assembly language is converted to machine code by an assembler. Usually, each line of assembly code produces one machine instruction, though the use of macros is common. Assembly languages are considered low level languages; whereas C is considered a high level language.

**asynchronous**

A signal whose data is acknowledged or acted upon immediately, irrespective of any clock signal.

**attenuation**

The decrease in intensity of a signal as a result of absorption of energy and of scattering out of the path to the detector, but not including the reduction due to geometric spreading. Attenuation is usually expressed in dB.

**B**

**bandgap reference**

A stable voltage reference design that matches the positive temperature coefficient of $V_T$ with the negative temperature coefficient of $V_{BE}$ to produce a zero temperature coefficient (ideally) reference.

**bandwidth**

1. The frequency range of a message or information processing system measured in hertz.
2. The width of the spectral region over which an amplifier (or absorber) has substantial gain (or loss); it is sometimes represented more specifically as, for example, full width at half maximum.

**bias**

1. A systematic deviation of a value from a reference value.
2. The amount by which the average of a set of values departs from a reference value.
3. The electrical, mechanical, magnetic, or other force (field) applied to a device to establish a reference level to operate the device.

**bias current**

The constant low level DC current that is used to produce a stable operation in amplifiers. This current can sometimes be changed to alter the bandwidth of an amplifier.
**binary**
The name for the base 2 numbering system. The most common numbering system is the base 10 numbering system. The base of a numbering system indicates the number of values that may exist for a particular positioning within a number for that system. For example, in base 2, binary, each position may have one of two values (0 or 1). In the base 10, decimal, numbering system, each position may have one of ten values (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9).

**bit**
A single digit of a binary number. Therefore, a bit may only have a value of '0' or '1'. A group of 8 bits is called a byte. Because the PSoC’s M8CP is an 8-bit microcontroller, the PSoC devices's native data chunk size is a byte.

**bit rate (BR)**
The number of bits occurring per unit of time in a bit stream, usually expressed in bits per second (bps).

**block**
1. A functional unit that performs a single function, such as an oscillator.
2. A functional unit that may be configured to perform one of several functions, such as a digital PSoC block or an analog PSoC block.

**Boolean Algebra**
In mathematics and computer science, Boolean algebras or Boolean lattices, are algebraic structures which "capture the essence" of the logical operations AND, OR and NOT as well as the set theoretic operations union, intersection, and complement. Boolean algebra also defines a set of theorems that describe how Boolean equations can be manipulated. For example, these theorems are used to simplify Boolean equations, which will reduce the number of logic elements needed to implement the equation.

The operators of Boolean algebra may be represented in various ways. Often they are simply written as AND, OR, and NOT. In describing circuits, NAND (NOT AND), NOR (NOT OR), XNOR (exclusive NOT OR), and XOR (exclusive OR) may also be used. Mathematicians often use + (for example, A+B) for OR and for AND (for example, A*B) (since in some ways those operations are analogous to addition and multiplication in other algebraic structures) and represent NOT by a line drawn above the expression being negated (for example, ¬A, A_, !A).

**break-before-make**
The elements involved go through a disconnected state entering ('break”) before the new connected state (“make”).

**broadcast net**
A signal that is routed throughout the microcontroller and is accessible by many blocks or systems.

**buffer**
1. A storage area for data that is used to compensate for a speed difference, when transferring data from one device to another. Usually refers to an area reserved for I/O operations, into which data is read, or from which data is written.
2. A portion of memory set aside to store data, often before it is sent to an external device or as it is received from an external device.
3. An amplifier used to lower the output impedance of a system.

**bus**
1. A named connection of nets. Bundling nets together in a bus makes it easier to route nets with similar routing patterns.
2. A set of signals performing a common function and carrying similar data. Typically represented using vector notation; for example, address[7:0].
3. One or more conductors that serve as a common connection for a group of related devices.

**byte**
A digital storage unit consisting of 8 bits.
Glossary

C

C A high level programming language.

capacitance A measure of the ability of two adjacent conductors, separated by an insulator, to hold a charge when a voltage differential is applied between them. Capacitance is measured in units of Farads.

capture To extract information automatically through the use of software or hardware, as opposed to hand-entering of data into a computer file.

chaining Connecting two or more 8-bit digital blocks to form 16-, 24-, and even 32-bit functions. Chaining allows certain signals such as Compare, Carry, Enable, Capture, and Gate to be produced from one block to another.

checksum The checksum of a set of data is generated by adding the value of each data word to a sum. The actual checksum can simply be the result sum or a value that must be added to the sum to generate a pre-determined value.

clear To force a bit/register to a value of logic '0'.

clock The device that generates a periodic signal with a fixed frequency and duty cycle. A clock is sometimes used to synchronize different logic blocks.

clock generator A circuit that is used to generate a clock signal.

CMOS The logic gates constructed using MOS transistors connected in a complementary manner. CMOS is an acronym for complementary metal-oxide semiconductor.

comparator An electronic circuit that produces an output voltage or current whenever two input levels simultaneously satisfy predetermined amplitude requirements.

compiler A program that translates a high level language, such as C, into machine language.

configuration In a computer system, an arrangement of functional units according to their nature, number, and chief characteristics. Configuration pertains to hardware, software, firmware, and documentation. The configuration will affect system performance.

configuration space In PSoC devices, the register space accessed when the XIO bit, in the CPU_F register, is set to '1'.

crowbar A type of over-voltage protection that rapidly places a low resistance shunt (typically an SCR) from the signal to one of the power supply rails, when the output voltage exceeds a predetermined value.

crystal oscillator An oscillator in which the frequency is controlled by a piezoelectric crystal. Typically a piezoelectric crystal is less sensitive to ambient temperature than other circuit components.

cyclic redundancy check (CRC) A calculation used to detect errors in data communications, typically performed using a linear feedback shift register. Similar calculations may be used for a variety of other purposes such as data compression.
### Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>data bus</strong></td>
<td>A bi-directional set of signals used by a computer to convey information from a memory location to the central processing unit and vice versa. More generally, a set of signals used to convey data between digital functions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>data stream</strong></td>
<td>A sequence of digitally encoded signals used to represent information in transmission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>data transmission</strong></td>
<td>The sending of data from one place to another by means of signals over a channel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>debugger</strong></td>
<td>A hardware and software system that allows the user to analyze the operation of the system under development. A debugger usually allows the developer to step through the firmware one step at a time, set break points, and analyze memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>dead band</strong></td>
<td>A period of time when neither of two or more signals are in their active state or in transition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>decimal</strong></td>
<td>A base-10 numbering system, which uses the symbols 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 (called digits) together with the decimal point and the sign symbols + (plus) and - (minus) to represent numbers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>default value</strong></td>
<td>Pertaining to the pre-defined initial, original, or specific setting, condition, value, or action a system will assume, use, or take in the absence of instructions from the user.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>device</strong></td>
<td>The device referred to in this manual is the PSoC device, unless otherwise specified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>die</strong></td>
<td>An unpackaged integrated circuit (IC), normally cut from a wafer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>digital</strong></td>
<td>A signal or function, the amplitude of which is characterized by one of two discrete values: ‘0’ or ‘1’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>digital blocks</strong></td>
<td>The 8-bit logic blocks that can act as a counter, timer, serial receiver, serial transmitter, CRC generator, pseudo-random number generator, or SPI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>digital logic</strong></td>
<td>A methodology for dealing with expressions containing two-state variables that describe the behavior of a circuit or system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>digital-to-analog (DAC)</strong></td>
<td>A device that changes a digital signal to an analog signal of corresponding magnitude. The analog-to-digital (ADC) converter performs the reverse operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>direct access</strong></td>
<td>The capability to obtain data from a storage device, or to enter data into a storage device, in a sequence independent of their relative positions by means of addresses that indicate the physical location of the data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>duty cycle</strong></td>
<td>The relationship of a clock period <em>high time</em> to its <em>low time</em>, expressed as a percent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Glossary

E

emulator

Duplicates (provides an emulation of) the functions of one system with a different system, so that the second system appears to behave like the first system.

External Reset (XRES_N)

An active high signal that is driven into the PSoC device. It causes all operation of the CPU and blocks to stop and return to a pre-defined state.

F

falling edge

A transition from a logic 1 to a logic 0. Also known as a negative edge.

feedback

The return of a portion of the output, or processed portion of the output, of a (usually active) device to the input.

filter

A device or process by which certain frequency components of a signal are attenuated.

firmware

The software that is embedded in a hardware device and executed by the CPU. The software may be executed by the end user, but it may not be modified.

flag

Any of various types of indicators used for identification of a condition or event (for example, a character that signals the termination of a transmission).

Flash

An electrically programmable and erasable, volatile technology that provides users with the programmability and data storage of EPROMs, plus in-system erasability. Nonvolatile means that the data is retained when power is off.

Flash bank

A group of Flash ROM blocks where Flash block numbers always begin with ‘0’ in an individual Flash bank. A Flash bank also has its own block level protection information.

Flash block

The smallest amount of Flash ROM space that may be programmed at one time and the smallest amount of Flash space that may be protected. A Flash block holds 64 bytes.

flip-flop

A device having two stable states and two input terminals (or types of input signals) each of which corresponds with one of the two states. The circuit remains in either state until it is made to change to the other state by application of the corresponding signal.

frequency

The number of cycles or events per unit of time, for a periodic function.

G

gain

The ratio of output current, voltage, or power to input current, voltage, or power, respectively. Gain is usually expressed in dB.
gate

1. A device having one output channel and one or more input channels, such that the output channel state is completely determined by the input channel states, except during switching transients.
2. One of many types of combinational logic elements having at least two inputs (for example, AND, OR, NAND, and NOR (also see Boolean Algebra)).

ground

1. The electrical neutral line having the same potential as the surrounding earth.
2. The negative side of DC power supply.
3. The reference point for an electrical system.
4. The conducting paths between an electric circuit or equipment and the earth, or some conducting body serving in place of the earth.

H

hardware

A comprehensive term for all of the physical parts of a computer or embedded system, as distinguished from the data it contains or operates on, and the software that provides instructions for the hardware to accomplish tasks.

hardware reset

A reset that is caused by a circuit, such as a POR, watchdog reset, or external reset. A hardware reset restores the state of the device as it was when it was first powered up. Therefore, all registers are set to the POR value as indicated in register tables throughout this document.

hexadecimal

A base 16 numeral system (often abbreviated and called hex), usually written using the symbols 0-9 and A-F. It is a useful system in computers because there is an easy mapping from four bits to a single hex digit. Thus, one can represent every byte as two consecutive hexadecimal digits. Compare the binary, hex, and decimal representations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{bin} & \quad = \quad \text{hex} \quad = \quad \text{dec} \\
0000\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{x0} \quad = \quad 0 \\
0001\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{x1} \quad = \quad 1 \\
0010\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{x2} \quad = \quad 2 \\
& \quad \vdots \\
1001\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{x9} \quad = \quad 9 \\
1010\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{xA} \quad = \quad 10 \\
1011\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{xB} \quad = \quad 11 \\
& \quad \vdots \\
1111\text{b} & \quad = \quad 0\text{xF} \quad = \quad 15 \\
\end{align*}
\]

So the decimal numeral 79 whose binary representation is 0100 1111b can be written as 4Fh in hexadecimal (0x4F).

high time

The amount of time the signal has a value of ‘1’ in one period, for a periodic digital signal.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>I</strong></th>
<th><strong>I</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### I²C
A two-wire serial computer bus by Philips Semiconductors (now NXP Semiconductors). I²C is an Inter-Integrated Circuit. It is used to connect low-speed peripherals in an embedded system. The original system was created in the early 1980s as a battery control interface, but it was later used as a simple internal bus system for building control electronics. I²C uses only two bidirectional pins, clock and data, both running at +5V and pulled high with resistors. The bus operates at 100 Kbps in standard mode and 400 Kbps in fast mode.

### ICE
The in-circuit emulator that allows users to test the project in a hardware environment, while viewing the debugging device activity in a software environment (PSoC Designer™).

### idle state
A condition that exists whenever user messages are not being transmitted, but the service is immediately available for use.

### impedance
1. The resistance to the flow of current caused by resistive, capacitive, or inductive devices in a circuit.
2. The total passive opposition offered to the flow of electric current. Note the impedance is determined by the particular combination of resistance, inductive reactance, and capacitive reactance in a given circuit.

### input
A point that accepts data, in a device, process, or channel.

### input/output (I/O)
A device that introduces data into or extracts data from a system.

### instruction
An expression that specifies one operation and identifies its operands, if any, in a programming language such as C or assembly.

### instruction mnemonics
A set of acronyms that represent the opcodes for each of the assembly-language instructions, for example, ADD, SUBB, MOV.

### integrated circuit (IC)
A device in which components such as resistors, capacitors, diodes, and **transistors** are formed on the surface of a single piece of semiconductor.

### interface
The means by which two systems or devices are connected and interact with each other.

### interrupt
A suspension of a process, such as the execution of a computer program, caused by an event external to that process, and performed in such a way that the process can be resumed.

### interrupt service routine (ISR)
A block of code that normal code execution is diverted to when the M8CP receives a hardware interrupt. Many interrupt sources may each exist with its own priority and individual ISR code block. Each ISR code block ends with the RETI instruction, returning the device to the point in the program where it left normal program execution.
| **J** | 1. A misplacement of the timing of a transition from its ideal position. A typical form of corruption that occurs on serial data streams.  
2. The abrupt and unwanted variations of one or more signal characteristics, such as the interval between successive pulses, the amplitude of successive cycles, or the frequency or phase of successive cycles. |
| **K** | A circuit that holds a signal to the last driven value, even when the signal becomes un-driven. |
| **L** | The time or delay that it takes for a signal to pass through a given circuit or network.  
The binary digit, or bit, in a binary number that represents the least significant value (typically the right-hand bit). The bit versus byte distinction is made by using a lower case “b” for bit in LSb.  
The byte in a multi-byte word that represents the least significant values (typically the right-hand byte). The byte versus bit distinction is made by using an upper case “B” for byte in LSB.  
A shift register whose data input is generated as an XOR of two or more elements in the register chain.  
The electrical demand of a process expressed as power (watts), current (amps), or resistance (ohms).  
A mathematical function that performs a digital operation on digital data and returns a digital value.  
A logic block that implements several logic functions. The logic function is selected by means of select lines and is applied to the inputs of the block. For example: A 2 input LUT with 4 select lines can be used to perform any one of 16 logic functions on the two inputs resulting in a single logic output. The LUT is a combinational device; therefore, the input/output relationship is continuous, that is, not sampled.  
The amount of time the signal has a value of ‘0’ in one period, for a periodic digital signal.  
A circuit that senses Vdd and provides an interrupt to the system when Vdd falls below a selected threshold. |
Glossary

M

**M8CP**  An 8-bit Harvard Architecture microprocessor. The microprocessor coordinates all activity inside a PSoC device by interfacing to the Flash, SRAM, and register space.

**macro**  A programming language macro is an abstraction, whereby a certain textual pattern is replaced according to a defined set of rules. The interpreter or compiler automatically replaces the macro instance with the macro contents when an instance of the macro is encountered. Therefore, if a macro is used five times and the macro definition required 10 bytes of code space, 50 bytes of code space will be needed in total.

**mask**  1. To obscure, hide, or otherwise prevent information from being derived from a signal. It is usually the result of interaction with another signal, such as noise, static, jamming, or other forms of interference.
   2. A pattern of bits that can be used to retain or suppress segments of another pattern of bits, in computing and data processing systems.

**master device**  A device that controls the timing for data exchanges between two devices. Or when devices are cascaded in width, the master device is the one that controls the timing for data exchanges between the cascaded devices and an external interface. The controlled device is called the *slave device*.

**microcontroller**  An integrated circuit device that is designed primarily for control systems and products. In addition to a CPU, a microcontroller typically includes memory, timing circuits, and I/O circuitry. The reason for this is to permit the realization of a controller with a minimal quantity of devices, thus achieving maximal possible miniaturization. This in turn, will reduce the volume and the cost of the controller. The microcontroller is normally not used for general-purpose computation as is a microprocessor.

**mnemonic**  A tool intended to assist the memory. Mnemonics rely on not only repetition to remember facts, but also on creating associations between easy-to-remember constructs and lists of data. A two to four character string representing a microprocessor instruction.

**mode**  A distinct method of operation for software or hardware. For example, the Digital PSoC block may be in either counter mode or timer mode.

**modulation**  A range of techniques for encoding information on a carrier signal, typically a sine-wave signal. A device that performs modulation is known as a modulator.

**Modulator**  A device that imposes a signal on a carrier.

**MOS**  An acronym for metal-oxide semiconductor.

**most significant bit (MSb)**  The binary digit, or bit, in a binary number that represents the most significant value (typically the left-hand bit). The bit versus byte distinction is made by using a lower case “b” for bit in MSb.

**most significant byte (MSB)**  The byte in a multi-byte word that represents the most significant values (typically the left-hand byte). The byte versus bit distinction is made by using an upper case “B” for byte in MSB.
**Glossary**

**multiplexer (mux)**
1. A logic function that uses a binary value, or address, to select between a number of inputs and conveys the data from the selected input to the output.
2. A technique which allows different input (or output) signals to use the same lines at different times, controlled by an external signal. Multiplexing is used to save on wiring and I/O ports.

**N**

**NAND**
See *Boolean Algebra*.

**negative edge**
A transition from a logic 1 to a logic 0. Also known as a falling edge.

**net**
The routing between devices.

**nibble**
A group of four bits, which is one-half of a byte.

**noise**
1. A disturbance that affects a signal and that may distort the information carried by the signal.
2. The random variations of one or more characteristics of any entity such as voltage, current, or data.

**NOR**
See *Boolean Algebra*.

**NOT**
See *Boolean Algebra*.

**O**

**OR**
See *Boolean Algebra*.

**oscillator**
A circuit that may be crystal controlled and is used to generate a clock frequency.

**output**
The electrical signal or signals which are produced by an analog or digital block.

**P**

**parallel**
The means of communication in which digital data is sent multiple bits at a time, with each simultaneous bit being sent over a separate line.

**parameter**
Characteristics for a given block that have either been characterized or may be defined by the designer.

**parameter block**
A location in memory where parameters for the SSC instruction are placed prior to execution.

**parity**
A technique for testing transmitting data. Typically, a binary digit is added to the data to make the sum of all the digits of the binary data either always even (even parity) or always odd (odd parity).

**path**
1. The logical sequence of instructions executed by a computer.
2. The flow of an electrical signal through a circuit.
### Glossary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>pending interrupts</strong></td>
<td>An interrupt that has been triggered but has not been serviced, either because the processor is busy servicing another interrupt or global interrupts are disabled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>phase</strong></td>
<td>The relationship between two signals, usually the same frequency, that determines the delay between them. This delay between signals is either measured by time or angle (degrees).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phase-Locked Loop (PLL)</strong></td>
<td>An electronic circuit that controls an oscillator so that it maintains a constant phase angle relative to a reference signal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pin</strong></td>
<td>A terminal on a hardware component. Also called lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pinouts</strong></td>
<td>The pin number assignment: the relation between the logical inputs and outputs of the PSoC device and their physical counterparts in the printed circuit board (PCB) package. Pinouts will involve pin numbers as a link between schematic and PCB design (both being computer generated files) and may also involve pin names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>port</strong></td>
<td>A group of pins, usually eight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>positive edge</strong></td>
<td>A transition from a logic 0 to a logic 1. Also known as a rising edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>posted interrupts</strong></td>
<td>An interrupt that has been detected by the hardware but may or may not be enabled by its mask bit. Posted interrupts that are not masked become pending interrupts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Power On Reset (POR)</strong></td>
<td>A circuit that forces the PSoC device to reset when the voltage is below a pre-set level. This is one type of hardware reset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>program counter</strong></td>
<td>The instruction pointer (also called the program counter) is a register in a computer processor that indicates where in memory the CPU is executing instructions. Depending on the details of the particular machine, it holds either the address of the instruction being executed, or the address of the next instruction to be executed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>protocol</strong></td>
<td>A set of rules. Particularly the rules that govern networked communications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSoC®</strong></td>
<td>Cypress’s Programmable System-on-Chip (PSoC®) devices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSoC blocks</strong></td>
<td>See analog blocks and digital blocks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSoC Creator™</strong></td>
<td>The software for Cypress’s next generation Programmable System-on-Chip technology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PSoC Designer™</strong></td>
<td>The software for Cypress’s Programmable System-on-Chip technology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pulse</strong></td>
<td>A rapid change in some characteristic of a signal (for example, phase or frequency), from a baseline value to a higher or lower value, followed by a rapid return to the baseline value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pulse-width modulator (PWM)</strong></td>
<td>An output in the form of duty cycle which varies as a function of the applied measurand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**RAM**
An acronym for random access memory. A data-storage device from which data can be read out and new data can be written in.

**register**
A storage device with a specific capacity, such as a bit or byte.

**reset**
A means of bringing a system back to a know state. See *hardware reset* and *software reset*.

**resistance**
The resistance to the flow of electric current measured in ohms for a conductor.

**revision ID**
A unique identifier of the PSoC device.

**ripple divider**
An asynchronous ripple counter constructed of flip-flops. The clock is fed to the first stage of the counter. An n-bit binary counter consisting of n flip-flops that can count in binary from 0 to $2^n - 1$.

**rising edge**
See *positive edge*.

**ROM**
An acronym for read only memory. A data-storage device from which data can be read out, but new data cannot be written in.

**routine**
A block of code, called by another block of code, that may have some general or frequent use.

**routing**
Physically connecting objects in a design according to design rules set in the reference library.

**runt pulses**
In digital circuits, narrow pulses that, due to non-zero rise and fall times of the signal, do not reach a valid high or low level. For example, a runt pulse may occur when switching between asynchronous clocks or as the result of a race condition in which a signal takes two separate paths through a circuit. These race conditions may have different delays and are then recombined to form a glitch or when the output of a flip-flop becomes metastable.

**S**

**sampling**
The process of converting an analog signal into a series of digital values or reversed.

**schematic**
A diagram, drawing, or sketch that details the elements of a system, such as the elements of an electrical circuit or the elements of a logic diagram for a computer.

**seed value**
An initial value loaded into a linear feedback shift register or random number generator.

**serial**
1. Pertaining to a process in which all events occur one after the other.
2. Pertaining to the sequential or consecutive occurrence of two or more related activities in a single device or channel.

**set**
To force a bit/register to a value of logic 1.

**settling time**
The time it takes for an output signal or value to stabilize after the input has changed from one value to another.
**shift**
The movement of each bit in a word one position to either the left or right. For example, if the hex value 0x24 is shifted one place to the left, it becomes 0x48. If the hex value 0x24 is shifted one place to the right, it becomes 0x12.

**shift register**
A memory storage device that sequentially shifts a word either left or right to output a stream of serial data.

**sign bit**
The most significant binary digit, or bit, of a signed binary number. If set to a logic 1, this bit represents a negative quantity.

**signal**
A detectable transmitted energy that can be used to carry information. As applied to electronics, any transmitted electrical impulse.

**silicon ID**
A unique identifier of the PSoC silicon.

**skew**
The difference in arrival time of bits transmitted at the same time, in parallel transmission.

**slave device**
A device that allows another device to control the timing for data exchanges between two devices. Or when devices are cascaded in width, the slave device is the one that allows another device to control the timing of data exchanges between the cascaded devices and an external interface. The controlling device is called the master device.

**software**
A set of computer programs, procedures, and associated documentation concerned with the operation of a data processing system (for example, compilers, library routines, manuals, and circuit diagrams). Software is often written first as source code, and then converted to a binary format that is specific to the device on which the code will be executed.

**software reset**
A partial reset executed by software to bring part of the system back to a known state. A software reset will restore the M8CP to a know state but not PSoC blocks, systems, peripherals, or registers. For a software reset, the CPU registers (CPU_A, CPU_F, CPU_PC, CPU_SP, and CPU_X) are set to 0x00. Therefore, code execution will begin at Flash address 0x0000.

**SRAM**
An acronym for static random access memory. A memory device allowing users to store and retrieve data at a high rate of speed. The term static is used because, once a value has been loaded into an SRAM cell, it will remain unchanged until it is explicitly altered or until power is removed from the device.

**SROM**
An acronym for supervisory read only memory. The SROM holds code that is used to boot the device, calibrate circuitry, and perform Flash operations. The functions of the SROM may be accessed in normal user code, operating from Flash.

**stack**
A stack is a data structure that works on the principle of Last In First Out (LIFO). This means that the last item put on the stack is the first item that can be taken off.

**stack pointer**
A stack may be represented in a computer’s inside blocks of memory cells, with the bottom at a fixed location and a variable stack pointer to the current top cell.

**state machine**
The actual implementation (in hardware or software) of a function that can be considered to consist of a set of states through which it sequences.

**sticky**
A bit in a register that maintains its value past the time of the event that caused its transition, has passed.
**stop bit**
A signal following a character or block that prepares the receiving device to receive the next character or block.

**switching**
The controlling or routing of signals in circuits to execute logical or arithmetic operations, or to transmit data between specific points in a network.

**switch phasing**
The clock that controls a given switch, PHI1 or PHI2, in respect to the switch capacitor (SC) blocks. The PSoC SC blocks have two groups of switches. One group of these switches is normally closed during PHI1 and open during PHI2. The other group is open during PHI1 and closed during PHI2. These switches can be controlled in the normal operation, or in reverse mode if the PHI1 and PHI2 clocks are reversed.

**synchronous**
1. A signal whose data is not acknowledged or acted upon until the next active edge of a clock signal.
2. A system whose operation is synchronized by a clock signal.

**T**

**tap**
The connection between two blocks of a device created by connecting several blocks/components in a series, such as a shift register or resistive voltage divider.

**terminal count**
The state at which a counter is counted down to zero.

**threshold**
The minimum value of a signal that can be detected by the system or sensor under consideration.

**Thumb-2**
The Thumb-2 instruction set is a highly efficient and powerful instruction set that delivers significant benefits in terms of ease of use, code size, and performance. The Thumb-2 instruction set is a superset of the previous 16-bit Thumb instruction set, with additional 16-bit instructions alongside 32-bit instructions.

**transistors**
The transistor is a solid-state semiconductor device used for amplification and switching, and has three terminals: a small current or voltage applied to one terminal controls the current through the other two. It is the key component in all modern electronics. In digital circuits, transistors are used as very fast electrical switches, and arrangements of transistors can function as logic gates, RAM-type memory, and other devices. In analog circuits, transistors are essentially used as amplifiers.

**tristate**
A function whose output can adopt three states: 0, 1, and Z (high impedance). The function does not drive any value in the Z state and, in many respects, may be considered to be disconnected from the rest of the circuit, allowing another output to drive the same net.

**U**

**UART**
A UART or universal asynchronous receiver-transmitter translates between parallel bits of data and serial bits.

**user**
The person using the PSoC device and reading this manual.
**user modules**  Pre-build, pre-tested hardware/firmware peripheral functions that take care of managing and configuring the lower level Analog and Digital PSoC Blocks. User Modules also provide high level API (*Application Programming Interface*) for the peripheral function.

**user space**  The bank 0 space of the register map. The registers in this bank are more likely to be modified during normal program execution and not just during initialization. Registers in bank 1 are most likely to be modified only during the initialization phase of the program.

**V**  

**Vddd**  A name for a power net meaning "voltage drain." The most positive power supply signal. Usually 5 or 3.3 volts.

**volatile**  Not guaranteed to stay the same value or level when not in scope.

**Vss**  A name for a power net meaning "voltage source." The most negative power supply signal.

**W**  

**watchdog timer**  A timer that must be serviced periodically. If it is not serviced, the CPU will reset after a specified period of time.

**waveform**  The representation of a signal as a plot of amplitude versus time.

**X**  

**XOR**  See *Boolean Algebra*. 
## Index

### A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC (SFR 0xE0) register</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active interrupt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 5</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active mode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>entering</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exiting</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low power modes</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 5</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active mode boost converter</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alternative active mode</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>entering</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exiting</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low power modes</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analog I/O</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analog subsystem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analog subsystem components</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analog system</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>architecture</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>application diagram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boost converter</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic instructions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic logic unit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asynchronous clocks</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B (SFR 0xF0) register</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BASEPRI special register in PSoc 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BASEPRI special register</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bit addressing mode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>block diagram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cache controller</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clock distribution system</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clock divider Implementation</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clock selection</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cortex-M3</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CY8C38 family SRAM accesses</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Numerics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register Type</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24-bit data pointer registers</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.768 kHz crystal oscillator</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% duty cycle mode</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8051</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-bit data pointer registers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>active interrupt</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic instructions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic logic unit</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bit addressing mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>block diagram</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boolean instructions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>core enhancements</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPTR extension SFR</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual DPTR</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vectored interrupt controller interface</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU halt mechanisms</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CY wrapper logic</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data transfer instructions</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direct addressing mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dual data pointer registers</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>external data memory space</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>features</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how it works</td>
<td>38, 413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediate constants mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indirect addressing mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instruction set</td>
<td>38, 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instruction set details</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internal data space</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrupt controller interface</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrupt enable register</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrupt nesting</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interrupt vector addresses</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IO port access registers</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jump instructions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logical instructions</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memory map</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>program branching instructions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>program memory space</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSoc 3</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>register addressing mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>register specific instructions mode</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>special function registers</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrapper logic</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Index

clock selection block diagram ................................................. 297
clock selection by timer block ............................................ 296
clock signal naming ............................................................. 161
clock source selection by timer block ..................................... 296
clock sources
distribution ................................................................. 154
DSI ................................................................................. 152
internal ........................................................................ 148
phase-locked loop ............................................................. 153
clock synchronization .......................................................... 158
clock tree
bypassed clock source output ............................................... 158
phase delayed clk_sync output ............................................... 158
power gating ................................................................. 160
resynchronized clock output ............................................... 158
types .............................................................................. 154
unsynchronized divided clock output ..................................... 158
clocks
asynchronous ................................................................. 160
high precision ................................................................. 147
low power mode operation ............................................... 160
clock dividers
main part of clock distribution module .................................. 157
clock doubler
contention ........................................................................ 306
counter mode
register configuration ....................................................... 302
counters
features .......................................................................... 295
CPU halt mechanisms
8051 ............................................................................... 66
CPU system
architecture .................................................................... 35
crylal oscillator
low power operation ....................................................... 151
CY wrapper logic
8051 ............................................................................... 39
CY8C38 family
contention ........................................................................ 128
Flash memory ................................................................. 130
PSoC 3 ............................................................................ 37
RAM implementation ......................................................... 128
CY8C55 family
contention ........................................................................ 128
RAM implementation ......................................................... 128
data transfer instructions
8051 ............................................................................... 42
dead band feature .............................................................. 308

C

capture mode
timing diagram ................................................................. 299
capture signal ................................................................. 298
central processing unit
cache controller ............................................................. 81, 87
PHUB .............................................................................. 91
clock
system ........................................................................... 160
clock block
components .................................................................... 148
clock distribution ............................................................ 154
clock distribution module ................................................ 157
clock divider ................................................................. 160
50% duty cycle mode ....................................................... 157
single cycle pulse mode .................................................. 157
clock doubler ................................................................... 149
clock frequency
USB mode operations .................................................... 156
clock generator
introduction .................................................................... 147

bolean instructions
8051 ............................................................................... 43
boost converter
application diagram ......................................................... 166
modes of operation .......................................................... 166
PSoC ............................................................................... 166
status monitoring ............................................................. 166
bypassed clock source ..................................................... 158

CY8C55 family SRAM accesses ............................................ 127
debug and trace ............................................................... 466
DMA controller .............................................................. 91
external memory interface ................................................ 133
Flash programming system ............................................... 129
GPIO ............................................................................... 188
I/O drive mode .................................................................. 191
internal low speed oscillator ............................................. 150
internal main oscillator .................................................... 149
 internal SRAM organization for the CY8C55 family ........ 127
interrupt controller .......................................................... 107
master clock mux ........................................................... 155
MHzECO .......................................................................... 150
phase shifter .................................................................... 159
phase-locked loop .......................................................... 153
PHUB ............................................................................... 91
port interrupt controller unit .............................................. 201
RESET module .................................................................. 180
resync option ..................................................................... 158
SAR ADC .......................................................................... 437
SIO .................................................................................. 189
SRAM organization for the CY8C55 family ...................... 127
USB clock mux .............................................................. 156
USBIO ............................................................................... 190
voltage monitoring ........................................................... 167
watchdog timer circuit ..................................................... 175

D

data transfer instructions
8051 ............................................................................... 42
dead band feature .............................................................. 308
Index

how it works ........................................... 165
power supply ........................................... 27
  PSoC 3 .................................................. 27
  PSoC 5 .................................................. 27
power supply and monitoring
  features .............................................. 163
precision power on reset .............................. 179
PRIMASK special register in PSoC 5 ................. 117
priority decoding unit
  interrupt controller ................................ 110
process stack pointer ................................ 114
product upgrades ..................................... 29
program and debug
  architecture ......................................... 441
  PSoC .................................................. 28
program branching instructions
  8051 .................................................. 43
program memory space
  8051 .................................................. 66
Program Status Word SFR .............................. 40
PSoC
  active mode ......................................... 171
  analog subsystem ................................... 28
  analog subsystem components ..................... 28
  boost converter ..................................... 166
  DMA controller ...................................... 26
  EEPROM memory ..................................... 131
  enabling interrupts ................................ 108
  Flash memory on-chip ............................... 129
  general purpose input/output interface ........... 27
  IO interfaces ......................................... 27
  program and debug .................................. 28
  special input/output interface ..................... 27
  SRAM .................................................. 125
  supply pins .......................................... 163
timer blocks .......................................... 295
USB input/output interface ......................... 27
PSoC 3
  8051 .................................................. 37
  8051 features ....................................... 112
  CY8C38 family ....................................... 37
  major components ................................... 23
  power supply ........................................ 27
  processor ............................................ 26
PSoC 5
  active interrupt .................................... 114
  exceptions supported ............................... 117
  interrupt controller ................................ 114
  interrupt masking ................................... 117
  interrupt nesting ................................... 114
  interrupt service routine .......................... 116
  interrupt vector addresses ......................... 116
  late arrival interrupts ............................. 116
  major components ................................... 23
  power supply ........................................ 27
  PRIMASK special register ......................... 117
  processor ............................................ 26
tail chaining ......................................... 116

PSoC Ram
  how it works ........................................ 128
PSoC3
  SFR to GPIO ........................................ 194
PSoC5
  interrupt controller ................................ 114
  PSW0x0D0 register .................................. 40
pulse interrupt
  interrupt controller ................................ 110
pulse width mode
  comparator mode .................................... 306
  compare types ...................................... 306
pulse width modulator
  dead band feature .................................. 308
  on the fly duty cycle update ......................... 308
  one shot mode ...................................... 309
  register configuration .............................. 306
pulse-width modulator
  features ............................................ 295

R
  RAM implementation
    CY8C38 family ...................................... 128
    CY8C55 family ..................................... 128
  real time clock .................................... 152
  register addressing mode
    8051 ................................................ 39
  register map
    nonvolatile latch .................................. 121
  register specific instructions mode
    8051 ................................................ 39
  register summary
    I/O system ......................................... 202
  registers
    counter mode ...................................... 302
    EMIF .............................................. 134
    pulse width modulator ............................. 306
    timer block ....................................... 310
  regulator
    hibernate ......................................... 165
    internal .......................................... 165
    sleep ............................................. 165
reset
  external ............................................ 179
  identifying sources ................................ 180
  introduction ....................................... 179
  software initiated .................................. 179
  watchdog .......................................... 179
RESET module
  logic diagram ...................................... 180
reset sources
  description ......................................... 179
reset summary table .................................. 181
resynchronized clock ................................ 158
RETI instruction ...................................... 38
revision history ...................................... 21
sleep mode behavior ........................................ 310
timer blocks
  PSoC .................................................. 295
timer mode
  free run ............................................. 301
  period mode ......................................... 304
  stop on interrupt mode ............................. 305
timer reset signal .................................... 300
timing diagram ........................................ 300
timers
  features ............................................ 295
timewheel in low power modes ..................... 172
timing
  EMIF ................................................ 138
timing diagram
    capture mode ..................................... 299
    free run mode ................................... 301
    gated timer in IRQ mode ......................... 305
    gated timer in period mode ...................... 304
    gated timer in pulse width mode ................ 303
    timer reset signal ................................ 300
timing of EMIF ....................................... 138
timing of external memory interface .............. 138

unsynchronized divided clock ......................... 158
update .................................................. 160
updating of clock divider ............................ 160
upgrades ............................................... 29
usage modes and configuration of I/O system ... 190
USB clock ............................................. 156
USB input/output interface
  PSoC ................................................. 27
USB mode operation
  clock frequency ................................... 156
USBIO
    block diagram .................................... 190

vectored interrupt controller interface
  8051 core enhancements ............................ 38
voltage monitoring .................................... 167

watchdog reset .......................................... 179
watchdog timer
  clearing ........................................... 176
  disabling .......................................... 176
  enabling .......................................... 176
  features ........................................... 175
  how it works ...................................... 176
  operation in low power mode ..................... 176
  protection settings ................................ 176