ATB0 Engineering Document - Controller

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1 Introduction

This document is one in a set of three engineering documents describing the Assam Tester Baseboard Revision 0 (ATB0); this document describes the controller while the other two describe the actual hardware [1] and the software interface [2].

ATB0 is designed to provide a testbed for custom designed circuit boards that require multiple differing power supplies (referred to in this document as the "daughtercard"). ATB0 also provides a communication channel between a host PC and the daughtercard. To do so, ATB0 has the following devices:

- **Sixteen power supplies.** Each power supply can be configured to supply a voltage independently of each other; there are fourteen power supplies that supply a positive voltage between 0 and 4 volts and two that supply a negative voltage between 0 and -4 volts. The voltage of each of the positive power supplies can be read back to ensure proper operation; the current drawn from each positive power supply can also be read for power measurements.
- **Onboard SDRAM.** The onboard SDRAM is 12 bits wide and 64 MWs deep. Its primary purpose to provide temporary storage for power measurements allowing measurements to be performed quickly while testing and read back later, after testing is complete.
- **Frequency synthesizer.** The frequency synthesizer is used to provide a clock to the daugthercard and can be configured to run between 25 MHz and 400 Mhz.
- **60 I/O pins between ATB0 and the daughtercard.** 34 of these pins are used to perform reads and writes on the daughtercard using the AHIP protocol [3]. The remaining 26 are used as individual user defined I/O pins.
- **Two LEDs.** These can be used to provide status flags to the user.

The controller for ATB0 is written in Verilog for the Xilinx on ATB0. Its purpose is two-fold: 1) control the various devices on ATB0, and 2) facilitate communication between the host PC and the daughtercard. All communication between the host PC and the controller is in the form of reads and writes to memory locations. A PLX interface card is used to convey a read or write from the host PC to the controller.

Standard operation involves the user connecting a daughtercard to ATB0 then writing to memorymapped registers to configure the devices on ATB0 according to the requirements of the daughtercard. The user then performs some task by communicating with the daughtercard, either directly, by reading from or writing to the user pins, or using the AHIP interface. Tasks could include operations such as such as running an application on a synthesized CPU, performing memory operation on a memory controller, etc. While the task is being performed, certain events, as configured by the user, cause the controller to measure the current drawn from each of the power supplies and store those measurements in the onboard SDRAM chips. The user can later read those values from the SDRAM and analyze the power consumption over time of the task.

Figure 1 shows a block diagram of the system. A memory access operation from the host PC is conveyed by the PLX interface card to ATB0. A decode module in the controller receives the operation and decodes it. The decode module then drives the address and data onto the central buses and enables the appropriate module according to the nature of the operation. The voltage set and voltage measure modules communicate directly with the power supplies. The current measure module communicates with both the power supplies and the SDRAM control module to enable it to store current measurements into the onboard memory. The SDRAM module can receive memory accesses from both the decode module and the current measure module and performs the access to the SDRAM. The AHIP module communicates with the daughtercard through dedicated AHIP pins and the user pin control module allows the user to set and read individual pins connected to the daughtercard. The LED control module drives the LEDs directly and the Clock set module communicates with the frequency synthesizer to provide the clock to the daughtercard.

Figure 1: Block diagram of ATB0.

2 User Interface

The user interacts with the controller by reading and writing to memory locations on the host PC. The PLX then forwards these requests to the baseboard and relays the response back to the user. The PLX allows addresses up to 28 bits wide and enforces word addressing by forcing the lower two bits to zero. The controller currently uses 27 of those bits, leaving the top half of possible memory space open for expansion. As shown in Figure 2, memory is divided into three main sections, SDRAM Memory, Control Registers, and AHIP Daughtercard Memory space.

Accessing memory in SDRAM is described in Section 2.1. Configuration of the devices using the control registers is described in Section 2.2. Finally, communicating with the daughtercard is described in Section 2.3.

2.1 Accessing SDRAM

Each word in SDRAM memory space corresponds to two 12-bit values in the actual SDRAM; Figure 3 shows the resulting memory layout, relating SDRAM memory locations to addresses in SDRAM memory space. Since there are 2^{24} locations in SDRAM, 2^{23} four byte words, or 32 MBs, are needed to access all the SDRAM memory, thus the SDRAM memory space in the controller is 32 MBs. To access a word in SDRAM memory space, simply read from or write to the corresponding address in the ATB0 memory space.

Figure 2: ATB0 Memory Map. Address are relative to the bottom of ATB0 address space.

Figure 3: SDRAM memory layout. Addresses are relative to the bottom of SDRAM Memory space.

2.2 Configuration

Configuring ATB0 is accomplished by writing to a number of memory-mapped control registers. The address and functionality of each register is summarized in Table 1. Setting the voltage of the Power Supplies is described in Section 2.2.1. Measuring the current is described in Section 2.2.2. Calibrating the current measurements is described in Section 2.2.3. Setting the clock speed that the frequency synthesizer generates is described in Section 2.2.4. Finally, Section 2.2.5 show how to set refresh rate of the onboard SDRAM chips and the Logic Analyzer and LED outputs.

2.2.1 Setting the voltage

ATB0 is equipped with 16 user-controlled independent power supplies. The desired voltage of power supplies 0 - 13^{*} can be set between 0V and 4.095V[†]; the actual voltage supplied and the current drawn from the power supply can be measured and read by the user. The desired voltage of power supplies 14 and 15 can be set between 0V and -4.095V but the actual voltage and current can not be measured. Note that the current that each supply is able to produce varies, see the hardware document [1] for more information.

Setting the desired voltage is accomplished by writing the appropriate register (VSR0 - VSR15) with the desired value. The registers are 12 bits wide (thus, only the lower 12 bits of the 32 bits written to the register are used) and their value corresponds linearly to the range of 0V to 4.095V. To convert from a desired voltage into a value to put in the register, divide the desired voltage by the maximum voltage (V_{REF}) and multiply by the maximum value $2^{12} - 1 = 4095$ as shown in Equation 1.

$$
VSRn = \frac{volts}{V_{REF}} * (2^{12} - 1) \approx \frac{volts}{4.095} * 4095 = volts * 1000
$$
 (1)

This results in a coding that is about $1 \frac{mV}{bit}$ $\frac{mv}{bit}$ since V_{REF} is about 4.095V and thus the voltage set register can be set to approximately 1000 times the desired voltage; however, if precision is necessary, the user should measure *VREF* and use the actual value in the calculation. Writing to VSR0 - VSR14 will only set the register, it will not cause the power supply to output the desired voltage. Writing to VSR15 both sets VSR15 and causes all 16 power supplies to output the voltage that is contained in their corresponding register.

Once VSR15 is written to and the power supplies are set to the desired values, the actual voltage produced by each power supply can be obtained by simply reading the appropriate voltage measure register (VMR). This returns a 12-bit value that corresponds linearly to the range of 0V to 5V, which is the reference voltage supplied to the ADC used to measure the voltage. Thus, to obtain a voltage from the value read from the VMR, divide by the maximum value (2^{12} -1 = 4095) and multiply by the ADC reference voltage (*VREF ADC*) as shown in Equation 2. *VREF ADC* is approximately 5V, but like *VREF*, the user should measure this if precision is required.

$$
Volts = \frac{VMR}{2^{12} - 1} * V_{REF\,ADC} \approx \frac{VMR}{4095} * 5
$$
 (2)

[∗]Power supplies are numbered 0 - 15 to make it coincide more nicely with the addressing scheme; however, on the schematics, power supplies are numbered 1 - 16, this numbering scheme is not used anywhere but the schematic, don't let that confuse you.

[†] "4.095V [is] the theoretical maximum voltage. The actual voltage is limited by the dropout voltage of the regulators, with 3.9V the expected limit."[4] See the hardware document[1] for more information.

Register	Address	Description	Read	Write
VSn	0x21000n0	Voltage Set Registers - The desired voltage for power sup-		
		ply n . Writing to VSR15 commits the voltages to the		
		power supplies.		
VMn	0x22000n0	Voltage Measure Registers - The actual voltage of Power	$\sqrt{}$	
		Supply n . A measurement is made each time one of these		
		registers is read.		
CM_BURST	0x2300000	Current Measure Burst - Reading this register causes the		
		current being drawn from each power supply specified		
		in the CM_MASK register to be measured and placed in		
		SDRAM memory. The address in SDRAM memory space		
		of the first measurement is returned. Writing sets the ad-		
		dress in SDRAM memory space where the next burst will		
		be placed.		
CM_MASK	0x2300004	Current Measure Mask - Each of the lower 14 bits in this		
		register correspondes to a power supply (bit 0 correspon-		
		des to Power Supply 0). When CM_BURST is read, each		
		power supply whose bit in this register is 1 has its current		
		measured. (Currently not supported)		
CMmn	0x2301mn0	Current Measure Registers - The current being drawn from	$\sqrt{}$	
		Power Supplies m and n . A measurement is made each		
		time one of these registers is read.		
CLOCK	0x2400000	Clock - Used to set the frequency generated by the on-	$\sqrt{}$	
		board frequency synthesizer.		
SDRAM_RT	0x2500000	SDRAM Refresh Timer - The number of clock ticks be-		
		tween each refresh of the SDRAM modules.		
USER_ALL	0x2600000	All user pins - The logical values of all 26 user pins.		
USER_DIR	0x2600004	User pins direction - Whether all 26 user pins are set to		
		be input or output. A high bit indicates the controller is		
		driving that pin (an output).		
USERp	0x2601pp0	User Pins - Reading returns the logical value of user pin p	$\sqrt{}$	
		and I/O direction. Writing a 0 or 1 sets the pin as output		
		with the given value and writing a value of 2 resets the pin		
		to be an input.		
LGA_LED	0x2000000	LGA and LED outputs.	$\sqrt{}$	
AHIP MODE	0x2700000	AHIP Mode. Used to allow for test and 8 bit modes.		
STATUS	0x2800000	Status flags		

Table 1: ATB0 Control Registers. Addresses are relative to the bottom of the ATB0 address space.

Figure 4: Format of VMR*mn*.

2.2.2 Measuring the current

The current drawn from a power supply can be measured either individually or as a burst with other power supplies. The current from two different power supply can be measured individually by reading from the appropriate Current Measure Register (CM*mn*). The current drawn from power supply *m* is returned in the top 16 bits, and the current drawn from power supply *n* is returns in the lower 16 bits as shown in Figure 4. The value returned for each supply is described in Section 2.2.3. To measure multiple power supplies in a single burst, first set the CM MASK register so that each power supply to be measured has a 1 in its bit within the mask. The CM_BURST register can optionally be written to to specify where in SDRAM memory space to place the measurements. Reading the CM_BURST register actually performs the measurements and returns the address in SDRAM memory space at which the first measurement was placed.

2.2.3 Calibrating current measurement

Because of hardware issues (see [1]), the current measured by the power supplies is not exactly the current that is being drawn from the power supply by the daughtercard; therefore, it is necessary to adjust the measurements recieved. To calibrate a power supply to determine how to adjust the measurements, load the power supply with two different loads and measure, with lab equipment, the actual current through each load, as well as the value returned by the controller by reading the Current Measure register. These two measurements define two points in a plane with the current on the y-axis and the return value on the x-axis. These two points define a line in that plane. That line defines the relationship between the value returned by the controller as the current measurement and the actual current being drawn by the daughtercard for a single power supply. Figure 5 shows this plane.

Figure 5: Calibrating the current. The y-axis is the measured current, the x-axis is the value returned by the controller as the current for that supply. *p*1 and *p*2 represent values obtained by placing different loads across the power supply. The line relates the value returned by measuring the current to the actual current drawn by the daughtercard.

Given the above calibration, basic geometry gives us an equation to convert a value returned by the controller to the actual current begin drawn by the daughter card. Equation 3 gives the slope of the line, Equation 4 gives the intercept. Using the slope and the intercept, Equation 5 is the equation needed. More

		13-11	a	∩	
unused		test			

Figure 6: Clock register format.

Frequency (MHz)	N	М
$25 - 50$	-3	8 * frequency
$50 - 100$		$4 * frequency$
$100 - 200$		$2 * frequency$
$200 - 400$		frequency

Table 2: Frequency to M and N values conversion chart.

representative names, ratio and offset, can be used for the slope and intercept respectively.

$$
slope = \frac{(Measured_1 - Measured_2)}{CMR_1 - CMR_2}
$$
\n(3)

$$
intercept = Measured_2 - (slope * CMR_2)
$$
\n(4)

$$
current = (slope * CMR) + intercept = (ratio * CMR) + offset
$$
\n(5)

2.2.4 Setting the generated clock speed

ATB0 has a frequency synthesizer that is capable of creating clock signals in the range of 25 to 400 MHz; the frequency can be set up by writing to the CLOCK register whose format is shown in Figure 6. The used 14 bits of the register are split into three fields: test, N, and M. The test field is used to choose what test mode to put the frequency synthesizer in and should be set to 0 for normal operation. Table 2 provides values for N and M to achieve a desired frequency. Note that M should always be between 200 and 400. See the frequency synthesizer's datasheet [5] for more information on what these numbers mean and what test modes are available.

2.2.5 Other configuration registers

The STATUS register provides status for each of the modules within the controller and can be used for debugging purposes. As shown in Figure 7, bits 15 to 8 contain the da (data available) signal for each module and bits 7 to 0 contain the done signal for each module. The bits are ordered according to the module numbers in Table 9 (i.e. module 2's done signal is bit 2 and its da signal is bit 10). See the implementation section (Section 3) for more information on module numbers and what the da and done signals mean.

Using other configuration registers is mostly a matter of simply writing a value to the register. Each of the registers can also be read if necessary.

SDRAM Refresh Timer The SDRAM Refresh Timer register (SDRAM RT) contains the number of clock ticks between each refresh of the SDRAM modules and is independent of anything else. To change this timer simply write a new value to the register, and to check the currently value simply read it. The

		unused da signals done signals

Figure 7: Status register format.

Bit #	Signal
	LED ₀
	LED1
	LGA0
	LGA1
-31	unused

Table 3: Bit assignment of LGA LED register.

SDRAM documentation [6] states that the modules should be refreshed every 15.625*µ*s; the default value of 78 (0x4E) causes a refresh every 15.6*µ*s with a 5 MHz clock. If a 40 MHz clock is used, this value should be set to 625 (0x271) to achieve a refresh every 15.625*µ*s.

LGA and LED outputs The two LGA outputs go to a jumper on the back side of the baseboard such that they can be used as inputs to a logic analyzer. The LED outputs go to the two LEDs on the baseboard. All four of these outputs can be set using the LGA LED register with the bit assignments shown in Table 3.

2.3 Communication with the daughtercard

The controller allows the user to either manually communicate with the daughtercard using the user pins directly (Section 2.3.1), or read and write to the AHIP Daughtercard Memory area and have the controller take care of forwarding the data to the daughtercard, which it does using AHIP (Section 2.3.2).

2.3.1 Accessing the user pins

User pins can be accessed directly, either individually or collectively in parallel. The USER*p* registers allow access to an individual pin *p*. When a USER*p* register is read, bit 0 contains the logical value currently on the pin, whether it is being driven by the controller or the daughtercard, and bit 1 contains the I/O direction of the pin, a 1 indicates the pin is an output pin and being driven by the controller, a 0 indicates the pin is an input and being driven by the daughtercard (or floating) (as shown in Table 4). When a value of 0 or 1 is written to a USER*p* register, the controller will drive the pin at that value; if a value of 2 is written to a USER*p* register, the controller will stop driving the pin with any value, making it an input pin, available for the daughtercard to drive.

The USER ALL and USER DIR registers allow access to all 26 pins at once. Reading USER DIR returns wether each pin is set as an output or input, each pin's direction is in 1 bit (i.e. pin 0's direction is in bit 0). Writing to USER DIR sets the direction of all 26 pins according to the corresponding bit in the value written (i.e. if bit 5 of the value written is 1, pin 5 will be set to be an output). Reading the USER ALL register returns the value of all 26 pins in the low 26 bits of the result. Writing to USER ALL sets all *out put*

Table 4: Meaning of direction bits in the user pin registers.

Table 5: AHIP modes.

pins to the corresponding bit in the value written. Pins that are set to be input pins will not be affected by a write to USER ALL.

2.3.2 Asynchronous Host Interface Port (AHIP)

AHIP is a data communication protocol that facilitates communication between two devices that do not share a common clock. The controller uses AHIP to allow the user to access memory space on the daughtercard directly. To read from or write to a memory location on the daughtercard, the user need only read from or write to the AHIP Daughtercard Memory space on ATB0. The controller performs the host side of AHIP and handles the actual transfer of data to and from the daughtercard, which acts as the slave.

AHIP can be used in one of four modes by setting the AHIP MODE register to a mode number shown in Table 5. When in normal mode, all reads and writes to AHIP Daughtercard memory space become normal AHIP reads and writes using the standard 32-bit AHIP protocol. When in test mode a write causes a test write, a read from daughtercard address zero causes a test address read and a read from any other daughtercard address causes a test data read, see Section 2.3.2.4 for more information on test mode. When in 8 bit mode, normal reads and writes are performed, but the 8-bit AHIP protocol (Section 2.3.2.3, which uses only the bottom 8 bits of the bus, is used. Finally, in 8 bit test mode, test reads and writes are performed the same as in test mode, but the 8-bit AHIP protocol is used.

The AHIP protocol is described below to facilitate creating a client for the daughtercard that can communicate with ATB0. An example client is included in the source directory (in the ahip client subdirectory) which is written to be connected to a block memory module on a Virtex II FPGA to create a simple memory system that can be written to and read from using AHIP. ahip client. v contains the ahip client module for normal 32 bit operation, and ahip8 client.v contains an ahip client that uses an 8 bit bus. Another example can be found in ATC0 [3] which implements the client side of AHIP.

2.3.2.1 Asynchronous Transaction Protocol The protocol uses a 32-bit wide bi-directional bus and two handshake signals, req, controlled by the host, and ack, controlled by the slave, to transfer data to and from the daughtercard, with the controller acting as the host and the daughtercard as the slave. When idle, both req and ack are low and the host is responsible for driving the bus so that it does not float. The host starts a transaction by raising the req signal and placing a header on the bus in the format shown in Figure 8. The

		24 27 L		
	opcode	hmr.	address	

Figure 8: AHIP Header format.

Table 6: AHIP opcodes.

header contains three fields: a 4-bit opcode field; a 4-bit *burst-mode counter* (bmc) for burst-mode read and write; and a 24-bit address. The burst-mode read/write is not currently implemented by the controller and reserved for future implementations, so the bmc field is set to zero and should be ignored. Table 6 shows the different opcodes available. During normal operation, only the normal read and write are used. Some opcodes are used to perform a self-test of AHIP, as described in Section 2.3.2.4. A variation of the standard protocol that uses an 8-bit data bus is also supported and described in Section 2.3.2.3.

2.3.2.2 Writing and reading with AHIP The host starts a write by placing the header on the bus and raising the req signal. After the slave observes that req is high, it reads the header word and raises the ack signal. After the host receives ack, it places the write data on the bus and lowers req. The slave reads the bus value and then lowers ack. The host will then free the data bus and both the host and the slave return to the idle state. Figure 10 shows the timing diagram of the transaction.

Similar to word write, the host starts a read by placing the header on the bus and raising the req signal. The slave will obtain the header and asserts ack. Once the host sees the ack, it frees the data bus and lowers req. Once the slave is ready with the data, it places the data on the bus and lowers ack. The host reads the data off the bus and raises req again, the slave then frees the data bus and raises ack. The host lowers req, followed by the slave lowering ack, and both return to an idle state. Figure 9 shows the timing diagram of the word read.

2.3.2.3 8 bit reads and writes When used in an 8 bit mode, reads and writes still transfer 32 bits, but they do so 8 bits at a time. The protocol is similar, the host begins a transaction by placing the bottom 8 bits of the header (header[7:0]) onto the bus and raising the req signal. The slave observes that req is high, reads the data from the bus and raises the ack signal. The host places the next 8 bits of the header onto the bus and lowers req, which the slave reads and lowers ack. This process continues until all 4 bytes of the header have been transmitted, one byte per edge. When the slave acknowledges receiving the last byte of the header, if the access is a write, the host continues to send the data word, 1 byte at a time, starting from the bottom 8 bits (data[7:0]), in the same manner until all four bytes have been sent. If the access is a read, the host frees the bus and raises req to signal the slave can begin transmitting the read data back. The slave then transmits the read data back to the host, one byte at a time, in similar manner. When the host raises req to acknowledge receipt of the last byte, the slave raises ack one more time to indicate it it no longer driving the bus and the protocol finishes just as it did with the 32 bit read. The timing diagram for both an 8 bit write and read is shown in Figure 11, the write is on top.

Figure 11: Timing diagram of an 8 bit AHIP write and read. The write is on top and the read is on the bottom.

2.3.2.4 AHIP Self-Test To verify the correctness of AHIP functionality, both in the controller and the implementation on the daughtercard, the top bit of the opcode is used to run AHIP in test mode. The daughtercard must implement AHIP test mode for the test modes to be useful. When in test mode, a slave device will store the address and the value written during a Test Write. A Test Read will then return either the stored address or the stored data. The host can thus verify that both the data and address are being transmitted correctly by performing a Test Write then a Test Read on both the data and the address and checking that those values correspond to the data and address just written.

3 Implementation details

The ATB0 controller is written in Verilog and consists of the following interconnected modules.

- **Controller** The top level module. It instantiates all other modules, connects them together, divides the clock to provide a slower clock when needed, collects output from all the modules and pipelines it off the chip, and defines the external interface.
- **Decode** Responsible for decoding requests received from the host computer via the PLX interface and forwarding the request on to the correct module depending on the address.

Voltage set Controls the DACs which set the desired voltage on the power supplies.

Voltage measure Controls the ADCs which measure the actual voltage on the power supplies.

Current measure Controls the ADCs which measure the current drawn from the power supplies.

SDRAM control Provides an interface to the on board SDRAM.

Clock Interfaces with the frequency synthesizer.

User pin Sets and reads the user pins.

AHIP Performs the host side of AHIP to perform memory transactions with the daughtercard on behalf of the user.

LGALED A small module which holds the LGA LED register.

Figure 1 in the Introduction (Section 1) shows a block diagram of how these module interconnect with each other and the rest of the system. In some instances, more than one of the modules requires the same functionality, such as shifting the bits of a register onto a serial data line; in these cases, a seperate "helper" module is defined and instantiated in each module that requires that functionality. The helper modules are:

shiftreg out Shifts the bits of a register onto a serial data line.

shiftreg in Shifts bits into a register from a serial data line.

counter A simple counter with an enable signal.

3.1 Clocking

One of the signals sent from the PLX daughtercard is a clock that is used as a global clock for the entire controller; it is called CXCOE in the schematics (Chip Transmission Line Clock and Output Enable). A slightly skewed second clock, called HCLK (Host Clock) in the schematics, is also sent but never used in the current implementaiton of the controller. This global clock is laballed "clk" in the block diagrams in this section.

Multiple modules (voltage set, voltage measure, current measure, and clock) interact with on board components that can not run at the frequency of the global clock, thus a clock that is eight times slower is generated for these components. It is labelled "sclk" in the block diagrams.

3.1.1 Syncing with the slow clock

The FSM's of the modules that interact with the on board components that require a slower clock must run at the speed of the global clock for communication with the host PC to work. It is therefore necessary to get in sync with the slow clock before communicating with the on board component. To avoid repetition, the process is described here.

When leaving the idle state, the FSM checks to see if the slow clock is low or high, if it is high it enters the SYNC1 state and waits for it to go low. Once the slow clock is low, it enters SYNC2 and waits for it to go high. It then moves onto the next state at the beginning of the slow clock's cycle. A timing diagram of this can be seen in Figure 25 which shows the timing for the voltage set module.

3.2 Helper modules

Because they are used in many of the main modules, the helper modules are described here first.

3.2.1 Shift registers

The shift registers act like ordinary shift registers, except they only shift once every 8 clock cycles because every modules that uses them interacts with a device running on a slower clock. They both use a 3 bit counter to slow the shifting down. The size of the shift register is variable and determined by the module that instantiates it using Verilog parameters.

The shiftreg out has three inputs, an input value the width of the register, a shift signal, and a clock signal; it has one single bit output. When shift is low, the input is latched into the register on each positive edge of the clock, the counter is disabled, and the output is tied low. When shift goes high the counter is started and the output switches to the most significant bit of the register. The register maintains its value until the count reaches 7, at which point it shifts it contents left by one bit, shifting a 0 into the LSB. The process continues while shift is held high.

The shiftreg in has the same ports, except the input value is a single bit and the output value is the width of the register. The shift input is used as the enable signal to the counter. When the count equals 7, the input bit is shifted into the LSB of the register, otherwise the register remains unchanged. When shift is low, the counter does not count and thus never equals 7, so no shifting occurs.

Figure 12: (a) shiftreg out block diagram. (b) shiftreg in block diagram.

3.2.2 Counter

The counter is a variable width counter with an enable signal. The width is determined by the module that instantiates it using Verilog parameters. When enable is low, the count stays at zero. When enable is high the count increases by one each rising edge of the clock. The implementation is straightforward.

3.3 Controller module

The controller module is the top level module of the ATB0 controller. Its port are the interface with the PLX interface card as well as the rest of the components on the baseboard, meaning each port in the controller module is an actual pin on the FPGA. Figure 13 is a high level block diagram of the controller module and how it connects everything together. It does not show each module's control signals or the connections between the modules and the external components on the baseboard. Figure 14 illustrates the flow of data through the controller. A memory access request comes in to the controller through the HADS, HLWNR, and HAD signals, is decoded by the decoder and forwarded on to a specific module via the address, enable, w nr, and data lines. The address bus to the modules is 25 bits wide because the address space requires 27 bits to access and two of those bits are always zero due to word alignment. The modules perform the requested task and communicates with the decode module using the done and da (data available) signals. When the module is done performing its task, the data from the correct module is selected from the data outputs of all the modules using the datasel signal; hadsel then selects to output this data to HAD. The data is sent back to the PLX using the HLRDY, HXDIR, and HAD signals. These three signals are all registered before being sent to the PLX for speed. While the module is performing the task, hadsel allows the status lines from the decoder to be driven onto data bus and consequently onto HAD. The HXDIR signal is used to enable a tri-state driver which drives the data bus onto HAD. The protocol of using these signals is described in Section 3.4 when the decode module is described.

Figure 13: Block diagram of the controller module.

The controller also instantiates a clock divider which is used by many of the components on the baseboard. The clock divider is implemented using a single 3 bit register that increments by one each rising edge of the input clock. The top bit of the register is used as the slow output clock.

Figure 14: Dataflow through the controller.

3.4 Decode module

The decode module is responsible for communicating with the PLX interface card and controlling all other modules. Inputs from the PLX interface are HADS (Host Adddress/Data Strobe), HLWNR (Host Local Write Not Read), and HAD (Host Adress Data bus). The module also receives a done signal and a da (data available) signal from each module in the controller. There are two outputs to the PLX, HXDIR (Host Transmission Direction), and HLRDY (Host Local Ready). Control signals to each module are a w nr (write not read) and enable signal. The module has a data output to drive the data bus with and an address bus that goes to each module. Section 3.4.1 describes the PLX interface and Section 3.4.2 describes how the module operates.

3.4.1 PLX Interface

The controller is designed to receive memory access commands from a PLX interface card, with the PLX the bus master and the controller the bus slave. The protocol uses a 32-bit multiplexed address/data bus (HAD), an address/data strobe signal (HADS), a write/read signal (HLWNR), and a ready signal (HLRDY). The PLX begins a transaction by driving HAD with an address, setting HLWNR appropriately, and dropping HADS. This sends the address to the controller. The PLX then waits for the controller to drop HLRDY. If the operation is a write, when the controller drops HLRDY the PLX drives HAD with the write data until HLRDY goes high again. If the operation is a read, when the controller drops HLRDY the controller drives HAD with the read data for the PLX to read. Waiting for the HLRDY signal to drop allows the controller to delay the read or write until it is ready. Figure 15 shows the timing of the transaction.

Figure 15: Timing diagram of general PLX access.

3.4.2 Decode implementation

The decode module is one of the more complex modules in the controller. It is responsible for communicating with the PLX and controlling all other modules. Figure 16 shows a block diagram of the control module, with Table 7 providing an alphabetized description of each wire. At the heart of the module, like most of the modules in the controller, is an FSM which performs each step necessary during a read or a write. Table 8 shows each state with its output.

Figure 16: Block diagram of the decode module.

The module processes memory accesses from the PLX as they arrive. An access is initiated when the FSM is idle and the HADS signal is dropped. If HADS is dropped and the FSM is not idle, it is ignored. When the HADS signal is dropped the FSM raises the latch address signal to latch the address to the address out bus and examines the address to determine which module should handle the access. To do this, each module is given a number from 0 to 7 as shown in Table 9. If the address is in the SDRAM or AHIP memory spaces, the appropriate module is saved in the selected module register. If the address is in the control register space, bits 20 to 23 of the address are used as the selected module, this work because the

Table 7: Decode module wire descriptions.

[1] next state = HADS ? IDLE :

(next selected module == DECODE) ? SEND : WAIT START [2] next state = module done ? HLWNR ? WRITE : READ :

(count = timeout) ? TIMEOUT : WAIT START

[3] next_state = count == 1 ? IDLE : WAIT_WRITE

[4] next state = module da ? SEND :

(count == timeout) ? TIMEOUT : WAIT READ

[5] hadsel = (selected_module == DECODE)

Table 8: Decode module state definitions.

Module	Number
Voltage Set	0
Voltage Measure	
Current EMasure	2
Clock	3
SDRAM	4
USER pin	5
LGALED	6
AHIP	7
DECODE	X

Table 9: Module numbers.

control registers are placed in memory such that bits 20 to 23 of the address contain the module number. If the selected module is the decode module, the FSM goes straight to the SEND state to send the status word. Otherwise it goes to the WAIT START state.

In the WAIT START state, the FSM waits for the selected module to raise its done signal in case the module is busy finishing a previous operation. During this state the counter is going and if the count reaches a specified timeout (currently 0xFFFF) the FSM goes to the TIMEOUT state. When the selected module's done signal is high, the FSM goes to either the WRITE or READ state depending on the value of HLWNR.

In the WRITE state, the FSM drops the HLRDY signal for one cycle and moves immediately to the WAIT WRITE state. Here it waits one cycle for the HLRDY signal to make it off the baseboard and to the PLX (it must go through two registers). In the second cycle in the WAIT WRITE state the latch data signal is raised to latch the data from the PLX and module en signal is raised to enable the selected module. Following the second cycle in the WAIT WRITE state, the FSM goes back to IDLE ready to process another request while the module that just received the write command is processing the write. Figure 17 shows a timing diagram of this process.

Figure 17: Timing diagram of a write for decode module.

During the READ state, the module en signal is raised, enabling the selected module. The FSM then waits a cycle in the STALL state to give the module enough time to lower its da signal and for that da signal to make it back to the decoder. After waiting a cycle the FSM enters the WAIT READ state in which it waits for the module to raise its da signal to indicate that the read data is available. Like the WAIT START state, this state is timed by the counter and can timeout. Once the module raises its da signal, the FSM moves to the SEND state. In the SEND state, HXDIR is lowered to make the HAD bus driven by the controller and the HLRDY signal is lowered to tell the PLX the data is being sent on the bus. If the selected module is the decode module, hadsel is used to send the status word, otherwise the data bus, which is the output from the currently selected module, is sent to the PLX. After the SEND state the FSM goes back to IDLE. Figure 18 shows a timing diagram of this process.

Figure 18: Timing diagram of a read for decode module.

In the TIMEOUT state, HLRDY is dropped so the PLX will stop waiting for the controller. If the access is a read, the hadsel and error signal are used to return 0xdeadbeef. If the access is a write, the write is never performed. Following the TIMEOUT state the controller returns to IDLE.

3.5 SDRAM control module

The SDRAM control module is responsible for all communication with the SDRAM chips on the baseboard. The SDRAM chips need to be regularly refreshed so the module uses a seperate refresh timer to keep track of when a refresh should occur, this is described in Section 3.5.1 then the operation of the actual SDRAM control module is described in Section 3.5.2.

3.5.1 Refresh Timer

The refresh timer has three main inputs, a clock, reset, and maximum value, and one output, an expired signal. It consists of a simple counter that counts up by one each clock cycle until the count equals the maximum value given. When the count reaches the maximum value it stops counting and raises the expired output. It holds expired high until the reset signal is raised at which point it resets the counter to 0, and starts over. A block diagram is shown in Figure 19.

Figure 19: Refresh timer for the SDRAM control module.

3.5.2 SDRAM control module implementation.

The SDRAM control module performs the necessary initialization of the SDRAM chips when reset and performs reads and writes to the SDRAM during use. Along with the standard interface to the decode module, the SDRAM control modules controls all signals going to the SDRAM chips. The global clock is used as the clock for the SDRAM chips and the CKE (clock enable) input to the SDRAM is tied high so the clock is always activated. The input/output mask, SDDQM, to the SDRAM is tied low so SDDQ is never masked. The three command inputs, SDWE_B, SDCAS_B, and SDRAS_B, are controlled by the FSM within the SDRAM control module. The bank address (SDBA), address (SDA), and data (SDDQ) inputs to the SDRAM come from internal registers, as controlled by the FSM.

Figure 20 shows a block diagram of the SDRAM control module, with Table 12 providing an alphabetized description of each wire. Table 10 shows each state with its output. Because it is often necessary to wait a specific number of cycles, three WAIT states are defined in the FSM and an additional wait state register is added. When in the wait states, the FSM counts down from WAIT3 to WAIT2 to WAIT1 then returns to the state saved in the the wait state register.

After a reset, the FSM goes through an initialization process to prepare the SDRAM chips for use, this follows the process described in the SDRAM data sheets [6]. After issuing an initial NOP command in the INIT state, in the PRECHARGE ALL state, sda sel is set to precharge all (00b) to output the address 0x400 to indicate the SDRAM should precharge all banks, a PRECHARGE command is then issued to the SDRAM. The FSM waits three cycles to ensure all banks are precharged then issues two REFRESH commands with a 3 cycle delay after each. Finally, a LMR command is issued loading the mode register with the value of $0x021$ by setting sda_sel to mode (01b). This tells the SDRAM that the controller wants sequential bursts of length two and a CAS latency of two (this means that data appears two cycles after a read command is issued). After the mode register is loaded, the FSM goes to an IDLE state. Figure 21 shows a timing diagram of this process.

When idle, the FSM waits for a memory access to come from ether the decode module or the current

Figure 20: Block diagram of the SDRAM control module.

Figure 21: Timing diagram of SDRAM initialization.

[2] data sel = (enable & ctl reg & !w nr) ? rt : save

[3] latch write data, latch address, !da, !done = (enable & !ctl reg)

[4] latch_rt = (enable & ctl_reg & w_nr)

Table 10: SDRAM control module state definitions.

[1] next_state = (enable $\&$!refresh_expired $\&$!ctl_reg) ? (w_nr ? BEGIN_WRITE : BEGIN READ) : IDLE

Table 11: SDRAM control module state transitions.

measure module. To allow the current measure module to write to the SDRAM, cs we and cs address are used. When cs we goes high, enable and w nr both go high and cs address is sent to the address register instead of address in; thus a write from the current measure module looks just like a write from the user. While waiting for an access, if refresh expired goes high it issues a REFRESH command and resets the refresh timer. When enable is raised indicating an access request has arrived, it checks the ctl reg signal to see if the access is to the control register (the refresh time) or to SDRAM. If the access is to the control register and a write, latch rt is raised to latch the new refresh time and the FSM remains idle. If the access is to the control register and a read, then data sel is set to rt (01b) to output to refresh time and the FSM remains idle. If the access is to SDRAM it latches both the write data and the address and goes to either BEGIN_WRITE or BEGIN_READ depending on w_nr.

In BEGIN_WRITE, the ACTIVE command is sent to the SDRAM with the top two bits of the latched address as the bank (SDBA) and the next 12 bits as the row to activate (sent on SDA by setting sda sel to row (10b)). It waits a cycle for the correct bank and row to be activated then goes to the WRITE 1 state. In WRITE₁, the WRITE command is issued to the SDRAM with the the bottom 11 bits of SDA the bottom 10 bits of the latched address multiplied by two because there are two SDRAM locations for every 32-bit word in SDRAM address space. Bit 10 of SDA is set to 1 to indicate we want the SDRAM chip to auto precharge when done, and bit 11 is unused and set to 0. All this is accomplished by setting sda sel to column (11b). During WRITE 1, sddq hilo and drive sddq are high to drive the high 12 bits of the latched write data onto SDDQ. Next, in WRITE 2, a NOP is issued and sddq hilo is dropped, keeping drive sddq high, to drive SDDQ with the low 12 bits of write data, finishing the burst. The FSM waits one more cycle for the bank to be precharged and then returns to the IDLE state. Figure 22 shows a timing diagram of this process.

Figure 22: Timing diagram of a SDRAM write.

In BEGIN_READ, the ACTIVE command is sent to the SDRAM with the top two bits of the latched address as the bank (SDBA) and the next 12 bits as the row to activate (sent on SDA), just like BEGIN WRITE. It waits a cycle for the correct bank and row to be activated then goes to the READ ISSUE state. In READ ISSUE the READ command is issued to the SDRAM with SDA selecting the appropriate column and auto precharge as it was during a write. After waiting a cycle for the data to arrive, in READ 1, data sel is get hi (10b) to latch the high word from SDDQ into data out. Then in READ 2 data sel is get lo (11b) to

 $(0 \& \Gamma))$? (SCIK ? STINCT : STINC2) [2] next_state = $\text{(count[6:0]} == 0x7F)$? $\text{(count[10:7]} == 0xF)$? IDLE : ZEROS : SHIFT

latch the low word from SDDQ into data out. The FSM waits one more cycle for the bank to be precharged and then returns to the IDLE state. Figure 23 shows a timing diagram of this process.

Figure 23: Timing diagram of a SDRAM read.

3.6 Voltage Set module

The voltage set module interacts with the 16 DACs on ATB0 that are used to set the voltage level for each of the 16 power supplies. There are 16 registers to hold the values for each of the power supplies (VSR0 - VSR15). Writing to any of them except VSR15 just sets the register value, it does not set the actual voltage. Writing to VSR15 sets the VSR15 register then initiates the scanning-in process described below to actually set the voltage on each power supply. Reading a voltage set register just returns the value in the register, it does not return the actual voltage of the power supply, the voltage measure module can be used for that.

The DACs used are daisy chained together, and for each chip, "the data at DIN appears at DOUT, delayed by 16 clock cycles plus one clock width" [7]. Therefore, by shifting 256 bits into the first DAC, with values in the order they are daisy chained together, the module sets all 16 of them. This is accomplished with a shiftreg out module. The ordering of the chips is: 9, 1, 5, 15, 11, 7, 3, 13, 12, 2, 6, 10, 14, 4, 0, 8 (starting from the last in the chain, going to first). See the DAC's datasheet [7] or the hardware document [1] for more information. Another caveat is the DACs can not run at 40 MHz, 15 MHz is the fatest they will go, so we use the slow clock provided by the controller module.

Figure 24 shows a block diagram of the voltage set module, with Table 14 providing an alphabetized description of each wire. The module uses a FSM to perform the scanning-in to the DACs. Table 13 shows each state with its output.

Table 14: Voltage set module wire descriptions.

Figure 24: Block diagram of the voltage set module.

The FSM is not used when the user reads and writes to the registers. When both enable and w nr are high, vsreg we is raised and the data is latched into the appropriate register, selected by address. The vsreg we register is part of the FSM to ensure that the registers are only written to when the FSM is idle and not shifting. Since data out is always driven with the register selected by address, no additional work is needed to perform a read of a register, the data available signal is always high.

When register 15 is written to, the FSM performs the scanning in process. First the FSM gets insync with the slower clock that the DACs use as described in Section 3.1.1. Once synced, the scanning in process occurs during the ZEROS and SHIFT state and PVSCSB is therefore low during both of these states. The counter is also going while scanning in. During the ZEROS state, four zeroes are outputted by holding sr shift low (causing the shiftreg to hold it's output low) for four sclk cycles (0x1F normal cycles). While waiting for the zeros to complete, the shift register is loaded with the next register value to shift out, based on the value of the count. Because the sclk is 8 times slower than the global clock each bit takes 8 cycles to complete, and each power supply requires 16 bits to be "shifted" in, totalling 128 cycles per power supply. Therefore, the top 4 bits of the count (count[10:7]) can be used to count what power supply's value is being shifted in (i.e. if count[10:7] is 0, VSR9 is loaded into the shift register, if count[10:7] is 2, VSR5 is loaded into the shift register). After waiting 4 sclk cycles in the ZEROS state, the FSM enters the SHIFT state and instructs the shift register to shift out its newly latched value, one bit every 8 cycles. After 12 sclk cycles (or a total of 0x7F normal cycles), the FSM goes back to the ZEROS state and repeats the process. This is continued until the counter reaches 0x7FF, marking the end of the scanning in. The FSM then returns to the IDLE state. Figure 25 shows a timing diagram of the beginning of this process.

Figure 25: Timing diagram for the voltage set module. Shows the beginning of the scanning in process, will continue to switch between the ZEROS and SHIFT state until all power supplies have been finished.

state	done	da	count go	sr_shift	latch_address	convert	next_state
IDLE	!read	!read			read		read ? sclk ? SYNC1 : SYNC2 : IDLE
SYNC ₁							sclk $?$ SYNC1 : SYNC2
SYNC ₂							sclk ? SYNC2 : CONV
CONVERT							$\text{(count == } 0x1)$? SHIFT : CONV
SHIFT							(count == 0xD) ? SAMPLE NEXT : SHIFT
SAMPLE_NEXT							(count == 0xF) ? IDLE : SAMPLE_NEXT

Table 15: Voltage measure module state definitions.

3.7 Voltage measure module

The voltage measure module interacts with the 14 ADCs on ATB0 that are used to measure the actual voltage of each of the positive power supplies. All 14 ADCs have an individual convert signal and all share a single serial data line. The module uses a single shift register, but from the user's point of view there are 14 different registers, VMR0 - VMR13, one for each power supply. Writes to any register are ignored. When the user reads a register, the module instructs the specified power supply's voltage measure ADC to convert the voltage to a 12-bit value and then reads that value into the shift register. When the shifting has completed, the newly obtained value is sent to the user. A FSM is used to step through the process. Figure 26 shows a block diagram of the module, Table 16 contains an alphabetized description of each wire, and Table 15 shows each state with its outputs.

When the FSM is idle, it waits for enable to go high with w nr low to indicate a read. When this happens, latch address is raised to save the address of the read and the FSM gets insync with the slower clock as described in Section 3.1.1. When done syncing, it moves to the CONVERT state and raises the convert signal, causing the PVMCVB to the ADC specified by the saved address to go low; the counter is also started in the CONVERT state. The count into the FSM is the top 4 bits of the actual count, so it is incremented once every 8 cycles, the same rate at which the bits are shifted in. After waiting two sclk cycles in the CONVERT state while the ADC converts the voltage to a value, the FSM moves into the SHIFT state for 12 sclk cycles and raises sr shift to instruct the shift register to shift the value coming in on PVMD into its register. When done shifting, the data is available so the da signal is raised, but the FSM moves into SAMPLE NEXT state to wait two sclk cycles for the ADC to get the next sample before raising done and becoming idle, this is to insure another access to the same ADC does not follow too closely. After two sclk cycles in SAMPLE NEXT, the FSM returns to the IDLE state. Figure 27 shows a timing diagram of this procedure.

Figure 26: Block diagram of the voltage measure module.

Table 16: Voltage measure module wire descriptions.

Figure 27: Timing diagram for the voltage measure module. This is the timing of the value from the ADC being shifted into the shift register.

 $*$ bit = count[6:3] $[1]$ count go = $!(bit == 0xD)$

[2] next_state = (bit == $0xD$? address[10] ? SAMPLE_NEXT : WRITE_SDRAM : SHIFT

[3] sdram we = $\text{(count}[2:0] == 0x7)$

latch address = (state == IDLE $\&$ enable) | write sdram

latch_sda = (state == IDLE & enable & w_nr & address in == 0x0) | (write sdram & count[2:0] == 0x0 & count[6:3] != 0x0)

Table 17: Current measure module state definitions.

3.8 Current measure module

The current measure module interacts with the 14 ADCs on ATB0 that are used to measure the current drawn from each of the positive power supplies. One convert signal controls all 14 ADCs and each of them have an individual serial data line. The module works much like the voltage measure module except that it has 14 shift registers instead of just one and does not need a decoder to use the correct convert signal to the ADCs, as there is only one. It also has the added functionality of writing the measurements to the onboard SDRAM when requested. From the users point of view, there is one register (CM BURST) that holds the address in SDRAM memory space where measurements are put and initiates a measurement of all power supplies when read, there are also 196 (14 ∗ 14) registers (CM*mn*) that can be used to read any two power supplies at once. The CM_MASK register is not currently implemented.

When the user reads either CM_BURST or one of the CM*mn* registers, the module instructs each power supply's current measure ADC to convert the voltage from the current sensor to a 12-bit value and then reads those values into the 14 shift registers. When the shifting has completed, if CM BURST was read, each of the 14 measurements are stored into SDRAM and the address they were stored at is returned to the user; if a CM*mn* register was read, the two values requested are returned to the user.

As usual, a FSM is used to step through the process. Figure 28 shows a block diagram of the module, Table 18 contains an alphabetized description of each wire, and Table 17 shows each state with its outputs.

Figure 28: Block diagram of the current measure module.

Table 18: Current measure module wire descriptions.

When the FSM is idle, it waits for the user to read from CM_BURST or a CM*mn* register, this is done by waiting for the conv signal to go high, indicating that enable is high and w nr is low, which means a read is requested and a conversion is necessary. If the user is writing to CM BURST then latch sda is raised to cause sdram address to latch the new address on data in and the FSM remains IDLE. All other writes are ignored.

When conv goes high, the FSM raises latch address to save the address and drops done and da to indicate that it is busy and data out is not valid. The FSM then gets insync with the slower clock as described in Section 3.1.1 and moves to the CONVERT state. In CONVERT, it raises the convert signal, causing the PCMCVB to the ADCs to go low. Using the counter, the FSM waits two sclk cycls in CONVERT then moves to the SHIFT state for 12 sclk cycle and raises sr shift to instruct the shift registers to shift in the value coming in on PCMD into their registers. During the shifting state, start sdram address latches sdram address so it is available to output after a write to SDRAM when sdram address has changed. On the last cycle of shifting, the counter is reset to prepare for a possible write to SDRAM and the address is checked; if the user is reading from a CM*mn* register, the FSM waits two additional sclk cycles in SAMPLE NEXT to allow the ADC to sample the next voltage before another read is performed. Because address[10] is high, data out will be the value of the two shift registers pointed to by the saved address. This part of the process is nearly identical to the voltage measure timing shown in Figure 27.

When done shifting, if the user is reading CM_BURST, the FSM goes into the WRITE SDRAM state. During the WRITE SDRAM state, the module is in an 8 cycle loop controlled by the counter. Each loop iteration writes two measurements into an SDRAM word; writing only once every 8 cycles give the SDRAM time to perform the write and return IDLE. Within the loop, the counter is used to generate an address to output. Bits 9 to 6 of the address are count[5:3] followed by a 1, and bits 5 to 2 of the address are count[5:3] followed by a 0. This way as the count progresses upward, the address bits used to determine data out move through 0x10, 0x32, 0x54, etc. on up to 0xCB, changing every time around the 8 cycle loop. At the beginning of the loop, sdram address is also incremented by one (except for the first iteration, when it is not incremented). The address into the SDRAM control module is a word address, not a byte address, so incrementing this address by one takes us to the next word in SDRAM memory space. The next cycle in the loop, data out contains the values of the appropriate shift registers. Then at the end of a loop iteration (when count[2:0] is 7) the sdram we signal is raised to tell the SDRAM controller to write the value on data out to sdram address. A timing diagram of two loop iterations is shown in Figure 29. This method was chosen as opposed to performing a burst write to the SDRAM to avoid dealing with bank and row boundaries.

Figure 29: Timing diagram of the current measure module writing to SDRAM memory.

state	done	CKSL	sr shift	count_go	latch_data	next state
IDLE	!write				write	write ? $(sclk ? SYNC1 : SYNC2)$: IDLE
SYNC ₁						selk? SYNC1 : SYNC2
SYNC ₂						sclk ? WAIT : $SYNC2$
WAIT				$!(count == 0x2)$		$\text{(count == } 0x2)$? SHIFT : WAIT
SHIFT						$\text{(count == } 0x70)$? IDLE : SHIFT

Table 19: Clock module state definitions

3.9 Clock module

The clock module interacts with a programmable frequency synthesizer to set the frequency of the clock sent to the daughtercard. A 14 bit control register is used to configure the chip (CLOCK). When the register is written to the value written to the register is immediately shifted into the frequency synthesizer and saved for later reference. When the register is read, the last value sent to the synthesizer is returned. As usual, an FSM is used to step through the process. Figure 30 shows a block diagram of the module, Table 20 contains an alphabetized description of each wire, and Table 19 shows each state with its output.

Figure 30: Block diagram of the clock module.

When the FSM is idle, it waits for enable to go high with w nr high to indicate a write operation. When this happens latch data is raised to latch the data for future read back and done is dropped to indicate the module is no longer idle. After syncing up with the slower clock of the frequency synthesizer as described in Section 3.1.1, the module starts the counter and waits an additional three cycles in the WAIT state. It does this so the shift register shifts in the middle of the CKSC cycle to help meet the long hold time of the frequency synthesizer. After waiting the three cycles (normal cycles, not sclk cycles), the FSM enters the shift state where it raises CKSL to instruct the frequency synthesizer to load in a new value, raises sr shift to instruct the shift register to shift out its value onto CKSD, and waits another 14 sclk cycles (or 0x70 normal cycles) while the shift registers shifts. It then returns to IDLE. Figure 31 shows a timing diagram of this process.

Table 20: Clock module wire descriptions.

3.10 User pin control module

The user pin control module is responsible for handling the 26 user pins connected to the daughtercard. It allows the user to set both the direction of the pin (i.e. whether the controller or the daughtercard drive the pin) and the value of the pin if the controller is driving it. The user can read each pin's value whether it is being driven by the controller or daughtercard and each pin's direction, as well as all pin values and directions at once. It is one of the few modules in the controller that does not use a FSM. Figure 32 is a block diagram of the module and Table 21 is an alphabetized description of each wire.

Figure 32: Block diagram of the User pin control module.

The module uses a "special" register file that acts much like two separate register files, each with 26 1 bit register, but allows for some special features as described below. One register file contains the 26 user def registers, each register is the user defined value for one pin. The other register file contains the 26 drive pin register, each register is the direction of one pin. The output of the combined register file is two busses, one containing each drive pin register and one containing each user def register. The user def bus is separate from the USER bus, which is the actual value on the user pin whether it is being driven by the controller or daughtercard. 26 seperate tri-state drivers are used to drive each pin of the USER bus with the corresponding user def register if the corresponding drive pin register is high.

Reads are split into two categories: reads of a "register" (reading USER ALL or USER DIR) and a read of a user pin (one of the USER*p* registers). If the read is to a register, address[0] selects either the drive pin or USER bus depending on if USER ALL or USER DIR is read. Address[10] then selects to send the selected bus to the data out register where it is latched into data out and sent as the output. If the read is to a user pin, address[6:2] selects a drive pin register and a bit from the USER bus, puts the drive pin register in bit 1 and the bit from USER in bit 0 of a new bus and address[10] selects that bus to latch into data out and send as the output. The data out register keeps its value unless a read occurs, at which point it

Signal	Description
address	Input from decode module. Address[10] determines if the lower bits select a pin number
	or a register. Address [6:2] hold the pin number and address [1:0] is the register number.
addr_okay	A signal that indicates if address[6:2] is below 26 and thus a valid pin number.
clk	Global clock. Used as clock input to all registers.
da	Output to decode module. Tied high to indicate data is always available.
data in	Input from decode module. Value to set the $pin(s)$ to.
data_out	Output to PLX. Contains either value and direction of a user pin, all values, or all directions.
	Latches new value on positive edge of the clock when read is high.
done	Output to decode module. Tied high to indicate module is always idle.
drive_pin	A register that contains one bit for each pin that determines whether or not the module
	should drive the pin or leave it in high impedance.
enable	Input from decode module. Begins a memory access.
nreset	Global reset. Used to reset all registers.
read	Indicates that a memory read is requested. Used an enable signal to the data out register.
USER	26 I/O pins connected to the daughtercard.
user def	The user defined value for each pin. A bit in this register is driven onto the User pin if the
	corresponding bit in drive pin is high.
w_nr	Input from decode module. Determines whether an access is a write or a read.
write pin	Indicates a write has been requested to a user pin register and that the pin number is valid.
write_reg	Indicates a write has been requested to a register.

Table 21: User pin control module wire descriptions.

latches the new value on the rising edge of the clock.

The register file knows how to handle writes to any of the registers, which is why it is called "special". If a user pin is written to, address[6:2] is checked to make sure it is a valid pin number. If data in is 0 or 1, then the user def register at address[6:2] is set to data in[0] and the drive pin register at address[6:2] is set to 1. If data in is 2, then the drive pin register at address[6:2] is set to 0 to reset the pin to be an input. If the USER ALL register is written to, all user def registers are set with the bits from data in and all drive pin registers are set to 1. If the USER DIR register is written to, all drive pin registers are set to 0 to reset them all to inputs.

3.11 AHIP module

The AHIP module is responsible for communicating with the daughtercard using the Asynchronous Host Interface Port (AHIP) protocol (see Section 2.3.2.1). The module can be used in one of four modes: normal mode, test mode, 8 bit mode, and 8 bit test mode. The module has one control register which holds the current mode. Writes to the AHIP daughtercard address space are forwarded to this module by the decode module. This module is then responsible for performing the memory access to the daughtercard using AHIP and returning the result. Figure 33 shows a block diagram of the module with Table 22 providing an alphabetized description of each wire. An FSM is used to walk through the protocol, Table 23 provides definition of each state and Table 24 shows the state transitions.

When the user writes to the AHIP_MODE address, address[24] is low and w_nr is high, so when enable is raised by the decode module, latch mode goes high and the value on data in, which is the new mode, is latched onto the mode register for future use. The FSM remains idle. When the user reads from the AHIP MODE register, address [24] is low and w nr is low, so when enable is raised by the decode module,

Figure 33: Block diagram of the AHIP module.

Table 22: AHIP module wire descriptions.

State	Next State
IDLE	go? mode[1]? ISSUE1 : ISSUE : IDLE
ISSUE	ack?header[28]?R_GETDATA:W_SENDDATA:ISSUE
R_GETDATA	ack ? R_GETDATA : R_ACK
R_ACK	ack ? R_DONE : R_ACK
RDONE	ack? R_DONE: IDLE
W_SENDDATA	ack ? W_SENDDATA : IDLE
ISSUE1	ack ? ISSUE2 : ISSUE1
ISSUE ₂	ack ? ISSUE2 : ISSUE3
ISSUE3	ack ? ISSUE4 : ISSUE3
ISSUE4	ack ? ISSUE4 : header[28] ? R8_GETDATA1 : W8_SENDDATA1
R8_GETDATA1	ack ? R8_GETDATA2 : R8_GETDATA1
R8_GETDATA2	ack? R8_GETDATA2: R8_GETDATA3
R8_GETDATA3	ack? R8_GETDATA4: R8_GETDATA3
R8_GETDATA4	ack ? R8_GETDATA4 : R_ACK
W8_SENDDATA1	ack ? W8_SENDDATA2 : W8_SENDDATA1
W8_SENDDATA2	ack ? W8_SENDDATA2 : W8_SENDDATA3
W8_SENDDATA3	ack ? W8_SENDDATA4 : W8_SENDDATA3
W8_SENDDATA4	ack ? W8_SENDDATA4 : IDLE
TIMEOUT	IDLE

Table 24: AHIP module state transitions.

outdata sel goes high and the contents of the mode register are latched onto the data out register to send the current mode back to the user. Again, the FSM remains idle.

While in the IDLE state, ahip_dir is high to drive the ahip_bus with header because the host is responsible for driving the AHIP bus when no transactions are taking place. When the user reads or writes to an address within the AHIP daughtercard address space, address[24] is high, so when the decode module raises the enable signal, go goes high and the FSM begins processing the transaction. First the header is created using w_nr and mode^[0] to create the correct opcode, the bmc field is set to zero, and the low 24 bits of address are used for the address. This all happens on the cycle enable goes high, while the FSM is idle by raising latch header, latch ahipdata and ahip data sel are also raised if the operation is a write to save the data to write that is on data in. The FSM then moves to the ISSUE state where it raises req and waits for ack to go high. Once the AHIP operation has been issued, bit 28 is checked to see if the operation is a write or a read (w nr may not be valid any more). If the operation is a write, the FSM goes to the W SENDDATA state. If the operation is a read, the FSM goes to R GETDATA state.

In the W SENDATA state, req is dropped, ahip dir remains high to drive ahip bus, and bus sel is also raised high to send ahipdata to the ahip bus. The FSM waits for ack to be dropped to indicate the slave received the data and then returns to the IDLE state.

In the R GETDATA state, req is dropped, latch ahipdata is raised with ahip data sel 0 to latch the data coming in on ahip bus into ahipdata, and ahip dir is dropped to allow the slave to drive ahip bus. Some invalid value may be latched onto ahipdata during this state, but in the cycle that ack is dropped by the slave, the correct value will be latched into ahipdata and the FSM can move onto the R ACK state where it raises req to inform the slave that it received the data. During this state, ahip dir is still low because the slave is still driving the bus. The FSM waits in R ACK until the slave raises ack once again to indicate it is no longer driving the bus, the FSM then move to the R_DONE state where it drops req, starts driving the bus again and waits for ack to be dropped to signal the end of the transaction, it then returns to the IDLE state.

During each of the states, besides IDLE, the counter is going. If the counter ever reaches its maximum value, the FSM goes to the TIMEOUT state where it raises error to return 0xdeadbeef to the user if a read was in progress. The maximum value of the counter is used because we want the timeout to be very long, if the operation was a read and the controller stops waiting for a response too soon, the AHIP client on the daughtercard could get stuck waiting for the controller to acknowledge receiving the data, which would never happen.

If the module is in an 8 bit mode, the ISSUE, R GETDATA, and W SENDDATA states are split into 4 seperate states that perform the necessary action on a single byte. When in these stages, a change in ack moves the FSM to the next state and req is switched from state to state. A read if finished the same way whether it was done using an 8 bit bus or a 32 bit bus.

Figures 9, 10, and 11 in Section 2.3.2 show timing diagrams for all AHIP transactions.

3.12 LGALED module

The LGALED module is simply a register that latches its input when enable and w on are high. It always drives both its data out signal to the PLX and the LED and LGA signals to the baseboard with the contents of the register. Its da and done signals are tied high.

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A Pinout listings

∗Logic analyzer pins are given in the format *Pod*/*Bit*/*Pin*. For example, **ahip bus4** is the 9th bit on the Odd side of Logic Analyzer 0 (or pod 1) of ADB0 which is pin 43 of the Logic Analyzer connection, therefore it reads 1/9/43.