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343S0061-A

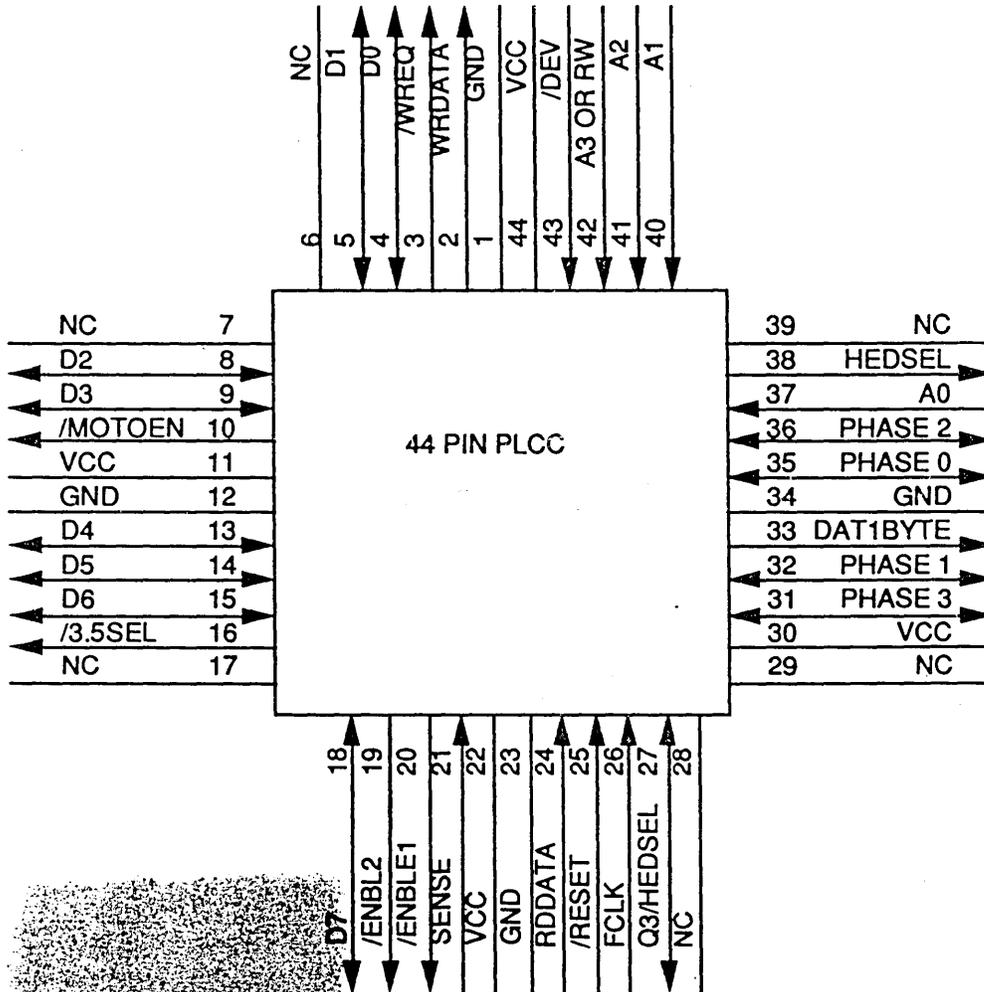
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 <small>DIMENSIONS ARE IN MILLIMETERS. DIMENSIONS IN BRACKETS [] ARE IN INCHES.</small> TOLERANCES X.X ± .3 [.01] X.XX ± .13 [.005] X.XXX ± .03 [.001] ANGLE ± .1 <small>or as noted</small> DO NOT SCALE DRAWING	METRIC		 Apple Computer, Inc.		
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	ENG APPD <i>M. Tely</i>	<i>9/14/88</i>	MFG APPD	<i>//</i>	
	QA APPD	<i>//</i>	DESIGNER	<i>//</i>	TITLE IC CUSTOM, GATE ARRAY MFM/GCR DISC CONTROLLER, SWIM 44 PIN PLCC
	RELEASE	<i>//</i>	SCALE		
MATERIAL/FINISH NOTED AS APPLICABLE		SIZE A	DRAWING NUMBER 343S0061-A	SHT 1/55	

1.0 SCOPE:

This specifies the parametric requirements of a custom chip in a 44 pin PLCC package. This device combines both an IWM and an ISM into one disk controller with the following features.

- Supports Standard MFM Format
- Supports Apple GCR Format
- Write Pre-Compensation
- Read Post Compensation
- Asymmetry and Speed Error Compensation
- Programmable Parameters for using both Multi and Fixed speed drives
- Two Byte Data FIFO
- Motor Time Out
- Programmable Phase Lines



NOTE: For Pin Descriptions see paragraph 6.1.

FIGURE 1. PIN CONFIGURATION



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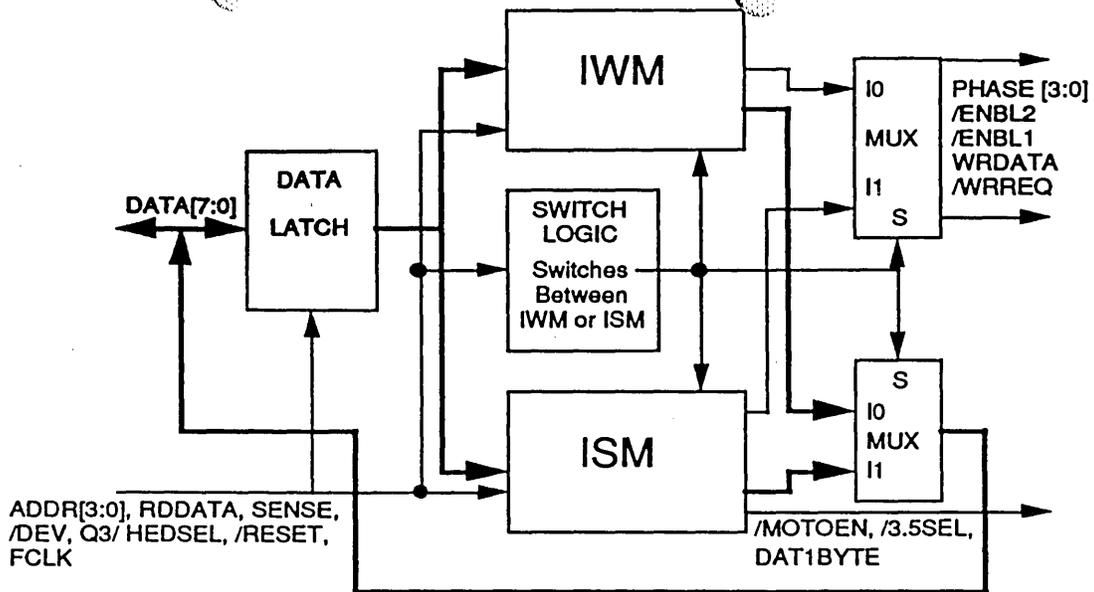


FIGURE 2. BLOCK DIAGRAM

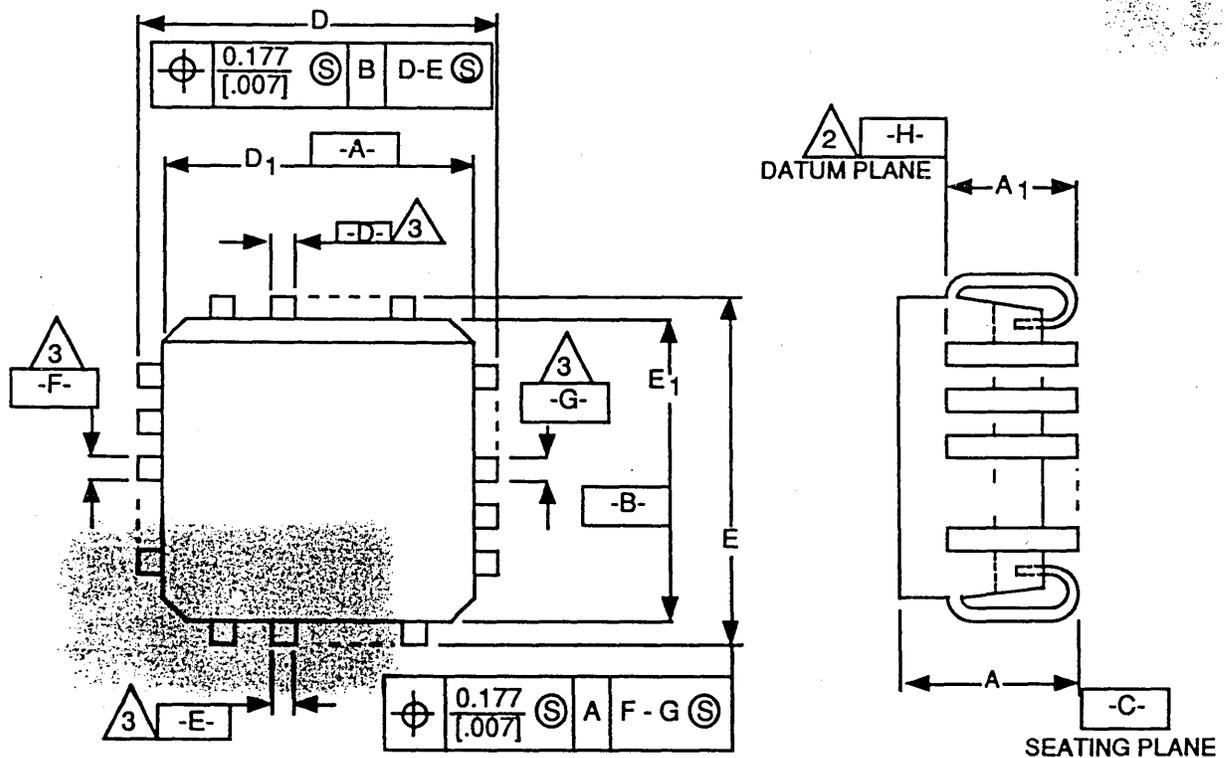


FIGURE 3. PRINCIPLE DIMENSIONS & DATUMS



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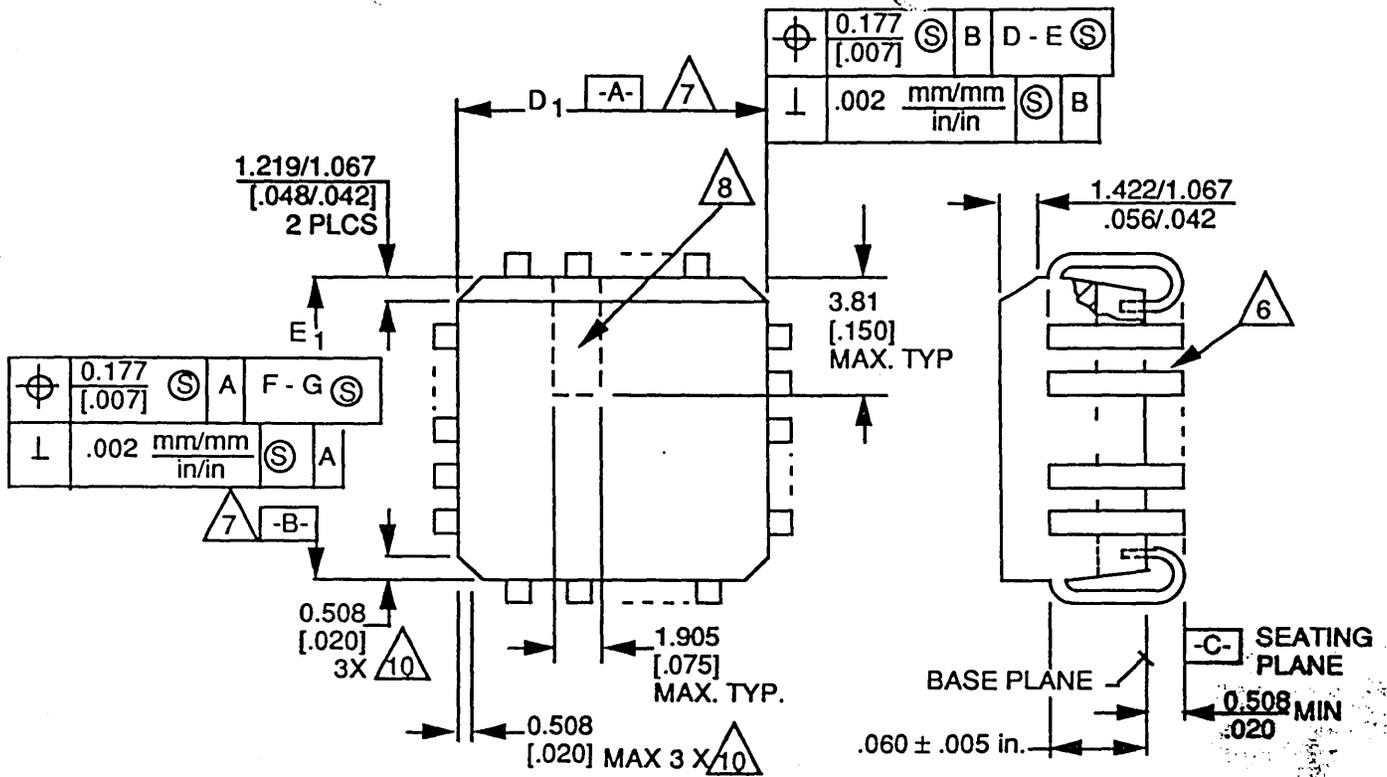
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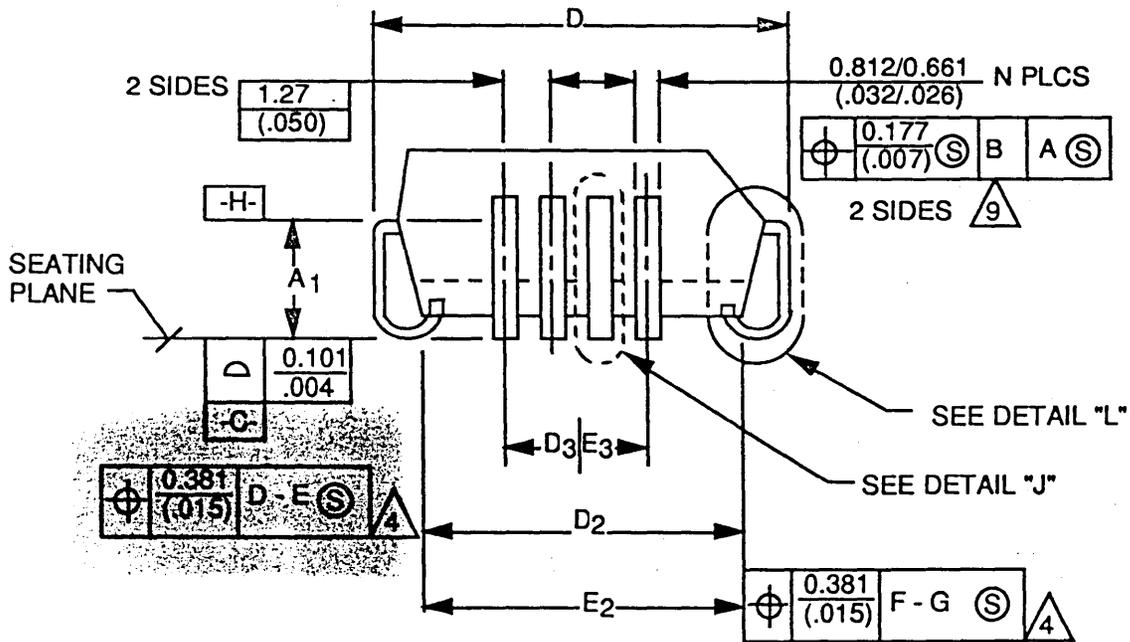
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MOLDED DETAILS



TERMINAL DETAILS

FIGURE 3. (CONT'D)



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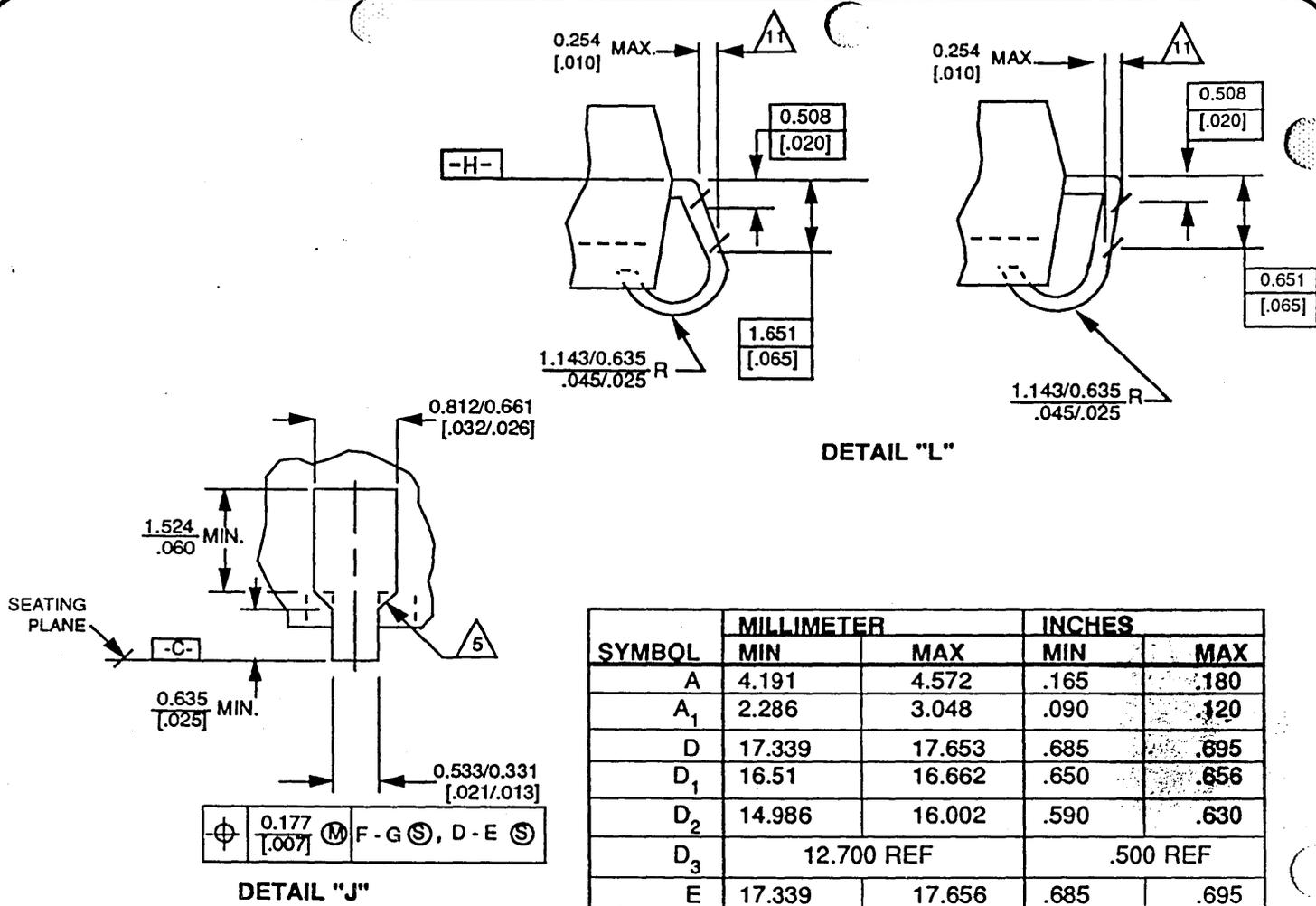


FIGURE 3. (CONT'D)

FIGURE 3. NOTES

- 1 All dimensions and tolerances conform to ANSI Y14.5M-1982.
- 2 Datum Plane **-H-** located at top of mold parting line and coincident with top of lead, where lead exits plastic body.
- 3 Datums **D-E** and **E-G** to be determined where center leads exit plastic body at Datum plane **-H-**.
- 4 To be determined at seating plane **-C-**.
- 5 Transition is optional.
- 6 Plastic body details between leads are optional.
- 7 Dimensions **D1** and **E1** do not include mold protrusion. Allowable mold protrusion is .254mm/.010in.
- 8 Details of Pin 1 identifier are optional but must be located within the zone indicated.
- 9 Location to datums **-A-** and **-B-** to be determined at plane **-H-**.
- 10 Exact shape of this feature is optional.
- 11 These two dimensions determine maximum angle of the lead for certain socket applications. If unit is intended to be socketed, it is advisable to review these dimensions with the socket supplier.

FIGURE 1. (CONT'D)

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- 2.0 **APPLICABLE DOCUMENTS:**
EIA-RS-186-9 Solderability
MIL-STD-883C Test methods and procedures for microelectronics

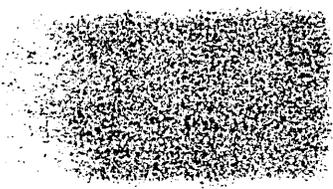
3.0 **REQUIREMENTS:**

3.1 **PHYSICAL:**

- 3.1.1 **PACKAGE:** 28 Pin PLCC. Dimensions per Figure 3. Pin configuration per Figure 1.
3.1.2 **MARKINGS:** Manufacturer's name or industry recognized logo, Apple part number and date code.
3.1.3 **SOLDERABILITY:** Leads must meet the soldering requirements of EIA-RS-186-9.
3.1.4 **RESISTANCE TO SOLDERING HEAT:** (260°C for 10 sec in molten solder after 218°C for 30 sec. in vapor phase-60/40 solder and 260°C for 10 sec in molten solder after 240°C for 30 sec in I.R. -60/40 solder). Rate of temperature rise is 3°C/sec to within 100°C of the final temperature.
3.1.5 **CLEANING:** Parts must be washable in standard flux removal solvent and must not trap any cleaning liquids.

3.2 **ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS:**

- 3.2.1 **ELECTROSTATIC DISCHARGE SENSITIVITY:** The minimum electrostatic discharge voltage per pin is ± 2000 volts as specified in MIL-STD-883C, method 3015.3 (i.e. $C=100\text{pF}$; $R = 1.5\text{k}\Omega$).
3.2.2 **LATCH-UP TEST:** The minimum latch-up current for all pins except ground is 50mA in both positive and negative directions. This applies to full temperature and power supply ranges.
3.2.3 **ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS:** See Table 1.
3.2.4 **STATIC PARAMETERS:** See Tables 2 and 3.
3.2.5 **DYNAMIC PARAMETERS:** See Tables 4 to 12 and Figures 4 to 12.



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TABLE 1. ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	LIMITS		UNIT
		MIN	MAX	
V _{DD}	Supply Voltage	-0.3	+7.0	V
V _I	Input Voltage	-0.3	V _{DD} +0.3	V
V _O	Output Voltage	-0.3	V _{DD} +0.3	V
I _{IN}	Input Current	-10	+10	mA
T _{LEAD}	Lead Temp (Solder, 10 sec)	300		°C
T _{OP}	Operating Ambient Temp Range	0	+70	°C
T _{ST}	Storage Temperature Range	-55	+150	°C
P _D	Power Dissipation		250	mW

TABLE 2. GUARANTEED OPERATING CONDITIONS

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	LIMITS		UNIT
		MIN	MAX	
V _{DD}	Supply Voltage	+4.75	+5.25	V
T _{OP}	Operating Ambient Temp Range	0	+70	°C

TABLE 3. DC CHARACTERISTICS (All guaranteed Operating Conditions)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	LIMITS		UNIT
		MIN	MAX	
I _{DD}	Supply Current		50	mA
V _{IL}	Input Low Voltage			
	FCLK, Q3/HEDSEL All Others		+0.6 +0.8	V V
V _{IH}	Input High Voltage			
	FCLK, Q3/HEDSEL /RESET	+2.2 +2.7		V V
	All Others	+2.0		V
V _{OH}	Output High Voltage (I _{OH} = +3.2 mA)	+2.4		V
V _{OL}	Output Low Voltage			
	/WWREQ, PHASE 1 (I _{OL} = +10.0 mA)		+0.4	V
	/ENBL1, ENBL2 (I _{OL} = +5.0 mA)		+0.4	V
	All Others (I _{OL} = +3.2 mA)		+0.4	µA
I _{IL}	Input Leakage Current (V _{IN} = V _{DD} or GND)			
	RDDATA, SENSE	-	1.1	mA
I _{OZ}	Output Leak, Current (3 State, O.C. Outputs)	-10	+10	µA
	All others	-10	+10	µA
R _{IL}	Pull Up Resistance (V _{IL} = GND)	5	20	KΩ
	RDDATA, SENSE			



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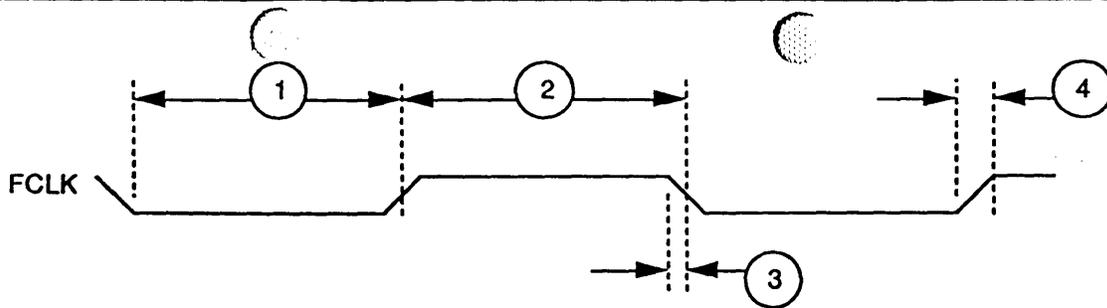


FIGURE 4. GENERAL CLOCK TIMING

TABLE 4. GENERAL CLOCK TIMING (See Figure 4)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	LIMITS	
		MIN	MAX
① $t_{wCK(LD)}$	FCLK Clock Low Width	30ns	DC
② $t_{wCK(HI)}$	FCLK Clock High Width	30ns	DC
t_{cyc}	FCLK Clock period	60ns	DC
③ t_f	Fall Time (All outputs - 90% to 10%) Output Loading = 50pF to Ground		10ns
④ t_r	Rise Time (All outputs - 10% to 90%) Output Loading = 50pF to Ground		10ns
③ t_f	FCLK Fall Time		10ns
④ t_r	FCLK Rise Time		10ns

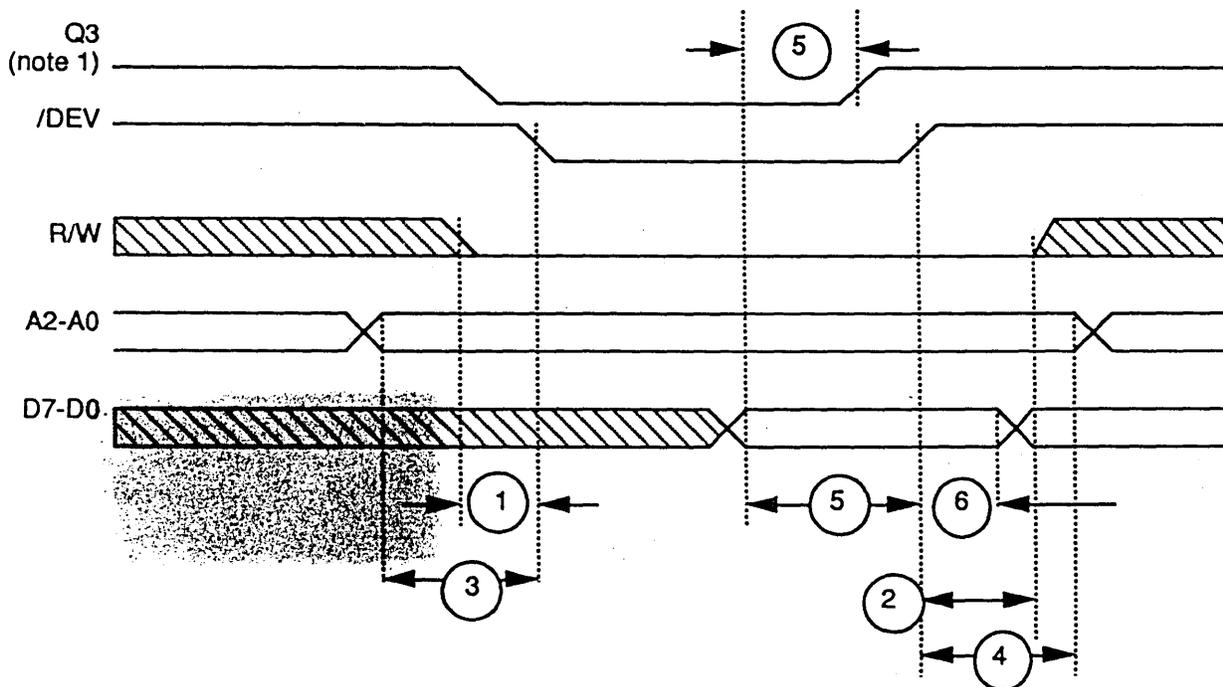


FIGURE 5. PROCESSOR WRITE TIMING



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TABLE 5. PROCESSOR WRITE TIMING (See Figure 5)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	LIMITS	
		MIN	MAX
① $t_{sRW(DEV)}$	R/W Low to /DEV Fall Setup Time	15ns	-
② $t_{hDEVr(RW)}$	/DEV Rise to R/W Low Hold Time	0ns	-
③ $t_{sA(DEV)}$	Address Valid to /DEV Fall Setup Time	15ns	-
④ $t_{hDEVr(A)}$	/DEV Rise to Address Valid Hold Time	0ns	-
⑤ $t_{sD(DEVr)}$	Data Valid to (/DEV or Q3) Rise Setup Time	35ns	-
⑥ $t_{hDEVr(D)}$	(/DEV or Q3 Rise to Data Valid Hold Time	10ns	-

NOTE 1: Q3 is used to latch the data if bit 0 of the Setup register is low only if a Q3 occurs during /DEV. If no Q3 occurs then the data is latched on the rising edge of /DEV. If bit 0 of the Setup register is high then the data is always latched on /DEV.

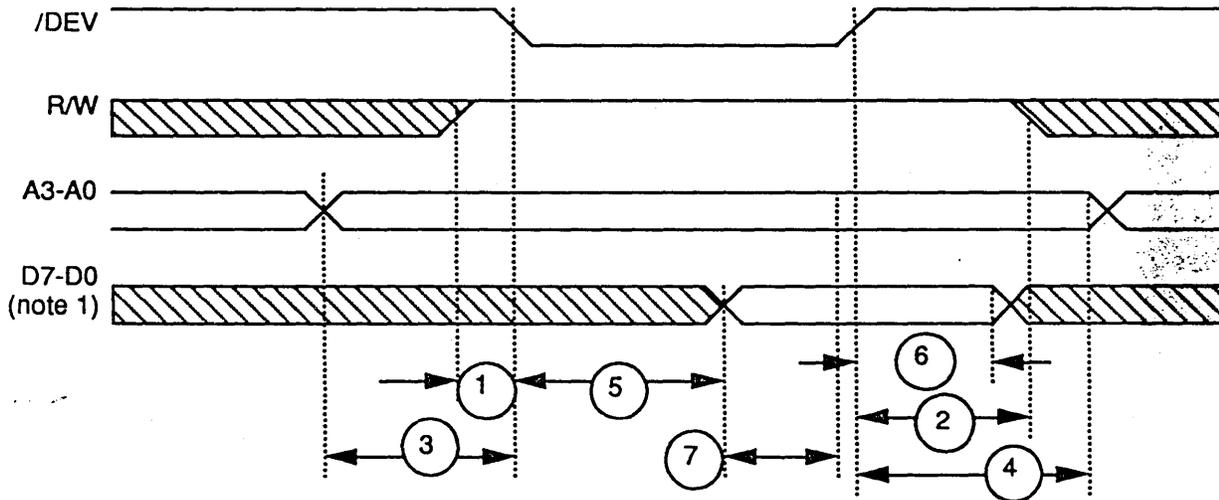


FIGURE 6. PROCESSOR READ TIMING

TABLE 6. PROCESSOR READ TIMING (See Figure 6)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{sRW(DEV)}$	R/W High to /DEV Fall Setup Time	15ns	
② $t_{hDEVr(RW)}$	/DEV Rise to R/W High Hold Time	0ns	
③ $t_{sA(DEV)}$	Address Valid to /DEV Fall Setup Time	15ns	
④ $t_{hDEVr(A)}$	/DEV Rise to Address Valid Hold Time	0ns	
⑤ $t_{dDEVr(D)}$	/DEV Fall to Data Valid Delay Time		95ns
⑥ $t_{hDEVr(D)}$	/DEV Rise to Data Valid Hold Time	0ns	
⑦ $t_{dDATAr(D7)}$	D6-D0 Valid to D7 rising edge	50ns	

NOTE 1: IF, when /DEV is low, D7-D0 is changing to a byte with D7 high, the data on D6-D0 must become valid before the rising edge of D7.



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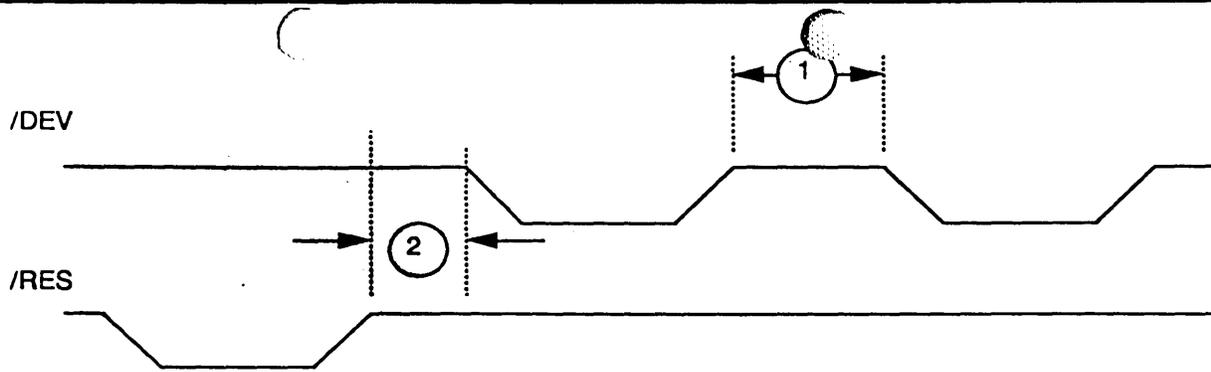


FIGURE 7. /DEV REQUIREMENTS

TABLE 7. /DEV REQUIREMENTS (See Figure 7)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{/DEVr(/DEVf)}$	/DEV Rise to Next/DEV Fall	Note 1	
② $t_{/RESr(/DEVf)}$	/RES Rise to /DEV Fall	Note 2	

NOTE 1: 4 clocks if Bit 3 of the SETUP Register = 0
8 clocks if Bit 3 of the SETUP Register = 1

NOTE 2: 2 clocks if Bit 3 of the SETUP Register = 0
4 clocks if Bit 3 of the SETUP Register = 1

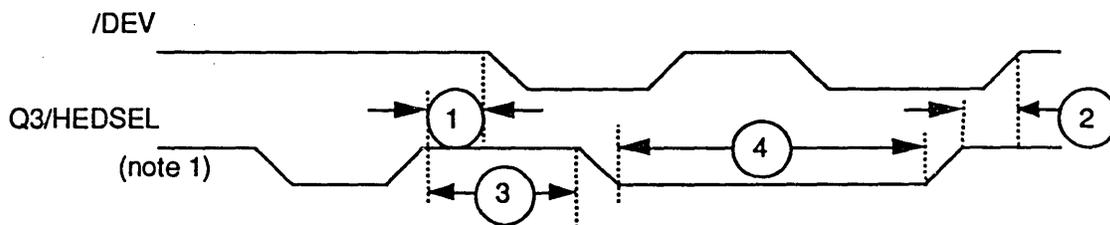


FIGURE 8. Q3/HEDSEL REQUIREMENTS

TABLE 8. Q3/HEDSEL REQUIREMENTS (See Figure 8)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{Q3r(/DEVf)}$	Q3 Rise to Next/DEV Fall	1ns	200ns
② $t_{Q3r(/DEVr)}$	Q3 Rise to /DEV Rise	1ns	200ns
③ $t_{wQ3(H)}$	Q3 High Width	260ns	300ns
④ $t_{wQ3(L)}$	Q3 Low Width	190ns	

NOTE 1: These apply to Synchronous mode only. In other modes Q3 may be held low indefinitely.



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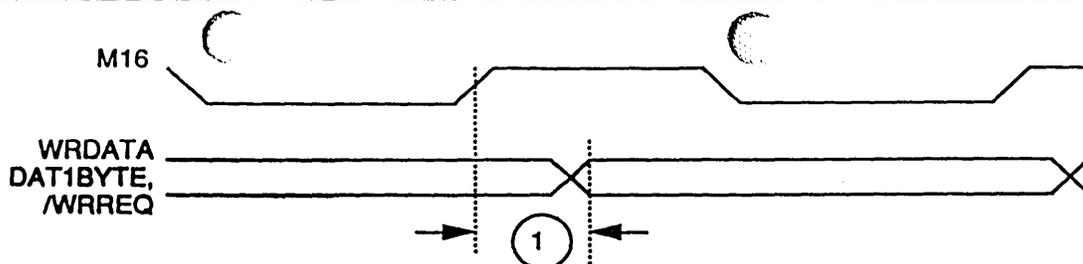


FIGURE 9. CLOCKED OUTPUT TIMING

TABLE 9. CLOCKED OUTPUT TIMING (See Figure 9)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{dCKr(WRD)}$	M16 Clock Rise to Output Delay Time		55ns

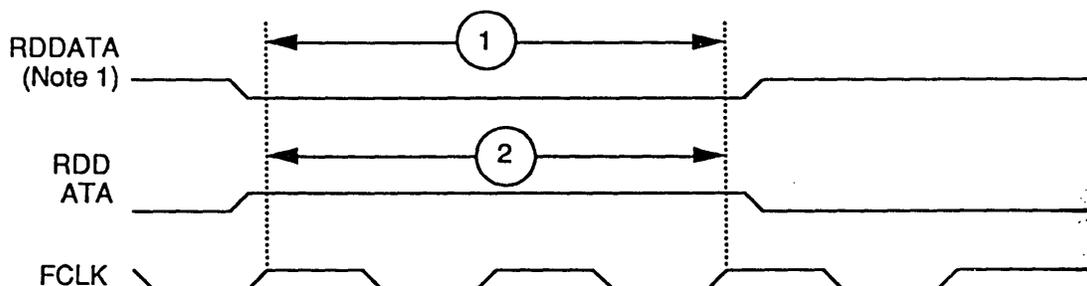


FIGURE 10. RDDATA TIMING

TABLE 10. RDDATA TIMING (See Figure 10)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{WRD(LO)}$	RDDATA Low Width	-	-
② $t_{WRD(HI)}$	RDDATA High Width	-	-

NOTE 1: $t_{WRDDATA(LO)}$ and $t_{WRDDATA(HI)}$ must be at least twice the period of CLK to be properly synchronized in the IWM mode.

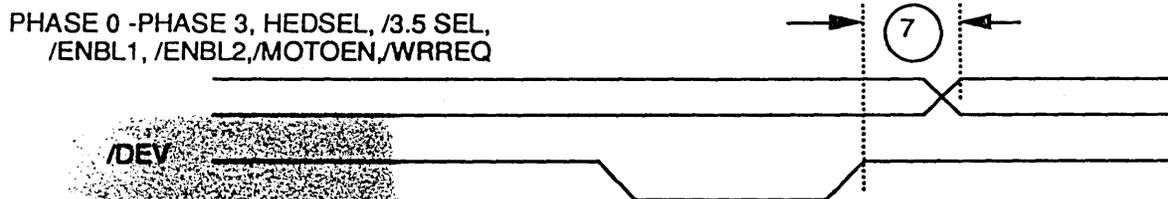


FIGURE 11. /DEV OUTPUT TIMING

TABLE 11. /DEV OUTPUT TIMING (See Figure 11)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
① $t_{dDEVr(CNT)}$	/DEV Rise to Control Output Valid Delay Time		55ns



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PHASE 0 - PHASE 3,
SENSE, RDATA

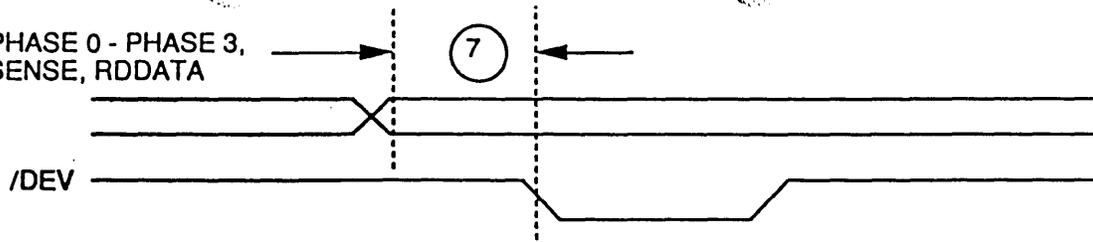


FIGURE 12. INPUT SETUP TIMES

TABLE 12. INPUT SETUP TIMES (See Figure 12)

SYMBOL	PARAMETER	MIN	MAX
⑦ $t_{sSTAT(DEV)}$	Asynch Input Valid to /DEV Fall Setup Time		15ns

- 4.0 **QUALITY ASSURANCE PROVISIONS:** Part shall be inspected to assure compliance to the requirements of this document.
- 5.0 **PACKAGING:** Parts shall be packaged according to the vendor's normal commercial practices for safe delivery at Apple Computer.



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6.0 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION:** The following is not to be used for acceptance nor rejection of the part herein.

6.1 **ISM**

The ISM works as an integrated disk controller which reads and writes MFM and Apple GCR format disks. The ISM also has provisions for reading and writing other formats. The ISM contains the following features:

- Supports Standard MFM Format
- Supports Apple GCR Format
- Write Pre-Compensation
- Read Post-Compensation
- Asymmetry and Speed Error Compensation
- Programmable Parameters for using both Multi and Fixed speed drives
- Two Byte Data FIFO
- Motor Time Out
- Programmable Phase Lines

The ISM uses a programmable parameter scheme which makes it possible to Read and Write 3 1/2 inch variable and fixed speed drives, as well as standard 5 1/4 inch drives.

The ISM makes it possible to Read and Write both MFM and Apple GCR formats on the same disk drive, and also makes it possible to Write MFM format on a 3 1/2 inch variable speed drive in such a way that it can be read back on fixed speed 3 1/2 inch drive.

The ISM provides the ability to do Write Pre-Compensation to correct for Peak Shift effects which occur in magnetically stored media.

The ISM also provides a very sophisticated, and rarely used, form of Read Post-Compensation which corrects for Peak Shift effects on disks with insufficient Pre-Compensation.

The ISM contains a two byte Read and Write FIFO to provide more Software flexibility.

A Motor Time Out is included which will keep the drive enabled for 1/2 s to 1 s to provide time for Software to begin another Read or Write operation without bringing the drive back up to speed.

The ISM makes it possible to program the Phase Lines as either inputs or outputs which make it possible to interface with a wide variety of drives.



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- PHASE 0 - PHASE 3 These lines can be programmed to be either inputs or outputs, and are used for communication with the disk drive.
- SENSE This line is used to read the write protect status from the drive.
- HEDSEL This output is used to select the side to write to or read from if it is a double sided drive.
- WRDATA This line contains the data to be written on the disk.
- /WRREQ This line is used to tell the drive to start accepting data from the Wrddata line.
- /ENBL1 This line is used to enable drive number 1.
- /ENBL2 This line is used to enable drive number 2.
- /MOTORENABLE This line is used to indicate that either the motor on bit (bit 7 of the mode register) is set or the timer is timing out.
- RDDATA This line contains the data being read from the drive.
- FCLK This is the clock input to the chip.
- D0 - D7 These lines contain the data which is read from or written to the chip by a processor.
- A0-A2 These lines are used by a processor to tell the chip which register to read or write data from.
- A3 OR ARW This line is used to tell the chip whether the processor is reading or writing information to the chip.
- /DEV This line is used to select the chip for either reading or writing data from the processor.
- /Q3/HEDSEL On reset this signal will appear to be a Q3 input and is used to latch the data. This is necessary on systems in which the data is not valid at the rising edge of /DEV. If this signal is not needed for latching the data it can be used as HEDSEL pin by setting bit 0 of the Setup register to a 1.
- /RESET This line is used to initialize the registers in the chip and to reset any current operation the chip might be in.
- /3.5 SEL This signal is used as an extra select line for more expandability.
- DAT1BYTE This is the same signal as bit 7 of the Handshake register. This signal is brought out for possible future applications.



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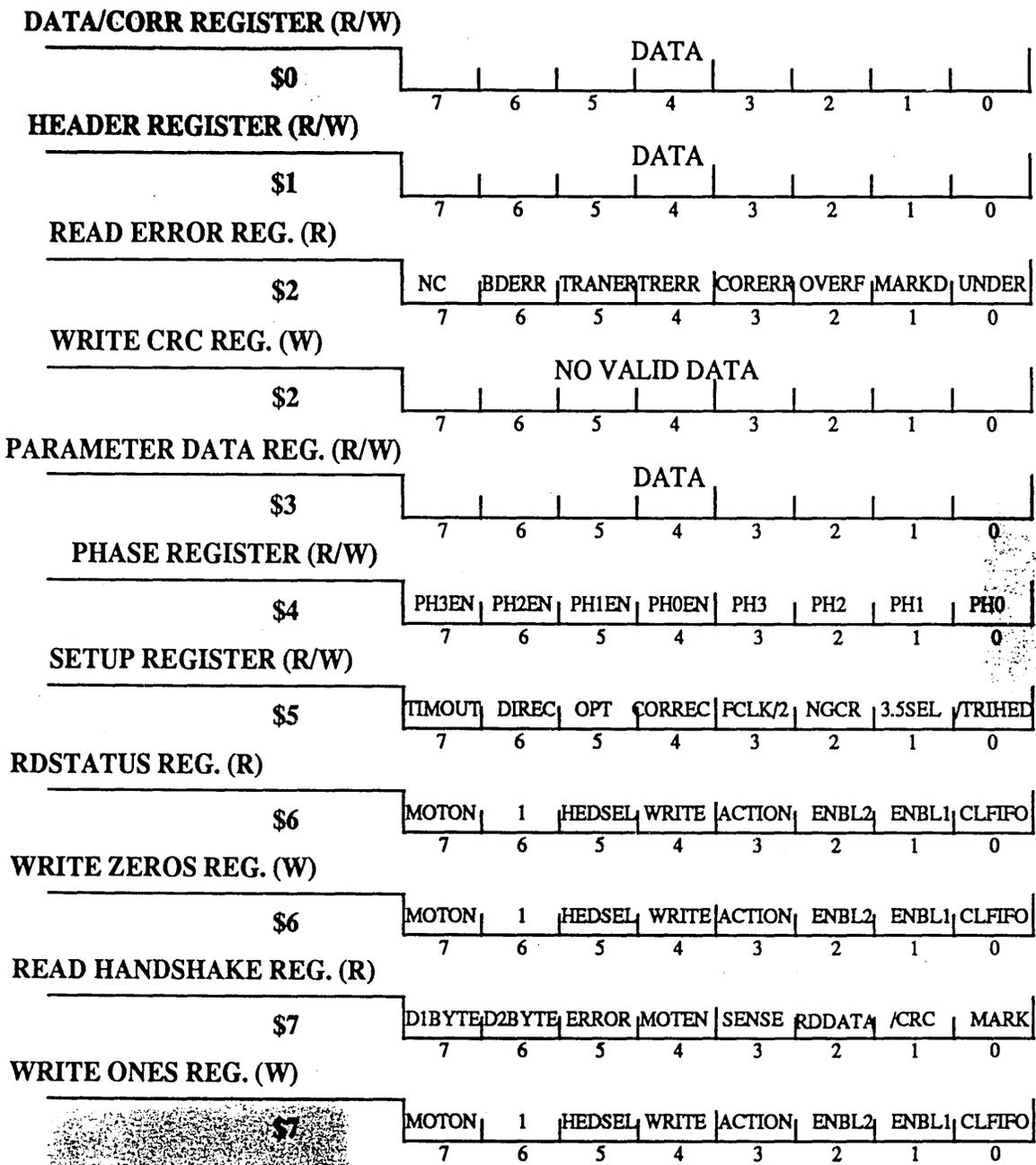


FIGURE 13. ISM ADDRESS MAP

6.2 MFM.

In order to understand how the ISM works it is important to understand what the problems are with reading from and writing data to magnetic disk media. Data is written on a disk by reversing the direction of the magnetic field of the R/W head which produces a magnetic transition on the disk. Reversing the magnetic field of the R/W head is accomplished by toggling the Write Data line, on the drive, from high to low or from low to high which causes the direction of current in the the coils of the R/W head to reverse. The result is magnetic transitions on the disk which may represent data. One simple way to represent data by transitions is to serialize data bytes and then toggle the write data line every time that the data bit is equal to a one. The figure 14. shows an example of how this would look.

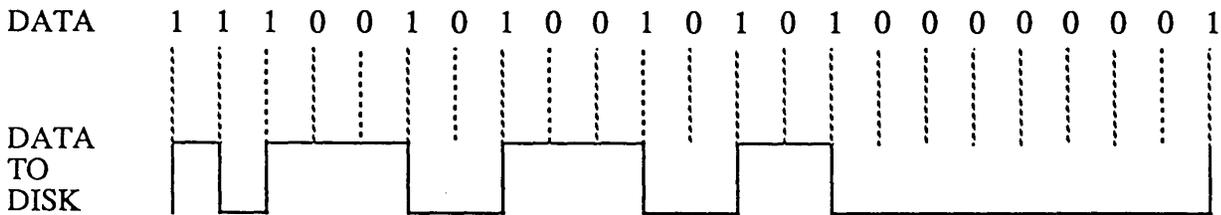


FIGURE 14.

This method of representing data has two basic problems. The first problem is that speed error can make it difficult to determine the number of zeroes in a long sequence of zeroes. The second problem is that a long sequence of zeroes will cause a long time between transitions and signal droop can cause erroneous transitions when read by a NRZ data detector.

These problems indicate that some sort of translation must take place to transform the data into a transitional pattern containing transitions which are not too far apart and provides some method to determine the time base to be used in decoding the data. Over the past 20 years many NRZ codes have been developed. While none of these codes are ideal, the clear winner with respect to common usage today is the Manchester or MFM code. The MFM code follows two basic rules. First, a transition occurs any time that a one is encountered in the data pattern, and second, a transition occurs between any two adjacent zeroes. Figure 15. shows the MFM pattern for the same data that was used in figure 14.

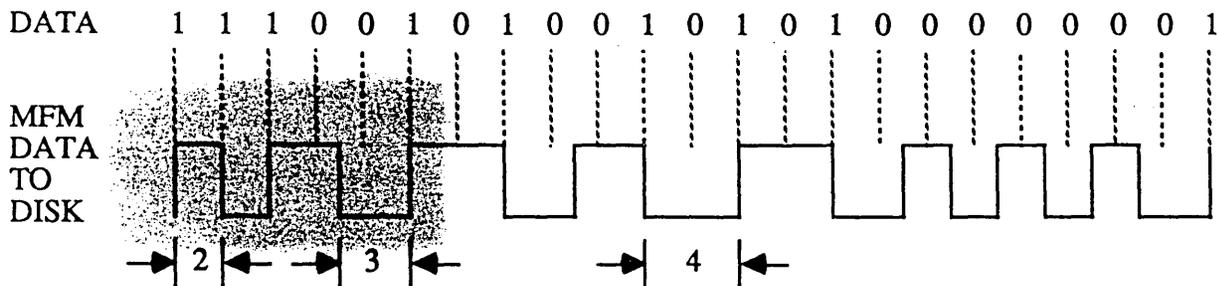


FIGURE 15.



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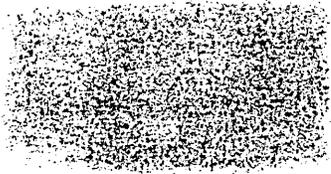
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The MFM code produces a series of 2, 3, and 4 unit distances (cells) between transitions which, based on the these distances, when read back can be resolved into the actual data represented.

6.2.1 MFM Sector Format

The concept of writing 2, 3, and 4 unit cells provides the mechanism by which the data is translated and written on the disk. But there must be some method for organizing the data so that a specific group of data can be easily located. This is done by writing the data in a Sector Format. A sector consists of 1) Information which allows a controller to find the start of the sector, 2) details about which sector is being read, 3) which side is being read, 4) which track is being read (a Track is a group of Sectors), 5) the length of the sector, and 6) CRC error detection information. Figure 16. shows the organization of an MFM sector.

The beginning of a Track or Sector consists of several bytes of 4E's. These bytes serve as a buffer zone between regions of meaningful information. The next bytes in the pattern that are written are the twelve bytes of zeroes (2 unit cells), known as the "bytes of zeroes". These bytes are used to locate the beginning of either a Track, a Sector ID or a Sector Data Field. Following this is the three Mark bytes. The Mark byte is a special byte containing a pattern which violates the basic rules of MFM (i.e has a missing transition). This illegal pattern can be recognized, and provides two very important functions: first, since it is always in the byte that follows the bytes of zeroes, it serves as verification that the zeroes are indeed the beginning of a Track, Sector ID or Sector Data Field, and not data (1's or 0's) in a Data Field and second, the Mark byte provides a reference point from which the MFM rules may be applied to decode the data. (Without synchronizing on a known pattern it is impossible to tell the difference between a string of 1's and a string of 0's.) Figure 17 shows that this illegal pattern is generated by skipping a transition between two zeroes. This produces a 4 unit cell which is normally only valid by a 1 0 1 data pattern. Thus the Mark byte can be detected by finding a 4 unit cell which begins with a zero. After the Mark bytes the next byte encountered in the format pattern is the information byte. This byte is used to determine whether the region being read is the Track information, the Sector ID, or the Sector data field. The next four bytes in the Sector ID contain the track number, side number, sector number and sector length.



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	NUMBER OF BYTES	BYTE WRITTEN
TRACK ID	* 80	4E
	* 12	00
	* 3	C2 (Mark Byte)
	* 1	FC (Index Mark)
SECTOR ID	* 50	4E
	12	00
	3	A1 (Mark Byte)
	1	FE (Id Address Mark)
	1	TRACK NUMBER
	1	SIDE NUMBER
	1	SECTOR NUMBER
	1	SECTOR LENGTH
	2	CRC INFORMATION
DATA FIELD	22	4E
	12	00
	3	A1 (Mark Byte)
	1	FB (Data Address Mark)
	256	DATA
	2	CRC INFORMATION
	54	4E
	** ???	4E

* These bytes are only written at the beginning of a track.

** These bytes are only written at the end of a track.

Note: The sector ID and Data Field are repeated for each sector on a track.

FIGURE 16.



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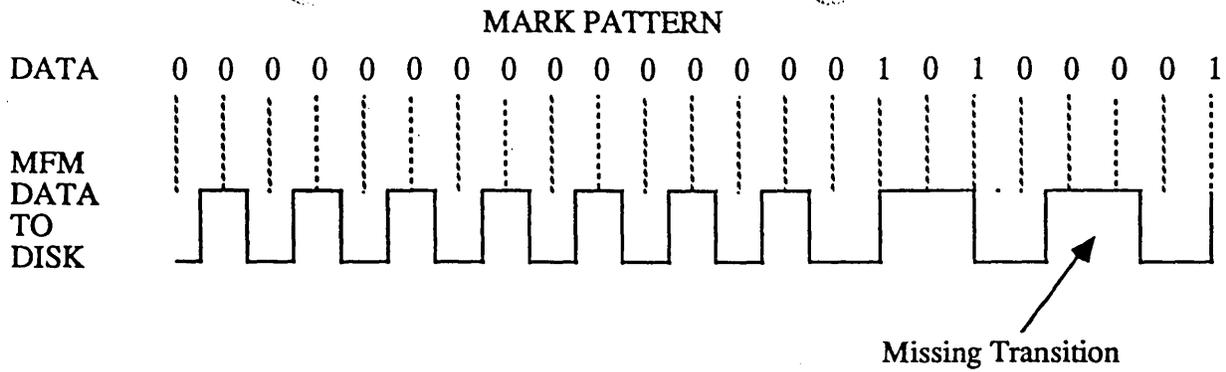


FIGURE 17.

The next bytes to discuss are the CRC bytes. The CRC bytes are used to detect data errors. These bytes are generated by shifting all the bits, from the Mark byte to the byte just before the CRC bytes, through a special shift register which produces a two byte CRC pattern. These bytes are then written on the disk. When the bits are read back from the disk, they all shift through this CRC shift register and once the two CRC bytes have shifted through, the bits in the shift register should all be zero. If the shift register is not cleared to all zeroes then this would indicate that an error occurred in reading back the data. The CRC register is always cleared to ones just before reading or writing the Mark byte. The CRC polynomial that is used here is shown in figure 18.

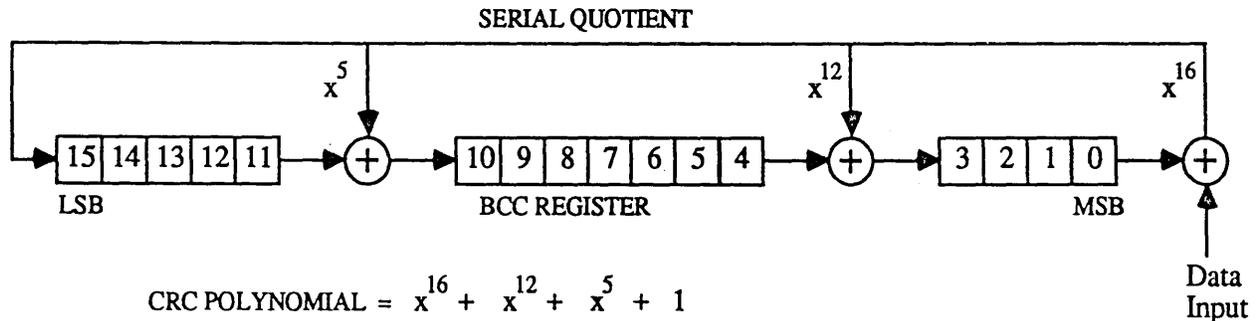


FIGURE 18.



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6.2.2 MFM WRITE

With the basic concepts of the MFM pattern and MFM Sectors now understood the rest of the discussion will focus on the function of the ISM and how it handles the problems of reading, writing, and interfacing with a processor. The discussion will begin by taking a detailed look at how the Write logic functions.

Figure 20 shows a block diagram of the major portions of the Write side of the ISM. This will be used as an outline for the discussion. Each block in the diagram will be discussed in enough detail to provide a full understanding of how data written by a processor is translated into the 2, 3, and 4 unit cells that must be written on the disk.

6.2.3 FIFO: The Write process begins when a processor writes a byte into the FIFO and sets a signal in the Mode Register called Action to a one. How the processor interfaces and what other signals must be set up will be discussed later, but this basic function will provide a start in understanding the functions of the Write logic. The byte which is written in the FIFO will now be tracked through the write chain to see how the data is written on the disk. The FIFO used in this application is a two byte FIFO consisting of two ten bit registers and some control logic. The FIFO contains eight bits of data, a bit which indicates whether the data is a Mark byte, and a bit which tells the system to write the CRC bytes. The control logic contains the state machine which is used to control the FIFO. The state diagram for this state machine is shown in figure 19.

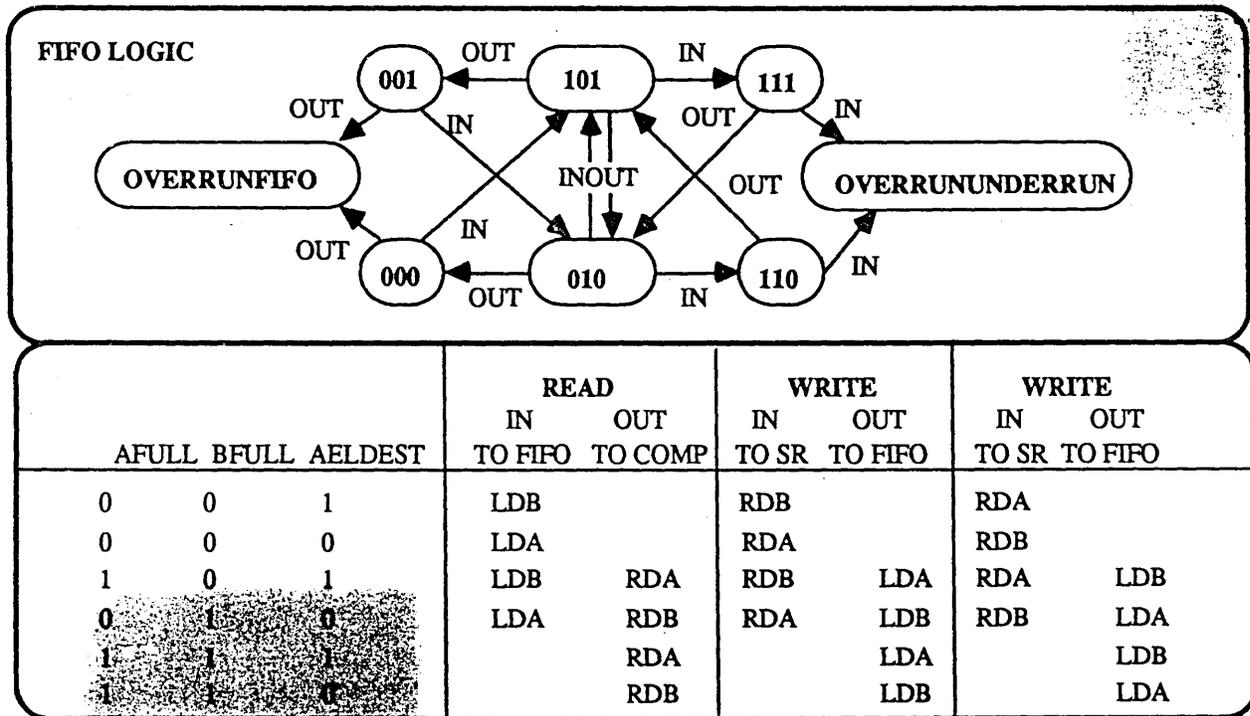


FIGURE 19



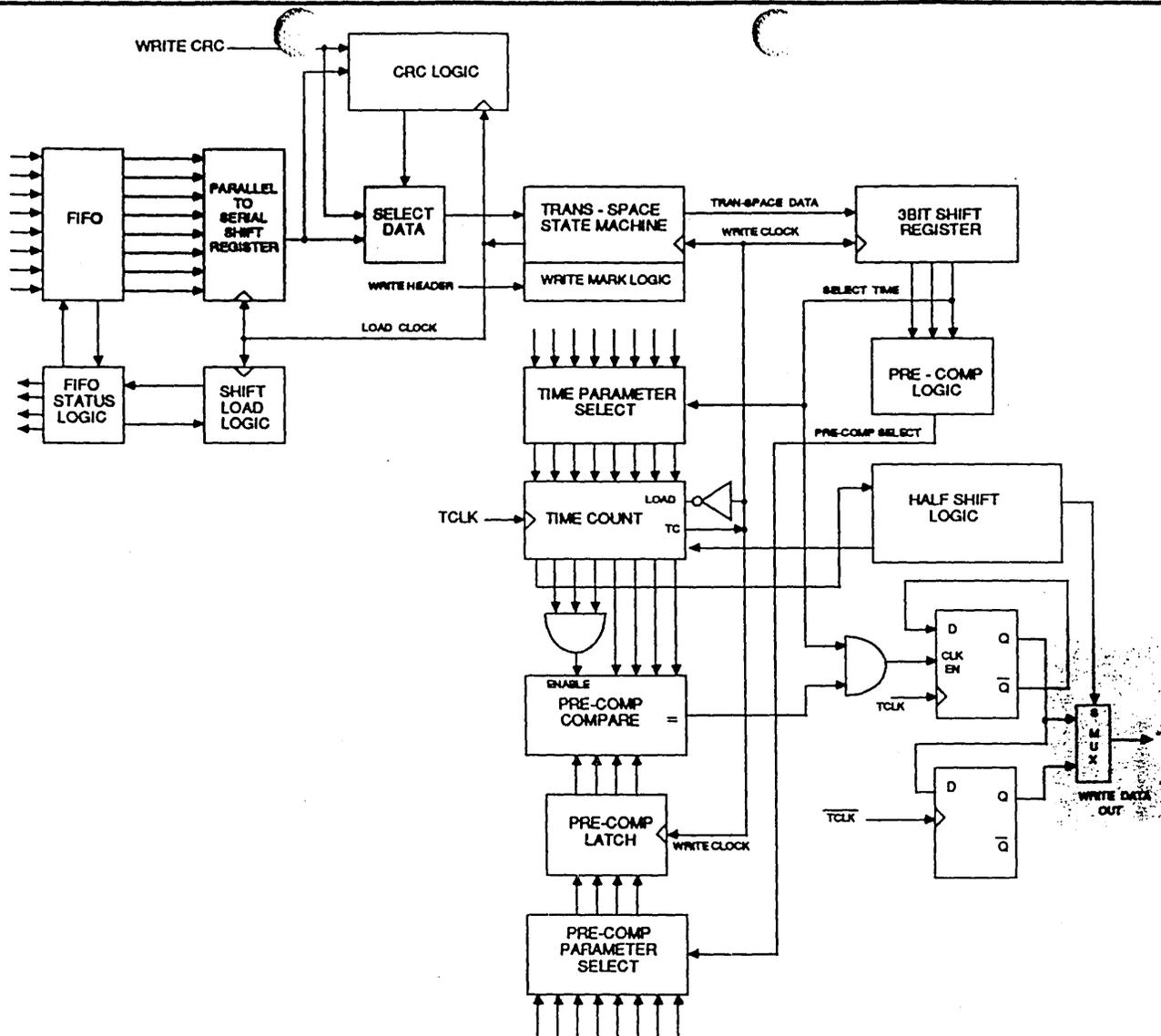


FIGURE 20.

The state machine diagram shows that the FIFO is used for both writing data and reading data. The FIFO consists of a signal called IN which represents a byte being transferred to the Shift Register from the FIFO when writing and a byte being transferred from the Shift Register to the FIFO when reading, and a signal called OUT which represents a byte being shifted from the processor to the FIFO when writing and a byte being shifted from the FIFO to the processor when reading. It can be seen from the state diagram that the same state machine will work for both writing or reading because the state machine is symmetrical and as long as an AFULL = 1 and a BFULL = 1 is thought of as needing attention by the processor (requiring an OUT). The only difference in the state machine between reading and writing is that the state bits must be preset to ones prior to engaging in a write operation, and must be preset to zeroes prior to a read operation. This is necessary because when writing the processor must fill the FIFO prior to setting the Action bit (the bit which starts the shifting of the bits inside the chip), and when reading the processor is waiting for the FIFO to be filled by the bytes being read from the disk. The IN signal is basically just the terminal count of a counter which determines when a byte has either been shifted out of the shift register when writing or shifted into the shift register when reading. There are two exceptions to how this works. The first has to do with a special mode in the chip called NGCR mode which will be discussed later. The second exception is that an IN occurs at the instant that Action is set when writing, which is used to transfer the first byte of data into the Shift Register immediately thus pre-setting the Shift Register with meaningful information rather than having an extra byte of garbage written on the



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disk. An OUT is generated any time that a data byte or Mark byte is written or read by the processor, or when the processor tells the chip that a CRC byte is to be written.

The Mark bit in the FIFO is used to pass on the information that the current byte is a Mark byte and that the transition should be skipped between the two zeroes in the Mark pattern. The bit will be set when a byte of data is written to the Write Header location. The CRC bit is set when a Write to the Write CRC location occurs. The data that is in the FIFO when this bit is set is meaningless because when this bit is set, data will stop shifting out of the shift register and will begin shifting out of the CRC register. This is how the CRC information is written on the disk.

6.2.4 SHIFT REGISTER

The next block on the write diagram to discuss is the Shift Register. The shift register is also used for both reading and writing. When writing, the function of the shift register is to load the eight data bits from the FIFO and shift them out in a serial fashion. When reading, the Shift Register is used to shift in a serial bit stream and then move these bits into the FIFO when a full byte of data has shifted in. The bits are shifted out starting with the most significant bit first when writing, and shifted in with the most significant bit first when reading.

6.2.5 CRC REGISTER

The serial bits that come out of the Shift Register are shifted into both the CRC Register and the Trans-Space State Machine. As discussed earlier, the CRC is cleared to ones just prior to writing the Mark byte. All subsequent data bits to be written shift through the CRC, as shown in figure 18, until it comes time to write the CRC bytes. At this time the bits in the CRC are shifted into the Trans-Space machine to be converted into the MFM data and written on the disk.

6.2.6 TRANS-SPACE

The Trans-Space State (TSS) Machine is used to translate the data stream into a form in which a one represents a transition and a zero represents a space. The Trans-Space form is used for converting the data into the MFM pattern. The front end of the TSS machine is a four bit shift register which provides a mechanism for knowing what the last two bits were, the current bit is, and the next bit will be. Most of the time the only information that is needed is what the current bit is and what the next bit will be. The exception is when writing the Mark byte. In this instance more information is needed because it must be determined were to leave out the transition. Referring back to figure 7, it is shown that the only time when a transition needs to be skipped is when there is a 1 0 0 0 pattern, thus, all four bits of information are needed. Table 13 shows the transformation of the data into the transition space format.

TABLE 13. TRANS-SPACE TABLE

Current Bit	Next Bit	Transpace Data	Mark
0	0	1	00
0	1	01	01
1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1

A better understanding of how the translation from data to Trans-Space takes place and how this corresponds to the MFM pattern can be seen in an example.

Example 1:



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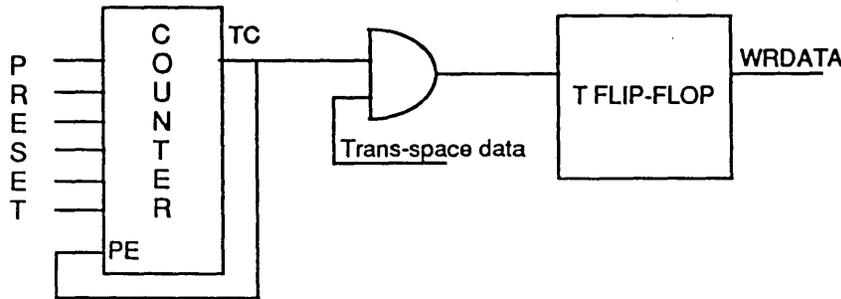
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DATA 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1

Trans-Space Data

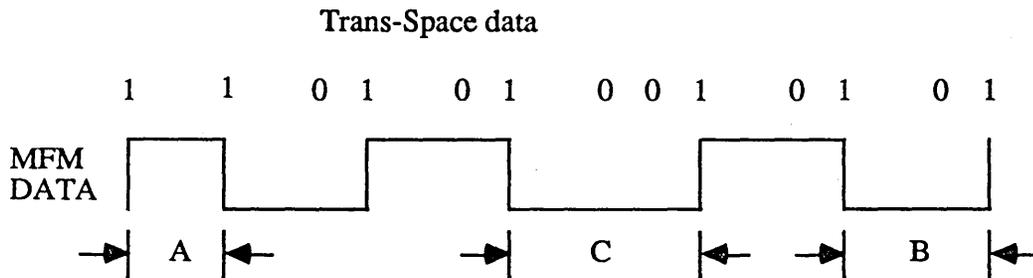
1	1	0	1	01	0	01	0	1	01
---	---	---	---	----	---	----	---	---	----

Now suppose that a 1 is defined to cause a T flip-flop to toggle and a counter to preset to a value Time 1. And a 0 is defined to cause no toggle in the T flip-flop and the counter to preset to a value Time 0. Furthermore, suppose Time 1 caused to counter to count up to a value which is 2 units long and Time 0 causes the counter to count up to a value which is 1 unit long. Also assume that the T flip-flop can only toggle when the counter reaches it's terminal count.



PRESET = TIME 1 IF TRANS-SPACE DATA = 1
 PRESET = TIME 0 IF TRANS-SPACE DATA = 0

The Trans-Space data generated above will thus create a pattern which looks like the following:



A = TIME 1 = 2 UNITS
 B = TIME 1 + TIME 0 = 3 UNITS
 C = TIME 1 + TIME 0 + TIME 0 = 4 UNITS

The example clearly shows that the translation into the Trans-Space pattern provides a simple way to convert the data into the MFM pattern by using a T flip-flop and a counter. An important point is that depending on the clock frequency at the counter, and depending on the values of the preset (as long as they are kept in a 2:1 proportion), the actual times of the cells (2's, 3's, and 4's) can be varied. For example, a standard IBM drive operates at 300 rpm with cell times of 4, 6, and 8 μ s, whereas a Mac drive operates at five different speeds ranging from 390 to 590 rpm with correspondingly different cell times. If it is desired to write a disk on a Mac drive which can be read on an IBM drive, it simply takes changing the preset values (TIME 1 & TIME 0) in proportion to the speed zone where the disk is being written. This is one of the very important features



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of the ISM. These presets (which from now on will be referred to as parameters) and many other presets used for other counters, which will be discussed later, are stored in RAM and can be written and read from an external processor. Thus, these parameters can be changed as desired in order to provide the flexibility to work with drives which function at different speeds.

6.2.7 PRE-COMPENSATION

If the properties of magnetic media acted in an ideal manner, then the discussion of the write logic would be finished at this point and the simplistic example shown above would work fine for writing the data on a disk. However, the properties of the media are not ideal so there must be some revisions made to the above example to help compensate for these non-ideal traits. The problem is that a 2 unit cell on a disk is crowded together more than a 3 or a 4 unit cell in a relative sense. The effect of this crowding is that the 2 unit cells will tend to push out their transition into the region of a 3 or 4 unit cell, when a 2 is next to a 3 or 4. This will cause a 2 unit cell to be longer than it is supposed to be and a 3 or 4 unit cell to be shorter when reading back the data. This problem is called peak shift.

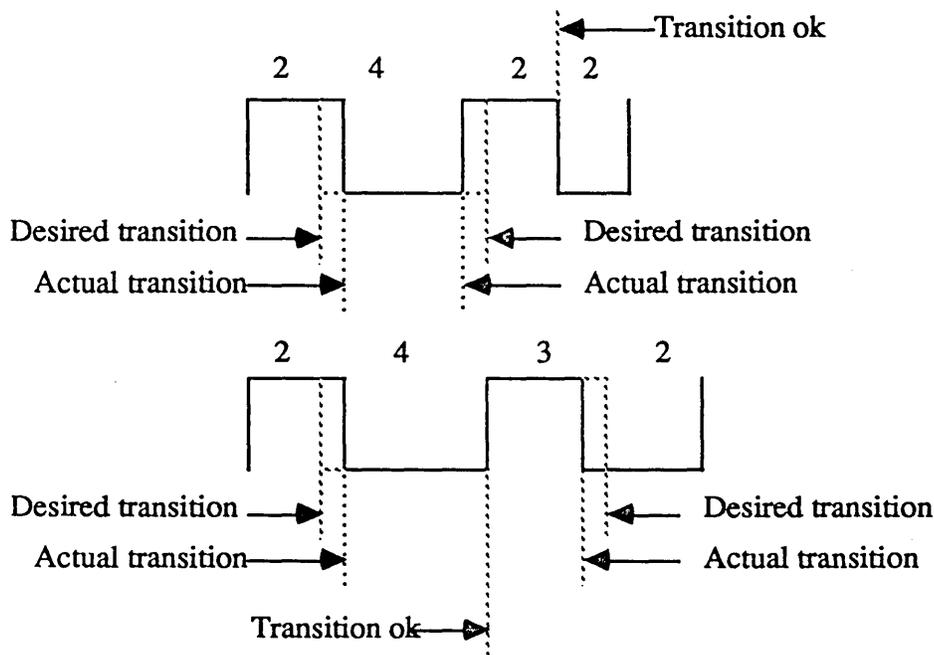


FIGURE 21. EFFECTS OF PEAK SHIFT

The actual amounts that the transitions are affected due to peak shifting can be determined experimentally. Having this information makes it possible to correct for this problem by simply causing a transition to occur earlier or later when writing. In other words, make the 4's and 3's longer and the 2's shorter when they are next to each other. This type of correction is called Pre-Compensation (Pre-Comp). The earlier example showed that when the counter reached it's terminal count a decision would be made whether to toggle the T flip-flop or not. In order to accomplish the effect of Pre-Comp this idea needs to be modified slightly. Rather than using the terminal count, what is done is to use the four lower counter bits and compare them with some value. This value is another one of the parameters that is written in to RAM by a processor. The value of the comparison point has three different possibilities, Early, Normal, and Late. Normal will provide a comparison point which will serve as the constant point of reference. Early will give a comparison



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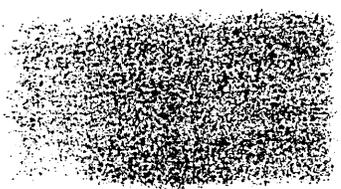
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point which occurs slightly earlier than the Normal point and can be used to cause a transition to occur a little earlier. Late will cause the transition to occur a little later than the Normal position. The value of Normal is arbitrary since it serves only as a comparison point and all other comparison points use the Normal value as it's reference. The value of Early and Late are determined based on how many clocks it takes to correct for peak shift which can be determined experimentally by studying the actual information read from the disk on the drive. The block diagram of the write side shows the comparator and the counter and how when the higher order bits have reached all ones and the lower order bits have reached the comparison value, the T flip-flop is enabled. The following example will make it easier to understand these concepts:

The example explains how a transition can be delayed or occur early, but it does not explain how to determine which should occur to a particular transition. This is accomplished by shifting the Trans-Space data through a three bit shift register which provides the ability to know what is happening and what is going to happen for the next two data times. This information can be used to determine which comparator value should be loaded from RAM.



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Example 2:

Suppose the desired cell times are 4, 6, and 8 μ s and the clock frequency is 7.16 Mhz.

this implies

Number of clocks in 4 μ s = $7.16 * 4 = 28.64$ clocks ~ 29 clocks

Therefore Time 1 must represent a count of 29 clocks and Time 0 must represent a count of 14 clocks.

Early, Normal, and Late are compared to the 4 least significant bits of the counter during the last 16 counts before Terminal Count, which implies that their values must lie somewhere between 0 and 15. Now suppose Normal = 10 counts. This would imply that the comparison

will occur ($16 - \text{Normal} = 6$ counts) before the Terminal Count. Since the

counter preset does not occur until the Terminal Count, this would imply

Suppose the pattern is a string of 1's. This would imply no precomping

and cell times of 29 clocks. Now since the preset for the counter always occurs when the counter reaches it's terminal count rather than when the comparison is true, it can be seen that the 29 clocks are made up by a combination of the distance from the previous comparison to the preset

thus Cell time = distance from comparison to Terminal Count
+ Time 1 - Distance from the next comparison point to Terminal Count = $(16 - 10) + 29 - (16 - 10) =$

Now suppose that Early = 8 clocks and Late = 12 clocks.

And the pattern is a 1 1 1 0 0 1 1.

The second transition will occur at the normal boundary because it has a 1 preceding it and following it. But the third transition needs to occur earlier because it is a 2 unit cell followed by a 4 unit cell. Thus the comparison

Which implies:

Cell time = $(16 - 10) + 29 - (16 - 8) = 27$ clocks.

This will cause the 2 unit cell to be shorter and the 4 unit cell to be

Now since the fourth transition is part of a 4 unit cell and the next cell is a 2

unit cell, the transition must be delayed. This is done by comparing to the

Cell time = $(16 - 8) + 29 + 14 + 14 - (16 - 12) = 61$ clocks.

Normally the cell time for a 4 unit cell should be 57 clocks, but due to the fact that cell is sandwiched between two 2 unit cells it must be lengthened by two counts on each edge and the 2 unit cells must be shortened by 2 counts

The net effect is that a transition can be delayed or occur early in order to



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3BIT REG.			PRE-COMP SELECT
0	1	0	NORMAL
0	1	1	EARLY
1	1	0	LATE
1	1	1	NORMAL
X	0	X	NORMAL

$t+2$ $t+1$ t

FIGURE 22.

The parameter data bus coming from the RAM is 16 bits wide. Thus, the Pre-Comp parameters and the Time 1 or Time 0 parameters must be loaded at the same time. This is done in the following fashion.

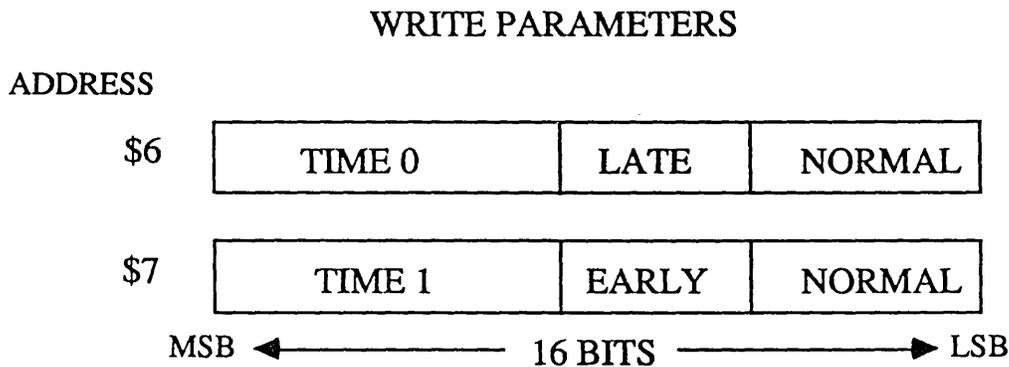


FIGURE 23.

This manner of grouping the parameters works as follows. If the high bit of the 3 bit shift register is a 1 then the Time 1 must be loaded because a transition is about to occur, and the Time 1 count always follows a transition, as discussed in an earlier example. The only possible transition which can follow this without having to load the Time 0 parameter is a 2 unit cell and the Pre-Comp effect of this cell is to either shorten it or not change it at all depending on what is to follow. In this case the only way that the transition can be 2 units long is if the second bit in the shift register is a 1. So if the third bit in the shift register is also a 1 then another 2 unit cell is to follow and the Normal parameter is selected. Otherwise the third bit is a 0 which implies that the next cell is going to be longer than a 2 and the current transition point must be Pre-Comp'd by selecting the Early parameter. If the high bit in the shift register is a 0 then the Time 0 value must be selected and the only possible Pre-Comp'ing that can take place is to either lengthen the cell or leave it alone. This is true because the 0 has to be in the middle cell of a cell which is larger than 2 units wide and the only choice for such a cell is to delay the transition or leave it alone depending on whether the next transition is a 2 or longer.



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6.2.8 HALF WRITE

The only portion of the write logic left to discuss is the Half Shift Logic. In example 2 it was shown that the number of clocks in a 4 μ s cell at 7.16 Mhz is 28.64. The number was then rounded to the nearest unit because there was no mechanism was described for obtaining any more than an integer number of clocks. This causes a round off error which forces the cell times to vary from the desired values. Depending on the clock frequency used this can be quite a significant error. In order to reduce this round off effect, circuitry is added which works on both edges of the clock which creates the effect of having half clock resolution. This means that the values can be rounded to the nearest half instead of the nearest unit. Using the half clock can be very difficult because of the high effective clock speeds that are generated. That is why the half clock is only used at the very end of the Write path using very short delay paths and very fast parts. The low bit of the parameter data is used to determine whether or not the transition should be shifted by a half clock value. The Schematical representation of how this half effect is generated is shown in figure 24.

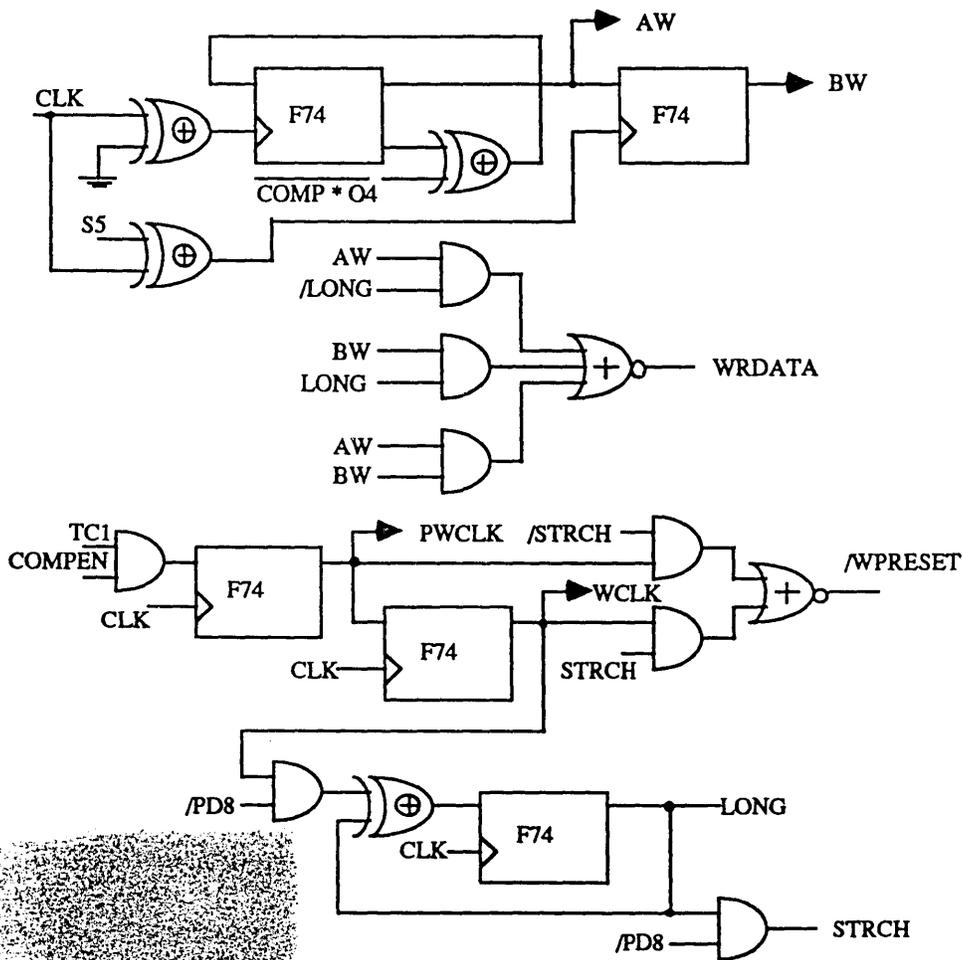


FIGURE 24.



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The signal /Comp*O4 represents the output of the comparator and the value of the high bit in the three bit post Trans-Space shift register. In other words this represents the point at which the transition should occur and if no half bit mechanism were used the signal AW, which just toggles every time that /comp*o4 occurs, would represent the Wrdata to the disk. But it is desired to gain more resolution by using the half clock, so a signal called BW is generated which is a 1/2 clocked delayed AW signal. The signal TC1 and COMPEN is just the terminal count of the Time 1/Time 0 counter and the signal /PD8, which is the least significant parameter bit, is the bit which determines whether or not to cause the transition to occur on the half clock. The timing diagram in figure 13 shows how these signals can be used to create the half clock effect.

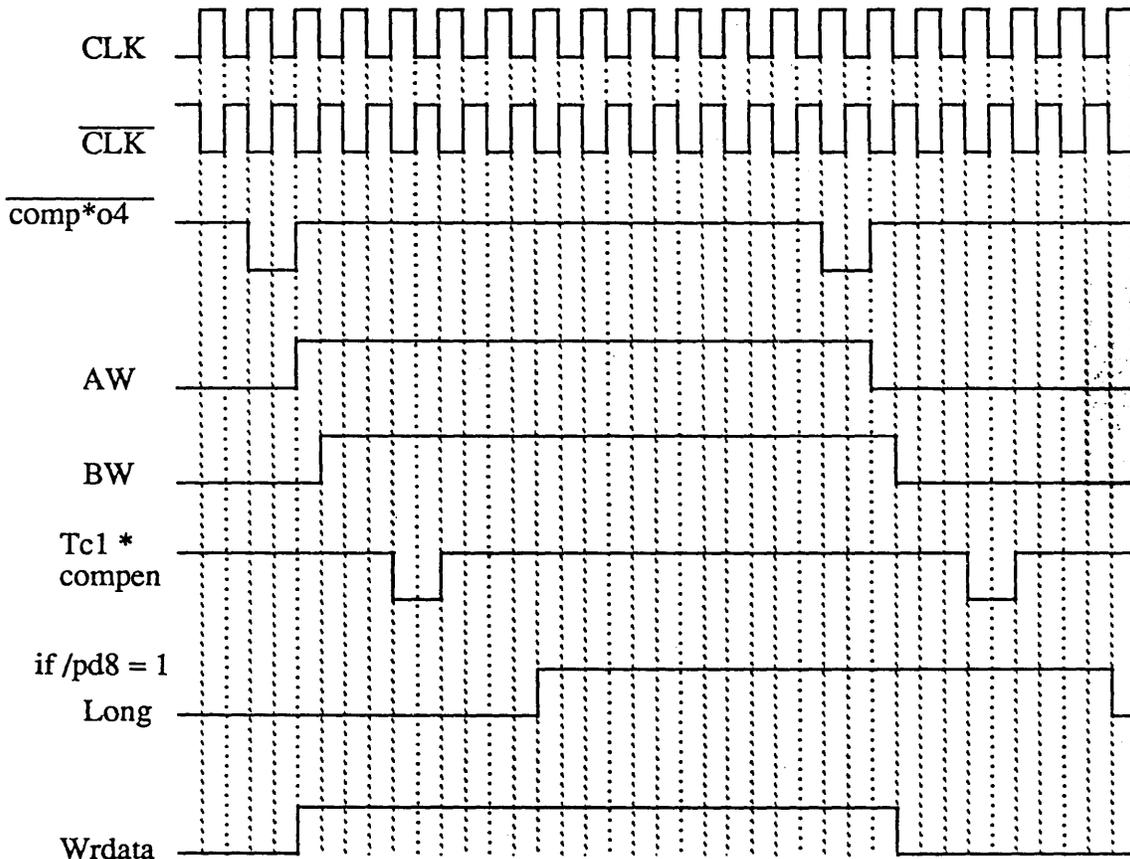


FIGURE 25.

If the Long signal was always equal to zero then Wrdata would always be equal to Aw and no half shift would take place. This occurs when the half bit (/PD8) parameter is equal to zero. When the long signal is present this causes the Wrdata pulse to lengthen, by the amount which BW offsets from AW, on alternate pulses. This produces the desired half clock delay in Wrdata. The WCLK signal, in figure 12, is a two clock delayed terminal count which shifts the bits from the Trans-Space machine into the Pre-Comp shift register and forms the signal which shifts the bits from the main Shift Register into the CRC and Trans-Space machine. The only other signal, in the diagram above, not yet discussed is the /Wrpreset signal. This is the signal which causes the Time 1/Time 0 counter to preset. This preset normally occurs one count after the counter reaches it's terminal count, but when the half shift takes place (Long is true) the preset is delayed for one more clock in order to compensate for the transition taking place late.



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6.3 MFM READ:

Data is read from a disk by means of a signal called Rddata. This signal consists of pulses which are spaced at 2, 3, and 4 units apart, which of course is the Data in it's MFM translated form. If all conditions were ideal the simplest way to convert the MFM format data into it's actual data would be to determine whether a cell is a 2, a 3, or a 4 and go through a reverse translation process, analogous to what was used on the write side, and transfer the data through the Shift Register and the Fifo to the controlling processor. But there are two problems with this simple theory. The first problem is a familiar one that was discussed on the Write side called Peak Shift. In the Write side it was shown how the effects of Peak Shift can be reduced by using Pre-Comp, but suppose the disk that is being read was not written on a controller which uses Pre-Comp, or suppose the Pre-Comp used was not enough. This could cause errors reading back the data because the effects of Peak Shift could make it very difficult to discern between a 2 and a 3 unit cell or a 3 and a 4 unit cell. This problem is solved using a very complicated form of correction called Post Compensation (Post-Comp). The other problem that can occur is that the speed of the disk drive or the frequency of the clock can be off, or there can be some other form of systematic error in the data. This can also make it very difficult to read back the data reliably. This type of problem can be corrected by use of an Error Correction machine. The Discussion of the Read logic will take a detailed look at how the Post-Comp and Error Correction machines work along with a description of how the beginning of a track or sector is located, how the Mark byte is detected, and what starts the process of transferring the data into the FIFO.

6.3.1 HALF READ

The first topic to discuss is the Rddata signal itself. As mentioned earlier this signal occurs at distances of 2, 3, and 4 units apart, but the actual width of each pulse may vary and may not be synchronous with the internal clock. In order to work with this signal in a synchronous environment the signal must be synchronized with the clock and must be transformed to be one clock wide. The simplest way to accomplish this is shown below.

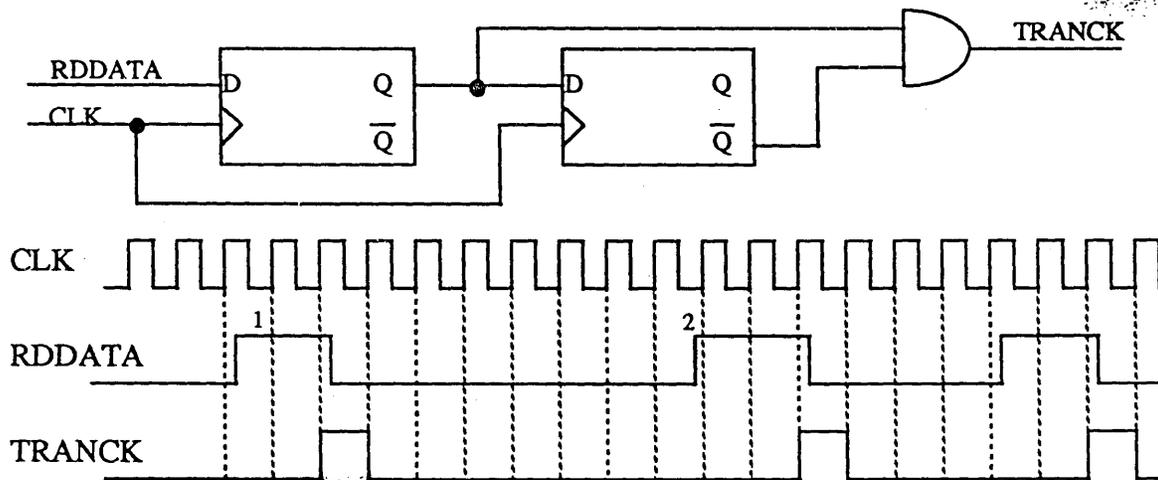


FIGURE 26.

This method of transforming Rddata into TranCk works fine most of the time, but due to the resolution limitations of the clock, it is sometimes necessary to be more precise. In order to understand why this is true, it is necessary to shift gears a little bit and discuss the problem of distinguishing between a 2, 3, and 4 unit cell. The cells can be distinguished by using a counter which sets up boundaries which define comparison regions to the TranCk signal. Figure 27 shows a picture how this looks.



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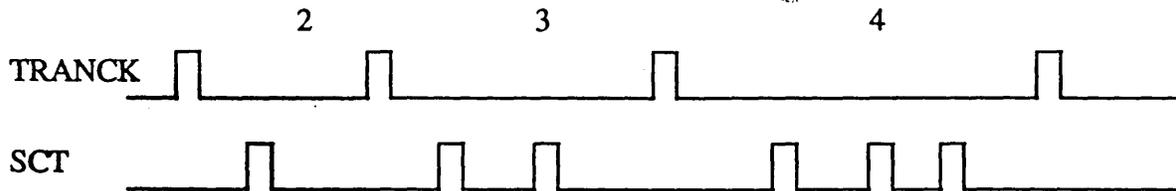


FIGURE 27.

SCT is generated by a counter which presets every time that a TranCk or an SCT occurs. The value that it presets to is another one of the programmable parameters that come from RAM. These values are calculated based on the clock frequency and the actual cell times in μs which allows the chip to be run at different clock frequencies and with variable rates of data coming off the disk. By counting how many SCT's occur between TranCk's it can be determined whether the pulse is 2, 3, or 4 units wide. If the cell times of the data coming off the drive are very accurate then there is no problem resolving the data because the parameters can be set to fit right in the middle of each region and there should be plenty of margin between the SCT pulses and TranCk pulses, but in reality due to drive and noise error there can be some error in the values of the cell times. This can cause the SCT pulses and the TranCk pulses to fall very close to each other making it difficult to tell the difference between two different cell times, as shown in figure 28.

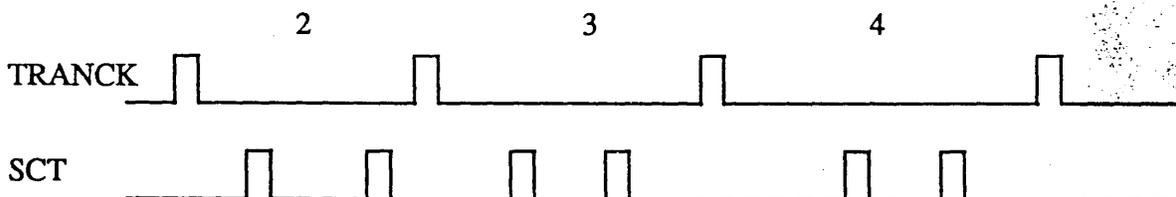


FIGURE 28.

This can transform what is intended to be a 2 3 4 pattern into a 3 3 3 pattern. If the difference between an undesired or an extra SCT occurring is one or two clocks then this error could have been introduced because of the manner in which Rddata was formed into TranCk. To understand this point it is necessary to refer back to figure 14. In figure 14 it can be seen that the first Rddata pulse (1) occurred just after the rising edge of the clock while the second pulse (2) occurred just prior to the rising edge of the clock. Since data can only be sampled on the rising edge of the clock, it can be seen that almost one full clock of error has been introduced in the length of the cell. This problem can be reduced by determining which half of the clock cycle the Rddata pulse occurred in and shifting the SCT pulse by one count to compensate. Shifting the SCT pulse will effectively change the distance between TranCk pulses. The overall effect is that the distance between Rddata pulses can be resolved to within one half clock of the actual distance instead of one clock. The effective half clock shift of SCT can take place in two manners. First to compensate for the problem just mentioned and second to allow for better resolution in calculating the parameters for the SCT counter. Figure 29 shows a schematical representation of how the shift is generated.



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The figure 30. shows that the TranCk signal is formed in the same manner as earlier shown with the exception that it is delayed for four clocks. This pipelining is necessary to be able to know when the TranCk is going to occur four clocks before it occurs. The Rddata signal is synchronized to the nearest half clock and then delayed by one clock to generate the signal RT3. When the TCK signal becomes valid RT3 is sampled. If Rddata occurred in the first half of the clock cycle RT3 would be a one, and if Rddata occurred in the second half of the clock cycle RT3 would be zero. This information is then latched in as signal called Bias. The signal Bias will be set to a zero if Rddata occurred in the first half of the clock cycle, or set to a one if it occurred in the second half of the clock cycle. The signal Nstart is used to latch Bias when TranCk occurs. This is used on the next Rddata to determine what has just occurred since the Bias signal will change on the next TCK. As mentioned earlier, the important point in this whole discussion is whether the SCT should or should not be shifted near a TranCk. This can now be resolved using the information generated. Since it is known when the TranCk is going to occur four clocks prior to it actually occurring, and it is known which half of the clock cycle the Rddata pulse that generated the TranCk occurred in and the same information about the previous Rddata pulse is known, a signal called Shift can be generated which will cause the comparison point in the SCT counter to be altered by one count. Thus producing the result of correcting to the nearest half clock. The equation for shift is given in the lower left corner of the figure. In order to understand how it works it is necessary to study the example in the lower right corner of figure 30.

6.3.2 CORRECTION MACHINE

In the discussion of the MFM sector format it was mentioned that the beginning of a sector or track can be located by finding the 12 bytes of zeroes followed by the Mark byte. This is accomplished using the Correction State Machine (CSM). The CSM looks for a string of minimum cells by looking at the number of SCT pulses that occur between TranCk pulses. If the CSM sees 64 cells which have only one SCT pulse between transitions, then it knows that it has found a region of minimum cells. The machine then looks to see if the first non-minimum cell is part of a Mark byte. If this is the case then the rest of the bits will start shifting into the Shift Register and the FIFO will begin functioning. Otherwise the CSM will go back into the state which looks for a string of minimum cells.

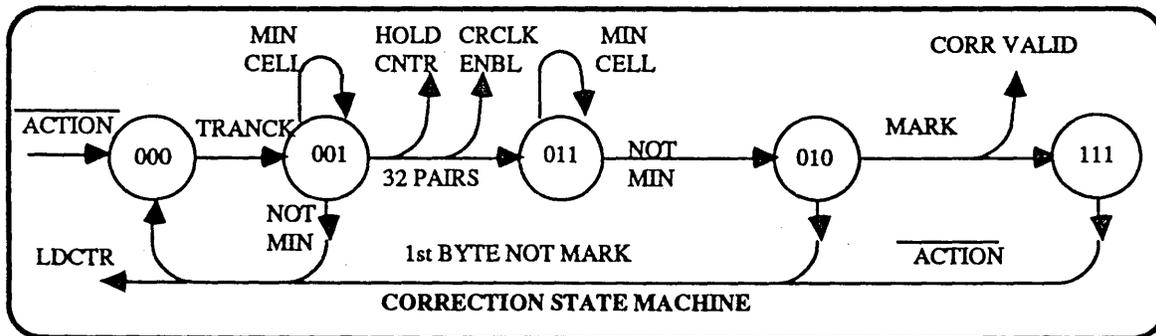


FIGURE 31.

The state diagram above shows how the CSM works. It starts out in the 000 state and stays there until it gets a transition. At this point it goes into the 001 state where it stays until it encounters 32 minimum cells. If 32 pairs of minimum cells are then counted the machine proceeds on to the next state, otherwise it goes back to look for another transition. Once it has gotten the 32 pairs it waits for the first non-minimum transition to occur. If this non-minimum cell is part of the Mark byte then it proceeds on to the next state where it remains until the processor is finished reading bytes. If it is not part of the Mark byte then the machine goes back to look for zeroes.



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6.3.3 ERROR CORRECTION

In the previous discussion it was first mentioned that the CSM waits for 64 cells to occur before proceeding on to the next state, then later it was stated that it waits for 32 pairs. These terms mean the same thing because a pair is defined to be two cells. The reason for thinking in terms of pairs instead of cells is because of the way the data is stored on the disk. In the discussion on the Introduction to MFM it was mentioned that the data is written on the disk by reversing the direction of the current flow which cause the direction of the flux to reverse which causes a magnetic transition in the RW head. The transitions on the disk will look like the following when read back.

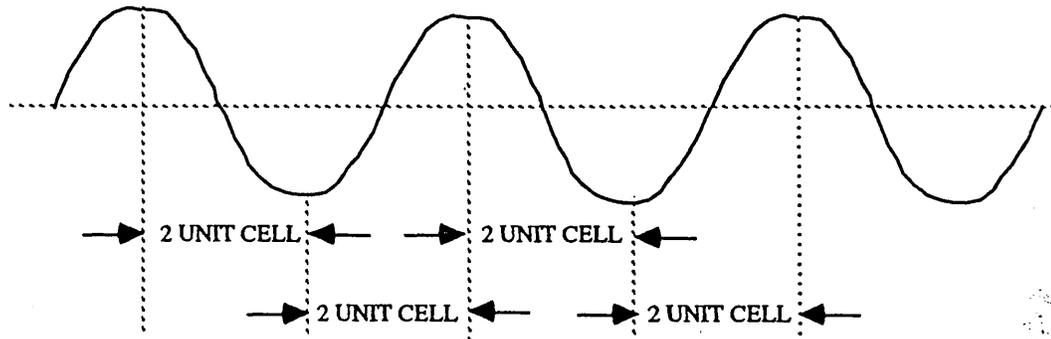


FIGURE 32.

The first 2 unit cell is between the positive going transition and the negative going transition, while the second 2 unit cell is between the negative going transition and the positive going . This implies that two 2 unit cells are made up by a positive and a negative transition which is what is being defined as a pair. Distinguishing between the positive transitions and the negative transitions is important because due to the properties of the media there is some error in determining the exact location of the transition and the tendency is that the error for positive transitions is consistent in one direction while the error for negative transitions is consistent in another. This error can be corrected using the Error Correction machinery, but the correction must take into account whether the edge that is being corrected was created by the negative or positive transition. It is not possible from the Rdata signal to determine whether the transition was created by a positive or negative transition, so what is needed is to simply remain consistent by correcting one way on every other transition and correcting the other way on the other transitions. For example suppose there is a series of 2 unit cells in which one direction of the flux on the disk caused the transition when read back to occur early. This would create the following effect.

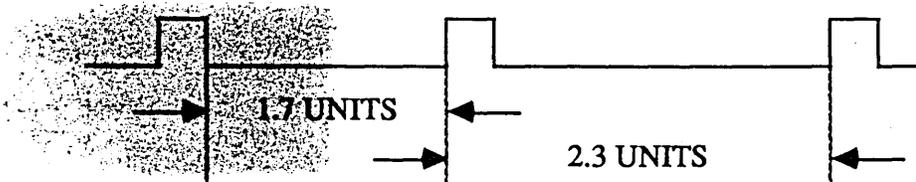


FIGURE 33.



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The 2 unit cells have now become alternately smaller and larger. Another problem which can effect the length of the transitions is the speed of the disk drive. If the speed at which the disk is being revolved is too slow this will cause the cells to be longer than they are supposed to be which can make it difficult reading the data because the parameters that preset the SCT counter are determined based on the knowing what the speed is. Both of these problems can be solved by taking a sample of minimum cells, and by knowing ideally how many clocks occur between transitions, it can be determined how far off the cell times are from ideal. Once it is known what this error is, the SCT counter can be modified by causing skips or double counts to help align the SCT boundaries up in a fashion which is consistent with the non-ideal data. This error can be accumulated separately for alternate transitions thus allowing for the differences between the negative and positive flux pulses. This Error Correction is implemented as follows.

While the Correction State Machine is looking for the 32 pairs, there are two counters which are counting the number of clocks that occur between each transition. One counter counts the number of clocks in in the first half of the pair of cells, and the other counts the number of clocks in the second half of the pair of cells. When the CSM resets to the 000 state these counters are cleared to zero. Once the CSM indicates that 32 pairs have been found the counters will be held. The reason for using 32 pairs is to give a large enough sample such that the amount of error is representative of what is actually occurring rather than a random error that can occur over the course of just a few cell times. Since the number of clocks between minimum cells can be calculated based on the cell times and the clock frequency, it can be determined how many total clocks should occur over the course of 32 pairs. Thus, any deviance from this count can be considered error which must be corrected. For example, suppose the minimum cell time is $4 \mu s$ and the clock frequency is 16 Mhz. This would yield $4 * 16 = 64$ clocks per minimum cell time. Over the course of 32 samples the total number of clocks should be $64 * 32 = 2048$ clocks. In other words if all the cells times were perfectly accurate, each counter would count 2048 clocks over the period of 32 samples of minimum cells. Any deviance from this number would represent an error which must be corrected by shifting the SCT pulses in a proportional manner to the amount of error which occurs during one cell time. Suppose one of the counters only reached a count of 1984 clocks. This would mean that the cells corresponding to this counter were on the average $(2048-1984)/32 = 2$ clocks too short. Which means that the SCT counter must double count twice for a 2 unit cell, three times for a 3 unit cell, and four times for a 4 unit cell in order to keep the relative distances between the TranCk pulse and the SCT pulses constant. There are two difficulties in creating this effect. First of all, it was mentioned earlier that it is desirable to deal with various cell times in order to permit the flexibility of interchanging between variable speed and fixed speed drives. Thus it is desirable to be able to set a parameter which can scale the count in proportion to the cell times and the clock frequency, which will yield a proportional correction number which applies to the clock frequency used and the length of the cells. Second, it is necessary to scale this number down to correspond to the amount of correction that is needed for each cell time. This is accomplished using a device called a Rate Multiplier. A Rate Multiplier is a device which can scale the clock based on the Rate Multiplier constant.

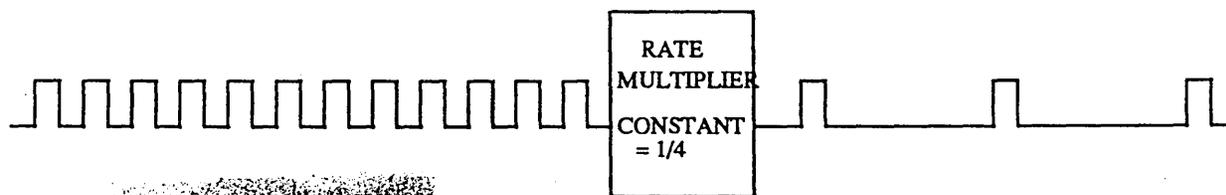


FIGURE 34.



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By changing the constant, the number of pulses can be changed. Thus, it is a matter of defining the constant in such a manner that it normalizes the clock to create a function which corrects in the same manner regardless of the clock frequency or the cell times. In this application the Rate Multiplier Constant (K) is defined to be the value which causes an eight bit counter to count from zero to 255 over the period of the 32 samples if every cell is exactly the length that it theoretically should be. Any deviance from this count of 255 can be interpreted as the amount of error per 256 clocks.

$$K = \frac{256}{64 \text{ COUNTS PER SAMPLE} * 32 \text{ SAMPLES}} = 1/8$$

OR IN GENERAL

$$K = \frac{256}{\text{DISTANCE BETWEEN CELLS IN } \mu\text{s} * \text{CLOCK FREQUENCY IN Mhz} * \# \text{ OF SAMPLES}}$$

Using 4 μs cells and a 16 MHz clock the factor
The rate multipliers are implemented in the following manner:

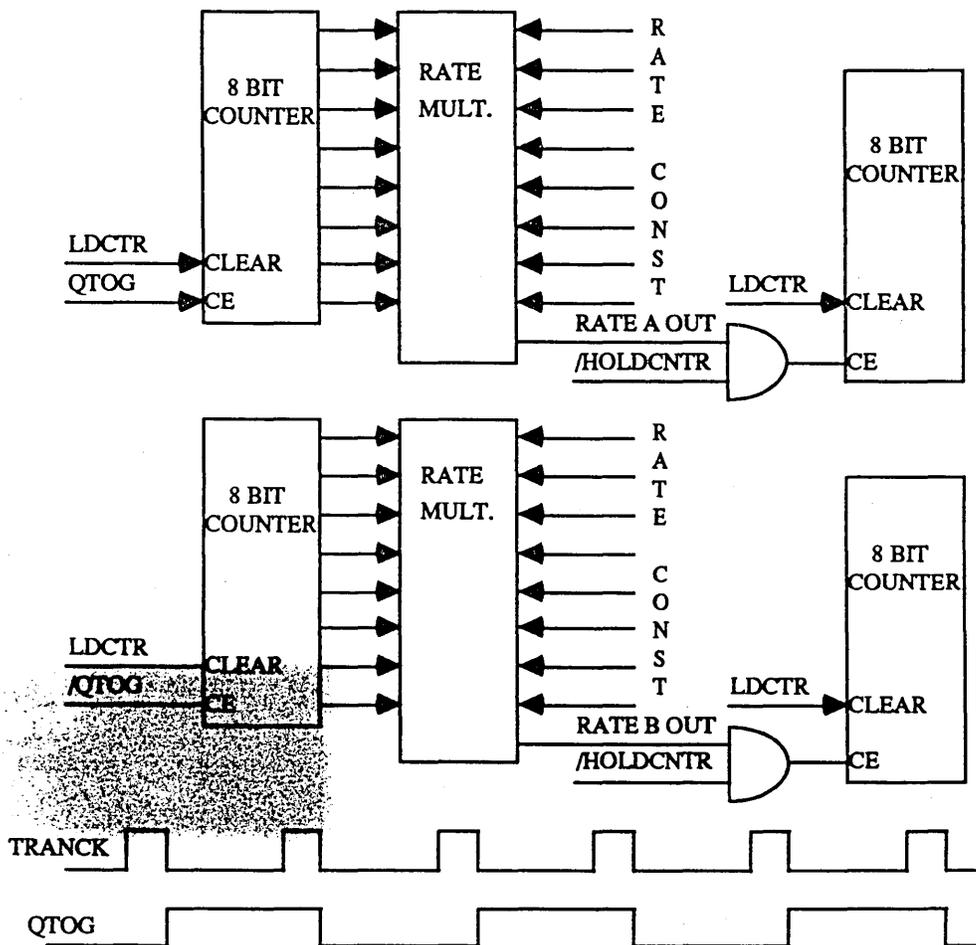


FIGURE 35



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The signal *Qtog* is used to determine whether the current cell is in the first or second half of the transition pair. The front end counters are used to count the number of clocks between each transition. These values are then scaled down by the Rate Constant (*K*) and used to count the 256 bit counter. Once the Correction State Machine has counted 32 pairs of minimum cells it will send out a signal called *Holdcntr* which will lock in the values of the correction. In the example used earlier the number of clocks per cell is 64 and $K = 1/8$. This implies that during every cell there will be $64/8 = 8$ rate clocks. This will cause the 256 bit counter to count 8 times during each cell which will create $8 * 32 = 256$ counts for every 32 cell sample. Now suppose that while *Qtog* is high there turns out to be 68 counts per cell, and while *Qtog* is low there turns out to be 60 counts per cell. In the first case this would imply $68/8 = 8.5$ counts on the 256 bit counter, per cell, which would imply a total count of $8.5 * 32 = 272$ counts. In the second case this would imply $60/8 = 7.5$ counts on the other 256 bit counter, per cell, which would yield an overall count of $7.5 * 32 = 240$. Once these numbers are obtained, the counters are held and these correction numbers are used to correct on all ensuing cells until a new set of "bytes of zeroes" is synched on. The amount of correction and the type of correction depends on which half of the cell pairs the current cell is a part of. The difference between these correction numbers and 256 represents the difference between ideal cell times and actual cell times. In practice the counter would not count past 255, but would instead start over at zero again and count up to 15. This number would then represent the number of clocks per 256 clocks by which the cell was too long. This can be compensated by skipping a count in the SCT counter 16 out of every 256 clocks. This will produce the effect of narrowing the cell to its proper width with respect to the SCT pulses. This can be accomplished using another Rate Multiplier whose multiplier is determined by the distance by which the count exceeded or came short of 256.

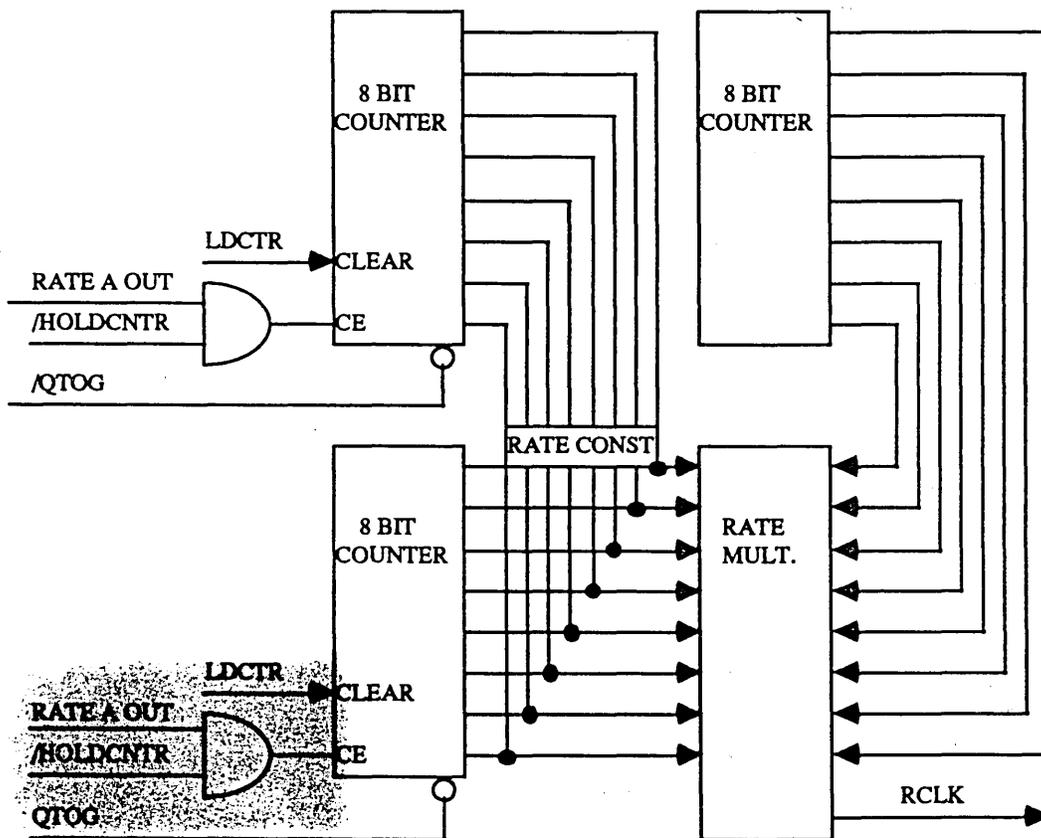


FIGURE 36.

In the case in which the count came up short to 240 counts the number available as the rate constant is 240. This will produce an Rclk which has 240 clocks per 256, but it desired to only have 16 clocks per 256 since the number came up short by only 16 counts. This can be obtained by merely inverting the rate signal which will produce the effect of having 16 clocks per 256. In this case since the count came up short, the cell times must be shorter than expected. Thus, it is desired to shorten the SCT pulses in order to keep the same relationship. This is accomplished by double counting when the rate clock occurs. An important point at this time is that when a skip or double count is generated in the SCT counter, there must also be a skip or double count in the counter which is used for this Rate Multiplier. This is necessary because extra skips can occur or fewer double counts can occur because the relative rates of the two clocks are different. The overall result of the Error Correction machine is that asymmetry in the in the two halves of a cell pair or a speed error in the drive can be corrected by determining a Correction Number which represents the error over a period of 32 samples. This number can then be used to correct the cell times on the remaining data to be read by causing the SCT counter to skip or double count to compensate for the improper cell times.

6.3.4 POST COMPENSATION

In the earlier discussion it was shown how the SCT pulses can be used to determine the length of the cells. In reality there are two counters used for accomplishing this. An SCT counter and an LCT counter. The SCT counter loads parameters which are calculated to represent a cell time which has a short cell following it (a 2 unit cell). While the LCT counter loads parameters which are calculated to represent a cell time which has a long cell following it (a 3 or 4 unit cell). This is done because of the effect of Peak Shift which can cause the transition to be delayed, occur early, or occur properly depending on what the current cell is and the next cell is going to be. The parameters loaded must also depend on the previous cell time because this can also cause the current cell time to vary in length due to the Peak Shift effects on the previous transition. Thus the counters have count regions as follows:

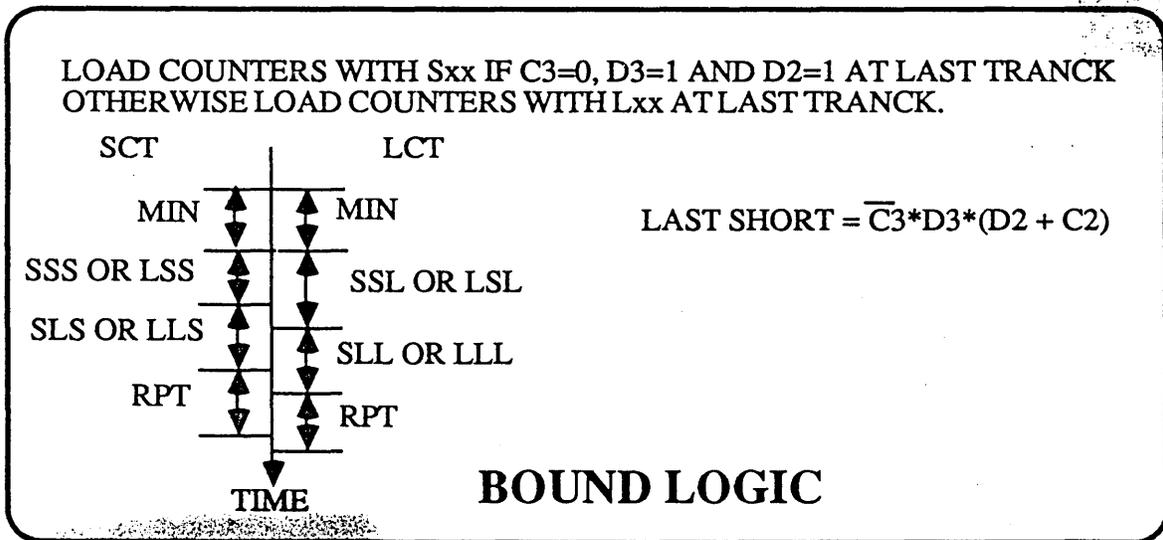


FIGURE 37.

Min represents the minimum for a cell time. If the transition occurs before Min occurs then an error is flagged that the transition is too narrow. If the transition occurs in the next region this indicates that the cell is a 2 unit cell. occurring in the next region implies a 3 unit cell, and occurring in the final region indicates a 4 unit cell. If the final SCT or LCT pulse called RPT occurs before the transition occurs then this indicates that the pulse was illegally long which will cause another error to be flagged. SLS stands for previous short, current long, next short while SLL stands for previous short, current long, next long. Whether or not the previous was short can be determined by looking at the shift register in the Sequence Resolver, which will be discussed shortly. therefore, if the previous is known to be short then all the



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parameters which assume a previous short can be loaded. The SCT counter will then load with a value which assumes that the next cell is going to be short, while the LCT counter will load with a value which assumes the next to be long. Where the different bounds become useful is when there is a marginal transition in which the transition occurs between the determining SCT and LCT pulse which causes an uncertainty in the cell time.

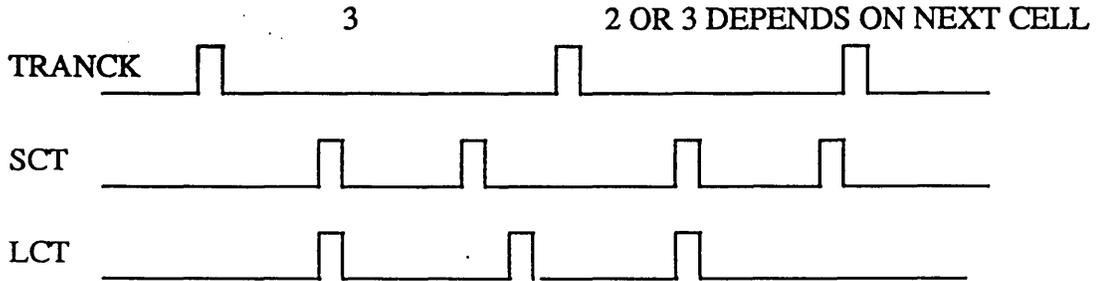


FIGURE 38.

By carrying both sets of information through the Sequence Resolver, the actual cell time can be resolved by shifting the information through a shift register which allows enough delay to make it possible to see what the next cell time is going to be. In the example above if the next cell is a 3 or 4 unit cell then the uncertain cell would be a 2, and if the next cell is a 2 unit cell the cell would be a 3. The Sequencer Resolver is shown in figure 39.

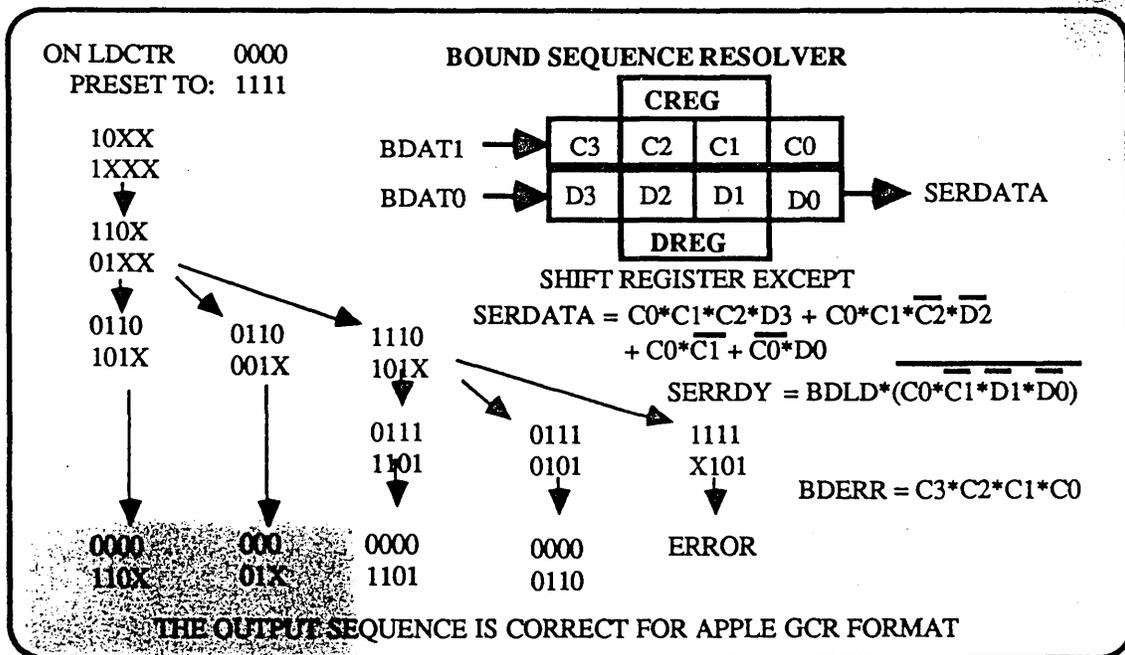


FIGURE 39.



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In general, the data is resolved by loading parameters based on whether the previous was long or short and then counting two bounds, one which assumes that the next is short, and one which assumes the next is long. If both machines generate the same number of SCT and LCT pulses between TranCk's then there is no question what the cell time is, but if the number of pulses differ as shown in figure 38 then the cell cannot be resolved until the next cell time is determined. If the next one is long then the data is resolved based on what the long counter considers the cell time to be, but if the next is short then the data is resolved based on what the short counter considers the cell time to be. The bits BDAT0 and BDAT1 are the information that is generated by the SCT and LCT machines.

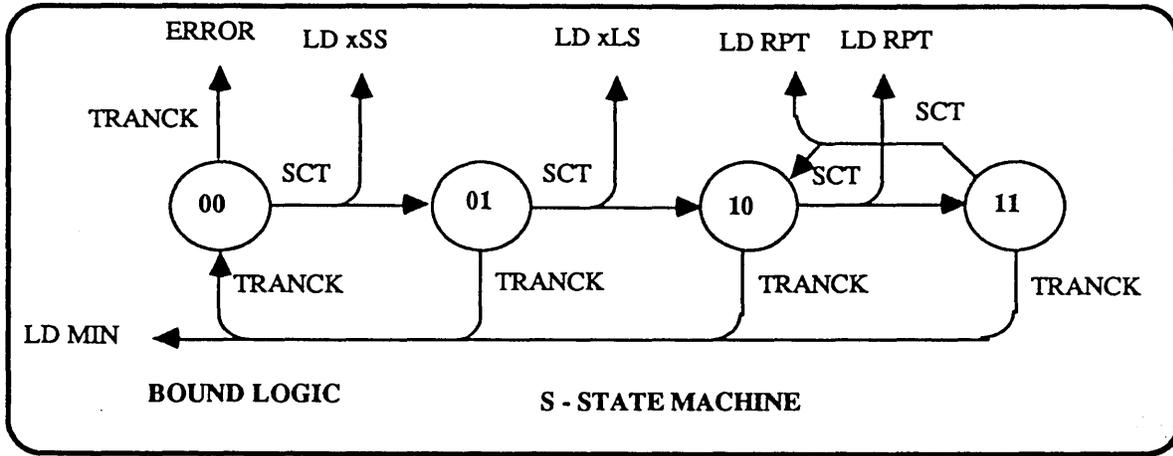


FIGURE 40.

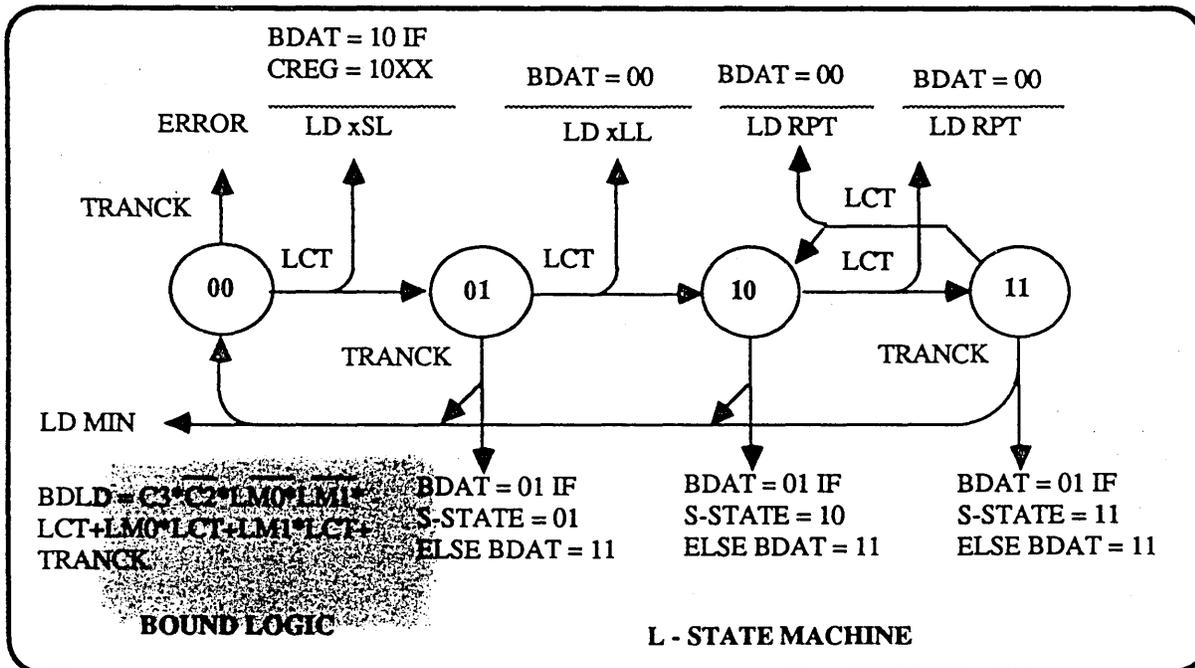


FIGURE 41.



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In order to understand the effect of BDAT which is generated based on the states of the S and L machines, a couple of examples will be shown which show how the different cell times are translated into the Serdata And Serrdy signals using the S, L, and Sequence Resolver machines.

Example 3:

Suppose that all the cells are non-marginal (the SCT and LCT machines are in the same state when the transition occurs). This would imply from the L-State Machine diagram that:

	2 UNIT CELL	3 UNIT CELL	4 UNIT CELL
BDAT1	0	0 0	0 0 0
BDAT0	1	1 0	1 0 0

This can be seen by studying the conditions for BDAT. Since the CREG is cleared to zeroes before the read process begins, and since the L machine and S machine are always in the same state at the transition, this is the only data that can possibly be generated. Looking up at the Sequence Resolver it can be seen that since C0 is always a zero the bits will just be shifted into and out of the Sequence Resolver at the same rate at which they are shifted in. Thus, the data coming out of the shift register will just be the BDAT information delayed by 4 clocks. Looking at the data in the above table, it can be seen that this is in the same form as the Trans-Space data that was used on the Write side. This implies that the data has been resolved into a recognizable digital pattern which can be resolved by going through an inverse Trans-Space process to produce the original data that was written.

Example 4:

Suppose in this case that there has been a string of non-marginal cells, then all of a sudden a marginal one occurs. This would create the following BDAT pattern.

BDAT1	1 0
BDAT0	1 0

Which implies the Sequencer Resolver bits will look like:

CREG	1 0 0 X
EREG	1 1 X X

On the next LCT a BDAT of 1 0 will be shifted into the register which will cause the Sequencer resolver bit to look like:

CREG	1 1 0 0
EREG	0 1 1 X

If the next cell turns out to be a non-marginal 2 unit cell this would imply

CREG	0 1 1 0
EREG	1 0 1 1

This would cause Serdata = 1 to be shifted out.

On the next shift

CREG	x 0 1 1
EREG	x 1 0 1

This would cause Serdata = 0 to be shifted out.

On the next shift

CREG	x x 0 1
EREG	x x 1 0

This would cause Serdata = 1 to be shifted out.

Thus the marginal cell was resolved to a 101 pattern which implies that it turned out to be a 3 unit cell. This makes sense because the next cell is a two unit cell which implies that the short counter is the correct one thus the cell must be a 3 instead of a 2 which was indicated by the long counter.

If instead the next cell following the marginal cell turned out to be a 3 unit cell this would imply:

```
CREG    0  1  1  0
EREG    0  0  1  1
```

This would cause Serdata = 1 to be shifted out.

followed by:

```
CREG    0  0  1  1
EREG    1  0  0  1
```

This would cause Serdata = 1 to be shifted out.

Thus the marginal cell in this case is resolved to be a 2 unit cell which makes sense because the longer bound would now be chosen which indicates that the cell is a 2 unit cell rather than a 3 unit cell.

In the Sequence Resolver (figure 39) the left hand side contains all the possible combinations of marginals which can occur and their desired resolution. It can be seen that two marginal cells can occur in a row, but any more than this will cause an error. In order to fully understand the Sequence Resolver it is necessary to study this diagram in great detail.

One important point before ending the discussion of the Sequence Resolver is the question of how to preset the parameters for the next cell if the previous is an uncertain 2 or 3 unit cell. What is done is to assume that the previous was a long and load the corresponding parameter. If the second LCT pulse occurs then the current must be long which implies that the previous must have actually been short. Thus, a special parameter is loaded for third LCT and SCT pulse which helps make up for the incorrect assumption. This parameter is determined in such a way that the pulse will occur in the location that it would have had the assumption that the previous was short had always been used.

6.3.5 DATA TRANSFORMATION

Once the data has been converted into Serdata, which was shown to be the Trans-Space data form, all that is required is to go through an inverse Trans-Space machine which can convert Serdata into the actual data. This machine is shown in figure 42.



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DATA TRANSFORMATION					
PREVIOUS DATA	CURRENT TRANS-SPACE	RESULT	PREVIOUS DATA	CURRENT TRANS-SPACE	RESULT
1	(1)	1	0	(1)	0
1	(01)	0	0	(01)	01
1	(001)	01	0	(001)	00

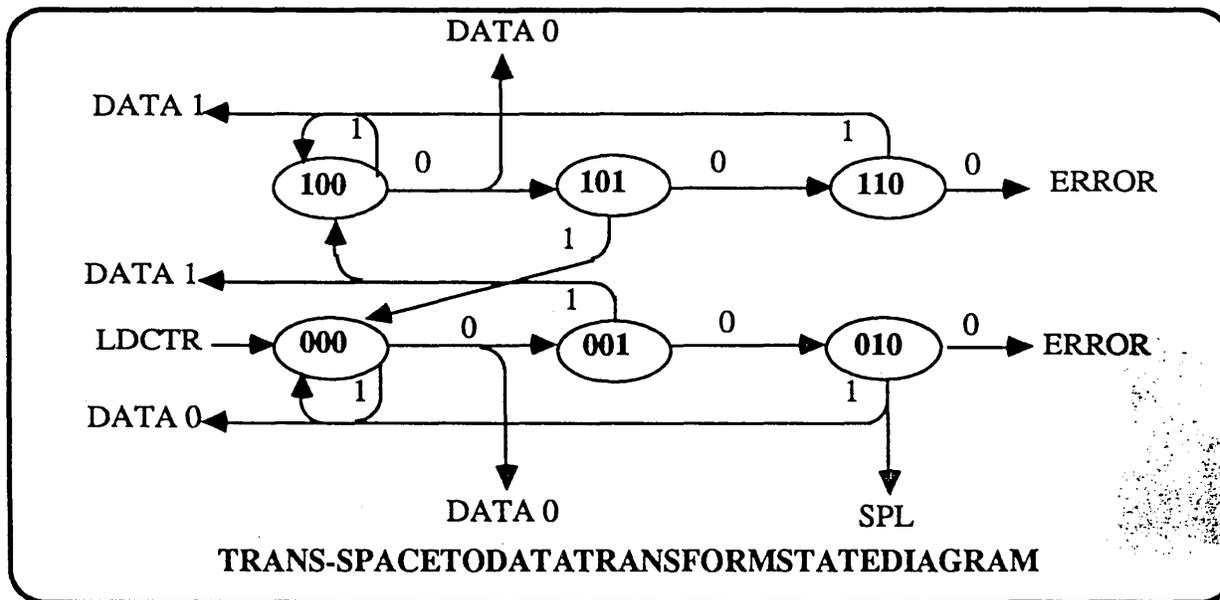


FIGURE 42.

The simplest way to understand the operation of this machine is to step through an example. In figure 4 it was shown what the MFM pattern would look like for the string of 0's followed by the A1 Mark byte. The corresponding Trans-Space pattern for this wave form would be:

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1

Since this is the pattern which is first dealt with once the Correction Machine locks up on the string of zeroes, it seems the most reasonable to use as an example. The first point that should be noted is that the string of Trans-Space 1's is interpreted to be a string of data 0's because the machine always assumes that what it is locking up on is a string of zeroes. If the Mark byte occurs **not** after the string of zeroes then it is known to be a valid assumption. If the Mark byte does **not** occur then the correction machine goes back into the state where it is looking for a string of zeroes. Looking at the table above it can be seen that the Trans-Space 1's represent data 0's since the previous data is assumed to be 0. The first non-minimum cell, a 01, will be interpreted as 01 data since the previous data bit was a 0. The next one will be a 001 with a previous data of 1 which will produce a data pattern of 01. Following this will be a 01 with a previous data of 1 which will cause a data 0. After this is 001 with a data 0 before it. This represents the Mark pattern since a 4 unit cell was preceded by a data bit 0. This then causes a Mark flag to become true which causes the Correction State machine to go into its final state and also causes the FIFO to start loading in the bytes as they are read. The Mark pattern will generate a 00 data pattern. The final Trans-Space data is a 01 which is preceded by a data 0. This will cause a data 01. Putting this all together in the data form will yield:



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0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1
 | STRING OF Zeroes | A1 MARK BYTE |

Thus the Trans-Space data has been transformed back into its proper data form.

6.4 OTHER MODES.

There are FOUR other modes in the chip which make it possible to gain more flexibility in dealing with different types of drives and different data types. These modes are the Drive Option mode, the GCR mode, Time Out mode, and another mode which brings out certain signals which can be used for future expansion..

6.4.1 DRIVE OPTION

In the discussion of the Write side it was shown that the data is written by toggling a pulse at increments of 2, 3, and 4 units apart.

APPLE TYPE DRIVE

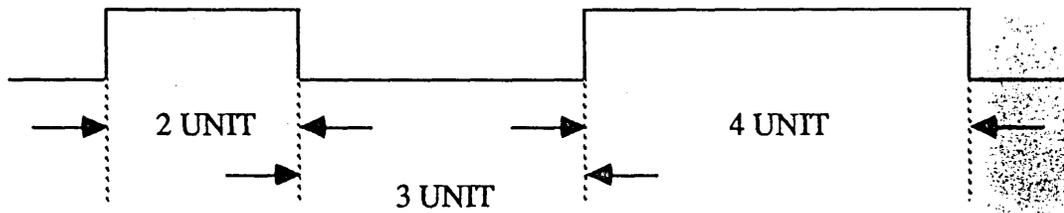


FIGURE 43.

This data pattern to the disk works fine for Apple standard drive, but for IBM type drives the wave form needs to consist of pulses spaced at 2, 3, and 4 units apart.

IBM TYPE DRIVE

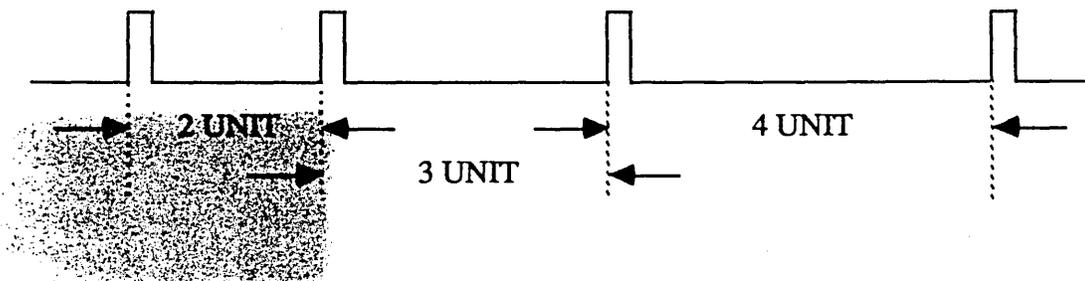


FIGURE 44.

Therefore a mode is added to the chip which makes it possible to get this type of Wrddata signal, so that it can be made possible to deal with both types of drives. This can be accomplished by delaying the the toggling Wrddata pulse, that is already generated, by 4 clocks when not Long (when not shifting by an extra half clock) or by 4 1/2 clocks when Long (extra half shift is desired).



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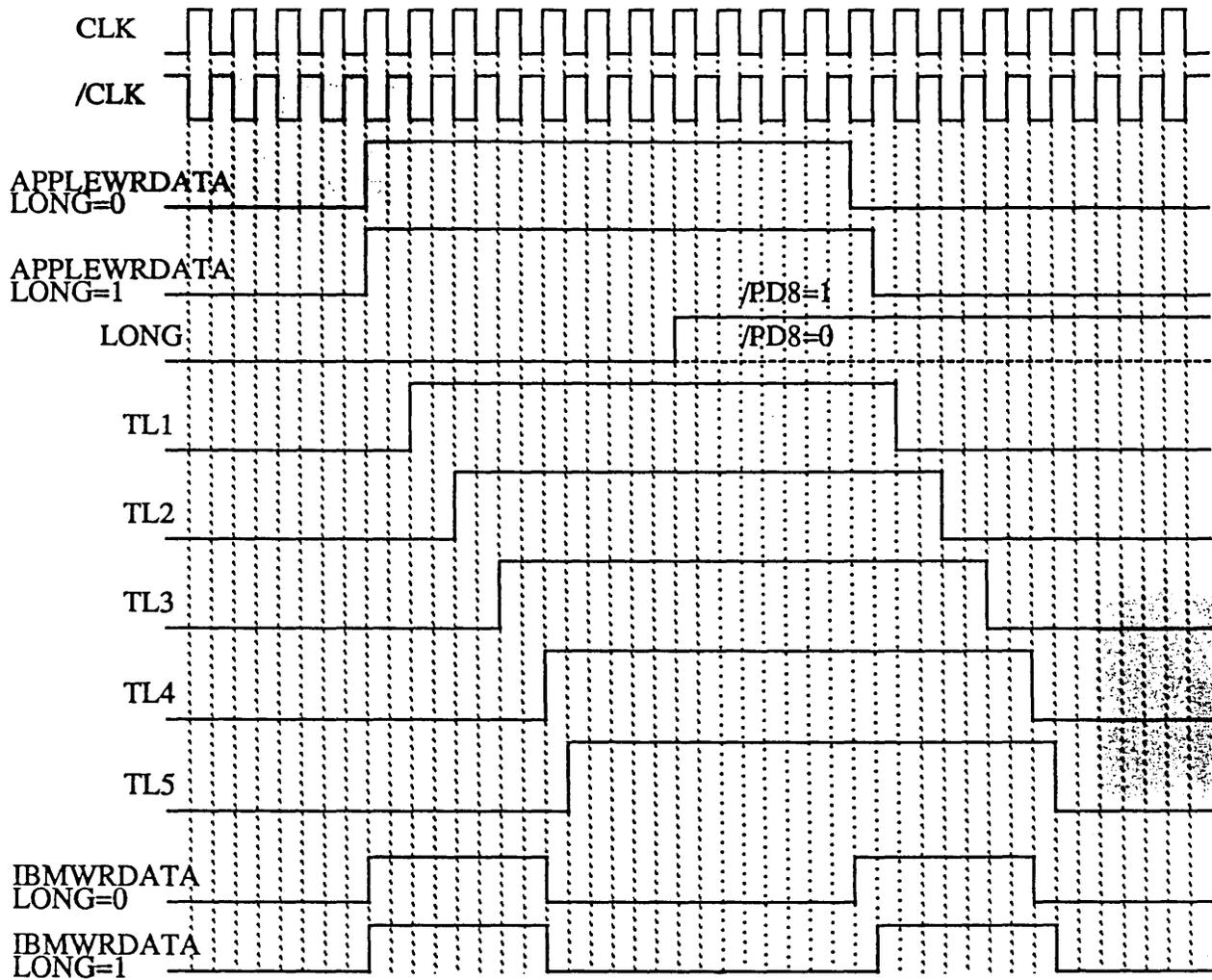
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$$\text{WRDATA} = \text{/TL4} * \text{WRDATA} * \text{/LONG} + \text{TL4} * \text{/WRDATA} * \text{/LONG} + \text{/TL5} * \text{WRDATA} * \text{LONG} + \text{TL5} * \text{/WRDATA} * \text{LONG}$$

FIGURE 45.

This delaying of WrdData makes it possible to create 4 clock wide pulses on each transition of the WrdData pulse. The trailing pulse can be delayed by half a clock to correspond to the WrdData being a half clock longer when Long is equal to one. When reading from an IBM style drive, the only difference is that the trailing edge of the Rddata pulse is the valid edge. This problem can be solved by simply inverting the Rddata pulse as it comes in.



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6.4.2 GCR

GCR stands for Group Code Recording. There are many variations to GCR patterns, but the one of interest here is the Apple GCR formats. Apple GCR format consists of patterns of data bytes which always have a leading bit one and whose ones never have more than two zeroes between them.

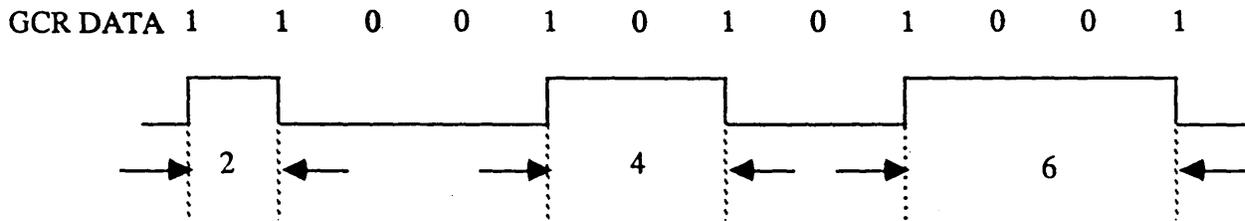


FIGURE 46.

Looking at the data pattern it is easy to see that the GCR data is the same as the Trans-Space data pattern. The only difference is that the cell times are 2, 4, and 6 units long instead of the 2, 3, and 4 unit cells that are used in MFM. Thus, it is possible to write the GCR pattern by merely bypassing the Trans-Space machine since the data is already in Trans-Space form. The only other thing that needs to be done is to set Time1 = Time 0 when calculating the parameters. This will produce the different set of cell times.

Reading the GCR pattern is slightly more complicated. Since the GCR sector format does not contain the bytes of zeroes, it is not possible to synchronism up on the beginning of a sector using the Correction State Machine. This also means that it is not possible to obtain any symmetry information using the Error Correction machine, therefore it is not possible to do any correction for asymmetry or disk speed error. The beginning of a GCR sector consists of a string of ones followed by two zeroes, as follows:

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

This pattern can be synched on in the following manner. Since the Bytes of Zeroes do not exist as in the MFM pattern, the Correction State Machine is always set to the 1 1 1 state. This means that everything will always get passed on to the Shift Register. The data can be Resolved into the Trans-Space pattern using the SCT and LCT machines in the same manners as was done for reading MFM data. Which means that all the Post-Comp mechanisms will still work. The only thing that needs to be done differently is to calculate the parameters based on the different cell times. Now, since the Trans-Space data is actually the same as the GCR data, the transformation machine can be bypassed and the data can go straight into the Shift Register. Every time that the high bit in the shift register becomes a 1, the shift register will transfer the byte of data into the FIFO and will clear all its bits to zero. This makes it possible to sync to the above string of ones. For example, suppose the first bit shifted into the shift register is the fifth 1 in the first string of ones above.

1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

On the next byte it will sync on the third 1, and on the following byte it will sync on the leading 1. From here on out it will always sync on the leading 1 since the byte is only transferred to the FIFO when the leading bit is a 1. The first byte after the sync pattern and all other GCR bytes will always have a leading 1 which will make it possible to remain synched on the leading bit of each byte of data. The bytes can then be transferred to the processor were it must sort out the data from the Group Code pattern.



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6.4.3 TIME OUT

The chip can be put into Time Out mode by setting a bit in the Setup Register. This mode causes the Drive Enable signals to remain active for 1/2 s (at 16 Mhz) when the Motoron bit is shut off. This makes it possible to begin another Read or Write operation, within this time frame, without having to bring the drive back up to speed.

6.5 REGISTERS.

* INDICATES WILL CLEAR ON RESET

A processor can communicate with the ISM via sixteen eight bit registers. These registers provide all the status plus the modes which must be setup for reading or writing data from a disk.

6.5.1 DATA/CORR REGISTER \$0 READ/WRITE

The data register is the location where data is read from or written to the FIFO. If a Mark byte is read from this location an error will occur. A read from this location when Action is not set will provide the two bytes of Error Correction information. The register is setup to toggle between the two bytes on successive reads thus providing both bytes of information. If there is still valid data to be read when Action is not set, it can be read by reading the Mark Register.

6.5.2 MARK REGISTER \$1 READ/WRITE

This location is used for reading and writing Mark bytes. Writing to this location will cause the missing transition between the two zeroes to occur. Reading from this location will allow a Mark byte to be read without causing an error.

6.5.3 ERROR REGISTER \$2 READ

This location provides information on the type of error that has occurred. If any of these bits become set, an error flag will be set in the Handshake Register. Once any error has become set no other error can be set until the register is cleared. Reading the register will cause the register to clear or a reset will cause the register to clear. This register must be cleared prior to beginning a read or write operation.

* DATA BIT 0 = 1 UNDERRUN FIFO

In Write mode this error indicates that the FIFO is being Underrun by the processor. In other words, the FIFO is empty and the processor has not acknowledged the handshake by writing another byte. In read mode this error indicates that the FIFO has two bytes to be read, but the processor is not reading them fast enough.

* DATA BIT 1 = 1 MARK IN DATA

This error indicates that a byte which was read from the Data location was a Mark byte.

* DATA BIT 2 = 1 OVERRUNFIFO

In write mode this bit indicates that the processor is writing faster than the FIFO is requesting bytes. In read mode this bit indicates that the processor is reading bytes faster than they are available.

* DATA BIT 3 = 1 CORRECTION ERROR

This bit indicates that the correction number obtained in the Error Correction Machine is so large that the error cannot be corrected for.



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RAM ADDRESS	PARAMETER
0 0 0 0	MIN CELL TIME
0 0 0 1	CORRECTION MULTIPLIER
0 0 1 0	SSL
0 0 1 1	SSS
0 1 0 0	SLL
0 1 0 1	SLS
0 1 1 0	RPT
0 1 1 1	CSLS
1 0 0 0	LSL
1 0 0 1	LSS
1 0 1 0	LLL
1 0 1 1	LLS
1 1 0 0	LATE/NORM
1 1 0 1	TIME 0
1 1 1 0	EARLY/NORM
1 1 1 1	TIME 1

6.5.6 PHASE REGISTER

\$4 READ/WRITE

This register is used to read and write the phase lines which are used to control or read status from the disk drive. There are four phase lines which can independently be programmed as either inputs or outputs depending on the state of the other four bits. The Phase lines default to outputs on Reset.

- * DATA BIT 0 is used to set the polarity of the PHASE 0 line when programmed as an output.
- * DATA BIT 1 is used to set the polarity of the PHASE 1 line when programmed as an output.
- * DATA BIT 2 is used to set the polarity of the PHASE 2 line when programmed as an output.
- * DATA BIT 3 is used to set the polarity of the PHASE 3 line when programmed as an output.

DATA BIT 4 = 0 Indicates that the PHASE 0 line is an input.

DATA BIT 4 = 1 Indicates that the PHASE 0 line is an output.

DATA BIT 5 = 0 Indicates that the PHASE 1 line is an input.

DATA BIT 5 = 1 Indicates that the PHASE 1 line is an output.

DATA BIT 6 = 0 Indicates that the PHASE 2 line is an input.

DATA BIT 6 = 1 Indicates that the PHASE 2 line is an output.

DATA BIT 7 = 0 Indicates that the PHASE 3 line is an input.

DATA BIT 7 = 1 Indicates that the PHASE 3 line is an output.



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6.5.7 SETUP REGISTER

\$5 READ/WRITE

This register is used to set the chip into its various modes. This register will reset to all zeroes when a Reset occurs.

- * DATA BIT 0 = 0 Will cause Q3/HEDSEL pin to be an input.
DATA BIT 0 = 1 Will cause Q3/HEDSEL pin to be an output.
 - * DATA BIT 1 = 0 3.5 not selected.
DATA BIT 1 = 1 3.5 selected.
 - * DATA BIT 2 = 0 Normal operation.
DATA BIT 2 = 1 Sets the chip into GCR mode.
 - * DATA BIT 3 = 0 Normal operation.
DATA BIT 3 = 1 Causes the internal clock frequency to be divided by two.
 - * DATA BIT 4 = 0 Disables the Error Correction Machine.
DATA BIT 4 = 1 Enables the Error Correction Machine.
 - * DATA BIT 5 = 0 Sets up the read and write signals for a Apple type drive.
DATA BIT 5 = 1 Sets up the read and write signals for a IBM type drive.
 - * DATA BIT 6 = 0 Normal operation.
DATA BIT 6 = 1 Causes the read and write Trans-Space logic to be bypassed. This bit must be set whenever the GCR modes is set.
 - * DATA BIT 7 = 0 Will produce no time out in turning off the Motoron bit.
DATA BIT 7 = 1 Causes the Motoron bit to stay on for ~ 1/2 s (at 16 Mhz) after it is disabled.
- TEST MODE = Bit 2 = 1 and Bit 4 = 1. This combination should always be avoided!

6.5.8 HANDSHAKE REGISTER

\$7 READ

DATA BIT 0 = 1 MARK

Indicates that the next byte to be read from the FIFO is a Mark byte

DATA BIT 1 = 0 CRC ZERO

Indicates that the CRC Register became all zeroes when the second CRC byte passed through the register. This bit is valid when the second CRC byte is the next to be read from the FIFO.

DATA BIT 2 Is used to read the Rddata signal from the drive.

DATA BIT 3 Is used to read the Sense status signal from the drive.

DATA BIT 4 This bit is a one if bit 7 of the Mode register is a one or if the timeout counter is timing out.



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DATA BIT 5 = 1 ERROR

Indicates that one of the bits in the Error Register has been set to a one. This bit is cleared by reading the Error Register.

DATA BIT 6 = 1 DAT2BYTES

In write mode this bit indicates that there are two bytes of available space in the FIFO. In read mode this bit indicates that there are two bytes to be read from the FIFO.

DATA BIT 7 = 1 DAT1BYTE

In write mode this bit indicates that there is one byte of available space in the FIFO. In read mode this bit indicates that there is one bit to be read from the FIFO.

6.5.9 MODE REGISTER \$6 WRITE ZEROES \$7 WRITE ONES

This register is used to set the various status bits of the chip. A bit can be set to zero by writing to the Write Zeroes location with the corresponding bit set to a one. A bit can be set to a one by writing to the Write Ones location with the corresponding bit set to a one. This Scheme is used in order to make it possible to modify a particular bit without have to re-write the entire register. The register is cleared to zeroes when a Reset occurs. The Action bit will be cleared any time there is any Error while writing.

- * DATA BIT 0 = 0 Normal operation
- DATA BIT 0 = 1

This bit is used to clear the FIFO. This bit must be set and then cleared on successive operations. Read or Write mode must be set prior to setting this bit since the FIFO will clear to opposite states depending upon whether a write or read operation is about to take place.

- * DATA BIT 1 = 0 Drive 1 not enabled.
- DATA BIT 1 = 1 Drive 1 enabled

- * DATA BIT 2 = 0 Drive 2 not enabled.
- DATA BIT 2 = 1 Drive 2 enabled.

- * DATA BIT 3 = 0 Action not set.
- DATA BIT 4 = 1 Action set.

This bit is used to start the read and write operation. This bit should only be set after everything else has been setup. When writing, two bytes of data should be written into the FIFO prior to setting this bit in order for there to be something in the FIFO to start shifting immediately, rather than having an extra byte of garbage shifted onto the disk. This bit will automatically clear if an error occurs while in write mode, but will not automatically clear if an error occurs while in read mode.

- * DATA BIT 4 = 0 Sets the chip into Read mode.
- DATA BIT 4 = 1 Sets the chip into Write mode.

- DATA BIT 5 = 0 Selects side 0 on the Drive.
- DATA BIT 5 = 1 Selects side 1 on the Drive.



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DATA BIT 6 = 1 This bit is reserved for future expansion and will always read back a

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* DATA BIT 7 = 0 Motoron disabled.

DATA BIT 7 = 1 Causes the Enable 1 and Enable 2 signals to be turned on to the drive. This bit must not be cleared until after the Action bit is cleared and must be set prior to setting Action

6.5.10 READ STATUS REGISTER \$6 READ

This register is used to read back the status of the Mode register.

6.6 IWM

The primary purpose of the IWM is to allow a microprocessor to read and write serial GCR (group code) encoded data. The IWM may be controlled by setting state bits and reading or writing registers. Setting a state bit and accessing a register are done simultaneously. The registers are the mode register, the status register, the write handshake register, the read data register, and the write data register. The modes selected by the mode register include synchronous or asynchronous mode and slow or fast mode.

The data format is an 8 bit nibble with the MSB set. The MSB of the 8 bit data nibble is shifted in or written out first. A bit is transferred every bit cell time. The bit cell time defaults to 4 μ s (set to 2 μ s in fast mode). Therefore the data rate is one nibble every 32 μ s (16 μ s in fast mode). When writing data out, a one is written as a transition on the WRDATA output at a bit cell boundary time and zero is written as no transition.

The IWM is put into the write state by a transition from the write protect sense state to the write load state. In the synchronous mode, the time of that transition and every 8 Q3 periods (4 μ s) thereafter, until L7 is cleared, marks the beginning of a write window. The duration of the write window is 4 periods of the Q3 input signal (2 μ s). The data written at the last write access occurring within this write window will load the shift register with the data to be shifted out. If the next write access has not occurred 32 μ s (64 Q3 periods) after a load, the write will be extended in multiples of 4 μ s (8 Q3 periods) until another write access, and zeroes will be shifted out.

In synchronous mode, Q3 clock input is used internally to generate the 32 and 40 μ s timings, which would then be 64 and 80 of the Q3 clock input periods in duration, respectively, and the bit cell timings, 8 Q3 periods per bit cell time in slow mode.

In asynchronous mode the write shift register is buffered and, when the buffer is empty, the IWM sets the MSB of the write-handshake register to a one to indicate that the next data nibble can be written to the buffer. The buffer register may be written at any time during the write state. Only the data last written into the buffer register, before the contents of the buffer register is transferred to the write shift register, is used.

In asynchronous mode CLK is used to generate the bit cell timings. In fast mode the CLK clock is equivalent to the clock input on FLCK. In slow mode CLK is equivalent to the clock input on FCLK divided by two. Therefore, in 7M and slow mode the bit cell time will be 28 FCLK clock input periods in duration, in 8M and slow mode the cell time will be 32 periods, and in 8M and fast mode the cell time will be 16 periods. In asynchronous mode the write shift register is loaded every 8 bit cell times starting seven CLK periods after the write state begins.

An underrun occurs when data has not been written to the buffer register between the time the write-handshake bit indicates an empty buffer and the time the buffer is transferred to the write shift-register. If an underrun occurs in asynchronous mode WRREQ will be disabled (set to a TTL high state) and the underrun flag will be set to zero. This occurrence can be detected by reading the write-handshake register before clearing state bit L7. Clearing state bit L7 will reset the underrun flag.



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When L6 and L7 are both zero the IWM is in the read state. When reading serial data, a falling transition within a bit cell window is considered to be a one, and no falling transition within a bit cell window is considered to be a zero. The receive data input on RDDATA is synchronized internally with the CLK clock. The synchronized falling transition is then discriminated to the nearest bit cell window using the 7/8 MHz FCLK clock signal in fast mode and the FCLK signal divided by two in slow mode. A digital one-shot data recovery scheme is used. Every falling transition establishes the bit cell windows, used by the data separator in the IWM to recover the following bits, until another falling transition is received.

The B revision adds windowing such that after falling transition of RDDATA there is a window during which subsequent falling transitions are ignored. In 8M FAST mode this window is 6 FCLK periods, while in 7M FAST mode it is 5 FCLK periods. For SLOW mode the windowing is twice as long. Since RDDATA is synchronized to FCLK in FAST mode there is one FCLK uncertainty as to whether a transition is within the window or not. In SLOW mode this uncertainty is 2 FCLK periods. Thus for 8M FAST mode a falling transition spaced less than 750ns will be ignored, those between 750ns and 875ns will sometimes be ignored, and those greater than 875ns will be described. For 7M SLOW mode a falling transition spaced less than 1.4 μs will be ignored, those between 1.4 μs and 1.68 μs will sometimes be ignored, and those greater than 1.68 μs will be detected.

In the read state the data is shifted into the LSB of the shift register, and the shift register shifts data from LSB to MSB. A full data nibble is considered to be shifted in when a one is shifted into the MSB. When a full data nibble is shifted into the internal shift register, the data will be latched by the read data register and the shift register will be cleared to all zeros so that it will then be ready to shift in the next data word.

In the synchronous mode the shift register is readable in any intermediate state with this exception: when a one is shifted into the MSB, the shift register will appear, to the data bus, to be stalled for a period of two bit times plus four CLK periods. This is to allow the host processor time to poll the MSB to determine when data is valid. In asynchronous mode the data register will latch the shift register when a one is shifted into the MSB and will be cleared 14 FCLK periods (about 2 μs) after a valid data read takes place (a valid data read being defined as both DEV being low and D7 (the msb) outputting a one from the data register for at least one FCLK period).

The data separator in the IWM discriminates between ones and zeroes when reading. Nclks is the number of clock period is either that of the FCLK input or that of the FCLK input divided by two in slow mode. Each falling transition resets the read data windows for subsequent data to be relative to that transition. The data patterns noted above are the bit patterns that are shifted in as a result of the transitions and the absence of transitions in their respective windows.

In port operation, which is asynchronous mode true and latch mode false with DEV held low indefinitely, read data will appear and change as if the IWM were being continually read. In port operation the MSB can be used continuously clock data in external registers. The MSB will be cleared at least six FCLK periods before being set. Except in port operation, in asynchronous mode the latch mode bit should be set (for reliability in cleaning the data register after a read).

Data written to the IWM is sampled by the zero to one transition of the logical OR of Q3 and DEV. In asynchronous mode the Q3 input may be tied low.

6.7 REGISTER DESCRIPTION:

6.7.1 STATE REGISTER

This is an 8-bit write-only pseudo-register. The bits in this register are individually addressed by A3, A2, A1. The data on A0 is latched into the addressed state bit by DEV low. All eight state bits are reset to 0 by RESET low.



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Not only do the state bits control certain chip functions and outputs, the setting of two of the state bits L6 and L7, and Motor-On, internally select which register to be selected and whether the operation is to be read or a write. In an operation occurs that changes the state of one of these bits to a new state, the new state will select the register to be accessed during that operation and whether that operation is to be read or write.

ADDRESS	NAME	FUNCTION
0		A 1 in this bit will drive PHASE0 to a high state.
1		PHASE 1
2		PHASE 2
3		PHASE 3
4	LMotor-On	A 1 on LMotor-On sets the enable selected below low.
5	Drive-Sel	A 1 on this bit selects ENBL2; a 0 selects ENBL 1.
6	L6	(see description below)
7	L7	(see description below)

The state bits L7 and L6, and Motor-On, select which register is available to be read or written. Other registers are read during any operation in which A0 is a zero. A register is written when both L6 and L7 are set or are being set to 1 and A0 is a one.

L7	L6	Motor-On	Register Operation Selected	State Name
0	0	0	read all ones	
0	0	1	read data register	Read
0	1	X	read status register	Write-Protect Sense
1	0	X	read write-handshake register	Write
1	1	0	write mode register	Mode Set
1	1	1	write data register	Write Load

6.7.2 MODE REGISTER (a write only register) All eight mode bits are reset to 0 by RESET low.

BIT	FUNCTION
LSB 0	1 = latch mode (should be set in asynchronous mode)
1	0 = synchronous handshake protocol; 1 = asynchronous
2	0 = 1 -second on board timer enable; 1 = timer disable
3	0 = slow mode; 1 = fast mode (2 μ s bit cell descriptor)
4	0 = 7MHz; 1 = 8MHz (7 or 8 MHz clock descriptor)
5	1 = test mode; 0 = normal operation
6	1 = MZ - reset
MSB 7	reserved for future expansion

In latch mode the msb of the read data is latched internally during DEV low (this internally latched msb is the used for the determination of a valid data read). If the 1-second timer bit is a zero then the enable (ENBL 1 or ENBL 2) selected by Drive-Sel will be held low for $2^{23} + 100$ FLCK periods (about 1 second) after the LMotor-On state bit is reset to zero. If the latch mode bit is set the timer is not guaranteed to count up to 2^{23} . Motor-On is synonymous with either ENBL1 or ENBL2 being low.



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Fast mode selects a bit cell time of 2 μ s instead of 4 μ s. The 7/8 MHz descriptor indicates whether the input clock (FCLK) is to be divided by 7 or 8 to provide 1 μ s internal timings.

When the test mode bit is a 1, device operation is unspecified, except that status register bit 5 can always be read and that the mode register can always be set.

6.7.3 STATUS REGISTER (a read only register)

BIT	FUNCTION
0-4	same as mode register
5	1 = either ENBL1 or ENBL2 is currently active (low)
6	1 = MZ (reset to 0 by RESET and MZ-reset)
7	1 = SENSE input high; 0 = SENSE input low

The MZ bit is reserved for compatibility with future products and should always be read as a zero.

6.7.4 HANDSHAKE REGISTER (a ready only register)

BIT	FUNCTION
0-5	reserved for future use (currently read as ones)
6	1 = write state (cleared to 0 if a write underrun occurs)
7	1 = write data buffer register ready for data

6.7.5 DATA REGISTER

The operation of the data register depends on the setting of state bit L6 and L7 and on the synchronous mode bit. With L6 and L7 clear, the data register operates as a read data register. With L7 set the data register operates in the write state as a write data buffer.



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